



Labour market transition among the youth: Evidence from ten developing countries

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The issue of labour market instability concerning youth's quasi-employment status and being in the group of NEET (Not in Education, Employment and Training) appears alarming in the context of developing regions. The paper explores some informative aspects of the youth labour market transition in the context of ten developing countries across five developing regions. The study is based on school to work transition survey (carried out between 2012-2016) data from the Work for Youth project of the International Labour Office (ILO) in Madagascar, Tanzania, Zambia, Nepal, Cambodia, Bangladesh, Kyrgyzstan, El Salvador, Palestine and Egypt. Here, we get a comprehensive picture of the labour market difficulties among male youth (15-29) in terms of their lack of transition. Irrespective of country-specific differences, more than 50% of the male youth in our sample are unlikely to be in transition, with a larger concentration in the NEET and quasi-employment groups. Longer spells unemployment leave scarring effect by often discouraging transition rate. Estimation results showed an inverse relationship between the probability of transition and levels of education, implying issue of skill mismatch. Whereas any early experience or father's occupational hierarchy, better financial status, significantly increases the probability of transition among the youth. Such associations are indicative of informal network effect on the issue of labour market transition. To conclude, the paper necessitates the formation of employment information dissemination centres and the extension of educational credit facilities for youth to level the labour market playing field for them.

Key words: Job search, Labour force and employment, Probit model, Skill mismatch

JEL Classification: J21, J24, C2

1.INTRODUCTION

We ask what makes the youth's transition in the labour market of a developing country more difficult than their adult counterpart in terms of stability in the labour market. Is it a skill mismatch? Or does it have to do with something else that they continue job search even when they are employed in majority of these developing countries? For the possible answers we get back to the extensive literature studying job market behaviour of youth in both developing and developed countries.

There is a growing consensus that the opportunity to benefit from a favourable demographic transition in most of the developing regions may disappear with the persistent deplorable condition of youth in the labour market. Undoubtedly, skill mismatch, high unemployment, underemployment and dearth of education are the major challenges associated with youth's successful labour market transition (Global Employment Trends for Youth – Geneva: ILO 2013). The problems of youth in the labour market are accentuated further with obstacles to job search, dearth of social insurance and limited access to capital. This leaves them entirely dependent on their own labour for acquiring all the job-related information (Abebe et al, 2018). Literature provides corroborating evidence that often getting employment also is not sufficient to ensure stability among the participants. A larger likelihood of employment exit, job-to-job transition among the developing economies is indicative of the greater instability among the employed group. On average, these likeliness are 2 to 3 times higher in developing countries (Donovan et al, 2018). Hence, the highly uncertain and unstable job prospect of these regions leaves youth's economic potential underutilised. Thus realization of the demographic dividend remains a far-fetched dream. Under the backdrop of unique labour market feature of the developing economies our dissertation provides an integrated and detailed empirical analysis explaining the current labour market transition of youth with respect to their non-employment (unemployment and inactive) and quasi-employment (identified with increasing intention to 'change or quit the current job) across ten developing countries. This issue may have enormous policy relevance in the context of the countries that are on the verge of unveiling potential demographic dividend but by and large lack productive opportunities among the younger generation.

The empirical evidences also add that such job quit intentions in poor countries has its implication for learning more about match quality (it is linked to matching mechanism to overcome possible job mismatch) on the job but less of a job ladder effect (Donvan et al, 2018). This conjecture gain prominence from the fact that labour force participation at early age is often driven by poor financial condition and larger drop out in these regions (Global Employment Trends for Youth – Geneva: ILO 2013). Besides, spells of unemployment in general are costly for future job prospects in terms of forgone wages and experience. In absence of well-functioning labour market institutions, they also lack proper information on a suitable match even after longer spells of active job search. Therefore, driven out of little or no option, many youngsters end up working in poor quality employment, with larger intention to quit from their current situation. Hence, this is in proximity to the potential instability among the workers. Inexperienced workers with inadequate information, inappropriate utilisation of skills, and poor background may enhance their learning potential and information base from the

current job and get ready to quit their current job for a newer and better employment relation (Donovan et al, 2018).

Among the many, inappropriate utilisation of skill can be a possible explanation for high turnover intention among the group of young workers. Self-employed, being the dominant status of employment among youth in these regions are also identified as the group of workers to be most likely to switch to wage work and hence recognised as quasi-employed (Donovan et al, 2018). Along with this group of quasi employed, quit intention among the wage workers can vary further in the presence of high job search costs (Elder, 2014; Elder et al, 2015; González et al, 2012; ILO, 2015). Young participants often possess limited experience and information as newcomers in the labour market. The situation is even more difficult among those from disadvantaged backgrounds, especially in developing countries, where informal methods (such as personal contacts) are the dominant mode of job search process (Mazza, 2012). Such process frequently involves strong social networks and ties with the business sector. Here, quit intention and quasi-employment may also be linked to a matching mechanism to overcome possible mismatches and might lead to a better and more efficient use of the existing resources. This argument is stronger for the youth since the junior workers are more likely to enter the job that require little skill. Hence, along with the searching mechanism such intentions can be regarded as the process of gathering experience for a progressive career. This argument receives mixed reaction in the literature. Larger turnover often symbolizes loss of economy's potential along with workers' inefficiency and results in a negative growth (Topel and Ward, 1992).

The issue becomes more debatable when we come across higher turnover intention among the more educated youth, considering a future of stable well paid employment rare a find (Elder et al, 2015; González et al, 2012; ILO, 2015). Adding to these, higher quit intentions sometimes can also be seen as a proxy for the availability of alternatives among the workers (Freeman, 1977). However, this dimension of the school-to-work transition has received little attention in the context of developing regions. The data limitations might be a probable cause in this regard.

International comparative studies on youth's labour market transition from such a perspective is almost non-existent. In this context, using information from the School-to-Work Transition Survey (SWTS) data for the age group 15-29, we mark a young worker as 'transited' if they do not have any 'job quit intention'. He is marked as 'not-transited' if he is either 'quasi-employed'¹ (employed with a job quit intention)', or NEET (Not in Education, Employment and Training). Therefore, non-transition or existence of quit intention reflects the possibility of potential instability (Jovanovic, 1979) among the youth even when they are employed. We document how transition varies for male youth in Madagascar, Tanzanian, Zambia (Sub-Saharan Africa), Cambodia, Nepal, Bangladesh (South and East Asia), Kyrgyzstan (Europe and Central Asia), El Salvador (Latin America and Caribbean), Palestine and Egypt (Middle East and North Africa) for individual and background characteristics. In some of these countries rate of transition is even lower than 30 per cent.

¹ We extended the concept of quasi-employed from the group of self-employed to the entire group of employed with a turn over intention and also to the group of unemployed and inactive. The group of quasi-employed is discussed in detail in section 2 page 11.

We also observed that the transition rate is associated with different spells of unemployment before finding the current job. We have documented the transition rate across different employment and occupation statuses. We find that in most countries, longer spells of unemployment are associated with a fall in the transition rate. This indicates that even after larger spells of job search, they are identified as quasi-employed with their current engagement. Transition is considerably higher among workers in high-skilled occupations. In our findings, we observed that self-employed workers are the group of workers with least willingness to change their current job, even after being identified as ‘subsistence-entrepreneurs’ in most empirical literature on developing countries.

Finally, we have estimated the impact of education, early work experience, father’s occupation and financial status of the household on the probability of transition.

