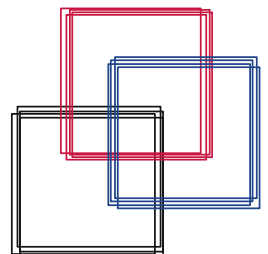


# Labour market transitions of young women and men in Cambodia

Heang Kanol, Khieu Khemarin  
and Sara Elder

September 2013

2013/02  
Youth Employment Programme  
Employment Policy Department



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**Work4Youth Publication Series No. 2**

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**International Labour Office • Geneva**

September 2013

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## Preface

Youth is a crucial time of life when young people start realizing their aspirations, assuming their economic independence and finding their place in society. The global jobs crisis has exacerbated the vulnerability of young people in terms of: i) higher unemployment, ii) lower quality of jobs for those who find work, iii) greater labour market inequalities among different groups of young people, iv) longer and more insecure school-to-work transitions, and v) increased detachment from the labour market.

In June 2012, the International Labour Conference of the ILO resolved to take urgent action to tackle the unprecedented youth employment crisis through a multi-pronged approach geared towards pro-employment growth and decent job creation. The resolution “The youth employment crisis: A call for action” contains a set of conclusions that constitute a blueprint for shaping national strategies for youth employment.<sup>1</sup> It calls for increased coherence of policies and action on youth employment across the multilateral system. In parallel, the UN Secretary-General highlighted youth as one of the five generational imperatives to be addressed through the mobilization of all the human, financial and political resources available to the United Nations. As part of this agenda, the United Nations has developed a System-wide Action Plan on Youth, with youth employment as one of the main priorities, to strengthen youth programmes across the UN system.

The ILO supports Governments and social partners in designing and implementing integrated employment policy responses. As part of this work, the ILO seeks to enhance the capacity of national and local level institutions to undertake evidence-based analysis that feeds social dialogue and the policy-making process. To assist member States in building a knowledge base on youth employment, the ILO has designed the “school-to-work transition survey” (SWTS). The current report, which presents the results of the survey in Cambodia, is a product of a partnership between the ILO and The MasterCard Foundation. The “Work4Youth” Project entails collaboration with statistical partners and policy-makers of 28 low- and middle-income countries to undertake the SWTS and assist governments and the social partners in the use of the data for effective policy design and implementation.

It is not an easy time to be a young person in the labour market today. The hope is that the international community, with leadership from the UN system, with the commitment of Governments, trade unions and employers’ organization and through the active participation of donors such as The MasterCard Foundation, can provide the effective assistance needed to help young women and men make a good start in the world of work. If we can get this right, it will positively affect young people’s professional and personal success in all future stages of life.

Azita Berar Awad  
Director  
Employment Policy Department

Maurizio Bussi  
Officer-in-Charge  
Country Office for Thailand, Cambodia  
and Lao People's Democratic Republic

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<sup>1</sup> The full text of the 2012 resolution “The youth employment crisis: A call for action” can be found on the ILO website at: [http://www.ilo.org/ilc/ILCSessions/101stSession/texts-adopted/WCMS\\_185950/lang--en/index.htm](http://www.ilo.org/ilc/ILCSessions/101stSession/texts-adopted/WCMS_185950/lang--en/index.htm).



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# **1. Introduction and main findings**

## **1.1 Overview**

The work ethic is strong in Cambodia and job opportunities for youth are abundant, at least for the lesser skilled. Nearly three-fourths of Cambodian young people aged 15 to 29 years are already working. Unemployment is very low, although the rate increases slightly among more educated youth reflecting the current structure of demand in the country.

Much political attention has been given to the employment of young people in the country. In recent years, the government has been active in developing policies to promote youth employment, most recently in the forthcoming National Employment Policy with a focus on young women and men, and also within the framework of the National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP). As the challenges are many and cut across several policy dimensions, measures focus on both supply and demand, and are curative as well as preventative. Emphasis will necessarily be placed on education and training, job creation and entrepreneurship, inclusion of youth in the labour market, and institutional reform. Section 5 of this report will present in greater detail the policy response to youth employment challenges in the country.

To characterize the specific youth employment challenges and to support policymakers in designing adequate instruments to support the transition of young people into employment, the ILO has developed its school-to-work transition survey (SWTS), a household survey of young people aged 15-29. The SWTS, implemented in Cambodia in 2012 with a second round planned for 2014, can serve as a principle tool for monitoring the impact of policies and programmes outlined in national instruments. This report is intended for the policymakers and social partners that concern themselves with the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the youth-related policies and programmes.

The indicators generated from the survey and analysed in this report aim to present a much more detailed picture of youth in the labour market than what can usually be derived through standard surveys, including the labour force survey. Unemployment among youth is not a major national concern in the country, although graduate unemployment is proving to be increasingly worrisome. What is of significant concern, however, is the quality of work made available to the young population and the impact that low-productive employment among the large youth population has on the growth prospects of the country. The report therefore focuses heavily on the quality of youth employment. It also draws attention to the path and duration that young people's transition from school to work takes and draws conclusions on characteristics or experiences that make for a smoother transition.

## **1.2 Structure of the report**

This report is divided into four sections. The following section presents an overview of the labour market in Cambodia and introduces the school-to-work transition survey (SWTS). Section 3 presents the main results of the SWTS with details on the characteristics of youth and their labour market outcomes. It includes an overall description of household characteristics, aspirations and life goals of young people, educational achievement, characteristics of young students and a detailed characterization of young workers, the unemployed youth population and youth who are outside of the labour market for reasons other than studying. Section 4 introduces the classification of stages of labour market transition and investigates the characteristics that lead to more advantageous labour market outcomes, specifically in the attainment of stable

employment. The section also discusses the length of time that young men and women spend in transition and traces the various labour market experiences they have along the way. Finally, section 5 goes into more detail on the national framework guiding youth employment in Cambodia and presents the policy implications that have been drawn from the analyses of the survey. Policy implications are also highlighted throughout the text in relation to specific findings.

### 1.3 Main findings

Cambodia was only minimally affected by the downturn in the global financial markets in 2008, although the impacts were far more pronounced in 2009. The economy rebounded quickly, however, with real GDP increasing by 6.0 per cent in 2010 and by 7.1 per cent in 2011. According to preliminary estimates, the economy remained in good shape with an impressive growth rate of 7.3 per cent in 2012.

*Too many young people are not benefiting fully from the education system, but still there has been clear progress in the area of education when this generation of youth is compared to previous generations.*

The largest share of youth in the country has completed education at the primary level (49.0 per cent of total youth), but there is still 14.7 per cent of youth who finished school below the primary level. Thirty (29.5) per cent of Cambodian youth have completed their education at the secondary level and only 3.7 per cent at the tertiary level. It is important to bear in mind, however, that one-third (33.3 per cent) of young Cambodians are still in school, 5.7 per cent of which are currently engaged in studies at the tertiary level.

The average age of leaving school in Cambodia is 16 years. Among the youth who left school before completion at the primary level, 72.4 stated they left school due to economic reasons, i.e. their family could not afford for them to continue in school.

There has been remarkable progress in the area of educational enrolment in Cambodia in recent years. Both young men and women today are much more likely to have school facilities readily accessible and to also have the permission to attend them. In total, 48.6 per cent of youth finished their education at a level higher than their father and 62.8 per cent finished higher than their mother.

*Education has a significant influence on the young person's labour market transition.*

Education matters in the results on a young person's labour market transition: 38.0 per cent of youth who completed their transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment had completed education at the secondary level or higher compared to 27.7 per cent of youth remaining in transition. Only 13.5 per cent of the transited youth had low levels of education (primary or less), compared to 20.9 per cent of the youth remaining in transition. And within the "transited" sub-categories, 71.9 per cent of transited youth with a tertiary degree are in stable employment compared to 28.1 per cent in satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment.

Young people who have higher educational levels also experience shorter transition periods than those with lower levels of completed education. The difference can be quite grim, with those with education below the primary level spending an average of 123.7 months, or ten years, in transition compared to 21.5 months (two years) for those with university degrees.

***Unemployment is low among youth in Cambodia, but higher unemployment rates among the most educated youth implies a mismatch between education and skills demand in the labour market.***

Overall, the youth unemployment rate in Cambodia is very low at 2.1 per cent. The likelihood of being unemployed is highest among young Cambodians with no education (4.8 per cent youth unemployment rate) and young Cambodians with university education (3.8 per cent youth unemployment rate). The most significant challenges cited by unemployed youth were their lack of work experience (27.4 per cent) and their insufficient level of education/training (17.1 per cent). These findings suggest that there is an urgent need to improve labour market relevance of educational outcomes and to strengthen career guidance services. The education system often falls short of students' expectations to provide them with the skills and means needed to enter the labour market.

***The vast majority of young Cambodians are working, but the quality of employment is often low, which does not allow the youth (and the country) to make the most of their economic potential.***

Three-quarters (74.1 per cent) of the youth population in Cambodia is employed, and among the employed, self-employment represents 65.7 per cent, summing 17.6 per cent young own-account workers, 46.8 per cent young contributing (unpaid) family workers and 1.3 per cent young employers. The large share of unpaid family workers is worrisome given the subsequent results from the transition paths, which show that only a negligible few are able to move from unpaid family work to stable and/or satisfactory employment in order to complete the labour market transition. Either the unpaid family worker is not trying to change his/her labour market status or they find it extremely difficult to make the transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment.

Many youth took the self-employment route involuntarily, either because it was required by the family (19.0 per cent) or because they had been unable to find a wage or salaried job (17.5 per cent). The young self-employed claim their most significant business challenges as insufficient financial resources (51.6 per cent) and insufficient business expertise (14.8 per cent).

Regarding the few youth who do obtain wage and salaried employment (34.4 per cent of young workers), less than one-quarter has access to the benefits of paid annual leave (24.3 per cent) and only 4.4 per cent claim to have employers who pay into a social security system. About two-thirds (68.6 per cent) of young employees were engaged without a written contract.

Poor quality employment impacts more than half of young workers: nearly eight in ten young workers receive a wage that is below the average of all workers (paid workers and own-account workers), five in ten are in informal employment, seven in ten are in irregular employment, four in ten are undereducated for the job that they hold and six in ten are working an excessive number of hours. A significant share of young workers (41.8 per cent) said they would like to change their job.

A large share (42.5 per cent) of young working Cambodians are undereducated for the work that they do. Professionals, technicians and associate professionals, skilled agricultural workers, crafts workers and plant and machine operators in the country have a one in two chance of being undereducated than the job calls for. Undereducation can have a negative impact on the productivity of the worker and thus the output of the enterprise, but also more personally, on the sense of security of the young worker.

***Agriculture remains the most important employer in the country.***

Employment in agriculture dominates the youth labour market (50.1 per cent), with employment in wholesale and retail trade a distant second at 18.0 per cent of youth employment and manufacturing a distant third at 11.0 per cent (with both of the latter sectors showing a higher share for young women than men). The construction and transport sectors are fairly well represented among male employment (9.1 and 5.7 per cent, respectively).

***Most youth in Cambodia have already completed their labour market transitions and the transitions were relatively short, reflecting low turnover in the Cambodian labour market.***

The largest share of the youth population in Cambodia has already completed the transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment (68.6 per cent), and most to satisfactory self-employment (50.0 per cent). Among the youth who have already completed their labour market transition, nearly half – 45.3 per cent – moved directly to their current stable and/or satisfactory job, reflecting both the low tendency to stay in school past the secondary level and also the fact that there is not a lot of turnover, or experimentation, in employment in the country. The young person tends to follow their job path, often determined by the family, and stick to that job for the remainder of their life. In fact, one very startling statistic from the SWTS was that one-quarter (28.4 per cent) of the directly transitioned youth had completed their labour market transition before the age of 15.

The percentage of youth who have not yet started the transition is 17.4 per cent and the share of youth still in the process of transition is 14.0 per cent. Urban youth are more likely to remain in education and start the transition later (26.5 per cent compared to 14.5 per cent of rural youth) while rural youth are more likely to fall in the economically active categories of transition completed or in transition. Regarding the influence of household income, it becomes clear that household wealth determines the ability of youth to stay in school and thus be more likely to fall in the category of transition not yet started (27.1 per cent of youth in well-off households are in the category compared to 10.7 per cent of youth in poor households).

Regarding the youth who completed the transition but had not moved directly to their status in stable and/or satisfactory employment, the path to transition proved to be extremely long at 63.7 months, or more than five years. The time spent in transition averaged nearly eight months longer for young women compared to young men (66.3 and 58.5 months, respectively).

The youth who remain “stuck” in transition are likely to find themselves staying within the category for an extremely long period of time. Our data show that the youth remaining in transition have already spent, on average, seven years (87.2 months) within the category (meaning they have been unemployed, in non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment, or an inactive non-student with plans to work or any combination of the three categories).

***Urban residence, household income and level of education are good determinants of who does better in the labour market transition.***

Regarding who is doing better at obtaining the few “good” jobs and completing their labour market transition, young men have a slight advantage over young women (87.0 per cent of young men have completed the transition compared to 80.0 per cent of young women). Second, living in an urban area slightly increases the youth’s chances of completing the transition (86.3 per cent of urban youth have completed the transition compared to 82.2 per cent of youth in rural areas).

Youth from wealthier households have a higher likelihood to complete the transition as opposed to remaining in transition, although the difference in shares across the two categories is not large (88.6 per cent of youth in above average wealth households completed the transition compared to 79.7 per cent of youth in below average income households). Finally, one of the strongest conclusions is that education matters to the transition, as was noted in the previous second main finding above.

## 2. Overview of the labour market and survey methodology

### 2.1 The socio-economic context

While Cambodia was only minimally affected by the downturn in the global financial markets in 2008, the impacts were far more pronounced in 2009 (Table 1). In 2009, the real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth rate was only 0.1 per cent, and the growth rate of exports was -9.9 per cent. Subsequently, the GDP growth rate (in constant 2000 prices) showed significant improvement and reached 6.0 per cent in 2010 and 7.1 per cent in 2011. The economy remained robust in 2012, underpinned by a growth rate of about 7.3 per cent, according to preliminary estimates.<sup>2</sup> Investment growth in 2011 was 21.3 per cent, from a 2010 increase of 20.6 per cent. Real GDP per capita was US\$ 911 in 2011, an increase of 9.8 per cent from 2010.

**Table 1. Key economic indicators**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011p
Real GDP growth rate (%)	10.2	6.7	0.1	6.0	7.1
GDP per capita (US\$)	656	760	753	830	911
Gross capital formation growth rate (%)	10.1	15.9	4.0	-9.8	10.8
Exports growth rate (%)	10.1	15.7	-9.9	20.6	18.9
Imports growth rate (%)	12.1	22.6	-10.2	16.8	16.3
External balance (% Real GDP)	-9.4	-15.7	-16.2	-12.7	-11.8
Consumer Price Index (CPI)*	127.7*	152.8*	131.1**	136.4**	143.8**
Inflation rate (%)	5.9*	19.7*	-	4.0**	5.5**
Official exchange rate (Riels/US\$)	4,060	4,060	4,140	4,044	4,016

Notes: Real GDP (at constant 2000 prices)

\* CPI-Phnom Penh (July - December 2000 =100)

\*\* CPI-Phnom Penh (October-December 2006=100) started from 2009

p = Preliminary

Source: National Accounts of Cambodia, NIS.

Gross fixed capital formation decreased by 9.8 per cent in 2010, compared to increases of 0.4 per cent in 2009 and 10.8 per cent in 2011 (Table 1). The decline in 2010 was due to a decrease in construction. In constant 2000 prices, exports of goods and services grew by 18.9 per cent in 2011, preceded by an increase of 20.6 per cent in 2010

<sup>2</sup> These estimates are according to the production approach. In this approach, GDP equals the sum of gross value added (GVA) of all industries or economic activities. The GVA can be measured by taking the value of the goods and services produced by an industry (gross output) and subtracting the cost of goods and services used by the industry in the production process (intermediate input).



and a decrease of 9.9 per cent in 2009. The increasing demand for raw materials for export-oriented industries and asset accumulation has generally been met through imports. However, in recent years there has been much stronger growth in the import of consumption goods than intermediary goods. Imports of goods and services grew by 16.3 per cent in 2011, compared to 16.8 per cent in 2010 and a decrease of 10.2 per cent in 2009. As a result of the stronger growth in exports compared to imports, the external goods and services deficit decreased from 12.7 per cent of GDP in 2010 compared to 11.8 per cent in 2011. The annual average increase for the Phnom Penh Consumer Price Index (CPI) was 4.0 per cent in 2010 and 5.5 per cent in 2011, mainly due to rising food prices.

Table 2 shows the distribution of completed level of education of the working-age population (15 years and over). The largest share of Cambodians has completed primary education (40.4 per cent). One-quarter (28.8 per cent) completed secondary-level education, 2.1 per cent completed university, 1.0 per cent completed vocational education and 15.9 per cent never attended school. Twelve (11.8) per cent of the population is currently in school (13.6 per cent of the male population and 10.2 per cent of females).

Gender differentials in education are most evident at the lower levels: The share of females who never attended school is almost double that of males (20.5 per cent and 10.9 per cent, respectively). Females are also more likely to have completed their education at the primary level (43.5 per cent of females compared to 37.0 per cent of males).

Starting from secondary level to higher levels of education comprising university and vocational training, the shares of females are lower than the shares of males. If we compare the levels of educational attainment in urban and rural areas, we see clearly that the urban population has a higher likelihood of attaining an education and staying in school longer. The lower percentage of university and vocational training completion in rural areas is likely due to an inability of many of the population to afford the university or training fees.

**Table 2. Working-age population (15+) by educational attainment and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Currently attending school	1,270,719	11.8	698,450	13.6	572,269	10.2
Never attended school	1,707,651	15.9	560,454	10.9	1,147,197	20.5
Not completed any levels	1,467	0.0	113	0.0	1,354	0.0
Completed primary	4,340,355	40.4	1,907,307	37.0	2,433,048	43.5
Completed secondary	3,091,298	28.8	1,755,201	34.1	1,336,097	23.9
Completed vocational	111,978	1.0	77,450	1.5	34,528	0.6
Completed university	224,017	2.1	152,350	3.0	71,667	1.3
Don't know level completed	2,463	0.0	910	0.0	1,552	0.0
<b>Total population (15+)</b>	<b>10,749,946</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>5,152,234</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>5,597,712</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Cambodia Labour Force and Child Labour Survey, 2011-12.

## 2.2 The labour market in Cambodia

The main source of labour market statistics in Cambodia is the Labour Force Survey (LFS), the latest of which was carried out in 2011-12. The analysis of this section is based

on the latest LFS data available.<sup>3</sup> Table 3 presents some key labour market indicators for the working-age population (15 years and over) in Cambodia by area of residence and sex. In 2012, the labour force participation rate was 68.8 per cent, the employment-to-population ratio was 97.3 per cent and the unemployment rate was only 2.7 per cent. The labour force participation rate in urban areas at 68.4 per cent is only slightly less than the corresponding rate in rural areas (69.0 per cent). The male labour force participation rate is significantly higher than the female rate (75.8 and 62.4 per cent, respectively) but the unemployment rate is the same for the two sexes (2.7 per cent). The employment-to-population ratio is among the highest in the world at 97.3 per cent.

**Table 3. Key labour market indicators for working-age population (15+) by area of residence and sex**

	Total population	Labour force	Employed	Unemployed	Labour force participation rate (%)	Employment-to-population ratio (%)	Unemployment rate (%)
<b>National</b>							
Total	10,749,946	7,399,720	7,197,416	202,304	68.8	97.3	2.7
Male	5,152,234	3,904,696	3,797,706	106,991	75.8	97.3	2.7
Female	5,597,712	3,495,023	3,399,710	95,313	62.4	97.3	2.7
<b>Urban areas</b>							
Total	2,688,823	1,839,543	1,783,646	55,897	68.4	97.0	3.0
Male	1,293,478	965,535	933,323	32,212	74.6	96.7	3.3
Female	1,395,345	874,008	850,323	23,685	62.6	97.3	2.7
<b>Rural areas</b>							
Total	8,061,124	5,560,177	5,413,770	146,407	69.0	97.4	2.6
Male	3,858,756	2,939,161	2,864,383	74,778	76.2	97.5	2.5
Female	4,202,367	2,621,016	2,549,387	71,629	62.4	97.3	2.7

Source: Cambodia Labour Force and Child Labour Survey, 2011-12, NIS.

Table 4 shows the distribution of the employed population aged 15 years and over by main branches of economic activity and sex. In Cambodia, the proportion of employed population engaged in services was the highest at 41.5 per cent, followed by 33.2 per cent engaged in agriculture and 25.2 per cent in industry.<sup>4</sup> The results show no significant differences between the sectoral distribution of the male and female populations.

<sup>3</sup> The Labour Force and Child Labour Survey 2011-12 was conducted by the National Institute of Statistics (NIS) and supported by three units of the ILO: the Department of Statistics, the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour, and the Policy Integration Department. The survey sampled 9,600 households from 600 sample enumeration areas (EAs) distributed in all 24 Capital/provinces in the country. The survey covered both urban and rural areas of Cambodia.

<sup>4</sup> The prominent position taken by the services sector as largest share of employment in the LFS 2011-12 reverses previous statistical findings that show agriculture as the dominant sector. See, for example, NIS and ILO (2010), which reports on results of the 2008 population census whereby 72.1 per cent of workers were engaged in the agricultural sector. It is also interesting to note that the SWTS results in section 3.7 show the agricultural sector as the largest employer of youth at 50.1 per cent. The different reference periods of the surveys could be partly responsible for the contradictory results.

**Table 4. Employed population (15+) by main branches of economic activity and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Agriculture	2,393,164	33.3	1,281,547	33.7	1,111,617	32.7
Industry	1,816,498	25.2	935,143	24.6	881,355	25.9
Services	2,987,754	41.5	1,581,016	41.6	1,406,738	41.4
<b>Total employed</b>	<b>7,197,416</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3,797,706</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3,399,710</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Cambodia Labour Force and Child Labour Survey, 2011-12, NIS.

Table 5 provides details of the employed population by occupational group and sex. The largest portion of the employed population (23.5 per cent) is employed as skilled agricultural workers. The share is similar for both males and females. Twenty-two (21.9) per cent of the population is employed in service and sales occupations, followed by 17.4 per cent in elementary occupations, 12.3 per cent as machine operators, and 11.9 per cent in craft and related trades. In these categories, gender segregation is more obvious, particularly in services and sales (30.3 per cent female and 14.4 per cent male) and elementary occupations (14.0 per cent female and 20.5 per cent male).

