



Youth Employment Creation Factors in the EA Countries Data and Policy Analysis

Semboja Haji Hatibu^{1*} and Hafidh Ali Hafidh²

¹*Department of Economics, Zanzibar University, P.O.Box 2440, Zanzibar, Tanzania.*

²*International School of Zanzibar, P.O.Box 1787, Zanzibar, Tanzania.*

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/AJESS/2021/v18i330442

Editor(s):

(1) Dr. Ana Sofia Pedrosa Gomes dos Santos, Universidade de Lisboa, Portugal.

Reviewers:

(1) Dio Caisar Darna, Sekolah Tinggi Ilmu Ekonomi Samarinda, Indonesia.

(2) Chester Alexis C. Buama, Laguna State Polytechnic University, Philippines.

Complete Peer review History: <http://www.sdiarticle4.com/review-history/69234>

Policy Article

Received 27 March 2021

Accepted 07 June 2021

Published 22 June 2021

ABSTRACT

This policy research paper analyses employability factors contributing to youth unemployment and also provides working recommendations for further dialogue and engagement on youth employability in the EA countries. The data and policy analyses are based on the theory of 4-Es as propounded by International Labour Organization and Youth Employment Network literature. The field research survey, focus group discussion, combined observational and consultations with key informants were major research methods used in collecting secondary and primary data and other information. Data analysis used non-parametric methods, mainly frequency, and cross tabulations. The study found that the governments and private sectors have not created adequate, remunerative and sustainable job opportunities to match with increasing labour force within the country through effective utilization of natural resources available and improvement of production technology within the region. Diversification of the economy is limited. The government fiscal policies and other systems have not been effective in reducing unemployment for both youths with ought and with disability.

The paper recommends optimal employment creation conditions. The proposed implementation strategies include creation of pro-economic growth job opportunities; diversification of the

economy; creation of the environment conducive for fiscal policies adjustment; increasing participation of youth with disabilities in the job planning process and strengthening the institutional capacities.

Keywords: Youth; employment; employability conditions; non-parametric methods; frequency; cross tabulation.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

As per 2017, unemployment problems continue in all EAC countries, with a disproportionately large number of young women and men exposed to unemployment or else limited to precarious or short-term work in informal sectors [1]. Youth represent a significant portion of the total population in EA countries accounting to more than 30% of the total population. Rwanda has the highest proportion of youth to total population in the region (Malunda and Musana, 2012; NISR, 2010) [2]. In 2000, the proportion of youth to total population was 39.3%, while in 2005, 2010 and 2015 the proportion stood at 39.5%, 39.6% and 39.7% respectively. Uganda has the second largest proportion of youth to total population with 38.2%, 38.4%, 37.7% and 37.9% in 2000, 2005, 2010 and 2015 respectively. Other EAC member states such as Tanzania, Kenya, Burundi and South Sudan have relatively lower youth proportion although above 30% of the total population. According to national population and labour force surveys of EAC member states, youth aged 15 to 35 years old account to at least 60% of the total labour force indicating that effective participation of the youth in socio-economic activities is a necessary condition for economic progress.

The typical East African labour market characteristic of youth unemployment is that its rate is higher than any group of the population in the workforce [3,4]. With the adopted African Union Youth Charter definition of youth, unemployment rates among youth are estimated to be relatively very high. Table 1 suggests that Kenya has the highest rate of youth unemployment among the EAC member countries with 70% of the unemployed youth in 2014. This is attributed to an increasing number of youth moving to urban centres but they are unable to find decent work due to lack of adequate skills and working experience, but also the urban economy is unable to absorb the potential work-force [5].

Burundi ranks second with youth unemployment of 50% in 2014. South Sudan had 34% of the youth unemployment rate in 2013 while Uganda, Tanzania and Rwanda had an unemployment rate of 31%, 25% and 14.7% respectively indicating that youth unemployment is high among EA countries although it differs from one country to another. The recent decade of civil and war conflicts in Burundi, Rwanda and South Sudan saw a generation of young people raised during a brutal war, with years of education lost, trauma and loss regardless of whether these young people were directly engaged in the conflict or not.

The experiences of these EA countries seem to indicate that in recent years, the level and rate of employment growth have been inadequate vis-à-vis the growth of the labour force and that the amount of employment generated as a result of given economic output growth has been low and declining (Stephen and Colette 2006). Apart from the general inadequacy of jobs growth, these countries face social, economic, and political constraints and challenges (such as armed conflicts in Burundi, Uganda, South Sudan and Kenya) warranting interventions in the labour market in the form of employment creation efforts (Oliver, 2010). Such a situation naturally calls for specific policy objectives, strategies and programmes to create youth jobs.

1.2 Objectives of the Policy Paper

Jobs are the cornerstone of social, economic and political developments in all societies [6]. The impacts of high levels of unemployment are devastating resulting in poverty, social exclusion, inequality, crime, political and social instabilities [1]. Majorities obtain income and respect by means of any kind of work. The aim of this paper is to analyze the complex social economic issues regarding youth job creation in the EA countries and to find possible solutions to the problem of youth unemployment. In specific, the paper analyses employment creation factors contributing to youth unemployment in the EA countries. The paper also provides working

policy recommendations for further dialogue and engagement on youth employment creation in the EAC.

2. STUDY APPROACHES AND METHODOLOGIES

Based on the objective of the research study, four independent but complementary methodologies and procedures were used; [1]. These included [1] desk-literature reviews, [2] field research surveys in Arusha, Dar es Salaam, Zanzibar, Kampala, Bujumbura, Nairobi and Kigali [3] data and policy analysis and, [4] visits to the EAC head office in Arusha and ministries' internal consultative meetings in these cities. The field research survey, focus group discussion, combined observational and consultations with key informants were major research methods used in collecting secondary and primary data and other information.

The primary data and information were collected using questionnaires and interviewing the respondents based on the study objectives and questions. The targeted respondents included youth organizations, disabled organizations, religious institutions, political parties, government ministries, departments and agencies, individual youth and elders.

2.1 Structure of the Paper

The paper has four main sections. Section one is for the introduction. Section two presents the theoretical model of the Neo-Classical Employment theories and the 4-Es Model.

Section three presents main data findings and analysis of employment creation factors contributing to youth unemployment in the EAC Countries. Section four is a conclusion that provides working policy recommendations for further dialogue and engagement with the governments on youth employment creation in the East African Countries.

2.2 Neo-Classical Employment Theories and the 4-Es Model

2.2.1 Neo-classical employment theories

The neoclassical labour economics makes a distinction between structural, frictional, and cyclical unemployment. Structural unemployment is conceived as a product of the institutional systems, including policies, laws, regulations, private and government organizations, types of market arrangements and demography. In the literature, the importance of the institutional features for structural unemployment is particularly tied to their implications for demand for and supply of labour, price and wage formation, and the efficacy of search and matching processes in the labour markets, [7,8,2].