The result shows that transition inclination decreases in levels of education in most of these countries except in Madagascar, Tanzania and Nepal. In these countries, education bears no significant impact. Early work experience significantly increases the probability of transition among working youth in Zambia and Nepal. A strong association between fathers’ networks and the rate of transition is observed in most of these countries except Zambia, Tanzania, Nepal and Cambodia. There is a considerable influence of the family’s financial status on the probability of the transition of working youth.

The rest of the paper is organised as follows. Section 2 provides a brief review of existing literature on youth’s labour market behaviour with special focus on transition, quit intention, job-satisfaction, quasi-employment, unemployment and inactivity. Section 3 describes the country context. Section 4 introduces the data and presents a descriptive analysis. Section 5 gives the estimation methodology and results. The last section concludes the paper.

2.LITERATURE REVIEW

Following recent developments in the labour market issues of developing countries, we observe a re-orientation of the labour market status. In the absence of an organised labour market, the different labour market statuses cannot be mutually exclusive from each other in the developing regions. In developing countries, a much higher share of inactive people are found to be marginally attached to the labour force. Thus, the difference between the two states (unemployment and inactivity) becomes blurrier. Labour market analysis in the context of developed countries conventionally abstracts unemployment and inactivity. There is generally a clear distinction between those who want to work and those who do not. However, literature points to some observations that cyclical variation in labour market outcomes, such as the unemployment rate is often affected by movements in and out of the labour force (Elsby et al, 2015) in developing countries. The youth unemployed in the developing countries may not be clearly distinguished from those who are inactive. Especially when most of the unemployed are not eligible for any unemployment insurance and assistance programs for the unemployed are less generous or absent (Clark and Summers, 1982; Ellwood, 1982).

In the context self-employed, another state in the labour market, empirical studies find that this group is dominant among the other states of employment. The significant reason behind the dominance of this status of employment in the developing countries is often lack of better choices for work rather than a good business opportunity. Therefore, this evidence has given rise to a literature that identifies self-employment as being a closer substitute for missing unemployment insurance than for wage work (Poschke, 2013) and exists as “subsistence entrepreneurs” (Poschke, 2025). Job market frictions among this group of workers are further prevalent from the fact that they are more likely to switch to wage work compared to that in developed countries. This status of employment in most of the developing countries is often identified as the status of ‘quasi-employment’ and ‘quasi-search activity’ (Donovan et al, 2018). Along with the subjective probability of the ‘job quit intention’ this ‘quasi-employment’ activity status is an immediate precursor of actual quits. Such situations are perceived as ‘on-the-job search activity’. This intention can also be very high among the young wage workers. Since youth in developing countries often end up with unproductive, less-skilled, low-paid and least-secured jobs (Mitra et al, 2013) as own account worker, unpaid family labourers, casual employees or temporary labourers. Here employed youth compete with their unemployed counterparts and may shift from one job to another without intervening actual spells of unemployment (Parsons, 1991). Hence, the set of job searchers often cannot typically be equated to the stock of unemployed in poorer countries with non-existent unemployment benefits, job search subsidies and sufficient job opportunities (Donovan et al, 2018; Franklin, 2018) etc. This prevailing nature of labour market in the developing countries is indicative of the instability that the youth are often exposed to.

Literature maintains that the issues of quasi-employment, large job-quit intentions are largely associated with lack of information, experience, in appropriate qualification, time preferences, conflict between family and work, dissatisfaction, insufficient wages, adverse working conditions, temporality of work, location, etc (Parsons, 1991; Van, 1991; Freeman, 1977; Farber, 1999).

It is only when an individual’s job matches their specific need, preferences, aspirations and abilities they are likely to be settled with their present job and treated as transited to work (Kalleberg, 2008). On the other hand, if there is a mismatch or lack of fit ‘on the job search’ or ‘quit intentions’ or ‘quasi-employment’ is likely to rise. Under the present circumstances with increasing job turnover intentions and quasi-employment along with non-employment the youth is considered more contentious than their elder counterpart.

Even though international comparative studies on the employment-unemployment situation of youth have received renewed attention with the recent demographic transition in most of the developing regions, labour market transition among this group from the perspective of quit intention and quasi-employment is almost non-existent. Instead of certain common labour market features, developing countries may show greater variation in terms of the instability among the young workers within and between the regions.

The ILO (2015) definition perceives an individual worker as transited not only with respect to the criteria of their job quit intention but also with respect to the job-specific characteristics (like availability of contract, duration of such contract). However, in the developing countries (that we have considered for our analysis),

where formal and permanent employment is rarely found, a higher unemployment rate along with larger 'job quit intentions' or quasi-employment, are indicative of the challenges to find a good quality 'formal' employment. Hence, instead of analysing transition in reference to the nature of the job, we choose to study their current labour market status (unemployed, inactive) along with the 'job-quit intention' of the employed group regarding their current job (identified as on the job searchers or 'quasi-employed').

We can broadly group the probable factors responsible for lack of transition among the youth (in the form of higher unemployment, job quit intention or quasi-employment) in the labour market in two categories: individual and job-specific (for the group of employed). These factors influencing larger quit-intention and quasi-employment are almost in line with those influencing a higher unemployment rate among this group. These factors can be further grouped into supply, demand and wage, non-wage categories respectively.

Age as one of the supply side factors has shown to be positively correlated with the probability of transition (Royalty, 1998; Kidd, 1991, 1994). The main argument for this observation is that younger workers are less likely to have significant financial commitments than their adult counterparts, making non-employment and job changes a costly affair at a higher age. Besides, the viable time to assess the cost associated with job change diminishes with age. Family background is another significant supply side factor. With poor background, the newcomers may not be able pursue a proper job search process, ends with higher intensity to change their current job.

The demand side factors related to labour market can be internal or external (Bell & Blanchflower, 2011; Jovanovic, 1979; Parsons, 1991).

Among internal factors, a worker's human capital or skill level is one of the widely discussed determinants. In this context, we choose to highlight two types of human capital. One that emphasises the role of general education and the other talks about firm-specific skills. The issue of skill mismatch in the youth labour market (Bell & Blanchflower, 2011) has become a persistent and ongoing trend in the context of general education. There are two major forms of this mismatch that we may encounter at the time of analysing the relation between worker's skill level and lack of transition. These are the following. 'Vertical mismatch'- the level of qualification of the concerned person is either less or more than what is required for a particular job. The problem is more likely among the overqualified. 'Horizontal mismatch'- the type or field of skill or qualification of the participant is different from what is required for the particular job. We hypothesise that levels of education have a positive association with the 'lack of transition'. Since higher education often provides individuals with better labour market alternatives (Royalty, 1998), giving an opportunity to solve the initial mismatch if any. Although most studies do not reveal a significant association between the two.

Existence of employer-specific human capital is another obvious explanation for the existence of long-term employment relationships and lower quit intentions among the wage workers. However, examining the specific human capital model is very difficult because such capital is not observed directly. Hence, tenure is the best possible proxy for accrued firm-specific capital. The intention to quit should decline with longer tenure because longer current tenure is consistent with longer implicit search process and stronger employee-

employer relationship (Farber, 1999). In addition, past labour market experience also helps in obtaining a larger coefficient for such tenure. Such experience is expected to be associated with a greater probability that the current match between a worker and firm is best among the available in the labour market (Munasinghe et al, 2004).

Since we are considering the issue of transition among the youth for the age group 15-29 in reference to their quit intention, quasi-employment and non-employment (unemployment and inactivity) it is very unlikely that they will get the scope of acquiring larger levels of employer-specific human capital or have worked for a longer tenure (Ryan, 2001).

