Background Paper

Preparing Youth for the Transition to Work

mastercard foundation

Secondary Education in Africa:

PREPARING YOUTH FOR THE FUTURE OF WORK

Background Paper on Preparing Youth for the Transition to Work

laterite

DATA | RESEARCH | ADVISORY

From data to policy

www.laterite.com

Table of Contents

Table of Figures

Abbreviations

AK	Akazi Kanoze
AK2	Akazi Kanoze 2
APTE	The Projet de l'amélioration des performances de travail et d'entreprenariat
CBC	Competency Based Curriculum
EDC	Education Development Centre
GE	General Electric
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IYF	International Youth Foundation
KEPSA	Kenya Private Sector Alliance
KICD	Kenya Institute for Curriculum Development
KYEP	Kenya Youth Employment Project
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
REB	Rwanda Education Board
S4YE	Solutions for Youth Employment
STS	School-to-School International
TECC	Tanzanian Entrepreneurship and Competitiveness Centre
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education & Training
USAID	The United States Agency for International Development
VETA	Vocational Education and Training Authority (Tanzania)
WBL	Work Based Learning
WRN!	Work Ready Now!
WDA	Workforce Development Authority

Acknowledgements & Authorship

Executive Summary

This situational analysis is about school to work transitions (SWT) in the sub-Saharan African context. We focus in particular on the transition from secondary education to work, including both general secondary education and secondary-level Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET). Secondary education is often framed as a conduit into tertiary education, but for many youths it is not. It is the last step in their educational trajectory, before or during which they make the transition to work. This study is about how to best prepare youth enrolled in secondary school to transition to work and navigate a pathway to an employment trajectory that eventually leads to an improved livelihood. We aim to provide a framework to structure thinking around school to work transitions, outline the context, identify the scope of and gaps in the knowledge base, and provide recommendations to guide future programming and policy on school to work transitions.

By preparing youth for the transition to work, we are referring to the set of skills required to *find* a job that can help youth improve their livelihoods. This is different from the mix of technical and soft skills that might be required to *succeed* in a job. In this study we reflect on the actual *process* of finding a job and the skills needed to succeed in that *process*, in both the formal and informal sectors. We do not deal with the question of supply of jobs – and job creation – which in sub-Saharan Africa today is one of the most pressing challenges of this generation.

The main contribution of this analysis is *to synthesize and structure what we know* about the under-researched topic of how to equip the growing population of secondary-school youth with the set of skills they need to find a job, within the context of a very challenging and informal job-market. This study is informed by a structured review of the academic literature on school to work transitions, case-studies on exemplary school to work initiatives, an analysis of national education and employment datasets, and key informant interviews in four different contexts: Senegal, Ethiopia, Kenya and Rwanda.

We define a successful school to work transition as a process in which youth acquire the skills to make decisions in their job search that maximize their options and enables them to start an employment trajectory that improves their livelihood.

Context

The target population of this situational analysis is youth currently enrolled in secondary education in sub-Saharan African countries. Both gross and net enrolment levels in secondary school across sub-Saharan Africa are low. Net enrolment was estimated at 33.5% on average in

2016 based on data from 13 countries, gross enrolment at 42.6%[1]. The majority of youth enrolled in secondary school are aged 15 or above, with a large proportion of secondary school students are above the expected age for secondary school. There is a disconnect in the secondary education system between age and grade, with high age variation within grades. Transitions from secondary school into work happen at both the lower and upper secondary school levels. In some countries we observe a large drop in enrolment rates between lower and upper secondary education.

Most transitions to work happen during or after primary or secondary school, depending on the country. Only a minority of youth continue to tertiary education, including university or tertiary-level technical or vocational training.

The United Nations Sustainable Development Goals prioritize universal secondary education as part of the global development agenda. Enrolment in secondary school has increased rapidly across sub-Saharan Africa and it is poised to further increase over the next decade (in 1998 net enrolment in secondary education was 19%, compared to 33.5% in 2016). As increasing numbers of youth enrol in secondary education, and with limited capacity for all to continue into tertiary education, there will inevitably be more youth transitioning from secondary school directly into the labour market. As a result, secondary education systems increasingly have a role to play in training youth to make the transition to work.

This role of secondary schools as a conduit to work is a considerable shift from the traditional view of secondary education, particularly general secondary schools, which are seen as a path to tertiary education or TVET education. Recently however, there has been a push in many countries to make secondary education more relevant to employment. For example, Senegal, Rwanda, Ethiopia, and Kenya among others are in various stages of transitioning to a competency-based curriculum. There have also been more targeted changes in which countries have specifically integrated entrepreneurship training and SWT skills into secondary school curriculum. However, it is also important to note that for the vast majority of youth in sub-Saharan Africa today the school to work transition begins as early as the primary education level, as they will drop out of the education system and seek work even before enrolling at the secondary level. This trend is not forecasted to change in the short term and will need to be acknowledged to better serve SWT programming in the future.

Secondary education is not living up to its promise of better livelihoods for youth. There is currently a mismatch between youth aspirations and the hard reality of the job market. Many youth in secondary school aspire to have a salaried and formal sector job, and view secondary education as a path to this goal; yet the supply of formal sector jobs is extremely low. There is a gap between the size of the formal sector in most countries and the size of each

---

[1] Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2016, as reported by World Bank Data

youth cohort entering the job market. Some examples from our focus countries highlight the scale of the problem. For example, there are more youth turning 18 in Rwanda every two years (approximately 250,000 youth per year[2]) than there are formal sector jobs in the economy (approximately 500,000 in 2017[3]). In Kenya there were about 2.8 million formal sector jobs in the economy in 2017 (out of 16.9 million jobs in total), compared to almost 1 million youth turning 18 each year, a ratio of about 3 to 1 (KNBS, 2017)[4]. In Nigeria, the continent's most populated country, the economy created an estimated 1.6 million formal sector jobs between Q3 2013 and Q3 2016 (over the span of 3 years)[5]. This compares to about 9 million youth turning 18 in Nigeria over the same period of time. The formal job market is also increasingly concentrated in urban hubs, which implies that the question of rural-to-urban migration will be central to many of the trajectories from school to work.

Agriculture and the informal sector (or "household enterprises") are still the predominant career path for many youth in Africa, and will continue to be for the foreseeable future. Facilitating the transition of secondary school youth into informal sector jobs and/or self-employment will be key to the success of future school to work transition strategies.

Key barriers to making the transition to work

There are a variety of barriers to youth successfully making the transition to work, ranging from a lack of particular skills, features of the job search process itself, or features of the context or environment. Key barriers to youth accessing the job market, or those aiming for self-employment or entrepreneurship include:

- Fluency in an international language or the local business language, like English, French or Swahili not only helps youth in performing their jobs, but also help them in finding jobs, since a lot of hiring processes require interviews to be conducted in the prevalent business language in the given country.
- Significant costs associated with the process of finding a job, including using the internet to apply for work online, printing forms or CVs, or searching for information about potential employment opportunities. These expenses can make the job search process a costly affair, especially for the poor. Substantial intra- and inter-regional transportation costs add a geographical dimension to this issue and especially constrain the job search process of rural youth.

---

[2] National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR), Population projections, 2012, based on 2012 Population and Housing Census
[3] National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR), Labour Force Survey February 2017 report, September 2017
[4] Author's calculations based on KNBS population projections
[5] Nigeria Bureau of Statistics, Data Portal

- Accessing finance also remains a big hurdle for youth while looking for jobs or planning for self-employment. Traditional sources of finance like banks tend to shy away from lending to small businesses, especially to the younger sections of the population. While alternative sources like microfinance show promise, they are unable to function at the same scale as public or private banks.
- The fact that youth are navigating the school to work transitions alongside other major life transitions, including starting a family, developing financial and personal independence, navigating risky behaviours (for example, drinking or smoking), and exercising citizenship (for example, voting and participating in community groups) (Filmer & Fox, 2014).
- In many contexts there is a lack of trust between job-seekers and employers. This issue was highlighted across various key informant interviews, and can stem from different underlying systemic problems, such as corruption or issues of governance.
- Youth also lack information and knowledge at various steps of the transition process. Weak personal and professional networks can exacerbate this problem as networks are a primary mechanism for accessing information in many contexts.

We find that the various challenges youth face in the school to work transition are specific to certain groups of populations. Women face different challenges compared to men; urban inhabitants to rural; younger to older youth. Women face distinct disadvantages in the job market based on seven major factors: skills and education, capital, networks, time and family formation, occupational choice, employer bias, and safety. There are major differences between secondary educated youth living in rural and urban areas based on networks, geographical barriers, job search costs, and availability of jobs in various employment sectors. Younger and older youth at the secondary education level face different challenges based on issues of work experience, networks, and the urgency of the need to transition. There is a wide distribution of ages of youth at the secondary level. Moreover, older youth tend to have greater responsibilities due to marriage, childbirth, and other related family duties. The socio-economic situation of youth of course also has a major impact on their opportunity space.

Promoting successful transitions from school to work

Throughout their education, students gain a hierarchy of skills of various types including cognitive, behavioural and socioemotional, technical, and entrepreneurial skills. The literature on skills often focuses on what skills are needed to do the jobs that exist in the job market, for example when discussing the skills mismatch between the labour supply and market. However, there is not a conclusive literature on what skills are needed to make the transition to work.

Despite the various pathways youth take into the formal and informal labour markets discussed in the key informant interviews, there were some fundamental skills that emerged as critical to the transition to work across different contexts:

A broad range of soft skills are essential to successful school to work transitions in SSA. Soft skills like self-confidence, motivation, aspiration, communication, trustworthiness and responsibility, presentation **skills, business language skills, networking, information seeking including social media and digital literacy, understanding employment and employers, and entrepreneurship skills were cited by employers and educators as the most necessary skills that would facilitate school to work transitioning in the sub-Saharan African context.**

The dominant mode of job search utilised by youth in sub-Saharan Africa is through friends, family, and acquaintances. **Therefore, the size and reach of a youth's network is of** prime importance during the transition. Richer and more educated youth tend to have wider and far reaching networks. Further, if non-farm jobs are the target, youth in rural areas have weaker networks compared to urban youth due to the networks of rural youth being based in traditional agriculture - a field most youth do not desire to transition into.

Existing initiatives

Existing categories of initiatives targeting school to work transitions are summarized in Figure 1 below. A lot of existing initiatives are packaged, targeting many different sets of skills or different parts of the transition process at the same time. Many of the initiatives have been focused on the transition into the formal sector, creating a mismatch between the problem and the solutions proposed. Programs targeting transitions into the informal sector have mainly focused on building entrepreneurial skills and tackling the issue of access to finance.

Figure 1. A Mapping of SWT Programs to Different Stages of Transition

Initiative	Barriers	Solutions
Preparing youth for the transition to work		
Apprenticeships (informal + formal), Internships, Job Shadowing	Low work experience; lack of information about the job market; low levels of practical skills possessed by youth; lack of soft skills	Provide information to job-seekers about the work-world, enhance their networks, offer on-the-job training and experience
Career Guidance	Low levels of job market information; mismatch between possibilities and aspirations	Help in identifying achievable opportunities for young job-seekers

Curriculum Reforms	Mismatch between what is taught in schools and what employers require from workers; lack of training for self-employment	Recalibrate the curriculum towards the ideal blend of theory and practicality; promote movement to both work and higher education; integration of SWT skills in studies
Entrepreneurship Training and access to finance	Inability to identify business opportunities; lack of soft skills; Lack of capital availability for businesses	Teach skills that allow youth to start their own businesses and sustainably run them; offer capital to youth and facilitate them in setting-up businesses
The job search		
Job Fairs, Matching Services, connecting to recruiters	Low knowledge about the job-search process and where to look for jobs	Connect job-seekers directly with employers; overcome the problem of low information in the search process
Transport Subsidies	Geographical barriers to searching for jobs	Reduce the cost of job-search; allow job seekers to conduct longer and geographically broader searches
Persuade, evaluate and negotiate		
Skill Certification, CV Writing Training, Encouragement to use Reference Letters	Information asymmetry and lack of trust between employers and job-seekers regarding the work-readiness of youth	Allow job-seekers to present their skills and abilities in a convincing manner; reduce asymmetry
Interview Training	Lack of soft skills related to business and behavioural aspects of work	Improve the ability of job-seekers to conduct themselves in work environments

There are a growing number of innovative programs are adapted to the realities of the jobs market in sub-Saharan Africa and aim to support youth accordingly. The rise of innovative programs helping youth prepare for work in informal sector and/or agriculture are promising in

light of the need to redirect policy efforts to informal employment and informality in the labour market. Examples of such initiatives include the VIA Pathways to Work initiative in Tanzania & Mozambique that brings the issue of mixed-livelihoods to the forefront of youth employability training; the U-LEARN 2 project in Uganda run by Swisscontact that focuses on agribusiness and removing barriers to accessing relevant market information and linkages; and Technoserve's STRYDE program in Rwanda that provides training for youth to identify and capitalise on local opportunities in agriculture and agri-related businesses.

Few programmes have used secondary schools as the main conduit to prepare youth for the transition to work. Nevertheless, there are some promising examples of large-scale programs that have partnered with national level government and been successful in bringing SWT skills training to secondary school students across sub-Saharan Africa. Three such promising initiatives are highlighted in detail in Chapter 6 - Case Studies, and can be used as best practice examples for developing large scale SWT programs in the continent. These programs have successfully worked alongside the ministries of education and other government partners to deliver SWT skills training within the secondary school systems, reaching a large number of youth in the countries they work in. EDC, in the partnership between the Ministry of Education in Rwanda and Akazi Kanoze Access, worked to integrate work readiness training into the secondary school entrepreneurship curriculum in Rwanda. Educate! in Rwanda and Uganda that works with governments in scaling soft-skills training for employment and entrepreneurship within school systems, as well as The Passport to Success (PTS) curriculum from the International Youth Foundation that focuses on transferable skills training for employability and entrepreneurship using a training-of-trainers model, are also examples of such innovative programs.

The evidence base on school to work transitions is limited, especially around the impact of and cost-effectiveness of programs focused on the school to work transition, especially those targeting the secondary school population. There are only a few studies which evaluate employment programs using a quantitatively rigorous study methodology. Often, where there is evidence, the study population is not secondary-level students, which limits the extent to which findings from those studies can be generalized to the research questions in this paper. Furthermore, studies in the academic literature tend to test program components individually and not packaged together, as they are typically delivered in practice.

Though the breadth of evidence on school to work transitions is limited, below we summarize a few general findings from our review of the literature:
- Strong partnerships between employers (in both the formal and informal sectors) and educational institutions are a key determinant of program success.
- Evidence from non-African contexts shows that policymakers and program participants have over-optimistic expectations of interventions.

- Vocational and skills training programs are costly, especially when the metric under study is 'cost per additional person employed'.
- The literature on the effectiveness of matching and job-search support programs in the sub-Saharan Africa context points to a lack of impact.

Reflections & Recommendations

For the foreseeable future secondary school youth in sub-Saharan Africa will continue to transition into informal sector and into low-skilled jobs, either on-farm or off-farm.

There is a need to reconceptualize the school to work transition. For most youth in sub-Saharan Africa, the transition from school to work is a transition from primary school or a partial secondary school education into the informal sector or agriculture. Programs that target the formal sector, even if they reached all secondary age youth and were 100% effective, would only be relevant for, at most, one-third of the school to work transitions that occur in sub-Saharan Africa. Yet, outside of some TVET programs, school to work transition programs have traditionally focused on training youth for the formal sector and ignored the transition from secondary school to work.

The factors that impact the transition process, and even the process itself, vary greatly among different youth populations in the continent; one solution does not fit all. Factors like age, gender, and location play an important role in determining the pathways into employment, the type of transitions and the length of transitions. Interventions should be targeted accordingly.

A few key takeaways for policy makers include:

1. The target should be improving livelihoods and not a transition to a formal sector job. If we continue to focus investments on promoting transition to the formal sector, we will be promoting solutions that do not address the root-cause of the problem.

2. Remember, transitions may be complex and non-linear. Youth may pursue many income generating activities and work multiple jobs while also going back and forth between periods of education and employment. Entrepreneurship might often be in the form of short-term and small local businesses that provide day-to-day subsistence. The transition to work is a process; this aspect of the context ought to be considered when designing initiatives that seek to improve the skills and opportunities of transitioning youth.

3. Start early and target by age, not grade. The is a disconnect between age and grade in the education systems. There are youth of working age enrolled in primary school and lower secondary school. Preparation for the transition to work should not only be happening in the last few grades of secondary school or once youth have transitioned into TVET of technical secondary education. This holds for both within school or external interventions that target youth by grade.

4. There is a need to redirect the policy efforts on youth employment and training to be more inclusive of the informal and agriculture sectors. This means that these initiatives need to address the causes of what makes it difficult for youth to transition into the informal sector, for example networks, language barriers, the search cost, access to finance, the lack informal apprenticeships, no formal ways of signalling in the job market (for example a CV).

5. There are high costs of searching for a job; bridging the mobility gap might make a difference. Although empirical evidence is limited for existing initiatives in this area, programs or initiatives that focus on increasing mobility of youth or subsidizing some of these costs instead of directly training youth on soft-skills might contribute to easing the entry of youth into the labour market.

6. School to work programming needs to take into account the differing challenges and barriers faced by different sections of youth. The process of transitioning does not follow the same trajectory for different sub-populations of youth: men and women, older and younger youth, and urban and rural youth. For school to work transition training and programming to be effective, special attention should be given to identifying the contextual factors that come into play for various subsections and delivering targeted solutions to ease these barriers.

7. Public-private partnerships are an integral conduit to delivering market-relevant skills and curriculum to students at large - in both the formal and informal sectors. Public-private partnerships are often thought of in formal terms - MoUs between governments and large organizations. But we need to think local and think of innovative ways of creating partnerships between the local informal sector employers and schools. There are already examples of initiatives that have target the creation of links between schools and small-to-medium size enterprises in local areas; there also initiatives that have focused on provide youth with the opportunity to enter informal apprenticeships.

8. There is a critical evidence gap with respect not only to the effectiveness of programs, but also some of the more recent reforms in the education sector, including curriculum reforms, such as the transition to competency-based curricula or integration of entrepreneurship and work readiness training. While the spirit of

these interventions addresses the root of the problem, it is important to study whether they are having the desired effects while also improving the quality and delivery of secondary education.

9. Achieving scale has been the biggest issue; delivering school to work transition training through the education system might be the most effective way to achieve scale. The vast majority of programmes are costly and piecemeal, targeting only a small minority of youth. As governments and policy makers in the education system, the key question should be: how can we achieve national scale? Thinking of ways to provide school to work transition preparation through the secondary education system is probably one of the most effective ways to achieve scale. However, this will require experimentation and innovation, as there are only a few examples of models that have been scaled nationally.

1 Introduction

1.1 Aims

The objective of this situational analysis is to better understand what secondary education systems in sub-Saharan African are doing – and can do more of – to better prepare youth for the transition to work. The role of secondary education is sometimes framed as a conduit into tertiary education, but for many youth it is not. It is the last step in their educational trajectory, before or during which they make the transition to work. Therefore, one underlying assumption of this situational analysis is that secondary schools have an important role to play in preparing youth for the transition to work.

