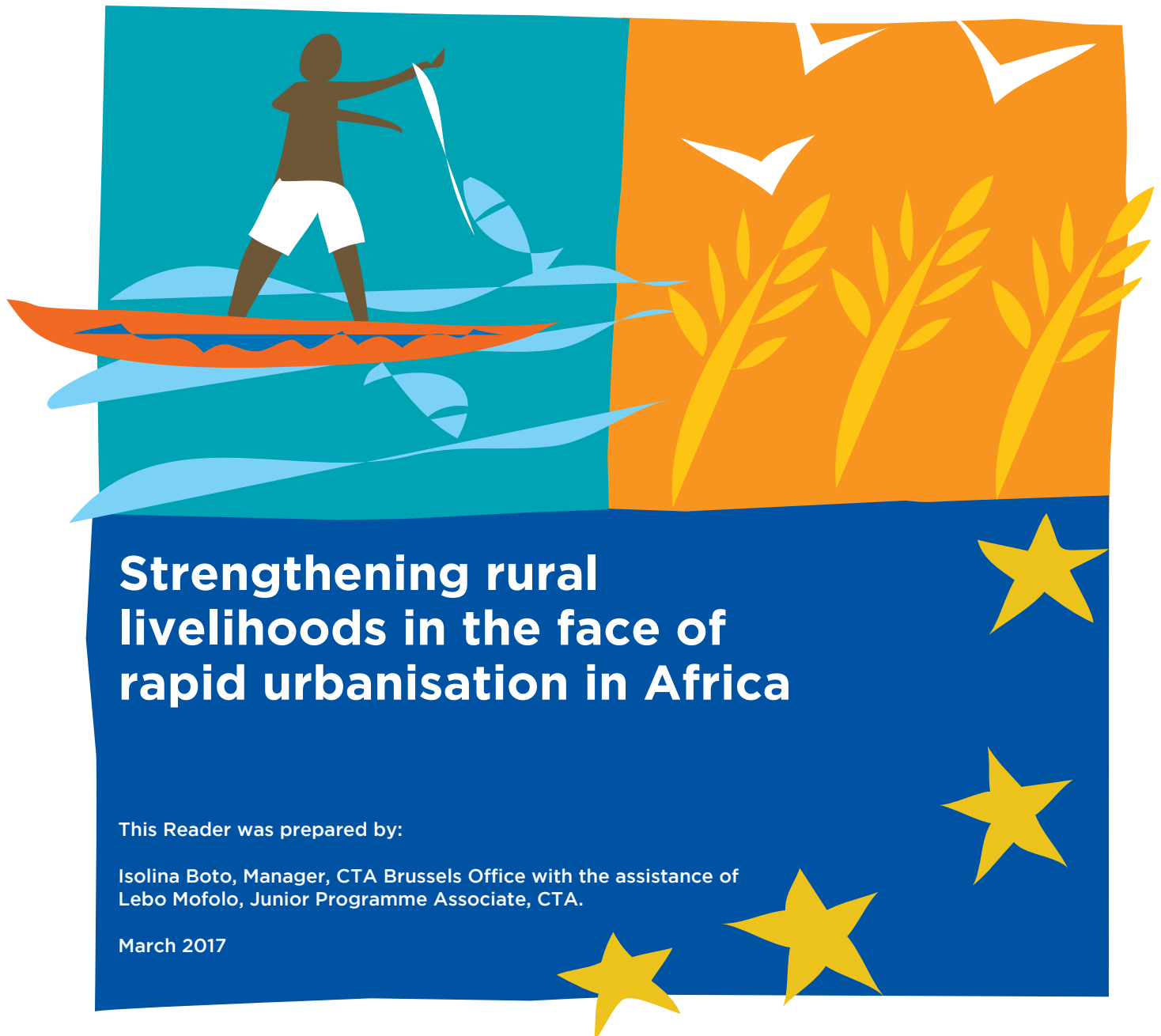




# **BRUSSELS RURAL DEVELOPMENT BRIEFINGS**

## **A SERIES OF MEETINGS ON ACP-EU DEVELOPMENT ISSUES**



### **Strengthening rural livelihoods in the face of rapid urbanisation in Africa**

This Reader was prepared by:

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# **Strengthening rural livelihoods in the face of rapid urbanisation in Africa**

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## 1. Context

Globalization and urbanization have transformed economies and social systems in countries around the world in the past decades.

The current world population of close to 7 billion is projected to reach 10.1 billion in the next ninety years, and 9.3 billion by the middle of this century and poses new challenges to rural and urban areas.<sup>1</sup> Much of this increase will occur in areas of high fertility: 39 countries in Africa, nine in Asia, six in Oceania and four in Latin America. More than half of the world's population now live in urban areas. By 2030, over 80 % will live in the towns and cities of the developing world.<sup>2</sup> This will be particularly notable in Africa and Asia where the urban population will double between 2000 and 2030.

**Demographic structure** Population growth within Sub-Saharan Africa has significantly outpaced any other region in the world. Since 1990, the SSA population expanded by 96%, more than double the world average of 38% (45% in Oceania, 37% in Asia, 27% in North America and less than 3% in Europe).

The rapid expansion has resulted in a unique demographic structure and more than 60% of the population is below the age of 25, as opposed to 41% in Asia and only 27% in Europe. The economic potential of demographic dividend, the time period during which the share of the working-age population is larger than the nonworking-age share, should be acknowledged. The share of the population residing in urban areas has increased to 38% in 2015, from 27% in 1990, a rate similar to South America and Southern Asia. By 2025, it is projected to increase to 42%, impacting on income levels and dietary patterns. Despite

urbanisation, the rural population has continued to increase in absolute numbers and surveys indicate that even in urban areas agriculture still represents the primary livelihood for up to 25% of the population. Enhanced productivity in agriculture therefore appears to have the greatest potential to directly improve rural livelihoods, while stimulating effective demand and job opportunities in the nonfarm sector through multiplier effects generated from productivity gains.<sup>3</sup>

Feeding the projected global population of over 9 billion in 2050 will require a 70 % increase in global food production. The required increase in food production can be achieved if the necessary investment is undertaken and policies conducive to agricultural production are put in place and favourable to small-scale farmers. But increasing production is not sufficient to achieve food security. It must be complemented by policies to enhance access by fighting poverty, especially in rural areas, as well as effective safety net programmes.<sup>4</sup>

Rural areas in many African countries are undergoing manifest transformation processes fuelled by dynamics such a population growth, urbanisation and increasing mobility. The relationship between rural and urban areas is changing and the rural-urban divide is fading, with increasing flows of people, goods and services between the two and the emergence of new migratory and livelihoods patterns.

Next to the growth of capital and major cities, much of the urbanization witnessed in African countries has taken place in the continuum of rural areas with villages, towns and smaller cities below 500,000 inhabitants,

fuelled in part by better infrastructure and digital connectivity as well as the search for economic opportunity<sup>5</sup>. Rural towns and smaller cities have the potential to invigorate rural areas in their function as market hubs and basic service provision. Yet fulfilling such functions requires considerable investment and local institutional capacity as well as clear political commitment.

Rapid urbanisation in Africa is having a monumental effect on the continent's development, which is already being strongly felt in terms of the demand in food and processed consumer goods. This demographic transformation is having a big impact on rural areas, with declining population numbers, rural flight, particularly of youth and men, where the wealth gap has increased by comparison to urban areas, and where the biggest proportions of African face poverty and food insecurity. Given that rural Africa is the source of agricultural production, and that urban zones are generating the fastest growing demand for higher value food products – which at present are largely being met through imports –, developing linkages between rural and urban zones is a factor for creating opportunities related to food production and processing as well as for reducing high food import bills.

The transformation trajectories are bound to develop differently depending on the country, influenced by exogenous factors such as climate change effects, but also the availability of underutilized agricultural land or the extent of dependence on export revenues from commodities<sup>6</sup>. Yet despite rapid urbanization, more than 50% of the African poor will still live in rural areas by 2035, and depend significantly on agriculture.

## Strengthening rural livelihoods in the face of rapid urbanisation in Africa



Moreover, unlike other regions, the total number of youth living in rural areas is still expected to grow in Sub-Saharan Africa until 2030-2040.<sup>7</sup> In many African countries, agriculture will therefore continue to be the main sector providing jobs and income opportunities in rural areas and also indirectly hold most potential for non-farm economic activity in the food-related service and processing industry. At the same time, productive agricultural sectors will also be key to ensure food and nutrition security in Africa in the future and decrease the current import dependency.

In light of the demographic predictions for Africa, providing employment and income generating opportunities for the next generations will be the critical challenge for the next decades.

Rural youth aged 15-24 represent between 8.2% to 21% of the total population in Sub-Saharan Africa.<sup>8</sup> This very large youth arrives at working age with a right to expect gainful employment, adequate health care, education and social services and the ability to raise a family with an appropriate living standard.

According to the African Development Bank, 10 to 12 million youth complement the workforce in Africa each year, yet only about 3 million formal jobs are created, leaving millions under or unemployed. Urban areas continue to attract rural youth in large numbers, as many do not consider agricultural employment

as an attractive future. This had led to an ageing of agriculture in some countries- in Ghana, for example, the average age of farmers is already 55 - while urban centres remain incapable of creating job opportunities to absorb the influx from rural areas.<sup>10</sup> Moreover, young men are often the most likely to migrate, which also results in a further feminization of agriculture that entails a whole set of challenges related to access to productive resources and training.

To make sure this youth bulge produces a demographic dividend, it is critical that opportunities are created for young population, particularly in rural areas on- and off-farm. Strong rural-urban linkages will be key to this and include the physical movement of goods, people, money, information, the social networks and relations that span rural and urban locations but also the interactions between different economic sectors - agriculture, industry and services. These can include agricultural production's backward linkages (the manufacturing of inputs) and its forward linkages (processing, transport and distribution).<sup>11</sup> Despite the significant changes that demographic growth, rapid urbanisation and migration have on rural areas, there are numerous opportunities within these trends to strengthen rural livelihoods through smart policymaking and interventions that break free of the rural-urban dichotomy and take advantage of better spatial integration.

## **2. A favourable international and regional policy environment**

For the Agenda 2030 on Sustainable Development to be realised, it is imperative for economic growth to leave no one behind, and it is in this context that strengthening linkages between rural and urban economies should be promoted and prioritised by policymakers and the private sector in their growth strategies.

The relevance of strengthening rural-urban linkages has also been confirmed on the global policy agenda, especially in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG). In terms of reducing absolute poverty under SDG1 (the number of people living under less than \$1.25 a day)<sup>12</sup>, the biggest focus has to be on rural areas as more than 75% of the poorest people on the planet live in rural areas, where they depend on agriculture to survive.<sup>13</sup>

Likewise, in order to achieve SDG2, to end hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture, it is again critical to address structural issues in Africa's rural agricultural economy, in particular investments for affordable inputs, better rural infrastructure and reducing post-harvest losses.<sup>14</sup> Productive and profitable rural-urban linkages are also part of the solution to address SDG 8 for sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work, particularly as lack of decent labour opportunities in rural areas is a key push factor for outward migration into urban areas, where there is often already an insufficient rate of job growth to absorb new entrants into the labour force.<sup>15</sup> Unemployment is perhaps one of the most pressing concerns for African governments

at the moment, especially for youth unemployment as only one in six of the 420 million African youth aged 15-35 is in wage employment.<sup>16</sup> With 60% of the total labour force in Africa being involved in agriculture, any measure to address SDG 8 would have to take into account ways that this sector can not only generate better payment, but also more diversified work, including off-farm jobs.

Finally, SDG 11 demands cities and human settlements to be inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable. Africa is experiencing one of the fastest rates of urbanisation worldwide. According to the UN, between 2016 and 2030, the number of cities with 500,000 inhabitants or more is expected to grow by 80 per cent in Africa. However, this expansion is largely captured by peri-urban dwellings, including expanding slums around large towns and cities. Furthermore, this is complemented by an increase in the number of people living in semi-urban settlements and towns in rural areas.

