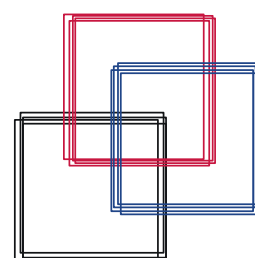




Labour market transitions of young women and men in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia

Sara Elder, Blagica Novkovska
and Violeta Krsteva

July 2013



Work4Youth Publication Series No. 1

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Sara Elder, Blagica Novkovska and Violeta Krsteva

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Geneva**

July 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.¹ 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 the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, 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
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Employment Policy Department

Cristina Mihes
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Decent Work Technical Support Team and
Country Office for Central and Eastern
Europe

¹ 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.

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1. Introduction and main findings

1.1 Overview

Youth unemployment and underemployment in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia represent a major cost to the country in economic, political and societal terms. One in every two young persons in the national labour force is unemployed. The high youth unemployment rate – among the highest in the world – means a loss of investment in education and training, a reduced tax base and higher social costs. At the same time, long periods of unemployment in the early stages of life affect the job prospects across the working-life span of young people (ILO, 2013a). Given the difficulty facing youth in the country, the current generation is at risk of becoming a “scarred generation” (ILO, 2012a). Furthermore, the high level of unemployment among young people can be a source of social instability.

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. 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. The main policies are elaborated in the *National Employment Strategy 2011-2015* and its *National Employment Action Plan*, as well as in the *National Action Plan on Youth Employment 2013-2015*, aimed at youth aged 15-29. Emphasis is 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 policy-makers 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 2012 with a second round planned for 2014, can serve as a principle tool for monitoring the impact of policies and programmes outlined in the National Action Plan on Youth Employment (NAP) and other national instruments. This report is intended for the policy makers and social partners that concern themselves with the implementation of the NAP and other 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 a major national concern, but it is also important to consider the quality of work made available to the young population. Does the work provide the wages and security necessary to empower young people to move toward self-sufficiency in their pending adulthood? The emphasis on quality of employment in this report should help to answer this question. The report 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

Section 2 of the report sets out the socio-economic and labour market context in the country and introduces the objectives and the methodology of the survey process. Section 3 presents the main results of the SWTS with details on the characteristics of youth and their labour market outcomes. 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 the country 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

Too many young people are not benefiting fully from the education system.

The largest share of youth in the country has completed education at the secondary level (51.2 per cent of total youth), but there is still 32.3 per cent of youth who finished school at the primary level and another 2.2 per cent with no education at all. The percentage of youth who have completed higher education is 14.3 per cent. Young women are more likely to have attended university than their male counterparts. Out of the total youth population with a higher education degree, 61.9 per cent are women.

Only 24.1 per cent of youth with secondary level education had a parent with a lower level, whereas the remaining youth matched (61.2 per cent) or exceeded (14.7 per cent) the education level of their parents. Results are even better at the tertiary level, where 60.8 per cent of youth hold a higher level degree than their parents. At the lower levels of education, however, *there is some evidence of regressions on educational attainment across the generations.* The current youth with none or incompleting primary level education performed worse than their parents (on the education front) in nearly three-fourths of the cases (73.8 per cent). Youth holding a primary level certificate had more educated parents half of the time (51.1 per cent).

Education has a significant influence on the young person's outcome in the labour market.

Higher education ensures better labour market outcomes for young people. *Youth unemployment rates decrease progressively with each extra level of education.* A young economically active person with no or pre-primary level education has more than a one in two chance (52.4 per cent) of being unemployed. The unemployment rate of youth with a university degree is still high at 38.1 per cent, but when compared to outcomes of other education attainment groups, it becomes clear that education still brings higher returns in the country's labour market.

Education matters in the results on a young person's labour market transition: one quarter (24.8 per cent) of youth who completed their transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment had completed education at the tertiary level compared to 16.3 per cent of youth remaining in transition. Only 10.4 per cent of the transitioned youth had low levels of education (primary or less), compared to 24.3 per cent of the youth remaining in transition. And within the "transitioned" sub-categories, 72.2 per cent of transitioned youth with a tertiary degree are in stable employment compared to 27.8 per cent in satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment.

Unemployment is a major concern, but labour underutilization includes also those not in the labour force and not in education as well as persons whose work does not allow them to make the most of their economic potential.

The more troublesome components of the youth labour market in the country can be broken down as follows: 8.3 per cent of youth is neither in the labour force nor in education or training; 13.5 per cent of young people are confined to irregular employment;

and 24.5 per cent of youth are unemployed. *The three groups together equal a rate of underutilized labour of 46.2 per cent.* More than 40 per cent of the age group remains in school and a very small 14 per cent are engaged in regular employment.

Thirty per cent of youth in the country fall under the category of neither in employment nor in education or training (NEET). Two-thirds of the young NEETs are unemployed non-students and one-third is inactive non-students.

The unemployed youth seeking a higher-skilled position faces a long job queue.

The young people in the country who have the misfortune to be unemployed are facing long-term job search periods, which can have negative consequences in terms of skills and financial losses and damaged self-esteem. *Most of the unemployed youth – 76.9 per cent – have been searching for a job for more than one year.*

While the occupation group “professionals” is the most sought after by the unemployed youth in the country, the group takes only the third highest rank of currently employed youth. 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 the 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 as a craftsperson, 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.

Agriculture remains an important employer in the country.

The agricultural sector is the largest provider of employment for young people in the country. For young men, the most significant sectors of employment are agriculture (21.1 per cent), manufacturing (16.5 per cent), wholesale and retail trade (15.5 per cent), accommodation and food services (9.6 per cent), and construction (8.8 per cent). For young women, most are employed in agriculture (19.5 per cent), wholesale and retail trade (19.4 per cent), health (15.1 per cent), manufacturing (11.9 per cent) and education (9.6 per cent).

Youth in paid employment do fairly well in terms of access to entitlements, but there are some youth who do less well than they could when it comes to the quality of their job.

The youth employment rate is incredibly low at 27.9 per cent, and reflects a structural issue as opposed to a business cycle one. Most young workers are engaged in paid employment (66.7 per cent) and a very large portion of paid employed young people has access to basic benefits such as pension, health and social security.

Three in ten of the young workers are self-employed, most of which are unpaid family workers. *The majority of young people took up self-employment for involuntary reasons (70.1 per cent),* either because they could not find a wage or salary job or because they were required by the family. The young self-employed claim as their most significant business challenge, the insufficient availability of financial resources (46.8 per cent), followed by competition in the market and regulations.

Poor quality employment impacts approximately half of young workers: five 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, five in ten are in irregular employment, three in ten are overeducated or undereducated for the job that they hold and

three in ten are working an excessive number of hours. Only 16.5 per cent of youth work part-time, and among these nearly half qualify as “involuntary part-time workers”.

Nineteen (18.9) per cent of young workers are overeducated and 14.3 per cent are undereducated. 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. The phenomenon of overeducation is one in which a degree holder takes up work for which s/he is overqualified. The consequence is the overeducated young people are likely to earn less than they otherwise could have and are also not making the most of their 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.

Overeducated youth are found working mainly as clerical support workers, sales workers or general labourer (within the elementary occupations). Technicians and associate professionals have the highest chance of being undereducated in the country, but also one-third (35.3 per cent) of youth in senior positions or management are undereducated as are one in four youth in skilled agriculture work and in machine/assembly work.

There is a large share of young workers engaged as contributing family workers (21.9 per cent), and unusually, more young men than young women fall into the category. What is worrisome are 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 that s/he finds it extremely difficult to make the transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment.

Labour market transitions of young women and men are long and only one-fifth of youth have currently completed their transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment.

Only 21.5 per cent of the youth population have completed their labour market transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment. The majority of youth have not yet started the transition process because they are still in school (43.3 per cent) and 35.2 per cent remain “stuck in transition”, either still looking for work or employed in non-satisfactory temporary work or self-employment.

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, six years (71.6 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).

Clearly, it is not an easy process for young people to become economically independent in the country. The path to transition was not especially circuitous for young people in the country who did not move directly to stable and/or satisfactory work (with 1.6 spells of intermediary activities), but it was extremely long at 50.3 months, or more than 4 years. The time spent in transition averaged more than a year longer for young men compared to young women (57.3 and 41.2 months, respectively). The typical youth experienced “only” one spell of unemployment in their transition path, but the spell was long, averaging 37.1 months or slightly longer than 3 years. The average young transited male spent slightly longer in unemployment than the young female (38.7 months compared to 35.1 months).

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 (54.7 per cent of young men have completed the transition compared to 45.3 per cent of young women), however, within the sub-categories of the “transited” category, it is the young women who do better at attaining stable employment compared to satisfactory temporary or self-employment. Living in an urban area significantly increases the chances of completing the transition (64.0 per cent of transited youth are in urban areas compared to 36.0 per cent in rural areas). Another influence on the transition path is the level of household income: 61.8 per cent of youth remaining in transition come from households having below average income levels, while youth from above average income households are the largest share among youth who have completed the transition (43.5 per cent).

2. Overview of the labour market and survey methodology

2.1 The socio-economic context²

According to population estimates from late 2011, the country had 2,059,794 inhabitants, which was 0.6 per cent more compared to 2006 and 1.0 per cent more than in 2001. Such figures (from State Statistical Office, *Macedonia in figures, 2012*) demonstrate that demographic pressures are not strong in the country. In fact, the ageing of the population is much more of a policy concern than pressures from the country’s youth cohort. In the period 2001-2011, the portion of the population under the age of 15 decreased from 21.5 to 17.2 per cent, whereas the portion of the elderly population (aged 65 and over) increased from 10.5 to 11.8 per cent. The average age at first marriage increased for both sexes during the period of observation, and reached 28.3 years for men and 25.4 years for women. The period of 2001-2011 also witnessed a decline in the number of births in the country, as well as an increase in the mortality rate, from 8.3 per cent in 2001 to 9.5 per cent in 2011. These two elements combined caused the rate of natural³ increase to drop from 11.9 per cent in 2001 to 11.1 per cent in 2011.

The territorial distribution of the population is more urban than rural. Fifty eight (57.8) per cent of the population lives in urban areas, with the highest concentration in the capital, Skopje (20.5 per cent).

The key economic indicators in Table 1 show that, as a result of the global economic crisis, real GDP growth started to decrease in 2008, and was followed by negative growth in 2009. This period of economic crisis also led to a decrease in industrial production over the same period. Growth recovered in 2010. The consumer price index reached 103.9 in 2011, with the highest increase registered in industrial food products (6.2 per cent).

² For more detailed information on the economic context of the country from the the break-up of Yugoslavia in 1991 until the present, see M. Kazandziska, M. Risteska and V. Schmidt (2012).

³ The rate of natural increase is the crude birth rate minus the crude death rate. It represents the portion of population growth (or decline) determined exclusively by births and deaths (United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, <http://esa.un.org>).

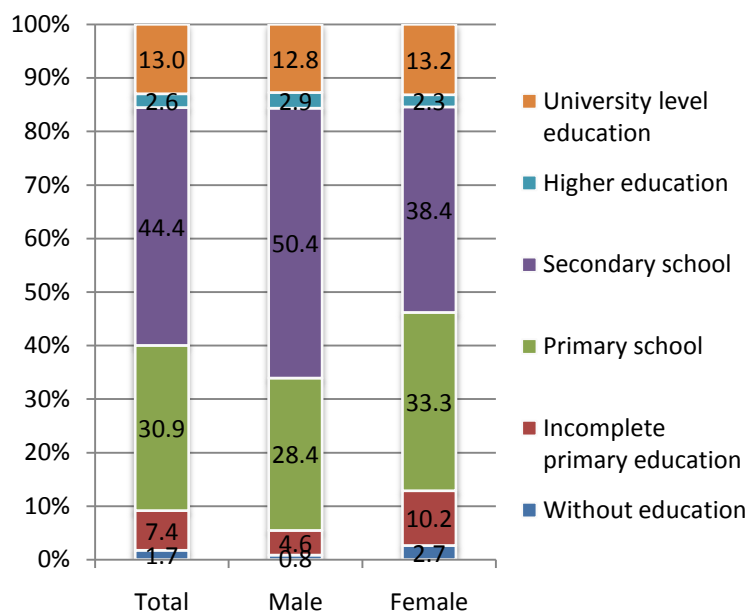
Table 1. Population and key economic indicators

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Population (thousands)	2045.2	2048.6	2052.7	2057.3	2059.8
National accounts					
Real GDP growth	6.1	5.0	-0.9	2.9	2.8 ²⁾
Investment (per centGDP)	19.6	21.0	19.9	19.1	
Gross domestic savings (per centGDP)	6.2	1.5	4.3	6.8	
Indices of industrial production ¹⁾	103.9	105.1	91.3	95.2	103.3
Consumer Price Index (CPI) ¹⁾	102.3	108.3	99.2	101.6	103.9
Unemployment rate	34.9	33.8	32.2	32.0	31.4

Notes: 1) Previous year = 100. 2) Estimated data.
Source: State Statistical Office.

Figure 1 shows the distribution of the working-age population (aged 15-79) by sex and level of educational attainment according the latest data of the Labour Force Survey (LFS 3Q 2012).⁴ The largest share of the total working-age population has secondary level education (44.4 per cent), 13.0 per cent has completed tertiary education and 1.7 per cent has no education at all. The gender breakdown shows that men of working-age are more likely to have completed secondary education than their female counterparts, while females are relatively more likely to be found with incomplete primary education or no education at all. Men and women are almost equally represented among the higher educated segments of the working-age population.

Figure 1. Distribution of working-age population (15-79) by level of educational attainment and sex, 3Q 2012



Source: LFS, third quarter 2012.

⁴ The main source of information about the labour market in the country is the Labour Force Survey (LFS), which was established in the country in 1996. The LFS is national in scope, representative of the whole population and is carried out quarterly.

The rate of participation in the labour force (activity rate) in the country was 56.3 per cent according to the LFS (third quarter 2012), while the employment-to-population ratio (EPR) was 39.1 per cent. The EPR is extremely low in the country, particularly for women, which reflects the sizable challenge that the country faces in generating employment. The ILO's regional average EPR (Central and South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) and CIS), in contrast, was 54.8 per cent in 2012 (ILO, 2013b). The unemployment rate, on the other hand, comes in much higher than the regional average at 30.6 per cent (third quarter 2012) compared to 8.2 per cent for the region (2012 annual estimate; ILO, 2013b).

In spite of the economic crisis, the unemployment rate of the working-age population (according to LFS) decreased from 34.9 per cent in 2007 to 31.4 per cent in 2011. In the third quarter of 2012, the overall unemployment rate was 30.6 per cent (Table 2).

Table 2. Working-age population (15-79), labour force participation rate, employment-to-population ratio and unemployment rate, 2010 to 3Q 2012

	Total population ('000)	Labour force ('000)			Labour force participation rate (%)	Employment to population ratio (%)	Unemployment rate (%)
		Total	Employed	Unemployed			
2010	1648.5	938.3	637.9	300.4	56.9	38.7	32.0
2011	1656.2	940.0	645.1	295.0	56.8	38.9	31.4
2011/III	1657.2	942.4	648.6	293.8	56.9	39.1	31.2
2012/II	1669.4	942.4	648.2	294.2	56.5	38.8	31.2
2012/III	1670.6	940.7	652.5	288.2	56.3	39.1	30.6

1) Due to rounding, the sum of the sexes might not equal perfectly the total.

Source: LFS.

2.2 Youth in the national labour force

The youth unemployment rate (aged 15-24) in the country is nearly twice that of adults at 52.1 per cent in third quarter 2012 (Table 3). The ratio of youth-to-adult unemployment rate remained unchanged at 1.7 between 2011 and 2012 (third quarters). The youth unemployment rate is lower now than prior to the economic crisis (it stood at 64.8 per cent in 2004). There was an increase between 2010 and 2011 (from 53.7 to 55.3 per cent (annual rates), but the rate decreased again by 2 percentage points between 2011 and 2012 (third quarters), due to the sharp decline in the youth unemployment rate of men. The male youth unemployment rate in third quarter 2012 was 52.2 per cent (falling from 56.0 per cent one year prior) and the female rate was 51.9 per cent.

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.

Given the very high unemployment rates, one can expect to see a fairly low employment-to-population ratio of young people (aged 15-24), but 16.9 per cent in third quarter 2012 is extremely low, even worryingly so, especially for young women (Table 3). The male youth EPR was 20.0 per cent while the female rate was only 13.7 per cent. The only country in the European Union with a lower EPR in the same period is Greece at 12.7 per cent, but this is

an effect of the economic crisis in the country, while prior to the crisis, one quarter of young Greeks were engaged in employment.⁵ In the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, in contrast, the youth EPR was below 20 per cent also prior to the crisis, indicating that the issue is a structural one. Besides the issue of unemployment and low rates of employment, the situation is further aggravated by the number of young people who are employed under precarious working conditions, often in the informal economy, as will be further demonstrated in section 3.

Table 3. Labour force participation rate, employment-to-population ratio and unemployment rate by age group and sex, 3Q 2011 and 3Q 2012

	Labour force participation rate (%)		Employment-to-population ratio (%)		Unemployment rate (%)	
	2011/III	2012/III	2011/III	2012/III	2011/III	2012/III
Total	56.9	56.3	39.1	39.1	31.2	30.6
15-24	31.9	35.4	14.6	16.9	54.2	52.1
25-49	80.8	78.3	57.1	55.2	29.3	29.5
50-64	58.2	57.1	42.7	43.3	26.6	24.1
65+	2.8	3.6	2.6	3.4	5.0	4.4
15-64	64.4	63.7	44.2	44.1	31.3	30.8
Men	69.0	68.8	46.8	47.4	32.1	31.1
15-24	39.1	41.9	17.2	20.0	56.0	52.2
25-49	93.6	92.4	65.6	64.9	29.9	29.8
50-64	75.4	73.3	54.5	54.4	27.7	25.8
65+	3.7	5.1	3.4	4.7	8.2	6.8
15-64	77.1	76.8	52.2	52.7	32.3	31.3
Women	44.7	43.8	31.4	30.8	29.7	29.8
15-24	24.3	28.5	11.8	13.7	51.3	51.9
25-49	67.4	63.7	48.2	45.1	28.4	29.2
50-64	41.4	41.1	31.2	32.3	24.5	21.3
65+	2.0	2.3	2.0	2.3	-	-
15-64	51.3	50.3	36.0	35.2	29.9	30.1

Source: LFS.