**Table 5. Employed population (15+) by occupation and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Managers	149,685	2.1	103,460	2.7	46,225	1.4
Professionals	314,523	4.4	189,864	5.0	124,659	3.7
Technicians	265,524	3.7	178,911	4.7	86,613	2.5
Clerks	144,618	2.0	96,037	2.5	48,581	1.4
Service and sales	1,577,288	21.9	547,882	14.4	1,029,406	30.3
Skilled agriculture workers	1,688,213	23.5	886,099	23.3	802,114	23.6
Craft and related trades	856,551	11.9	542,549	14.3	314,002	9.2
Machine operators	885,714	12.3	413,676	10.9	472,037	13.9
Elementary occupations	1,253,258	17.4	777,605	20.5	475,653	14.0
Armed forces	62,043	0.9	61,622	1.6	421	0.0
<b>Total employed</b>	<b>7,197,416</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3,797,706</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3,399,710</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Cambodia Labour Force and Child Labour Survey, 2011-12, NIS.

Table 6 shows the employed population by status in employment and sex. Nearly half of the employed population is wage and salaried workers, i.e. employees (46.0 per cent), followed by own-account workers (33.6 per cent) and contributing (unpaid) family workers (20.0 per cent). More females than males are contributing (unpaid) family workers (27.2 and 13.5 per cent, respectively) and more males than females are wage and salaried workers (51.5 and 39.9 per cent, respectively).

**Table 6. Employed population (15+) by status in employment and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Wage and salaried workers	3,312,644	46.0	1,956,686	51.5	1,355,958	39.9
Employers	28,455	0.4	17,931	0.5	10,524	0.3
Own-account/self-employed workers	2,415,194	33.6	1,307,900	34.4	1,107,293	32.6
Contributing (unpaid) family workers	1,439,847	20.0	514,398	13.5	925,449	27.2
Other	1,275	0.0	790	0.0	485	0.0
<b>Total employed</b>	<b>7,197,416</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3,797,706</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3,399,710</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Cambodia Labour Force and Child Labour Survey, 2011-12, NIS.

## 2.3 The school-to-work transition survey in Cambodia: Methodology and objectives

The National Institute of Statistics (NIS) ran a Labour Force and Child Labour Survey (LFCLS) in 2012. Statistics on youth aged 15 to 24 years are made available from the LFCLS, but tabulations are typically made for only standard indicators such as labour force participation rates, employment-to-population ratios and unemployment rates. If looking at standard LFS results only, one will usually have difficulty creating a detailed picture of the youth labour market and will certainly not be able to trace the path of transition that young people take into and within the labour market. The SWTS helps to fill this information gap, providing a rare opportunity to analyse the specific challenges of young people in the labour market. By collecting information on the labour market situation of young people and including also questions on the history of economic activity of young respondents aged 15 to 29 years (see Box 1), the survey can serve as a principle tool for monitoring the impact of youth employment policies and programmes currently underway in Cambodia, including those being planned in recent tripartite discussions on the formulation of a National Employment Policy, led by the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training.

The main objectives of the SWTS are to collect detailed information on the various challenges, attitudes and situations of young persons aged 15-29 years entrance to the labour market. The survey is designed to capture these factors and the specific experiences of young men and women from the period of time between their exit from school (or first entry to the labour market if never attended school) to the time of entry in a stable job or satisfactory job.

### Box 1. Definition of youth

While in most other contexts, a young person is defined as a person aged 15 to 24 years, for the purpose of the SWTS and related reports the upper age bound is extended to 29 years. This is done in recognition of the fact that some young people remain in education beyond the age of 24 years, and in the hopes of capturing more information on the post-graduation employment experiences of young people.

The SWTS can also be used to detect the individual characteristics of young people that determine labour market disadvantages. This, in turn, is instrumental to the development of policy responses to prevent the emergence of risk factors, as well as measures to remedy those factors that negatively affect the transition to decent work. Other specific objectives of the survey are to:

1. Obtain data on personal, family and household information including financial situation, health problems, highest educational level of parents, occupation of parents and financial inclusion;
2. Collect data on formal education/training (current and former students) and aspirations of youth, including area of study, aspirations of future occupations and industry, combination of work and study, and main goal in life;
3. Collect data on young workers including details of place of work, employment status, access to benefits/entitlements, challenges of the self-employed, access to finances, hours of work, job satisfaction and perception of security, future prospects, training in current activity, and the job search experience;
4. Collect data on unemployed youth including method and length of the job search, occupation sought, and wage and job reservations;

5. Capture the history of economic activities of the active youth based on personal perception of the respondent, from the first time of entry, including spells of employment (by status, satisfaction and reason for leaving), unemployment and inactivity by length of each spell.

The SWTS in Cambodia was conducted by the National Institute of Statistics (NIS) in 2012 with the financial and technical support of the International Labour Organization (ILO). The survey was introduced as part of the Work4Youth partnership that aims to strengthen the production of labour market information specific to youth and to work with policy-makers on the interpretation of data, including on transitions to the labour market, for the design or monitoring of youth employment policies and programmes (see Box 2). The partnership supports the SWTS in 28 target countries, with data from the first round made available throughout 2013. A second round of SWTS will take place in each of the 28 countries in 2014/15, including in Cambodia.

**Box 2. Work4Youth: An ILO project in partnership with The MasterCard Foundation**

The Work4Youth (W4Y) project is a partnership between the ILO Youth Employment Programme and The MasterCard Foundation. The project has a budget of US\$14.6 million and will run for five years to mid-2016. Its aim is to “promot[e] decent work opportunities for young men and women through knowledge and action”. The immediate objective of the partnership is to produce more and better labour market information specific to youth in developing countries, focusing in particular on transition paths to the labour market. The assumption is that governments and social partners in the project’s 28 target countries will be better prepared to design effective policy and programme initiatives once armed with detailed information on:

- what young people expect in terms of transition paths and quality of work;
- what employers expect in terms of young applicants;
- what issues prevent the two sides – supply and demand – from matching; and
- what policies and programmes can have a real impact.

Work4Youth target countries:

**Asia and the Pacific:** Bangladesh, Cambodia, Nepal, Samoa, Viet Nam

**Eastern Europe and Central Asia:** Armenia, Kyrgyzstan, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Republic of Moldova, Russian Federation, Ukraine

**Latin America and the Caribbean:** Brazil, Colombia, El Salvador, Jamaica, Peru

**Middle East and North Africa:** Egypt, Jordan, Occupied Palestinian Territories, Tunisia

**Sub-Saharan Africa:** Benin, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Togo, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia

Following a pilot test of the survey and training sessions for supervisors and enumerators, field data collection was carried out for 25 days between 22 July and 15 August 2012. Interviews were conducted by eight teams, consisting of five people.<sup>5</sup> Youth aged 15-29 were surveyed in ten provinces, including the capital. The overall sample size was 3,552 young people. The details of the sample design are presented in Annex II.

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<sup>5</sup> Annex IV provides the names of the survey personnel.

### 3. Characteristics of youth in the sample survey

#### 3.1 Individual characteristics of youth

This section provides information on the characteristics of the youth population aged 15-29 by selected characteristics such as age group, area of residence, marital status, educational attainment, and main current activity.

As shown in Table 7, most of the young respondents are in the age group of 15-19 (41.5 per cent) and living in rural areas (75.2 per cent). Most youth are single (69.3 per cent) and one-quarter (25.0 per cent) of youth has children. Young women show a greater likelihood of being married than young men (38.1 per cent married young women compared to 21.8 per cent of married young men). Young women are also more than twice as likely to already have children (31.2 per cent young mothers compared to 17.2 per cent young fathers). The average age of marriage was 21 years (22 years for males and 20 years for females).

**Table 7. Characteristics of the youth population by selected characteristics and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Age group</b>						
15-19 years	1,950,804	41.5	902,788	42.4	1,048,016	40.7
20-24 years	1,570,525	33.4	682,402	32.1	888,123	34.5
25-29 years	1,184,034	25.2	543,951	25.5	640,083	24.8
<b>Area of residence</b>						
Urban	1,168,024	24.8	525,236	24.7	642,788	25.0
Rural	3,537,338	75.2	1,603,903	75.3	1,933,435	75.0
<b>Marital status</b>						
Married (including divorced and widowed)	1,446,262	30.7	463,657	21.8	982,606	38.1
Single	3,259,100	69.3	1,665,483	78.2	1,593,618	61.9
With children	1,175,053	25.0	370,761	17.4	804,292	31.2
Average age of marriage	21		22		20	
<b>Main current activity</b>						
Employed	3,484,799	74.1	1,621,253	76.1	1,863,546	72.3
Unemployed	75,813	1.6	35,360	1.7	40,453	1.6
Inactive student	786,341	16.7	393,505	18.5	392,835	15.2
Inactive non-student	358,410	7.6	79,021	3.7	279,389	10.8
<b>Total youth population</b>	<b>4,705,363</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2,129,139</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2,576,223</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

Table 8 shows a labour force participation rate of youth of 75.7 per cent and an employment-to-population ratio that is high at 74.1 per cent (for definitions of labour market terms, see Annex D). The high capacity of the economy to create jobs is also reflected in the low unemployment share in the youth population (1.6 per cent). The inactive youth population is 24.3 per cent with 16.7 per cent of the inactive youth still in school and 7.6 per cent as inactive non-students. Young men have a higher likelihood of being employed, unemployed and inactive students than young women. The female share

is higher than the male only in the percentage of youth who are inactive non-students (10.8 and 3.2 per cent, respectively), which reflects a stronger female tendency to remain inactive to care for the household.

**Table 8. Key labour market indicators for youth by sex (%)**

	Total	Male	Female
Employment-to-population ratio	74.1	76.1	72.3
Unemployment-to-population ratio	1.6	1.7	1.6
Unemployment rate	2.1	2.1	2.1
Labour force participation rate	75.7	77.8	73.9
Inactivity rate	24.3	22.2	26.1
Share of inactive and out-of-school (neither in labour force nor in education/training)	7.6	3.7	10.8

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

### 3.2 Household characteristics of youth and youth migration

The SWTS survey provides important data regarding the major characteristics of youth's households. Table 9 indicates the distribution of households and the average household size of youth by area of residence. It shows that the average household size is 4.8 members, and that the largest share is those who live in a household of four to five members (45.2 per cent). The data also show that 1.5 per cent of youth's households included ten or more members. On the other hand, 23.9 per cent of youth lived in a household with two to three members.

**Table 9. Number of households and average size of households of youth by area of residence**

Household size	Total		Urban		Rural	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
2-3	232,848	23.9	46,602	20.3	186,244	24.9
4-5	441,141	45.2	101,751	44.2	339,390	45.4
6-7	233,855	24	58,986	25.7	174,869	23.4
8-9	54,636	5.6	15,883	6.9	38,753	5.2
10+	14,377	1.5	6,689	2.9	7,688	1.0
Total number of households	976,856	100	229,911	100	746,945	100
Average size of household	4.8		5.1		4.7	

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

The survey asks young respondents whether they have moved away from their original residence. Only 14.7 per cent of youth responded that they had moved from their original residence (Table 10), however, if one looks at youth living in urban areas alone, nearly one-third (32.7 per cent) had moved from another area. Of those who had moved, almost two-thirds (61.5 per cent) moved from rural areas and 29.7 per cent moved from a small town/village. The principal reason giving for changing residences was to accompany the family (86.2 per cent) following by a small proportion who moved for employment purposes (7.7 per cent) or to pursue education (2.9 per cent).

**Table 10. Youth migrants by previous residence, reasons of moving, sex and area of residence**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Total youth population	4,705,363	100.0	2,129,139	100.0	2,576,223	100.0
Share of youth who moved from original residence	689,721	14.7	302,125	14.2	387,595	15.0
of which:						
- from rural area	424,454	61.5	186,795	61.8	237,659	61.3
- from small town/village	204,838	29.7	85,540	28.3	119,298	30.8
- from large urban area	58,239	8.4	29,790	9.9	28,449	7.3
- from another country	2,190	0.3	-	-	2,190	0.6
Total	689,721	100.0	302,125	100.0	387,595	100.0
<b>Main reason for moving to your current residence</b>						
to accompany family	594,254	86.2	256,679	85.0	337,575	87.1
for education/training	19,896	2.9	13,428	4.4	6,468	1.7
to work/for employment-related reasons	53,109	7.7	15,118	5.0	37,990	9.8
other reasons	22,461	3.3	16,900	5.6	5,561	1.4
Total	689,721	100.0	302,125	100.0	387,595	100.0
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Total youth population	1,168,025	100.0	525,236	100.0	642,788	100.0
Share of youth who moved from original residence	382,421	32.7	152,641	29.1	229,780	35.7
of which:						
- from rural area	160,168	41.9	59,669	39.1	100,499	43.7
- from small town/village	175,581	45.9	67,567	44.3	108,014	47.0
- from large urban area	45,887	12.0	25,405	16.6	20,482	8.9
- from another country	785	0.2	0	0.0	785	0.3
Total	382,421	100.0	152,641	100.0	229,780	100.0
<b>Main reason for moving to your current residence</b>						
to accompany family	320,420	83.8	129,772	85.0	190,648	83.0
for education/training	16,776	4.4	10,307	6.8	6,468	2.8
to work/for employment-related reasons	40,313	10.5	10,716	7.0	29,598	12.9
other reasons	4,912	1.3	1,846	1.2	3,066	1.3
Total	382,421	100.0	152,641	100.0	229,780	100.0
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Total youth population	3,537,338	100.0	1,603,903		1,933,435	
Share of youth who moved from original residence	307,300	8.7	149,484	9.3	157,815	8.2
of which:						
- from rural area	264,286	86.0	127,126	85.0	137,160	86.9
- from small town/village	29,257	9.5	17,973	12.0	11,284	7.1
- from large urban area	12,352	4.0	4,385	2.9	7,967	5.0
- from another country	1,405	0.5	0	0.0	1,405	0.9
Total	307,300	100.0	149,484	100.0	157,815	100.0
<b>Main reason for moving to your current residence</b>						
to accompany family	273,835	89.1	126,907	84.9	146,928	93.1
for education/training	3,120	1.0	3,120	2.1	0	0.0
to work/for employment-related reasons	12,796	4.2	4,403	2.9	8,393	5.3
other reasons	17,549	5.7	15,054	10.1	2,495	1.6
Total	307,300	100.0	149,484	100.0	157,815	100.0

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

### 3.3 Aspirations and life goals

As shown in Table 11, the majority of young people (64.5 per cent for employed, 62.2 per cent for unemployed, and 55.0 per cent for inactive) gave their primary life goal as



having a good family life. Of employed youth, 21.0 per cent said that their goal was having lots of money, followed by 9.5 per cent who chose being successful in work and 5.0 per cent for whom the most important life goal was making a contribution to society. Being successful at work was cited more often as primary goal among youth who do not have a job (the unemployed and inactive) compared to employed youth.

**Table 11. Primary life goals of young respondents by current activity status**

	Employed		Unemployed		Inactive	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Being successful in work	331,065	9.5	12,930	17.1	203,166	17.7
Making a contribution to society	172,892	5.0	6,733	8.9	98,877	8.6
Having lots of money	731,584	21.0	8,994	11.9	213,183	18.6
Having a good family life	2,249,257	64.5	47,157	62.2	629,525	55.0
Total	3,484,799	100.0	75,813	100.0	1,144,751	100.0

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

### 3.4 Educational achievement

Education is the starting point for the labour market transition and there are many determinants which affect the transition path of each individual. One of the strongest influential factors is the level of educational attainment of the young person. It influences the age at which young people enter the labour force, the extent to which they are prepared for work, the job they obtain and their future career path.

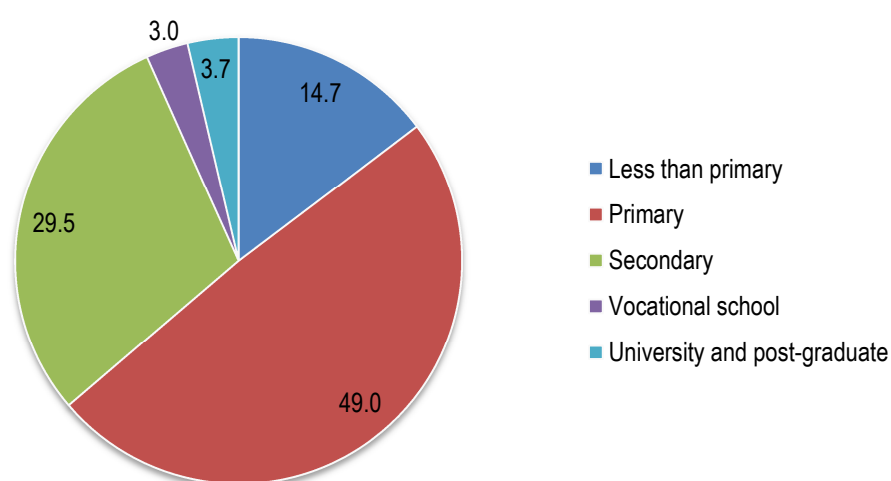
Two-thirds (66.7 per cent) of Cambodian youth aged 15-29 years have finished their schooling and 33.3 per cent are still in school (Table 12). Among youth still in school, a large share engages in some form of employment while studying (48.3 per cent) and most are studying at the secondary level (68.0 per cent) (Tables 12 and A12).

**Table 12. Educational attainment of youth by current activity status**

	Employed		Unemployed		Inactive		Total	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Currently attending school</b>								
At primary level	91,686	12.1	2,308	9.7	91,157	11.6	185,151	11.8
At secondary level	521,141	68.9	10,651	44.6	533,672	67.9	1,065,464	68.0
At vocational school	23,896	3.2	362	1.5	20,699	2.6	44,957	2.9
At university and post graduate	120,060	15.9	10,565	44.2	139,267	17.7	269,892	17.2
Learning in a formal apprenticeship/internship	-	-	-	-	1,545	0.2	1,545	0.1
Total studying youth	756,782	100.0	23,886	100.0	786,341	100.0	1,567,009	100.0
<b>Finished school by level of completed education</b>								
No schooling	100,675	3.7	5,061	9.7	15,097	4.2	120,833	3.9
Uncompleted primary level	287,522	10.5	8,151	15.7	44,953	12.5	340,626	10.9
Completed primary level	1,335,949	49.0	22,220	42.8	181,135	50.5	1,539,304	49.0
Completed secondary level	805,090	29.5	12,369	23.8	108,820	30.4	926,279	29.5
Completed vocational school	93,217	3.4	-	-	2,431	0.7	95,648	3.0
Completed university or post-graduate	105,564	3.9	4,127	7.9	5,974	1.7	115,665	3.7
Total non-student youth	2,728,017	100.0	51,928	100.0	358,410	100.0	3,138,355	100.0

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

**Figure 1. Distribution of youth by completed level of educational attainment (%)**



Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

Among the youth who left school before completion at the primary level, 72.4 stated they left school due to economic reasons, i.e. their family could not afford for them to continue in school (Table 13). A slightly greater share of young women than men left school early (pre-primary) due to economic reasons (74.5 and 69.8 per cent, respectively), while young women were also the only to state marriage as a reason for leaving school early (2.4 per cent).

**Table 13. Youth with uncompleted primary education by reason for leaving school**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Failed examination	8,637	2.5	3,719	2.4	4,918	2.7
Not interested in education/training	9,709	2.9	6,271	4.0	3,438	1.9
Wanted to start working	12,624	3.7	5,588	3.6	7,036	3.8
To get married	4,524	1.3	0	0.0	4,524	2.4
Parents did not want me to continue	7,590	2.2	2,912	1.9	4,678	2.5
Economic reasons (could not afford, too poor, needed to earn money to support family)	246,526	72.4	108,376	69.8	138,150	74.5
No school nearby	17,281	5.1	5,190	3.3	12,091	6.5
Other	33,735	9.9	23,158	14.9	10,578	5.7
Total pre-primary school leavers	340,626	100.0	155,214	100.0	185,412	100.0

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

There are gender differences in the area of educational attainment of youth. First, there are more young women than men in both categories – youth who never attended school and youth with completed education (Table 14). There are six young women for every four young men in both categories. Second, young women are more likely to be inactive than young men regardless of education level (no schooling or with education). Other interesting results are that the share of unemployment is highest among young women with no education (5.9 per cent) and that youth with completed education, both sexes, are more likely to be employed than youth with no education.

**Table 14. Distribution of out-of-school youth by current activity status and sex**

	Total		Employed		Unemployed		Inactive	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total out-of-school youth</b>	3,138,354	100.0	2,728,017	86.9	51,927	1.7	358,410	11.4
Male	1,368,395	100.0	1,265,704	92.5	23,669	1.7	79,021	5.8
Female	1,769,959	100.0	1,462,312	82.6	28,257	1.6	279,389	15.8
<b>Total youth never attended school</b>	120,833	100.0	100,675	83.3	5,061	4.2	15,097	12.5
Male	44,275	100.0	39,279	88.7	557	1.3	4,439	10.0
Female	76,558	100.0	61,396	80.2	4,504	5.9	10,659	13.9
<b>Total youth with completed education</b>	3,017,521	100.0	2,627,342	87.1	46,866	1.6	343,313	11.4
Male	1,324,120	100.0	1,226,425	92.6	23,113	1.7	74,583	5.6
Female	1,693,401	100.0	1,400,917	82.7	23,754	1.4	268,730	15.9

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

Table 15 presents data on young people neither in education nor in employment or training (also called the NEET population). Of the total youth population in Cambodia, 8.7 per cent fall under the NEET category, with 1.1 per cent as unemployed non-students and 7.6 per cent as inactive non-students. The comparison shows that young women are much more likely to fall under the NEET category than young men (11.9 per cent compared to 4.8 per cent) and that most young female NEETs are inactive non-students (10.8 per cent compared to 1.1 per cent young female unemployed non-students). In addition, the distribution of NEET youth is higher in rural areas (9.2 per cent) than in urban areas (7.2 per cent).

**Table 15. Distribution of NEET youth by area of residence and sex**

	Total youth population	Total NEET youth as a % of total youth population	NEET status			
			Unemployed non-students		Inactive non-students	
			Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total youth population</b>	4,705,363	8.7	51,927	1.1	358,410	7.6
Male	2,129,139	4.8	23,669	1.1	79,021	3.7
Female	2,576,223	11.9	28,257	1.1	279,389	10.8
<b>Area of residence</b>						
Urban	1,168,025	7.2	12,446	1.1	71,160	6.1
Rural	3,537,338	9.2	39,481	1.1	287,250	8.1

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

There has been remarkable progress in the area of educational enrolment in Cambodia in recent years. Both young men and women today are much more likely to have school facilities readily accessible and to also have the permission to attend them. The situation was quite different for their parents. As shown in Table 16, 41.0 per cent of youth indicated that their mother had never attended school and 25.6 per cent stated their father had never attended school. Men of the previous generation were more likely to be educated than women, with youth's fathers showing higher levels of completed education at all levels compared to youth's mothers. For example, 43.5 of youth's fathers had completed primary school and 13.4 per cent completed secondary school. This is compared to 38.5 per cent of youth's mothers with completed primary education and 8.8 per cent who

completed secondary school. Only a small proportion of the youth population reported that their parents completed vocational education and university or higher education degrees.