Along with these internal factors, there are external causes like experience, information etc. The orthodox interpretation in the context of high unemployment, quit intention and quasi-employment points to asymmetric information. Workers and employers are assumed to have perfect information on their own attributes, but they are imperfectly informed about the same for each other. It is cost worthy to obtain information about those attributes by search and matching, respectively. In the quality dimension, therefore, a trial match is required, in which a job-worker match is tried out. According to the result, a match is either continued indefinitely or abandoned in favour of a randomly chosen alternative match. As young workers lack experience, the return to their investments in information is greater, and quit intention is higher than for adults (Jovanovic 1979;Parsons, 1991).

As an alternative to this interpretation, role of labour market structure considerably leads to higher quit intentions. In reality, the labour market is often segmented: efficiency wage strategies and insider power lead to large non-compensating differentials in pay by employer and sector (Katz and Summers 1988). In a segmented labour market, all workers apply to high-wage employers, who use age and experience as a hiring criterion, expecting mature workers to be more productive than young ones. Low-wage firms hire the rejects, including young workers. Young people must therefore wait, working in low-wage, secondary jobs until a high-wage primary one becomes available to them. While they wait, low job rewards encourage job changing.

The two interpretations of instability among the employed youth differ normatively. The informational approach sees high turnover as efficient (having a job-ladder effect), given information costs; the segmentationist one, as inefficient, given the waste of youth potential. However, it is not easy to distinguish empirically between these two views (Ryan, 2001). All these individual-specific factors may jointly constrain a proper job match among the workers of this age group.

Apart from these individual specific factors, the most celebrated job-specific determinants receiving the largest attention in this regard is wage. The intention and actual quit is found to be inversely related to the wage received from the current job. Following the extensive literature on job market behaviour of youth, we find job quit intentions are often guided by a strategy that incorporates searching 'costs' and a multiple 'reservation wage' algorithm (Parsons, 1991). The probability of 'lack of transition' or 'quit intentions' or 'quasi-employment' increases with fall in current wage relative to the alternative distribution of wages. If it

is very low an individual ultimately quits and chooses to be unemployed. However, estimating the effect of wage on the issue of transition may suffer from misreporting and endogeneity bias.

There are other non-wage factors in determining the probability of job switch (Farber, 1999), which are no less important in this regard. Working hours may influence mobility from one job to another since fewer working hours is often associated with irregular and part-time employment, implying lesser integration of a young worker with the firm (Serrano, 1998). Hence, we can expect a positive association between working hours and the probability of transition. However, longer working hours (often in the form of involuntary overtime) may also increase the desire to change the present job. Thus, we can expect a non-linear relationship between working hours and the probability of job quit intentions (Sousa et al, 2004).

Being a member of the labour union often leads to a fall in turnover intention, hence expected to increase the probability of transition among the working youth. Union provides the members with an institution which upgrades their work place and increases the cost of job change (Sousa et al, 2004).

Other job and employer characteristics like ‘working conditions’, ‘high performance work practices (team work)’, ‘plant size’, ‘industry are without a doubt a very important attribute of the job match. If the wages do not sufficiently compensate for adverse working conditions, workers can increase their utilities by job switches (Bockerman and Ilmakunnas, 2009).

Apart from all these individual and firm-specific attributes, the prevailing opportunities in the job market also appear to play a decisive role. Such a condition often is reflected in the growth of the economy, adult and youth unemployment rates in the locality etc.

Adding to these, literature (Freeman, 1977; Kristensen et al 2004) also highlights the role of subjective factors based on an individual’s perception. ‘Appropriateness of existing qualification’ and ‘job satisfaction scores’ are two of the means of job quits. Studies on job satisfaction find that dissatisfied workers are more likely to quit their current jobs. In other words, the self-reported level of job satisfaction is a good individual-based predictor of job mobility beyond the effects of wages and other job-specific characteristics. Researchers also show that job changes lead to an increase in job satisfaction (Akerlof et al, 1988) and present evidence that job switches lead to more satisfactory working hours (Altonji and Paxson, 1988). Thus, the direction of the relation between satisfaction and quit intention may not be unique in determining the latter, leading to the issue of endogeneity.

Here in order to specify the group of youth not being transited in the labour market in the context of developing countries, we pool the group of unemployed and inactive into a single category of non-employment and think about self-employed and wage workers with quit intention as quasi-employment, involved in quasi-search activity.

In this paper our concept of transition among the youth in reference to their quit intention is not in contrast but a broader concept with respect to the definition by ILO (2015). The ILO definition perceives an individual worker as transitioned not only with respect to the criteria we have accounted for but also with respect to the job-specific characteristics (like availability of contract, duration of such contract). Instead of analysing transition in reference to the nature of the job we choose to study their preferences regarding their current job (desire to change the job), following the extensive literature on mobility among workers. This issue is also in close proximity to the potential instability among the workers.

In any case, much remains to be learned about the determinants of youth labour market transition. This piece of work deviates from the earlier studies in this field of research in some important aspects. First, we choose to analyse youth transition in the context of developing countries of the world. Here, we have the opportunity to use a unique data set entirely focusing on the School-to Work Transition among youth aged 15-29 years. This survey has been conducted by the International Labour Organisation from 2012 to 2016 for 30 developing countries and contains all possible retrospective information on individuals' labour market activity, educational activities, parental, and socioeconomic characteristics, allowing us to take advantage of this rich database in studying the transition behaviour of employed youth. A drawback of the data set is that it is a single cross-section. We can add up to the existing literature on youth labour market behaviour by analyzing their inclination of transition with respect to their skill levels, early work experience, financial status, spells of unemployment, occupations and status in employment for different developing countries.

3. COUNTRY CONTEXT

In this analysis we use data from ten developing countries of five regions - Sub Saharan Africa (SSA), South and East Asia (SEA), Europe and Central Asia (ECA), Latin America and Caribbean (LAC), and Middle East and North Africa (MENA). The selection of countries is based on their comparative ranks in HDI in a particular region and availability of 'School to Work Transition Survey' data from ILO. Table 1 provides demographic, geographic and labour market information of these countries.

Table 1a

Country context – demographic, geographic and development indicators

Region s	Regiona l HDI value	Countries	HDI Valu e	Ran k	Surface Area (Sq km)	Populatio n density (/sq km)	GNI (PC PPP)	GDP (PC PPP)	% of Urban populatio n
SSA	0.518	Madagasca r	0.51	154	5,87,295	42	1400	1369	35
SSA	0.518	Tanzania	0.521	151	9,47,300	60	2620	1718	28
SSA	0.518	Zambia	0.586	139	7,52,610	22		2800	41
SA	0.607	Nepal	0.548	145	1,47,180	199	2500	2173	18
EA	0.71	Cambodia	0.555	143	1,47,180	88	3290	2944	21
SA	0.607	Bangladesh	0.57	142	1,48,460	1,237	3550	2853	30
ECA	0.748	Kyrgyzstan	0.655	120	1,99,949	31	3300	3110	36
LAC	0.748	El Salvador	0.666	116	21,040	296	8220	7515	66
MENA	0.686	Palestine	0.677	113				5002	75

MENA	0.686	Egypt	0.69	108	10,01,450	96	10690	10,733	44
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Sources: Human Development Report (2015), World Development Indicators; ILO,2015.
Cambodia belongs to East and Bangladesh and Nepal belong to South Asia respectively.
These three countries are considered in the analysis as Asia and Pacific regional countries.

