ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

CENTER FOR FOOD SECURITY STUDIES

THE NEXUS BETWEEN YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT AND FOOD INSECURITY EVIDENCES FROM ADDIS ABABA: NIFAS SILK LAFETO SUB-CITY WOREDA 09

BY

GOSA MEKURIA

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA

SEPTEMBER, 2021

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

CENTER FOR FOOD SECURITY STUDIES

THE NEXUS BETWEEN YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT AND FOOD INSECURITY EVIDENCES FROM ADDIS ABABA: NIFAS SILK LAFETO SUB-CITY WOREDA 09

BY

GOSA MEKURIA

ADVISOR

TEMESGEN TILAHUN (PHD)

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO CENTER FOR FOOD SECURITY STUDIES COLLEGE OF DEVELPOMENT STUDIES

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE IN FOOD SECURITY AND DEVELOPMENT STUDY

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA

SEPTEMBER, 2021

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and for most, let my unending thanks and praise go to my God who have been helping me and guiding me throughout my life with his endurance and might. Next, I am deeply indebted to Mr. Mekonnen Abegaz, Ms. Alem Bekele and my whole family that has been providing me remarkable support in everything. I would also like to extend my thanks to my advisor, Dr Temesgen Tilahun for his constructive comments and advice. I am also grateful to those who had helped me and had willingly participated in my research work. Finally, I heartily give my special gratitude to my friends who had been beside me with their encouragements and support till the accomplishment of my study.

GOSA MEKURIA

SEPTEMBER 2021

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree or certification in any other Universities, institutions and that all sources of material used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

_____

GOSA MEKURIA TEBEJE

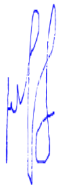
September, 2021

Addis Ababa

Addis Ababa University

School of Graduate Studies

This is to certify that the thesis entitled ―The Nexus Between Youth Unemployment and Food Insecurity Evidences From Addis Ababa Nifas Silk Lafeto Sub-City Woreda 09 is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of master of science in Food Security and Development Studies from Addis Ababa University, and is a record of original research carried out by Gosa Mekuria Tebeje, Id. No GSE/3074/11, under my supervision, and no part of the thesis has been submitted for any other Degree or Diploma. The assistance and help received during the courses of this investigation have been duly acknowledged. Therefore, I recommend it to be accepted as fulfilling the thesis requirement.

Major Advisor Temesgen Tilahun Signature  Date 03 September 2021

Addis Ababa University

School of Graduate Studies

This is to certify that the thesis prepared by Gosa Mekuria, entitled ―The Nexus Between Youth Unemployment and Food Insecurity Evidences From Addis Ababa Nifas Silk Lafeto Sub-City Woreda 09 and submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of master of science in Food Security and Development Studies complies with the regulations of the University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

Temesgen Tilahun(PhD)		03 September 2021
Thesis advisor	Signature	Date
Name of Internal Examiner	Signature	Date
Name of External Examiner	Signature	Date
Head, CFSS	Signature	Date

Table of content

Page

Lists of Tables

Tables **Page**

Lists of Figures

Figures **Page**

List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

AE Adult Equivalent

CSA Central Statistical Agency

CV Curriculum Vitae

EC Ethiopian Calendar

FANTA Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance

FAO Food and Agriculture Organization

FBI Federal Bureau of Investigation

ECA Economic Commission for Africa

FDRE Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia

FGD Focused Group Discussion

GDP Gross Domestic Product

HDDS Household Dietary Diversity Score

HFIAS Household Food Insecurity Access Scale

HICFES Household Income and Consumption Expenditure

IMF International Monetary Fund

IFPRI International Food Policy Research Institute

ILO International Labor Organization

LFS Labour Force Survey

MDG Millennium Developmental Goal

MoFED Ministry of Finance and Economic Development

MoUDH Ministry of Urban Development and Housing

MoLSA Ministry of Labor and Social Affair

MOY National Youth Policy, Addis Ababa Ethiopia

MSSEDO Micro and Small Scale Entrepreneur Development Office

MYSC Ministry of Youth, Sports and Culture

PIM Project Implementation Manual

PASDEP Plan for Accelerated Sustainable Development to End Poverty

SD Standard Deviation

TVET Technical and Vocational Education and Training

UN United Nation

WB World Bank

WFP World Food Program

ABSTRACT

Food insecurity is defined as the lack of capability to produce food and to have access by all people at all times to enough food for an active and healthy life. The objective of this study was the Nexus between Youth Unemployment and Food Insecurity Evidences from Nifas Silk Lafeto Sub-City Woreda 09. A sample of 118 Youths were included. The respondents were interviewed with the use of a structured questionnaire to obtain information on their demographic, socioeconomic characteristics and dietary intake. Age, Number of dependent, Income, Job preferences, Employment status and marital status are significant predictor cause food insecurity and have stronger correlation. 35.3% of the households were categorized as food secure, 28.4% as mildly food insecure, 27.5% as moderately food insecure and 8.8% as severely food insecure based on the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) and the Household Dietary Diversity Scale (HDDS) results shows the majority of them eaten low protein diets 92.3%, 63.39%, 80.34%, 94.09%, 95.76%, 73.73%, and 90.58% cereals, potato, vegetable, bean/peas/, oil, sugar and coffee were consumed more in the past 24 hours of the study. Youths with food shortages were forced to use a range of coping strategies, mainly consumption-related mechanisms that include purchasing food on credit, reduce portion and skipped meals, shopping in cheap shops for cheap foods, informal support experiences friends and family and dietary change. It is recommended that efforts to improve socio-economic status of the youth by enhancing the food insecurity of the households in the city need to be focused. It promotes the employability of young people through a system of participation, where you can find a large labor supply and training courses for work, so that young people achieve the country's development articulated in better condition. More studies based on food insecurity problem should be carried out to generate more information in addressing youth food insecurity among different gender groups in Nifas Silk Lafeto Sub-City Woreda 09.

.

KEYWORDS – Youth, Unemployment, Food Insecurity, Nifas Silk Lafeto Sub-City Woreda 09

CHPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Nowadays, the growth of youth unemployment is a hot issue and becomes one of the critical socio-economic problems facing in Ethiopia. Youth is undeniably among the most important formidable force and resource a country can have in order to boost its social and economic development. In addition of being huge in number, the youngster are energetic, brave and poses new thoughts that may make modifications to the social and monetary improvement if they may be properly coordinated and concerned in monetary activities of the country. Regardless of such importance youth have been faced with many challenges one of them being unemployment problem. Youth unemployment is among the major challenges facing both developed and developing countries in the world which is a major causes for youth to be individually in poverty condition and finally leads them to be food insecurity as individual and in household level.

Unemployment is defined as the circumstance of persons those are without jobs. The International Labour Organization (ILO, 2007) defines unemployment as numbers of economically active population who're without work, however to be had for and looking for work, which includes human beings who've misplaced their jobs and people who've voluntarily left work. According to international labor organizational statistics, international youth's unemployment has extended via way of means of 3.4 million from 2007 to 2012 and is predicted to retain growing in the future.

The problem of youth unemployment has become a threat to the social, economic and political stability in most developing countries especially in urban areas to the family members and society. Youths Failure to find employments results in demoralization, depreciation in their human capital and deterioration in their employment prospects which leads to social exclusion and mostly they will be food insecure which is a very big problem. As we know food insecurity occurs when people's lack of consistent access to food, which diminishes dietary quality,

disrupts normal eating patterns, and can have negative consequences for nutrition, health and well-being, (FAO, 2012).

It is severe in developing countries than that of developed because in developed country their social safety net programs handle their people's food insecurity by targeting the total unemployed population to alleviate the problem of food insecurity but in developing countries governments like us the social safety net programs are not effective to adders all the targeted unemployed population due to many reasons from those reasons not having enough finance resources is the major one.

Unemployment in Ethiopia is more of a problem of urban youth than that of rural area youths. According to Ethiopian labor force survey report, the youth unemployment rate of urban youth at country level were 21.6 percent while for rural youth remained at 3.1 percent only (LFS, 2013). Also (World Bank, 2017) report stated that, Unemployment rate in Ethiopia is 5.2%. Economically now no longer energetic populace who have been neither engaged in effective active nor to be had to grant their labour due to lack of employment opportunities for young people is among the critical development barrier to national efforts toward the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals as we know that being food secure is one of its important goal. The rapid population growth and high level of rural urban migration contribute to high level of total unemployed population in urban areas of the country which leads the youths to poverty and finally food insecurity as an individual as well in household level.

It is extensively mentioned that activity loss or unemployment is one of the maximum vital danger elements for family food insecurity; unemployment in particular impacts family food intake thru bad earnings surprise and earnings volatility. Households with no adult employed are more likely to experience food insecurity However, although unemployment appears a key factor predicting food insecurity.

Since Addis Ababa is the urban centre and capital city of the country many researches shows that there is a high rate of youth unemployment whether they are educated (skilled) or uneducated (unskilled). Therefore youth unemployment is one of the basic reasons to people's poverty which lead to food insecurity in individually as well household level. According to (Central Statistics

Agency of Ethiopia, 2011), one –fifth of Ethiopian urban population lives in Addis Ababa. from 11 sub cities which are found in Addis Ababa Nifas Silk Lafeto is one of them in this sub city there are 12 Woredas from those Woredas , Woreda 09 is one of the high number of youth unemployed recorded. Therefore the main objective of the study was carried out to know the nexus between youth unemployment and food insecurity evidences from Addis Ababa Nifas Silk Lafeto sub city woreda 09.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The world population has grown steadily, with most people now living in urban areas. Ethiopia is the second most populous country in Africa behind only Nigeria, with an estimated population of 96.5 million by 2014 (World Population Review, 2015). Among from them were youth who are unemployed active force in the country. Now days, Unemployment is one of the major challenges amongst the youth population. Due to this, the majority of them are more vulnerable members of society or community that highly affect by unemployment in urban centres of the country. It is widely acknowledged that job loss or unemployment is one of the most important risk factors for individual and household food insecurity. The prevalence of food insecurity was higher among households headed by unemployed persons (Degefa Tolosa and Dula Etana, 2017).

This complex and multifaceted nature of urban poverty and the subsequent food insecurity deserves deeper understanding for the purpose of both knowledge generation and for practices aimed at improving the livelihood of the youth. High food prices specifically affect those youth depending on markets for consumption. It is therefore, manifest that it is the urban areas, and within the urban areas the urban poor, who are the worst affected by rising food prices.

Recent report suggested (Addis Ababa Bureau of Finance and Economic Development, 2021) in the city there is high number of youth who were unemployed often who are associated with food insecurity. Relatively few studies have been done specifically on urban food security in Ethiopia. The few studies done have centered in Addis Ababa (Degefa, 2008; Yared, 2010, Ejigayehu and Abdi-Khalil, 2012, Birhane, et. al 2014, Girma, 2012). Although, many of the research finding in the country focus on youth unemployment and food insecurity, Similarly, earlier studies of

urban poverty in Ethiopia essentially tended to focus mainly on the principal or major cities FP, 2009; Emebet, 2008; Tesfaye, 2006; Kedir and McKay, 9 2003). They do not show the situation of the urban poor in small towns. Nonetheless, the histories, the nature of poverty, and the living conditions differ greatly between the large and small cities of the country.

But, such studies are unable to address the importance youth. In addition, it lacks linked between youth unemployment and food insecurity. In order to establish appropriate intervention strategies to this problem, the nexus between youth unemployment and food insecurity, it is important to recognize that these are multidimensional concepts that are multidirectional in their relationship to one another (e.g. unemployment is a result of poverty, but food insecurity itself is a cause of poverty). Evidence also indicates that stunting contributes to intergenerational transmission of poverty and deprivation, which often explains intergenerational effects on linear growth of the economy. This research seeks to provide a clear picture of the nexus between youth unemployment and food insecurity as an Evidences from Addis Ababa Nifas Silk Lafeto Sub-City Woreda 09.

1.3 Research Objectives

1.3.1. General Objective

General objective of study was the Nexus between Youth Unemployment and Food Insecurity Evidences from Nifas Silk Lafeto Sub-City Woreda 09.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

- To assess the nature of youth unemployment in the study area
- To examine the effects of youth unemployment on food insecurity in the study area
- To explore the copying strategies of food insecurity for youth unemployment in the study area

1.4 Research Questions

The study attempted to answer the following basic questions

1. What are the natures of youth unemployment in the study area?
2. What are the effects of youth unemployment on food insecurity of the study area?
3. What are the copying strategies for food insecurity unemployed youths in the study area?

1.5 Scope of the study

Unemployment is the key problem of youths in Ethiopia in general and specifically in Addis Ababa city the number of unemployment increases from time to time. But the study was focused mainly on Nifas silk Lafto sub city youths unemployment situation with related to their food insecurity.

1.6 Limitation of the study

The major limitation during this study was missing data in most the variables of the data set. this was caused the researcher not to capture relevant information on the variables and also similarly the study was faced challenges of coverage of the total population, because such type of study might be required the consideration of large sample size.

The other limitation of the study was unwillingness of respondent's corporation, address change, the frequency of interviewing may arise because of faulty responses due to vague questions, memory errors.

Beside the above limitations since the study is specified in one city this may create some problem in generalizing the whole challenges of youth unemployment in the country level. Assigning the nexus between youth unemployment and food insecurity is the difficult as it is the collective effect of different socio-economic and demographic factors.

1.7 Significant of the study

The findings of this study are expected to be important in the following ways. Firstly, provided that urban research projects that have attempted to examine urban unemployment and food insecurity in urban centers are scarce in Ethiopia, the present study will help to partially fill the gap in the literature on urban issues, the status of food insecurity and youth unemployment of urban households. Secondly, by using an analytical framework that combines youth and food insecurity patterns with a political ecology approach, the study has shown that food access in urban Ethiopia is shaped by political-economic structures, socio-cultural norms and ecological factors; and thus, this study will offer the background information to be used as a basis for further research in the area and improve poverty reduction and food security, the knowledge of the food challenges that urban households face obtained from the study will be of importance in the formulation of policies and strategies aimed at ensuring food security in urban areas. Thus, the urban policy makers and planners might be benefited from outcome of such a research to address problems of urban food insecurity city.

1.8 Ethical consideration

The study had taken into consideration the ethics of research. Before proceeding to conduct the study, official letter from the university was taken to provide to the concerned bodies to receive permission. While contacting respondents, the purpose of the study was explained at the beginning of conversation. Their full consent was first checked before starting interviews or discussions. Besides, they were informed that their information would be kept confidential, and would be used for the study purpose. The study is committed to present response as it is without misinterpretation or exaggeration.

1.9 Organization of the Study

The study is organized into five parts. Part one is the Introduction section which consists of the study‘s background, statement of the problem, objectives, significance, scope, limitations and ethical consideration of the study. The second section is Literature Review where related concepts and literatures related with the study are reviewed. Theoretical, empirical and analytical frameworks of the study are also incorporated in this section. The third chapter of the study describes the Research Methodology of the study. It includes description of the study area, research design, sampling technique, sample size, source and type of data, data collection and data analysis methods. The fourth chapter presents the Results and the Discussion; whereas, the last chapter forwards Conclusions and Recommendations drawn from the findings of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Theoretical and Conceptual Review

2.2.1 Introduction

In the Theoretical part for this study first define the basic concept of unemployment, Youth unemployment and unemployment theories, then further to explored empirical literature of youth unemployment in Global and Ethiopia and socio demographic and economic determinants of youth unemployment, the effects of unemployment in food insecurity and consequences of youth unemployment and finally show the conceptual framework of the study.

2.2. Concept of Unemployment and Youth Unemployment

According to the international standard definition of unemployment, the "unemployed" include all persons above the age particular for measuring the economically energetic population, who during the situation period fulfill the following three situations simultaneously: Without work: not in paid employment or self-employment, as specific by the international definition of employment; Presently available for work: available for paid employment or self-employment during the indication period or shortly after and Seeking work: had taken specific steps in a specified recent period (typically the last four weeks) to seek paid employment or self-employment.

A special provision applies to persons without work who made arrangements to start work at a date subsequent to the reference period or future starts. These persons are classified as "unemployed" irrespective of their job search activity, provided they were without work during the reference period and at this time available for work.

Seeking work means taking active steps to look for job such as registration at public or private employment exchanges, direct application to employers, checking at worksites, farms, factory gates, market or other meeting places, placing or answering newspaper advertisements, seeking

assistance of friends or relatives, looking for financial resources, land, building, machinery or tools, or permits or licenses to institute own enterprise.(18th International Conference of Labour Statisticians Geneva 24 November – 5 December, 2008)

Also according to worldwide conventions, two concepts of unemployment are possible. They vary in the way they categorize those who are jobless and presented for job, but not taking on the go Steps to find a job. Their suitable arrangement depends on whether these individuals prefer not to work, in which case they would be better classified as inactive, or rather whether they can be well thought-out depressed employees, which is employees who would like to have a job but believe that an active job search would be unproductive. Global practice in general follow the first classification and adopt a slight meaning, which considers those jobless who do not actively search out of the labour force or inactive. The Central Statistic Agency in compare adopts the second approach and uses a broad definition which treats inactive unemployed workers as unemployed. (Tsegay Gebrekidan and Nizing H.Broussard, 2012)

According to the definition by the united Nation World Youth Report, 2003 Youth unemployment is the unemployment of young people, from 15-24 Years old. An unemployed person is someone who does not have a job but is actively seeking. In order to qualify as unemployed for official and statistical measurement, the individual must be without for a position employment, willing and able to work, of the officially designated 'working age' and actively searching for a position youth unemployment rates are historically double or more the adult rates in nearly every country in the world. Reasons for rates of youth unemployment vary across from nations to nations depending up on their economic developments.

The young groups who are not fully occupied in service unluckily include more than the traditional defined unemployed youths that most official statistics report. It include youths who have distorted searching for a work altogether those who can only gain part time jobs, and those working informal very low paying positions. Millions of adolescent people often with high level of instruction are diminishing from the working force. (Andrew Leon Hanna, 2013)

2.3. Unemployment Theories

I. Human Capital Theory

The human capital theory deals with the individual resources option, particularly the individuals‟ efforts to invest in education and trainings (Berntson et al 2006:225). In their preparation to transition from school to work young people skill development takes place in school (general human capital development), in the apprenticeship of early work experience development, acquire training on specific work through specific human capital investment (Becker 1964 in Fleischhauer K.J 2007).

Thus, having access to conducive condition for labor supply is a key role for success. The combination of knowledge and skill that make the worker more productive is incorporated in human capital. Supply of proper education and training which fills skill gap will lead to the development of a more educated work force. Those who do not educated with the necessary profession have been exposed to higher unemployment rates.

II. Social Capital Theory

According fundamentals of social capital University of Illinois, 2000 social capital refers to that stock of social trust customs and networks that people can based up on to answer familiar troubles. Networks help coordination and communication and thus make channels through which information about the reliability of individuals and group can run and be experienced and confirmed.(CivicPracticesNetwork2000).http://www.cpn.org/sections/tools/models/social_capital.html)

Social capital is concerned with specific types of social bonds that sustain a sense of connection among individuals. Popular anxieties about a loss of community have entered social scientific discourse through the concept of social capital. This theory advances on the necessities of the social relation which help as the means to find a job.

III. The Job-Matching Theory

According to (Jovanovic, 1979), the most skilled workers should occupy the most skilled positions, and there is a mismatch if either the supply of educated workers or skilled positions surpasses the other. He also states that workers prefer such a match because they have the occasion to use all of their skills, increasing their feelings of value, which allows them to grasp higher salaries. Employers prefer such a match because individuals who are optimally utilizing their skill sets will maximize productivity for their firm, and will stay longer at the firm.

IV. Theory of Job Search

According to (Alessandra Faggian, 2014) Job search theory became popular in the 1970s as an option to the standard neoclassical labor supply theory. The neoclassical framework, based on the statement of ideal information, did not permit for unemployment where individuals vigorously wanted job but were incapable to find it. Individual agents only had two options, either being employed or being inactive. However, facts showed that unemployment and its time were not insignificant. This led a group of scholars to make another theory able to account for unemployment, which became known as job search theory. The main idea of job search models is that looking for an occupation is a dynamic chronological process and that individuals have to make his/her mind up when to stop this development under situation of doubt and imperfect information. Frictional unemployment is a natural result of this process

Where more formal systems of job applications exist, recruitment channels can be difficult to navigate and a young person may not know how to write a Curriculum Vitae (CV) or how to present oneself in a positive light in recruitment interviews. Adults, on the other hand, might have the possibility of finding work through references from previous employers or colleagues and are more likely to know the right people. The decision to apply for it depends on the expected value of getting a job or not lastly, he/she accepts the offer of any job for which he/she applied in getting it. The success of individual's application depends on his/her personal characteristics. Thus, they concluded that individual factors and the degree of competition from other jobseekers could affect the chance of finding a productive job.

2.4 Empirical literature

2.4.1 Empirical Studies on Global Youth Unemployment

The International Labour Organization predicted that the amount of unemployed youth is on the rise again since 2011, following declining from the climax it reach at the time of the global financial catastrophe. It is estimated to reach 74.2 million young groups by 2014 base on (ILO, 2010). The global youth unemployment rate has also been rising since 2011. At current it estimated at 12.6% and is expected to increase to 12.8% by 2018.

According to (Echebiri, 2005), on the origin of youth in Umuahia city in Nigeria, finds that unemployment is forced by age, marital status, dependency ratio, education, current income and employment favorite paid or self-employment. (Alhawarin and Kreishan, 2010) also show that age, gender, marital status, region, work experience and educational level are the main determinants of unemployment in Jordan.

Another study by (Andrew Leon Hanna, 2013) the Global Youth Unemployment Crisis: Exploring Successful Initiatives and Partnering with Youths. Find that today's generation of young people the Millennial Generation is the leading group of youths the world has ever seen. Over 3.5 billion people about half of the world's populations are under the age of 25. 1.2 billion Of this younger half fits the most universal definition of youth people between the ages of 15 and 24 (Global Agenda Councils, 2013). Given the degree of the difficulty, it is of vital importance to make certain that these youths are occupied in employment, actively contributing to the improvement of their local communities and nations. This study will discover four particular problems linked with youth unemployment across the globe and five matching groups of solution. It will then present the experience and thoughts, composed through a web based questionnaire, of 50 global youth leaders from 30 countries around the world. Eventually its goal is to give both an account of victorious youth employment program that can potentially be scale and a view of the perspectives and ideas of global youth leaders jointly these two insights will lead to recommendation for partnership between youths and institutions that have the potential to stop the youth unemployment confront in a more effective.

