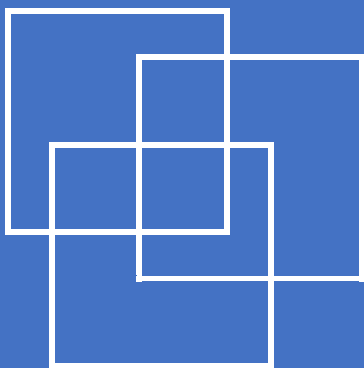




International  
Labour  
Organization

# Labour Market Transitions of Young Women and Men in Cambodia 2014



June 2015



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National Institute of Statistics,  
Ministry of Planning  
in collaboration with  
International Labour Organization

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## Preface

The National Institute of Statistics (NIS), Ministry of Planning carried out the Cambodian School-to-Work Transition Survey (SWTS) 2014 by collecting and analysing information on various challenges that impact young women and men as they transition from school to working life. The SWTS, implemented in Cambodia in 2012 and 2014, can serve as a principle tool for monitoring the impact of youth-related policies and programmes outlined in national instruments. This report is intended for the policymakers and social partners that concern themselves with the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the youth-related policies and programmes.

This report was produced by the National Institute of Statistics (NIS), Ministry of Planning, with assistance from the International Labour Organization (ILO). The report outlines issue of quality of youth employment, the path and duration for young people's transition from school to work. It draws conclusions on the characteristics or experiences that make for a smoother transition. I am certain that the results of this report can be used as a basis of research and policy making aiming to reflect a clear picture of the labour market developments in Cambodia.

I would like to thank H.E. Chhay Than, Senior Minister, Ministry of Planning, and H.E. Ms Pen Sopakphea, Secretary of State of the Ministry of Planning, for their continuous support to the survey activities and preparation of this report.

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Phnom Penh  
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# 1. Introduction and key findings

## 1.1 Overview<sup>1</sup>

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

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

To characterize the specific youth employment challenges and to support policymakers in designing adequate instruments to support the transition of young people into employment, the ILO has developed its school-to-work transition survey (SWTS), a household survey of young people aged 15-29. The National Institute of Statistics (NIS) undertook in the third quarter of 2014 a SWTS survey to collect and analyse information on the various challenges that influence young men and women while they are making the transition to working life. This was the second SWTS implemented in the country while the first one had run in 2012. The SWTS, implemented in Cambodia in 2012 and 2014, can serve as a principle tool for monitoring the impact of policies and programmes outlined in national instruments. This report is intended for the policymakers and social partners that concern themselves with the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the youth-related policies and programmes.

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

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<sup>1</sup> This report builds on the analysis of the 2012 SWTS presented in the September 2013 report. See Kanol, Khemarin and Elder, 2013.

## 1.2 Structure of the report

This report is divided into four sections. Following this introduction, section 2 presents an overview of the socio-economic context and labour market in Cambodia and introduces the objectives and methodology of the SWTS. Section 3 presents the main results of the SWTS with details on the characteristics of youth and their labour market outcomes. It includes an overall description of individual characteristics of youth, educational achievement, current activity status of youth, aspirations and life goals of young people, characteristics of unemployed youth, youth who are outside of the labour market and their reasons other than studying, and characteristics of employed youth. Finally, section 4 introduces the classification of stages of labour market transition and investigates the characteristics that lead to more advantageous labour market outcomes, specifically in the attainment of stable employment. The section also discusses the length of time that young men and women spend in transition and traces the various labour market experiences they have along the way.

## 1.3 Main findings

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

The largest share of youth in the country has completed education at the primary level (40.3 per cent of total youth), but there is still 5.5 per cent of youth who finished school below the primary level. Nearly one-half (46.8) per cent of Cambodian youth have completed their education at the secondary level and only 4.3 per cent at the tertiary level. It is important to bear in mind, however, that one-fourth (27.8 per cent) of young Cambodians are still in school, 15.8 per cent of which are currently engaged in studies at the tertiary level.

Among the youth who left school before completion, 62.0 stated they left school due to economic reasons, i.e. their family could not afford for them to continue in school.

There has been remarkable progress in the area of educational enrolment in Cambodia in recent years. Both young men and women today are much more likely to have school facilities readily accessible and to also have the permission to attend them. In total, 54.0 per cent of youth finished their education at a level higher than their father and 69.7 per cent finished higher than their mother.

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

Education matters in the results on a young person's labour market transition: The higher the educational attainment of the youth, the more likely s/he is to attain stable employment over satisfactory self- or temporary employment. Nearly one-half (54.6 per cent) of transitioned youth with a tertiary degree are in stable employment compared to 45.4 per cent in satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment.

Young people who have higher educational levels also experience shorter transition periods than those with lower levels of completed education. The difference can be quite grim, with those with education below the primary level spending an average of 130.9 months, or nearly eleven years, in transition compared to 103.7 months (nearly nine years) for those with university degrees.

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

Overall, the youth unemployment rate in Cambodia is very low at 2.4 per cent, a slight increase from the 2.1 per cent rate in 2012. The likelihood of being unemployed is highest among young Cambodians with university education (7.3 per cent youth unemployment rate). The most significant challenges cited by unemployed youth were their lack of work experience (40.6 per cent) and the requirements of the job were higher than the education/training received (18.9 per cent). These findings suggest that there is an urgent need to improve labour market relevance of educational outcomes and to strengthen career guidance services. The education system often falls short of students' expectations to provide them with the skills and means needed to enter the labour market.

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

Eight in ten (83.1 per cent) youth in Cambodia is employed, and among the employed, self-employment represents 67.5 per cent, summing 16.3 per cent young own-account workers, 50.8 per cent young contributing (unpaid) family workers and 0.4 per cent young employers.

Many youth took the self-employment route involuntarily, either because it was required by the family (23.5 per cent) or because they had been unable to find a wage or salaried job (11.9 per cent). The young self-employed claim their most significant business challenges as insufficient financial resources (43.9 per cent) and competition in the market (23.0 per cent).

Regarding the few youth who do obtain wage and salaried employment (32.5 per cent of young workers), two-fifths has access to the benefits of paid annual leave (40.0 per cent) and 15.5 per cent claim to have employers who pay into a social security system. About one-half (52.7 per cent) of young employees were engaged without a written contract. The share of employees receiving core benefits and a written contract represent a significant improvement from the 2012 results, although there is still much room for improvement.

Poor quality employment impacts more than half of young workers: seven in ten young workers receive a wage that is below the average of all workers (paid workers and own-account workers), five in ten are in informal employment, seven in ten are in irregular employment, and five in ten are undereducated for the job that they hold. A significant share of young workers (53.0 per cent) said they would like to change their job.

A large share (45.0 per cent) of young working Cambodians are undereducated for the work that they do. Managers, professionals, technicians and associate professionals, services and sales workers, skilled agricultural workers, crafts workers, and plant and machine operators in the country have a one in two chance of being undereducated than the job calls for. Undereducation can have a negative impact on the productivity of the worker and thus the output of the enterprise, but also more personally, on the sense of security of the young worker.

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

Employment in agriculture continues to dominate the youth labour market absorbing 45.1 per cent of young workers, with employment in service and sales a distant second at 20.2 per cent of youth employment and craft and related trade workers a distant third at 18.1 per cent (with both of the latter sectors showing a higher share for young women than men). The construction and transport sectors are fairly well represented among male employment (8.1 and 4.8 per cent, respectively).

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

The largest share of the youth population in Cambodia has already completed the transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment (79.9 per cent), and most to satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment (57.1 per cent). Among the youth who have already completed their labour market transition, 29.6 per cent – moved directly to their current stable and/or satisfactory job while slightly more moved from unpaid family work or from another job (31.3 per cent).

The percentage of youth who have not yet started the transition is 8.2 per cent and the share of youth still in the process of transition is 11.9 per cent. Urban youth are more likely to remain in education and start the transition later (20.9 per cent compared to 5.0 per cent of rural youth) while rural youth are more likely to fall in the economically active categories of transition completed or in transition. Regarding the influence of household income, it becomes clear that household wealth determines the ability of youth to stay in school and thus be more likely to fall in the category of transition not yet started (16.8 per cent of youth in well-off households are in the category compared to 2.4 per cent of youth in poor households).

Regarding the youth who completed the transition but had not moved directly to their status in stable and/or satisfactory employment, the path to transition proved to be extremely long at 89.0 months, or more than seven years. The time spent in transition averaged more than five months longer for young men compared to young women (92.0 and 86.7 months, respectively).

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

Regarding who is doing better at obtaining the few “good” jobs and completing their labour market transition, young men have a slight advantage over young women (91.3 per cent of young men have completed the transition compared to 83.7 per cent

of young women). Second, living in a rural area slightly increases the youth's chances of completing the transition (87.6 per cent of urban youth have completed the transition compared to 84.7 per cent of youth in urban areas).

Youth from wealthier households have a higher likelihood to complete the transition as opposed to remaining in transition, although the difference in shares across the two categories is not large (90.0 per cent of youth in above average wealth households completed the transition compared to 82.8 per cent of youth in below average income households). Finally, one of the strongest conclusions is that education matters to the transition, as was noted in the previous second main finding above.

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

### 2.1 The socio-economic context

Economic growth is strong in recent years in Cambodia. The growth rate in 2013 was 7.6 per cent, according to preliminary estimates (Table 1).<sup>2</sup> Real GDP per capita was US\$ 1,036, an increase of 6.5 per cent from 2012.

**Table 1. Key economic indicators**

	2009	2010	2011	2012p	2013p
Real GDP growth rate (%)	0.1	6.0	7.1	7.3	7.6
GDP per capita (US\$)	753	830	911	973	1,036
Gross capital formation growth rate (%)	4.0	-9.8	10.8	17.4	15.3
Exports growth rate (%)	-9.9	20.6	18.9	14.4	14.0
Imports growth rate (%)	-10.2	16.8	16.3	16.9	15.1
External balance (% Real GDP)	-13.8	-12.7	-11.8	-15.0	-17.0
Consumer Price Index (CPI)*	131.1	136.4	143.8	148.0	152.4
Inflation rate (%)	-	4.0	5.5	2.9	3.0
Official exchange rate (Riels/US\$)	4,140	4,044	4,016	4,034	4,050

Notes: Real GDP (at constant 2000 prices)

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

p = Preliminary

Source: National Accounts of Cambodia, NIS.

Gross fixed capital formation slightly decreased by 15.3 per cent in 2013, compared to increases of 17.4 per cent in 2012 and 10.8 per cent in 2011 (Table 1). These increases were due to increase in construction. In constant 2000 prices, exports of goods and services grew by 14.0 per cent in 2013, preceded by an increase of 14.4 per cent in 2012 and 18.9 per cent in 2011. The increasing demand for raw materials

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

for export-oriented industries and asset accumulation has generally been met through imports. However, in recent years there has been much stronger growth in the import of consumption goods than intermediary goods. Imports of goods and services grew by 15.1 per cent in 2013, compared to 16.9 per cent in 2012 and 16.3 per cent in 2011. As a result of the stronger growth in exports compared to imports, the external goods and services deficit decreased from 17.0 per cent of GDP in 2013 compared to 15.0 per cent in 2012. The annual average increase for the Phnom Penh Consumer Price Index (CPI) was 2.9 per cent in 2012 and 3.0 per cent in 2013, mainly due to rising food prices.

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

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

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

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

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

Source: Cambodia Labour Force and Child Labour Survey, 2012, NIS.



## 2.2 The labour market in Cambodia

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

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

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

Source: Cambodia Labour Force and Child Labour Survey, 2012, NIS.

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

<sup>3</sup> The Labour Force and Child Labour Survey 2012 was conducted by the National Institute of Statistics (NIS) and supported by three units of the ILO: the Department of Statistics, the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour, and the Policy Integration Department. The survey sampled 9,600 households from 600 sample enumeration areas (EAs) distributed in all 24 Capital/provinces in the country. The survey covered both urban and rural areas of Cambodia.

<sup>4</sup> The prominent position taken by the services sector as largest share of employment in the LFS 2012 reverses previous statistical findings that show agriculture as the dominant sector. See, for example, NIS and ILO (2010), which reports on results of the 2008 population census whereby 72.1 per cent of workers were engaged in the agricultural sector. It is also interesting to note that the SWTS 2014 results in section 3.7.3 show the agricultural sector as the largest employer of youth at 47.1 per cent. The different reference periods of the surveys could be partly responsible for the contradictory results.

significant differences between the sectoral distribution of the male and female populations.

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

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Agriculture	2,392,879	33.2	1,281,547	33.7	1,111,332	32.7
Industry	1,816,794	25.2	935,154	24.6	881,640	25.9
Services	2,987,743	41.5	1,581,005	41.6	1,406,738	41.4
<b>Total employed</b>	<b>7,197,416</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3,797,706</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3,399,710</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Cambodia Labour Force and Child Labour Survey, 2012, NIS.

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

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

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

Source: Cambodia Labour Force and Child Labour Survey, 2012, NIS.

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

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

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

Source: Cambodia Labour Force and Child Labour Survey, 2012, NIS.

## 2.3 The school-to-work transition survey in Cambodia: Objectives and methodology

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

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

### Box 1. Definition of youth

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

The SWTS can also be used to detect the individual characteristics of young people that determine labour market disadvantages. This, in turn, is instrumental to the development of policy responses to prevent the emergence of risk factors, as well as

measures to remedy those factors that negatively affect the transition to decent work. Other specific objectives of the survey are to:

1. Obtain data on personal, family and household information including financial situation, health problems, highest educational level of parents, occupation of parents and financial inclusion;
2. Collect data on formal education/training (current and former students) and aspirations of youth, including area of study, aspirations of future occupations and industry, combination of work and study, and main goal in life;
3. Collect data on young workers including details of place of work, employment status, access to benefits/entitlements, challenges of the self-employed, access to finances, hours of work, job satisfaction and perception of security, future prospects, training in current activity, and the job search experience;
4. Collect data on unemployed youth including method and length of the job search, occupation sought, and wage and job reservations;
5. Capture the history of economic activities of the active youth based on personal perception of the respondent, from the first time of entry, including spells of employment (by status, satisfaction and reason for leaving), unemployment and inactivity by length of each spell.

The SWTS 2012<sup>5</sup> and 2014 in Cambodia were conducted by the National Institute of Statistics (NIS) with the financial and technical support of the International Labour Organization (ILO). The two surveys were highlighted on issues such as labour market inefficiencies shown in job search/recruitment methods and mismatches between the skills base of young labour market entrants and the realities of the labour market itself. Moreover, the surveys aim to strengthen the production of labour market information specific to youth and to work with policy-makers on the interpretation of data, including on transitions to the labour market, for the design or monitoring of youth employment policies and programmes. Funding for the surveys came from the Work4Youth partnership between the ILO Youth Employment Programme and The MasterCard Foundation (see box 2).

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

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

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

<sup>5</sup> The previous report on the main findings of SWTS 2012 (Kanol, Khemarin and Elder, 2013) can be found on the W4Y project website at: [www.ilo.org/w4y](http://www.ilo.org/w4y).

Work4Youth target countries:

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

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

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

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

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

Following a pilot test of the survey and training sessions for supervisors and enumerators, field data collection was carried out for 28 days from 21 July to 17 August 2014. Interviews were conducted by eight teams, consisting of five people.<sup>6</sup> Youth aged 15-29 were surveyed in twenty four provinces, including the capital. The overall sample size was 3,396 young people. The details of the sample design are presented in Annex II.

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

#### 3.1 Individual characteristics of youth

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

As shown in Table 7, most of the young respondents are in the age group of 15-19 (40.9 per cent) and living in rural areas (79.8 per cent). Most youth are single (63.0 per cent) and three-tenth (29.6 per cent) of youth has children. Young women show a greater likelihood of being married than young men (45.8 per cent married young women compared to 25.8 per cent of married young men). Young women are also more than twice as likely to already have children (37.8 per cent young mothers compared to 19.1 per cent young fathers). The average age of marriage was 21 years (22 years for males and 20 years for females).

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<sup>6</sup> Annex IV provides the names of the survey personnel.

**Table 7. Youth population by selected characteristics and sex<sup>7</sup>**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Age group</b>						
15-19 years	1,919,751	40.9	882,355	42.7	1,037,396	39.4
20-24 years	1,531,382	32.6	658,885	31.9	872,497	33.2
25-29 years	1,245,373	26.5	524,024	25.4	721,349	27.4
<b>Area of residence</b>						
Urban	950,879	20.2	409,900	19.8	540,979	20.6
Rural	3,745,627	79.8	1,655,363	80.2	2,090,263	79.4
<b>Marital status</b>						
Married (including divorced and widowed)	1,737,823	37.0	533,251	25.8	1,204,571	45.8
Single	2,958,683	63.0	1,532,012	74.2	1,426,671	54.2
With children	1,391,160	29.6	395,366	19.1	995,795	37.8
Average age of marriage	21		22		20	
<b>Main current activity</b>						
Employed	3,902,316	83.1	1,794,102	86.9	2,108,215	80.1
Unemployed	96,615	2.1	43,210	2.1	53,405	2.0
Inactive student	397,076	8.5	180,789	8.8	216,288	8.2
Inactive non-student	300,498	6.4	47,163	2.3	253,335	9.6
<b>Total youth population</b>	<b>4,696,506</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2,065,263</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2,631,242</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

Table 8 shows a labour force participation rate of youth of 85.1 per cent and an employment-to-population ratio that is high at 83.1 per cent (for definitions of labour market terms, see Annex I). The high capacity of the economy to create jobs is also reflected in the low unemployment share in the youth population (2.1 per cent). The inactive youth population is 14.9 per cent with 8.5 per cent of the inactive youth still in school and 6.4 per cent as inactive non-students. Young men have a higher likelihood of being employed, unemployed and inactive students than young women. The female share is higher than the male only in the percentage of youth who are inactive non-students (9.6 and 2.3 per cent, respectively), which reflects a stronger female tendency to remain inactive to care for the household.

