Final Report of the
entra21 Program
Phase I: 2001-2007

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An initiative of

The Multilateral Investment Fund of the
Inter-American Development Bank
and
The International Youth Foundation

September 2009

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Acknowledgements

Foreword

In 2001, the Multilateral Investment Fund (MIF) financed its largest single grant – a program to improve employability skills for disadvantaged youth in Latin America and the Caribbean through information technology. Tackling this issue is a critical part of our commitment to the region. Today, the region's youth cohort consists of 106 million people ages 15-24, amounting to the largest segment of the working age population. This generation represents one of the region's largest assets. However, if we do not find a way to train, integrate and employ these youth, this generation could perversely turn into the region's largest liability.

Studies point to three important gaps: the "youth employment gap," that is, higher unemployment rates of young people compared to those of adults, the "skills gaps" between the supply and demand for workers with the skills necessary to succeed in a fast-changing marketplace, and the "digital gap" between developed and developing countries in their migration to information-based economies. This situation affects the region's ability to improve its innovation capacity, of businesses to increase productivity, and of young people to contribute to economic growth.

To address these challenges, the MIF selected the International Youth Foundation - not only because of IYF's commitment to improve the lives of young people, its network of partners in Latin America, and its capacity to manage a large grant program, but also because of its interest in learning "what works" and its ability to forge alliances. The efforts brought to bear by IYF have resulted in financial and technical support to the program from organizations such as the U.S. Agency for International Development, Lucent Technologies, Nokia, Nike, Brazil's Ministry of Tourism, and the Municipality of Medellín, Colombia.

The MIF is pleased to present this report, which is the product of the joint efforts of civil society organizations, training centers, private sector entities, and businesses in 18 countries. The leadership of these organizations has been instrumental in placing youth employment at the center of the development agenda in Latin American and the Caribbean.

The report describes how 35 locally executed projects have implemented varying strategies to train some 19,000 young people, placing more than 10,000 in good jobs, and the lessons derived from these experiences. Today, when more young people than ever are reaching the age of employment, we hope that this publication contributes to bringing new, dedicated stakeholders to the task of bridging the gaps to make it possible for these young people to help vitalize developing economies.

Julie T. Katzman
General Manager
Multilateral Investment Fund
Inter-American Development Bank
July 2009

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Executive Summary

Entra21 was established as a regional program designed to provide 12,000 disadvantaged youth, ages 16 through 29, in Latin America and the Caribbean with employment training and job placement services to enable at least 40% to secure decent jobs and increase their employability. Among the job skills promoted through the Program were information and communications technology skills, which explain the Program's name, "entra" which refers to the "enter" button on a computer keyboard. Along with ICT, the Program offered comprehensive life skills and job-seeking skills training so youth had the tools necessary to find a job and perform well in the workplace. This training included an internship with a local company or government office. The Program is ongoing, as a second four-year phase was approved by the MIF in 2007. This report, however, focuses only on the first phase, which ended in December 2007.

Executed by the International Youth Foundation (IYF) in collaboration with the Multilateral Investment Fund (MIF) of the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), *entra21* included a MIF contribution of US$10 million. In addition IYF and its local partners marshaled over $19 million from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), global and local companies, and a variety of national and international foundations. (For more details, please refer to Annex I, Table A. – Funding sources). The Program was launched in 2001, however, the first of 35 grants were not awarded until 2002, to 32 executing agencies (EAs) in 18 countries.[1] The average grant was $343,020 and the average execution period was 28 months. A complete list of EAs, and grant amounts is found in Annex I, Table B.

The Program exceeded its original target of 12,000 youth by serving 19,649 youth, including those who had started training, but had not graduated, when the Program ended in December 2007. The executing agencies were successful in recruiting the type of youth targeted by the Program, that is to say, youth from poorer households and who were under or unemployed. The majority were under 20 years old (51%); female (54%), single (90%), urban-based (90%) and with a high school education (64%). Dropout rates were low (13%) due to careful screening, personalized attention, and the provision of stipends. Executing agencies had different levels of experience in the area of youth employment when the projects began and included a mix of private sector foundations and NGOs, both secular and religious. Only two agencies were formal training organizations and for a majority of the executing agencies, the provision of job placement services represented a new challenge. Despite these differences in their organizational genesis and competencies, the EAs were successful in meeting their objectives.

Market analysis was another feature of the Program that was relatively new to most of the EAs, enabling them to design their training curriculum based on market needs and trends. They learned the importance of updating their market information so that their training remained relevant to employers' needs. While training content and duration varied by project, however, all projects included some form of ICT training, life and job-seeking skills, and an internship. Unfortunately, the Program was unable to establish a correlation between duration of training and job outcomes, due to limitations in its ability to control for the quality of training and youth characteristics.

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1 Three executing agencies were awarded two grants thus explaining why the number of grants is greater than the number of executing agencies

Based on evaluation data collected from 28[2] projects six to nine months after youth exited the projects, the Program achieved an average employment (job placement) rate of 54%, with a high of 82% in Brazil and low of 14% in the Dominican Republic. Reasons for rate variations are due, in part, to local labor market realities and the extent to which EAs were able to respond quickly to changing conditions. Overall the quality of jobs was good (78% had formal contracts and 74% earned minimum wage or better), although for males the odds of having a job and earning more were greater than for females. This is consistent with trends noted in studies elsewhere such as the 2007 World Development Report, which focuses on youth and development. Over 80% of youth liked their jobs mostly because they were interesting. This finding is important as it suggests that youth found jobs that improved their skills. The majority of youth looking for work cited a lack of contacts and experience as the major impediments. Most of the youth not looking for a job and not working (inactive) were in school.

In terms of how youth used their time, a positive trend was observed from baseline to ex-post . Before the project started, 62% of youth were neither studying nor working; by follow-up (ex-post) the percentage had fallen to 25%. Regardless of whether they were working or not, youth at follow-up felt more positively about their life skills—particularly their self-confidence, their ability to set and reach goals, and learn on their own. Employer satisfaction with the interns provided through the Program was high. In fact, 36% of youth got their job through their internship. Ratings by employers of the *entra21* youth they hired also were consistently positive for the projects evaluated six or more months after youth left the program. Overall, the executing agencies were effective in building relationships with funding sources within and outside of their countries, which enabled them to continue all or part of the training and placement services provided under the Program, once *entra21* funding had ended.

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2   Three executing agencies were awarded two grants thus explaining why the number of grants is greater than the number of executing agencies

Introduction

This report captures the main elements of the *entra21* program model as reflected through the work of the 32 executing agencies which implemented *entra21* projects between 2002 and 2007. One purpose of this report is to provide organizations interested in youth employment with basic information and examples of how *entra21* projects operated, as well as lessons learned in the execution of the projects. In this respect, IYF hopes this report presents a clear description of the processes involved in designing and implementing a youth employment project. .. Conclusions and lessons learned as they pertain to a particular aspect of the program model are found throughout the report.

The first part of the report deals with the *entra21* model. What projects achieved in terms of youth outcomes is the focus on the second half of the report, which examines what happened to youth after they participated in the entire project experience and relies heavily. on evaluation data collecheaheted and analyzed by independent consultants at least six months after the youth "left" the project.

Data sources for this report include the following:

- Baseline and exit data on 14,606 youth collected by the Projects through *entra21*'s monitoring and evaluation system;
- Follow-up data for 2,800 youth collected through 28 external evaluations at least six months after youth left the projects;
- Programmatic reports prepared by the projects on a quarterly basis;
- IYF program officers' trip reports;
- Interviews with project directors and *entra21* program officers;
- An evaluation conducted by the firm IERAL/Argentina of the Program in 2007; and,
- Studies published by IYF on various aspects of the Program.
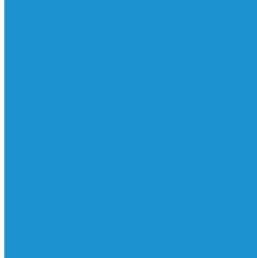
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Section I:
Implementation of the *entra21* Program Model

The *entra21* model includes a series of elements that IYF considers critical for preparing and placing youth in the job market. These elements were identified when the Program was designed with the MIF in 2001, the year the program was launched. Six years later, these same elements remain. In calling it "the *entra21* model," however, IYF is not claiming ownership, or exclusivity, as these elements have been present, to some extent, in other youth employment programs in Latin America, and in other regions of the world as well. The notion of an *entra21* model, therefore, signifies the essential elements which were derived from the accumulated knowledge about preparing youth for the labor market, from youth employment programs in the region such as the "ProJoven" and other initiatives.[3]

IYF defined its program model for working with disadvantaged youth as having the following essential elements:

- **Clear targeting and selection mechanisms** to ensure youth had the requisite skills and motivation for intensive, short-term training;
- **Use of labor market information** to inform the development of the curriculum;
- **Integrated and comprehensive training** that included technical and non-technical content (e.g., life skills, job seeking skills) that was relevant based on the market analysis. For *entra21*, the focus of the technical training was Information and Communications Technology (ICT) skills needed for the workplace;
- **Internships** as part of the training cycle;
- **Job placement services** for youth and **involvement by employers,** particularly private sector employers with the youth during and after training.

In addition to these program elements, there were others that are essential to the success of any youth employment project, such as a well-managed and competent executing agency and a monitoring and evaluation system to track youth from the time they enter a project until at least six months after completion.

The structure of this section of the report discusses the program elements highlighted above:

- Targeting and selecting youth
- Using labor market data
- Integrated and comprehensive training, including internships
- Job placement services and their relationship to employers, in addition to
- Executing Agencies' characteristics and competencies

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[3] Since the early 1990s, with Chile Joven, the IDB has financed several projects in the LAC region in which the overall objective is to facilitate entry into the labor market and improve the performance of groups that face difficulties in accessing the formal labor market.

A. TARGETING AND SELECTION OF YOUTH BENEFICIARIES

A.1 Effectiveness of Targeting

The Program reached a total of *19,649 youth*[4], exceeding its target of 12,000 disadvantaged youth. Criteria used to define the target population included:

- Between 16 and 29 years of age
- Secondary education completed or in the final years of secondary education
- From the lowest 40% in terms of income, based on poverty statistics for that country
- Unemployed or in low wage, low quality jobs or in search of first job
- Equal access for females and males (Source: Logical Framework, IYF/MIF, 2001)

Based on data collected when youth entered the Program, the following beneficiary profile emerges:

Age:	Under 20 years of age (51%) 20-24 years old (37%) 25-29 years old (12%)
Gender:	54% female 46% male
Education:	23% had not finished high school when they started the program, 64% had finished high school 13% had taken or finished university course work
Family Situation:	90% single 10% married/united 86% had no children 10% had one child 4% had 2-4 children
Location:	90% lived in urban 10% rural

The data reported by youth at baseline on household income was inconsistent across the projects, making it difficult to determine whether or not the youth fell within the lowest 40% in terms of household income in each country. To mitigate this problem, IYF asked the external evaluators to review youths' socio-economic status and assess their level of poverty. **Based on data collected on youths' level of poverty, we can conclude the youth from poorer households constituted the majority of youth served by the projects; however, in some cases youth from lower middle class households also benefitted.**

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[4] The Program database used for this report contains baseline and exit data for 14,606 youth; however, the number of youth served under *entra21*/phase I is higher. A Brazilian scale-up project managed its database which will eventually have 4,206 youth files when the project ends in 2008. Two other projects enrolled 837 youth whose data are not in the Program database used for this report due to delays in clearing data (Ecuador) and youth were enrolled after December 2007 when the Program officially closed (Venezuela).

A summary of the opinions of various evaluators on the economic status of the youth served follows. Most evaluators used minimum wage or official poverty indicators such as the canasta basica (basic needs) to assess the youths' economic situation.

Dominican Republic: 74% of youth live in households that earn less than required to purchase a canasta básica.

Chile: 64% of youth are from the lowest 40% in terms of household income

Brazil: In Campinas, outside of São Paulo city, 74% of youth report per capita household income less than 1 minimum wage (AHUB project).

- Another project in São Paulo state reached youth (over 90%) whose families earn slightly more (up to 3 minimum wage/capita), but are also described as "vulnerable" based on household income and the municipality where youth reside.

- Further south in Blumenau, another *entra21* project served youth whose families are described as working class by Brazilian standards. These youth were from more economically stable families than the other Brazilian projects.

- In Salvador, in northern Brazil, 63% of youth attending training under the Instituto de Hospitalidade (IH) project are described as vulnerable based on family income (under $3/day/capita) and parents' education. The evaluator also noted that if one household member loses a job or wages fall, these youths' household income can drop to below the poverty line very rapidly.

Colombia: Three projects targeted youth from the first and second strata, the lowest levels in a national poverty scale, whereas a third admitted youth from stratum three which is slightly better off.

Mexico: Based on the Social Development Secretariat's definition of poverty, 85% of youth served by a project in southern Mexico were from families below this line (based on income, housing, diet, services). Poverty was established through home visits and information on family income and assets. Further north in Leon, youth were not as poor.

The pie chart below describes how youth were using their time when they enrolled in their respective *entra21* project,

Situation at Baseline

- In school
- Working
- In school & working
- Not studying or working
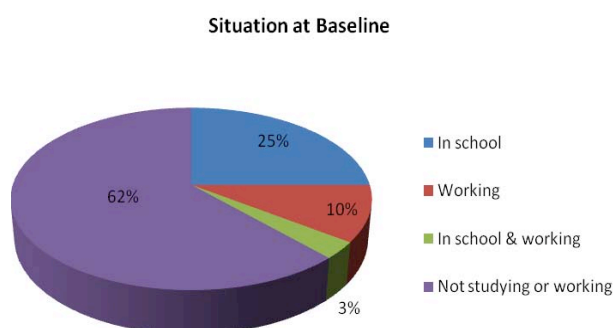
From the baseline data, one can conclude that the Program was successful in reaching the population it sought to benefit in terms of age, educational profile, economic status, work situation, and gender. It is worthwhile to note that some of the projects funded through the Program, also added specific targeting beyond the criteria mentioned above. For example, one project in *Brazil* targeted youth working the streets as a segment of the population it would

serve, in addition to other low-income youth in the same area. Three other projects in *Brazil* focused on recruiting youth in their final two years of secondary school. Based on the Pacific coast of *Colombia*, COMFACAUCA targeted youth affected by the political violence prevalent in the late 1990's and early part of 2000.

A.2 Recruitment and Selection Strategies

In order to reach youth who met the demographic and economic criteria set by each project, the Executing Agencies had to develop effective strategies to inform youth and their families about the training opportunities being offered through *entra21* and to select youth with the appropriate profile. The strategies they used can be classified into two broad categories: selective channels and broader outreach.

Selective Channels	Broader Outreach
Methods: Outreach to leaders of local community associations, churches, schools, and civic organizations in a specific geographic area targeted by the project; tapping networks of schools and organizations known to the executing agency (EA).	Methods: Use of mass media such as radio and TV spots, announcements in print media; posters or other materials at government employment offices; use of EA websites and others linked to job training; outreach to schools, NGO networks, etc.
ACHNU, COMFACAUCA, COMFENALCO, ExE, Luker, Indufrial	CIRD, COSPAE, F. Chile, Kolping, Opportunitas, Quipus, U. Belize

Executing agencies tried to find a good balance between having a large enough pool of youth from which to select final candidates and not creating excess demand, given that they only had enough resources to train 300 to 600 youth. Experiences from *Colombia's* Fundación Empresarios para la Educación (ExE) and the Asociación Chilena Pro las Naciones Unidas (ACHNU) in *Chile* illustrate how important it is to find the right balance. Initially their approach was too focused and they could not fill all of the training spots. ExE's strategy of recruiting 475 youth from 4 public high schools proved insufficient. Ultimately, it had to reach out to government social agencies and NGOs to refer youth to the project. ACHNU planned to recruit 550 youth in 5 low-income areas of Santiago and the Bio-Bio region by enlisting local leaders to refer youth to the project. After realizing this was not effective ACHNU made two changes: it broadened the project's geographic scope so it was not limited to specific neighborhoods of Santiago and it diversified its approach, hanging banners in major intersections, distributing flyers in heavily trafficked areas, and using data from local employment offices on young job seekers. These changes resulted in increased applications for admission into the project.

Selection Process: COSPAE, Panama

Profile: 600 youth, 18-29 years old, high school graduates, low-income families, not working
Methods:

Stage 1: Written application reviewed by COSPAE followed by a short orientation session for pre=selected applicants. Youth who expressed interest in program are invited to stage 2.

Stage 2: Aptitude and personality tests administered (10% and 40% of total score respectively).

Stage 3: Individual interviews with youth who passed stage 2 (50% of total score).

Stage 4: Youth with score of 70 or higher invited to enroll in project.

Knowing their goal was to place at least 40% of youth in a job, as established by the **Program, the Executing Agencies were very careful in their selection processes. Beyond screening for demographic criteria (age, location, education) the projects sought to choose youth who they considered more likely to succeed.** This was done in different ways, but in general, the projects tried to select youth with the ability and motivation to succeed. It was not uncommon for a project to require a written application, and for youth who passed the first screening to undergo an interview to determine their level of motivation and initiative. In some cases, tests and/or exercises were administered as well to assess an applicant's teamwork and other skills.

These methods allowed the projects to screen carefully so that they could determine if the youth had the time and motivation to fulfill training requirements and secure employment. These processes were time-consuming, but given that most projects were serving a relatively small number of youth, they were manageable. For the new phase of *entra21*, however, where some projects target thousands of youth, these time-consuming screening processes have had to be streamlined. During this new phase, the purpose of screening is shifting from being a process *to eliminate applicants* in order to identify a reduced number of youth with the highest test and interviewing scores, to one that *establishes eligibility*. This shift may seem subtle, but for larger-scale projects it allows the project to define minimum requirements and enroll a larger group of youth.[5]

A.3 Controlling Youth Dropout Rates

The percentage of enrolled youth who completed training was 87%. In other words, 13% of youth dropped out at some point during training. This completion rate is within the parameters stipulated by each project in accordance with Program guidelines (80% rate). Contributing to projects' ability to control dropout rates were factors such as:

- Careful selection processes that gauged youth's motivation and aptitude
- Provision of stipends to defray the costs of transportation, food, and other expenses
- Personalized attention for those youth who showed signs of problems (missing classes, not completing work, family issues)
- Course content that matched youths' interests

Most of the projects (74%) provided youth with stipends to cover costs associated with training. This benefit was extended to all youth in most cases, and in a few projects, on as "as needed" basis. Because youth tended to live in neighborhoods far from training facilities, transportation assistance was also important, particularly for youth who had to visit more than one facility during the course of their training. In *Panama*, for example, participants had to attend English and life skills classes at the offices of the executing agency (Private Sector Council on Educational Assistance) and a Panamanian university in another part of the city for their ICT-related classes.