Empower adolescent group with the capabilities to tackle our world's largest social, political, and economic troubles starts with ensuring that they are actively engaged in employment. This problem has become particularly relevant in both developing and developed nations after the collapse of Lehman Brothers in 2008 and the ensuing worldwide recession. The Millennial youth cohort makes up 17 % of the global residents, yet it accounts for a severely disproportional 40 % of international joblessness. Young groups worldwide are almost three times further probable than their parents to be out of work today. Further, in 2010, 357.7 million young groups were not active in instruction, employment, or preparation (a metric called NEET – Not in Education, Employment, or Training, and this number has been growing rapidly ever since (Global Agenda Councils, 2013)

In shifting perspective from developed economies to developing economies, fast residents increase in Sub-Saharan Africa makes the challenge of youth being without a job even greater as the require on employment markets grows quickly. Today, almost one in three peoples existing in the area residents of 297 million is between the age of 10 and 24. This age cohort is estimated to almost twice to about 561 million by the year 2050 (The World's Youth, 2013).

As the population of educated Sub-Saharan African youths grows estimations are that the proportion of 20 to 24 year olds with completed secondary education will increase from 42% to 59% in the coming 20 years its economies burden for work are not keeping up with the increasingly viable workforce. Of 74 million jobs created between the years of 2000 and 2008, only about one-third was for youths (Devlin, 2013).

A challenge that is particularly difficult in this region is the fact that large numbers of adolescent group still have extremely little schooling or preparation. in any case half of adolescent group between the ages of 15 and 19 lack basic, foundational skill like literacy and numeracy, often because they have never attended school or dropped out very early (Devlin, 2013). For these youths, there are currently very limited options to gain skills to match what the job market is searching for.

2.4.2 Conceptualization of youth unemployment in Ethiopia

Different nations have varied age group of the young segment of their society. United nations define youth to be under 15-24 age brackets. Meanwhile, Ethiopia regards youth for those ranging from 15-29 (MYSC, 2004). The working population in Ethiopia i.e. 15 - 64 account for 51.9% of the total population whereas the youth account for 28.3% of the total population (CSA, 2008). The standard definition of being without a job with its emphasis on seeking work criterion might be restrictive and might not fully capture the prevailing employment situations in many developing countries including Ethiopia, where the labor market is largely unorganized or of limited scope where labor absorption is inadequate or where the labor force is largely self-employed. Unemployment includes peoples without work and those who are available for job, including those who were or were not without a job. That is, the looking for work criterion is completely relaxed and unemployment is based on the "without work" and "availability" 14 criterions only. The availability in this situation is tested by asking the willingness to take up work for wage or salary in locally prevailing terms, or readiness to undertake self-employment activity; given the necessary resources and facilities. It should be noted that fulltime students are considered as available if and only if they are ready to withdraw from their studies in order to accept the job (CSA, 2011)

2.4.3 Empirical study on determinants of youth Unemployment in Ethiopia

A high level of unemployment indicates the failure of a country's economy to use its labour resources effectively. And there can be various factors explaining unemployment, such as a low level of general economic activity, recession, inflation, rapid changes in technology, disability, willingness to work and discrimination. In the case of Ethiopia, several factors contribute to the causes of youth unemployment:

I. **Poor economic situations** : it is a core difficulty for most developing nations such as Ethiopia. Which have bottom economic developments, which are leveled in low economic activity and low investment, entails low overall work creation (Bigesten et al., 2003).

II. **Professional mismatch**: profession of academicals training capability with the necessity of the work market is other vital cause for the high level of without work. According to (Dendir&Seife, 2006) a study of jobless in urban areas revealed is high in jobless rates of adult groups who have finished middle school or collages level. This could be due to a professional mismatch between the type of training given at institutions and the requirements of the work market.

III. **Absence of career advice**: According to most Technical and Vocational Education and Training institutions asked , youth who have a chance to get formal school choose their field of studies naively, without seeing their capability and willingness. Moreover, they are not given the vital introduction about their tomorrow visions , often showing them to select a field of study that has already available working forces. There is a gap of support for university finishers in finding works. Youth most of the time prefer to work in the known sector rather than work as a self employment. According to (Serneels, 2010) public sector and formal private sector employment are considered good works due to their high wages, while self employment, casual and cooperative employment are considered to be bad works .

IV. **Lack of experience:** The unemployment problem is at increasing for those with no work experience. According to (CSA, 2010), 48 per cent of the jobless work force in urban areas has never worked. From the supply side, adolescent job seekers being new to the job environment out of the experience demanded by investors. Limited formal job experience and out of job-related capability put youth at the bottom of the hiring list. Most investors requirement work experience of as the most critical problem that youth face. In the case of professional jobs, most fresh graduates remain unemployed for more than a year since most vacancies require work experience. The problem of adults unemployed is gaining attention in Ethiopia as the country is home to one of the largest youth populations in Sub-Saharan Africa, where most young people enter the labour market with low levels of human capital (Guarcello et al., 2007). To this effect, the GoE, has outlined in its main development strategy, PASDEP, a major emphasis on youth policy and strategy. The policies and strategies have been enshrined in various Government documents outlining the main directions to be followed in response to the issue.

V. **Low quality of training**: take part in vocational training increases the chance of being in work (Serneels and Pieter, 2004); however the degree of tutoring and its side effect on the instructors in actually making them with the vital capabilities is low. From the information data from both the private sector and some training organizations point upand agreed on the low quality of the tutoring that is being given.

VI. **High population growth**: (Okojie, 2007) explained the difficulty of peoples without work in Africa to be most profoundly felt by young groups in the continent who constitute the bulk of the residents, as much as 50% in most of the countries. The Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) outlined that most of Africans' countries are mark by excessive youthful residents . The increasing amount of quantity of residences heightening is another factor affecting scarcity of job opportunities. The dimensions of the labor force has been increasing at an average annual rate of 3.2%, reaching an estimated 32.2 million people in 2005. The demand for labour has a slower growth rate than the growing population.

VII. **Low Level of Education:** In Ethiopia, a high amount of persons get in to the work market below the age of 15 without or no formal education (Guarcello et al., 2006). Uneducated is a main reason that given to jobless and to job in the unofficial sector. Education is a ways for magnify the prolificacy and workability of a country's work force as it has a useful output on work type more capable workers are more likely to be in salary is much less likely to be in unpaid work than their less skilled counterparts (Guarcello et al., 2006)

VIII. **Lack of Entrepreneurship:** Ethiopia's work market is holding of a big unofficial economy and this unofficial sector is mainly an occupational of last spot rather than a partially by entrepreneurs (World Bank, 2007).According to (UN Habitat, 2003), most of individuals are activated to begin their own businesses and create their own employment because getting the of jobs in the current labor market are so limited. However, starting a small business without the capacity to sustain it or cope with other related challenges is not a viable solution to the difficulties of unemployment.

2.4.4 Low level of education and lack of quality skill attributes

On the supply side of the Ethiopian labor market, there is a low quality labor force. There are various reasons explaining the fact that most of the labor force has low educational levels and lack quality skills.

- **Low early human capital development**: Owing to the general poverty level in the economy, youth leave school and enter the labor market too early, without having the necessary human capital to succeed. Some findings from the survey implied youth that leave school at an early age usually stays being employed in the informal sector without further improvement in their human capital. UN Youth: Youth and Education (http://undesadspd.org/Youth.aspx), (2010-2011) In terms of tertiary education, much of the growth in enrolment has occurred in East Asia and the Pacific, and not in sub-Saharan Africa or South and West Asia. These regional inequalities can be demonstrated also by the estimates of literacy rates. Between 1994 and 2010, the number of non-literate youth (15-24 years) declined from almost 170 million to 122 million, and is projected to fall to 96 million by 2015 more than half of these will be young women. However, in sub-Saharan Africa, the percentage of non-literate young people stood at 29.6% in 2011.
- **Lack of entrepreneurial confidence and inspiration**: Being equipped with the necessary capability is vital, not only to get employed in a paying job but also for starting one's own business. The out of entrepreneurial inspiration , lack of vision/ innovation and inability to produce good business plans or feasibility studies are all part of the problem youth are facing in starting their own businesses .UN Youth: Youth and Education (http://undesadspd.org/Youth.aspx), (2010-2011)Programmes to equip young group with the capability for the world of work must provide technical and vocational education and training (TVET), combining classroom education with workplace training, and technical training with communication, problem solving and entrepreneurship awareness. Otherwise, young people will find it difficult to find a job, to stay in employment, to move on in the workplace, and, more broadly, to succeed in lifelong learning.

- **Youth perceptivity of employment:** Youth usually select to work in the official or formal sector rather than attract in self employment. According to (Serneels, 2007), common sector and formal private enterprises sector works are considered good jobs due to their high salaries , while self employment, casual and cooperative employment are considered to be bad jobs.
- **Youth motivation towards 'white collar' jobs (hence do not value 'blue collar' jobs:** by seeing to the salary difference , the middle class chooses to get education and line in unemployment for a good job while foregoing self employed income. Unfortunately, most of those who are interested to formal sector jobs never get one because of the sector's small share in the labor market.
- **Low capability to start self business and to stay in job**: according to the information from tutor giving organizations interviewed and collected , graduate assumptions of a easy and fast shift from school to job, perspective towards job and low level of capability hold youth stay away from being motivated in beginning of their own businesses. With regards to work in a group, most of the vital informer the data stated that youth are most of the time not willing to work in groups which makes it tough to get assistance in terms of credit and working places since these assists are most of the time provides only for those institutes in groups. Management difficulties and controversy were also listed as major problems when working in groups. Preparedness to the job was other factor explained the point of cases where youth groups disappeared with advance payments without even starting work or without showing Endeavour. (Andrew Leon Hanna, 2013) financial investment is critical, but another impediment to youth-led entrepreneurship is a lack of training and business development services; personal investment in youths is crucial. Young people often have promising ideas but lack the necessary skills to properly undertake a venture. So, programs to help young people develop a business plan reduce costs, and budgets are essential. These could take the form of skills-training programs, business counseling, mentor support, access to working space, and/or business expansion support (Chigunta, 2002).

2.4.5 National Trends

I. National Unemployment Trends in Ethiopia Economic

Ethiopia which is the second most populous country in sub-Sahara Africa has had one of the fastest growing economies in the globe, average 11% growing between 2005-2011. Its unemployment scale is dropping from 8.2 % in 1999 to 5.4 percent in 2013. Urban area, where as joblessness is more common, has experienced a drop from 26.1 per cent to 21 per cent at the same time of period. Similarly, the number of people employed in unofficial sector has dropping by half both for male and female (from 38.9 to 18.1 per cent and 64.8 to 36.5 per cent), respectively. Despite these gains, questions exist regarding whether these successes are inclusive and sustainable.

Ethiopia an agrarian economy in transition and explained resent trends in Ethiopian economy development ,structural modification, and labor outcomes to assess Ethiopian progress towards a modern economy specifically they examined effects of government policies around infrastructure, investment, pedagogy social protection, accumulation of capital and structural modification on economy growth and employment generation (Christina et al., 2016)

II. Change in employment share in by sector

The sub sector of constriction has experienced the highest employment growth 11 percent between1990-2011 however; its contribution to productivity is very low compared to sector growth performance in employment. The largest public project in the country, such as the Grand Renaissance Dam, like in constriction service, mining and manufacturing, sectors high employment growth in output while agriculture, Utilities, and transport experienced less growth in employment but high value added (Christina et al., 2016).

Ethiopia in its Growth and Transformation II plan maintains a basis on both rapid industrialization and structural Transformation. While some gains in industry have been positive especially in construction section in anticipation of a development manifesting section more productive manufacturing sector has not grown enough to contribute to sustainable growth (Christina et al., 2016).

2.5 The Ethiopia National Employment Policies and Strategy

According to (Ethiopia's National Employment Policy and Strategy in, 2015), employment generation has two important dimensions: the demand and supply side of job creation. The first dimension the demand side of job creation refers to the ability of the economy to create jobs for various skill categories as per the requirement of the economy. The second dimension the supply side of job creation deals with whether or not the skill levels of available pool of persons match with the type of skill that the economy requires (CSA, 2014). Ethiopia's public sector-led development strategy has contributed to considerable poverty reduction and progress toward achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as envisaged under the Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP). The investment requirements of the GTP are large and securing the associated financing remains a challenge without greater scope for the private sector the realization of the GTP"s objectives could be elusive (MOLSA, 2012).

It is widely recognized that employment, earnings and the labor markets play a crucial role in poverty reduction through promoting both economic development and its effectiveness in reducing poverty. It is also well recognized in Ethiopia that the availability of job chances and their characteristics constitute an essential transmission channel from improvement to poverty minimization. The objectives of the domestic Employment Policy and Strategy of Ethiopia have three important goals enhancing social welfare, accelerating economic growth, and achieving political stability. In addition to this enhancing private sectored productivity (both formal and informal) and creating mechanisms for strengthening their linkages and complementarities is critical to create decent and remunerative jobs (MOFED, 2008). To maximize adequate job chances:

i. Identify industrial zones in each region and put in place a more transparent and less costly method of leasing land to investors in labor-intensive manufacturing sub-sectors.
ii. Reducing the value of land can contribute to determination of Ethiopian firms and create more employment. Getting land for construction is ranked as the number one constraint in a recent business climate study (World Bank, 2007).

iii. Initiate research and growth and technological diffusion to improve competitiveness of the individual side.Labor intensive manufacturing enterprises require new technologies and designs to be competitive in both national and foreign markets.

Further build up the existing Public-Private Partnership Forum to enable the independent business community and investors in policy dialogue.

Inventions of jobs in the public sector could also be considered in terms of establishing missing links or build up and expanding existing organizations of social and economic significance to the country. The public intervention could create ample chances for new jobs in the public sector.

The youth employment mainstreaming master plan identified includes the following:

i. Enhancing the quality of education institution and Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVETs).
ii. Further enhance the implementation of the on- going youth package in a more structured manner.
iii. Supporting the creation of quality jobs in the formal and informal sectors.
iv. Fostering entrepreneurship and empowerment of youth.
v. Making possible for youths entry into business and encouraging jobs or implementation (CSA, 2013).

Conclusions to create chances for youth joblessness the role of private sectors are not still growing in the countries. Most of the private sectors do not care about young people and did not participating in poverty reduction.

2.6 Challenges of Youth Unemployment Globally

World is on the cusp of getting in to a new truth in which peoples capability itself will set off the main representative of economic development (Jeffrey, 2011). With smaller occurrence and less ability than many adults or youngsters often come with particular crises outpouring jobs. The world unemployed youths scale , which has long surpass that of other age groups, saw its high yearly increase on record in 2009; at its peak, 75.8 million young people were unemployed

(United Nations "World Youth Report, 2012). We are getting into the era of incompatible skill scarcity which if left unconsidered will put a outcome on economic development in the globe and will be basic change the way we perspective human resource challenges (Jean, 2011). In developing world large youth unemployment constitute lost potential for domestic economic changes and high amount of economically irritate youth may come up to social instability. Developing regions with markedly high youth unemployment rates include North Africa 26.6% the Middle East 24.0% and Southeast Europe/Former CIS states 22.6(International Labor Organization, 2011).

We argued so far that there have been varied regional outcomes in response to the youth bulge phenomenon, some positive and some negative, with the variation being primarily a function of the social and economic institutions that either allow or hinder different societies as they prepare young people for productive roles and as they deploy them in such roles. For youth bulge members to become productive labor force workers, it is essential that there is an adequately high level and growing demand for labor. As the youth population grows into adulthood, the ratio of physical capital to labor supply falls without demand fed expansion, the result can include stagnating or lower wages for workers of all ages, as well as unemployment or underemployment of new entrants to the labor force.

> In cases of inadequate growth in labor demand to capitalize on the "youth dividend," the forms that adverse work market results can take will depend on the structure of production, the degree of organization or formality of labor markets, the educational composition of adolescents and the outcomes that come along with schooling and the level of assist that families can provide as young group make their transitions to work. In this section we discuss the difficulty of measuring job inadequacy for youth present various measures that go beyond the level unemployment measures, and provide recommendations for how to improve these measures emanating urban population. According to this situation rapid uncontrolled urban expansion has led to an increase in the proportion of dependent people.

(Okojie, 2003) **fast Population developments problem** has effect toward joblessness in Africa to be most profoundly felt by adult groups in the continent who constitute the bulk of the

residences as much as 50% in most countries. (ECA) outlined that most of the countries are characterized by high youthful population.

According to (UN, 2014) report Africa has the world's youngest residence with 43% being under 15 years. It further points that a youthful population constitutes both an asset as well as a source of social vulnerability. (Jo et al., 2012) regards joblessness in South Africa to stem from worker development fall behind population development. As above describes population fluctuation are cause for provocations of youth unemployment in Ethiopia.

i. **Lack of information, networks and connections among youth:** especially youth from families lacks significant social capital. Many young people lack knowledge of what the world of work is actually like, and have not given careful thought to their own potential career choices. They have not used their time in school to prepare appropriately for realistic career paths. They lack informal networks and connections that are traditionally the major source of information about job opportunities. And they do not know how to navigate the labor market to identify and pursue available jobs or to find and use the most relevant training resources. (Andrew Leon Hanna,2013), As Internet job sites are now the source of about 25 percent of new hires according to CareerXroads, online matching organizations are becoming increasingly vital to solving the job awareness problem. INJAZ al-Arab, the Arab-world affiliate of Junior Achievement that operates in 14 nations, is currently working on developing an online platform – Arab Youth Portal (AYP) – dedicated to job matching for youths. This group appears to be poised for success in connecting businesses to young people, as it currently reaches 200,000 Arab youths annually and has thousands of private sector volunteers. Organizations like INJAZ and Junior Achievement also partner with schools and vocational institutions to increase young people's exposure to the labor market at an early age, helping them to understand the different job and career opportunities available. Junior Achievement has reached more than four million students in the US ("Youth Unemployment Challenges," 2012).
ii. **Lack of experience and credentials:** According to Regional Overview: Youth in the Arab Region August (2010-2011) interestingly however, education enrollment in tertiary education within the region favors women. This could possibly be attributable to their low economic activity rates and higher admission exam scores, or to the fact that young

women are less likely than their male counterparts to drop out to join the labor force or to study abroad. Nevertheless, university education is generally limited in Arab countries when compared to other regions of the world. Despite the fact that the number of students enrolled in higher education doubled between 1998 and 2008, when adjusting those figures for population increase within the 18-24 age group, the gross enrolment ratio improvement was not considerable, rising only from 18% to 22% across Arab countries. It is only recently that special attention has been given to improving technical and vocational training in the region. And even still, additional efforts are required to help fill in gaps in the labor market, such as the enhancement of accreditation and certification systems, and the enhancement of ICT-related programs. That addresses employers' risk in making hiring commitments. Many employers are skeptical about young people's ability to apply the skills they learn in schools to the practical challenges of the workplace. They also question the social skills and work ethic of youth. They see these deficits as a significant barrier to the productivity of inexperienced young people, and at the same time they are reluctant to invest resources in training young people when more experienced adult workers may be unemployed and available for hire.

iii. **Lack of skills appropriate to the job areas** : United Nation Youth: Youth and Education (http://undesadspd.org/Youth.aspx, 2010-2011),Programmes to provide young population with the capability for the globe of work must provide scientific and vocational pedagogy and training, collaborate classroom instruction with workplace tutoring and scientific training with reporting problem resolve and entrepreneurship perceptions. Unless or Otherwise young population will find it hard to find a works, to stay in work, to move on in the work areas, and more widely to advance in lifelong investigations. Even those young groups who have pursued a course of study with a specific career in mind often find themselves with general or theoretical knowledge that does little to prepare them for the actual tasks they will encounter on the job. This is partly the fault of academy curricula and poor connections between employers and the educational system. Young group also lack specific "21st century workplace capabilities" such as cooperation, communication, excogitative, creativity, and a focus on the needs of the enterprise.

iv. **Poor Education Quality**: (Jo Beall, 2012) said that unemployment affects mostly those who are poorly educated, unskilled and the female population in South Africa. According to (Murray et al, 2004) education quality is a factor that affects labour market integration of young people in Africa. In the 1960s many African countries undertook major educational expansion but it slows down in the 1970s and decline in the 1990s.(Semboja et al.,2013), in line with this reported that bulk of young people in East Africa lack the necessary education, information and relevant training for productive jobs.

v. **Stagnating Economies**: According to (Chigunta et al.,2009) identified stagnating economies to be one of the major factors behind the challenges of high youth unemployment in Africa. He explained that young people are finding it difficult to be employed largely due to the stagnating formal sector, with school graduates staying at home without gainful or productive employment (David et al., 1996) views most, African countries to be plagued with rapid population growth and stagnating economic growth. Ethiopian had an annual growth rate of over 8% over a ten year periods of time. This makes the country progress in their economic development. However, the creation of job opportunities still challenges for the government to address all part of the region. Economic growth contributed to create job opportunities and reduced unemployment rate, but is it true whatever balance between the demand and supply of labor workers in the country.

2.7 The Challenges of Youth Unemployment in Ethiopia

Youth population implementation presents a specific problem to Ethiopia the country faces up rise youth landlessness in country side and inconsequential job creation, potentially leading to an increase in movements to urban places (World Bank, 2012). The concern is whether there will be substantial development and work formation in urban places to captive new labor advertises competitor. This need for an insight finding of the lines of youth labor advertises competitor, academic expenditure, movements in work sector, labor advertises information systems, the focal barricade for youth implementation, and the socioeconomic problems of youth.

Addis Ababa has been growing rapidly. Population has nearly doubled every decade. In 1984 the population was 1.4 million in 1994 it was 2.1 million and it is currently thought to be more than

4 million. The number of unemployed will continue to rise, reaching 12 million in 2024 (UNHABITAT, 2003), the economy has been unable to generate enough jobs, coupled with the continued influx of young semi-skilled and unskilled job seekers that have created a significant burden on the job market. The results of a March 2011 survey by the Central Statistical Agency depict that highest level of unemployment in the Country (25%) in Addis Ababa (CSA, 2011).

(Bryan, et al., 2014) explained on rural-urban migration, in which the decision to look for a job in the city is costly and has risky outcomes, when individuals are close to subsistence levels and credit constrained. This migrating sacrifice work in agriculture or local jobs, to take the risk of finding better urban employment. As indicated this problem by (Crepon, et al 2013), the effects are likely to be mitigated if such labour supply responses happen on a large scale, for instance if reducing search costs only improves labour market outcomes for those receiving the subsidies, at the expense of other job seekers. Increase the costs of search for anyone, and could thus be bad for all individuals living far from jobs and for the economy as a whole (Zenou, et al 2009). Search and matching frictions have been shown to be a significant cause of unemployment, longer unemployment spells, and even lower wages and productivity (Pissarides et al., 2011).