Table 17 shows the distribution of the highest education level of youth's parents by youth's highest education level and results are further summarized in Figure 2. Comparing the educational attainment of parents in this table and that of the young respondents, it is clear that the provision of education is more comprehensive in Cambodia today. In total 48.6 per cent of youth finished their education at a level higher than their father and 62.8 per cent finished higher than their mother. Only 3.9 per cent of youth stated their father finished his education at a higher level than themselves and 0.9 per cent claimed to less educated than their mother.

**Table 16. Educational attainment of youth's mothers and youth's fathers**

Highest educational level completed	Youth's parents			
	Youth's mothers		Youth's fathers	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
None	1,931,278	41.0	1,203,909	25.6
Primary school	1,813,039	38.5	2,049,079	43.5
Secondary school	415,463	8.8	632,624	13.4
Vocational	55,518	1.2	138,094	2.9
University or higher	7,635	0.2	75,213	1.6
Do not know	482,430	10.3	605,108	12.9
Other	0	0.0	1,335	0.03
<b>Total youth population</b>	<b>4,705,363</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>4,705,363</b>	<b>100.0</b>

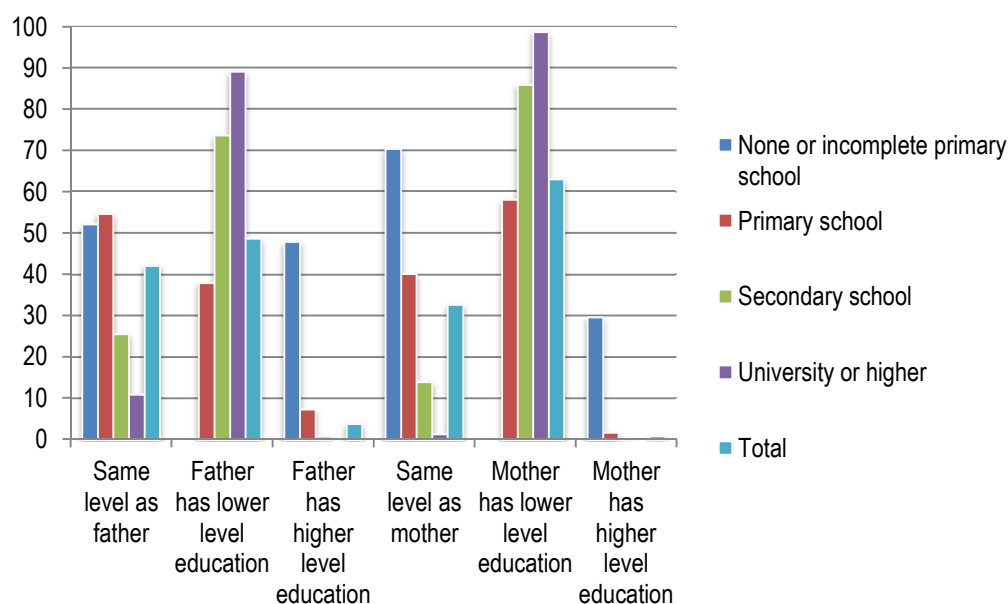
Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

**Table 17. Educational attainment of respondent in comparison to their parents'**

Highest educational level of parents	Highest educational level of youth									
	Uncompleted primary		Primary school		Secondary school		High school		University or higher	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Father</b>										
None	147,747	43.4	484,390	31.5	217,545	23.5	17,367	18.2	9,025	7.8
Primary school	122,102	35.8	695,596	45.2	397,306	42.9	41,585	43.5	62,182	53.8
Secondary school	11,954	3.5	75,911	4.9	175,780	19.0	13,327	13.9	22,438	19.4
Vocational	1,752	0.5	16,652	1.1	30,574	3.3	13,878	14.5	4,741	4.1
University or higher	0	0.0	1,405	0.1	7,696	0.8	0	0.0	12,089	10.5
Do not know	57,072	16.8	264,015	17.2	97,376	10.5	9,491	9.9	5,189	4.5
Other	0	0.0	1,335	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>340,626</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,539,304</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>926,279</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>95,648</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>115,664</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Mother</b>										
None	211,455	62.1	766,987	49.8	328,573	35.5	31,399	32.8	24,652	21.3
Primary school	86,989	25.5	532,490	34.6	397,914	43.0	42,656	44.6	58,755	50.8
Secondary school	1,926	0.6	22,119	1.4	104,761	11.3	1,405	1.5	21,709	18.8
Vocational	0	0.0	1,282	0.1	13,564	1.5	10,696	11.2	1,545	1.3
University or higher	0	0.0	0	0.0	1,545	0.2	0	0.0	1,545	1.3
Do not know	40,256	11.8	216,426	14.1	79,921	8.6	9,491	9.9	7,458	6.4
Other	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>340,626</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,539,304</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>926,279</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>95,648</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>115,664</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

**Figure 2. Cross-tabulation of youth educational attainment by parental educational attainment (%)**



Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

### 3.5 Youth outside of the labour force (inactive youth)

Young people remain outside of the labour force for a number of reasons including illness, taking care of children or the household and participating in school. Overall, the inactive youth in Cambodia represent 24.3 per cent of the total youth population, of which 16.7 per cent were inactive students and 7.6 per cent were inactive non-students (Table 7). Table 18 presents the distribution of inactive youth by reason for inactivity. The majority of youth, 68.6 per cent, were inactive because they were attending education or training. The second most common reason was family responsibilities or housework, mentioned by 13.1 per cent of young people. An important gender gap emerges here, with 21.6 per cent of inactive young women citing family responsibilities as the main reason for inactivity compared to only 1.0 per cent of young men. In contrast, 84.3 per cent of inactive young men were attending education or training compared to 57.6 per cent of inactive young women. Other reasons of inactivity for men were illness, injury or disability (4.0 per cent) and being the off-season for work (3.9 per cent). For young women other reasons included pregnancy (9.0 per cent) and illness, injury or disability (3.6 per cent).

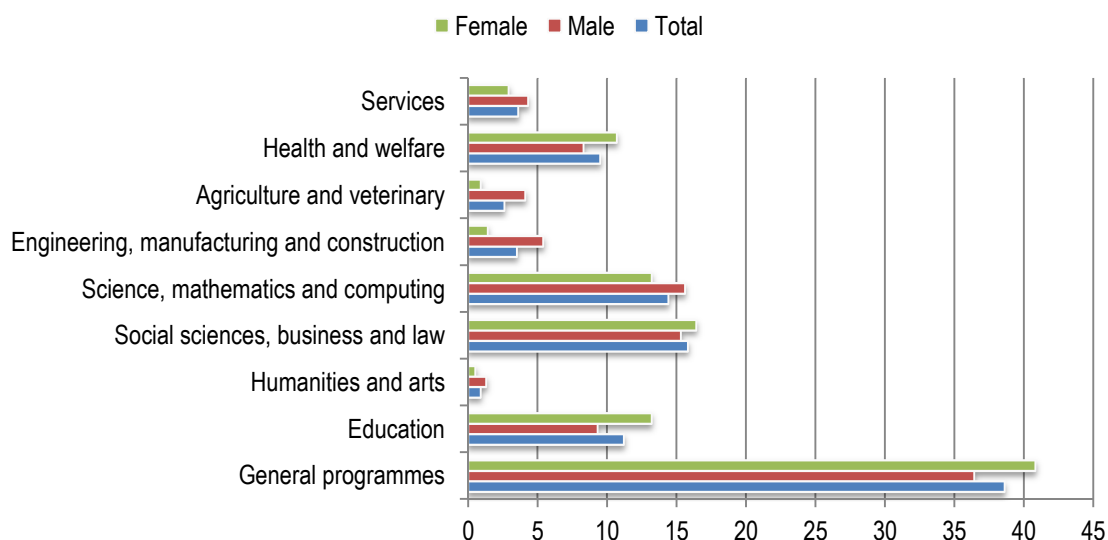
**Table 18. Inactive youth by reasons for inactivity and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Attending education/training	785,169	68.6	398,138	84.3	387,031	57.6
Family responsibilities or housework	150,201	13.1	4,789	1.0	145,411	21.6
Pregnancy	60,732	5.3	0	0.0	60,732	9.0
Illness, injury or disability	42,970	3.8	19,028	4.0	23,942	3.6
Too young to work	3,735	0.3	3,735	0.8	0	0.0
No desire to work	2,144	0.2	2,144	0.5	0	0.0
Off-season	21,621	1.9	18,248	3.9	3,373	0.5
Other	17,919	1.6	6,040	1.3	11,879	1.8
<b>Total inactive youth</b>	<b>1,144,751</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>472,527</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>672,224</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

Among the inactive non-students, a large majority – 88.3 per cent – stated they would like to work in the future. Most young students (38.6 per cent) aim to follow a programme of general studies (not surprising given that most young students are still at the secondary level), followed by social sciences, business or law (15.8 per cent), science, mathematics and computing (14.4 per cent) and education (11.2 per cent) (Figure 3). A large share (55.8 per cent) of young students stated their expectation to finish their education at the university level (Table A11). Whether household finances allow them to fulfil their expectations remains to be seen, but still the eagerness expressed by young students in Cambodia to stay in education bodes well for the development of a more skilled labour market in the future.

**Figure 3. Current young students by preferred field of study (%)**



Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

### 3.6 Unemployment

The ILO international standard definition of unemployment is based on the following three criteria which should be satisfied simultaneously: “without work”, “currently available for work” and “seeking work”. The youth unemployment rate (the percentage of young unemployed persons in the youth labour force) was only 2.1 per cent. This is extremely low when compared to most other countries in the world and even within the region. According to ILO (2013), the global youth unemployment rate in 2012 (bearing in mind that the report defines youth as 15-24 rather than 15-29 as used in the SWTS) was 12.4 per cent and the regional youth unemployment rate in South-East Asia and the Pacific was 9.3 per cent.

Table 19 gives the educational attainment of the young unemployed. Sixty-two (61.7) per cent of unemployed youth have attended school, 31.5 per cent were currently attending school and 6.7 per cent had no schooling. Among non-student unemployed youth, 42.8 per cent had completed primary education, following by 23.8 per cent with completed secondary and 7.9 per cent with completed university education or higher.

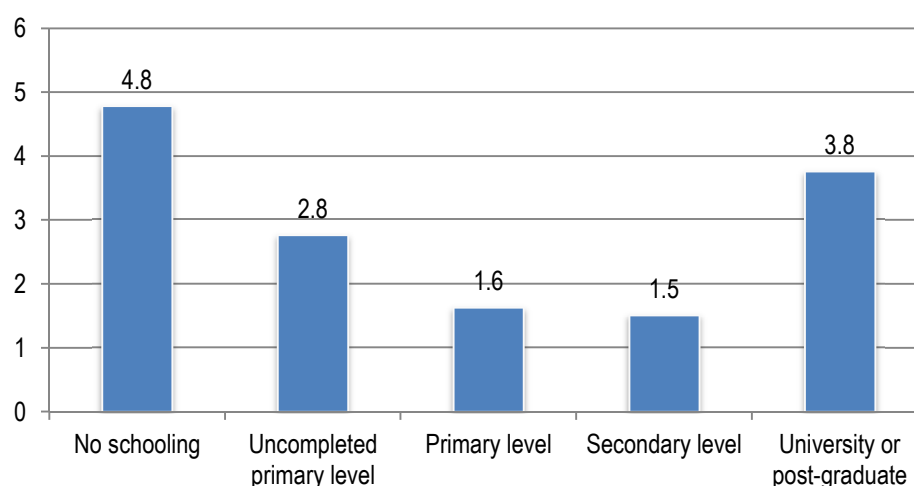
**Table 19. Unemployed youth by level of completed educational attainment and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Currently attending school	23,886	31.5	11,690	33.1	12,196	30.1
Never attended school	5,061	6.7	557	1.6	4,504	11.1
Have attended school	46,866	61.8	23,113	65.4	23,754	58.7
<b>Total unemployed youth</b>	<b>75,813</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>35,360</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>40,453</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Never attended school	5,061	9.7	557	2.4	4,504	15.9
Uncompleted primary level	8,151	15.7	3,092	13.1	5,059	17.9
Primary school	22,220	42.8	10,939	46.2	11,281	39.9
Secondary school	12,369	23.8	6,501	27.5	5,868	20.8
Vocational	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
University or higher	4,127	7.9	2,581	10.9	1,545	5.5
<b>Total non-student unemployed youth</b>	<b>51928</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>23670</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>28257</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

Figure 4 shows the youth unemployment rates by level of completed education. Interestingly, the likelihood of being unemployed is highest at the two extremes – among young Cambodians with no education (4.8 per cent youth unemployment rate) and young Cambodians with university education (3.8 per cent youth unemployment rate). Unemployment among youth with primary or secondary level education – which includes most young Cambodians according to Figure 4 – is lowest, with unemployment rates of 1.6 and 1.5 per cent, respectively.

Keep young people motivated to stay in school in order to encourage better equality of opportunities among the young population and raise the productive potential of the country.

**Figure 4. Youth unemployment rates by level of educational attainment (%)**

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

Table 20 presents the distribution of unemployed youth by the duration of their job search. The table reveals that the largest portion of unemployed youth – 32.6 per cent – had experienced duration of job search of between one and three months. This was the case for 33.3 per cent of young men and 32.0 per cent of young women. The proportion of

unemployed youth who had been searching for a job for longer than 12 months – the long-term unemployed youth – was 16.8 per cent. Long-term unemployment among youth can have negative consequences in terms of skills and financial losses and damaged self-esteem. More young men than women find themselves in the category of long-term unemployed in Cambodia (shares are 21.1 and 13.0 per cent, respectively).

**Table 20. Unemployed youth by duration of job search and sex**

Duration of job search	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Less than a week	9,164	12.1	5,726	16.2	3,438	8.5
1 week to less than 1 month	12,403	16.4	5,128	14.5	7,275	18.0
1 month to less than 3 months	24,707	32.6	11,757	33.3	12,949	32.0
3 months to less than 6 months	5,849	7.7	1,555	4.4	4,293	10.6
6 months to less than 1 year	10,965	14.5	3,729	10.5	7,236	17.9
More than a year	12,726	16.8	7,464	21.1	5,262	13.0
<b>Total unemployed youth</b>	<b>75,813</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>35,360</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>40,453</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

Combine the provision of career counselling, motivational training, skills and job readiness training of the long-term unemployed and encourage enterprises to take on the long-term jobseekers through targeted employment subsidies, including temporary tax rebates and/or waivers to employers of social security contributions

The survey results also provide information about the main obstacles that unemployed young people face in their job search. Table 21 below shows that the biggest difficulty was not having enough work experience, cited by 27.4 per cent of unemployed youth. The second main obstacle was that the requirements of the job were higher than the education/training received (cited by 17.1 per cent), which highlights the issue of mismatch between education qualifications and job requirements. In general, however, based on results from a recent “Employers skills needs” survey implemented by the National Employment Agency of Cambodia, employers gave a fairly positive judgment on the preparation of the newly hired first jobseekers. The enterprises who did offer criticism focused their critiques on three areas: lack of skills and competencies required, lack of life experience and maturity, and lack of motivation. Lack of skills was indicated especially for people coming from high education, but also from vocational schools. For a summation of additional finding from the skills need survey that have relevance to the SWTS analysis, see Box 3.

Other important obstacles young jobseekers mentioned were the low wages in available jobs (15.4 per cent), not knowing how and where to seek work (14.8 per cent), and being considered too young (10.3 per cent). It also observed that only 2.2 per cent of unemployed youth could not find a job due to poor working conditions in available jobs or discriminatory prejudices. It would seem, therefore, that some young people lack the basic job search skills that would allow them to take advantage of available employment opportunities, while at the same time there is some evidence of mismatch in the demand of employers and the supply of currently available young labour. These findings suggest that there is an urgent need to improve labour market relevance of educational outcomes and to strengthen career guidance services. The education system often falls short of students’ expectations to provide them with the skills and means needed to enter the labour market.



### Box 3. Employers Skills Needs Survey, 2012

In 2012, the National Employment Agency (NEA) of National Training Board (NTB) conducted the first Employer Skills Need Survey in Cambodia with financing from the ILO. The main objective of this survey is to contribute towards an effective employment strategy in the future by providing the necessary information required: (1) To improve the matching between skill demand and supply; and (2) to improve the knowledge base of the Cambodian labour force in order to increase employability and productivity of workers, competitiveness of enterprises, and to increase technological complexity and sustainability in production and services outputs and processes. The survey covered 783 enterprises in six key sectors of the country: accommodations, construction, financial, food and beverages, garment and apparel and rubber and plastics.

Interesting findings include:

- Around 60 per cent of the enterprises hired first-time jobseekers directly from the education system; 42.6 per cent of these hired secondary school graduates and 21.7 per cent hired young people from a technical or vocational school.
- Current vacancies were 61.0 per cent for elementary occupations, 21.9 for crafts and related trades, 9.6 for clerical workers, and 7.0 per cent across the remaining occupations. The garment sector was that most likely to have current vacancies.
- Vacancies deemed “hard-to-fill” were primarily among the elementary occupations. Vacancies requiring a university degree proved to be easier to fill. The interpretation here suggests that there is a great deal of competition among enterprising requiring low-skilled labour and that a reluctance to acknowledge labour shortages with wage increases can result in a supply-gap.
- More than one-half (55 per cent) of the companies interviewed declared that they had to face that employees did not perform at the required level. This finding supports the SWTS finding of a large share of undereducation among young workers (see section 3.7.4).

Source: National Employment Agency (2013).

Labour market information, job search assistance, vocational counselling and career guidance should be promoted in Cambodia to assist and orient young persons. Greater investment in employment offices and agencies, including the National Employment Agency and also private agencies, can help to improve the connection between young people and enterprises. At the same time, a system of monitoring private agencies to ensure protected and informed job placements of young Cambodians in the country and abroad is warranted.

**Table 21. Unemployed youth by main obstacle to finding work**

	Number	(%)
Requirements for job were higher than education/training received	12,957	17.1
Not enough work experience	20,759	27.4
Not enough jobs available	4,921	6.5
Considered too young	7,806	10.3
Being male/female	0	0.0
Discriminatory prejudices	1,686	2.2
Low wages in available jobs	11,686	15.4
Poor working conditions in available jobs	1,686	2.2
Did not know how and where to seek work	11,220	14.8
Other	3,092	4.1
<b>Total unemployed youth</b>	<b>75,813</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

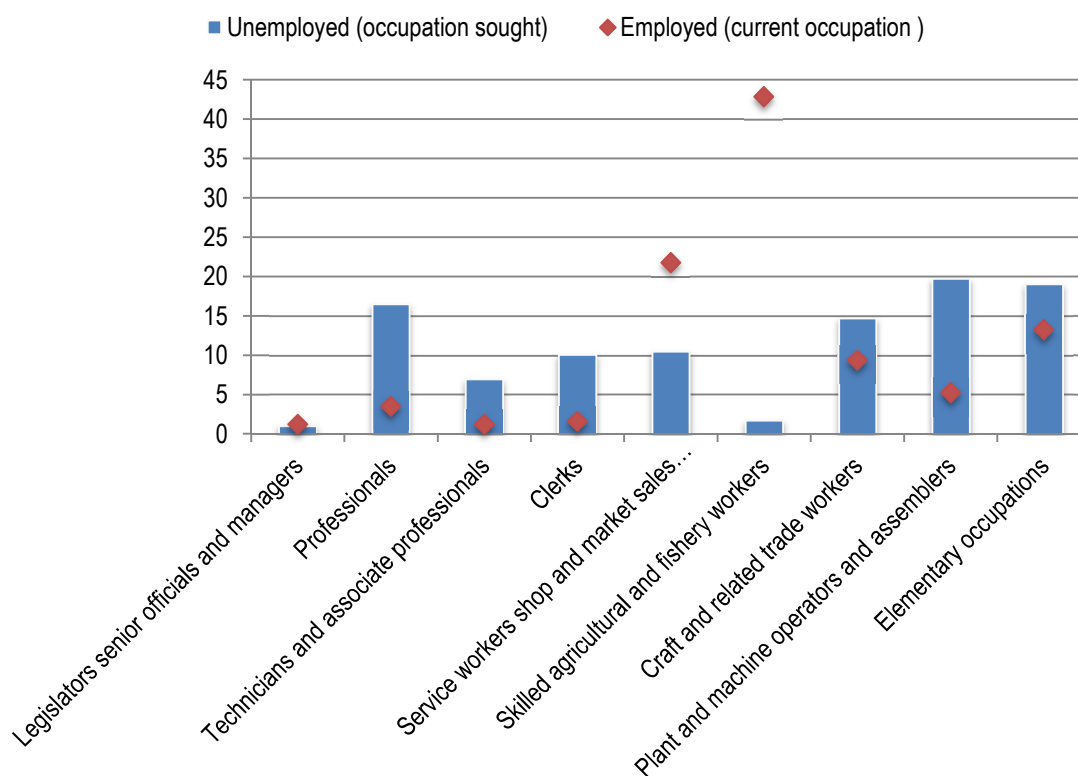
The largest portion of young men searched for jobs as professionals or as craft and related trade workers (22.4 and 18.6 per cent, respectively) (Table 22). Unemployed young women, in contrast, were more likely to seek work as service workers, shop and markets sales workers (19.2 per cent) or as plant and machine operators and assemblers (22.5 per cent).

**Table 22. Unemployed youth by type of occupation sought and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Legislators, senior officials and managers	742	1.0	742	2.1	0	0.0
Professionals	12,514	16.5	7,924	22.4	4,590	11.3
Technicians and associate professionals	5,199	6.9	3,169	9.0	2,030	5.0
Clerks	7,653	10.1	3,297	9.3	4,356	10.8
Service workers, shop and market sales workers	7,970	10.5	188	0.5	7,782	19.2
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	1,282	1.7	1,282	3.6	0	0.0
Craft and related trade workers	11,151	14.7	6,565	18.6	4,586	11.3
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	14,934	19.7	5,830	16.5	9,105	22.5
Elementary occupations	14,367	19.0	6,363	18.0	8,005	19.8
<b>Total unemployed youth</b>	<b>75,813</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>35,360</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>40,453</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

**Figure 5. Distribution of occupations sought by unemployed youth and occupational distribution of employed youth (%)**



Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

If the current occupational distribution of working youth can be taken as an indication of current demand for young labour, i.e. as an indication of where the jobs are, then making the comparison to the distribution of occupations sought by unemployed youth can

serve to identify possibly supply and demand mismatches. In descending order, the unemployed youth are principally seeking work in the following occupation groups: plant and machine operators and assemblers (19.7 per cent), elementary occupations<sup>6</sup> (19.0 per cent), professionals (16.5 per cent), crafts and related trades workers (14.7 per cent), service workers, sales and market sales workers (10.5 per cent) and clerks (10.1 per cent) (Figure 5 and Table 22). There is a stronger representation of young men seeking professional work than young women (22.4 and 11.3 per cent, respectively), while young unemployed women are more interested in service and sales work (19.2 and 0.5 per cent, respectively), plant and machine operation (22.5 and 16.5 per cent, respectively) and elementary occupations (19.8 and 18.0 per cent, respectively).