2.3 Survey objectives and methodology

The main objective of the SWTS is to generate more and better information on the challenges of young men and women in the labour market. The SWTS offers important additional information over traditional labour force surveys. First, it provides a rare opportunity to produce indicators on labour market transitions through the inclusion of questions on the history of economic activity of young respondents. So far, indicators on the labour market to demonstrate what transitions look like are lacking or weak at best.

The second area of value-added from the survey initiative is the application of normative indicators relating to areas of “good” jobs within the analytical framework.

⁵ Data from European Labour Force Survey online database. Note, the EU-27 average of youth (15-24) employment rate in third quarter 2012 was 34.0 per cent, well above the rate in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.

Section 4 will argue that the attainment of stable or satisfactory employment is the end goal for most young people in developing economies. The stages of transition applied to SWTS results are therefore based on the various combinations of the two variables, stability and satisfaction.

The SWTS is a household survey of young people aged 15 to 29 years. 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 the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.

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:⁶

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

Eastern Europe and Central Asia: Armenia, Kyrgyzstan, the 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, Tunisia

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

The SWTS was conducted as an additional module to the LFS in the third quarter 2012 and it drew from the same sample. The same internationally standard definitions of the economically active population applied to both surveys. See Annex I for definitions of labour market terms.

Field activities started on 9 July 2012 and lasted 13 weeks. The work was performed by a team of six supervisors, eight regional controllers and 56 enumerators. They were distributed through eight regions. The regional controllers were staff from the Regional Statistical Departments. Annex II presents the details of the sample design. The total number of interviewed youth aged 15 to 29 years was 2,544.

⁶ The last (28th) Work4Youth country had not yet been identified at the time this report was written.

3. Characteristics of youth in the sample survey

3.1 Individual characteristics of youth

According to the surveys' findings, the total number of youth, defined as the population aged 15 to 29, is 463,821 (Table 4). Young men account for 51.8 per cent of the total and young women for 48.2 per cent. The youth population is rather evenly distributed across age sub-groups, with those aged 15-19, 20-24 and 25-29 representing 32.0 per cent, 35.1 per cent, and 33.0 per cent of the total, respectively. Overall, youth represent 27.8 per cent of the working-age population aged 15 years or more.

Table 4. Distribution of the youth population by age group, geographic location, marital status and level of educational attainment

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Age group						
15-19 years	148242	32.0	76322	31.8	71920	32.2
20-24 years	162594	35.1	84109	35.0	78485	35.1
25-29 years	152986	33.0	79751	33.2	73234	32.7
Geographic location						
Urban	252356	54.4	129959	54.1	122397	54.7
Rural	211465	45.6	110223	45.9	101242	45.3
Marital status						
Married (including divorced and widowed)	86031	18.5	29572	12.3	56459	25.2
Single	377791	81.5	210610	87.7	167181	74.8
Education level						
None	10255	2.2	5395	2.2	4859	2.2
Primary school	149906	32.3	74631	31.1	75274	33.7
Secondary school	237415	51.2	134921	56.2	102494	47.0
University or higher	66246	14.3	25234	10.5	41012	18.3
Total youth population	463821	100	240182	100	223639	100

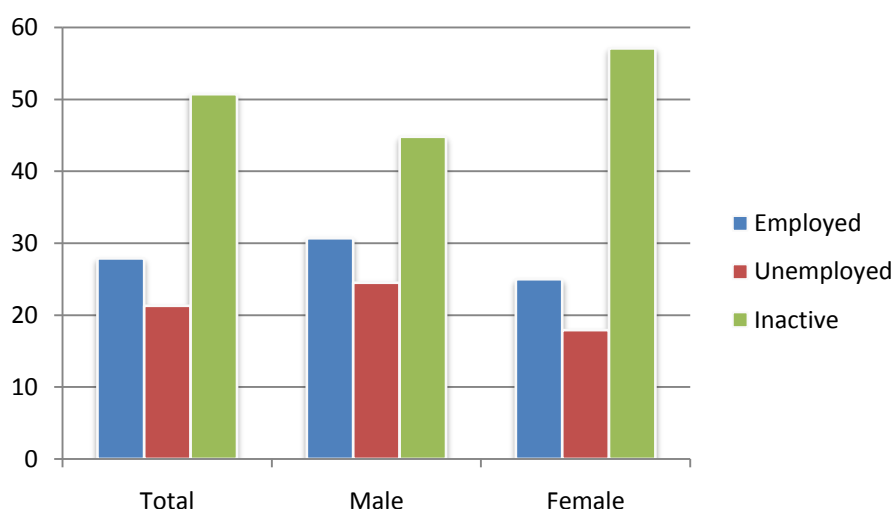
Source: SWTS, 2012.

According to geographic location (urban or rural area), 54.4 per cent of the total number of young people live in an urban part of the country, while 45.6 per cent live in rural areas. The marital status of the young population shows that 81.5 per cent of youth are single, while 18.5 per cent are married. The percentage of married young women is 25.2 per cent, compared to 12.3 per cent for men.

The largest share of youth has completed education at the secondary level (51.2 per cent of total youth, 56.2 per cent of young men and 47.0 per cent of young women). The percentage of youth who have completed higher education is 14.3 per cent. Young women are more likely to have attended university than their male counterparts. Out of the total youth population with a higher education degree, 61.9 per cent are women.

Figure 2 illustrates the distribution of the youth population by main economic activity. The inactive represent the largest group (50.7 per cent, 54.3 per cent of which are female), followed by the employed (27.9 per cent, with males accounting for 56.9 per cent) and the unemployed (21.3 per cent of which 59.5 per cent are male). Young females have a greater tendency to be inactive than young men while young men are more likely than young women to be either employed or unemployed.

Figure 2. Distribution of the youth population by main economic activity and sex (%)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

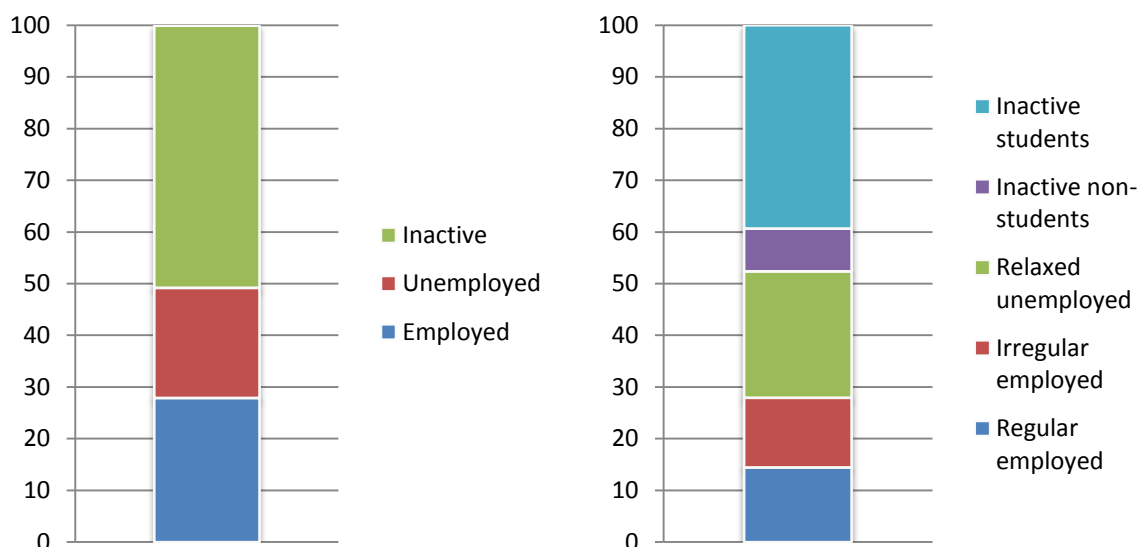
In the ILO's *Global Employment Trends for Youth 2013*, the argument was made that comparing traditional labour market indicators with a more detailed disaggregation of indicators made available through the implementation of the SWTS allows one to draw a more detailed picture of challenges that youth face in developing economies. Figure 3 is included here to support the claim.

The chart on the left side in the figure shows the traditional distribution of the youth population by three broad categories of economic activity – employment, unemployment and inactivity (same as Figure 2). Here we find that 21.3 per cent of young people are currently unemployed. Only 27.9 per cent are working and, by far the largest share, 50.7 per cent, are inactive. This suggests that the vast majority of the 15-29 age group in the country are still in school and classified among the inactive. The problem arises when they exit school and are likely to face lengthy periods of unemployment before settling into a job.

In contrast, when using a more disaggregated framework of the youth population, a more negative snapshot emerges. The disaggregation shown in the right hand side of the figure confirms that the majority of the inactive are in school, but another 8.3 per cent of youth is neither in the labour force nor in education or training. These youth are neither contributing to economic production nor investing in their human capital through engagement in education or training. In addition, 13.5 per cent of young people are confined to irregular employment, defined as wage and salaried workers holding a contract of limited duration, i.e. set to terminate after a period of time (less than 12 months), self-employed youth with no employees (own-account workers) and contributing family workers. Finally, one quarter (24.5 per cent) of youth face unemployment (relaxed definition: defined as persons currently without work and available to take up work in the week prior to the reference period). (See definitions in Annex D). This suggests that instead of an unutilized labour potential of 21.3 per cent (the unemployed based on the strict definition), policy makers should worry about as much as 46.2 per cent of youth that can

be considered within the category of underutilized labour.⁷ In other words, the target area for monitoring and evaluating potential pitfalls in the youth labour market has more than doubled.

Figure 3. Distribution of the youth population by more detailed disaggregation of economic activity (%)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

3.2 Household characteristics of youth and youth migration

Data on the average household size of youth and on the number of siblings by place of residence shows that young people live in households with 4.8 members, on average (4.5 in urban areas and 5.1 in rural areas) (Table 5). The average number of siblings is approximately 2.0 (1.8 in urban areas and 2.1 in rural areas).

A small proportion of youth has moved from their original place of residence – 7.6 per cent of the total youth population (Table A1). Forty one (41.3) per cent moved from a rural area, 19.4 per cent from a small town/village, 16.4 per cent from a metropolitan area, 11.9 per cent from another country and 11.1 per cent from a large urban area. What is surprising about these numbers is that the category of youth who moved from their original residence is dominated by young females (80.9 per cent). Three out of four of the young women (75.0 per cent) who moved did so for family reasons, whereas the reasons for young men moving were more equally distributed. Few young people moved for employment reasons (13.2 and 1.7 per cent of young men and women, respectively). However, as much as 39.5 per cent of unemployed young men and 29.7 per cent of unemployed young women stated that they would consider moving in the future to find work.

⁷ The labour underutilization rate is calculated as the sum of the shares of youth in irregular employment, unemployed (relaxed definition) and neither in the labour force nor in education/training (inactive non-students). (See definitions in Annex I).

Table 5. Average size of households and number of siblings by place of residence

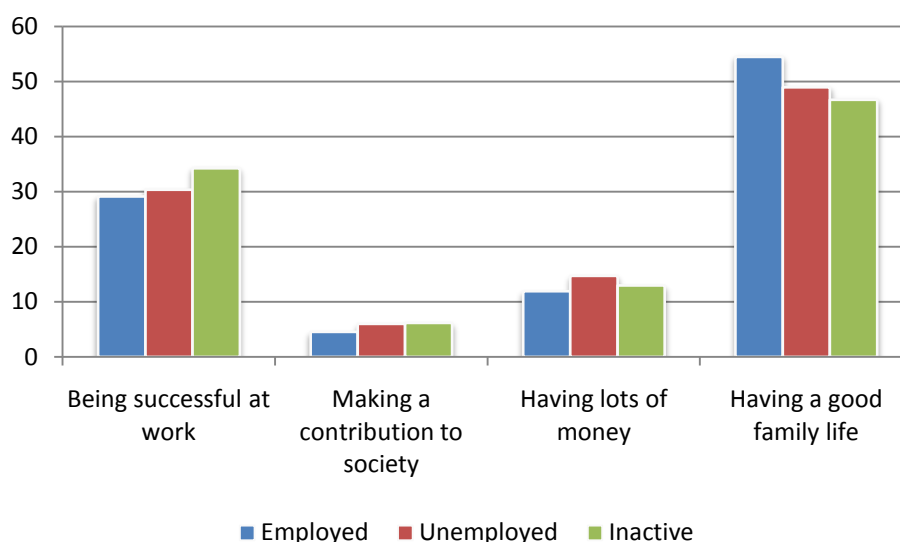
	Total	Urban	Rural
Average size of household	4.77	4.49	5.10
Number of siblings	1.98	1.85	2.13

Source: SWTS, 2012.

3.3 Aspirations and life goals

The primary life goal of young respondents – regardless of activity status – is to have a good family life (Figure 4 and Table A2). Success in work was the second most common life aspiration. A very small proportion of those surveyed mentioned making a contribution to society or having a lot of money. That 34.2 per cent of inactive youth listed being successful in work as a goal indicates that they do intend to enter the labour market at some point in the future.

Figure 4. Primary life goals of young respondents by current activity status (%)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

3.4 Educational attainment

The data on young people’s educational achievement by current activity status show that 56.5 per cent of employed young people completed secondary education (Table 6). Interestingly, almost the same percentage (56.8 per cent) of unemployed young people has also completed secondary education. This is in accordance with the information that half of young people in the country are with secondary education (Table 4). Youth who have completed higher education account for 26.2 per cent of the employed and 22.5 per cent of the unemployed. Only 4.3 per cent of the inactive youth have attained higher education, which can be explained by the fact that many youth in the category are still in school.

The SWTS data show that a small portion of youth (2.7 per cent) started but did not complete a course of study. The most common reason for leaving school early is one of apathy (“not interested in education”) (Figure 5 and Table A3). Economic reasons

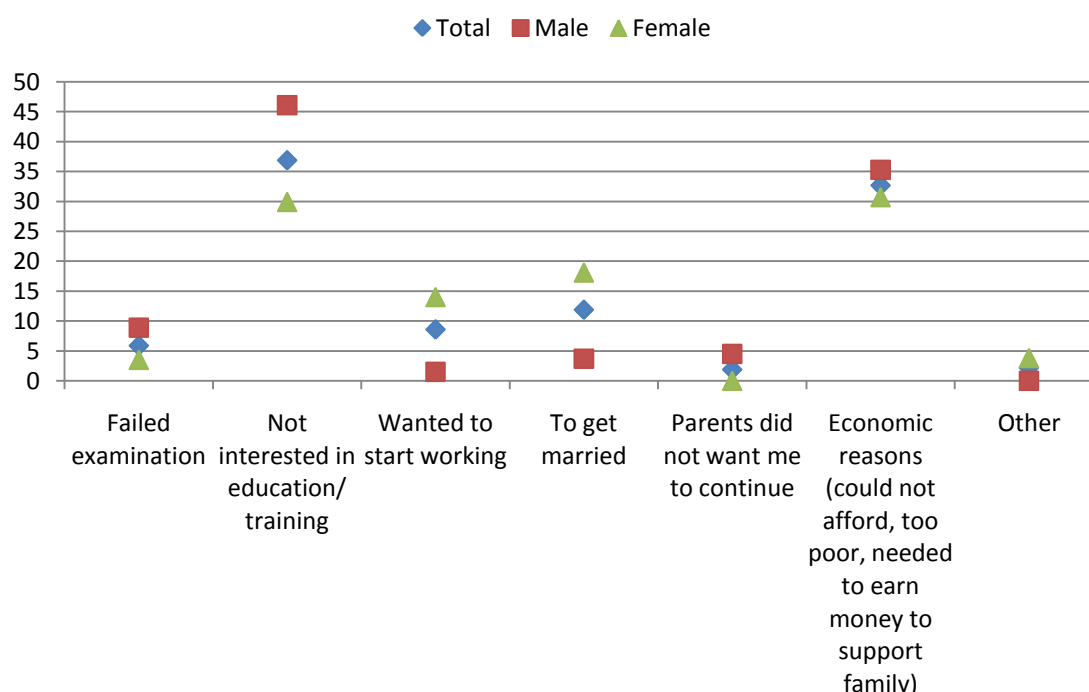
(including not being able to afford the costs, being too poor, needing to earn money to support the family) is the second most likely reason why youth drop out of school.

Table 6. Educational attainment of youth by current activity status

Highest educational level completed	Total		Employed		Unemployed		Inactive	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
None or pre-primary school	10255	2.2	1887	1.5	2077	2.1	6291	2.7
Primary school	149906	32.3	20655	15.9	18352	18.6	110899	47.1
Secondary school	237415	51.2	73152	56.5	56200	56.8	108063	45.9
University or higher	66246	14.3	33890	26.2	22250	22.5	10106	4.3
Total population	463821	100	129584	100	98880	100	235358	100

Source: SWTS, 2012.

Figure 5. Reasons for leaving school early by sex (%)



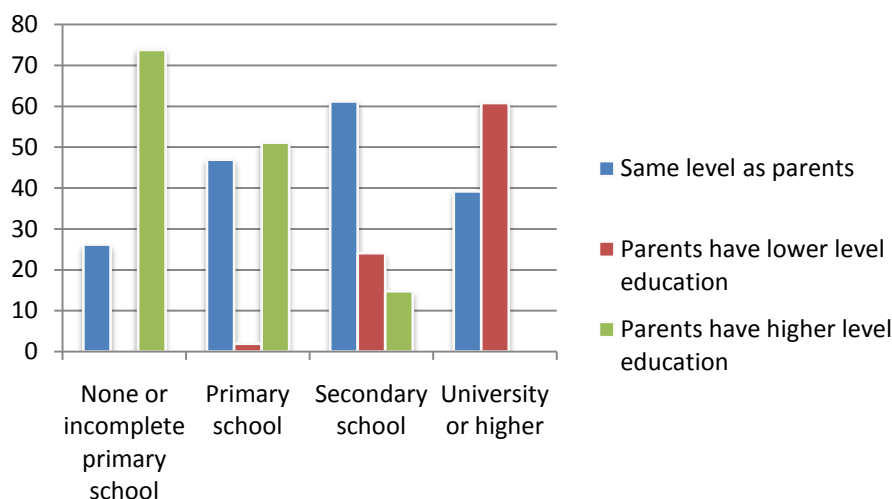
Source: SWTS, 2012.

