Youth and the Post-2015 Development Framework:
Challenges and Opportunities

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Synopsis

This paper highlights current key challenges and opportunities with regards to youth, youth employment and youth inclusion in development processes. It explores the experience of African countries with regional and national policies on youth development as well as with the MDGs in relation to youth development. The paper highlights policies and reforms most likely to support and facilitate processes that will lead to better inclusion, employment opportunities for youth. It concludes with suggestions for the international community and the post-2015 framework.
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Abbreviations

AGOA               African Growth and Opportunity Act
$                   US$ unless otherwise stated
AfDB               African Development Bank
AU                  African Union
CAADP               Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme
COMESA              Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
DPoA                Decade for Youth Development Action Plan (2009–2018)
EAC                 East African Community
ECOWAS              Economic Community of West African States
EU                  European Union
FANRPAN             Food, Agriculture and Natural Resources Policy Analysis Network
FAO                 Food and Agricultural Organization (United Nations)
HIV/AIDS            Human immunodeficiency virus infection/acquired immunodeficiency syndrome
ICT                 Information, Communication and Technology
ILO                 International Labour Organization
LICs                low-income countries
MDGs                Millennium Development Goals
MICs                middle-income countries
NEPAD               New Economic Programme for African Development
OECD                The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PRSPs               Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers
SADC                Southern Community Development Community
SAYC                South African Youth Council
SAYM                Southern African Youth Movement
SRH                 sexual and reproductive health
SSA                 sub-Saharan Africa
UN                  United Nations
UNDP                United Nations Development Programme
UNECA               United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
WPAY                World Programme of Action for Youth
1. Introduction

In 2011, the world’s population surpassed 7 billion and is projected to reach 9 billion by 2050 (UNFPA, 2011). Today’s generation of young people is the largest in history. In developing countries, on average people aged between 15 and 24 years make up 20% of the population (IFAD, 2011). Africa is the world’s youngest continent, with almost 200 million people in this age group, a proportion that is higher than in any other continent (AfDB, 2012a). The trends show that African youth are the most marginalised. Almost half of Africans are living on less than $1.25 a day, most of whom are youth (World Bank, 2012). Moreover, youth is the largest under-represented sector in decision-making and implementation processes (Ad-Hoc WG Youth/MDGs, 2005). In SSA, the world’s youngest region with 44% of the population under 15 years of age (2006) and some 66% under 25 years, many young people are unable to fulfil their potential because of factors such as unemployment, underemployment, poverty, hunger, poor health and lack of high quality and relevant education (Fanrpan, 2012a).

At the same time, as the UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon has pointed out, today’s younger generation has immense potential to advance universal wellbeing and that youth ‘are a transformative force […] [with the] capacity and desire to turn the tide of history and tackle global challenges’ (UN Secretary-General, 2012) This paper agrees that there is a great risk of creating a ‘lost generation of squandered talent and dreams’ unless there are urgent measures taken to stop rising unemployment and inequalities and reduce the ‘large number [who] have no immediate prospects and are disenfranchised from the political, social and developmental process in their countries’ (Fanrpan, 2012a).

Against this background, this paper sets out to highlight current key challenges and opportunities regarding youth, youth employment and youth inclusion in development processes. It then explores the experience of African countries (with examples in particular from Southern Africa) with regional and national policies on youth development as well as with the MDGs in relation to youth development. The paper subsequently highlights policies and reforms most likely to support and facilitate processes that will lead to better inclusion and employment opportunities (in agriculture as well as more generally) for youth. It concludes with suggestions for the international community and the post-2015 framework (including goals) to improve on the current situation. The paper argues that improving access to education across all levels, providing basic infrastructure (enablers) such as electricity (renewable energy), agro-facilities, equipment, ICT and training, as well as nurturing entrepreneurship, leadership, and capacity are key areas of investment in a post-2015 context in order to create decent jobs and boost African economies in the coming decades.

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1 There is no global consensus on the age-definition of youth. In this paper, unless otherwise stated, the term applies to people aged between 15 and 35 years, the definition adopted by the African Youth Charter. This is a wider definition than that of the UN (15–24 years) and is adopted as it better reflects African realities of transition to adulthood. The author acknowledges that youth is not a homogenous group.
2. Youth Issues, Needs, Challenges and Opportunities

This section highlights challenges youth currently face. Of course, as many researchers and policy-makers have stressed, youth do not constitute a homogeneous group. Many young people may be victims of chronic generational poverty, unemployment, underdevelopment and illiteracy, but these are experienced in widely different contexts (Leavy and Smith, 2010).

2.1 Demographic dividend and the youth bulge

As the global population reaches 7 billion, SADC will continue to experience a rise in the working-age population as it undergoes the demographic transition from high fertility and high mortality to low fertility and low mortality, leading to greater production and increase of income (SA HSRC, 2005). Driven by a delayed demographic transition, the share of youth (aged 15–24) in Africa – North and South of the Sahara – is now higher than in any other part of the world. In 2011 the top ten countries with the youngest populations were all in Africa. While the proportion of people aged 15–24 is projected to decline globally, it is not expected to do so in Africa. By 2040, it is projected that Africa will have the world’s largest workforce, surpassing both China and India ( McKinsey, 2010). This offers an opportunity for virtuous cycles of economic growth, referred to as the demographic dividend, as seen in Brazil, Asia and the Middle East, and analogous to the 1960s in the USA. Yet, the rapid growth of the labour force caused by Africa’s demographic transition may pose serious challenges and significant risks if there are too few economic and employment opportunities. By 2020, 200 million young Africans will enter the job market, yet Southern Africa is not creating enough jobs to absorb the 10–12 million existing new entrants to the labour market each year (SA HSRC, 2005). Recent events in North Africa, known as the Arab Spring – where youth led massive revolutionary protests bringing down unaccountable and corrupt governments – have demonstrated that failure to create jobs and opportunity for a rapidly growing and increasingly urban and educated youth population may have catastrophic consequences. Youth continue to demand opportunities, justice and equality from their fragile multiparty governments (Africa Progress Panel, 2012).

2.2 Unemployment

Unemployment remains the main concern of youth in the region. About 40% of the total unemployed are youth, and 70% of these live in rural areas. Most of those who are employed have insecure contractual arrangements, characterised by low productivity and meagre earnings. Equally worrying is the plight of young people classified as working poor. They earn less than US$2 a day, outnumber young unemployed people by a factor of four and typically work in rural areas (African Union, 2011).