Above all however, it is the cross-sectoral character of the SDGs that calls for new perspectives on sustainable development that are centred on people and the places they live and move in, rather than just certain sectoral dimensions of their lives.

Rural-urban linkages also figure prominently on the New Urban Agenda recently launched at the Habitat III conference in Quito in November 2016, marking a paradigm shift away from the rural-urban dichotomy to a more holistic perspective on local development that is shared by city and rural stakeholders alike.

Additionally, the adoption of the agreement on Finance for Development (Addis Ababa Action Agenda) will change the ODA architecture and financial flows to developing countries, including for agriculture and rural development (ARD). The African Development Bank has highlighted the need for increased private sector finance to bridge the funding gap needed to deliver agricultural transformation in Africa.

Greater private sector investment and growth remains one of the biggest priorities for Africa in terms of achieving inclusive development, creating profitable rural-urban linkages and supporting job creation. In its "Strategy for agricultural Transformation in Africa 2016-2025", the African Development Bank identifies mobilisation of private sector participation – particularly through finance and value chains – as a central pillar to advance Africa's agricultural economy and increase opportunities for rural employment.<sup>17</sup> Indicators point towards emerging success in this area, with an increase in interest, and investment, by the private sector into agriculture.<sup>18</sup>

This recognition of the importance of the private sector in rural transformation is also shared by development partners, notably the European Union, which has made increased participation of the private sector in development a priority of its external action. In the European Commission's 2014 strategy on "A Stronger Role of the Private Sector in Achieving Inclusive and Sustainable Growth in Developing Countries",<sup>19</sup> and in 2016, under its latest development strategy "European Consensus on development", there is an emphasis

## Strengthening rural livelihoods in the face of rapid urbanisation in Africa

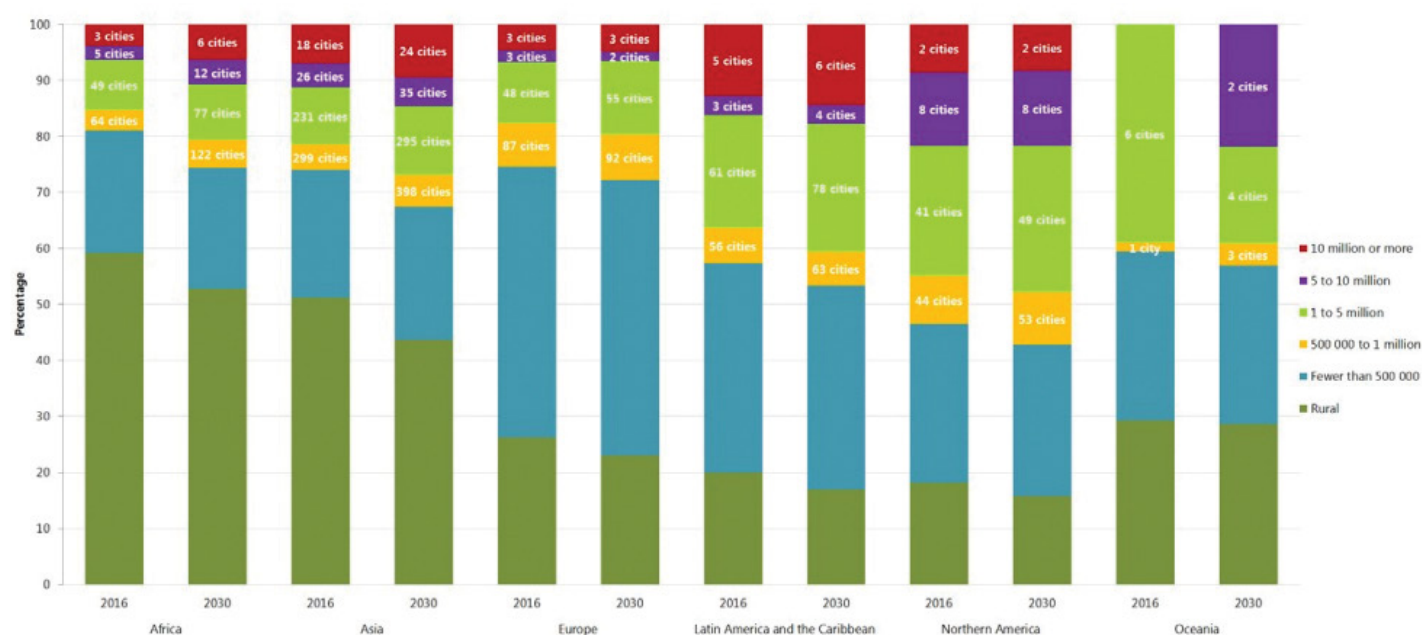


on the private sector as a partner in delivering sustainable development, through investment and job creation.<sup>20</sup>

Moreover, the 2014 Malabo Declaration, through which African Union leaders pledged to achieve a set of goals in the agriculture sector by 2025, provides a strong reference point for strengthening rural labour markets. One of its core aims is to increase youth employment in Africa's rural areas by 30 per cent, especially through the strengthening of agriculture value chains, while another was to prioritise and support livelihood and in-come generating opportunities for women and the rural youth.

## 3. Strengthening rural-urban integration for enhanced rural livelihoods

Figure: Population distribution by size class of settlement and region, 2016 and 2030



Source: World Bank, 2015<sup>21</sup>

Urban and rural population: Asia, Africa and the world, 2015 projections

Regions	Population by area of residence Projections (millions)		Share of urban population (%)
	Urban	Rural	
World	3 957	3 368	54.0
Asia	2 113	2 272	48.2
Africa	472	695	40.4
<b>Africa subregions</b>			
Eastern Africa	101	294	25.6
Middle Africa	63	80	44.1
Northern Africa	112	105	51.6
Southern Africa	38	24	61.3
Western Africa	158	192	45.1

Source: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (UNDESA, 2014).

There is a high degree of heterogeneity across different regions and countries in Africa. In Eastern Africa, urbanization rates are still very low, with just one quarter of the region's population living in urban centres in 2014. By contrast, Central Africa, Northern Africa, Southern Africa and Western Africa<sup>6</sup> all have higher proportions of the population living in urban areas: 44 per cent and above. The highest urbanization rates in Africa are found in Southern Africa and Northern Africa.<sup>22</sup>





### 3.1. Supporting rural development strategies

Developing long neglected rural areas is vital to reduce poverty and achieve food security and offers huge opportunities that have to date not been used. Rural development policy must therefore concentrate on unlocking existing potential.

Agricultural policy is an important element of public policy for rural regions and promoting agriculture in turn drives rural development. However, comprehensive development is not possible without equally comprehensive reform processes. The aim of these processes is to create functioning institutions, develop human resources, build effective infrastructure and manage natural resources with a view to promoting sustainability, transparency and conflict prevention. Rural development policy must incorporate all levels of government as well as public and private stakeholders and with them facilitate new partnerships that include civil society. The four key areas of support are:

- i. Development of the rural economy This covers support for agriculture and the food industry, including fisheries and aquaculture, generating income opportunities outside agriculture, diversifying the employment base and ensuring structural change is accompanied by improved access to markets and increased market integration. It also includes supporting sustainable business cycles and setting up support services (advice, training, financial services, insurance) and infrastructure.
- ii. Sustainable management of natural resources Local people depend on natural resources for the basic

necessities of life and at the same time the economy depends on a supply of natural resources for production of goods and services. These resources are particularly vulnerable to the impacts of climate change. Comprehensive planning of how to use them aims to achieve effective water and pasture management, preserve soil fertility and ensure sustainable pest protection of plants. Resource management in rural areas also means preventing soil erosion and preserving biodiversity with a view to achieving international environmental and development goals (climate change mitigation, preservation of biodiversity, combating desertification).

- iii. Provision of social services and technical infrastructure Development of rural areas involves providing or expanding social services such as education, health, public administration, public security and technical infrastructure, for instance in the areas of energy, water supply, transport and information and communication. This can be done by public, semi-public or private sector providers. Social security and insurance systems are particularly important, since they help to ensure survival while at the same time acting as a catalyst for economic development.
- iv. Improving the policy and institutional environment Functioning institutions at all levels are of key importance to the development process. Support must focus particularly on political, fiscal and administrative decentralisation, the establishment and implementation of land and water rights for all sectors of the population, gender equality, a degree of self-organisation and the presence of a functioning civil society.<sup>23</sup>

Based on the experiences of China, India and South Africa, a set of major imperatives which are at the core of rural transformation<sup>24</sup> are identified which include

- Reducing poverty and inequalities, not only those inherited from past policy decisions and social structures, but also the new poverties, gaps and inequalities being created each day by the process of rapid change itself.
- Ensuring food security, accelerating agricultural development, and securing a relevant role of and opportunities for small-scale producers and family farmers in national and global value chains.
- Creating more and better jobs and economic self-sufficiency in rural areas, including in small towns and intermediate cities. Rural economic diversification is a major driver of job creation. At the same time, rural labour markets are notoriously imperfect and they represent a huge challenge that needs to be addressed urgently.
- Meeting the climate change and environmental challenge, enhancing environmental services, making much more efficient use of scarce natural resources such as land and water, promoting renewable sources of energy that can only be created in rural areas, and leveraging a green agenda for new jobs and sources of income for the poor.
- Stimulating the growth of rural towns and intermediate cities and strengthening the links between them and their rural hinterlands.
- Managing the complex and sensitive issue of rural-urban migration.

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- Securing universal access by rural populations to basic public services including education, health, housing, fresh water, electricity, transport and communications, with improving quality standards.
- Developing land reform and land tenure systems that balance objectives of social equity, economic growth and environmental sustainability, and that can evolve rapidly as many young and better-educated people join new non-farm rural jobs or emigrate out of rural areas.
- Securing widespread access to efficient and sustainable financial services and capital, without which the benefits of the rural transformation cannot be realized in full. This requires a significant expansion of financial resources and budgets, as well as major improvements in the efficiency and institutional sustainability of rural financial systems.
- Promoting innovation, research and development focused on the needs of rural people and rural producers and firms, and making much better use of the opportunities offered by the ICT revolution.
- Putting in place social support schemes including cash transfers, pensions, employment guarantees, and subsidies for the most vulnerable that secure the basic human dignity of every rural dweller. At the same time, it is important to reaffirm that poverty eradication and social inclusion will lead to better long-term outcomes and be more sustainable if they rest on localized, inclusive economic growth, complemented and not replaced by social support schemes.

rural development, the experience of OECD countries and lessons from case studies of developing countries adapted to the reality of developing countries, the OECD Development Centre proposes a new rural development paradigm (NRDP) for developing countries in the 21st Century.

The NRDP is founded on eight components that need to be included for successful rural development strategies.

- Governance.** A consistent and robust strategy is not enough if implementation capacity is weak. It is thus important for an effective strategy to build governance capacity and integrity at all levels.
- Multiple sectors.** Although agriculture remains a fundamental sector in developing countries and should be targeted by rural policy, rural development strategies should also promote off-farm activities and employment generation in the industrial and service sectors.
- Infrastructure.** Improving both soft and hard infrastructure to reduce transaction costs, strengthen rural-urban linkages, and build capability is a key part of any strategy in developing countries. It includes improvements in connectivity across rural areas and with secondary cities, as well as in access to education and health services.
- Urban-rural linkages.** Rural livelihoods are highly dependent on the performance of urban centres for their labour markets; access to goods, services and new technologies; as well as exposure to new ideas. Successful rural development strategies do not treat rural areas as isolated entities, but rather as part of a system made up of both rural and urban areas.

v. **Inclusiveness.** Rural development strategies should not only aim at tackling poverty and inequality, but also account for the importance of facilitating the demographic transition.

vi. **Gender.** Improving rural livelihoods should take into account the critical role of women in rural development, including their property rights and their ability to control and deploy resources.

vii. **Demography.** High fertility rates and rapidly ageing populations are two of the most relevant challenges faced by rural areas in developing countries today. Although the policy implications of these two issues are different, addressing these challenges will imply good co-ordination across education, health and social protection policies, as well as family planning.

viii. **Sustainability.** Taking into account environmental sustainability in rural development strategies should not be limited to addressing the high dependence of rural populations on natural resources for livelihoods and growth, but also their vulnerability to climate change and threats from energy, food and water scarcity.