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

	Total	Male	Female
Employment-to-population ratio	83.1	86.9	80.1
Unemployment-to-population ratio	2.1	2.1	2.0
Unemployment rate	2.4	2.4	2.5
Labour force participation rate	85.1	89.0	82.2
Inactivity rate	14.9	11.0	17.8
Share of inactive and out-of-school (neither in labour force nor in education/training)	6.4	2.3	9.6

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

<sup>7</sup> For comparison to 2012 results see Annex table A1.

### 3.2 Educational attainment

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

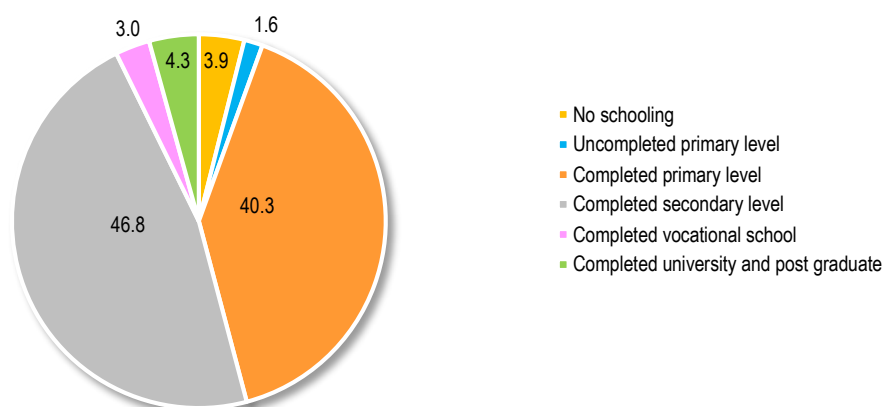
Nearly three-fourths (72.2 per cent) of Cambodian youth aged 15-29 years have finished their schooling and 27.8 per cent are still in school (Table 9). Among youth still in school, a large share engages in some form of employment while studying (67.5 per cent) and most are studying at the secondary level (76.6 per cent).

**Table 9. Educational attainment of youth by current activity status**

	Employed		Unemployed		Inactive		Total	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Currently attending school</b>								
At primary level	45,446	5.2	0	0.0	15,751	4.0	61,197	4.7
At secondary level	689,685	78.3	11,905	43.9	298,397	75.1	999,986	76.6
At vocational school	15,612	1.8	603	2.2	13,113	3.3	29,329	2.2
At university and post graduate	125,761	14.3	14,417	53.1	65,405	16.5	205,583	15.8
Learning in a formal apprenticeship/internship	4,508	0.5	206	0.8	4,410	1.1	9,124	0.7
<b>Total studying youth</b>	<b>881,011</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>27,131</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>397,076</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,305,219</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Finished school by level of completed education</b>								
No schooling	112,709	3.7	3,008	4.3	17,623	5.9	133,340	3.9
Uncompleted primary level	52,742	1.7	0	0.0	1,521	0.5	54,263	1.6
Completed primary level	1,233,793	40.8	20,011	28.8	114,254	38.0	1,368,059	40.3
Completed secondary level	1,399,858	46.3	35,065	50.5	153,687	51.1	1,588,610	46.8
Completed vocational school	94,414	3.1	1,399	2.0	5,611	1.9	101,424	3.0
Completed university and post graduate	127,789	4.2	10,000	14.4	7,802	2.6	145,591	4.3
<b>Total non-student youth</b>	<b>3,021,305</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>69,484</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>300,498</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3,391,287</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

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



Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

Among the youth who left school before completion, 62.0 per cent stated they left school due to economic reasons, i.e. their family could not afford for them to continue in school (Table 10). The second most important reason indicated by youth early school leavers was because they wanted to start working (11.7 per cent for men and 13.4 per cent for women). Another 9.8 per cent of young men left school because of failed examination compare to 5.1 per cent of young women. Young women more than men stated marriage as a reason for leaving school early (4.4 per cent and 2.3 per cent, respectively).

**Table 10. Youth with uncompleted education by reason for leaving school**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Failed examination	174,134	7.0	99,190	9.8	74,944	5.1
Not interested in education/training	88,117	3.5	39,079	3.9	49,037	3.3
Wanted to start working	317,044	12.7	119,150	11.7	197,894	13.4
To get married	88,152	3.5	23,171	2.3	64,981	4.4
Parents did not want me to continue	73,707	3.0	20,790	2.0	52,918	3.6
Economic reasons (could not afford, too poor, needed to earn money to support family)	1,543,431	62.0	628,132	61.9	915,299	62.0
No school nearby	104,728	4.2	30,292	3.0	74,436	5.0
Other	102,046	4.1	54,645	5.4	47,401	3.2
<b>Total pre-primary school leavers</b>	<b>2,491,358</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,014,449</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,476,909</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

There are gender differences in the area of educational attainment of youth. First, there are more young women than men in both categories – youth who never attended school and youth with completed education (Table 11). Second, young women are more likely to be inactive than young men regardless of education level (no schooling or with education). Other interesting results are that the share of unemployment is highest among young men with no education (2.9 per cent) and that female youth with completed education, is more likely to be employed than female youth with no education.

**Table 11. Distribution of out-of-school youth by current activity status and sex**

	Total		Employed		Unemployed		Inactive	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total out-of-school youth</b>	<b>3,391,287</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3,021,305</b>	<b>89.1</b>	<b>69,484</b>	<b>2.0</b>	<b>300,498</b>	<b>8.9</b>
Male	1,392,646	100.0	1,320,921	94.8	24,561	1.8	47,164	3.4
Female	1,998,641	100.0	1,700,384	85.1	44,923	2.2	253,334	12.7
<b>Total youth never attended school</b>	<b>133,341</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>112,709</b>	<b>84.5</b>	<b>3,009</b>	<b>2.3</b>	<b>17,623</b>	<b>13.2</b>
Male	43,699	100.0	42,429	97.1	1,270	2.9	0	0.0
Female	89,642	100.0	70,280	78.4	1,739	1.9	17,623	19.7
<b>Total youth with completed education</b>	<b>3,257,946</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2,908,596</b>	<b>89.3</b>	<b>66,475</b>	<b>2.0</b>	<b>282,875</b>	<b>8.7</b>
Male	1,348,947	100.0	1,278,492	94.8	23,291	1.7	47,164	3.5
Female	1,908,999	100.0	1,630,104	85.4	43,184	2.3	235,711	12.3

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.



There has been remarkable progress in the area of educational enrolment in Cambodia in recent years. Both young men and women today are much more likely to have school facilities readily accessible and to also have the permission to attend them. The situation was quite different for their parents. As shown in Table 12, 26.9 per cent of youth indicated that their mother had never attended school and 15.5 per cent stated their father had never attended school. Men of the previous generation were more likely to be educated than women, with youth's fathers showing higher levels of completed education at all levels compared to youth's mothers. Youth's mothers were much more likely to have finished at the primary level than youth's father (49.2 per cent compared to 43.6 per cent). About 21.8 per cent of youth's fathers compared to 10.3 per cent of youth's mothers had completed secondary school. Only a small proportion of the youth population reported that their parents completed vocational education or university or higher education degrees.

**Table 12. Educational attainment of youth's mothers and youth's fathers**

Highest educational level completed	Youth's parents			
	Youth's mothers		Youth's fathers	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
None	1,262,276	26.9	726,150	15.5
Primary school	2,309,436	49.2	2,048,099	43.6
Secondary school	483,690	10.3	1,025,419	21.8
Vocational	75,092	1.6	122,281	2.6
University or higher	12,472	0.3	90,715	1.9
Do not know	553,539	11.8	683,841	14.6
<b>Total youth population</b>	<b>4,696,506</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>4,696,506</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

Table 13 shows the distribution of the highest education level of youth's parents by youth's highest education level. Results are further summarized in Figure 2. Comparing the educational attainment of parents in this table and that of the young respondents, it is clear that the provision of education is more comprehensive in Cambodia today. In total 54.0 per cent of youth finished their education at a level higher than their father and 69.7 per cent finished higher than their mother. Only 6.0 per cent of youth stated their father finished his education at a higher level than themselves and 2.0 per cent claimed to be less educated than their mother.

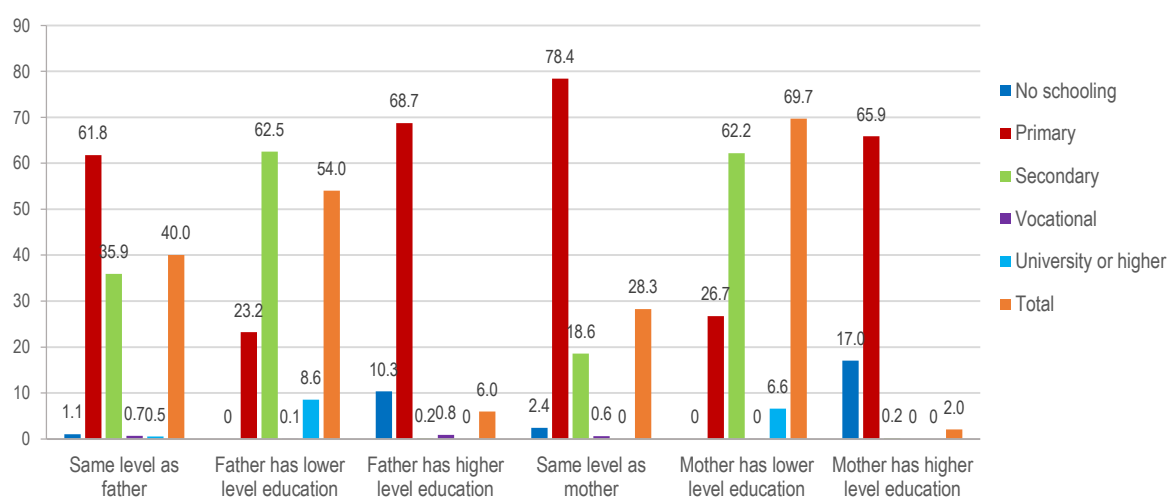
**Table 13. Educational attainment of respondent in comparison to their parents'**

Highest educational level of parents	Highest educational level of youth									
	Uncompleted primary		Primary school		Secondary school		Vocational		University or higher	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Father</b>										
Uncompleted primary	11,517	21.2	341,599	25.0	209,940	13.2	17,135	16.9	4,037	2.8
Primary school	14,079	25.9	673,182	49.2	710,052	44.7	38,348	37.8	45,812	31.5
Secondary school	2,802	5.2	101,410	7.4	391,304	24.6	28,021	27.6	69,879	48.0
Vocational	0	0.0	10,402	0.8	30,937	1.9	7,680	7.6	6,322	4.3
University or higher	0	0.0	525	0.0	1,918	0.1	1,389	1.4	5,941	4.1
Do not know	25,864	47.7	240,941	17.6	244,459	15.4	8,852	8.7	13,601	9.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>54,263</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,368,059</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,588,610</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>101,423</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>145,591</b>	<b>100.0</b>

<b>Mother</b>										
Uncompleted primary	19,677	36.3	530,258	38.8	414,198	26.1	18,054	17.8	17,998	12.4
Primary school	7,000	12.9	630,695	46.1	818,850	51.5	63,766	62.9	77,022	52.9
Secondary school	2,859	5.3	34,323	2.5	149,272	9.4	6,705	6.6	34,505	23.7
Vocational	0	0.0	3,838	0.3	9,917	0.6	4,871	4.8	1,389	1.0
University or higher	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Do not know	24,727	45.6	168,945	12.3	196,373	12.4	8,028	7.9	14,676	10.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>54,263</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,368,059</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,588,610</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>101,423</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>145,591</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

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



Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

### 3.3 Current activity status of youth

The international standards concerning employment and unemployment statistics are based on the labour force framework. According to this framework, the working-age population is divided into three categories (employed, unemployed and not economically active), depending on their labour market activities during a specified short reference period, either a day or a week (ILO, 2008).

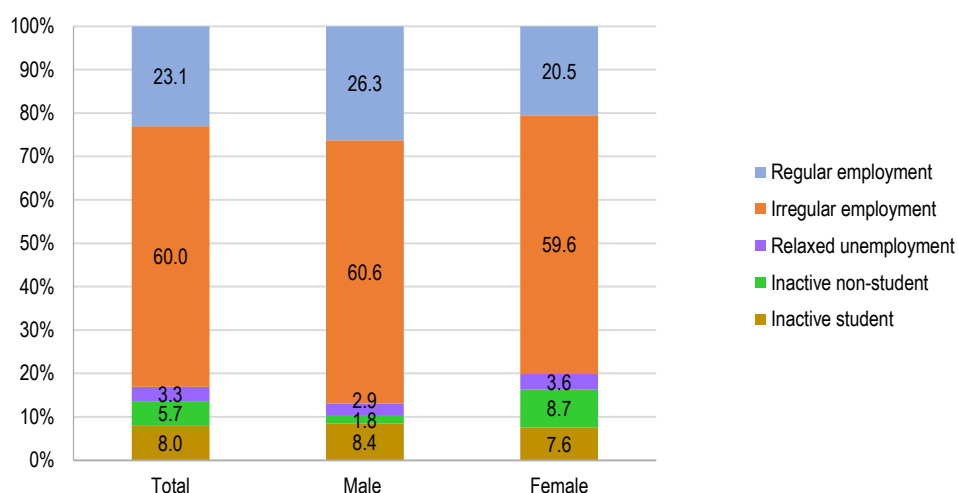
Table 14 presents the proportion of youth population by main economic activity. The share of employed young men was more than that of women, at 86.9 per cent and 80.1 per cent, respectively. Thus, young women were much more likely to be inactive compared to young men, and young men were more likely to be employed compared to young women. About 2.1 per cent of youth were unemployed, with little difference in the shares by sex. The remaining proportion was inactive (14.9 per cent), and the share was higher among inactive young women (17.8 per cent compared to 11.0 per cent of young men). The inactive group is not engaged in the labour market and includes people who are in education, looking after family, retired or sick/disabled.

**Table 14. Youth population by main economic activity and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Employed	3,902,316	83.1	1,794,102	86.9	2,108,214	80.1
Unemployed	96,615	2.1	43,210	2.1	53,405	2.0
Inactive	697,574	14.9	227,951	11.0	469,623	17.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>4,696,506</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2,065,263</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2,631,242</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

In the ILO *Global Employment Trends for Youth 2013*, the argument is made that comparing traditional labour market indicators with a more detailed disaggregation of indicators made available through the SWTS offers a fuller picture of the challenges that youth face in developing economies (ILO, 2013, chapter 4). Figure 3 shows the results for Cambodia from the survey. The SWTS framework proposes a distribution of the youth population in the following five categories: (a) regular employment, defined as wage and salaried workers holding a contract of duration greater than 12 months, plus self-employed youth with employees (employers); (b) irregular employment, defined as wage and salaried workers holding a contract of limited duration, i.e. set to terminate prior to 12 months, self-employed youth with no employees (own-account workers) and contributing family workers; (c) unemployed (relaxed definition), defined as persons currently without work and available to take up work in the week prior to the reference period; (d) inactive non-students; and (e) inactive students.

**Figure 3. Youth population by category of economic activity and sex**

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

Figure 3 shows the categories of economic activity by sex. The observation is that the greatest proportion was in irregular employment with a small difference by sex (60.0 per cent of the total youth population). The percentage of regular employment among young men was higher than young women (26.3 per cent and 20.5 per cent respectively). There is a higher share of young women categorized as inactive non-students (8.7 per cent) compared to men (1.8 per cent). Overall, the small share of

inactive non-students that stands at less than 6 per cent of the total population is a good sign for the productive potential of the country.

Table 15 presents data on young people neither in education nor in employment or training (also called the NEET population). Of the total youth population in Cambodia, 7.9 per cent fall under the NEET category, with 1.5 per cent as unemployed non-students and 6.4 per cent as inactive non-students. The comparison shows that young women are much more likely to fall under the NEET category than young men (11.3 per cent compared to 3.5 per cent) and that most young female NEETs are inactive non-students (9.6 per cent compared to 1.7 per cent young female unemployed non-students). In addition, the distribution of NEET youth is slightly higher in urban areas (8.1 per cent) than in rural areas (7.8 per cent).