Among the female population, marriage is also a highly prevalent cause for early school leaving (18.1 per cent), as well as the preference to start working rather than attend school (14.0 per cent). Among the male young population, failing examinations is also one of the important reasons for dropping out (8.9 per cent).

Table A4 allows us to compare the education level of youth to that of their parents, the hope being that there has been progress in education rates over time or at least stability. Figure 6 summarizes the results in comparing the completed education level of young people with that of their parents. The results are classified by whether the youth's level matches, exceeds, or is below that of the parent's level (either the highest level of mother or father). Among youth who have attained at least secondary education, there is evidence of progress across generations. Only 24.1 per cent of youth with secondary level education had a parent with a lower level, whereas the remaining youth matched (61.2 per cent) or exceeded (14.7 per cent) the education level of their parents. The results are even better at

the tertiary level, where 60.8 per cent of youth hold a higher level degree than their parents. At the lower levels of education, however, there is some evidence of regressions on educational attainment across the generations. The current youth with none or uncompleted primary level education performed worse than their parents (on the education front) in nearly three-fourths of the cases (73.8 per cent). Youth holding a primary level certificate had more educated parents half of the time (51.1 per cent).

Figure 6. Cross-tabulation of youth educational attainment by parental educational attainment (%)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

A valuable contribution of the SWTS is the information it provides about young people neither in employment nor in education or training (NEET). Thirty per cent of youth in the country fall under the category of NEET (two-thirds of which are unemployed non-students and one-third of which are inactive non-students) (Table 7). Women have a slightly higher chance of falling into the category (NEETs are 32.2 per cent of the female population compared to 28.0 per cent of the male population) and within the sub-categories, women are more evenly spread between the unemployed non-students and inactive non-students. Young men, on the other hand, are almost entirely in the sub-category of unemployed non-students). There is a slightly higher incidence of NEETs in rural compared to urban areas (33.5 and 27.1 per cent, respectively). Sections 3.5 and 3.6 investigate how the “discouraged workers” – those who would like to work but have given up on the job search – spend their time and manage to support themselves.

Table 7. Distribution of NEET youth by urban/rural geography and sex

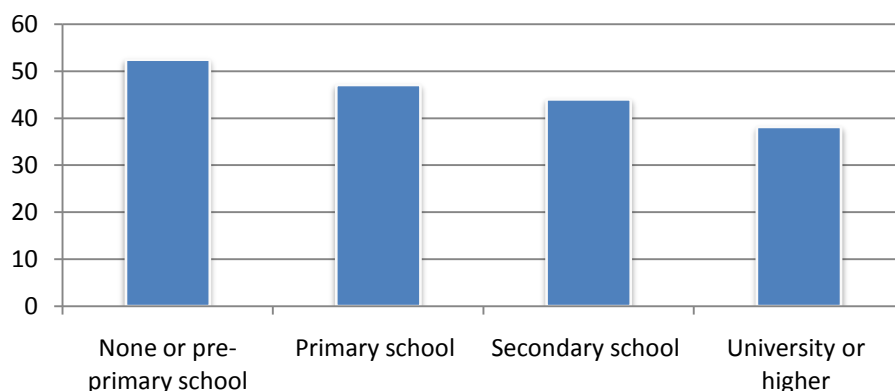
	NEET youth as % of total youth population	NEET status				
		Total NEETs	Unemployed non-students		Inactives non-students	
			Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Sex						
Total	30.0	139205	91275	19.7	47930	10.3
Male	28.0	67277	55308	23.0	11968	5.0
Female	32.2	71929	35967	16.1	35962	16.1
Place of residence						
Urban	27.1	68304	46133	18.3	22171	8.8
Rural	33.5	70902	45142	21.3	25759	12.2

Source: SWTS, 2012.

3.5 Unemployment

Higher education ensures better labour market outcomes for young people (Figure 7). Youth unemployment rates decrease progressively with each extra level of education. A young economically active person with no or pre-primary level education has more than a one in two chance (52.4 per cent) of being unemployed. The unemployment rate of youth with a university degree is still high at 38.1 per cent, but when compared to outcomes of other education attainment groups, it becomes clear that education still brings higher returns in the country's labour market.

Figure 7. Youth unemployment rates by level of educational attainment (%)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

The young people in the country who have the misfortune to be unemployed are facing long-term job search periods, which can have negative consequences in terms of skills and financial losses and damaged self-esteem. Most of the unemployed youth – 76.9 per cent – have been searching for a job for more than one year. Indeed, 81.4 per cent of young men and 70.2 per cent of young women fall the category of long-term unemployed (Table A5). Only 20.3 per cent of unemployed youth have been searching for a job for duration of less than one year.

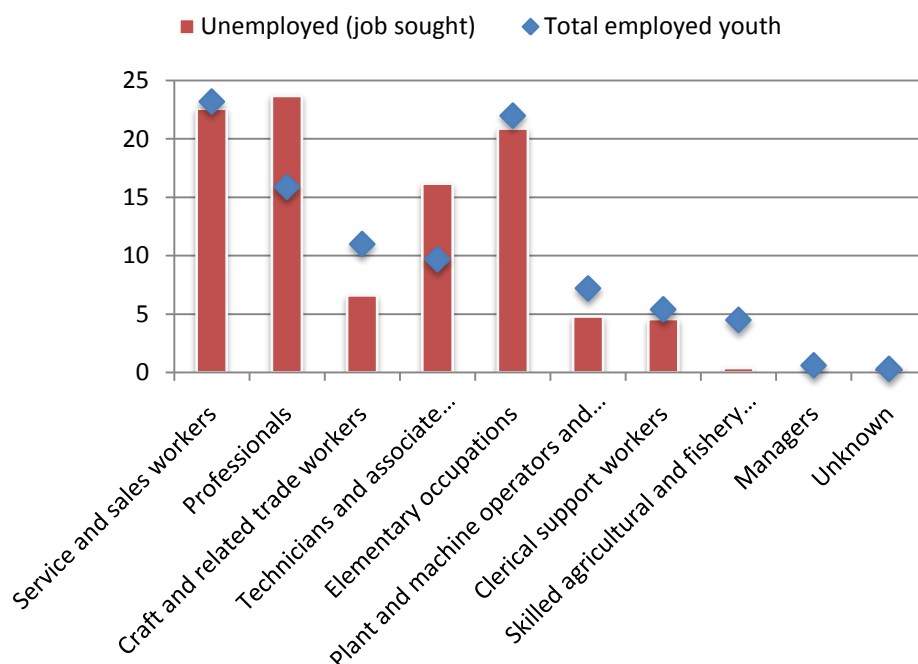
Combine the provision of career counselling, motivational training, skills and job readiness training of the long-term unemployed and encourage enterprises to take on the long-term jobseekers through targeted employment subsidies, including temporary tax rebates and/or waivers to employers of social security contributions (see section 5.2, policy implication 3).

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: professionals (23.7 per cent), service and sales workers (22.6 per cent) and elementary occupations (20.9 per cent) (Figure 8). There is a stronger representation of young women seeking professional work than young men (33.2 and 17.3 per cent, respectively), while young unemployed men are more interested in elementary occupations (26.0 and 13.4 per cent, respectively) (Table A6). An interesting result from the survey is that very few young men and women seek employment as a skilled agricultural or fishery worker (0.4 and 1.0 per cent, respectively). With unemployment rates highest among the lesser skilled (based on educational attainment; Figure 7) one might expect to see more youth queuing up for unskilled agricultural work; however, seasonality is likely to have influenced the results here. The survey was conducted in the third quarter 2012 whereas seasonal agricultural work is more likely to occur in the warmer seasons of the year. In the third quarter, one

could assume that the low-skilled youth are those queuing for work principally in the elementary occupations (20.1 per cent).

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 (see section 5.2, policy implication 2).

Figure 8. Distribution of occupations sought by unemployed youth and occupational distribution of employed youth (%)



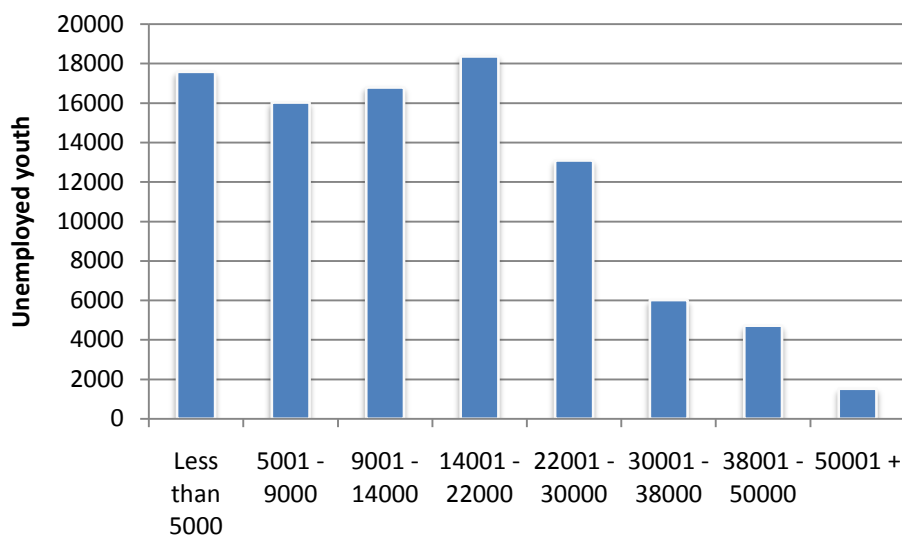
Source: SWTS, 2012.

While the occupation group “professionals” is the most sought after by the unemployed youth in the country, the group takes only the third highest rank of currently employed youth. 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 the 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 as a craftsman, 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.

Consider running a labour demand/skills assessment enterprise survey to shed light on issues such as labour market inefficiencies shown in job search/recruitment methods and mismatch between the skills-base of young labour market entrants and the realities of demand in the labour market (see section 5.2, policy implication 12).

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. Figure 9 shows a significant decrease in the number of unemployed youth when the household average monthly income reached above 30,000 denar per month. Wealthier households are concentrated more in urban than rural areas (Table A7).

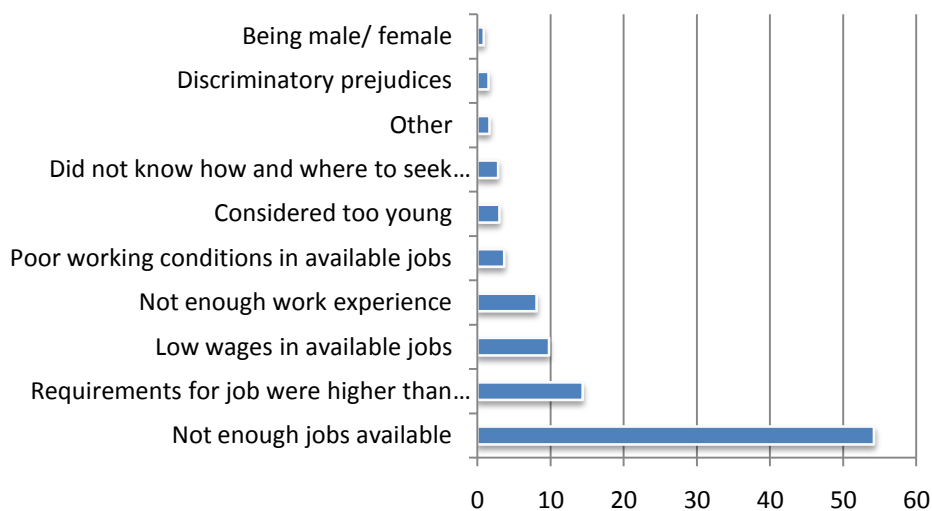
Figure 9. Youth unemployment by household average monthly income



Source: SWTS, 2012.

Asked about the main obstacle for finding work, over half of unemployed young people – 54.2 per cent – believe that the main challenge is the lack of available jobs (Figure 10 and Table A8). Sex discrimination is not considered an obstacle to finding work, as only 0.9 per cent flagged gender issues as a possible barrier. It should also be highlighted that 14.4 per cent thought that the main obstacle to finding a job was that the job requirements were higher than the education/training received.

Figure 10. Unemployed youth by main obstacle to finding work (%)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

There is not a significantly large difference between youth unemployment measured by the strict or the relaxed definition (whereby the active job search criteria is “relaxed”; see definitions in Annex I) in the country. Relaxing the active job search criteria adds only 14,529 (an increase of 14.7 per cent) to the unemployed pool (Table 8). Among the 14,529 youth who are without work, available for work but not actively seeking work, more than half (56.8 per cent) qualify as “discouraged workers” (Table A9). The discouraged youth have given up on the job search because of a reason implying a sense of despair about the labour market. 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. Overall, the share of discouraged youth in the youth labour force remains small at 3.6 per cent.

Table 8. Youth unemployment, strict and relaxed definition, and discouragement

	Total	Male	Female
Unemployed youth (strict)	98880	58822	40058
Unemployed youth (relaxed)	113408	68197	45211
Unemployment rate (strict)	43.3	44.4	41.8
Unemployment rate (relaxed)	46.7	48.0	44.7
Discouraged youth as % of unemployed not actively seeking work	56.8	60.7	49.6
Discouraged youth as % of labour force	3.6	4.3	2.7

Source: SWTS, 2012.

A likely reason for the comparatively low gap between strict and relaxed unemployment is the strength of the social protection system. If there is an incentive for a young person to actively engage in a job search, for example, if it serves as a requirement for receipt of unemployment benefits, then fewer youth will give up on the job search. In many Sub-Saharan African countries, in contrast, social protection systems are still weak so young people would be less likely to actively search for work for the purpose of maintaining a State entitlement. At the same time, an active search can be as simple as registering at an employment centre. Such public employment centres are rare in Sub-Saharan Africa.

The rules applying to unemployment benefits in the country are legislated in the Law on Employment and Insurance in Case of Unemployment. A person is registered as unemployed conditional upon fulfilling certain criteria: he /she must be unemployed, able and willing to work and actively searching for a job. The requirements for active job search include regular re-registration in the Employment Service Agency (ESA), attending interviews with employers arranged by the ESA, accepting a suitable job offer in terms of educational attainment and knowledge, accepting participation in active labour market policies, etc. Recent evidence has shown that re-registration at the ESA is usually the main and sole “activity” in the job search requirement given the low labour demand in the country (Mojsoska-Blazevski, 2011). The relative ease in qualifying as an active jobseeker and the attractive benefits of free health care given to the unemployed are factors behind the very high unemployment numbers in the country.

Table A10 shows that 65.7 per cent of the unemployed youth were registered at an employment centre. Even more popular job search methods include using informal networks, i.e. asking friends or relatives (88.7 per cent) and inquiring directly at establishments (68.3 per cent). More formal mechanisms of finding work were less used (35.7 per cent responded to job advertisements and 17.7 per cent undertook a test or interview).

One means of trying to gauge the relative urgency of the job search among unemployed youth is by determining (1) if the young unemployed ever refused a job offer and if so, for what reasons, and (2) under what conditions the unemployed youth would accept a job offer. 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 low at 5.7 per cent (Table A11). For young women, decisions regarding which jobs to take up are clearly influenced by the family. Forty five (45.1) per cent of unemployed young women who refused a job offer were because of a lack of approval within the family. In comparison, no young men refused a job due to family pressure. The majority reason for job refusal among young unemployed men was due to the low-level of the wages offered (79.6 per cent).

3.6 Youth outside of the labour force (inactive youth)

The total number of inactive youth is 220,830, of which 44.5 per cent are men and 55.5 per cent are women. The most common reason for inactivity – cited by 82.6 per cent – is attending education/training, followed by 13.4 per cent citing family responsibilities or housework. The other reasons for inactivity, such as pregnancy, illness or injury or being too young for work, are insignificant among the youth population (Table A12). Among the inactive non-students, results are split when it comes to their desire to work in the future (52.5 per cent said yes and 47.5 per cent said no).

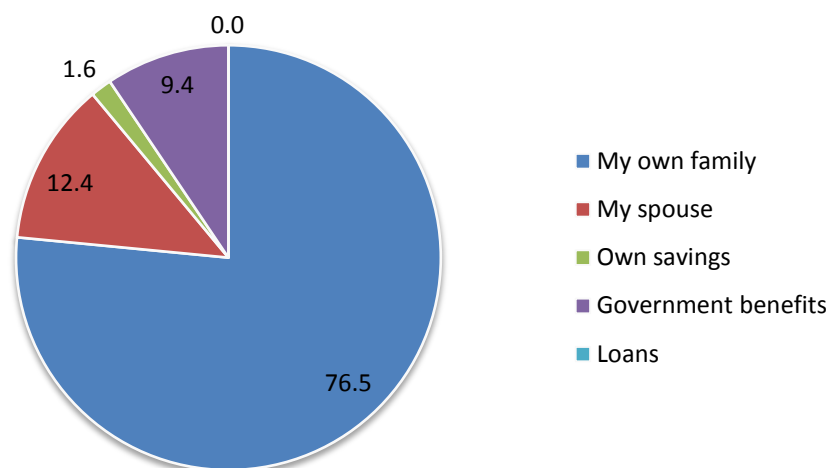
Ninety four (94.0) per cent of the young male and 73.5 per cent of the young female inactive population said that the reason for inactivity was attending education or training. The second most popular answer – family responsibilities or housework – was answered by 22.7 per cent of young inactive women, compared to only 1.8 per cent of men.

If a strict application of unemployment is applied in the labour force framework then the discouraged youth falls within the category of inactivity. The number of discouraged youth in the country was 8,252, which is still only a small portion of the overall labour force at 3.6 per cent (Table 8). Still, it is interesting to look further at the discouraged youth to see how they are using their time and how they are supporting themselves. Because the concern is mainly around the discouraged youth who are also not studying – this population sub-group is considered to be at risk of social exclusion – the non-student segment of the discouraged are analysed only. It is important to bear in mind, however, that we are only talking about 1.5 per cent of the total youth population.

Of discouraged youth who are not in school, most (71.2 per cent) said that they are using their time to meet friends, go dancing or go out to drink or eat (Table A13). Another group (19.0 per cent) help with household chores, while 3.8 per cent play on the computer and 4.0 per cent spend time watching TV. There are differences between young men and women in these categories. Young discouraged men are slightly more likely to spend time in socializing activities while young discouraged women are more likely to help out with household chores. Young discouraged men are also more likely to use their time playing on the computer and watching TV.