While the occupation group “professionals” is the third most sought after by the unemployed youth in the country, the group takes a low ranking among the distribution of occupations of currently employed youth (fourth lowest among nine occupations). Similarly, there is also a substantial gap between the share of youth seeking work as technicians and associate professionals and the share of youth currently working in this occupation. What this means is that young people seeking work in these two higher skilled occupations are likely to have to wait a very long time in the queue for the limited number of jobs in the occupations. The young person seeking work in services (service workers, shop and market sales workers) or in skilled agriculture, on the other hand, is likely to find it less difficult to find work. Given the large gap in the supply and demand for young labour in the higher-skilled occupations, some of the youth with tertiary education will end up “settling” for lesser skilled occupations such as shop work for which they are overqualified. The issue of qualification mismatches will be addressed in more detail in section 3.7.4.

It does seem that household income level has an impact on youth unemployment, with young people in households of relatively higher income showing fewer tendencies to be unemployed. The household financial situation of unemployed youth (self-assessed) shows that 71.6 per cent live in households with a financial situation around the national average, and 22.6 per cent lived in a fairly poor household (Table 23). There was only a small percentage of unemployed youth living in a well off or fairly well off household (2.1 per cent). There is also a difference between urban and rural areas where unemployed young people in urban areas are more likely to be in better financial situations. For example, unemployed youth in urban areas were more likely to be in a household with a financial situation around the national average (78.1 per cent) than youth in rural areas (68.6 per cent). Urban youth were also less likely to live in fairly poor households (15.7 per cent compared to 25.8 per cent in rural areas).

The strict definition of unemployment requires that for inclusion as “unemployed”, a person be without work, available to work and actively seeking work. The relaxation of the “actively seeking work” criteria makes sense in circumstances where the conventional means of seeking work are of limited relevance, where the labour market is largely unorganized, where labour absorption is inadequate or where the labour force is largely self-employed (ILO, 2013, p. 40). “Relaxing” the definition of unemployment nearly doubles the youth unemployment rate in Cambodia from 2.1 to 3.8 per cent, although the rate is still well below that of most other countries in the world (Table 24).

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<sup>6</sup> Elementary occupations are described as those which involve the performance of simple and routine tasks which may require the use of hand-held tools and considerable physical effort. Tasks performed by workers in elementary occupations usually include: cleaning, restocking supplies and performing basic maintenance in apartments, houses, kitchens, hotels, offices and other buildings; washing cars and windows; helping in kitchens and performing simple tasks in food preparation; delivering messages or goods; carrying luggage and handling baggage and freight; etc. See International Standard Classification of Occupations, revision 2008 with details at website: <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco/isco08/index.htm>

**Table 23. Unemployed youth by household's overall financial situation and area of residence**

	Total		Urban		Rural	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Well off	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Fairly well off	1,593	2.1	0	0.0	1,593	3.1
Around the national average	54,260	71.6	18,728	78.1	35,532	68.6
Fairly poor	17,143	22.6	3,770	15.7	13,373	25.8
Poor	2,817	3.7	1,483	6.2	1,335	2.6
<b>Total unemployed youth</b>	<b>75,813</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>23,980</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>51,833</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

**Table 24. Youth unemployment, strict and relaxed definition, and discouragement**

	Total	Male	Female
Unemployed youth (strict)	75,813	35,360	40,453
Unemployed youth (relaxed)	136,073	55,764	80,309
Unemployment rate (strict)	2.1	2.1	2.1
Unemployment rate (relaxed)	3.8	3.3	4.1
Discouraged youth as % of unemployed not actively seeking work	15.5	14.1	16.2
Discouraged youth as % of labour force	0.3	0.2	0.3

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

**Table 25. Non-working youth, available to work but not seeking work (relaxed unemployed) by reason for not looking for work and sex**

Reasons for not looking for work	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Was waiting for the results of a vacancy competition or an interview	7,900	13.1	5,549	27.2	2,351	5.9
Awaiting the season for work	13,585	22.5	6,530	32.0	7,055	17.7
Education leave or training	8,390	13.9	3,759	18.4	4,632	11.6
Personal family responsibilities	15,042	25.0	0	0.0	15,042	37.7
Pregnancy	2,581	4.3	0	0.0	2,581	6.5
Own illness, injury or disability	3,438	5.7	1,686	8.3	1,752	4.4
<b>Reasons implying discouragement</b>						
Do not know how or where to seek work	2,507	4.2	1,545	7.6	962	2.4
Unable to find work for his/ her skills	3,432	5.7	1,335	6.5	2,097	5.3
Had looked for job(s) before but had not found any	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Too young to find a job	1,545	2.6	0	0.0	1,545	3.9
No jobs available in the area/ district	1,838	3.1	0	0.0	1,838	4.6
Total youth not working, available to work but not seeking work	60,260	100.0	20,404	100.0	39,856	100.0
<b>Total relaxed unemployed youth</b>	<b>136,073</b>		<b>55,764</b>		<b>80,309</b>	

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

One-quarter (25.0 per cent) of youth who were without work and available to work but did not engage in an active job search of youth stated personal family responsibilities as the reason (Table 25). Another 22.5 per cent said they did not actively seek because they were waiting for the season for work (relevant for persons engaged in seasonal agricultural work, for example) and 13.9 per cent were not looking for work because of being in education or training. Family responsibilities was the biggest (de)motivator for young women to not look for work, cited by 37.7 per cent of young women and not cited by any young men. Young men were more likely to be awaiting seasonal work (32.0 per cent compared to 17.7 per cent of young women) or awaiting the results of a vacancy competition or interview (27.2 per cent of men as opposed to 5.9 per cent of young women).

Relaxing the active job search criteria adds 60,260 (an increase of 79.5 per cent) to the unemployed pool. Among the 60,260 youth who are without work, available for work but not actively seeking work, only 15.6 per cent qualify as “discouraged workers” (Table 25). The discouraged youth have given up on the job search because of a reason implying a sense of despair about the labour market. The specific reasons include: not knowing how or where to seek work, an inability to find work matching his/her skills, experience in looking for work before has led to no results, feeling too young to find work and the sense that no jobs are available in the area. The number of discouraged youth in the country if the availability to work criteria is applied was 9,322, which is less than 1 per cent of the overall labour force at 0.3 per cent.

Asked how they make use of their time, the discouraged youth showed a tendency to divide their time between helping with family chores (57.9 per cent), reading (45.4 per cent) and watching television (45.4 per cent).<sup>7</sup> Young women were much more likely to help with family chores or spend time reading compared to young men, while young men are more likely than young women to play on the computer, listen to music, do sports or hang out with friends. Nearly all of the discouraged youth said that their main financial resource was their own family (95.1 per cent).

One means of trying to gauge the relative urgency of the job search among unemployed youth is by determining if the young unemployed ever refused a job offer and if so, for what reasons. Presumably, the more desperate jobseeker, for reasons of poverty, perhaps, would accept a job regardless of conditions. The share of unemployed youth who refused a job offer is 21.9 per cent (Table 26). The largest portion of unemployed youth who rejected a job offer was due to the low wages offered (36.7 per cent). This was followed by their family not approving of the job offered (29.2 per cent) (a phenomenon of young women, not young men) and that the work was not interesting (10.2 per cent). The refusal based on wages offered was much stronger for young men than young women (64.4 and 8.9 per cent, respectively), while young women were much more likely to be influenced by the family (58.3 per cent of young female’s job refusals was due to family reaction while the response was selected by no young males) and by the type of work (20.3 per cent refused because work was not interesting).

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<sup>7</sup> Multiple responses were allowed.

**Table 26. Unemployed youth who had refused a job by reason for refusal and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Wages offered were too low	6,088	36.7	5,346	64.4	742	8.9
Work was not interesting	1,686	10.2	0	0.0	1,686	20.3
Location was not convenient	1,405	8.5	1,405	16.9	0	0.0
Work would not match my level of qualifications	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Work would require too few hours	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Work would require too many hours	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Family did not approve of the job offered	4,843	29.2	0	0.0	4,843	58.3
Waiting for a better job	1,545	9.3	1,545	18.6	0	0.0
There was no contract length offered or contract length was too short	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Saw no possibilities for advancement	1,036	6.2	0	0.0	1,036	12.5
<b>Total unemployed youth</b>	<b>16,603</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>8,296</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>8,307</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

### 3.7 Characteristics of employed youth

Three-quarters (74.1 per cent) of the youth population in Cambodia is employed (see Annex I for definition). The female share of young workers is slightly greater than that of the male share at 53.5 per cent. Table 27 shows that of the employed respondents, the largest share were contributing (unpaid) family workers (46.8 per cent) then wage and salaried workers (employees) (34.4 per cent) and 17.6 per cent were own-account workers (see Annex I for definitions). Only 1.3 per cent was self-employed with employees (“employers”). The share of female employed youth was higher than males for the categories of contributing (unpaid) family workers, own-account workers, and employers. On the other hand, there was a higher percentage of male employed youth as wage and salaried workers than females (38.2 and 31.0 per cent, respectively).

**Table 27. Employed youth by status in employment and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Wage and salaried workers (employees)	1,197,703	34.4	620,013	38.2	577,690	31.0
Contributing (unpaid) family workers	1,629,638	46.8	729,792	45.0	899,846	48.3
Own-account workers	611,937	17.6	252,683	15.6	359,253	19.3
Employers	45,521	1.3	18,764	1.2	26,757	1.4
<b>Total employed youth</b>	<b>3,484,799</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,621,253</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,863,546</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

The main economic activity of employed youth is presented in Table 28. Approximately one-half of young workers were engaged in the agriculture sector (50.1 per cent), with slightly more young men than women (52.4 per cent and 48.1 per cent). The services sector absorbed 33.9 per cent of employed youth, with a higher share of females (37.0 per cent) than males (30.3 per cent). The industrial sector employs 16.1 per cent of youth (17.4 per cent for young males and 14.9 per cent for young women). Figure 6 shows the more detailed breakdown of sectoral distribution. Clearly, employment in agriculture

dominates with employment in wholesale and retail trade a distant second at 18.0 per cent of youth employment and manufacturing a distant third at 11.0 per cent (with both of the latter sectors showing a higher share for young women than men). The construction and transport sectors are fairly well represented among male employment (9.1 and 5.7 per cent, respectively).

**Table 28. Employed youth by main branches of economic activity and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Agriculture	1,745,099	50.1	848,877	52.4	896,222	48.1
Industry	559,955	16.1	281,396	17.4	278,559	14.9
Services	1,179,745	33.9	490,980	30.3	688,765	37.0
<b>Total employed youth</b>	<b>3,484,799</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,621,253</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,863,546</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

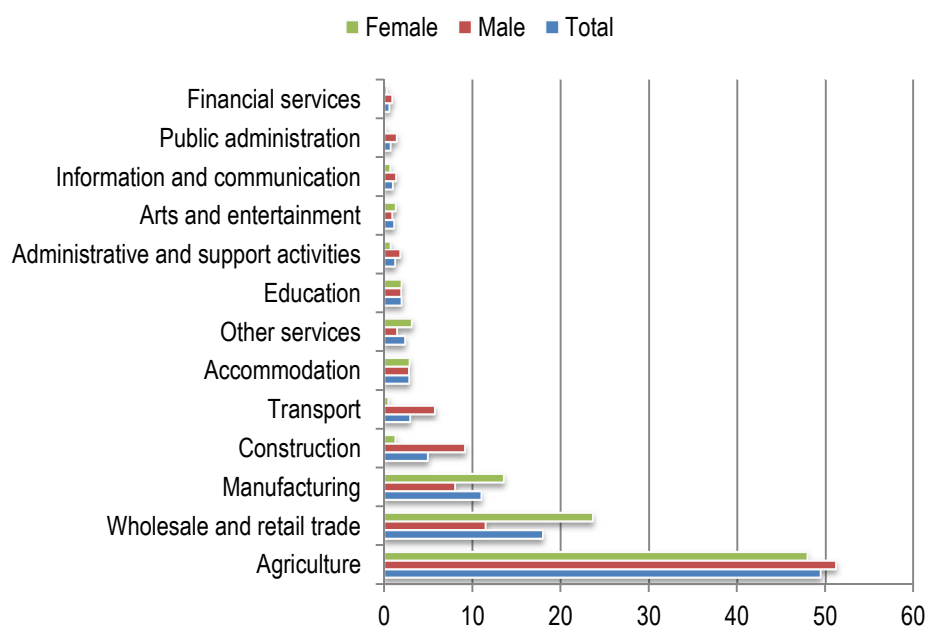
**Table 29. Employed youth by occupation and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Managers	40,460	1.2	24,909	1.5	15,551	0.8
Professionals	122,512	3.5	56,180	3.5	66,332	3.6
Technicians and associate professionals	40,865	1.2	24,534	1.5	16,331	0.9
Clerical support workers	56,279	1.6	24,566	1.5	31,713	1.7
Service and sales workers	755,600	21.7	228,667	14.1	526,933	28.3
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	1,492,914	42.8	724,719	44.7	768,195	41.2
Craft and related trade workers	325,141	9.3	172,743	10.7	152,398	8.2
Plant and machine operator and assemblers	181,351	5.2	89,624	5.5	91,727	4.9
Elementary occupations	459,054	13.2	266,439	16.4	192,614	10.3
Armed forces occupations	10,625	0.3	8,873	0.5	1,752	0.1
<b>Total population</b>	<b>3,484,799</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,621,253</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,863,546</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

Table 29 presents the distribution of the employed youth by occupation. It shows that 42.8 per cent were skilled agricultural and fishery workers, 21.7 per cent were service and sales workers, 13.2 per cent were in elementary occupations, while 9.3 per cent were craft and related trade workers and 5.2 per cent were plant and machine operator and assemblers (see also Figure 6). A comparison by sex reveals that the largest difference in occupational categories was in services and sales, which employed 48.3 per cent of young women and 14.1 per cent of young men, followed by elementary occupations which employed 16.4 per cent of young men and 10.3 per cent of young women. Noticeably, the armed forces occupations had less than one per cent of total employed youth.

**Figure 6. Distribution of youth employment by sector at the 1-digit level and sex (%)**



Note: Only sectors showing greater than 1 per cent of total employment are displayed.

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

### 3.7.1 Wage employment

Slightly more than one-third (34.4 per cent) of young workers in Cambodia qualify as wage and salaried workers. Table 30 presents the number of young employees who received benefits from their jobs. The highest share – although low in relative terms (never reaching more than one-third of young workers – received benefits in terms of meals or meal allowance (32.7 per cent), followed by overtime pay (24.6 per cent), annual paid leave (24.3 per cent), and bonus/reward for good performance (21.6 per cent). It can also be observed that a very small percentage of young employees received social security contributions (4.4 per cent) and childcare facilities (0.8 per cent).

**Table 30. Young wage and salaried workers by access to benefits/entitlements and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Transport or transport allowance	236,013	19.7	128,886	20.8	107,127	18.5
Meals or meal allowance	391,732	32.7	176,672	28.5	215,059	37.2
Annual paid leave (holiday time)	290,622	24.3	133,407	21.5	157,214	27.2
Paid sick leave	191,532	16.0	94,370	15.2	97,161	16.8
Pension/ old age insurance	109,201	9.1	63,703	10.3	45,498	7.9
Severance/ end of service payment	121,455	10.1	49,452	8.0	72,003	12.5
Overtime pay	294,780	24.6	124,644	20.1	170,136	29.5
Medical insurance coverage	124,070	10.4	57,775	9.3	66,295	11.5
Bonus/reward for good performance	258,164	21.6	120,410	19.4	137,754	23.8
Social security contribution	53,130	4.4	24,917	4.0	28,212	4.9
Educational or training courses	126,472	10.6	72,287	11.7	54,184	9.4
Occupational safety/protective equipment or clothing	133,204	11.1	78,013	12.6	55,191	9.6
Childcare facilities	9,532	0.8	3,200	0.5	6,332	1.1
Maternity/paternity leave	189,403	15.8	84,437	13.6	104,966	18.2
<b>Total wage/salaried workers</b>	<b>1,197,703</b>		<b>620,013</b>		<b>577,690</b>	

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.



Regarding the type of contract held by employed youth, the SWTS survey found that about two-thirds (68.6 per cent) of young employees were engaged on an oral agreement, while 31.4 per cent had a written agreement (Table 31). In addition, 58.6 per cent of youth with an employment contract had a contract of unlimited duration (without time limit). Among those with a contract of limited duration, 27.0 per cent held a contract of 12 months or less. An interesting difference emerges when comparing contract types between rural and urban areas. In urban areas, there is not a large difference between the share of young employees having a written or oral agreement (55.2 per cent written and 44.8 per cent oral). In rural areas, however, oral contracts are much more dominant, with 79.7 per cent of employment contracts being oral only.

**Table 31. Young wage and salaried workers by type of contract, area of residence and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Written agreement	376,399	31.4	178,207	28.7	198,192	34.3
Oral agreement	821,304	68.6	441,806	71.3	379,498	65.7
Unlimited duration	701,555	58.6	353,625	57.0	347,930	60.2
Limited duration	496,148	41.4	266,388	43.0	229,760	39.8
Less than 12 months	323,908	27.0	184,450	29.7	139,458	24.1
12 months to less than 36 months	94,690	7.9	38,625	6.2	56,065	9.7
36 months or more	77,551	6.5	43,314	7.0	34,237	5.9
Total young wage and salaried workers	1,197,703	100.0	620,013	100.0	577,690	100.0
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Written agreement	210,164	55.2	107,343	51.2	102,821	60.0
Oral agreement	170,614	44.8	102,149	48.8	68,464	40.0
Unlimited duration	182,159	47.8	100,827	48.1	81,333	47.5
Limited duration	198,618	52.2	108,665	51.9	89,953	52.5
Less than 12 months	94,154	24.7	55,042	26.3	39,113	22.8
12 months to less than 36 months	67,776	17.8	31,788	15.2	35,988	21.0
36 months or more	36,688	9.6	21,836	10.4	14,852	8.7
Total young wage and salaried workers	380,777	100.0	209,492	100.0	171,286	100.0
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Written agreement	166,235	20.3	70,865	17.3	95,370	23.5
Oral agreement	650,691	79.7	339,657	82.7	311,034	76.5
Unlimited duration	519,395	63.6	252,798	61.6	266,597	65.6
Limited duration	297,530	36.4	157,723	38.4	139,807	34.4
Less than 12 months	229,754	28.1	129,408	31.5	100,345	24.7
12 months to less than 36 months	26,914	3.3	6,837	1.7	20,077	4.9
36 months or more	40,863	5.0	21,478	5.2	19,385	4.8
Total wage and salaried workers	816,926	100.0	410,521	100.0	406,404	100.0

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

### 3.7.2 Self-employment

Self-employed youth represent 65.7 per cent of total young workers in Cambodia, summing 17.6 per cent young own-account workers, 46.8 per cent young contributing (unpaid) family workers and 1.3 per cent young employers. Table 32 presents the reasons why young own-account workers have taken up such work. The largest share, 44.2 per cent, chose to be self-employed because it allowed them greater independence for their own business. The second and third most common reasons imply that the young person turned to self-employment for involuntary reasons; 19.0 per cent stated they followed the family requirement and 17.5 per cent said they had been unable to find a waged or salaried job. These three reasons are found in both urban and rural areas. However, the reason of

greater independence was cited more often by urban than rural youth (60.6 per cent and 41.1 per cent, respectively), and family requirements were more common for rural than urban youth (20.8 per cent and 9.7 per cent, respectively).

**Table 32. Young own-account worker by reason for self-employment and area of residence**

	Total		Urban		Rural	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Could not find a wage or salary job	107,317	17.5	16,291	16.7	91,027	17.7
Greater independence	270,265	44.2	59,179	60.6	211,086	41.1
More flexible hours of work	42,583	7.0	2,907	3.0	39,676	7.7
Higher income level	72,140	11.8	8,110	8.3	64,030	12.5
Required by the family	116,166	19.0	9,464	9.7	106,702	20.8
Other	3,465	0.6	1,778	1.8	1,686	0.3
Total self-employed workers	611,937	100.0	97,730	100.0	514,207	100.0

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

The young self-employed claim their most significant business challenge as insufficient financial resources (51.6 per cent) (Table A8). Insufficient business expertise on the personal level and competition in the market second and third position (14.8 and 13.2 per cent, respectively). Table A9 confirms that very few of the self-employed are accessing formal financial services. No young self-employed youth took a bank loan to start their business. Four (4.2) per cent received a loan from a microfinance institution and 2.1 per cent took a loan from an informal loan operator, but by far the largest shares used their own funds (39.8 per cent) or received the funds from their family or friends (38.3 per cent). Regarding working capital, i.e. how the self-employed handle their everyday expenses, 54.5 per cent of self-employed youth get the funds from their family or friends, 34.8 per cent have no such expenses, 5.0 per cent use loans from informal operators and 2.4 per cent use loans from microfinance institutions (Table A10).

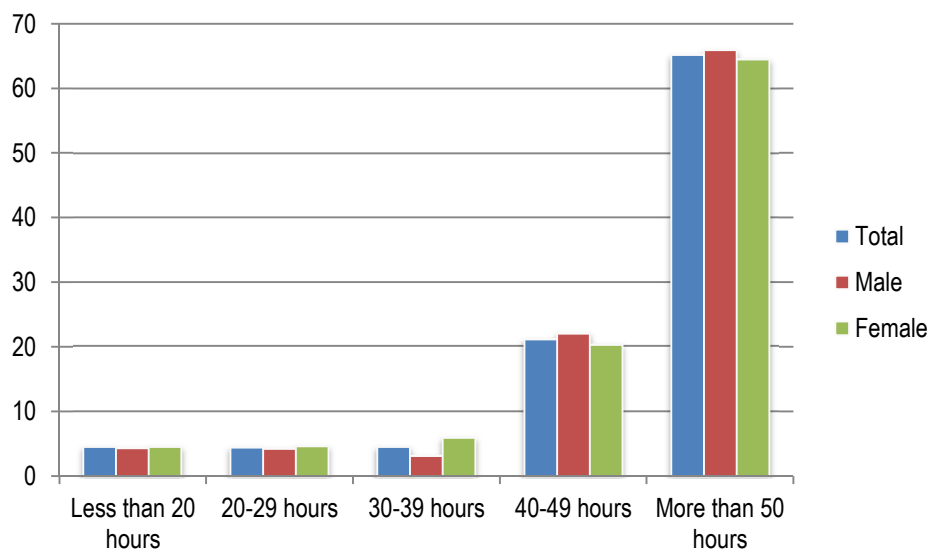
Encourage financial inclusion of youth. Measures aimed at improving financial inclusion and access to credit for existing enterprises are likely to stimulate labour demand and generate new employment opportunities for young people.