The table below identifies the projects that offered stipends and those that did not. Those highlighted had dropout rates above 15%. While projects that did not offer stipends were more likely to have high dropout rates, they did not have the highest rates (see Nicaragua case below),

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[5] Not only does this shift from eliminating youth to determining their eligibility increase the pool of potential participants, which is important for phase II of *entra21* which seeks to serve 50,000 youth, but it also allows projects to create a control group of eligible youth who were not selected into the project using randomization, which can be used for an impact study.

nor does the presence or absence of stipends provide a sufficient explanation of why dropout rates were higher or lower among the projects studied.

Stipends offered	No Stipends Offered
ACJ/Honduras	Agape/El Salvador
ACHNU/Chile	**Alternativa/Peru**
ADEC/Argentina	Blusoft/Brazil
AHUB/Brazil	**CEPRO/Brazil**
CIRD/Paraguay	Fundación Chile/Chile
CIPEC/Mexico	ISA/Dominican Republic
Comfacauca/Colombia	**Opportunitas I/Venezuela**
Comfenalco I/Colombia	SEPICJ/Mexico
Comfenalco II/Colombia	
Cospae/Panama	
ExE/ Colombia	
IAA/Brazil	
Indufrial/Colombia	
IH-Phase I	
ITDG/Peru	
Kolping/Uruguay	
Luker, Colombia	
Quipus/Bolivia	
Opportunitas II/Venezuela	
Salesianos/Nicaragua	
SES/Argentina	
Sur Futuro/Dominican Republic	
U. Belize/Belize	

In *Tehuacan, Mexico* Services for the Integral Community Promotion of Youth (SEPICJ in Spanish) served poor youth, but did not offer stipends and its dropout rate was only 9%. Youth were able to cover transportation costs and continue to contribute to their households in two ways: 1) about 25% of the youth (mostly girls) sold food periodically to earn money; and 2) 43% of youth were working when they started training and most continued to work during training. SEPICJ offered classes four hours per day so that youth could continue working.

The Nicaragua case, which registered the highest dropout rate in the Program (42%), *provides some important lessons.*

- Youth were recruited from Managua, the capital city; Estelí, the second largest city; and Somoto, a large town in northern Nicaragua. Somoto and Estelí youth, for example, had to travel longer distances to attend classes, which were offered only on the weekends. The project did not provide these youth with their stipends (food and travel) on a regular basis, thus they were unable to attend class regularly and fell behind.
- The EA did not follow up with the students in Estelí and Somoto with enough regularity to make sure they were able to keep up with a fast-paced training program, and resolve

any scheduling or family related issues. With a demanding curriculum and access to teachers being limited to the weekends, the EA needed to have a special team assigned to provide follow up to the "off-site" youth.

- The project did not screen adequately for the type of attitudes and skills needed to keep up with this type of course. In addition, some students became unmotivated because they were assigned to technical courses for which they felt ill-matched.
- Coordination by the lead agency with other service providers was weak, resulting in failure to detect service delivery problems that frustrated youth and impeded their ability to stay in training.

Conclusions regarding dropout prevention include:

- Overall, projects controlled attrition effectively; 87% of youth finished training;
- Timely attention to students with problems and the provision of stipends helped mitigate attrition;
- Economic, personal, and scheduling issues were the primary causes for dropping out.

B. USING LABOR MARKET DATA TO DEFINE THE CURRICULA

To determine what knowledge and skills youth needed to acquire or strengthen in order to be employable, all projects had to become market intelligent. Without an understanding of employers' needs and market trends, a project would be less likely to meet a target placement rate of 40% or better.

Among the more common methods executing agencies used to gather and interpret information on labor market needs were:

1. Surveys of or interviews with businesses to determine what type of entry level skills they were seeking and what, if any, issues they foresaw in hiring youth. Ágape-*El Salvador,* AHUB-*Brazil,* Esquel-*Ecuador,* Indufrial-*Colombia,* Opportunitas-*Venezuela* and CIRD-*Paraguay,* for example, used primary data sources to gain insights into human resource needs. AHUB surveyed approximately 150 companies and looked at what larger training organizations (SENAI, SENAC) offered before defining its "niche." Aliança in *Brazil* focused its research on medium-sized companies as these are more open to hiring young workers. It met with human resource managers and CEOs of these companies to learn more about what they looked for in their entry-level workers. A related method used by ADEC, COMFENALCO, IH, and Alternativa was to meet with a business association or chamber about labor needs and trends.

2. Labor market studies or databases were secondary sources used by many, including SES-*Argentina,* CIPEC-*Mexico,* and COMFENALCO-*Columbia* to learn about employment trends, where jobs were being created, and what type of occupational areas were in greatest demand. Many EAs had trouble finding secondary data that allowed them to pinpoint what types of ICT skills were needed in particular occupational areas or sectors. Using secondary data sources effectively also meant that EAs had to have someone on hand to help them research and interpret the data.

3. Creating an advisory group of business people, and/or others who understood labor trends, to guide the EA how to research the market and use the data to plan programs and stay current. Several EAs (e.g., ADEC, ISA, CIRD, and ACHNU) created an ad hoc group or marshaled the talents of business associations to serve as market advisors.
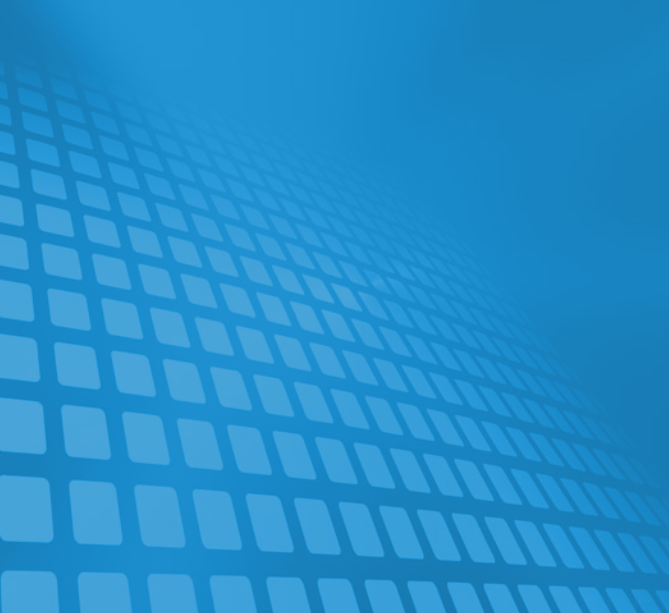
4. **Using existing institutional capacity as training certification entities** to design the training content to fit the requirements of the target population. IH and CADERH were in a unique position to pursue this route, as their core business is to define human resource norms and certify training.[6]

Competency-based Curricula and Market Needs

Fundación *Chile*, IH/*Brazil*, CADERH/*Honduras*, ExE/*Colombia*, and Opportunitas/*Venezuela* were among the EAs whose training was competency-based. In each case, these EAs used nationally or internationally recognized norms of performance to define critical elements for their *entra21* training program. A critical step in using a competency-based curriculum is adapting it to specific workplace conditions so it relevant for the type of jobs and youth targeted. IH in *Brazil*, for example, used competency norms related to three areas of the tourism industry to define its curriculum. To do so, it needed to understand the size and nature of the hotels, restaurants, and tourist offices companies in which the youth would work. In *Colombia*, there are national standards for specific occupational levels and categories (e.g., working as a labor technician in the health sector). ExE needed to check in with local employers to make sure the training offered was relevant for the type of technology being using and work environment. Competency-based training takes into account all aspects of job performance—technical skills, learning skills, attitudes, and social integration skills and knowledge. To do this well, EAs needed to keep monitoring how job conditions were changing.

By using one or more of these methods, EAs developed an initial reading of what types of knowledge and skills a young person would need in order to become employed in a job which involved the use of ICT. Looking closer at how EAs researched needs and used their intelligence one can extract several lessons.

Good Practice Guidelines: Using Labor Market Data

1. **To develop a study guide or questionnaire on labor trends for the purposes of doing a labor market assessment,** EAs which are not expert in the subject, should access the expertise of others. This can be done through the creation of an ad hoc advisory group, the organization's board of directors if members bring market expertise, or a local university

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[6] A booklet published in 2008 by the Colombian Ministry of Education entitled, "Diseño y ajuste de programas de formación para el trabajo bajo el enfoque de competencias" and written by the project director of the ExE project, Liliana Gonzalez, gives a good description of the benefits and characteristics of this type of training.

or market research group. CIRD in *Paraguay*, for example, brought together people who understood labor trends to offer advice on how to do a market study.

2. **Avoid short-term thinking when designing the curriculum.** If the goal is to enable youth to secure a job and become more employable (longer-term purpose), EAs should focus on growth sectors of the economy and try to forecast what type of ICT skills will be needed over the next few years based on their best data sources. In the same vein, EAs learned to focus on occupational categories or areas, rather than to focus training on specific job openings. This worked effectively for COMFENALCO (*Colombia*), IH (*Brazil*), and CIPEC *(Mexico)* among others.

3. **Get feedback from business leaders, or other labor market sources,** about how you are applying labor market information in the design of the curriculum and course content. This is one step many EAs missed. After they collected employers' opinions they did not go back to the employers (or labor experts) to validate the way they converted market intelligence into course offerings. CIRD in *Paraguay* had one of the more thorough approaches, which included going back to the people interviewed to validate their conclusions.

4. **Continue to take the pulse of the market as your initial intelligence might be faulty or needs may have shifted.** One way some EAs did this was to work with advisory groups or councils to keep current on market labor trends. Alternativa in *Peru* worked through a small industries association (COPEI in Spanish); ADEC in *Argentina* formed an advisory group to update its market information; and ACHNU worked through a regional consortium of business and government entities interested in employment issues. EAs found the internships provided excellent opportunities to gauge how well their training was meeting market expectations. In addition, through their job placement services, EAs monitored which types of skills employers were seeking and how well the youth matched up to these expectations. The need for continuous reassessments of labor needs cannot be emphasized enough. Many of the EAs had to make modifications in their curricula based on new information they received about the labor market. ADEC in *Argentina*, for example decided to eliminate a course in AutoCAD, ISA *(Dominican Republic)* added more hours to the life skills component, COSPAE *(Panama)* substituted e-commerce with basic applications and emphasized English language training, and CEPRO *(Brazil)* dropped graphic design when it learned it had lower than expected appeal to employers. Even for EAs that focused on strategic areas of economic growth, the market needed to be monitored regularly and training adjusted accordingly. For example, Ágape in *El Salvador* hoped that a new port in La Union would create more demand for ICT skills. This did not materialize and many of the project graduates had to look for jobs elsewhere. In Cartagena, *Colombia,* the EA hoped that three large-scale projects—the expansion of an oil refinery, a mega transportation project, and an international athletic event—would create opportunities for youth. These did not materialize as expected due to delays and other factors. While the youth were able to find jobs, those trained in networks could not find jobs in their field, and most youth found jobs in small to medium-sized companies not related to these growth sectors. Indufrial had to reorient its training to focus more on applications than networks.

5. **Be careful about concentrating training too narrowly on the needs of one major employer or group of employers.** In *Panama*, a large call center services company assured COSPAE it could absorb all of its graduates. However, by the time COSPAE's 508 participants starting looking for jobs, this employer did not need as many new hires. COSPAE had to broaden its training and placement services so that youth were able to compete for jobs in sales and office management.

To deliver training for different skill sets—technical, life skills, job seeking skills, and, in some cases, basic skills (literacy, mathematics)—EAs partnered with a variety of training providers. This section of the report looks at training content and how it was defined, the duration of training, and some methodological issues. Internships, as a component of training, are explored, at the end of this section.

C.1 Contact Hours and Basic Content

Training cycles varied in duration from 270 hours to a maximum of 1,210 hours and were offered over a period of 4 to 12 months. Internship hours are included in the calculation, as it is considered part of training. The length of training in terms of contact hours depended on a variety of factors, such as:

- Type of training provided, particularly ICT skills being developed, and time needed to integrate life skills with technical training;
- Requirements imposed by employers regarding minimum internship hours;
- Certification requirements;
- Youths' level of education and marginality.

COMFENALCO-*Colombia* had the most contact hours primarily because in order to achieve a nationally-recognized technical certificate, youth had to complete a minimum of 1,000 hours of training. In COMFENALCO's case the time was apportioned as follows:

Total Training Hours - COMFENALCO

■ Basic ■ Life ■ Technical ■ Job Seeking ■ Internship
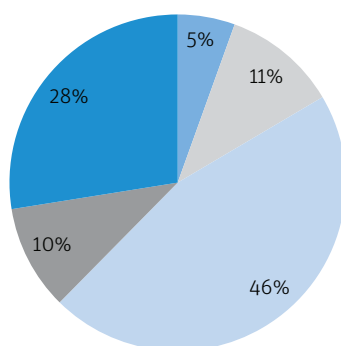
"Hard skills" constituted 46% of total hours and "softer" skills another 26%, with internships accounting for 28% of the time.   This time allocation is somewhat consistent across projects: technical training and internships accounted for over 80% of total contact hours. Given *entra21*'s emphasis on ICT skills, the higher percentage of time devoted to technical training is not surprising; however this does not minimize the importance of the "softer" skills. (See Annex I, Table M for more data on contact hours by project.)

The Program was unable to derive any conclusions about correlations between the length of training and the probability of employment. This is an important question from a cost-benefit perspective. However, in order to gain a better understanding of the relationship between length of training and job placement or quality, the Program would have had to control for many factors, including quality of training, youth characteristics, and market conditions. What is clear, however, is that the Executing Agencies customized their curriculum—number of total hours, allocation of hours by component, and content—to youths' capacities and market requirements. Furthermore, all Projects had to constantly monitor how well their assumptions about the youth and the market—which they translated into a training design—were being validated through low dropout rates, student achievement, and employers' satisfaction.

C.2 Technical Training

Overall, the projects report having had few problems in implementing technical training, with *87% of courses assessed as problem-free.* Among the factors involved in successful implementation were:

- Solid training partners and competent training staff
- Well designed courses based on market information
- Adequate procedures to match youth abilities to course content
- Flexible approaches for helping youth master course content (extra tutoring, refreshers, etc.)

Depending on the type of technical training, the number of contact hours varied, even within the same project. For example, in *Venezuela*, youth were assigned to three different ICT tracks: basic ICT skills, intermediate (PC maintenance and repair or software programming), or advanced (Cisco Networking Academy). Depending upon the track, the duration of technical training varied for Venezuelan participants—for example, basic ICT training was, on average, 116 hours, whereas the advanced course required twice the amount of hours.

The following table displays the distribution of technical courses by general type.[7] Of the 320 technical courses registered in the *entra21* database, over half were focused on ICT applications or skills for various business settings and purposes such as billing for the health care industry, farm management, and secretarial skills for business settings.

Type of Technical Course	Percentage of Total Courses
Basic and Advanced Applications	55
PC Maintenance and Repair	25
Networks and Systems Management	20

The average number of hours of classroom instruction for participants was 312 hours and ranged from 100 to 500 with the following distribution:

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[7] While *entra21*/phase I focused on ICT related skills, there were several projects that offered courses that did not fall squarely within these three broad areas of ICT. IH-Brazil, for example, provided training in hotel-related work (e.g., reception, registration), restaurants (e.g., hostess, cashier), and travel agency work (e.g., office skills, reception). ICT was a part of the training but not necessarily the focal point.

Distribution of Hours-Technical Courses, All Projects

100-200 hrs.	21%
201-300 hrs.	32%
301-400 hrs.	18%
401-500 hrs.	29%

The courses of longer duration required more hours to meet certification requirements. As mentioned above, the Program was unable to make any conclusions about a *"dosage effect," that is to say whether the duration of PC Maintenance and Repair courses correlated with higher employment rates.* Even when controlling for age, gender and education, the results were inconclusive. *This finding suggests that technical courses, taken alone, do not explain differences in outcomes,* especially since we were not able to take into consideration differences in project context, quality of instruction and other variables.

Most projects offered three or more types of technical courses from which the youth could choose based on their interests. In some cases, all youth were offered a basic introduction to ICT after which they 'specialized." In *Bolivia* and the *Dominican Republic,* for example, youth specialized during the last two weeks of training. Comfenalco in *Colombia* offered the largest number of technical areas—20 different technical areas of study. Youth were allowed to select their area of technical study; however, Comfenalco reserved the right to redirect youth if the course was full and/or reassign youth if they were not well suited for a particular area. Comfenalco worked with seven training providers—NGOs and institutes—to deliver these technical courses which fell into four board areas: a) office support functions (e.g., secretarial services, administrative assistant, and billing/accounting); b) auto mechanics; c) equipment maintenance and repair (e.g., PCs, fax machines); and d) systems, networks, software design, and management.

The table below describes the type of technical training offered by five other *entra21* projects.

AHUB/Brazil	Indufrial/Colombia	CIPEC/Mexico	CIRD/Paraguay	SES/Argentina
-Auto bodywork and painting -Applications -Sales	-Medical billing -Telephone/fax repair -Bookkeeping -Networks installation -Web design and hosting	-Database management -Graphic design -Applications -PC maintenance and repair	-Linux programming -Graphic design -PC maintenance and repair	-Data management -Graphic design -Networks installation -Web design and maintenance

Typically classes were scheduled in four or six-hour shifts, allowing youth to spend the rest of the day doing practice sessions on project computers or in cybercafés, or attending to other responsibilities. Four projects, for example, catered to youth in the last year of high school, so classes were scheduled before or after school. In other projects, youth went to class from 7 a.m. to 1 p.m. and used the rest of the day to work part-time or do household-related work.

EA's provided certificates to graduating youth either directly, or through another certifying entity, such as a national training institute or technical university. EAs with established credentials as training institutions such as IH and CEPRO in *Brazil* and ISA in the *Dominican Republic* provided their own certification which had, to some extent, visibility in their respective contexts before their *entra21* projects began. Others, such as ADEC *(Argentina)*, had their training recognized by their numerous partners such as the Cordoba Technical Institute, Municipality of Cordoba, and Cordoba National University. There also were a small group of organizations that

sought international certification for their training, such as Fundación *Chile*'s IDCL, Fundación Luker-*Colombia*'s Microsoft and Aptech courses, and *Venezuela* and *Bolivia*'s Cisco Networking Academy certificate. Data from the external evaluations do not suggest employers made decisions about whether or not to hire an *entra21* graduate based on the type of certificate the youth had (or did not have). This is not to say, however, that in making presentations to businesses, the EAs did not emphasize the type of certificates the youth would be awarded, nor that this was unimportant to employers. Evidence suggests that the type of certificate, in addition to other factors (e.g., how well the EA is known and respected by businesses, quality of outreach efforts) influenced hiring decisions. Fundación Luker, for example, was well positioned in the city of Manizales with local businesses and emphasized that its graduates were certified by Microsoft, which contributed to its success in placing youth in decent jobs.