The history of youth unemployment in Ethiopia is partially a history of academy (Serneels et al., 2010). He explain that the vast enlargement of chance in institute pedagogy, and the minimum value of take part in institute have guide to a high population of poor youth with institute degrees, diplomas, or vocational tutors. They have to investigate short term or irregular employment while finding for the works that they want.

(Mains et al., 2012) in 1999 only about 4% of urban Ethiopia had any type of higher pedagogy, this rose to 27% by 2011, In the past pedagogy was a assurance of a better works , and is still sees as the way to a middle class life among youths aged between 20-24 years.

(Tegegne, 2011) examined the association between socio-demographic variables and unemployment in Addis Ababa. The econometric analysis has confirmed that sex and age are statistically significant and have negative relationship. Regarding migration status in spite of the type of job a migrant is more likely to be employed than a non migrant.

2.8 The Effect of Unemployment in Food Insecurity

Many scholars try to show in their works the effect of unemployment in food insecurity but they didn't study their interrelationship directly but there are some literatures which show that unemployment has giant effect on the food insecurity of a person or household level. According to (Mutiah, S, and Istigomah, 2017) food insecurity doesn't only occur in the country side but also in urban areas many people migrate to urban area in the hope of improving their welfare. Generally people think that in the city there are more opportunities, but the opposite is true. The difficulty is more compound in the city especially for person who don't have the skill and education needed, such a unemployment and slum resulting in fragility of household food security (Neni Widayaningsih and Barokatuminalloh, 2011)

Referring to (Girma Gezima, 2012) in his work determinants of food insecurity among households in Addis Ababa City, Ethiopia on his recommendation part stated that "the access to employment opportunity negatively related with food supply in the investigation place. Entry to job helps urban family to diversify their earnings which in turn alleviates the food deficiency among poor households."

Another scholar (Jonathan Randel Caughron, 2017) stated in his work that these characteristics are important because many are also correlated with higher crime rates. Accordingly to FBI, some factors that are related to crime scales in particular community include variation in formation of residences, particularly youth concentration, economic condition (such as income level and unemployment), family condition relating to divorce and family cohesiveness, all of these attributes also have either a direct or indirect effects on the odd of a household being food insecure.

Also (Birara Endalew, Mequanent Muche and Samuel Tadess, 2015) they stated the study conducted by (Woldeamanuell, 2009) in rural Gedeo indicated that population growth and scarcity of resources, small land holding, farmers skills and low level of education, inappropriate production system and making services, drought variability of rainfall, urban expansion, in-and off-farm unemployment and traditional, social and cultural factors were major causes of food insecurity in the study area.

All this literature shows that unemployment has a high effect on the food insecurity of an individual and in household level.

2.9. Consequences of Youth Unemployment

The consequences youth unemployment is so many however among from those food insecurity and poverty are the major once. Here Unemployment describes its relationship with this two as follow:

2.9.1 Food Insecurity

(FAO 2012) stated that Food Insecurity is an absence of consonant acquire to meals, which decrease dietary quality, interrupt usual consume ways, and can have bleak outcomes for diet, robustness and well-being, or Food insecurity is defined as a condition in which accordant approaches to enough food is short, which leads to derange eating sample and lower food intake. (Amartya Sen, 1999) states that, food insecurity, famine, starvation and dietary deficiency are unlike concepts though interchangeably used in other related literatures. As indicated here in before, food insecurity is a complex ideas mainly referring to absence of acquire to adequate food for all persons at all set up for a functioning and fit life.

According to (FAO 2008) there are two general types of food insecurity:

a) **Chronic food insecurity:** is long-time period or continual and happens whilst humans are not able to fulfill their minimal meals necessities over a sustained length of time. Results from prolonged intervals of poverty, loss of property and insufficient get right of entry to effective or economic resources. It may be conquer with traditional long time improvement measures extensively utilized to deal with poverty, which includes training or get right of entry to effective resources, which includes credit. They may additionally want extra direct get right of entry to meals to permit them to elevate their effective capacity
b) **Transitory food insecurity:** is short-time period and transient and takes place while there may be a unexpected drop with inside the cap potential to provide or get admission to sufficient meals to keep an excellent dietary status, Results from short-time period

shocks and fluctuations, in meals availability and meals get admission to, such as yr-to-yr versions in home meals production, meals charges and family incomes. This makes making plans and programming greater tough and calls for special capacities and kinds of intervention, such as early caution ability and protection internet programmes such as safety net. The idea of seasonal meals protection falls among persistent and transitory meals lack of confidence. It is just like persistent meals lack of confidence as additionally it is predictable and follows a series of acknowledged events. However, as seasonal meals lack of confidence is of confined period it may additionally be visible as recurrent, transitory meals lack of confidence. It takes place while there may be a cyclical sample of insufficient availability and get admission to meals. This is related to seasonal fluctuations with inside the climate, cropping patterns, paintings opportunities (labour demand) and disease.

2.9.2 Interrelationship between Food Insecurity and Unemployment

Personal unemployment results in misplaced income, which will increase the chance of experiencing meals lack of confidence. Food lack of confidence suggests households incapacity to satisfy fundamental meals desires and their inadequate get right of entry to good enough nutrition. Food lack of confidence has been mentioned to cause a chain of bad fitness effects throughout the lifespan. Households with meals lack of confidence document more tiers of intellectual fitness issues and continual illnesses and decrease nutrient intakes.

It is broadly mentioned that process loss or unemployment is one of the maximum crucial threat elements for family meals lack of confidence; unemployment specifically impacts family meals intake via bad profits surprise and profits volatility. Households and not using a grownup hired are much more likely to enjoy meals lack of confidence However, despite the fact that unemployment seems a key element predicting meals lack of confidence. Although unemployment is regularly related to meals lack of confidence, the trail via which it results in meals lack of confidence is much less explored. The occurrence of meals lack of confidence became better amongst families headed through unemployed persons. Education and financial elements are the mechanisms via which unemployment results in meals lack of confidence. Lack of training reduces the danger of employment and the first-rate of jobs engaged in even as the

financial route to meals lack of confidence is in part associated with the incapability of terrible families to address hovering meals fees and seasonal unemployment. Thus, growing employment possibilities via pro-poor measures is a way to decorate human capital improvement that enables the human beings take gain of the labour marketplace and enhance the financial repute of families, in the long run main to making sure meals security (Jin Huang Youngmi Kim and Julie Birkenmaier, 2015).

2.9.3. Poverty

According to (Eva Lude, Odi, 2016) and (Chambers, 2006), a main student on poverty and development, clusters poverty definitions into 4 agencies Income poverty (or it's not unusual place proxy, intake poverty).

Material lack or want: except income, this consists of absent, restricted or low pleasant assets (which include shelter, clothing, furniture, non-public method of transport, radio, etc.). It additionally consists of insufficient get admission to services. Capability deprivation, relating to what human beings can or can't do, or can or can't be. This is going properly past fabric lack to encompass human capabilities, which include abilities and bodily abilities, and additionally self-recognize in society, Multidimensional deprivation, with fabric lack or want, as best one in every of numerous at the same time reinforcing dimensions.

In 2001, the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) posted its Guidelines for Poverty Reduction (OECD, 2001) and followed a multi-dimensional poverty definition:

Absolute and relative Poverty

A. Absolute Poverty- while humans lack fundamental requirements for survival. It quantifies the range of human's beneath the poverty line and is impartial of location and time.

B. Relative Poverty- while humans manner of lifestyles and profits is a whole lot worse than the overall well known of living. It classifies humans as terrible now no longer through evaluating

them with a set poverty line, however through evaluating them with others with inside the populace beneath consideration (Eva Lude, Odi, 2016)

2.9.4. Interrelationship between Poverty and Unemployment

The reality that unemployment and poverty pass facet with the aid of using facet can't be neglected. There is an extreme linkage among poverty and unemployment as the shortage of get right of entry to right employment performs an important function in growing poverty.

Finding for employment is a primary trouble with inside the modern society because of the shortage of employment and hardships which are taking place.

Discovering paintings is particular problems for destitute people considering that humans residing in poverty typically want get right of entry to residing basics, for example, smooth water, food, lodging, fitness care and education; those basics are likewise the requirements whilst trying to get employed. The folks that are seeking out the suitable process fall into the class of relative poverty as they is probably having a few method of residing however the ones beneath absolute poverty line simply want the essential asset to stay for the very subsequent day.

However, the dearth of employment is come what may pushing the relative poverty toward absolute poverty. All in all, the jobless human beings in addition to the negative human beings searching for a few matters is not unusual place which are housing, clothing, education, technology, transportation, hygienic requirements etc. source (info@singaporeassignmenthelp.com, 2017-2020).

According to the (International Labour Organization ,2001) record approximately 500 million humans dwelling in poverty with inside the growing global are not able to earn sufficient to hold their households above the USA 1 dollar below poverty line. This is basically due to the fact the financial system of those terrible counties is inadequate for increase of latest employment possibilities for individuals who misplaced jobs, and new entries, into the labour market.

As sited in (Teshome, 1998) suggested that assuming average household size of 5 members and gross unemployment constitute head of household thus, the estimated households affected by

unemployment is in the range of 8.5% of the total household in Addis Ababa. This could also mean 8.5% of the total households affected by poverty due to unemployment.

2.10. Conceptual Analytical Framework

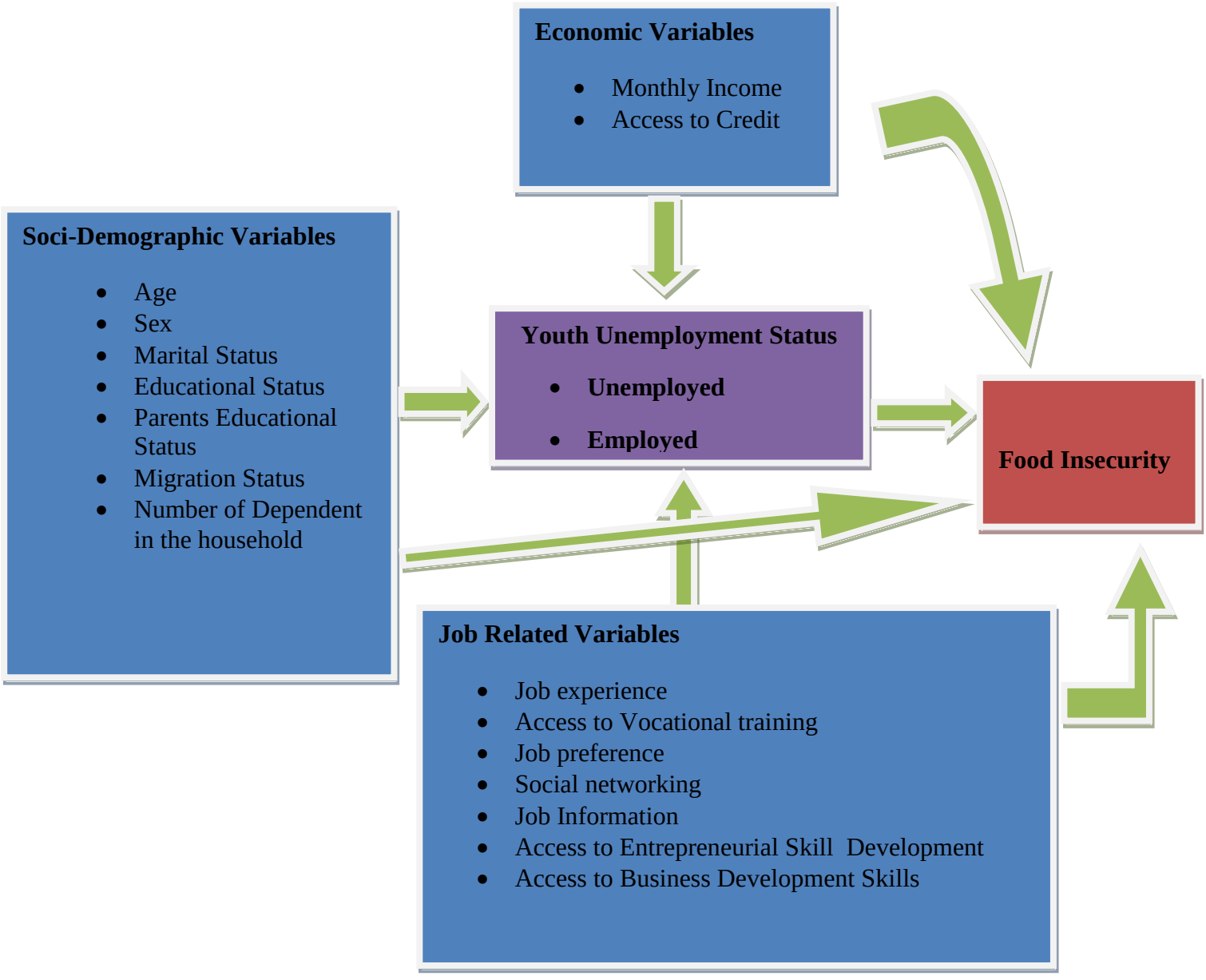


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of the Nexus Between Youth Unemployment and Food Insecurity

Sources: Literatures different books researches publications and researcher own design

Definitions of Terms and Concepts

Youth: comprises part of the society who is between ages 15-29 years (MOY, 2004).

Unemployed: described as those people without work but looking for work or available and ready to work during a reference period (ILO, 1992).

Employed: - includes those persons who were engaged in productive activity as paid or self - employed (ILO, 1992).

Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS): a food in/security measuring tool, used to measure food insecurity status in a comparable way, i.e., with cross-cultural equivalency, developed by the Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project (FANTA) in 2006 with an aim to provide a valid tool for use in a developing country context, consists of nine occurrence questions and nine frequency-of-occurrence questions ask whether or not a specific condition associated with the experience of food insecurity ever occurred during the previous 4 weeks (30 days)

Household Diversity Score (HDDS): it is a food in/insecurity measuring tool, used to measure of Household Food Access and used as a proxy measures of socio- economic level of the household developed by the Food and Nutritional Technical Assistance Project (FANTA) IN 2006 with an aim to provide a valid tool for use in developing country context, described in the guideline consists of a simple count of food groups that a household has consumed over the preceding 24 hours.

Woreda: (Amharic), are the third-level administrative divisions next to sub city in urban administration of Ethiopia. They are further subdivided into a number of ketenas, which are the smallest unit of local government in Ethiopia (MoUDC, ND).

Ketena: (Amharic), are one of the urban administrative divisions next to woreda, or neighborhood associations, and further subdivided into a number of blocks. (MoUDC, ND).

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1Description of the study area

The study conducted in Addis Ababa, the capital city of Ethiopia since 1886, the city point indicator located at 9°1′48″N 38°44′24″E coordinates. It has an area of 527 km2 and an estimated population of 3,040,740 as stated by (CSA, 2014). The city is simultaneously experiencing high rates of economic growth and urbanization having 25% of the urban population of Ethiopia (UN-HABITAT, 2017; World Bank Group, 2015). According to the State of Ethiopian Cities 2015 Report 2, Addis Ababa‘s share in GDP accounts for 29% of the total urban centers (UN-HABITAT, 2017). Addis Ababa is the also political center being the head quarter for the African Union and United Nations Economic Commission for Africa.

Addis Ababa has 11 sub cities named as Arada, Addis Ketema, Yeka, Kirkos, Lideta, Kolfe, Akaki Kaliti, Nifas Silk Lafto, Gulele, Bole and Lemi Kura. Under each sub city, there are woredas and ketenas which are the lowest units of administrations. The city has a population of over 3 million, which is 25% of the country‘s urban population (World Bank Group, 2015). It is facing extensive urban poverty, joblessness, inadequate housing, severe overcrowding and congestion and underdeveloped infrastructure. As per (MoUDH PAD, 2015), the overall unemployment rate in urban areas is 17.1 percent, but this is higher in Addis Ababa (23.6 %). It is also stated that almost a third (31 %) of those working in Addis Ababa are underemployed. As stated in (UN- HABITAT, 2017). Also the food insecurity of the city youths is becoming a severe problem from time to time. Addis Ababa is expanding in height and width which has consequently brought modification of landscapes and land covers in and around the city.

The study area is Nifas Silk Lafeto sub city in this sub city there are 12 woredas from those woredas, woreda 09 was the study area, in this woreda according to the woredas health office report of 2008 E.C the number of households both female and male headed are 9513, and the number of female who live in this woreda are 20,280 which account 52% from the total population where as the number of male who live in this woreda are 18,720 which account 48%

from the total population. Totally 39,000 peoples are live in this particular woreda but due to the migration from Somalia and Eritrean refugees currently the total population of the woreda is estimated up to 45,000. This woreda cover an area 1800 Hectares or 1,800,408sq.m and according to the woreda's social and labour office report the recorded in (2019-2020) year the total population number of youths in this woreda is 10,970 from those 7500 are unemployed youths aged between (18-29) years.

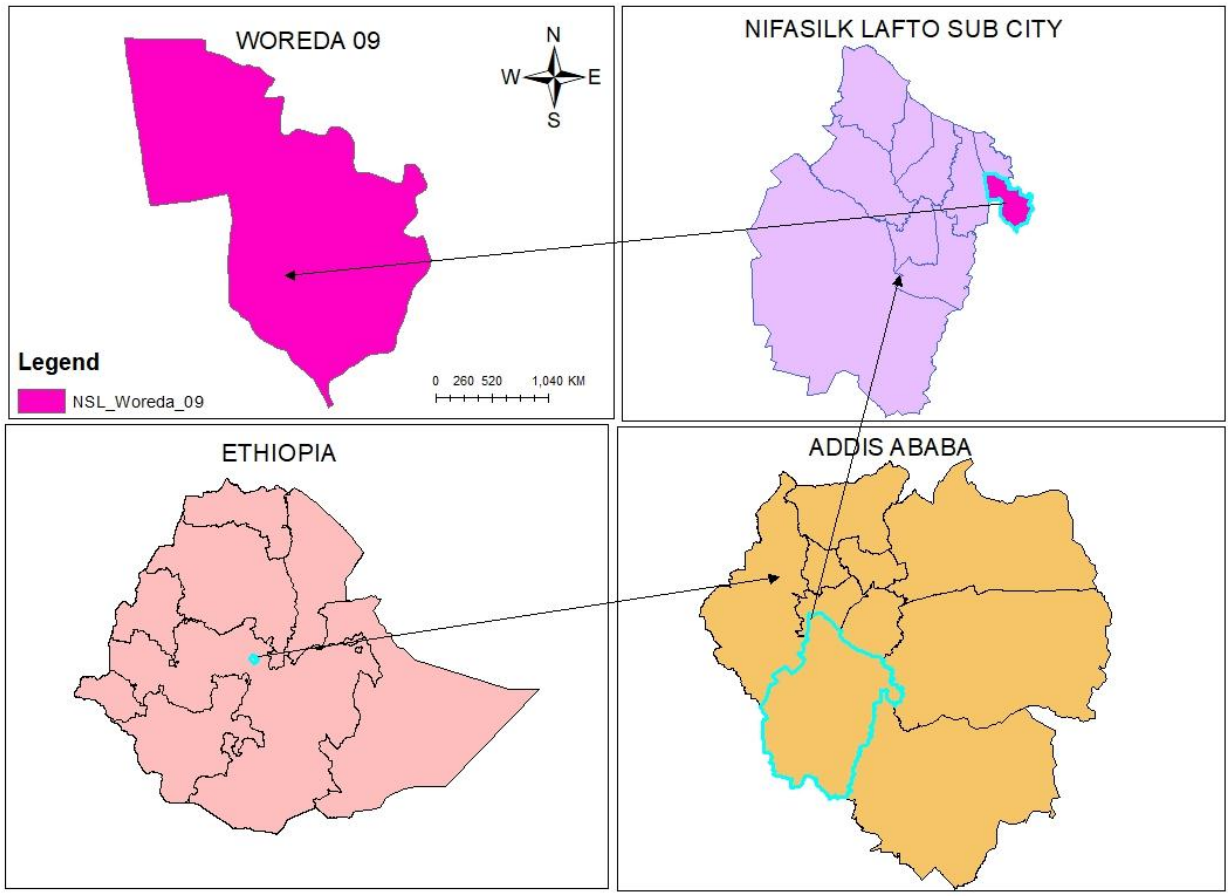


Figure 2 maps of the Ethiopia, Addis Ababa, the location of Nifas Silk Lafeto Sub city and Woreda09

Source: from GIS ArcMap10.3.1

3.2 Research Design and Approach

The type of research method adopted for a given research problem could mainly depend on the kinds of "knowledge" and "theories" researchers aim to produce (George and Bennett, 2004).In this study both qualitative and quantitative approaches was employed.

Cross-Sectional research design was used in this study. The use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in integrated provides a better understanding of research problem than either approach alone. The mixed methods research design creates a wider picture by enhancing the depth and insight given by numbers through inclusion of dialogue and narratives (O'Leary, 2010).A qualitative research approach was primarily used from the primary data gathering tools such as key informant interview and group focus discussion based on the data collect from the residents of the specific study area (woreda 09) by the help of the woreda's administrative office specially labour and social affairs office and for the quantitative approaches youths was randomly selected and interviewed based on the questionnaire.

3.3 Sampling technique and sample size determination

3.3.1 Sampling procedure

The sample population includes all the youths aged between (18-29) years in the study area, who are reside in Nifas Silk Lafeto sub city woreda 09 in the years of 2020 and 2021 fiscal year.

The total population of youths aged between (18-29) years which are because of most of the youth's age range in the study area lies (18-29) years at the time of survey, which are residents in the year of 2020-2021 The sampling procedures at different stages are examined at below.

Stage 1: Woreda 09 select purposively because based on the woreda administration from the total population majority of them are youth who do not have got employment opportunity and they are vulnerable to food insecurity, even some of them supported by government safety net program. This indicates or shows the woreda is highly characterized by high youth unemployment. (Source the woreda's Labour and Social affairs office 2021).

Stage 2: from out of six ketenas which are found in these woreda 09, three ketenas which have high number of youth who are unemployed was selected by using simple random sampling technique.

Stage 3: At this stage youth were randomly selected from a list of households in the selected poor communities. A youth list in the selected poor communities (Ketenas) was obtained from woreda's office. A decision was made to cover a total of 118 youth, since the size was believed to be large enough to undertake the proposed study. As one of the objectives of the current study was to compare the city along different variables, the total sample was distributed evenly among the ketenas. Thus from each selected study ketena, 118 youth were selected for the household survey irrespective of their total proportion. Systematic random sampling was used to select households from the lists.