### 3.7.3 Hours of work and involuntary part-time work

Figure 7 shows the distribution of youth employment by actual hours worked per week. Most young people work full time: 86.4 per cent of working youth work at least 40 hours per week. Nearly two-thirds (65.2) per cent of working youth can be said to work an excessive number of hours (50 or more hours per week). Only 9.1 per cent of youth work part-time (less than 30 hours per week). There is little difference in hours of work between the sexes; slightly more young men work long hours (greater than 50 hours per week) than young women (65.9 and 64.5 per cent, respectively). Also, the tendency towards long hours is slightly greater in rural areas compared to urban areas (67.4 and 60.6 per cent, respectively).

A small portion (9.6 per cent) of youth working less than 30 hours per week stated that they would like to work more hours, and therefore qualify as “involuntary part-time workers” (Table 33). Given that few youth in the country work part-time, and that some of them do so involuntarily, it would appear that part-time employment is not viewed as a viable option for young Cambodians to gain work experience while studying or as a means to balance family responsibilities.

**Figure 7. Distribution of youth employment by actual hours worked per week by sex (%)**



Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

**Table 33. Involuntary part-time young workers by sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Young involuntary part-time workers (share in total youth employment)	333,195	9.6	155,040	9.6	178,155	9.6

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

### 3.7.4 Other job quality indicators

The SWTS also allows measuring the quality of jobs to which young people have access. Figure 8 attempts to characterize the youth labour market in the country along a job quality continuum. Within the realm of low quality employment on the left-hand side of the figure are the following five indicators:

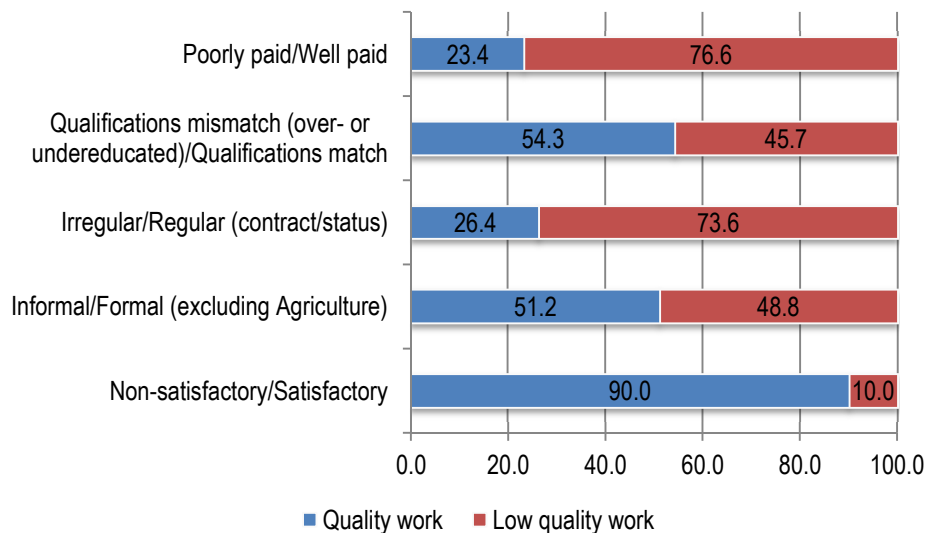
1. The share of own-account workers and paid employees with below average weekly wages or income<sup>8</sup> (poorly paid);
2. The share of over- or undereducated workers<sup>9</sup> (qualification mismatch);
3. The share of workers with contract of duration of less than 12 months, own-account workers and contributing (unpaid) family workers<sup>10</sup> (irregular employment);

<sup>8</sup> Monthly wages of employees and daily, monthly or other time-specific earnings of own-account workers were converted into weekly rates for comparability. Contributing (unpaid) family workers are excluded from the calculation.

<sup>9</sup> The methodology applied is that of the normative ISCO-based approach described below. Table 36 provides the matching across ISCO and ISCED educational codes.

4. The share of workers in informal employment (excluding employment in agriculture)<sup>11</sup> (informal employment); and
5. The share of workers that claim dissatisfaction with their current job (non-satisfactory employment).

**Figure 8. Indicators measuring quality of youth employment (%)**



Note: The indicators are shares in total youth employment (aged 15-29), except for (a) the shares of workers earning below and average and above-average wages, which are percentages of young employees and own-account workers only, and (b) overeducated and undereducated workers, which are percentages of employed youth with completed education (i.e. excluding currently working students).

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

The blue bars of the figure represents the shares of better quality employment based on above average wages, qualifications, stability, formality (security), and satisfaction. Unfortunately, there is a greater presence of red, representing “low quality” work, in the chart, which indicates numerous issues of concerns regarding the quality of available work in the country. First, low pay is an issue. Slightly more than three-quarters (76.6 per cent) of employees and own-account workers are taking home less than the average weekly wages. At the same time nearly three-quarters (73.6 per cent) of young workers are in what we classify as irregular work (self-employment plus employees with temporary contracts). The temporary nature of the contract and sporadic nature of self-employment are likely to impact on the sense of security and well-being of the youth.

**Improve conditions of work by ensuring equal treatment for and rights of young workers.**

<sup>10</sup> Persons not classifiable by status in employment are also included in the category of irregular employment.

<sup>11</sup> Informal employment is measured according to the guidelines recommended by the 17th International Conference of Labour Statisticians. It includes the following sub-categories of workers: (a) paid employees in “informal jobs”, i.e. jobs without either a social security entitlement, paid annual leave or paid sick leave; (b) paid employees in an unregistered enterprise with size class below five employees; (c) own-account workers in an unregistered enterprise with size class below five employees; (d) employers in an unregistered enterprise with size class below five employees; and (e) contributing family workers. The agricultural sector is excluded in the case of Cambodia and presented separately in Table 35.

Adding more detail to the issue of low wages, Table 34 presents the average monthly wages of young employees and own-account workers by occupation. The table shows a clear wage advantage to being a paid employee as opposed to working as an own-account worker. The average wage of the young paid employee (461,038 riels per month) is nearly twice that of the own-account worker (177,198 riels per month). Among employees, the average pay of young males is higher than young females, but the opposite is true among young own-account workers. Regarding the occupational distribution, wages are highest among technicians and associate professionals followed by managers within the employees group. The most lucrative profession among young own-account workers also appears to be technicians and associate professionals, followed by clerks.

**Table 34. Average monthly wages (in Riels)<sup>12</sup> of employees and own-account workers by occupation and sex**

Average monthly wage in Riels	Employees			Own-account workers		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Professionals	461,908	506,116	427,106	406,250	522,500	290,000
Technicians and associate professionals	928,313	1,378,792	477,833	1,200,000	1,200,000	-
Clerks	515,379	415,033	599,000	500,000	-	500,000
Service workers shop and market sales workers	450,823	532,136	385,773	482,128	690,071	439,629
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	451,629	466,918	441,735	-115,902	-194,670	-27,682
Craft and related trade workers	524,458	665,143	347,073	303,953	331,435	272,348
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	475,232	611,025	376,321	299,167	299,167	-
Elementary occupations	367,938	396,369	325,956	451,700	319,286	760,667
<b>Total</b>	<b>461,038</b>	<b>528,968</b>	<b>388,341</b>	<b>177,198</b>	<b>71,462</b>	<b>251,977</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

**Table 35. Share of employed youth in informal employment by sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total youth employment</b>	3,484,799	100.0	1,621,253	100.0	1,863,546	100.0
Youth informal employment (excluding agriculture)	1,700,750	48.8	757,327	46.7	943,422	50.6
Employment in the informal sector (share in informal employment)	1,026,877	60.4	377,813	49.9	649,064	68.8
Informal employment outside the informal sector (share in informal employment)	673,873	39.6	379,515	50.1	294,358	31.2
Youth formal employment (excluding agriculture)	43,095	1.2	19,193	1.2	23,902	1.3
Youth employment in agriculture	1,740,955	50.0	844,733	52.1	896,222	48.1

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

Informal employment is a significant concern in Cambodia. Table 35 shows that 48.8 per cent of young workers in Cambodia fall into the category of informal employment. This share is likely to be severely underestimated due to the exclusion of the agricultural sector, where half of young workers are engaged. Informal employment in the agricultural

<sup>12</sup> As of 30 June 2013, the UN official exchange rate was 4,000 Cambodian Riels to the US dollar.

sector is likely to exist in large numbers. Within the category of informal employment, 60.4 per cent are in employment in the informal sector (meaning they are working in unregistered enterprises) and 39.6 per cent are in an informal job in the formal sector (without social security benefits and/or paid annual or sick leave). Young female workers have a slightly higher change of engaging in informal employment (50.6 per cent compared to 46.7 per cent for young men), and within the category are more likely than young men to be engaged in the informal sector as opposed to working under an informal arrangement in the formal sector.

### *Qualification mismatch*

One means of measuring the mismatch between the job that a person does and their level of educational qualifications is to apply the normative measure of occupational skills categories from the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO). ISCO-08 includes a categorization of major occupational groups (first-digit ISCO levels) by level of education in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED)<sup>13</sup> that is reproduced in Table 36.

**Table 36. ISCO Major groups and education levels**

ISCO major group	Broad occupation group	Education level
Managers		
Professionals	High-skilled non-manual	Tertiary (ISCED 5-6)
Technicians and associate professionals		
Clerical support workers		
Service and sales workers	Low-skilled non-manual	
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers		Secondary (ISCED 3-4)
Craft and related trades workers	Skilled manual	
Plant and machine operators and assemblers		
Elementary occupations	Unskilled	Primary (ISCED 1-2)

Source: ILO, 2013, table 3.

Workers in a particular group who have the assigned level of education are considered well-matched. Those who have a higher level of education are considered overeducated and those with a lower level of education are considered undereducated. For instance, a university graduate working as a clerk (a low-skilled non-manual occupation) is overeducated, while a secondary school graduate working as an engineer (a high-skilled non-manual occupation) is undereducated.

The result for Cambodian youth is that a slight majority of young workers are in occupations that match their level of education (54.3 per cent) compared to workers whose occupations they are overeducated or undereducated for (45.7 per cent) (Figure 8). Table 37 provides the breakdown: 3.2 per cent of young working Cambodians is overeducated and 42.5 per cent is undereducated. The results are, in part, a reflection of the levels of education attained by youth in the country. With a substantial share of employed youth completing education below the secondary level, it is not overly surprising to find more youth classified as undereducated than overeducated.

<sup>13</sup> For more information on this ISCO-based along with other methods of measuring skills mismatches, see Quintini (2011).

The phenomenon of overeducation tends to take place when there is an insufficient number of jobs that match a certain level of education. The mismatch in supply and demand forces some of the degree holders to take up available work that they are subsequently overqualified for. The consequence is the overeducated youth is likely to earn less than s/he otherwise could have and is also not making the most of his/her productive potential. Another consequence is the crowding out of youth at the bottom of the educational pyramid. The less-educated youth find themselves at the back of the queue even for those jobs for which they are best qualified.

Table 37 supports the premise that some highly educated young people in the country are having to “settle” for jobs that they are overqualified for – for example, as clerical support workers or general labourers (within the elementary occupations). On the other hand, there are many more young people holding positions that do not match perfectly to their education degree. Professionals, technicians and associate professionals, skilled agricultural workers, crafts workers and plant and machine operators in the country have a one in two chance of being undereducated than the job calls for. The undereducation of workers can have a severe impact on labour productivity and can be a significant hindrance to economic growth.

Investing in the training of young workers could help them to raise their skills level and to be more productive at the work they do, bringing potential gains to both themselves in terms of monetary rewards and to the profit line of companies.

**Table 37. Shares of overeducated and undereducated young workers by major occupational category (ISCO-08, %)**

Major occupational categories (ISCO-08)	Overeducated	Undereducated
Managers	0.0	36.5
Professionals	0.0	55.9
Technicians and associate professionals	0.0	50.7
Clerical support workers	26.7	16.4
Service and sales workers	3.2	31.9
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	0.2	52.4
Craft and related trades workers	1.1	52.3
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	0.0	54.4
Elementary occupations	14.2	15.1
<b>Share in total non-student youth employment</b>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>42.5</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

### 3.7.5 Security and satisfaction

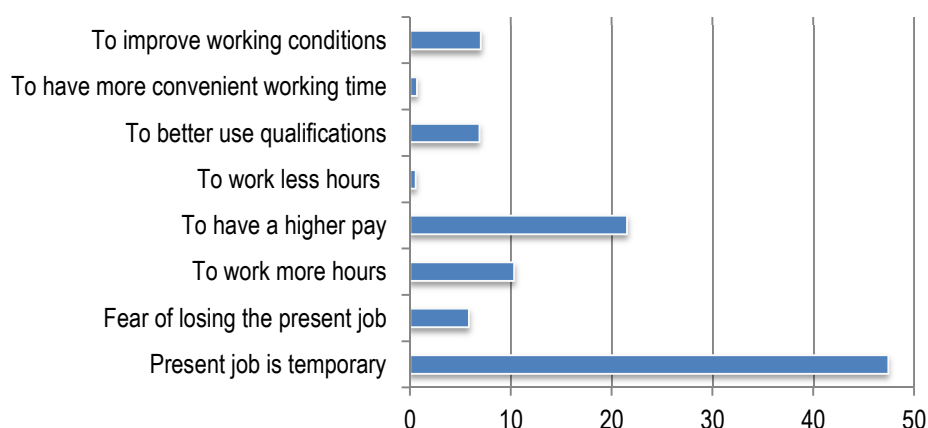
One surprising element that came in the examination of job quality indicators in Figure 9 is that despite some indications of poor quality employment, the vast majority of young people have expressed satisfaction with their work (including both paid and self-employment) (90.0 per cent) (Table A5). The seeming contradiction of a young person working in a job that might bring little in terms of monetary reward and stability claiming job satisfaction is a likely reflection of the ability of youth to adapt to realities where not many “good” jobs exist. In the context of a fast-growth, full employment market with very low unemployment rates, simply having a job seems to outweigh issues of poor job quality.

One can dig further into issues of job satisfaction by the indication of whether or not the working youth would like to change his/her job. A significant share of young workers (41.8 per cent) said they would like to change their job. The most common reasons for

wanting to change work are the temporary nature of the work (47.3 per cent), unsatisfactory pay (21.5 per cent) and to have more hours of work (10.3 per cent) (Figure 9).

Most of the working youth in the country believed they would be able to keep their main job within the period of 12 months from the reference date (90.3 per cent of working youth). Only 8.2 per cent felt they would not be able to work at the same job over the coming period (the remaining 1.5 per cent of young workers was unable to judge).

**Figure 9. Employed youth who would like to change their work by reason (%)**



Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

### 3.7.6 The job search

Young people were asked about their job search method, and the information presented in Table 38 allows comparability across employed (in how they found their job) and unemployed youth (in how they are looking for a job). With respect to employed youth, most of them had looked for their current job by using informal networks of friends, relatives and acquaintances (76.2 per cent), followed at a large distance by 11.1 per cent who looked for resources to start their own business or farm (resources such as land, buildings, equipment and machinery). Similarly, the largest portion of unemployed youth looked for work among their network of friends, relatives and family (52.4 per cent). Curiously, the second and third most common job search methods used by the unemployed – placing or answering job advertisements (17.5 per cent) and inquiring directly at workplaces (10.7 per cent) – did not prove to be hugely successful methods for the currently employed. Only three (2.9) per cent of employed youth got their job through an advertisement and 2.6 per cent through direct inquiry.

Less than 10 per cent of unemployed youth were registered at an employment center. The possible ineffectiveness of the employment services in the country is further supported by the statistic which shows that 94.7 per cent of the employed youth did not make use of any service offered by an employment center.

Increase the relevance and funding of employment services in order to raise the attractiveness of employment offices as a placement tool for jobseeking youth.



**Table 38. Employed and unemployed youth by job search method**

	Employed		Unemployed	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Registered at an employment center	38,008	1.2	4,708	8.3
Placed/answered job advertisements	91,107	2.9	9,903	17.5
Inquired directly at factories, farms, markets shops or other workplaces	83,116	2.6	6,067	10.7
Took a test or interview	75,001	2.4	4,496	7.9
Asked friends, relatives, acquaintances	2,410,210	76.2	29,632	52.4
Waited on the street to be recruited for casual work	14,936	0.5	0	0.0
Sought financial assistance to look for work or start a business	85,516	2.7	1,752	3.1
Looked for land, building, equipment, machinery to start own business or farming	350,926	11.1	0	0.0
Applied for permit or license to start a business	3,584	0.1	0	0.0
Other	9,363	0.3	0	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>3,161,766</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>56,557</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

## 4. Stages of transition

### 4.1 Concepts and definitions<sup>14</sup>

The ILO approach to labour market transition of young people measures not only the length of time between the exit from education (either upon graduation or early exit without completion) to the first entry into any job but includes also qualitative elements such as whether this job is stable (measured by contract type). The SWTS was designed in a way that applies a stricter definition of “stable employment” than is typically used in the genre. By starting from the premise that a person has not “transited” until settled in a job that meets very basic criteria of stability as defined by the duration of the contract, the ILO is introducing a new quality element to the standard definition of labour market transitions. However, only a miniscule share of youth in many developing economies, particularly the low-income economies, will ever attain stable employment, which implies that the statistics are probably not framed widely enough. For this reason, the decision was taken to also look at the satisfaction of employment and build it into the concept of labour market transition.

More specifically, the labour market transition is defined as the passage of a young person (aged 15 to 29 years) from the end of schooling (or entry to first economic activity) to the first stable or satisfactory job. Stable employment is defined in terms of the contract of employment (written or oral) and the duration of the contract (greater than 12 months). Bringing in the issue of contract automatically excludes the employment status of the self-employed, where the employment relationship is not defined by a written contract. The contrary is temporary employment, or wage and salaried employment of limited duration. Satisfactory employment is a subjective concept, based on the self-assessment of the job-

<sup>14</sup> This section is adapted from ILO (2013), chapter 5.

holder. It implies a job that the respondent considers to “fit” to his desired employment path at that moment in time. The contrary is termed non-satisfactory employment, implying a sense of dissatisfaction about the job.

Based on the definition of labour market transition, the stages of transition are classified as follows:

**Transited** – A young person who has “transited” is one who is currently employed in:

- a stable job, whether satisfactory or non-satisfactory; or
- a satisfactory but temporary job; or
- satisfactory self-employment.

**In transition** – A young person is still “in transition” if s/he has one of the following statuses:

- currently unemployed (relaxed definition); or
- currently employed in a temporary and non-satisfactory job; or
- currently in non-satisfactory self-employment; or
- currently inactive and not in school, with an aim to look for work later.

**Transition not yet started** – A young person whose “transition has not yet started” is one who is either of the following:

- still in school and inactive (inactive students); or
- currently inactive and not in school (inactive non-students), with no intention of looking for work.

Two elements are noteworthy with this classification. First, the stages of transition span across the boundaries of economic activity as defined in the traditional labour force framework. The “transited” category includes a sub-set of youth classified as employed; the remaining employed fall within the category of “in transition”, which includes also the strict unemployed and portions of the inactive (namely, those without work, available for work but not actively seeking work and the inactive non-students who have stated an intention to join the labour force at a later stage); and finally, the “transition not yet started” category is the residual of the inactive population.

Second, the stages of transition are not intended to be a normative framework. Because of the inclusion of persons in satisfactory self-employment and satisfactory temporary employment, one cannot say that all youth in the “transited” category have transited to a good quality job. In fact, the majority of persons in self-employment – the own-account workers and contributing (unpaid) family workers – will be among the poorly paid workers in the informal economy showing up on the poor quality job side of Figure 9 above. And by definition, they make up the bulk of the country’s share of irregularly employed. Yet still they have professed a degree of satisfaction with their job and they are likely to have finished their transition in the sense of remaining in the self-employed classification for the remainder of their working lives. To summarize, rather than a normative concept, the stages of transition classification is intended to offer a flow concept. A person is “in transition” until they reach a resting point in the labour market; good or bad quality job, it is one that they are likely to maintain.

## 4.2 Stages of transition

Using the classification of stages of transition, the largest share of the youth population in Cambodia has already completed the transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment (68.6 per cent), and most to satisfactory self-employment (50.0 per cent) (Table 39 and Figure 10). The percentage of youth who have not yet started the transition is 17.4 per cent and the share of youth still in the process of transition is 14.0 per cent.

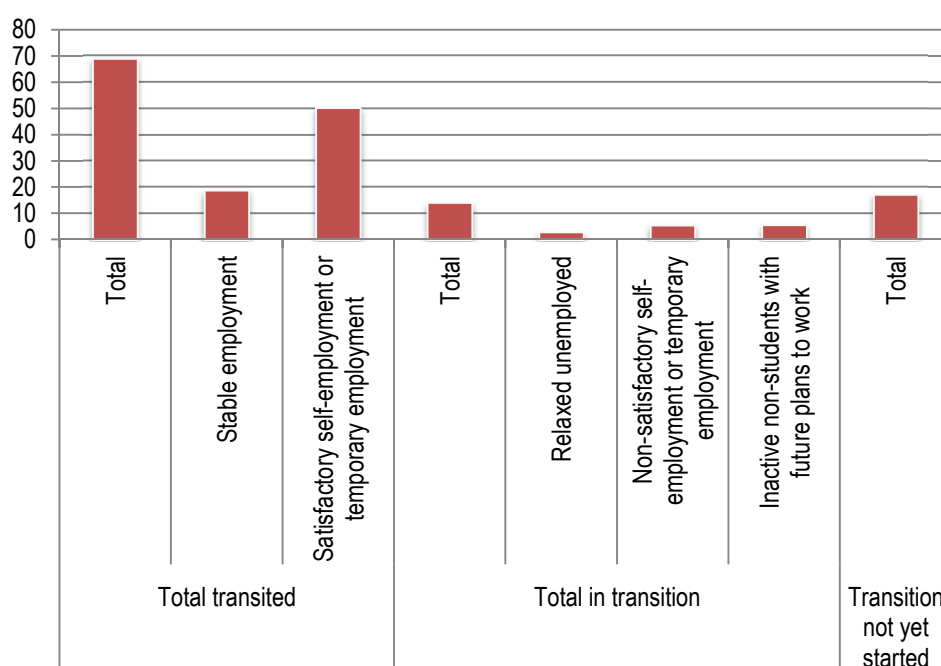
There are more males than females in the “transited” category, as well as among those who have not yet started their transition. However, more young women are “in transition” than young men.