Table 1b**Labour market indicators**

Countries	EP R	% of employmen t in Services	Regional YLFPR	Youth Labour market indicators YEPR	YTAUR	YUR
Madagascar	85	16	57	50	2	11
Tanzania	86	19	57	50	2	11
Zambia	69	21	57	50	2	11
Nepal	81		55	52	4	10
Cambodia	82	37	57	51	3	13
Bangladesh	68		55	52	4	10
Kyrgyzstan	62	45	48	40	3	16
El Salvador	58	58	62	55	3	11
Palestine	32	62	47	39	4	25
Egypt	43	47	47	39	4	25

Sources: Human Development Report (2015), World Development Indicators; ILO,2015.

In the above tables the countries are arranged in ascending order of their HDI values in respective regions. The second column of **Table 1a** reports HDI value of the corresponding region. Among these countries Madagascar, Tanzania, Nepal, Cambodia and Bangladesh are low income and rest of the five are lower middle income countries respectively. Except Tanzania, Zambia and Egypt all the countries we considered are below average performers of their regions (in terms of HDI value). Employment to population ratios are very high in SSA and SEA countries. Majority of the population in these countries live in rural area except in Palestine. Contribution of service sector in the employment is highest in Palestine followed by El Salvador, Egypt and Kyrgyzstan. However, the contribution of this sector in Madagascar and Tanzania is considerably lower.

All these countries of the developing regions appear with some unique and many diversified features of the youth labour market. In SSA, SEA and LAC, human capital deficiencies and limited labour market information reduce the opportunities of many new entrants to access good-quality jobs instead of positive growth and increased investment in education (Elder, 2014 ; González et al, 2012). However, this is not the case for ECA. Here, the stagnant growth does not bode well for the well-educated young people hoping to enter the labour market each year (Elder et al, 2015). In MENA insufficient availability of appropriate job opportunities among the overeducated youth and women found to intensify the problems of labour market. There is a wide-variation among these regions in terms of both EPR (Employment population ratio) and YEPR (youth employment population ratio). The former indicator helps to predict about existing labour market opportunities for the incumbents. Following the existing labour market situation of youth in these five regions a declining trend of YLFPR (youth labour force participation ratio) and EPR have been witnessed except in

SSA (Global Employment Trends for Youth – Geneva: ILO 2015). Lower YLFPR has been closely linked to increasing trends in educational attainment. However, YEPR is still very high in both SSA and SEA. Principally low household incomes and limited access to education and information are likely to drive majority of the youth to work at early ages in LAC, SSA and SEA, leaving YUR in these regions comparatively lower. The scenario in MENA is slightly different. With lower EPR, YEPR and higher YUR, the youth bulge has been very much turned from a blessing into a problem. Though education and skills can always improve, this is not the primary reason that holds back job creation and productivity growth in the Arab world. In many respects, at least in some Arab states job seekers are over-educated for the kind of jobs that are being created by the economy. In MENA the youth to adult unemployment rate is also highest among the regions under consideration. Youth in this region are 4 times more likely to be unemployed compared to their adult counterparts. This figure is higher than the world average (3). The incidence is lowest in SSA (Global Employment Trends for Youth – Geneva: ILO 2015).

The prevailing situation ultimately boils down to the fact that, even though human capital deficiency is undoubtedly one of the main but not the only obstacle in finding a suitable work. The less educated always remain disadvantaged in terms of wages and access to stable employment, and with higher education, they also find noticeable difficulty in finding a proper match. This fact is often reflected in the higher percentage of unemployment and larger turnover intention among the higher educated youth. The problem seems to be most prominent in MENA with almost 40% of the youth labour market participants unemployed. However, in rest of the countries with lower open unemployment, this instability may reflect in higher quit intention among the employed counterparts. The problem of insufficient education is also not ignorable especially in SSA followed by MENA, LAC and ECA. Under this premise (based on the reports published by ILO), we can clearly say that despite a continuous increase in educational attainment, labour market settlement and successful transition remain a lofty goal among the youth. Absence of well-functioning labour and capital market along with emergence from a disadvantaged background, may restrict their smooth transition to labour market. Ultimately, far too few youth are able to match their aspirations to reality and left with an unstable labour market situation. Inability to prove oneself a productive member of the society at early stage of economic life may overshadow their future or create a sense of frustration and negativity during a time which is meant to be full of hope.

Under this premise, we set the objective of our study to provide a rigorous analysis of labour market transition among the male youth of select countries from these regions. We emphasise their quasi-employment status ('intentions to change current job') along with non-employment that often originates from number of labour market mismatches. Trying to answer the question of what makes the youth settled in their present job, we make an effort to explore the probable determinants of stability among them. Hence, forming a policy platform directed towards young workers' freedom from the problems of uncertainty, mismatches, in-stability and working poverty often associated with the jobs they find.

4. DATA AND DESCRIPTIVE

Our empirical estimates are based on the School-to-Work transition surveys of the ILO for the ten developing countries of the five developing regions as indicated at the outset of this paper. The ILO's Youth Employment Programme (YEP) has designed this "school-to-work transition survey" in order to assist member States in building a knowledge base on the employment situation of youth aged between 15-29 years. Till 2016, the SWTS has been conducted for 30 developing countries. This survey provides a greater scope to analyse the nature of transition faced by young people from school to a job that meets the basic criteria of "decency", "permanency", "security", "aspiration" and "personal satisfaction"(ILO,2015). It contains several questions related to an individual's demographic, family background information, along with retrospective and current details on their education, work status and subjective views regarding the job they are doing. After retaining the information on male youth for our analysis the data set contain 2 358, 992, 1 728, 1 657, 1 645, 4 171, 1 909, 1 715, 2 124 and 2 975 individuals for Madagascar, Zambia, Tanzania, Nepal, Cambodia, Bangladesh, Kyrgyzstan, El Salvador, Palestine and Egypt respectively.

4.1 Transition Across the Countries

Guided by the information available for the age group 15-29 we mark a young male person as 'not-transited' if he belongs to any of the following status 'inactive', 'unemployed' or 'quasi-employed (employed with job quit intension)' otherwise the person in the labour market is perceived to be 'transited' with no job 'quit intension'. In our descriptive analysis we report the transition rate with respect to individual (age, experience, enrolment status) and background factors like financial status and area of residence respectively.

Transition rate is considerably lower in Zambia (14 %) (Table 2) followed by Tanzania, Nepal, El Salvador, Palestine, Egypt and Kyrgyzstan. Highest rate is observed in Bangladesh (59 %). This is followed by Madagascar (51%). These countries also belong to the regions where youth unemployment rate is considerably lower.

Youth in the age group of 25-2 are observed to be comparatively more likely to be transited from Bangladesh, Madagascar, Cambodia, Nepal, Kyrgyzstan, Palestine, and ElSalvador. This observation draws its support from the existing literature as well.

A movement from no formal education to more than secondary is associated with lower rate of transition in most of the countries except Nepal, Cambodia, Bangladesh and Kyrgyzstan. Movement toward post-secondary education from elementary education improves the rate among the working youth only in Tanzania, Cambodia and Kyrgyzstan. A general observation in most of these countries is that consecutive levels of education is often associated with deterioration in the transition rate. We find a little exception in Tanzania and Kyrgyzstan where successive educational attainments from elementary to secondary and post-secondary is associated with rise in the rate of transition.

A young worker without any formal education is most likely to be transited in El Salvador followed by Tanzania, Egypt and Madagascar. This can be explained as a constrained outcome due to lack of skill. With only elementary education, this rate is highest in Bangladesh. Another observation worth mentioning is that even if the rate of transition is higher in Bangladesh and Madagascar the rate is lower among the highest qualified workers.