By preparing youth for the transition to work, we are referring to the set of skills required to *find* a job that can help youth improve their livelihoods. This is different from the mix of technical and soft skills that might be required to *succeed* in a job. In this study we reflect on the actual *process* of finding a job and the skills needed to succeed in that *process*, in both the formal and informal sectors. We do not deal with the question of supply of jobs – and job creation – which in sub-Saharan Africa today is one of the most pressing challenges of this generation. We define youth as being prepared for the transition from school to work if they have the capability to maximize their chances of starting an employment trajectory and negotiating terms that improve their livelihood, given their level of education, their skill-set, and their financial situation.

This paper explores the specific challenges facing youth in sub-Saharan Africa when it comes to finding employment. For example, due to the relatively small size of the formal sector in many countries, a large majority of the youth that transition from being enrolled in full-time education to employment are employed in the informal sector (ILO SWT Survey). Further, many employability training and skills development programs in Africa overlook the process of transitioning itself, focusing instead on the skills needed to succeed in a job or those in demand in the labour market. This creates a gap among youth in the specific set of skills needed to find a job and in access to up-to-date information about the various pathways to employment and the landscape of their local labour market are often.

Context matters a lot in terms of school to work transitions. Though there are some trends across sub-Saharan Africa, there are also significant differences in SWT between countries and for specific populations of youth. Different countries have very different education systems and labour markets, which affect the skills needed and pathways available to make the transition to work. While this paper covers sub-Saharan Africa, we have selected four countries of focus - Rwanda, Kenya, Ethiopia, and Senegal - to use as examples throughout the paper. By selecting

countries of focus, we are able to explore in more depth how pathways to work and barriers to employment differ for youth in different contexts. In addition, we draw on data from across sub-Saharan Africa to explore how these countries are representative of - or differ from - broad trends across the continent. This paper also discusses the particular challenges specific populations of youth face, and how the pathways taken from school into employment vary between men and women, rural and urban populations, and younger and older youth.

The main contribution of this analysis is to synthesize and structure what we know about the under-researched topic of how to equip the growing population of secondary-school youth with the set of skills they need to find a job, within the context of a very challenging and informal job-market. This study is informed by a structured review of the academic literature on school to work transitions, case-studies on exemplary school to work initiatives, the analysis of national datasets, and key informant interviews in four different contexts: Senegal, Ethiopia, Kenya and Rwanda.

1.2 Structure of report

This paper has several chapters:

- Chapter 2 Conceptual Framework provides a conceptual framework to better understand and analyse school to work transitions (SWT) and associated initiatives.
- Chapter 3 Context provides a review of the context in which these programs work, including a review of the progression of youth into formal education systems and job markets of sub-Saharan African countries, and a discussion of the different realities for specific subpopulations. This section draws from a review of existing population, education, and labour market data, the literature, and the key stakeholder interviews.
- Chapter 4 Promoting successful transition from school to work provides a review of existing programs and initiatives in the school to work transition space. This section draws from the literature and policy review, as well as the key stakeholder interviews.
- Chapter 5 Reflections and recommendations provides concluding remarks and recommendations for those planning, scaling, or funding school to work transition programs.
- Chapter 6 Case Studies includes three case studies highlighting promising interventions that serve as examples of how education systems can better prepare youth for the transition to work.

1.3 Methodology

The research for this project draws from a variety of sources:

- A structured review of the academic and grey literature on school to work transitions;
- A review of current policies on preparing youth for work in the four countries of focus;
- Analysis of existing national data on education and youth employment in these countries;
- Three case studies on best practices drawn from the review of the policy and literature;
- Interviews with key informants in education and employment in the four countries of focus.

1.3.1 Literature & Policy Review

We conducted a structured review of the literature and policy to map out the existing research on school to work transitions. The process for identifying relevant documents is outlined in Figure 2 below.

Literature Review

The goal of this literature review was to examine the existing literature on SWT in sub-Saharan Africa, and compile a list of ongoing major initiatives in this space. During this review we collected information in a structured way from 19 relevant databases (See Annex.) on:
- The type of research questions that have been studied;
- Existing programmes and initiatives focusing on soft-skills and SWT that have been studied;
- The type of constraints/issues that are being targeted;
- The type of solutions that are being proposed;
- The type of populations that are being targeted;
- The theory of change that links problems and solutions; and finally,
- Existing evidence on what works and what **doesn't.**

Literature were identified by searching in a defined set of databases using different combinations of 11 keywords which were relevant to the topic (see Annex)

Figure 2. Overview of the Literature Review Process
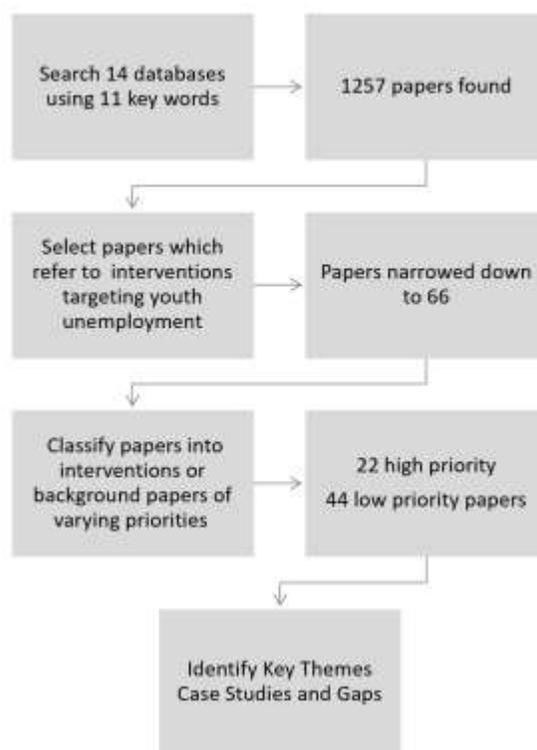
Policy Review

We conducted a review of national policy in the four countries of focus: Senegal, Rwanda, Ethiopia, and Kenya. From the review of the policy documents and supplemental information on the labour markets and education systems, we aimed to:

- Assess the extent to which public policies address the issue of school to work transitions;
- Ascertain how much of a priority is training related to SWT;
- Identify how and when are youth prepared for school to work transitions;
- Identify institutional actors with a mandate for SWT;
- Examine synergies between the actors; and
- Identifying potential schemes/programs for case studies.

To supplement the data in the policy review for each country we also reviewed key data from the World Bank Development Indicators[6] on the labour market and educational system. For each country we identified and reviewed the national education policy (for both General Secondary Schools and TVET if separate), the labour market policy, and the national visionary development policy.

---

[6] See the World Bank Open Data indicators at https://data.worldbank.org/indicator

1.3.2 Key Informant Interviews

Given that school to work transitions are a relatively under-researched area in the context of secondary and TVET education systems in Africa, we sought to supplement the existing literature with key informant interviews in the four focus countries: Rwanda, Kenya, Ethiopia and Senegal. We conducted 68 interviews with educators, policy makers, and employers in the formal and informal sector in these four countries. The objectives of these interviews were to:

- Learn more about what is happening with respect to SWT in each of these countries;
- Identify and reflect on similarities/dissimilarities between these very different contexts; and
- Generate new ideas about how policy makers and employers in these countries think about school to work transitions.

We conducted 68 interviews overall: 22 interviews in Senegal, 18 in Rwanda, 13 in Kenya, 13 in Ethiopia, and 2 with individuals who work across countries in sub-Saharan Africa. The sample was relatively balanced between policy makers in the education sector, educators, employers in the formal economy and employers in the informal sector. In Ethiopia we focused on the informal sector, the unique role of brokers in that context, and programs working in the country. In Kenya we focused on the perspective of employers and program staff working on youth employment. The number of interviews conducted per country and category are shown in the appendix.

Participants were selected in a few different ways:

- Individuals or groups highlighted from the review of the policy and programmatic landscape in each country;
- Based on recommendations from the Mastercard Foundation;
- **Based on Laterite's existing network in each country.**

In addition, we utilized snowball sampling, and asked participants for recommendations of other key stakeholders with whom we might speak.

The interviews were semi-structured and covered the following themes:

- Transitions from Secondary School to Work
- School to Work Transition Skills
- Public-Private Partnerships
- Entrepreneurship
- Networks
- Programs and Policy

Interviews did not cover each theme comprehensively; instead, interviewers selected the themes most relevant to each participant, and adapted the question based on the participant's role and the context where they work. For example, an interview with someone in the informal sector

might focus more on pathways to work in the informal sector, skills needed to find a job in the informal sector, entrepreneurship, and networks. In contrast, an interview with a policy maker might focus more on the policy vision for the transition from school to work, public-private partnerships, government entrepreneurship programs, and policy.

Interviewers obtained informed consent from all participants before the interviews. Interviews were not recorded, but interviewers took notes during the conversation. Interview responses have been anonymized here and aggregated into key themes to keep conversations confidential.

1.3.3 Analysis

Notes from the interviews were reviewed by research team members to identify key themes across interviews. We considered both key themes from interviews within countries and across countries. Themes from the interviews were triangulated with existing literature and data where possible to provide a comprehensive and accurate perspective.

1.3.4 Case Studies

The case studies will serve as best practice examples of large-scale efforts to address the issue of school to work transition in secondary and TVET education in sub-Saharan Africa. They include a diverse set of initiatives or programs that address soft skills trainings at or out of the secondary school system but have a clear focus on the skills necessary for transitioning into employment. Additionally, the following criteria were used to select programs for the case studies:

- Adaptability
- Innovation
- Stakeholder Engagement
- Impact, defined by high quality evidence about program
- Availability of sufficient information about the intervention
- Preference for interventions that are scaled nationally

1.4 Limitations

This report is not exhaustive. It was not possible, given time and resource constraints, to study the question of school to work transition in many different contexts in detail. As such, this report does not provide a comprehensive overview of policies and initiatives across the African context; rather, this report provides insights into broad trends, best practice examples, and the comparative case of four different countries.

There is bias in the key informant interview sample. Some information acquired from the key informant interviews might be specific to the sampled countries - Rwanda, Kenya, Ethiopia and Senegal. However, insights gained by the interviews are backed up with more comprehensive data from other regions of sub-Saharan Africa. These countries were selected to match the countries where Laterite has an office; Senegal was selected as an additional case so that we could also gain some insights from key informant interviews in a West African economy. Further, due to time and resource constraints, the majority of interviews were done in a capital city. While we did interview a few participants whose schools or programs operate in rural areas, our interview sample is skewed towards an urban context. In addition, while we assured confidentiality at the start of the interview, the introduction and informed consent included a review of the project aims and funding source, so the participants may not have viewed the interviewers as entirely independent.

Policy recommendations are not direct, but rather focus on helping policy makers structure their thinking about SWT. We will focus on helping policy makers structure their thinking about how to best to prepare youth for the school to work transitions, but we will not provide blanket recommendations considering how different the contexts of these countries are and the limits of existing information.

2 Conceptual Framework

In this Chapter, we propose a conceptual framework for school to work transitions that policy makers, program leaders, and funding organizations can use to guide their analysis and decision-making process. We ground the proposed contextual framework within the current context of education systems and labour markets in the sub-Saharan Africa. We begin by proposing a definition of school to work transitions in, before discussion the framework in more detail.

2.1 Defining the school to work transition

We conceptualize school to work transitions as the process that links the demand for work to the supply for work, within the context of a regulatory, social, cultural and economic framework. It is the process during which youth shift from being predominantly in an educational environment, to more permanently either looking for, being available for – or starting – a job, to gradually improving their livelihood.

It is difficult to precisely define school to work transitions in terms of their starting point, end point and what they entail (Nilsson, 2018). Some researchers, like Vernières (1997) for example, emphasize the finding of a "first job" and define integration into the job market as "the process by which individuals who have never been part of the working population gain access to a stable position in the employment system" (Vernières, 1997). Some define it very loosely as a "catch-all term for the activities of young people as they bounce around or struggle along between full-time schooling and full-time, possibly career, employment" (Ryan, 2003). The International Labour Organization (ILO), in its Work4Youth series in partnership with the MasterCard Foundation, sets the start of the transition period at either graduation or a youth's first economic activity, through to the moment they establish themselves in a stable or satisfactory job (Elder and Kone, 2014). This variety in definitions - in particular in terms of what constitutes a successful transition - makes this topic one that is difficult to precisely conceptualize. Below we explore the different features of a definition and propose a working definition for this analysis.

A large part of the difficulty in defining school to work transitions is that they are context-specific. The paths leading from school to employment vary widely across contexts in terms of their duration, start point and end-point. They are also not a one-way street. For example, youth might choose to combine work and education to balance both their educational and financial objectives: they might choose to work in order to fund future studies, in which case the transition to work is not the end-objective, but a necessary parenthesis in the educational process. Alternatively, they might be forced out of the education system due to external shocks, but not

be readily available to join the labour force or be too young to join the labour force, in which case there is not an immediate direct trajectory from school to work. There are many different paths leading between school and work, especially in the context of developing countries, where the majority of youth do not complete secondary education, where the structure of the job market is largely informal, and where youth often engage in several different economic activities or work multiple jobs at a time to sustain their livelihoods.

When can a school to work transition be considered successful? This question is typically divided into two subcomponents: the process of finding a job itself, and the outcome of this process (O'Higgins, 2018; Nilsson, 2018):

- *The process:* The ease of finding a job, or the smoothness of the transition, is often measured by the duration of the transition – the time it takes to transition between school and a satisfactory job (Elder and Kone, 2014). The shorter the period, the better the transition.

  We do not believe that this definition of a smooth transition is necessarily valid in the context we are focusing on. While the duration of the transition can influence financial stability - for example, if you spend a long period of time unemployed - using this measure alone ignores other critical aspects of the transition. For example, the problem for many youth, in particular in remote rural areas, is that their opportunities are limited by circumstances and location. Many youth do not experience a job search so to speak and transition straight into the most available job to support the family farm or their household enterprise (Filmer and Fox, 2014). While these are quick transitions, they are not necessarily successful if the opportunities they transition into are not stable, fulfilling employment.

- *The outcome:* Recent research in relation to the Work4Youth initiative has defined a successful transition by the outcome: when youth get a job that is either satisfactory or meets certain minimum quality criteria. In doing so the ILO attaches a qualitative element to the definition of the school to work transition. A transition is considered incomplete until youth have identified a *satisfactory or decent* job (Elder and Kone, 2014). In a study on the effectiveness of different approaches to providing market-relevant training to youth, called "Learn, Earn and Save", delivered by the MasterCard foundation, the authors divide youth outcomes into two groups: those who are "getting ahead" - with enhanced confidence, recognition in the community, and improved financial and emotional status - and those who are still "getting-by", who remain vulnerable and poor (Mastercard Foundation, 2017).

  We agree with this framing of the outcome of a successful transition, that it should help youth "get-ahead". However, we acknowledge that, in sub-Saharan Africa, skills

constraints and the lack of economic opportunities might make this objective very difficult to fulfil for many youths. Therefore, successful school to work transition programs need not necessarily lead to the outcome of a successful transition, but rather put them on a trajectory towards that end-goal.

Instead, for the purposes of this study, we define a successful school to work transition as *a process in which youth acquire the skills to make decisions in their job search that maximize their options and enables them to start an employment trajectory that improves their livelihood.*

2.2 Components of the transition process

Despite a lot of variation in the paths leading from school to work, we can divide the school to work transition into a number of building blocks. We propose a simple framework, shown in Figure 3, for policy makers to structure their thinking about the transition process. The framework is general enough to be applicable in both formal and informal settings, including those where youth seek self-employment opportunities. This framework is overtly simplifying a very complex process so as to make it more manageable to understand and analyse. We describe the five building-blocks of the transition in more detail below.

Figure 3. Framework for the school to work transition process

Preparation. At this step, youth need to prepare themselves and develop their skills and knowledge for the transition process. This refers to all the activities that are undertaken before the search for jobs or a business venture begins. Preparation might involve youth to undertake some of the following activities:

- Identifying what they are good at
- Setting objectives, understanding what they want to get out of a job
- Understanding what employers or potential clients are looking for
- Gaining professional experience through internships, apprenticeships, summer jobs combining schooling with work, etc

- Gaining or enhancing skills and knowledge to maximize the chances of entering a target profession or livelihood
- Building a profile, for example by working on a curriculum vitae
- Preparing for the search process, by for example identifying key people to speak to, identifying online job portals, etc
- For prospective entrepreneurs, potentially doing business set-up activities (for example registration, finding a work-space, etc)

Search. The job-search process is a very central component of a successful transition from school to work. Coordination failure - failing to link job-seekers with relevant skills to employers that are looking for those skills - has been shown to be one of the main reasons that youth fail to make the transition from school to work (ILO, school to work transition survey). This is equally true for youth seeking to enter self-employment and trying to identify business opportunities for themselves. Unless the transition to work involves working for the family farm or business, youth **seeking to become "entrepreneurs" will require a search period to build a niche for themselves** and identify business opportunities. The search can take several forms:

- Personal networks. Personal networks are the main vector through which youth in sub-Saharan Africa find jobs. This is especially true in informal settings
- Actively networking and making new connections
- Responding to advertisements (newspapers, billboards, shop-windows, etc)
- Using online job portals
- Applying directly to employers
- Going to job markets or fairs, ranging from manual labour markets where employers can hire day-labourers to formal sector (often sector-specific) career fairs
- Traveling to explore job opportunities in others locations

Persuade, Evaluate, & Negotiate. Persuasion is a critical skill in making the transition to work: job-seekers need to persuade an employer that they are capable of doing the job; prospective entrepreneurs need to persuade a client that the service they offer is worth the cost, or persuade a supplier that they will be a trustworthy business partner. Persuasion during a job search might take the form of an interview process, a short trial period, volunteering activities, or a professional conversation. Persuasion is not a one-way street; the employer, the client, the supplier will also need to build trust and convince the job-seeker or entrepreneur-to-be that they offer a good opportunity. During this period all parties will be evaluating their options.

Also included in this step is the art of negotiating the terms of employment. For job-seekers this includes the position, salary and other conditions; for prospective entrepreneurs this may include the terms of a deal, considering their business objectives. It is during this period that the different parties involved come to an agreement on the way forward

Start. Once an agreement is reached, job-seekers secure an employment opportunity. We include in this step the first few weeks of a job, when an employee learns the workplace norms and first applies their skills on the job. The ease and ability to succeed in those first few weeks or months of a job is a critical component of a successful transition.

Starting a job is one potential endpoint of the transition process. However, we argue that securing employment alone is not sufficient. There is an important qualitative element to the type of work secured - work which is temporary, very low-pay, or hazardous does not necessarily contribute to an improved livelihood for the employee.

Improved livelihood. When employment has translated into an improved livelihood for youth, the transition is complete. We define an improved livelihood here using the definition for a "sustainable livelihood" outlined by Scoones (1998): "A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while not undermining the natural resource base." The process of reaching and maintaining a sustainable livelihood is inevitably complicated by other factors in an individual's life, including health, family circumstances, natural disasters, external shocks to the community or country, and myriad others. The emphasis we would like to put on this step is that facilitating or improving school to work transitions is not isolated, but rather part of larger development objectives to improve livelihoods.