Most of the discouraged, non-student youth said that their main financial resource was their own family (76.5 per cent), 12.4 per cent said it was their spouse (interestingly, this category was all male), 9.4 per cent relied on government benefits and 1.6 per cent used their own savings (Figure 11 and Table A14).

Figure 11. Discouraged youth not in school by main source of financial resources (%)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

3.7 Characteristics of employed youth

Of employed youth, 66.7 per cent are paid workers (employees), 21.9 per cent are contributing family workers, followed by 6.3 per cent own account workers, 0.9 per cent employers and 4.2 per cent not classifiable by status (Table 9). Only 2.4 per cent of the total employed young women fall under the category of own-account workers compared to 9.3 per cent of the total employed young men. In contrast, young women are more likely to fall under the category of paid employees. It is interesting to note the higher share of young men in unpaid family work compared to young women. This falls contrary to the norm in many other countries in the world.

Encourage more youth to become entrepreneurs through training and replicate initiatives that have proven effective (see section 5.2, policy implication 9).

Table 9. Employed youth by status in employment and sex

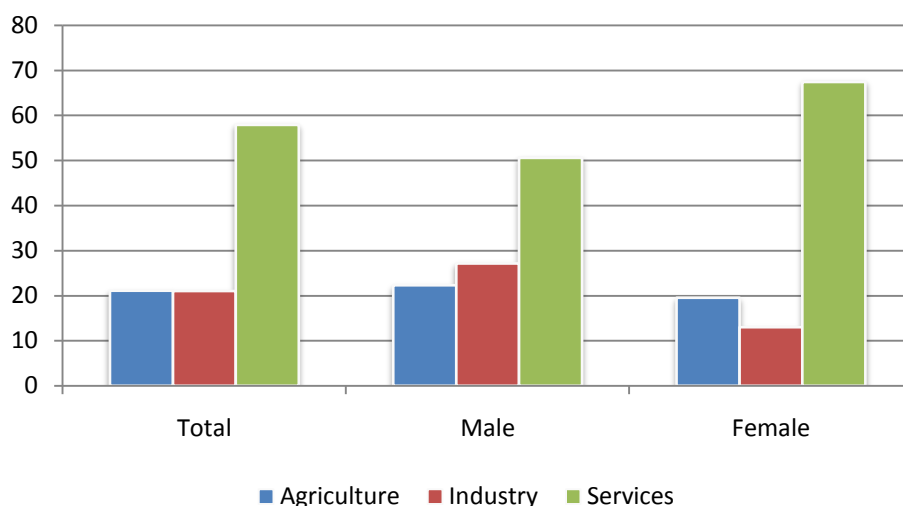
Status in employment	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Employees (paid workers)	86445	66.7	46127	62.5	40318	72.2
Unpaid family workers	28351	21.9	17277	23.4	11074	19.8
Own account workers	8172	6.3	6824	9.3	1348	2.4
Employers	1122	0.9	714	1.0	408	0.7
Other	5494	4.2	2807	3.8	2687	4.8
Total population	129584	100.0	73748	100	55835	100.0

Source: SWTS, 2012.

Figure 12 shows the distribution of employed youth by main sectoral branch. The majority of youth of both sexes are employed in services, although the share is higher for young women than men (67.4 and 50.6 per cent, respectively). The second largest sector for male youth employment is industry (27.1 per cent) while agriculture takes the second largest share for young women (19.5 per cent). In total, the shares of youth employment in agriculture and industry are equal at 21 per cent. At the more detailed sectoral level, we

find that as at the 1-digit level, employment in agriculture is the biggest single employer of youth in the country (Figure 13). For young men, the most significant sectors of employment are agriculture (21.4 per cent), manufacturing (16.5 per cent), wholesale and retail trade (15.5 per cent), accommodation and food services (9.6 per cent), and construction (8.8 per cent). For young women, most are employed in agriculture (19.5 per cent), wholesale and retail trade (19.4 per cent), health (15.1 per cent), manufacturing (11.9 per cent) and education (9.6 per cent).

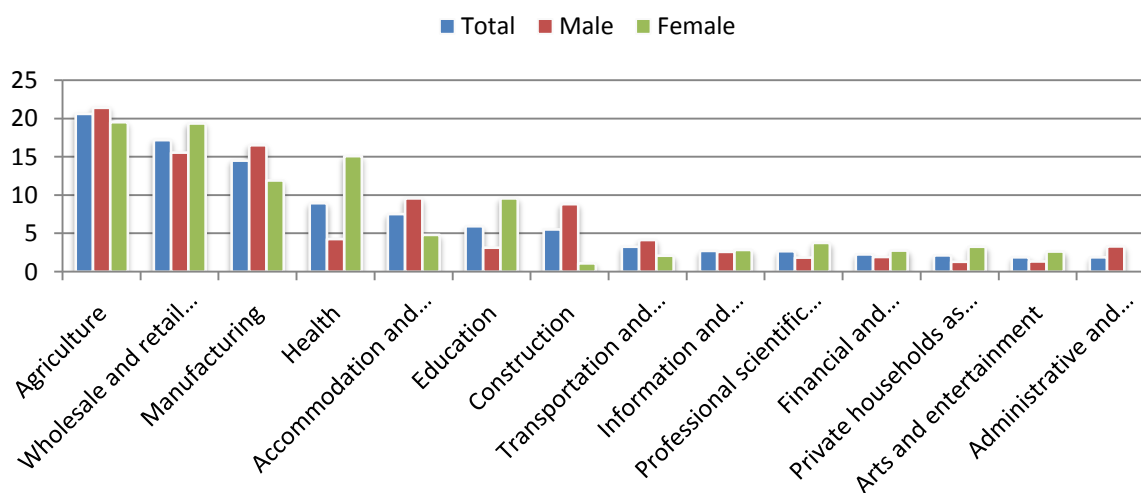
Figure 12. Distribution of youth employment by sector and sex (%)



Note: Agriculture includes agriculture, forestry and fishing; Industry includes sectors B through F; and Services includes sectors G through U (NACE rev. 2).

Source: SWTS, 2012.

Figure 13. Distribution of youth employment by sector at the 1-digit level and sex (%)



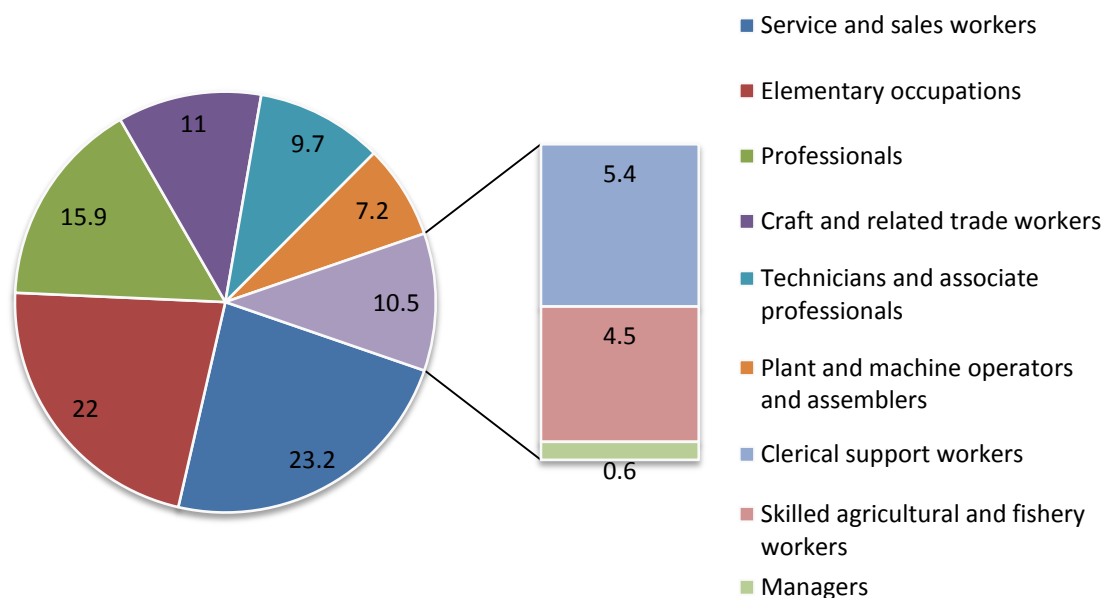
Note: NACE rev. 2; only divisions showing greater than 2 per cent of youth employment are displayed.

Source: SWTS, 2012.

Regarding occupation, the three largest occupational groups (based on ISCO-08) are service and sales workers (23.2 per cent), elementary occupations (22.0 per cent) and professionals (15.9 per cent) (Figure 14). There is therefore a spread of the higher-skilled occupations (professionals) and lower-skilled occupations (elementary occupations) among the top categories. Few young workers are engaged in skilled agricultural and fishery work

(4.5 per cent), which would mean that agricultural activities are spread across other occupations as well, given that 21.1 per cent of youth are classified in the agricultural sector (Figures 12 and 13). Occupational segregation is varied by sex. More young women work as professionals than young men (23.7 and 9.9 per cent, respectively) while more young men than women engage in crafts and related trade work (16.9 and 3.1 per cent, respectively) (Table A15). The gender gap among other occupations is less notable.

Figure 14. Youth employment by occupation (ISCO-08 major group, %)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

3.7.1 Wage employment

As mentioned above, 66.7 per cent of employed youth are paid workers, 62.5 per cent of young men and 72.2 per cent of young women. A high number of paid workers, 85.5 per cent, have medical insurance coverage, 85.7 per cent are covered by pension/old-age insurance, and 85.1 per cent have social security contributions (Table A16). While access to these basic benefits is extended to a significant portion of paid workers, only a small share of employed youth receives coverage for childcare facilities, severance or end-of-service payment, payment for training courses or bonuses for good performance. Despite this, it is important to highlight that a very large portion of employed young people has access to basic benefits such as pension, health and social security.

3.7.2 Self-employment

Of employed youth, 29.1 per cent are self-employed, most of which are unpaid family workers (Table 9). The majority of young people took up self-employment for involuntary reasons (70.1 per cent), either because they could not find a wage or salary job or because they were required by the family (Table A17). This illustrates that self-employment is likely to be seen as a last resort option by most youth in the country.

Self-employed youth are more likely to be found in urban areas (59.8 per cent of the total) than in urban areas (40.2 per cent) (Table A17). It is important to mention that it is only youth in urban areas that cited earning a higher income as their reason to be self-employed. None of the respondents answered that the reason for self-employment is to

have more flexible working hours. In contrast, one-fifth (22.5 per cent) of self-employed youth mentioned greater independence as a reason for choosing the option.

The young self-employed claim their most significant business challenge as insufficient financial resources (46.8 per cent) (Figure 15). Competition in the market and legal regulations took second and third position (22.2 and 12.0 per cent, respectively). Table 10 confirms that very few of the self-employed are accessing formal financial services. Only 7.8 per cent of the self-employed took a bank loan to start their business. The remainder of self-employed youth received the funds from their family or friends (48.2 per cent) or did not need start-up funds (20.4 per cent). Regarding working capital, i.e. how the self-employed handle their everyday expenses, 60.9 per cent of youth use the funds from their own savings, 27.8 per cent have no such expenses and 11.3 per cent get the funds from their family or friends.

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 (see section 5.2, policy implication 10).

Figure 15. Self-employed youth by most significant challenge (%)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

Table 10. Financial sources for self-employed youth (%)

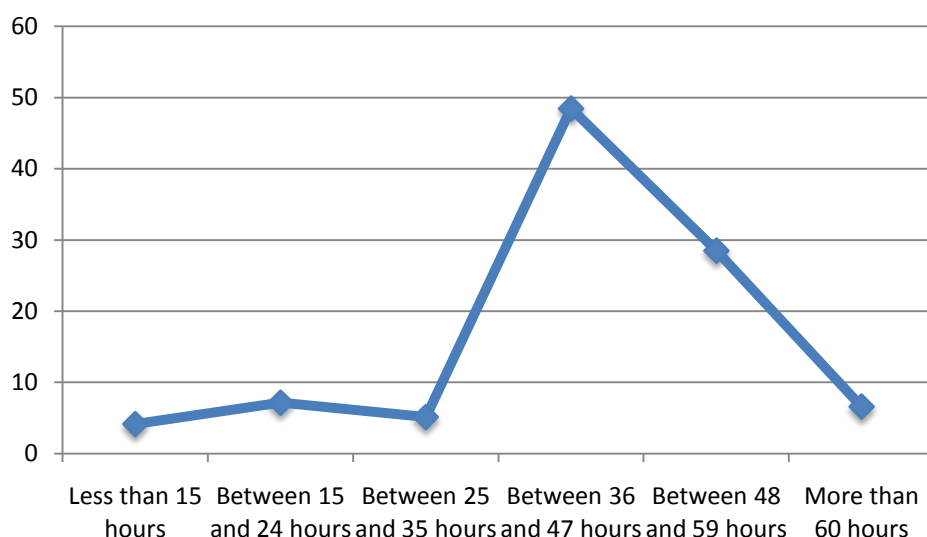
	Main source of start-up finance	Source of working capital (coverage of current expenses)
No money needed	20.4	27.8
Own savings	23.6	60.9
Money from family or friends	48.2	11.3
Loan from bank	7.8	*

*Negligible
Source: SWTS, 2012.

3.7.3 Hours of work

Figure 16 shows the distribution of youth employment by actual hours worked per week. Most young people work full time: 83.5 per cent of working youth work 35 hours or more per week. Thirty five (35.1) per cent of working youth can be said to work an excessive number of hours (more than 48 hours per week). Only 16.5 per cent of youth work part-time, which would hint that few of the numerous current students in the country are combining work and study (17.6 per cent of total employed youth are current students).

Figure 16. Distribution of youth employment by actual hours worked per week (%)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

Nearly half (47.8 per cent) of youth working less than 35 hours per week stated that they would like to work more hours, and therefore qualify as “involuntary part-time workers”. Given that few youth in the country work part-time, and that half of them do so involuntarily, it would appear that part-time employment is not viewed as a positive option for gaining work experience while studying or as a means to balance family responsibilities.

3.7.4 Other job quality indicators

The SWTS also allows measuring the quality of jobs to which young people have access. Figure 17 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:

- The share of own-account workers and paid employees with below average weekly wages or income⁸ (poorly paid);
- The share of over- or undereducated workers (qualification mismatch)⁹;

⁸ 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.

- The share of workers with contract of duration of less than 12 months, own-account workers and contributing family workers¹⁰ (irregular employment);
- The share of workers in informal employment¹¹ (informal employment); and
- The share of workers that claim dissatisfaction with their current job (non-satisfactory employment).

The right-hand side of the figure represents the indicators of better quality employment based on above average wages, qualifications, stability, voluntary part time, formality (security), and satisfaction. Fortunately, there does seem to be slightly more presence on the “quality” employment side than the “low quality” side for the national young population, although there are areas of concern. First, low pay is an issue in the country. Slightly more than half (52.9 per cent) of employees and own-account workers are taking home less than the average weekly wages. At the same time nearly half (48.2 per cent) of young workers are in what we classify as irregular work. 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 (see section 5.2, policy implication 4).

Figure 17. Indicators measuring quality of youth employment (%)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

⁹ The methodology applied is that of the normative ISCO-based approach described below. Table 11 provides the matching across ISCO and ISCED educational codes.

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

¹¹ 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.

Informal employment is also a concern. Again, we see almost half (48.4 per cent) of youth falling into this category. Informal employment is made up of two sub-categories: workers in the informal (unregistered) sector and paid employees holding informal jobs in the formal sector. The latter category do earn a salary but do not receive the other benefits, like social security contributions or paid annual or sick leave, that would normally come with a formal job. Among young people in informal employment, there are slightly more falling into the category of informal job in the formal sector (56.3 per cent) than the category of informal sector employment (43.7 per cent).

Continue to strengthen the existing efforts to regularize the informal businesses of young people through awareness raising, business development services, self-employment grants and credit lines and labour inspection (see section 5.1).

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)¹² that is reproduced in Table 11.

Table 11. ISCO Major groups and education levels

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

Source: ILO, 2013a, 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 here is that more young workers are in an occupation that matches their level of education (66.8 per cent) than occupations for which they are overqualified or underqualified. Table 12 provides the breakdown: 18.9 per cent of young workers are

¹² For more information on this ISCO-based along with other methods of measuring skills mismatches, see Quintini (2011).

overeducated and 14.3 per cent are undereducated. The results are, in part, a reflection of the levels of educational attained by youth in the country. With a substantial share of employed youth holding higher level degrees in the country, it is not overly surprising to find more youth classifying as overeducated than undereducated. The phenomenon of overeducation tends to take place when there is an insufficient number of jobs that match a certain level of education, which 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.

It is interesting to see that the ISCO-based measure of overeducation corresponds fairly well to the youth's perception of the relevance of their education/training qualifications to the current job; however, there is an inflation of the undereducated measured according to ISCO compared to the measure of self-perception. Very few of the young workers (3.0 per cent) claimed "to experience gaps in my knowledge and skills / need additional training", yet the ISCO-based measure put the share of undereducated at 14.3 per cent.

Table 12. Employment by characteristics of education (%)

Overeducated (ISCO-based)	Undereducated (ISCO-based)	Self-perceived overqualified	Self-perceived underqualified	Completed primary or less education	Completed secondary education	Completed tertiary education
18.9	14.3	23.1	3.0	17.2	57.4	25.2

Source: SWTS, 2012.

Table 13 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, sales workers or general labourers (within the elementary occupations). On the other hand, there are also young people holding positions that do not match perfectly to their education degree. Technicians and associate professionals (major group 3) have the highest chance of being undereducated in the country (54.2 per cent), but another one-third (35.3 per cent) of youth in senior positions or management are undereducated as are one in four youth in skilled agriculture work and in machine/assembly work.