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

	Total youth population	Total NEET youth as a % of total youth population	NEET status			
			Unemployed non-students		Inactive non-students	
			Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total youth population</b>	4,696,506	7.9	69,484	1.5	300,498	6.4
Male	2,065,263	3.5	24,561	1.2	47,163	2.3
Female	2,631,242	11.3	44,923	1.7	253,335	9.6
<b>Area of residence</b>						
Urban	950,879	8.1	23,352	2.5	53,358	5.6
Rural	3,745,627	7.8	46,132	1.2	247,140	6.6

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

### 3.4 Aspirations and life goals

As shown in Table 16, the majority of young people (52.2 per cent for employed, 38.2 per cent for unemployed, and 42.4 per cent for inactive) gave their primary life goal as having a good family life. Of employed youth, 27.7 per cent said that their goal was having lots of money, followed by 14.6 per cent who chose being successful in work and 5.5 per cent for whom the most important life goal was making a contribution to society. Being successful at work was cited more often as primary goal among youth who do not have a job (35.2 per cent for unemployed) and having lots of money was chosen by 26.9 per cent among youth who were inactive.

**Table 16. Primary life goals of young respondents by current activity status**

	Employed		Unemployed		Inactive	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Being successful in work	569,318	14.6	33,980	35.2	129,150	18.5
Making a contribution to society	215,256	5.5	8,022	8.3	85,436	12.2
Having lots of money	1,080,691	27.7	17,678	18.3	187,305	26.9
Having a good family life	2,037,051	52.2	36,936	38.2	295,683	42.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>3,902,316</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>96,615</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>697,574</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

### 3.5 Characteristics of unemployed youth

The ILO international standard definition of unemployment is based on the following three criteria which should be satisfied simultaneously: “without work”, “currently available for work” and “seeking work”. The youth unemployment rate (the percentage of young unemployed persons in the youth labour force) was only 2.4 per cent. This is extremely low when compared to most other countries in the world and even within the region. According to ILO (2013), the global youth unemployment rate in 2012 (bearing in mind that the report defines youth as 15-24 rather than 15-29 as used in the SWTS) was 12.4 per cent and the regional youth unemployment rate in South-East Asia and the Pacific was 9.3 per cent.

Table 17 gives the educational attainment of the young unemployed. Sixty-nine (68.8) per cent of unemployed youth have attended school, 28.1 per cent were currently attending school and 3.1 per cent had no schooling. Among non-student unemployed youth, 28.8 per cent had completed primary education, following by 50.5 per cent with completed secondary and 14.4 per cent with completed university education or higher.

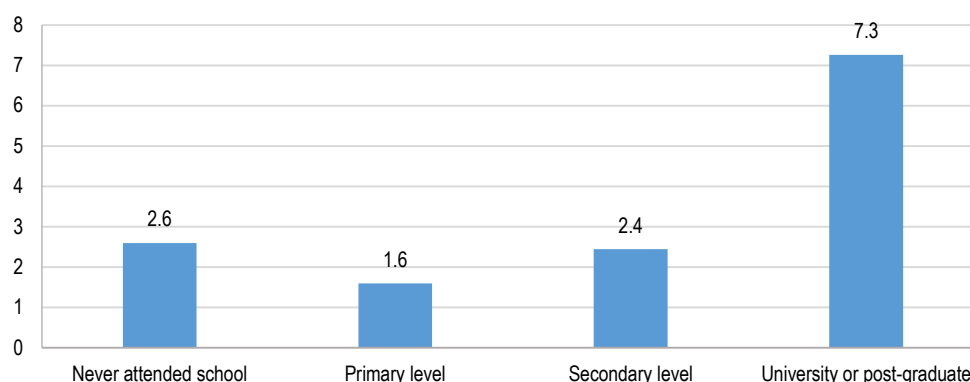
**Table 17. Unemployed youth by level of completed educational attainment and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Currently attending school	27,131	28.1	18,649	43.2	8,482	15.9
Never attended school	3,008	3.1	1,270	2.9	1,739	3.3
Have attended school	66,476	68.8	23,291	53.9	43,184	80.9
<b>Total unemployed youth</b>	<b>96,615</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>43,210</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>53,405</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Never attended school	3,008	4.3	1,270	5.2	1,739	3.9
Uncompleted primary level	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Primary school	20,011	28.8	8,472	34.5	11,539	25.7
Secondary school	35,065	50.5	9,532	38.8	25,533	56.8
Vocational	1,399	2.0	0	0.0	1,399	3.1
University or higher	9,999	14.4	5,286	21.5	4,713	10.5
<b>Total non-student unemployed youth</b>	<b>69,482</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>24,560</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>44,923</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

Figure 4 shows the youth unemployment rates by level of completed education. Interestingly, the highest rate was among youth with university education (7.3 per cent youth unemployment rate). Unemployment among youth with primary or secondary level education – which includes most young Cambodians according to Figure 4 – are lower, with unemployment rates of 1.6 and 2.4 per cent, respectively.

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



Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

Table 18 presents the distribution of unemployed youth by the duration of their job search. The table reveals that the largest portion of unemployed youth – 25.2 per cent – had experienced duration of job search of between one week to less than one month and 25.0 per cent for one month to less than three months. These were the cases for 32.2 per cent and 25.3 per cent of young men, respectively and 19.6 per cent and 24.7 per cent of young women. The proportion of unemployed youth who had been searching for a job for longer than 12 months – the long term unemployed youth – was 15.9 per cent. Long-term unemployment among youth can have negative consequences in terms of skills and financial losses and damaged self-esteem. More young women than men find themselves in the category of long-term unemployed in Cambodia (shares are 20.7 per cent and 9.8 per cent, respectively).

**Table 18. Unemployed youth by duration of job search and sex**

Duration of job search	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Less than a week	5,847	6.1	4,337	10.0	1,510	2.8
1 week to less than 1 month	24,376	25.2	13,911	32.2	10,465	19.6
1 month to less than 3 months	24,146	25.0	10,945	25.3	13,201	24.7
3 months to less than 6 months	14,125	14.6	5,925	13.7	8,201	15.4
6 months to less than 1 year	12,799	13.2	3,841	8.9	8,959	16.8
More than a year	15,322	15.9	4,252	9.8	11,070	20.7
<b>Total unemployed youth</b>	<b>96,615</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>43,210</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>53,405</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

The survey results also provide information about the main obstacles that unemployed young people face in their job search. Table 19 below shows that the biggest difficulty was not having enough work experience, cited by 40.6 per cent of unemployed youth. The second main obstacle was that the requirements of the job were higher than the education/training received (cited by 18.9 per cent), which highlights the issue of mismatch between education qualifications and job requirements. In general, however, based on results from a recent “Employers skills needs” survey implemented by the National Employment Agency of Cambodia, employers gave a fairly positive judgment on the preparation of the newly hired first jobseekers. The

enterprises who did offer criticism focused their critiques on three areas: lack of skills and competencies required, lack of life experience and maturity, and lack of motivation. Lack of skills was indicated especially for people coming from high education, but also from vocational schools. For a summation of additional findings from the skills need survey that have relevance to the SWTS analysis, see Box 3.

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

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

Interesting findings include:

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

Source: National Employment Agency (2013).

Other important obstacles young jobseekers mentioned were being considered too young (7.8 per cent), discriminatory prejudices (7.7 per cent), and poor working conditions in available jobs (6.3 per cent), did not know how and where to seek work (5.5 per cent), and not enough jobs available (5.4 per cent). It is also observed that only less than one per cent of unemployed youth mentioned that low wages in available jobs (0.9 per cent) and being male/female (0.5 per cent). It would seem, therefore, that some young people lack the basic job search skills that would allow them to take advantage of available employment opportunities, while at the same time there is some evidence of mismatch in the demand of employers and the supply of currently available young labour. These findings suggest that there is an urgent need to improve labour market relevance of educational outcomes and to strengthen career guidance services. The education system often falls short of students’ expectations to provide them with the skills and means needed to enter the labour market.

**Table 19. Unemployed youth by main obstacle to finding work**

	<b>Number</b>	<b>(%)</b>
Requirements for job were higher than education/training received	18,286	18.9
Not enough work experience	39,263	40.6
Not enough jobs available	5,185	5.4
Considered too young	7,490	7.8
Being male/female	520	0.5
Discriminatory prejudices	7,478	7.7
Low wages in available jobs	879	0.9
Poor working conditions in available jobs	6,112	6.3
Did not know how and where to seek work	5,323	5.5
Other	6,078	6.3
<b>Total unemployed youth</b>	<b>96,615</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

The largest portion of young men searched for jobs as craft and related trade workers or service workers, shop and market sales workers (31.3 and 27.4 per cent, respectively) (Table 20). The majority of young female jobseekers were also looking for work in the same occupations (36.6 per cent and 32.6 per cent, respectively).

If the current occupational distribution of working youth can be taken as an indication of current demand for young labour, i.e. as an indication of where the jobs are, then making the comparison to the distribution of occupations sought by unemployed youth can serve to identify possibly supply and demand mismatches. In descending order, the unemployed youth were principally seeking work in the following occupation groups: craft and related trade workers (34.2 per cent), service workers, shop and market sales workers (30.3 per cent), and professionals (14.7 per cent) (Figure 5 and Table 20). There was a stronger representation of young women seeking professional work than young men (19.6 per cent and 8.7 per cent, respectively) while young unemployed men were more interested than women in the professions of clerks (3.0 per cent and 2.6 per cent, respectively) and elementary occupations<sup>8</sup> (5.1 per cent and 4.3 per cent). Some occupations were sought only by unemployed young men, technicians and associate professionals (12.0 per cent), plant and machine operator and assemblers (9.0 per cent), and skilled agricultural and fishery workers (3.5 per cent). Less than 1 per cent of youth searched for armed forces occupations (0.8 per cent).

<sup>8</sup> Elementary occupations are described as those which involve the performance of simple and routine tasks which may require the use of hand-held tools and considerable physical effort. Tasks performed by workers in elementary occupations usually include: cleaning, restocking supplies and performing basic maintenance in apartments, houses, kitchens, hotels, offices and other buildings; washing cars and windows; helping in kitchens and performing simple tasks in food preparation; delivering messages or goods; carrying luggage and handling baggage and freight; etc. See International Standard Classification of Occupations, revision 2008 with details at website: <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco/isco08/index.htm>

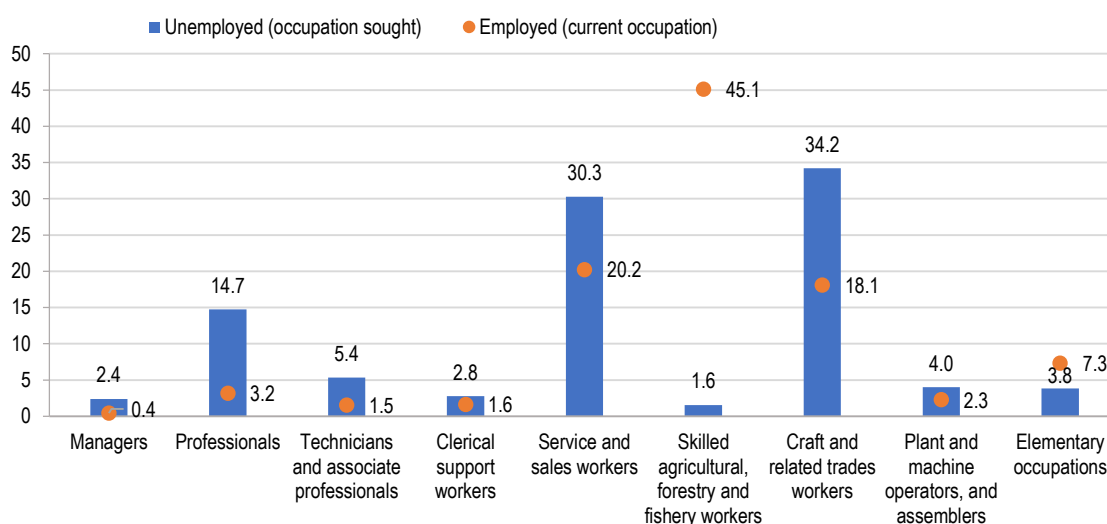


**Table 20. Unemployed youth by type of occupation sought and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Legislators, senior officials and managers	2,317	2.4	0	0.0	2,317	4.3
Professionals	14,224	14.7	3,766	8.7	10,457	19.6
Technicians and associate professionals	5,171	5.4	5,171	12.0	0	0.0
Clerks	2,696	2.8	1,317	3.0	1,379	2.6
Service workers, shop and market sales workers	29,256	30.3	11,826	27.4	17,430	32.6
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	1,510	1.6	1,510	3.5	0	0.0
Craft and related trade workers	33,058	34.2	13,536	31.3	19,524	36.6
Plant and machine operator and assemblers	3,894	4.0	3,894	9.0	0	0.0
Elementary occupations	3,689	3.8	1,790	4.1	1,899	3.6
Armed forces	800	0.8	400	0.9	400	0.7
<b>Total unemployed youth</b>	<b>96,615</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>43,210</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>53,405</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

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



Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

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

overqualified. The issue of qualification mismatches will be addressed in more detail in section 3.7.7.

It does seem that household income level has an impact on youth unemployment, with young people in households of relatively higher income showing fewer tendencies to be unemployed. The household financial situation of unemployed youth (self-assessed) shows that 77.9 per cent live in households with a financial situation around the national average, and 15.2 per cent lived in a fairly poor household (Table 21). There was only a small percentage of unemployed youth living in a well off or fairly well off household (6.8 per cent). There is also a difference between urban and rural areas where unemployed young people in urban areas are more likely to be in better financial situations. For example, unemployed youth in urban areas were more likely to be in a household with a financial situation around the national average (85.0 per cent) than youth in rural areas (72.4 per cent). Urban youth were also less likely to live in fairly poor households (6.7 per cent compared to 22.0 per cent in rural areas).

**Table 21. Unemployed youth by household's overall financial situation and area of residence**

	Total		Urban		Rural	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Well off	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Fairly well off	6,598	6.8	3,528	8.3	3,070	5.7
Around the national average	75,293	77.9	36,167	85.0	39,126	72.4
Fairly poor	14,724	15.2	2,854	6.7	11,869	22.0
Poor	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
<b>Total unemployed youth</b>	<b>96,615</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>42,549</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>54,066</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

The strict definition of unemployment requires that for inclusion as “unemployed”, a person be without work, available to work and actively seeking work. The relaxation of the “actively seeking work” criteria makes sense in circumstances where the conventional means of seeking work are of limited relevance, where the labour market is largely unorganized, where labour absorption is inadequate or where the labour force is largely self-employed (ILO, 2013, p. 40). “Relaxing” the definition of unemployment nearly doubles the youth unemployment rate in Cambodia from 2.4 to 3.8 per cent, although the rate is still well below that of most other countries in the world (Table 22).

**Table 22. Youth unemployment, strict and relaxed definition, and discouragement**

	Total	Male	Female
Unemployed youth (strict)	96,615	43,210	53,405
Unemployed youth (relaxed)	155,048	60,318	94,730
Unemployment rate (strict)	2.4	2.4	2.5
Unemployment rate (relaxed)	3.8	3.3	4.3
Discouraged youth as % of unemployed not actively seeking work	8.3	13.4	5.1
Discouraged youth as % of labour force	0.3	0.4	0.2

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

One-third (35.7 per cent) of youth who were without work and available to work but did not engage in an active job search of youth gave education leave or training as the reason (Table 23). Another 18.9 per cent said they did not actively seek because they were personal family responsibilities. Education leave or training was the biggest (de)motivator for young men and women to not look for work, cited by 37.2 per cent of young men and 35.0 per cent of young women. Family responsibilities was the higher share for young women to not look for work, cited by 26.8 per cent of young women and not cited by any young men. Another reason was due to own illness, injury or disability, 14.0 per cent for young men and 6.2 per cent for young women.

Relaxing the active job search criteria adds 58,432 (an increase of 60.5 per cent) to the unemployed pool. Among the 58,432 youth who are without work, available for work but not actively seeking work, only 22.0 per cent qualify as “discouraged workers” (Table 23). The discouraged youth have given up on the job search because of a reason implying a sense of despair about the labour market. The specific reasons include: not knowing how or where to seek work, an inability to find work matching his/her skills, experience in looking for work before has led to no results, feeling too young to find work and the sense that no jobs are available in the area. The number of discouraged youth in the country if the availability to work criteria is applied was 12,846, which is less than 1 per cent of the overall labour force at 0.3 per cent.