It is important to highlight that transition can be messy and nonlinear, especially if the end-point is defined as finding a job that improves your livelihood and not just any employment opportunity. For example, in the process of transitioning into employment job-seekers might settle on second-best options, while they continue their search; they might decide that they need to go back for further education before they continue their job search; or they might find the terms of a negotiation unsatisfactory and go back to searching. Further, the process may even be circular if as individuals gain work experience and improve their circumstances, they become better prepared and restart the process.

3 Context

The UN (2015) estimates that there are 226 million youth (aged 15-24) in Africa and the number is set to increase 42% by 2030. The African Development Bank (2015) states that among youth of the age group 15-35 years, only 15% are employed as wage workers. 66% of youth are either vulnerably employed, unemployed or discouraged from work due to a lack of opportunities. Youth employment is undoubtedly one of the biggest challenges of this generation in sub-Saharan Africa; transitions into work are an important component of that equation (Dekker and Hollander, 2017).

3.1 The target population

The target population of this situational analysis is youth currently enrolled in secondary education in sub-Saharan African countries (secondary education is defined as level 2 and 3 of the International Standard Classification of Education, ISCED). Officially, youth are expected to be enrolled in secondary school around the ages of 13 to 18, with small differences across different education systems in sub-Saharan Africa. In practice, we find that the actual age of youth enrolled in secondary school is older.

Figure 4. Distribution of youth by school level, ages 15-19*

School level	Rwanda (2013)	Ethiopia (2015)	Senegal (2014)	Kenya (2015)
Primary (6 years)	27.0%	25.1%	8.9%	10.0%
Lower secondary (3 years)	25.8%	21.0%	27.0%	32.9%
Upper secondary (3 years)	3.3%	13.3%	12.4%	29.7%
Tertiary	0.2%	1.1%	0.8%	2.4%
Out-of-school	43.8%	39.6%	50.9%	25.0%

Sources of data: Rwanda - EICV 4, 2013; Ethiopia - Socio-economic survey, wave 3, 2015-2016; Senegal - ANSD A l'écoute des Ménages (2014-2015); Kenya - Integrated Budget and Household Survey, 2015-2016. *We define "primary" as the first 6 years of education; "lower secondary" as the next 3 years of basic education; and "upper secondary" as the subsequent 3 years of basic education (this is to enable comparability between countries with different education systems/structures)

Net enrolment levels in secondary school across sub-Saharan Africa – estimated at 33.5% on average in 2016 based on data from 13 countries[7] – are low. Low net secondary enrolment rates across the continent imply that in practice few youths of "secondary-school-age" are actually enrolled in secondary school. Looking at the 15 to 19-year-old age group in the four focus countries, we find that about 3% were enrolled in upper secondary school in Rwanda (2013 data), 13% in Ethiopia (2015-2016 data), 12% in Senegal (2014-2015 data) and about 30% in Kenya (2015-2016 data). In the cases of Rwanda, Ethiopia and Senegal there were more youth in that age group that had dropped-out of school (44% in Rwanda, 40% in Ethiopia and 51% in Senegal) – than youth enrolled in secondary school. Across all three countries, a sizeable proportion of youth in that age group were still enrolled in primary school.

Figure 5. Age distribution of secondary school students in secondary school

Age (years)	Rwanda (2013)	Ethiopia (2015)	Senegal (2014)	Kenya (2015)
10-14	8.8%	24.3%	19.1%	7.2%
15-19	62.1%	54.6%	60.8%	74.6%
20 or older	29.0%	20.7%	20.7%	18.2%

Source of data: Same as Figure 4

A large proportion of secondary school students are above the expected age for secondary school. We can obtain a rough estimate of over-aging by comparing the gross enrolment rates[8] in secondary school to net enrolment rates[9]. At an estimated 42.6%, gross enrolment rates in sub-Saharan Africa are about 27% higher than net enrolment rates, suggesting that about 27% of students in secondary schools are either below the expected age (below 12 or 13, depending on the country) or above the expected age (above the age of 18). Evidence suggests that there are very few students enrolled in secondary school that are below the official age and that the ratio of gross-to-net enrolment rates in secondary school is a good rough approximation of the

---

[7] Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2016, as reported by World Bank Data

[8] The Gross Enrolment rate is defined as the "number of students enrolled in a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education." (UNESCO, *Glossary, Data for the Sustainable Development Goals*) Therefore, the gross enrolment rate for secondary school is the number of students of any age enrolled in secondary school, as a percentage of the number of secondary-school-age students in the population.

[9] The Net Enrolment rate is defined as the "total number of students in the theoretical age group for a given level of education enrolled in that level, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group." (UNESCO, *Glossary, Data for the Sustainable Development Goals*) Therefore, the net enrolment rate for secondary school is the number of secondary-school-age students enrolled in secondary school, as a percentage of the number of secondary-school-age students in the population.

level of over-aging in the education system. In the countries we are using as examples, we find that about 29% of secondary school students in Rwanda were above the age of 20; 21% of students in Ethiopia and Senegal; and about 18% of students in Kenya.

The majority of youth enrolled in secondary school in the countries we are studying are aged 15 or above. In the cases of Rwanda and Kenya for example more than 90% of youth enrolled in secondary school in 2013 were 15 years or older; in Ethiopia and Senegal the proportion was above 80%. It is also around this time that youth become legally eligible to work[10].

The majority of youth aged 15 or above that have either finished or dropped out of school have started the transition into the labour force. In Kenya, an estimated 57% of out-of-school youth aged 15 to 19 were already working (they reported conducting at least one hour of work in the past 7 days); 4% were actively searching for a job; and an additional 18% were available to work, but not actively searching for a job. In Rwanda, using EICV 4 data, we find that an estimated 81% of 15 to 19-year-olds that had completed or dropped out of secondary school reported having worked over the past seven days, with an additional 1% actively searching for work. In Senegal, we estimate that 63% of out-of-school youth aged 15 to 19 had worked at least once over the past 6 months in 2014-2015.

The majority of youth of post-secondary school age make the transition to work without ever having attended secondary school, except in the case of Kenya. In Kenya an estimated 77% of out-of-school youth aged 20 to 24 (post-secondary school age) had ever attended secondary school; this compares to 46% in Ethiopia, 18% in Senegal and about 17% in Rwanda.

Figure 6. Highest grade attended for out-of-school youth aged 20-24

Education level	Rwanda (2013)	Ethiopia (2015)	Senegal (2014)	Kenya (2015)
No basic education	11.9%	27.3%	57.5%	11.6%
Primary	71.0%	26.7%	23.7%	11.4%
Lower secondary	9.8%	16.1%	12.5%	33.3%
Upper secondary	7.0%	24.0%	5.1%	36.7%
Tertiary	0.4%	5.9%	1.2%	7.1%

---

[10] The minimum age for work in Rwanda is 16; in Kenya it is 13 (restricted hours and type); 14 in Ethiopia (for non-hazardous work) and 16 for Senegal. Source: ILO

Source of data: Same as Figure 4

Transitions from secondary school into work happen at both the lower and upper secondary school levels. In the case of Rwanda and Senegal, most youth enrolled in lower secondary education (secondary 1 to secondary 3) transition straight into the job market, rather than moving through to upper secondary school. In Ethiopia and Kenya as well a non-negligible proportion drop-out of school in lower secondary school and transition into work. Efforts to prepare youth for the transition to work should start as early as possible in their basic education, especially in contexts where gross enrolment rates in upper secondary education are very low.

These aggregate patterns have very important implications in terms of the targeting of policies to help youth transition to work. Policy efforts, which focus on school to work transitions, tend to occur outside of basic education (primary and secondary) - for example at TVET or tertiary level or for youth that have stopped or completed school. Yet, most transitions to work happen during or after primary or secondary school.

3.2 The role of secondary education

The United Nations Sustainable Development Goals prioritize universal secondary education as part of the global development agenda. The first target of Goal 4, Quality Education, is universal compulsory "free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education" by 2030 (United Nations, Transforming our world). This target demonstrates the global commitment to improving access and quality to education.

Enrolment in secondary school has increased rapidly across sub-Saharan Africa; it is poised to further increase over the next decade. According to the 2015 State of Education in Africa report, "sub-Saharan Africa achieved the greatest gains in secondary education participation compared to all other regions of the world between 1999 and 2012" (Africa-America Institute, 2015). The net rate of enrolment in secondary school in sub-Saharan Africa has increased from about 19% in 1998 to about 33% in 2016 (data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics on the World Bank data portal). While currently the majority of youth transition to work without having attended secondary school (data shown above), the trend of increasing access to secondary education means this will eventually no longer be the case.

Secondary education systems increasingly have a role to play in training youth to make the transition to work. As increasing numbers of youth enrol in secondary education, and with limited capacity for all to continue into tertiary education, there will inevitably be more youth transitioning from secondary school directly into the labour market. As such, secondary school will become an increasingly important conduit to the job market. This role of secondary schools as a conduit to work is a considerable shift from the traditional view of secondary education,

particularly general secondary schools, which are seen as a path to tertiary education or TVET education.

In many countries, TVET institutions or technical/vocational secondary schools are the bridge between education and employment. Youth in technical or vocational secondary schools are provided with a mix of technical and soft skills relevant to a particular industry or trade. In addition, in many countries TVET programs have direct links to the workplace through mandatory internships or apprenticeships included in the curriculum, although the availability of such internship programs remains limited. In Senegal, the new policy framework makes TVET education the main pathway to work. Additionally, in East Africa, significant investments are being targeted at TVET. In theory, TVET/vocational training institutions are doing all the right things, but in practice, they often lack capacity and resources. Across SSA, only 6% of enrolment in all secondary education is in TVET programs (Filmer & Fox, 2014). There is a need to boost efforts in TVET to make it adaptable to the market needs and to enable TVET institutions to deliver high quality training and apprenticeships at a larger scale (McGrath, 2011; WEF, 2017). There is also limited research to date into evidence of the success of TVET institutions in ensuring a successful transition to work, possibly due to its low social status or a widespread neglect of TVET by the donors and funders of educational research in the continent (McGrath, 2011).

There has been a recent push in many countries to make secondary education more relevant to employment. One way in which countries have done this is to change the teaching methods and curriculum goals. For example, Senegal, Rwanda, and Kenya among others are in various stages of transitioning to a competency-based curriculum that features learner-centred methods. One promise of this shift is that education will be less theoretical and more practical. One risk in switching to a competency-based curriculum is that the quality of education may suffer in the short term while this transition happens as teachers have to learn an entirely new method of delivering content to students, in addition to learning any new content itself in the new curriculum.

Within many of these overhauls of curricula, there have been more targeted changes as well, in which countries have specifically integrated entrepreneurship training and SWT skills into secondary school curriculum. As curricula on these subjects are often written using learner-centred methodologies, they face similar challenges and opportunities to the overall curriculum reform. We limit the discussion of the challenges, opportunities, and risks in implementation of curriculum reforms here, as it is out of the scope of this study.

Secondary education comes with a promise of a better livelihood, but it currently cannot deliver on this promise for the majority of youth – this has led to a mismatch between youth aspirations and the hard reality of the job market. Part of this promise of secondary education comes from the generational education gap: this is the first generation of youth in many of the countries that are currently - or will be - attending secondary schools in larger numbers. Due to

the current situation of the job market and also the well documented lack of quality in secondary education (World Bank, 2018), this educational gap is not translating into a qualitative improvement in livelihoods and the chances of finding a decent job.

3.3 The reality of the job market

Many youth in secondary school aspire to have a salaried and formal sector job. This has been proven anecdotally true in different contexts (see for example OECD, *Mind the gap - Youth aspirations and the reality of jobs in developing countries*, 2017). Laterite's qualitative research in the Rwandan context, focused on STEM students in secondary education, has shown that youth believe secondary education holds the promise of future tertiary studies, which will prepare them for the very competitive job market (Laterite & AIMS, 2018). The prospect of transitioning into a job right after secondary education is something that generates anxiety - many youth feel they do not know where to look for a job and that without further education they would not have the required specialization to find a job. The fact that there is a very real gap between youth aspirations and the reality of the job market was an assessment that was also shared by expert interviews conducted as part of this study in Rwanda, Kenya, Ethiopia and Senegal.

There are limited formal sector wage jobs across sub-Saharan Africa and this will continue to be the case. According to the School to Work Transition Surveys initiative by the ILO and the MasterCard Foundation, an estimated 80% of youth that had completed secondary education (in Benin, Liberia, Malawi, Togo, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia), were employed in the informal sector (Shehu & Nillson, 2014). For the foreseeable future the majority of secondary school youth will continue to transition into the informal sector. This is because of the gap between the size of the formal sector in most countries and the size of each youth cohort entering the job market. A few examples help to put this challenge into perspective. Consider for example that there are more youth turning 18 in Rwanda every two years (approximately 250,000 youth per year[11]) than there are formal sector jobs in the economy (approximately 500,000 in 2017[12]). In Kenya there were about 2.8 million formal sector jobs in the economy in 2017 (out of 16.9 million jobs in total), compared to almost 1 million youth turning 18 each year, a ratio of about 3 to 1 (KNBS, 2017)[13]. In Nigeria, the continent's most populated country, the economy created an estimated 1.6 million formal sector jobs between Q3 2013 and Q3 2016 (over the span of 3 years)[14]. This compares to about 9 million youth turning 18 in Nigeria over the same period[15].

---

[11] National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR), Population projections, 2012, based on 2012 Population and Housing Census

[12] National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR), Labour Force Survey February 2017 report, September 2017

[13] Author's calculations based on KNBS population projections

[14] Nigeria Bureau of Statistics, Data Portal

[15] Author's calculations based on Nigeria Bureau of Statistics 2012 population data

Facilitating the transition of secondary school youth into informal sector jobs and/or self-employment will be key to the success of future school to work transition strategies. This is also the conclusion reached by Louise Fox, Chief Economist of USAID and a prolific author on school to work transition issues in sub-Saharan Africa. In a recent paper on Youth Employment in sub-Saharan Africa, Fox, Senbet and Simbanegavi (2016) conclude that "there is therefore a need for a shift in policy thinking across Africa. It is imperative that policy makers make concerted efforts to raise productivity (and thus earnings) in the informal sector, rather than continue to focus exclusively on the formal wage sector. In this regard, policy makers need to learn from, and work with the youth to enable scalability of certain youth initiatives".

The formal job market is also increasingly concentrated in urban hubs. According to the Center for Strategic and International Studies, "sub-Saharan Africa's 143 cities generate a combined $500 billion, totalling 50 percent of the region's gross domestic product (GDP)" (Saghir and Santoro, 2018). With this concentration of economic activity, sub-Saharan Africa is also facing rapid urbanization, with urban populations expected to triple in size over the next 50 years (Awumbila, 2017). Migration, therefore, should be an integral part of our thinking on school to work transitions. At the moment, very few initiatives prepare youth for the, sometimes, inevitable transition to urban areas. It is also not, to the best of our knowledge, an area of focus of the national education systems.

Agriculture and the informal sector (or "household enterprises") are still the predominant career path for many youth in Africa, and will continue to be for the foreseeable future. About half of the labour force in sub-Saharan Africa currently works in agriculture (Sow, 2017). And, estimates from the ILO show that about two-thirds of the non-agricultural employment in sub-Saharan Africa is in the informal economy (2015). Looking forward, Filmer and Fox (2014) state that almost 80% of youth in sub-Saharan Africa will work in either agriculture or household enterprises for at least the next decade.

3.4 Additional barriers youth face in the school to work transition

In previous sections in this chapter we have discussed a variety of challenges and barriers youth face in transitioning from secondary school to employment. Section 3.1 discusses the low rates of completion of secondary school, and the challenge of over-aging in secondary school. Section 3.2 reviews trends across sub-Saharan Africa towards universal secondary education, and the resulting increasingly important role of general secondary school systems as the last point of contact for students before they transition to work. Further, the section highlights the challenges of secondary education systems across sub-Saharan Africa in providing high quality and practical (versus theoretical) education. Section 3.3 reviews the reality of the job market youth face. While there has been growth in the formal sector in many countries, it has not been

apace the growth of the population. Therefore, the majority of employment opportunities continue to be in the informal sector and agriculture. This is a particularly difficult reality when it clashes with the aspirations of youth and the promise of secondary education as a pathway to an improved livelihood.

In this section we review some additional barriers youth in sub-Saharan Africa face in transitioning into the labour market. This section draws on the literature and policy review, education and employment data, and key informant interviews.

Youth are navigating the school to work transitions alongside other major life transitions. These include starting a family, developing financial and personal independence, navigating risky behaviours (for example, drinking or smoking), and exercising citizenship (for example, voting and participating in community groups) (Filmer & Fox, 2014). These simultaneous transitions can support or hinder the transition from school to work, and vice versa. For example, marriage and child birth often function as barriers to employment for women; on the other hand, securing employment and subsequent financial independence are often a prerequisite to marriage for men.

There is a real cost to finding a job, be it for informal or formal sector employment. A 2017 article about the cost of finding work in South Africa describes many of the expenses of job applications, including: the cost of using internet at internet cafes to search for and apply for jobs online; printing costs, postage, and the cost of certifications for paper applications (still often required); and transport costs to travel to interviews or to submit applications in person (Khan, 2017). The costs of finding a job, especially when it involves travel or requires youth to access equipment or communication that they do not own, can be prohibitively expensive and constitute a real barrier to them finding a job. Therefore, the job search for the majority of youth is a very local affair.

Access to finance is a barrier to young entrepreneurs in creating new and growing small enterprises. This is a topic discussed in detail elsewhere (for example, World Bank and ACET, 2016), and is not strictly within the scope of this paper. However, it is worth noting that access to finance remains a barrier for youth to create and grow new enterprises. There are promising existing government programs to support funding for youth entrepreneurship or other small enterprises - for example, the Youth Enterprise Development Fund in Kenya[16], the Business Development Fund (BDF) in Rwanda[17], and the Fonds de Garantie des Produits Artisanaux (FGPA) in Senegal[18]. However, alongside access to energy, access to finance remains in the top

---

[16] See website of the Youth Enterprise Development Fund at http://www.youthfund.go.ke/

[17] See website of the Business Development Fund at www.bdf.rw

[18] See description of the program on the website of the Agency for the Promotion for the Development of Crafts at http://www.apda.gouv.sn/content/vers-un-fonds-de-garantie-d%C3%A9di%C3%A9-au-secteur-de-l%E2%80%99artisanat

two limitations for the growth of small and medium enterprises (Bell, 2017). In the key informant interviews, barriers to utilizing the government funds mentioned above included low awareness among the target population, challenges in implementation or operations of the programs (including too slow or too difficult of an application process), and that they were limited in scope. That being said, these programs do work for many, and represent a clear government awareness of and commitment to addressing this challenge. Savings and lending cooperatives, and innovative new platforms such as mobile money programs (particularly in Kenya) were additional important and promising sources of finance for young entrepreneurs mentioned in the key informant interviews.