C.3 Integrating Life Skills

In dividing the typical Project training curriculum into technical versus non-technical (e.g. life skills) components, one runs the risk of misrepresenting how training was delivered, as it creates the perception that components were sequential and training was linear. EAs sought, in fact, to integrate life skills into technical courses as much as possible so that one skill set reinforced the other. This was difficult for executing agencies to achieve, due to the fact that technical training was often offered through a university or technical institute, which had no experience in reinforcing life skills while teaching a computer application.

Projects dedicated an average of 100 hours of classroom time to life skills development—ranging from 40 hours to over 200, depending on the project. The number of dedicated hours does not reflect the time invested in reinforcing or practicing a life skill while the youth was doing his/her internships or learning a technical skill. A good example of how life skills were integrated into a technical curriculum comes from *Panama* where youth worked in teams to develop a PowerPoint in English. This exercise allowed staff to observe how well youth organized their time and worked with others (life skills) and used English and a computer application (technical skills).

As with technical skills, the life skills were defined, to some extent, based on feedback from employers, as well as the EA's prior experience working with disadvantaged youth. Instituto Aliança in northeastern *Brazil*, for example, began working on a life skills development curriculum in 1990. Taking a lead from a UNESCO publication on education for the 21st century, Instituto Aliança modified its curriculum in 2000 to incorporate the principles of "learning to be" and "learning to live together" (life skills), "learning to do" (technical skills), and "learning to know" (basic and formal skills).   For *entra21*, Aliança modified this curriculum even further, adding career planning, workers rights, and practice exercises related to the workplace. Aliança devoted 27% of its training hours to life skills development (206 hours out of a total of 736 hours).

The life skills most commonly developed across the 35 projects were:

- Creative thinking
- Working in groups
- Inter-personal communications
- Self-confidence
- Taking responsibility
- Ethical behavior
- Personal hygiene/appearance for work
- Conflict management

Other life skills developed by projects include learning how to learn, time management, personal health, gender, workers' rights, citizenship skills, and violence prevention. One technique used by many projects was life planning which required youth to assess who they are, their aspirations for the future, and define realistic steps toward achieving these goals. Comfenalco and Aliança used life planning as an integral part of life skill development. Comfenalco also noted in its final report that having life skills as an integral part of training helped participants to become more self aware, more open to other ideas and people, and more receptive to getting advice and help.[8]

As with technical competencies, some EAs had to adjust their curricula to allow for more time or different content around life skills. This was particularly the case in those projects where youth had socialization or cognitive issues that interfered with their ability to solve problems logically, take initiative, or develop self-confidence. ITDG in *Peru* discovered that participants had a harder time developing the behaviors necessary to be successful in the workplace than originally anticipated. It added more hours to the life skills component and incorporated the use of more audio-visuals to help youth with different learning styles. ISA in the *Dominican Republic* also underestimated the amount of hours it needed to introduce, explain, and develop the youths' life skills and increased classroom hours. COSPAE-Panama tripled the number of the hours dedicated to human development for *entra21*, compared to previous job training programs that catered to adults.

EAs confirm the importance of monitoring training partners closely to ensure that life skills were well integrated with technical content throughout the training process. One important role EAs performed was training staff, especially people teaching technical skills, how to model and promote life skills regardless of whether they were teaching a computer application or how to design simple software. EAs had to reinforce throughout the project the concept of training as one entire package and not a set of disparate pieces. To do this, they emphasized the range of skills youth would need to be successful in the workplace, including the ability to think creatively and work in teams on IT-related issues.

Projects tried diverse approaches to help youth acquire and integrate a variety of skills in a short period of time. One project instituted a refresher week where the knowledge and skills presented in the first half of training were reviewed and reinforced. Youth had the opportunity to evaluate training. Staff met to evaluate the overall progress of each youth to identify barriers to learning. Some projects also used extracurricular activities such as cultural outings, community service, and celebrations to foster initiative, group skills, and confidence.

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[8]   Cuartas, Silvia. "Joven Competitivo para el Empleo Sostenible" (Medellín: Comfenalco Antioquia, 2007)

In addition to life skills emphasizing the personal and social skills needed to be successful in the workplace, projects offered training in job-seeking skills (e.g., interviewing, researching job openings). Job placement services are described in a subsequent section of this report.

C.4 Internships

The Program model emphasized internships as a critical component of the training cycle in which youth could test and hone their technical and non-technical skills and knowledge (or competencies) in a real work setting. In reality, internships also proved to be important pathways to employment. According to evaluation data, 36% of the youth who were working at follow up, were employed by the same firm in which they did their internship. Conversely, the majority of youth who were looking for work at follow-up (92%) had not been offered a job when their internship ended.

On average an internship lasted for 200 hours, with a range of 80-500 hours. Typically it occurred when the classroom portion was completed, although EAs such as Fundación Chile alternated classroom instruction with internship hours. An in-depth analysis of six projects showed no correlation between internship duration and the probability of employment. As mentioned earlier, to ascertain the relative value of more or less internship hours requires a more sophisticated design that controls for variables such as context, quality of training, and youth profile.

Utilization of Training Content during Internship
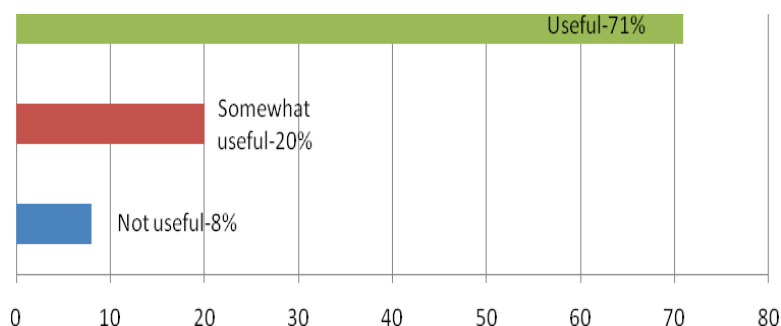
Source: exit data, *entra21* database

EAs appear to have done a good job in developing internships for their participants, with 86% of youth describing their internship experience as very good to good. Those who were less positive tended to attribute this to the work environment in which they were placed. This positive feeling was distributed equally among youth who were working at follow up and those who were looking for work. Internships also provided projects with the opportunity to gauge the relevance of training and how well youths' skills were matched with what the internships required. The table above indicates that when interviewed when they were exiting the projects, 71% of youth indicated that the knowledge and skills gained during training were put to good use during their internships.

The majority of youth (69%) did their internships with a business, 21% were in government offices, and 10% interned with NGOs. Roughly half of the youth received some remuneration during their internship, most frequently food and/or transportation subsidies.[9]

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[9]   For more on *entra21* internships, please refer to Hernández, Juan Carlos. "La Pasantía Laboral en los Proyectos *entra21*" (Baltimore: IYF, 2007) found at www.iyfnet.org

One of the more interesting payment arrangements came from ADEC in *Argentina*, which arranged with the employers to deposit the youths' remuneration in a bank or credit union so the youth would feel more like employees and learn banking skills. It also split the cost with the companies and decreased its percentage contribution over time as the youth proved their worth.[10] EAs also explored options to extend insurance coverage to youth during their internships in the event of disability. If labor or internship laws did not address this issue, EAs tried to arrange coverage through a parent if this was an option or by negotiating a temporary arrangement through the public system.

Different Internships for Different Youth-Comfenalco

In Medellín, *Colombia*, Comfenalco offered youth three different types of internships:

High intensity: Six months in duration; employers receive tax incentive. Benefit: Youth receives a salary (typically 50% of what position typically pays) and more job experience; however, if not offered a job at end of internship, youth begins job search later than the rest of his/her fellow trainees.

Medium intensity: Two months (300 hours) without pay; youth benefits from real work experience and receives transportation and food stipend. Benefit: Has the experience on his/her resume, consolidates skills, and starts job search sooner.

Low intensity: Short duration (variable) for youth who did not perform well in the classroom portion and need reinforcement in a particular skill area in order to master the content. If successful, these youth are able to pass the classroom portion of training.

Identifying internship opportunities was time consuming for the EAs, in fact, the majority of the project directors concluded that it took more effort than they anticipated. For EAs with stronger private sector relationships, entrée into company management and human resource directors was easier. However, regardless of their pre-existing relationships with companies, negotiating internships required dedicated staff and hard work. ADEC-*Argentina*, for example, had one person working full-time on internship identification and placement. In *Brazil*, Aliança had a person working half-time, however, its participants did their internships in NGOs and schools, which in this case were easier to access, and their class sizes were smaller.

Good Practice Guidelines: Training Life Skills:

1. **It is important to train trainers, particularly those offering technical courses, in the importance of developing non-technical skills** and to create learning environments in which youth feel safe and empowered to ask questions, suggest ways to improve training, and be active participants in their learning process. Life skills are developed, not only through course content, but also in the way youth are engaged throughout the training process (encouraging participation, leadership, initiative, etc.). Setting and communicating expectations to training partners regarding the "whole" development of the participants, not just their technical skills, is an important thing to do prior to and throughout training. EAs needed to communicate a vision of what it means for youth to be more "employable" and that it embraces their social and personal skills, in addition to their technical knowhow.

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[10]   Ibid.

2. **There was not one set of life skills to which all EAs subscribed.** This allowed projects the freedom to define their curricula in ways that best suited their environments and youth. The downside of this approach was that without a set of standardized definitions of life skills and minimum requirements, it was difficult for the Program to make comparisons across projects. In the next section, for example, we present data from 11 projects on how youth evaluated themselves against 12 different life skills. This analysis is useful in that it gives a general sense of how youth feel they progressed (or not) in their personal and social skills. What was not as helpful was the fact that not all projects used the same terminology (e.g., one project addressed responsibility under the heading of initiative, defined as having the energy to complete what you started), and not all projects addressed the same life skills as we mentioned earlier.

3. **While EAs used different life skills curricula, there was a high level of consistency across projects with regard to employers' feedback on the youths' workplace behavior (life skills).** That is to say, regardless of the diversity in course content and materials across the *entra21* projects, employers from different markets rated the graduates' life skills high (average 4.1 in a 5-point scale). [11]

4. **Projects' experience suggests that a minimum of 40 hours of classroom hours dedicated to life skills are necessary** (this does not include extra-curricular activities, individual coaching, and internship hours during which life skills are practiced and reinforced) in order to create a solid foundation for seeking and securing a job. This assumes these hours are used for quality programming. We also recommend dedicating more hours, particularly for youth coming from more disadvantaged backgrounds.

5. **Measuring life skills changes is challenging, particularly if a program seeks to have comparable data across projects.** *Entra21* employed the following three approaches to measuring life skills changes and outcomes:

   - Prospective measurement of changes in life skills from baseline to follow-up as evaluated by the youth;
   - Retrospective measurement in which youth self-assess at follow-up and indicate how much of the change is attributable (or not) to the project;
   - Employers' perceptions of youths' life skills as they relate to workplace needs.

Internships:

1. **Create a database** (if one does not exist) to identify companies that are good candidates for internships, including data on whether the employer has had interns in the past, internship requirements, etc. and update it regularly. The same database will be useful for job placement services.

2. **Designate a person to coordinate** the identification and negotiation of internships. Even with a coordinator, projects learned to use a team approach so that training staff and those working on internship placements saw themselves as mutually supportive of one another.

3. **Sign a contract with the employer** which stipulates the youth's hours, tasks, resources, and supervisor, as well as the role of the business (or government agency, NGO) in mentoring the youth. Formalizing the obligations of all parties is not only a first step in qual-

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11 In the next section of the report more data on employers' perceptions are presented.

ity control, but gives youth practice in reading and signing a contract. The EA's responsibility to supervise the youth also may be defined. Typically, supervision was offered by a training staff member.

4. **Competition for internships may be an issue,** especially in countries like *Brazil* and *Colombia*, where companies have an incentive to offer internships and many different programs are vying for the same internship slots. EAs' youth competed with university students, in some countries, making it imperative for EAs to match their graduates with companies' needs very carefully. EAs emphasized, for example, their trainees' practical skills and positive attitude about performing entry level tasks, such as receptionist or taking inventory (which can be problematic for university-educated interns).

5. A related point has to do with the size of the class being placed in internships. As one would expect, the **larger the class size, the more effort it will take to find good internships.** This argues for thinking about internships from the beginning of training so that opportunities are identified when the market data are being gathered at the start of the project and to continue looking for internships throughout training.

6. EAs implemented a system to **supervise the interns so their experiences had as much educational value as possible.** Projects visited youth at least once during the internship to observe youth at work and ensure they were doing work related to their training. EAs also used the visits to debrief with employers to make sure that they were happy with the youths' performance and were giving youth the support required.

7. **Use the feedback gained from the interns and the employers to revisit the curriculum and fine tune as needed.** Comfenalco-*Colombia* learned, for example, that youths' greatest challenges were poor writing and speaking abilities and customer service skills. It also found that youth who specialized in graphic design, database management, and software design were the hardest to place due to a drop in market demand from what this EA gauged over a year prior.

D. JOB PLACEMENT SERVICES

One of the Program's core assumptions is that **including job placement services increases a project's probability of helping a youth make a successful transition from school to work, or in the case of many** *entra21* **youth, from out of school to work.** Job placement services represented the element of the "model" which was new for the majority of executing agencies. It is perhaps the aspect of the *entra21* program that sets it apart from most youth employment programs that had operated, or were operating, in Latin America and the Caribbean when the Program started in 2001.

Before talking about how job placement services were delivered to youth, it is important to focus on what youth were taught to do for themselves. For the International Youth Foundation, this is an important point, as it is founded on the belief that good youth programming enables a young person to become more self-reliant or, in this case, to navigate the world of work independently and effectively. **All projects devoted part of the curriculum to developing youths' job seeking skills** (e.g., how to research job vacancies on the Internet, in newspapers, and through job listings in government offices; how to write a CV; and how to conduct themselves during an interview). The following table summarizes the degree to which "graduating" youth felt confident about the skills developed during training. In general, there was a high level of confidence among all youth in their skills, including their ability to find a job.

Youths Confidence Level in their Skills Upon Exiting the Project
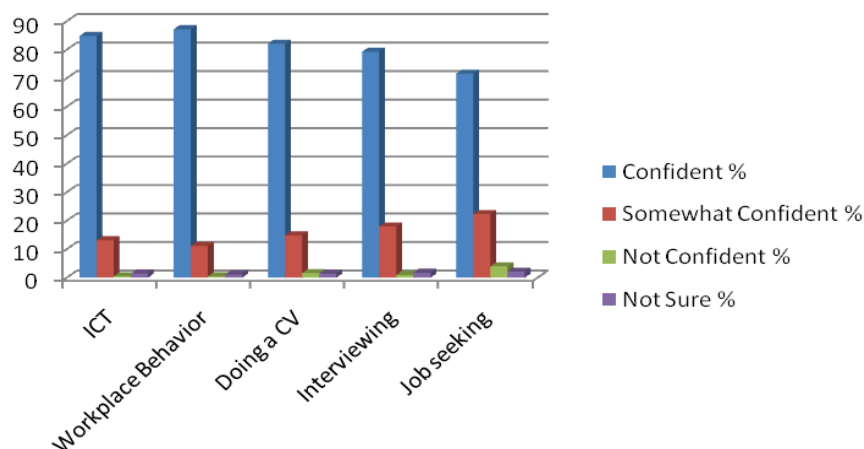
Source: exit surveys administered to all graduating youth; *entra21* database

According to youth, the most effective means of finding a job was **through personal contacts (presumably created through the internship); the project's job placement services was cited as second.** One might interpret this as a critique of the projects' job placement services. However, it is more likely a reflection of youths' pride in their ability to find a job on their own, a skill which was honed through the project.

Roughly half of the projects offered job placement services after classroom training was completed until three months after youth left the program. The other half of the projects began offering these services while youth were taking classes. The services provided to the youth (in order of their frequency) were:

- Setting up interviews, coaching youth on the interviews;
- Maintaining or linking with a database(s) on job listings and employers, assessing existing job banks;
- Providing youth with career counseling and individualized assistance in their job search, CV formatting, etc.;
- Conducting follow-up calls or instant messaging youth to see how they were doing in their job search;
- Providing a venue for "job seekers" to talk through problems, share experiences, and gain support from other youth;
- Creating an on-line roster of youth's CVs.

The Executing Agencies had to devise a viable management structure in order to deliver the different program components through decentralized teams and outsourcing arrangements. This was especially true for job placement services which, like the management of internships, required each EA to find a way to engage youth where they trained and were looking for work. For EAs operating in multiple cities, for example, this was particularly important.

The arrangements EAs made to offer job placement services to youth can be classified into three broad categories. The first category are those EAs operating in one city and capable of managing operations from a central office, albeit in constant dialogue with their training partners. These EAs created a job placement unit within their organizations. Category two consists of those EAs which operated in more than one city and hired people to work full (IT-DG-*Peru*) or part-time (Don Bosco-*Nicaragua*) in other sites to reach out to employers and assist

youth in their job search.   These two arrangements were the most common, as shown by the table below and required constant dialogue between the training centers and the EA personnel responsible for job placement. **Having dedicated personnel within the EA for job placement in no way minimized the need to engage the training providers in this vital activity.** The training staff knew the youths' interests and abilities, provided coaching and feedback to the youth in their career options, and supervised youth during their internships. A third category is the "outsourced" model whereby the EA works out an arrangement with a training partner(s) or other entity to provide job placement. In this latter case, the EA is not directly involved in service delivery but plays an oversight role.   This was the least common approach, given that: 1) EAs wanted to be more directly involved in this phase of the project since it was so critical to success; and 2) training partners were not equipped to have this function outsourced to them. In fact, CIRD-*Paraguay* and Don Bosco-*Nicaragua* had outsourced this function, initially, to training partners in CIRD's case and a government agency in Nicaragua. Because of poor performance, both EAs had to abandon this outsourced arrangement and create a decentralized team (Category 2) to serve youth who were being trained outside of the capital city.

Category 1	**Services coordinated and delivered by the EA out of its own offices; typically serves one geographical area or has installed capacity in other locations** (e.g. Ágape in El Salvador); coordinates closely with training organizations; however, the EA is the hub for the provision of job placements services	Instituto Aliança-Brazil Instituto Hospitalidade-Brazil Fundación Ágape-El Salvador CADERH-Honduras ADEC-Argentina CEPRO- Brazil ISA-Dominican Republic Kolping-Uruguay Fundación Indufrial-Colombia CIPEC-Mexico
Category 2	**Services coordinated by the EA out of the central office** (Category 1) however, due to geographic spread and/or EA's capacity, the approach is **decentralized**. Individuals are contracted in different locations to liaise directly with local training partners and to reach out to businesses and youth	ITDG-Perú Sur Futuro-Dominican Republic Opportunitas-Venezuela
Category 3	Services overseen by EA however the actual **services are outsourced** to the training partners who are accountable to the EA	SES-Argentina Don Bosco-Nicaragua

Some staffing arrangements included:

ITDG/ *Peru*: One coordinator operated out of Lima and two field workers temporarily housed in each training center in Cajamarca and Tarapoto were later added.