Frictional unemployment is regarded as a subset of structural unemployment mainly constituting temporary unemployment spells as the result of job mobility, search and matching difficulties in the connection with quits, new entries to the labour market, and job separation because of the employers' dissatisfaction with individual workers.

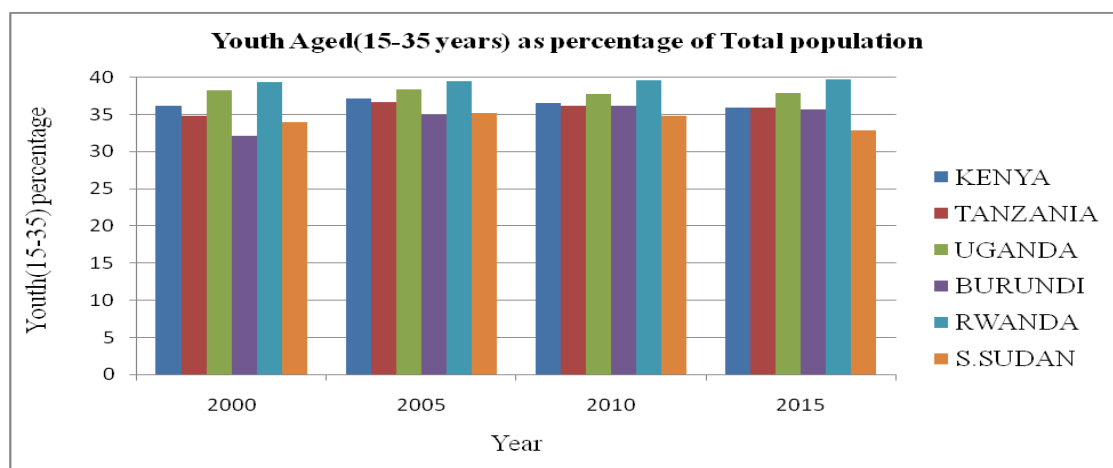


Fig. 1. Proportion of youth (aged 15-35 years) to total population
 Source: National statistics agencies and word bank economic indicators, 2016

Table 1. Youth unemployment rates in eac countries

Country	Youth Age Group	Unemployment Rate in percent
Kenya	15-35	70 (2014)
Tanzania	15-35	25 (2014)
Uganda	15-35	31 (2013)
Rwanda	15-35	14.7 (2013)
Burundi	15-35	50 (2014)
South Sudan	15-35	34 (2013)

Source: World Bank, afd and eac countries' reports and publications

Cyclical unemployment differs from structural and frictional unemployment by basically being tied to short-term economic fluctuations (Daniel, 2015). An empirical illustration of the importance of structural unemployment as compared to cyclical is that variations in actually measured unemployment rates have turned out to be much larger between cycles than within cycles, presumably reflecting differences in structural unemployment.

In economic theory, structural and cyclical unemployment are usually regarded as social-economic disequilibrium phenomena in the sense that they reflect excess labour supply at existing wages and hence that the labour market does not clear. Then, individual employers informally ration jobs. Nevertheless, technically (analytically) structural unemployment is often analysed in terms of the concept of *equilibrium unemployment*. This means that the aggregate-unemployment level is in a "state of rest": existing excess labour supply is assumed to last as long as certain characteristics (parameters) of the economy are unchanged. It is unfortunate that none of these equilibrium models in isolation provide satisfactory theoretical explanation and policy guidance on the unemployment situation in poor developing countries [7 and 9].

2.2.2 The 4 Es model

In view of the theoretical limitations, the study used an *eclectic social economic theory* of 4-Es as propounded by International Labour Organization (ILO) and Youth Employment Network (YEN) literature (David 2005); [10,9]. The 4-Es model asserts that employment (*E*) is a complex function of Employability (*E1*), Employment Creation (*E2*), Entrepreneurship (*E3*), and Equal Opportunities (*E4*). The 4-Es Model is the best approximation of Human Capital Theory, Effective Demand Theory of Unemployment, Harris- Todaro Model of Unemployment, and Neo-Classical employment

theories (McQuaid and Lindsay, 2005). This Youth Employment Model (*E*) is now formalized as follows [1];

$$1 \quad E = E1 + E2 + E3 + E4$$

Whereby we define;

E1: Employability

Employability (*E1*) variable is defined as "doing value creating work, getting paid for it" (unless opting to do it voluntarily without pay) and learning at the same time, enhancing the ability to shape work in the future (Lee Harvey 2001; McQuaid and Lindsay, 2005).

$$2 \quad E1 = E1.1 + E1.2 + \dots + E1.10$$

Whereby we consider the main employability variables or attributes as E1.1 for employer's preference and worker's preference and opportunity cost; E1.2 for family's and employer's expectations; E1.3 for transition from learning institutions to labour market; E1.4 for labour market information and conditions; E1.5 for cost of doing business; E1.6 for skills matching; E1.7 for personal factors: Satisfaction level (Rural-Urban Migration); E1.8 for level of information technology; E1.9 for transition from school to labour market, and E1.10 for access to education.

E2: Employment Creation

Employment creation variable (*E2*) is defined as the process by which the numbers of jobs in an economy are created and increases (David, 2005);

$$3 \quad E2 = E2.1 + E2.2 + \dots + E2.10$$

Where we consider the major employment creation attributes as E2.1for fiscal policy; E2.2 for changes in production technology; E2.3 for

labour market; E2.4 for wage rate or salary; E2.5 for sector policy linkages; E2.6 for participation of youth in policy process; E2.7 for policy implementation; E2.8 for population; E2.9 for reliance on sector to drive economy, and E2.10 for regional integration and globalization.

E.3: Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship variable ($E3$) has traditionally been defined as the process of designing, launching, and running a new business which typically begins as a small business, such as a start-up company, offering a product, process or service for sale or hire, (Yetisen, et al., 2015).

$$4 \quad E3 = E3.1 + E3.2 + \dots + E3.5$$

Whereby the main entrepreneurship attributes are: E3.1 for innovative skills; E3.2 for expected positive opportunity perception; E3.3 for entrepreneurship knowledge, education and training; E3.4 for communication barriers and E3.5 for informal sector and entrepreneurship barriers.