In some contexts, corruption and issues of governance are barriers to a successful transition. In general, key informant interviews pointed to the existence of a lack of trust between job-seekers and employers in many contexts. This is caused by a variety of factors: a sense that there is corruption in the job market, nepotism, or the fact that you need to know someone in order to get a job. These factors can be very discouraging, in particular in the context of the "promise" that secondary education will lead to a good job and a good life. In Senegal, issues of governance are a substantial barrier to delivering high quality education programming, including that for SWT. There are four different ministries in charge of different dimensions of youth education, including the Ministry of Youth, Citizenship Building and Volunteering Promotion, the Ministry of TVET, Apprenticeship, Arts and Crafts, the Ministry of National Education, and the Ministry of Higher Education, so clear communication and between government bodies is critical to the success of programs in this arena. However, the government has expressed a commitment to improve education governance (PressAfriq, 2017), and recent efforts have been made in this direction, including changes to the structure and composition of the government. In Kenya, the issue of pervasive corruption was a consistent theme among key informant interviews. Corruption can be a barrier in many forms, but examples given by key informants included high levels of nepotism which is discouraging to job applicants, and employees staying in jobs past their retirement date, occupying jobs youth could otherwise fill.

Youth lack information and knowledge at various steps of the transition process. An extremely important aspect of finding employment is access to information and knowledge, particularly in the first three phases of the school to work transition, described below:
- *Preparation* - Youth use information to determine the employment sectors they are interested in based on opportunity, passion, potential income, future economic outlook of the sector.
- *Search* - Youth use information and their networks to identify current job openings, establishing contact with employers, and other related actions.
- *Negotiation and evaluation* - Information is further required by the job-seeker to determine the suitability of work offered, whether the work is formal or informal. The viability of other work opportunities, the image and integrity of the employer, and work conditions are issues that matter. Youth might also lack understanding regarding social

protections, contracts, paid leave, insurance, and pension, which hinders their ability to effectively negotiate with an employer.

Thus, a lack of knowledge and information is a major barrier for youth, a large portion of whom report not knowing how or where to find opportunities (ILO: SWT survey). Usually, youth gain such information and knowledge from their networks - such as parents, friends, or acquaintances. Personal networks are likely to be weak for a large number of youth because the majority of their connections are based in the agricultural sector, while the jobs that they search for lie in the non-farm sectors (ILO: SWT survey; Elder and Kone, 2014). The importance of networks for accessing information was highlighted in the key informant interviews in Rwanda, Senegal, and Kenya. As an example, in Rwanda, interviewees explained that youth looking for semi- or unskilled industrial jobs would gain information about temporary positions at factories through their friends and acquaintances employed in similar work.

3.5 Issues specific sub-populations of youth face

We find that various challenges that youth face in the school to work transition are specific to certain groups of populations. Women face different challenges compared to men; urban inhabitants to rural; and younger to older youth. The socio-economic situation of youth is also a very strong determinant of their opportunities and the options that are available to them.

3.5.1 Male – Female

Women face distinct disadvantages in the job market based on seven major factors: skills and education, capital, networks, time and family formation, occupational choice, employer bias, and safety.

Skills and Education: Women, on average, attain lower levels of education compared to men in sub-Saharan Africa (Barro and Lee, 2010). According to the World Bank (2015), the average literacy in sub-Saharan Africa was 65.8% for women, and 76.3% for men, in 2010. This difference in educational attainment causes women to have lower technical qualifications, which exclude them from higher-skilled employment, and to have fewer soft skills one might typically obtain through education, leading to lower work readiness (Heckman et al, 2006).

Capital: The ability to acquire capital is important for self-employment and entrepreneurship, and evidence shows that men and women differ in their access to capital. Hallward-Driemeier (2013) show that in Côte d'Ivoire, Kenya, Nigeria, and Senegal, 60% of new female entrepreneurs cite finance as the biggest issue they face when setting-up a business, compared to 40% of men who state the same reason. The study further shows that male entrepreneurs start enterprises

with greater capital in both the formal and informal sectors. In addition, overall in sub-Saharan Africa, there are countries where women face legal discrimination in terms of freedom to conduct financial and business activities: more than 15% of low-income countries in sub-Saharan Africa have laws which affirm that 'women cannot open up bank accounts without their husband's approval', while more than 30% of low-income countries have legal statutes which 'allow the husband to oppose wife's exercise of trade or profession' (Hallward-Driemeier, 2013).

Networks: Chakravarty et al (2017) state that the literature on young women having weaker networks than young men in sub-Saharan Africa remains limited, but there is some evidence that points in this direction. For example, Magruder (2010) finds in South Africa that if the industry in which fathers of youth work in are hiring, then their sons are more likely to work, but the same does not hold true for daughters. Further, the literature on networks and their role in the job search process clearly shows that knowing more people and wealthier people improves the job market outcomes of job-seekers (Conley and Topa, 2002; Bayer et al, 2008). As women sometimes have limited mobility, they might be unable to interact with or connect to as many people, and thus have weaker networks (Hallward-Driemeier, 2013).

Time and Family Formation: Women tend to get married earlier than men and face teenage pregnancies at a high rate (Chakravarty et al, 2017). Filmer and Fox (2014) find that by the age of 25, almost 80% of women in sub-Saharan Africa give birth to their first child. The burden of childcare and household responsibilities are, on average, undertaken by women, which reduces the total time that they can possibly invest in work, and reduces their employability in the minds of employers (Chakravarty et al, 2017). In a global context, Bloom et al (2009) support this idea by showing from a sample of 97 countries that giving birth to a child causally reduces the estimated labour supply of women by almost 2 years. Moreover, Elder and Kone (2014) through the ILO SWT survey that only 14.2% of wage and salaried workers have access to maternity or paternity leaves, an issue that hits women harder than men due to women's primary role in childcare.

Occupational Choice: There is gender segregation in the job market, where men and women have differing tendencies to work in specific sectors. This segregation often affects women negatively, as they mostly work in lower paying and less productive sectors (World Bank, 2012). Similarly, a key theme from the informant interviews in Ethiopia was that there are distinct differences in the type of jobs young women pursue, preferring those that are traditionally seen as "for women" such as hairdressing or clerical jobs. This is particularly limiting as there are fewer opportunities in these fields. As a counterpoint, key informants indicated this type of trend towards gendered careers may be reversing in Senegal, with TVET training centres there reporting high numbers of women learning vocations that have traditionally been considered male jobs, such as truck driving or fishing.

Employer bias: In addition to the bias in the jobs women pursue, interviews in Rwanda show that there is bias among who employers hire. In the agriculture and manufacturing sectors, which employ a large portion of secondary educated youth, the physical nature of work makes employers prefer men over women for positions. However, some sectors like marketing and sales favour women, and show the potential of being targeted for female employment. Chigunta et al (2013) back this idea through a survey of employers in Zambia where 15.1% of employers were shown to prefer men over women when hiring for managerial positions, compared to 4.1% of employers who preferred women. For elementary occupations, 23.5% preferred men while 5.4% preferred women; the rest stated no preferences.

Safety: Women tend to face higher levels of harassment at home, during the job search, and in employment, which in turn restricts their mobility. Alesina et al (2016) find from of the Demographic and Health surveys of 18 sub-Saharan countries that women, on average, face higher levels of domestic violence if they are economically active, and posit that working women have higher bargaining power within households and are seen as a threat by their husbands. Chakravarty et al (2017) state that women's mobility is often restricted by households because of the perceived risk of harm and violence outside and at work. Similar analysis of DHS data by Alesina et al (2016) find that a large proportion of women interviewed agreed with the statement that it was justified for their husband to beat them if they would leave the house without telling him. The lowest percentage of agreement was found in Malawi (5.3%) and the highest in Guinea at 86.2%; Kenya showed an agreement of 32.5% and Ethiopia, 49.4%. Key informant interviews in Rwanda also show that women face sexual harassment from employers while looking for jobs and even during employment. They were also more likely to face harassment from clients and customers in jobs where they directly interacted with them such as in the hospitality and sales sectors. This prevalence of high sexual harassment makes some women prefer self-employment or sectors where they are less likely to face such issues. For example, Ruiz Abril (2008) find in Liberia that 20% of women preferred self-employment because it had lower risk of sexual harassment.

3.5.2 Urban – Rural

There are major differences between secondary educated youth living in rural and urban areas based on networks, geographical barriers, job search costs, and availability of jobs in various employment sectors. Rural inhabitants have relatively restricted job-search networks. This is because the friends and families of rural youth who function as the primary sources of jobs for them, are unable to successfully provide information about or access into the wage employment and entrepreneurship sectors: fields where the current generation of youth aspire to work in (ILO: SWT survey; Elder and Kone, 2014).

Moreover, rural youth face greater geographical barriers when searching for employment because the majority of non-agricultural jobs are present in urban areas - a phenomenon often referred to as a spatial mismatch between job seekers and job opportunities. Some youth may

be able to migrate to urban areas to seek these jobs outside of agriculture. Recent evidence from Tanzania shows that migration to a more urban area is associated with employment and economic mobility (De Weerdt and Kutka 2013; Filmer and Fox, 2014). However, high transportation costs limit such movements for many rural youth. While geographic barriers are often more severe for rural youth, urban youth may also be limited in job-seeking due to high costs of intra-city transportation (Franklin, 2015).

The employment opportunities that rural and urban youth face are vastly different: the major employment opportunities in rural areas are farming and household enterprises, while in urban areas there are more opportunities for wage employment (Dekker and Hollander, 2017). Additionally, Bossuroy and Cogneau (2013) show that the mobility of youth between the sector their parents worked in and another sector is low: children of farmers have a high probability of being farmers, while children of non-farmers have a high tendency of being non-farmers.

3.5.3 Younger – Older

Younger and older youth at the secondary education level face different challenges based on issues of work experience, networks, and the urgency of the need to transition. Although this issue of an age divide at the secondary level is not discussed in the literature to a great extent, we find in the 4 focused countries, and overall in the other 8 countries from the ILO SWT survey, that there is a wide distribution of ages of youth at the secondary level. As previously highlighted, the same is holds true in Rwanda, Kenya, Senegal and Ethiopia. Further, in the ILO survey countries, more than 30% of the secondary population was found to be older than the age of 22 and more than 11% of secondary youth were aged between 25 to 29. This age divide means that youth graduating or dropping out of the secondary level have vastly different aims and aspirations regarding the transition to work. Younger youth might also have the possibility to return to the education system in the future after working for some duration. Programs that ease this return like second-chance education initiatives could be hugely beneficial (Betcherman and Khan, 2015). Younger youth also face the challenges of having lower work experience and lesser developed networks compared to their older counterparts who would have worked in the past and gained skills and experience on the job. It was found that older youth have a further advantage in the job market because younger youth who drop out at the secondary level are not old enough to legally work; thus, their employment options are limited to the informal sector.

On the other hand, older youth tend to have greater responsibilities due to marriage, childbirth, and other related family duties. The need to transition for older youth might thus be more urgent; but the support and training for transition that they are meant to get at a higher level like university, is absent from the secondary education system.

4 Promoting successful transitions from school to work

Supporting youth through all phases of the transition to work can take many forms. In this section we outline key skills youth need for successful SWT, summarize existing interventions, and review the existing evidence and gaps.

4.1 The skills needed to succeed in the transition from school to work

Throughout their education, students gain a hierarchy of skills of various types including cognitive, behavioural and socioemotional, technical, and entrepreneurial skills. Cognitive skills are typically the foundation of an education system, starting with basic literacy and numeracy in primary school, and advancing to critical thinking and problem solving in later years of education (Filmer and Fox, 2014). Behavioural and socioemotional skills, often called life skills, transferable skills, or soft skills, are also critical skills built during development. Technical skills are often job specific and taught in subject-specific training, such as TVET education.

The literature on skills often focuses on what skills are needed <u>to do</u> the jobs that exist in the job market, for example when discussing the skills mismatch between the labour supply and the market. However, there is not a conclusive literature on what skills are needed <u>to make the transition</u> to work. In this section, we summarize the skills key informants identified as critical to make the transition to work, and literature that supports or refutes these findings. Then, as comparison, we review what skills are present in existing training programs and interventions.

Despite the various pathways youth take into the formal and informal labour markets discussed in the key informant interviews, there were some fundamental skills that emerged as critical to the transition to work across different contexts.

Networking: The role of networks is often mentioned in literature on SWT (Dekker and Hollander, 2017; Elder and Kone, 2014; Filmer and Fox, 2014; UNESCO 2012). "Across countries, most people get their jobs through contacts from family and friends, especially in the case of modern wage jobs. An estimated 60 percent of enterprises surveyed in 14 countries report that their most recent position was filled through contacts with 'family or friends'" (Filmer and Fox, 2014). While the ways in which networks are leveraged to find jobs vary across contexts, the ability to build, retain, and leverage personal and professional connections to gain employment is a core skill, and a skill that was repeatedly mentioned as critical to the SWT in the key informant interviews. In Ethiopia, the role of networks was highlighted as particularly important because of the low quality of the education and training systems in many areas, and therefore low trust from employers in certifications from these institutions. In that context

employers preferred to hire based on referrals from their network, as a positive interpersonal referral carries more credibility than formal certifications.

Information Seeking: One key component of the search process is the ability to seek out and find available jobs. The barriers to seeking information on employment opportunities vary. In some contexts, social media plays a large role in seeking and sharing information about employment opportunities and informal job networks exist on social media platforms. For example, in the interviews in Kenya key informants mentioned Twitter hashtags for job postings; in Rwanda key informants mentioned the use of Whatsapp groups to share employment postings. In these and other contexts, jobs - especially formal sector jobs - are posted primarily on online job markets (e.g. Shortlist, BrighterMonday). To find and access these jobs, key informants in Kenya cited the importance of digital literacy skills. In contrast, key informants in Senegal report that digital literacy skills are not as relevant, as online resources about the local market are scarce and very few large companies advertise online.

In addition to digital literacy skills, some key informants, particularly in Kenya, mentioned the role of cultural norms around information seeking, describing how there was not a culture of information seeking in their communities. If information-seeking is not prioritized, youth then have not developed the skills to effectively seek out information, including the ability to effectively search online, or reading and filtering out relevant advertisements in the newspaper. A related skill in this category is that of understanding what jobs you are qualified for, a skill that was mentioned by key informants particularly in Kenya.

Understanding employment and employers: One ubiquitous skill that key informants mentioned as critical and lacking among youth is an understanding of employment and the world of work. This includes: 1) understanding what employment actually constitutes - for example, what tasks make up a day, that it can be hard, that you might have to do the same thing every day; 2) what the structure of an organization is like, and what skills are needed at each level; and 3) an ability to talk to employers, and understanding norms around professional communication. Respondents in the key informant interviews felt these skills were best achieved through work experience, including visits to workplaces, job shadowing, internships, and apprenticeships, in either the informal or formal sectors. The existence of these types of programs varies substantially depending on context.

Soft skills: A common theme from our interviews with key informants was that employers felt the technical skills of the job could be taught, and so they were really looking for employees with strong with soft skills. This high demand for and low supply of soft skills among employers is noted in the literature in many contexts around the world (UNESCO, 2012), including Peru (World Bank, 2011) and the Philippines (di Gropello et al., 2010). Through the key informant interviews, we were able to describe more specifically which soft skills are critical for SWT. For example, traits such as trustworthiness and a sense of responsibility emerged as particularly relevant for

individuals working in the informal sector, particularly in Senegal. Communication was also brought up repeatedly by key informants in all contexts. This includes both an element of basic literacy skills, as well as understanding more tailored communication such as how to write a professional email, solicit and receive feedback, or present yourself to potential employers. Soft skills such as self-confidence, self-**esteem, motivation, and managing one's own** expectations were also cited as key differentiators of success in the transition to work, as they give youth the confidence to promote themselves in the job market and the perseverance to continue pursuing employment opportunities despite failures. There is evidence from the United States that these skills are related with higher job attainment and higher wages (Heckman et al., 2006; UNESCO, 2012). Additionally, there is evidence from the Akanksha program in India that training on self-esteem and positive aspirations led to improvements in these skills, and subsequently higher earnings, compared to youth who had not been through the program (Krishnan and Krutikova, 2012; UNESCO, 2012).

Fluency in an international or business language: whether it was speaking Amharic in Ethiopia, French in Senegal, or English in Rwanda and Kenya, fluency in an international or business language was highlighted as a key skill in transitioning to work. This skill is important particularly to the job search process in the formal sector in urban areas, as recruitment for many jobs in this subset of the market, especially jobs with international companies, is conducted in an international business language. This skill of fluency in an international or business language was mentioned often as an emerging, and increasingly important, skill as job markets across sub-Saharan Africa become more international. This is true in both the formal and informal sectors.

Entrepreneurship skills:

- Skills needed to formally establish a business, such as developing a business plan or develop an operating budget;
- Skills needed to develop and sell a product, such as innovation or marketing;
- Resource mapping, including the ability to look for and access financial resources;
- Soft skills that are particularly relevant when youth are self-employed, such as resilience, perseverance, or grit; and
- Basic financial literacy skills and the ability to manage money.

It is the last two types of entrepreneurship skills - resilience, perseverance, or grit and basic financial literacy skills - that we want to highlight here as particularly relevant for the majority of youth making the transition from secondary school to work in sub-Saharan Africa. As these youth may face a difficult job search process and are transitioning largely into the informal sector or into household enterprises, the most relevant and fundamental skills are those which youth can use to sustain a livelihood.

Programs and initiatives all over the continent have been taking into account the need to train youth in the above-mentioned soft skills to enable youths to transition into the workforce. Whether delivered within curriculum reforms that reach students all over the nation, programs by international and local organizations for targeted youth groups, career services organisations providing job search support, or standalone programs in skills training, these programs are increasingly incorporating relevant work readiness and job search soft skills into their curricula. Some of the soft skills that are highlighted and currently form the curricula for training in various youth employability and training programs across the continent are:[19]

- Personal competencies like positive attitude, self-confidence, critical thinking, creativity, responsibility, respect, goal setting, assertiveness, empowerment, dealing with criticism and stress;
- Problem solving and conflict management skills;
- Effective work habits like money management, team-work, communication, time management, collaboration, professional workplace behaviours, customer orientation and satisfaction, and respecting diversity and workers' rights;
- Job application skills like interviewing, CV writing;
- Identifying opportunities and presenting with market research, resource mapping, pitching ideas, presentation, and innovation;
- Entrepreneurship and professional growth skills including budgeting, financial literacy, market research, creative thinking, accessing finance, negotiation, emotional intelligence, leadership, decision making, negotiation, constructive feedback, risk-taking, and coping with failure, and;
- Soft skills gained through work-based learning like familiarity with a workplace environment, understanding a job description in action, flexibility, trainability, networking and maintaining networks.

As we can see, many of the soft skills that were mentioned by key informants as being pivotal for successful school to work transition like entrepreneurship skills, personal competencies like perseverance and self-esteem, and soft-skills including assertiveness and presentation, are being prioritised by programs already in existence and delivered to youth. However, there might still exist a gap in training and policy attention to some important SWT skills identified such as networking and maintaining relationships, seeking and soliciting information, and utilising social networks for job search. Broadening the set of skills targeted by programs in the future to include these as well could prepare youth in these contexts to be better suited for the job market.

The figure below links the relevance of the various skills discussed above to the different stages of the transition process.

---

[19] The skills listed are drawn from the following program document references: *EDC* (2017); *IYF* (2015); *Educate!* (2017); *S4YE* (2017); *USAID* (2017); and *IYF* (2014).