African youth are currently more likely to be unemployed than their parents, but this is also the case in OECD and East Asian countries (Leavy and Smith, 2010). Youth unemployment is higher in North and Southern Africa, e.g. around 50% in South Africa and Namibia and above 30% in Lesotho and Tunisia, with almost 40% of the continent’s youth ‘occupied’ in agriculture. There are, however, important differences between countries and regions with regards to the level of un- and underemployment (see also Box 1). Many young people hope to work in government or to be self-employed whereas 20% are dissatisfied with farming. After prolonged unemployment, about 61% of youth are willing to re-train and 48% are willing to migrate within the country (Mo Ibrahim Foundation, 2012).
Box 1.1 Key Figures in Youth Unemployment across selected African Countries:

- Rwanda, Malawi: below 5%
- Ghana, Zambia, Zimbabwe: above 20%
- Mauritius, Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, Swaziland, Algeria: above 30%
- South Africa: above 60% for women
- Tunisia: 31%

Researchers seem to be in consensus that African MICs with well-structured labour markets and a large formal sector tends to have higher unemployment rates than do LICs with a large informal economy (AfDB, 2012a). Examples of formal sectors with high unemployment rates are found in Algeria, Botswana, Nigeria, South Africa and Tunisia – in Algeria and Tunisia youth unemployment rates exceed 30%. However, in lower-income countries with large informal economy such as Ethiopia, Ghana, Tanzania and Uganda unemployment rate falls in the range of 1–5% (AfDB, 2012a: 7). Over 70% of young workers in these lower-income countries including Congo DRC, Malawi, Mali, Rwanda and Senegal are either self-employed or contributing to family work (AfDB, 2012a). Most of these jobs offer low wages, few benefits and few opportunities to build skills. The informal economy represents more than 80% of total employment in SSA, and young people account for most of these workers (Mo Ibrahim Foundation, 2012). It is clear that for most African economies the employment problem is more about the quality of the job than its absence.

African countries with low unemployment rates tend to have a large informal economy (AfDB, 2012a). Low unemployment rates coexist with high levels of working poverty and vulnerable employment (ibid.). The ILO (2011) estimates that three out of four jobs in SSA can be labelled ‘vulnerable’, since workers are self-employed or unpaid family workers. The poor quality of employment in most of SSA is also reflected in the high share of working poor in total employment. The ILO’s 2010 Youth Employment Report notes that, while unemployment is relatively high across Africa, the degree of underemployment and working poverty is even greater, which highlights a lack of job opportunities for youth (ILO, 2010). Despite not being disaggregated by age, the latest figures shows that in 2011 81.5% of workers in Africa were classified as working poor, compared to the world average of 39.1% (ILO, 2011).

In SSA about 200 million young people are employed primarily in agriculture, where they account for 65% of the total employment. Young Africans are the key to African economic development. Yet, a number of underlying socioeconomic factors prevent youth from fulfilling their employment potential. These include a skewed labour market, economic growth without equity, lack of skills needed to diversify the economy and create decent formal and informal employment. Another problem is a mismatch of skills, resulting in many graduates being unemployable, with rural youth typically, but often fruitlessly, migrating in search of better opportunities in the towns and cities. In South Africa, Kritzinger (2002) found that most teenage girls living on fruit farms have negative views of farm life, due to the nature of farm work and low wages and their low status compared to children living in towns and villages. Thus, most want to escape farm life and improve their economic position and their status.

In order ‘to tackle youth exclusion it is important to understand that the characteristics of youth unemployment change’ and differ as countries develop, or as the African Economic Outlook 2012 (AfDB, 2012b) puts it: ‘Youth employment is largely a problem of quality in low income countries (LICs) and one of quantity in middle income countries (MICs)’. Thus, paradoxically perhaps, as education levels improve youth unemployment becomes more acute. While MICs typically have nearly half their youth in education, 29% are unemployed. In LICs both these figures are lower: around 35% are students and 25% are unemployed. The poorest cannot afford to be unemployed and many young people are obliged to take low-paid or even unpaid work, often in the informal economy. The recent FAO-ILO-NEPAD discussion document has identified global recession, rising
cost of living due to soaring food commodity prices, and the Arab Spring as factors contributing to high unemployment in MICs such as South Africa (Dalla Valle et al., 2011). Early warning signals, such as civil disobedience and violent protest have become a political feature in South Africa, where about 30% of young people live in households in which nobody has paid employment.\(^2\)

According to UNECA (2010), the reasons for Africa’s high unemployment rates are: a **mismatch between educational systems and the skills** needed in the labour market,\(^3\) leading to many university graduates out of work, and the saturated public services and small private-sector firms are unable to employ large numbers of people. Other reasons include labour demand barriers, such as discrimination against young people on the grounds of **lack of experience; information gaps** between job seekers and potential employers; and barriers to the creation and development of business opportunities, particularly in gaining **access to financial, physical and social capital**. However, the biggest problem youth face is lack of demand for their labour. As expected, given the overall employment outlook for young people in Africa, experts identify ‘aggregate labour demand’ (GEM, 2012) as a major obstacle to youth in the labour market in 89% of countries. The working poor thus remain in work that yields little output and pays little income because there is no demand for the type of labour they offer (usually low-skilled) in sectors that pay better wages. Similarly the unemployed and discouraged face a lack of demand for their labour and remain in inactivity.

Another reason for high youth unemployment rates is the **lack of entrepreneurial attitude** (GEM, 2012), whereby educated young people expect to obtain white-collar jobs. Vocational training is viewed as low status. In South Africa, for instance, vocational training centres are neglected and regarded as of low educational status, so that many obtain university degrees that do not match the labour market (ibid.).

There is a strong **negative relationship between the rate of economic growth and employment intensity** of growth across Africa. One possible interpretation is that the sources of growth in the region’s more dynamic economies have not been in employment-intensive sectors. Rapid growth has created few good jobs, pushing those seeking work into informal self-employment and family labour. This has led to growing levels of inequalities in Africa’s MICs and growing economies (see Figure 1). It has also led to civil unrest, as mentioned above.

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\(^3\) A study among university graduates from Malawi, Tanzania, Uganda and Zimbabwe found that their training was too theoretical and that students had few opportunities to interact with workers during their studies (Al-Samarrai and Bennell, 2003).
2.3 Health and disease burden

In Africa, HIV and AIDS remains a major cause of death among the youth, and is one of the region’s biggest public health issues, especially for girls and young women, who are more vulnerable to contracting HIV than boys or young men. AIDS is responsible for more than 50% of deaths among young women, compared to 25% among young men (UNECA, 2010). In 2007, an estimated 3.2 million young people were living with HIV in SSA alone. More than 50% of deaths among young African women is as a result of AIDS or AIDS-related illnesses (ibid.).

Despite progress towards meeting the MDGs, it is clear that the disease burden affects Africa’s development prospects, particularly due to the high mortality rate. The UNECA MDG Report 2010 states that an HIV prevalence and mortality rate among 15–24 year-olds is falling, asserting that in 2008 the prevalence among this age group in SSA fell to around 5%, confirming a downward trend since 2005. Other diseases, such as tuberculosis (TB), are also among the top five killers of young Africans, according to World Health Organization (WHO). Although there are only limited data on causes of mortality, WHO reported in 2002 that deaths of young African men were attributable first to AIDS, followed by TB, violence, other unintentional injuries and war. South Africa is the country most affected by HIV and AIDS and TB.