Strengthening rural-urban linkages in terms of infrastructure, transport, market access and exchange of information, ideas and innovation can catalyse economic development in rural areas and provide future perspectives for rural population and especially youth. Rural development strategies should therefore consider some of the following opportunities:

In light of the projected population growth, many argue that Africa's economies need an African green revolution to boost staple crop productivity notwithstanding the

Based on the lessons drawn from previous approaches and theories on

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changes in urban food consumption. This requires scaled support for irrigation, modern variety seeds and fertilizer in line with Asia's 20th century successes and Malawi's approach since 2005).<sup>25</sup> A green revolution can also advance a country's overall competitiveness, promote rural savings, enable diversification into higher-earning crops, free up workers to launch service enterprises, and in turn bolster local consumer demand for agricultural products. Indeed, one key to Africa's industrial labour competitiveness might lie in the farm sector.

Increased access to new technologies and inputs is only part of the story of agricultural transformation. The other part is the shift away from subsistence farming and emergence of commercial production, which can only be achieved through organisation and professionalization of production across the continent. Where farmers organise themselves around a business model – whether collectively as co-operatives, or individually as a small enterprise, or using various other structures – they are encouraged to take a professional approach to agricultural production,

Examples in East Africa, particularly Kenya, Ethiopia, Uganda and Rwanda have demonstrated that smallholders who are organised are able to attract more opportunities for contract farming, access to important local markets, as well as enabling financing and other key services (Chapoto et al. 2016). Farmer's organisations, co-operatives and other farmer enterprises are also important vehicles for providing training, business development support and other forms of capacity building for their members, be they small-scale producers, farming households or contract farmers. Such structures can help to attract and retain young people in the farming profession and promote entrepreneurship.

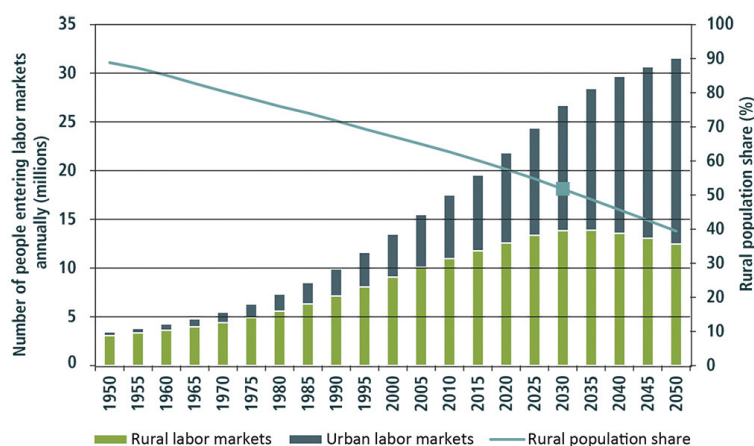
Finally, investing in infrastructure scale-up is also key to increase productivity. A major challenge that is faced by rural producers is the cost of transport which significantly hampers the development of value chains linking rural producers to urban consumers, and further acts as a disincentive for investment by the private sector into the rural areas, even where there may be other potentially attractive factors.

According to Chapoto et al (2016)<sup>26</sup>, “reduced transport and transaction costs are a major incentive for adoption of improved agricultural production technology and better management of natural resources, leading to increased agricultural productivity.”

Poor infrastructure causes also significant post-harvest losses in Africa. Lack of quality storage infrastructure, such as warehouses or silos, failure to use appropriate harvesting, processing and transportation technologies, and poor handling are all issues that need to be addressed if post-harvest losses are to be reduced. Although governments have a big role to play in improving infrastructure, successes have shown that the private sector's contribution can also act as a catalyst for enhanced infrastructure development (i.e. rural electrification, ICT's and mobile technology and value chain development).

### 3.2. Investing in towns and intermediary cities as hubs for economic growth and service delivery for rural areas

*Rural population share and the number of people entering rural and urban labour markets annually in Africa south of the Sahara, 1950-2050*



The relationships between rural and urban areas are changing and interdependencies are becoming greater.

Small and medium-sized towns play critical roles in fostering dynamic rural-urban linkages in Africa, through food systems, labour, migration and other interactions as well as in spurring the development of the non-farm economy.<sup>27</sup> They also present market access opportunities for smallholders who have difficulties to integrate in large supply chains which are very demanding. It will be crucial that the promotion

Source: B. Losch, S. Fréguin-Gresh, and E. T. White, *Structural Transformation and Rural Change Revisited: Challenges for Late Developing Countries in a Globalizing World*, Africa Development Forum Series (Washington, DC: World Bank, 2012).

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of rural-urban linkages does not lead to the extraction of value from rural smallholders, but instead creates enhanced opportunities for rural and urban people upstream and downstream, and enables smallholders to meet more exacting standard and certification requirements associated with urbanization.

Governments have an important role to play in making sure that rural areas are not left behind by diverting sufficient resources to these spaces. Small towns and intermediary cities provide a leverage point for investment in rural development such as: (i) centres of demand/markets for agricultural produce from their rural regions; (ii) centres for the production and distribution of goods and services to their rural regions; (iii) centres for the growth and consolidation of rural non-farm activities and employment, (iv) by attracting rural migrants from the surrounding region, and (v) by managing natural resources.

Small towns are also a central element of food systems as market nodes, centres for processing and storage, and access to inputs and services as the linkages between rural and urban areas, people and enterprises have become more intensive. These transformations

have important implications for food systems, which include all processes involved in food-chain activities from the manufacturing and distribution of inputs, agricultural production, storage, processing to transport, distribution.

Supporting low-income producers and consumers in both rural and urban areas is likely to be much more effective if it is grounded in the understanding of local economies and the role of smaller urban centres which in a sense reflect the 'bottom-up' urbanisation of rural regions that combine a diversified economic base with access and links to wider markets.

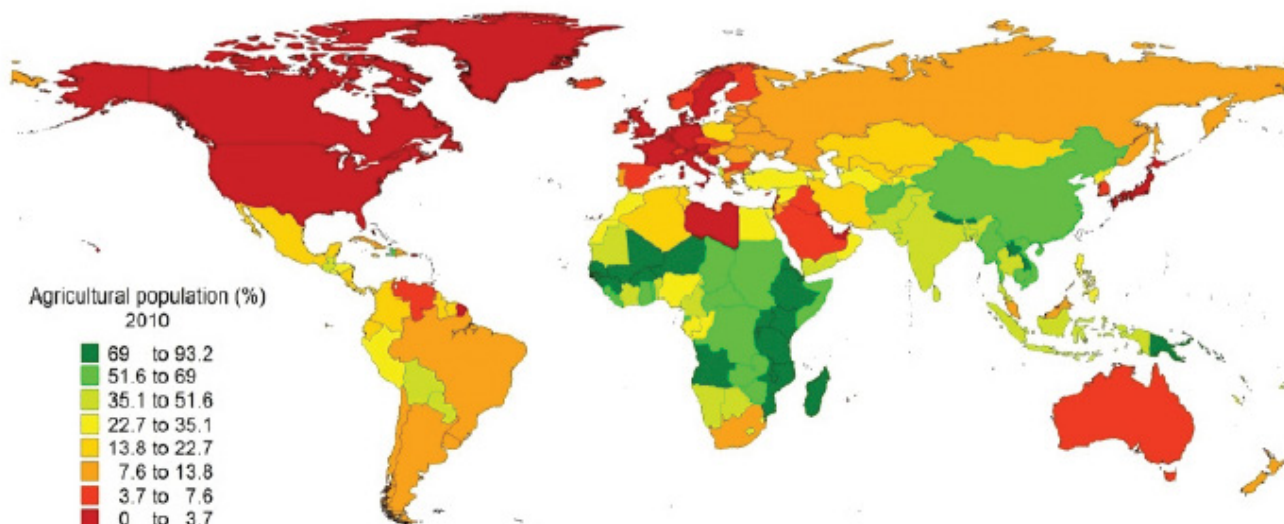
However, rural areas need to become attractive beyond immediate income opportunities. This can only be guaranteed by a minimal amount of government steering through policies directed at strengthening service delivery in rural areas including health and education, but also the provision of cultural infrastructure such as cinemas or shops or ICT infrastructure such as high-speed internet connection in partnership with the private sector.

### 3.3. Agriculture remains a significant sector in rural employment

With a total of over 1 billion people employed in the sector, agriculture is the second greatest source of employment worldwide after services and occupies the greatest portion of the rural workforce. With over 700 million agricultural workers, Asia accounted for more than 70 % of the world total, and sub-Saharan Africa, with 192 million workers for almost 20 %. With 510 million and 276 million people engaged in agriculture respectively, China and India together represented almost 60 % of the world's total agricultural labour force.

The proportion of the population depending on agriculture is decreasing in all sub-regions of the developing world, and at a similar pace. East Africa, Central Africa, West Africa and South and East Asia still have more than half of their population involved in agriculture. In Southern Africa, Latin America, the Middle East and Central Asia, only 20-30 % of the population is considered agricultural. North Africa takes an intermediary position.<sup>28</sup>

Map: Agricultural production as % of total population (2010). FAO-STAT

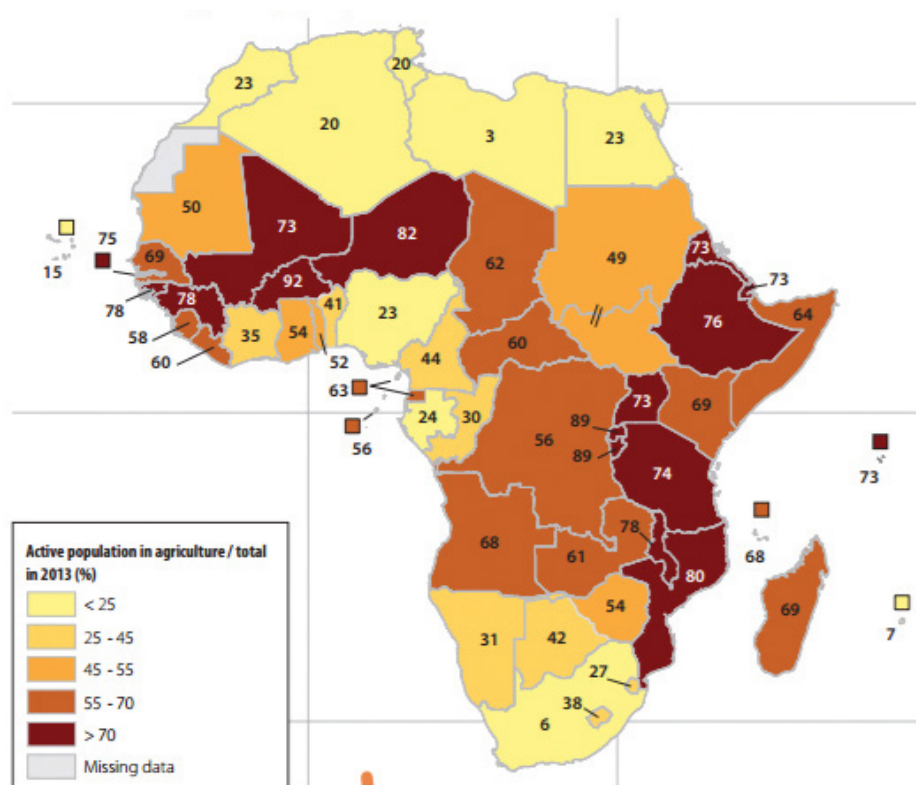




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*Working population engaged in agriculture in 2013. Source: FAOSTAT 2015- Cited by Pesche D., Losch B. et Imbernon J. (eds.), 2016. A New Emerging Rural World - An Overview of Rural Change in Africa, Second, revised and supplemented edition, NEPAD and CIRAD.*



Agriculture is the most important sector for female employment in many countries, and especially in Africa and Asia. It has been estimated that rural women produce more than half of the food grown worldwide. Women are typically more likely than men to work in the agricultural sector. In rural Africa women produce, process and store up to 80 % of foodstuffs while in South Asia and South-East Asia they produce and process 60 % of food production.