**Table 23. Non-working youth, available to work but not seeking work (relaxed unemployed) by reason for not looking for work and sex**

Reasons for not looking for work	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Was waiting for the results of a vacancy competition or an interview	2,610	4.5	292	1.7	2,317	5.6
Awaiting the season for work	3,088	5.3	0	0.0	3,088	7.5
Education leave or training	20,833	35.7	6,372	37.2	14,461	35.0
Personal family responsibilities	11,067	18.9	0	0.0	11,067	26.8
Pregnancy	3,039	5.2	0	0.0	3,039	7.4
Own illness, injury or disability	4,951	8.5	2,388	14.0	2,563	6.2
<b>Reasons implying discouragement</b>						
Do not know how or where to seek work	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Unable to find work for his/ her skills	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Had looked for job(s) before but had not found any	3,335	5.7	3,335	19.5	0	0.0
Too young to find a job	5,147	8.8	3,414	20.0	1,732	4.2
No jobs available in the area/ district	4,364	7.5	1,307	7.6	3,057	7.4
Total youth not working, available to work but not seeking work	58,432	100.0	17,108	100.0	41,324	100.0
<b>Total relaxed unemployed youth</b>	<b>155,048</b>		<b>60,318</b>		<b>94,730</b>	

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

One means of trying to measure the relative urgency of the job search among unemployed youth is by determining if the young unemployed ever refused a job offer and if so, for what reasons. Presumably, the more desperate jobseeker, for reasons of poverty, perhaps, would accept a job regardless of conditions. The share of unemployed youth who refused a job offer is 28.9 per cent (Table 24). The largest portion of unemployed youth who rejected a job offer said the work was not interesting (33.5 per cent). This was followed by wages offered were too low (26.5 per cent) and that the work would require too many hours (24.7 per cent). The refusal based on wages offered

was much stronger for young women than young men (40.2 per cent and 11.0 per cent, respectively), while young men were much more than young women to reject a job offer because it required too many hours of work (36.0 per cent and 14.7 per cent, respectively). About 9.3 per cent of young women's job refusals were due to the family's disapproval of the job offered, while this response was selected by no young men. 12.1 per cent of men refused the job offered because the location that was not convenient and another 10.1 per cent refused in anticipation of a better job.

**Table 24. Unemployed youth who had refused a job by reason for refusal and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Wages offered were too low	7,403	26.5	1,436	11.0	5,968	40.2
Work was not interesting	9,350	33.5	4,033	30.9	5,316	35.8
Location was not convenient	1,577	5.7	1,577	12.1	0	0.0
Work would require too many hours	6,882	24.7	4,701	36.0	2,181	14.7
Family did not approve of the job offered	1,379	4.9	0	0.0	1,379	9.3
Waiting for a better job	1,317	4.7	1,317	10.1	0	0.0
<b>Total unemployed youth</b>	<b>27,909</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>13,065</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>14,843</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

#### **General policy messages on unemployment:**

- Labour market information, job search assistance, vocational counselling and career guidance should be promoted in Cambodia to assist and orient young persons. Greater investment in employment offices and agencies, including the National Employment Agency and also private agencies, can help to improve the connection between young people and enterprises. At the same time, a system of monitoring private agencies to ensure protected and informed job placements of young Cambodians in the country and abroad is warranted.
- Combine the provision of career counselling, motivational training, skills and job readiness training of the long-term unemployed and encourage enterprises to take on the long-term jobseekers through targeted employment subsidies, including temporary tax rebates and/or waivers to employers of social security contributions.
- Keep young people motivated to stay in school in order to encourage better equality of opportunities among the young population and raise the productive potential of the country.

### **3.6 Characteristics of youth outside of the labour force (inactive youth)**

Young people remain outside of the labour force for a number of reasons including illness, taking care of children or the household and participating in school. Overall, the inactive youth in Cambodia represent 14.9 per cent of the total youth population, of which 8.5 per cent were inactive students and 6.4 per cent were inactive non-students (Table 8). Table 25 presents the distribution of inactive youth by reason for inactivity. The majority of youth, 58.9 per cent, were inactive because they were

attending education or training. The second most common reason was family responsibilities or housework, mentioned by 20.4 per cent of young people, following by pregnancy by 11.7 per cent. An important gender gap emerges here, with 29.2 per cent of inactive young women citing family responsibilities as the main reason for inactivity compared to only 2.4 per cent of young men. In contrast, 83 per cent of inactive young men were attending education or training compared to 47 per cent of inactive young women. Other reasons of inactivity for men were illness, injury or disability (8.3 per cent), too young to work (3.2 per cent) and being the off-season for work (2.3 per cent). For young women other reasons included pregnancy (17.5 per cent), illness, injury or disability (3.3 per cent), and too young to work (1.5 per cent).

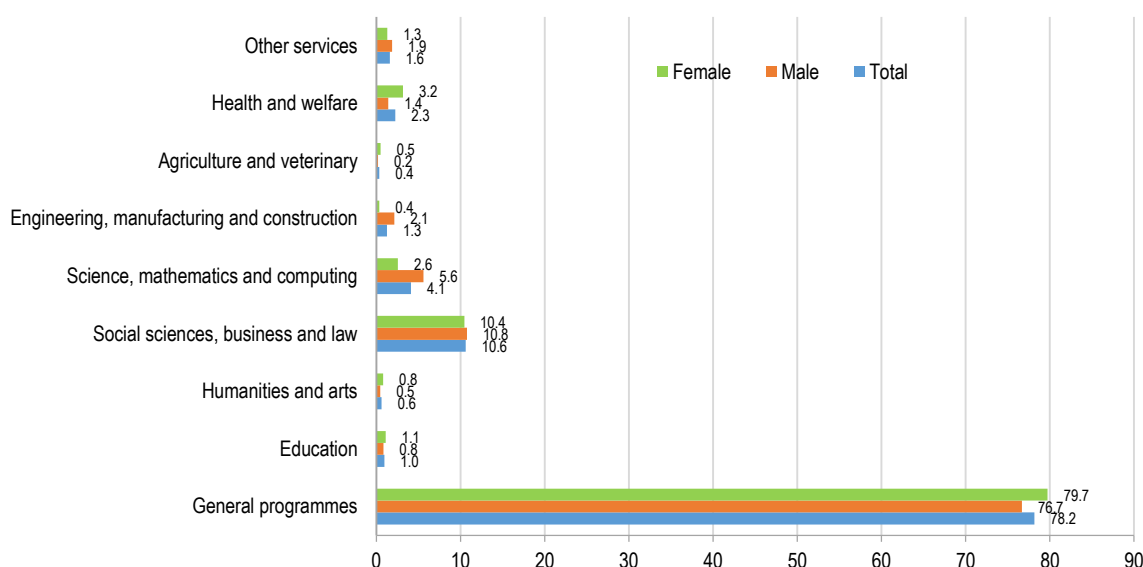
**Table 25. Inactive youth by reasons for inactivity and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Attending education/training	376,248	58.9	175,028	83.0	201,220	47.0
Family responsibilities or housework	130,111	20.4	5,049	2.4	125,063	29.2
Pregnancy	74,776	11.7	0	0.0	74,776	17.5
Illness, injury or disability	31,638	4.9	17,494	8.3	14,144	3.3
Too young to work	13,322	2.1	6,815	3.2	6,507	1.5
No desire to work	2,008	0.3	276	0.1	1,732	0.4
Off-season	8,280	1.3	4,901	2.3	3,379	0.8
Other	2,759	0.4	1,282	0.6	1,477	0.3
<b>Total inactive youth (relaxed)</b>	<b>639,142</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>210,844</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>428,298</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

Among the current young students, most (95.2 per cent) stated they would like to work in the future. Most young students (78.2 per cent) aim to follow a programme of general studies, followed by social sciences, business or law (10.6 per cent), science, mathematics and computing (4.1 per cent), health and welfare (2.3 per cent), other services (1.6 per cent), engineering, manufacturing and construction (1.3 per cent), and education (1.0 per cent) (Figure 6). A large share (58.4 per cent) of young students stated their expectation to finish their education at the university level (Table A10). Whether household finances allow them to fulfil their expectations remains to be seen, but young students in Cambodia should study more skilled labour market for the development in the future.

**Figure 6. Current young students by preferred field of study (%)**



Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

### 3.7 Characteristics of employed youth

#### 3.7.1 General characteristics of the employment

The employment-to-population ratio of youth in Cambodia in 2014 was 83.1 per cent (see Annex I for definition). Table 26 provides characteristics of the employed youth population surveyed in Cambodia in terms of their age, marital status, area of residence and sex. Most employed youth fell in the 15-19 years group (38.3 per cent) and 20-24 years (33.3 per cent). More single than married youth were among those employed (62.1 per cent). Nearly half (45.3 per cent) of young working females while the share among young males was 29.2 per cent. The employed youth population was mainly located in rural areas (83.3 per cent).

**Table 26. Employed youth by age group, marital status, area of residence and sex**

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Age group</b>						
15-19 years	1,495,591	38.3	701,212	39.1	794,379	37.7
20-24 years	1,301,158	33.3	593,594	33.1	707,564	33.6
25-29 years	1,105,567	28.3	499,295	27.8	606,272	28.8
<b>Marital status</b>						
Married (including divorced and widowed)	1,479,065	37.9	523,004	29.2	956,062	45.3
Single	2,423,251	62.1	1,271,098	70.8	1,152,153	54.7
<b>Area of residence</b>						
Urban	653,298	16.7	271,424	15.1	381,874	18.1
Rural	3,249,018	83.3	1,522,678	84.9	1,726,340	81.9
<b>Total youth population</b>	<b>3,902,316</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,794,102</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2,108,214</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

### 3.7.2 Status in employment

Table 27 shows that of the employed respondents, the largest share were contributing (unpaid) family workers (50.8 per cent) then wage and salaried workers (employees) (32.5 per cent) and 16.3 per cent were own-account workers (see Annex I for definitions). Only 0.4 per cent was self-employed with employees (“employers”). The share of female employed youth was higher than males for the categories of contributing (unpaid) family workers and own-account workers. On the other hand, there was a higher percentage of male employed youth as wage and salaried workers (34.3 and 31.1 per cent, respectively) and also as employers (0.6 per cent and 0.1 per cent).

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

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Wage and salaried workers (employees)	1,269,989	32.5	614,861	34.3	655,128	31.1
Contributing (unpaid) family workers	1,982,921	50.8	904,452	50.4	1,078,470	51.2
Own-account workers	635,362	16.3	263,151	14.7	372,211	17.7
Employers	14,044	0.4	11,638	0.6	2,406	0.1
<b>Total employed youth</b>	<b>3,902,316</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,794,102</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2,108,215</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

### 3.7.3 Sector and occupations of the employment

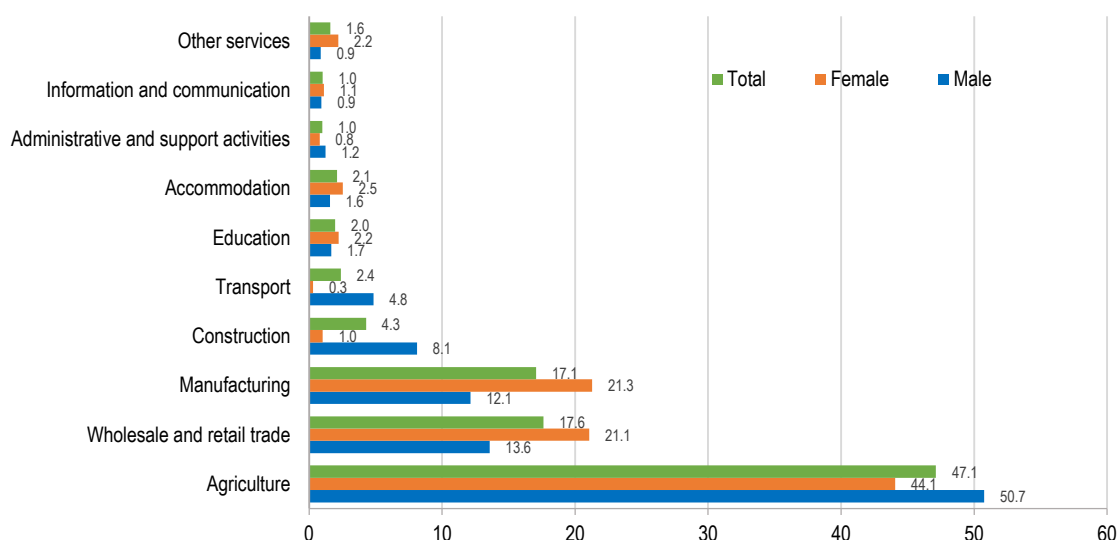
The main economic activity of employed youth is presented in Table 28. Nearly one-half of young workers were engaged in the agriculture sector (47.1 per cent), with slightly more young men than women (50.8 per cent and 44.1 per cent). The services sector absorbed 30.8 per cent of employed youth, with a higher share of females (33.3 per cent) than males (27.8 per cent). The industrial sector employs 22.1 per cent of youth (22.7 per cent for young women and 21.4 per cent for young men). Figure 7 shows the more detailed breakdown of sectoral distribution. Clearly, employment in agriculture dominates with employment in wholesale and retail trade a distant second at 17.6 per cent of youth employment and manufacturing a distant third at 17.1 per cent (with both of the latter sectors showing a higher share for young women than men). The construction and transport sectors are fairly well represented among male employment (8.1 and 4.8 per cent, respectively).

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

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Agriculture	1,839,383	47.1	910,494	50.8	928,889	44.1
Industry	862,333	22.1	384,168	21.4	478,166	22.7
Services	1,200,600	30.8	499,440	27.8	701,160	33.3
<b>Total employed youth</b>	<b>3,902,316</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,794,102</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2,108,215</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

**Figure 7. Distribution of youth employment by sector at the 1-digit level and sex (%)**



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

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

Table 29 presents the distribution of the employed youth by occupation. It shows that 45.1 per cent were skilled agricultural and fishery workers, 20.2 per cent were service and sales workers, 18.1 per cent were in craft and related trade workers, while 7.3 per cent were in elementary occupations. A comparison by sex reveals that the largest difference in occupational categories was in services and sales, which employed 25.8 per cent of young women and 13.6 per cent of young men, followed by elementary occupations which employed 10.4 per cent of young men and 4.7 per cent of young women. Noticeably, the armed forces occupations had less than one per cent of total employed youth.

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

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Managers	17,003	0.4	7,425	0.4	9,577	0.5
Professionals	123,629	3.2	52,424	2.9	71,205	3.4
Technicians and associate professionals	60,447	1.5	26,277	1.5	34,170	1.6
Clerical support workers	62,991	1.6	17,994	1.0	44,997	2.1
Service and sales workers	788,778	20.2	244,157	13.6	544,621	25.8
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	1,759,731	45.1	857,999	47.8	901,732	42.8
Craft and related trade workers	705,597	18.1	311,200	17.3	394,397	18.7
Plant and machine operator and assemblers	88,925	2.3	80,801	4.5	8,123	0.4
Elementary occupations	285,092	7.3	185,701	10.4	99,391	4.7
Armed forces	10,124	0.3	10,124	0.6	0	0.0
<b>Total employed youth</b>	<b>3,902,316</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>1,794,102</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2,108,215</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.



### 3.7.4 Wage employment

Slightly more than one-third (32.5 per cent) of young workers in Cambodia qualify as wage and salaried workers. Table 30 presents the number of young employees who received benefits from their jobs. The highest share received benefits in terms of meals or meal allowance (46.1 per cent), followed by overtime pay (44.2 per cent), annual paid leave (40.0 per cent), bonus/reward for good performance (36.2 per cent), and maternity/paternity leave (32.0 per cent). It can also be observed that a very small percentage of young employees received pension/old age insurance (9.8 per cent) and childcare facilities (1.5 per cent).

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

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Transport or transport allowance	430,382	33.9	145,091	23.6	285,291	43.5
Meals or meal allowance	584,926	46.1	236,845	38.5	348,081	53.1
Annual paid leave (holiday time)	508,513	40.0	172,086	28.0	336,426	51.4
Paid sick leave	369,688	29.1	145,730	23.7	223,958	34.2
Pension/ old age insurance	124,291	9.8	60,965	9.9	63,326	9.7
Severance/ end of service payment	293,545	23.1	100,368	16.3	193,177	29.5
Overtime pay	561,774	44.2	187,216	30.4	374,558	57.2
Medical insurance coverage	297,637	23.4	89,560	14.6	208,077	31.8
Bonus/reward for good performance	460,370	36.2	156,592	25.5	303,778	46.4
Social security contribution	196,577	15.5	78,324	12.7	118,253	18.1
Educational or training courses	281,770	22.2	103,493	16.8	178,278	27.2
Occupational safety/protective equipment or clothing	290,631	22.9	111,569	18.1	179,062	27.3
Childcare facilities	19,360	1.5	7,905	1.3	11,455	1.7
Maternity/paternity leave	406,961	32.0	103,506	16.8	303,455	46.3
<b>Total wage/salaried workers</b>	<b>1,269,989</b>		<b>614,861</b>		<b>655,128</b>	

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

Regarding the type of contract held by employed youth, the SWTS found that about one-half (52.7 per cent) of young employees were engaged on an oral agreement, while 47.3 per cent had a written agreement (Table 31). In addition, 73.1 per cent of youth with an employment contract had a contract of unlimited duration (without time limit). Among those with a contract of limited duration, 15.8 per cent held a contract of 12 months or less.