Opportunitas/*Venezuela*: One coordinator based in Caracas and two half-time persons located in Anzoátegui and Carabobo who liaised with three training partners in each region.

Quipus/*Bolivia*: Started with one coordinator out of La Paz and added three more to make calls, conduct follow up, and visit employers in El Alto and Cochabamba

SES/*Argentina*: Delegated job placement services to five training partners in five regions; received orientation and supervision from SES. It also partnered with the global firm, Manpower, whose personnel offered pro bono help in training youth in job seeking skills.

To be successful, projects needed to appeal to employers and equip youth with essential skills

and knowledge. This dual approach characterized the projects' approach to job placement as they implemented a range of activities aimed at engaging employers, primarily businesses. The amount of work involved in learning about the businesses and their HR needs and procedures and making them aware of the project, was, as mentioned before, more time-consuming than projects anticipated, thus the projects' decision to add more staff time to this important function.

Projects implemented the following activities with employers in the interest of placing youth in jobs:

- Creating and maintaining a database of potential employers including contact persons, when contacted, feedback received, etc.;
- Subscriptions to existing listings of job opportunities, usually through the government;
- Visits to businesses to meet with business owners, HR managers, and/or executive staff to introduce the project and youth being served;
- Organization of breakfasts with business leaders;
- Participation in events organized by business associations;
- E-newsletters to businesses (particularly those EAs with institutional links to a company or companies);
- Use of media to do radio spots, printed media ads, and articles;
- Creation of brochure and other materials with the logos of all training partners and do- nors.

Since the percentage of youth who opted to work for themselves is relatively small (9%) this report does not focus on this issue in detail. It is worth noting, however, that EAs learned that helping youth create their own businesses required a more concerted approach including a more explicit strategy to attract entrepreneurially-oriented youth and the provision of credit and technical assistance in micro-business management. For the most part, EAs concentrated their efforts on training and placing youth in salaried employment. They did not have the resources and/or expertise to do both types of training and post training follow up (job place- ment versus credit, technical assistance, etc.). Even among youth who were looking for work, creating a micro-business was not perceived as a viable option. When asked, job seeking youth replied they lacked experience and the means to work on their own. It appears that youth with self-employment tendencies may have self selected out of the program.

Observations and Good Practice Guidelines: Job Placement

1. It was important to **hire a job placement coordinator** with private sector experience. A central part of his/her job was understanding the needs and dynamics of businesses and relating to them. If youth were located in multiple cities or regions, **the coordinator needed to create a decentralized team** so that he/she could delegate and organize job placement activities in each site/labor market.

2. **Training providers are part of the job placement team,** regardless of how many person- nel are hired by the EA to coordinate job placement services. While the dedicated job placement staff may be responsible for contacting companies, maintaining databases, or- ganizing events, and creating letters and other materials, the instructors interact with the youth on a regular basis and know their strengths and weaknesses. They are in the best position to help match youth with vacancies, to give feedback to youth on their skill sets, and coach them when turned down for an interview.

3. Further, while the EAs hired a person(s) responsible for coordinating and delivering job placement services and formed a broader team with the trainers, **the project director**
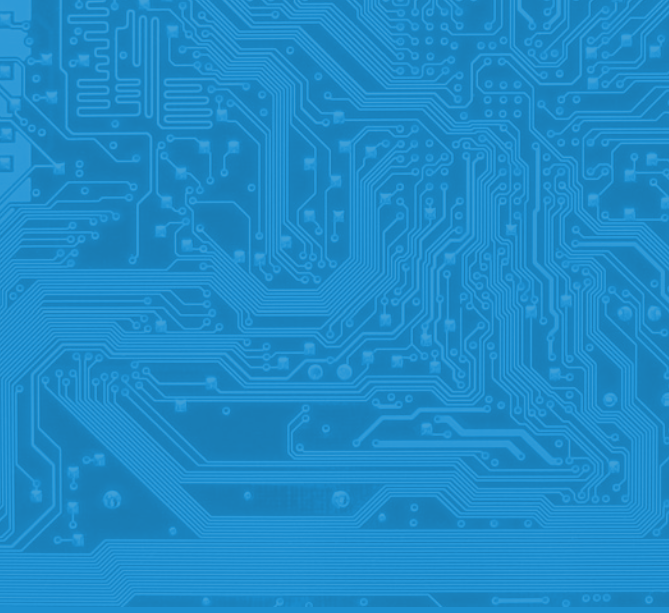
and upper management of the EA played a critical role. For one, the project directors were accountable for reaching project targets and for *entra21*; the main outcome is youth employment. Therefore, they needed to ensure that the job placement coordinator and the rest of the staff/trainers worked well as a team. In addition, to be successful, the EAs needed to mobilize all their human assets, particularly those with access to business leaders (e.g., Board members and executive staff members) to help open doors to employers in the private and public sectors.

4. **EAs cannot provide a formula for calculating how many person hours are needed for job placement.** However, most EAs underestimated the amount of time required. Even for organizations with close ties to the private sector, such as IH in *Brazil*, it was more time-intensive than anticipated. IH started with a team of seven people to place 600 youth. The team was later reduced to three people as the project became better known among companies and the team more proficient in job placement.

5. **The most common difficulty EAs reported in placing youth in jobs was the lack of vacancies.** This may be inevitable, to some degree, but it also suggests the importance of having good market intelligence when curricula are being developed, updating this intelligence throughout training, and adjusting the curricula accordingly. This difficulty did not result in poor job placement rates, per se. However, in many instances (e.g., *El Salvador, Lima, and Nicaragua*), youth found jobs that were not in the fields for which they were trained. This suggests that the youth were creative in finding work, but the field in which they were trained was not in demand when they went to look for a job.

6. **Job placement services are not a discrete set of activities occurring towards the end of classroom training, but part of a strategy that begins when the project is being designed.** Job placement is only as good as a projects' market knowledge, ability to tailor training to market needs, train youth well, and relate to employers. In other words it is part of a process that begins on the first day of a project.

Alternativa in *Peru* created a full-service professional job placement center targeting potential employers as clients. To establish a professional, serious image, the Center developed its own brand, logo, and promotional materials. The Center helps businesses identify labor needs and search for appropriate personnel. The company reviews the youth profiles and interviews young people for possible employment. The provision of these services required creating a database of companies, defining procedures, marketing the Center, following up with clients to ensure satisfaction, and staying informed of local labor market trends. The Center continues to operate after the end of the entra21 project, offering services through the training institutes affiliated with the project.

7. While most youth found jobs with private companies, reaching out to government agencies and NGOs also can be worthwhile, depending on market conditions. In the same way, while a small percentage of *entra21* youth opted to work independently (e.g., self employment through micro-business), this is a "job placement" option that should not be discounted. In fact, in rural areas, self-employment may be the most viable avenue for youth.

E. EXECUTING AGENCIES' CHARACTERISTICS AND COMPETENCIES

E.1 Typology of Organizations

Through the 1990s, most youth employability programs financed by the Inter-American Development Bank and other multi-lateral donors in Latin America were coordinated through public sector agencies linked to ministries of labor, or official training institutes associated with ministries of labor and/or education. *Entra21* represented a break from this tradition, as the majority of the Executing Agencies (EAs) were civil society organizations, founded in their respective countries for a social or economic purpose. All but 30 of the 32 EAs were private, not-for-profit organizations. Two were formal educational institutions: the University of *Belize* and the Institute of Agricultural Training in the *Dominican Republic*.

The 32 Executing Agencies (EAs) were founded by the private sector, church, or social development promoters, or some combination of these different segments of society. A notable characteristic of the Program was the EAs' diversity in terms of their origins and areas of expertise. **One general finding is that regardless of origin, the organizations did equally well in implementing the projects and reaching their objectives**. In other words, the EAs started from different points of departure—some had very close ties to the private sector, others had their own training facilities—yet all were relatively successful in reaching their goals. The following is a classification of the EAs for the Program:

Private sector created: Among the mix of NGOs supported were nine created by the private sector such as in the Hospitality Institute (IH-Instituto de Hospitalidade in Portuguese) created in 1997, by the Odebrecht Company and several other Brazilian companies to support the sustainable growth of the tourism sector in Salvador, *Brazil*. Fundación Luker was created in 1994, by the Casa Luker, a *Colombian* foods and home goods manufacturer, to support the socio-economic development of the city of Manizales. Others include: Fundación Indufrial, created in 1991, by a *Colombian* refrigeration company; the Private Sector Council on Educational Assistance (COSPAE in Spanish) of *Panamá* in 1984; the Human Resources Development Advisory Center (CADERH in Spanish) in *Honduras* in 1986; the Center for the Research and Promotion of Education and Culture (CIPEC) in *México* in 1989; and Businessmen for Education Foundation (ExE) in *Colombia* in 2002.

Mixed origins: The next category of EAs was created by business groups together with institutions from other sectors of society. Many of these NGOs were created to stimulate economic and/or social development through private-public partnerships. Examples of this type of civil society organization include: Blusoft which was founded in 1992 by the local government, a local university, and IT companies to stimulate the IT sector in Blumenau, in southern *Brazil*. The Chilean government and ITT Corporation founded the Fundación *Chile* thirty years ago. Today it is a leader in creating products and services to bolster Chile's economic competitiveness. Likewise, the Association of Economic Development for Cordoba (ADEC), a non-profit, private organization created to stimulate the development of Cordoba, *Argentina*, was created by the main chambers of business and the municipal government.

Civil society created: The largest group of EAs corresponds to those created by socially-minded citizens, usually a multi-disciplinary group, to fulfill a social development mission. Examples include: Fundación SES in *Argentina*; Fundación Cultural Quipus in *Bolivia,* created in 1987; Hope Unlimited Association (AHUB) founded in Campinas, *Brazil* in 1992; and the Puebla, *Mexico*-based Services for the Integral Community Promotion of Youth (SEPICJ) created in 1985. Several of the NGOs in this category (marked with an asterisk in the table below) were established by an international organization or network such as Fundación Kolping (German Catholic organization) in *Uruguay*; Intermediate Technologies Development Group (ITDG) in *Peru* from an UK international organization; the YMCA (ACJ) of ; and Fundación Opportunitas (*Venezuela*) that was established in collaboration with IYF. All have local autonomy and capacity to implement projects. In one case, where the delegation of authority between the international organization and local team was unclear (Partners of America/*Guatemala*), the project was terminated prematurely. Five of the EA's are Christian-based organizations (ACJ, Kolping, Don Bosco in *Nicaragua,* and Fundación Ágape in *El Salvador*), although their services through *entra21* were open to all youth who met their age, income, and educational requirements regardless of religion.

Private sector created	Civil Society created			Academic/Institute
CADERH - HO COSPAE - PN Comfenalco - CO Comfacauca - CO CIPEC - ME Fundación Indufrial - CO Fundación Luker - CO Empresarios por la Educación - CO Inst. de Hospitalidad - BR	Mixed F. Chile - CH ADEC - AR Blusoft - BR	Private citizens ACHNU - CH Alternativa - PE Aliança - BR AHUB - BR CEPRO - BR Opportunitas* - VE Quipus - BO SEPICJ - ME SES* - AR Sur Futuro - DR CIRD* ITDG* - PE Partners/GT* - GU Esquel-Ecuador*	Church Ágape - ES Don Bosco* - NI Kolping* - UR ACJ-Honduras*	University of Belize ISA - DR

Note: The NGOSs marked with an asterisk in the table above were established by an international organization or network.

E.2 Executing Agencies' Core Competencies

Overall, the *entra21* Program increased the core competencies of the EAs. These agencies began their *entra21* projects with diverse levels of expertise in the core areas of youth employment training and job placement. Several, such as Rotary Foundation's Centro for Professional Development (CEPRO in Portuguese) in the municipality of São Paulo, *Brazil*; Indufrial in Cartagena, *Colombia*; CIPEC in Leon, *Mexico*; and Comfacauca in Popayan, *Colombia,* have their own training facilities. CADERH, an entity that certifies human resource competencies in Honduras, has a network of 31 vocational training centers. Conversely, others such as the Opportunitas-*Venezuela* and SES-*Argentina,* had youth development as their core mission and were relatively less experienced in youth job training when *entra21* began.

Almost without exception, the provision of job placement services represented a new area of activity for the executing agencies. The integration of life skills development with technical training represented an area of program innovation for some organizations. COSPAE-*Panama*, for example, added human development to its job training repertory. It had to increase

training time by almost three times over prior projects to put more emphasis on life skills and business English to equip youth for the workplace.

The following table summarizes the new area(s) of work each EA had to undertake in order to implement their *entra21* project. In some cases, the modifications were comparatively minor, requiring the EA to shift the content of the training toward ICT skills needed for entry-level jobs (CIPEC-*Mexico*, AHUB-*Brazil*); whereas for other NGOs such as ACJ-*Honduras*, Quipus-*Bolivia*, and ACHNU-*Chile*, the EAs had to acquire many new competencies in order to successfully implement the project.

Executing Agency	New Areas of Work *entra21* Introduced
ACJ-Honduras F. SES-Argentina ADEC-Argentina Quipus-Bolivia ACHNU-Chile ExE-Colombia	Youth employment training, including job placement
CIPEC-Mexico AHUB-Brazil COMFACAUCA-Colombia COMFENALCO-Colombia F. Luker-Colombia	Training in ICT
Ágape-El Salvador Alternativa-Peru ITDG-Peru CADERH-Honduras F. Sur Futuro-Dominican Republic COMFENALCO-Colombia COMFACAUCA-Colombia F. Luker-Colombia Kolping-Uruguay Opportunitas-Venezuela F. Indufrial-Colombia F. Chile-Chile	Job placement services
Aliança-Brazil BLUSOFT-Brazil ISA-Dominican Republic IH-Brazil U. Belize-Belize	Focus on low-income youth
CEPRO-Brazil COMFACAUCA-Colombia F. Luker-Colombia	Internships

E.3 Decentralized Implementation

Regardless of the fact that the EAs had different core competencies and histories, they all had to create and manage partnerships with other organizations in order to implement an *entra21* project with the elements required by the Program. With few exceptions, the EAs had to work in coordination with a series of training providers in order to deliver technical and non-technical training, job placement services, and provide certification. **This model for outsourcing services, coordinated by an NGO hub (the EA), is a signature element of *entra21*.**

The following table illustrates the type of outsourcing arrangements negotiated and managed by four EAs:

AHUB-Brazil	Local NGOs specialized in technical training Local NGO designed curriculum
CIPEC-Mexico	Local technical training institute for training and certification Local NGO to design and deliver life skills training State agency to certify graduates Government labor office to support some job placement services
Indufrial-Colombia	National Training Institute for training and certification Local universities for volunteer teachers Local government for job bank services Local businesses to provide mentors for youth during training Local NGOs for life skills training, curriculum design services, and additional training for micro-business start ups
ITDG-Peru	Local training institutes in three cities for training and certification NGO specialized in life skills education Consortia dedicated to youth employment and comprised of NGOs, training institutes, and local government

Observations about the Executing Agencies:

1. The primary job of an EA was to bring together under one "programmatic roof" all of the services required for a youth to receive comprehensive training and job placement services. Therefore, coordinating the assets provided by one or more ICT training provider(s), a certifying agency, etc. was a core competence.

2. The EAs were founded by different sectors of society, from those created by a business group to those founded by socially-minded private citizens. While most had some prior experience with youth employment training, there was a handful for which *entra21* was their first serious effort in this area. Despite differing levels of expertise at the outset of the Program, the overwhelming majority of EAs were able contract staff and forge relationships with training partners which augmented their capacity and enabled them to be successful.

3. The closeness of some EAs to the private sector prior to *entra21* meant they could access employers more readily; however, it did not guarantee success with job placement. Even EAs with few or limited relationships with the private sector were able to negotiate internships, identify job opportunities with private companies, etc.

4. The fact that the Program made explicit from the beginning that job placement was the primary objective, provided the EAs with the impetus they needed to use the relationships they had or to quickly build new ones so that their projects were successful. In that sense, all EAs had to work hard from day one to make sure training was market relevant, youth were supported, and employers' engaged. While some EAs may have had greater advantages when their projects began (e.g., more experience in offering training, more proximity to the private sector, etc.), overall, they all performed well. The following factors help explain their success.

Observations & Good Practice Guidelines: Executing Agency Success Factors

1. **Ability to identify good partners** for the delivery of training and placement services and to manage outsourcing arrangements well.

2. **Leadership qualities,** particularly those of the Project Director, not only to manage these relationships but also to detect problems quickly and find better arrangements. Nearly half of the EAs had to deal with partners not living up to their commitments and were forced to find different ways to fill training or other gaps. CIRD-*Paraguay,* Opportunitas-*Venezuela* and ACHNU-*Chile*, for example, had to change training providers due to poor performance.

3. **Strong management skills** to ensure good use of project assets. Among the more critical management skills was EAs' ability to manage relationships with multiple training providers and organizations and ensure quality.

4. **Receptiveness to feedback,** particularly when things were not going smoothly. ADEC-*Argentina*, for example, accepted a suggestion by IYF to do a strategic review when a consortium of NGOs responsible for the human development component of training expressed frustration in working in alliance with the other ADEC partners. This review resulted in a realigning of expectations among partners and the successful implementation of the project. Midway through its project, Opportunitas-*Venezuela* realized it had to tighten its training standards and supervision so that the quality of training across nine different providers was of more consistent quality.

5. **Flexibility,** which is related to leadership and the ability to receive and use feedback effectively, allowed the EAs to change course as needed. This was particularly evident with regard to the use of human resources. For example, several EAs had to deploy more human resources to set up internships and reach out to employers or increase training hours so they could adequately cover the curriculum.
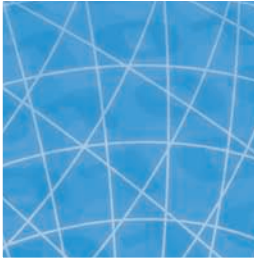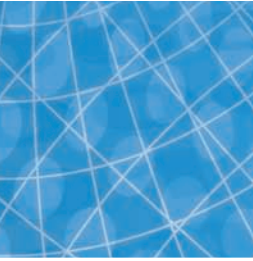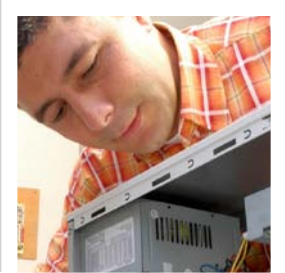
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Section II:
Results of the *entra21* Projects

Information in this section of the report is based on data collected from 2,701 youth from 28 projects between 2005 and 2007,[12] more than 6 months after they completed their training. The evaluations (or follow-up studies) were conducted by locally-based, independent evaluators who used an evaluation guide and standardized questionnaire developed by IYF[13] for the Program. The purpose of the evaluations was to measure projects' effectiveness in placing youth in jobs and to support learning around best practices. Project evaluations were based on one cohort or graduating class[14] and not all of the youth who went through a project, due to cost and time constraints. The evaluators used baseline and exit data, captured by each Project through standardized questionnaires, which they compared with ex-post data to measure changes in employment, job quality, and educational outcomes. Evaluations had a 95% confidence level and a sampling error of no greater than 8%, as stipulated in the *entra21* evaluation guide.