Figure 7. The relevance of skills at different phases of the school to work transition

Preparation	Search	Persuade, Evaluate, Negotiate	Start
• Networking • Work experience (internships, apprenticeships) • Self-awareness, building self-confidence • Entrepreneurship skills – developing a product/idea, market research	• Networking • Information Seeking • Fluency in an international or business language • Entrepreneurship skills - resource mapping	• Networking • Understanding employment • Soft skills • Self-esteem, motivation, aspiration • Entrepreneurship - marketing, soft skills such as resilience and perseverance	• Understanding employment & employers • Soft skills • Entrepreneurship skills - financial literacy, business skills (develop a plan and budget)

The following section examines the different programs and initiatives that are delivering these SWT skills to secondary-level youth across the continent and the main activities undertaken by them to ensure that youth have the necessary skill set to successfully find employment.

4.2 Existing initiatives

In this section we review existing initiatives targeting improved school to work transitions and try to group them according to the various components of the transition process. This is not a straightforward exercise since the majority of these programs deploy interventions in a packaged form: individual components like CV writing training and career guidance are administered collectively, as part of a larger program.

Figure 8. A Mapping of SWT Programs to Different Stages of Transition
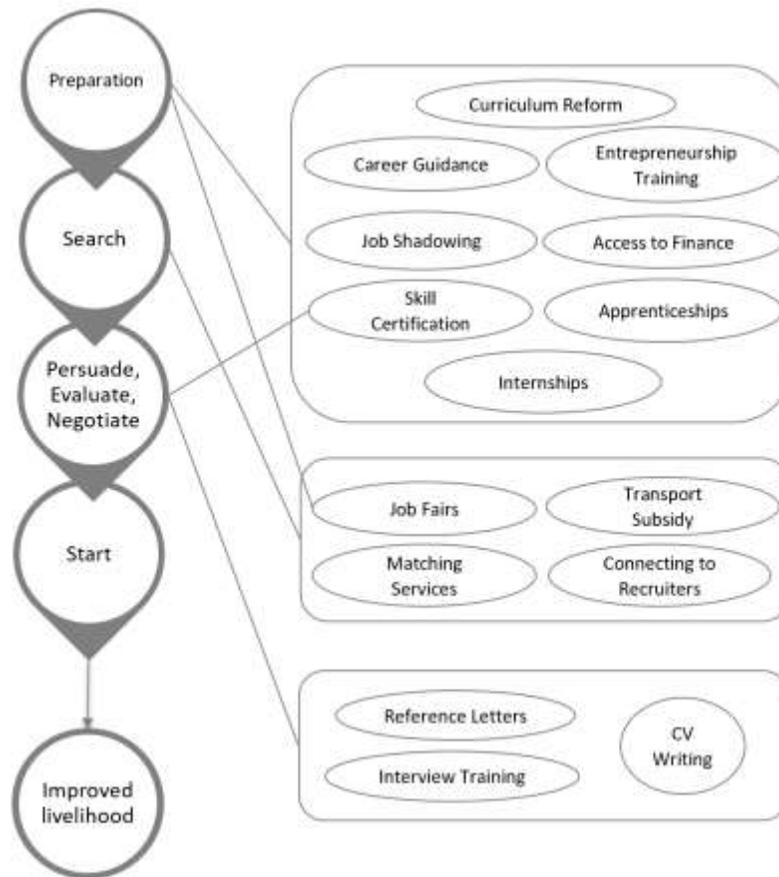
Individual programs target the school to work transition process at specific steps. Figure 8 maps the various types of interventions to the stages of the transition process and Figure 9 describes features of each type of program in more detail. The programs outlined in this section include the various strategies governments and policy makers can adopt to support youth in making the transition from school to work.

Figure 9. Types of School to Work Interventions by Stage of SWT

Initiative	Barriers targeted by programs	Description	Example programs in sub-Saharan Africa that include this initiative	Limitations
Preparation				
Apprenticeships, Internships, Job Shadowing	Low work experience; lack of information about the job market; low levels of practical skills possessed by youth; lack of soft skills	Provide information to job-seekers about the work-world, enhance their networks, offer on the job training and experience	Kenya Youth Employment & Opportunities Project (KYEOP), Government of Kenya, Kenya U-LEARN 2, Swisscontact - Uganda & Tanzania Work Based Learning, Education Development Center, Many Countries Youth Employment Services Program (YES), ILO & Ethiopian Government Zimbabwe: Works, International Youth Foundation, Zimbabwe Senegal: Formation par apprentisage (organized internships in the craft sector)	Low interest from employers in secondary students due to the perception that they do not add value; not enough firms exist that can offer internships to meet the demand; managers or supervisors at these firms aren't trained sufficiently to mentor, support and guide youth to be productive and successful in these short-term opportunities.
Career Guidance	Low levels of job market information; mismatch between possibilities and aspirations	Help in identifying achievable opportunities for young job-seekers	Educate! - Uganda, Rwanda & Kenya Education de Base, FHI 360 - Senegal Harambee Youth Employment Accelerator, South Africa Youth Employment Services Program (YES), Ethiopia - ILO, Ethiopian Government Kenya Youth Employment and Skills Program (K-YES), USAID - Kenya	Capacity constraints faced by schools to implement such a program; requires teacher training and increases burden on teachers
Curriculum Reforms	Mismatch between what is taught in schools and what employers require from workers; lack of training for self-employment	Recalibrate the curriculum towards the ideal blend of theory and practicality; promote movement to both work and higher education; integration of SWT skills in studies	Kenya's reform towards Competency Based Curriculum (2017) Rwanda's reform towards Competency Based Curriculum (2016) Senegal's introduction of the Competency Based Curriculum and reform of the TVET System (2010) Uganda's reform towards a more practical National Entrepreneurship Curriculum (2016)	Teacher training; expanding curriculum beyond teaching capacity, curriculum reform may make education more practical, but harmful to quality if it is not done well

			Ethiopia's Competency-based TVET reform (2008).	
Entrepreneur-ship training and access to finance	Inability to identify business opportunities; lack of soft skills; Lack of capital availability for businesses	Teach skills that allow youth to start their own businesses and sustainably run them; offer capital to youth and facilitate them in setting-up businesses	Build Your Business (BYB), International Youth Foundation, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa & Uganda **Educate!'s Business Clubs,** Uganda, Rwanda & Kenya Kenya Youth Employment & Opportunities Project (KYEOP), Government of Kenya, Kenya Passport to Success, International Youth Foundation - 50 + countries STRYDE, Technoserve - Rwanda U-LEARN, Swisscontact - Tanzania & Uganda Youth Employability through Skills Enterprise Development (YES), SNV - Uganda Zimbabwe: Works, International Youth Foundation, Zimbabwe	Not everyone succeeds in entrepreneurship; targeting improves efficiency but excludes a lot of youth Entrepreneurship training in many cases tends to be very theoretical; practical application and improved hands-on teaching methods are necessary, but costly to implement
			Search	
Job Fairs, Matching Services, connecting to recruiters	Low knowledge about the job-search process and where to look for jobs	Connect job-seekers directly with employers; overcome the problem of low information in the search process	Harambee Youth Employment Accelerator, South Africa KENYA YOUTH EMPLOYMENT AND SKILLS PROGRAM (K-YES), USAID, Kenya Strengthening Learnerships for Unemployed Youth, International Youth Foundation & EOH - South Africa Work Ready Now!, Education Development Center, Multiple countries Youth Employment Services Program (YES), ILO & Ethiopian Government - Ethiopia Yusudi - Kenya	Programs match employers and workers but do not guarantee take up of jobs; aspirations mismatch might cause program failure.
Transport Subsidies	Geographical barriers to searching for jobs	Reduce the cost of job-search; allow job seekers to conduct longer and geographically broader searches		May be difficult to administer at scale; could be prone to inefficiencies in implementation

		Persuade, Evaluate & Negotiate		
Skill Certification, CV Writing Training, Encouragement to use Reference Letters	Information asymmetry and lack of trust between employers and job-seekers regarding the work-readiness of youth	Allow job-seekers to present their skills and abilities in a convincing manner; reduce asymmetry	Kenya Youth Employment & Opportunities Project (KYEOP) - Government of Kenya, Kenya Passport to Success, International Youth Foundation - 50+ countries Programa Para O Futuro, FHI 360 - Mozambique Work Ready Now!, Education Development Center, Multiple countries Recognition of Learning, National Employment Program, Rwanda	Programs target jobs which have a relatively well-defined hiring process; might be less effective for informal sector employment
Interview Training	Lack of soft skills related to business and behavioural aspects of work	Improve the ability of job-seekers to conduct themselves in work environments	Passport to Success, International Youth Foundation, 50+ countries	Time and resource intensive to deliver personalised practical interview training to each student Teachers might not be well trained to train youth on skills for interviewing; requires teacher training and increases burden on teachers

The overall scale of school to work transition programs has been limited in sub-Saharan Africa. The literature review found that programs, compared to the population of the sub-Saharan Africa region, have been small in scale. Programs that have been scaled to the national level are rare.

4.3 The evidence and the research gap

Overall, the literature review and the key informant interviews provide only limited evidence on the impact and cost-effectiveness of programs focused on the school to work transition, especially those targeting the secondary school population.

There are only a few studies which evaluate employment programs using a quantitatively rigorous study methodology. These include evaluations done in the form of an RCT or other quasi-experimental studies. Often, where there is evidence, the study population is not secondary-level students, which limits the extent to which findings from those studies can be generalized to the research questions in this paper. Other studies which are more qualitative in nature are also limited in number. However, these studies tend to argue in favour of SWT programs (Papier, 2017). The literature also hints at these contradictions between qualitative and quantitative evidence. For example, outside of the sub-Saharan context, Hirshleifer (2016) in Turkey, asked stakeholders about the impact they expected to see from an employment program, before evaluation was conducted. The results showed that policy makers expected a 24% increase in employment while the actual impact was a statistically insignificant increase of 2%. Further, most studies do not report program costs, which in turn does not facilitate understanding of program cost-effectiveness (McKenzie, 2017).

Studies in the academic literature tend to test program components individually and not packaged together. For example, Abebe et al (2017) test the effectiveness of job fairs in helping youth get jobs in Ethiopia, while Abel et al (2016) test the impact of using reference letters during the job application process in South Africa; yet, packaged interventions are often the most effective, and have recently become the norm in sub-Saharan Africa (Kluve et al, 2016). Multiple evaluations of packaged programs have been conducted by international development agencies and show that they have large positive impacts like the Akazi Kanoze (Alcid, 2014) program in Rwanda and Educate! in Uganda. However, such packaged programs tend to be resource intensive, both technically and financially (McKenzie, 2017), and usually require international support for effective implementation.

Programs that aim to enhance the skills of youth such as vocational and entrepreneurship training, as well as apprenticeships have shown mixed results. Such interventions have been the most widespread among all the three categories of youth employment generation programs. The World Bank, for example, spent over $1 billion per year between 2002 and 2012 on these types of interventions (McKenzie and Rabalino, 2010; Blattman and Ralston, 2015). Interventions in this space also include apprenticeships and entrepreneurship training. McKenzie (2017) studies 12 experimental evaluations of vocational training programs in developing countries all over the world and finds that, on average, they improve employment across the 12 programs by 2.3% and formal employment by 3.6%, as compared to the respective control groups. However,

only 2 out of 9 studies found significant impacts on income with a mean increase across the studies being $19 (17% of total income). Only 2 studies in the African setting were evaluated by the paper: Cho et al (2013) and Honorati (2015). Both the studies suffered from high levels of attrition so their results are viewed with caution. Honorati (2015) showed an insignificant impact on the earnings of program participants and cost $1,150 per treated individual. Even after assuming that the impact was significant, individuals would recover program costs in 10-11 months of employment. However, a follow-up survey was not undertaken to confirm this. It might be possible that impacts were temporary. Additionally, from a cost per additional person employed, the time-frame would be much longer. Cho et al (2013) showed a 20% reduction in earnings of participants.

Evidence from non-African contexts shows that policymakers and program participants can have over-optimistic expectations of interventions. In Turkey, Hirshleifer (2016) found that policymakers expected a 24% increase in employment from a vocational training program while participants expected a 32% increase. Similarly, Groh et al (2016) showed that policymakers expected a permanent impact from wage subsidies in Jordan. However, both programs led to underwhelming results - in Turkey, a 2% impact was observed and in Jordan, only a small and temporary one.

Furthermore, vocational and skills training programs are costly, especially when the metric **under study is 'cost per additional person employed' (CPAPE).** CPAPE is the effective amount of money spent to employ one person through an intervention. For example, a program which spends $500 per person and employs just two people out of 1,000 will have a CPAPE of $250,000. Mckenzie (2017) showed that vocational education and training programs had extremely high CPAPE due to the large per person cost of the programs and also low employment generation impact. While the per person cost of 12 vocational training programs ranged between $500 and $1,700, the range of the CPAPE was between $17,000 and $60,000. Therefore, these programs are not cost-effective unless the per person cost is brought down or only specific people are targeted who are predicted to have the highest benefits from the programs.

The literature on the effectiveness of matching and job-search support programs in the sub-Saharan Africa context points to a lack of impact. A meta-analysis by McKenzie (2017) found that out of 9 recent job search interventions in developing countries, only 2 studies - Jensen (2012) and Dammert et al (2015) - had a significant impact on employment, and that in the latter study, the control group caught up after 3 months of the program. Among the 9 studies, 5 were conducted in Africa and none of them bore a significant impact on overall employment, these included evaluations of transport subsidies (Abebe et al, 2016; Franklin, 2015), job fairs (Abebe et al, 2017), use of reference letters (Abel et al, 2016), and skills certification (Bassi and Nansamba, 2017). However, these programs tend to be substantially

cheaper than vocational training programs: one-fiftieth to one hundredth of the cost in the case of programs studied by Mckenzie (2017).

A possibility exists where interventions only redirect jobs towards program participants and away from non-participants. The programs which have been studied, except for entrepreneurship programs, only aim to help job-seekers in obtaining employment. They do not aim to create more jobs in the economy. Participants might get employed because after gaining the benefits of the program they become more suitable for the jobs they apply for relative to non-participants. In such a scenario, the total number of jobs in the economy does not increase and people who otherwise would have gotten the jobs do not get them. Program evaluations in the literature do not design their studies to answer this question of whether programs redirect jobs or create new ones (McKenzie, 2017).

Additional funding for research into SWT is needed. There is a need for additional evaluations to assess the impact and cost-effectiveness of school to work transition interventions and identify optimal policies. SWT is a traditionally under-researched and overlooked area when it comes to policy priority in the continent. More policy or research attention into the area and support for scaling of programs and reforms that facilitate SWT can help ensure that youth are better equipped to navigate the job markets of the future.

The various challenges that policy makers and the education system face in the process of curriculum reform need to be addressed and examined. The move towards curriculum reforms that prioritise transition and entrepreneurship skills come with a variety of challenges for the education system in terms of training requirements, changing pedagogy, high costs etc. Further research is needed to assess the real costs and benefits of such reforms, and the challenges that policy makers face in deciding to incorporate school to work transition skills in the national-level curriculum in sub-Saharan Africa. These may include identifying the strengths, priorities and limitations of the stakeholders involved, adapting and scaling effective SWT program components using partnerships, and balancing the existing high-level priorities of the education system like teacher training, providing universal access, quality of core-curriculum etc.

5 Reflections and Recommendations

The previous chapters show that there is a need to reconceptualize the school to work transition. For most youth in sub-Saharan Africa, the transition from school to work is a transition from primary school or a partial secondary school education into the informal sector or agriculture. Only a minority of youth are making the transition from secondary school into formal sector wage jobs. Programs that target the formal sector, even if they reached all secondary age youth and were 100% effective, would only be relevant for, at most, one-third of the school to work transitions that occur in sub-Saharan Africa. Yet, outside of some TVET programs, school to work transition programs have traditionally focused on training youth for the formal sector. That said, there are a growing number of innovative programs that are increasingly better tailored to the realities of the job market and aim to support youth accordingly.

We have also shown that the factors that impact the transition process vary greatly among different youth populations in the continent. Factors like age, gender, and location play an important role in determining the pathways into employment, the type of transitions, and the length of transitions.

The skills needed to make the transition can also vary for different populations, and if the transition is into the formal or informal sector. That said, the following skills were highlighted in the key informant interviews and supported by the literature as generally relevant in navigating the transition to work: networking; information seeking; understanding employers and the world of work; soft skills including trustworthiness, communication skills, and self-confidence; fluency in an international or local business language; and entrepreneurship skills, especially resilience and basic financial literacy.

In this chapter, we offer a few reflections on the role of the secondary education system in supporting school to work transition and conclude with broad recommendations that policy makers and programs can use to structure their thinking about school to work transitions in sub-Saharan Africa.

5.1 The role of secondary education

The secondary education system has an important role to play in preparing youth for the transition to work and equipping them with the skills they need not only to do future jobs, but also to find a job. Where education systems have been evolving, it seems policy makers are increasingly acknowledging the role of education in preparing youth for work. For example, recent education reforms in countries like Rwanda, Ethiopia, Uganda, Senegal and Kenya are

moving towards competency-based curricula and incorporating soft skills and entrepreneurship skills into the curricula with strong support and partnerships from international organizations. These reforms highlight the promise of a change in pedagogy to address the various facets of delivering skills training to facilitate youth in making the transition into the workforce.

However, there are three key issues:

- First, education systems have been designed in a linear way, where age and grade go together. It is only once youth reach the later stages of their education cycle, be it tertiary education, TVET training or upper secondary school, that the balance starts to shift from mostly academic considerations to also preparing youth for the job market. However, as we have shown, age and grade are often disconnected in the context of secondary education systems in sub-Saharan Africa. The transition to work already starts happening at the primary or lower secondary school level, due to over-aging.

- Second, in the context of school to work transitions, education systems have put a large focus on the technical or soft skills youth need to succeed *in a job*. For many youth that transition from secondary school to work, job-related skills are not necessarily the most binding constraint to them *finding a job*; we have shown that other skills matter as well, be it networking, seeking the right information, setting personal objectives and so forth.

- Third, education systems and curricula are very centrally managed and disconnected from the local reality of the job market and the specific requirements of the of different groups of youth.

5.1.1 Start early, target by age, not grade

School to work transition programs should start early and target by age, not grade. In the context of sub-Saharan Africa, there are youth of working age enrolled in primary school and lower secondary school. Therefore, preparation for the transition to work should not only be happening in upper secondary school or once youth have transitioned into TVET, technical secondary education, of tertiary education.

Planning by grade is always logistically easier to implement; but by delivering SWT programs to youth in the later stages of their education only, policy makers miss out on the opportunity to positively influence the majority of school-to-work transitions. School to work transition programs should target youth beginning at the lower secondary level, if not before. The data clearly shows that enrolment rates at upper secondary are lower than at lower secondary; and the transition to work for youth starts earlier than after graduation from secondary education.

Program delivery can be expected to change in the future as enrolment at higher levels of education improves, and less and less youth transition directly after completing or dropping out of secondary education. A large number of key informants suggested during their interviews that job preparedness and soft-skills training for these particular skills should start as early as possible, even at the primary school level. They mention the need for training young children to be curious, innovative, confident and assertive as early as possible as these traits relate significantly to the skills required for presenting themselves to an employer or finding self-employment.