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

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Written agreement	600,734	47.3	214,762	34.9	385,972	58.9
Oral agreement	669,255	52.7	400,099	65.1	269,156	41.1
Unlimited duration	928,977	73.1	467,068	76.0	461,908	70.5
Limited duration	341,012	26.9	147,793	24.0	193,220	29.5
Less than 12 months	200,748	15.8	83,721	13.6	117,027	17.9
12 months to less than 36 months	58,082	4.6	23,913	3.9	34,168	5.2
36 months or more	82,182	6.5	40,158	6.5	42,024	6.4
Total young wage and salaried workers	1,269,989	100.0	614,861	100.0	655,128	100.0
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Written agreement	160,323	47.0	73,730	48.1	86,593	46.1
Oral agreement	181,134	53.0	79,707	51.9	101,428	53.9
Unlimited duration	249,227	73.0	112,627	73.4	136,600	72.7
Limited duration	92,230	27.0	40,809	26.6	51,421	27.3
Less than 12 months	25,749	7.5	11,602	7.6	14,148	7.5
12 months to less than 36 months	17,480	5.1	4,576	3.0	12,903	6.9
36 months or more	49,001	14.4	24,631	16.1	24,370	13.0
Total young wage and salaried workers	341,457	100.0	153,437	100.0	188,021	100.0
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Written agreement	440,411	47.4	141,032	30.6	299,379	64.1
Oral agreement	488,121	52.6	320,392	69.4	167,728	35.9
Unlimited duration	679,749	73.2	354,441	76.8	325,308	69.6
Limited duration	248,783	26.8	106,983	23.2	141,799	30.4
Less than 12 months	174,999	18.8	72,120	15.6	102,879	22.0
12 months to less than 36 months	40,602	4.4	19,337	4.2	21,265	4.6
36 months or more	33,181	3.6	15,527	3.4	17,655	3.8
Total young wage and salaried workers	928,532	100.0	461,424	100.0	467,107	100.0

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

### 3.7.5 Self-employment

Self-employed youth represent 67.5 per cent of total young workers in Cambodia, summing 16.3 per cent young own-account workers, 50.8 per cent young contributing (unpaid) family workers and 0.4 per cent young employers. Table 32 presents the reasons why young own-account workers have taken up such work. The largest share, 40.6 per cent, chose to be self-employed because it allowed them greater independence for their own business. The second and third most common reasons imply that the young person turned to self-employment for involuntary reasons; 23.5 per cent stated they followed the family requirement and 21.6 per cent said they were able to find higher income level, following by 11.9 per cent said they had been unable to find a waged or salaried job. These four reasons are found in both urban and rural areas. However, the reason of greater independence was cited more often by urban than rural youth (45.5 per cent and 39.9 per cent, respectively), and higher income level were more common for urban than rural youth (27.9 per cent and 20.7 per cent, respectively), while family requirements were more common for rural than urban youth (24.3 per cent and 18.1 per cent, respectively).

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

	Total		Urban		Rural	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Could not find a wage or salary job	77,334	11.9	6,029	7.5	71,304	12.5
Greater independence	263,630	40.6	36,648	45.5	226,981	39.9
More flexible hours of work	14,940	2.3	786	1.0	14,155	2.5
Higher income level	140,009	21.6	22,501	27.9	117,508	20.7
Required by the family	152,542	23.5	14,586	18.1	137,957	24.3
Other	951	0.1	0	0.0	951	0.2
<b>Total self-employed workers</b>	<b>649,406</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>80,551</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>568,855</b>	<b>100.0</b>

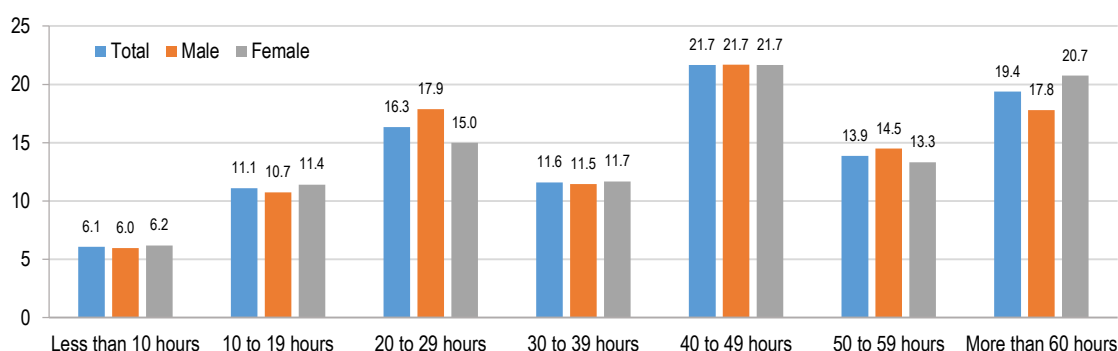
Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

The young self-employed claim their most significant business challenge as insufficient financial resources (43.9 per cent) (Table A8). Competition in the market and labour shortage are the second and third position (23.0 and 10.9 per cent, respectively). Table A9 confirms that very few of the self-employed are accessing formal financial services. Only 3.0 per cent of young self-employed youth took a bank loan to start their business. About 7.8 per cent received a loan from a microfinance institution, 3.0 per cent of young self-employed youth took a bank loan to start their business, and 2.1 per cent took a loan from an informal loan operator, but by far the largest shares used their own funds (51.2 per cent) or received the funds from their family or friends (31.1 per cent).

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

Figure 8 shows the distribution of youth employment by actual hours worked per week. Most young people work full time: 54.9 per cent of working youth work at least 40 hours per week. Nearly one-thirds (32.6) per cent of working youth can be said to work an excessive number of hours (50 or more hours per week). About 34.9 per cent of youth work part-time (less than 30 hours per week) with only a small portion (8.6 per cent) stating they would like to work more hours (Table 33). There is little difference in hours of work between the sexes; slightly more young women work long hours (greater than 50 hours per week) than young men (33.0 per cent and 32.1 per cent, respectively). Also, the tendency towards long hours is slightly greater in urban areas compared to rural areas (39.9 per cent and 31.1 per cent, respectively).

**Figure 8. Distribution of youth employment by actual hours worked per week by sex (%)**



Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

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

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Young involuntary part-time workers (share in total youth employment)	336,805	8.6	164,389	9.2	172,416	8.2

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

### 3.7.7 Other job quality indicators

The SWTS also allows measuring the quality of jobs to which young people have access. Following ILO guidelines, figure 9 attempts to characterize the youth labour market in the country along a job quality continuum. Within the realm of low quality employment on the left-hand side of the figure are the following five indicators:

1. The share of own-account workers and paid employees with below average weekly wages or income<sup>9</sup> (poorly paid);
2. The share of over- or undereducated workers<sup>10</sup> (qualification mismatch);
3. The share of workers with contract of duration of less than 12 months, own-account workers and contributing (unpaid) family workers<sup>11</sup> (irregular employment);
4. The share of workers in informal employment (excluding employment in agriculture)<sup>12</sup> (informal employment); and
5. The share of workers that claim dissatisfaction with their current job (non-satisfactory employment).

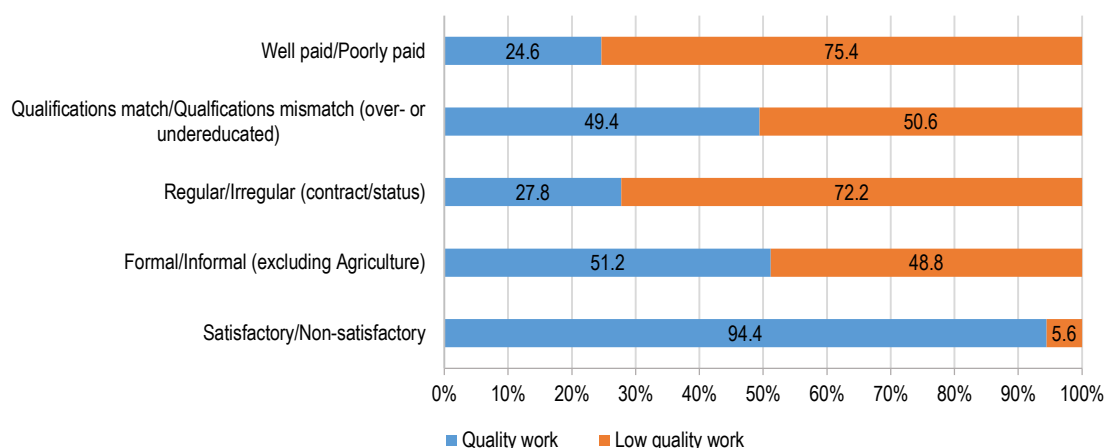
<sup>9</sup> Monthly wages of employees and daily, monthly or other time-specific earnings of own-account workers were converted into weekly rates for comparability. Contributing (unpaid) family workers are excluded from the calculation.

<sup>10</sup> The methodology applied is that of the normative ISCO-based approach described below. Table 36 provides the matching across ISCO and ISCED educational codes.

<sup>11</sup> Persons not classifiable by status in employment are also included in the category of irregular employment.

<sup>12</sup> Informal employment is measured according to the guidelines recommended by the 17<sup>th</sup> International Conference of Labour Statisticians. It includes the following sub-categories of workers: (a) paid employees in “informal jobs”, i.e. jobs without either a social security entitlement, paid annual leave or paid sick leave; (b) paid employees in an unregistered enterprise with size class below five employees; (c) own-account workers in an unregistered enterprise with size class below five employees; (d) employers in an unregistered enterprise with size class below five employees; and (e) contributing family workers. The agricultural sector is excluded in the case of Cambodia and presented separately in Table 35.

**Figure 9. Indicators measuring quality of youth employment (%)**



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

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

The blue bars of the figure represents the shares of better quality employment based on above average wages, qualifications, stability, formality (security), and satisfaction. Unfortunately, there is a greater presence of red, representing “low quality” work, in the chart, which indicates numerous issues of concerns regarding the quality of available work in the country. First, low pay is an issue. Slightly more than three-quarters (75.4 per cent) of employees and own-account workers are taking home less than the average weekly wages. At the same time nearly three-quarters (72.2 per cent) of young workers are in what we classify as irregular work (self-employment plus employees with temporary contracts). The temporary nature of the contract and sporadic nature of self-employment are likely to impact on the sense of security and well-being of the youth. Improve conditions of work by ensuring equal treatment for and rights of young workers.

Adding more detail to the issue of low wages, Table 34 presents the average monthly wages of young employees and own-account workers by occupation. The table shows little wage advantage to being a paid employee as opposed to working as an own-account worker. The average wage of the young paid employee (657,962 Riels per month) is only slightly higher than the own-account worker (654,698 Riels per month). Among employees and own-account workers, the average pay of young males is higher than young females, but the gender wage gaps varies by occupation. Regarding the occupational distribution, wages are highest among managers followed by professionals within the employees group. The most lucrative profession among young own-account workers also appears to be professionals, followed by technicians and associate professionals and plant and machine operators.

**Table 34. Average monthly wages (in Riels)<sup>13</sup> of employees and own-account workers by occupation and sex**

Average monthly wage in Riels	Employees			Own-account workers		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Managers	922,473	1,197,827	794,548	800,000	800,000	0
Professionals	800,700	698,824	868,648	1,615,931	1,550,378	2,000,000
Technicians and associate professionals	610,184	690,848	561,313	1,185,136	471,335	3,000,000
Clerks	666,657	544,237	731,575	600,000	0	600,000
Service workers shop and market sales workers	482,881	536,090	457,631	878,486	942,578	861,183
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	666,036	829,975	422,270	483,440	591,544	363,242
Craft and related trade workers	671,674	763,614	602,719	443,130	552,771	370,393
Plant and machine operator and assemblers	874,957	913,859	553,629	1,111,552	1,114,294	1,080,000
Elementary occupations	612,188	616,559	604,031	681,175	686,023	650,000
Armed forces	524,111	524,111	0	0	0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>657,962</b>	<b>706,071</b>	<b>612,818</b>	<b>654,698</b>	<b>696,502</b>	<b>625,143</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

Informal employment is a significant concern in Cambodia. Table 35 shows that 48.8 per cent of young workers in Cambodia fall into the category of informal employment. This share is likely to be severely underestimated due to the exclusion of the agricultural sector, where half of young workers are engaged. Informal employment in the agricultural sector is likely to exist in large numbers. Within the category of informal employment, 51.9 per cent are in employment in the informal sector (meaning they are working in unregistered enterprises) and 48.1 per cent are in an informal job in the formal sector (without social security benefits and/or paid annual or sick leave). Young female workers have a slightly higher change of engaging in informal employment (51.7 per cent compared to 45.4 per cent for young men), and within the category are more likely than young men to be engaged in the informal sector as opposed to working under an informal arrangement in the formal sector.

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

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total youth employment</b>	3,902,316	100.0	1,794,102	100.0	2,108,215	100.0
Youth informal employment (excluding agriculture)	1,904,187	48.8	814,823	45.4	1,089,363	51.7
Employment in the informal sector (share in informal employment)	988,169	51.9	391,672	48.1	596,496	54.8
Informal employment outside the informal sector (share in informal employment)	916,018	48.1	423,151	51.9	492,867	45.2
Youth formal employment (excluding agriculture)	158,747	4.1	68,785	3.8	89,962	4.3
Youth employment in agriculture	1,839,383	47.1	910,494	50.7	928,889	44.1

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

<sup>13</sup> As of 30 June 2014, the National Bank of Cambodia, Official exchange rate was 4,040 Cambodian Riels to the US dollar.

## *Qualification mismatch*

One means of measuring the mismatch between the job that a person does and their level of educational qualifications is to apply the normative measure of occupational skills categories from the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO). ISCO-08 includes a categorization of major occupational groups (first-digit ISCO levels) by level of education in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED)<sup>14</sup> that is reproduced in Table 36.

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

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

Source: ILO, 2013, table 3.

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

The result for Cambodian youth is that a slight majority of young workers are in occupations that match their level of education (49.4 per cent) compared to workers whose occupations they are overeducated or undereducated for (50.6 per cent) (Figure 9). Table 37 provides the breakdown: 5.6 per cent of young working Cambodians is overeducated and 45.0 per cent is undereducated. The results are, in part, a reflection of the levels of education attained by youth in the country. With a substantial share of employed youth completing education at the secondary or primary level, it is not overly surprising to find more youth classified as undereducated than overeducated.

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

<sup>14</sup> For more information on this ISCO-based along with other methods of measuring skills mismatches, see Quintini (2011).

bottom of the educational pyramid. The less-educated youth find themselves at the back of the queue even for those jobs for which they are best qualified.

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

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

Major occupational categories (ISCO-08)	Overeducated	Undereducated
Managers	0.0	63.2
Professionals	0.0	72.3
Technicians and associate professionals	0.0	81.3
Clerical support workers	35.1	7.7
Service and sales workers	7.1	35.8
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	1.1	56.9
Craft and related trade workers	2.1	38.3
Plant and machine operator and assemblers	0.0	36.0
Elementary occupations	34.1	11.5
<b>Share in total non-student youth employment</b>	<b>5.6</b>	<b>45.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

### **3.7.8 Security and satisfaction**

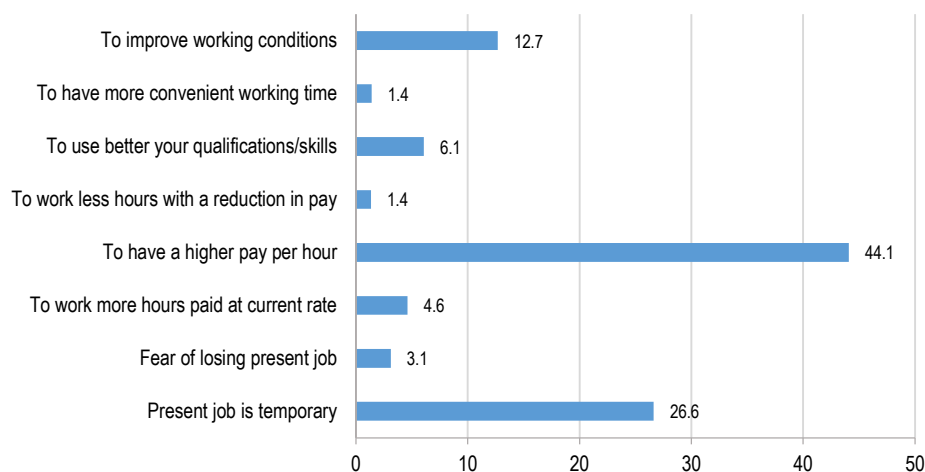
One surprising element that came in the examination of job quality indicators in Figure 10 is that despite some indications of poor quality employment, the vast majority of young people have expressed satisfaction with their work (including both paid and self-employment) (94.4 per cent) (Table A6). The seeming contradiction of a young person working in a job that might bring little in terms of monetary reward and stability claiming job satisfaction is a likely reflection of the ability of youth to adapt to realities where not many “good” jobs exist. In the context of a fast-growth, full employment market with very low unemployment rates, simply having a job seems to outweigh issues of poor job quality.

One can dig further into issues of job satisfaction by the indication of whether or not the working youth would like to change his/her job. A significant share of young workers (53.0 per cent) said they would like to change their job. The most common reasons for wanting to change work are to have a higher pay per hour (44.1 per cent), the temporary nature of the work (26.6 per cent) and to improve working conditions (12.7 per cent) (Figure 10).



Most of the working youth in the country believed they would be able to keep their main job within the period of 12 months from the reference date (90.2 per cent of working youth). Only 7.8 per cent felt they would not be able to work at the same job over the coming period (the remaining 2.0 per cent of young workers was unable to judge).