> Blusoft had the highest employment rate among the 27 projects evaluated (Bercovich and Schwanke, 2007). The overall increase from baseline was 56 percentage points as 26% of the youth were working at baseline. For 36% of youth, the job they held post-training was their first job; the others had worked at some point prior to training. Trained in Web design or four different programming languages, youth were able to take advantage of Blusoft's strong ties with the IT sector to secure jobs.

In addition to surveying the youth after they had "left" the project, the evaluators conducted two or three focus groups, averaging eight youth per group, to gain a richer understanding of the survey data. Employers were also interviewed, using a standardized instrument, to learn about their impressions of the interns and youth they hired and their level of satisfaction with their performance. Typically the evaluators spoke with the business manager or supervisor who had the best overall knowledge of the *entra21* youth.

A. EMPLOYMENT RATES

The rates of employment were calculated based on the number of youth who reported working at the time the evaluations were conducted.[15] **The average employment rate across 28 projects evaluated was 54%. The rates varied from a high of 82% in southern Brazil from the project managed by Blusoft, to 14% for youth who graduated from the Fundación Sur Futuro's project in the Dominican Republic.** For a listing of the employment rates by project, please consult Annex II, Table A.

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[12] Tables found in Annex II are based on 2,237 cases; 464 youth from Colombia were processed separately; evaluation data from three projects were not used due to methodological problems (Argentina, Colombia, and Ecuador), and the other projects were not evaluated in time for this report.
[13] Claudia Jacinto, a youth employment expert from Argentina, designed the surveys and methods used to measure Program outputs and outcomes.
[14] IYF/*entra21* required a maximum standard error of 8.5% and 95% confidence level. Due to the high level of homogeneity among all youth served by a project, the internal validity of the evaluation findings was established.
[15] *Entra21* defined "working" as those youth who were working for pay. Youth who were working without pay, therefore, we not included in estimating the employment rates.

Lower Employment Rates: Lessons from the Dominican Republic

Fundación Sur Futuro (FSF) implemented its *entra21* project in four of the Dominican Republic's poorer provinces. Its job placement strategy for poor rural youth consisted of the following activities:

- Training youth in job-seeking skills
- Outreach to local and national companies and government agencies
- Linking with job listings to identify jobs for which youth could apply
- Support for youth who want to set up micro-enterprises

Before analyzing why the second cohort of youth fared so poorly in the labor market, it is important to note that the employment rate for the first cohort was 46%, three times the rate for the second cohort. The first cohort had been in the job market about six months longer than the second group of students when they were interviewed. A majority had been working in the same job for over four months, suggesting most cohort one youth found jobs within six months of exiting the FSF project. Six months after graduating a much lower percentage of second cohort youth were working due to the reasons below.

Factors Contributing to Low Placement for FSF's 2nd Graduating Class

- **FSF miscalculated the market's ability to absorb entry-level workers**. FSF's market study revealed an estimated 100 businesses requiring human resources with ICT skills, By the time the second group completed training (early 2007); however this demand appears to have evaporated, highlighting once again the dynamic nature of the labor market.
- **The national job listing service was not an effective way to match demand with supply**. The service did not produce any matches or useful job leads for the youth to pursue.
- **Youth migrated** from rural areas to the capital city in search of work. Sur Futuro did not detect this soon enough to refocus its job placement strategy. As it was, FSF concentrated its efforts on the local market while youth decided to look elsewhere.
- **Organizational issues exacerbated the problem.** FSF was delayed in a) setting up micro-business support services for youth who wanted to set up their own businesses, and b) renewing contracts for key job placement personnel. (Source: Juan Carlos Hernández, Program Officer, 2008)

In *Brazil* and *Colombia*, several *entra21* projects were implemented.   For example the employment rates ranged in *Brazil* from Blusoft's 82% in 2007 to AHUB's 55% in 2005. The differences in the rates can be explained by variances in the projects' location, the timing of their evaluation, youth profile, and project design.   The same is true for *Colombia* where the project employment rates varied from a low of 46% to high of 74%. However, in the *Colombia* case, these rates were achieved by the same EA, in the same city, using the same selection criteria.

Colombia: One Project Implemented Twice with Different Employment Rates

The Competitive Youth Project in Medellín achieved a 74% job placement rate in 2007, whereas the same project evaluated in 2005, recorded a 46% rate. Reasons for the different rates include:

Internal Factors: For the second project, Comfenalco and its seven training partners were more proficient in reading the market, reaching out to employers, and placing youth in jobs. Experience from project 1 paid off in project 2.

External Factors: The project "brand" had gained more visibility and trust among employers. Economic indicators (growth, employment, investment) continued to improve over the course of the decade, creating a favorable business climate. Hiring youth was high on the mayor's agenda, contributing to greater visibility for the program.

Unemployed Youth

Of the 46% of youth who were not working when the follow-up studies were conducted, 70% were looking for work and the remaining 30% were not looking for work.

Employment Status at Follow Up—Average Across 28 Projects

Working	54%
Looking for work	32%
Not working or looking for work	14%

Source: External Evaluation data base, *entra21*

Among those looking for work, the **majority (66%) cite problems in accessing work due to lack of openings and lack of contacts and/or skills. Another 13% were just starting their job search**. Other reasons for not working include personal issues such as military service, physical issues, moving (10%), poor pay (6%), and age or other personal characteristics (5%).While these youth were not working at the time of the study, this is not to say that they had been out of the labor market since leaving the program. **In fact, 48% of the youth who were looking for work when the evaluation was performed had worked at some point since leaving the program.** This is not a surprising finding. We know from other studies that this time of life is one of multiple transitions (World Development Report, 2007), characterized by considerable mobility among youth, both in terms of work situations, living arrangements, and education. The data also indicates a **high degree of positive feelings among non-working youth about the usefulness of *entra21* training in helping them find a job.** Based on the longitudinal study conducted by Fundación SES in *Argentina* and interviews with project directors, one can conclude that *entra21* graduates are resilient in terms of finding jobs and re-initiating their job search if they lose their jobs.

Reasons For Not Working
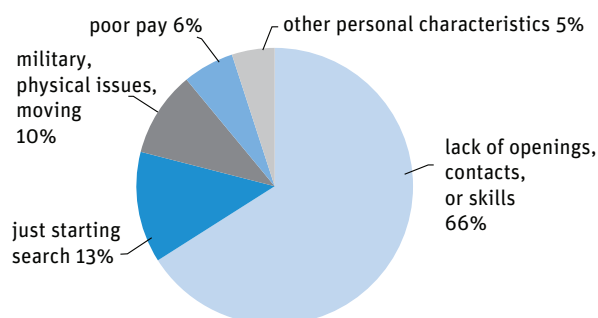
Being enrolled in school was the major reason that over 60% of the inactive youth were not working or looking for a job. That is to say that the vast majority of *entra21* graduates were using their time constructively, they were either working, looking for work, or in school. Only 3% of the 14% who were not working or seeking work (inactive) cite a lack of desire to work as the reason for their inactive status.

B. QUALITY OF EMPLOYMENT

B.1 Contracting Arrangements

Quality of employment is defined by a combination of several different elements: type of contract, benefits, and income. Youths' satisfaction with their jobs is an important subjective aspect of quality which we will also examine.

Evaluation data from 27 projects reveals that over half of youth had permanent jobs and 86% had permanent or temporary jobs. The remaining 14% had occasional work.

Type of Work	Percentage of Working Youth
Permanent work	58%
Temporary work	28%
Occasional/Seasonal	14%

Source: *entra21* external evaluation database

Looking closer at the type of contracts, we find that 78% of youth had formal jobs, and 8% of youth were working through government jobs programs or in an internship. Fourteen percent (14%) had informal contracts, usually a verbal agreement. This was especially prevalent in *Peru* where in one project, verbal contracts accounted for 54% of working youth and in a another project implemented by a different Peruvian NGO, 38% of the youth had informal contracts. In the case of the second Peruvian project, an impact study using a quasi-experimental design was conducted which revealed that 51% of participants had formal contracts compared to 38% of youth in the control group.

Distribution of Contract Type for Working Youth

Formal contract	78%
Apprenticeship	7%
With employment program	1%
Informal contract	14%

Source: *entra21* external evaluation database

Claudia Jacinto in her analysis of job quality among 11 *entra21* projects noted that the types of contracting arrangements found among graduates reflected the labor markets in each country, to a large extent. She notes, for example, in *Bolivia* informal arrangements are prevalent, especially among small companies (10 employers or less) who hired 68% of the youth surveyed in that country. To secure a job, the Bolivian youth who were surveyed in 2005, worked for these companies as paid interns, which they negotiated on their own and which were not necessarily with the same companies where they worked as interns with during training. (Jacinto, C, "Jóvenes y La Calidad de los Empleos: Resultados del Programa *entra21*, IYF, 2007).

B.2 Benefits

Of youth surveyed at follow-up who report working, 76% were receiving benefits, most commonly paid vacation and health benefits. This is consistent with the data on formal contracts presented above. The youth who reported receiving no benefits were more likely to have informal contracts, work for smaller companies, and/or temporary employment.   Data from the project implemented in *Mexico* (SEPICJ/Puebla) illustrates the flexibility in the way labor laws and regulations are applied in different contexts. There, for example, while 75% of youth reported having permanent contracts and 27% had short-term ones, only 57% of working youth received benefits. One would expect the number to be higher. However as Jacinto and other Latin American employment experts attest, employers in Latin America have considerable discretion in defining the terms of employment. Low-wage workers, and in particular, youth, are less likely to be enrolled in the social security system and if they work for smaller companies (which is the case in many countries), the likelihood of not receiving benefits is high. For example, in *Bolivia*, 74% of youth reported receiving no benefits. This is explained, in part, because the majority of *entra21* graduates reported working in companies with ten or less employees.

> Seth Israel Vazquez, age 23, of Tehuacan, *Mexico* was not working when he started training. He later became the coordinator of a group in charge of processing credit card applications for the Liverpool department store. He earned 8,500 pesos/month, well above the median salary for a technical-level employee.

Distribution of Benefits among Working Youth

No Benefits	24%
Paid Holidays	58%
Health Insurance	53%
Annual Bonus	48%
Retirement Benefits	41%
Other	29%

Source:*entra21* external evaluation database; note: youth may select multiple benefits

B.3 Wages

Use of the minimum wage, as one of the indicators of quality, allows us to establish whether youth were paid what was required by law. The distribution of youths' wages relative to each country (or city's) minimum wage indicates that most graduates were paid a decent wage. Nearly three-quarters of the working youth earned minimum wage or greater and more than one in five earned at least 150% of the minimum wage.

Distribution of Working Youths' Wages

Less than minimum wage	26%
Minimum wage to 110%	24%
Greater than 110% to 150%	30%
Greater than 150% of minimum wage	20%

Source: *entra21* external evaluation database
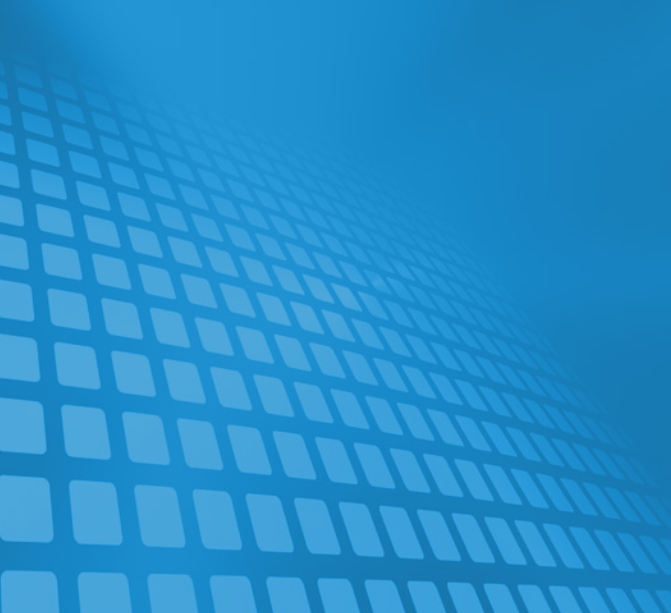
In countries such as Chile, Colombia, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, and Venezuela, the minimum wage exceeds the median income for workers ages 26-40 (World Development Report, 2007), suggesting that compared to other workers in these countries, *entra21* youth fared relatively well. That aside, more than 50% of *entra21* youth asserted that their wages were not sufficient to meet their needs, which points to the inherent limitations of using the minimum wage as a yardstick for determining job quality. Youth (and evaluators) suggest the minimum wage sets a low standard when seen in the context of youths' lifestyle needs and preferences.

Youths' responses about their wages reflect two critical issues: a) their families' dependence on their monetary contribution to the household economy, and b) youths' aspirations as consumers of entertainment, clothing, and other material goods. That is to say, not only were youth contributing their wages to the household, but they were also interested in consuming music, electronics, and other goods popular among youth.

For example, while 62% of *Bolivian* youth surveyed earn more than the minimum wage, experts estimate that a single person needs almost double the official minimum wage to live (Aguilar, 2005). *Nicaraguan* youth earned more than the minimum wage (96%); however, this is not viewed as a "living wage" especially for youth whose families are poor (Rodriguez, 2007). In Puebla, *Mexico*, the youth earned more than the minimum wage (58% more); however, this was less than the average technical worker ($254 versus $286). For youth on the job for no more than six months on average, this difference in wages compared to other technical workers is understandable. Were the Program able to study the Mexican youth a year later, one would hope this difference in average wages would have disappeared.

In summary, assessing job quality in terms of wages is complicated and needs to factor in minimum wage standards, living wage estimates, and youths' aspirations. Survey and focus group data suggest that while youth reported their income did not cover their expenses, the majority liked their jobs because they were interesting and offered opportunities to increase their human capital. Looking at this another way, despite reporting their wages were insufficient to cover their expenses, youth gave more weight to the quality of their work (e.g., finding it interesting or a learning opportunity) as the section which follows indicates.

Following the Graduates in Argentina

Fundación SES studied a group youth 14 months after they graduated to see how they were faring in the job market: 68% were working, 24% were looking for work, and 8% were not looking for work. Lack of contacts was the most frequently cited obstacle to finding a job. Looking at the data in terms of trajectories or work pathways: 66% of youth had stayed employed or become employed in the 14 months, 26% moved from working or not looking to looking, and 8% went from working or looking to becoming non-active. Youth changed or found a job in the 14 months, making it difficult to draw clear pathways. About half of the youth had improved contracting arrangements, whereas the same proportion either continued with informal contracts (about 1/3 of the cases), went from permanent to temporary jobs, or lost ground, having had a formal contract and now working under an informal one. Youth tended to choose to work in informal arrangements so they can balance other demands (school, home) or, if they had difficult family situations, to take a job regardless of whether the contract was formal. Average income rose over time and a majority of youth received one or more benefits. (Source: Vidal et.al. Trayectorias Laborales de los Jóvenes del Proyecto Navegar. Sur, IYF: 2007)

B.4 Youths' Perception of the Quality of their Jobs

The majority of youth (82%) reported liking their jobs, the overwhelming majority of which were jobs without supervisory responsibility. The most commonly cited reasons for liking their jobs among the youth surveyed (in order of importance) were:

- The work is interesting
- The salary is good
- There are opportunities for promotion

Having good benefits and job security were less frequently cited reasons for liking one's job. Given that most youth surveyed were single and without children, issues of security and benefits appear to be less important than having an interesting job that allows the youth to continue building his/her skills and further his/her career. In focus groups conducted by the external evaluators youth repeatedly expressed their satisfaction with their jobs due to a host of factors, beginning with their perception that it was a good place to begin to build their work experience. They mentioned aspects such as giving them a chance to earn regular income, improve themselves, and have the means to go back to school. Youth also seemed to like their jobs even if they were not using the ICT skills they learned during training with any regularity. Although those youth who did not like their jobs were more likely to be doing work not related to what they studied such as sales, daycare, or construction.

One overall observation based on the external evaluation data collected from youth after they left the project is that the projects were successful in placing youth in quality jobs. Comparing youth at baseline to ex-post, we find that employment rose among youth surveyed from 12% to 54%, for a total gain of 42 percentage points. For those working at baseline, salaries increased and more youth received benefits at follow-up. Based on contract duration, type, wages, and benefits data, the majority of working youth were successful in securing decent work. This confirms the effectiveness of the projects in reaching their objectives. Given that the evaluations were designed to measure effectiveness, not to establish a causal link between the project and youths' employment, we cannot make any definitive conclusions as to the impact of the projects on the youth outcomes described in this report.

B.5 Distribution of Program Benefits: Did All Youth Benefit Equally?

Having established job placement rates for the youth surveyed and the quality of their employment, the Program explored whether all youth benefited equally from their participation; in other words, were some youth more likely to get a job or have better jobs? To look at this question, follow-up data were analyzed in terms of job placement rates, wages, and type of contract, controlling for the independent variables of gender, age, and education.[16]

The odds of a female getting a job after participating in the Program, for example, are 59% relative to the odds of a male getting a job, controlling for age and education. This trend is a general one across the projects evaluated. In some projects, the trend was more pronounced, while in others, females fared as well (or almost as well) as their male counterparts. Projects in which girls had lesser odds of being employed, for example, include Honduras, Panamá, *Colombia* (in two cities), and Chile.

Looking at average wage across the projects evaluated in terms of percentage of minimum wage, we find that females earn significantly less as a percentage of the minimum wage on average. This finding was highly statistically significant even when controlling for age and education. (β=-.212 and 99% significance). Males earned an average of 32% more than the minimum wage, compared to 19% more than the minimum wage for females.

Gender	Mean Salary as % of Minimum Wage
Male	1.32
Female	1.19

Source: *entra21* external evaluation database

Age, a second independent variable analyzed, was less powerful than gender in determining employment outcomes; however, looking at all projects together, it did have a statistically significant effect on some employment aspects. For example, when looking at employment rates for youth between the ages of 18 and 28, the odds of getting a job increase by 3.4% with each year of age after controlling for gender and education. That is to say a 19 year-old with the same education and gender as an 18 year-old, had 3.4% greater odds of finding a job. When looking at the effects across the entire age spectrum in the project—that is to say 18 to 28—the cumulative effect was substantial. A 28 year-old had 34% greater odds of being employed over an 18 year-old with the same education and gender.