Young people are still vulnerable to contracting HIV and AIDS because of lax prevention strategies. Some explanations for the spread of HIV relate to inequalities related to gender and age. Poverty and risky sexual behaviour also play a role. Poor environments and the rapid population changes affecting many young people increase their exposure to the virus. Moreover, vulnerability rises for the many children and youth who suffer nutritional deficiencies, infectious diseases like TB or malaria, rural to urban migration, international migration and conflict and natural disaster. Girls are particularly vulnerable to HIV and AIDS infection due to early marriage, violence against women and sexual abuse. A lack of information about how HIV is transmitted, stigmatisation and the social alienation of infected persons in schools and workplaces impede faster progress towards the eradication of HIV and AIDS, particularly among young Africans.
Box 2.2 Fact sheet

- Over the next 10 years, there will be about 108 million more school-age children in Africa
- In around half of African countries there are almost 40 pupils per teacher
- Youth unemployment increases with education levels in Africa
- Africa has the lowest share of youth enrolling in tertiary education in the world, let alone engineering graduates
- Literacy rates in West and Central Africa lag behind East, Southern and North Africa
- Almost half of the world’s out-of-school children live in SSA

(Mo Ibrahim Foundation, 2012).

For mortality among young women, AIDS was followed by maternal complications, TB, sexually transmitted diseases other than HIV and AIDS, and malaria. In more recent years, countries like South Africa and Botswana have reported decreases in AIDS mortality as a result of reduced prevalence, and the introduction of Highly Active Antiretroviral Treatment (HAART) (UNECA, 2010). Structural challenges and weak health systems contribute to the high mortality rates among young people in the region. As agreed at the fourth session of the Joint United Nations Economic Commission for Africa and African Union Commission Conference of Ministers of Finance, improving the coverage and performance of health systems in Africa would reduce morbidity and mortality among young people and this may be factored into any successor to the MDGs.

2.4 Education

Education and skills training, particularly in science and technology, provide an opportunity to succeed in a knowledge-based globalised economy. Where there is proper planning and investment as seen in Asia and Latin America, there are significant multiplier effects. Despite significantly improved access to primary education and literacy across Africa in the last decade, young people in Africa (and in SSA in particular) have a very low educational profile compared to other regions. In SSA the gross enrolment ratio at secondary level is 35%, and that at tertiary level just 6% (see Box 2). Although these levels are very low compared to other regions, they reflect rapid growth over the last decades. Based on current trends, in 2030 59% of 20–24-year-olds will have obtained secondary education, compared to 42% today. Despite this vigorous expansion there are large gaps in the quality of education. Seventeen countries, including Angola, Côte d’Ivoire, Ethiopia, Mali, Niger, Nigeria and Senegal have literacy rates of less than 75% (AfDB, 2012b). The increase in the number of graduates from higher education has often been at the expense of quality, as expenditure per student has been decreasing throughout Africa. Within one decade (1999–2009), the number of post-secondary education graduates in LICs in SSA almost tripled (from 1.6 million to 4.9 million). It is expected that this figure will reach 9.6 million in 2020 (AfDB, 2012b).

Still, gross enrolment in tertiary education is very low in Africa (see Figure 2). According to the Africa Youth Report 2011 (UNECA, 2011), Algeria and Mauritius had the highest enrolment in tertiary institutions at 31% and 26% respectively. Increased provision of post-primary education could give young Africans the hard and soft skills that will enable them to compete effectively in a changing and globalised world.

Clearly, improved primary and secondary education cannot solve the huge problem of unemployment without being extended to all levels of education and matched to the demands of the labour market, which aspires to industrialise and diversify the economy.
2.5 Lack of awareness, exclusion of youth from decision-making and clientelism

Although there have been significant strides in areas of policy frameworks for youth development, the translation of these policy instruments into viable strategies, programmes and systems widely lacking (Fanpran, 2012b). Evidence across Africa shows that citizens’ engagement in policy-making can lead to better diagnosis of problems and improved design and implementation of solutions. However, youth are mostly not aware of the policies intended to assist them. The African Youth Charter called for the popularisation of the provisions of the Charter, yet the current Fanpran Case Studies in six SADC countries on Agriculture, Policies, and Tools revealed not only a state of unawareness, but lack of political will to translate youth policies into meaningful strategies and programmes (Fanpran, 2012a). This was further acknowledged in the Declarations of the Africa Youth Conference on the Post-2015 Development Agenda held in Nairobi, calling upon government and stakeholders to popularise the MDGs. This Youth Declaration also asserts that African youth specifically and Africans and their governments in general were barely involved in formulating the MDGs.

There is also a growing perception among youth that politicians are corrupt and only care about themselves, their families and sometimes their ‘fortunate’ friends. In South Africa, for example, political connections have led to a new layer of corrupt individuals referred to as ‘tenderpreneurs’ – a local term for people who enrich themselves through tendering for government contracts. The perception of corruption is gaining ground in South Africa despite a drop in rating by the 2012 Transparency International Corruption Perceptions Index. Youth are beginning to express themselves in a violent and rebellious manner in protest.

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4 See examples at the African Community of Practice and the International Budget Partnership, which are available at their respective webpages: http://www.cop-mfdr-africa.org/page/about-afcop and http://internationalbudget.org (both accessed 20 April 2012).
marches. It can be deduced that frustrations regarding ‘connections’ point to the loss of trust in systems that are perceived to be unfair, because such connections depend largely on personal background and access to privileged circles that few have or could obtain. At the same time, the practice of distributing jobs on the basis of connections is a clear indication of the scarcity of good employment. In a robust labour market, employers compete for employees and have to cast a wide net to attract the workforce they need. It is only when there are more seeking work than there are jobs available that employers can rely on connections to fill their positions (Fanpan, 2012a).

**Figure 2.3 Perceptions of North African youth**

Youth in North Africa see lack of jobs and the need for connections as main obstacles to finding a job - information about jobs is not seen as a problem

- Lack of good jobs available
- Jobs given only to people who have connections
- Lack of proper training
- Government is not doing enough to create...
- Youth are unmotivated/lazy
- Youth are unwilling to accept certain jobs
- The economy is weak
- Corruption is rampant in the economy
- Cultural restrictions prevent youth from...
- Lack of professional experience
- Youth are not aware of available jobs
- Youth can find jobs without much difficulty
- Other

Share of youth identifying the option as primary obstacle to finding a job

Source: African Economic Outlook 2012 - Promoting Youth Employment

**Box 2.3 Delays in Establishing Youth Structures, 19/11/2012**

Mr Alfred Mzwakhe Sigudla, President of the Southern African Youth Movement, says the regional youth organisations have been frustrated by SADC’s reluctance to speed up the setting up of a formal youth structure within SADC in line with African Youth Charter. ‘If they have been able to accommodate gender protocol, why can’t they have a SADC youth protocol?’ He says the SADC youth protocol ‘is vigorously supported by the SADC youth steering committee and the Pan African Youth Union. Sigudla says they want the SADC youth protocol to have two instruments; the SADC Youth Council and the SADC Youth Union, which will become the statutory body for youth councils in the SADC region.’ ‘Already the AU has the conference of youth ministers, so why can’t we have a similar structure at regional level? Our position is also driven by the aim to domesticate the African Youth Charter, which calls for the establishment of these instruments’.