5.1.2 Focus also on the skills required to find a job, not only to succeed in a job

There are a growing number of innovative programs focusing on SWT - both small and large scale - that are better suited to the realities of the job market, delivering more tailored and targeted support to youth. Education systems can learn from these initiatives and explore what sort of support could be delivered through the education system at scale, rather than through external partners.

The rise of innovative programs helping youth prepare for work in informal sector and/or agriculture are promising in light of the need to redirect policy efforts to informal employment and informality in the labour market. Examples of such initiatives include the VIA Pathways to Work initiative in Tanzania & Mozambique that brings the issue of mixed-livelihoods to the forefront of youth employability training; the U-LEARN 2 project in Uganda run by Swisscontact that focuses on agribusiness and removing barriers to accessing relevant market information and linkages; and Technoserve's STRYDE program in Rwanda that provides training for youth to identify and capitalise on local opportunities in agriculture and agri-related businesses.

Few programmes have used secondary schools as the main conduit to prepare youth for the transition to work. Nevertheless, there are some promising examples of large-scale programs that have partnered with national level government and been successful in bringing SWT skills training to secondary school students across sub-Saharan Africa. Three such promising initiatives are highlighted in detail in Chapter 6 - Case Studies and can be used as best practice examples for developing large scale SWT programs in the continent. These programs have successfully worked alongside the ministries of education and other government partners to deliver SWT skills training within the secondary school systems, reaching a large number of youth in the countries they work in. First, Educate! in Rwanda and Uganda that works with governments in scaling soft-skills training for employment and entrepreneurship within school systems. Second, the International Youth Foundation has a Passport to Success (PTS) curriculum that focuses on transferable skills training for employability and entrepreneurship using a training-of-trainers model. Third, EDC, in the partnership between the Ministry of Education in Rwanda and

Akazi Kanoze Access, worked to integrate work readiness training into the secondary school entrepreneurship curriculum in Rwanda.

5.1.3 Connect to the local realities of the job market

To succeed in preparing youth for the transition to work, education systems need to be better embedded within the local realities of the job market. This is extremely difficult for education systems to achieve, since at the core of education is standardization based on the principle and the promise of equal access to education. Nevertheless, the truth is that youth everywhere face a very different reality and set of possibilities in the job market the moment they leave school, depending on where they live, whether they are male or female, their socio-economic status and so forth. For education systems to make a difference they need to provide youth with more embedded and locally-relevant SWT support.

Strong partnerships between employers - be they formal or informal - and educational institutions are a key determinant of success. This theme of strong private sector partnerships is also discussed in the World Development Report on Education, with a particular emphasis on the importance of establishing private sector and sectoral partnerships even before training programs are designed in order to maximize applicability of the training programs to the job openings in the market (see Chapter 8, World Bank, 2018). This idea of ensuring training programs, particularly technical training programs, are matched to the needs of the job market was a key theme in the key informant interviews as well.

Informal apprenticeships are an example of how education systems can create locally relevant partnerships with informal-sector employers (ILO, 2012). Positively, informal sector apprenticeships are already happening in many places, without external intervention. In Kenya, Franz (2011) estimated that more than 150,000 youth were enrolled in informal apprenticeships compared to 100,000 youth in TVETs. Filmer and Fox (2014) find in six sub-Saharan African countries[20] that 20% of youth between the ages of 24-35 reported having participated in an apprenticeship program. Leveraging these existing systems and practices at the local level could help schools better link to the realities of the job market. Teal (2016) indicates that informal apprenticeships can work as pathways for youth into self-employed or employment in small and medium firms in the informal sector. Further, Monk et al (2008) found through Ghana's household and earnings data that informal apprenticeships increased the earnings of youth with low levels of education by almost 50%. However, as a youth's level of education increased, the returns to apprenticeships went down, suggesting that such pathways to work might be most effective for lower educated youth. Teal (2016) even suggest that informal apprenticeships which last for weeks or months instead of multiple years can still have positive impacts.

---

[20] Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Uganda

Public-private partnerships between secondary education systems and the private sector were common in TVET training, but otherwise varied by context. This was one core domain explored in the key informant interviews, and we found differences in the prevalence and policies around these programs in each context. In all countries, TVET training programs tend to have an internship or apprenticeship component ((Krishnan, P. & Shaorshadze, I., 2013) on TVET in Ethiopia; (Workforce Development Authority, Rwanda, 2018) in Rwanda; (Ministry of Education, Kenya, 2013) in Kenya and (UNEVOC, 2015) in Senegal). Outside of this, the prevalence of internships or other private sector training partnerships varied. In Ethiopia and Senegal, key informants expressed that internships or other similar work experiences were not common outside of TVET. In Rwanda, key informants described that internships among general secondary students are increasingly common. However, one key barrier mentioned to the scale up of internship programs in Rwanda, especially among general secondary school students, is perceptions among employers, parents and educators that general secondary school students did not have much value to provide employers. Key informants expressed the need for a change in cultural perceptions around this on all sides to see how these experiences would benefit both students and employers. Krishnan and Shaorshadze (2013) note that this a challenge in Ethiopia as well, with employers feeling that taking on apprentices or interns was a burden, even among those undergoing TVET training. In Kenya, similar to Rwanda, key informants noted a trend of the increasingly popularity of internships among secondary students. However, the major barrier to internships described by key informants in Kenya was not necessarily cultural perceptions or an unwillingness of private sector employers to take on interns, but a need for training and more capacity among employers to better utilize interns and provide them with better, more useful and fulfilling experiences. One solution in the Senegalese context are the *centre sectoriels*, which are industry-specific technical training centres that are built on partnerships with the private sector.

5.2 Recommendations

The following section outlines the main recommendations that policy makers or program developers can use to: frame their thinking around school to work transitions, consider while assessing potential programs that are candidates for national level scale-up or expansion, or explore further with additional research. These recommendations are not meant to be prescriptive, but instead aim to highlight a few fundamental issues and contextual factors that should be acknowledged in developing, scaling, or funding programs related to school to work transitions.

1. Embrace sustainable livelihoods as the outcome of a successful transition to employment. Many existing programs target formal sector employment or the establishment of a viable enterprise as the outcome of interest, but we argue using an

outcome of sustainable livelihoods is a more appropriate approach for the context. Taking this livelihoods approach is more inclusive of the reality for the majority of youth in sub-Saharan Africa you will work in the informal sector. Facilitating or improving school to work transitions is not isolated, but rather part of larger development objectives to improve livelihoods.

2. Transitions may be complex and non-linear. Youth may pursue many income generating activities and work multiple jobs while also going back and forth between periods of education and employment. Entrepreneurship might often be in the form of short-term and small local businesses that provide day-to-day subsistence. Further, framing a successful transition as a process in which you begin an employment trajectory towards this outcome, acknowledges the reality for many youth in this region whose transitions are non-linear, and may involve many transitions, for example between overlapping work in a short-term roles, such as with a small or household enterprise or in the informal sector (e.g. as a day labourer), (seasonal) work in the agricultural sector, and returning to education for additional certification. This component of the context ought to be considered when designing initiatives that seek to improve the skills and opportunities of transitioning youth.

3. School to work transition programs should start early and target by age, not grade. The data clearly shows that enrolment rates at upper secondary are lower than at lower secondary; and the transition to work for many youth starts earlier secondary education. A large number of key informants suggested during their interviews that job preparedness and soft-skills training for school to work transition skills should start as early as possible. In the context of sub-Saharan Africa, the is a disconnect between age and grade in the education systems. There are youth of working age enrolled in primary school and lower secondary school. Therefore, preparation for the transition to work should not only be happening in upper secondary school or once youth have transitioned into TVET of technical secondary education. This need to target programs by age applies to both within school or external interventions that target youth by grade.

4. There is a need to redirect the policy efforts on youth employment and training to be more inclusive of the informal and agriculture sectors. According to the ILO's World Employment Social Outlook Report (2016), the informal economy in sub-Saharan Africa forms 50-80 percent of GDP; 60-80 per cent of employment; and 90 percent of new jobs. It is estimated that nine out of ten workers in this region only work in the informal sector. The majority of the youth coming out of schooling and looking to enter the labour market will be employed in the informal sector.

Many policy efforts across sub-Saharan Africa are focused on growing the share of the formal sector and boosting formal sector employment (Minecofin, 2012; ILO, 2016; All

Africa, 2017), which creates a misalignment between the problem and the policy solution. The pathways that lead to employment in the informal sector often require a different set of skills than those to the formal sector. Policy efforts that are better tailored to the local realities of the job market will be better positioned to address the challenges of informal sector transitions. These include measures like setting up or facilitating access to informal apprenticeships, promoting informal public-local business partnerships, as well as engaging in efforts to change negative mindsets and attitudes about agriculture and agri-businesses.

5. Partnerships with the private sector, in both a formal and informal context, are an integral conduit to delivering market-relevant skills and curriculum to students at large. Partnerships between schools and local businesses (be they formal or informal) can help better embed the SWT curriculum into the local context and provide students with apprenticeship opportunities and other learning opportunities before or during the transition to work. Informal apprenticeships are already common practice outside of the education system.

6. There are high costs of searching for a job, (for example, the costs of using internet cafes, printing materials, or travel for interviews) which make job search a local affair for most youth and pose a barrier to employment. Although empirical evidence is limited for existing initiatives in this area, programs or initiatives that focus on increasing mobility of youth or subsidizing some of these costs instead of directly training youth on soft-skills might contribute to easing the entry of youth into the labour market, especially in rural areas and among girls who have less savings or capital base.

7. School to work programming needs to take into account the differing challenges and barriers faced by different sections of youth. The process of transitioning does not follow the same trajectory for different sub-populations of youth: men and women, older and younger youth, and urban and rural youth. For SWT training and programming to be effective, special attention should be given to identifying the contextual factors that come into play for various subsections and delivering targeted solutions to ease these barriers.

8. There is a critical evidence gap with respect not only to the effectiveness of *programs*, but also to the effectiveness of some of the more recent *policy reforms* in the education sector. For example, there is limited evidence available to date on the effectiveness of various types of curriculum reforms that target school to work transition skills, such as the transition to competency-based curricula or integration of entrepreneurship and work readiness training into the national school curriculum. While the spirit of these interventions addresses the root of the problem, it is important to study whether they are having the desired effects while also improving the quality and delivery of secondary education.

9. It is critical for governments and education systems to consider scale and the process of scaling in the design of programs. Achieving scale has been the biggest issue for SWT programming. The vast majority of programmes are costly and piecemeal, targeting only a small minority of youth. For governments and education systems, the key question should be: how can we achieve national scale? Thinking of ways to provide school to work transition preparation through the secondary education system is one of the most effective ways to achieve scale. However, this will require experimentation and innovation, as there are only a few examples of models that have been scaled nationally. Where models that have scaled, for example the EDC programme in Rwanda, they are relatively new and have yet to be evaluated at scale.

6 Case Studies

There are many promising programs and initiatives across sub-Saharan Africa that have reconceptualized school to work transitions and could be scaled to better support youth. These initiatives take into account the various contextual factors that affect youth employment like youth working multiple jobs at the same time, gender discrimination in accessing work, and unexplored opportunities in agriculture and agri-business. The emergence of more initiatives that address youth employment as a matter of sustaining livelihoods like VIA: Pathways to work in Tanzania and Mozambique and those that aim to do away with negative attitudes regarding agriculture and agri-business like U-LEARN 2 in Uganda & STRYDE in Rwanda, are evidence of policy makers and program designers coming together to deliver the best fit tailored solutions to youth unemployment in the continent.

The following sections outline three promising initiatives that can serve as best practice case studies of large-scale efforts aimed to address the problem of youth employability in sub-Saharan Africa. In each section we review the key features of the program design like innovation, scalability, adaptability to other contexts, and evidence of their impact across various indicators. These programs include a wide range of activities that equip youth in various technical and soft skills that help enable a successful transition into the world of work. The case studies presented below are informed by existing program literature as well as key informant interviews with the relevant implementing partners.

6.1 Educate!

Organization: Educate!
Country: Uganda, Rwanda & Kenya
Dates of Implementation: 2012- present
Target population: High school students
Partners: Akazi Kanoze Access, EDC and Rwanda Education Board in Rwanda; Ministry of Education in Uganda; Kenya Institute for Curriculum Development in Kenya

Introduction

Educate! was established in Uganda in 2012. The organization works directly within the formal education system of the countries where it operates. Currently it has established operations in Uganda and Rwanda, and a recently established partnership with the government of Kenya. Educate! brings to schools a curriculum that has a core focus on equipping young students with the necessary skills for employment in the 21st century. These include mentorship on topics like entrepreneurship and community initiatives, training and information on labour markets, training on developing business plans and forming business clubs, and teacher training on these skills.

The organisation prioritises the involvement of the private sector in developing its curriculum, thereby making the information and resources available to the students relevant to the current context and in line with market needs and expectations. The Educate! program selects and trains youth leaders, who are young entrepreneurs from within the local communities to serve as mentors that youth at school can easily relate to and gain mentorship from. It also helps youth start savings accounts to build assets that can protect them during financial shocks. Delivery of Educate!'s program and training are at the classroom level, which makes it accessible to all enrolled students on the same level.

Along with working within schooling systems in both Uganda and Rwanda, a special focus for Educate! is active government engagement. This is to ensure that its program is adopted at the systems-level wherever possible and is tailored to the demands, capacity and cost concerns of the education system. For example, in 2015 during Rwanda's national curriculum reform process, Educate! signed an MOU with the Rwanda Education Board to incorporate the Skills Lab and Student Business Club components of its model into the competency-based curriculum. Through this, Educate! is able to reach 215,000 students annually in Rwanda's upper secondary schools. (S4YE Portfolio, 2017). Educate! also runs the Educate! Exchange program in Rwanda, which is a partnership with Akazi Kanoze Access and Education Development Centre (EDC). Educate! Exchange focuses on training of trainers to better support Rwanda's secondary school teachers to integrate the Skills Lab into their classrooms and accelerate the adoption of experiential teaching methods outlined in the new competency-based curriculum.

In Uganda, Educate! has signed an MOU with the government of Uganda and works in an advisory capacity to the Ministry of Education. Through this partnership, it works to encourage curriculum reforms, integration of practical skills and entrepreneurship training into the school curriculum, and the setting up of business clubs at schools nationwide. It worked with the National Curriculum Development Center to promote teacher training to support these reforms and to better adapt school exams to assess students' learning from these new curricula modules.

In Kenya, Educate! has signed an MOU with the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD) and is currently working with KICD on a five-year partnership. This partnership aims to redesign skills-based learning and teacher training in Kenyan schools as part of the larger curriculum reform process towards a competency-based curriculum in Kenya.

Scalability

In mid-2015, Rwanda's Ministry of Education introduced several successful components of Educate!'s model into the national entrepreneurship curriculum. Components of the Educate! model, Skills Labs and Student Business Clubs now reach all secondary students across the country through this partnership. In order to support this national scale rollout, Educate! worked in partnership with the government for the Educate! Exchange program. This teacher training initiative supported training of trainers across schools in the country to successfully deliver the

program components at a massive scale. In Uganda and Kenya, Educate! has been working closely with officials in advisory, training and implementation capacities to enable nationwide education reform and bring relevant and 21st century skills to every classroom. Educate! encourage system-wide adoption of its components and aims for its approach to be fully integrated into systems across Africa.

Adaptability

Educate! has a focus on adaptability and ensures that the curriculum components and design can be easily adopted across contexts; its curriculum is open source and publicly accessible and it promotes replicating its design by working in partnership with organisations that wish to use its training material. Educate! engages closely with governments, local organisations and education experts in each program country, working towards building the institutional capacity so that the program can be adapted efficiently across different contexts.

Key innovations

Addressing gender disparities:

Educate! works to encourage its students, especially young women, to explore entrepreneurship and other income-generating activities early on. It focuses on gender integration by training youth leaders and teachers on gender equality and equity so it is translated into the classrooms and teaching methods. Through its training on accessing finance and improving savings, it hopes to be able to promote risk-free capital accumulation that can enable female entrepreneurs to overcome the asset gap that women traditionally face (www.experienceeducate.org). Educate! also values equity and encourages equal participation in class by training mentors, teachers, and administrators to identify gender stereotypes faced by students and assists in the creation of strategies for empowering boys and girls equally in the classroom (S4YE Portfolio, 2017).

Student Business Clubs:

Student Business Clubs are an avenue for students in the program to start one or more small enterprises as a team, supported by Educate! -trained youth leaders and teachers. The aim of the clubs is to ensure that students get hands on and practical experience in starting a small business; identifying opportunities, handling challenges, and coming up with innovative solutions. This is a shift towards new models of competency-based curriculum and participatory student-focused learning methods. Supplementing these activities with teacher training is essential and has been a prime focus of Educate!'s work, especially in Rwanda.

Teacher Training via Educate! Exchange:

In 2016, Educate! launched the Educate! Exchange, a teacher professional development program that focuses on equipping teachers and trainers in Rwanda with the latest methods of teaching and delivering the new competency and skills-based curriculum. The program includes exchange visits where teachers travel to and visit other schools and trainers in other schools and share experiences and promote an active discussion about their methods, the pedagogy, innovations in the field, and challenges. Its aim is to build a collaborative environment and a community of practice around experiential skills-based education.

Evidence of Impact

Educate! undertook a cluster randomised control trial (RCT) between 2012-2013 to assess the impact of its 18-month program on student outcomes like livelihood improvement, community participation, business ownership, overall income level, community project ownership and savings behaviour. The trial included 48 schools, half of which were selected randomly to receive the Educate! curriculum and training. Comparisons between baseline and end-of-program showed statistically significant improvements in five out of its twelve outcome indicators. The indicators that showed significant positive change were: business ownership, overall income, community project ownership, savings behaviour, and self-efficacy in practical and soft-skills. Comparing only female students between the groups, significant positive impact was observed in indicators relating to business income and creativity as well (Educate!, 2014).

Apart from the RCT evaluation, Educate! also commissioned a quasi-experimental study of its impact in 2016 with the BRAC Independent Evaluation and Research Cell to estimate whether the large scale-up of its operations since 2012 had succeeded in maintaining its positive impact on student outcomes. Educate! had scaled up its operations significantly since 2012, operating in around 400 schools in 2016 and working with almost ten times the number of students. Results were similar to the 2012 RCT: among program graduates, there was an increase in average income, a 44% increase in business ownership, and a 50% increase in employment. Along with these outcomes, program graduates showed a statistically significant improvement in public speaking, leadership, and the number of job-relevant skills. The evaluation also noted that girls experienced much larger relative impacts across most indicators. (BRAC, 2016)

6.2 Passport to Success

Organization: International Youth Foundation (IYF)
Country: Mozambique, Tanzania, South Africa, Kenya, Senegal, Zimbabwe & over 50 countries worldwide
Dates of Implementation: Introduced in 2004
Target population: In- and out-of-school youth, on the job training for employees
Partners: Developed in partnership with the GE Foundation, delivered in collaboration with youth-serving implementation partners; private, public, NGOs and educational institutions.