Table 1 Details of Respondents Select from each Ketenas

No	Lists of Ketenas	Total Youth Population	Sampled Youth Population
		Total	Total
1	Ketena 03	158	41
2	Ketena 06	199	45
3	Ketena 01	122	32
	Total	479	118

Source: researcher own

3.3.2 Sample Determinations

In order to determine a representative sample size from the woreda 09, the researcher used a sample size determination formula given by (Yamane, 1967) as cited in (Glein D, 2013) and A sample size of 118 respondents was determined from a total population of both employed and unemployed 479 youths aged between (18-29) years .

The relation is given as below:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)2}$$

$$n = \frac{479}{1 + 479(0.08)}$$

$$n = \frac{479}{1 + 479(0.0064)}$$

n **=117.8177~ = 118** the researcher selected the representative sample.

Where n is the representative sample size, N is the total youth unemployed and employed population of which is found to be the 479 aged between (18-29) and e is the desired level of precision (error margin) e = 0.08 confidence level.

3.4 Data Sources

This study employed both qualitative and quantitative data collected from primary and secondary sources.

3.5 Data Collecting Techniques and Data sources

Qualitative data from primary source were collected through key informant interviews and focused group discussion and while quantitative data were collected through semi- structured interviews, Secondary data were collected from report of different departments.

The Semi-structured Interview, Focused group discussion and key informant interviews were the data collecting techniques used to collect primary data. The details are presented as follows.

a) Interview

Semi- structured interview schedule used to collect data from 118 selected respondents. The instrument first developed in English and then translates into Amharic for the purpose of avoiding ambiguity. The schedule was pre-tested with 15 youths randomly selected from non-sample area. Then necessary additions, deletion, modifications and adjustments were made in the schedule on the basis of experiences gain from the pre-test.

b) Focused group discussion

Qualitative approach is the use of group focused discussion to obtain information from a group of two FGD, were collected. Each FGD comprise of 10 youths (6 from unemployed and 4 from employed) from different backgrounds in order to obtain desirable ideas and perception on the topic of interest in a relaxed, permissive environment that foster the expression of different point of view, with on pressure for consensus. The FGD participants were selected purposively.

c) Key informant interviews

Another approach Key informant interviews are qualitative in-depth interviews with people who know what is going on the community. The purpose of key informant interviews is to collect information from wide range of people including community leaders, professionals, residents who have first-hand knowledge about the community. This community expertise, with their particular knowledge and understanding, can provide insight on the nature of the problems and give recommendations for solutions. For the purpose of this study, community leader, expertise of MSSED office, expertise of youth affairs department, from woreda's administrator and from woreda's Social Lobar Office Expertise were selected as key informants.

Table 2 shows Method of Data Collection

No	Type of Respondent	Method of Data Collection	Tool use to Collect Data	Number of Respondent
1	Youths	Interview	Semi- Structured interview schedule	118
2	FGD discussion	Interview	Interview guided check list	20(10+10)
3	Expert of MSSED office, community leader, expertise of youth affairs department, woreda's administrator, Social Lobar Officer	Key Informant Interview	Interview guided check list	5

Source: Developed by the researcher, 2021

d) Secondary Data:

Were gathered from which survey data gathered Central Statistics Authority. Additional secondary data and information were used from online and published source of the FAO, World Bank and ILO country reports, Nifas Silk Lafeto Sub City Administration, published data from the Ministry of Education research papers, journals and books produce on youth unemployment and food insecurity in Ethiopia was refer.

3.6 Techniques of data analysis

The survey data collected in the field was edited, coded, and entered into a computer. Through editing it was verified whether questionnaires were correctly filled in and the skip patterns were followed. Open-ended responses are recorded verbatim and these verbatim responses were categorized according to their commonness and frequencies. The primary data that was collected from sample households was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) program (Version 23) and STATA software. Baseline characteristics were calculated as mean, and minimum- maximum for continuous variables, and as total number and percentage for categorical variables. Statistical comparisons of means between groups were made with independent t –test analysis. To assess the relationships between categorical variables, a Chi-square analysis (Pearson's method) was used. To identify the relationship between youth and food insecurity multiple linear regression were used.

In the analysis of the data different models were used with the view of addressing the objectives set forth in the present study. To attain the first objective that is related to the current food security status of the households in the study area, the objective measure that was suggested by (IFPRI) was used which is given in appendix I table. Total food consumption was based on lists of 25 regularly consumed local food from different food groups (cereals, pulses, vegetables, meat, milk and milk products).The first step taken was distinguishing the food secure and food insecure. In Order to classify into two groups, demarcation points or line is required. The government of Ethiopia has set the minimum acceptable weighted average food requirement per adult equivalent (AE) per day at 2200 kcal (MoFED, 2002). The determination of the adult equivalent takes into account the age and sex of each household member (Gassmann et al.,

2006). Hence, for this study 2200 kcal per adult equivalent (AE) per day is employed as a cut-off value between food-secure and food-insecure households. Thus, those households who have energy per AE below the minimum subsistence requirement (2200 kcal) are deemed to be food insecure, and those who managed to attain the 2200 kcal per AE per day are considered to be food secure households.

The estimate of calorie acquired by a given household is done using the formula below:

$$C_i = \sum A_{ij} B_j$$

Where, C_i = level of kilocalorie acquired by the i^{th} household in the study area.

A_{ij} = the weight in kilo grams of the food commodity j by the i^{th} household

B_j = the standardized food energy content of the j^{th} food commodity.

Calorie acquired encompass the calorie amount of all food acquired (own produced, purchased and obtained as gift and other transfers).

A Household Food Insecurity Access scale (HFIAS) was also employed to compute food insecurity status of household for the study area.

For the Quantitative data this study was used Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) generic questions were forward to the respondent to measure the food security (Access) status of household in the study woreda. The standardize questions were having 9 items with 4 frequency options with a recall period of four weeks. The respondents first were asked an occurrence questions in the past four weeks (Yes or No). For Yes response, a frequency - of- occurrence questions were asked to determine whether the condition happened rarely (once or twice), Sometimes (three to ten times) or Often (more than ten times) in the past weeks. The Household Food Insecurity Access Prevalence (HFAIP) was used to categorize the households' food insecurity in to four categories (Food secure, mildly food insecure, moderately food insecure and severely food insecure) and in two categories (Food secure and Food insecure). Edit and coded and enter to statistical software STATA and Count Data Model because they represent the number of occurrences of an event with a fixed period.

The questionnaire also included the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) module to examine household heads perceptions of their own food security status (Coates et al., 2007; Swindale & Bilinsky, 2006). HFIAS is easy to use in food security data collection relative to

other food security measures such as dietary recalls or anthropometric indicators (Coates et al., 2007; Kabunga et al., 2014).

Calculate the Household Food Insecurity Access category for each household. 1 = Food Secure, 2=Mildly Food Insecure Access, 3=Moderately Food Insecure Access, 4=Severely Food Insecure Access

HFIA category = 1 if [(Q1a=0 or Q1a=1) and Q2=0 and Q3=0 and Q4=0 and Q5=0 and Q6=0 and Q7=0 and Q8=0 and Q9=0]

HFIA category = 2 if [(Q1a=2 or Q1a=3 or Q2a=1 or Q2a=2 or Q2a=3 or Q3a=1 or Q4a=1) and Q5=0 and Q6=0 and Q7=0 and Q8=0 and Q9=0]

HFIA category = 3 if [(Q3a=2 or Q3a=3 or Q4a=2 or Q4a=3 or Q5a=1 or Q5a=2 or Q6a=1 or Q6a=2) and Q7=0 and Q8=0 and Q9=0]

HFIA category = 4 if [Q5a=3 or Q6a=3 or Q7a=1 or Q7a=2 or Q7a=3 or Q8a=1 or Q8a=2 or Q8a=3 or Q9a=1 or Q9a=2 or Q9a=3]

Also another Quantitative data this study was used is the household dietary diversity score (HDDS) questionnaire represents a rapid, user-friendly and easily administered low-cost assessment tool. Scoring and analysis of the information collected with the questionnaire is straightforward. The household dietary diversity score described in the guideline consists of a simple count of food groups that a household has consumed over the preceding 24 hours. The household dietary diversity score (HDDS) is meant to reflect, in a snapshot form, the economic ability of a household to access a variety of foods. And its analysis was done by HDDS Indicator Tabulation plan it is a simple matter that can be done by hand or with the help of computer software such as database or spreadsheet. At first the HDDS variable was calculated for each household. The value of this variable was ranged from 0 to 12.

where DD is HDDS; subscript i represents a household, subscript mean less than (0.0 -0.3) represents the dietary diversity categorization of alternative dependent dummy variables indicating (i) whether a household falls within low dietary diversity category, (0.0 -0.3) (ii)

whether a household falls within medium dietary diversity category the mean was failed under (0.4 – 0.6), and (iii) whether a household is within higher dietary diversity category mean fails greater than (0.7).

3.6.1 Operational Definitions of Variables

Dependent Variable

Food Insecurity

The Food Insecurity (If food insecure takes 1 and if food secures it takes 2 nature of the dependent Variable with the corresponding code).

Independent Variables

1. Youth employment status: it is independent variable, and it was denoted by 1 if the respondent was employed; otherwise 2 if the respondent was unemployed at the time of the survey.

2. Age of respondent: It is a continuous variable and it was measured by the number of completed years. It has important role in the production process. The age of the youth head has been considered as positively contributing if she is in middle age category (active youths) because she could actively engage in agricultural extension services. The relative youth-to-adult disadvantage in terms of employment is compounded by the heterogeneity among young people. The youth cohort, similar other age class, is composed of particular with personal characteristics, needs and vulnerabilities; that is why youngsters should not be seen as a homogeneous type just because of their age. Among them, there are particular classes that are more at risk to joblessness, underemployed, informality, discouragement and other social disadvantages. The younger are the more exposed. In most countries for which data are available, the unemployed scale tends to fall with increasing age.

For example, in Costa Rica, the unemployed rate of teenagers aged 15–19 is more than three times that of young adults aged 20–24; it is more than double in Peru 22 and 10.3 percent,

respectively. Informality is also much higher for the first cohort than the second. In 2010, the rate of informality among teenagers in Latin America was 82.4 percent in 2010, compared to 56.5 percent for young adults.

3. Sex: It is a dummy variable and takes 2 if the respondent was Female and if it was Male 1. According to (Hallerod and Westberg, 2006), the demographic variables, sex reveals substantial inequality between female and male with respect to job opportunity. Females are in danger both in short term and long term joblessness than males. (ILO, 2004a) also conforms the activity put of young males have been much higher than that of young females due to the incompatible chances the community provide to males and females, and domestic activities for personal or household use. Strengthening this point, (Mlatsheni and Rospabe, 2002) found that lack of employment is more severe for women's than for mans as 63 percent of economically active females are unemployed whereas 53 percent of males remain without jobs in South Africa.

Further noted that the cause beyond female's to be out of work is that girls spend much time in doing domestic work than boys, this leads them to poor academic performance and sometimes withdrawal from pedagogy. It could be concluded that girls therefore end up with less pedagogy and little capabilities, and thereby resulting in high amount of jobless females. In the same manner, variation between male and female with respect to employment has also been prevalent in Ethiopia. With this regard, (Guracello and Rosati, 2007) stated that female youth across all ages are more likely to be unemployed and are much more likely to be jobless than male youth. Another research conducted by (Berhanu et al., 2005) noted that jobless scale of among adolescent female (20-24) was 38.7 % while it was only 23.2 % for young male in the same age category during the same year. Besides, the (CSA, 2010a) unemployment report also shows that out of 1,168,591 unemployed person's 41.2percent were female youth. Furthermore, (Genene et al., 2001) confirmed that females are more marginalized than males due to different socio economic factors. Hence, the problem of unemployment is more prevalent among females than males.

4. Marital Status: It is a categorical variable and it was measured in if youth who is divorce take the value of 1, youth who is married take the value of 2 and youth who is single take the value of 2. Marital status is also expected to influence the employment status of the youth negatively.

5. Total number of dependents in the family: It is a continuous variable and was measured as total household size divided by the number of individuals working to support the household. Owing to the scarcity of resources, an increase in household size especially the non-working members' put pressure on consumption than production (Feleke et al., 2005) (measured in of the household shows the ratio of economically inactive compared to economically active). Those who are economically active members of a household, whose age is from 15 to 64, are assumed to be the principal sources of income for the household. Household members under 15 and over 65 are assumed to be economically inactive and dependent on economically active members of a household for education, clothing and health care.

Members of house holdings with high number of dependents might not be able to participate in programs and projects due to time, labor and/or financial constraints. Number of dependents is assumed to be negatively related to employment status of the respondent.

6. Household monthly Income: It is a continuous variable and measured in birr. It referred as household income constitutes the gross earnings that a household has got on regularly basis (monthly) either in cash or in kind or both from paid employment, self employment, remittance, house rent, pension…etc. As other variables,household income, is also expected to influence the employment status of a respondent.

Household monthly income is one of the socio economic factors that contribute to the problem of youth joblessness. (ILO, 2004) indicated that jobless rates among young groups favor to fall as household earning increases. Youths who reside in a better off family had higher chance of getting employment since their family tends to endure more in the pedagogy of their sons or daughters.

Likewise, a research conducted by (Anh et al., 2005) and (Rees and Gray, 1982) found that family earning provide a vital factor in decide the job experience of Vietnamese youth. A parent in whom an adolescent lives is the solid forecaster of his or her future in the job market. On the other side, they added that youth who reside in low income earning family are less employed in the labor market.

Correspondingly, (Morris, 2006) showed that the significant effects of family economic status, paternal occupation, education and parental divorce are notable in affecting the employment status of youth. He further noted that a better income earning household had a number of chances which is higher income can enable youth to have higher entrance to pedagogy, information and connections. This could facilitate easy entry to job opportunities available in the market.

Also (ILO, 2010) revealed that young people who reside in low income household have higher likelihood of being unemployed than adults among the working poor. It also indicated an estimated 152 million young people were living in poor households (with per capita expenditure below US$1.25 a day) in 2008, were unemployed. Strengthening this point, a study conducted by (Echebiri, 2005) depicted that unemployment has affected youths from a broad spectrum of socio-economic groups, both the well and less educated, although it has particularly stricken a substantial fraction of youth from low income backgrounds.

7. Educational status : It is a categorical variable; the level of education was categorized as youth who can't read take the value of 0, youth who is attain Primary school (1-8) take the value of 1, youth who is attain secondary school (9-10)take the value of 2, youth who is attain Preparatory school (11 -12) take the value of 3, youth who have Diploma/ Certificate take the value of 4 and youth who have College degree take the value of 5. Educational status of a respondent refers to the highest grade level of a respondent completed rather than institutional participation. Categorization of such variable was done in such a way that it reflects the variation in the level of respondent's knowledge in supporting access to Food security. Considering the educational system of the country, level of education of respondents was categorized in to 4 groups: (1) illiterate (no schooling), (2) primary (1-8), (3) secondary (9-12), and (4) above secondary education (includes college, university level education). The reference category used in the model was above secondary education. Therefore, it is assumed to be negatively related to food security status of the respondent**.** Education is basic cause of youth joblessness. The achievement of less educational status reduces the chances of getting decent and productive jobs in the world of work. In line with this, (Salvador and Killinger, 2008), (WB, 2009), and (Morris, 1999) noted that jobless rate of less educated youth tends to be bigger than the jobless scale of more learned youths in developing nations because of their capacity and accomplishment may not correspond to the request of the labor advertise. In other words, the chance of getting jobs for

more educated youth is higher as compared to less educated youth since they had the required knowledge and skills.

Similarly (Mlatsheni and Rospabe, 2002) found that young people with no education do not have a one step ahead chance to get a job than people with peripheral level pedagogy (from grade 8 to grade 12). (ILO, 2004a) also confirms that young people with some education are vulnerable to unemployment due to the absence of expertise and capacity required by the labor advertises.

Accordingly, worklessness is elevated for youth having lower educational degree in Africa. With this respect, (Okojie, 2003) stated that worklessness in Africa concentrated out of youth who have get some pedagogies. He further added that youth who had limited pedagogy absence the industrial and other capability demanded in the labor advertise, thereby making them unattractive to employers who prefer capable and occurrence workers.

Confirming this idea, (Haji, 2007) and (Anh et al., 2005) found that youth who attain limited pedagogy are more liable to joblessness in the continent. In addition to this, they noted that tutoring in Africa remains mainly unrelated to the labor advertise needs, which foster the existence of a degree of contradiction between the pressure for and dispense of pedagogy. In the same fashion, less educated youth has also been faced the challenge of being unemployed in Ethiopia. In this regard, (Guracello and Rosati, 2007) found that among youths, the less educated youth face more difficulties in finding employment in urban areas of the country. Based on the aforementioned discussions, it could be said that joblessness is high for youth who had limited education than better educated ones

8. **Parental education level :** It is a categorical variable; the level of education was categorized as who can't read take the value of 0, Primary (1-8) take the value of 1, Secondary (9-10)take the value of 2, Preparatory (11 -12) take the value of 3, Diploma/ Certificate take the value of 4and College degree take the value of 5. Parental education is highly correlated with children's education and employment outcomes due to parental advice and support, and even the network surrounding young people.Father's educational status refers to the highest grade level a respondents' father completed at the time of the survey. According to (Rees and Gray, 1982), being one of the socio-economic factors, parent's educational status reveals differences among

youth with respect to employment opportunity. Young people who had well educated parents have higher chance of getting employment. They further noted that giving assistance in finding work is clearly not the only way in which family members can influence the employment prospects of young people, but also much education takes place in the home. So that youths who have well educated parents and who have been exposed to books and to serious discussion while growing up may have advantages in finding and holding jobs over other youths with the same amount of formal schooling.

Similarly, (Guracello and Rosati, 2007) stated that family background in particular parent's education has an impact on the insertion of youth to the labor market. They also indicated that the higher the education of the parent, the smaller the number of firms visited, and the higher the proportion of individuals who have found employment. Furthermore, (Morris, 1999) noted that as a measure of social status, father's education is an important factor in determining employment status of youth. Therefore, youth who had well educated parent could face less challenge in finding jobs compared with those youth whose father were less educated or illiterate.

9. Access to credit: It is dummy variable and measured as 1 if youth have access to credit and 0 otherwise**;** Access to credit can relax the financial constraints of youth. Access to credit and saving services refers to whether the youth has access to various credit and saving institutions in the area, which was expected to influence the employment status of the respondent this result in ensuring food security. Thus, access to credit is hypothesized to positively influence food security status of the respondent

Access to a credit service accelerate the use of improved technologies in production and stimulates alternative income generating activities (such as enterprises) and considerably contributes to food security. Currently, the development of micro- finance institution is at an infant stage, some of them lack strong capital base, experience and capacity to manage, but charge high interest rate as compared to the conventional financial instructions. More importantly, the poorest of the poor (who are most vulnerable to food insecurity) have little access to this institution both in the urban and rural areas mainly due to lack of collateral or group trust in the group loan system (the poor is not trusted to pay back their loan) this implies

that source of alternative income (diversification) are limited to the majority the food poor households (ILO, 1991).

10. Business Advisory Service: It is a dummy variable and if youth have access to business advisory services which take value 1 and otherwise take 0. The variable refers to whether the respondent has got advisory services in the form of training, skill upgrading, entrepreneurial management and other services from government or NGO's. Accessibility to business advisory service is, therefore, expected to influence the food security status of a respondent, can be categorized as (1) not received business advisory services (2) received at least once. In the model, respondents who have received business advisory service at least once was taken as a reference category. Therefore, it is assumed to be negatively related to food security.

11. Social Network Density : It is a categorical variable; social network density was categorized as youths who have no social network density with take the value of 0, youths who have social network density with 1 person take the value of 1, youths who have social network density with 2 person take the value of 3 - 5 person take the value of 3, youths who have social network density with 6 - 10 person take the value of 4 and youths who have social network density with greater than 26 persons take the value of 5. Social network density refers the number of persons such as friends, relatives…etc an individual would have in exchanging information about jobs available in the labour market using any form of communication channels. Social network density is assumed to be negatively related to youth unemployment.

12. Migration: It is dummy variable and measured as 1 if youth who are migrant and 0 otherwise**;** Rapid and uncontrolled migration of the population moving from rural to urban areas causes serious problems from the viewpoint of labor markets. An increase in rural- urban migration flows is contributing to a larger urban labor supply. This increasing labor supply has produced an increasing urban unemployment rate and a deterioration in the quality of employment, as it is evident from the increased informal employment rates (Gundogan, 2009). One of the most distinctive features of the economies in developing countries is the fact that more than half of workers are employed in the urban informal sector. Urbanization and informal sector are joint and rising trends in these countries. Migration is assumed to be negatively related to food insecurity. The movement of young people is one of the causes for the high levels of

urban jobless youth's problem determiner in developing nations (Raphael, 2005). Since young people view migration as an avenue to improve their status and learn new skills, they move in to urban areas for various reasons (Harris, 2010). Similarly, (ILO, 2010) and MOY national youth policy of Ethiopia (2004) noted that migration of young population in their twenties is big in Africa.

Moreover, they also state that youth often move to institutions for pedagogy and training, but many migrants move for employment related reasons followed by their families. In line with this, (Okojie, 2003) depicted that migration of youth has resulted in concentration of youth in cities and towns where there are few jobs available in modern sector establishments. In addition to this, (Todaro, 1994) and (Mlatsheni and Rospabe, 2002) stated that rural to urban migration of young and educated people is the very root cause for the big and ever rising levels of urban joblessness.

A study manage by (Anh et al., 2005) and (Yisak, 2006) revel that youth having migration experience are having more probability to be unemployed than additional migrants. Confirming this, (Nwuke, 2002) noted that young migrants are highly unemployed in urban places. Further stated that in a context where social relations are as crucial as qualifications, young urban migrants searching for a job face an uphill struggle of surviving with limited social networks. (Sarr, 2000), also reaffirmed that youth migrants are three times extra unemployed than additional migrants in Africa. It might be believable to deduce that young migrants are additional vulnerable to unemployment in urban areas.

13. Job market information: It is a dummy variable and if youth who have access to job market information which takes value 1 and otherwise takes 0. Many young people lack knowledge of what the world of work is actually like, and have not given careful thought to their own potential career choices. Labour market functioning is deeply affected by different kinds of information imperfections and asymmetries. The education-to-work transition is particularly exposed to these imperfections: It was hypothesis that having access to job market information is assumed to be positively related to food insecurity.

14. Vocational training: It is a dummy variable and if youth who vocational training which takes value 1 and otherwise take 0. Vocational education is the acquisition of specific skills for

self-employment or career skills instruction for example cookery, dressmaking, carpentry, masonry as well as working in the industries. This type of education is offered to meet needs of individuals and society as well. The ability of individuals is utilized to the fullest (Tum, 1996). Vocational education is one of the national development strategies in many societies. It creates a great impact on human resource development, productivity and economic growth (Van Ark et.al, 2004). Vocational training is assumed to be negatively related to youth unemployment.