Youth is often excluded from the decision-making process, which raises the question how young adults can be better engaged. Although there are some formal structures for youth development, programmes related to
the MDGs, National Youth Councils and Youth Parliaments are often limited to one-off events. Information about current and on-going activities aimed at empowering youth tends to be available only to more privileged youth. This leads to key international declarations and resolutions on youth development being side-lined in the implementation phase. Often, governments lack an understanding of the benefits of involving youth in consultation processes and advocacy-based groups have limited capacity to maintain momentum for continued actions. The issue of inter-generational mix in African leadership cannot be overemphasised. Similar sentiments were raised in the 8th CAADP Partnership Platform (Mwamakamba, 2012) and in the Africa AgriBusiness Forum 25–29 November 2012.5

This frustration regarding the lack of youth participation was also eloquently expressed by the prominent Southern Africa Youth Movement, when its president highlighted problems of setting up formal youth structures in a personal interview with the author (see Box 3). The Africa Progress Report, 2012 warned that with access to social media, youth are mobilising against unaccountable and authoritarian governments, something that manifested itself in the popular uprisings in North Africa leading to the fall of these governments. It is clear that youth has the potential to use violence to bring down governments if they feel that they are not being adequately engaged and that leaders are not protecting their future.

3. **Existing Legal and Policy Frameworks**

3.1 **International and regional policies**

In the face of the challenges outlined above and constraints facing African youth, there are also untapped opportunities presented by the increasing willingness of the international community and Africans themselves to provide adequate legal frameworks upon which to base youth development.

3.1.1 **United Nations**

At the global level the United Nations World Programme of Action for Youth (UN WPAY) states that ‘full and effective participation in decision-making of youth in communities and society is one of the priority areas of the programme’.

The UN is developing a System-Wide Action Plan on Youth. This will affect how the UN system will work with and for youth in the coming years. The Action Plan will focus on five priority areas Employment, Entrepreneurship, Education (including education on sexual and reproductive health), Citizenship and Protection of Rights and Political Inclusion (UNRIC, 2012).

3.1.2 **African Union**

The African Union (AU) Department of Human Resources, Science and Technology, a department of the African Union Commission, has among its primary functions the integration of youth as part of the development process of the continent.

African leaders have adopted NEPAD as an economic development programme of the AU, and in 2003 ratified and committed to implement its sub-programme known as the Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP) (AU, 2003). It commits countries to investing 10% of national budgets in agriculture and pursuing policies that will achieve a 6% increase in farm production. Although CAADP set no concrete goal for youth, the 2012 8th CAADP Partnership Meeting in Nairobi listened to youth’s expectations (Mwamakamba, 2012) and its communiqué places engagement of youth through a ‘robust campaign’ among its strategic planning focus areas (CAADP, 2012, point 54).

**The Maputo Plan of Action** (AU, 2006) – a short-term Plan of Action (PoA), which aims to assist African countries in achieving the goal of universal access to comprehensive sexual and reproductive health (SRH) information and services by 2015 – was adopted in 2006. The PoA was developed in response to recognition that African countries were unlikely to achieve the MDGs by 2015. It was designed to achieve health-related MDGs 4–6 and recommends a number of measures relevant to youth, such as integrating HIV/AIDS services into SRH and rights, promoting family planning as crucial factor in attaining the MDGs, supporting the SRH needs of adolescents and young people as a key SRH component, address unsafe abortions through family planning. In 2006, the Conference of the African Union Ministers in charge of Youth (COMY I) held in Banjul adopted the African Youth Charter (AYC), the first continent-wide legal framework for youth development. The AYC entered into force on 8 August 2009 (UNESCO, 2012). Among other things, the Charter addresses the following areas for major and concrete actions for change: education, skills and competence development; employment and sustainable livelihoods; youth leadership and participation; health and welfare; peace and security; environment protection; cultural and moral values.

The AYC obliges African countries to engage and involve youth in all their operations and there is already a framework for regional integration with links to MDGs in the form of established regional bodies like the Southern African Development Community (SADC), the Southern African Customs Union (SACU), the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), the East African Community (EAC) and the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA).
2008 was declared the Year of African Youth and it was agreed that the Pan African Youth Union (PAYU) must be revitalised. This led to COMY II approving the Decade for Youth Development Action Plan (2009–2018) – a plan to incorporate and implement the AYC at the national level. A requirement to establish a Trust Fund for Youth Development was presented to ministers for endorsement. In 2010, the COMY III was held in Victoria Falls in Zimbabwe. The PoA for the Decade for Youth Development (2009–2018) and the framework for the Youth Volunteer Corps were adopted. As of 19 April 2012, 28 Member States had ratified the Charter; 39 Member States had signed and six had yet to sign and ratify (AU, 2012).

In July 2011, the chair of the Bureau of COMY III presided over the African side event on ‘Cooperation for Financing the Resource requirement of the AU Youth DPoA’ during the UN High-level meeting on Youth in New York. Currently the summit’s decisions are being implemented and a report is to be presented at COMY IV (COMY, 2012).

3.1.3 Southern African Development Community (SADC)

SADC⁶ has adopted the African Youth Charter (AYC) and only Botswana, DRC, Madagascar and Swaziland have yet to ratify it. In 2009, SADC launched the SADC Youth Union, which is a member of PAYU. The Youth Council in each SADC country is the umbrella organisation for all youth associations and advises the government on youth needs.

The SADC Youth Union held its first meeting in South Africa in 2009 and made three important resolutions. First, the need for a Continental Trust Fund, funded by the AU, aimed at supporting youth development. African governments are being urged to set aside 10% of their budgets to youth development. Second, the need to advance study opportunities in higher education institutions. Third, the mainstreaming and institutionalisation of youth development in government institutions, the private sector and civil society.

There is as yet no regional policy to coordinate and harmonise intra-regional youth development aligned to the AYC. Youth development work is coordinated by SADC Protocols in a piecemeal fashion, and this is leading to frustration among young people. For example the SADC Protocol on Education and Training aims ‘to work towards the relaxation and eventual elimination of immigration formalities in order to facilitate freer movement of students and staff within the Region for the specific purposes of study’. Regarding access to universities, ‘Member States agree to recommend to universities and other tertiary institutions in their countries to reserve at least 5% of admission, for students from SADC nations.

The SADC Maseru Declaration on HIV/AIDS, adopted in 2003, places emphasis on addressing HIV and AIDS through a developmental, comprehensive, holistic and multi-sector approach (SADC, 2003). Its articles call for ‘intensifying the provision of comprehensive, affordable and user-friendly reproductive health services to youth’ (p. 5); ‘strengthening initiatives that would increase the capacities of women and adolescent girls to protect themselves from the risk of HIV infection, principally through provision of health care and health services, including sexual reproductive health’. To give full meaning to this, SADC adopted its Strategic 5-Year Business Plan 2005–2009, which is currently under review (SADC, 2004).