E.4. Equal Opportunities

Equal opportunity variable ($E4$) is a stipulation that all people should be treated similarly, unhampered by artificial barriers or prejudices or preferences, except when particular distinctions can be explicitly justified, (David, 2005).

$$5 \quad E4 = E4.1 + E4.2 + \dots + E4.7$$

Whereby we consider the main equal opportunity attributes as E4.1 for open access application; E4.2 for fair judgment; E4.3 for gender issues; E4.4 for social and cultural factors; E4.5 for tribalism and regionalism; E4.6 for religions; and E4.7 for corruption.

2.2.3 The model solution

The 4-Es Model is determined by mathematical modelling rules and so we have five relations (1–5) to determine the values of five endogenous policy target variables, $E1$, $E2$, $E3$, $E4$ and E . This paper focuses on the broad employment generation or job creation factors.

2.2.4 Employment nature is multi-sectoral phenomenon

The reduced 4-Es model considers that jobs are created in response to some sort of social economic changes, events, or situation. In a

practical sense, a firm or a person only hires more workers when necessary in order to satisfy market demand for its products or services. For given workers' preferences in the labour market, firms will hire only those they believe can perform the required work, and they will seek out the lowest price for having that work performed. It is widely recognized that employment nature is a multi-sectoral and labour market phenomenon [11, 5,1].

2.3 Job Creation Dimensions

In this model, job creation has complex social, economic, and political dimensions that are considered to be the two sides of the same coin. *The first dimension* refers to the ability of the economy to create youth jobs for various skill categories as per the requirement of the economy. The EA economies are not currently widely diversified to create millions of job opportunities among youth. For instance, agriculture has been the dominant labor intensive sector in these economies. However, this sector cannot be social-economically sustainable if left in isolation as it needs forward and backward sectoral linkages [12]. There is an inadequate use of technological innovations together with uptake research by industry in rich job employment creating sectors. Such impediments have resulted into limited economic production activities, low labour productivity and limited job creation. Furthermore, unfriendly laws, regulations and incentives to the development of the private sector are the barriers to job creation.

The second dimension deals with whether or not the skill levels of the available pool of youth match with the type of skill that the economies require. Despite these challenges the governments continue to implement fiscal policies, labour market policies and employment creation programmes that address unemployment in constrained development systems.

The EA countries are facing enormous youth employment generation challenges (Daniel, 2015). These challenges are a huge demand for faster youth employment creation and where informality and poverty levels are still widespread, future jobs must be quality jobs. A sustainable economy is that economy that generates opportunities for investment, entrepreneurship, skills development, job creation and sustainable livelihoods [13,14,6].

2.3.1 MSMEs are foundations for youth employment creation

In all EAC countries, employment generation in micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs) accounts for a significant large amount of all employment creation [6]. As nations develop, the share of employment generated by formal private firms tends to increase. There are views that SMEs face legal, regulatory, institutional and financial obstacles that prevent them from transforming or growing into larger businesses [6]. Most EAC countries tend to have more informal medium scale enterprises, which like micro and small firms tend to be less productive and often offer even lower wages. High degree of sectorial informalities and limited linkages are likely to be associated with low productivity and this stunted formalization of smaller firms [14].

Start-ups and young SME firms may constitute important contributors to new jobs creation. These SMEs patterns for the EAC economies are roughly the same and consistent and they take an important role for the reallocation of resources away from low-productivity (or low-profitability) businesses to high-productivity businesses. However, the contribution of start-ups and young businesses to jobs and productivity is uncertain and unpredictable. While SMEs start-ups contribute substantially to new jobs immediately, most start-ups fail or, even if they survive, do not grow, while a small fraction of high-growth young firms contribute disproportionately to job creation in these economies. These dynamic patterns pose policy challenges seeking to promote job creation by encouraging entrepreneurship, because most micro and small scale businesses are not in fact primary creators of decent jobs.

2.3.2 Domestic Private Sector Development

The domestic private sector development provides part of the youth employment solution (Ryan et al., 2014). Therefore, it is crucial to understand the constraints that prevent the private sector from growing and generating jobs. Various reports have suggested the most binding constraints to growth include a poor investment climate, inadequate infrastructure, lack of access to finance, and insufficient skills and training. Other factors that affect job creation include macroeconomic environment and social safety nets [6]. The private service sectors lead in terms of increases in employment share. There are views that under certain circumstances,

increased labour productivity in these service sectors tends to be negatively positively associated with higher job growth rates in more competitive and open markets (Ryan et al., 2014). Furthermore, employment growth in innovative service companies tends to be inclusive with a high number of low-skilled people hired. Service sector job growth coupled with an increased productivity is more likely to lead to a reduction in poverty in these countries.

3. DATA AND POLICY ANALYSIS

Section three presents major data and policy analysis of employment creation factors and challenges contributing to youth unemployment in the EAC Countries. Data analysis uses non-parametric methods, mainly contingency tables (*also known as a cross tabulation or crosstab*) as types of tables in matrix formats that display the (multivariate) frequency distribution of the variables defined in Section 2.

3.1 Overall Impact of Employment Creation on Youth Unemployment

Based on the above model, the research team collected, organized and made summaries of about 1000 numbers of observations from Tanzania and about 71 observations from other EAC countries; namely, Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda and Uganda [1]. Table 2 summarizes perceived views on the overall impact of employment creation on youth with disabilities in the EA countries. Table 2 suggests that many people, i.e. about 54 per cent of the total respondents perceived that limited employment creation has a high probability of constraining youth employment in the EAC countries. Participation of youth in the planning process, policy implementation, population and reliance on sector to drive the economy are the most important attributes of employment creation [12]. These are detailed in sections 3.2 - 3.7, as follows:

3.2 Rapid Population Growth Accelerating Youth Unemployment

Rapid population growth means an increase in the number of people that reside in a country, region, district, state, city, and village. This can be influenced by increase in birth rate, decrease in death rate and increase in immigration rate, and lastly, decrease in emigration rate. Table 2 suggests that many people in Tanzania,

Table 2 Overall impact of employment creation on youth unemployment

	Employment creation	Tanzania	Burundi	Kenya	Rwanda	Uganda
1	Change in fiscal policy	48.2	68.8	36.9	45	-
2	Change in production technology	44.3	62.6	47.3	55	-
3	freedom of labour market	41.4	68.8	42.1	10	-
4	Wage rate or salary	38.3	93.8	52.6	25	87.6
5	Sector policy linkage	47	69	52.6	20	63
6	Participation of youth in planning process	47.2	100	89.5	15	87.6
7	Policy implementation	47.6	81.3	89.4	40	87.6
8	population	65.2	100.0	42.1	75	81.3
9	Resilience on sector to drive economy	52.4	87.6	42.1	50	6.3
10	Regional integration and globalization	44.7	93.8	47.4	15	6.3

Sources: FCS

Rwanda, Burundi and Uganda perceived that a high population rate has a high probability of increasing youth unemployment in the country. This is due to the fact that high population growth rate has resulted in a growing working population that far exceeds the rate of job creation in the economy (Daniel, 2015). The economies in these EAC countries are not creating enough jobs and there are also concerns about the jobs that do not conform to the decent work conditions or standards.