Introduction

Passport to Success (PTS) is the International Youth Foundation's (IYF) life-skills program that was developed in 2004 and adapted over a decade in partnership with the GE Foundation. PTS's 91-module curriculum is intended to provide youth with a solid foundation of skills that support their personal, academic, and professional growth. The curriculum focuses on preparing youth for work that exists in their local economies, and where job supply is scarce, equipping them with skills for employment and self-employment. PTS' interactive approach, methodology and content delivery is focused on key soft skills, specifically those relevant for transitioning into work.

Two main components of the PTS curriculum that offer flexibility of learning to the students are "Employability" & "Entrepreneurship". The "Employability" track focuses on career guidance, life skills training, technical training in a market-relevant trade and job placement support. The "Entrepreneurship" track includes training in life skills relevant for entrepreneurs such as leadership, decision-making and negotiation, mentorship, and access to financial support. While implementing the curriculum, IYF focuses on offering career guidance to its enrolled youth so that they have relevant market ready information available to them and are able to make informed decisions regarding their livelihood.

The PTS curriculum has been contextualised by countries all over the African continent in various settings: within on-the-job training sessions, in secondary schools, in post-secondary schools, in vocational/technical colleges, and for teacher training programs.

In Senegal, IYF has worked with local NGO Synapse Centre on the *YouthMap* program to connect Senegalese youth with life skills through PTS training, prepare them for self-employment in agriculture, and to link them with service-learning opportunities. With *Zimbabwe: Works*, the PTS curriculum has provided critical job readiness training to women and marginalised youth in Zimbabwe. In Tanzania and Mozambique, PTS is delivered to youth in partnership with Mastercard Foundation through the *Via: Pathways to Work* program. PTS' youth-centred, experiential learning approach, that uses role-playing, hands-on exercises, and practical

applications to promote the employability soft-skills of youth and strengthens the capacity of vocational and entrepreneurship trainers. Within the *Strengthening Learnerships for Unemployed Youth* program, IYF works with South African information and communication technologies (ICT) services group *EOH* to integrate the PTS curriculum into government accredited "learnership programs". The program aims for youth to be better connected to opportunities for internships and placements in the formal sector while they are pursuing their education and help them gain the necessary soft skills for employability. IYF's partnership with *Hilton* brings the PTS curriculum to the centre of entry level employee training in all of Hilton's Africa and Indian Ocean properties. Within this partnership, IYF takes an active role in training youth as well as trainers on site and adapting the material to suit the local requirements.

Scalability

IYF is scaling PTS within national education systems through Via: Pathways to Work in Tanzania and Mozambique and Skills for Life in South Africa. In Tanzania, IYF has integrated its Passport to Success® (PTS) life skills curriculum into targeted Tanzanian technical and vocational training (TVET) centres as part of its capacity strengthening work with The Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA) centres. Likewise, in Mozambique, IYF has integrated PTS into national training institute Instituto de Formação Profissional e Estudos Laborais Alberto Cassimo (IFPELAC) centres. In both countries IYF is ensuring training can deliver PTS sustainably, while setting up systems and processes with headquarters and stakeholders so that the institution can expand the offering. PTS is also integrated into the entrepreneurship training package offered by training institutions and Tanzanian Entrepreneurship and Competitiveness Centre (TECC) that reaches young entrepreneurs across the country. Similarly, in South Africa, IYF is working with the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) to integrate PTS into TVET college system courses through the Skills for Life program in partnership with Irish Aid. IYF has mapped PTS lessons to the national qualifications to ensure that TVET colleges can adopt the PTS lessons after the program.

Adaptability

The *Passport to Success* Curriculum is designed to be adaptable to various contexts and accommodating of the different requirements of youth worldwide. The curriculum has been utilized by a variety of different youth training and employability programs over Africa. These programs utilize selected modules of PTS that suit the requirements to deliver skills and training to the youth in these programs that are relevant to the context in which they operate. Their training-of-trainers model that trains local teachers and mentors to be able to deliver a context specific and tailored version of the curriculum makes it a robust work model easily adaptable to various requirements and contexts.

Key innovations

Training of Trainers:

The PTS model works primarily as a training-for-trainers endeavour. Instead of redesigning the entire curriculum to be specific to the needs of the context, the model focuses on training teachers, mentors or trainers and empowering them to deliver the curriculum in a context-friendly manner. By relying on local knowledge and expertise and always partnering with an on-the-ground organisation, IYF is able to identify promising leaders and mentors from the local communities and train them to adapt and deliver the curriculum in ways that are best suited for local youth. Trainers are equipped with PTS' experiential methodology that allows them to first experience, and then deliver this interactive and learner-centred instructional model to their youth participants. Trainers are supported by coaches whose function is to guide, encourage and troubleshoot for trainers as they deliver PTS lessons in the classroom. Coaches assist trainers with lesson preparation, incorporation of youth-centred facilitation techniques in the classroom and help ensure trainers have the necessary supplies and adequate space for instruction. These trainers, as well as master trainers, who can obtain certifications that equip them to train future generations of teachers and mentors, form systems within these communities that have the capacity to deliver systemic change that is impactful and sustainable in the long term.

Partnerships with the Private Sector and Others:

PTS prioritises partnerships with the private, public and NGO sectors across all of its work in Africa. A variety of finance, hospitality and retail companies have partnered with IYF to accept trainees into their companies, or include PTS in training for their employees, including Aramex, Barclays, Barloworld Equipment, Hilton Hotels, MTN, Nando's, Protea Hotels, Pick n Pay, Tevo and Woolworths. During all phases of training—from curriculum development to final assessment— IYF works with employers to ensure that trained youth exit the program with the technical and life skills that are most relevant to current and anticipated market needs.

PTS's public sector partnerships foster sustainability by leveraging greater resources, encouraging a policy dialogue, and promoting best practices. In creating and maintaining partnerships with local NGO organisations, IYF implementers prioritise building the capacity to design, develop, manage, and evaluate effective youth programs. (*Africa: Maximizing Impact through Partnership*, 2014)

Holistic entrepreneurship training:

The entrepreneurship track of the PTS curriculum provides a well-rounded training and support to youth. It trains youth in all aspects of preparing for entrepreneurship in their local contexts - from envisioning an idea and business plan and accessing finance to developing a support

network and coping with failures. The modules that are covered under the entrepreneurship track are: creative thinking, personal leadership, creating a work team, leadership in action, decision making, negotiation skills, constructive feedback, risk-taking, coping with failure & developing a support network. These modules are adapted and tailored to the requirements and contexts of various projects that adapt the PTS curriculum. Along with this, the newly introduced Financial Education unit covers topics such as buying decisions, personal financial goals, budgeting, saving money, borrowing money, intro to financial service providers, saving vs borrowing, understanding risks, introduction to mobile money, and putting financial skills to work.

Ensuring gender equity and inclusion:

With all partners and clients globally, IYF conducts baseline capacity assessments to identify key areas for organizational improvement, including the area of gender and social inclusion. This process, where partner institutions and organisations that it works with self-assess and identify their own priorities, helps IYF generate a good discussion about how to align these priorities, and encourage greater gender equity in course enrolment and the infrastructure investments required to reduce barriers for people with disabilities.

Evidence of Impact

From the inception of PTS, IYF has valued evaluation and learning and the generation of evidence to understand its results and inform future programming. PTS evaluations highlight gains in life skills such as communication, cooperation, and employability skills. Evaluations note that participants report increased self-confidence, engagement in constructive dialogues with teachers, peers, and family members, and have increased active participation in their community. These participants also report having learnt the skills to cope with the challenges of the **workplace like managing one's emotions, respecting others, writing CVs, and interviewing.** *(PTS Curriculum, 2015)*

In addition to conducting many summative project evaluations and internal evaluative and learning activities, IYF has generated evidence on the effectiveness of PTS through impact evaluations.

A 2017 impact evaluation—a quasi-experimental design that utilized propensity score matching—was conducted by Centro Latino Americano de Estudios de Evaluacion de Impacto (CLEEI) on the *Rutas and Clave programs* in Mexico, which incorporated PTS into the first year of high school. It found that the effects of participation in PTS led to a 32% reduction in the average rate of drop-outs between the first and second semester and a 3.8% increase in GPA.

A randomized control trial was conducted by Nedico Consulting in 2018 on the *Zimbabwe: Works program*, which included PTS in both its employability and entrepreneurship tracks. Findings from the Employability track were that PTS had strong positive effects on the wellbeing of participants (measured by a subjective wellbeing index), and that PTS was associated with increases in resilience, economic empowerment, and the quality of relationships. Findings from the Entrepreneurship track were that participation in the program was associated with an increase in overall business success (measured by monthly revenue and investment).

Additionally, two studies on PTS are currently underway: The first, a quasi-experimental design utilizing difference in differences and propensity score matching, is being conducted by Genesis Analytics on The Job Creation Initiative, a program implemented in partnership with the technology service company EOH in South Africa. This study seeks to generate evidence on the impact of PTS for both businesses and the participating youth and is expected to be completed in 2019. The second, a RCT, is being conducted by The World Bank on a PTS implementation in Mexico and seeks to identify the impact of PTS on work-based outcomes for entry-level employees trained during company HR orientation. This study is expected to be completed in 2020.

6.3. Work Ready Now! & Work-Based Learning

Organization: Education Development Centre (EDC)
Country: 25 countries worldwide
Dates of Implementation: 2007 - present; multiple projects
Target population: Secondary School Students, TVET students, Out of School Youth
Partners: Various implementation partners

Introduction

The Work Ready Now! (WRN!) & Work-Based Learning (WBL) curricula are two core components of the Education Development Centre's (EDC) training initiatives. These two programs aim to address the mismatch of skills demanded and supplied by youth in the labour markets, and equip youth with necessary soft skills such as communication, leadership, workplace safety, and financial literacy skills. WBL also provides youth with practical exposure to real workplaces. These skills are essential for youth entering the labour market to successfully search for, find, and maintain fulfilling careers.

WRN! has been implemented in over 20 countries, and has been delivered to over 400,000 youth. WRN! consists of 8 modules that are designed to be easily adapted to local contexts and to be administered by a variety of institutions, from vocational schools to community-based youth organizations. The modules come with an implementation toolkit that helps with adapting the curriculum to the specific needs of the client/students involved, as well as an assessment toolkit to evaluate the learning from the training and certify students have successfully completed the training.

The EDC developed a comprehensive Work-Based Learning (WBL) curriculum during the course of the project life cycle of its Akazi Kanoze (AK) and Akazi Kanoze 2 (AK2) projects (2009-2017) in Rwanda. The aim of this effort was to supplement a gap in training for students on relevant employability soft skills that could only be gained in a real workplace and not necessarily through training materials in schools. The WBL curriculum supplements the WRN training by actively supporting youth both during their classroom training, as well as when they have finished the training in classrooms to do work exposure and short work experience activities in real workplaces. These work-based learning activities have better prepared youth to find on-the-job training opportunities or summer internships that are 2-3 months long during their vacations. The skills gained and networks created in these short-term engagements make the transition into jobs much easier when they have finished their secondary school and are ready to move into employment.

Scalability

In Rwanda, The Akazi Kanoze Youth Livelihoods Project (AK) implemented by EDC with funding from USAID, provided WRN! and WBL training, as well as accompaniment services (which supported youth throughout the process of transitioning to work, particularly with finding short internship placements) to over 20,000 youth, both in and out of school, between 2009-2016. This project also led to the formation of the NGO Akazi Kanoze Access, who along with EDC implemented Akazi Kanoze 2 (AK2), a project funded by the Mastercard Foundation to scale up AK nationally and integrate WRN! and WBL into the national secondary school curriculum. During AK2, EDC worked with multiple stakeholders, both in the private and public sectors, including the Ministry of Education, Rwanda Education Board (REB) and the Workforce Development Authority (WDA). Since, USAID has funded an additional iteration of the AK projects in Rwanda, Huguka Dukore Akazi Kanoze, which will run from 2016 to 2021, and provide WRN!, WBL, and group accompaniment services often alongside technical training to out of school youth.

In Senegal, The **Projet de l'amélioration des performances de travail et d'entreprenariat** (APTE-Senegal), funded by the Mastercard Foundation, has been working in TVET and lower secondary schools to provide both work readiness training to students and professional development training for teachers and administrators since 2016. Similar to Rwanda, APTE partners closely with the government, including Ministry of Education and the Ministry of TVET, to work towards adoption of the curriculum at the national level. The APTE is expected to reach 30,000 students and 1,575 teachers in six regions, and 50 TVET schools and 200 lower secondary schools.

Adaptability

WRN! and WBL models have been adopted in 25 countries, including 8 in sub-Saharan Africa. EDC prioritises the adaptability of its training and modules to different contexts and has worked with local implementation partner organisations, governments and education systems as a whole to ensure that the program benefits can be enjoyed by youth all over the world.

Key innovations

Practical, hands-on approach to finding jobs

As part of the WBL program, students are encouraged to find work exposure and job shadowing, short work experience, and internship opportunities themselves. For in-school youth, the School authorities provide a letter of support, which helps them navigate the job market. Out of school youth are empowered to find and access local workplaces themselves. There are accompaniment

or mentorship services integrated in programming that support them in the search. But by empowering students to lead the search process themselves, students gain skills in searching for and connecting with employers, students find placements that better align with their interests and field of study, and the program is less resource-intensive to administer.

Engaging parents directly in the transition process

WBL actively engages parents in the search for job placement opportunities for the enrolled youth. By involving parents in the process, conducting meetings with parent groups, and maintaining a channel of communication between schools and parents, WBL is able to understand the concerns and priorities of parents as well as leverage their connections and networks to identify the best opportunities for the students.

A spectrum of experiences that build skills to navigate the workplace

The WBL curriculum is unique in supporting youth through a spectrum of exposure and experience activities. The shorter-term workplace observations and interviews with local employers that students do in their local communities can help students identify what sectors they would like to explore, re-evaluate their career goals, and better prepare for their internships ahead of time. During this time, they are provided training on CV writing, how gain most of information interviews, as well as how to build relationships. This practical, student centred approach to school to work transitions, supplemented with the comprehensive skills training modules in WRN, aims to deliver a holistic package for youth skills training on the continent.

Evidence of Impact

EDC conducted an RCT evaluation of the AK program, establishing evidence of program impact and providing insights to adapt and improve future programming. Findings from the evaluation were that AK youth in rural areas were more likely to gain work readiness and financial management skills and find employment after graduation than someone who had not undergone the training. Additionally, AK youth were found to have had statistically significant positive gains in work readiness skills like knowing how to apply for a job or improving their current position, understanding business plan development, and feeling comfortable with marketing and attracting customers. Further, most of the graduates of the AK program in Rwanda were reported to meet or exceed expectations of their employers as well as perform better at work, according to a survey of employers. *(EDC, 2014)*

EDC also conducted an RCT evaluation of the AK2 program 2016, and found that AK2 youth were 8 percent more likely to be employed after graduating second school than those that did not participate the program. Statistically significant differences were observed at endline, with a

14% increase in employment for AK2 youth compared to only 6% increase for those who did not participate in the program. Youth in the program also witnessed significant improvement in soft-skills and work readiness assessment scores. Soft skills were measured using outcome variables like conscientiousness (hard-work, determination), agreeableness (cooperation, forgiveness), emotional stability (calmness, self-confidence) and extraversion (assertiveness, boldness). Improvements in work readiness skills were also observed for measures of leadership, entrepreneurship, financial literacy, workers' rights and safety, interpersonal communication, and personal development. Young women saw particularly strong gains from program participation; with those participating 12 percent more likely to be employed than women who did not participate. Further, women in AK2 showed significantly more gains in soft skills than men who were trained. (EDC, 2017)

References

Abebe, G. T., Caria, S., Fafchamps, M., Falco, P., Franklin, S., & Quinn, S. (2016). Curse of Anonymity or Tyranny of Distance? The Impacts of Job-Search Support in Urban Ethiopia. NBER Working Paper. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004

Abebe, G., Caria, S., Fafchamps, M., Falco, P., Franklin, S., Quinn, S., & Shilpi, F. (2017). Job fairs: matching firms and workers in a field experiment in Ethiopia. The World Bank.

Abel, M., Burger, R., & Piraino, P. (2016). The Value of Reference Letters-Experimental Evidence from South Africa. Harvard University. Processed.

Abril, M. E. R. (2008). Girls' vulnerability assessment. Government of Liberia, Nike Foundation, World Bank: Liberia.

Africa-America Institute. (2015). State of Education in Africa Report 2015. Retrieved from http://www.aaionline.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/09/AAI-SOE-report-2015-final.pdf

All Africa. (2017). Ethiopia: New Directive to Formalise Informal Sector. Retrieved from https://allafrica.com/stories/201712190897.html

African Development Bank Group. (2015). African development report 2015 - Growth, poverty and inequality nexus: Overcoming barriers to sustainable development. Retrieved from https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.2478/s11536-013-0210-5

Alesina, A., Brioschi, B., & Ferrara, E. La. (2016). Violence Against Women: A Cross-cultural Analysis for Africa. Cambridge, MA. https://doi.org/10.3386/w21901.

Agence Nationale de la Statistique et de la Démographie (2015) Enquete a l′ecoute du Senegal 2014. Retrieved from http://www.ansd.sn/ressources/rapports/Rapport%20L2S%20consolide-preliminaire.pdf

Awumbila, M. (2017). Drivers of Migration and Urbanization in Africa: Key Trends and Issues. Background Paper prepared for UN Expert Group Meeting on Sustainable Cities, Human Mobility and International Migration. Retrieved from http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/events/pdf/expert/27/papers/III/paper-Awunbila-final.pdf

Barro, R. J., & Lee, J. W. (2013). A new data set of educational attainment in the world, 1950–2010. Journal of Development Economics, 104, 184–198.

Bassi, V., Nansamba, A., & Liberia, B. (2017). Information frictions in the labour market: Evidence from a field experiment in Uganda. University College London. Processed.

Bayer, P., Ross, S. L., & Topa, G. (2008). Place of Work and Place of Residence: Informal Hiring Networks and Labour Market Outcomes. Journal of Political Economy, 116(6), 1150–1196. https://doi.org/10.1086/595975

Bell, S., Cosgrove-Davies, M., Coony, J. (2017). Powering up Africa through innovation. The World Bank Development Blog, Private Sector Development. Retrieved from http://blogs.worldbank.org/psd/insidetheweb/category/tags/access-finance

Betcherman, G., & Khan, T. (2015). Youth Employment in Sub-Saharan Africa Taking Stock of the Evidence and Knowledge Gaps.

Blattman, C., Fiala, N., & Martinez, S. (2013). Generating skilled self-employment in developing countries: Experimental evidence from Uganda. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, *129*(2), 697-752.

Blattman, C., & Ralston, L. (2015). Generating employment in poor and fragile states: Evidence from labour market and entrepreneurship programs.

Bloom, D. E., Canning, D., Fink, G., & Finlay, J. E. (2009). Fertility, female labour force participation, and the demographic dividend. Journal of Economic Growth, 14(2), 79–101. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1007/s10887-009-9039-9

Bossuroy, T., & Cogneau, D. (2013). Social Mobility in Five African Countries. Review of Income and Wealth, 59, S84-S110.