Historically, agricultural development has preceded a more general economic take-off. When returns to agricultural labour increase and less agricultural workers are needed to produce the same output, more people can be employed in non-farm activities that usually generate a higher income. The transition is not always smooth, however, especially when the agricultural population lacks the education and skills that are required for industrial and service jobs. Moreover, when demand for agricultural labour decreases, it does not automatically mean that demand for non-agricultural labour increases at the same time. When agriculture becomes more capital-intensive and requires less labour, it typically causes higher levels of unemployment before more non-farm employment opportunities become available.

Historically, agriculture has been the largest employer of youth in sub-Saharan Africa. In 2005, young people accounted for an estimated 65 % of agricultural employment. However, low and precarious incomes and the lack of useful work experience are driving many to look for work in cities, despite the great disadvantages they face in urban labour markets.

In sub-Saharan Africa, in 2007 employment shares in agriculture ranged from 82 % in the United

### Total employment in agriculture ('000)

	1991	2001	2007*
World	1 036 584	1 086 886	1 036 330
Developed economies and European Union	30 126	24 090	18 468
Central and South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) and CIS	40 732	36 717	31 787 (3%)
East Asia	387 010	362 734	309 797 (30%)
South-East Asia and the Pacific	118 308	117 769	120 825 (12%)
South Asia	256 371	299 488	286 085 (28%)
Latin America and the Caribbean	45 321	42 734	46 383 (5%)
Middle East	7 697	10 502	11 282 (1%)
Sub-Saharan Africa	136 841	176 837	192 007 (19%)
North Africa	14 178	16 015	19 697 (2%)

\* 2007 are preliminary estimates.

Source: ILO: Global Employment Trends Model, 2007; see also technical note in ILO: Global Employment Trends (Geneva, 2004) and for further technical information on the world and regional estimation processes, see <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/employment/strat/west.htm>.

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Republic of Tanzania to 10 % in Mauritius. In South-East Asia and the Pacific, 72 % of employment was in agriculture in Papua New Guinea compared to 0 % in Singapore. In Latin America and the Caribbean, Haiti and Puerto Rico represented the two ends of the spectrum with 51 and 2.1 %, respectively.

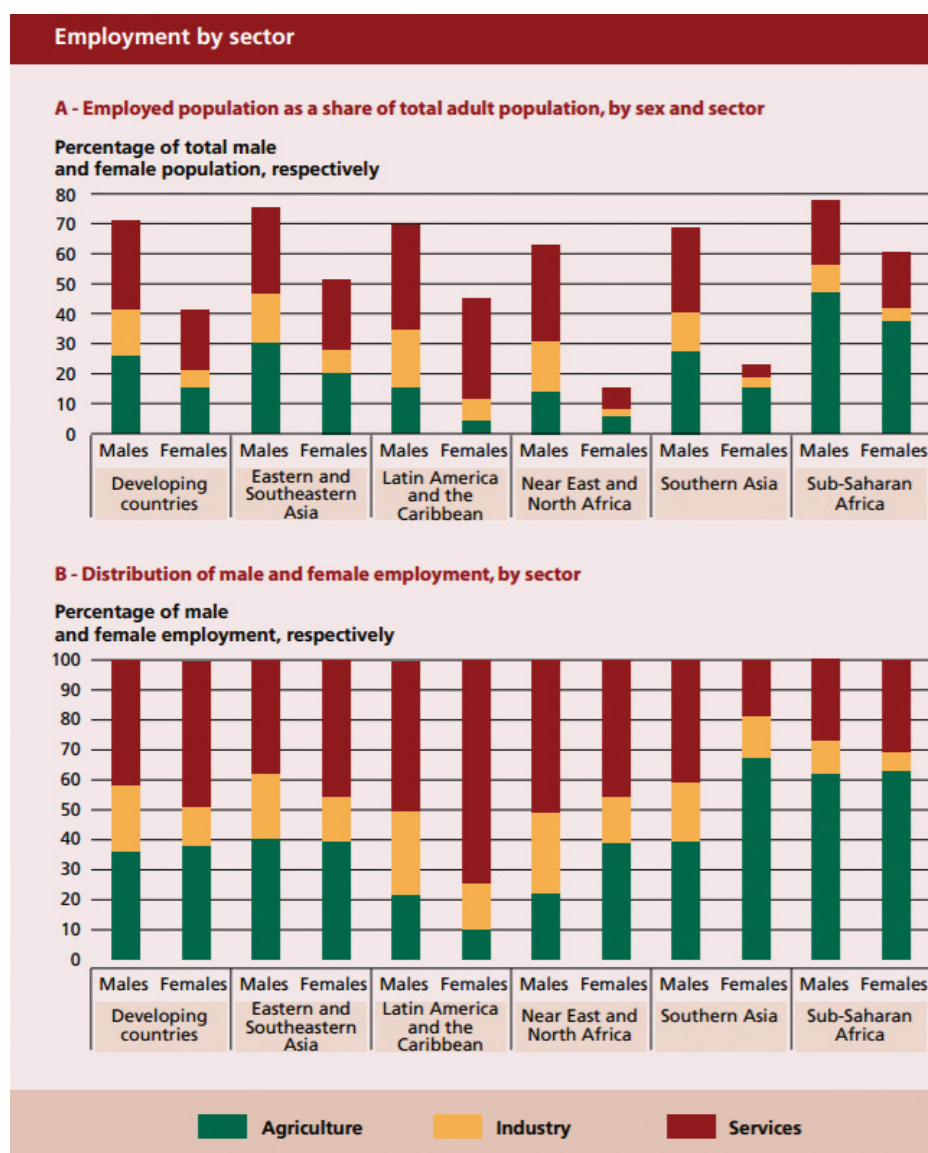
Women comprise an average of 43 percent of the agricultural labour force of developing countries. The female share of the agricultural labour force ranges from about 20 percent in Latin America to

almost 50 percent in Eastern and Southeastern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. Agriculture is the most important source of employment for women in rural areas in most developing country regions, but this varies widely by region. Women are more likely than men to hold low-wage, part-time, seasonal employment and they tend to be paid less even when their qualifications are higher than men's, but new jobs in high-value, export-oriented agro-industries offer much better opportunities for women than traditional agricultural work.<sup>29</sup>

No country has been able to sustain a rapid transition out of poverty without raising productivity in its agricultural sector<sup>30</sup>. Agriculture continues to be the predominant source of employment in many regions, accounting for 63 % of rural household income in Africa, 62 % in Asia, 50 % in Europe and 56 % in Latin America<sup>31</sup>. Historically, agricultural growth was the precursor to industrial growth in Europe and, more recently, in parts of Asia. However, agricultural growth also has much broader linkages or multipliers and allows poor countries to diversify their economies to sectors where growth may be faster and where labour productivity and wages are typically higher. Where agricultural productivity has grown slowly, as in many parts of sub-Saharan Africa, non-farm activities have also tended to grow slowly.

### 3.4. Private Sector role in African Agricultural Transformation

Private sector interest in African agribusiness is unprecedented. The past decade has witnessed an upsurge in interest from the private sector in African agriculture and agribusiness, including interest from foreign investors and investment funds. International investors actively seek alternative venues to Asia and Latin America as a new source of supply and an opportunity for higher, risk-adjusted returns. The challenge is to harness investors' interest in ways that generate jobs, provide opportunities for smallholders, respect the rights of local communities, and protect the environment. Going forward, a key challenge is to curb speculative land investments or acquisitions that take advantage of weak institutions in African countries or disregard principles of responsible agricultural investment.<sup>32</sup>



Note: The data cover only a subset of the countries in each region. Definitions of adult labour force differ by country, but usually refer to the population aged 15 and above.

Source: ILO, 2009.

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In addition to international private sector interest in African agribusiness, Africa's private sector itself is also increasingly attracting investment, with much of the funding coming from domestic banks and investors and the rest from the United States and Europe. The sector is also creating an emerging African middle class of hundreds of millions of consumers. Returns to investment in Africa are among the highest in the world (Boston Consulting Group 2010; Collier and Warnholz 2009; Roxburgh and others 2010). Success of ICT, especially mobile phone penetration, shows how rapidly a sector can grow. It also shows how the public sector can set the conditions for the exponential growth of a vital industry that could transform the continent. Private capital flows are higher than official development assistance (and foreign direct investment is higher than in India). China, India, and others are also investing large sums in Africa. Furthermore, Africa is changing. African countries are increasingly relying on the private sector as the engine of growth and confronting governance problems, including corruption, head-on. Political support exists for the role of the state as regulator, facilitator, and agent of redistribution for equity, as shown in success stories<sup>4</sup> such as Malian mangoes, Kenyan cut flowers or, Rwandan tourism.<sup>33</sup>

Private sector investment in African agriculture should be broadly understood. The principal African investors are farmers themselves. They invest around \$100 billion every year in their farms, despite the almost total lack of credit facilities for the vast majority of them. However, foreign investments can be useful upstream (inputs) and downstream (processing) of agriculture to overcome the weaknesses of African industries, as well as in infrastructure to complement public funding. Experience shows that large-scale land-based investment can be

justified from an economic efficiency point of view only in a few situations, where land is truly available, which means it is not used, and is acquired in all transparency.<sup>34</sup>

Priorities for increasing agricultural growth and productivity can be summarised in terms of "the four Is": (i) improving the investment climate, through better incentives for farmers and private-sector engagement; (ii) infrastructure, including irrigation; (iii) innovation, the primary motor for productivity growth and competitiveness; and (iv) institutional capacity.

The investment climate for agriculture includes ensuring: (i) adequate incentives for farmers from sound macro-economic, trade and sector policies; (ii) increased incentives for businesses and improvements in the business climate; (iii) reduction of transport costs for agricultural products; and (iv) reduction of barriers to inter-regional trade. It also means confirming rights to land, particularly for women, to give farmers the security to invest in their land. Farming should not be penalized by the taxation, adverse international trade conditions and negative protection for agricultural commodities that often harm African farmers.

Investments in road and irrigation infrastructures are particularly important. The unit costs of transport are reportedly far higher in Africa than in parts of Asia. High transport costs raise the cost of purchased inputs such as fertilizer and bring down farm-gate prices which reduce incentives. Also, only 7 per cent of arable land in Africa is irrigated – the figure is even lower in sub-Saharan Africa – compared with 33 per cent in Asia. Irrigation and water management promise to raise production and help farmers to deal with a more variable future climate. Given the poor record of investments in

large-scale public irrigation schemes, the focus should be on small-scale schemes that can be managed by groups of farmers themselves.

Institutional and human capacity development is critical. Four types of institutions need to collaborate to support farmers in gaining access to credit, extension and markets, as well as in local and community development. These include: (i) the private sector, including businesses and farmers' and producers' associations; (ii) communities and civil society organizations; (iii) decentralized government institutions; and (iv) traditional sector institutions, which need reform to become more focused, efficient and effective. Collaboration among these institutions must be led and fostered by governments, with support from donor agencies as necessary. Governments, which have policy and financial responsibilities, need to drive decentralization and public-sector reform; opportunities to combine public and private initiatives should become apparent and ways to link small farmers with firms providing inputs, services and process or market outputs should emerge.