Table 13. Shares of overeducated and undereducated young workers by major occupational category (ISCO-08, %)

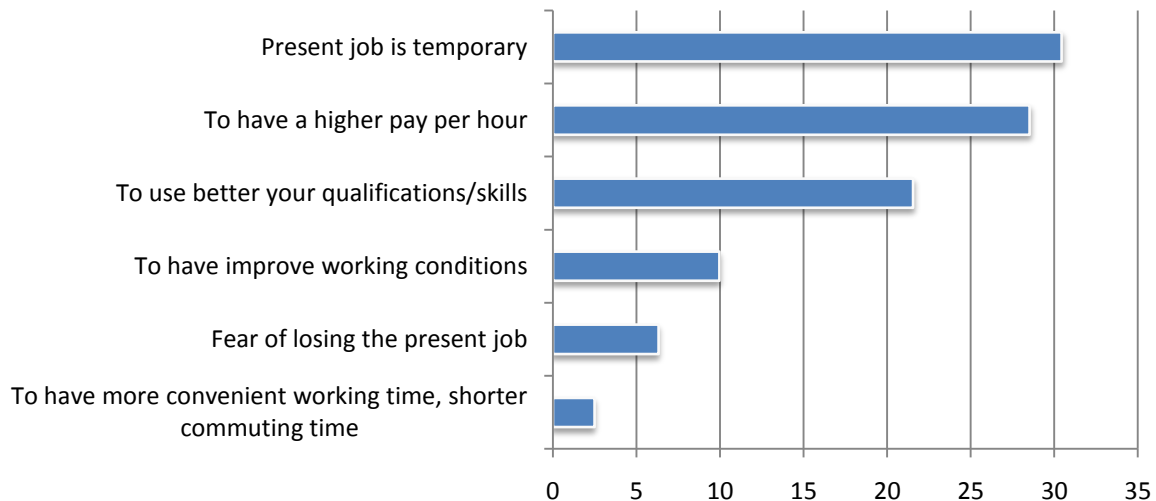
Major occupational categories (ISCO-08)	Overeducated	Undereducated
1: Managers	0.0	35.3
2: Professionals	0.0	2.1
3: Technicians and associate professionals	0.0	54.2
4: Clerical support workers	40.6	6.9
5: Service and sales workers	13.8	9.1
6: Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	7.1	26.5
7: Craft and related trades workers	0.7	14.7
8: Plant and machine operators and assemblers	2.6	25.6
9: Elementary occupations	63.4	2.7

Source: SWTS, 2012.

3.7.5 Security and satisfaction

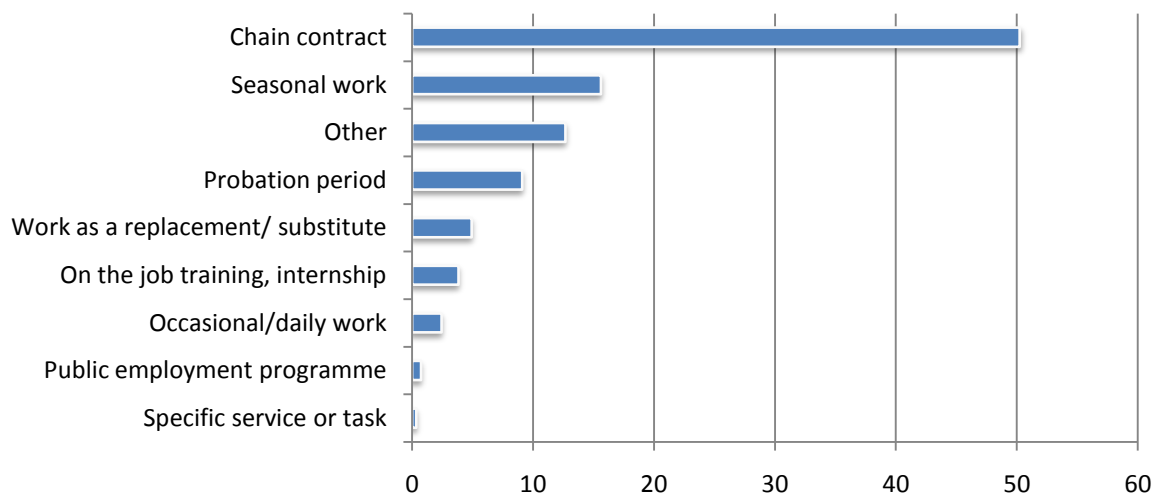
One surprising element that came in the examination of job quality indicators in Figure 17 is that despite some indications of poor quality employment, the vast majority of young people have expressed satisfaction with their work (including both paid and self-employment) (72.7 per cent). The seeming 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 low-demand labour market with large unemployment rates, simply having a job may outweigh issues of poor job quality.

Figure 18. Employed youth who would like to change their work by reason (%)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

Figure 19. Youth on temporary employment contract by reason (%)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

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 (44.4 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 (30.4 per cent),unsatisfactory

pay (28.5 per cent) and qualification mismatch (21.6 per cent) (Figure 18). Of the working youth who stated a desire to change jobs, slightly more than half (52.2 per cent) took action to do so, either through searching for another job or for additional work on top of the current job.

Sixteen (15.8) per cent of young workers are on temporary contracts, meaning less than 12 months in duration (32.8 per cent of the total irregularly employed in Figure 17). Half of the youth on a temporary contract are engaged on a “chain contract” system, meaning their contract is likely to be renewed upon the termination of the duration, but that the renewal is not guaranteed (Figure 19). Other reasons for working on temporary contracts include seasonal work (15.6 per cent), probationary period (9.1 per cent), replacing someone else (4.9 per cent) and engagement in on-the-job training or internship (3.8 per cent).

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 (84.5 per cent of working youth). Only 10.7 per cent felt they would not be able to work at the same job over the coming period (the remaining 6.6 per cent of young workers were unable to judge).

3.7.6 The job search

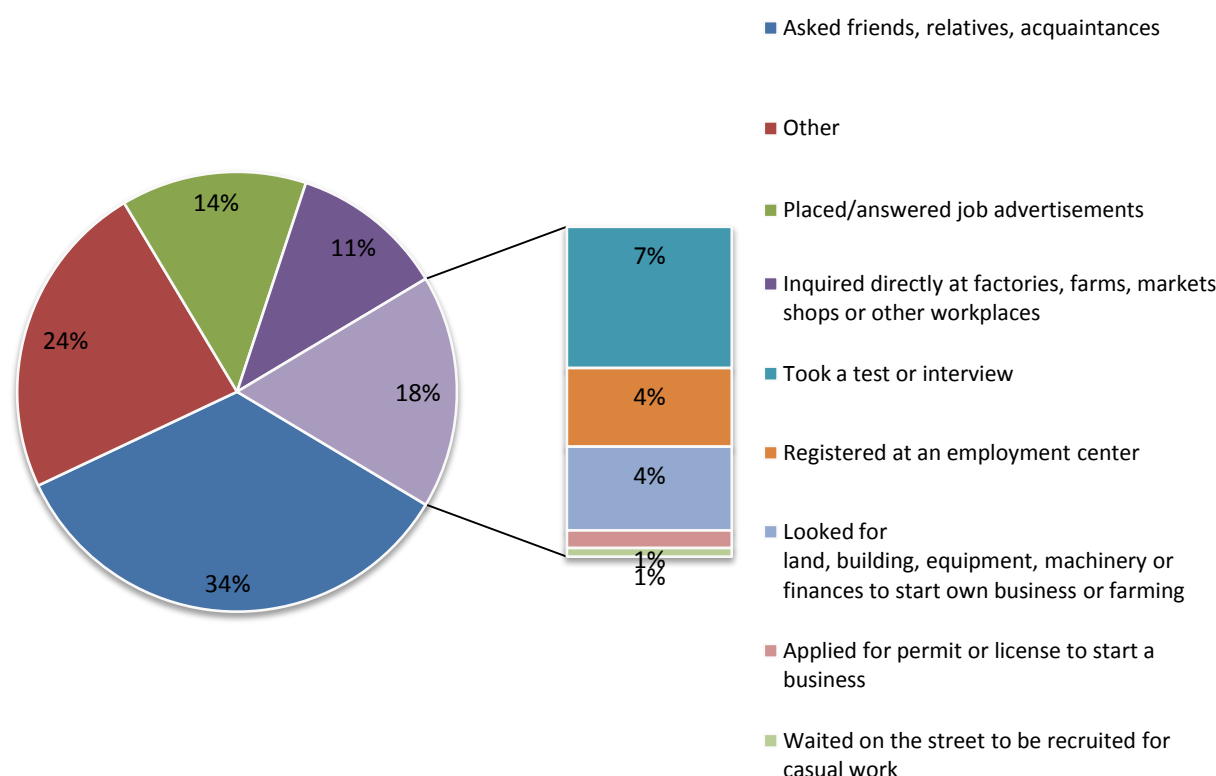
The largest share of the currently employed youth searched for work prior to obtaining the current job for a period of one year or longer (39.9 per cent), but another 21.9 per cent spent less than one week to get the current employment (Table A18). Young workers currently working in a regular job (paid employment with a contract of duration of one year or longer plus employers) spent significantly longer in the job search than youth working in an irregular job (paid employment with a contract of duration of less than 12 months, own-account workers and contributing family workers). The share of young workers in stable employment who spent longer than one year looking for work prior to obtaining the job is double that of youth working in irregular employment. In contrast, the share of youth working in irregular employment that spent less than one week looking for the job is three times that of youth in stable employment. More on durations of transition will be discussed in section 4.

It is interesting to compare the job search methods used by the currently employed youth to the job search methods of the currently unemployed (discussed in section 3.5). The hope would be that the currently employed youth used a job search method that proved to be underutilized by the currently unemployed. Unfortunately, finding the answers to the labour market challenges in the country does not prove to be so easy. There is overlap in job search methods used by the currently employed and unemployed. The largest share of employed youth attained their job through asking family and friends (34.4 per cent), which also proves to be the most common job search tool of the jobseekers (Figure 20 and Table A10).

Curiously, the second and third most common job search methods used by the unemployed (multiple answers were allowed) – registering at an employment centre and direct inquiry at places of employment – did not prove to be hugely successful methods for the currently employed. Eleven (11.3) per cent did get there job through direct inquiry but only 4.1 per cent of working youth were placed at the current job from an employment centre. Fourteen (13.7) per cent of working youth responded directly to a job advertisement or placed their own advertisement, a method used by 35.7 per cent of the unemployed. The possible ineffectiveness of the employment services in the country is further supported by the statistic which shows that 85.5 per cent of the employed youth did not make use of any service offered by an employment centre.

Increase the relevance and funding of employment services in order to raise the attractiveness of labour offices of the ESA as a placement tool for jobseeking youth (see section 5.2, policy implication 6).

Figure 20. Employed youth by job search method used to attain current job (%)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

4. Stages of transition

4.1 Concepts and definitions¹³

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)

¹³ This section is adapted from ILO (2013a), chapter 5.

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-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.

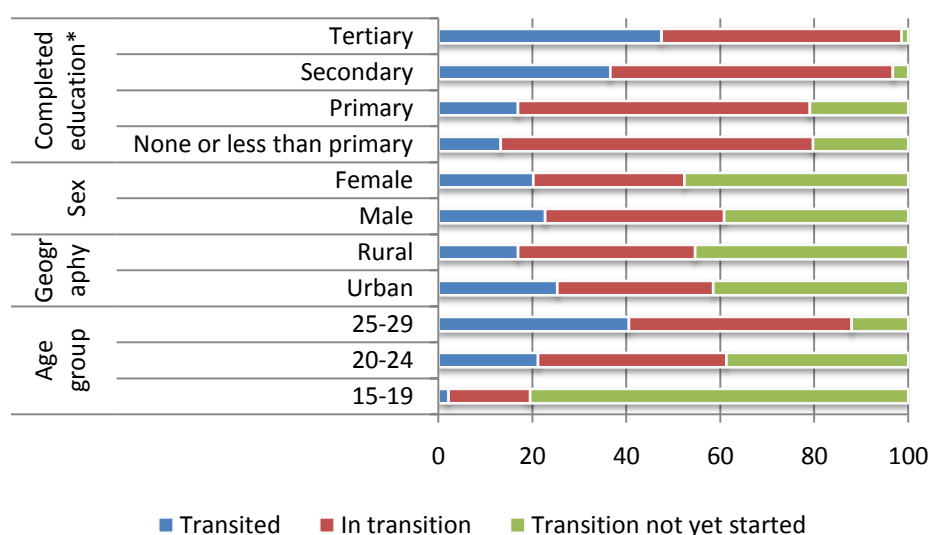
Second, the stages of transition are not intended to be a normative framework. Because of the inclusion of persons in satisfactory self-employment and satisfactory temporary employment, one cannot say that all youth in the “transited” category have transited to a good quality job. In fact, the majority of persons in self-employment – the own-account workers and unpaid family workers – will be among the poorly paid workers in the informal economy showing up on the poor quality job side of Figure 17 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

Concerning the transition stage of the youth population, the largest share of the youth population are those who have not yet started the transition process (43.3 per cent) (Table A19). The percentage of those who have completed the transition is 21.5 per cent, and the percentage of those who are in the process of transition is 35.2 per cent.

Figure 21 shows the distribution of stages of transition by youth characteristics – detailed age band, sex, urban/rural geography and level of education attainment (see also Table A22). Not surprisingly, the age of the young person has a strong correlation to the stages of transition. Few of the 15-19 year olds have started or completed the transition, and very few of the older age band, 25-29 years, remain in the category of transition not yet started (12.0 per cent). There is an urban bias on completed transitions while rural youth have a higher share remaining in transition and transition not yet started. There are more young males than young women in the categories of completed transition and in transition. Finally, youth with tertiary education are almost equally represented among the youth who have completed the transition (47.5 per cent) and youth remaining in transition (51.1 per cent), whereas youth with primary education or less are much more likely to remain in transition or have not yet started the transition.

Figure 21. Stages of transition by age group, urban/rural geography, sex and level of educational attainment (%)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

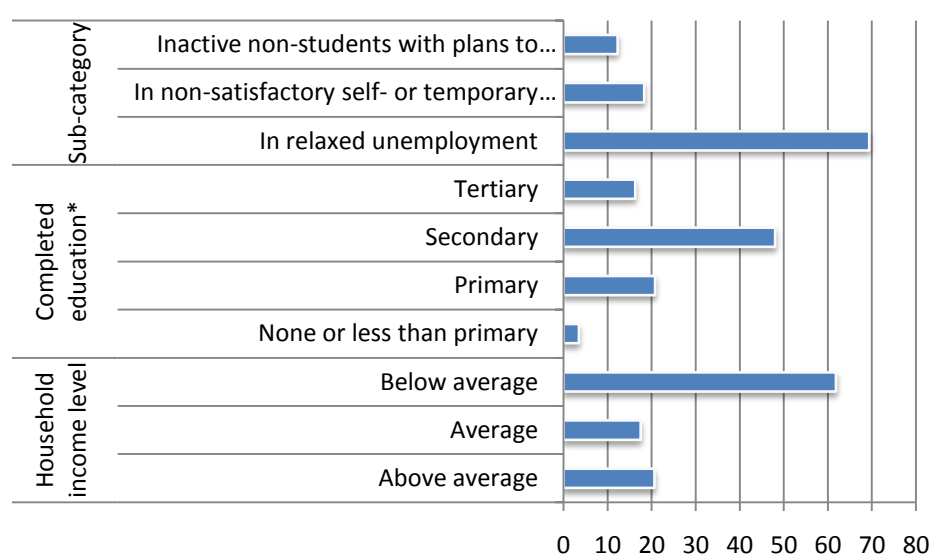
4.2.1 Youth who have not yet started the transition

The results of the SWTS show that most of the youth population (90.9 per cent) who have not started their transition are in school and only 9.1 per cent are currently inactive and not school with no intention of looking for work (Table A20). Young men and women are almost equally represented among the inactive students (50.6 per cent are male and 49.4 per cent are female). The gender balance breaks down completely, however, when looking at the category of inactive non-students with no plans to join the labour market in the future. Young women constitute 90.0 per cent of the sub-category. Of the total male youth who have not yet started their transition, only 1.9 per cent is inactive and not in school, while 98.1 per cent is in education. On the other hand, 15.4 per cent of the female youth population is inactive but not in school, whereas 84.6 per cent are in school.

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 22 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).

Figure 22. “In transition” youth by level of household income, geographic location, level of completed educational attainment and sub-category (%)



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

Source: SWTS, 2012.

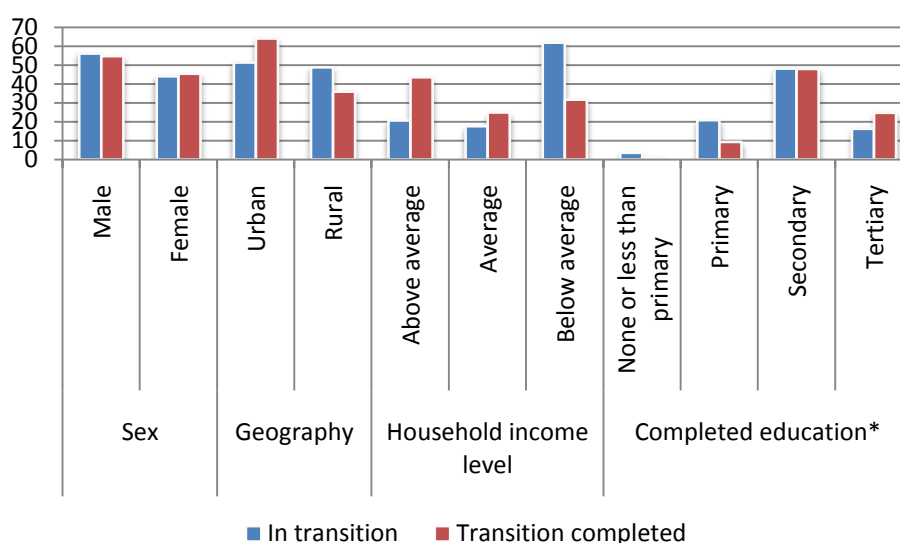
The majority of youth in the category of “in transition” are classified as such because they are unemployed (69.4 per cent). Only 18.3 per cent of youth in the category are in non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment and even less (12.3 per cent) are inactive non-students with plans to work. Nearly half (48.0 per cent) of youth “in transition” have completed education at the secondary level. Those with tertiary education represent the lowest share, at 16.3 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 4.3). The level of household income also seems to have an influence on the transition stage: 61.8 per cent of youth remaining in transition come from households having below average income levels.