**Table 39. Distribution of youth population by stage of transition and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Transited	3,227,127	68.6	1,502,843	70.6	1,724,285	66.9
In transition	658,181	14.0	226,400	10.6	431,781	16.8
Transition not yet started	820,054	17.4	399,897	18.8	420,158	16.3
Total youth population	4,705,363	100.0	2,129,139	100.0	2,576,223	100.0

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

**Figure 10. Youth population by stages of transition (%)**



Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

Table 40 presents the stage of transition distributed across characteristics such as age group, sex, area of residence and household’s overall financial situation. The likelihood of completing the transition increases with age; 80.4 per cent of youth in the upper age band of 25-29 years have completed the transition, compared to 59.2 per cent of the “younger” youth aged 15-19 years. The younger age group, on the other hand, is that which is most likely to remain the category of transition not yet started (30.0 per cent), which is logical given the likelihood they are still in school. Urban youth are more likely to remain in education and start the transition later (26.5 per cent compared to 14.5 per cent of rural youth) while rural youth are more likely to fall in the economically active categories of transition completed or in transition. Regarding the influence of household income,<sup>15</sup> it

<sup>15</sup> The rating of household income level is based on the perception of the young respondent.

becomes clear that household wealth determines the ability of youth to stay in school and thus be more likely to fall in the category of transition not yet started (27.1 per cent of youth in well-off households are in the category compared to 10.7 per cent of youth in poor households).

**Table 40. Distribution of youth population across stage of transition and selected key indicators: age group, sex, area of residence and household's overall financial situation**

	Transited		In transition		Transition not yet started		Total	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Age group</b>								
15-19	1,154,328	59.2	205,548	10.5	582,247	30.0	1,942,123	100
20-24	1,121,262	71.4	247,739	15.8	192,350	12.3	1,561,351	100
25-29	951,537	80.4	204,894	17.3	27,692	2.3	1,184,123	100
<b>Sex</b>								
Male	1,502,843	70.6	224,256	10.5	385,891	18.9	2,112,990	100
Female	1,724,285	66.9	430,446	16.7	416,398	16.4	2,571,129	100
<b>Area of residence</b>								
Urban	740,899	63.4	117,602	10.1	298,707	26.5	1,157,208	100
Rural	2,486,229	70.3	537,100	15.2	503,582	14.5	3,526,911	100
<b>Household's overall financial situation</b>								
Well off	15,605	60.5	3,206	12.4	6,994	27.1	25,805	100
Fairly well off	156,346	63.1	18,898	7.6	72,474	29.3	247,718	100
Around the national average	1,898,006	68.4	337,583	12.2	527,888	19.4	2,763,477	100
Fairly poor	1,018,032	71.2	230,369	16.1	172,206	12.7	1,420,607	100
Poor	139,139	61.0	64,645	28.3	22,727	10.7	226,511	100
<b>Total</b>	<b>3,227,127</b>		<b>654,702</b>		<b>802,289</b>		<b>4,684,118</b>	

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

#### 4.2.1 Youth who have not yet started the transition

As shown in Table 41, most of the young people who have not yet started the transition were still in school (95.7 per cent) and only 4.3 per cent were inactive and not intending to look for work. For young men, 99.6 per cent were in school compared to 92.1 per cent of young women. The remaining 7.9 per cent of young women were inactive and not intending to look for work compared to 0.4 per cent of young men.

**Table 41. Youth who have not yet started their transition by sub-category and sex**

Sub-category	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
In-school	767,403	95.7	384,132	99.6	383,271	92.1
Currently inactive no school with no intention of looking for work	34,886	4.3	1,759	0.4	33,127	7.9
Total youth transition not started	802,289	100	385,891	100	416,398	100

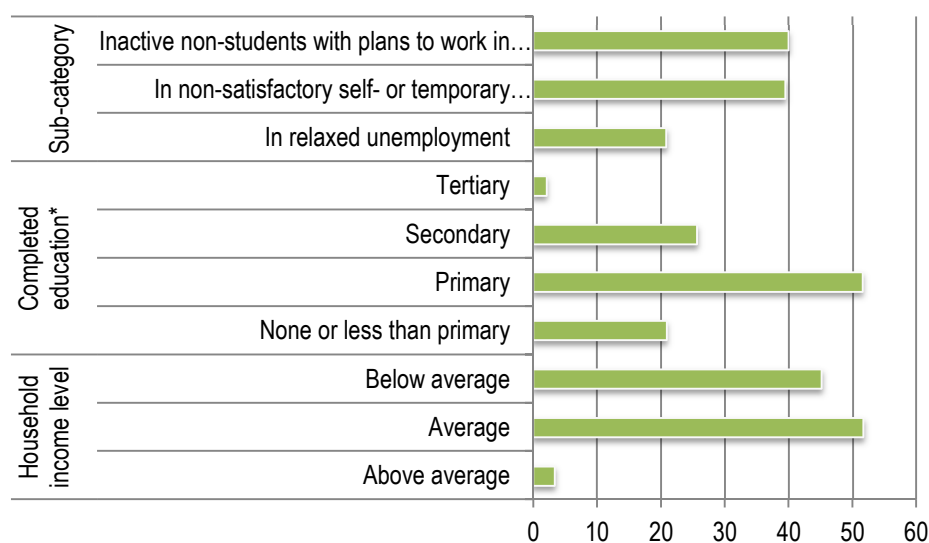
Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

## 4.2.2 Youth in transition

A young person is classified as “in transition” if s/he is either unemployed (relaxed definition), engaged in self-employment or in a paid temporary job that they have expressed dissatisfaction with, or is an inactive non-student with an attachment to the labour market, indicated by their expressed desire to work in the future. Figure 11 presents the category of youth “in transition” in greater detail, with disaggregation by sub-category, sex, urban/rural geography and level of completed educational attainment (excluding current students).

Regarding the reason for the classification as “in transition”, there are nearly equal shares of youth who are temporarily inactive non-students (39.9 per cent) and youth who are currently working in non-satisfactory temporary or self-employment (39.4 per cent). The remaining 20.8 per cent are in the category because they are unemployed. Half (51.4 per cent) of youth “in transition” have completed education at the lowest (primary) level and another 20.9 per cent have less than primary-level education. Those with tertiary education represent the lowest share at 2.1 per cent, which offers hints that having a higher level degree helps to get the youth out of the transition phase (to be confirmed in section 4.2.3). The level of household income also seems to have an influence on the transition stage: 45.1 per cent of youth remaining in transition come from households having below average income levels.

**Figure 11. “In transition” youth by level of household income, level of completed educational attainment and sub-category (%)**



\*Excluding current students since their highest level is not yet determinable

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

Table 42 shows the cross-tabulations of the sub-categories of in transition youth by the same variables shown in Figure 11. One interesting inference that can be drawn from the table is that the youth from wealthier households have a slight advantage in avoiding non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment since the family would seem better able to support them through the unemployment process or to stay in school. It is also interesting to note that the lesser educated youth are more likely to fall in the category of inactive non-students than youth with secondary or higher education, the interpretation here being that those who invested more time in education could be more reluctant to remain inactive. The higher educated youth, then, are more likely to spend the transition in unemployment than in the non-satisfactory working or inactive sub-categories.

**Table 42. Youth “in transition” and “transited” by level of household income, area of residence, level of completed educational attainment and sub-category**

	Transited				Unemployed (relaxed definition)	In transition		Total “in transition” (%)
	Stable employment	Satisfactory self-employment	Satisfactory temporary employment	Total “transited” (%)		Non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment	Inactive non-student with plan to work in future	
<b>Total</b>	873,795	2,055,989	297,343	100.0	136,073	257,671	260,957	100.0
Male	435,563	897,469	169,810	46.6	55,764	118,410	50,081	34.3
Female	438,232	1,158,520	127,533	53.4	80,309	139,261	210,876	65.7
Urban	286,623	363,087	91,189	23.0	44,046	30,433	43,123	18.0
Rural	587,172	1,692,902	206,154	77.0	92,028	227,238	217,834	82.0
<b>Household income level</b>								
Well off	3,206	12,399	0	0.5	0	0	3,206	0.5
Fairly well off	34,783	115,616	5,946	4.8	2,999	3,691	12,209	2.9
Around the national average	522,170	1,306,408	69,427	58.8	94,397	109,066	134,120	51.6
Fairly poor	264,621	564,459	188,951	31.5	29,336	100,853	100,180	35.2
Poor	49,014	57,107	33,018	4.3	9,342	44,062	11,242	9.9
<b>Completed education (excluding current students)</b>								
None or less than primary	87,861	212,606	42,285	13.5	15,934	45,445	53,497	20.9
Primary	323,906	755,497	147,239	48.5	45,871	109,307	128,166	51.4
Secondary	260,547	520,995	59,592	33.2	27,318	40,356	73,321	25.6
Tertiary	86,943	21,443	12,512	4.8	4,127	1,483	5,974	2.1

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

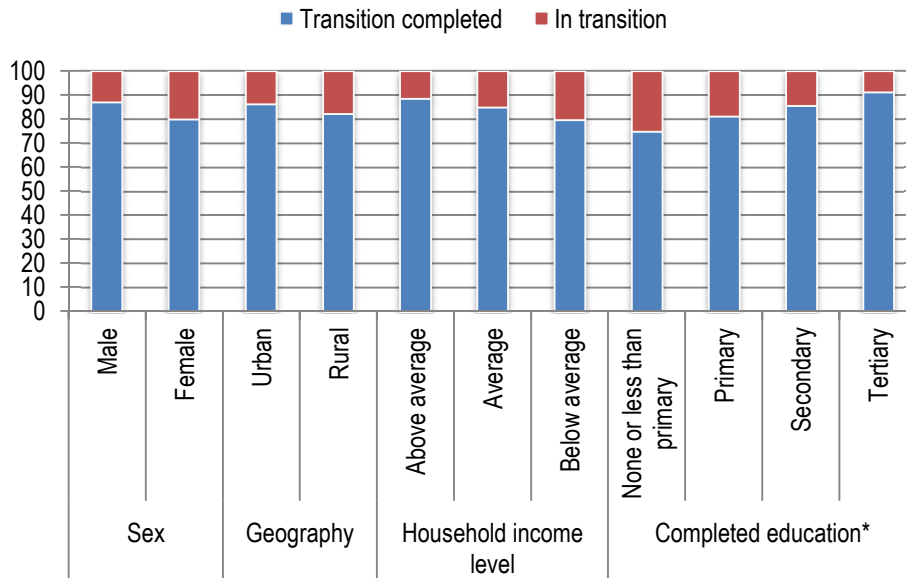
### 4.3 Characteristics of a completed transition

Figure 12 compares the stages of “completed transition” and “in transition” youth according to a breakdown by the variables of sex, area of residence, household income and level of educational attainment with the intention of identifying if there are any obvious advantages brought to the outcome of the transition. Looking at the youth either in transition or with completed transition only, one can draw the following conclusions: First, young men have a slight advantage in completing the transition than young women (87.0 per cent of young men (in the two groups) have completed the transition compared to 80.0 per cent of young women). Second, living in an urban area slightly increases the youth’s chances of completing the transition (86.3 per cent of urban youth have completed the transition compared to 82.2 per cent of youth in rural areas).

Youth from wealthier households have a higher likelihood to complete the transition as opposed to remaining in transition, although the difference in shares across the two categories is not large (88.6 per cent of youth in above average wealth households completed the transition compared to 79.7 per cent of youth in below average income households). Finally, one of the strongest conclusions is that education matters to the transition: 91.3 per cent of youth with completed education at the tertiary level had completed the transition while the remaining 8.7 per cent remain “in transition. More than

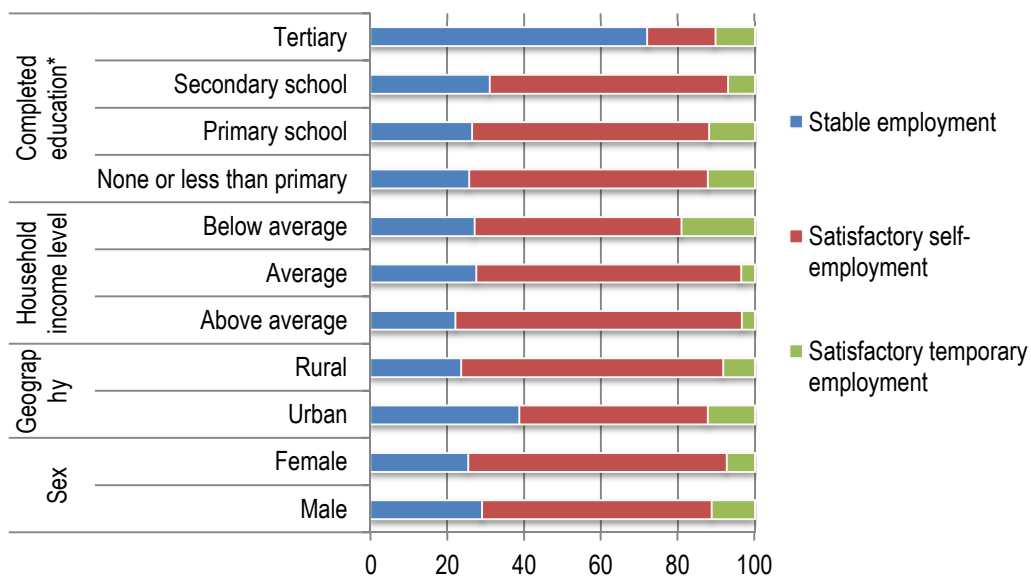
one-third (38.0 per cent) of youth who completed their transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment had completed education at the secondary level or higher compared to 27.7 per cent of youth remaining in transition (Table 42). Only 13.5 per cent of the transited youth had low levels of education (primary or less), compared to 20.9 per cent of the youth remaining in transition.

**Figure 12. Distribution of transition groups (transited and in-transition youth) by sex, urban/rural geography, household income level and level of educational attainment (%)**



\*Excluding current students since their highest level is not yet determinable  
Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

**Figure 13. “Transited” youth by sub-category and by sex, urban/rural geography, household income level and level of educational attainment (%)**



\*Excluding current students since their highest level is not yet determinable  
Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

Most of the transited young people have attained a satisfactory self-employment job (63.7 per cent), 27.1 per cent are in stable employment and the remaining 9.2 per cent are in a job that is satisfactory but temporary (calculated from Table 42). Certainly there are job quality implications for the youth in the various sub-categories of completed transition. The young person may have stopped moving around between labour market categories, but s/he has not necessarily attained quality employment. Figure 13 allows us to determine which characteristics are more likely to result in a transition to the most advantageous category of transited to stable employment compared to the second-best category of transited to satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment.

Young men who have completed their transition to the labour market have a slightly higher likelihood to attain stable employment than young women (29.0 and 25.4 per cent, respectively). The share of transited youth in stable employment is lesser than youth in satisfactory self-employment in both urban and rural areas, but there is a higher share of youth in the latter category in rural areas and urban youth have a higher chance to attain stable employment (38.7 per cent compared to 23.6 per cent of rural “transited” youth). Similarly, transited youth have a greater tendency to be in satisfactory self-employment regardless of household income level, but the likelihood to end up in satisfactory temporary employment shows an inverse relationship to the level of household wealth with poorer household having a greater tendency to have youth working in satisfactory temporary work (most likely seasonal agricultural work). The more dramatic results come with the education level: The higher the educational attainment of the youth, the more likely s/he is to attain stable employment over satisfactory self- or temporary employment. Nearly three-quarters (71.9 per cent) of transited youth with a tertiary degree are in stable employment compared to 28.1 per cent in satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment.

Finally, we can look at which occupations young people have obtained in their transition. Comparing the occupations of the transited youth to that of the general employed youth population can provide information on which occupations are the better providers of stable and satisfactory jobs. Table 43 shows the sub-categories by occupation. The distribution by occupations of transited youth follows perfectly the descending order of occupations of the overall employed youth population; most transited youth are employed as skilled agricultural workers (40.7 per cent) similar to the broader group while the smallest share of both groups are youth in the armed forces and working as managers.



**Table 43. Distribution of transited youth by sub-category and occupation**

	Total employed youth	Total transited youth	"Transited" youth		
			Stable employment	Satisfactory self-employment	Satisfactory temporary employment
Managers	1.2	1.3	3.2	0.3	2.0
Professionals	3.5	3.7	11.6	0.2	4.4
Technicians and associate professionals	1.2	1.3	2.9	0.5	1.5
Clerks	1.6	1.5	4.5	0.0	3.2
Service and sales workers	21.7	22.4	11.5	28.7	11.6
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	42.8	40.7	7.9	60.3	1.4
Craft and related trade workers	9.3	9.7	16.3	6.5	12.5
Plant and machine operator and assemblers	5.2	5.5	10.9	1.6	16.5
Elementary occupations	13.2	13.6	30.4	1.7	46.5
Armed forces	0.3	0.3	0.8	0.1	0.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

There is significant difference in the occupational distribution of youth who have attained stable employment and youth engaged in satisfactory self-employment or satisfactory temporary employment. Youth in stable employment are primarily engaged in elementary occupations (30.4 per cent) as are youth in temporary self-employment, but the sub-category is the only to capture a significant share of the higher-skilled occupations – professionals (11.6 per cent), technicians and associate professionals (2.9 per cent) and managers (3.2 per cent). The sub-category of satisfactory self-employment is dominated by youth in skilled agriculture work (60.3 per cent) and services and sales workers (28.7 per cent).

#### 4.4 Transition paths and durations of transition

Another means of looking at the school-to-work transition is through flows, identifying the labour market category held by the young person prior to transiting to stable or satisfactory employment. In Cambodia, the largest share of transited youth made a direct transition (45.3 per cent) (Table 44). This means they had no intermediary spells before acquiring their current job, which is classified as either stable in contract terms or satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment. One-quarter (28.5 per cent) of transited youth came from the category of "other employment", and 19.8 per cent were previously contributing (unpaid) family workers. Only 4.9 per cent of transited youth came from inactivity, 1.4 per cent from self-employment and 0.1 per cent from unemployment.

Of those who moved directly to the transited position, 32.2 per cent transited directly to stable employment and 67.8 per cent transited to satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment. *One-quarter (28.4 per cent) of directly transited youth completed the transition before the age of 15 years.*

**Table 44. Distribution of transited youth by previous activity**

	Number	(%)
Direct transition	1,146,143	45.3
Flowed from unemployment	2,030*	0.1
Flowed from self-employment	34,959*	1.4
Flowed from contributing (unpaid) family work	501,648	19.8
Flowed from other employment**	721,736	28.5
Flowed from inactivity	124,909	4.9
Total	2,531,426	100.0

Notes: Excluding current students

\*\*"Other employment" includes non-satisfactory temporary employment for those who transited to stable or satisfactory self- or temporary employment, and self-employment as employer or wage and salaried worker for those who transited to satisfactory self- or temporary employment.

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

Table 45 presents some transition path indicators which provide a more detailed picture of how youth arrived to the transition stage. Excluding the youth who transitioned directly to stable or satisfactory employment, the path to transition involved, on average, 1 (1.4) intermediary labour market activities – whether unemployment, employment or inactivity – prior to completing the labour market transition. The typical young person in the country experienced “only” one spell of temporary employment in their transition path and one spell of self-employment, but the spells of both were long, averaging 30.4 months or 2.5 years for temporary employment and much longer, 54.7 months or 4.5 years, for self-employment. The average young transited male spent longer in temporary employment than the young female (37.6 months compared to 26.7 months), while the average young transited female spent slightly longer in self-employment than young males (55.2 months compared to 54.0 months).

**Table 45. Indicators on the path of transition (for “transited” youth) by sex**

	Total	Male	Female
Average duration of transition, excluding direct transits (months)	63.7 months	58.5 months	66.3 months
Average duration of transition, including direct transits (months)	9.8 months	6.5 months	12.7 months
Average duration of transition to stable employment (months)	10.1 months	7.2 months	13.0 months
Average duration of transition to satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment (months)	9.7 months	6.1 months	12.6 months
Average number of intermediary activities	1.4	1.4	1.4
Average number of unemployment spells	*	*	*
Average duration of unemployment spells (months)	*	*	*
Average number of temporary employment spells	1.0	1.0	1.0
Average duration of temporary employment spells (months)	30.4 months	37.6 months	26.7 months
Average number of spells of self-employment	1.0	1.0	1.0
Average duration of spells of self-employment (months)	54.7 months	54.0 months	55.2 months

\*insignificant number of observations

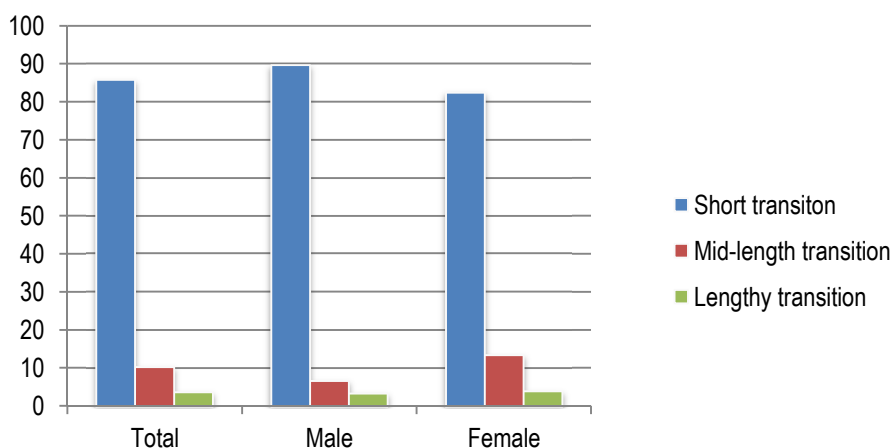
Note: Excluding youth who made a direct transition except where indicated

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

When one includes the young people who transitioned directly to stable and/or satisfactory employment to generate an average duration of transition, the results show the duration of the transition period to be less than one year (9.8 months). Removing the number of youth who transitioned directly from the calculation, however, reveals a very different picture. The path to transition was not especially circuitous for those who did not move directly to stable and/or satisfactory work (with 1.4 spells of intermediary activities), but it was extremely long at 63.7 months, or more than five years. The time spent in transition averaged nearly eight months longer for young women compared to young men (66.3 and 58.5 months, respectively).

The ILO has also developed a classification system for the duration of the transition period of youth who have completed the transition.<sup>16</sup> Given the prevalence of direct transitions (45.3 per cent), the large share of transitioned youth who undertook a short transition (85.8 per cent) is not too surprising (Figure 14). Only 3.8 per cent of transitioned youth spent a long time to reach the current status in stable or satisfactory employment. The difference between the sexes is negligible.