The East African countries recorded fastest economic growth in the continent during the last five years 2011 and 2015 at about 6 percent per year (AEO, 2015; AfDB, 2014). The economic growth in East African countries has been attributed to huge private sector investment in positive reforms and policies. However, the rate of population growth in these EAC countries is relatively high at about 2.7 - 3.0 per cent per annum. The size of the youth population is growing faster than the other component of the population. This means that the working population is increasing more than what the economy has to offer in terms of employment opportunities to the youth hence creating a gap thus increasing youth unemployment.

The employment opportunities generated are not enough to absorb the emerging labour force entering the labour market. This is due to limited diversification of the economy to accommodate a large population, weak private sector, and limited entrepreneurial and self-employed approaches. These EAC economic structures have failed to rectify the employment absorption capacity since self-employment also regenerates other employment opportunities, [12].

3.3 Limited Diversification and High Reliance on Few Sectors to Drive the Economy

Most of the EAC countries rely on the single sector; namely, peasantry agriculture as the driving force of their economies. This is despite the fact that there are other new and many alternative sustainable development sectors such as tourism, mining, gas and petroleum sectors. These are the most strategic pro-economic growth sectors which generate employment and income opportunities. Also, there are large, open and many arable lands for supporting commercial and large scale agricultural activities hence these proved that potential jobs can be created in some EA countries. Table 2 suggests that many people in Tanzania, Rwanda and Burundi perceive high reliance on the single peasantry agriculture sector as having a high probability of limiting employment creation opportunities. It is the reliance on few sectors in Rwanda and Burundi such as agriculture which is characterised with low labour productivity especially in rural areas and is undertaken for subsistence incomes (Daniel, 2015).

Although, agricultural sector employs more than 70 per cent of the labour force, productivity in this sector has been low and was surpassed by the service sector. A less diversified economy is inherently more unstable, more incapable of creating jobs and opportunities for the next generation and more vulnerable to the boom and bust cycles of agricultural and natural resources prices' or any economic shock, (GSDP, 2011). With rapid population growth and limited land; Rwanda has started diversifying its economy by

promoting manufacturing industries, ICT development centres, promotion of tourism and trade promotion to increase employment and exportation increase, (Daniel, 2015). The creation of new employment opportunities depends on the expansion of the supporting government activities in the pro-economic growth sectors. The government has not facilitated development of diverse sectors thus paving a way for many employment opportunities to be created in the region. Few jobs even in economies posting impressive growth rates is a manifestation of the fact that sectors driving growth are often few, capital-intensive or high value chain sectors such as mining which generate limited new jobs.

3.4 Significant Impact of Changes in Fiscal Policies

Fiscal policy refers to the use of government spending and taxes to influence the pattern of the economic activities in all EAC countries. Usually, the government affects the private sector through changes in the levels of spending and revenue collection to influence the level and growth of aggregate demand, output and employment (Karuhanga and Nyirakanani, 2015). Table 2 suggests that many people in Kenya, Uganda, Rwanda and Tanzania had the views that changes in fiscal policies also have shown the significant effects on economic growth and youth employment creation. The changes in government spending policies and tax policies affect investment, production, trade, consumption and saving activities, [10,6]. Changes in fiscal policies are the results of global economic changes, changes in domestic national policies, technological and economic developments affecting most of EA countries. The fall in global demand and inflows and tighter liquidity conditions abroad affected the countries in this region as elsewhere in Sub-Saharan Africa.

These changes in fiscal policies affect production in positive or negative way depending on the decisions of the governments either to contract or expand. Given low levels of economic development, an increase in youth unemployment is happening when the government contracts its spending and increases tax collection. Low employment creation is associated with low investment due to unstable political and economic environments. For instance, in Burundi due to political instability; investment declined by 40 per cent leading to

destruction of various micro, small and medium scale activities and hence employment opportunities, [15]. Majority respondents in Kenya viewed the problem of ineffective public fiscal policy implementation as having a high probability of increasing the rate of female youth unemployment. Many agreed that public policy implementations have not been pro-employment creation due to the fact that recent social economic reforms were without human face.

3.5 Limited Participation of Youth in Planning Process

Participatory planning is a new social management paradigm that emphasizes involving the entire community in the strategic and management processes of urban planning; or, community-level planning processes, urban or rural. Table 2 suggests that many people in Burundi, Kenya and Uganda perceived that lack of participation of youth in the planning process has a high probability of limiting youth employment, (UWEZO Youth Empowerment, 2015). Recognizing and involving youth in policy processes and community's decision-making processes on empowerment issues is about more than engaging young people for the sake of inclusivity, ownership and responsibility attributes. When youth are empowered in the planning process this increases the level of commitment, ownership, attachments towards the implemented planning activities hence make easy job creation for all.

There is limited participation of youth with and without disabilities in the employment planning process in EAC countries because they are marginalized or/and side-lined in political and planning processes. Being youth with disabilities it does not mean that they cannot perform. People should recognize and involve youth with disabilities in policy designing and community's decision-making processes. Low participation of youth with disabilities in employment planning processes is due to weak communication and accessibility barriers in physical and virtual domains of participation including access to information and logistic arrangements, (McDonald, et al 2005).

Youth in Uganda have a very good platform for their need to be heard since they have members of parliaments who represent them in parliament. They have a youth national council established under National Youth Council Act, Cap 319, civil

societies and the ministry concerning the issues related to youth. But the main problems are that youth are not incorporated from the initial stages of designing and initiatives of various programs concerning youth to ensure that they include their needs at grass root level. The government has good plans for youth but misses the right methods, approaches and opportunities because of not engaging youth in the actual design and development of the plans or interventions programs for youth empowerment hence led to ineffectiveness implementation and successful of plans (Kagawa, 2013) [12].

The new constitution of Kenya [16] insists on the public participation in formulation of national policies. Youth do participate through their representatives; however, the majority of the respondents claimed that high levels of youth unemployment is caused by ineffective participation of youth in policy planning processes. The claim is posed on the modality in which youth are incorporated where the views of the grass-roots are not entailed in the national policies.