Table A21 shows the cross-tabulations of the sub-categories of in transition youth by the same variables shown in Figure 22. 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 higher educated youth, then, are more likely to spend the transition in unemployment than in the non-satisfactory working or inactive sub-categories.

4.3 Characteristics of a completed transition

Figure 23 compares the stages of “completed transition” and “in transition” youth by the variables of sex, geographic location, 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 (54.7 per cent on young men have completed the transition compared to 45.3 per cent of young women). Second, living in an urban area increases the youth’s chances of completing the transition (64.0 per cent of transited youth are in urban areas compared to 36.0 per cent in rural areas).

Figure 23. 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, 2012.

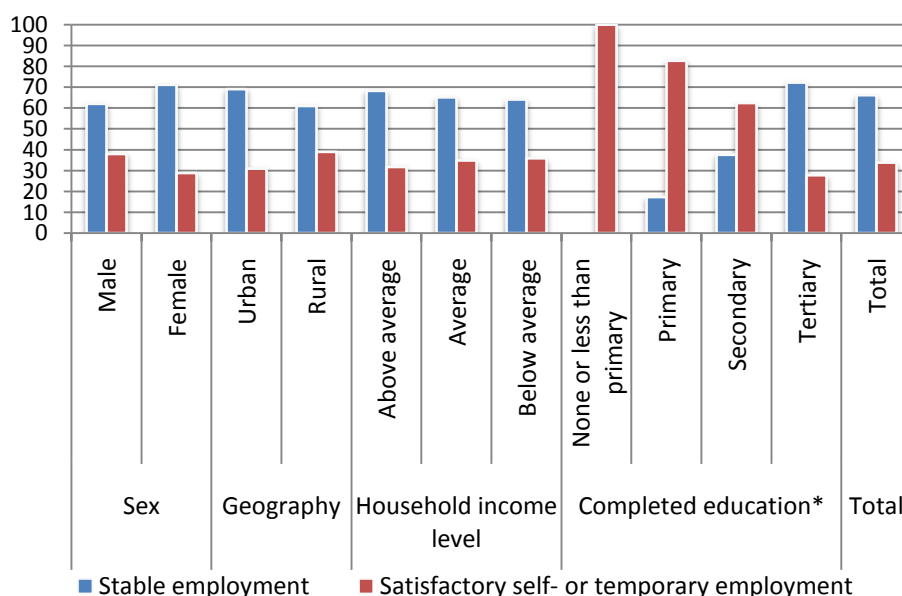
Youth from wealthier households have a higher likelihood to complete the transition, although youth from below average income households are also fairly well represented (31.7 per cent). Finally, education matters: one quarter (24.8 per cent) of transited youth had completed education at the tertiary level compared to 16.3 per cent of youth remaining in transition. At the secondary level, there is no difference between the shares by the two stages of transition, 47.9 per cent of transited youth had completed the secondary level compared to 48.0 per cent of youth in transition. Note, however, that if we look at raw numbers alone (Table A22), the youth with a secondary-level degree is almost twice as likely to remain in transition as to have completed the transition. Only 10.4 per cent of the transited youth had low levels of education (primary or less), compared to 24.3 per cent of the youth remaining in transition.

Most of the transited young people have attained a stable and satisfactory job (60.7 per cent), 18.1 per cent are in satisfactory self-employment, 15.7 per cent have a satisfactory temporary job and the remaining 5.4 per cent are in a job that is stable but still non-satisfactory (Table A23). 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 24 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 transitioned to satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment.

Young women who have completed their transition to the labour market have a higher likelihood to attain stable employment than young men (71.2 and 62.0 per cent, respectively). The share of transitioned youth in stable employment is higher than youth in satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment in both urban and rural areas, but there is a higher share of youth in the latter category in rural areas. Similarly, transitioned youth have a greater tendency to reach stable employment regardless of household income level, but the likelihood to end up in satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment does have an inverse relationship to the level of household wealth.

Figure 24. Transitioned youth by sub-category and by sex, urban/rural geography, household income level and level of educational attainment (%)



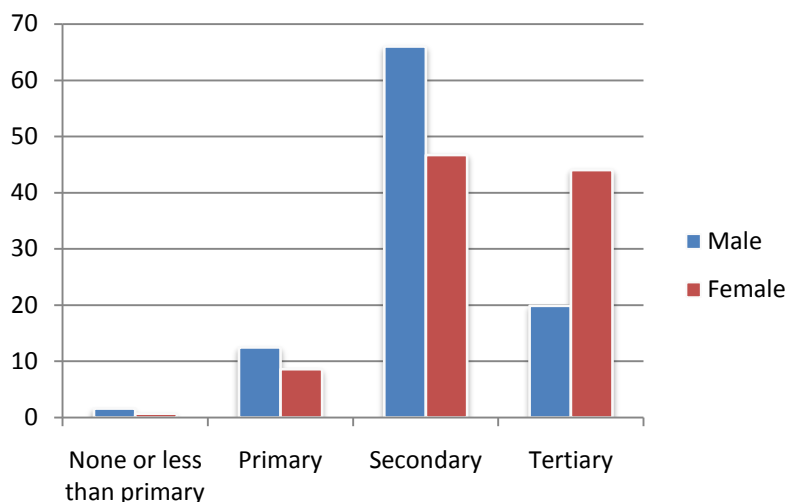
*Excluding current students since their highest level is not yet determinable

Source: SWTS, 2012.

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. 72.2 per cent of transitioned youth with a tertiary degree are in stable employment compared to 27.8 per cent in satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment. Still, there are interesting differences when one looks at education levels of transitioned youth by sex (Figure 25). For young men, there is a three to one difference in the share of male youth who transitioned with secondary level education compared to tertiary level (66.0 per cent compared to 19.9 per cent). For young women, however, having the higher level degree seems to bear more weight. Forty four (44.0) per cent of the transitioned young women held a tertiary degree while 46.7 per cent finished at the secondary level.

Give priority to the most disadvantaged youth in the programmes of the Employment Services Agency (see section 5.2, policy implication 6).

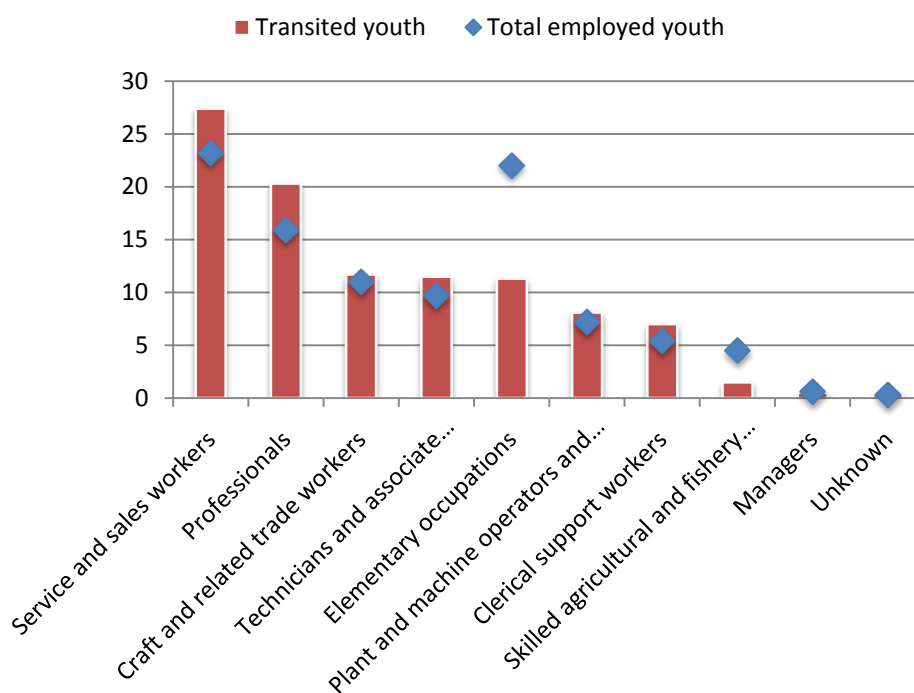
Figure 25. Distribution of transited youth by level of educational attainment and sex (%)



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

Source: SWTS, 2012.

Figure 26. Occupational distribution of transited youth and total employed youth (ISCO-08, %)



Source: SWTS, 2012.

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. Figure 26 shows the two employment 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 service and sales workers similar to the broader group while the smallest share of both groups are youth working as managers. However, there is one important exception: The share of overall employed youth engaged in the elementary occupations is significantly higher than the share of transited youth in elementary

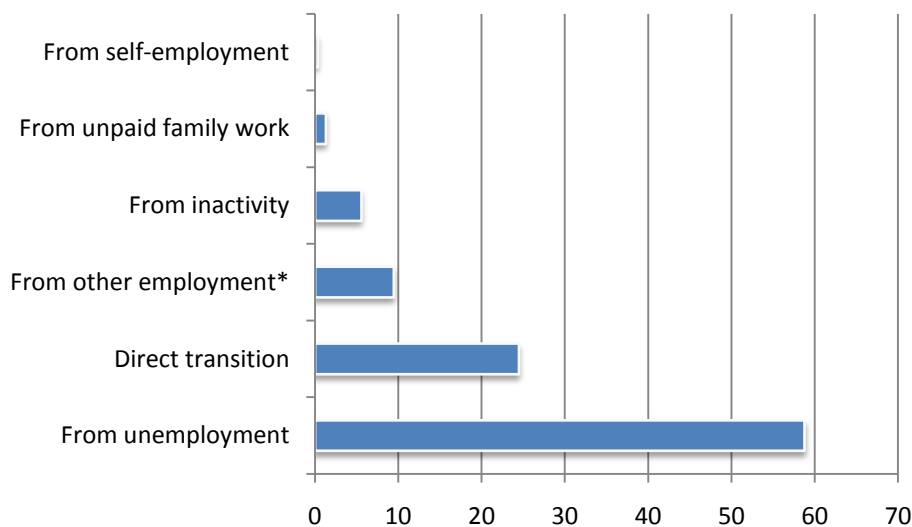
occupations (22.0 and 11.3 per cent, respectively). This is a strong hint that many youth working in elementary occupations are unlikely to have a stable contract or are dissatisfied with their work and are therefore classified as remaining in transition. Similarly, the overall employed share in skilled agricultural work exceeds the share of the occupation among transitioned youth, which implies that the three percentage point gap are young people with an unstable contract or who are not satisfied with their work in the agricultural sector.

Promote decent work in the agriculture sector and among elementary occupations through enforcement of labour laws and collective agreements (see section 5.2, policy implication 8).

4.4 Transition paths and durations of transition

Another means of looking at the transition is through flows, identifying the labour market category held by the young person prior to transitioning to stable or satisfactory employment. The largest share of transitioned youth in the country was unemployed prior to obtaining the stable or satisfactory job (58.8 per cent) (Figure 27).¹⁴ One quarter (24.5 per cent) of youth transitioned directly to their resting point in stable employment or satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment. 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. Of those who moved directly to the transitioned position, 63.6 per cent transitioned directly to stable employment and 36.4 per cent transitioned to satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment.

Figure 27. Flows to stable and/or satisfactory employment (“transitioned” category) (%)



*“Other employment” includes non-satisfactory temporary employment for those who transitioned to stable employment or satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment, and self-employment as employer or wage and salaried worker for those who transitioned to satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment.

Source: SWTS, 2012.

Rather worrisome is the extremely low share of youth who transitioned from unpaid family work (1.3 per cent) given that 21.9 per cent of working youth currently fall into this status of employment. Another interesting finding is the very low percentage of young people who moved to stable and/or satisfactory employment from inactivity (5.6 per cent),

¹⁴ The strict definition of unemployment requiring an active job search is applied here.

suggesting the existence of an “inactivity trap” in addition to the “unpaid family work trap”.

Table 14 presents some transition path indicators that provide a more detailed picture of how youth arrived to the transitioned stage. Excluding the youth who transitioned directly to stable or satisfactory employment, the path to transition involved, on average, 2 (1.6) 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 unemployment in their transition path, but the spell was long, averaging 37.1 months or slightly longer than 3 years. The average young transitioned male spent slightly longer in unemployment than the young female (38.7 months compared to 35.1 months). Since the number of intermediary activities in the path of transition exceeds the average number of unemployment spells, it seems that many of the transitioned youth experience both a spell of temporary employment and a spell of unemployment before completing the transition.

Table 14. Indicators on path of transition for “transitioned” youth by sex

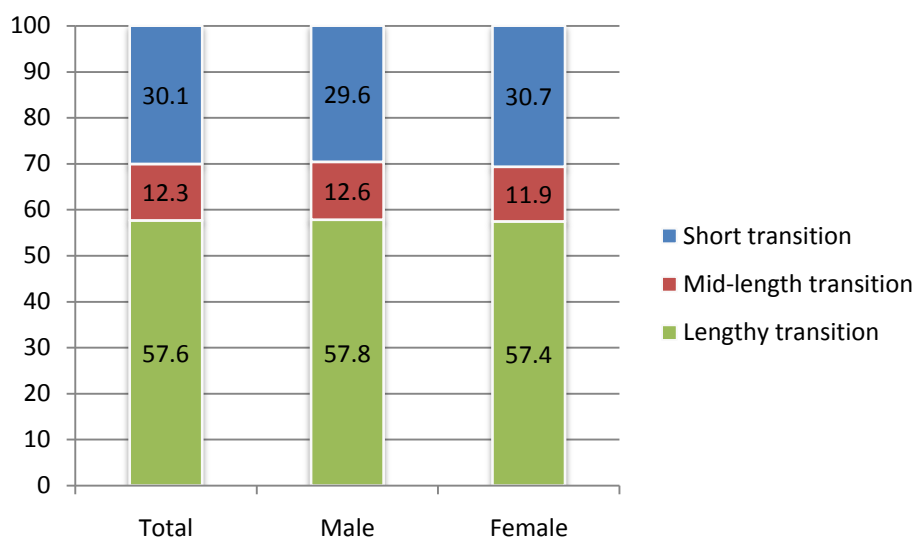
	Total	Male	Female
Average duration of transition, excluding direct transits (months)	50.3 months	57.3 months	41.2 months
Average duration of transition, including direct transits (months)	36.3 months	41.0 months	30.2 months
Average duration of transition to stable employment (months)	35.3 months	39.4 months	30.7 months
Average duration of transition to satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment (months)	38.6 months	43.9 months	28.9 months
Average number of intermediary activities	1.6	1.7	1.4
Average number of unemployment spells	1.1	1.2	1.1
Average duration of unemployment spells (months)	37.1 months	38.7 months	35.1 months
Average number of temporary employment spells	1.3	*	*
Average duration of temporary employment spells (months)	12.9 months	*	*

*Insignificant number of observations.
Source: SWTS, 2012.

When one includes the young people who transitioned directly to stable and/or satisfactory employment to generate an average duration of transition (24.5 per cent; see Figure 27), the results show duration of the transition period to be slightly longer than three years (36.3 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 1.6 spells of intermediary activities), but it was extremely long at 50.3 months, or more than 4 years. The time spent in transition averaged more than a year longer for young men compared to young women (57.3 and 41.2 months, respectively).

The ILO has also developed a classification system for the duration of the transition period of youth who have completed the transition.¹⁵ It took a long time for the majority of transitioned youth to reach the current status in stable or satisfactory employment. The duration of transition was classified as lengthy for 57.6 per cent of transitioned youth, mid-length for 12.3 per cent and short for 30.1 per cent (Figure 28). The difference between the sexes is negligible. The shares confirm the information in Table 14. If the average transitioned youth had a three year period of unemployment, then it is clear that the bulk of youth are facing a very long period of transition. Clearly, it is not an easy process for young people to become economically independent in the country.

Figure 28. Classification of duration of transition of youth who have completed the transition by sex (%)



Source: SWTS, 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, six years (71.6 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). In fact, given the long periods in which the young

¹⁵ 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.

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).

5. Policy implications

5.1 Relevant policy framework

A three-year action plan to promote more and better jobs for young people aged between 15-29 was adopted by the Government on 17 October 2012. The National Action Plan for Youth Employment (NAPYE) focuses on strengthening employment policies, including educational, training and youth programmes, in order to improve their opportunities for employment and social inclusion. It is harmonized with the National Employment Strategy of the Republic of Macedonia 2015, where youth represents a special target group. Effective education and training policies promote the employability of youth and reduce the skills gap.

The NAPYE, along with the National Programme for the Development of Education 2005-2015, calls for the education and training systems to be aligned with the needs of the labour market. Emphasis is placed on the reform of the vocational education and training curriculum to encompass non-vocational skills and work-based learning. Moreover, the NAPYE calls for career education to be introduced in secondary schools and for the Employment Services Agency (ESA) to improve its services in the area of career guidance. The ESA is also asked to establish an early-profiling system for unemployed youth, in order to identify youth at high-risk of facing multiple barriers to the labour market.

The Government supports labour market training programmes for unemployed youth, and the NAPYE sets the target for 60 per cent of these youth to be employed after six months of the training's completion. Funding of such programmes is, of course, a concern, and in order to remedy the lack of adequate funding of active labour market policies (ALMP), the NAPYE calls for a portion of the unemployment insurance revenues to be reallocated to finance ALMPs targeting youth.

While many of the above provisions focus on the supply-side of the labour market, the NAPYE also acknowledges the role of the private sector in job creation and recruitment of young workers. To promote youth entrepreneurship, secondary schools will offer entrepreneurship courses as electives. In addition, the NAPYE aims to expand enterprise development programmes and its support to business incubators (as mentioned in the Innovation Strategy 2012-2020), and further develop services that can help young entrepreneurs.

One provision of the NAPYE is to increase investment in the economic sectors and enterprises with high youth employment impact by providing credit and other enterprise development services. The NAPYE also seeks to extend the tax incentives for businesses to hire new recruits, established by Article 98 in The Law on Employment and Unemployment Insurance, to enterprises employing young people in the priority sectors. A Labour Market Unit will play a critical role in identifying potential growth sectors.

Regarding the business environment, a significant challenge is the prominence of the informal economy. The SWTS reveals that half (48.4 per cent) of young workers are engaged in informal employment. The NAPYE expands the existing efforts of the Employment Services Agency, which aim to regularize the informal businesses of young people. Specific measures include awareness raising, business development services, self-employment grants and credit lines. In addition, the work of the Labour Inspectorate,

governed by the Labour Relations Law to prevent informal employment, is expanded under the NAPYE to include those sectors with large levels of informal employment such as agriculture, accommodation and food services, commerce and construction.