BRAC (2016). Educate!'s lessons from an at-scale impact evaluation. Internal Report. Retrieved from https://www.experienceeducate.org/monitoring/

Chakravarty, S., Das, S., & Vaillant, J. (2017). Gender and Enterprise Development in sub-Saharan Africa a Review of Constraints and Effective Interventions. Policy Research Working Paper, (November), 1–31. Retrieved from http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/326061510086379739/pdf/WPS8239.pdf

Chigunta, F., Chisup, N. and, & Elder, S. (2013). Labour Market Transitions of Young Women and Men in Zambia: 2013 Youth Employment Program, (November).

Conley, T. G., & Topa, G. (2002). Socio-economic distance and spatial patterns in unemployment. Journal of Applied Econometrics, 17(4), 303–327. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1002/jae.670

Dammert, A. C., Galdo, J., & Galdo, V. (2015). Integrating mobile phone technologies into labour-market intermediation: a multi-treatment experimental design. IZA Journal of Labor & Development, 4(1), 11.

Dekker, M., & Hollander, S. (2017). Boosting youth employment in Africa: what works and why? Retrieved from http://includeplatform.net/wp-content/uploads/2017/05/INCLUDE-Synthesis-report-30-May_FINAL.pdf

De Weerdt, J. & Kutka, A. (2013). Urbanisation and Youth Employment in Tanzania: Preliminary Analysis, Background paper. World Bank.

di Gropello, E., Tan, H. and Tandon, P. (2010). Skills for the Labor Market in the Philippines. Washington, DC, World Bank. Retrieved from http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/447371468107360170/pdf/578730PUB0Skil101Public10BOX353782B.pdf

Educate! (2014). Impact Evaluation of End of Program Data from the Educate! Randomised Control Trial Internal Report, Internal Report, Retrieved from https://www.experienceeducate.org/monitoring/

Educate! (2017). Leadership and Entrepreneurship Course, Course Curriculum. Retrieved from https://www.experienceeducate.org/curriculumdownload

Education Development Centre (2014). Final Report. A Randomised Control Trial of Akazi Kanoze Youth in Rural Rwanda. Retrieved from http://idd.edc.org/resources/publications/report-randomized-controlled-trial-akazi-kanoze-youth-rural-rwanda

Education Development Centre (2017). AKAZI KANOZE 2 A Randomized Controlled Trial of Secondary School Students in Rwanda. Retrieved from https://www.edc.org/akazi-kanoze-2-randomized-controlled-trial-secondary-students-rwanda

Education Development Centre (2018). Work-Based Learning in Rwandan Schools. Retrieved from https://www.edc.org/work-based-learning-rwandan-schools

Elder, S., & Siaka Koné, K. (2014). Labour market transitions of young women and men in sub-Saharan Africa. Work4Youth Publication Series, (9), 90.

Esiara, K. (2013). Germany gives to skills, infrastructure development. The East African. Retrieved from https://www.theeastafrican.co.ke/rwanda/Business/Germany-gives-to-skills-and-infrastructure/1433224-2101740-1101wo2/index.html

Filmer, D., & Fox, L. (2014). Africa. Youth Employment in sub-Saharan Africa. Africa Development Series. Washington, DC: World Bank. Retrieved from http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/301371468003940792/pdf/ACS81330WP0P12977300Box385165B00PUBLIC0.pdf

Fox, Senbet and Simbanegavi. (2016). Youth Employment in sub-Saharan Africa: Challenges, Constraints and Opportunities. Journal of African Economies. Vol. 25, AERC Supplement 1, pp. i3–i15

Franklin, S. (2015). Location, search costs and youth unemployment: A randomized trial of transport subsidies in Ethiopia, (March).

Franz, J. 2011. Realizing the Youth Dividend in Kenya through Skills for the Informal Sector: Institutional Assessment of Skills Development and Youth Employment Promotion Programmes and Projects. World Bank, Washington, DC.

Groh, M., McKenzie, D., Shammout, N., & Vishwanath, T. (2015). Testing the importance of search frictions and matching through a randomized experiment in Jordan. IZA Journal of Labor Economics, 4(1), 7.

Hallward-Driemeier, Mary. 2013. Enterprising Women: Expanding Economic Opportunities in Africa. Africa Development Forum; Washington, DC: Agence Française de Développement and the World Bank. © World Bank. Retrieved from https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/13785 License: CC BY 3.0 IGO.

Heckman, J. J., Stixrud, J. and Urzua, S. 2006. The effects of cognitive and noncognitive abilities on labor market outcomes and social behaviour. Journal of Labor Economics, Vol. 24, No. 3, pp. 411–82. Retrieved from http://jenni.uchicago.edu/papers/Heckman-Stixrud-Urzua_JOLE_v24n3_2006.pdf

International Labor Organization (2012). Upgrading informal apprenticeship - A resource guide for Africa. Retrieved from https://www.ilo.org/skills/pubs/WCMS_171393/lang--en/index.htm

International Labor Organization (2016). Formalizing the Informal Sector. Retrieved from https://www.ilo.org/addisababa/media-centre/articles/WCMS_531715/lang--en/index.htm

International Youth Foundation (2012). Passport to Success® Hilton Worldwide Fact Sheet. Retrieved from https://www.iyfnet.org/library/passport-success-hilton-worldwide-fact-sheet

International Youth Foundation (2014). Africa: Maximizing Impact through Partnership. Retrieved from https://www.iyfnet.org/library/africa-maximizing-impact-through-partnership

International Youth Foundation (2014). Entrepreneurship Training—Build Your Business. Retrieved from https://www.iyfnet.org/sites/default/files/library/BYB%20Fact%20sheet%20FINAL.pdf

International Youth Foundation (2015). Passport to Success. Preparing Young People to the World of Work, PTS Curriculum. Retrieved from https://www.iyfnet.org/library/passport-success-preparing-young-people-world-work

Jensen, R. (2012). Do Labor Market Opportunities Affect Young Women's Work and Family Decisions? Experimental Evidence from India. The Quarterly Journal of Economics, 127(2), 753–792. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1093/qje/qjs002

Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) (2017). Economic Survey and Statistical Abstract 2017. Retrieved from https://www.knbs.or.ke/downloads

Khan, Z. (2016). South Africa's youth speak out on the high cost of finding work. The Conversation. Retrieved from https://theconversation.com/south-africas-youth-speak-out-on-the-high-cost-of-finding-work-61024

Kluve, J. (2016). A review of the effectiveness of Active Labour Market Programmes with a focus on Latin America and the Caribbean. Research department working paper no. 9., (March), 1–40. Retrieved from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---inst/documents/publication/wcms_459117.pdf

Krishnan, P. and Krutikova, S. 2012. Non-cognitive Skill Formation in Poor Neighbourhoods of Urban India. Cambridge, UK, University of Cambridge. (Cambridge Working Papers in Economics, 1010.) Retrieved from http://www.econ.cam.ac.uk/research-files/repec/cam/pdf/cwpe1010.pdf

Krishnan, P., & Shaorshadze, I. (2013). Technical and vocational Education and Training in Ethiopia. International Growth Centre, London School of Economics and Political Science.

Kwauk, C. & Robinson, J. P. (2016). EDUCATE! Riding the Reform Wave to Scale up Youth Entrepreneurship in Uganda, Centre for Universal Education at Brookings. Retrieved from https://static1.squarespace.com/static/520111afe4b0748af59ffc18/t/578e53db46c3c4cdc9d83fa4/1468945381434/Educate+Case+Study.pdf

Laterite Ltd. (2017). Akazi Kanoze 2 Scale & Sustainability: External evaluation of the integration of the work readiness curriculum and School to Work transition program in to the Rwandan education system. Retrieved from http://idd.edc.org/resources/publications/akazi-kanoze-2-scale-sustainability

Laterite Ltd. & AIMS (2018), A situation analysis of STEM and ICT in secondary education in Rwanda, (forthcoming).

Ligami, Christabel. (2018). World Bank invests in vocational education in 3 countries. University World News. Issue 218. Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20180413150958664

Magruder, J. R. (2010). Intergenerational networks, unemployment, and persistent inequality in South Africa. American Economic Journal: Applied Economics, 2(1), 62–85. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1257/app.2.1.62

Mastercard Foundation (2017). Learn, Earn and Save: Research highlights the challenges facing young people who are trying to get ahead. Retrieved from https://mastercardfdn.org/research/learn-earn-and-save/

McGrath, S. (2011). Where to now for vocational education and training in Africa? International Journal of Training Research, 9:1-2, 35-48. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.5172/ijtr.9.1-2.35

McKenzie, D., & Robalino, D. (2010). Jobs and the Crisis (No. 11076). The World Bank.

McKenzie, D. (2017). How Effective Are Active Labor Market Policies in Developing Countries? A Critical Review of Recent Evidence. The World Bank Research Observer, 32(2), 127–154. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1093/wbro/lkx001

Medina, L., Jonelis, A. and Cangul M. (2017). The Informal Economy in sub-Saharan Africa: Size and Determinants. International Monetary Fund. Retrieved from https://www.imf.org/en/Publications/WP/Issues/2017/07/10/The-Informal-Economy-in-sub-Saharan-Africa-Size-and-Determinants-45017

MINECOFIN (Ministry of Economics and Finance), Republic of Rwanda. (2012). Vision 2020. Retrieved from http://www.minecofin.gov.rw/fileadmin/templates/documents/NDPR/Vision_2020_.pdf

MINECOFIN (Ministry of Economics and Finance), Republic of Rwanda. (2014). Agriculture and TVET get RwF 11 billion financial support. Retrieved from http://www.minecofin.gov.rw/index.php?id=119&tx_ttnews%5Btt_news%5D=399&cHash=0255a0e7d58198e0cab2ef0de6aa2cf2

Ministry of Education, Kenya (2013). Webpage: Technical and Vocational Education and Training Act 2013. Retrieved from http://www.education.go.ke/index.php/downloads/file/110-the-technical-and-vocational-education-and-training-act-2013

Monk, C., J. Sandefur, and F. Teal. Does Doing an Apprenticeship Pay Off? Evidence from Ghana. CSAE Working Paper No. WPS/2008-08, 2008.

Nilsson, B. (2018). The School to Work Transition in Developing Countries. The Journal of Development Studies, 1–20. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1080/00220388.2018.1475649

O'Higgins, N., & Pinedo, L. (2018). Interns and outcomes just how effective are internships as a bridge to stable employment? International Labour Organization.

PressAfriq. (2017) Prime Minister's General Policy Statement: The full speech of Boun Abdallah Dionne II. Retrieved from https://www.pressafrik.com/Declaration-de-Politique-generale-du-Premier-ministre-L-integralite-du-discours-de-Boun-Abdallah-Dionne-II_a174091.html

Ryan, P. (2001). The School to Work transition: problems and indicators. forthcoming in: A.-N Perret-Clermont, C. Pontecorvo, L. Resnick, T. Zittoun & B. Burge (eds.), Youth, learning and society, University of Cambridge, CUP.

Saghir, J. & Santoro, J. (2018). Urbanization in sub-Saharan Africa: Meeting Challenges by Bridging Stakeholders. Centre for Strategic and International Studies. Retrieved from https://www.csis.org/analysis/urbanization-sub-saharan-africa

Scoones, I. (1998). Sustainable rural livelihoods: a framework for analysis.

Shehu & Nillson (2014), Informal Employment Among Youth: Evidence from 20 School to Work Transition Surveys. Retrieved from http://ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/documents/publication/wcms_234911.pdf

Solutions for Youth Employment (2017). New and Promising Approaches in Youth Employment Programs: The S4YE Impact Portfolio. Retrieved from http://s4ye.org/sites/default/files/2017-09/Impact%20Portfolio%20Report.pdf

Sow, M. (2017). Figures of the week: sub-Saharan Africa's labor market in 2017. Brookings Institute. Retrieved from https://www.brookings.edu/blog/africa-in-focus/2017/01/11/figures-of-the-week-sub-saharan-africas-labor-market-in-2017/

Teal, F. (2016). are apprenticeships beneficial in sub-Saharan Africa? IZA World of Labor. Retrieved from https://ideas.repec.org/a/iza/izawol/journly2016n268.html

UNESCO (2012). Youth and Skills: Putting education to work. Education for All Global Monitoring Report. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002180/218003e.pdf

UNESCO (2018). Glossary. Data for the Sustainable Development Goals. Retrieved from http://uis.unesco.org/en/glossary

UNEVOC (2015). World TVET Database, Senegal. Retrieved from https://unevoc.unesco.org/wtdb/worldtvetdatabase_sen_en.pdf

United Nations (2015). Youth Population Trends and Sustainable Development. Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 1–4. Retrieved from http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/documents/youth/fact-sheets/YouthPOP.pdf%0Ahttp://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/publications/pdf/popfacts/PopFacts_2015-1.pdf

United Nations. Transforming our World: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Retrieved from https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/post2015/transformingourworld

USAID (2017). Kenya Youth Employment and Skills Activity Fact Sheet, Retrieved from https://www.usaid.gov/documents/1860/kenya-youth-workforce-program

Vernières, M. (1997). L'insertion professionnelle: Analyses et débats. Economica.

Verspoor, A. and Bregman J. (2008). At the Crossroads: Challenges for Secondary Education in Africa. Africa Human Development Department (AFTHD) World Bank. Retrieved from http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTAFRREGTOPSEIA/Resources/SEIA_Synthesis_Report_feb_08.pdf

Workforce Development Authority, Rwanda (2018). Curriculum Portal. Retrieved from
http://www.wda.gov.rw/rw/node/4

World Bank Blog. Youth Unemployment: Challenges & Opportunities in Economic
Development. Retrieved from http://web.worldbank.org/archive/website01259/WEB/0__C-107.HTM

World Bank. (2011). Strengthening Skills and Employability in Peru. Retrieved from
http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/732801468293405763/pdf/616990ESW0whit0ficial0Use0Only00090.pdf

World Bank. (2012). World Development Report 2012. The World Bank. Retrieved from
https://doi.org/10.1596/978-0-8213-8810-5

World Bank. (2015). World Bank Databank Gender Statistics. Retrieved from
http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/gender-statistics

World Bank (Ghana Office) and the ACET (African Center for Economic Transformation). (2016)
Access to Finance for Small and Medium Enterprises in Africa. Retrieved from
http://www.acetforafrica.org/acet/wp-content/uploads/publications/2016/03/Access-to-Finance-for-SMEs-Paper.pdf

World Bank. (2018). World Development Report 2018: Learning to Realize Education's Promise.
Retrieved from http://www.worldbank.org/en/publication/wdr2018

World Bank. (2015). World Bank Databank Gender Statistics. Retrieved from
http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/gender-statistics

World Economic Forum (2017). The Future of Jobs and Skills in Africa: Preparing the Region for
the Fourth Industrial Revolution. Retrieved from
http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_EGW_FOJ_Africa.pdf

World Economic Forum (2017). Realizing Human Potential in the Fourth Industrial Revolution:
An Agenda for Leaders to Shape the Future of Education, Gender and Work.

Appendix

Methodology

List of Databases

- Youth Employment Inventory (YEI) — World Bank
- REAL Center Database - African Education Research Database - ESSA
- ERIC + ERIC guide
- Education Research Complete: A comprehensive bibliographic and full text database covering scholarly research and information relating to all areas of education. Subjects include primary, secondary and higher education, curriculum design as well as administration, policy, funding, and related social issues.
- IDP Database of Research on International Education: The IDP Database lists books, articles, conference papers, theses and research reports on various aspects of international education, transnational education, study abroad and international students from publishers in Australia and overseas
- EDUCAUSE Library: The EDUCAUSE Library is an international repository for information concerning use and management of information technology in higher education.
- VOCEDplus: VOCEDplus is a free database about vocational education and training (VET), higher education and adult education. There are some full text documents. It is produced by the National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER), based in Adelaide, Australia.
- JSTOR: A multidisciplinary collection of 300+ current core journals and many more archival titles. Archival coverage includes all volumes except for the last few years.
- Scopus: This database has an emphasis on science but also indexes over 2800 social sciences and humanities journal titles. 1980+. From 1996 there is cited reference searching (articles that have cited a given article).
- Eldis: editorially selected and abstracted full-text, online documents on development issues
- Jolis: World bank and IMF database
- 3ie Database of Impact Assessment: covering impact evaluations conducted in low- and middle- income countries
- Social Science Research Network (SSRN): includes working papers and submitted papers under review
- Google and Google Scholar: Internet search engine

- UNESCO UNEVOC - UNEVOC is UNESCO's specialized Centre for technical and vocational education and training (TVET). It assists UNESCO's 195 member states to strengthen and upgrade their TVET systems. The World Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Database is an online repository developed by UNESCO-UNEVOC, aimed at providing concise, reliable and up-to-date information on TVET systems worldwide.
- Commonwealth Education Hub - The Commonwealth Education Hub is a pilot initiative of the Commonwealth Secretariat to support the community of education professionals and policy makers who are dedicated to improving the situation of primary, secondary, and Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Commonwealth countries.
- ILO SWT Surveys - The SWTS is a unique survey instrument that generates relevant labour market information on young people aged 15 to 29 years, including longitudinal information on transitions within the labour market.
- Skills for Employment (ILO) - Initiated by the International Labour Organization (ILO), the Global Public-Private Knowledge Sharing Platform on Skills for Employment benefits from the support and collaboration of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the World Bank.

List of keywords which were combined to carry out the literature review:

- Africa or country-specific keywords
- School to Work Transition
- Transition to Employment

- Youth
- Youth Entrepreneurship
- Apprenticeship
- Job Shadowing
- Job Search
- Career Guidance

- Teacher Training
- Technical and Vocational Education and Training or TVET or Vocational Education

The review criteria for the papers borne out of the systematic search were the following:

- The research must focus on SWT within the context of secondary or TVET education
- Research which is not based within either the SWT or TVET education context is reviewed if it informs any of the research questions laid out in the proposal
- We only consider research produced by academic institutions, development organizations or governments
- The research can be peer-reviewed or non-peer reviewed, but will have to meet minimum quality standards, namely:
  - Have clearly defined research questions
  - Valid sampling strategy
    - Exclude studies with a convenience sample

- ■ Include studies with a rigorously designed random sample
- ■ Review for methodological rigor studies with sampling designs that include snowball sampling, purposive sampling, or other strategies.
- ○ Rigorous methodology
  - ■ Include well-designed randomized control trials, quasi-experimental studies, longitudinal studies & qualitative research.

Figure 10. Key informant Interviews completed by country and type

Countries	Policy Makers	Employers: Formal Sector	Employers: Informal Sector	Educators	Other[1]	Total
Senegal	4	5	8	3	2	22
Rwanda	3	2	3	6	4	18
Kenya[2]	0	2	5	0	6	13
Ethiopia	2	1	0	2	8	13
Other[3]	0	0	0	0	2	2
Total	6	10	16	11	22	68

Notes: [1] The Other type category includes staff of programs and NGOs that work in the education and employment sectors and researchers. [2]There were no interviews with policy makers or educators in Kenya as we did not have time to apply for formal approval to conduct interviews with State institutions there. [3]Other country category includes the staff of programs that work across sub-Saharan Africa.