3.6 Public Policy Implementation

Public policy is the deliberate system of principles to guide decisions and achieve rational outcomes. There are different public policies which are being implemented in the countries which include public health, land, environmental, employment and youth policies. Table 2 suggests that many people perceive that limited policy implementation has a high probability of limiting youth employment in the EA countries. In general, lack of effective implementation of public policy in these countries are the results of inconsistent support from political leaders and bureaucratic leadership, agencies or institutions with the responsibility of implementing. These public policies do not possess the requisite manpower and financial resources to effectively implement them due to different priorities by different political regimes leading to inconsistent implementation of public policies, (Ugwuanyi et al, 2013).

The ineffective implementation of the public policy in the East African region in general is the main reason for many existent social economic development problems such as poor infrastructure, corruption, poverty, diseases, migration problems, wastage of human capital, increase of social crimes and other social unrest.

The majority of respondents in Kenya viewed the problems of public policy implementation as a factor that results in a high rate of youth unemployment. Kenya is endowed with well written and expressive public policies which are claimed to remain in papers.

Ineffective public policy implementation in Tanzania is still a big challenge whereby the main reasons are wrong policy design and limited human capital and financial resources. In some EA countries like Burundi and South Sudan employment policy is not a major policy agenda due to internal political instabilities, public safety and security.

3.7 Other Employment Creation Factors

Table 2 suggests that there are other employability attributes in the EAC countries. These include changes in production technology, freedom of labour market, wage rate or salary, sector policy linkages, regional integration, and globalization.

3.7.1 Changes in production technology

Technological change is the overall process of invention, innovation and improvement of the means of production. Technology changes the production structures, input utilization and reshaping labour markets. Table 2 suggests that few people perceive changes in production technologies to have a high probability of limiting youth employment in the EA countries.

One of the effects of technological advancement is the manner by which it continues to modify the scale and nature of productive sectors and the labour market systems. It is widely noted that low-skilled workers in the private sectors are the most harmed by technological developments, as capital equipment, machineries, and computing advancements regularly replace workers undertaking repetitive tasks. Unemployment is on the rise within sectors that are mainly based around administration, service work and even within construction. However, at the same time employment opportunities are on the surge for labour whose skills are complementary to new technology, for instance workers who are skilled and educated in ICT and engineering related disciplines in private sectors. In terms of employment, technology is benefiting those with greater analytical, problem solving and creative skills.

Technological changes drive long-term economic growth, productivity and improved standards of living. It is, however, a process of 'creative destruction'. New technologies may create or destroy jobs in some private industries, especially the low-skilled workers, while creating new jobs which are often in different industries and require different skills. Technological unemployment is the loss of jobs caused by technological change such as the introduction of labour-saving machines or more efficient processes [14].

3.7.2 Labour market freedom

Perfect labour market systems allow free movement of youth and free choice of potential labour without government intervention or with minimum government intervention. This means that workers are entitled to look for work in any place without any legal restriction. Table 2 suggests that few people had the opinion that limited labour market freedom has a high probability of limiting youth employment in the EA countries. In East Africa, the freedom of labour market remains underdeveloped due to the extremely low education, limited information; restrictive laws, regulations and trade union protectionism policies. Compared to her East African neighbours, Uganda has had several conflicts and strikes in the labour market and violations of labour rights, labour activists also reported workers in different sectors continued to lose their jobs because of joining the unions, (Uganda - Labour Market Profile 2014).

3.7.3 Wage rate or salary

A wage rate or salary is monetary compensation (or remuneration, personnel expenses, labour) paid by an employer to an employee in exchange for work done. Wage rates are influenced by market force of demand and supply of labour, legislation, power of trade unions and political environment. Table 2 suggests that few people perceive that minimum wage rate has a high probability of limiting youth employment in the EA countries. Wages are different among East African countries because of various factors such as occupations wages rate are determined by market forces of demand and supply of labour and are higher when the demand for labour is greater than supply; on the other hand wages are influenced by productivity of labour, education and training, quality of entrepreneurs, quality of management of workers association and trade union and increase of cost of living and other many factors.

The EA countries set minimum wage for different categories of work and are determined by laws, regulations, institutional arrangement, inflation, sector and other social culture factors. In practice, workers' higher wage and salary applicable to each professional category are determined by a collective labour convention, and minimum wage rate does not significantly cause youth unemployment (WageIndicator, 2016). Many agree that businesses will make changes to adapt to the higher labour costs after a minimum wage increase. It is known that the increase of a minimum wage tends to reduce employment [17]. The higher the minimum wage relative to competitive-market wage levels, the greater the employment loss that occurs. While minimum wages ostensibly aim to improve the economic well-being of the working poor, the disemployment effects of a minimum wage have been found to fall disproportionately on the least skilled and on the most disadvantaged individuals, including the disabled, youth, lower-skilled workers, immigrants, and ethnic minorities.

The minimum wage has its greatest impact on the market for youth employment in the developing economy [17]. The equilibrium wages of youth are low because youth are among the least skilled and least experienced members of the labour force. In addition, youth are often willing to accept a lower wage in exchange for on-the-job training. As a result, the minimum wage is more often binding for teenagers than for other members of the labour force. Supporters of minimum wage legislation highlight that it can shift the earnings distribution in favour of low-paid workers by shrinking the bottom tail of the distribution [17]. Opponents highlight its disemployment effect and the fact that it might reduce the share of earnings going to low-paid workers. Other negative effects include increasing the likelihood and duration of unemployment for low-wage workers, particularly during economic downturns; encouraging employers to cut worker training; increasing job turnover; discouraging part-time work and reducing school attendance and driving workers into informal jobs.

3.7.4 Sector and policy linkages

Sectoral industrial policies comprise all measures that target specific public and private sectors over others. Relevant tools of pro-private sector policies in Africa are preferential credit, competition policy and public procurement

favouring local manufacturers (Szirmai, et al., 2013). Linkages between public and private sector policies (for example, between agriculture and services and manufacturing), population policies, land tenure and use policies, policies aimed at raising agricultural production (including those affecting farm and agricultural commodity prices) as well as policies which determine opportunities for employment outside agriculture. Those policies must be linked so as to have one objective directed to address youth unemployment problems (Cecilia, 2015 and Daniel, 2015).

Table 2 suggests that few people perceive inadequate private sector and policy linkages to have high probability of limiting youth employment in the EA countries because they have weak public-private partnership and employment policy linkages. There are significant numbers of sector policies, which are relevant in promoting youth employment. However, these national and sector policies are not well linked to address the issue of youth employment in these countries. Lack of political will, limited markets, low levels of economic development and poor infrastructure are among the reasons for lack of sector policy linkages (Szirmai, et al., 2013). The linkages between agriculture and manufacturing enterprises help to solve the value-addition problems such as input of business, the output of farmers, reduce production costs, lower costs, and increase income. According to several studies (USAID–CTI, 1994; Semboja, 2002), it is indicated that the poor performance of the industrial sector has been largely contributed by weak sectoral linkages. Weak sectoral linkages in developing countries are functions of major traditional business technological, resources, and system constraints.