Greater attention must be given to making rural finance and credit markets viable in a challenging environment. This is an area where innovation is needed: new financial products need to be developed so that micro-finance can be profitable in rural areas where populations are dispersed and transaction costs high. The solution to farm investment constraints needs to come from improved agricultural incentives, better markets and increased profitability so that farmers can invest in their farms and repay loans. This can be supported by accessible low-cost savings mechanisms such as postal savings accounts.<sup>35</sup>

Public-private partnerships are often considered in the context of traditional infrastructure such as irrigation

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and roads, but they can also help fill important gaps in market infrastructure. To come to terms with underutilized storage left over from the parastatal era, the Government of Uganda provided storage facilities to Uganda Grain Traders Ltd., a company formed by 16 national grain trading companies for coordinating processing, storage, and quality control for export markets. Public investment to set up more advanced and strategically located wholesale markets can stimulate the growth of regional and urban wholesale markets and make it easier to improve quality and safety standards, especially for burgeoning fresh produce markets. These investments in hardware can be most effective when combined with market software (market information systems, for example) and collective action by traders themselves. Similarly, with the need to maximize the shelf life of fresh fruits and vegetables, public-private partnerships have worked to overcome the high startup costs involved in building cold chains. Two examples are Kenya's fresh fruit and vegetable terminal and Ghana's cold storage facilities at the main port, each financed partly by government and privately managed. As with public-private partnerships in irrigation, successful partnerships to support markets require a generally advantageous business environment that provides access to markets and finance for private sector participants.<sup>36</sup>

### 3.5. The importance of the non-farm economy

The rural nonfarm economy includes a highly heterogeneous collection of trading, agroprocessing, manufacturing, commercial, and service activities. The scale of individual rural nonfarm businesses likewise varies enormously, from part-time self-employment in household-based cottage industries

to large-scale agroprocessing and warehousing facilities operated by large multinational firms. Often highly seasonal, rural nonfarm activity fluctuates with the availability of agricultural raw materials and in rhythm with household labor and financial flows between farm and nonfarm activities. Sectorally, despite many countries' emphasis on promoting rural industries, manufacturing typically accounts for only 20–25 percent of rural nonfarm employment, whereas trade, transport, construction, and other services account for 75–80 percent. Spatially, rural areas house small retailers, cottage industries, basic farm equipment repair services, and input supply firms, whereas nonfarm activities such as schools, health clinics, barber shops, milling, transport facilities, and government services tend to locate in regional towns. Remittances account for a large share of rural income in some locations.<sup>37</sup> They likewise form an important part of household income diversification and risk reduction strategies. In most rural settings, however, local business and wage income account for a majority of non-farm earnings, while remittances and transfers — including those from international migrants — typically account for 15% to 20% of non-agricultural rural income and 5% to 10% of total rural income.

These conditions and the opportunities change during development. In an initial stage, rural economies are often remote from urban centres, isolated by transport costs. The wealth of the rural economy thus depends in part on the richness of local resources, and in part on the ability to find activities that can earn revenues beyond the local economy; revenues that can both pay for goods and services brought in and which when spent locally can stimulate manufacturing and services. Rural non-farm activity is thus likely to be closely linked to agriculture, but possibly also mining or tourism.

Increasingly productive modern agriculture requires inputs and services such as seeds, fertilizer, credit, pumps, farm machinery, marketing and processing of farm produce which, in turn, create a growing demand for non-farm firms that can provide these services. Farm households, as their incomes grow, increase their expenditure share on non-food items, thereby accelerating demand for non-farm goods and services such as housing, clothing, schooling, health, prepared foods, visits to town, to the cinema and to the tea shops, all of which dramatically increase demand for rural transport services. To meet this growing demand, rural households increasingly diversify into production of rural non-farm goods and services.

In regions where agriculture has grown robustly, the RNFE has also typically enjoyed rapid growth. A large growth linkages literature suggests that each dollar of additional value added in agriculture generates US\$0.6 to US\$0.8 of additional RNFE income in Asia, and US\$0.3 to US\$0.5 in Africa and Latin America (Haggblade *et al.*, 2007).

At a later stage, as cities grow and transport costs to urban areas fall, there is more scope for interaction with the rest of the national economy and indeed with the global economy. Rural areas may be able to provide services for the urban economy in leisure and recreation, environmental maintenance including water supply, and housing for commuters. Some rural residents may be able to commute into towns and cities and earn their living there. Although closer links may see rural craft industry wither in the face of competition from factory-made goods, some urban industries may seek green-field sites to save costs, or may contract with rural units to manufacture parts, thereby stimulating new manufacturing in rural areas. In the best cases, such diversification



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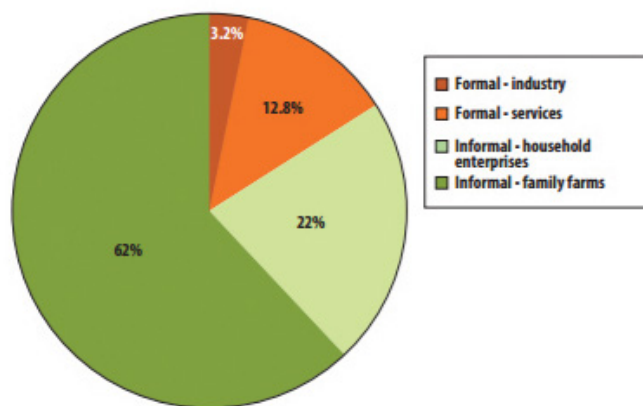


represents taking up opportunities to improve livelihoods and reduce poverty, or at least ways to reduce risks and vulnerabilities. At worst, it can reflect a desperate search for ways to make ends meet in the face of rising population and insufficient jobs in longstanding activities. Stark dichotomies of 'pull' and 'push' factors overstate the case: in most situations diversification responds to a combination of these forces. Indeed, whether forces that tend to push households out of agriculture lead to poverty or prosperous diversification very much depends on the strength of 'pull' factors.

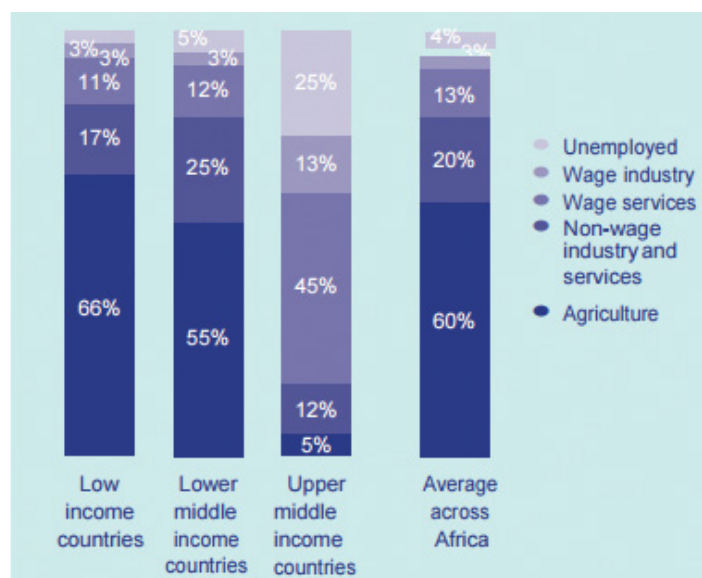
In recent years, globalization, urbanization, and improved infrastructure have opened up new opportunities in many rural areas, thereby reducing their dependence on agriculture as the primary engine of rural growth. These developments offer new prospects for stimulating rural economic growth and potentially new pathways out of poverty. According to Jane and Ameyaw (2016), the greatest number of new jobs for youth has been off-farm, but in the informal sector, particularly construction, commerce, and manufacturing. Although the agri-food system has also seen rapid growth in percentage terms, this is more a reflection of its low initial base. Nevertheless, for at least the next decade, farming will continue to be the most significant source of employment in most African countries (Filmer and Fox, 2014; Losch, 2012; Yeboah and Jayne, 2016).

Important areas for non-farm agri-food including employment are areas related to agricultural value addition (processing, food service, transportation, packaging), the agro-services economy, led by the adoption of affordable technology, especially mobile phones, in rural areas. However, as pointed out in the IFAD's Rural Development Report 2016, the rural non-farm economy faces significant challenges: lack of basic infrastructure, inadequate credit and insurance markets, poor tenure security and ethnic and gender disparities.<sup>38</sup>

*Structure of employment in Sub-Saharan Africa in 2014- Source: Filmer, Deon; Fox, Louise. 2014. Youth Employment in Sub-Saharan Africa. Africa Development Forum; Washington, DC: World Bank and Agence Française de Développement.*



*Figure: Distribution of employment in sub-Saharan Africa, by country income % of total labour force, 2010*



Source: AFDB, 2016

Region	Nonfarm share of rural income (%)		
	Total nonfarm earnings	Local nonfarm business and employment	Transfers and remittances
Africa	34	28	6
Asia	51	40	11
Latin America	47	41	6

SOURCE: Haggblade, Hazell, and Reardon (2007), Table 6.1.

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### Understanding rural-urban linkages

(Felicity J Proctor. 2014. *Rural economic diversification in sub-Saharan Africa. IIED Working Paper. IIED, London.*<sup>39</sup>)

The productive structure of an economy is understood as the level of diversification of the economy, the existence of inter-sectoral linkages — including between agriculture and non-agriculture activity (industry including mining and manufacturing, services, tourism, and so on — and the variety of types of enterprise, including formal and informal households, small and medium scale enterprises and business (by size and by linkages).

Sectoral growth linkages between agriculture and the non-farm economy are described by Haggblade et al. (2007a). These are:

- Production linkages, which include forward links to agro-processors and backward links including farm equipment, seed, fertilizer and so on
- Consumption linkages, specifically household expenditure on goods and services and locally produced foods
- Factor market linkages, including the impact of seasonal peaks and troughs on agricultural labour demands
- Linkages between labour demand and rural and urban wage rates, and the linkages between farm cash
- surplus and non-farm investments and
- Productivity linkages associated with increased farm productivity including improved household food

- security and nutrition, workforce productivity, two way linkages between farm and non-farm economic activity and investment.
- Rural infrastructure plays a central role in agricultural growth linkages.

In general, rural areas with a more diversified economic base, a greater density of inter-sectoral linkages and a solid presence of small and medium-sized businesses in the economy will have greater options for building the dynamics of growth with social inclusion. Such dynamism may often be found where there are strong linkages between the rural hinterland and small markets and secondary towns and cities.

Table: Changes in the share of total jobs among the working age population (15 - 64 years) in farming, in off-farm jobs within agri-food systems (AFS) and in non-farm jobs (non-AFS)

Country	Survey Years	Total # of jobs in millions	Farming		Off-farm within AFS				Off-farm outside AFS	
					Agro-processing		Downstream commerce and distribution			
			% of jobs	% of FTE jobs	% of jobs	% of FTE jobs	% of jobs	% of FTE jobs	% of jobs	% of FTE jobs
Ghana	2005/06	10.1	52.1	43.5	7.5	6.3	7.1	8.6	33.3	41.0
	2012/13	13.9	43.6	34.3	3.7	3.7	13.8	15.5	38.9	46.5
Nigeria	2010/11	62.3	37.0	30.6	2.6	2.3	16.1	18.7	44.4	48.2
	2012/13	69.7	42.1	33.7	4.8	4.6	16.2	18.6	36.9	43.1
Rwanda	2005/06	6.1	75.2	65.7	0.4	0.4	6.5	7.4	18.0	26.6
	2010/11	9.1	67.4	54.0	1.1	1.2	5.7	7.7	25.9	37.0
Tanzania	2010/11	18.4	59.0	47.3	1.7	2.5	12.5	15.0	26.8	35.2
	2012/13	20.4	58.7	48.3	1.5	1.6	12.5	15.6	27.3	34.5
Uganda	2005/06	10.8	72.6	57.0	2.1	2.8	5.7	10.2	19.6	30.0
	2011/12	15.9	67.1	48.6	2.8	1.7	6.6	12.0	23.5	37.7
Zambia	2005	4.7	73.6	61.2	1.2	1.6	1.9	3.1	23.1	34.1
	2012	5.3	60.4	46.7	1.6	2.1	4.9	2.1	33.2	44.1
Kenya	1999	11.1	54.4	-	-	-	-	45.6	-	-
	2009	14.2	45.6	-	-	-	-	54.4	-	-
Malawi	1998	1.9	73.3	-	-	-	-	26.7	-	-
	2008	2.0	53.9	-	-	-	-	46.1	-	-
Mali	1998	2.0	79.6	-	-	-	-	20.4	-	-
	2008	2.6	64.2	-	-	-	-	35.8	-	-

Source: Yeboah and Jayne (2016), computed from Ghana Living Standard Survey 5 and 6; Zambia labor force surveys 2005 and 2012; Rwanda Integrated Household Living Survey; Tanzania National Panel Survey; Uganda National Panel Survey; Nigeria General Household surveys. ~Kenya, Malawi and Mali results are from population and housing census data in Integrated Public Use Microdata Series (IPUMS: <https://www.ipums.org/>).