**Figure 10. Employed youth who would like to change their work by reason (%)**



Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

### **3.7.9 The job search**

Young people were asked about their job search method, and the information presented in Table 38 allows comparability across employed (in how they found their job) and unemployed youth (in how they are looking for a job). With respect to employed youth, most of them joined the family establishment (45.5 per cent), followed at a large distance by 33.9 per cent who looked for their current job by using informal networks of friends, relatives and acquaintances. However, the largest portion of unemployed youth looked for work among their network of friends, relatives and family (44.9 per cent). Curiously, the second and third most common job search methods used by the unemployed – placing or answering job advertisements (25.7 per cent) and inquiring directly at workplaces (12.0 per cent) – did not prove to be hugely successful methods for the currently employed. Only 1.8 per cent of unemployed youth and 0.7 per cent of employment were registered at an employment center.

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

	Employed		Unemployed	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Registered at an employment center	26,332	0.7	1,790	1.8
Placed/answered job advertisements	97,364	2.6	25,121	25.7
Inquired directly at factories, farms or other workplaces	137,327	3.7	11,753	12.0
Took a test or an interview	208,722	5.6	7,144	7.3
Asked friends, relatives	1,261,567	33.9	43,905	44.9
Waited on the street to be recruited for casual work	1,389	0.0	1,532	1.6
Sought financial assistance to look for work	65,939	1.8	4,061	4.1
Looked for land, machinery to start own business or farming	220,040	5.9	1,270	1.3
Applied for permit or license to start a business	3,928	0.1	0	0.0
Joined the family establishment	1,692,475	45.5	-	-
Other method	1,436	0.0	1,282	1.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>3,716,517</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>97,858</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

### General policy messages on youth employment:

- Encourage financial inclusion of youth. Measures aimed at improving financial inclusion and access to credit for existing enterprises are likely to stimulate labour demand and generate new employment opportunities for young people.
- Increase the relevance and funding of employment services in order to raise the attractiveness of employment offices as a placement tool for job seeking youth.
- Investing in the training of young workers could help them to raise their skills level and to be more productive at the work they do, bringing potential gains to both themselves in terms of monetary rewards and to the profit line of companies.

## 4. Stages of transition

### 4.1 Concepts and definitions<sup>15</sup>

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

<sup>15</sup> This section is adapted from ILO (2013), chapter 5.

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

The contrary is termed non-satisfactory employment, implying a sense of dissatisfaction about the job.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

of Figure 9 above. And by definition, they make up the bulk of the country’s share of irregularly employed. Yet still they have professed a degree of satisfaction with their job and they are likely to have finished their transition in the sense of remaining in the self-employed classification for the remainder of their working lives. To summarize, rather than a normative concept, the stages of transition classification is intended to offer a flow concept. A person is “in transition” until they reach a resting point in the labour market; good or bad quality job, it is one that they are likely to maintain.

## 4.2 Stages of transition

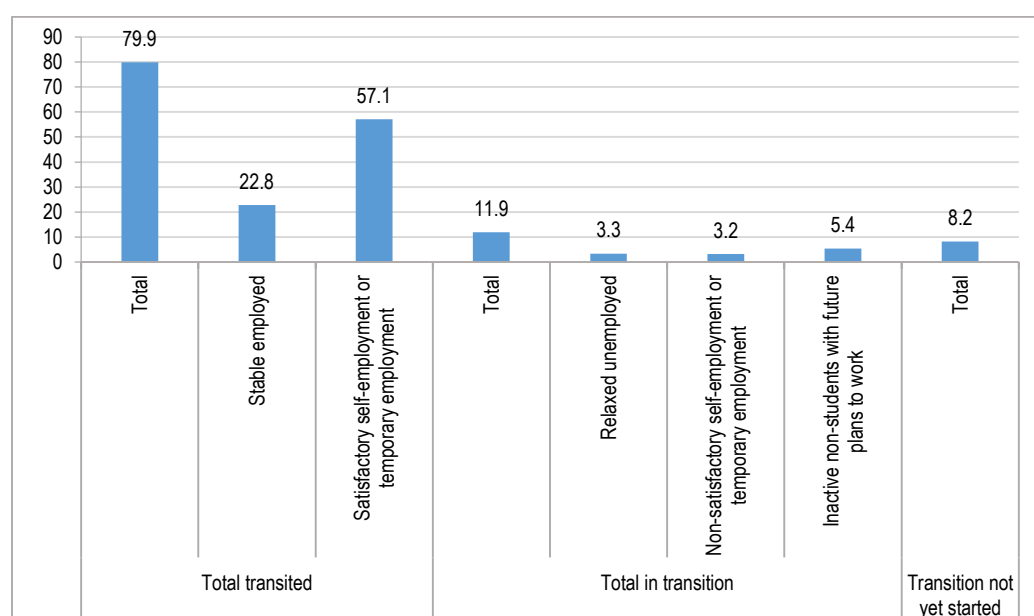
Using the classification of stages of transition, the largest share of the youth population in Cambodia has already completed the transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment (79.9 per cent), and most to satisfactory self-employment (57.1 per cent) (Table 39 and Figure 11). The percentage of youth still in the process of transition is 11.9 per cent and the share of youth who have not yet started the transition is 8.2 per cent. There are more males than females in the “transited” category, as well as among those who have not yet started their transition. However, more young women are “in transition” than young men.

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

	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Transited	3,752,245	79.9	1,725,809	83.6	2,026,435	77.0
In transition	557,826	11.9	163,753	7.9	394,073	15.0
Transition not yet started	386,435	8.2	175,701	8.5	210,734	8.0
<b>Total youth population</b>	<b>4,696,506</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2,065,263</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2,631,242</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

**Figure 11. Youth population by stages of transition (%)**



Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

Table 40 presents the stage of transition distributed across characteristics such as age group, sex, area of residence and household's overall financial situation. The likelihood of completing the transition increases with age; 87.0 per cent of youth in the upper age band of 25-29 years have completed the transition, compared to 73.8 per cent of the "younger" youth aged 15-19 years. The younger age group, on the other hand, is that which is most likely to remain the category of transition not yet started (16.8 per cent), which is logical given the likelihood they are still in school. Urban youth are more likely to remain in education and start the transition later (20.9 per cent compared to 5.0 per cent of rural youth) while rural youth are more likely to fall in the economically active categories of transition completed. Regarding the influence of household income,<sup>16</sup> it becomes clear that household wealth determines the ability of youth to stay in school and thus be more likely to fall in the category of transition not yet started (16.8 per cent of youth in well-off households are in the category compared to 2.4 per cent of youth in poor households).

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

	Transited		In transition		Transition not yet started		Total	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Age group</b>								
15-19	1,416,270	73.8	181,255	9.4	322,226	16.8	1,919,751	100.0
20-24	1,252,161	81.8	230,274	15.0	48,947	3.2	1,531,382	100.0
25-29	1,083,814	87.0	146,296	11.7	15,263	1.2	1,245,373	100.0
<b>Sex</b>								
Male	1,725,809	83.6	163,753	7.9	175,701	8.5	2,065,263	100.0
Female	2,026,435	77.0	394,073	15.0	210,734	8.0	2,631,242	100.0
<b>Place of residence</b>								
Urban	637,365	67.0	115,123	12.1	198,390	20.9	950,879	100.0
Rural	3,114,879	83.2	442,702	11.8	188,045	5.0	3,745,627	100.0
<b>Household's overall financial situation</b>								
Well off	24,894	76.0	2,336	7.1	5,508	16.8	32,737	100.0
Fairly well off	278,754	70.6	31,342	7.9	84,986	21.5	395,083	100.0
Around the national average	2,688,281	81.3	365,870	11.1	250,770	7.6	3,304,920	100.0
Fairly poor	666,383	78.4	140,809	16.6	42,453	5.0	849,645	100.0
Poor	93,933	82.3	17,469	15.3	2,719	2.4	114,120	100.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>3,752,245</b>		<b>557,825</b>		<b>386,436</b>		<b>4,696,506</b>	

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

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

As shown in Table 41, most of the young people who have not yet started the transition were still in school (96.7 per cent) and only 3.3 per cent were inactive and not intending to look for work. For young men, 99.1 per cent were in school compared to 94.7 per cent of young women. The remaining 5.3 per cent of young women were inactive and not intending to look for work compared to 0.9 per cent of young men.

<sup>16</sup> The rating of household income level is based on the perception of the young respondent.

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

Sub-category	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
In-school	373,634	96.7	174,124	99.1	199,510	94.7
Currently inactive no school with no intention of looking for work	12,801	3.3	1,577	0.9	11,224	5.3
<b>Total youth transition not started</b>	<b>386,435</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>175,701</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>210,734</b>	<b>100.0</b>

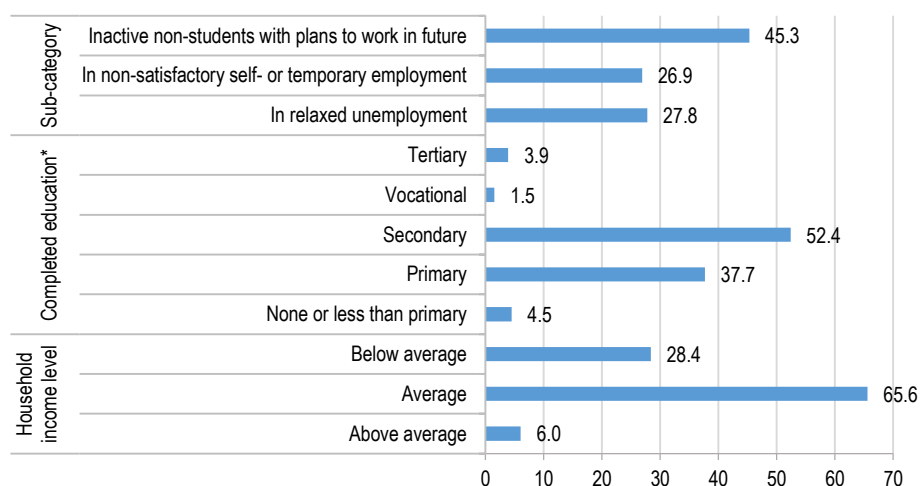
Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

#### 4.2.2 Youth in transition

A young person is classified as “in transition” if s/he is either unemployed (relaxed definition), engaged in self-employment or in a paid temporary job that they have expressed dissatisfaction with, or is an inactive non-student with an attachment to the labour market, indicated by their expressed desire to work in the future. Figure 12 presents the category of youth “in transition” in greater detail, with disaggregation by sub-category, sex, urban/rural geography and level of completed educational attainment (excluding current students).

Regarding the reason for the classification as “in transition”, there is a biggest share of youth who are temporary inactive non-student with plans to work in future (45.3 per cent) while nearly equal shares of youth who are unemployment (27.8 per cent) and youth who are currently working in non-satisfactory temporary or self-employment (26.9 per cent). About 52.4 per cent of youth “in transition” have completed education at secondary level and another 37.7 per cent have completed education at the lower (primary) level. Those with tertiary education represent the lowest share at 3.9 per cent, which offers hints that having a higher level degree helps to get the youth out of the transition phase. The level of household income also seems to have an influence on the transition stage: 28.4 per cent of youth remaining in transition come from households having below average income levels.

**Figure 12. “In transition” youth by level of household income, level of completed educational attainment and sub-category (%)**



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

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

Table 42 shows the cross-tabulations of the sub-categories of in transition youth by the same variables shown in Figure 12. One interesting inference that can be drawn from the table is that the youth from wealthier households have a slight advantage in avoiding non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment since the family would seem better able to support them through the unemployment process or to stay in school. Higher education affects positively the chance of having a stable employment. It is also interesting to note that the lesser educated youth are more likely to fall in the category of non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment than youth with vocational or tertiary education. The interpretation here being that those who have invested more time in education could be more reluctant to take any job which does not satisfy them. The higher educated youth, then, are more likely to spend the transition from education to work in unemployment or inactive with plans to work in the future.

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

	Transited				In transition			Total “in transition” (%)
	Stable employment	Satisfactory Self-employment	Satisfactory temporary employment	Total “transited” (%)	Unemployed (relaxed definition)	Non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment	Inactive nonstudent with plan to work in future	
<b>Total</b>	1,069,241	2,493,718	189,286	100.0	155,048	150,071	252,706	100.0
Male	531,140	1,115,777	78,893	46.0	60,318	68,292	35,142	29.4
Female	538,101	1,377,941	110,393	54.0	94,730	81,779	217,564	70.6
Urban	315,708	298,498	23,159	17.0	52,312	15,933	46,878	20.6
Rural	753,533	2,195,220	166,127	83.0	102,735	134,138	205,828	79.4
<b>Household income level</b>								
Well off	7,016	16,441	1,436	0.7	603	0	1,732	0.4
Fairly well off	36,878	228,914	12,962	7.4	8,176	9,825	13,342	5.6
Around the national average	729,160	1,805,866	153,255	71.6	112,178	87,286	166,405	65.6
Fairly poor	251,488	394,995	19,900	17.8	31,070	45,241	64,498	25.2
Poor	44,699	47,502	1,732	2.5	3,020	7,719	6,730	3.1
<b>Completed education (excluding current students)</b>								
None or less than primary	51,969	105,692	5,594	4.4	6,022	2,197	12,080	3.6
Primary	351,134	785,854	56,129	31.8	32,463	40,676	98,247	30.7
Secondary	453,507	802,130	89,616	35.9	54,590	54,604	128,966	42.7
Vocational	60,542	32,862	1,010	2.5	1,399	0	5,611	1.3
Tertiary	69,801	47,784	10,204	3.4	9,999	0	7,802	3.2

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

### 4.2.3 Characteristics of a completed transition

Figure 13 compares the stages of “completed transition” and “in transition” youth according to a breakdown by the variables of sex, area of residence, household income and level of educational attainment with the intention of identifying if there are any obvious advantages brought to the outcome of the transition. Looking at the youth either in transition or with completed transition only, one can draw the following conclusions: First, young men have a slight advantage in completing the transition than young women (91.3 per cent of young men (in the two groups) have completed the transition compared to 83.7 per cent of young women). Second, living in a rural area slightly increases the youth’s chances of completing the transition (87.6 per cent of rural youth have completed the transition compared to 84.7 per cent of youth in urban areas).

Youth from wealthier households have a higher likelihood to complete the transition as opposed to remaining in transition, although the difference in shares across the two categories is not large (90.0 per cent of youth in above average wealth households completed the transition compared to 82.8 per cent of youth in below average income households). About 41.8 per cent of youth who completed their transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment had completed education at the secondary level or higher compared to 47.2 per cent of youth remaining in transition (Table 42). About 4.4 per cent of the transitioned youth had low levels of education (primary or less), compared to 3.6 per cent of the youth remaining in transition.

**Figure 13. Distribution of transition groups (transited and in-transition youth) by sex, urban/rural geography, household income level and level of educational attainment (%)**



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

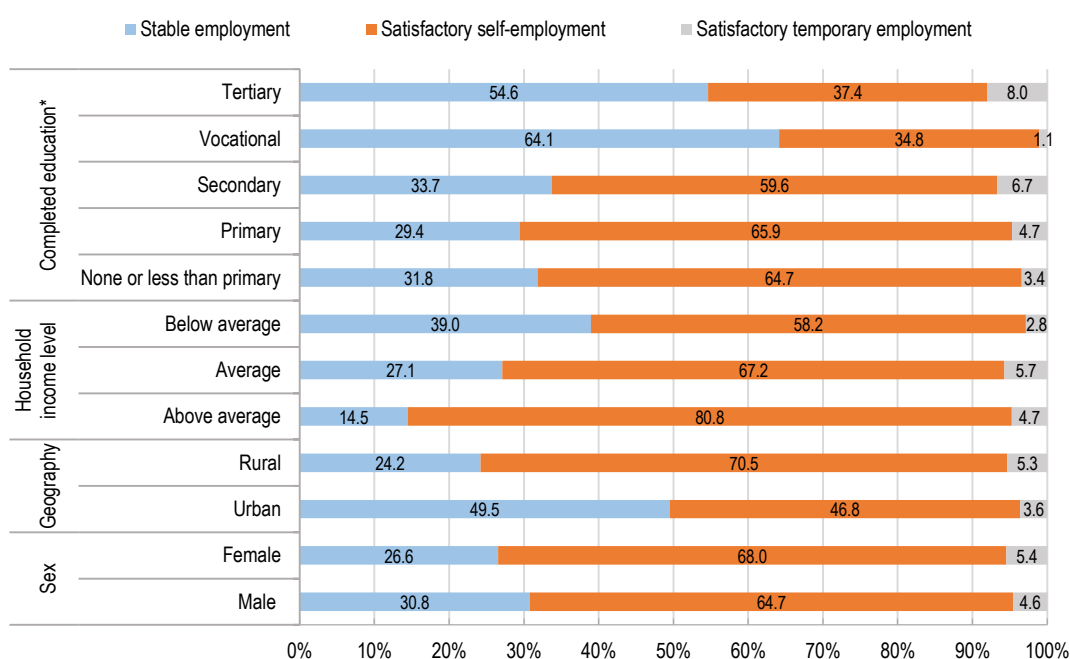
Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.



Most of the transited young people have attained a satisfactory self-employment job (66.5 per cent), 28.5 per cent are in stable employment and the remaining 5.0 per cent are in a job that is satisfactory but temporary (calculated from Table 42). Certainly there are job quality implications for the youth in the various sub-categories of completed transition. The young person may have stopped moving around between labour market categories, but s/he has not necessarily attained quality employment. Figure 14 allows us to determine which characteristics are more likely to result in a transition to the most advantageous category of transited to stable employment compared to the second-best category of transited to satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment.