At the firm level, there are views that there are a number of problems and barriers that companies face including increased trade reforms, liberalization, and globalization. In principle, there are barriers that are internally derived and exclusive to the individual firms; those include high cost of production, low productivity, inadequate in-house systematic training, and inadequate managerial skills, limited marketing skills, lack of research, inward looking (over dependence on domestic market), inefficient, ineffective and old technologies.

At the sectoral level, we understand that a company's ability to create linkages or a

competitive advantage in international markets is closely related to the degree of competitiveness imbued into the domestic sectors from which the company originates. It is suggested that the stable relationship of the agricultural sector with private sectors in these EA countries showed that the industrial sector development plays a positive role in the agricultural sector transformation [1]. It is also revealed that there exist strong sectorial forward and backward linkages between the industrial and agricultural sectors. However, the growth of the service sector had limited impact on the growth of the agricultural sector. Despite the fact that these countries are progressing at a higher economic rate, there are low levels of employment creation and limited absorption capacities. In Uganda, agriculture, ICT, ecotourism, telecommunication and financial sector and oil sectors have the best future prospects for youth employment. However, there is a need to have access to high quality skills, relevant and practical skills training since formal jobs are limited and highly competitive (Youth Map Uganda, 2011).

3.7.5 Regional integration and globalization

Regional integration is the process by which two or more nation-states agree to co-operate and work closely together to achieve peace, stability and wealth. Regional integration is a key strategy for development and intra-regional trade plays a significant role in accelerating free movement of labour power and increasing youth employment opportunities within the region. The centrality of youth employment has long been recognized by the East African countries as one of the major means to alleviate poverty and empower people to be part of the social, economic and political processes.

Table 2 suggests that few people perceive that an increased regional integration and globalization have a high probability of increasing youth unemployment in the EAC countries. This is mainly attributed to slow and low domestic economic growth, underemployment and precarious work in these countries. There have been limited movements of persons, labour and services and limited rights of establishment and residence of some citizens within the EAC countries. This is due to a lack of effective regional integration in terms of increasing job opportunities for all in the EA countries.

Studies also suggest that regional integration is expected to increase real wages and/or employment, although to varying degrees across the EA countries (Mina, et al 2012). Some countries have relatively high tariffs on some manufactured goods and would face substantial structural adjustment if these tariffs were eliminated. Workers in these industries would be obliged to seek work in the service sector. The results emphasise the essentially positive effect of regional integration in EAC economies and the importance of labour market policies to complement regional and global trade policies in order to address employment concerns.

Globalisation offers many employment benefits to EA countries [1] such that markets become more accessible, transport costs become lower, easier to get information, easier access to technology and capital. This promises more exports, faster transfer of technology and greater investment resources (Mina, et al. 2012). On the domestic front, closer integration with the world economy also promises better chances through trade liberalisation, labour-intensity in export and domestic-oriented activities that boost employment. Investments from inside and outside EA countries may lead to larger inflows of technologies, information, capital, skills and various services, often in a 'packaged' form that lets them be deployed quickly and efficiently.

It may also give access to the domestic production systems of private firms that increasingly span the world and offer massive markets, rapid growth and technological advancement as well as employment benefits. Opening the domestic private sector to regional and international services and infrastructure providers creates jobs, raises productivity and strengthens competitiveness in the national economies. It is not just foreign firms that benefit, local enterprises can respond to more intense competition and new market opportunities by raising their productivity and collaborating with, learning from and supplying to international private firms.

4. CONCLUSION

Section four is a conclusion that provides main findings and working policy recommendations on the youth employment creation in the EA countries.

4.1 Main Study Findings

The economic growth in these countries has not been primarily creating jobs because few sectors that contributed the most to GDP are not labour-intensive. The governments and private sectors have not created adequate remunerative and sustainable job opportunities to match with the increase of work and labour forces within the countries through effective utilization of natural resources available and improvement of production technologies within the EAC. Furthermore, the numbers of labour market entrants have been on the increase over the past decade without commensurate changes on the ability of these EA economies to create youth employment. It has been expected that the formal and informal private sector firms would play a key role in helping to absorb a significant number of the youth with and without disabilities. In line with private sectors, technological developments for increasing production activities and labour productivity have to be integrated into all employment generating sectors.

Within the framework of the ILO's 1964 Employment Policy Convention (no.122) member states agree to "declare and pursue, as a major goal, an active policy designed to promote full, productive and freely chosen employment." The stated purpose of such a goal is "to stimulate economic growth and development, raise levels of living, meet manpower requirements and overcome unemployment and underemployment" (Miller, 2012). One of the strategic moves indicated in the EAC Treaty is regional integration of the labour market, with the overall policy goal of facilitating free movement of youth. The vision is to pursue an open door labour market system and the mission of putting an enabling environment for increasing youth employment activities in rural and urban areas. The policy objective is to enhance optimal employment creation. The following are the main youth employment creation policy strategies.

4.2 Working Policy Recommendations on the Youth Employment Creation

4.2.1 Create more job opportunities

It is important to create more and sufficient jobs that are adequately remunerative and sustainable across the economy. It is more imperative for the governments and private sectors to create more job opportunities to match

with the increase of labour force within the region through the effective utilization of natural resources available and improvement of production technology within the region (Magelah and Ntambirweki, 2014). Major strategies include enhancing diversification of the rural economy; strengthening deliberate efforts to create business enabling policy environment to boost investment particularly in employment-intensive sectors; strengthening the institutional capacities; mainstreaming employment-creating initiatives in development plans; promoting sustainable enterprise development initiatives by private sectors and enhancing the use of science, innovation simple and affordable technology.

Diversification of the rural economies through integrating smallholder farmers into inclusive value chains by modernizing agribusiness and agro-processing manufacturing activities is seen as an effective way to create better jobs for youth. Technological innovation, improved product market systems and higher yields could potentially boost agricultural employment and make farming a formal occupation, especially for youth. Regional and local market integration may offer best opportunities. Building truly inclusive value chains requires close regional cooperation and continued exchange of knowledge and evidence between research, policy and practice.

4.2.2 Harmonize population, employment and economic growth

The effects of population growth on employment are significant, and also the population variables influence the employment, development, and the welfare of individuals, families and communities at the micro level; namely, district, region, and national levels, as a whole at the macro level. The rapidly growing young population demands an increase in expenditure directed at social services such as education, health, water and housing. The rapidly growing labour force demands heavy investments in human resource development as well as developing strategies which will ensure future job creation opportunities.