SADC has also adopted a Business Plan on Orphans and other Vulnerable Children and Youth (SADC, 2009). This is the first tangible regional plan to address the socioeconomic conditions of youth. The goal is to improve the capacity of SADC members to respond adequately to the rights and developmental needs of orphans and other vulnerable children and youth, while the purpose is to facilitate the review, development and harmonisation of strategies and policies so as to address the rights and developmental needs of OVCY in the SADC region.

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⁶ Angola, Botswana, DRC, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.
A number of SADC countries, such as Botswana, Malawi, Mauritius, South Africa and Zimbabwe have adopted national youth development strategies. Most focus on economic participation, education and skills development (including access to ICT), health and wellbeing, social cohesion and participation of youth in decision-making processes (see Annex B).
4. Analysis of the MDGs in relation to youth

Against the background of legal frameworks outlined above, this section takes stock of the MDGs in relation to youth and examines the missing links on youth development in order to make recommendations for the post-2015 agenda. There is no doubt that all eight MDGs affect youth in various ways. Table 4.1 provides an overview of the MDGs and their links to youth development although there are few disaggregated statistics regarding youth and the MDGs.

Table 4.1 MDGs and youth development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goals</th>
<th>Youth Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goal 1: ’eradicate extreme poverty and hunger’</td>
<td>Indirect link</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal 2: ‘Achieve universal primary education’</td>
<td>Target 8. Literacy rate of 15–24 year-olds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal 3: ‘Promote gender equality and empower women’</td>
<td>Target 9. Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Target 10. Ratio of literate women to men, aged 15–24 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal 4: ‘Reduce child mortality’</td>
<td>Indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal 5: ‘Improve maternal health’</td>
<td>Indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal 6: ‘Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases’</td>
<td>Target 18. HIV prevalence among pregnant women aged 15–24 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Target 19. % of population aged 15–24 years with comprehensive and correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Target 20. Ratio of school attendance of orphans to non-orphans aged 10–14 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal 7: To Ensure Environmental Sustainability</td>
<td>Indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal 8: ‘Develop a global partnership for development’</td>
<td>Target 45. Unemployment rate of young people aged 15–24 years, disaggregated by sex</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The exclusion of youth from the vulnerable groups (women and children) identified in MDGs 2–5 can be seen as unfair, ill-advised and constituting a serious weakness, particularly in Africa. The discussion above has shown that the focus on improving literacy (Goal 2) is insufficient. Lessons from other developing regions show trends in improving education across all levels while Africa’s performance in both secondary and tertiary levels suffers the dual problems of quality and quantity. Africa urgently requires more technical skills in the fields of science and technology, focusing on agro-industry, renewable energy, mining and ICT in order to reap the advantage of its diverse natural resources. Institutionalling youth development in the post-2015 agenda in these fields may yield benefits and avert the potential demographic crisis that threatens to reverse the gains of the past decade. Although basic literacy remains important (MDG2), this will not be enough for Africa to overcome its challenges. A post-2015 agenda needs to focus on all levels of education, and on skills that are necessary for economies that require restructuring, diversification and industrialisation.

MDGs 3 and 4 have limitations regarding their lack of focus on youth in addition to children and women, who are explicitly targeted. It is worth noting that historically, because of patriarchal dominance, women and youth have been subjected to discrimination. This culture persists in varying degrees. In South Africa, for
example, the policy and developmental discourse acknowledges this reality, and so prioritises women, youth and people with disabilities as a single vulnerable group in all its empowerment legislation. It can therefore be argued that the MDGs in general did not tackle inequality and youth exclusion, thus ignoring the African reality.

Based on these assertions, it can be argued that focus should be centred on supporting education and leadership training for youth, in particular young women and girls, as well as empowering them to help themselves. For example, community training in issues of HIV and AIDS and health-related services has had huge impact on reducing HIV infections and mortality rates in countries like South Africa. Moreover, projects such as the ‘Youth empowerment and support (YES) project, aimed at unemployed and marginalised youth, or the ‘I-3 Afrika’ initiative (see Annex E) can help development youth capacity by focusing on a youth-sensitive development approach through promotion of training, advocacy and activism on the provisions of reproductive basic health care, vaccinations, nutritious food, clean water and sanitation to children and youth at risk.

Regarding MDG8, if ‘global partnerships’ are to be effective they must address many contemporary issues such as climate change, governance, peace and security, food security, fairer trade, youth employment, youth entrepreneurship, and young people and ICTs come to mind. By building and supporting opportunities for youth in these areas and developing open trading and financial systems that are rules-based, predictable and non-discriminatory – while at the same time addressing issues of youth employment and education challenges as the basis for poverty eradication and as powerful mechanisms for delivering the MDGs – a post-2015 MDG agenda could get the boost in needs in order to make more quicker and effective progress than the current framework. In order to attend these issues, which are also fully addressed in the African Youth Declaration on Post-2015 Agenda (Obuya and Muthiga, 2012), there is a need for a mutually beneficial partnership between African countries and the international community.
5. **Lessons learned**

It is clear that there are many missing links in the implementation of policies and youth development in Africa with regard to the MDGs as well as national youth development plans. First, the MDGs perpetuate youth exclusion and discrimination, albeit unintentionally, in that they fail to target youth and contemporary challenges facing them. Second, existing youth policies are not being translated into viable strategies and programmes that can be consistently measured, monitored and reviewed over a period of time. Third, it is clear that MDGs and national youth policies are not popular among youth in many African countries due to their top-down approach. Youth are becoming impatient with existing plans and there is an urgent need to design strategies and programmes to create jobs.

In the past, there has been a lack of focus on overall structural economic change to support growing pool of unemployed youth. The promotion of the MDGs, with their focus on the social sector is, however, just as important as that of continental, regional and national youth policies, all of which remain little known among the youth. Moreover youth development has tended to be dominated by the state at the expense of other stakeholders such as youth-focused civil society organisations (CSOs) and the private sector. Youth policies in Africa have not tended to be the outcome of contemporary, thoughtful and informed public debate but are often the products of a top-down approach that does not inspire the intended beneficiaries. This means that youth is not seriously engaged beyond compliance with procedural requirements and have little awareness regarding their rights and responsibilities. This is particularly true in the rural sector. Youth should be encouraged to participate in the policy decision-making process, which may also increase a sense of ownership and custodianship of policy implementation.

Despite the recent regional and national youth policies, the problem seems to be the lack of political will to plan, budget, implement and track progress – as revealed in this paper and expressly supported by evidence provided by the President of Southern Africa Youth Movement (Gaolthobogwe, 2010). The lack of political will can be attributed not only to male-dominated elitism and corruption, but mainly to an ‘entitlement syndrome’ that dominates ruling party politics in Africa. This syndrome describes a feeling that says ‘we have fought for this “liberation” from “colonialists” to be where we are’ – something that led to liberation politics dominating over contemporary governance issues. This ultimately breeds self-serving and self-rewarding ‘leaders’ who strive to serve only those who elected them. Another lesson is that youth policies tend to be urban-biased, using a ‘one-size-fits-all approach’ that is not adapted to rural settings. Furthermore, strategies to implement existing youth policies are developed in isolation, without taking into account inter-sectorial effects, and focus primarily on short-term priorities. In order to promote implementation, there is a need for a dedicated Youth Development Fund and for increased capacity building.