The importance of education in determining a youth's likelihood of being employed, however, did not prove to be statistically significant. This may seem surprising, given the commonly held assumption that the greater the youths' education, the greater his/her chances of being employed. The table below shows that the increase in the odds of getting a job with more formal schooling is not statistically significant and that none of the education categories

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[16] The effect of age, gender, and education status on getting a job was tested using logistic regression. This technique is often used when the dependent variable, work status in this case, is bi-variate. That is, it is either 1 (working) or 0 (not working). If a variable tests as statistically significant, it means that there is a high probability that it makes a difference even after controlling for the other independent variables in the model. The threshold for significance is less than .05. The sign of the beta indicates the direction of the effect. If it positive, the variable has a positive effect on the dependent variable; if negative, the effect is negative. Odds ratios are the odds of the event (working) occurring for the group (e.g. females) compared to the odds of the event for the group not specified (males). If the odds ratio for females is 0.6, it means that the odds of a female getting a job are 60 percent of the odds for males.

is statistically significant. The direction of the effect of the three education categories specified is positive (more likely to work) in relation to the category not specified ("less than secondary completion"), but the lack of significance indicates that the effects of greater formal education after controlling for gender and age are not robust enough to be considered beyond what could have happened by chance.

Level of Education	Beta: direction of effect	Significance	Odds Ratio
Secondary completed	.097	.462	1.101
Some university	.020	.892	1.020
University completed	.191	.273	1.210

Source: *entra21* external evaluation database

> *I was trained in social communications and recognize the difference this project has made in my life.*
> (Tássila Lima, Brazil)

C. CONNECTEDNESS AND OTHER YOUTH OUTCOMES

C.1 Connectedness

While increasing job placement among disadvantaged youth was the primary objective of the Program, the IYF was also interested in looking at other changes in the youth's lives and self-perception after having participated in the Program. Being connected and self-confident and having the skills to navigate the workplace and relationships (e.g., life skills) is of major interest to organizations like IYF, as youth development research shows that youth who are connected and have positive relationships are more likely to make wise choices (Ivry and Doolittle, 2003; Hahn, 2006).

One way to measure connectedness is whether the youth are involved in school or working. **At baseline, 62% of youth reported neither being in school nor working. Over time, this percentage dropped to 25%. That is, the number of youth who became connected between the time training started and the evaluations were performed, more than doubled.** The data also reveal:

Most of youth (70%) who were not connected at baseline became connected; 30% remained unconnected.

The majority of youth who were connected at baseline, stayed connected (83%).However, a minority of youth (17%) was connected at baseline and not at follow up. Most of these youth were looking for work, suggesting they would become engaged.

One other dimension of connectedness the Program measured was youths' participation in civil, religious, or sports organizations. **Overall, the percentage of youth who reported being regularly involved in an organization, dropped from baseline to follow-up.** This finding is not surprising, when one considers the percentage of youth who went from not working or in school to working or in school; and the new scheduling demands these important transitions imply.

C.2 Life Skills Changes

Measuring changes in life skills presented a methodological challenge for the Program[17]. On the one hand, the projects highlighted different sets of life skills in their curricula; whereas at the Program level, a set of 12 generic life skills were assessed. For projects like ADEC in *Argentina* and Aliança in *Brazil,* which included citizenship in their curricula, some life skills were not assessed explicitly. On the positive side, life skills are not discrete skills, highly distinct from one another. Communication skills overlap with teamwork which also involves managing conflicts effectively. Therefore, the sets of skills assessed at the Program level embraced most of the life skills addressed by the individual projects.

A second challenge is developing instruments that capture changes in youths' knowledge, attitudes and behavior relating to skills like being responsible and managing time. *Entra21* measured youths' perceptions of their abilities in 12 life skill areas through the application of pre- and ex-post surveys and a series of retrospective questions posed only at follow up. However the Program did not measure behavior change per se. Youths' self-assessments were corroborated through employer interviews, which increase the validity of the life skills data collected through the Program.

Several trends emerge:

- When asked to compare themselves to how they were when they started training *entra21* graduates surveyed at ex-post (6 months or more follow up) cited the following as the most important changes in terms of their personal development:
    - Greater ability to set and reach personal goals
    - Greater confidence in myself
    - Greater capacity to learn on my own
- When asked at ex-post to assess how much (or little) the project contributed to any changes in their life skills, more than 50% of youth responded that the projects changed them "a lot" in all life skill areas.
- Employers corroborated youths' self-perceptions (see next section on Private Sector Engagement) about their life skills. Employers rated youth most highly in the areas of taking responsibility, working in teams, and being able to learn on their own.
- Comparisons between the self-scores at baseline and ex-post for all 12 life skills assessed were not conclusive. In fact, the average scores showed no significant change or dropped in some cases, rather than increase; a trend also noted by Hahn (2006). This counter-intuitive finding may be explained by: a) youth gave themselves high rating when they started the Program and as they learned more about what a "good" life skill entails, they became more self-critical (what is referred to as "youthful boosting"); b) youth entering the program were fairly "skilled" and had little room to improve; and c) the survey tool was not sensitive enough to ascertain change, and therefore retrospective methods (first two bullets) are more informative.

Anecdotal evidence which IYF and Projects have captured on video, in speeches, focus groups and informal interviews consistently point to the transformational effects of the project experience on the youth's self perception and hopes for the future. This may be explained, in part, by the fact that more than half were working when the evaluations were conducted. However, even among youth who were not working, the same positive outlook is expressed.

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[17] Andrew Hahn of Brandeis University noted a similar challenge in his analysis of a global program aimed at building youth's life skills and connectedness (Hahn, 2006).

Being part of a project where they felt safe, were treated with respect, were supported in reaching high standards, and surrounded by caring adults enabled *entra21* youth to develop their potential.

Youth Reporting Change due to entra 21 Project by Life skill Type

Life skill	Value
Think logically	54
Manage conflict	60
Manage time	69
Think creatively	70
Interpersonal	74
Work in groups	73
Learn for myself	75
Appropriate appearance	78
Self confidence	78
Be Responsible	82
Behave ethically	85
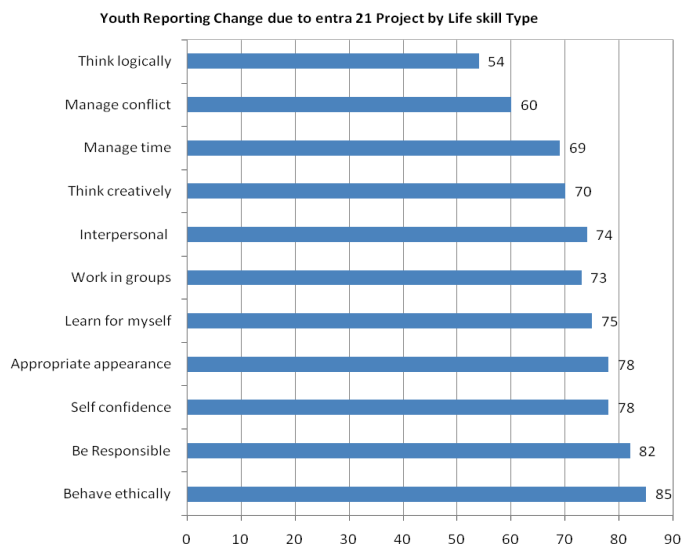
Source: *entra21* external evaluation database

D. PRIVATE SECTOR OPINIONS AND SATISFACTION

Private companies were the primary source of internships and jobs for youth under *entra21*. Most of the companies surveyed described themselves as stable or growing and EAs worked with a wide range of companies in terms of their size and a mixture of national companies (Departmental Committee of Coffee Growers/*Colombia* and Energeticos de Tehuacan/Mexico) and multi-national companies (H&M Stores/Peru and Microsoft/Uruguay).

EAs learned that involving businesses as early as possible in the design of the training program was good practice, but difficult to do. This was particularly true for those EAs with little prior relationship with the private sector. As Section I.B "The Executing Agencies" indicates, roughly half of the EAs were not founded by the private sector, which meant they had to work harder to build a positive reputation with companies. The amount of work involved in reaching out to companies to place youth in internships and jobs (see Section I. E on Internships and D. on Job Placement Services) was greater than most EAs anticipated, even those with stronger links to the private sector.

EAs managing *entra21* projects had an added advantage (compared to other NGOs dealing with other social issues) as they had the potential to align their strategic intent with those of a company. The dual-customer approach which was an inherent feature of *entra21* (and should be for any youth employment program) is a critical factor in understanding why and how EAs forged relationships with companies. As Rodrigo Villar (IYF, 2006) explained in his case study of the Instituto Hospitalidade ((IH) in *Brazil*, EAs had an advantage in that they were able to approach businesses with a "business solution", and not simply as one more project appealing to their sense of social responsibility. IH aligned its youth employment project with a strategic part of the business and was able to secure internships for all youth and place 66% of them in a tourism-related job. (Vasconcellos Neumann, 2005).

For the dual approach to work, EAs had to ensure the satisfaction of the customers with the services and products rendered to each. As indicated earlier (see Section I.C on Training) youth were satisfied with the training, internships, and jobs they secured. For the employers, satisfaction with the interns and youth hired was critical for two obvious reasons: a) the employers would not request from the EAs additional interns, nor be inclined to hire future graduates if vacancies came open, and b) they would not recommend the project to business colleagues and, in fact, might warn against hiring disadvantaged youth or *entra21* youth in particular. In *Peru, Brazil,* and *Argentina*, for example, companies eventually called the EA to see if they had any trainees or graduates to recommend for positions they wanted to fill.

The following table highlights the **employers' ratings** of the *entra21* youths' performance as employees. These are averages based a scale of 5 (highest) to 1 (lowest). **From these ratings we can conclude that employers from a wide range of companies and countries had a high level of satisfaction with the youths' performance based on company needs.** Basic skills include writing, reading comprehension and math while general skills refer to the specific job requirements for the position held. In the case of IH, for example, since the youth were trained for the tourism industry, ICT was not as emphasized which may explain why employers gave this skill area the lowest rating overall.

Project	Lifeskills	Basic skills	General	ICT Skills
Comfenalco II/CO	4.2	3.1	4.1	3.7
CADERH/HO	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.6
F. Indufrial/CO	4.6	4.3	4.5	4.6
F. Luker/CO	4.4	4.3	4.5	4.5
Fundación Chile	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.4
ACHNU/Ch	4.4	4	4.6	4.5
Kolping/UR	3.8	3.9	3.7	3.8
Blusoft/BR	3.9	3.6	3.9	3.9
Alianca/BR	4.6	4.2	4.4	4.4
CEPRO/BR	4.1	4.3	4.3	4
AHUB/BR	4	3.9	3.3	3.6
IH/BR	4.3	4	3	2.6
ADEC/ARG	3.7	3.2	3.5	3.2
Alternativa/PE	3.8	3.8	4	3.6
Opportunitas/VZ	4.4	4.2	4.5	4.4
Quipus/BO	4.1	3.5	3.7	3.3
CIRD/PY	4.4	3.7	4.3	4.4
Ágape/ES	4.5	4.6	n/d	4.3
ISA/DR	4.3	4.6	4.6	4.5
Univ. Belize	4.2	4.1	4.2	4.1
COSPAE/PA	4.1	4	4	4.1
OVERALL	4.2	4.0	4.1	4.0

Source: *entra21* external evaluation database

When asked to compare the *entra21* youth to other employees, the opinions were also positive; employers across these same projects said that **between 79% - 100% of youth performed as well or better than others and that 64% - 100% had equal or better chances to develop their full potential**. These statistics give a general picture of employers' perceptions and are encouraging, especially since the youth are being compared to all workers in similar positions, even those with more job experience.

Lessons Learned: Private Sector Relationship

The lessons derived from *entra21* about how to build relationships with the private sector resonate with what has been written elsewhere about creating NGO-private relationships and finding a win-win formula. These include elements such as:

- Understanding your potential business partner;
- Defining what you have to offer which can be of mutual benefit so you are not approaching the company as a charity, but a partner – "dual customer" approach;
- Scanning your organization for potential assets or services the companies may value,
- Managing your communications in a professional manner so your messages and brand are well positioned and clear;
- Aligning your board and staff so they contribute, based on their different vantage points, to helping the NGO build relationships with companies; and
- Making sure the NGO delivers a valuable product or service.

E. SPECIAL ISSUES

E.1 Scale

Through the Instituto de Hospitalidade (IH) of *Brazil*, the *entra21* Program gained experience in expanding the scale of one project. After successfully training 600 youth in the city of Salvador and placing 66% of them in jobs, the Brazilian Ministry of Tourism agreed to invest $2.1 million to expand the IH model to ten other cities where tourism is a significant activity. In 18 months, IH planned to train 4,010 youth, transfer its youth employment model to 10 other organizations and place at least 40% of the youth in jobs related to tourism. **As of December 2007, nearly half of the youth were enrolled, 5 of the 10 organizations were implementing the model, 60 of the 136 training courses were offered, and all 12 manuals for operating a project were published.** Due a series of delays, the program is projected to take over two years to be implemented, as 18 months was too ambitious a timeframe.

Evaluation data from the first three projects supported by IH through the scaling-up program confirm the model transferred well, in the sense that targets and outcomes were achieved. For example: 18 19

Indicators	Foz de Iguazu	Porto Alegre	Rio de Janeiro
Placement rate	71.5%	60%	45%
Youth w/ Formal contracts[18]	77%	50%	80%

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[18] Contracts, benefits, and work in tourism is presented as a % of those who are working. If a youth reported being in an internship, this was not counted as a formal contract.

[17] In all three cities, the average monthly income is above the minimum wage. In Porto the differential in female and male wages was significant (347.5 R for females versus 460R for males) due largely to the fact that almost half of the females reported working as interns.

Youth w/ benefits	76%	80%	
Youth working in tourism	90%	18%	26%
Average salary[19]	472.3 R	416 R	422R

Looking closer at the data, several interesting trends emerge:

- Each tourism market is different and understanding those differences is critical for the successful adaptation of any model, even one of proven success like IH's. For example, Porto Alegre's tourism revolves around business-related travel, as opposed to tourism related to pleasure in Salvador, *Brazil*, where the project originated. As such, the availability and type of entry-level work in the tourism sector can vary one city to another and have implications for training programs like IH's. In Porto Alegre, for example, there was greater demand for couriers or servers for smaller-scale restaurants whereas in Rio, the tourism sector is larger and more diversified serving business visitors and regular tourists.
- While in the three cities, the placement rate exceeded IH's target (40%), the percentage of youth working in tourism in Porto and Rio was lower than expected. This is due to the fact that the type of entry-level jobs open to youth with a high school education and average age of 18.5 years did not meet youths' expectations. The jobs were too repetitive and required long hours and/or involved too many tasks, according to the youth interviewed. Some options IH is considering to address this "mismatch" include: a) recruiting older youth, b) managing youths' expectations better, and c) adjusting the curriculum to include English and more advanced computer applications so youth can compete for "higher end" entry level jobs like managing the front desk or organizing tours.
- IH also found the level of organization of the tourism sector influenced how easily the model was transferred to different cities. Implementing agencies in Rio and Foz had the capacity to mobilize the tourism sector to provide internships and jobs; whereas in Porto Alegre, the agency had a harder time due to the fact that the tourism sector is less organized and the implementing agency did not have the necessary influence to get business leaders behind the project.

Lessons Learned: Scaling-up

Several lessons emerge from this scale-up experience:

1. **Scaling up through the transfer of a model from one city to another is possible; however, it took much longer than anticipated to create the systems, capacity, and relationships for a successful transfer**. The presence of an association of tourism businesses and existing infrastructure to ensure quality of service through training, standards, etc. facilitated the transfer of the model.

2. **An industry-specific approach works; however the tourism infrastructure and dynamics of each setting influence what type of training is needed**, the types of jobs available, and the approach to involving the private sector. Understanding the local context and adjusting the model to respond to it required more technical assistance from IH than anticipated.

3. **Having a well-known organization with experience in youth employment as the leader of the scaling-up process was very important.** Not only was IH able to guide the local partners through their challenges and growth pains, but it was able to use its networks

to engage local business associations. On the other hand, because the other tourist cities did not have an organization like IH to manage the program, it took longer to develop the vision, leadership and relationships critical to the success of the project.

4. Having training materials and reference guides tailored to the Program to help the receiving organizations learn about and adapt the model is critical as are structured workshops. However, the "lead" agency (in this case IH) should **expect to provide technical assistance, monitoring, and troubleshooting services regularly as problems and delays will arise**.[20] Resource materials and structured events like workshops are not enough.

E.2 Sustainability

For this report, sustainability is defined as the continuation of the services provided by the Projects once IYF/*entra21* funding terminated. The pre-conditions for sustaining a project are not unique to *entra21*, but applicable to most social projects. From the *entra21* experience several of these pre-conditions were confirmed such as:

Critical Factors for Project Sustainability

- Positive visibility with the private sector, media, government and civil society
- Strong leadership capable of negotiating with government, businesses and funding agencies and deeply committed to the issue of youth employment
- Proven capacity to train and place youth in decent jobs
- Being association with a priority issue-- youth employment
- Ability and willingness to form alliances
- Creating a demand or constituency base for the services offered

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Many of the EAs funded through *entra21* met these pre-conditions and are at different stages of sustaining the services provided through the Program. The fact that all EAs were required to contribute at least 25% of the budget helped diminish the risk of being overly dependent on *entra21* for funding, and required the development of relationships with other funders from the outset. Several of the agencies that did not try to sustain their *entra21* activities already had training operations before the Program began. It is IYF's understanding they elected to continue "business as usual" once their funding terminated (e.g., Don Bosco in *Nicaragua*, ISA in the *Dominican Republic*, University of *Belize* and CADERH in *Honduras*). If these agencies made any significant modifications to their training programs as a result of their *entra21* experience, these were not documented as of December 2007. Another factor which may have weakened some EAs' ability to sustain the project after funding ceased has to do with the way projects were financed. *Entra21* required executing agencies to cover staff salaries from other sources, as funds provided through *entra21* (primarily those provided by the MIF) could only be used for service contracts. This meant that when the project activities terminated, many of the staff who were most knowledgeable about the project left the NGOs, taking their valuable expertise with them. To sustain a model through fund-raising, the transfer of methods or the provision of services is more difficult when the project team has disbanded.

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[20] Since this section of the report was written, IYF has learned that the Instituto de Hospitalidade in Salvador has decided to transfer the youth employment program to another Brazilian NGO. The IH board decided to focus on its core business (supporting the development of the tourism sector through development and certification of norms) and "divest" itself of several programs, including the *entra21* scale-up. The plans and prospects for the sustainability of the program after targets are met and current funding is expended are unclear.

CIRD in *Paraguay* provides an interesting example of how an EA used its *entra21* experience to develop a political framework to sustain its youth employment efforts. CIRD's youth employment area empleojoven.py (youthemployment.py) was recognized through a government decree as a best practice program. This allowed CIRD to advise the government on youth employment programs and policies and provides companies a resource if they needed help in complying with labor regulations concerning interns, etc. Other EAs also used the *entra21* experience to develop closer relationships with the public sector in order to try to influence the delivery of youth employment services (e.g., training, counseling, job placement). Examples include Fundación SES in *Argentina* and Fundación *Chile*.