15. Entrepreneurship skill improvement: It is a dummy variable and if teens who received entrepreneurship talent improvement which takes cost 1 and in any other case take 0. One vital approach for increasing the teens of to be had jobs is to amplify the quantity of process creators. Promotion of entrepreneurship is a crucial element of nearby monetary improvement. Promotion of teens entrepreneurship particularly can without delay effect ability younger commercial enterprise-starters themselves, even as spreading wonderful employment influences amongst their friends and their groups Instruction in Entrepreneurial Skills gives a probably transformative effect at the paintings and profession awareness of younger humans. Most obviously, it may assist entrepreneurial-minded younger humans to begin and reach their very own businesses, contributing to employment answers for the network as a complete. But even the ones employees now no longer destined to begin their very own commercial enterprise will accumulate deeper knowledge of what it takes to make a commercial enterprise succeed. Hence, its miles hypothesized to definitely have an effect on meals security.

16. Work Experience: It is a continuous variable and it was work experience take the value of 1 otherwise take 0. Many employers are skeptical about young people's ability to apply the skills they learn in schools to the practical challenges of the workplace. They also question the social skills and work ethic of youth. They see these deficits as a significant barrier to the productivity of inexperienced young people, and at the same time they are reluctant to invest resources in training young people when more experienced adult workers may be unemployed and available for hire. Longer employment experience implies accumulated youth knowledge and skill which has contribution for better job, first-time job-seekers typically lack work experience and this negatively affects both their outlooks concerning employment opportunities and job characteristics, and employers' screening options (Bagues & Sylos Labini, 2009).Many studies supported this argument. Further, it is assumed that more job experience mean that it increased

the exposure to different available job through time; therefore, this variable is expected to influence youth employability positively.

17. Job Preference: It is a dummy variable and if the preference of youth government, private and NGO take the value of 1 otherwise youth who do not prefer any available jobs in the labor market takes the value of 0. With regard to job preference, (Okojie, 2003) and Haji, 2007) noted that educated youth prefer wage jobs in the formal sectors and would prefer to remain unemployed until they get the type of job they prefer. Likewise, (ILO, 1991) also reflected that instead of looking for gainful employment self or otherwise, the youth waited for the government to find employment for them. When the government failed to offer employment opportunities, most youth remained unemployed in Tanzania. A study conducted by (Echebiri, 2005) in Nigeria found that most young job seekers preferred employment in the organized private sector. They would like to work in banks, oil companies, manufacturing companies, major marketing companies, and so on. While a large proportion of youth also preferred to work in the public sectors.

Similarly, another study carried out by (Adenikinju and Oyeranti, 2000) revealed that youth from Ethiopia and Tunisia are prepared to wait for a long time for a public sector job instead of actively seeking a job in the private sector or starting a business on their own. In Ethiopia, job preference has been observed among youth. With this regard, (Berhanu et al., 2005) indicated wrong kinds of attitudes and job expectations on the part of youth are prevalent, including the preference for white collar jobs as opposed to agricultural and manual work. Moreover, they stated that one of the reasons for wrong kinds of attitudes towards jobs was the inadequacy and extremely academic orientation of the educational systems of the country, and the result is still visible in the current situation. Therefore, job preference could be seen as a factor for youth unemployment.

Table 3 Definitions of variables and its hypothesized effect

Dependent Variable name		Type of variable	Description of variable	Effect
Food Insecurity		Dummy	Take a value of 1 or 0, depending on whether food secure or food insecure	
No	Independent Variables			
1	Age of respondent	Continuous	Age of household head in years.	-
2	Level of Education	Categorical	If cannot read and write (0), primary (1-8) (1),secondary (9-10) (2),preparatory (11-12) (3),diploma (4), degree and above (5)	+
3	Number of dependent	Continuous	Measured in number of dependents in the family children below 15 years and aged persons above 65 years of age in a HH	-
4	Sex	Dummy	Take 1 if the respondent was Female and if it was Male 0	-
5	Maternal status	Categorical	If divorce (0) and married (1) and single(2)	-
6	Monthly income of the family	Continuous	measure in Birr Eth	+
7	Parent level of education	Categorical	If cannot read and write (0), primary (1-8) (1),secondary (9-10) (2),preparatory (11-12) (3),diploma (4), degree and above (5)	+
8	Employment	Dummy	Takes 1 if the respondents' were employed 1 and otherwise 0.	
9	Access to credit	Dummy	takes 1 if the respondents access credit and 0 otherwise	+
10	Access to entrepreneurial skill development	Dummy	Takes 1 if the respondents' access enter - prenatal skill development 1 and otherwise 0.	+
11	Density of social network	Dummy	as (1) no social networks, (2) social Network less than 5, (3) social networks 6-12, (4) social networks 13-18, (5) social networks 19-25 and (6) social networks 25 and above.	+
12	Migration statues	Dummy	If migrant (0) and not migrant (1)	+
13	Job experience	Dummy	If not have work experience (0) and have work experience (1)	+
14	Access to job market information	Dummy	measures in If youth access to job market information =1 otherwise=0	+
15	Access to vocational training	Dummy	measures in If youth access to vocational training =1 otherwise=0	+
16	Access to business advisory service	Dummy	measures in If youth access to business advisory service =1 otherwise=0	+
17	Access to job preference	Dummy	Measures in If youths access to job preference =1 otherwise=0	+

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

This chapter deals with presentation, analysis and interpretation of data that were collected through interview schedule; focused group discussions; and key informant interview. The chapter is classifying according to specific objectives into five sections. These sections are background information of the respondent students; Age, family size, sex, marital status, education, Father's education of the respondent; description of economic, job related characteristic of respondents and the relation between dependent and independent variables; and the impact of independent variables on that is measured mean and standard deviation. In the chapter, the results of the research are discussed on the Nexus between Youth Unemployment and Food Insecurity in the study area.

Descriptive statics of dependent variable

Daily calorie intake has shown in descriptive statistics results of sample respondent based on their calorie intake. As the survey results shows, the mean of food secure and food insecure households have an intake of 4005.556 and 1472.473 kilocalories per day respectively.

Descriptive Analysis

4.1. Demographic factors

4.1.1. Age of the Respondent

It is one of the personal/demographic characteristics that are important to describe about the respondents in the study area.

The minimum and maximum age of the respondents ranged from 18 to 29 years respectively. The age distribution of respondents included in the survey is presented in table 4. As shown the mean age and SD. of food secured youth was 25.6(SD. = 2.85) years and food insecure youth was 20.23(SD. = 2.47) years.

The independent sample t-test was conducted to determine whether there exists a significant difference on age between food secured and food insecure. The two tailed test result showed that the age is statistically insignificant (t=67.141, *P=0.000*). It implies that the age of food secured and food insecure different. Therefore, it is conclude that age had no influence on the food security from the observation those whose how had larger age had more chance to get employment opportunity than lower age group. Therefore age of the youth had negative correlation with food insecurity.

Table 4 : Distribution of the respondents by Age (n=118)

		Age		
Respondents category	N	Mean age (year)	SD	
Food Secured	21	25.6	2.85	*t=67.141****,
Food insecure	91	20	2.23	p = 0,000
Total	118	21.466	3.388	

****significant at 1% level of significance*

Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.2. Number of Dependent in the Households

The minimum and maximum number of dependent in the family ranged from 1 to 6 dependents respectively. As table 5, indicated that the mean and SD of number of dependents in the family for the food secured and food insecure were found to be 3.07 (1.384) and 4.648 (1.138) respectively.

The independent sample t-test was conducted to determine if there exists a difference between the number of dependents in the family among food secure and food insecure. The t - test result showed that number of dependents in the household is (t= 32.38, p =.000) statistically significant at 1% level of significance with 95 % confidence level of the deference.

This shows that there is a significant difference between food secure and food insecure with respect to the number of dependants in the family. This show that as the number of dependent increase in the family the statues of food insecurity also proportionally increased. The household had more number of dependent exposed to food insecurity than those who had less number of dependent.

The result of the survey also shows that numbers of dependent of household head were found to be relatively higher for food insecure households than food secure households. Mean acquired kilocalorie per day per adult equivalent for food insecure households is (1472.473, SD= 22.9042) kilocalorie which is below the minimum required level (2200 kilocalorie).

Table 5 Distribution of respondents by number of dependents (n=118)

	Number of dependents					
Respondent category	Frequency	Mean	SD	Mimi	Max	
Food secured	21	3.07	1.384	1	6	t= *32.38****,
Food insecure	91	4.648	1.138			*p =.000*
Total	118	4.28	1.365			

****significant at 1%level of significance*

Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.3. Sex of the respondents

The data presented in Table 6, Shows that; majority of the female youth (84.63 %) were food insecure and 37.04 % only were food secure. While (62.96 %) and (15.38 %) of male youth were food secure and food insecure respectively. The male had more food secure than female.

The chi-square test ($\chi 2 = 118.000$, P=.001) results show that sex is statistically significant at less than 1% probability level. The status of the being male or female has its own influence on the food security. This shows that there is a significant difference between male and female youth. Male youth remained more likely to be food secure than female youth. The result of the survey also shows that female's unemployed youth are twice as likely to report higher levels of food

insecure as compare to male. Therefore, the mean acquired kilocalorie per day per adult equivalent for female are (1472.473, SD= 22.9042) kilocalorie which is below the minimum required level (2200 kilocalorie) as compeer to male youth.

Table 6 Distribution of respondents by Sex (n=118)

	Male		Female		
Respondent category	Frequency	**%**	Frequency	**%**	
Food secured	17	62.96	10	37.04	*χ2 = 18.000***
Food insecure	14	15.38	77	84.63	*p =.001*
Total	13	26.27	87	73.73	

*** Significant at 1%level of significance*

Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.4. Marital Status

Similar demographic patterns were observed across marital categories for men and women. Table 7 shows Married men were heavier than other men. Shows that; majority of the respondent (85.19 %) married under food secure status and (84.63 %) were unmarried under food insecure, while, (14.81 %) were unmarried under categories of food secure and (15.38 %) food insecure status respectively.

The chi-square test ($\chi 2$ = 89.447, P=.012) results show that marital states was statistically significant at less than 5 % probability level. This shows that there is a significant difference between married and unmarried on food security. Married remained more likely to be food secure than never-married. The result of the survey also shows that unmarried youth hold head were found to be relatively higher for food insecure households than food secure households. Mean acquired kilocalorie per day per adult equivalent for food insecure households is (1472.473, SD= 22.9042) kilocalorie which is below the minimum required level (2200 kilocalorie). This is why married youth were accounted themselves as the responsible bodies to provide their food consumed in the house for this reason they do any available job exist.

Table 7 Distribution of respondents by Marital status (n=118)

	Married		Unmarried		
Respondent category	Frequency	**%**	Frequency	**%**	
Food secured	4	85.19	14	15.38	*$\chi 2=89.447$***
Food insecure	23	14.81	77	84.63	*$p=.000$*
Total	18	15.25	100	84.75	

***significant at 1%level of significance*

Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.5. Educational levels of youth

The aim of this study is to identify the cause of educated youth unemployment and its socio economic effects on educated unemployed themselves and on their society.

According to the data shown on Table 8, 3.70 %, 3.70 %, 22.22 %, 29.63 %, 37.04 % and 3.70 % of the respondents were can't read and write, Primary level, secondary level, preparatory, collage graduate and university degree respectively under food secured household, While,7.69 %, 13.19 %, 53.85 %, 18.68 %, 4.40 and 2.20 % of the respondents were can't read and write, Primary level, secondary level, preparatory, collage graduate and university degree respectively under food insecure household.

The chi –square test result showed that, level of youth education is ($\chi 2=227.104,\ p=.000$) statistically significant at 1% level of significance. It implies that youths who have more education were food secure than that of non- educated youth. Educated youth were remained more likely to be food secure than youth who have less or no education. The result of the survey also shows that uneducated youth hold head were found to be relatively higher for food insecure households than food secure households. Mean acquired kilocalorie per day per adult equivalent for food insecure youth is (1472.473, SD= 22.9042) kilocalorie which is below the minimum required level (2200 kilocalorie). This shows on average the food insecure far below the minimum threshold by 4005.556, SD=287.9876) kilocalories. This is why educated youth have

the capability to haunt job and they were enough to compute for job. Therefore, there employment results to secure their food security.

This finding is agree with the finding of (Broussar and Tekelesilassie, 2012:21) elucidated that in Ethiopia educated unemployment is the result of the imbalance growth between the labor market demands that require skilled labor and the rise of youth educational attainments. Besides educating youth has lesser time to be integrated with the labor market, compare to less educated ones who begin their transition to work at an earlier age and have had more exposure to labor market (ibid 2012:21). It is important to note that educated unemployment in Ethiopia is generally a new phenomenon; therefore it is not surprising to see that the unemployment rate is lower for relatively educated youth, despite it is rising.

Education is associated with access to employment and higher incomes. Youth who have better education also have the greatest proportion of food secure, the reverse is true for youth who have no schooling and/ or primary schooling only.

Table 8 Distribution of respondents by Educational status (n=118)

Respondent	Food secured		Food Insecure		
	Frequency	**%**	Frequency	**%**	
Who can't read and write	1	3.7	7	7.69	*χ2-test =227.104,*
Primary Level	1	3.70	12	13.19	*p= .000****
Secondary Level	6	22.22	49	53.85	
Preparatory Level	8	29.63	17	18.68	
Diploma/certificate	10	37.04	4	4.40	
College/Degree	1	3.70	2	2.20	
Total	27	100	91	100	

****significant at 1%level of significance*
Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.6. Parent Educational Level

According to the data shown on Table 9, 22.22 %, 40.70 %, 14.81 %, 11.11 %, 3.70 % and 7.40 % of the respondents parent were can't read and write, Primary level, secondary level, preparatory, collage graduate and university degree respectively under food secured household, Whil,27.47 %, 41.76 %, 24.18 %, 2.20 % and 4.40 % of the respondents parent were can't read and write, Primary level, secondary level, preparatory and collage graduate respectively under food insecure household categories. This implies that the parent who had better education were food secure than those who had not better education attainment.

The chi –square test result showed that, level of youth education is ($\chi 2=180.741,\ p\ =.024$) statistically significant at 10% level of significance. It implies that parents who had more education were food secure than that of non- educated youth. Parents who have more education were food secure than that of non- educated youth. Educated parent were remained more likely to be food secure than parents who have less or no education. The result of the survey also shows that uneducated parents hold head were found to be relatively higher for food insecure households than food secure households. Mean acquired kilocalorie per day per adult equivalent for food insecure youth is whose parent had lower level of education (1472.473, SD= 22.9042) kilocalorie which is below the minimum required level (2200 kilocalorie). This shows on average the food insecure far below the minimum threshold by (4005.556, SD=287.9876) kilocalories. This is why educated parents have the capability to haunt job and they were enough to compute for job. Therefore, there employment results to secure their food security.

Table 9 Parents Level of Educational status (n=118)

	Food secured		Food insecure		
Respondent	Frequency	**%**	Frequency	**%**	
Who can't read and write	6	22.22	25	27.47	*$\chi 2$-test*
Primary Level	11	40.70	35	41.76	*=180.741,*
Secondary Level	4	14.81	22	24.18	
Preparatory Level	3	11.11	2	20.20	*p= .024***
Diploma/certificate	1	3.70	4	4.40	
College/Degree	12	7.40	-	-	
Total	27	100	91	100	

***significant at 1%level of significance*

Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.7. Employment status of the respondent

Youth unemployment is a problem that affects most countries. The ability of youth to engage in productive activities has both social and economic consequences for an economy. Youth unemployment is often higher than the unemployment rate for adults highlighting the concerns that many countries face in facilitating the transition from school to work. In developing countries, youth face not only the challenge of obtaining productive employment, but also obtaining safe and acceptable work.

According to the data shown on Table 10, the majority of the respondent (98.90 %) were unemployed youth under food insecurity condition and (81. 41 %) of the respondent were employed who had better food secure. While, 18.52 % of the respondent hadn't employed in food security categories and 1.10 % of the respondent had employment opportunity in food insecure categories.

The chi –square test result showed that, level of youth employment is ($\chi 2=118.00,\ p\ =.000$) statistically significant at 1% level of significance. It implies that youth who were employed are food secure than those who did not employed. Youth in urban areas are more dependent on food purchases. For the urban poor, it is the dominance of the cash economy over access to such a basic need as food that links urban food systems to poverty and vulnerability to food insecurity
Employed youth were remained more likely to be food secure than youth who have less not employed. Employed youth can get money to purchase food available, but unemployed youth do not have enough cash to purches food, this result for food insecurity. Mean acquired kilocalorie per day per adult equivalent for food insecure youth who are not employed are (1472.473, SD= 22.9042) kilocalorie which is below the minimum required level (2200 kilocalorie). This shows on average the food insecure far below the minimum threshold by 4005.556, SD=287.9876) kilocalories. Therefore, unemployment leads to loss of income that is significantly related to food insecurity for the general youth.

Table 10 Employment status of the respondents (n=118)

	Employed		Unemployed		
Respondent	Frequency	**%**	Frequency	**%**	
Food secured	22	81.48	1	1.10	*χ2 = 118.000***
Food insecure	5	18.52	90	98.90	*p =.000*
Total	27	19.49	91	80.51	

****significant at 1%level of significance*

Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.8. Household monthly income

For the purposes of this study, income includes all type of income from work, pensions, or other transfers. The minimum and maximum monthly income of the household ranged from 1000 to 6000 Ethiopian birr per month respectively. Based on the table 13, presented, the mean monthly income of for those food secured respondent was 4000 with (SD. =1496) Ethiopian birr per month and the mean monthly income of food insecure respondents household were 1549.56(SD. = 6775) Ethiopian birr per month. In the survey, the majority of the households fell into the category of monthly incomes do not exceed Birr 2000 birr per month. About a quarter belong to "very-low-income" households.

The two tailed test result showed that the income of the family (t=16.451, *P=0.000*) was statistically significant at 1% probability level. . It implies that the income. It is in fact possible to say that youth that belong to this particular income group are ultra poor, as they cannot afford to buy even the requisite food items from the market.

The result of the survey also shows that monthly income of the household was found to be relatively higher for food secure households than food insecure households. Mean acquired kilocalorie per day per adult equivalent for food insecure households who had lower monthly income is (1472.473, SD= 22.9042) kilocalorie which is below the minimum required level (2200 kilocalorie). This shows on average the food insecure far below the minimum threshold by 587.58 kilocalories for those whose monthly income less than the mean. Therefore, monthly

income of the household is an important factor of food security. The level of income and the food security status of the household are positively correlated. Incomes were computed against food security status, and the data shows that those households with the lowest incomes experience the greatest levels of food insecurity.

The results are in line with Rudolph et al. (2008:14) who found a clear correlation between household income and food security: households in low income class experienced high incidences of food insecurity at 50% compared to households in high income class at 20%. The results are also similar to those of Oluyole et al. (2015:9), were it was observed that the proportion of the food secure tends to increase with a rise in household income.

Table 11 Income Level of the Family (in birr) (n=118)

	Monthly income				
Respondent	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Food secured	27	4000	1496	1000	6000
Food Insecure	91	1549.56	677.5		
	t-value (2-tail)	*=16.451***,*	*p=.000*		

****significant at 1%level of significance*

Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.9. Migration Status of the Respondents

Migration is a complex and multifaceted reality. People who migrate are motivated by a complex set of reasons: economic and social incentives, and conflict and political instability play an important role. According to the data shown on Table 12, the majority of the respondent (85.19 %) youth were resident in the of the city and 14.81%of the respondent were migrated from other town and rural area of the country, while, 60.44 % of the respondent under food insecurity condition were resident in the city and (60.44 %) of the respondent were migrated from other town and rural area of the country and 39.59 % who were reside in the city in food insecure categories.

The chi –square test result showed that, level of youth employment is (*χ2=.259, p =NS*) statistically insignificant. It implies that youth who were in food secure and food insecure were similar that do not an affect food security in this study.

Table 12: Migration Statues of Youth (n=118)

	Yes		No		
Respondent	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Food secured	4	14.81	23	85.19	*χ2=t 33.483*
Food Insecure	55	60.44	36	39.56	*p =NS*
Total	59	50.00	59	59	

SN=not significant
Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.10. Access to credit

Finance is an important factor of production in Ethiopia. Youth are known to be at disadvantage in getting free and direct access to many sources of credit unlike adult. Access to other financial resources is critical to the livelihood strategies of households in the different well-being categories.

According to the data shown on Table 15, Indicate (70.37 %) youth had access to credit serves and 29.63 % of the respondent had not access to any credit under food security household condition, while,14.29 % of the respondent had access to and (85.71 %) of the respondent had not access to credit facility in food insecure household categories.

The chi –square test result showed that, level of youth employment is (*χ2=.90.897***, p =000*) statistically significant. The result of the survey also shows that youth who had access to credit were found to be relatively higher for food secure households than do not had access to. Mean acquired kilocalorie per day per adult equivalent for food insecure households who do not access to credit is (1472.473, SD= 22.9042) kilocalorie which is below the minimum required level (2200 kilocalorie). This shows on average the food insecure far below the minimum threshold by

587.58 kilocalories for those whose credit access negligible. Therefore, credit access is one of the household is an important factor of food security.

In general, there is less reliance of the poor on credit to support their livelihood due to lack of credit availability that meets the conditions of the poor. In most case forming a group is required by micro finance institution, thus those who cannot form a group cannot get credit access. This requirement of collateral and group lending procedure discourages some households to take credit. People are afraid of share responsibility for others because there is a lack of commitment by some members of the group to do their job and repay the loan. (Abdalla, 2008) disclosed that access to credit helps households or individuals to meet their demands for cash without having to sell essential capitals used in generating income.

Table 13 Youth Access to Credit (n=118)

	Yes		No		
Respondent	frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Food secured	19	70.37	8	29.63	$\chi 2$ =
Food insecure	13	14.29	78	85.71	*94.846****
					p =.000
Total	32	27.12	65	55.088	

****significant at 1%level of significance*

Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.11. Access to Entrepreneur development skill

Entrepreneurship shifts young people from being jobless to being job creators and also from being socially dependent to being self-sufficient individuals. High rate of unemployment has been associated with low level of entrepreneurial development in any country. This justifies the need to increase entrepreneurial activities to reduce the high rate of youth unemployment and in turn reducing crime rates. As table 16, indicates that. (77.78 %) of the youth have access to entrepreneurship development skill and 22.22 % of had not access have access to entrepreneurship development skill in food secure household. whereas, (64.18 %) of the youth

had not access to entrepreneurship development skill and 35.18 % of had access have access to entrepreneurship development skill in food insecure household.