**Figure 14. Classification of duration of transition of youth who have completed the transition by sex (%)**



Note: Duration of transition is calculated for non-students only.

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

<sup>16</sup> A **short transition** is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent either: (1) a direct transition; or (2) a spell (or cumulative spells) of stable or satisfactory employment with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or (3) a spell (or cumulative spells) of employment of less than or equal to one year with no spell of unemployment or inactivity where the job(s) held is classified as non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment; or (4) a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of less than or equal to three months; or (5) a spell of inactivity of less than or equal to one year. A **mid-length transition** is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent either: (1) a spell (or cumulative spells) of non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment of between one and two years with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or (2) a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of between three months and one year; or (3) a spell of inactivity longer than one year. A **lengthy transition** is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent either: (1) a spell (or cumulative spells) of non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment of two years or over with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or (2) a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of one year or over.

**Table 46. Average duration of transition for youth still in transition by educational level and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	Average duration	Number	Average duration	Number	Average duration
None or pre-primary school	114,876	123.7 months	36,111	118.0 months	78,765	126.3 months
Primary school	283,344	89.0 months	93,576	72.1 months	189,768	97.4 months
Secondary school	138,171	57.4 months	38,013	40.0 months	100,158	64.0 months
University or higher	11,583	21.5 months	5,581	24.6 months	6,002	18.7 months
Total "in transition" youth population	550,798	87.2 months	176,105	74.5 months	374,693	93.3 months

Note: Duration of transition is calculated for non-students only.

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2012.

Unfortunately, the youth who remain in transition are likely to find themselves staying within the category for an extremely long period of time. Our data show that the youth remaining in transition have already spent, on average, seven years (87.2 months) within the category (meaning they have been unemployed, in non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment, or an inactive non-student with plans to work or any combination of the three categories) (Table 46). In fact, given the long periods in which the young people in the country are seen to remain in transition, the conclusion is that these youth are highly unlikely to attain a completed transition to stable or satisfactory work before they reach adulthood (or age 30 years as the upper limit of the SWTS age band).

We can also look at the average current duration of transition for youth who are still in transition by educational level. As shown in Table 46, young people who have higher educational levels are experiencing shorter transition periods than those with lower levels of completed education. The difference can be quite grim, with those with education below the primary level spending an average of 123.7 months in transition compared to 21.5 months for those with university degrees. In addition, the average length of transition for male youth is shorter than periods for female youth, except for those who completed university education.

## 5. Policy implications

It is a recognized fact that youth employment is a precondition for poverty eradication and sustainable development. Across different regions of the world, data reveals that young people suffer higher unemployment levels and lower job quality than the rest of the adult population (see, for example, ILO, 2013). In addition, in times of economic crisis young people are the first to be fired and the last to be hired. The failure to find decent employment for young people tends to have lasting effects on occupational patterns and incomes over their life course.

Identifying the nature and extent of the youth employment challenge at the country level is a prerequisite to formulating evidence-based and integrated policies and programmatic interventions. With detailed information on bottlenecks to job creation and absorption of the cohorts of young labour market entrants, governments will be better prepared to design effective policy responses. Facilitating an improved school-to-work transition (or work-to-school transition for youth previously engaged in child labour) is a precondition to helping young people overcome the difficulties in finding and maintaining decent jobs.

The analysis of the SWTS in Cambodia highlights issues of low-quality employment, low, but improving, levels of educational attainment, insufficiencies in public employment services, etc. The evidence from the survey pointed out clearly that Cambodia needs a vision for the future of its labour market and a strategy to improve its labour market outcomes, particularly for youth. Since youth employment is highly dependent on the general employment situation of the country, it is critical to prioritize employment in national policy making and make it central to economic and social policies.

The Government of Cambodia is already active in the area of employment promotion. Specifically, the National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP) Update 2009-2013 mentions a systematic policy “to create jobs and ensure better working conditions for workers and employees; improved work conditions” and such themes are bound to be continued in the National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP) 2014-18 which is currently being drafted. The Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training (MLVT) has been providing employment placement services to assist jobseekers in finding employment in private sector businesses in the country and overseas. The ILO has been working with the Government of Cambodia in formulating a national employment policy with a focus on young women and men (NEP) since 2010. The NEP will integrate a national skills policy and strategy. At a tripartite workshop on the NEP held in May 2013, after a presentation and discussion of the preliminary SWTS results, participants agreed that the conclusions of the SWTS should be addressed in the NEP.

The 2012 SWTS and future dataset for 2014 can make a significant contribution to providing policy-makers with information to initiate, monitor and evaluate the numerous policies and programmes outlined in the forthcoming NEP and current policy documents. In particular, the following main areas of actions should be closely followed:

1. **Design macroeconomic policy to promote job growth, especially within the services sector.** The results have shown that a large number of unemployed youth are hoping to gain work as “professionals”, while currently the occupation group takes a low ranking among currently employed youth. There is a clear a gap in the supply and demand of young “professionals”. The young person seeking work as a shop worker, on the other hand, is likely to find it less difficult to find work. Demand side solutions are needed to generate additional jobs for young professionals. This requires coordinated policy efforts to support aggregate demand through pro-employment macroeconomic policies and to foster growth engines through an appropriate balance of export-driven growth and expansion of domestic markets (ILO, 2013, chapter 6). See Box 4 for some general approaches in this area.

**Box 4. Approaches to boost aggregate demand and promote youth employment**

Policies that promote employment-centred and sustainable growth are vital if young people are to be given a fair chance at a decent job. Youth labour market outcomes are closely related to overall employment trends but are more sensitive to the business cycle. A boost in aggregate demand is key to addressing the youth employment crisis as this will create more job opportunities for young people. ILO research shows that macroeconomic policies can influence youth employment by:

1. encouraging economic diversification and productive transformation;
2. reducing macroeconomic volatility by engaging in timely and targeted counter-cyclical policies;
3. loosening constraints on private sector growth, with a particular emphasis on access to finance for micro, small and medium-sized enterprises;
4. focusing on targeted demand-side interventions with particular impact on youth employment (e.g. labour intensive infrastructure works, public employment programmes, wage and training subsidies); and
5. ensuring adequate and predictable funding for targeted youth employment interventions.

Source: ILO, 2013, Box 8.

Sectoral policy is an important aspect of macroeconomic policy and the Government of Cambodia is well aware of this. Within the Cambodia 2030 Vision and its integrated

Industrial Development Strategy, the following sectors are likely to be targeted for further development: assembly/electronics processing, ICT, software, agro-processing, and woods and furniture. It would be crucial for the employment and skills development strategy to align with such sectoral strategy.

2. **Educational access for all and prevention of early school leaving.** The report clearly describes the need for enhancing employability among young men and women. More education is shown to make for a better labour market outcome and easier labour market transition. At the same time, the early ages of transition shown in the results, reflecting the early years of leaving school, are worrisome in the country; a large share of young persons with low levels of education and lacking many of the skills required by the labour market will stall the productive transformation of the country.

Two main policies and programmes can address this. The first relates to expanding the investment in education, especially in rural areas, and expanding access to education and training to the most disadvantaged youth excluded by costs. The second is improving the educational quality and addressing the skills mismatch to allow young males and females to better meet the needs of the market. More specifically, recommendations for policymaking and programme formulation are: i) provide core skills to unskilled youth with low levels of formal education, ii) involve employers in identification of skills standards and training needs, iii) link training and work following good examples in the region, iii) establish innovative systems for on-the-job training and youth apprenticeships, and iv) advocate for quality education, vocational training and lifelong learning.

3. **Improve conditions of work by ensuring equal treatment for and rights of young workers.** The survey results show that young people continue to suffer from decent work deficits and low-quality jobs. Most working youth are in irregular employment in the informal economy. Labour laws and collective agreements, including through sanctioning mechanisms, can protect young workers and facilitate their transitions into stable and decent employment. In parallel, a system of incentives to encourage the registration of enterprises is needed, while at the same time providing incentives for employers to invest in the improvement of productivity and conditions of work of young people.
4. **Support employers in taking active part in the creation of decent jobs for young people.** Employers may take on young people when subsidies are offered in the way of tax breaks or other financial incentives, although the very high levels of informality among enterprises in the country can hamper the effectiveness of such a strategy. Perhaps more can be done to make the business case for employing young people by highlighting how this impacts on organizations' competitiveness. Helping employers to link investment in young people and also training of their young staff to their business strategy is an area that could be expanded.
5. Very few young people using formal means of finding work: **enhance the role of institutions that deal with employment/unemployment issues and improve the collection and dissemination of labour market information.** Young people mainly use informal methods to search for jobs. Employers also use informal networking to recruit young persons. Given this situation, increasing labour demand without improving information and access to the labour market will do little to help integrate disadvantaged youth who lack personal connections to the labour market.

Labour market information, job search assistance, vocational counselling and career guidance should be promoted in Cambodia to assist and orient young persons. Greater investment in employment offices and agencies, including the National Employment Agency and also private agencies, can help to improve the connection between young people and enterprises. Specific recommendations for policy-making and programme formulation are: i) build a knowledge base about youth employment in Cambodia, ii) continue to conduct school-to-work transition surveys (SWTS) in Cambodia, iii) analyse

and use data from the Cambodian Federation of Employers and Business Associations (CAMFEBA) surveys of employers and youth,<sup>17</sup> iv) develop links to youth information on websites developed by the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training, v) prepare a “pocket guide” for youth employment with information about job search, resume writing, interview techniques, training institutions, required licenses, workers’ rights, useful websites and other information, and vi) introduce job fairs for young people.

6. **Promote decent work in the agriculture sector and among low-wage occupations.** Low skilled youth in elementary occupations and in agriculture are unlikely to have a stable contract or are the most likely to be dissatisfied with their work. They have little prospect to improve their incomes in the future. Many of the low-paid youth in informal employment are likely to be engaged in these two occupations. The enforcement of labour laws and collective agreements could help to protect young workers in the sectors consisting predominantly of low skilled labour. At the same time, there is a need to establish a system of minimum wage which covers all workers, including youth.
7. **Facilitate financial inclusion of youth and access to credit and business support services to young entrepreneurs.** Access to finance is consistently listed as a major constraint for enterprises to expand their capacity via investments that lead to the creation of new jobs (Matsumoto, Hengge and Islam, 2012). This is particularly important in countries where the majority of establishments are micro- and small enterprises. The results of the SWTS show that more than half (51.6 per cent) of self-employed youth in the country have named insufficient access to capital as their most significant challenge. Consequently, measures aiming at improving financial inclusion are likely to stimulate labour demand and to thereby generate new employment opportunities for young people. At the same time, young entrepreneurs will need more than financial support to stay in business. Policies and programmes to strengthen business development services for young people and establish mentoring programmes in which an established company provides support to a youth business are also needed.
8. **Bipartite and tripartite cooperation on youth employment can yield better employment outcomes.** Establishing an enabling environment for the successful implementation of employment and labour market interventions for young people requires bipartite and tripartite cooperation. This is confirmed by the results of evaluations of youth employment programmes. The government, employers’ organizations and trade unions of Cambodia have a role to play by fulfilling their own specific mandates and through concerted and joint efforts for the promotion of decent work for youth in the country.

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<sup>17</sup> See CAMFEBA and ILO (2008).

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## Annex 1. Definitions of labour market statistics

1. The following units are defined according to the standards of the International Conference of Labour Statisticians:
  - a. The **employed** include all persons of 15 years of age or more who during a week of reference:
    - Worked for wage or profit (in cash or in kind) for at least one hour;
    - Were temporary absent from work (because of illness, leave, studies, a break of the activity of the firm, etc.), but had a formal attachment to their job;
    - Performed some work without pay for family gain.
  - b. The **unemployed** include all persons age 15 years and over who meet the following three conditions during the week of reference:
    - They did not work (according to the above mentioned definition);
    - Were actively searching for a job or took concrete action to start their own business;
    - Were available to start work within the next two weeks following the reference week.
  - c. The persons neither included in the employed nor in the unemployed are classified as **not in the labour force (also known as inactive)**.
2. The International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE) categorises the employed population on the basis of their explicit or implicit contract of employment, as follows:
  - a. **Employees** (also wage and salaried workers) are all those workers who hold the type of jobs defined as "paid employment jobs", where the incumbents hold explicit (written or oral) or implicit employment contracts that give them a basic remuneration that is not directly dependent upon the revenue of the unit for which they work.
  - b. **Employers** are those workers who, working on their own account or with one or a few partners, hold the type of jobs defined as a "self-employment jobs" (i.e. jobs where the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profits derived from the goods and services produced), and, in this capacity, have engaged, on a continuous basis, one or more persons to work for them as employee(s).
  - c. **Own-account workers** are those workers who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, hold the type of jobs defined as a "self-employment jobs", and have not engaged on a continuous basis any employees to work for them.
  - d. **Contributing (unpaid) family workers** are those workers who hold "self-employment jobs" as own-account workers in a market-oriented establishment operated by a related person living in the same household.
3. The employed are also classified by their main **occupation**, in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-08).
4. **Household** is every family or other community of persons declaring to live together and jointly spend their income to satisfy the basic necessities of life. The concept of household includes members present in the place where the household resides, as well as individuals who are temporary absent and living elsewhere, including abroad, for business, education or other, as long as their residence in the foreign country does not exceed one year. A person living alone can also qualify as a household ("single household") if she does not already belong to another unit. The single household can reside in a separate or shared

apartment, and it will be considered as an independent unit as long as the household's income is not shared with other residents. Collective households such as prisons and institutions and their members are not observed in the LFS.

5. **The reporting period**, to which the questions for the economic activity are related, is the week before the week of interview (52 reporting weeks throughout the year).
6. The following units are also defined within the SWTS analysis but are outside of the scope of those defined within the international framework of labour market statistics seen in item 1 above:
  - a. **Relaxed unemployment** – a person without work and available to work (relaxing the job seeking criteria of item 1b above).
  - b. **Labour underutilization rate** – the sum of shares of youth in irregular employment, unemployed (relaxed definition) and youth neither in the labour force nor in education/training (inactive non-students) as a percentage of the youth population.
  - c. **Regular employment** – the sum of employees with a contract (oral or written) of 12 months or more in duration and employers; the indicators is therefore a mixes information on status in employment and contract situations.
  - d. **Satisfactory employment** – based on self-assessment of the job-holder; implies a job that the respondent considers to “fit” to his desired employment path at that moment in time.
  - e. **Stable employment** – employees with a contract (oral or written) of 12 months or more in duration.
  - f. **Temporary employment** – employees with a contract (oral or written) of less than 12 months in duration.

## Annex II. Methodology for the school-to-work transition survey

### Questionnaire development

The questionnaire for the Cambodia School-to-Work Transition Survey 2012 (SWTS) was developed based on the guidelines of the ILO Youth Employment Programme and the “Work for Youth” Project modelled SWTS questionnaires. The questionnaire asked youth aged 15-29 questions according to seven main sections. These sections included general information about their personal, family and households, information about their formal education/training, activity history and their aspirations. It also included detailed information about the experiences of young people in each of the five target groups: in-school youth, jobseekers, young workers, young self-employed and own-account workers, and youth who are neither in school nor in the labour market.

### Sample design and selection

#### *Sampling frame*

The original sample design proposed by the ILO consultant had envisaged a total sample of 160 Enumeration Areas (EAs), of which 123 would be rural and 37 urban. With 16 households were selected in each EA, and this would have given an overall sample size of 2,560 households. These sample EAs were selected from the sample EAs of Cambodia Labour Force and Child Labour 2011-12 as a sampling frame shown in Table 1.

According to the sample selection, the SWTS in Cambodia 2012 was conducted in ten Capital/Provinces namely: Phnom Penh, Banteay Meanchey, Battambang, Kampong Cham, Kampot, Koh Kong, Prey Veng, Preah Sihanouk, Siem Reap, and Takeo, with a representative sample of 2,560 households within 160 EAs (see Table 2). The survey collected information on various characteristics of youth aged 15 to 29.

#### *Sample design*

The sample design for the survey was a stratified two-stage probability sample where the first stage units were enumeration areas (EAs) designated as the Primary Sampling Units (PSUs), and the second stage units as the Second Sampling Units (SSUs) were the households.

#### 1. The first stage sampling selection

In this stage, enumeration areas (EAs) were selected with a Systematic Random Sampling method. For the sample urban areas in each province, all numbers of urban areas were selected from the sampling frame as shown in Table 1. For the sample rural areas in each province, the method of Systematic Random Sampling with random start was used.

#### 2. The second stage sampling selection

A fixed sample size of 16 households in each EA was selected by using the method of Systematic Random Sampling with a random start.

The procedure of selecting households by Systematic Random Sampling with equal probability in brief is given below:

Let  $H$  be the number of households in the frame of households in an EA and allocated number of households to be  $h$ .

Calculate sampling interval,  $I = H/h$  up to two places of decimal.

Take a random number between 1 and I. Call it R (Random start).

Then the set of selected households are:

$$R, R+1*I, R+2*I, \dots, R+i*I, \dots, R+(h-1)*I$$

Note: (i) If any  $(R+i*I) > H$  then take  $[(R+i*I) - H]$

(ii) If  $(R+i*I)$  has a decimal part, round off it to the nearest integer.

**Table 1. Number of sample EAs for LFCLS 2011-12 by province, urban and rural (as a sampling frame)**

Province code	Province	Urban	Rural	Total
1	Banteay Meanchey	2	28	30
2	Battambang	4	26	30
3	Kampong Cham	4	51	55
4	Kampong Chhnang	1	29	30
5	Kampong Speu	3	42	45
6	Kanpong Thom	1	29	30
7	Kampot	1	24	25
8	Kandal	2	33	35
9	Koh Kong	1	9	10
10	Kratie	1	14	15
11	Mondul Kiri	1	9	10
12	Phnom Penh	20	12	32
13	Preah Vihear	1	14	15
14	Prey Veng	1	37	38
15	Pursat	1	24	25
16	Rattanak Kiri	1	14	15
17	Siem Reap	2	33	35
18	Preah Sihanouk	1	9	10
19	Stung Treng	1	11	12
20	Svay Rieng	1	29	30
21	Takeo	1	37	38
22	Otdar Meanchey	1	14	15
23	Kep	1	9	10
24	Pailin	1	9	10
	<b>Total</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>546</b>	<b>600</b>

**Table 2. Number of Sample EAs for SWTS 2012 by province, urban and rural**

Province code	Province	Urban	Rural	Total
01	Banteay Meanchey	2	13	15
02	Battambang	4	12	16
03	Kampong Cham	4	23	27
07	Kampot	1	11	12
09	Koh Kong	1	6	7
12	Phnom Penh	20	8	28
14	Prey Veng	1	15	16
17	Siem Reap	2	14	16
18	Preah Sihanouk	1	6	7
21	Takeo	1	15	16
	<b>Total</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>160</b>

### **Data collection**

#### *Pilot test of SWTS questionnaires*

Before going to the field for the pilot test, 8 staff received a three-day training on how to carry out data collection from 29 to 31 May 2012 at the National Institute of Statistics (NIS). The training consisted of 2 days of training, and 1 day for field-testing of the draft questionnaire and for reviewing the field test. Observed difficulties and problems during the field test served as additional inputs for further revisions and improvements of the questionnaire, and better understanding of the data collection process.

The data collection of the pilot test was conducted from 12 to 16 June 2012. The EA map from the population census of 2008, the household listing form and the draft questionnaire were used in the pilot test.

First, an EA was selected where a leader of village lived, and an updated listing of all the households in the selected EA was made. Depending on the completed household listing sheet in the selected EA, a probability systematic random sampling of 8 households was used. Eight sample households were randomly selected from all households having members aged 15-29 years old.

#### *Survey of SWTS*

Training programmes were arranged for survey supervisors and enumerators for the Cambodia SWTS 2012. Before carrying out the field work of the main survey, 40 staff members received a four-day training on how to carry out data collection from 16 to 19 July 2012 at the NIS. The training consisted of 2 days of training on the survey, 1 day for field-test, and 1 day for reviewing the field test. NIS coordinators and the ILO consultant also participated in the training in order to provide their experience and offer advice regarding complicated and difficult questions, or unclear definitions. Observed difficulties and problems during the field test served as additional inputs for further revisions and improvement understanding of the data collection process.

The field data collection operation was conducted by eight teams and each team consisted of one supervisor and four enumerators. The fieldwork was carried out for 25 days, from 22 July to 15 August 2012. One team covered 20 EAs for data collection.

Using the selected sample village provided, the enumerators first visited the sample villages, and selected one sample Enumeration Area (EA) where the village leader lived. They contacted the local authorities (village leader) to inform them about the survey and to

ask for necessary assistance. Sixteen households having youth members aged 15-29 years were randomly selected by systematic random sampling method. The field supervisors ensured that the sixteen households were properly selected. Then all youth members living in the selected households were interviewed by enumerators. The field supervisors also checked each filled questionnaire for their completeness.

### **Data processing**

Upon submission of the completed questionnaires to NIS, the questionnaires were processed. The training of data processing staff (data coding and data entry) was carried out for four days from 9-12 August 2012. After training, the editing of the completed questionnaires was done manually starting from 13 August 2012. Before entering the data, all completed questionnaires were thoroughly checked. Data entry was done directly from the questionnaires after finishing data editing. The data entry was done by trained personnel. The data was initially entered in CSPro format, which was converted to SPSS for analysis.