Transition is lowest among the young workers with post-secondary education in Zambia followed by Egypt, El Salvador and Tanzania.

Focusing on the rate of transition across the current status of enrollment, we find that transition is lower among those who have completed education in Madagascar, Egypt, El Salvador, Tanzania and Zambia. There is also evidence of higher transition among youth with completed education compared to incomplete educational achievement in Nepal and Cambodia, respectively. The probable explanation is that it is very likely that completing education enables the youth to get a better initial match of their aspiration compared to those who have left education before completion. Or it may well happen that, the job market conditions are so tight that an individual can hardly think of quitting, hence settled under a constrained situation. In other countries where the situation is opposite as newcomers, youth often lack the proper information and experience, consider their current job as a stepping stone of gathering these two hence show lesser transition rate. In some of these countries (Madagascar, Tanzania, Zambia, Palestine, El Salvador, Egypt) we also find transition rate to be higher among the enrolled. This may be indicative of the ease that the young worker find at the current job to pursue work and study simultaneously.

Table 2
Transition rate among the youth

Category	Variables	Madagascar	Tanzania	Zambia	Nepal	Cambodia
Age group	All	51	23	14	33	42
	15-19	49	25	17	30	39
	20-24	48	19	12	29	39
	25-29	57	27	12	39	50
Own Education	No formal education	55	63	19	17	44
	Elementary	53	19	20	34	43
	Secondary	43	21	7	31	37
	Post Secondary	40	33	16	31	65
Current status of enrollment	Enrolled	49	41	24	27	40
	Left education	52	40	12	32	41
	Completed	46	16	8	48	46
Experience	No experience	49	17	12	25	38
	Have experience	50	30	18	43	42

Area of Residence	Rural	53	16		34	42
	Urban	44	29		30	40
	Mixed		22			
Financial Status	Poor	48	19	11	30	31
	Non_Poor	56	25	16	34	44
Observations	Transited	1004	132	198	306	574

Source: Author's Calculation from SWTS data

Table 2 (continued)

	Variables	Banglades h	Kyrgyzsta n	ElSalvado r	Palestin e	Egypt
Age group	All	59	48	34	38	39
	15-19	49	44	32	35	48
	20-24	57	45	31	36	30
	25-29	68	54	40	42	43
Own Education	No formal education	30	45	67	41	56
	Elementary	61	41	35	38	48
	Secondary	53	47	30	40	31
	Post Secondary	49	53	30	34	29
Current status of enrollment	Enrolled	51	51	38	40	43
	Left education	59	17	34	37	49
	Completed		50	31	39	32
Experience	No experience	59	50	31	38	37
	Have experience	57	45	37	38	39
Area of Residence	Rural	58	46	38	37	41
	Urban	65	53	29	44	35
	Mixed					
Financial Status	Poor	56	33	30	14	33
	Non_Poor	60	49	38	42	40
Observations	Transited	1927	627	513	509	739

Source: Author's Calculation from SWTS data

Transition is higher with any early work experience. However, all these are unconditional probabilities.

These observations are implicit of few facts. Always higher rate of transition may not be a good indication of the young workers settlement in the labour market, as happened to be in Bangladesh and Madagascar. In these countries, higher education is associated with a lower rate of transition. The observations are also indicative of the problem of skill mismatch. This observation is also prominent in El Salvador, Egypt and Palestine. A situation where a younger participant with highest qualification and insufficient information finds either his current job less suitable or choose to be non-employed or waits for a better match, and thus results in lesser transition. This also implies the availability of choices in the economy for young people with better qualifications after a possible initial mismatch.

Despite this looking at the percentages rigorously, we find in some cases a little improvement in the rate with a movement from secondary to post-secondary (Tanzania, Zambia, Cambodia and Kyrgyzstan). Though sometimes this rate still remains lower than that under no or elementary education. Any ways in this case we get a glimpse of improvement of the transition situation beyond a certain level of education. This implies availability of better initial match for the higher educated. Being more eligible at higher education they are informed about the prevailing job market requirements and end with choosing the right occupation. However, all these conjectures are very much contingent upon the prevailing labour market opportunity for the youth.

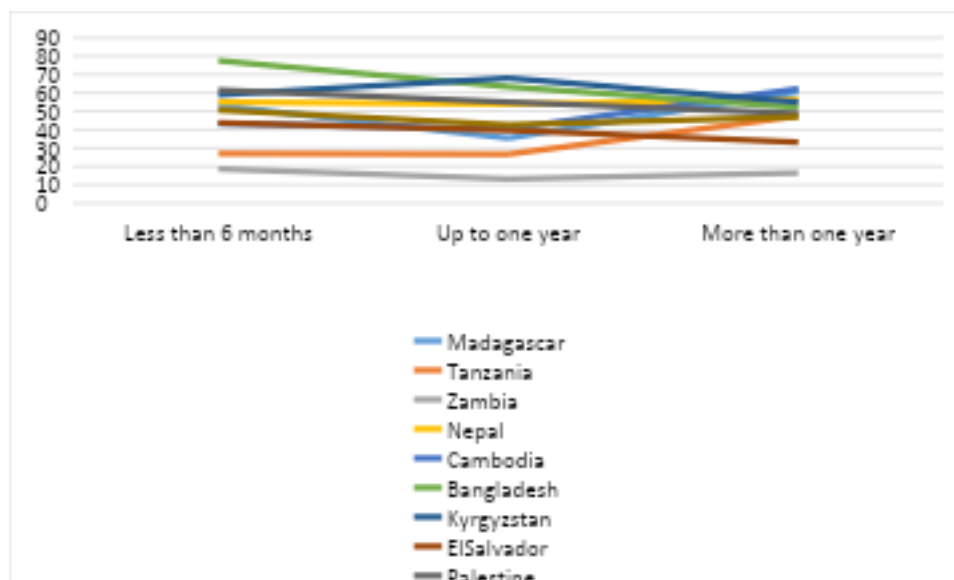
Rural youth are most likely to be transited except in Madagascar, Nepal, Cambodia, El Salvador and Egypt. Comparing the association between financial status of the household and rate of transition we find that young workers from the poorer households are less likely to be transited in most of these countries.

4.2 Transition with respect to different spells of unemployment before the current job

We have also documented the association between the duration of seeking job or unemployment spells before current job and quit intention (or the quasi employment status). For the group of employed we construct three unemployment spells following all the possible answers to the question ‘How long were you available and actively looking for work before finding your current job (or establishing your current business)’ as available in SWTS. Low spell covers the following five durations - ‘less than a week’, ‘one week- less than one month’, ‘one month-less than three months’ ‘three months-less than six months’ and ‘six months- less than one year’ respectively. Medium and large spell incorporates the duration of ‘one year-less than two year’ and ‘two years or more’ respectively. In case of Bangladesh, the duration spells are different. In this case the low spell incorporates ‘not seeking’. Medium and large spells incorporate ‘less than a week’, ‘1-4 weeks’, ‘1-2 months’, ‘3-6 months’ and ‘6 months to one year’ respectively. Graph-1(Table-a) shows the distribution of transitions across different spells of unemployment.

In Bangladesh and El Salvador youth are most likely to be transited with a smaller spell of unemployment. In these two countries, medium and large spells are associated with a lower transition rate (that is larger turnover-intentions). We do not find any variation in transition rate for different spells of unemployment in Nepal. In Kyrgyzstan transition is lower for a spell beyond medium. In the rest of the countries duration of the spell shows a v pattern, implying that workers with shorter spells of unemployment are more likely to be transited compared to those with a medium spell. Again, the transition rate improves for a larger spell.