The chi –square test result showed that, level of youth employment is (*χ2=.106.949**, p =003*) statistically significant, acquiring better entrepreneurial skill open better opportunity to see economic opportunity. The result of the survey also shows that youth who had access to entrepreneurial skill development were found to be relatively higher for food secure than those do not access. Youth who do not have entrepreneurial skill development their average mean acquired kilocalorie per day per adult equivalent for food insecure households is (1472.473, SD= 22.9042) kilocalorie which is below the minimum required level (2200 kilocalorie). This shows on average the food insecure far below the minimum threshold by 587.58 kilocalories.

This shows that there is a significant difference between employed and unemployed youth on access to entrepreneur development skill. An important employment option for many young people is self-employment (Gough et al., 2013). Indeed, young people are reported to have higher values and levels of ambitions regarding entrepreneurship (Bosma & Levie, 2013).

Table 14 Youth Access to Entrepreneurial Development skill (n=118)

	Yes		No		
Respondent	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Food secured	21	77.78	6	22.22	*χ2 = 106.949***
Food insecure	32	35.18	59	64.84	*p =.003*
Total	53	44.92	65	55.08	

*****significant at 1%level of significance***

Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.12. Access to Business Advisory Service

As table 15, indicates that (44.44 %) of the youth have access to business advise serves and 55.56 % of had not access have access to business advisory serves in food secure household. whereas, (19.78 %) of the youth had access to business advisory serves and 80.22 % of had no

access to business advisory serves in food insecure household. The chi –square test result showed that, level of youth employment is ($\chi 2=88.253^{***}$, $p=.000$) statistically significant at 5% level of significance. It implies that youth who were employed are food secure than those who did not employed.

Micro and small enterprises (MSE) have been identified by the Ethiopian government as important sources of employment and job creation. To meet the training needs for such enterprises the government has given special attention to technical and vocational education and training (TVET) (MOE, 2002). Within each educational group (except for youth with no schooling in 1999), individuals that received a certificate for professional training had lower unemployment rates, therefore, youth who had get training were found to be relatively higher for food secure than those do not get, even their average mean acquired kilocalorie per day per adult equivalent for food insecure households is (4005.556,SD= 287.9876) kilocalorie which is higher the maximum required level (2200 kilocalorie).but, it is reveres for those who do not get any business advisee service, whose average mean acquired kilocalorie per day per adult equivalent for food insecure households is (1472.473,SD= 22.9042) kilocalorie which is below the minimum required level (2200 kilocalorie).

Table 15 Youth Access to business Advisory Service (n=118)

	Yes		No		
Respondent	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Food secured	12	44.44	15	55,56	$\chi 2-test= 88.253^{**}$
Food insecure	18	19.78	73	80.22	$p=.001$
Total	30	25.42	88	74.58	

***significant at 5%level of significance*

Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.13. Access to Social Network

Social capital is intended as the social resources upon which people draw in pursuit of their livelihood objectives. These are developed through social networks, relationships of trust, and reciprocity that may provide the basis for informal safety nets for the poor.

Social network density of a respondent is one of the social capitals related to youth employment status. As shown in Table 18, among the food secure youth, 11.11 % had no social networks while 7.41%, 37.04 %, 33.33 % and 11.11 have social network with no, 1, 1 – 2, 3 – 4 and 5 - 6 person respectively. Whereas, among the food insecure youth, 7.69 % had no social networks while 19.78 %, 30.77 %, 32.97 % and 8.79 have social network with no, 1, 1 – 2, 3 – 4 and 5 - 6 person respectively

The chi – square test (x2 =160.202, P =.004) statistically significant at 5% level of significance. The result revealed thet existence of an association between social network density and youth employmentstatus. This indicate that youth who have better social network have greater opportunity to get job this result to secure food access than those who have rear social network.

Table 16 Social network statues of Youth (n=118)

	Food secured		Food insecure		
Respondent	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
No dependent	3	11.11	7	7.69	*χ2=*
One Person	2	7.41	18	19.78	*160.202**,*
1 – 2 Person	10	37.04	28	30.77	*p= .004*
3 – 4 Person	9	33.33	30	32.97	
5 - 6 Person	2	11.11	8	8.79	
Total	26		92		

********significant at 5%level of significance*

Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.14. Access to job-market information

Market Information (LMI) is a key ingredient to understanding the workplace and the dynamics which influence job search and career choices. Labor Market Information can help you to evaluate options and consider opportunities. That information, coupled with an awareness of your own interests, likes, and dislikes, will give you a sense of direction. You can further define that direction into a goal by identifying the skills you have or are willing to develop. As shown in Table 17 show that among food secure respondent 62.96 % of had access to job market information regarding to labor market and 37.04 % of youth had not access to job market information regarding to labor market, Whereas, 39.56 % and 60.40 % youth had access and had not access to job market information regarding to labor market respectively.

The chi – square test (101.264**, *p=.001*) shows that access to job market information is statistically significant at 5 % significant level. This implies that access to job-market information has an effect on youth food security.

Table 17 Access to Job Market Information (n=118)

	Yes		No		
Respondent	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Food secured	17	62.96	36	39.56	$\chi 2$ =101.264**,
Food insecure	10	37.04	55	60.40	p=.000
Total	53	44.92	65	55.08	

**********significant at 1%level of significance*

Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.15. Work Experience of Respondents

Prior work experience is positively associated with an individual's ability to obtain permanent work at a later date. In the following table, as the percentage of total unemployed persons by work experience, in year 2021, most of the unemployed population is first time job seeker. About Table 18 show that among food secure respondent 66.67 % of had job experience and

33.33 % of youth had not job experience, Whereas, 41.76 % and 58.24 % youth had job experience and had not respectively.

The chi – square test (97.117*, *p=.040*) shows that access to job market information is statistically significant at 10 % significant level.

The second noticeable difference is that youth in city face very similar labour market outcomes as the adult less job opportunity. In urban areas however, youth encounter different labour market outcomes than the adult urban Population Informal sector employment and underemployment are economic situations common to youth in developing countries. The formal sector often provides high quality job experience, better paying jobs. As described earlier, formal Sector rates were highest among adult who have better experience. The higher proportion of teenagers in informal sector employment suggests that first time job seekers are finding employment in the informal economy before eventually finding employment in the formal economy that need no experience and pay low wage, individuals that have job experience had high employment rates, therefore, were they found to be relatively higher for food secure than those do not had experience, even their average mean acquired kilocalorie per day per adult equivalent for food secure households is (4005.556,SD= 287.9876) kilocalorie which is higher the maximum required level (2200 kilocalorie).but, it is reveres for those who do not get any job experience, whose average mean acquired kilocalorie per day per adult equivalent for food insecure households is (1472.473,SD= 22.9042) kilocalorie which is below the minimum required level (2200 kilocalorie).

The implication of this higher proportion of unemployed population with no work experience could be clear that workers get limited employable skills from either formal training or their education and it is an indicator that most the workers get marketable talents/skills from their jobs that could be in the form of training or jobs.

Work experience is a major challenge for them to be hired in a job. This information implies that most of the vacancies announced both by the private organization and governmental organization required work experience. Even though the government stated that it creates different jobs in its organization considering of fresh graduates, in reality they are still suffering from unemployment because of lack of work experience. Therefore, on this situation where there is work experience

requirement almost in all organization including government vacancies make fresh graduates stay unemployed till they find a job that doesn't require work experience.

Table 18 Job Experience of youth (n=118)

	Yes		No		
Respondent	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Food secured	18	66.67	9	33.33	$\chi 2 = 97.117$*
Food insecure	38	41.76	53	58.24	$p = .040$
Total	56	47.46	62	52.54	

**significant at 1%level of significance*

Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.16. Access to Vocational training

Vocational also known as vocational education and training (VET) basically focuses on practical applications of the skills learned or acquired and it provides the much needed hands-on instruction in a specific trade. Students can abstain from attending general education courses associated with most post-secondary programs and that is why it can be said that VET is basically unconcerned with theory or traditional academic skills. It works as a connecting link between theoretical education and the real working environment and, students can join these types of programs at school level or post-secondary level as well. As indicated in Table 19, among food secured categories 74.07 % and 25.93 % of the respondents do have received and have not receive vocational training respectively, whereas, among food insecure group 1.10 % and 98.90 % of have received and haven't received vocational training respectively.

The chi – square test (105.224**, *p=.005*) shows that access to vocational training is statistically significant at 5 % significant level.

This finding was in line with the finding of (Card et al., 2010) conclude that classroom and on-the-job training can have positive impacts on employment, especially over the longer run.

Table 19 Access to vocational training (n=118)

	Yes		No		
Respondent	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Food secured	20	74.07	7	25.93	*χ2 =105.224***
Food insecure	1	1.10	90	98.90	*p =.005*
Total	21	17.80	97	82.80	

***significant at 1%level of significance*

Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.17. Respondent Job preference

The potentials of job availability for the reduction of unemployment particularly for the youth have great importance for economic growth. According to result shown in table 20, based on the above table the majority of the food secured respondents 77.78 % do not prefer any available job to work and only 22.22 % of the respondents do prefer job. Whereas, among food insecure group 69.23 % of the respondent among food insecure categories prefer job available and only 30.77 % of do not prefer job.

The chi – square test (62871***, *p=.000*) shows that job preference is statistically significant at 1 % significant level. The higher proportion of youth in do not need to do any available job, due to bad cultural informal sector employment suggests that first time job seekers are finding employment in the informal economy before eventually finding employment in the formal economy that need no experience and pay low wage, individuals that have job experience had high employment rates, therefore, were they found to be relatively higher for food secure than those do not had experience, even their average mean acquired kilocalorie per day per adult equivalent for food secure households is (4005.556,SD= 287.9876) kilocalorie which is higher the maximum required level (2200 kilocalorie).but, it is reveres for those who do not get any job experience, whose average mean acquired kilocalorie per day per adult equivalent for food insecure households is (1472.473,SD= 22.9042) kilocalorie which is below the minimum required level (2200 kilocalorie).

Table 20 Respondents Job preference (n=118)

	Yes		No		
Respondent	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Food secured	6	22.22	63	69.23	*χ2 =62.871***,*
Food insecure	21	77.78	28	30.77	*p =.000*
Total	69	58.47	49	41.53	

****significant at 1%level of significance*

Source: Computed from survey data, 2021

4.1.18. Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

The multiple linear regression model results revealed that the nexus between food insecurity and youth unemployment was determined by the interaction of different demographic, socio – economic, institutional related factors. The main objective of the model, in particular, is to analyze the factors that determine the probability of food secure or food insecure of youth. The estimated parameter of the independent variables expected to influence food insecurity unemployment are Table 21.

The results of the multiple linear regression estimate indicate that out of the 17 explanatory variables included in the regression, thecoefficients of the six explanatory variables were found to be statically significant in determining food insecurity that any change in this variable will substantially influence on the probability of being food secured or food insecure.

The overall regression model was significant

f(17. 100) = 66.905, p <.000. R square =.919

The following variables Age, Number of dependent, Income, Job preferences, Employment status and marital status are a significant predictor cause food insecurity and stronger correlation with food insecurity.

Age, employment status, income, job preferences and marital shows significant and negative correlated with food insecurity. This indicates that any in decrease in age, income, marital status and unemployment status (unemployed) any of these variables will decrease the probability of food insecurity also increase.

Whereas, total number of dependent and job preferences shows significant and positive correlation with food insecurity of youth. The positive relationship implies that an increment in any of these variables will increase food insecurity.

Sex, job experience, Access to vocational training, Access to market information, social net work, Access to business advisee service, Access to entrepreneur skill development, Access to credit, Youth education and parent education even though this variables show significance relationship in the descriptive analysis but, it do not have any significance in the regression, while the variables shows that negative correlation with food insecurity. As increase or decrease any variable result in decrease or increase in food insecurity.

Multiple linear Regression

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Model
1	.959[a]	.919	.906	160.576	1

ANOVA[a]

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F
1	Regression	29405232.025	16	1837827.002
Residual	2604236.831	101		
Total	32009468.856	117		

Table 21: Output of multiple linear regression Coefficients

Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	2313.076	379.787		6.090	.000
Age	13.691	7.345	.092	1.864	.035
Sex of the youth	14.970	41.912	.013	.357	.722
Number of dependent in the H	-46.888	16.384	-.125	-2.862	.005
Family income level	.091	.025	.260	3.592	.001
Job Experience	7.697	31.362	.007	.245	.807
Access to vocational training	-74.750	105.243	-.059	-.710	.479
Job Preferences	96.293	38.646	.092	2.492	.014
Employment status	-577.354	149.768	-.472	-3.855	.000
Access to job market information	32.814	31.040	.031	1.057	.293
Social net work of the youth	-10.888	15.006	-.024	-.726	.470
Access to business advisory service	-18.599	37.783	-.015	-.492	.624
Access to Entrepreneurial Development Skill	-11.278	34.106	-.011	-.331	.742
Access to credit	-10.475	41.744	-.009	-.251	.802
Marital status of youth	104.436	42.062	.078	2.483	.015
Educational statues of youth	-8.166	15.931	-.016	-.513	.609
Parents level of Education	5.956	15.372	.013	.387	.699

a. Dependent Variable: Food insecurity

4.2. HOUSEHOLD FOOD INSECURITY STATUS

The level of food insecurity is established based on a score (sum of responses) and a classification of severity of food insecurity from the HFIAS scale. The score is the sum of the frequency-of-occurrence during the past four weeks for the nine food insecurity-related condition. The frequency-of-occurrence: rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks), sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks) and often (more than ten times in the past four weeks) are coded with 1, 2 and 3 respectively.

Responses to the HFIAS items were generally consistent. There was a decreasing percentage in the affirmative responses from the first question to the last question. This indicated that the severity of household food insecure was getting lower over the domain. More respondents reported affirmatively to the items indicating less severe food insecurity such as they have to eat a limited variety of foods due to the lack of resources, than to items indicating more severe food insecurity such as go a whole day and night without eating anything. The resources mentioning here were mainly referring to financial aspect.

Table 22: Summarized the distribution of affirmative responses to the nine items by the subject youths households in Nifas Silk Lafeto sub city woreda 09.

Household Food Insecurity Access scale, among household in Addis Ababa city Nifas silk Lafeto sub city woreda09,			
Question	**Rarely n (%)**	**Some times n (%)**	**Often n (%)**
1. In the past four weeks, did you worry that your household would not have enough food?	28(17.1)*	3(1.8)**	0(0)+
2. In the past four weeks, were you or any household member not able to eat the kinds of foods you preferred because of a lack of resources	11(6.7)**	2(1.2)**	0(0)+
3. In the past four weeks, did you or any household member have to eat a limited variety of foods due to a lack of resources?	3(1.8)**	1(.6)**	0(0)+
4. In the past four weeks, did you or any member have to eat some foods that you really did not want to eat because of lack of resources to obtain other types of food?	37(22.6)**	1(.6)***	0(0)+
5. In the past four weeks, did you or any household member have to eat a smaller meal than you felt you needed because there was not enough food?	11(6.7)***	1(.6)***	0(0)+
6. In the past four weeks, did you or any other household member have to eat fewer meals in a day because there was not enough food?	8(4.6)***	1(.6)***	0(0)+
7. In the past four weeks, was there ever no food to eat of any kind in your household because of lack of resources to get food?	6(3.7)+	1(.6)+	0(0)+
8. In the past four weeks, did you or any household member go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food?	1(.6)+	1(.6)+	0(0)+
9. In the past four weeks, did you or any household member go a whole day and night without eating anything because there was not enough food?	0(0)+	0(0)+	0(0)+
*Food secure; **Mildly food insecure; ***Moderately food insecure and +Severely food insecure			

Source: computed from survey data, 2021

The score was then calculated based on the distribution of the responses to the nine items. The household food insecurity scores ranged from 0 to 27. The maximum score for a household is 27 and the minimum score is 0. The mean food insecurity score is 6.0±6.65. This was a good phenomenon as the lower the score, the less food insecurity a household experienced (Coates et al., 2007). Using the categorical measure of food insecurity, four levels of food insecurity had been identified which were food security, mildly food insecure, moderately food insecure and severely food insecure. Table 23 showed the frequency and percentage of each HFIAS category.

Table 23: Prevalence of Household Food Insecurity (n=118)

HFIAS categories	(n)	%
Food secure	28	(24.37)
Mildly food insecure	56	(48.65)
Moderately food insecure	22	(19.1)
Severely food insecure	9	(7.82)
Total	115	100

n : number of households % : percentage of households

Source: computed from survey data, 2021

About two-thirds of households (75.63 %) were food insecure. That was they were, at times, uncertain of having or unable to acquire enough food for all household members because they had insufficient money and other resources for food. They were further categorized into mildly food insecure (48.65 %), moderately food insecure (19.1 %) and severely food insecure (7.82 %). This implies that these high numbers of youth and their family did not have regular access to nutritious and sufficient food, even if they were not necessarily suffering from hunger, thus putting them at greater risk of various forms of malnutrition and poor health than the food secure population. The remaining, 24.37 % of youths were food secured, meaning that they had access at all times to enough food for an active, healthy life for all youth members.

4.2.1. Food security status of households

Based on the response to the nine HFIAS questions and their frequency of occurrence over the past 30 days, HHs was assigned a score that ranges from 0 to 27.

According to the result, 93 % of the respondents worried more than 2.8 times about food in the past four week, *FGD also confirmed that a person who do not have enough food to eat or he or she do not have enough money to buy some food always worry particularly those youth who have extended family and if high dependent are found in the house also added that this condition also involves being worried about not having sufficient food to eat or not having money to buy food when it runs out*, 69 % of the respondents more than the respondents and his/her household member 5.8 times not able to eat the kinds of foods you preferred in the past four weeks, because of a lack of resources, 86 % of the respondents respond that, 2.3 times the respondents and his/her household member have to eat a limited variety of foods in the past four week, due to a lack of resources, 67 % of the respondents respond that, 2.8 times the respondents and his/her household member have to eat a limited variety of foods in the past four week, because of lack of resources to obtain other types of food and the *FGD participants also strongly agree if food shortage exist in their family they are forced to eat any available food without preferred even they limit the food consumed in order to extend the food available*, 91.4 % of the respondents respond that, 3.5 times the respondents and his/her household have to eat a smaller meal than you felt you needed in the past four week, because there was not enough food, In the past four weeks, 83 % of the respondents respond that, eat a limited variety of foods 8.1 times in the past four week, because there was not enough food, In the past four weeks, 68.4 % 0f the respondents ever not eat any kind of food times there ever no food to eat of any kind food 8.2 times because of lack of resources to get food, In the past four weeks, only 11 % , 2.4 times the respondents and his/her household member go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food.

Respondent who are participate in the FGD food insecurity is one of the major challenge of us, now a days the food price in the market and shortage of money is the problem that make our life harsh and worst, in the past we can buy bread with 0.75 cent but now its price increase to 3 birr and above, in addition to this the current covid 19, also make life worse no job, no active

business in the city even shortage of food exist in the market because of this and other related problem we are facing hug problem to survive.

"Sometimes shortage of food lasts for long periods of time and it is usually caused by lack of productive and financial resources due to poverty. It persistently affects us that are not able to meet necessary requirements to purchase or produce enough food"

Table 24: Poisson counting model output of HFIAS

FOOD INSECURITY	Coef.	Std.Err.	Z	P Z	{95conf.	Interval
Worry about food	-.281595	.1085507	-2.59	0.009	-.4943511	-.068401
Unable to eat preferred foods	-.5814238	.1867826	-3.11	0.002	-.9475109	-.2153367
Eat just a few kinds of foods	-.2353589	.1110355	-2.12	0.034	-.4529845	-.0177332
Eat foods they really do not want eat	-.2889313	.1061595	-2.72	0.006	-.4970001	-.0808625
Eat a smaller meal	-.3596849	.1091379	-3.30	0.001	-.5735913	-.1457786
Eat fewer meals in a day	-.8127675	.1066573	-3.87	0.000	-.6218119	-.203723
No food of any kind in the household	-.823078	.0974846	-5.97	0.000	-.7733741	-.3912415
Go to sleep hungry	-.2462562	.0968083	-2.54	0.011	-.4359969	-.0565154
Go a whole day and night without eating						

Source: Poisson count model output computed from survey data, 2021

According to FGD and KI interviewers says, majority of the youth pass high food insecurity condition in the household through eating smaller meal, eat food they really do not wont, and sometimes they do not get any food.

KI interviewers say in order to improve the youth food insecurity the office predict short-term changes in access to food. It helps to determine people's food and non-food needs and identify appropriate means of assistance, whether it is short-term emergency assistance or longer-term development programs.. The rising trends of price inflation of basic food commodities in city affect chronically food insecure districts including the study area with very severe impact in the periods of 2020 and 2021. Despite corona virus and inflation had previously been a less significant problem, the recent volatility compounded already-existing high levels of indebtedness often with negative effect on youth and poor family divert their food intake to cheaper prices food. The office interfere by regulate the fluctuation of food price and subsidize poor household as well as organizing youth who are not employed and provide short term business training and credit facility.

4.3 Household Dietary Diversity Scale (HDDS)

Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS) was used as the indirect food insecurity measurement tool in the study. Primary food list was developed based on the guidelines that were provided by Kennedy *et al*. (2010). Special emphasis was given to provide the common food consumed in Pitas town, Sabah. The common food items were categorized into twelve groups which covered (1) Rice, cereals, noodles; (2) roots and tubers; (3) fruits; (4) vegetables; (5) meats; (6) eggs; (7) fish and fish products; (8) beans and bean products; (9) milk and dairy products; (10) fats and oils; (11) sugars in beverages and confectionaries; (12) seasonings and drinks such as coffee and tea. Mothers or the members who were responsible in food preparation in the households were asked how often they consume each item of food. If one of the members consumed a particular food groups in any time of the day (breakfast, morning tea, lunch, afternoon tea, dinner or supper) for more than times a day for the past 24 hours, a tick will be given on the column. According to FGD, *"Food prices play a key role also for dietary diversity. Even for youths who cover most of their dietary energy from subsistence production, purchased foods can critically contribute to the variety and quality of their diets. Costs tend to rise with dietary quality, and a common strategy for coping with reduced purchasing power is to shift*

dietary patterns towards cheaper food. As a result, nutrient intake is compromised in the wake of surging prices. This coping strategy seems to have been used during the global food crisis".
The questions were referred to the household as a whole, not to any single member of the household.