Agriculture alone cannot alleviate rural poverty. In all rural communities, the promotion of sustainable off-farm enterprises is necessary to generate more and better jobs. The provision of infrastructure, including information and communications technologies (ICTs) and market information systems (MIS), credit facilities and the development of innovative economic alternatives such as processing, sustainable tourism and services will lead to sustained economic diversification.

Agricultural value chains can play a key role in generating employment and reducing poverty in rural areas, providing the benefits are not confined to large farms and exporters which are able to access global markets at the expenses of medium-sized and smaller producers. This requires policies that support smallholders and strengthen producer organisations so that farmers can achieve economies of scale in production and marketing and acquire new skills.

Non-farm activities<sup>40</sup> are increasingly important in rural areas: a growing share of households participate in them, while they provide increasing proportions of rural household income. Primary employment data, which offer the most widely available indicator of the scale of rural non-farm activity, suggest that the rural non-farm economy (RNFE) accounts for about 30% of full-time rural employment in Asia and Latin America, 20% in West Asia and North Africa (WANA), and 10% in Africa.

In addition, rural households are ever more likely to have migrants who have moved within the country, to neighbouring countries or to a distant international destination. In sum, rural households are generally adopting an increasingly diverse range of activities.

Rural non-farm employment holds special importance for women. Women account for about one-quarter of the total full time RNFE workforce in most parts of the developing world. Given their frequently heavy household obligations and more limited mobility, women also participate in part-time RNFE activity, particularly in household-based manufacturing and service activities.

### 3.6. New income-generating opportunities in food systems as a result of changing urban consumption patterns

Rural transformation in Africa's is taking place at a fast pace. Although there are gaps in the available data there is evidence that this is having an impact on the structure and functioning of Africa's food systems. As evidenced in numerous case studies, urbanisation, increased wealth and rapidly changing consumption patterns have led to a significant increase in the proportion of diets made up of non-grain foods (dairy, fish, meat, vegetables, fruit and tubers), as well as heavily into processed foods.

Changing food consumption patterns are shaping the demand for food in both rural and urban areas. Increasing urban populations can represent a strategic opportunity for rural food economies. Changing consumption patterns and diets in urban areas create demand for processed foods and with the projected growth of the urban population in Africa over the coming decades, there is the potential for significant changes in food consumption patterns towards more processed, higher value non-staple or perishable goods, notably

meat, dairy, fruit and vegetables.<sup>41</sup> Rural economic policies that incorporate changing consumption patterns can stimulate growth in the rural farm and non-farm economy along food value chains and assist in shifting value-adding activities and jobs in the "middle" of value chains, often related to processing, packaging and distribution of agricultural products, to rural areas. At the same time, better integrated city-region food systems can contribute to increasing the food and nutrition security of whole regions by supporting local production and establishing short supply chains.

There exist strong growth opportunities for the agribusiness sector. Both domestic and global markets are experiencing strong demand, which is likely to continue even as domestic demand accelerates. The return to economic growth in Africa since the 1990s, burgeoning urbanization, and buoyant global commodity markets now provide unprecedented market opportunities for Africa to develop a competitive agribusiness sector. Urban food markets are set to increase fourfold to exceed US\$ 400 billion by 2030, requiring major agribusiness investments in processing, logistics, market infrastructure, and retail networks. The growing middle class is also seeking greater diversity and higher quality in its diets. The most dynamic sectors overall are likely to be rice, feed grains, poultry, dairy, vegetable oils, horticulture, and processed foods for import substitution, along with the traditional tropical exports and their derived products (especially cocoa, rubber, cashews, and palm oil), together with some higher-value horticultural crops, fish, and biofuels for export.

Success stories can be found among African countries, in particular in the processing of local food staples such as cassava in Nigeria and millet in Senegal. The scope for enterprise growth and innovation in the

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staples sector should be significant in Sub-Saharan Africa, judging from the projected rise in urban demand for local food to \$150 billion by 2030. The same projections indicate potential income gains of \$30 billion for local smallholders, should African countries succeed in positioning domestic sectors competitively in these markets.<sup>42</sup>

In Eastern and Southern Africa, Dolislager, Tschirley and Reardon (2015) estimate that the share of non-grains in the total food expenditure of an average urban household is 66 per cent compared with 61 per cent for the average rural household and 54 per cent among poor rural households; in Asia, the respective figures are 74 per cent (urban households), 63 per cent (rural households) and 62 per cent (rural poor). Other notable dietary changes observed include greater demand, particularly in urban areas, for processed foods, meat products, dairy and diverse fresh fruits and vegetables. All of these are positively associated with higher incomes and urbanization.

However, the rapid increase in the consumption of more processed foods that has accompanied rising incomes and urbanization in other regions beyond Africa has tended to lead to the increasing prevalence of “over-nutrition”. Also noteworthy are the potential environmental threats associated with dietary transitions towards more meat-based diets, which are less efficient per calorie. These all have important implications for spatial and territorial planning to foster inclusive investments and policies that support balanced rural and urban development.<sup>43</sup>

A recent study<sup>44</sup> shows how diets are changing in Africa through survey data from six African countries that explores the consumption patterns of different income groups in rural and urban areas. It shows that as incomes rise, highly processed foods

Percent of maize expenditures on unprocessed vs. processed grain

Country	Year	Unprocessed grain		Processed/ prepared	
		Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Niger	2005	92.5	98.3	7.5	1.7
Mali	2006	81.9	92.9	18.1	7.1
Burkina Faso	2009	78	93.2	21.9	6.8
Ghana	2006	31.2	48.3	69.8	51.7
Côte d'Ivoire	2008	15.6	23.2	84.4	76.8

Source: Hollinger and Staatz, 2015

take an increasing share of the food basket value; this is true for rural as well as urban settings. In urban areas, in the highest income group, highly processed foods take 65% of the value of the food basket compared to 35% for this group in rural areas. The diets of the poorest households in urban areas are also a concern as they spend 31% of their food basket on highly processed foods.

West Africans are consuming a wider range of starchy staples (cereals, roots and tubers) than in the past, including more convenient “fast foods” derived from them. Demand for convenience – foods that are quick and easy to prepare and consume – is an overarching trend cutting across all countries and income groups. Increasingly pressed for time, consumers are willing to pay for others in the food system (processors, street-food vendors) to carry out some or all of the food processing and preparation for them, leading to rapidly growing demand for processing activities.

Much of the recent agricultural policy focus has been on understanding farmers’ constraints and helping overcome them. Yet in increasingly buyer-driven agricultural value chains, consumers are the ultimate financiers of the food system. Therefore, an improved understanding of their evolving preferences in terms of quality, convenience, safety and other food attributes is a prerequisite for producers

to respond better to demand trends and successfully compete with imports. Safely and efficiently producing and delivering these to consumers entails tight co-ordination along all stages of the food system – from seed to the consumer’s table – requiring upgraded “hard” and “soft” infrastructure, such as reliable cold chains and improved product grades and standards. More attention should focus on improving the performance of the off-farm elements of the food system (such as marketing, processing, packaging and logistics). At the farm level, public expenditures need to emphasise investments in infrastructure, technology development and farmer support services, rather than just input subsidies to boost long-term productivity.

The design of food system interventions starts with the consumers. An improved understanding of their evolving preferences in terms of quality, convenience, safety and other food attributes is a prerequisite for producers to respond better to demand trends and successfully compete with imports. This approach requires improved market information on specific product attributes, more effective grades and standards and better co-ordination among agricultural value-chain actors. At the same time, consumers of all income brackets need better information on the nutritional qualities and health implications of different food products in order to make informed purchasing decisions. Information on



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nutritious local foods should be made broadly available and the production and marketing of such food products promoted.<sup>45</sup>

### 3.7. Attracting youth to farming

In 2005, young people accounted for an estimated 65 % of agricultural employment. However, low and precarious incomes and the lack of useful work experience are driving many to look for work in cities, despite the disadvantages they face in urban labour markets. Most rural work is poorly rewarded. For example, farming in much of Africa and Asia rarely generates more than US\$750 per worker a year. From this must be deducted the cost of any purchased inputs. The remainder is shared between the workers and their dependents, leaving too little to escape dollar-a-day poverty<sup>46</sup>.

With 60% of its population aged 24 or less in 2015 (compared to 42% globally and 30% in high-income countries), Africa has the youngest population of any continent in the world. In Sub-Saharan Africa, the percentage of youth rises to 63%. Eleven million youth are expected to enter Africa's labour market every year for the next decade. Despite rapid growth in formal wage sector jobs, the majority of these youth are likely to work on family farms and in household enterprises, often with very low incomes. To boost young people's earnings, governments need to hasten overall business climate reforms, strengthen basic education, and make land, infrastructure, training and financing more accessible.<sup>47</sup>

It is increasingly acknowledged that the creation of employment opportunities for young people is among the major development challenges of our time. In Africa, agriculture is still in most cases the sector which

can absorb large numbers of new job seekers and offer meaningful work with public and private benefits. With a more vibrant entrepreneurial culture, new skills and access to capital, young people should be able to create their own jobs.

A significant number of workers in the agricultural sector in Africa are not skilled and lack formal education or qualifications. Therefore, there is a mismatch between the skills produced and those required by the labour market. The lack of organisational, business and technical skills remain a major challenge to increase profitability of the farming sector and to attract youth which hampers the ability of local farmers to supply to rural consumers greater added value foods and produce, as well as it limits the ability of farmers to strengthen their position in value chains.

It is crucial to support job creation off-farm, as much potential for non-farm economic activity lies in the food-related service and processing industry. To unlock this economic potential, it is especially rural youth that needs support to become productively engaged in growing food systems and access basic services and finance, infrastructure, skills training and innovation.

Strong partnerships between the public and the private sector to eliminate barriers to growth and to strengthen the competitiveness of the private sector would leverage the development of SMEs. Given the disproportionate number of young people currently working in small family businesses or self-employed in the agricultural sector, putting measures in place to improve the investment climate in Africa is crucial.<sup>48</sup> Policies to increase rural non-farm employment will involve many sectors, including financial services, transport, health, education and the management of natural resources. The spread of information

and communication technologies (ICTs) will also help to stimulate rural employment.