The overriding concern of the population policies is to enable citizens to achieve an improved standard of living and quality of life for its people in all EAC countries. In Kenya, the goal is to attain high quality of life for the people by managing population growth that can be sustained with the available resources. All EA

countries aim at optimal population growth rates in order to harmonize the economic growth and social development. Important aspects of quality of life include good health and education, adequate food and housing, stable environment, equity, gender equality and security for individuals. The population policy is to direct development of other policies, strategies and programmes that ensure sustainable development of the people. There is a need to harmonize population and economic growth. This may involve creating an environment conducive for increased employment opportunities in both rural and urban areas.

4.2.3 Diversify the EAC economies

Diversified economies have a number of different employment generating avenues, revenue streams and provide nations with the ability for sustainable growth. This diversification provides nations with the adequate employment opportunities, social security and reliability that they need so that if one economic revenue stream should fail, the nation knows that they have several other options for income and employment generating activities.

Promoting alternative and best practice measures, methodologies and tools for economic diversification must aim at increasing economic resilience and reducing reliance on vulnerable economic sectors in all EA countries. Economic diversification is the process in which a growing range of economic outputs is produced. It can include the diversification of markets for exports or the diversification of income sources away from domestic economic activities (i.e., income from overseas investment). Diversification of the economy towards many different sectors like industry, mining, social services, trade and business, transportation and communication and entrepreneurs sectors will create a significant number of job opportunities among youth with and without disabilities in East African countries.

4.2.4 Create fiscal policy environment conducive for investment

Governments have to use fiscal policy instruments to influence the level of aggregate demand in the economies, in an effort to achieve economic objectives of price stability, full employment, and economic growth. Given current levels of tax regimes, expenditure systems and economic growth increasing government spending and decreasing tax rates are the best ways to stimulate aggregate

demand and decreasing spending and increasing taxes after the economic boom begins. At the moment, these fiscal policy instruments can be the best tools for building the framework for strong economic growth and employment generation in the EA region.

The EA countries should design fiscal policy regimes that are effective in reducing unemployment. In a recession, expansionary fiscal policy will increase aggregate demand, causing higher output, leading to the creation of more jobs. Fiscal policy must be designed to be performed in two ways; by expanding investment in public and private enterprises and by diverting resources from socially less desirable to more desirable investment channels to accelerate capital formation and investment. However, the government should re-allocate funds towards employment generating projects that are beneficial to the private sector, and avoid those that compete with private investment; and that will reduce unemployment problems due to the prosperity of private investment.

East African countries should promote the linkage among national policies such as trade policy, industrial policy, and agriculture policy to make sure that all stakeholders including donor agencies, civil societies' organization and youth empowerment organizations operating at local level should participate effectively to solve youth unemployment problem. Furthermore, the government should be strongly committed to having sector policy linkage, management and coordination.

4.2.5 Increase participation of youth in planning processes

EA governments have to enhance youth participation in policy and planning processes. Main strategies include: (1) giving youth responsibility and voice; (2) building youth capacity; (3) encouraging youthful styles of working; (4) involving adults throughout the process; and (5) adapting the socio-political context. Together, the five lessons recognize that youth participation has the potential to benefit the participants and their communities and that potential is more fully realized when adults and society reach out to them.

It is recommended to integrate youth participation in planning because it is practicable and has a wide range of benefits. Actions for

planners include making room for youth participation within traditional public involvement processes and responding to the needs and recommendations of independent processes. Allow youth the latitude to define and address their issues of concern, especially given the presence of powerful, competing demands on planning processes (e.g., economic development). Increase supply of the time and resources needed to build participant capacity and provide continuing adult assistance. Minimize bureaucratic procedures and professional standards that would resist incorporating youthful styles of working and adapting the socio-political context.

East African governments should create very strong political democratic platforms for youth with disabilities to participate fully in the planning process and decision making to create the sense of possessions and ownership and easy understanding about the implementation of the plan; youth with disabilities can participate in all planning processes through their representatives.

4.2.6 Pro-employment production technologies

One of the key objectives of the production technology policies is to help overcome the challenges and problems across all sectors of economies. Most EA countries aim at sustainable industrialization processes where higher investments aim at increasing firm level technological progress and productivity resulting in high GDP growth rates. That is technological progress leads to increased factor productivity, and firm expansion increases labour absorption capacity and employment. Technological progress leads to cost reductions and increase in productivity. Innovating firms are able to cut down the costs of production and thus increase output for both local and foreign markets. The higher quality and lower prices of goods and services resulting from increased productivity are likely to increase international competitiveness and boost foreign exchange earnings.

The goal is to strengthen national capability to generate, transfer, and apply technologies; and to ensure sustainable utilization of natural resources for the realization of sustainable development objectives. Relevant strategies include creation of an enabling policy

environment to foster prop-employment production technologies and augment their contribution to national development; assessing, forecasting and advising on issues regarding production technologies, taking into account current and future trends in development, transfer and diffusion of both local and foreign outputs; guiding the judicious use and application of traditional, conventional and emerging technologies for sustainable development and support development and growth of small and medium enterprises through provision of essential systems and services.

4.2.7 Effective public policy implementation systems

Create adequate conditions necessary for successful public policy implementation systems such as control and monitoring. This entails ensuring that public policy objectives are specific, clear and offer adaptation of objectives to suit national preferences. Involve youth in the implementation stage, each with their own needs and interests and ability to exercise influence on policy implementation and its outcomes. The implementation processes must be a well organized rational process, and often flexible, accommodative and results. The number and variety of implementing agents has to increase.

There is a need for the reviewing of good public policies by implementing agents. For example, EAC Treaty and agreements have to be translated and transposed by the national governments into national policies and legislations, which are then implemented by the national institutional systems at all levels and in particular by local government ministries, departments and agencies. There is a need to put in place innovation in public service delivery systems by incorporating the role of non-state actors. All EA national governments need to have effective monitoring, controlling and evaluations systems of public management systems.

4.2.8 Enhanced labour market flexibility

The labour market freedom and flexibility take into consideration various aspects of the employment policies, legal and regulatory framework of national labour markets, including regulations concerning minimum wages, laws inhibiting layoffs, severance requirements and measurable regulatory restraints on hiring and hours worked. There is a need to enhance free

movement of labour whereby workers are entitled to look for work in other districts, regions, countries, without requiring any physical restrictions or obstacles.

Enhanced labour market flexibility should reduce youth unemployment and there should be an adoption of policies that aimed at improving the quality of employment and to minimize possible negative short-term effects on inequality and job destruction. It is important to protect workers, rather than jobs, by coupling unemployment benefits with pressure on unemployed to take jobs and measures to help them (Blanchard, 2006). Moreover, employment protection should be designed in order to internalize social costs and not inhibit job creation and labour reallocation. Artificial restrictions on individual employment contracts should also be avoided.