The youth continent-wide policy regime is a relatively new phenomenon. This means there are barely any disaggregated data on youth development in the entire continent. Generally youth policies have not been supported by clear strategic plans with goals and targets that enable them to be measurable and reviewable over a period of time. For example, the AU has yet to develop a measuring tool or Youth Development Index to measure progress in implementing the AYC and its Decade of Youth Action Plan, 2008–2018 (AU, 2011c). There is a need to monitor and review progress in the realisation of national youth policies and programmes aligned to African Youth Charter through a common Youth Development Index.

The aspirations of rural and urban youth in Africa may be influenced by different factors, but their perceptions are converging and are significantly influenced by the fact that ‘politicians are corrupt and if one need a job or any opportunity you need to be connected’ (Fanpan, 2012b). This ultimately discourages youth from looking for jobs and builds up frustrations and anger. African policy-makers must seek to understand the perceptions and aspirations of youth across geographical and class divides. In agriculture, for example, young people in areas of high agricultural growth are likely to be more interested in making
farming a central part of their livelihood than those living in low-growth areas. Young people tend to be more influenced by material reality than by theory (AU, 2011c).

Young people’s interest in participating in meaningful personal and community building is likely to be positively related to their ability to gain access to the resources they need in order to be innovative, such as

- **family and community support** to reach their potential from an early age;
- **education and training** on ‘hidden’ opportunities in value chains e.g. agro-industry and mining;
- **basic infrastructure** such as land, improved roads, agro-facilities and equipment, marketing facilities and ICTs;
- **information** on opportunities provided by the government and on private sector services and products:
- access to **personal development** support such as bursaries, mentorship credit, business development services, capacity building etc.
- fundamental **human rights** and responsibilities that come with constitutional **democracy**.

To sum up, youth needs an enabling environment including knowledge of modern science and technology to connect to opportunities brought about by globalisation, live healthy and secure lives, attend schools without interruption or worrying about access to basic necessities such shelter, food, clothing and energy. Young people also need to find work after going through the school system, or alternatively start enterprises to create jobs.

The special needs and challenges of youth in relation to poverty, employment, inequality and social influence need to be addressed in the future and should be adequately reflected in the post-2015 debate. The question is what the international community could do to help Africa promote youth development and what are the strategic areas for investment. The second question is how this could be expressed in terms of any successor to the MDGs. This section recommends some strategic areas for potential investments and possible partnerships (reinforcing MDG8) with the international community, and highlights how youth development could feature in a post-2015 setting.

Youth are a great asset for development. A positive economic outlook, and good prospects for sustainable economic growth, rising incomes, and poverty alleviation are powerful incentives for the growth of investment in any country or region. The international community can contribute to making Africa a more favourable environment for investment and business by supporting the continent’s own efforts to achieve sustainable economic growth and attain the MDGs now and beyond 2015. In particular, the international community needs to honour its commitments to Africa in three critical areas: official development assistance (ODA), debt and trade. From the 1970s when the international community set 0.7% of Gross National Income (GNI) as the ODA target, the experience of Africa has one been of disappointment because of the considerable gap between commitments and action. For example, at the 2002 G8 Summit in Kananaskis, Canada, the Summit in L’Aquila, Italy in 2009 and the Camp David Summit in 2012, the G8 made pledges to help Africa in its development priorities within the context of NEPAD and its programmes. Yet, according to African Union Commission Report (AU, 2011b) commitments made, for example to provide additional $50 billion a year by 2010 as promised in 2005 at the G8 Summit in Gleneagles, have not materialised owing to a general perception that aid-recipient countries have no capacity to absorb more ODA. However, the same report argues that most African countries can absorb more resources for programmes aimed at achieving the MDGs. The report argues that ‘issues of quality, quantity, predictability and timely delivery of ODA to Africa, without conditions that limit the policy and implementation space available to African countries’, need to be addressed by both sides.

The international community needs to close this gap. Debt relief through the reduction or elimination of the burden of external debt is an important channel through which the international community can assist Africa to improve its environment for growth and investment. With a debt overhang of about $300 billion, the prospects for the economic growth and the capacity of the continent to attract investment, especially for the heavily indebted countries, are constrained.

The following should therefore be seen as building blocks that the international community could support in order to tackle the massive challenges facing African youth towards inclusive and sustainable economic growth.

As policies already exist, it requires **concerted efforts** to translate them into concrete and measurable strategies and programmes aimed at mainstreaming youth development in decision-making, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation processes. This should happen within the context of the relevant legal framework for building a human rights culture aimed at creating an innovative generation of active young leaders and entrepreneurs whose democratic and accountable ethos are based on the African value system of Ubuntu. In this regard two approaches are important: **Awareness and Advocacy.** First, there is

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7 The South African Government’s 1996 White Paper on Welfare defined ubuntu, a Zulu word, as ‘the principle of caring for each other’s wellbeing [...] and a spirit of mutual support. Each individual’s humanity is ideally expressed through his or her relationship with others and theirs in turn through recognition of the individual’s humanity. Ubuntu means that people are people through other people. It also acknowledges both the rights and responsibilities of every citizen in promoting individual and societal well-being.’
still a great need to raise awareness about the MDGs, international, regional and national youth policies and the ensuing rights and responsibilities of youth. Second, networking and collaboration, such as international exchange programmes to learn best practices, are important. For example, global online networks could allow young people to engage in discussion and action around the MDGs and the post-2015 framework.

There is a need to promote **harmonisation between international, regional and national commitments to youth** and to leverage these to promote youth development activities. A lack of regional and inter-regional policy harmonisation, collaboration and partnership could hamper accelerated regional integration. Youth development should be streamlined in a post-MDG framework and underpinned by the principles of continuity, synergy and change. Continuity would mean that goals do not require re-consideration because experience illustrates their cross-cutting positive effects on youth development, while synergy would call for merging youth development issues with existing goals where possible and finally change would refer to youth development goals that were not part of the existing MDGs.

There has to be a **massive investment** in the provision of market-relevant quality education, particularly in Research, Science and Technology (RST), in infrastructural development, particularly in the rural and semi-rural areas, in agro-industry, ICTs, energy and health. It is noteworthy that none of the MDGs concerns energy or ICTs, yet these are two of the drivers of global development trends. This needs to be taken into account in a post-2015 framework concerned with youth development.

There should be **sustainable funding** for in-service training and entrepreneurship promotion through regulated incentives, subsidies, grants, loans mentorship etc. For example, in the agreed 10% increase in budget allocation towards agriculture in order to achieve the NEPAD-CAADP projected growth rate of 6% per annum by 2015, about 30% of annual agricultural budget from ODA must be dedicated to youth empowerment in these areas.