Table 25: Household divers' dietary consumption per day

Household divers dietary consumption per day			
Categories	Calories	Scale	Status
Low	G	0.0 -0.3	Sevier Food insecure
Medium	G	0.4 -0.6	Moderate Food insecure
High	G	0.7 -0.9	Food secure

Source: Household divers' dietary consumption per day computed from survey data 2021.

The differences in dietary diversity may be because of the differences in food preference (food culture) or income level or both. In this case, it was learnt from the FGD *that there is difference between the food secured and food insecure in terms of their food preference / food culture/. For instance, the food secured people usually prefer porridge made from cereals sorghum or maize along with beans product, whereas food secured mostly used injera with wot, additionally use the combination of food group*. Based on the sum of 'yes' responses for the consumptions of the 12 food groups considered, households of food secured youth were relatively better than that of food insecure one.

According to the result as shown, the majority of them low protein diet 92.3 %, 63.39, 80.34 %, 94.09, 95.76 %, 73.73 and 90.58, Cereals, Potato, Vegetable, bean/peas, Oil, Sugar and Coffee were consumed more in the past 24 hours. This data suggests that given the types of foods eaten and the limited diversity, poor households have a nutritionally inadequate diet for normal growth and development. Although a more diversified diet is an important outcome in and of itself, other research has shown that a more diversified diet is associated with the income level of the household. While, 30.54 % and 35.39 % of the reported households had eat fruit and egg respectively. But, 27.12 %, 17.80 % and 2.5 % of them had eaten high quality food in the surveyed 24 hours.

The data which are collected from FGD and Key informant discussion who food insecurity exist those youth experiencing moderate food insecurity face uncertainties about their ability to obtain food and have been forced to reduce, at times during the year, the quality and/or quantity of food they consume due to lack of money or other resources. It thus refers to a lack of consistent access to food, which diminishes dietary quality, disrupts normal eating patterns, and can have negative consequences for nutrition, health and well-being. People facing severe food insecurity, on the other hand, have likely run out of food, experienced hunger and, at the most extreme, gone for days without eating, putting their health and well-being at grave risk.

Table 26 : Household Dietary Diversity

Household Dietary Diversity		
HDD Score	**Percentage**	**Mean**
1	92.3	0.93
2	63.39	0.62
3	80.43	0.80
4	73.50	0,73
5	27.12	0.27
6	35.59	0.355
7	2.54	0.025
8	94.07	0.94
9	17.80	0.17
10	95.76	0.95
11	73.73	0.73
12	96.58	0.96
Total	100	

Source: Household Dietary Diversity Score computed from survey data 2021.

4.4 Coping strategies Food insecurity statues' of Youth

Youths with food shortages were forced to use a range of coping strategies, mainly consumption-related mechanisms that include purchasing food on credit, reduce portions and skipped meals, shopping in cheap shops for cheap foods, informal support experience friends and family and dietary changes, data collected from focused group discussion and key informant interviews .

4.4.1. Purchasing food on credit

As a result of poor income among significant proportion of youth in the city, they are forced to buy their food on credit that increasingly leads them to high level of indebtedness. Those who are unable to get their essential needs on credit would end up using negative coping measures.

The overall average proportion of youths accessing their food on credit increased slightly to pass the situation.

4.4.2. Reduced portions and skipped meals

Another strategy used by the participants to mitigate their food insecurity was rationing portions and meals. Numerous participants skipped breakfast or had adopted grazing eating patterns, relying more on snacks than full meals, due to insufficient money for food:

I try to [eat three meals a day] but sometimes I have to ration my portions or meals just because of the fact that I can't get that much food.

I usually skip breakfast.

This was a common strategy among the participants, who preferred to address their food insecurity themselves rather than seek informal or formal support. When asked how he would try to manage his food insecurity should his pending

I'd try and ration my food to make it last as long as I could, quite frankly

Reducing portions and skipping meals was as common a strategy for managing food insecurity as shopping for cheap foods and was equally universal across the sample, in that it was something that could be negotiated and deployed independently on a needs basis.

4.4.3. Shopping in cheap shops for cheap foods

Buying food cheaply was a key strategy among participants for managing their food insecurity. Almost all of the participants described preferring to shop in more budget-friendly outlets; they often expressed pride at how cheaply they could get a week's worth of food from these stores; something they had perfected over several bouts of financial precocity and food insecurity: I would say I do go to shops like bread.

4.4.4. Informal support experiences: friends and family

Many of the participants managed their food insecurity, at least partially, within their social circle. Participants sometimes ate at the homes of family members or friends when they ran out of money, and for some this had become a regular fixture; something that was simply built into their typical social routine and relationships:

The most common form of informal support identified in this study was the gifting of food or money from relatives, however. Again, this was either something that occurred more sporadically, when money had run out, or had become more routinised, dependent on the nature of the participants' food insecurity.

For example, Tesfay, relied on a monthly allowance from his father in order to afford food, whereas others got more periodic support: *I'm really lucky because if [my mum] wasn't there for me then I would be rationing meals.*

Participants were more comfortable about accepting food parcels than money from their parents or other family members; with the latter often engendering uncomfortable feelings of guilt or dependence. In that sense, while accessing food or money from relatives and friends has emerged as the most common/popular strategy for managing food insecurity in other studies with young people there was relatively low uptake of it in this study. Participants were often very uncomfortable about asking for support, particularly from parents, and this was for a range of

reasons. First, the participants' parents often had limited resources themselves, making participants reluctant to ask for, or accept, and their support.

4.4.5. Dietary changes

Such as change in staple grain from more expensive (*teff*) to other cheaper and less-preferred foods such as wheat, sorghum, millet, and maize.

Case studies indicated that they used *teff* mixed with millet and *guaya* for preparing the traditional sauce which is known as *wot*. Most focus group respondents agreed that less preferred food items are consumed by the lowest income households as a means of adapting to lower incomes. Besides, there is seasonal variation in the patterns of consumption. During the summer season the poor households' food menu is mostly dominated by some food group like potato, cabbage, *yebokolo eshet* (green maize), *adungare, bakella* (bean) and others which are relatively cheaper during this season.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The first section of this chapter summery(the nexus between youth unemployment and food insecurity of the study area) the main findings and conclusions while the second section provides practical recommendations for youth unemployment in food insecurity in Nefas silk Lafeto sub city woreda 9, Addis Ababa.

5.1 SUMMARY

5.1.1The Nexus between Youth Unemployment and Food Insecurity of the study area

This study was carried out to be the Nexus between Youth Unemployment and Food Insecurity Evidences from Nifas Silk Lafeto Sub-City Woreda 09. The specific objectives of the study were to: to assess the nature of Youth Unemployment; Examine the Effects of Youth Unemployment on Food Insecurity and Explore the Copying Strategies of Food Insecurity for Youth Unemployment in the study area. The data were generated from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data were collected from individual interview using pre-tested, semi-structured interview schedule from 118 randomly selected households Key informant interviews and Focus group discussions. The analysis was made using descriptive statistics and econometric model using SPSS and STATA software.

The probability of finding food insecurity decrease as age increase but, after a certain age, the probability decreases irrespective of the levels of food insecurity increase across the study area. This may be mainly due to the presence of age restrictions in the formal job market and a decrease in productivity with an increase in age.

As shown the mean age and SD. of food secured youth was 25.6(SD. = 2.85) years and food insecure youth was 20.23(SD.= 2.47) years. The two tailed test result showed that the age is

statistically insignificant (t=67.141, *P=0.000*). It implies that the age of food secured and food insecure different.

The mean and SD of number of dependents in the family for the food secured and food insecure were found to be 3.07 (1.384) and 4.648 (1.138) respectively. The independent sample t-test was conducted to determine if there exists a difference between the number of dependents in the family among food secure and food insecure. The t - test result showed that number of dependents in the household is (t= 32.38, p =.000) statistically significant at 1% level of significance with 95 % confidence level of the deference.

The majority of the female youth (84.63 %) were food insecure and 37.04 % only were food secure. While (62.96 %) and (15.38 %) of male youth were food secure and food insecure respectively.The male had more food secure than female. The chi-square test ($\chi 2$ = 118.000, P=.001) results show that access to credit services is statistically significant at less than 1% probability level.

The majority of the respondent (85.19 %) unmarried under food secure status and (84.63 %) were unmarried under food insecure, while, (14.81 %) and (15.38 %) were married under categories of food secure and food insecure status respectively. The chi-square test ($\chi 2$ = 89.447, P=.012) results show that marital states was statistically significant at less than 5 % probability level.

3.70 %, 3.70 %, 22.22 %, 29.63 %, 37.04 % and 3.70 % of the respondents were can't read and write, Primary level, secondary level, preparatory, collage graduate and university degree respectively under food secured household, While, 7.69 %, 13.19 %, 53.85 %, 18.68 %, 4.40 and 2.20 % of the respondents were can't read and write, Primary level, secondary level, preparatory, collage graduate and university degree respectively under food insecure household.

The chi –square test result showed that, level of youth education is ($\chi 2=227.104,\ p\ =.000$) statistically significant at 1% level of significance. It implies that youth who have more education were food secure than that of non- educated youth.

22.22 %, 40.70 %, 14.81 %, 11.11 %, 3.70 % and 7.40 % of the respondents parent were can't read and write, Primary level, secondary level, preparatory, collage graduate and university degree respectively under food secured household, While, 27.47 %, 41.76 %, 24.18 %, 2.20 % and 4.40 % of the respondents parent were can't read and write, Primary level, secondary level, preparatory and collage graduate respectively under food insecure household categories. This implies that the parent who had better education were food secure than those who had not better education attainment.

The chi –square test result showed that, level of youth education is ($\chi 2=180.741,\ p\ =.024$) statistically significant at 10% level of significance.

The majority of the respondent (98.90 %) were unemployed youth under food insecurity condition and (81. 41 %) of the respondent were employed who had better food secure. While, 18.52 % of the respondent hadn't employed in food security categories and 1.10 % of the respondent had employment opportunity in food insecure categories. The chi –square test result showed that, level of youth employment is ($\chi 2=118.00,\ p\ =.000$) statistically significant at 1% level of significance.

Based on the table presented, the mean monthly income of for those food secured respondent was 4000 with (SD. 1496) Ethiopian Birr per month and the mean monthly income of food insecure respondents household were 1549.56(SD. = 6775) Ethiopian Birr per month. In the survey, the majority of the households fell into the category of monthly incomes do not exceed Birr 2000 birr per month. About a quarter belong to "very-low-income" households.

The two tailed test result showed that the income of the family (t=16.451, $P=0.000$) was statistically significant at 1% probability level.

The majority of the respondent (85.19 %) youth were resident in the of the city and 14.81%of the respondent were migrated from other town and rural area of the country, while, 60.44 % of the respondent under food insecurity condition were resident in the city and (60.44 %) of the respondent were migrated from other town and rural area of the country and 39.59 % who were reside in the city in food insecure categories. The chi –square test result showed that, level of youth employment is ($\chi 2=.259,\ p\ =NS$) statistically insignificant.

Indicate (70.37 %) youth had access to credit serves and 29.63 % of the respondent had not access to any credit under food security household condition, while,14.29 % of the respondent had access to and (85.71 %) of the respondent had not access to credit facility in food insecure household categories. The chi –square test result showed that, level of youth employment is (*χ2=.90.897***, p =000*) statistically significant.

(77.78 %) of the youth have access to entrepreneurship development skill and 22.22 % of had not access have access to entrepreneurship development skill in food secure household. whereas, (64.18 %) of the youth had not access to entrepreneurship development skill and 35.18 % of had access have access to entrepreneurship development skill in food insecure household. The chi – square test result showed that, level of youth employment is (*χ2=.106.949**, p =003*) statistically significant.

As indicates that (44.44 %) of the youth have access to business advise serves and 55.56 % of had not access have access to business advisory serves in food secure household. whereas, (19.78 %) of the youth had access to business advisory serves and 80.22 % of had no access to business advisory serves in food insecure household. The chi –square test result showed that, level of youth employment is (*χ2=88.253***, p =.000*) statistically significant at 5% level of significance. It implies that youth who were employed are food secure than those who did not employed.

Among the food secure youth, 11.11 % had no social networks while 7.41%, 37.04 %, 33.33 % and 11.11 have social network with no, 1, 1 – 2, 3 – 4 and 5 - 6 person respectively. Whereas, among the food insecure youth, 7.69 % had no social networks while 19.78 %, 30.77 %, 32.97 % and 8.79 have social network with no, 1, 1 – 2, 3 – 4 and 5 - 6 person respectively. The chi – square test (x2 =160.202, P =.004) statistically significant at 5% level of significance. The result revealed thet existence of an association between social network density and youth employmentstatus.

Among food secure respondent 62.96 % of had access to job market information regarding to labor market and 37.04 % of youth had not access to job market information regarding to labor market, Whereas, 39.56 % and 60.40 % youth had access and had not access to job market

information regarding to labor market respectively. The chi – square test (101.264**, *p=.001*) shows that access to job market information is statistically significant at 5 % significant level. This implies that access to job-market information has an effect on youth food security.

Among food secure respondent 66.67 % of had job experience and 33.33 % of youth had not job experience, whereas, 41.76 % and 58.24 % youth had job experience and had not respectively.

Among food secured categories 74.07 % and 25.93 % of the respondents do have received and have not received vocational training respectively, whereas among food insecure group 1.10 % and 98.90 % of have received and haven't received vocational training respectively.

The chi – square test (105.224**, *p=.005*) shows that access to vocational training is statistically significant at 5 % significant level.

77.78 % do not prefer any available job to work and only 22.22 % of the respondents do prefer job. Whereas, among food insecure group 69.23 % of the respondent among food insecure categories prefer job available and only 30.77 % of do not prefer job.

The chi – square test (62871***, *p=.000*) shows that job preference is statistically significant at 1 % significant level.

The chi – square test (97.117*, *p=.040*) shows that access to job market information is statistically significant at 10 % significant level.

The following variables Age, Number of dependent, Income, Job preferences, Employment status and marital status are a significant predictor cause food insecurity and stronger correlation with food insecurity.

Household Food Insecurity Access scale

About two-thirds of households (75.63 %) were food insecure. They were further categorized into mildly food insecure (48.65 %), moderately food insecure (19.1 %) and severely food insecure (7.82 %). The remaining, 24.37 % of youths were food secured, meaning that they had access at all times to enough food for an active, healthy life for all youth members.

According to the result, 93 % of the respondents worried more than 2.8 times about food in the past four week, 69 % of the respondents more than the respondents and his/her household member 5.8 times not able to eat the kinds of foods you preferred in the past four weeks, because of a lack of resources, 86 % of the respondents respond that, 2.3 times the respondents and his/her household member have to eat a limited variety of foods in the past four week, due to a lack of resources, 67 % of the respondents respond that, 2.8 times the respondents and his/her household member have to eat a limited variety of foods in the past four week, because of lack of resources to obtain other types of food, 91.4 % of the respondents respond that, 3.5 times the respondents and his/her household have to eat a smaller meal than you felt you needed in the past four week, because there was not enough food, In the past four weeks, 83 % of the respondents respond that, eat a limited variety of foods 8.1 times in the past four week, because there was not enough food, In the past four weeks, 68.4 % 0f the respondents ever not eat any kind of food times there ever no food to eat of any kind food 8.2 times because of lack of resources to get food, In the past four weeks, only 11 % , 2.4 times the respondents and his/her household member go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food.

Household Dietary Diversity Scale (HDDS)

According to the result as shown, the majority of them low protein diet 92.3 %, 63.39, 80.34 %, 94.09, 95.76 %, 73.73 and 90.58, Cereals, Potato, Vegetable, bean/peas, Oil, Sugar and Coffee were consumed more in the past 24 hours. This data suggests that given the types of foods eaten and the limited diversity, poor households have a nutritionally inadequate diet for normal growth and development. Although a more diversified diet is an important outcome in and of itself, other research has shown that a more diversified diet is associated with the income level of the household. While, 30.54 % and 35.39 % of the reported households had eat fruit and egg respectively. But, 27.12 %, 17.80 % and 2.5 % of them had eaten high quality food in the surveyed 24 hours.

Coping strategies Food insecurity statues' of Youth

Youths with food shortages were forced to use a range of coping strategies, mainly consumption-related mechanisms that include purchasing food on credit, reduce portion and skipped meals,

shopping in cheap shops for cheap foods, informal support experiences friends and family and dietary change.

5.2. Conclusion

Youth unemployment and food insecurity are not only a matter of national concern but also an issue of debate and discussion. This research presents the Nexus between Youth Unemployment and Food Insecurity were the immediate and long-term consequences of the unemployment rate. Reduced work force in the country and loss of a generation of young people are among the future consequences of the food security problem.

The results of this cross-national analysis reinforce previous research supportive of a causal mechanism where, in the absence of exceptional local factors, an increase in income drives increase in food security. Initiatives that seek to improve national food security by focusing on other drivers without a clear path to improving incomes, education. Food insecurity is associated with youth unemployment status.

This chapter has reviewed the current knowledge base on youth food insecurity. Youth food insecurity shares a number of commonalities with general experiences of food insecurity among other age groups, particularly in terms of it being a problem rooted in low incomes or problems with welfare benefits. These findings suggest that youth are not adequately buffered from household food insecurity. Lacking data on adult women and young children we cannot say that youth are more or less vulnerable to the food crisis than adults, but our results clearly show that they are vulnerable. Despite this vulnerability, youth seem to be generally forgotten as a vulnerable group. This is unfortunate, as elsewhere we have shown that food insecure youth, especially girls, are more likely to miss school, consume low diversity diets, reported poor health, and lack the energy to carry out everyday activities (Belachew et al. 2013; Hadley et al. 2008). The results also powerfully demonstrate that patterns of vulnerability are not static and instead reflect a dynamic interplay between the local and the global. That is, predictors of youth food insecurity varied across the study years. This is important because it undermines some of our assumptions about who is vulnerable. The results, thus, offer a cautionary tale to broad generalities about who is vulnerable to food insecurity during the food crises. Future research

would do well to examine pathways through which youth can be targeted. Failure does so many lead to a large population of youth being negatively impacted during a critical period of their lives as they transition into adult roles.

5.3. Recommendations

Despite this, significant gaps exist at the policy and practice levels, where there has been an apparent lack of interest or intervention in youth unemployment and food insecurity in the Ethiopia. Supporting youth in the labor market pays off. Empirical evidence shows that youth employment interventions, particularly those that provide skills training, promote entrepreneurship, subsidize employment, or support job seekers through employment services yield a positive (and statistically significant) impact. These are found in at least one of three estimates measuring impacts of youth employment interventions on employment, earnings or business performance outcomes. Reflecting patterns reported in that, entrepreneurship has gained scope, particularly in developing contexts with insufficient labor demand to absorb a large and growing youth labor force. The magnitude of the impact is, however, modest. This finding holds in relative terms, but does not seem to be fully independent from economic and institutional factors affecting labor market policies today, Design and implementation and considerations of local and economic contexts are therefore crucial to understand the causality behind impacts of youth employment interventions. The effects of entrepreneurship promotion interventions are, on average, better than those from other intervention types. This seems to be primarily driven by a multipronged approach that aims to address the multidimensional nature of the constraints to business start-ups and growth in order to achieve their food security. Also, access to finance has proven to be an important strategy to lift the constraints, but their impact is only durable in combination with skills training. The effects of employment services are, on the other hand, on average weaker and deserve further experimentation, particularly in developing contexts where the evidence is still scant. The evidence provides significantly limited information on certain types of interventions, particularly on public employment programs and employment services, where most of the evidence relates to more developed countries. Evidence is also scant on long-term effects of youth employment interventions. Thus it is particularly important to assess cost-effectiveness and explore opportunities to replicate and scale up solutions that work. Many

questions remain unanswered, especially in consideration of the Framework. These gaps inform the nexus between youth unemployment and food insecurity research agenda.

- Job Opportunities for Youth It promotes the employability of young people through a system of participation, where you can find a large labor supply and training courses for work, so that young people achieve the country's development articulated in better condition.

- The government of Ethiopia has been supporting the privatization program to enhance the contribution of private sectors to economic growth and industrialization of the country. However, as privatization is always associated with the reduction of redundant labor, employment effects of privatization should have to be given due consideration by the government when deciding upon the strategy of privatization.
- Developing an urban food security strategy Although policy specifically on urban development in Ethiopia was launched in 2005, food insecurity as an urban development concern in Ethiopia has received only limited political attention. However, the study has revealed that a significant proportion of households in the studied small towns are living in conditions of extreme poverty where they are unable to meet their basic needs and other food needs. It is important, therefore, for the government to target urban households specifically, in addition to the focus on large city, in addressing the food requirements of the urban poor and to incorporate an urban food security strategy in the subsequent poverty reduction strategies.
- Improving Market Stabilizing Mechanisms High food insecurity were the major shocks faced by many youth in this study. It was found out that decreasing food consumption, buying less prefer and cheep food were some of the coping strategies regardless of their health impact. Market stabilizing mechanisms that the government is undertaking should be strengthened; particularly subsidization of common food commodities is important to improve access to the urban poor. Besides, the introduction of mechanisms to target the most vulnerable households for grain sales can be another way of maximizing the benefit of them.

- Government should encourage partnership with nongovernmental organizations and civil society organizations to provide grants for undertaking training programmers, seminars and workshops related to sustainable entrepreneur skill practices and food security within the framework of education.

In sum, the development of policies aimed at increasing households' income, through improved employment opportunities, coupled with adequate attention given to the risks of inflation, would result in enhanced food access in the urban areas. Also, it was demonstrated in the analysis that the combination of environmental, economic and social factors affects the urban households' consumption patterns. Thus, understanding perceptions of nutrition and a healthy diet at the local level is crucial to understanding and addressing food insecurity.

References

Addis Ababa Bureau of Finance and Economic Development (BoFED) (2012) "Socioeconomic Profiles of Addis Ababa", Addis Ababa: City of Government of Addis Ababa

Addis Ababa Bureau of Finance and Economic Development (2021)

Addis Ababa Integrated Land Information Center and CSA data (2014).

Adenikinju,A, and O.Oyeranti. (2000) characteristics and behavior of Africa factor markets and market institutions and their consequences for economic growth CID working paper 31. Harvard University, center for international development, Cambridge, mass.

Albert Rees and Wayne Gray (1982): comments on family effects in youth unemployment

Alhawarin, I.,&Kreishan, F. (2010).An analysis of longterm unemployment (LTU) in Jordan's labor market.European Journal of Social Sciences, 15(1).

Alessandra Faggian July (2014) : Job Search Theory

Andrew Leon Hanna The Global Youth Unemployment Crisis: Exploring Successful Initiatives and Partnering with Youths (2013).