Graph-1 Transition with respect to different spells of unemployment



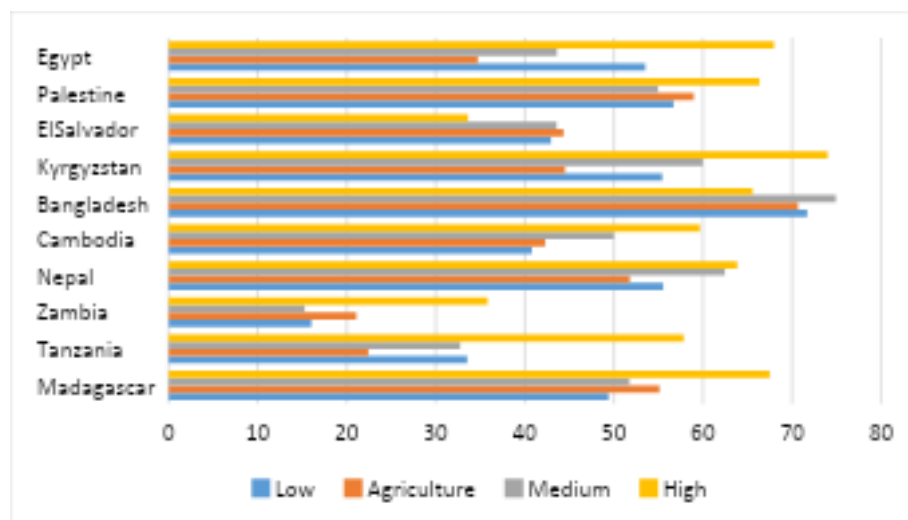
Source: Author's own calculation

Higher transition for smaller spell is indicative of the constraints rather than choice that youth face in the labour market of the developing regions. This observation owes its support from the fact that often early entry in the labour market is poverty driven and associated with higher drop outs making young participants less suitable for alternative opportunities prevailing in the economy. Lesser transition for the larger spell is implicit of the scar effect where the longer spells of unemployment incurs the cost of forgone experience and wage leaving the worker dissatisfied with the job ultimately found. However, in some cases, a positive association between higher spells of unemployment and transition may be a result of fall in the reservation wage after a longer spell. Or it may be the case that with larger spells an individual becomes better informed and surveys all possible alternatives and has ultimately found one that matches their aspiration the most. Lower transition with shorter spells may result from the fact that larger spells of unemployment are often considered as a 'scar' in one's professional career, hence the new entrants, to avoid the potential scar, accept whatever job is available, but continue their on-the-job searching and show lower inclination of transition. This situation is implicit in on the job search processes.

4.3 Transition across the occupations

Looking at the percentage of transition across different occupations (graph-2, Table b (in the appendix)) we find that the rate is highest among high-skilled workers in all countries except Bangladesh and El Salvador. In Madagascar, Nepal, Cambodia, Bangladesh and Kyrgyzstan the medium-skilled are more likely to be transited compared to the low-skilled.

Graph-2 Transition across the occupations (%)

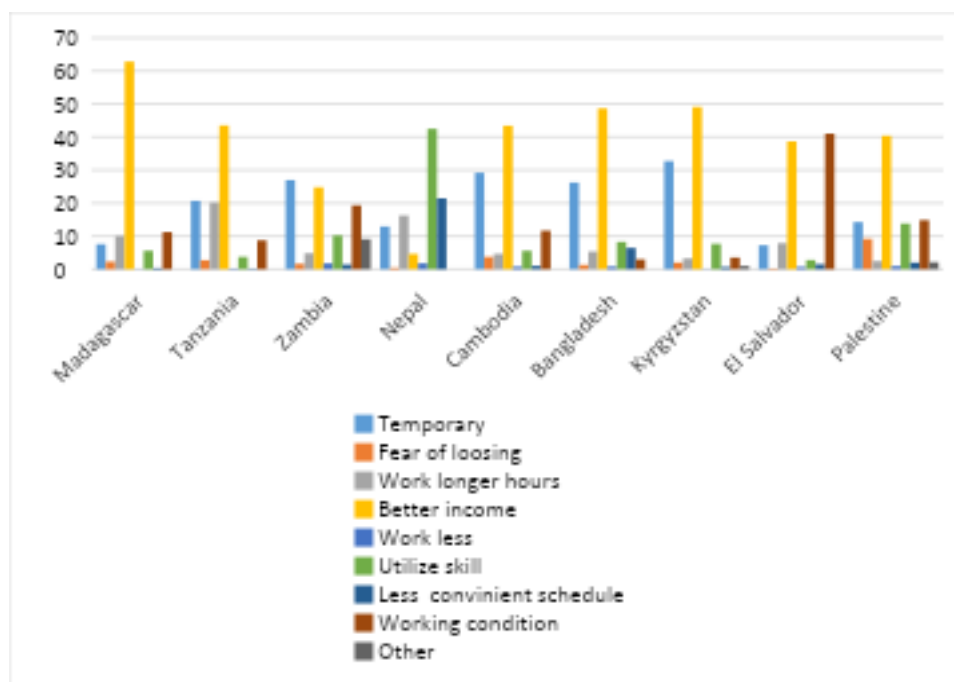


Source: Author's own calculation

Therefore, we find that in most countries skill levels show a positive association with the probability of retaining the current job. Agricultural workers also exhibit moderately higher rate of transition compared to the low skilled workers of Madagascar, Zambia, Cambodia, El Salvador and Palestine.

4.4 Reasons behind not being transited in current job

Graph-3 Reason not being transited (in%)



Source: Author's own calculation

Next we look in to the reasons for why they want to change, we find that most frequently observed reason for wanting to change the job is 'better income'. This is followed by 'temporary nature of their job', 'to find better working condition' and 'to make better utilization of one's qualification'. However, the frequencies of the response differ from country to country. Better income is the most dominating response of all, however Nepal and Egypt is exception in this case with largest emphasis on the issue of skill utilization. In Zambia and El Salvador the reasons that motivate one to change the jobs are 'temporary nature of the job' and 'demand for better working conditions' respectively.

From the descriptive we conclude that though there is a glimpse of little improvement in the rate of transition with successive levels of education (in some of the countries), the rate in most of the cases is lower than those without any elementary education. Skill mismatch becomes evident in the observations like lower rate of transition among the group with completed levels of education and more specifically post-secondary education. Further any early experience is found to overcome the problem of potential mismatch and bridge the gap of requisite information which the youth as new entrant often lack. Contrast to the literature in our empirical finding we observed the subjective probability of the job-quit among the self-employed to be considerably lower in most of these developing countries. We find transition to be higher among the high-skilled workers and agricultural workers with lower job quit intention. Transition is found to exhibit a nonlinear relationship with the spells of unemployment in most of the countries, with lower quit intention among the workers with medium spells of unemployment. Reasons reported for quasi-employment in most of the cases are expectation of better income and better utilisation of the skills possessed.

5 Methodology and specification of the variables

Transition is a binary response variable takes the value 1 if the person is employed and without any quit intention. It assumes the value 0 if belongs to any of the following categories - quasi-employed (employed with a quit intension) or NEET. We use a simple probit model to estimate the impact of own and background variables on the probability of transition. Here the key individual and background factors are age, education, work experience, current enrolment status, father's occupation (proxy for parental network), and area of residence and financial status of the household.