Moreover, the post-2015 development framework should include clear goals and targets aligned to youth development objectives (see Annex A). A **first** option would be to have an additional goal on youth development, which focuses on the institutionalisation of development support for young people. This could include the mainstreaming of youth development goals in all UN agencies and government departments of Member States as well as the assessment of mechanisms to allow for youth participation and youth development (e.g. through a Global Youth Participation of Development Index). A **second** option would be to adopt a goal on youth employment with a focus on promoting entrepreneurship for job creation, strengthening and building partnerships between youth and the public and the private sectors, empowering youth as learners, developers and entrepreneurs on ICTs. Governments should play a facilitating role in nurturing youth enterprise through investments in ICT infrastructure, for example. Such goals should be linked to education opportunities in these areas. A **third** goal should expand the education goal of universal primary education. A focus could be on achieving universal access to quality primary, secondary and equitable access to tertiary education to include children and youth. There should be a consideration of matching skills with sectors relevant for the respective economies. Finally, youth considerations could be mainstreamed in goals relating to inequality, healthcare, combatting HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases and environmental sustainability.
References


Annex A – Proposed MDGs aligned to youth development

1. Proposed Goal Option 1 – Proposed additional MDG on Youth Development

Institutionalising development support for young men and women in the MDG framework

Why this Goal? There is a need to adopt a more rights-based approach to Youth Development programmes. This means favouring the participation of the most vulnerable population groups in the design of policies and strategic plans; focusing such on their needs, in particular by adopting youth- and gender-sensitive approach to all programmes; defining the intended beneficiaries as rights-holders who can make claims on government for the provision of certain services, which in turn underlines the obligations towards such citizens. This will improve the responsiveness of the policies to the real needs of young men and women, moving towards a more bottom-up approach to providing support and the ability to achieve results.

Measurable targets for this Goal:

1.1. Target 1 – Ensure that all specialised agencies of the United Nations and government departments of United Nations member states that are directly involved in identified and agreed Youth Development Priority Areas adopt a rights-based and outcome approach to Youth Development by adopting appropriate Youth Policy, Strategy and Programmes aligned to their respective strategic plans and budgets, of which 30% should be dedicated to youth-focused development initiatives.

1.2. Target 2 – Develop international benchmarking tools such as a Global Youth Development (or Youth Participation) Index showcasing progress and best practices to empower young people in the identified and agreed Youth Development Priority Areas and in the System-Wide Action Plan (SWAP) on Youth which is currently being planned in order to track, compare, measure and evaluate Youth Development Indicators aligned to national MDG-related medium-term strategic frameworks and related budgets. Governments must create mechanisms to involve young people in the development of Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) and Country Assistance Strategies (CAS) through National Youth Councils or other forums for youth representation. This should help to ensure that youth perspectives contribute to PRSPs and that the latter are relevant to local concerns. It will also promote widespread participation in their implementation.

1.3. Target 3 – Establish youth units/desks/directorates/ focal points in all United Nations Service Delivery Points and in all spheres of government, civil society, the private sector and international donors. The proposed UN Special Envoy and heads of departments and youth development managers will be directly responsible for capturing progress and shortcomings regarding the agreed goals and targets for Youth Development in the reviewed MDGs.

2. Proposed Goal Option 2 – MDGs 1 and 8 on Poverty Reduction and Global Partnerships for Development suggest the possibility of a new MDG that would be critical for Youth Development in Africa, i.e. promoting Entrepreneurship Development for Job Creation through ICTs.
Poverty is closely linked to employment and unemployment and the uneven distribution of national resources. Young children living in poverty, because of their dependence on poor households, are the largest group among the poor. Youth aged between 14 and 24 years are still dependent on their families and are the next most impoverished sector if they lack adequate tools to break out of the vicious cycle of chronic poverty such as high-quality training and entrepreneurial support. It may also be the case that poverty among people aged between 25 and 35 years stems more from unemployment than from their direct dependence on impoverished households.

Regarding MDG8, many contemporary key issues such as fairer trade, youth employment, youth entrepreneurship, and young people and ICTs need to be addressed in order to achieve a ‘global partnership’. For example, how can ICTs be used effectively across different sectors to help achieve the MDGs? What can we learn about the proper design of ICT projects from pilot projects in developing countries? Since ICTs can help to resolve development challenges there is a need to:

- Build and support opportunities for youth to participate in fair trade, and develop open trading and financial systems that are rule-based, predictable and non-discriminatory.
- Address the issue of youth employment as a fundamental block to poverty eradication and as a powerful mechanism for achieving the MDGs. Strengthen and build partnerships between youth and the public and private sectors, such as the Youth Employment Summit and Youth Employment Network.
- Use microfinance and skills-development initiatives to reduce barriers for youth entrepreneurship and strengthen youth entrepreneurship networks;
- Empower youth as learners, developers, contributors, entrepreneurs and decision-makers on ICTs and ensure that rural and urban areas are included;
- Facilitate bridging the digital divide, nurturing ICT-related youth enterprises through government policy and investment in ICT infrastructure, i.e. support and resource new coalitions and partnerships around ICTs;
- Promote community cyber cafés and tele-centres to address multiple development needs, such as training in business incubators and opportunities for RSH education.

2.1. **Target 1**: Increase the total number of youth entrepreneurship activities at an agreed pace by providing appropriate levels of entrepreneurship and measuring national features and characteristics associated with entrepreneurial activity in developing nations. Here the idea is South–South peer-learning among countries facing similar conditions and sharing of good practices to feed into medium-term development budgets. (Benchmarking indicators to be defined by development actors in the proposed Youth Development Index)

2.2. **Target 2**: By 2030 ensure universal access to basic ICTs as well as to electric lighting; and extended access to transport, improved water and sewage facilities, networked electricity and clean cooking technologies.

2.3. **Target 3**: Expand the African private sector through diversification in critical sectors such as agro-industry and mining by enabling ICT and boosting infrastructure.
3. **Proposed expanded Goal Option 3**

**MDG2:** Achieve universal primary education – may be extended to include youth, e.g. ‘Achieve universal access to quality primary and secondary education and equitable access to tertiary education for children and youth’.

The limitation of MDG2 is that it is limited to children and primary education rather than including youth across all stage of their education. As framed, it does not imply daily school attendance or high-quality education in terms of teaching and resources; or that learning has been achieved. Progress may be exaggerated in cases where children repeat years or there are inaccurate records on the total number of children in each age cohort. Countries like Brazil, China and India have been better than most African countries in tackling youth unemployment by improving access to quality education from primary to tertiary levels.

3.1. **Target 1:** Ensure that, by 2030, all children complete primary school with a mastery of basic literacy and numeracy, increase global secondary completion in the population aged 25 and above by 50%, and accelerate progress for all towards better mastery of language, writing, mathematics and science skills required for further higher training and for a productive role in national and global societies.

3.2. **Target 2:** Guarantee equal access to secondary and higher education for qualified and needy youth and increase the number of youth enrolling in careers related to Science and Technology by 2030. Skills development must focus on potential sectors for rapid economic growth such as agro-industry, manufacturing, mining or ICTs.

4. **Revised and Proposed Goal Option 3: Eradicate extreme disparities among the most vulnerable population groups and empower women, children and youth**

4.1. **Target 1:** Eliminate gender and youth challenges in decision-making and implementation by 2030.