## Annex III. Additional statistical tables

Table A1. Distribution of youth population by use of financial instruments

Financial instruments	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
None	4,287,125	91.1	1,965,601	92.3	2,321,524	90.1
Business loans	113,866	2.4	41,869	2.0	71,997	2.8
Emergency loans	44,893	1.0	15,500	0.7	29,393	1.1
Consumption loans	90,332	1.9	32,159	1.5	58,173	2.3
Savings	158,290	3.4	70,572	3.3	87,719	3.4
Insurance	-	-	-	-	-	-
Remittances/money transfer services	7,352	0.2	1,686	0.1	5,666	0.2
Other services	3,503	0.1	1,752	0.1	1,752	0.1
Total youth population	4,705,361	100.0	2,129,139	100.0	2,576,224	100.0
<b>Urban areas</b>						
None	1,080,830	23	485,160	22.8	595,670	23.1
Business loans	23,710	0.5	8,719	0.4	14,990	0.6
Emergency loans	11,890	0.3	4,798	0.2	7,092	0.3
Consumption loans	9,279	0.2	2,744	0.1	6,536	0.3
Savings	41,574	0.9	23,815	1.1	17,759	0.7
Insurance	-	-	-	-	-	-
Remittances/money transfer services	742	0	-	-	742	0
Other services	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total youth population	1,168,025	25	525,236	25	642,789	25
<b>Rural areas</b>						
None	3,206,295	90.6	1,480,441	92.3	1,725,854	89.3
Business loans	90,156	2.5	33,150	2.1	57,006	2.9
Emergency loans	33,004	0.9	10,703	0.7	22,301	1.2
Consumption loans	81,053	2.3	29,415	1.8	51,638	2.7
Savings	116,716	3.3	46,757	2.9	69,960	3.6
Insurance	-	-	-	-	-	-
Remittances/money transfer services	6,610	0.2	1,686	0.1	4,924	0.3
Other services	3,503	0.1	1,752	0.1	1,752	0.1
Total youth population	3,537,337	100.0	1,603,904	100.0	1,933,435	100.0



**Table A2. Distribution of youth by source of financial services**

Source financial services	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Bank	142,017	34	60,260	36.8	81,757	32.1
Insurance company	1,752	0.4	-	-	1,752	0.7
Microfinance Institution	103,583	24.8	35,919	22.0	67,664	26.6
Money transfer operators	94	0.0	-	-	94	0
Informal financial operators	30,897	7.4	12,195	7.5	18,702	7.3
Friends and relatives	112,224	26.8	48,018	29.4	64,207	25.2
Other service	27,671	6.6	7,148	4.4	20,523	8.1
Total	418,238	100.0	163,540	100.0	254,699	100.0
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Bank	36,169	41.5	20,713	51.7	15,456	32.8
Insurance company	-	-	-	-	-	-
Microfinance Institution	11,742	13.5	5,908	14.7	5,834	12.4
Money transfer operators	-	-	-	-	-	-
Informal financial operators	13,824	15.9	4,995	12.5	8,828	18.7
Friends and relatives	21,013	24.1	8,459	21.1	12,553	26.6
Other service	4,448	5.1	-	-	4,448	9.4
Total	87,196	100.0	40,075	100.0	47,119	100.0
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Bank	105,848	32.0	39,547	32.0	66,302	31.9
Insurance company	1,752	0.5	-	-	1,752	0.8
Microfinance Institution	91,841	27.7	30,010	24.3	61,830	29.8
Money transfer operators	94	0.0	-	-	94	0.0
Informal financial operators	17,073	5.2	7,199	5.8	9,874	4.8
Friends and relatives	91,212	27.6	39,558	32.0	51,653	24.9
Other service	23,223	7.0	7,148	5.8	16,076	7.7
Total	331,043	100.0	123,462	100.0	207,581	100.0

**Table A3. Share of employed youth by union membership**

Member	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Member	148,594	4.3	49,698	3.1	98,895	5.3
Non-member	3,336,205	95.7	1,571,555	96.9	1,764,651	94.7
Total employed youth	3,484,799	100	1,621,253	100	1,863,546	100
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Member	63,713	8.3	31,191	8.7	32,521	7.9
Non-member	707,619	91.7	327,621	91.3	379,998	92.1
Total employed youth	771,332	100.0	358,812	100.0	412,519	100.0
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Member	84,881	3.1	18,507	1.5	66,374	4.6
Non-member	2,628,586	96.9	1,243,933	98.5	1,384,652	95.4
Total employed youth	2,713,467	100.0	1,262,440	100.0	1,451,026	100.0

**Table A4. Distribution of employed youth by company size**

Number of workers	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Less than 5 workers	2,414,452	69.3	1,057,362	65.2	1,357,090	72.8
Between 5 and 9 workers	399,562	11.5	223,464	13.8	176,098	9.4
Between 10 and 19 workers	302,983	8.7	179,009	11.0	123,975	6.7
Between 20 and 49 workers	153,276	4.4	82,829	5.1	70,447	3.8
Between 50 and 499 workers	117,809	3.4	53,794	3.3	64,015	3.4
Above 500 workers	96,717	2.8	24,795	1.5	71,922	3.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>3,484,799</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,621,253</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,863,547</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Less than 5 workers	443,446	57.5	176,456	49.2	266,990	64.7
Between 5 and 9 workers	80,348	10.4	50,515	14.1	29,833	7.2
Between 10 and 19 workers	80,525	10.4	50,019	13.9	30,506	7.4
Between 20 and 49 workers	54,157	7.0	34,038	9.5	20,120	4.9
Between 50 and 499 workers	58,496	7.6	29,333	8.2	29,163	7.1
Above 500 workers	54,359	7.0	18,452	5.1	35,908	8.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>771,331</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>358,813</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>412,520</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Less than 5 workers	1,971,006	72.6	880,906	69.8	1,090,100	75.1
Between 5 and 9 workers	319,214	11.8	172,949	13.7	146,265	10.1
Between 10 and 19 workers	222,458	8.2	128,990	10.2	93,468	6.4
Between 20 and 49 workers	99,118	3.7	48,791	3.9	50,327	3.5
Between 50 and 499 workers	59,313	2.2	24,461	1.9	34,852	2.4
Above 500 workers	42,357	1.6	6,343	0.5	36,014	2.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>2,713,466</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,262,440</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,451,026</b>	<b>100.0</b>

**Table A5. Distribution of employed youth by satisfaction with current job**

Satisfaction	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Very satisfied	1,336,560	38.4	593,295	36.6	743,265	39.9
Somewhat satisfied	1,801,264	51.7	861,191	53.1	940,073	50.4
Somewhat unsatisfied	301,923	8.7	140,352	8.7	161,571	8.7
Very unsatisfied	45,052	1.3	26,415	1.6	18,637	1.0
<b>Total employed youth</b>	<b>3,484,799</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,621,253</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,863,546</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Very satisfied	382,294	49.6	167,917	46.8	214,377	52.0
Somewhat satisfied	342,512	44.4	163,815	45.7	178,697	43.3
Somewhat unsatisfied	38,452	5.0	22,571	6.3	15,881	3.8
Very unsatisfied	8,075	1.0	4,510	1.3	3,564	0.9
<b>Total employed youth</b>	<b>771,333</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>358,813</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>412,519</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Very satisfied	954,266	35.2	425,378	33.7	528,888	36.4
Somewhat satisfied	1,458,752	53.8	697,376	55.2	761,376	52.5
Somewhat unsatisfied	263,471	9.7	117,781	9.3	145,690	10.0
Very unsatisfied	36,978	1.4	21,905	1.7	15,073	1.0
<b>Total employed youth</b>	<b>2,713,467</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,262,440</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,451,027</b>	<b>100.0</b>

**Table A6. Distribution of employed youth by receipt of job-oriented training**

Main field of training	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Vocational	18,593	66.1	9,624	60	8,969	74.1
Business development/entrepreneurship training	2,968	10.5	1,686	10.5	1,282	10.6
Foreign language training	1,752	6.2	-	-	1,752	14.5
IT training	-	-	-	-	-	-
Accounting/book-keeping	1,376	4.9	1,282	8	94	0.8
Health and safety	1,686	6	1,686	10.5	-	-
Compliance with procedures or regulations	362	1.3	362	2.3	-	-
Other	1,405	5	1,405	8.8	-	-
<b>Total</b>	<b>28,142</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>16,045</b>	<b>100.1</b>	<b>12,097</b>	<b>100.0</b>

**Table A7. Employed youth by willingness to migrate for employment purposes**

Active steps	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
None	1,844,323	52.9	790,662	48.8	1,053,661	56.5
Would move to capital city	662,594	19.0	334,779	20.6	327,816	17.6
Would move to a town/city	404,553	11.6	183,354	11.3	221,198	11.9
Would move to a rural area	254,655	7.3	126,806	7.8	127,849	6.9
Would move to another country	262,960	7.5	154,208	9.5	108,752	5.8
Do not know	55,714	1.6	31,443	1.9	24,270	1.3
<b>Total employed youth</b>	<b>3,484,799</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,621,252</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,863,546</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Urban areas</b>						
None	471,846	61.2	201,063	56.0	270,783	65.6
Would move to capital city	167,746	21.7	93,175	26.0	74,571	18.1
Would move to a town/city	84,131	10.9	40,339	11.2	43,792	10.6
Would move to a rural area	12,383	1.6	1,660	0.5	10,723	2.6
Would move to another country	28,519	3.7	17,479	4.9	11,040	2.7
Do not know	6,708	0.9	5,097	1.4	1,611	0.4
<b>Total employed youth</b>	<b>771,333</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>358,813</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>412,520</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Rural areas</b>						
None	1,372,478	50.6	589,600	46.7	782,878	54.0
Would move to capital city	494,849	18.2	241,603	19.1	253,245	17.5
Would move to a town/city	320,422	11.8	143,016	11.3	177,406	12.2
Would move to a rural area	242,272	8.9	125,146	9.9	117,126	8.1
Would move to another country	234,441	8.6	136,729	10.8	97,712	6.7
Do not know	49,006	1.8	26,347	2.1	22,660	1.6
<b>Total employed youth</b>	<b>2,713,468</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,262,441</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,451,027</b>	<b>100.0</b>

**Table A8. Distribution of self-employed youth (own-account workers and employers) by problems in running the business**

Most important problem	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Insufficient financial resources	338,939	51.6	126,776	46.7	212,162	55.0
Insufficient quality of staff	3,033	0.5	1,752	0.6	1,282	0.3
Insufficient (personal) business expertise	97,356	14.8	42,464	15.6	54,892	14.2
Legal regulations	1,686	0.3	1,686	0.6	-	-
Shortages in raw materials	27,284	4.1	23,623	8.7	3,661	0.9
Labour shortage	59,388	9.0	25,963	9.6	33,426	8.7
Political uncertainties	-	-	-	-	-	-
Access to technology	17,764	2.7	6,741	2.5	11,023	2.9
Product development	5,812	0.9	2,308	0.9	3,503	0.9
Competition in the market	87,079	13.2	30,176	11.1	56,903	14.7
Other	19,117	2.9	9,958	3.7	9,159	2.4
Total self-employed youth	657,458	100.0	271,447	100.0	386,011	100.0
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Insufficient financial resources	42,045	41.8	14,905	43.4	27,140	41.0
Insufficient quality of staff	-	-	-	-	-	-
Insufficient (personal) business expertise	14,333	14.3	4,486	13.1	9,848	14.9
Legal regulations	-	-	-	-	-	-
Shortages in raw materials	1,569	1.6	-	-	1,569	2.4
Labour shortage	5,420	5.4	-	-	5,420	8.2
Political uncertainties	-	-	-	-	-	-
Access to technology	3,764	3.7	-	-	3,764	5.7
Product development	-	-	-	-	-	-
Competition in the market	32,628	32.5	14,186	41.3	18,442	27.9
Other	785	0.8	785	2.3	-	-
Total self-employed youth	100,544	100.0	34,362	100.0	66,183	100.0
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Insufficient financial resources	296,894	53.3	111,872	47.2	185,022	57.9
Insufficient quality of staff	3,033	0.5	1,752	0.7	1,282	0.4
Insufficient (personal) business expertise	83,022	14.9	37,978	16.0	45,044	14.1
Legal regulations	1,686	0.3	1,686	0.7	-	-
Shortages in raw materials	25,715	4.6	23,623	10.0	2,091	0.7
Labour shortage	53,968	9.7	25,963	11.0	28,005	8.8
Political uncertainties	-	-	-	-	-	-
Access to technology	14,000	2.5	6,741	2.8	7,259	2.3
Product development	5,812	1.0	2,308	1.0	3,503	1.1
Competition in the market	54,451	9.8	15,990	6.7	38,461	12.0
Other	18,332	3.3	9,173	3.9	9,159	2.9
Total self-employed youth	556,913	100.0	237,086	100.0	319,826	100.0

**Table A9. Distribution of self-employed workers (own-account workers and employers) by source of funding for starting their current activity**

Main source of funding	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
No money needed	100,538	15.3	52,152	19.2	48,386	12.5
Own savings	261,769	39.8	99,781	36.8	161,988	42
Money from family or friends	251,893	38.3	93,137	34.3	158,755	41.1
Loan from microfinance institutions	27,642	4.2	13,848	5.1	13,795	3.6
Loan from bank	-	-	-	-	-	-
Loan from an informal financial operator	13,864	2.1	12,529	4.6	1,335	0.3
Loan/assistance from government institution	-	-	-	-	-	-
Loan/assistance from NGO, donor project	1,752	0.3	-	-	1,752	0.5
Remittances from abroad	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total self-employed youth	657,458	100.0	271,447	100.0	386,011	100.0
<b>Urban areas</b>						
No money needed	16,890	16.8	6,570	19.1	10,320	15.6
Own savings	35,492	35.3	10,433	30.4	25,059	37.9
Money from family or friends	44,934	44.7	14,729	42.9	30,205	45.6
Loan from microfinance institutions	1,198	1.2	599	1.7	599	0.9
Loan from bank	-	-	-	-	-	-
Loan from an informal financial operator	2,030	2.0	2,030	5.9	-	-
Loan/assistance from government institution	-	-	-	-	-	-
Loan/assistance from NGO, donor project	-	-	-	-	-	-
Remittances from abroad	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total self-employed youth	100,544	100.0	34,361	100.0	66,183	100.0
<b>Rural areas</b>						
No money needed	83,648	15.0	45,582	19.2	38,066	11.9
Own savings	226,277	40.6	89,348	37.7	136,929	42.8
Money from family or friends	206,959	37.2	78,409	33.1	128,550	40.2
Loan from microfinance institutions	26,444	4.7	13,249	5.6	13,195	4.1
Loan from bank	-	-	-	-	-	-
Loan from an informal financial operator	11,833	2.1	10,499	4.4	1,335	0.4
Loan/assistance from government institution	-	-	-	-	-	-
Loan/assistance from NGO, donor project	1,752	0.3	-	-	1,752	0.5
Remittances from abroad	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total self-employed youth	556,913	100.0	237,087	100.0	319,827	100.0

**Table A10. Distribution of self-employed workers (own-account workers and employers) by use of financial instruments to cover the expenses required for maintaining their current activity**

Financial instrument	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
No money needed	228,531	34.8	99,307	36.6	129,224	33.5
Money from family or friends	358,574	54.5	134,238	49.5	224,337	58.1
Loan from a bank	12,196	1.9	4,282	1.6	7,915	2.1
Loan from microfinance institutions	16,102	2.4	10,495	3.9	5,607	1.5
Loan from information financial operator	32,838	5.0	18,753	6.9	14,085	3.6
Loan/assistance from government institution	-	-	-	-	-	-
Loan/assistance from NGO, donor project	-	-	-	-	-	-
Credit from customer/middlemen, agent/supplier	9,217	1.4	4,373	1.6	4,843	1.3
Total self-employed youth	657,458	100.0	271,448	100.0	386,011	100.0

<b>Urban areas</b>						
No money needed	42,521	42.3	11,990	34.9	30,530	46.1
Money from family or friends	46,769	46.5	18,196	53.0	28,573	43.2
Loan from a bank	1,846	1.8	-	-	1,846	2.8
Loan from microfinance institutions	1,198	1.2	599	1.7	599	0.9
Loan from information financial operator	8,211	8.2	3,576	10.4	4,636	7.0
Loan/assistance from government institution	-	-	-	-	-	-
Loan/assistance from NGO, donor project	-	-	-	-	-	-
Credit from customer/middlemen, agent/supplier	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Total self-employed youth</b>	<b>100,545</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>34,361</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>66,184</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Rural areas</b>						
No money needed	186,010	33.4	87,316	36.8	98,694	30.9
Money from family or friends	311,806	56.0	116,042	48.9	195,764	61.2
Loan from a bank	10,350	1.9	4,282	1.8	6,069	1.9
Loan from microfinance institutions	14,903	2.7	9,896	4.2	5,008	1.6
Loan from information financial operator	24,626	4.4	15,177	6.4	9,449	3.0
Loan/assistance from government institution	-	-	-	-	-	-
Loan/assistance from NGO, donor project	-	-	-	-	-	-
Credit from customer/middlemen, agent/supplier	9,217	1.7	4,373	1.8	4,843	1.5
<b>Total self-employed youth</b>	<b>556,912</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>237,086</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>319,827</b>	<b>100.0</b>

**Table A11. Distribution of in-school youth by highest educational attainment expected**

<b>Highest educational attainment expected</b>	<b>Total</b>		<b>Male</b>		<b>Female</b>	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Elementary education	11,642	1.5	3,237	0.8	8,405	2.2
Vocational education (secondary)	32,959	4.2	22,226	5.6	10,733	2.8
Secondary education	169,535	21.6	85,455	21.5	84,080	21.7
Vocational education (post-secondary)	30,383	3.9	12,822	3.2	17,561	4.5
University	437,746	55.8	216,838	54.5	220,908	57.1
Post-graduate studies	102,811	13.1	57,561	14.5	45,250	11.7
Other	94	0.0	-	-	94	0.0
<b>Total in-school youth</b>	<b>785,170</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>398,139</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>387,031</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Elementary education	1,635	0.5	599	0.4	1,036	0.7
Vocational education (secondary)	5,834	1.9	1,545	1.1	4,289	2.7
Secondary education	26,088	8.7	10,038	7.1	16,050	10.1
Vocational education (post-secondary)	12,961	4.3	5,235	3.7	7,726	4.9
University	189,857	63.4	88,805	63.2	101,053	63.5
Post-graduate studies	63,188	21.1	34,183	24.3	29,005	18.2
Other	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Total in-school youth</b>	<b>299,563</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>140,405</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>159,159</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Elementary education	10,006	2.1	2,638	1.0	7,369	3.2
Vocational education (secondary)	27,125	5.6	20,681	8.0	6,444	2.8
Secondary education	143,447	29.5	75,417	29.3	68,030	29.9
Vocational education (post-secondary)	17,422	3.6	7,587	2.9	9,835	4.3
University	247,888	51.0	128,033	49.7	119,855	52.6
Post-graduate studies	39,623	8.2	23,378	9.1	16,245	7.1
Other	94	0.0	-	-	94	0.0
<b>Total in-school youth</b>	<b>485,605</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>257,734</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>227,872</b>	<b>100.0</b>

**Table A12. Share of young students combining work and study**

<b>Work and study</b>	<b>Total</b>		<b>Male</b>		<b>Female</b>	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Working during the school season	310,084	16.6	143,985	17	166,098	16.3
Working outside the school season	338,387	18.2	152,593	18.1	185,794	18.3
Working during and outside the school season	1,214,127	65.2	548,134	64.9	665,993	65.4
Total	1,862,598	100.0	844,712	100.0	1,017,885	100.0
<b>Urban area</b>						
Working during the school season	94,117	23.5	43,723	26.3	50,394	21.5
Working outside the school season	23,131	5.8	9,741	5.9	13,390	5.7
Working during and outside the school season	283,053	70.7	112,500	67.8	170,553	72.8
Total	400,301	100.0	165,964	100.0	234,337	100.0
<b>Rural area</b>						
Working during the school season	215,967	14.8	100,263	14.8	115,704	14.8
Working outside the school season	315,256	21.6	142,852	21.0	172,404	22.0
Working during and outside the school season	931,074	63.7	435,633	64.2	495,440	63.2
Total	1,462,297	100.0	678,748	100.0	783,548	100.0

## Annex IV. Survey personnel

### Survey management

Mr. SAN Sy Than (until 28 February 2013)	Director General, NIS Project Director
Ms. Hang Lina (from 01 March 2013)	Director General, NIS Project Director
Mr. HEANG Kanol	Deputy Director General, NIS Operational Management and Coordination

### Technical personnel

Mr. Yip Thavrin	Deputy Director of Information and Communication Technology, NIS Programmer and Tabulation
Mr. Khieu Khemarin	Deputy Director of Social Statistics, NIS Data Processing and Coordination

### Administrative and financial personnel

Mr. Lim Penh	Director of Statistical Standards and Analysis, NIS
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### Data collection personnel

#### 1. Supervisor (NIS)

Mr. Chan Nipol	Mr. Sok Borith
Ms. Chum Rumnea	Mr. Seang Rith
Mr. Touch Minear	Mr. Heang Sovithyea
Mr. Pha Engstry	Mr. Chhom Pisith

#### 2. Enumerator (NIS)

Ms. Pol Sophear	Mr. Roeurn Kim Sreng
Ms. Chan Serey	Mr. Chhun Saory
Mr. Duch Chamroeun	Mr. Un Savin
Mr. Chheng Tek Chhe	Mr. Hang Veasna
Ms. Ky Boreth	Mr. Ngoun Nor
Mr. Samout Sotha	Mr. Mak Huch
Mr. Chum Phirun	Mr. Vong Sopheara
Mr. Ven Thy	Mr. Leang Hour
Mr. Moeung Lao	Mr. Nen Choun Nath
Mr. Sar Try	Mr. Nou Phirun
Ms. Phan Sokha	Mr. Phok Visal

#### 3. Enumerator (Provincial planning)

<u>Name</u>	<u>Province</u>	<u>Name</u>	<u>Province</u>
Ms. Thuy Sokha	Banteay Meanchey	Mr. Dor Chan Kour	Phnom Penh
Mr. Sean Thaisath	Battambang	Mr. Nuth Pito	Prey Veng
Mr. Ek Vann Phann Nara	Kampong Cham	Mr. Lmot Samkol	Preah Sihanouk
Mr. Tom Roeun	Kampot	Mr. Smoeurn Sros	Siem Reap
Mr. Chea Sivutra	Koh Kong	Mr. Kang Vivath	Takeo



## **Data processing personnel**

### **1. Data coding personnel (NIS)**

Ms. Khun Neary	Mr. Nim Saomony
Ms. Heng Vichet	Mr. Lenh Heang
Ms. Chhin Phearum	Mr. Long Lok

### **2. Data entry personnel (NIS)**

Ms. Khon Naren	Ms. Yim Chanrany
Ms. Chhuon Sokunthea	Ms. Chan Lakhena
Ms. San Sopha	Ms. Limpho Roatmealea
Ms. Vuth Sokun	Ms. Mey Sokmarady
Ms. Ty Chankanha	Mr. Khit Thona







This report presents the highlights of the 2012 School-to-work Transition Survey (SWTS) run together with the National Institute of Statistics of Cambodia within the framework of the ILO Work4Youth Project. This Project is a five-year partnership between the ILO and The MasterCard Foundation that aims to promote decent work opportunities for young men and women through knowledge and action. The W4Y Publication Series is designed to disseminate data and analyses generated from the SWTS administered by the ILO in 28 countries covering five regions of the world. The SWTS is a unique survey instrument that generates relevant labour market information on young people aged 15 to 29 years. The survey captures longitudinal information on transitions within the labour market, thus providing evidence of the increasingly tentative and indirect paths to decent and productive employment that today's young men and women face.

The W4Y Publications Series covers national reports, with main survey findings and details on current national policy interventions in the area of youth employment, and regional synthesis reports that highlight regional patterns in youth labour market transitions and distinctions in national policy frameworks.

# Work4Youth



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