Moreover, Africa urgently needs massive increases in investment for energy and transport. Employers need reliable energy to produce goods and services, and reliable roads to compete in product markets. Yet Africa invests only 4% of GDP on infrastructure financing, which is far lower than most other emerging markets. The returns of infrastructure investments to both growth and employment can be extraordinary. As just one example, South Africa's post-apartheid rural electrification program helped boost female employment alone by more than 9 percentage points.<sup>49</sup> In Africa's more remote rural economies, such huge leaps in economic connectivity can undoubtedly yield equal or greater employment gains for generations to come.<sup>50</sup>

Yet one strategy should also be supporting the already existing flexible livelihood strategies of rural households. As mentioned before, due to predominantly male out-migration the number of female-led households has increased in many African countries, making gender-sensitive policy-making even more relevant. At the same, the remittance flows back to rural households can play a pivotal role in providing private social safety nets, access to basic services and education as well as investment capital for agricultural production or other income-generating activities in rural households. Policymakers can support these multi-local livelihood strategies by better analysis and integration of mobility patterns into the planning of infrastructure connecting rural areas to urban centres, improved connectivity in terms of phone and internet coverage and better financial service infrastructure to facilitate not only remittance flows but also the productive usage of this capital.

## **4. The way forward**

Whereas Africa continues to experience urban growth, this development and the wealth generated by most African countries has not been led by industrialisation and an industry-led agricultural transformation as has been the case in other regions such as Asia. The result is that most African economies have not been able to absorb labour moving from the rural to the urban and modern sectors of the economy and from low to high-productivity employment.

The process of the structural economic transformation being pursued by governments and regional bodies (including the African Union and the African Development Bank), will have to be complemented by a very profound push in building employability and entrepreneurial skills for African youth who exit farming. This entails targeted improvement of key technological skills, vocational training for jobs in the commercial sector and basic “life skills” for success in working environments. (IFAD, 2016).

Managing a successful economic transformation poses two key challenges: (i) to raise labour productivity sustainably in the agricultural sector and the rural economy, while (ii) diversifying into higher valued goods outside agriculture in emerging higher productivity, urban-based manufacturing and service sectors. The factors determining the success or failure of countries to transform successfully are linked to the adequacy of human and physical assets, institutional and technological resources, as well as policy and coordination capacities.<sup>51</sup>

Increasing linkages between rural areas and urban markets cannot happen without adequate access to finance and financial services, particularly if these linkages are to generate jobs for youth and capture a better skilled and entrepreneurial workforce. As information and communications technologies have been growing rapidly in Africa, especially among youth, their availability and accessibility to other information-based resources must continue,

with the aim of deepening access to credit and financial services.

Improving physical infrastructure should remain a priority as most rural occupations are informal. If the rural informal economy is to be supported, improved connectivity to access markets reliably and at lower costs depends on better quality and connected roads.

The private sector is a critical player to enable stronger rural urban linkages, through increased investment into agriculture and the rural non-farm economy. However, to make this option an attractive one for investors, whether institutional or as is increasingly the case, SMEs, there need to be urgent reforms to eliminate regulations that limit private entry and investment in value chains that serve smallholders.



## Acronyms

AfDB	African Development Bank
AU	African Union
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
CEMAC	Commission de la Communauté Economique et Monétaire de l'Afrique Centrale
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
CSO	Civil society organizations
ECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FFS	Farmers Field Schools
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GIS	Geographic Information Systems
GNP	Gross National Product
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IUF	International Union of Food workers
LAC	Latin America and the Caribbean
ITUC	International Trade Union Confederation
LDCs	Least-developed countries
LICs	Low Income Countries
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MICs	Middle Income Countries
MFI	Microfinance Institution
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGOs	Non-governmental organizations
ODA	Official development assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PRS	Poverty reduction strategy
R&D	Research and Development
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
UN	United Nations
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNYP	United Nations Programme on Youth
WB	World Bank
WFP	World Food Programme

## Glossary

### Abridged life table

Any life table where the ages, or times since the start event, are grouped rather than showing single years. Abridged life tables are therefore shorter in length than single year tables and often more convenient. If there is uncertainty about precise age, or considerable age heaping, then abridged tables are often more realistic than trying to deal with single years of age. Five-year age groups are common although it is normal to show the first year of life separately, because of the preference for quoting infant mortality. NB: Age groupings in an abridged table do not need to be evenly spaced.

### Age-dependency ratios

Age-dependency ratios are a measure of the age structure of the population. They relate the number of individuals that are likely to be dependent on the support of others for their daily living – youths and the elderly – to the number of those individuals who are capable of providing such support.

### Ageing

Ageing may refer to two different processes. Firstly, it may refer to the ageing of an individual. This is the process by which a person changes through time, physically, psychologically and socially. Individual ageing is measured chronologically, and is usually given by age at last birthday. Ageing may also refer to population ageing.

### Age-sex structure

The age and sex structure of a population is simply the composition of the population in terms of age and sex. This may be expressed as absolute numbers or percentages.

The age-sex structure is often represented graphically as a population pyramid.

### Age structural transition

The age structural transition is the process by which a population shifts from a young age structure to an old age structure following the decline in fertility during the demographic transition. The use of the term 'age structural transition' to refer to these changes has been promoted by the IUSSP Committee on Age-Structural Transitions and Policy (see for example, Pool 2005).

### Agriculture, value added (% of GDP)

The value of the gross output of agriculture (forestry, hunting, fishing, cultivation of crops, livestock production), minus the value of intermediate goods and services consumed in production.

### Balancing equation

The balancing equation is a fundamental axiom of demography. It states that a future population size will be the existing size minus any deaths that have occurred, plus births that have occurred, with further corrections for in- and out-migration. A corollary of this is that the growth rate of a population will be the crude birth rate minus the crude death rate, with a correction for a net migration rate. The balancing equation may therefore seem obvious but serves as a reminder that populations can only change in size by a limited number of processes.

### Census

A form of population enumeration, in which every individual within a defined population (usually a

country) is counted at the same time. Details regarding age, sex, marital status, occupation etc. are often collected at the same time. Censuses provide the most accurate information on population structure, and provide a basis for the denominator of most rates that demographers calculate.

### City-region

An urban development on a massive scale: a major city that expands beyond administrative boundaries to engulf small cities, towns and semi-urban and rural hinterlands, sometimes expanding sufficiently to merge with other cities, forming large conurbations that eventually become city-regions (UNICEF, 2012)

### Closed population

A closed population is one which is closed to in- and out-migration. The only way a closed population may change in size or age-sex structure is through changes in fertility and mortality. In reality, the only population which is truly closed is the world population, however demographers often use the concept of a closed population during demographic modelling. This is partly to show the effects of other population processes more clearly, and partly because of the complexity of measuring and modelling migration.

### Cohort

A cohort is a group of people who experienced the same demographic event during a particular period of time. This will most commonly refer to births during a set period of time, but may also refer to marriages, onset of puberty, migration, first birth etc.



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## Decent work

Decent work is productive work performed in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity, to which women and men have access on equal terms. Decent work is the converging focus of all the ILO's four strategic objectives: the promotion of rights at work, employment, social protection, and social dialogue.

## Demographic dividend

The demographic dividend is the low dependency ratio that develops for several decades during the course of the demographic transition. It describes populations that have experienced several decades of fertility decline and contain a large proportion of young adults relative to children or elderly people as a result of the early stages of population ageing. This is described as a dividend as it can promote an increase in the investment rate and rapid economic growth.

## Demographic transition

The demographic transition is the process by which populations move from high mortality and fertility rates, to low mortality and fertility rates as a country develops from a pre-industrial to an industrialized economic system. This is typically demonstrated through a demographic transition model. As fertility decline often lags behind mortality decline, there is an intermediate phase in the middle of the transition characterised by high growth rates.

## De-urbanisation

The decrease in the proportion of the population living in urban areas.

## Dependency ratio

Dependency ratios give the number of economically inactive people in relation to each economically active person. Classification of economically active and inactive are usually made on the basis of age, with everyone aged less than 16 and everyone aged 65 and over

considered economically inactive. The overall dependency ratio can be broken down into constituent parts, giving the child dependency ratio (number of children in relation to each economically active person) and the old-age dependency ratio (number of people aged 65 and over in relation to each economically active person).

## Economic structural transformation

The reallocation of economic activity away from the least productive sectors of the economy to the more productive ones.

## Emigration

Emigration is the movement of people from a national population of interest to a different country on a long-term basis that results in a change in their country of usual residence.

## Empowerment

An attitudinal, structural, and cultural process whereby young people gain the ability, authority, and agency to make decisions and implement change in their own lives and the lives of other people, including youth and adults.

## Employment

Persons in employment comprise all persons above a specified age who during a specified brief period, either one week or one day, were in the following categories: paid employment; self-employment.

## Employment-intensive

Projects or approaches where works are carried out through the employment of as great a proportion of labour as is technically feasible while remaining cost effective and cost competitive in achieving the quality of work.

## Employment-intensive investment

Investment targeted at (infrastructure) works where the potential for employment has been optimised.

## Farming system

A population of individual farm systems that have broadly similar resource bases, enterprise patterns, household livelihoods and constraints, and for which similar development strategies and interventions would be appropriate. Depending on the scale of analysis, a farming system can encompass a few dozen or many millions of households.

## Foreign direct investment

Foreign investment establishes a lasting interest in or effective management control over an enterprise. Foreign direct investment can include buying shares of an enterprise in another country, reinvesting earnings of a foreign-owned enterprise in the country where it is located, and parent firms extending loans to their foreign affiliates. International Monetary Fund (IMF) guidelines consider an investment to be a foreign direct investment if it accounts for at least 10% of the foreign firm's voting stock of shares.

## Gender division of labour

The gender division of labour depends on the socio-economic and cultural context, and can be analyzed by differentiating between productive and reproductive tasks as well as community-based activities, including who does what, when, how, and for how long.

## GNP per capita

A country's gross national product (GNP) divided by its population. Shows the income each person would have if GNP were divided equally. Also called income per capita. GNP per capita is a useful measure of economic productivity, but by itself it does not measure people's well-being or a country's success in development. It does not show how equally or unequally a country's income is distributed among its citizens. It does not reflect damage made by production processes to

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natural resources and the environment. It does not take into account any unpaid work done within households or communities or production taking place in the [gray \(shadow\) economy](#). It attributes value to anything being produced whether it harms or contributes to general welfare (for example, medicines and chemical weapons). And it ignores the value of such elements of people's well-being as leisure or freedom.

### Green belt

Large parcels of land in and around cities where urban development is totally prohibited through zoning or public ownership, easement, or development restriction (Kuchelmeister, 1998)

### Green infrastructure

(A) A strategically planned network of high-quality natural, semi-natural and cultivated areas designed and managed to deliver a wide range of ecosystem services and protect biodiversity. (European Commission, 2013) (B) A holistic urban green planning concept on the level of cities and city regions. As a planning strategy it can be narrowed down to keywords such as multifunctionality and connectivity of green structures as well as multiscale, communicative and social inclusive approaches (Czechowski, Hauck and Hausladen, 2014)

### Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

GDP is Gross domestic product. For a region, the GDP is "the market value of all the goods and services produced by labor and property located in" the region, usually a country. It equals [GNP](#) minus the net inflow of labor and property incomes from abroad.

### Gross national product (GNP)

The value of all final goods and [services](#) produced in a country in one year (gross domestic product) plus income that residents have

received from abroad, minus income claimed by nonresidents. GNP may be much less than GDP if much of the income from a country's production flows to foreign persons or firms. But if the people or firms of a country hold large amounts of the stocks and bonds of firms or governments of other countries, and receive income from them, GNP may be greater than GDP

### Growth rate

A population's growth rate is the ratio of growth in a given period to the mean population during that period. Growth is the balance of births, deaths, in-migration, and out-migration during the period concerned as stated by the [balancing equation](#). The growth rate is usually calculated on an annual basis.

### Household (as a production unit)

Households as production units are households producing goods for their own final use (e.g. subsistence farmers and households engaged in do-it-yourself construction of their own dwellings), and those employing paid domestic workers (maids, laundresses, watchmen, gardeners, drivers, and others).

### Human capital

Human capital. People's innate abilities and talents plus their knowledge, skills, and experience that make them economically [productive](#). Human capital can be increased by [investing](#) in health care, education, and job training.