4.2. **Target 3.2:** Achieve a % reduction in earnings disparity among women and youth.

5. **Revised and Proposed MDG4: Increase access to universal healthcare service and improve the quality of citizens’ lives, especially youth**

This incorporates MDGs 4 and 5.

5.1. **Target 1:** Reduce by half, between 2015 and 2030, the under-24 mortality rate.

5.2. **Target 2:** Improve maternal health, particularly among young girls affected by poverty.

5.3. **Target 3:** Reduce global maternal mortality to below 1 per 1000 live births between 2015 and 2030, focusing on the most vulnerable women and girls.

5.4. **Target 4:** Increase global average life expectancy to 70 years by 2030 in developing countries facing extreme poverty, inequalities and youth bulge.
6. **Proposed Goal Option 5: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases** (the proposed goal option 1 on ‘youth mainstreaming’) requires that all existing MDGs incorporate youth indicators.

6.1. **Target 1**: Have halted by 2030 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS especially among the youth.

6.2. **Target 2**: Have halted by 2030 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases.

7. **Proposed Goal Options on MDG7: Ensure environmental sustainability**

Food security, climate change and renewable energy are global policy issues that require specific attention in the successor to the MDGs.

7.1. **Proposed MDG 7.1**: Food Security – To achieve the CAADP target of an annual agricultural growth rate of 6% or more and to halve the number of people living in poverty by 2015 will require **total factor productivity** growth rates of 4.4% per year.\(^8\)

Why this Goal? The poor performance of the agricultural sector in the face of climate change explains much of the slow progress towards reducing poverty and hunger in Africa. Agricultural growth has barely kept up with population growth, and per capita agricultural output has lagged far behind other developing regions.

In addition, agriculture is an ageing and undervalued occupation in many countries and therefore special encouragement must be given to young people to take up careers in agricultural development. It is important that young people express what changes are needed in agricultural education and have incentives to make agricultural careers more attractive and valued, as well as better recognise the range of roles now required. Most African youth were born into small-scale farming families, a category of farmers that continues to have poor access to markets and marketing infrastructure, technical and marketing skills, and a weaker bargaining position in national and global food chains. Local food systems could and should be made to work better for this group of farmers. With their improved technological knowledge, the youth hold the key to modernise in order to improve agricultural productivity and profitability and must be formally and consistently engaged across the value chains. Youth in partnership with the private sector should be involved in the development of national high-value agricultural commodity value chains, i.e. input supply, farm production, storage and assembly, processing, distribution, and wholesaling and retailing.

7.2. **Proposed MDG7.2: Renewable Energy**

In an era of erratic climates due to the irresponsible exploration and consumption of natural resources, risk mitigation will be vital to human existence. Renewable energy is part of this agenda. It is important to foster renewable electricity technologies by ensuring they compete on a fair basis with other options, e.g. by power purchase agreements (PPAs), non-discriminatory access to the grid, and funding for research, demonstration and development.

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\(^8\) Framework for African Agricultural Productivity, 2006
7.2 **Target 1**: Ensure that 10% of Africa’s electricity generation and supply come from renewable energy sources by 2025.

7.2 **Target 2**: Invest an equitable level of national resources in renewable energy technologies, given their potential and compared to investments in other energy options.

7.2 **Target 3**: Address constraints on the development of the renewable energy industry.

7.3. **Proposed MDG7.3**.

   Bridge the digital divide by promoting the right of all to have equal access to ICT services and to experience their advantages, and ensure that economically feasible technologies and applications are adopted through the development and implementation of an appropriate programme of action.

**Possible Target**

African governments may want to aim to achieve 10% renewable energy by 2030. They will need to choose between different policy instruments, drawing on experience in industrialised countries, renewables obligations and portfolio standards.
# Annex B – Key stakeholders in Youth Development in the SADC region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTERNATIONAL LEVEL</th>
<th>Domain/Country</th>
<th>Key Stakeholders</th>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Key Focus Area &amp; Relevance to MDGs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GLOBAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>The United Nations Inter-Agency Network on Youth Development (IANYD)</td>
<td>Global 15 SADC countries are members</td>
<td>Facilitates and supports youth involvement &amp; participation in the UN System and its programmes or initiatives at all levels. Advocates for the recognition of young people’s contributions to national &amp; community development &amp; to achieving the MDGs through such programmes as UN WPAY.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTINENTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>African Union Commission &amp; its Directorate on Youth</td>
<td>Multilateral continental body with 54 member states</td>
<td>Oversees the Implementation of 2006 African Youth Charter &amp; its Strategic Plan 2008–2014 focusing on Education, skills and competence development; Employment and sustainable livelihoods; Youth leadership and participation; Health and welfare; Peace and security; Environment protection; Cultural and moral values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>African Youth Network</td>
<td>Regional NGO with 22 youth organisations across Africa</td>
<td>Aims to promote and mobilise youth in order to address challenges, giving them more visibility in public life. To encourage African youth to help in the development of the continent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>All African Students Union (AASU)</td>
<td>International student union</td>
<td>Aims to convene African students to coordinate their efforts to build a strong and vibrant continent. Struggles for equity &amp; equal access to education; defends &amp; protects all students’ rights; promotes socioeconomic &amp; political integration of states and peoples in Africa; advocates peace and justice in globalisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>African Youth Network on Population and Development (AfriYAN)</td>
<td>Continental NGO</td>
<td>Fights HIV/AIDS and promotes youth sexual and reproductive health as a bridge, integrating the other health and development issues in Africa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REGIONAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>Southern African Pan-African Union (SADC Youth Union (2009))</td>
<td>Multilateral regional organisation 15 SADC countries are members</td>
<td>Youth development agency aims to domesticate AYC in SADC Members in a coordinated fashion. Its focus areas are education, skills development, youth employment, entrepreneurial development, prevention and treatment of HIV/AIDS.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The Southern African Youth Movement (SAYM)</td>
<td>Regional non-profit organisation</td>
<td>Aims to network on youth issues based on integrated regional agenda.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### NATIONAL LEVEL

NB: In all 15 SADC member states the lead for integrated youth development is the dedicated ministry, Youth Development Agency or Youth Council, as illustrated below.

| South Africa | National Youth Development Agency | State/public institution | Custodian of Youth Development in South Africa, which aims to integrate youth development into the mainstream of government policies, programmes and the national budget focusing on Economic Participation; Education and Skills Development; Youth Work; Health and Wellbeing; Social Cohesion and National Youth Service; Sports and Recreation. |
| Botswana | Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture | State | Oversees the implementation of the National Youth Policy and the National Action Plan for Youth (NAPFY) with the assistance of the Botswana National Youth Council. |
| Botswana | Botswana National Youth Council | State-led public institution | Provides a networking platform for youth; Serves as a platform for the articulation of youth development agenda across all sectors. |
| Namibia | Ministry of Youth National Services Sport & Culture | State/public institution | Develops and empowers youth and promotes sport, culture and arts. |