Young men who have completed their transition to the labour market have a slightly higher likelihood to attain stable employment than young women (30.8 and 26.6 per cent, respectively). The share of transited youth in stable employment is lesser than youth in satisfactory self-employment in rural areas, and urban youth have a higher chance to attain stable employment (49.5 per cent compared to 24.2 per cent of rural “transited” youth). Similarly, transited youth have a greater tendency to be in satisfactory self-employment regardless of household income level, but the likelihood to end up in satisfactory temporary employment shows an inverse relationship to the level of household wealth with poorer household having a greater tendency to have youth working in satisfactory temporary work (most likely seasonal agricultural work). The more dramatic results come with the education level: The higher the educational attainment of the youth, the more likely s/he is to attain stable employment over satisfactory self- or temporary employment. Nearly one-half (54.6 per cent) of transited youth with a tertiary degree are in stable employment compared to 45.4 per cent in satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment.

**Figure 14. “Transited” youth by sub-category and by sex, urban/rural geography, household income level and level of educational attainment (%)**



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

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

Finally, we can look at which occupations young people have obtained in their transition. Comparing the occupations of the transited youth to that of the general employed youth population can provide information on which occupations are the better providers of stable and satisfactory jobs. Table 43 shows the sub-categories by occupation. The distribution by occupations of transited youth follows perfectly the descending order of occupations of the overall employed youth population; most transited youth are employed as skilled agricultural workers (45.1 per cent) similar to the broader group while the smallest share of both groups are youth in the armed forces and working as managers.

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

	Total employed youth	Total transited youth	"Transited" youth		
			Stable employment	Satisfactory self-employment	Satisfactory temporary employment
Managers	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.2	2.4
Professionals	3.2	3.3	10.2	0.3	4.0
Technicians and associate professionals	1.5	1.6	3.5	0.3	7.9
Clerks	1.6	1.7	4.3	0.4	3.8
Service and sales workers	20.2	20.3	12.5	24.8	6.0
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	45.1	44.1	1.6	65.3	4.4
Craft and related trade workers	18.1	18.5	39.0	6.8	57.6
Plant and machine operator and assemblers	2.3	2.3	5.1	0.9	4.7
Elementary occupations	7.3	7.5	22.3	1.0	9.3
Armed forces	0.3	0.3	0.9	0.0	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

There is significant difference in the occupational distribution of youth who have attained stable employment and youth engaged in satisfactory self-employment or satisfactory temporary employment. Youth in stable employment are primarily engaged in crafts and related trade work (39.0 per cent) as are youth in temporary self-employment, but the two sub-categories are the only to capture significant shares of the higher-skilled occupations – professionals, technicians and associate professionals and managers. The sub-category of satisfactory self-employment is dominated by youth in skilled agriculture work (65.3 per cent) and services and sales workers (24.8 per cent).

### 4.3 Transition paths and lengths of transition

Another means of looking at the school-to-work transition is through flows, identifying the labour market category held by the young person prior to transiting to stable or satisfactory employment. In Cambodia 29.6 per cent made a direct transition (29.6 per cent), meaning they had no intermediary spells before acquiring their current job, which is classified as either stable in contract terms or satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment (Table 44). One-third (31.3 per cent) of transited youth previously contributing (unpaid) family workers, and another one third (30.8 per cent) came from the category of "other employment". Only 6.8 per cent of transited youth

came from inactivity, 1.4 per cent from self-employment and 0.1 per cent from unemployment.

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

	Number	(%)
Direct transition	864,960	29.6
Flowed from unemployment	3,804	0.1
Flowed from self-employment	39,783	1.4
Flowed from contributing (unpaid) family worker	913,440	31.3
Flowed from other employment**	897,804	30.8
Flowed from inactivity	199,731	6.8
<b>Total transited, non-students</b>	<b>2,919,520</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Notes: Excluding current students

\*\* Other employment\*\* includes wage workers and those who are engaged in apprenticeships

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

Table 45 presents some transition path indicators which provide a more detailed picture of how youth arrived to the transition stage. Excluding the youth who transited directly to stable or satisfactory employment, the path to transition involved, on average, about 2 (1.78) intermediary labour market activities – whether unemployment, employment or inactivity – prior to completing the labour market transition. The typical young person in the country experienced “only” one spell of temporary employment in their transition path and one spell of self-employment, but the spells of both were long, averaging 9.7 months for temporary employment and much longer, 32.6 months or 2.7 years, for self-employment. The average young transited female spent longer in temporary employment than the young male (10.1 months compared to 8.7 months), while the average young transited male spent slightly longer in self-employment than young females (34.4 months compared to 31.2 months).

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

	Total	Male	Female
Average duration of transition, excluding direct transits (months)	89.0 months	92.0 months	86.7 months
Average duration of transition, including direct transits (months)	15.1 months	14.0 months	16.0 months
Average duration of transition to stable employment (months)	16.8 months	16.3 months	17.4 months
Average duration of transition to satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment (months)	14.2 months	12.7 months	15.3 months
Average number of intermediary activities	1.78	1.85	1.74
Average number of unemployment spells	*	*	*
Average duration of unemployment spells (months)	*	*	*
Average number of temporary employment spells	1.19	1.1	1.23
Average duration of temporary employment spells (months)	9.7 months	8.7 months	10.1 months
Average number of spells of self-employment	1.08	1.1	1.06
Average duration of spells of self-employment (months)	32.6 months	34.4 months	31.2 months

Notes: Excluding current students

\* Insignificant number of observations

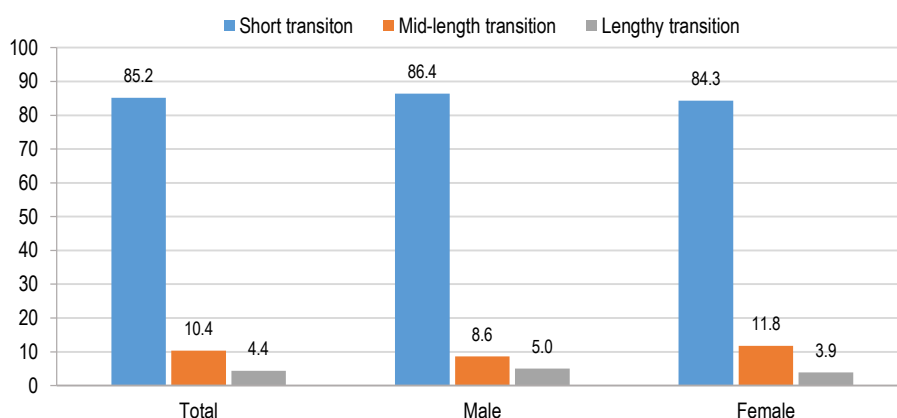
Note: Excluding youth who made a direct transition except where indicated

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

When one includes the young people who transitioned directly to stable and/or satisfactory employment to generate an average duration of transition, the results show the duration of the transition period to be slightly more than 1 year (16.8 months). Removing the number of youth who transitioned directly from the calculation, however, reveals a very different picture. The path to transition was not especially circuitous for those who did not move directly to stable and/or satisfactory work (with 1.78 spells of intermediary activities), but it was extremely long at 89 months, or more than seven years. The time spent in transition averaged more than five months longer for young men compared to young women (92 and 86.7 months, respectively).

The ILO has also developed a classification system for the duration of the transition period of youth who have completed the transition.<sup>17</sup> Given the prevalence of direct transitions (42.1 per cent), the large share of transitioned youth who undertook a short transition (85.2 per cent) is not too surprising (Figure 15). Only 4.4 per cent of transitioned youth spent a long time to reach the current status in stable or satisfactory employment. The difference between the sexes is negligible.

**Figure 15. Classification of duration of transition of youth who have completed the transition by sex (%)**



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

Source: SWTS-Cambodia, 2014.

<sup>17</sup> A **short transition** is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent either: (1) a direct transition; or (2) a spell (or cumulative spells) of stable or satisfactory employment with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or (3) a spell (or cumulative spells) of employment of less than or equal to one year with no spell of unemployment or inactivity where the job(s) held is classified as non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment; or (4) a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of less than or equal to three months; or (5) a spell of inactivity of less than or equal to one year.

A **mid-length transition** is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent either: (1) a spell (or cumulative spells) of non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment of between one and two years with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or (2) a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of between three months and one year; or (3) a spell of inactivity longer than one year.

A **lengthy transition** is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent either: (1) a spell (or cumulative spells) of non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment of two years or over with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or (2) a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of one year or over.

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## Annex I. Definitions of labour market statistics

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

of household includes members present in the place where the household resides, as well as individuals who are temporary absent and living elsewhere, including abroad, for business, education or other, as long as their residence in the foreign country does not exceed one year. A person living alone can also qualify as a household (“single household”) if she does not already belong to another unit. The single household can reside in a separate or shared apartment, and it will be considered as an independent unit as long as the household’s income is not shared with other residents. Collective households such as prisons and institutions and their members are not observed in the LFS.

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



## **Annex II. Methodology for the Cambodia SWTS 2014**

### **Questionnaire development**

The questionnaire for the Cambodia School-to-Work Transition Survey 2014 (SWTS) was developed based on the guidelines of the ILO Youth Employment Programme and the “Work for Youth” Project modelled SWTS questionnaires. The questionnaire asked youth aged 15-29 questions according to seven main sections. These sections included general information about their personal, family and households, information about their formal education/training and their aspirations, and their activity history. It also included detailed information about the experiences of young people in each of the five target groups: in-school youth, jobseekers, young workers, young self-employed and own-account workers, and youth who are neither in school nor in the labour market.

### **Sample design and selection**

#### ***Sampling frame***

The SWTS 2014 in Cambodia will be run as a stand-alone survey and will be based on latest available sampling frame. The latest updated frame from 2008 Population Census is used as sampling frame. The sample design proposed by ILO consultant had envisaged a total sample of 160 Enumeration Areas (EAs), of which 123 EAs in rural area and 37 EAs in urban area (Table 1). With 16 households will be selected in each EA, the sample size will be equivalent to 2,560 households.

#### **Sampling design**

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

#### ***Stage 1: Selecting enumeration areas (EAs)***

The sample size of 160 EAs are selected with probability proportional to the EA size according to the sample allocation given in table 1. The enumeration areas (EAs) will be arranged by geographical code and the number of regular households cumulated. The sample EAs will then be selected using the Probability Proportional to Size with Linear Systematic Sampling and Random start method.

1. Compute the lower and upper cumulative of the number of regular households of every EAs in each province-urban or rural.
2. Calculate the sampling interval by dividing the total number of regular households in every province with urban or rural by the number of EAs selected in province-urban or rural.
3. Pick up a random start between 1 and the sampling interval for province-urban or rural.
4. Continue adding the fix sampling interval according to the number of EAs selected in province-urban or rural.
5. Identify sample province-urban or rural with EA number.

**Stage 2: Selecting households (hhs)**

This stage a fixed sample size of 16 households will be selected within each sample EA. Firstly, all household having youth aged 15-29 years old in each selected EA will be listed prior household selection. Then, the sample households will be selected from the household listing by equal probability circular systematic sampling (CSS).

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

Let **H** be the number of households in the household listing sheet in an EA and allocated number of households to be **h**.

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

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

Then the set of selected households are:

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

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

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

**Table 1. Number of sample EAs for SWTS in Cambodia 2014**

Code	Provinces	Urban	Rural	Total
1	Banteay Meanchey	2	5	7
2	Battambang	2	7	9
3	Kampong Cham	1	15	16
4	Kampong Chhnang	1	5	6
5	Kampong Speu	1	7	8
6	Kanpong Thom	1	6	7
7	Kampot	1	6	7
8	Kandal	1	10	11
9	Koh Kong	1	2	3
10	Kratie	1	3	4
11	Mondul Kiri	1	2	3
12	Phnom Penh	11	2	13
13	Preah Vihear	1	2	3
14	Prey Veng	1	12	13
15	Pursat	1	4	5
16	Rattanak Kiri	1	2	3
17	Siem Reap	2	7	9
18	Preah Sihanouk	1	2	3
19	Stung Treng	1	2	3
20	Svay Rieng	1	6	7
21	Takeo	1	10	11
22	Otdar Meanchey	1	2	3
23	Kep	1	2	3
24	Pailin	1	2	3
<b>Cambodia</b>		<b>37</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>160</b>

## **Data collection**

### *Pilot test of SWTS questionnaires*

Before going to the field for the pilot test, 8 staff received a three-day training on how to carry out data collection from 01 to 03 July 2014 at the National Institute of Statistics (NIS). The training consisted of 2 days of training, and 1 day for field-testing of the draft questionnaire and for reviewing the field test. Observed difficulties and problems during the field test served as additional inputs for further revisions and improvements of the questionnaire, and better understanding of the data collection process.

The data collection of the pilot test was conducted from 04 to 08 July 2014. The EA map from the population census of 2008, the household listing form and the draft questionnaire were used in the pilot test.

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

### *Survey of SWTS*

Training programmes were arranged for survey supervisors and enumerators for the Cambodia SWTS 2014. Before carrying out the field work of the main survey, 40 staff members received a four-day training on how to carry out data collection from 14 to 17 July 2014 at the NIS. The training consisted of 2 days of training on the survey, 1 day for field-test, and 1 day for reviewing the field test. NIS survey coordinators also participated in the training in order to provide their experience and offer advice regarding complicated and difficult questions, or unclear definitions. Observed difficulties and problems during the field test served as additional inputs for further revisions and improvement understanding of the data collection process.

The field data collection operation was conducted by eight teams and each team consisted of one supervisor and four enumerators. The fieldwork was carried out for 28 days, from 21 July to 17 August 2014. One team covered 20 EAs for data collection.

Using the selected sample village provided, the enumerators first visited the sample villages, and selected one sample Enumeration Area (EA) where the village leader lived. They contacted the local authorities (village leader) to inform them about the survey and to ask for necessary assistance. Sixteen households having youth members aged 15-29 years were randomly selected by systematic random sampling method. The field supervisors ensured that the sixteen households were properly selected. Then all youth members living in the selected households were interviewed by enumerators. The field supervisors also

## **Data processing**

Upon submission of the completed questionnaires to NIS, the questionnaires were processed. The training of data processing staff (data coding and data entry) was carried out for four days from 13-16 August 2014. After training, the editing of the completed questionnaires was done manually starting from 17 August 2014. Before entering the data, all completed questionnaires were thoroughly checked. Data entry was done directly from the questionnaires after finishing data editing. The data entry was done by trained personnel. The data was initially entered in CSPro format, which was converted to SPSS for analysis.

## Annex III. Additional statistical tables

Table A1. Youth population by selected characteristics and sex, SWTS 2012 and SWTS 2014

	SWTS 2012	SWTS 2014
Geographic coverage	Ten capital/provinces.* 37 urban areas and 123 rural areas.	All 24 capital/provinces.** 37 urban areas and 123 rural areas.
Total sample	3,552	3,396
<b>Sex</b>		
Male	45.2	44.0
Female	54.8	56.0
Age group		
15-19 years	41.5	40.9
20-24 years	33.4	32.6
25-29 years	25.2	26.5
<b>Geographic location</b>		
Urban	24.8	20.2
Rural	75.2	79.8
<b>Marital status</b>		
Married (including divorced and widowed)	30.7	37.0
Single	69.3	63.0
with children	25.0	29.6
Average age of marriage (standard deviation)	21.0 (4.0)	21.2 (4.3)
<b>Education level</b>		
None	9.8	4.0
Primary	36.6	30.4
Secondary	42.4	55.1
Vocational	3.0	3.0
Tertiary	8.2	7.5
<b>Main current activity</b>		
Employed	74.1	83.1
Unemployed	1.6	2.1
In school	16.7	8.5
Inactive	7.6	6.4

\* Ten capital/provinces: Phnom Penh, Banteay Meanchey, Batambang, Kampong Cham, Kampot, Koh Kong, Prey Veng, Preah Sihanouk, Siem Reap, and Takeo.

\*\* Tbong Khmum province was included in Kampong Cham province based on the Cambodia Population Census 2008.