Lessons Learned: Sustainability

Based on the *entra21* experience, project sustainability can be promoted in a number of ways, such as:

- **Diversifying the funding base** through fund-raising and/or contracts whereby funds once provided through *entra21* are replaced by other sources. The continuation may involve the entire package of services provided under *entra21* or some variation. Examples:
  - Quipus/*Bolivia*: Secured funding from Save the Children, CHF, and ADRA to reach a total of 800 youth;
  - Indufrial/*Colombia*: Raised $700,000 from CHF, a Colombian Foundation and PADF to reach more youth;
  - Alianca/*Brazil*: Raised over $2 million from Brazilian sources to reach over 2,000 more youth;
  - Comfacauca/*Colombia*: With funds mobilized from a Colombian foundation, Comfacauca trained an additional 300 youth in the Cauca region; and
  - Fundación Indufrial/*Columbia:* Raised approximately $700,000 from Colombian and international sources to train more youth.
- **Transferring one or more elements of the project design** to other entities so that they may offer job training and placement services to more youth. This can be done through the contracting the EA, for example. Examples:
  - Comfacauca/*Colombia*: Worked with the municipal government to bring its expertise in job preparedness to high schools students. In this case, Comfacauca served as technical partner and co-funder.
  - Fundación Empresarios para la Educación (ExE)/*Colombia*: Used funding from a Finnish donor to manage a matching fund competition among its affiliates; ExE is transferring the methodology to two affiliates who are providing 40% of the funding.
  - Blusoft/*Brazil:* Is advising the University of San Andres in Argentina about how to develop an IT curriculum which integrates human development skills.
- **Institutionalizing one or more elements of the project** within your organization with the idea of making it a core part of your business for which you will invest your and possibly others' resources so that the services are sustained. Examples:

- COSPAE/*Panama*: With $550,000 in start-up funds from COSPAE, several Panamanian and international companies created a new area dedicated to promoting youth employment and engagement in the civic and economic life of *Panama.* The Institute for Youth Competitiveness (Institute de Competividad Juvenil "Dominador Kaiser Bazan" in Spanish) brought together all of COSPAE's work with private and public sectors as one strategic area.
- Fundación *Chile* influenced the practices of other employment training programs in Chile. For example, through *entra21* it learned about the difficulties experienced by youth in assessing existing resources aimed at helping youth and adults learn about job opportunities and match their skills with job vacancies. Out of the *entra21* (and other experiences) Fundación Chile created a new service called Te Orienta (It Orients You). Through a form of "one stop shopping" job seekers can assess information and counseling—in person and virtually—about job requirements, what competency gaps they have and how to fill them, and how to apply for a job. This model is being incorporated into a government program for low-income youth and has already been transferred to three public vocational training providers.

These strategies are not mutually exclusive or exhaustive. For example, COSPAE had to engage in fund-raising in order to set up and operate its new competitiveness center. The same is true for Fundación Chile. Many other EAs continue to look for ways to use their *entra21* experience to forge partnerships with local and national governments and local companies so that more youth can become employed in decent work. ADEC in Cordoba, *Argentina* and Blusoft in *Brazil,* each of which had strong relationships with their respective private sectors and local governments, continue to seek ways to integrate youth employment into their work. They hope to sustain a successful project by making it a strategic area of their operations.

Annexes 1 and 2
Bibliography

entra21

Annex I
Financial Information

A. Final Audited Statement for Program

Categories of Investment	Budget				Expenditures				Variance			
	MIF	Counterpart Match	Local Match	Total	MIF	IYF Match	Local Match	Total	MIF	Counterpart Match	Local Match	Total
Challenge Grant Disbursements	7,500,000	7,500,000	3,750,000	18,750,000	7,087,273	8,189,390	7,574,621	22,851,284	412,727	(689,390)	(3,824,621)	(4,101,284)
Technical Assistance	400,000	400,000		800,000	399,995	499,680		899,675	5	(99,680)	-	(99,675)
Learning	360,000	360,000		720,000	299,633	462,048		761,681	60,367	(102,048)	-	(41,681)
Program Management	880,000	880,000		1,760,000	882,799	2,017,929		2,900,728	(2,799)	(1,137,929)	-	(1,140,728)
Evaluations & Audits	175,000	175,000		350,000	60,953	187,210		248,163	114,047	(12,210)	-	101,837
Overhead	685,000	685,000		1,370,000	641,705	1,802,020		2,443,725	43,295	(1,117,020)	-	(1,073,725)
Total	10,000,000	10,000,000	3,750,000	23,750,000	9,372,358	13,158,277	7,574,621	30,105,256	627,642	(3,158,277)	(3,824,621)	(6,355,256)

B. Project Summary Table-Grant Amounts by Project

#	AR #	EA	Country	Project Period	In-Kind	Cash	LC Total	IDB	entra21 Match	Project Total	Direct to Grantee
1	474DOM01.2	ISA	Dominican Republic	January 1, 2003 – August 31, 2006	92,978	70,770	163,748	168,643	160,169	492,560	-
2	432.BOL01.3	Quipus	Bolivia	August 1, 2003 - December 31, 2005	0	173,722	173,722	199,258	185,998	558,978	12,360
3	462COL01.15	Comfenalco	Colombia	February 1 , 2003 – February 28, 2005	134,000	110,147	244,147	253,806	239,538	737,491	-
4	505ESA02.9	Agape	El Salvador	March 15, 2003 – July 15, 2005	73,246	110,538	183,784	174,257	161,791	519,832	-
5	526PAN02.2	Cospae	Panama	March 15, 2003 – July 14, 2005	29,905	167,127	197,032	197,679	202,320	597,031	-
6	416ECU01.19	Esquel	Ecuador	June 27, 2002 – August 31, 2005	36,676	117,510	154,186	231,542	229,539	615,267	-
7	409ARG01.14	SES	Argentina	June 18, 2003 – August 31, 2006	46,704	92,913	139,617	192,861	199,264	531,742	-
8	488PER01.7	Alternativa	Peru	May 15, 2003 – December 31, 2005	39,657	123,647	163,304	225,705	224,146	613,155	-
9	572BRA02.24	AHUB	Brazil	July 1, 2003 - December 31, 2005	48,455	90,004	138,459	155,092	206,167	499,718	-
10	435BRA01.15	CEPRO	Brazil	September 1, 2003 – January 30, 2007	84,159	110,399	194,558	18,720	299,120	512,398	-
11	601PAR02.8	CIRD	Paraguay	August 15, 2003 – December 31, 2005	16,290	121,822	138,112	155,097	156,606	449,815	-
12	463COL01.16	Indufrial	Colombia	November 12, 2003 – January 31, 2006	37,389	86,214	123,603	124,450	124,527	372,580	-
13	569HON02.3	CADERH	Honduras	January 1, 2004 – October 31, 2006	49,105	49,059	98,164	149,648	141,307	389,119	-
14	586BRA02.26	IH	Brazil	January 1, 2004 - January 31, 2006	40,000	130,531	170,531	249,750	359,748	780,029	359,748
15	552MEX02.30	CIPEC	Mexico	January 15, 2004 – July 15, 2007	107,305	98,018	205,323	196,469	169,452	571,243	99,957
16	650USA03.26	Partners (CADI)	Guatemala	June 15, 2004 – July 31, 2005	98,463	109,518	207,981	65,665	301,574	575,220	301,574
17	592VEN02.22	Opportunitas	Venezuela	August 1, 2004 – December 31, 2006	17,954	89,924	107,878	189,473	110,531	407,882	
18	649NIC03.6	Don Bosco	Nicaragua	December 1, 2004 – March 31, 2007	54,797	49,369	104,166	63,862	141,511	309,539	

#	Code	Name	Country	Date							
19	680BRAO4.31	Instituto Alianca	Brazil	September 1, 2004 – November 30, 2006	94,433	114,840	209,273	186,481	174,628	570,382	
20	691COLO4.24	Comfacauca	Colombia	August 2, 2004 – December 31, 2006	54,430	64,727	119,158	145,858	147,051	412,066	
21	405ARGO1.10	ADEC	Argentina	November 1, 2004 – September 30, 2007	15,300	122,430	137,730	245,510	50,000	433,240	50,000
22	730COLO4.25	Comfenalco II	Colombia	January 1, 2005 – April 30, 2007	43,682	213,518	257,200	250,000	402,750	909,950	402,750
23	660CLEO3.16	F. Chile	Chile	January 1, 2005 – December 31, 2006	34,605	167,614	202,219	303,034	197,000	702,253	197,000
24	659CLEO3.15	ACHNU	Chile	July 1, 2005 – June 30, 2008	8,787	144,268	153,055	237,713	237,715	628,483	
25	671URUO3.12	Kolping	Uruguay	September 15, 2005 – September 30, 2007	17,600	52,908	70,508	168,470	-	238,978	
26	610BRAO2.29	Blusoft	Brazil	December 1, 2005 – September 30, 2007	70,976	136,200	207,176	237,671	70,629	515,476	
27	421MEXO1.20	Sepijc	Mexico	October 1, 2005 – September 30, 2007	42,500	54,000	96,500	10,000	253,220	359,720	
28	528PERO2.10	ITDG	Colombia	January 1, 2006 – September 30, 2007	52,201	43,881	96,082	298,272	19,939	414,293	
29	606HONO2.5	ACJ/YMCA	Honduras	October 1, 2005 – September 30, 2007	13,000	73,550	86,550	0	227,635	314,185	
30	699DOMO4.6	Sur Futuro	Dominican Republic	October 1, 2005 – September 30, 2007	68,069	51,884	119,953	158,060	191,842	469,855	
31	754VENO5.23	Opportunitas II	Venezuela	October 1, 2005 – September 30, 2008	53,664	96,345	150,009	225,012	225,013	600,034	
32	753COLO5.28	F. ExE	Colombia	October 1, 2005 –July 31, 2008	74,066	90,508	164,573	237,713	243,714	646,000	
33	750COLO5.27	F.Luker	Colombia	October 1, 2005 – September 30, 2007	81,740	131,282	213,022	180,000	33,887	426,909	33,887
34	781BRAO5.37	IH Scaleup	Brazil	January 1, 2006 – July 30, 2008	227,650	2,083,824	2,311,474	929,202	2,100,840	5,341,516	2,100,840
35	664BELO3.3	University of Belize	Belize	March 1, 2006 – September 30, 2007	20,000	51,825	71,825	262,300	220	334,345	
		TOTAL			1,979,785	5,594,836	7,574,621	7,087,273	8,189,390	22,851,284	

C.   Sources of Match Funding

Corporations
Lucent
Gap Inc.
Merrill Lynch
Microsoft
Nike
Nokia
Shell
Unocal
Telefonica
Foundations
Cleveland Foundation
Community Foundation of Southern Michigan
FCYF
IYF
Governments
Municipality of Manizales (Colombia)
Ministry of Tourism (Brazil)
Municipality of Cordoba (Argentina)
Municipality of Medellin (Colombia)
State Secretariat of Guanajuato (Mexico)
Multilateral Organizations
Unicef
USAID

D.   Year in Which Match Funds Secured
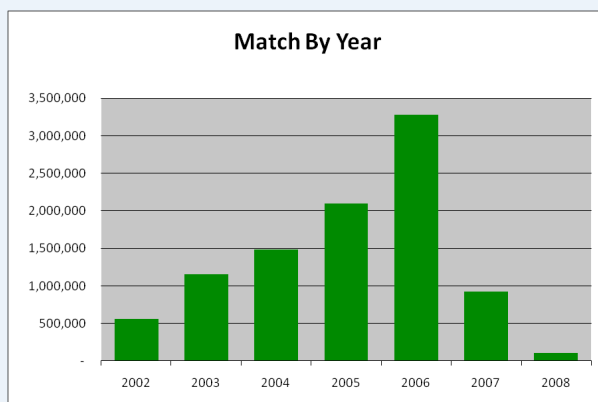
E. Local Counterpart Funds Raised by Project

ACHNU	$153,055	F. ExE	$164,573
ACJ/YMCA	$86,550	F. Luker	$213,022
ADEC	$137,730	IH	$170,531
Agape	$183,784	IH Scaleup	$2,311,474
AHUB	$138,459	Indufrial	$123,603
Alternativa	$163,304	Instituto Alianca	$209,273
Blusoft	$207,176	ISA	$163,748
CADERH	$98,164	ITDG	$96,082
CEPRO	$194,558	Kolping	$70,508
CIPEC	$205,323	Opportunitas	$107,878
CIRD	$138,112	Opportunitas Phase II	$150,009
Comfacauca	$119,158	Partners	$207,981
Comfenalco	$244,147	Quipus	$173,722
Comfenalco Phase II	$257,200	Sepijc	$96,500
Cospae	$197,032	SES	$139,617
Don Bosco	$104,166	Sur Futuro	$119,953
Esquel	$154,186	University of Belize	$71,825
F. Chile	$202,219	TOTAL	$7,574,621

The tables which follow do not include data from IH-2 (Scale up) or Fundacion Esquel-Ecuador as they were not available as of December 2007.

F.   Demographic Data on Youth Enrolled – Age

Project	Under 20	20-24 years	25 and over
ADEC	47.3%	47.3%	5.4%
AGAPE	31.3%	50.8%	17.9%
AHUB	95.3%	.0%	4.7%
ALTERNATIVA	17.0%	66.4%	16.6%
CADERH	41.5%	38.5%	20.0%
CEPRO	93.0%	.2%	6.8%
CIPEC	74.3%	24.1%	1.7%
CIRD	36.0%	57.2%	6.8%
COMFACAUCA	27.7%	49.2%	23.1%
COMFENALCO I	49.1%	39.5%	11.4%
COMFENALCO II	44.7%	42.2%	13.1%
COSPAE	28.3%	47.2%	24.5%
FCH	59.6%	27.5%	12.8%
IAA	63.7%	36.3%	.0%
IH	88.8%	11.2%	.0%
INDUFRIAL	36.7%	55.0%	8.3%
ISA	27.3%	54.8%	18.0%
OPPORTUNITAS	39.8%	41.3%	18.9%
POA	47.8%	49.5%	2.8%
QUIPUS	32.7%	46.1%	21.2%
SALESIANOS	53.6%	43.2%	3.3%
SES	51.5%	41.1%	7.4%
ACHNU	38.6%	38.3%	23.1%
ACJ	56.8%	22.5%	20.8%
BLUSOFT	78.8%	14.2%	7.0%
ExE	80.1%	19.1%	.8%
FSF	31.4%	40.3%	28.3%
ITDG	45.6%	29.1%	25.2%
KOLPING	38.2%	34.9%	26.9%
LUKER	79.4%	16.6%	4.0%
OPPORTUNITAS	35.4%	36.4%	28.3%
SEPICJ	40.7%	28.6%	30.6%
UB	45.5%	33.3%	21.2%
TOTAL PROJECTS	51%	37%	12%

G. Demographics – Education

Project	Less than Secondary	Secondary Completed	More than Secondary
ADEC	40.5%	58.3%	1.2%
AGAPE	2.0%	86.0%	11.9%
AHUB	95.3%	4.7%	.0%
ALTERNATIVA	2.0%	10.8%	87.2%
CADERH	14.5%	72.1%	13.3%
CEPRO	96.3%	3.0%	.7%
CIPEC	2.3%	68.0%	29.7%
CIRD	11.2%	78.8%	10.0%
COMFACAUCA	.5%	88.3%	11.2%
COMFENALCO I	2.2%	96.3%	1.6%
COMFENALCO II	.2%	99.5%	.3%
COSPAE	.3%	76.8%	22.8%
FCH	13.5%	72.3%	14.1%
IAA	17.6%	80.3%	2.1%
IH	99.2%	.8%	.0%
INDUFRIAL	.7%	74.7%	24.7%
ISA	1.5%	87.9%	10.6%
OPPORTUNITAS	22.4%	70.9%	6.7%
POA	35.3%	47.4%	17.3%
QUIPUS	19.0%	80.1%	.8%
SALESIANOS	32.8%	63.4%	3.8%
SES	47.9%	35.8%	16.4%
ACHNU	1.4%	89.0%	9.6%
ACJ	56.8%	32.5%	10.8%
BLUSOFT	55.8%	36.5%	7.7%
ExE	.0%	88.1%	11.9%
FSF	15.6%	67.2%	17.2%
ITDG	.4%	69.6%	30.0%
KOLPING	84.0%	9.9%	6.1%
LUKER	12.3%	74.3%	13.4%
OPPORTUNITAS	3.0%	88.9%	8.1%
SEPICJ	.0%	98.2%	1.8%
UB	2.2%	84.1%	13.7%
TOTAL PROJECTS	23%	64%	13%

H.   Demographics-Enrollment Status at Baseline

Project	Enrollment Status	
	Not Enrolled	Enrolled
ADEC	58.1%	41.9%
AGAPE	84.0%	16.0%
AHUB	3.7%	96.3%
ALTERNATIVA	83.2%	16.8%
CADERH	81.2%	18.8%
CEPRO	3.0%	97.0%
CIPEC	93.3%	6.7%
CIRD	33.6%	66.4%
COMFACAUCA	99.2%	.8%
COMFENALCO I	100.0%	.0%
COMFENALCO II	100.0%	.0%
COSPAE	99.2%	.8%
FCH	77.7%	22.3%
IAA	66.6%	33.4%
IH	3.0%	97.0%
INDUFRIAL	99.7%	.3%
ISA	85.1%	14.9%
OPPORTUNITAS	69.0%	31.0%
POA	58.5%	41.5%
QUIPUS	83.5%	16.5%
SALESIANOS	86.1%	13.9%
SES	45.0%	55.0%
ACHNU	93.2%	6.8%
ACJ	65.0%	35.0%
BLUSOFT	34.1%	65.9%
ExE	94.0%	6.0%
FSF	73.9%	26.1%
ITDG	76.8%	23.2%
KOLPING	56.1%	43.9%
LUKER	74.6%	25.4%
OPPORTUNITAS	84.8%	15.2%
SEPICJ	98.2%	1.8%
UB	92.2%	7.8%
TOTAL PROJECTS	71%	29%