Our empirical specification is

$$\begin{aligned} Transited = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 age + \beta_2 experience + \beta_3 left_{edu} + \beta_4 completed_{edu} + \sum_{i=1}^3 \beta_{4i} education \\ & + \beta_5 father_{agricultural} + \beta_6 father_{medium-skilled} + \beta_7 father_{high-skilled} + \beta_8 nonpoor \\ & + \beta_9 urban + u_1 \end{aligned}$$

We distinguish between four levels of education- 'No formal', 'Medium or Elementary', 'Secondary' and 'Post-Secondary/ Higher' education. As the name suggests the first category comprises of not having any education. The second category incorporates education 'up to eighth standard'. Our third category comprises of those who have completed secondary or equivalent qualification or are pursuing any 'Secondary' qualification. The fourth category includes those who have qualification beyond secondary level or any vocational training or internship or apprenticeship equivalent to it. Rural and Urban area are described as area of residence.

We also account for the role of acquired 'work experience' as early labour market experience. Formal on job training is only relevant for public and private salaried employment and number of such observation is very little so we have not chosen this category. Following the SWTS questionnaire we define experience as binary

response variable, taking the value one if the respondent acquired any experience while studying. Any early experience supposed to be positively related to rate of transition.

We have controlled our estimation for financial status of the household. We hypothesize this relation in line with the existing literature where poverty, lack of well-functioning credit market and low returns to education (Ranjan, 1999; Bacolod et al, 2008) are often being linked to higher rate of labour force participation among the younger members of the household. Using SWTS questionnaire we have grouped the information on financial status in two categories as ‘poor’ and ‘non-poor’ (comprising of average, rich and very rich people).

We use parental occupational status with the hypothesis that parental education may not have any direct influence over preference of a particular job but father’s occupation may have an indirect influence through the role-model effect.

The decision regarding the current labour market status can vary directly through transfer of social, physical, financial capital and investment in offspring’s human capital by the parents (Solon, 1992). Parent’s occupational outcomes are assumed to play the ‘role model’ effect where the off-springs often try to imitate their parents’ educational and occupational achievements. Such decision may also be influenced by gaining valuable skill, experience by observing parents at work. Successful parents often transfer reputation and a rich social network (as social capital) to their children, which in turn increases the rate of transition among the group of workers. In other words, the information revealed by the parental choices (and their outcomes) can influence youth’s labour force market outcomes (Manski 1993; Streufert, 2000). In this way the background factors are most likely to have effect on the youth’s labour market activity significantly.

In order to take into account for the above-stated network and role model effect, we incorporate parents’ occupation and educational level. We distinguish between ‘high-skilled’, ‘medium-skilled’, ‘agriculture’ and ‘low-skilled’ occupations (using ISCO-2008) of the father. Given the fact that the majority of the mothers in these countries do not work in their working life span we have not considered their occupational status.

5.1 Estimation Results and implications

Considering the results obtained from the estimation of the transition equation, we find that youth become more likely to be transited with age in most of the countries significantly. This finding owes support from the literature where we find that lower age comes with significantly lower financial obligation and may result in lower transition.

In line with our descriptive finding the estimation results also suggest that having any early work experience is associated with increase in the probability of transition in most of the countries (significant only in Zambia and Nepal).

We observe that youth are less likely to be transited if they have not completed their education. This is observed significantly in Zambia, Kyrgyzstan and Palestine. In Nepal and Bangladesh the rate is higher with completed levels of education.

Consecutive levels of education is often found to be a factor inversely influencing the rate of transition. Nepal and Bangladesh are exceptional in this regard. With increase in the level of education, the transition rate falls significantly in Palestine, Egypt and Kyrgyzstan. If not all the levels but the Secondary levels of education are associated with such a significant fall. Looking at the sign and magnitude of the marginal effects, we find they are not only negative but the strength increases with rise in the educational level with. In Bangladesh, we can see that elementary education becomes a significant factor in determining the probability of transition. However, education does not exert any significant impact on the transition among the youth in Madagascar, Tanzania and Nepal. Thus, observing education as one of the determinants of transition, we find that the more educated are less likely to be transited in the labour market. However, we observe a huge variation in the relationship between the levels and the probability of transition from one country to another.

In Madagascar, Palestine and Egypt we find that the occupational hierarchy of the father positively influences the rate of transition. We also observe the son of agricultural workers often to be significantly transited in Madagascar, Kyrgyzstan, El Salvador and Bangladesh. This is indicative of transfer of rich social network from the father to the son. This is also reflected in the context of agricultural workers, among whom we find the transition rate to be moderately higher.

Improvement in the financial status is a significant factor in increasing the probability of transition among the working male youth. Being in an urban area is positively associated with the probability of transition.

Table 3- Estimation Results

Country	Madagascar			Tanzania			Zambia			Nepal			Cambodia		
Marginal effects	ME		S.Error	ME		S.Err or	ME		S.Err or	ME		S.Err or	ME		S.Err or
		*	0.00						0.00					**	
Age	0.007	*	4	0.009		0.008	0.001		3	0.012	**	0.006	0.011	*	0.004
			0.03						0.02		**				
Experience	0.006		0	0.042		0.063	0.050	**	5	0.220	*	0.038	0.056		0.042
			0.04				-	**	0.03						
Left Education Completed	0.029		7	-0.242		0.165	0.093	*	6	0.040		0.052	0.049		0.043
			0.05				-		0.04		**				
Education Own education	-0.008		1	-0.299	**	0.144	0.096	**	5	0.191	*	0.076	0.059		0.055
			0.07												
Elementary	-0.022		1	-0.067		0.186				0.139		0.197			
			0.07				-		0.03					**	
Secondary	-0.115		7	-0.042		0.195	0.072	**	6	0.047		0.201	-0.123	*	0.034
			0.11				-		0.03						
Post Secondary	-0.164		3	-0.001		0.200	0.039		9	0.005		0.198	0.112		0.084
Father's Occupation															
		*	0.04				-		0.02						
Agriculture	0.080	*	0	-0.060		0.071	0.026		7	-0.058		0.049	0.010		0.042
			0.07						0.03						
Medium	-0.068		1	0.016		0.090	0.002		1	0.056		0.064	0.066		0.060
			0.07				-		0.02						
High	0.128	*	7	-0.061		0.092	0.011		7	0.017		0.062	0.074		0.061
		*	0.03					**	0.02					**	
Nonpoor	0.074	*	1	0.082		0.059	0.061	*	1	0.069		0.047	0.140	*	0.037
			0.03		**										
Urban Mixed	-0.054		4	0.169	*	0.065				-0.073	**	0.037	-0.029		0.045
				0.035		0.056									

	-	-	-	-	-
	147837	211638	3E+0	92805	115166
Log likelihood	6	3	5	7	6
			0.079	0.059	
Psudo R^2	0.022	0.0808	2	6	0.0306
Observations	1610	582	953	784	1284

Note: All specifications include district fixed effects.

*, **, *** stand for 10%, 5%, and 1% significance respectively.