Anh ,D.N Le Bach Duong, N.H, and Van, N.H (2005) youth employment in Vietnam : characteristics, determinants and policy responses, International Labor Office.

Anne Swindale and Paula Bilinsrky (2006), Household Dietary Diversity score (HDDS) for measurement of household access: Indicator Guide.

Amartya See, 1999, Development as Freedom.

Aynalem Shita and Mulugeta Dereje (2018), Department of Economics, DebreMarkos University Determinants of Urban Youth Unemployment; Evidence from East Gojjam zone, Ethiopia

Bagues M., and Sylos Labini (2009) Do online labour market intermediaries matter? The impact of AlmaLaurea on the university to work transition.

Bart Van Ark, Ewout Frankema and Hedwig Duteweerd (2004), Productivity and Employment Growth : An Empirical Review of Long and Medium Run Evidences.

Belachewe T. Lindstrom D, Gebremariam A, Lachat C, Huybrgts L, et .al (2013) Food Insecurity, food based coping strategies and suboptimal dietary practices of Adolescent in Jimma Zone south west Ethiopia.

BeshirButa, 2014, Unemployment Experience of Youth in Addis Ababa

Berhanu, D., Abraham T. and Hannah D. (2005).Characteristics and Determinants of Youth Unemployment, Underemployment and Inadequate Employment in Ethiopia. ILO, Geneva

Berntson, E., M. Sverke and S. Marklund (2006) „Predicting Perceived Employability: Human Capital and Labor Market Opportunities", Economic and Industrial Democracy 27(2):223-244

Bigesten, A., B. Kebede, A. Shimeles and M. Taddesse (2003), "Growth and poverty reduction in Ethiopia: Evidence from household panel surveys," World Development, Vol. 31, No.1

Birara Endalew, Mequanent Muche and Samuel Taddess(2015). Assessment of Food Security Situations in Ethiopia

Birhane , et.al (2014) Urban Food Insecurity in the context of high food price: A community based cross sectional study in Addis Ababa city Ethiopia

Card, David, Kluve, Jochen, Weber and Andrea (2010): Active Labour market policy evaluations: A meta-analysis. Economic journal 120.

C Hadley, A Tegen, F Tessema, JA Cowan, M Asefa and S Galea (2008) Food insecurity , stressful life events and symptoms of anxiety and depression in east Africa: evidence from the Gilgel Gibe growth and development study.

Charlotte Min- Harris (2010) Youth migration and poverty in sub-sharan African: Empowering the rural youth.

Christina Golubski et al., (2016), Trends in Ethiopia's Dynamic labor market University of Cape Town Development policy unit

Chigunta and F. (2002), TheSocio-Economic Situation of Youth In Africa: Problems, Prospects and Options. [Conference]. - Alexandria: Paper presented at the Youth.

Coates et.al,(2007) Household food insecurity access scale (HIFAS) for measurement of food Access indicator guide. Version 3.

CSA, (Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia). (2010), Analytical Report on the Urban Employment and Unemployment Survey Addis Ababa

CSA, (Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia). (2010), Urban Employment and Unemployment Survey Addis Ababa Ethiopia

CSA (Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia), (2011). The Household Income, Consumption and Expenditure Survey report. EC 2010/11

CSA (Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia), (2005) Urban Employment and Unemployment Survey Addis Ababa

CSA (Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia), (2011) Analytical Report on the Urban Employment and Unemployment Survey Addis Ababa

CSA (Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia) 2012 survey data

CSA (Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia), (2014). Urban Employment /Unemployment Survey. FDRE, Central Statistics Authority. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Degefa , T (2008) Understanding the Realities of Urban poor and their food security situation: case study at Berta Gibi and Gemachu Safar in Addis Ababa.

Dula Etana and Degefa Tolosa, (2017) Unemployment and Food Insecurity in urban Ethiopia

Dendir, Seife, (2006) "Unemployment Duration in Poor Developing Economies: Evidence from Urban Ethiopia." The Journal of Developing Areas 40(1):181–201.

Echebiri, R.N, (2005). Characteristics and Determinants of Urban Youth Unemployment in Umuahia, Nigeria: Implications for Rural Development and Alternative Labour Market Variables. Okpara University of Agriculture, Umuahia, Abia State

Ejigayhu Sisay and Abdi-Khalil Kdriss,(2012) Determinants of Food Insecurity in Addis Ababa city Ethiopia, Journal of Economic and sustainable development, Vol X, No X.

Emebet Mulugeta (2008) urban poverty in Ethiopian; the economic and social adaptation of women Addis Ababa University press

Employment and Unemployment among Youth – Summery, (2020).

Ethiopian National Human Development Report, (2018), Industrialization with a human face

Ethiopian Urban Labor Market in Ethiopian Challenge and Prospect, (2007), Volume 1 Synthesis Report

Feleke.S. T., Kilmer, R.I., and Gladwin. C.H. (2005) Determinants of food Insecurity in southern Ethiopia at the household level. Agricultural Economics, 33(3) 351-363.

Eva Lude, Odi, (2016) Poverty Brief: Understanding Poverty

FAO (2008).An Introduction to basic concepts of

FAO (2012) the state of food Insecurity in the world

Food security http://www.fao.org/docrep/013/al936e/al936e00.pdf Date of access: 23 March, (2013).

Farhadian, A., Chan, V. SH. , Farhadian, H.(2015) Addressing Household Food Insecurity using the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) in a Poor Rural Community in Sabah, Malaysia

Fleischhauer, K.J. (2007) „a Review of Human Capital Theory Micro Economics", Discussion Paper 2007-1, St.Gallen: University of St.Gallen

Fundamentals of social capital. University of Illinois, October 2 (2000)

Gassmann, F., and Behrendt, C. (2006). Cash benefit in low-income countries: simulating the effect on poverty reduction for Senegal and Tanzania Issue in social protection. Geneva, Switzerland: International Labour Office. Discussion paper, 15.

George, A. and A.L. Bennet, (2004) „Case Studies and Theory of Development in Social Science", Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press

Girma Gezimu Gebre, (2012). Determinants of Food Insecurity among Households in Addis Ababa City, Ethiopia

Guarcello, L. and Rosati, F. (2007). Child Labor and Youth Employment: Ethiopia Country Study. SP Discussion Paper No. 0704, the World Bank.

Glenn D (2013) Determinants Sample size reviewed University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611.

Hallerod, B and Westberg, A (2006) Youth problem: what is the problem? A longitudinal study of income and Economic Hardship among Swedish youth, Acta sociological 49(1),83-102.

Haji Samboja (2007).The Youth Employment in East Africa: An Integrated Labour Market Perspective. African Integration Review, Vol 1, No. 2, PP (1-24).

Hussen Batu and Muhdin Muhammed, (2016) , Determinants Youth Unemployment in Urban Areas of Ethiopia

JC Tum (1996), determination of the causes of secondary salinization in Kibwezi.

Jovanovic, B. (1979). Job matching and the Theory of Turn-Over.Journal of Political Economy. Vol. 87(5), pp (972-990).

Jeon, (2008), The effect of participating vocational training of unemployed: Korean

Jin Huang Youngmi Kim and Julie Birkenmaier, (2015) Unemployment and household food hardship in the economic recession

K.A Oluyole and O. Taiwo (2015) Socio-Economic variables and food security status of Cocoa Farming Households in Ondo state, Nigeria.

Kabanga (2014) Can smallholder fruits and vegetables production systems improve household food security and nutritional status of women? : Evidences from rural Uganda.

Kathleen Abdalla (2008) Special issue on sustainable development in Africa: a united nation sustainable development journal.

Katherine V Gough, Francis Chigunta and T hilde Langevoang (2013), Expanding the scale and domains of (in) security: youth employment in urban Zambia.

Kedir and Mc Kay (2003) Movements of Household into and out of poverty in Ethiopian.

LFS (Ethiopian Labor Force Survey) Report, (2013)

ILO (1991) C172- working conditions (Hotels and Restaurants) conventions (No.172)

ILO (International Labor Organization), (1991-1992). Surveys of Economically Active Population. Employment, Unemployment and Underemployment: ILO manual on Concepts and Methodology. Geneva.

ILO (International Labor Organization). (2001and 2004) report

ILO (International Labor Organization). (2007). Global Employment Trends for Youth, ILO, Geneva

ILO, (International Labor Organization), (2007), Policy on Youth Employment in Cambodia: ILO Sub Regional Office for East Asia, - Vol. 2(42).

ILO, (International Labor Organization), (2007), Policy on Youth Employment in Cambodia [Report] - Geneva: ILO Sub Regional Office for East Asia

ILO (International Labor Organization). (2010). Global Employment Trends for Youth. Special Issue on the Impact of the Global Economic Crisis on Youth, Geneva

ILO (2010) International Labour Migration: A right- based approach.

ILO (International Labor Organization). (2011). Global Employment Trends for Youth, Geneva

ILO (International Labor Organization). (2013a). Comparative Analysis of National Skills Development Policies: A Guide for Policy Makers. International Labor Office, Pretoria

ILO (International Labor Organization). (2013b). Global Employment Trends for Youth 2013: A Generate at Risk, International Labor Office, Geneva

18th International Conference of Labour Statisticians Geneva, 24 November – 5 December (2008)

info@singaporeassignmenthelp.com(2017-2020)

Maltsheni and Rospabe (2002) why is youth unemployment so high and unequally spread in South Africa?

Myra Ramos, (2015) Review of Literature Introduction

MOFED, (2008), Dynamics of Growth and Poverty Reduction in Ethiopia Addis Ababa: Ministry of Finance and Economic Development

MOFED, (2002), Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, Ethiopia: Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction program: Addis Ababa; MOFED.

MoUDH. (2015). Urban Productive Safety Net Project Appraisal Document (PAD). International Development Association R2015-0294/1. Ethiopia.

Morris, M., Golden .S, and Lines, A. (1999) The impact of careers education and guidance on transition at 16, Sheffield: Department of education and employment.

MYSC Ministry of Youth, Sports and Culture (2004). National Youth Policy, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

N. Gundogan (2009), Urbanization and labour market Informality in Developing Countries.

Nifas Silk Lafto woreda 09 social and labour office report (2019- 2020)

Niels Bosma, Jonatahn Levie and Jose Ernesto Amoros (2013) Ten years of global Entrepreneurship monitor: Accomplishment and Prospects.

Nizinga H. Broussar and Tsegay Gebrekidan Tekleselassie (2021) Youth unemployment: Ethiopia country study.

N.M Dodd and T.G Nyabvudzi (2014). Unemployment, Living Wages and Food Security in Alice Eastern Cape, South Africa

PIM, Ministry of urban Development and construction, project implementation manual. (2016)

O'Leary, Z. (2010). The Essential Guide to Doing Your Research Project.3rd edition. London: SAGA Publications Inc.)

Okojie, (2007), Employment Creation for youth in Africa: The gender Dimension University of Benin, Research Institute for Vocational Education and Training Vo l.

Okojie and Christiana (2003).Employment Creation for youth in Africa.[Book]. - [s.l.]: University of Benin,. - Vol.

Okojie and Christiana (2003), Employment Creation for youth in Africa University of Benin,

Regional Overview: Youth in the Arab Region August (2010-2011)

TegegnGebeyaw (2011). Socio-Demographic Determinants of urban Unemployment: The Case of Addis Ababa. Ethiopian Journal of Development Research, 33(2)

Teshome, A. (1998) Unemployment in Addis Ababa :level, Trend and Differentials Addis Ababa University , Addis Ababa.

Tesfaye A. Gebremedin (2006) The Dynamics of poverty in urban Ethiopian. University of Sydney

Tsegay Gebrekidan Tekelselassie and Nizing H. Broussard (2012) Youth Unemployment : Ethiopia Country Study

Tsegaye Shiferaw, (2018), Determinants of Urban Youth Unemployment and its Consequences in Harar Town Ethiopia

The world population prospects (2015) Revision

Roman Gomez. Salvador and Nadine Leiner. Killinge,(2008), An analysis of Youth unemployment in the Euro Area.

Robert Msigwa and Erasmus Fabian Kipesha, (2014), Determinants of Youth Unemployment in Developing Countries: Evidence from Tanzania

Sarah Ayu Mutiah and Istiqomah (2017). Determinants of Household Food Security in Urban Area

Serneels and Pieter (2004), Unemployment duration in urban Ethiopia.[Book]. - Addis Ababa:

Semboja, H and H. (2013), Concept Paper on Promoting Opportunities for Youth Employment in East Africa. [Book], - Washington, DC: World Bank.

UNAIDS (2004).Report of the Global AIDS Epidemic. Geneva.

United Nations UN (1982) Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization page No. 25

United Nation UN HABITAT. Urban Inequities Report, [Report]. - Addis Ababa: UN, (2003).

United Nation UN (2003), World Youth Report 2003: The Global Situation of Young People.

UN-Habitat (2017). The state of Addis Ababa 2017: the Addis Ababa we want. United Nations Human Settlements Program,

UN (United Nation), 2010-2011Youth: Youth and Education (http://undesadspd.org/Youth.aspx)

World Bank (2007), Urban labor markets in Ethiopia: Challenges and prospects: The World Bank.

World Bank (2009), Africa Development Indicators: Youth and Employment in Africa, Washington.

World Bank (2009) Employment Service and Active Labour market program in Eastern European and Central Asian Countries.

World Bank (2012a) Gabon Public Expenditure Review: Better Management of Public Finance to Achieve Millennium Development Goals, Washington DC: World Bank

World Bank (2017), https//date.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.UEM.TOTL.ZS

World Bank Group. (2017). Ethiopia Poverty Assessment 2014.Washington, DC

World Bank Group. (2015). Ethiopia Poverty Assessment 2014.Washington, DC.

Yamane (1967) Determinants Sample size: Tarleton state University

Yared Amare (2010), Urban Food Insecurity and Coping mechanism: A case study of Lideta sub-city in Addis Ababa

Appendices

Appendix I: Table of conversion factors used in food consumption estimation.

Food item	**kcal/100 gram**
Teff	341
Barley	354
Wheat	351
Maize	362
Sorghum	347
Lentil	353
Bean	344
Field peas	341
Chickpeas	364
Guaya	347
Finger milet	312
Coffee	2
Sugar	400
Berbere	318
Salt	0
Oil	884
Onion	42
Garlic	149
Potato	87
Tomato	18
Milk	39
Cheese	132
Beef	235
Chicken	140
Egg	68

Source: Ethiopian Nutrition and Health Research Institute (ENHRI) and world health organization (WHO)

Appendix II: **Semi-structured Interview (Schedule)**

The main purpose of this research is to identify the nexus between youth unemployment and food insecurity. You are one among those chosen to collect data on the above mentioned topic from your woreda 09. Please give genuine, frank and complete response. Hence, I cordially request your cooperation in this regard.

Thank you for your co- operation!

Please do not mention your name.

Part: I socio-demographic information

1. Age _____ (Completed years at the time of inquiry)

2. How many dependent members are there in your household? Dependent members_____

Aged below 15 _____

Aged above 64 _____

3. Sex: 1.Male ☐ 2.Female ☐

4. Marital Status

Are you married /Single/Divorce?

Does your marital status affect your employment Status?

1. Yes ☐ 2.No ☐

If yes, explain how it affects your employment?

_____

5. Education:

Who can’t read and write ☐

Primary (1-8) ☐

Secondary (9-10) ☐

Preparatory (11-12) ☐

Diploma/certification ☐

Collage/degree ☐

6. Parents level of education

Who can’t read and write ☐

Primary (1-8) ☐

Secondary (9-10) ☐

Preparatory (11-12) ☐

Diploma/certification ☐

Collage/degree ☐

Does your father’s educational status affect your unemployment?

1. Yes ☐ 2.No ☐

Part II Economic factor

7. Monthly income

1. Specify the monthly income of the family (from all sources) _____in ETB/annum sources in amount

8. Do youths in your area migrate from their resident as a result of limited income of their family?

1. Yes ☐ 2. No ☐

9. Where do they migrate from usually for employment? _____

_____

10. Do you have access to credit? 1. Yes ☐ 2.No ☐

If your answer is yes in question number 12, what are the reasons?

_____

_____

If your answer is no in question number 12, what are your reasons?

_____

_____

Part III Job Related Factor

11. Are you have access to an entrepreneur skill development? 1. Yes ☐ 2. No ☐

If your answer is yes to, question numbers 11 what type of enterprise are you looking for?

_____

_____

If your answer is No to, question number 13 what are the reasons?

_____

_____

12. Have you received a business advisory service? 1. Yes ☐ 2.No ☐

If your answer is yes, what kind of business advisory services are available in your area?

(1) Governmental (2) Non- Governmental (3) Private Company

If your answer is Yes, to question 16 what type of assistance or advisory have you received?__

_____

13. What is your level of social network? Or with how many numbers _____

If you have the access, specify the type of social networking website and explain how it helps you to find employment?

_____

_____

14. Do you have access to job-market in your area?

1. Yes ☐ 2. No ☐

If you reply yes, to question number 14, what type of market information do you have access?

_____

_____

If your answer is No, to question number 18, specify why don't have access?

_____

_____

How do you access the job information? (1) Mass Media (2) Social Media (3) Through community leaders (4) Through Public Notice

15. Do you have job experiences? 1. Yes ☐ 2.No ☐

If you have a job experience for how long you work? _____

16. Have you received vocational training?

1. Yes ☐ 2.No ☐

17. Are you a member in community based organization?

1. Yes ☐ 2. No ☐

If your answer is yes, pleas mention the name of the community based organization in which you are member_____

_____

18. Do you prefer job which is available in your area? 1. Yes ☐ 2. No ☐

If you don't prefer, what are the determinant of choice of work? (1) Education level (2) Environmental situation (3) Capacity (4) Attitude toward job (5) self-preparedness

19. What kind of Coping Mechanisms you use when you are in food insecurity conditions?

_____

_____

Part IV Food Access Information (Household Food Insecurity Access Scale)

No	Questions	Responses	Code
1.	In the past four weeks, did you worry that your household would not have enough food?	0=No (skip to Q2) 1=Yes	
1.a	How often did this happen?	1=Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks) 2=Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks) 3=Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)	
2.	In the past four weeks, were you or any household member not able to eat the kinds of foods you preferred because of a lack of resources?	0=No (skip to Q3) 1=Yes	
2.a	How often did this happen?	1=Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks) 2=Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks) 3=Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)	
3.	In the past four weeks, did you or any household member have to eat a limited variety of foods due to a lack of resources?	0=No (skip to Q4) 1=Yes	

3.a	How often did this happen?	1=Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks) 2=Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks) 3=Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)	
4.	In the past four weeks, did you or any member have to eat some foods that you really did not want to eat because of lack of resources to obtain other types of food?	0=No (skip to Q5) 1=Yes	
4.a	How often did this happen?	1=Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks) 2= Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks) 3= Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)	
5.	In the past four weeks, did you or any household member have to eat a smaller meal than you felt you needed because there was not enough food?	0=No (skip to Q6) 1=Yes	
5.a	How often did this happen?	1=Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks) 2=Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks) 3=Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)	

6.	In the past four weeks, did you or any other household member have to eat fewer meals in a day because there was not enough food?	0=No (skip to Q7) 1=Yes	
6.a	How often did this happen?	1=Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks) 2=Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks) 3=Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)	
7.	In the past four weeks, was there ever no food to eat of any kind in your household because of lack of resources to get food?	0=No (skip to Q8) 1=Yes	
7.a	How often did this happen?	1=Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks) 2=Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks) 3=Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)	
8.	In the past four weeks, did you or any household member go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food?	0=No (skip to Q9) 1= yes	

8.a	How often did this happen?	1=Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks) 2=Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks) 3=Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)	
9.	In the past four weeks, did you or any household member go a whole day and night without eating anything because there was not enough food?	0=No (questionnaire is finished) 1=Yes	
9.a	How often did this happen?	1=Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks) 2=Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks) 3=Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)	

Part VII Food Access Information (Household Dietary Diversity Score)

QUESTIONS AND FILTERS	CODING CATEGORIES
1. Now I would like to ask you about the type of foods that you or any else in your household ate yesterday during the day at night. READ THE LIST OF FOODS PLACE A ONE IN THE BOX IF ANYONE IN THE HOUSEHOLD ATE THE FOODS IN QUESTION, PLACE A ZERO IN THE BOX IF NO ONE IN THE HOUSEHOLD ATE THE FOOD. A. Any [INSERT ANY LOCAL FOODS E.G GENFO] bread, rice, noodles, biscuits, or any other foods made from millet, sorghum, maize, rice, wheat, or [INSERT ANY LOCALLY AVAILABLE GRALN]? B. Any potatoes, yams, manioc, cassava or any other food made from roots or tubers? C. Any Vegetables? D. Any Fruits? E. Any beef, pork, lamb, goat, rabbit, wild game, chicken, duck or other birds, liver, kidney, heart or other organ meats? F. Any Eggs? G. Any fresh or dried fish or shellfish? H. Any foods made from beans, peas, lentils or nuts? I. Any cheese. Yogurt, milk or other milk products? J. Any foods made with oil, fat or butter? K. Any sugar or honey? L. Any other foods, such as condiments, coffee, tea?	**A.** ……| | **B.** ……| | **C.** ……| | **D.** ……| | **E.** ……| | **F.** ……| | **G.** ……| | **H.** ……| | **I.** ……| | **J.** ……| | **K.** ……| | **L.** ……| |

Thank You

Key Informant Interview

1. Is youth unemployment common in this area? How is the youth unemployment perceived by the community?
2. What is the attitude of the society on youth unemployment in the area?
3. How did you see or understand the rising trends of price inflation of basic food commodities and youth unemployment in this woreda?
4. From which food insecurity levels (mildly food insecure, moderately food insecure and severely food insecure) unemployed youths experience the most in this woreda?
5. Discuss why youth unemployment leads many youths to Food Insecurity?
6. How do you understand the nexus or connections between unemployment and food insecurity of youths in this area?
7. What do you suggest that must be done to improve the youth Food insecurity in this woreda ?
8. How do you see the coping strategies of unemployed youths when they are in food insecurity situations?

Focused group discussion with 10 youths

1. Are you employed? If not why?
2. What are the factors leading to the rise of unemployment youth in woreda 09?
3. Do you think that the government's social policies are effective to combat the problem of unemployment and food insecurity of youths?
4. From which food insecurity levels (mildly food insecure, moderately food insecure and severely food insecure) unemployed youths experience the most in this woreda?
5. What will be the outcome if the youth employment opportunities are on increase in this woreda?
6. Did you think food insecurity and the current food price inflation is compatible with the youths of the woreda?
7. For unemployed youths What kind of coping strategy mechanisms or methods you use when you are in food insecurity situation or conditions?