**Table A2. Distribution of youth population by use of financial instruments**

Financial instruments	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
None	4,032,375	85.5	1,832,685	88.5	2,199,690	83.3
Business loans	183,932	3.9	63,802	3.1	120,130	4.5
Emergency loans	117,831	2.5	50,765	2.5	67,067	2.5
Consumption loans	171,636	3.6	64,712	3.1	106,924	4.0
Savings	153,555	3.3	41,872	2.0	111,683	4.2
Insurance	2,317	0.0	0	0.0	2,317	0.1
Remittances/money transfer services	52,031	1.1	17,715	0.9	34,316	1.3
Total youth population	4,713,677	100.0	2,071,551	100.0	2,642,127	100.0
<b>Urban area</b>						
None	768,626	79.9	355,331	86.0	413,295	75.2
Business loans	22,814	2.4	4,202	1.0	18,612	3.4
Emergency loans	59,535	6.2	22,523	5.5	37,012	6.7
Consumption loans	26,759	2.8	8,780	2.1	17,978	3.3
Savings	75,816	7.9	19,932	4.8	55,884	10.2
Insurance	2,317	0.2	0	0.0	2,317	0.4
Remittances/money transfer services	6,589	0.7	2,317	0.6	4,272	0.8
Total youth population	962,456	100.0	413,085	100.0	549,370	100.0
<b>Rural area</b>						
None	3,263,750	87.0	1,477,355	89.1	1,786,395	85.4
Business loans	161,118	4.3	59,600	3.6	101,518	4.9
Emergency loans	58,296	1.6	28,242	1.7	30,054	1.4
Consumption loans	144,877	3.9	55,931	3.4	88,946	4.3
Savings	77,738	2.1	21,940	1.3	55,799	2.7
Insurance	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Remittances/money transfer services	45,442	1.2	15,398	0.9	30,044	1.4
Total youth population	3,751,221	100.0	1,658,466	100.0	2,092,756	100.0

**Table A3. Distribution of youth by source of financial services**

Source financial services	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Bank	108,122	15.5	34,966	14.4	73,155	16.1
Insurance company	2,156	0.3	0	0.0	2,156	0.5
Microfinance Institution	234,019	33.5	94,031	38.6	139,989	30.7
Money transfer operators	1,860	0.3	1,436	0.6	424	0.1
Informal financial operators	29,817	4.3	6,397	2.6	23,420	5.1
Friends and relatives	323,086	46.2	106,566	43.8	216,520	47.5
Total	699,060	100.0	243,396	100.0	455,664	100.0
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Bank	28,175	14.6	9,270	15.4	18,905	14.2
Insurance company	424	0.2	0	0.0	424	0.3
Microfinance Institution	23,284	12.0	8,314	13.8	14,971	11.2
Money transfer operators	424	0.2	0	0.0	424	0.3
Informal financial operators	3,753	1.9	0	0.0	3,753	2.8
Friends and relatives	137,575	71.0	42,784	70.9	94,790	71.1
Total	193,635	100.0	60,368	100.0	133,267	100.0
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Bank	79,947	15.8	25,696	14.0	54,250	16.8
Insurance company	1,732	0.3	0	0.0	1,732	0.5
Microfinance Institution	210,735	41.7	85,717	46.8	125,018	38.8
Money transfer operators	1,436	0.3	1,436	0.8	0	0.0
Informal financial operators	26,064	5.2	6,397	3.5	19,667	6.1
Friends and relatives	185,512	36.7	63,782	34.8	121,730	37.8
Total	505,426	100.0	183,028	100.0	322,397	100.0

**Table A4. Share of employed youth by union membership**

Member	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Member	296,112	7.6	101,421	5.7	194,691	9.2
Non-member	3,606,204	92.4	1,692,681	94.3	1,913,523	90.8
Total employed youth	3,902,316	100.0	1,794,102	100.0	2,108,215	100.0
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Member	84,555	12.9	36,956	13.6	47,599	12.5
Non-member	568,743	87.1	234,468	86.4	334,276	87.5
Total employed youth	653,298	100.0	271,424	100.0	381,874	100.0
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Member	211,557	6.5	64,465	4.2	147,093	8.5
Non-member	3,037,461	93.5	1,458,213	95.8	1,579,248	91.5
Total employed youth	3,249,018	100.0	1,522,678	100.0	1,726,340	100.0

**Table A5. Distribution of employed youth by company size**

Number of workers	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Less than 5 workers	2,716,097	69.6	1,241,561	69.2	1,474,535	69.9
Between 5 and 9 workers	359,217	9.2	206,537	11.5	152,680	7.2
Between 10 and 19 workers	191,529	4.9	124,801	7.0	66,728	3.2
Between 20 and 49 workers	133,795	3.4	70,020	3.9	63,776	3.0
Between 50 and 499 workers	155,866	4.0	62,511	3.5	93,355	4.4
Above 500 workers	345,812	8.9	88,672	4.9	257,140	12.2
Total	3,902,316	100.0	1,794,102	100.0	2,108,215	100.0
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Less than 5 workers	336,148	51.5	122,114	45.0	214,034	56.0
Between 5 and 9 workers	76,807	11.8	35,472	13.1	41,335	10.8
Between 10 and 19 workers	56,199	8.6	32,866	12.1	23,333	6.1
Between 20 and 49 workers	54,125	8.3	30,090	11.1	24,035	6.3
Between 50 and 499 workers	56,076	8.6	19,347	7.1	36,729	9.6
Above 500 workers	73,943	11.3	31,534	11.6	42,409	11.1
Total	653,298	100.0	271,424	100.0	381,874	100.0
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Less than 5 workers	2,379,948	73.3	1,119,447	73.5	1,260,501	73.0
Between 5 and 9 workers	282,410	8.7	171,065	11.2	111,345	6.4
Between 10 and 19 workers	135,330	4.2	91,935	6.0	43,395	2.5
Between 20 and 49 workers	79,670	2.5	39,930	2.6	39,740	2.3
Between 50 and 499 workers	99,791	3.1	43,164	2.8	56,627	3.3
Above 500 workers	271,869	8.4	57,137	3.8	214,731	12.4
Total	3,249,018	100.0	1,522,678	100.0	1,726,340	100.0

**Table A6. Distribution of employed youth by satisfaction with current job**

Satisfaction	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Very satisfied	1,905,793	48.8	824,267	45.9	1,081,526	51.3
Somewhat satisfied	1,779,027	45.6	855,950	47.7	923,078	43.8
Somewhat unsatisfied	188,678	4.8	95,362	5.3	93,316	4.4
Very unsatisfied	28,818	0.7	18,524	1.0	10,294	0.5
Total employed youth	3,902,316	100.0	1,794,102	100.0	2,108,215	100.0
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Very satisfied	316,215	48.4	118,401	43.6	197,813	51.8
Somewhat satisfied	302,098	46.2	131,694	48.5	170,404	44.6
Somewhat unsatisfied	27,782	4.3	15,578	5.7	12,204	3.2
Very unsatisfied	7,203	1.1	5,750	2.1	1,454	0.4
Total employed youth	653,298	100.0	271,424	100.0	381,874	100.0
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Very satisfied	1,589,578	48.9	705,865	46.4	883,713	51.2
Somewhat satisfied	1,476,930	45.5	724,255	47.6	752,674	43.6
Somewhat unsatisfied	160,896	5.0	79,783	5.2	81,112	4.7
Very unsatisfied	21,615	0.7	12,774	0.8	8,840	0.5
Total employed youth	3,249,018	100.0	1,522,678	100.0	1,726,340	100.0



**Table A7. Distribution of employed youth by receipt of job-oriented training**

Main field of training	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Vocational	30,976	63.2	11,349	54.5	19,626	69.6
Business development/entrepreneurship training	6,597	13.4	5,198	24.9	1,399	5.0
Foreign language training	2,181	4.4	-	0.0	2,181	7.7
IT training	1,248	2.5	-	0.0	1,248	4.4
Accounting/book-keeping	1,784	3.6	-	0.0	1,784	6.3
Health and safety	3,453	7.0	1,771	8.5	1,682	6.0
Compliance with procedures or regulations	495	1.0	206	1.0	289	1.0
Other	2,317	4.7	2,317	11.1	-	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>49,051</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>20,843</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>28,209</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Vocational	1,604	17.7	398	7.2	1,207	34.0
Business development/entrepreneurship training	2,317	25.5	2,317	41.9	-	0.0
Foreign language training	603	6.6	-	0.0	603	17.0
IT training	1,248	13.7	-	0.0	1,248	35.1
Accounting/book-keeping	206	2.3	-	0.0	206	5.8
Health and safety	289	3.2	289	5.2	-	0.0
Compliance with procedures or regulations	495	5.5	206	3.7	289	8.1
Other	2,317	25.5	2,317	41.9	-	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>9,080</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>5,527</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>3,553</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Vocational	29,372	73.5	10,952	71.5	18,420	74.7
Business development/entrepreneurship training	4,280	10.7	2,881	18.8	1,399	5.7
Foreign language training	1,577	3.9	-	0.0	1,577	6.4
IT training	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
Accounting/book-keeping	1,577	3.9	-	0.0	1,577	6.4
Health and safety	3,164	7.9	1,482	9.7	1,682	6.8
Compliance with procedures or regulations	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
Other	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>39,971</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>15,315</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>24,656</b>	<b>100.0</b>

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

Most important problem	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Insufficient financial resources	284,909	43.9	130,817	47.6	154,093	41.1
Insufficient quality of staff	6,770	1.0	400	0.1	6,370	1.7
Insufficient (personal) business expertise	35,003	5.4	16,961	6.2	18,042	4.8
Legal regulations	6,882	1.1	3,088	1.1	3,794	1.0
Shortages in raw materials	31,594	4.9	11,190	4.1	20,404	5.4
Labour shortage	70,744	10.9	36,276	13.2	34,468	9.2
Political uncertainties	1,807	0.3	75	0.0	1,732	0.5
Access to technology	16,340	2.5	6,219	2.3	10,121	2.7
Product development	5,503	0.8	4,552	1.7	951	0.3
Competition in the market	149,072	23.0	53,239	19.4	95,833	25.6
Other	40,781	6.3	11,972	4.4	28,809	7.7
Total self-employed youth	649,406	100.0	274,789	100.0	374,617	100.0
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Insufficient financial resources	30,907	38.4	13,490	47.9	17,417	33.2
Insufficient quality of staff	1,779	2.2	400	1.4	1,379	2.6
Insufficient (personal) business expertise	3,019	3.7	967	3.4	2,053	3.9
Legal regulations	506	0.6	-	0.0	506	1.0
Shortages in raw materials	3,647	4.5	726	2.6	2,920	5.6
Labour shortage	3,839	4.8	-	0.0	3,839	7.3
Political uncertainties	75	0.1	75	0.3	-	0.0
Access to technology	879	1.1	587	2.1	292	0.6
Product development	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
Competition in the market	33,070	41.1	10,883	38.6	22,188	42.4
Other	2,829	3.5	1,041	3.7	1,789	3.4
Total self-employed youth	80,551	100.0	28,169	100.0	52,382	100.0
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Insufficient financial resources	254,002	44.7	117,326	47.6	136,676	42.4
Insufficient quality of staff	4,992	0.9	-	0.0	4,992	1.5
Insufficient (personal) business expertise	31,984	5.6	15,994	6.5	15,990	5.0
Legal regulations	6,376	1.1	3,088	1.3	3,288	1.0
Shortages in raw materials	27,947	4.9	10,464	4.2	17,484	5.4
Labour shortage	66,905	11.8	36,276	14.7	30,629	9.5
Political uncertainties	1,732	0.3	-	0.0	1,732	0.5
Access to technology	15,460	2.7	5,632	2.3	9,829	3.1
Product development	5,503	1.0	4,552	1.8	951	0.3
Competition in the market	116,002	20.4	42,357	17.2	73,645	22.9
Other	37,952	6.7	10,931	4.4	27,020	8.4
Total self-employed youth	568,855	100.0	246,620	100.0	322,235	100.0

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

Main source of funding	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
No money needed	31,999	4.9	13,523	4.9	18,477	4.9
Own savings	332,619	51.2	131,185	47.7	201,434	53.8
Money from family or friends	201,823	31.1	94,328	34.3	107,495	28.7
Loan from microfinance institutions	50,341	7.8	23,744	8.6	26,596	7.1
Loan from bank	19,284	3.0	7,152	2.6	12,132	3.2
Loan from an informal financial operator	13,340	2.1	4,857	1.8	8,483	2.3
loan/assistance from government institution	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
Loan/assistance from NGO, donor project	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
Remittances from abroad	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
Total self-employed youth	649,406	100.0	274,789	100.0	374,617	100.0
<b>Urban areas</b>						
No money needed	5,200	6.5	3,878	13.8	1,323	2.5
Own savings	32,503	40.4	7,520	26.7	24,984	47.7
Money from family or friends	35,068	43.5	14,668	52.1	20,400	38.9
Loan from microfinance institutions	2,681	3.3	1,597	5.7	1,084	2.1
Loan from bank	4,494	5.6	506	1.8	3,988	7.6
Loan from an informal financial operator	603	0.7	-	0.0	603	1.2
loan/assistance from government institution	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
Loan/assistance from NGO, donor project	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
Remittances from abroad	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
Total self-employed youth	80,551	100.0	28,169	100.0	52,382	100.0
<b>Rural areas</b>						
No money needed	26,799	4.7	9,645	3.9	17,154	5.3
Own savings	300,116	52.8	123,666	50.1	176,450	54.8
Money from family or friends	166,755	29.3	79,660	32.3	87,095	27.0
Loan from microfinance institutions	47,660	8.4	22,147	9.0	25,512	7.9
Loan from bank	14,790	2.6	6,646	2.7	8,144	2.5
Loan from an informal financial operator	12,737	2.2	4,857	2.0	7,879	2.4
loan/assistance from government institution	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
Loan/assistance from NGO, donor project	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
Remittances from abroad	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
Total self-employed youth	568,855	100.0	246,620	100.0	322,235	100.0

**Table A10. Distribution of in-school youth by highest educational attainment expected**

Highest educational attainment expected	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Elementary education	18,186	1.4	9,688	1.4	8,498	1.3
Vocational education (secondary)	11,342	0.9	8,070	1.2	3,272	0.5
Secondary education	338,226	25.9	172,590	25.7	165,637	26.2
Vocational education (post-secondary)	42,178	3.2	23,654	3.5	18,524	2.9
University	761,652	58.4	389,626	57.9	372,025	58.8
Post-graduate studies	133,635	10.2	68,990	10.3	64,644	10.2
Total in-school youth	1,305,219	100.0	672,618	100.0	632,601	100.0
<b>Urban areas</b>						
Elementary education	587	0.1	587	0.3	0	0.0
Vocational education (secondary)	1,739	0.4	199	0.1	1,540	0.8
Secondary education	51,185	12.5	25,814	12.4	25,371	12.5
Vocational education (post-secondary)	4,113	1.0	3,011	1.4	1,102	0.5
University	281,560	68.6	139,941	67.3	141,619	70.0
Post-graduate studies	71,128	17.3	38,407	18.5	32,720	16.2
Total in-school youth	410,311	100.0	207,959	100.0	202,352	100.0
<b>Rural areas</b>						
Elementary education	17,599	2.0	9,101	2.0	8,498	2.0
Vocational education (secondary)	9,603	1.1	7,871	1.7	1,732	0.4
Secondary education	287,042	32.1	146,776	31.6	140,266	32.6
Vocational education (post-secondary)	38,066	4.3	20,643	4.4	17,422	4.0
University	480,092	53.6	249,685	53.7	230,406	53.6
Post-graduate studies	62,507	7.0	30,583	6.6	31,924	7.4
Total in-school youth	894,908	100.0	464,659	100.0	430,249	100.0

**Table A11. Share of young students combining work and study**

Work and study	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
<b>Total (Urban + Rural)</b>						
Working during the school season	290,227	8.1	121,020	7.6	169,207	8.5
Working outside the school season	402,896	11.2	169,414	10.6	233,482	11.7
Working during and outside the school season	2,896,960	80.7	1,311,443	81.9	1,585,517	79.7
Total	3,590,082	100.0	1,601,877	100.0	1,988,205	100.0
<b>Urban area</b>						
Working during the school season	33,027	5.9	11,220	5.0	21,807	6.5
Working outside the school season	76,476	13.6	34,783	15.5	41,692	12.4
Working during and outside the school season	451,891	80.5	178,265	79.5	273,627	81.2
Total	561,394	100.0	224,268	100.0	337,126	100.0
<b>Rural area</b>						
Working during the school season	257,200	8.5	109,800	8.0	147,400	8.9
Working outside the school season	326,420	10.8	134,631	9.8	191,789	11.6
Working during and outside the school season	2,445,068	80.7	1,133,178	82.3	1,311,890	79.5
Total	3,028,689	100.0	1,377,609	100.0	1,651,079	100.0

## Annex IV. Survey personnel

### Survey Management

H.E. Ms. Hang Lina	Director General, NIS Project Director
Mr. HEANG Kanol	Deputy Director General, NIS Operational Management and Coordination

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Mr. Sok Kosal	Deputy Director General, NIS Sampling Design
Mr. Yip Thavrin	Deputy Director of Sub-National Statistics, NIS Programmer and Tabulation
Mr. Khieu Khemarin	Deputy Director of Social Statistics, NIS Data Processing and Coordination

### Technical Support of ILO/YEP

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Mr. Yves Perardel	Statistician, W4Y Project Youth Employment Programme, ILO-Geneva

### Data Collection Personnel

#### 1. Supervisor (NIS)

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#### 2. Enumerator (NIS)

Mr. Nen Chourn Nath	Mr. Chek Pheakdey
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Mr. Khuon Sithana	Mr. Lenh Heang
Mr. So Sokhim	Ms. Hang Phally
Mr. Bun Narith	Ms. Vuth Sokun
Mr. Leng Vansak	Mr. Hok Narin
Mr. Samut Sotha	Mr. Chhun Saovy
Mr. Mak Huch	Mr. Nguon Nor
Mr. Un Chamroeun	Mr. Im Nhen
Mr. Mom Sathya	Mr. Sim Seth
Ms. Heng Mala	Mr. Bou Noch
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## **Data Processing Personnel**

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

Mr. Nop Rithy	Ms. Yim Chanrany
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