EAC citizens have to be permitted to work in any EAC member state, that is, they may choose where to pursue their economic activities. This right derives from the freedom of movement for workers as articulated in the Treaty. There should be no discrimination against EAC citizens based on their nationality with regard to employment, remuneration or other working conditions. The freedom of movement for workers prohibits both direct and indirect discrimination.

The prohibition of discrimination applies to member states and to employers as well. The freedom of movement for workers also implicitly prohibits restrictions, i.e. measures that, while not discriminating per se based on citizenship, make it difficult or less attractive to exercise the right of freedom of movement. To implement non-discriminatory access to another EAC member labour market, the free movement of workers guarantees a comprehensive right to mobility.

4.2.9 Designing desirable minimum wage policies at regional and national levels

Minimum wage policies are neither an antipoverty nor employment strategy panacea. They do, however, tend to raise wages for the lowest-paid workers—making an adequate minimum wage an important pillar of a sustainable development agenda.

There is a need for setting the regional and national minimum wages linked to basic and efficient wage rates. While it pushes the minimum wage beyond the experience over the

recent period in the EAC countries it does so in a desirable and acceptable manner. In addition, national governments should consider the local cost of living when setting a minimum wage policy and should index wage levels for inflation. Incorporating all of these criteria into minimum wage laws would lead to substantially higher wage floors in all EAC countries. Possible negative impacts of a higher minimum wage can be mitigated with regional wage coordination—national states can cooperate to set adequate minimum wage policies. This strategy, combined with minimum wage laws that set the wage floor based on local economic conditions, can lead to lowered poverty, reduced inequality, and more-adequate wages and at the same time mitigating the potential negative impacts on employment.

4.2.10 Sustainable sectoral-industrial and policy linkages between all units

There is a need to put in place sustainable sectoral - industrial linkages between all units in institutional and producing systems at national, regional and international levels (Szirmai, et al., 2013). This demands credible, effective and transparent supporting institutions focusing on sustainable policy inputs for sustainable economic development. There is a need for trade, technology, competitiveness and industrial development policies that encourage inter-linkages for the achievement of optimal production, exchange and consumption solutions. The importance of both demand and supply-side interventions by the government in the fields of human resource development, the infrastructure, the legal and regulatory framework, the provision of investment incentives, and the upgrading of productivity through structural reforms and the development of technology.

It is important to have consistent and appropriate government support and responses to macroeconomic and social - political policy interventions at the level of the individual firm (Szirmai, et al., 2013). The scope for improving the competitive market systems revolving around issues of raw material and output supplies, pricing, appropriateness of technology, the upgrading of core skills, meeting customer needs, and efficiency in industrial systems.

4.2.11 Pro-employment regional and globalization conditions

All EA countries should promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full

and productive employment and decent work for all. The partner states should adopt policy measures to achieve the free movement of persons, labour and services and to ensure the enjoyment of the right of establishment and residence of their citizens within the Community.

The specific policy measures include the need to ease border movement-crossing by citizens of the partner states; maintain common standard travel documents for their citizens; effect reciprocal opening of border posts and keep the posts opened and manned for twenty four hours; maintain common employment policies; harmonize their labour policies, programmes and legislation including those on occupational health and safety; establish a regional centre for productivity and employment promotion and exchange information on the availability of employment; make their training facilities available to persons from other member states; and enhance the activities of the employers' and workers' organisations with a view to strengthen them.

All EA countries should undertake to co-operate in the enhancement of the social partnership between the governments, employers and employees so as to increase the productivity of labour through efficient production.

CONSENT

As per international standard or university standard, respondents' written consent has been collected and preserved by the author(s).

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

1. Semboja HH. Youth Employment in the East African Region: Opportunities and Obstacles". A policy research report prepared and submitted to the Foundation For Civil Society, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania; 2017.
2. Semboja H, Haji. (Unlocking Opportunities for Job Creation and Greater Economic Growth". The Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the Boards of Governors of the African Development

- Bank Group in Arusha, Tanzania; 2012.
3. Semboja H. Haji. "The Youth Employment in East Africa: An Integrated Labour Market Perspective. African Integration Review. 2007;1(2),.
4. Ministry of Public Service, (MPS). Labor and Employment of Burundi (MPSLE)": Burundi Office for Manpower and Employment – OBEM; 2016.
5. Danner H, Makau MK, Nebe JM. Youth Unemployment in Kenya; A Ticking Time Bomb. A Research Report, Nairobi, Kenya; 2016.
6. IFC. Jobs Study Assessing Private Sector Contributions To Job Creation And Poverty Reduction. IFC World Bank Group, Washington DC, USA; 2013.
7. ILO. *Implementing the Global Employment Agenda: Employment Strategies in Support of decent work*". ILO Vision Document;2006.
8. Semboja H. Haji. Youth Employment in East African Countries". *African Newsletter on Occupational Health and Safety*. A journal published by the Finnish Occupational Health, Helsinki, Finland; 2008.
9. ILO. Working with Youth: addressing the youth employment challenge- Highlights of the national and regional events with young people. Geneva: International Labour Office;2012
10. AfDB, OECD, and UNDP. Africa Economic Outlook: Promoting Youth Employment; 2012.
11. Kagawa A. Understanding the challenge and opportunities for effective youth involvement in election and campaigns. A research Report for Youth and Democratization in Uganda, Uganda Youth Network., Kampala Uganda; 2013.
12. Magelah P, Ntambirweki B. Youth Unemployment and Job Creation in Uganda: Opportunities and Challenges. A policy research report, Kampala, Uganda; 2014.
13. Steven Miller. Jobs and Labour Markets in Developing Countries Policy Issues and Priorities. Research Report for the Public World by Voluntary Services Overseas (UK); 2012.
14. Freedman DH. Youth employment promotion": A review of ILO work and the lessons learned: Youth Employment Network (YEN) Papers. ILO Employment Strategy Department; 2005.
15. Okojie CE. Employment Creation for youth in Africa-Case of Burundi: the gender dimension. Jobs for Youth: National Strategies for Employment Promotion. 2003;15-16.
16. Republic of Kenya. The Constitution of Kenya, 2010. Nairobi: Government Printer; 2010
17. Katherine Terrell, Rita K. Minimum wages in developing countries; helping or hurting workers"; World Bank Employment Policy Primer No. 10, Washington DC, USA; 2008.

© 2021 Hatibu et al.; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:

*The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
<http://www.sdiarticle4.com/review-history/69234>*