I. Demographics – Type of Educational Institution Enrolled – Baseline

	Basic Education	Secondary	Academy	Tertiary	Other
ADEC	.0%	31.8%	28.2%	22.4%	17.6%
AGAPE	.0%	3.5%	93.0%	3.5%	.0%
AHUB	.8%	86.9%	12.0%	.0%	.3%
ALTERNATIVA	.0%	.0%	30.0%	68.6%	1.4%
CADERH	.0%	35.5%	3.2%	53.2%	8.1%
CEPRO	4.5%	94.6%	.2%	.7%	.0%
CIPEC	.0%	6.3%	50.0%	3.1%	40.6%
CIRD	.0%	14.8%	63.6%	18.1%	3.6%
COMFACAUCA	.0%	.0%	.0%	33.3%	66.7%
COMFENALCO I	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%
COMFENALCO II	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%
COSPAE	.0%	66.7%	33.3%	.0%	.0%
FCH	.0%	47.5%	13.1%	13.1%	26.3%
IAA	.8%	31.8%	6.2%	6.2%	55.0%
IH	2.6%	94.7%	.9%	.0%	1.9%
INDUFRIAL	.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%	.0%
ISA	.0%	.0%	4.3%	95.7%	.0%
OPPORTUNITAS	.8%	35.5%	21.8%	4.0%	37.9%
POA	3.3%	43.3%	35.0%	18.3%	.0%
QUIPUS	2.0%	54.5%	20.2%	19.2%	4.0%
SALESIANOS	.0%	80.4%	2.0%	15.7%	2.0%
SES	.4%	61.7%	10.0%	27.1%	.7%
ACHNU	.0%	16.7%	50.0%	33.3%	n/a
ACJ	6.4%	73.6%	9.3%	10.7%	n/a
BLUSOFT	3.6%	73.4%	15.3%	7.7%	n/a
ExE	.0%	.0%	58.1%	41.9%	n/a
FSF	3.2%	44.7%	36.2%	16.0%	n/a
ITDG	.0%	1.2%	48.5%	50.3%	n/a
KOLPING	.0%	73.1%	17.2%	9.7%	n/a
LUKER	9.0%	33.7%	24.7%	32.6%	n/a
OPPORTUNITAS	.0%	20.0%	66.7%	13.3%	n/a
SEPICJ	.0%	.0%	62.5%	37.5%	n/a
UB	.0%	4.0%	12.0%	84.0%	n/a
TOTAL PROJECTS	1.9%	57.7%	19.6%	14.8%	5.7%

N/A –the option "Other" was not available for these projects

J.   Job History at Baseline

Project	Have you worked before?	
	Yes	No
ADEC	81.8%	18.2%
AGAPE	40.0%	60.0%
AHUB	10.3%	89.7%
ALTERNATIVA	72.2%	27.8%
CADERH	100.0%	.0%
CEPRO	24.4%	75.6%
CIPEC	83.3%	16.7%
CIRD	60.2%	39.8%
COMFACAUCA	59.6%	40.4%
COMFENALCO I	.0%	100.0%
COMFENALCO II	13.4%	86.6%
COSPAE	61.5%	38.5%
FCH	66.9%	33.1%
IAA	47.4%	52.6%
IH	17.0%	83.0%
INDUFRIAL	39.7%	60.3%
ISA	48.1%	51.9%
OPPORTUNITAS	67.5%	32.5%
POA	57.8%	42.2%
QUIPUS	61.4%	38.6%
SALESIANOS	52.7%	47.3%
SES	70.8%	29.2%
ACHNU	81.1%	18.9%
ACJ	61.8%	38.3%
BLUSOFT	59.1%	40.9%
ExE	62.4%	37.6%
FSF	37.5%	62.5%
ITDG	66.0%	34.0%
KOLPING	70.3%	29.7%
LUKER	43.4%	56.6%
OPPORTUNITAS	76.8%	23.2%
SEPICJ	83.4%	16.6%
UB	50.2%	49.8%
TOTAL PROJECTS	54%	46%

K. Employment Status at Baseline ("Are you currently working?")

Project	Working	Not Working
ADEC	22.0%	78.0%
AGAPE	7.0%	93.0%
AHUB	46.2%	53.8%
ALTERNATIVA	36.6%	63.4%
CADERH	7.3%	92.7%
CEPRO	31.7%	68.3%
CIPEC	10.1%	89.9%
CIRD	17.6%	82.4%
COMFACAUCA	18.8%	81.3%
COMFENALCO I	.0%	.0%
COMFENALCO II	7.9%	92.1%
COSPAE	.0%	100.0%
FCH	17.3%	82.7%
IAA	16.4%	83.6%
IH	8.8%	91.2%
INDUFRIAL	23.5%	76.5%
ISA	43.7%	56.3%
OPPORTUNITAS	12.8%	87.2%
POA	24.0%	76.0%
QUIPUS	51.4%	48.6%
SALESIANOS	29.0%	71.0%
SES	49.1%	50.9%
ACHNU	16.7%	83.3%
ACJ	6.5%	93.5%
BLUSOFT	45.9%	54.1%
ExE	6.9%	93.1%
FSF	25.2%	74.8%
ITDG	29.8%	70.2%
KOLPING	28.2%	71.8%
LUKER	19.1%	80.9%
OPPORTUNITAS	13.2%	86.8%
SEPICJ	50.1%	49.9%
UB	17.4%	82.6%

L. Completion Rates

Project and Country		Enrolled	Graduated	Dropped out
PAO	Guatemala	289	266	23
Comfenalco	Colombia	511	464	47
COSPAE	Panama	600	508	92
Alternativa	Peru	446	367	79
CIRD	Paraguay	500	429	71
INDUFRIAL	Colombia	300	292	8
Quipus	Bolivia	599	461	138
AGAPE	El Salvador	537	497	40
Comfacauca	Colombia	376	313	47
CADERH	Honduras	330	305	25
IH	Brazil	600	546	34
Comfenalco II	Colombia	664	606	58
SES	Argentina	489	383	106
CEPRO	Brazil	570	474	96
FCH	Chile	716	671	45
ISA	Dom. Republic	462	445	17
CIPEC	Mexico	478	416	62
Opportunitas	Venezuela	407	310	64
Don Bosco	Nicaragua	366	214	152
IAA	Brazil	386	347	38
AHUB	Brazil	380	324	55
ADEC	Argentina	406	336	46
LUKER	Colombia	350	295	47
ITDG	Peru	721	597	124
SEPICJ	Mexico	447	407	40
ACJ	Honduras	400	333	67
KOLPING	Uruguay	212	176	36
FSF	Dominican Republic	360	347	13
BLUSOFT	Brazil	416	372	44
UB	Belize	321	286	23
ACHNU	Chile	355	321	34
OPPORTUNITAS	Venezuela	99	84	12
EXE	Colombia	513	453	60
TOTAL		14606	12645	1843

M. Training Hours by Project

	Total hours	Technical	Life skills	Job seeking	Internship
ISA	721	280	78	6	357
QUIPUS	375	165	45	45	120
AGAPE	580	370	45	45	120
COSPAE	390	140	70	20	160
ALTERNATIVA	406	180	60	6	160
CIRD	620	200	70	30	320
IH	522	88	258	96	80
CEPRO	510	163	167	33	147
IAA	736	296	204	60	176
AHUB	660	380	120	40	120
BLUSOFT	730	280	80	20	350
COMFENALCO I	930	400	120	110	300
CADERH	517	390	30	100	200
CIPEC	920	200	120	110	490
FCH	535	335	50	50	100
INDUFRIAL	860	380	80	40	360
SES	545	185	180	60	120
ADEC	649	127	60	12	450
COMFACAUCA	790	500	20	20	250
COMFENALCO II	1210	500	120	110	480
OPPORTUNITAS I	654	322	56	36	240
Partners/CADI	477	180	125	12	160
SALESIANOS	497	240	45	152	60
ACHNU	560	200	220	20	120
ACJ	775	175	320	40	240
ExE	1116	460	120	96	440
FSF	612	200	80	140	192
ITDG	270	180	20	20	50
KOLPING	374	200	50	24	100
LUKER	774	394	140	40	200
OPPORTUNITAS II	657	331	66	20	240
SEPICJ	880	380	240	80	180
UB	320	160	20	20	120
Average	647	272	105	52	218

N.   Self Perceptions at Exit

Youth Perceptions re Skill Levels	Confident %	Somewhat Confident %	Not Confident %	Not Sure %
ICT	84.8	13.2	0.5	1.5
Workplace Behavior	87.2	11.2	0.5	1.2
Doing a CV	82.1	14.9	1.6	1.4
Interviewing	79.3	18.0	1.0	1.8
Job seeking	71.6	22.3	4.0	2.1

O.   Types of Problems with Job Placement for Graduates as Reported by EAs According to Course Type

Course Type/Reason	1	2	3	4	5	6
Basic Applications	12	23	51	26	0	3
PC Maintenance &Repair	11	17	22	14	3	2
Systems and Networks	28	34	80	17	23	1
Total number of courses per response	51	74	153	57	26	6

1- no problems
2- did not meet employers expectations
3- no jobs available
4- not able to set up own micro business
5- youth in school, military service
6- youth expectations not in line with market needs

P.   Utility of Internships – Percentage of Youth

Percentage Youth by Project	Not useful	Somewhat useful	Useful	Unsure
ADEC	3.6%	25.3%	57.4%	13.7%
AGAPE	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%
AHUB	25.2%	8.4%	58.6%	7.8%
ALTERNATIVA	12.3%	27.4%	57.0%	3.3%
CADERH	1.0%	11.5%	87.2%	0.3%
CEPRO	34.2%	12.4%	52.1%	1.3%
CIPEC	31.7%	21.9%	45.0%	1.4%
CIRD	13.2%	29.5%	52.8%	4.6%
COMFACAUCA	17.9%	19.9%	62.2%	0.0%

COMFENALCO I	2.2%	16.8%	79.5%	1.5%
COMFENALCO II	1.8%	21.1%	76.7%	0.3%
COSPAE	8.1%	23.6%	67.1%	1.2%
FCH	1.9%	20.1%	77.5%	0.4%
IAA	0.9%	23.1%	76.1%	0.0%
IH	14.1%	17.9%	62.4%	5.6%
INDUFRIAL	0.0%	4.8%	95.2%	0.0%
ISA	0.2%	12.2%	87.6%	0.0%
OPPORTUNITAS	10.0%	17.8%	70.9%	1.3%
POA	2.3%	16.9%	79.7%	1.1%
QUIPUS	2.8%	26.7%	69.2%	1.3%
SALESIANOS	19.8%	19.8%	53.4%	6.9%
SES	4.7%	15.4%	79.1%	0.8%
ACHNU	4.0%	25.4%	68.8%	1.8%
ACJ	1.6%	22.5%	75.9%	0.0%
BLUSOFT	4.0%	33.6%	62.4%	0.0%
ExE	3.1%	30.1%	66.6%	0.2%
FSF	1.7%	12.8%	85.5%	0.0%
ITDG	4.2%	23.4%	71.5%	0.9%
KOLPING	3.7%	27.6%	68.7%	0.0%
LUKER	3.8%	19.0%	77.2%	0.0%
OPPORTUNITAS	14.5%	30.9%	54.5%	0.0%
SEPICJ	0.0%	15.4%	84.6%	0.0%
UB	0.7%	11.9%	87.4%	0.0%
Average/Total	8	20	71	1

Q. Did you ever work for the company/office where you did your internship?

Frequency	Valid Percentage
Yes, currently	20.5
Yes, for a while	14.1
No	65.4

Annex II

A. Employment Rates at Ex Post

Project and Country	Work Status at Ex Post	Percent
ADEC – Argentina	Not Working	41.8
	Working with Salary	58.2
AGAPE – El Salvador	Not Working	40.9
	Working with Salary	59.1
AHUB – Brazil	Not Working	43.5
	Working with Salary	56.5
Alternativa – Peru	Not Working	32.0
	Working with Salary	68.0
CADERH – Honduras	Not Working	64.7
	Working with Salary	35.3
CEPRO – Brazil	Not Working	44.9
	Working with Salary	55.1
CIPEC – Mexico	Not Working	52.0
	Working with Salary	48.0
CIRD – Paraguay	Not Working	58.3
	Working with Salary	41.7
Comfenalco I – Colombia	Not Working	54.1
	Working with Salary	45.9
Comfenalco II – Colombia	Not Working	25.9
	Working with Salary	74.1
COSPAE – Panama	Not Working	51.9
	Working with Salary	48.1
Fundación Chile Chile	Not Working	45.4
	Working with Salary	54.6
IAA – Brazil	Not Working	49.1
	Working with Salary	50.9
IH – Brazil	Not Working	33.3
	Working with Salary	66.7
Indufrial – Colombia	Not Working	57.7
	Working with Salary	42.3
ISA – Dominican Republic	Not Working	45.7
	Working with Salary	54.3
Opportunitas – Venezuela	Not Working	47.1
	Working with Salary	52.9
Quipus – Bolivia	Not Working	50.6
	Working with Salary	49.4

Salesianos – Nicaragua	Not Working	45.0
	Working with Salary	55.0
ACHNU – Chile	Not Working	47.4
	Working with Salary	52.6
ACJ – Honduras	Not Working	68.3
	Working with Salary	31.7
Blusoft – Brazil	Not Working	18.0
	Working with Salary	82.0
Sur Futuro – Dominican Republic	Not Working	86.4
	Working with Salary	13.6
ITDG – Peru	Not Working	51.8
	Working with Salary	48.2
Kolping – Uruguay	Not Working	30.9
	Working with Salary	69.1
Luker – Colombia	Not Working	38.6
	Working with Salary	61.4
SEPICJ – Mexico	Not Working	43.3
	Working with Salary	56.7
UB – Belize	Not Working	44.9
	Working with Salary	55.1

B.   Benefits by Type for Working Youth

	Frequency	**Valid Percent**
Any benefits	Has	76.1
	No Benefits	23.9
	Total	100.0
Vacation	Frequency	Valid Percent
	0	42.1
	Has this Benefit	57.9
	Total	100.0
Retirement	Frequency	Valid Percent
	0	59.5
	Has this Benefit	40.5
	Total	100.0
Health Benefits	Frequency	Valid Percent
	0	46.7
	Has this Benefit	53.3
	Total	100.0
End of Year Bonus	Frequency	Valid Percent

	0	51.9
	Has this Benefit	48.1
	Total	100.0
Other	Frequency	Valid Percent
	0	71.6
	Has this Benefit	28.4
	Total	100.0

C. Type of Work Ex Post

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Permanent	672	58.2
	Temporary	324	28.1
	Seasonal/Occasional	159	13.8
	Total	1155	100.0

D. Employment Rates – Gender

		Working with Salary		Total	
		Not Working	Working with Salary	Not Working	
Female	Count	605	559	1164	
	% Within	52.0	48.0	100.0	
Male	Count	419	654	1073	
	% Within	39.0	61.0	100.0	
Total	Count	1024	1213	2237	
	% Within	45.8	54.2	100.0	

E. Employment Rates – By Age

			Working with Salary		Total
			Not Working	Working with Salary	Not Working
Age at follow-up recorded	Under 20	% Within age at follow-up recorded	49.3	50.7	100.0
	20-24	% Within age at follow-up recorded	45.0	55.0	100.0
	25+	% Within age at follow-up recorded	40.9	59.1	100.0
Total		% Within age at follow-up recorded	45.8	54.2	100.0

F. Employment Rates – Education

			Working with Salary		Total
			Not Working	Working with Salary	Not Working
Recorded Follow-Up Education	Less than secondary school completion	% Within recorded follow-up education	47.9	52.1	100.0
	Completed secondary school	% Within recorded follow-up education	45.8	54.2	100.0
	Attended but did not complete university/ tertiary school	% Within recorded follow-up education	46.9	53.1	100.0
	Completed university/ tertiary school	% Within recorded follow-up education	41.2	58.8	100.0
Total		% Within recorded follow-up education	45.8	54.2	100.0

G. Correlation Education and Salary Levels Ex-Post

Salary Level Ex-Post	Education Level Ex-Post				Total
	Less than Secondary School Completion	Completed Secondary School	Some Tertiary School	Completed Tertiary School	
Less than Minimum Wage	36.3%	28.7%	21.8%	19.7%	26.0%
Minimum Wage through 110% Included	22.5%	23.8%	23.9%	23.2%	23.6%
Greater than 110% to 150% Included	26.3%	25.3%	30.9%	40.8%	29.8%
Greater than 150%	15.0%	22.2%	23.4%	16.2%	20.6%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-Sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	19.718(a)	9	.020
Liklihood Ratio	19.334	9	.022
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.617	1	.010

For education and salary levels

H. Correlation Age and Minimum Wage

		Age Ex-Post			Total
		Under 20	20-24	25+	
Wage levels	Less than Minimum Wage	27.4%	26.6%	22.4%	26.0%
	Minimum Wage through 110% Included	23.6%	24.9%	20.3%	23.6%
	Greater than 110% to 150% Included	28.3%	30.8%	30.1%	29.8%
	Greater than 150%	20.7%	17.8%	27.3%	20.6%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-Sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.608(a)	6	.359
Liklihood Ratio	6.443	6	.375
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.249	1	.134

I. Training Hours X Employment Status (Cross Tab)

			Working with Salary		Total
			Not Working	Working with Salary	
Training Hours	150 or Less Hours	% Within Training Hours Categories	44.7	55.3	100.0
		% Within Working with Salary	19.6	20.5	20.1
	151-300 Hours	% Within Training Hours Categories	46.7	53.3	100.0
		% Within Working with Salary	49.1	47.4	48.2
	More than 300 Hours	% Within Training Hours Categories	45.2	54.8	100.0
		% Within Working with Salary	31.3	32.1	31.7
Total		% Within Training Hours Categories	45.8	54.2	100.0

J. Correlation Training Hours X Employment Status

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Female01	-.531	.086	37.773	1	.000	.588
Ed2	.094	.465	.508	1	.476	1.099
Ed3	.020	.145	.020	1	.888	1.021
Ed4	.186	.179	1.088	1	.297	1.205
P82	.034	.014	5.413	1	.020	1.034
Medium Hours	-.064	.114	.316	1	.574	.938
High Hours	-.024	.126	.037	1	.848	.976
Constant	-.298	.319	.876	1	.349	.742

K. Female Employment-Regression Controlling for Education and Age

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta	B	Std. Error
(Constant)	.981	.165		5.958	.000
Female	-.212	.048	-.162	-4.425	.000
Educ3 = 4 (Secondary School Completion)	.132	.082	.101	1.605	.109
Educ3 = 5 (Some University/Tertiary)	.161	.088	.108	1.822	.069
Educ3 = 6 (Completed University/Tertiary)	.132	.095	.080	1.393	.164
Age	.010	.008	.051	1.320	.187

a Dependent Variable: Percent Minimum Wage

L. Connectedness Cross Tabs

			Connected Ex Post		Total
			Not Connected	Connected	
Connected at Baseline	Not Connected	% Within Connected at Baseline	30.2	69.8	100.0
		% Within Connected Ex Post	74.3	57.5	61.8
	Connected	% Within Connected at Baseline	16.8	83.2	100.0
		% Within Connected Ex Post	25.7	42.5	38.2
Total		% Within Connected at Baseline	25.1	74.9	100.0
		% Within Connected Ex Post	100.0	100.0	100.0

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