Table 3 (continued)

	Bangladesh			Kyrgyzstan			Elsalvador			Palestine			Egypt		
Marginal effects	ME	S.Err or		ME	S.Err or		ME	S.Err or		ME	S.Err or		ME	S.Err or	
		**			**						**			**	
Age	0.026	*	0.004	0.027	*	0.006	0.013	**	0.005	0.012	*	0.005	0.013	*	0.004
Experience	0.017		0.042	-0.038		0.043	0.057		0.045	0.006		0.037	0.019		0.028
					**		-								
Left Education Completed	0.006		0.035	-0.482	*	0.073	0.102		0.080	-0.133	**	0.061	-0.043		0.057
Education Own education				-0.106		0.067	0.090		0.072	-0.017		0.061	-0.005		0.063
		**					-							**	
Elementary	0.316	*	0.119	-0.081		0.101	0.252		0.176	-0.060		0.045	-0.122	*	0.044
							-							**	
Secondary Post	0.187		0.123	-0.157	**	0.085	0.316	*	0.174	-0.144	**	0.064	-0.375	*	0.064
Secondary	0.125		0.123	-0.160	**	0.079	0.299		0.204	-0.252	**	0.065	-0.431	**	0.065
							-								
Father's Occupation Agriculture Medium	-0.041		0.030	0.107	**	0.047	0.088	**	0.046	-0.013		0.063	0.036		0.035
	0.006		0.044	-0.033		0.062	0.175	**	0.080	0.081	*	0.045	0.000		0.046
							-								
High	-0.046		0.059	0.023		0.054	0.109		0.072	0.081	*	0.048	0.055	*	0.029

								**			**			**	
Nonpoor	0.069	**	0.033	0.158	**	0.074	0.141	*	0.045	0.292	*	0.033	0.152	*	0.028
							-	**							
Urban	0.071	**	0.030	0.105	**	0.041	0.082	*	0.045	0.069	*	0.039	-0.013		0.026
	-			-			-			-			-		
	796432			28186			4E+0			26027			505889		
Log likelihood	7			4			5			7			9		
				0.053			0.050								
Pseudo R^2	0.0495			1			2			0.059			0.0526		
Observations	2653			1178			1158			1456			1818		

Note: All specifications include district fixed effects.

*, **, *** stand for 10%, 5%, and 1% significance respectively.

Source: Author's calculation

6 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE SCOPE

Along with the study of other youth labour market indices, study of labour market instability with respect to their quasi-employment status and being in the group of NEET appears alarming in the context of developing regions. Using the school to work transition survey (carried out between 2012 and 2016) data from the Work for Youth project of the International Labour Office (ILO), in ten developing countries of five developing regions, we address the unique issue of transition. This paper provides an extended cross-national analysis of the stated incidence among male youth (15-29). Only 40% of the youth in the sample from most of these countries are likely to be transited in the labour market. The descriptive and estimation analysis show that higher rate of transition may not always unambiguously indicate that young workers are well settled in the labour market. This is evident in most of the countries from the fact that skilled individuals are less likely to be transited. It is the background factors (financial status, fathers' occupation) in most of these regions that strongly influence the rate of transitions. Using a probit model, we estimated the impact of education, experience and financial status on the probability of transition after controlling for current enrolment status and area of residence, respectively. Results show that with improvement in educational level, the rate of transition significantly falls. This is indicative of a larger incidence of skill-mismatch among the employed. It is a situation where the skill acquired is often different from what is required or it may also be attributed to a dearth of information. This may be a result of lack of well-functioning labour market institutions or productive opportunities in the economy as a whole. Belonging to poor families have a negative impact on the probability of transition. Apart from this, we also provide the descriptive analysis where we find a negative association between the spells of unemployment and rate of transition. Skilled and salaried workers are more likely to be transited. We observed a strong association of the transition of the son with father, either being in agriculture or in high-skilled occupation, where there is a larger possibility of transmission of an active social network. Therefore, increasing the level of education in isolation is inefficient in the presence of strong background factors like financial status, parents' occupation, etc., to improve the transition outcome among the employed. In the absence of well-functioning credit and labour market institutions, the problem accentuates further. To conclude, the paper necessitates the formation of employment information dissemination centres and the extension of educational credit facilities for youth to level the labour market playing field for them. In this context our future research aims to explore employer side of the economy as a complement to the analysis that we did in the current piece of work.

Conflict of interest /Competing interest: There exists no financial or other conflict of interest with the present study.

Data availability: Our empirical estimates are based on the School-to-Work transition surveys of the ILO for the ten developing countries of the five developing regions as indicated at the outset of this paper. The ILO's Youth Employment Programme (YEP) has designed this "school-to-work transition survey" in order to assist member States in building a knowledge base on the employment situation of youth aged between 15-29 years. Till 2016, the SWTS has been conducted for 30 developing countries. Data files can be provided.

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Appendix A

Table a: Transition rate for different unemployment spells

Unemployment spells	Less than 6 months	Up to one year	More than one year
Madagascar	53	35	61
Tanzania	27	27	47
Zambia	19	13	17
Nepal	55	54	57
Cambodia	43	40	62
Bangladesh	78	63	52
Kyrgyzstan	59	68	55
ElSalvador	44	40	33
Palestine	61	55	49
Egypt	51	43	47

Table b- Transition rate across the occupations

Occupational Categories	Low	Agriculture	Medium	High
Madagascar	49	55	52	68
Tanzania	34	22	33	58
Zambia	16	21	15	36
Nepal	56	52	62	64
Cambodia	41	42	50	60
Bangladesh	72	71	75	66
Kyrgyzstan	55	45	60	74
ElSalvador	43	44	44	34
Palestine	57	59	55	66
Egypt	54	35	44	68

Table c- Reason for not being transited among the group of employed (reasons for quasi employment)

Reasons	Temporary	Fear of losing	Work longer hours	Better income	Work less	Utilize skill	Less convenient schedule	Working condition	Other
Madagascar	8	2	10	63	0	6	0	11	
Tanzania	21	3	20	44	0	4	0	9	
Zambia	27	2	5	25	2	10	1	19	9
Nepal	13	0	16	5	2	42	21		
Cambodia	29	4	5	43	1	6	1	12	
Bangladesh	26	1	5	49	1	8	6	3	
Kyrgyzstan	33	2	3	49	0	8	1	4	1
El Salvador	7	0	8	39	1	3	1	41	
Palestine	14	9	2	40	1	14	2	15	2
Egypt	22	6	0	24	0	25	1	16	6

Table d- Variable Description

Variable	Description
Age	Respondent's age
Experience	Dummy=1 if the respondent obtained any work experience while studying
Non-poor financial status	Dummy=1 if the respondent obtained any work experience while studying
Urban	Dummy=1 if the respondent lives in Urban area
Post secondary	If the respondent has completed post secondary
Secondary	If the respondent has secondary education
Elementary	If the respondent has is completed elementary
No education	If the respondent does not have any formal education
Left education	If the respondent has left education before completion
Completed	If the respondent has completed education
Continuing	If the respondent is currently enrolled
Father_high skilled	Father's profession is in professional categories: 1-4 in the ISCO-08 group definitions
Father_medium skilled	Father's profession is in medium skilled occupational categories: 4-5 in the ISCO-08 group definitions
Father_agriculture	Father's profession is in skilled agriculture and fishing occupational category: 6 in the ISCO-08 group definitions
Father_agriculture	Father's profession is in low skilled manual and elementary occupational categories: 7-9 in the ISCO-08 group definitions
Father's post-secondary	If respondent's father has post secondary qualification
Father's secondary	If respondent's father has completed secondary education
Father's elementary	If respondent's father has completed elementary education
Father's no education	If respondent's father has completed primary
Mother's post-secondary	If respondent's mother has post secondary qualification
Mother's secondary	If respondent's mother has completed secondary education
Mother's elementary	If respondent's mother has completed elementary education
Mother s no education	If respondent's mother has no education