### Household

All the persons, kin and non-kin, who live in the same dwelling and share income, expenses and daily subsistence tasks.

### Immigration

The process of entering one country from another to take up permanent or semi-permanent residence.

### Immigration Rate

The number of immigrants arriving at a destination per 1,000 population at that destination in a given year.

### In-migration

In-migration is the movement of people into a population of interest from elsewhere on a long-term basis that involves a change in their place of usual residence. It refers to both migratory moves that originated in another country (immigration) and changes of residence that are internal to a country.

### Informal economy

The informal economy refers to all economic activities by workers and economic units that are – in law or in practice – not covered or insufficiently covered by formal arrangements. Their activities are not included in the law, which means that they are operating outside the formal reach of the law; or their activities are not covered in practice, which means that – although they are operating within the formal reach of the law, the law is not applied or not enforced; or the law discourages compliance, because it is inappropriate, burdensome, or imposes excessive costs. Activities and income that are partially or fully outside government regulation, taxation and observation.

### Informal employment

Comprised of own-account workers, contributing family workers, employees holding informal jobs, members of informal producers' cooperatives and own-account workers engaged in production of goods for own consumption.

### Informal settlements

Residential areas where 1) inhabitants have no security of tenure vis-à-vis the land or dwellings they inhabit, with modalities ranging from squatting to informal rental housing; 2) the neighbourhoods usually lack, or are cut off from, basic services

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and city infrastructure; and 3) the housing may not comply with current planning and building regulations, and is often situated in geographically and environmentally hazardous areas.

## Intermediate-sized cities

Medium-sized cities with fewer than 1 million inhabitants.

## Invisible underemployment

Individuals who are unemployed in low-productivity jobs.

## Labour force participation rate

All persons of working age who supply labour for the production of goods and services as a percentage of the working age population.

## Integrated Rural Development

is “an ongoing process involving outside intervention and local aspirations; aiming to attain the betterment of groups of people living in rural areas and to sustain and improve rural values; through the redistribution of central resources, reducing comparative disadvantages for competition and finding new ways to reinforce and utilize rural resources” (Nemes 2005, p. 23).

## Labour market

The labour market is the arena in which jobs and workers are matched, or where labour is exchanged for wages or payment in kind, whereas the labour force comprises the supply of workers to that market. Strictly speaking, the labour market is the context in which the labour force is constituted – the sea in which the labour force swims, so to speak. But the labour force is necessarily shaped by trends in the labour market (such as globalization and the informalization of labour).

The labour market and its institutions are not neutral, but reflect power relations in the economy and society at large. Changes in the labour market are therefore gendered and produce

changes in the gender structure of the labour force, for instance in occupational segregation, women and men’s relative participation in employment, and so on.

## Lifetime migrant

A person who is living in a different place from where they were born is known as a lifetime migrant.

## Manufacturing, value added (% of GDP)

The value of the gross output of manufacturing, minus the value of intermediate goods and services consumed in production.

## Megacity

An urban agglomeration with a population of 10 million people or more (UNICEF, 2012)

## Metropolitan area/region

A formal local government area comprising the urban area as a whole and its primary commuter areas, typically formed around a city with a large concentration of people (i.e. a population of at least 100 000) (UNICEF, 2012)

## Migrant worker

A migrant worker is a person who is to be engaged, is engaged, or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national.

## Migration

The movement of people across a specified boundary for the purpose of establishing a new or semi-permanent residence. Divided into international migration (migration between countries) and internal migration (migration within a country).

## Mobility

The geographic movement of people.

## Out-migration

Out-migration is the movement of people from a population of interest to somewhere else on a long-term

basis that involves a change in their place of usual residence. It refers to both migratory moves to another country (emigration) and changes of residence that are internal to a country.

## Natural increase

Natural increase is the difference between the births and deaths occurring in a population. It differs from the population growth rate in that the latter also reflects net migration. The rate of natural increase is the crude birth rate minus the crude death rate.

## Net migration

Net migration is the difference between the inward and outward flows of migrants to and from a population, i.e. in-migrants minus out-migrants.

## Peri-urban

Rural areas with higher than average population densities considered to be in a transition between rural and urban.

## Primate city

Classification of the largest city if it is at least 5–7 times the size of the second-largest.

## Rate of urbanisation

An increase in the ratio of urban to rural population (equal to the differential between urban and rural population growth).

## Rural population

Rural people usually live in a farmstead or in groups of houses containing 5 000–10 000 persons, separated by farmland, pasture, trees or scrubland. Most rural people spend the majority of their working time on farms.

## Rural nonfarm economy (RNFE)

The rural non-farm economy may be defined as comprising all those activities associated with waged work or self-employment in income

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generating activities (including income in-kind) that are not agricultural but which generate income (including remittances etc.) in rural areas.

## Slum

A heavily populated urban area characterized by substandard housing and squalor. An area that combines to various extents the following characteristics: a) inadequate access to safe water; b) inadequate access to sanitation and other infrastructure; c) poor structural quality of housing; d) overcrowding; and e) insecure residential status (UN-Habitat, 2003)

## Underemployment

Underemployment reflects underutilization of the productive capacity of the employed population, including those which arise from a deficient national or local economic system. It relates to an alternative employment situation in which persons are willing and available to engage.

## Unemployed

A person who, during the specified short reference period, was (a) without work, (b) currently available for work, and (c) seeking work. A person is also considered unemployed if they are not currently working but have made arrangements to take up paid or self-employment at a date subsequent to the reference period.

## Unemployment

A measure of the total number of unemployed persons.

## Unemployment rate

Unemployment as a percentage of the total labour force (employment + unemployment). The indicator is widely used as a measure of unutilized labour supply.

## Urban

Countries differ in the way they classify population as 'urban' or 'rural.' Typically, a community or

settlement with a population of 2,000 or more is considered urban. A listing of country definitions is published annually in the United Nations Demographic Yearbook.

## Urban and territorial planning

A decision-making process aimed at realizing economic, social, cultural and environmental goals through the development of spatial visions, strategies and plans and the application of a set of policy principles, tools, institutional and participatory mechanisms and regulatory procedures (UN-Habitat, 2015)

## Urban area

The built-up or densely populated area containing the city proper, suburbs, and continuously settled commuter areas (definitions of urban areas vary by country) (Kuchelmeister, 1998)

## Urban growth

Increase in the population defined as urban.

## Urban population

De facto population living in areas classified as urban according to the criteria used by each area or country. Data refer to 1 July of the year indicated and are presented in thousands.

## Urban poverty

Urban poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon. The urban poor live with many deprivations. Their daily challenges may include: a) limited access to employment opportunities and income; b) inadequate and insecure housing and services; c) violent and unhealthy environments; d) little or no social protection mechanisms; and e) limited access to adequate health and education opportunities. But urban poverty is not just a collection of characteristics, it is also a dynamic condition of vulnerability or susceptibility to risks (World Bank, 2016)

## Urban sprawl

Incremental urban development in suburban and rural areas outside their respective urban centres, characterized by a low-density mix of land uses on the urban fringe, often accompanied by a lack of redevelopment or re-use of land within the urban centres themselves (European Commission, 2012)

## Urbanisation

Process by which the percentage of urban population within total population increases. Urbanisation is an increase in the proportion of a population that lives in urban areas. Urbanisation can result from rural-to-urban migration, from more rapid natural increase in the urban population than the rural population, or from the redesignation of previously rural areas as urban.

## Urbanisation growth

Growth in the proportion of a population living in urban areas.

## Urbanisation rate

Share of the population living in urban areas at a given moment in total population.

## Vocational training

Vocational training comprises activities intended to provide the skills, knowledge, competencies, and attitudes required for employment in a particular occupation, or a group of related occupations, in any field of economic activity. By equipping groups that are discriminated against with the skills needed to improve their employability, productivity, and income, vocational training can play an important role in promoting equality of opportunities for all workers to obtain decent work.

## Vulnerable employment

The sum of own-account workers and contributing family workers.

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## Vulnerability

The characteristics of a person, group or an ecosystem that influence their capacity to anticipate, cope with, resist and recover from the impact of a hazard.

## Youth

Youth overlaps with, but is distinct from adolescence, as it extends into adulthood. This guide follows the United Nations in defining youth as persons of 15 to 24 years. This is helpful in capturing many of those who have finished schooling, are sexually active and are facing livelihoods/unemployment issues.

## Youth employment

The United Nations General Assembly defined youth as those persons falling between the ages of 15 and 24 years inclusive. This definition was made for International Youth Year, held around the world in 1985. In the framework of reporting progress towards the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals, the ILO takes the lead in reporting on trends concerning the youth employment rate.

## Youth-led development

An approach to development driven and guided by young people that draws upon their energy, creativity and skills to create positive change. It can be on a small or large scale and implicitly values young people as an asset for society.



## Selected resources available online (English and French)

En italique les documents disponibles en français

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- *CEA-Commission Economique pour l'Afrique* [http://www.uneca.org/fr/fr\\_main.htm](http://www.uneca.org/fr/fr_main.htm)
- UNDP-United Nations Development Programme <http://www.undp.org/>
- *PNUD-Programme des Nations Unies pour le développement* <http://www.undp.org/french/>
- UNESCAP-United Nations Economic and Social Commissions for Asia & the Pacific <http://www.unescap.org/>

# Strengthening rural livelihoods in the face of rapid urbanisation in Africa



- UNSCN- United Nations System Standing Committee on Nutrition  
<http://www.unscn.org/>
- World Bank- Agriculture and rural development portal  
<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTARD/O,,menuPK:336688-pagePK:149018-piPK:149093-theSitePK:336682,00.html>
- World Bank-Data on agriculture and rural development  
<http://data.worldbank.org/topic/agriculture-and-rural-development>
- Banque Mondiale-Données sur le développement rural  
<http://donnees.banquemondiale.org/theme/agriculture-et-developpement-rural>
- CGIAR-Groupe Consultatif pour la Recherche Agricole Internationale  
[http://www.cgiar.org/languages/lang-french.htm\\_](http://www.cgiar.org/languages/lang-french.htm_)
- FARA-Forum for Agriculture Research in Africa  
[http://www.fara-africa.org/\\_](http://www.fara-africa.org/_)
- FARA-Forum pour la recherche agricole en Afrique  
[http://fr.fara-africa.org\\_](http://fr.fara-africa.org_)
- IIASTD-International Assessment of Agricultural Knowledge, Science and Technology for Development <http://www.agassessment.org>
- IFPRI-International Food Policy Research Institute  
<http://www.ifpri.org/34>

## NGOs, Think Tank and Networks

- ActionAid  
<http://www.actionaid.org/>
- Action against Hunger  
<http://www.actionagainsthunger.org./>
- Action contre la Faim  
<http://www.actioncontrelafaim.org/>
- Global Donor Platform for Rural Development  
<https://www.donorplatform.org/challenges-and-opportunities-of-rural-transformation.html>
- OXFAM  
<http://www.oxfam.org/en>  
<http://www.oxfam.org/fr>
- IFPRI-Institut International de Recherche sur les Politiques Alimentaires  
[http://www.ifpri.org/french\\_](http://www.ifpri.org/french_)
- INRA – French National Institute for Agricultural Research  
<http://www.international.inra.fr/>
- ODI –Rural employment and migration portal  
<http://www.odi.org.uk/resources/search.asp?database=resources&theme=448>
- Future agricultures  
<http://www.future-agricultures.org/>
- Future agricultures-portal for youth employment  
[http://www.future-agricultures.org/index.php?option=com\\_content&view=category&layout=blog&id=1568&Itemid=1034](http://www.future-agricultures.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=category&layout=blog&id=1568&Itemid=1034)

## Research Organisations

- CIRAD  
<http://www.cirad.fr/>
- CGIAR-Consultative Group on International Agriculture Research  
<http://www.cgiar.org>

## Endnotes

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