5.2 Policy implications

With one of the highest youth unemployment rates in the world and extremely low employment rates among youth, the urgency of addressing the issue of youth employment in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia is greater than in many other countries. And it is clear that the current Government is taking the issue seriously. Youth employment is included in the policy-making process as a crosscutting theme. This has increasingly required coordination across a wide spectrum of national institutions and agencies and coherence in shaping economic and social policies that address youth employment.

Although there is no one-size-fits all approach to tackling the youth employment crisis, there are some key policy areas that need to be considered and tailored to national and local circumstances. These areas were identified at the International Labour Conference (ILC) in June 2012 and are included in its resolution, “The youth employment crisis: A call for action”, which was adopted by representatives of governments, employers’ organizations and trade unions of the 185 member States of the ILO (ILO, 2012).

The “call for action” underlines the urgency for immediate and targeted interventions to tackle the unprecedented youth employment crisis. It provides a global framework that can be adapted to the national circumstances of the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia in implementing policies and strategies for decent work for youth that are based on a multi-pronged and balanced approach. The framework covers five main policy areas: (1) employment and economic policies to increase aggregate demand and improve access to finance; (2) education and training to ease the school-to-work transition and to prevent skills mismatches; (3) labour market policies to target employment of disadvantaged youth; (4) entrepreneurship and self-employment to assist potential young entrepreneurs; and (5) labour rights that are based on international labour standards to ensure that young people receive equal treatment and are afforded rights at work. These main policy areas are briefly discussed below in light of the issues identified in this report.

In parallel, the National Action Plan for Youth Employment (NAPYE), adopted in late 2012, provides a comprehensive policy framework for redressing the significant challenges facing the young women and men in the national labour market. The plan was developed with the technical assistance of the ILO and in consultation with national employers’ organizations and trade unions. The main challenge that lies ahead now is in operationalizing the NAPYE.

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 NAPYE. In particular, the following main areas of actions should be closely monitored over the course of the NAPYE:

- 1. Design macroeconomic policy to promote job growth, especially within the services sector.** The results have shown that the largest group among the unemployed are hoping to gain work as “professionals”, while currently the occupation group takes the third highest rank 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 craftsman, on the other hand, is likely to find it less difficult to find work. Beyond improving the alignment of the education system to the demands of the labour market, 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, 2013a, chapter 6). See Box 3 for some general approaches in this area.

- 2. Educational access for all and prevention of early school leaving.** The education system is historically strong, but it is clear that not everyone is currently making the most of it. One-third (35.5 per cent) of the youth aged 15-29 remained in education through primary level or lower. Even worse is that one half of the same group of young people has at least one parent who completed their education at a higher level, thus hinting at a deterioration in the education system from one generation to the next. Even though education is not a panacea and there is evidence that some of the best educated are having to take up work that they are overqualified for, having a higher level of education still improves the chance that a young person will eventually obtain stable and satisfactory employment. The higher educated also have less chance of being unemployed and inactive. Keeping young people motivated to stay in school and improving the quality of education will create better equality of opportunities among the young population and will also raise the productive potential of the country.
- 3. Tackle long-term unemployment among youth.** Three in four unemployed youth have been looking for work for longer than one year. Among the few youth who did manage to complete the transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment (21.5 per cent of the youth population), the average time spent in the search for work was slightly more than 3 years. Tackling long-term unemployment is not an easy task, but some neighbouring European countries have managed to gain positive results by offering a comprehensive package of labour market programmes and employment services. These include employment counselling, motivational training, skills development and job readiness training, as well as subsidized employment for a limited period (ILO, 2012b). One of the most successful ways to increase labour market attachment of long-term unemployed youth is to design programmes that target specific disadvantages that are built in an individualized “profile” and are based on jobs that are in demand.
- 4. Improve conditions of work by ensuring equal treatment for and rights of young workers.** The survey results show that young people continue to suffer disproportionately from decent work deficits and low-quality jobs. Many of them are trapped in irregular employment, often 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 invest in the improvement of conditions of work of young people can facilitate transitions from temporary to stable jobs and from the informal to the formal economy.
- 5. 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. But 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.
- 6. The increase of relevance and funding of employment services is critical to meeting the objectives of the NAPYE.** Currently, 85.5 per cent of the employed youth stated they had not made use of any employment services to obtain their current job. Strengthening the provision of employment services, including with adequate funding, could help to raise the attractiveness of labour offices of the ESA as a placement tool for jobseeking youth. Two-thirds of the young unemployed (65.7 per cent) were registered at an employment centre, but this does not mean they are benefiting from the services of the centres. In fact, the two

most used job-search methods by young people were shown to be informal in nature: asking friends or relatives (88.7 per cent of unemployed youth used this method) and inquiring directly at establishments – factories, farms, shops, etc. (68.3 per cent). The ESA will need to further enhance its capacity to meet the greater demand for services among the young unemployed and to develop outreach strategies for young people who have given up their job search. The establishment of partnership arrangements with municipalities that are not covered by the network of labour offices of the ESA and the involvement of civil society and other organizations in the identification of hard-to-reach young people have proven to be effective in several European countries.

The NAPYE has tasked the ESA to create a profiling system to target the young people most at risk with comprehensive packages of youth employment programmes. The provision of employment services could be organized according to a two-pronged approach that offers standard services to all young people and more intensive assistance to disadvantaged youth. The ILO evaluation of ESA programmes also recommends that the intensive assistance be given to low skilled youth (ILO, 2012b). The evaluation also recommends that a gateway period prior to programme participation during which individuals are assisted in searching for a job in the open labour market may have the double advantage of screening out individuals who are employable without an active labour market programme and provide the unemployed with the skills to search for a job independently. At the same time, enterprises must be encouraged to utilize the ESA for recruitment purposes. This can be done by marketing ESA services among employers.

- 7. Make sure that appropriate resources are allocated for the implementation of ALMPs for youth.** The NAPYE calls for a portion of the unemployment insurance revenues to be reallocated to finance ALMPs targeting youth. There is evidence to show that ALMPs can have an important impact on reducing unemployment rates and in tackling long-term youth unemployment. A recent ILO analysis concluded that ALMPs as a policy instrument are indeed useful for the protection and activation of young workers, i.e. those who have turned out to be the most vulnerable during labour market downturns (Matsumoto, Hengge and Islam, 2012).
- 8. Promote decent work in the agriculture sector and among elementary occupations.** Low skilled youth in elementary occupations and in agriculture are unlikely to have a stable contract or are dissatisfied with their work. 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 more disadvantaged sectors.
- 9. Encourage more young entrepreneurs through training and replicate initiatives that have proven effective.** With only 6.3 per cent of young workers in own-account work and 0.9 per cent employers and yet long job queues for those seeking paid employment, an obvious policy response is to try to attract more young people to entrepreneurship as an option. The NAPYE will attempt to make a difference by introducing entrepreneurship courses in school curricula and expanding some enterprise development programmes, but more might need to be done to raise the attractiveness of entrepreneurship as a career option for young people. Promotional campaigns around success stories of young entrepreneurs might help to raise the awareness and attractiveness of self-employment. Regarding who benefits from entrepreneurship programmes, a recent ILO evaluation of ALMPs implemented by the ESA recommends that to make self-employment programmes work also for individuals more at risk of labour market exclusion, they need to be accompanied by extensive business management and technical skills training, access to credit as well as mentoring services (ILO, 2012b).
- 10. Facilitate financial inclusion of youth and access to credit to existing enterprises.** 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 (The World Bank, 2008 and 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 almost one half (46.8 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.

11. 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 the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia 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.

12. Consider undertaking periodic labour demand surveys of enterprises. A lack of timely and relevant information on labour market demand can lead some young people to make poor decisions regarding the education or training path and area of specialization.¹⁶ At the same time, it is important to determine if perceptions of skills shortages among young job applicants – hard skills or soft skills such as communication skills or even attitudes toward work – are a factor in their recruitment decisions. Labour demand enterprise surveys investigate the current and expected workforce needs of enterprises, and perspectives of managers on the pool of available young jobseekers and workers. Running the enterprise survey alongside the SWTS helps to shed light on issues such as labour market inefficiencies shown in job search/recruitment methods and mismatch between the skills-base of young labour market entrants and the realities of demand in the labour market. Such information can be crucial to guiding the choice of curriculum within TVET toward meeting current demand. The information can also provide signals to additional areas of training on soft skills that might be warranted within the employment services.

Box 3. 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:

- encouraging economic diversification and productive transformation;
- reducing macroeconomic volatility by engaging in timely and targeted counter-cyclical policies;
- loosening constraints on private sector growth, with a particular emphasis on access to finance for micro, small and medium-sized enterprises;
- 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
- ensuring adequate and predictable funding for targeted youth employment interventions.

Source: ILO, 2013a, Box 8.

¹⁶ In fact, the State Statistical Office does run a monthly Job Vacancy Survey with results published quarterly. According to the latest report, in the first quarter of 2013, the job vacancy rate was 1.1 per cent, with the highest rate found in the construction sector (2.5 per cent). The highest number of job vacancies, 972, was recorded in the occupation group service and sales workers. See http://www.stat.gov.mk/PrikaziSoopstenie_en.aspx?rbtxt=112 for more information and data tables.

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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. SWTS sample design

1. Sample frame

The sample frame consists of the data from the Census 2002, i.e. the data on the number of households by enumeration districts, the population number, as well as the sex and age of population.

2. Stratification

The sample design strata were defined in terms of geographic regions, area types (such as urban and rural) and size of enumeration districts. Starting from the aim and the contents of the survey, stratification of the enumeration districts were made according to the NUTS 3 classification. The strata were first based on the eight regions, then on urban/rural areas, and finally on size (below 90 and more than 91 households). In this way, 32 strata were created (8*2*2).

3. Allocation

The allocation is made proportionally to the number of population aged 15-79 in accordance with the data from the Census 2002 in each stratum.

4. Sample size

The final quarterly sample consists of 5,000 households. All persons aged 15 and more living at the household's address were interviewed. As the LFS follows a rotation model, the sample was divided into nine sub-samples (waves) of 1,250 households each, for a total of 11,250 households interviewed each year. Of these, 8,750 are interviewed twice per year, and 2,500 households are interviewed only once. All the participants aged 15 to 29 years in a household were interviewed in both the LFS and the SWTS. During the field work, the actual number of individuals found in the relevant age group was 2,994, 400 of which refused to be interviewed. The total number of interviewed youth was therefore 2,544.

5. Sample model

The LFS is based on a two-stage stratified sample design. At the first stage, 625 Enumeration Districts (ED) were selected using stratification criteria for allocation. The enumeration districts are the primary sampling units (clusters). Secondary sampling units are dwellings (addresses) from the Census 2002 database for households. In the second stage of sample design, a fixed number of households (eight) are randomly selected in each sampled ED.

6. Estimates and error calculation

The estimates presented from the LFS and SWTS are representative at the country level. In the estimation procedure data are weighted for unequal probability of selection. The first step assigns the inverse of the selection probabilities to each sampled unit. In the second step, weights are then adjusted for non-response by multiplying the basic weights by the inverse of response rate at ED-level. The third and final steps consist of calibrating the secondary weights to the best latest available population totals for gender and 5-year age groups, estimated number of households on regional level and estimated number of households by size.

The deviations of estimated data from the sample and hypothetically true data of population are calculated as standard variations and relative errors (coefficients of variation). The calculations are made in the SAS 9.1 software package and module CALMAR for calibration of the weights.

Annex III. Statistical tables

A1. Mobility– Share of youth who moved from original residence by area of previous residence, reason and sex / Преселување- дел од младите лица кои го напуштиле местото на живеење и се преселиле во сегашното живеалиште според причините и полот

	Total / Вкупно (%)		Male / Мажи (%)		Female / Жени (%)	
Share of youth who moved from original residence / Дел од младите лица кои го напуштиле местото на живеење	35220	100	6712	19.1	28508	80.9
Of which / Од нив						
From rural area / од рурален дел	14555	41.3	2351	35.0	12204	42.8
From small town/village / мал град	6827	19.4	692	10.3	6135	21.5
Metropolitan area / главен град	5764	16.4	860	12.8	4904	17.2
From large urban area / од голем урбан дел	3900	11.1	875	13.0	3025	10.6
From another country / од друга земја	4174	11.9	1935	28.8	2239	7.9
By reason of moving / Според причини на преселба						
For family За да се приклучи кон семејството	23518	66.8	2149	32.0	21369	75.0
For education/training / преселба заради образование	2787	7.9	1137	16.9	1650	5.8
Moved to work/employment related reasons / преселба заради вработување	1373	3.9	889	13.2	485	1.7
Other reasons / други причини	7542	21.4	2538	37.8	5005	17.6
Share of unemployed youth who would consider moving for employment purposes / Дел од невработените лица кои би сакале да се преселат заради вработување	35119	35.5	23223	39.5	11896	29.7

A2. Primary life goals of young respondents by current activity status / ТПримарна цел во животот на младите лица според нивната тековна економска активност

Goals / цел	Employed / Вработен		Unemployed / Невработен		Inactive / Неактивен	
	Number / лица	(%)	Number / лица	(%)	Number / лица	(%)
Being successful in work / Да бидам усешен во работата	37703	29.1	30024	30.4	80563	34.2
Making a contribution to society / Да придонесувам во општеството	5924	4.6	5924	6.0	14519	6.2
Having lots of money / Да имам многу пари	15425	11.9	14552	14.7	30488	13.0
Having a good family life / Да имам добар семеен живот	70532	54.4	48379	48.9	109788	46.6
Total population / Вкупно население	129584	100	98880	100	235358	100

A3. Share of early school leavers and reason for leaving school by sex/ Лица кои рано го напуштаат образованието, структура според пол

	Total / Вкупно		Male / Мажи		Female / Жени	
	Number / лица	(%)	Number / лица	(%)	Number / лица	(%)
Left before completion / Напуштиле пред да завршат	12388	2.7	5344	2.2	7044	3.1
Reason for leaving school / Причини за напуштање на образованието						
Failed examination / Не го поминале испитувањето	725	5.9	478	8.9	246	3.5
Not interested in education/training / Не се заинтересирани за образование/обука	4567	36.9	2461	46.1	2107	29.9
Wanted to start working /Сакаат да започнат со работа	1065	8.6	78	1.5	986	14.0
To get married / Сакаат да стапат во брак	1472	11.9	199	3.7	1273	18.1
Parents did not want me to continue / Родителите не сакаа да се образувам	240	1.9	240	4.5	-	-
Economic reasons (could not afford, too poor, needed to earn money to support family) / Економски причини (не можев да си дозволам/ сиромаштија/ потреба за заработување пари за поддршка на семејството)	4050	32.7	1888	35.3	2162	30.7
No school nearby / Нема училиште во близина	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other / Друго	269	2.2	-	-	269	3.8
Total population / Вкупно	463821	100	240182	100	223639	100

Notes: - Small number of occurrences / Забелешка: - Мал број на јавувања

A4. Educational attainment of youth's mothers and youth's fathers / Школска подготовка на мајката и таткото

Highest educational level completed / Највисоко завршено образование	Youth's mothers / За мајката		Youth's fathers / За таткото	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
None or incomplete primary school / Без образование или незавршено основно образование	7399	1.6	19159	4.1
Primary school / Основно образование	151208	32.6	217264	46.8
Secondary school / Средно образование	221401	47.7	170572	36.8
University or higher / Виша школа, Високо образование	82330	17.8	52715	11.3
Other / Друго	1483	0.3	4111	0.9
Total population / Вкупно	463821	100.0	463821	100

A5. Unemployed youth by duration of job search and sex / Невработени млади според должината на барање работа и според полот

Duration of job search Должина на барање на работа	Total / Вкупно		Male / Мажи		Female / Жени	
	Number лица	(%)	Number лица	(%)	Number лица	(%)
Less than a week / Помалку од седмица	439	0.4	197	0.3	242	0.6
1 week to less than 1 month / 1 седмица до помалку од 1 месец	2377	2.4	720	1.2	1657	4.1
1 month to less than 3 months / 1 месец до помалку од 3 месеци	8116	8.2	4415	7.5	3701	9.2
3 months to less than 6 months / 3 месеци до помалку од 6 месеци	4435	4.5	1824	3.1	2612	6.5
6 months to less than 1 year / 6 месеци до помалку од 1 година	7515	7.6	3774	6.4	3741	9.3
More than a year / 1 година и повеќе	75997	76.9	47891	81.4	28106	70.2
Total unemployed population / Вкупно невработено население	98880	100	58822	100	40058	100

A6. Unemployed youth by type of job sought and sex / Невработени млади според видот на работата што ја бараат и според полот

Major occupational groups / Главни групи на занимања	Total / Вкупно /		Male / Мажи		Female / Жени	
	Number / лица	(%)	Number / лица	(%)	Number / лица	(%)
Armed forces / Воени занимања	399	0.4	399	0.7	-	-
Managers / менаџери	-	-	-	-	-	-
Professionals / Стручњаци и научници	23428	23.7	10147	17.3	13281	33.2
Technicians and associate professionals / Техничари и сродни занимања	15996	16.2	8607	14.6	7389	18.4
Clerical support workers / Службеници	4513	4.6	2169	3.7	2344	5.9
Service and sales workers / Работници во услужни дејности и продажба	22331	22.6	13401	22.8	8929	22.3
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers / Стручни работници во земјоделството, шумарството, рибарството и ловот	382	0.4	-	-	382	1.0
Craft and related trade workers / Занимања за неиндустриски начин на работа во производството	6477	6.6	4988	8.5	1488	3.7
Plant and machine operators and assemblers / Ракувачи и составувачи на машини и постройки	4700	4.8	3830	6.5	869	2.2
Elementary occupations / Елементарни занимања	19923	20.1	15179	25.8	4744	11.8
Unknown / Непознато	731	0.7	100	0.2	631	1.6
Total unemployed population / Вкупно невработено население	98880	100	58822	100	40058	100

Notes: - Small number of occurrences / Забелешка: - Мал број на јавувања

A7. Unemployed youth by household average monthly income and place of residence / Невработени млади според просечниот месечен приход на домаќинството и според местото на живеење

Place of residence / Место на живеење	Total / Вкупно	Unknown / Непознато	Average household monthly income / Просечен месечен приход на домаќинството							
			до 5000 денари / up to 5000 denars	5001 - 9000	9001 - 14000	14001 - 22000	22001 - 30000	30001 - 38000	38001 - 50000	50001 +
Total (urban+rural) / Вкупно (урбан + рурал)	98880	4829	17569	16021	16782	18362	13078	6009	4710	1522
Urban area / Урбан дел	51357	3179	8639	5310	9648	9847	7573	3640	2837	685
Rural area / Рурален дел	47523	1649	8930	10712	7134	8516	5504	2369	1874	837

Notes: The data for average monthly income are inputted data from Labour Force Survey. / Забелешка: Податоците за просечен месечен приход се инпутирани податоци од Анкетата за работната сила.

A8. Unemployed youth by main obstacle to finding work / Невработени млади според главните пречки за наоѓање на работа

Main obstacle to finding work / Главни пречки за наоѓање на работа	Number / Лица	(%)
Requirements for job were higher than education/training received / Барањата за работното место се повисоки од стекнатото образование / обука	14210	14.4
Not enough work experience / Немање доволно работно искуство	7989	8.1
Not enough jobs available / Немање доволно расположливи работни места	53615	54.2
Considered too young / Ве сметаат за премлади	2961	3.0
Being male/ female / Затоа што сте машко/женско	859	0.9
Discriminatory prejudices / Дискриминирачки предрасуди	1485	1.5
Low wages in available jobs / Ниски плати на достапните (расположливите) работни места	9668	9.8
Poor working conditions in available jobs / Лоши работни услови на достапните работни места	3634	3.7
Did not know how and where to seek work / Незнаење како или каде да барате работа	2814	2.8
Other / Друго	1645	1.7
Total unemployed population / Вкупно невработено население	98880	100

A9. Youth without work, available for work but not actively seeking work by reason for not seeking work / Млади без работа, достапни за работа, но не бараат активно според причините за небарање работа

Reasons for not seeking work / Причини	Total / Вкупно		Male / Мажи		Female / Жени	
	Number/ Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)	Number/ Број	(%)
Was waiting for the results of a vacancy competition or an interview / Чекав резултати од конкурс или интервју за работно место	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Awaiting the season for work / Ја чекав сезоната за работа	1347	9.3	890	9.5	457	8.9
Education leave or training / Вклучен во образование или обука	2555	17.6	1639	17.5	916	17.8
Personal family responsibilities / Лични семејни обврски	1935	13.3	1152	12.3	783	15.2
Pregnancy / Бременост	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Own illness, injury or disability / Лична болест, повреда или попреченост	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Do not know how or where to seek work / Не знаев како или каде да барам работа	449	3.1	449	4.8	0	0.0
Unable to find work for his/ her skills / Не можев да најдам работа за моите вештини	546	3.8	168	1.8	377	7.3
Had looked for job(s) before but had not found any / Барав работа претходно, но не најдов	2310	15.9	1466	15.6	844	16.4
Too young to find a job / Премлад за работа	372	2.6	81	0.9	292	5.7
No jobs available in the area/ district / Нема расположливи работни места	4575	31.5	3530	37.7	1045	20.3
Other reason / Друга причина	439	3.0	0	0.0	439	8.5
Total /Вкупно	14529	100	9375	100	5153	100

A10. Job search method of youth by current activity status / Методи на барање работа на младите според економската активност

Job search method / Методи на барање работа	Employed / Вработени		Unemployed / Невработени	
	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)
Registered at an employment centre / Контактирање со агенцијата за вработување	4983	4.1	65007	65.7
Placed/ answered job advertisements / Дадов/ се јавив на огласи за вработување	16626	13.7	35283	35.7
Inquired directly at factories, farms, markets shops or other workplaces / Прашував директно кај работодавците, во фабрики, маркети, продавници, земјоделски стопанства или други работни места	13808	11.3	67575	68.3
Took a test or interview / Учествував на тестирање или интервју	8953	7.4	17516	17.7
Asked friends, relatives, acquaintances / Прашував пријатели, родители познаници	41887	34.4	87726	88.7

Waited on the street to be recruited for casual work / Чекав на улица да бидам ангажиран за случајна работа	546	0.4	6136	6.2
Sought financial assistance to look for work or start a business / Побарав финансиска помош за да барам работа или да почнам бизнис	2938	2.4	2334	2.4
Looked for land, building, equipment, machinery to start own business or farming / Барав земјиште, локација, зграда, опрема, машини, за да започнам сопствен бизнис или земјоделска дејност	2373	1.9	1822	1.8
Applied for permit or license to start a business / Брав/ аплицирав за дозволи или лиценци за отпочнување бизнис	1117	0.9	958	1.0
Other / Друго	28537	23.4	448	0.5
Total job seekers / Вкупно лица кои бараат/ барале работа	121768	100.0	98880	100.0

A11. Unemployed youth who had refused a job by reason for refusal and sex/Невработени млади кои одбиле работа која им била понудена спред причините и полот

Reason for refusal / Причини за одбивање	Total / Вкупно		Male / Мажи		Female / Жени	
	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)
Wages offered were too low / Понудените плати беа многу ниски	3636	64.0	2486	79.6	1150	44.9
Work was not interesting / Работата не беше интересна	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Location was not convenient / Локацијата не беше соодветна	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Work would not match my level of qualifications / Работата не одговараше на моето ниво на класификации	713	12.5	456	14.6	257	10.0
Work would require too few hours / Работата вклучуваше малку работни часови	182	3.2	182	5.8	0	0.0
Work would require too many hours / Работата вклучуваше многу работни часови	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Family did not approve of the job offered / Семејството не ја одобруваше понудената работа	1154	20.3	0	0.0	1154	45.1
Waiting for a better job / Чекав понуда за аподобра работа	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
There was no contract offered or contract length was too short / Не беше понудено времетраење на договорот или времетраењето на договорот беше прекратко	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Saw no possibilities for advancement / Немаше можности за напредување	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total / Вкупно	5685	100.0	3124	100.0	2561	100.0

A12. Inactive youth by reasons for inactivity and sex / Неактивно население според причините за некативност и според полот

Reasons for inactivity / Причини за неактивност	Total / Вкупно		Male / Мажи/		Female / Жени	
	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)
Attending education/training / Образование/обука	182454	82.6	93247	94.0	90149	73.5
Family responsibilities or housework / Семејни обврски или домашна работа	29600	13.4	1743	1.8	27857	22.7
Pregnancy / Бременост	903	0.4	0	0.0	903	0.7
Illness, injury or disability / Болест, повреда или попреченост	3021	1.4	1690	1.7	1332	1.1
Too young to work / Премлад за работа	1199	0.5	829	0.8	370	0.3
No desire to work / Нема желба за работа	1969	0.9	771	0.8	1198	1.0
Off season / Надвор од сезона	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Other / Друго	1684	0.8	899	0.9	785	0.6
Total inactive youth (excluding those who did not seek work but available to work) / Вкупно неактивно население(исклучни се оние кои не барале работа , но се расположливи за работа)	220830	100.0	99179	100.0	122594	100.0

A13. Discouraged non-student youth by time use and sex / Неактивно младо население кое не посетува училиште, според користењето на времето и полот

Time use / Користење на времето	Total / Вкупно		Male / Мажи		Female / Жени	
	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)	Number/ Број	(%)
Meet friends, go dancing, go out to drink, to eat / Средба со пријатели, на забава , на пијалак, на ручек	4911	71.2	3786	74.3	1125	62.3
Help with household chores / Помош во домашните обврски	1309	19.0	630	12.4	679	37.6
Play on computer / Играње на компјутер(компјутерски игри, сурфање)	262	3.8	262	5.1	0	0.0
Watch TV / Гледање телевизија	278	4.0	278	5.5	0	0.0
Listen to music / Слушање на музика	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Read / Читање	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Go shopping / Пазарење	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Go to the cinema, theatre or concerts / Посета на кино, театар или концерти	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Go for a walk, a bike ride, sport / Прошетка, возење велосипед, спортување	142	2.1	142	2.8	0	0.0
Other / Друго	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total / Вкупно	6902	100.0	5097	100.0	1805	100.0

A14. Discouraged non-students by financial resources and sex/ Неактивно население, кое не посетува училиште според главниот извор на финансии и полот

Financial resources / Извори на финансии	Total / Вкупно		Male / Мажи		Female / Жени	
	Number/Број	(%)	Number/ Број	(%)	Number/Број	(%)
My own family / Моето семејство	5282	76.5	3724	73.1	1557	86.3
My spouse / Мојот сопруг	858	12.4	858	16.8	0	0.0
Own saving / Сопствена заштеда	111	1.6	0	0.0	111	6.1
Government benefits / Државни надоместоци	651	9.4	514	10.1	137	7.6
Loans / Зеemi	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Other / Друго	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total / Вкупно	6902	100	5097	100	1805	100

A15. Employed youth by occupation and sex / Вработени млади лица според занимањето и полот

Major occupational groups/ Главни групи на занимања	Total / Вкупно		Male / мажи		Female / жени	
	Number/ лица	(%)	Number/ лица	(%)	Number/ лица	(%)
Armed forces/Воени занимања	288	0.2	162	0.2	126	0.2
Managers /менаџери	744	0.6	269	0.4	475	0.9
Professionals /Стручњаци и научници	20561	15.9	7337	9.9	13225	23.7
Technicians and associate professionals /Техничари и сродни занимања	12524	9.7	5476	7.4	7049	12.6
Clerical support workers /Службеници	7018	5.4	2478	3.4	4540	8.1
Service and sales workers /Работници во услужни дејности и продажба	30077	23.2	17455	23.7	12622	22.6
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers /Стручни работници во земјоделството, шумарството, рибарството и ловот	5842	4.5	3984	5.4	1859	3.3
Craft and related trade workers /Занимања за неиндустриски начин на работа во производството	14241	11.0	12483	16.9	1758	3.1
Plant and machine operators and assemblers /Ракувачи и составувачи на машини и постројки	9346	7.2	6702	9.1	2644	4.7
Elementary occupations /Елементарни занимања	28504	22.0	17216	23.3	11288	20.2
Unknown /Непознато	438	0.3	188	0.3	250	0.5
Total population /Вкупно население	129584	100.0	73748	100	55835	100.0

A16. Paid workers by access to benefits/ entitlements and sex / Платени вработени според придобивките и правата што ги користат и според полот

Benefits at work / Бенефиции / придобивки на работа	Total / вкупно		Male / мажи		Female / жени	
	Number / лица	(%)	Number / Лица	(%)	Number / лица	(%)
Transport or transport allowance/ Превоз или надоместоци за превоз	34850	40.3	18812	40.8	16038	39.8
Meals or meal allowance/ Храна или надоместоци за храна	40203	46.5	22993	49.8	17209	42.7
Annual paid leave (holiday time)/ Годишно платено отсуство (одмор)	68927	79.7	35601	77.2	33326	82.7
Paid sick leave/ Платено боледување	64549	74.7	32557	70.6	31992	79.3

A17. Self-employed youth by reason for self-employment and place of residence / Самовработени млади според причината за самовработеност и според местото на живеење

Reason for self-employment/ Причина за самовработеност	Total / вкупно		Urban / урбан		Rural / рурал	
	Number/ лица	(%)	Number/ лица	(%)	Number/ лица	(%)
Could not find a wage or salary job/ Не може да најде работа за надница или плата	6078	65.4	3171	57.0	2907	77.9
Greater independence/ Поголема независност	2090	22.5	1618	29.1	472	12.6
More flexible hours of work/ Попфлексибилно работно време	-		-		-	
Higher income level/ Поголем приход	687	7.4	687	12.4	-	
Required by the family/ Побарано од семејството	439	4.7	84	1.5	355	9.5
Other / Друго	-		-		-	
Total self-employed workers/ Вкупно самовработени работници	9294	100	5560	100	3734	100

Notes: - = Small number of occurrences / Забелешка: - = Мал број на јавувања

A18. Employed youth by duration of seeking job and type of employment / Вработени млади според период на барање работа и видот на вработување

	Regular employment / Редовно вработување		Irregular employment / Нередовно вработување		Total / Вкупно	
	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)
Less than a week / Помалку од седмица	6754	10.1	19658	31.4	26411	21.9
1 week to less than 1 month / 1 седмица до помалку од 1 месец	5937	8.9	7810	12.5	13747	11.4
1 month to less than 3 months / 1 месец до помалку од 3 месеци	7150	10.7	3847	6.2	10997	9.1
3 to less than 6 months / 3 месеци до помалку од 6 месеци	4530	6.8	3234	5.2	7764	6.4
6 months to less than 1 year / 6 месеци до помалку од 1 година	7310	10.9	6279	10.0	13589	11.3
1 year and more / 1 година и повеќе	32341	48.2	15844	25.3	48185	39.9
Missing observations because they are currently working as apprentices/interns / Нема опсервации бидејќи моментално работат како стажанти/практиканти	3041	4.5	5850	9.4	48185	39.9

A19. Distribution of youth population by stage of transition and sex / Дистрибуција на младо население според степенот на премин и полот

Stage of transition / Степен на премин	Total / Вкупно		Male / Мажи		Female / Жени	
	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)
Transited / Преминале	99652	21.5	54516	22.7	45136	20.2
In transition / Во преминување	163476	35.2	91541	38.1	71934	32.2
Transition not yet started / Премиот сеуште не започнал	200694	43.3	94125	39.2	106569	47.7
Total youth population / Вкупно младо население	463821	100.0	240182	100.0	223639	100.0

A20. Youth who have not yet started their transition by sub-category and sex / Млади кои сеуште не го започнале премиот според под-катеориите и полот

Sub-category / Подкатеории	Total / Вкупно		Male / Мажи		Female / Жени	
	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)
In school / Во училиште	182454	90.9	92306	98.1	90148	84.6
Currently inactive no school with no intention of looking for work / Моментално некативни, не посетуваат училиште, без намера да бараат работа	18240	9.1	1819	1.9	16421	15.4
Total / Вкупно	200694	100.0	94125	100.0	106569	100.0

A21. Youth “in transition” by sub-category and by sex, urban/rural residence, household income level and level of completed education / Млади „во преминување“ според поткатогија и според пол, место на живеење во урбана/рурална средина, ниво на приходи на домаќинството и ниво на завршено образование

	In relaxed unemployment / Невработено ст според отворената дефиниција		In non-satisfactory self- or temporary employment / Во привремена и незадоволителна работа		Inactive non-students with plans to work in future / Неактивни студенти што не се во училиште и немаат план за работа во иднина		Total in transition / Вкупно Млад и во транзиција	
	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)
Total / Вкупно	113408	69.4	29932	18.3	20136	12.3	163476	100
Male / Мажи	68197	74.5	19233	21.0	4112	4.5	91541	100
Female / Жени	45211	62.9	10699	14.9	16024	22.3	71934	100
Urban / урбан	63578	75.9	9989	11.9	10210	12.2	83778	100
Rural / рурал	49830	62.5	19943	25.0	9925	12.5	79698	100
Household income level / приход на домаќинството								
Above average / Над просек	24575	72.8	3930	11.6	5273	15.6	33778	100
Average / Просек	19348	67.5	5485	19.1	3811	13.3	28643	100
Below average / Под просек	69486	68.8	20517	20.3	11052	10.9	101055	100
Completed education / Највисоко ниво на завршено образование								
None or less than primary / Без образование или незавршено основно образование	3058	53.1	739	12.8	1964	34.1	5761	100
Primary / Основно образование	19607	57.7	6280	18.5	8097	23.8	33984	100
Secondary / Средно образование	55868	71.2	13797	17.6	8832	11.3	78497	100
Tertiary / Висока стручна школа или прв степен на факултет	22298	83.9	3044	11.4	1243	4.7	26584	100

Note: Completed education excludes current students whose final level is not yet known / Забелешка: Завршеното образование ги исклучува моменталните студенти чиешто највисоко ниво сè уште не е познато.

A22. Distribution of stages of transition by urban/rural residence, household income level and level of completed education / Степен на премин според ниво на образование, место на живеење во урбан и рурален дел и просечен месечен приход на домаќинството

	“Transited” youth / Преминале		Youth “in transition” / Во транзиција		Transition not started / Премиот сеуште не започнал	
	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)
Total/ Вкупно	99652	100.0	163476	100.0	200694	100.0
Urban / урбан	63814	64.0	83777	51.2	104765	52.2
Rural / рурал	35838	36.0	79698	48.8	95928	47.8
Household income level / приход на домаќинството						
Above average / Над просек	43329	43.5	33778	20.7	75651	37.7
Around the national average / Околу националниот просек	24730	24.8	28643	17.5	37165	18.5
Below average / Под просек	31593	31.7	101055	61.8	87878	43.8
Completed education /						

Највисоко ниво на завршено образование

None or less than primary / Без образование или незавршено основно образование	1148	1.4	5760	4.0	1756	9.6
Primary / Основно образование	9258	11.2	33983	23.5	11457	62.8
Secondary / Средно образование	47760	57.6	78497	54.2	4288	23.5
Tertiary / Висока стручна школа или прв степен на факултет	24707	29.8	26584	18.4	738	4.0

Note: Completed education excludes current students whose final level is not yet known / Забелешка: Завршеното образование ги исклучува моменталните студенти чие конечно ниво не е познато

A23. "Transited" youth by sub-category and sex / Млади кои транзитирале по подкатегории и пол

Sub-category/Подкатегории	Total/Вкупно		Male/Мажи		Female/Жени	
	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)	Number / Број	(%)
A regular and satisfactory job/ Редовна и задоволителна работа	60529	60.7	30787	56.5	29742	65.9
A regular but non-satisfactory job/ Редовна но незадоволителна работа	5411	5.4	3034	5.6	2376	5.3
A satisfactory but temporary job/ Задоволителна привремена работа	15639	15.7	8606	15.8	7032	15.6
In satisfactory self-employment/ адоволни самовработени	18074	18.1	12088	22.2	5986	13.3
Total youth population/ Вкупно млада популација	99652	100	54516	100	45136	100



This report presents the highlights of the 2012 School-to-work Transition Survey (SWTS) run together with the State Statistical Office of the Republic of Macedonia 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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