


**MAKERERE UNIVERSITY**

**COLLEGE OF BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES**

**SCHOOL OF STATISTICS AND PLANNING**

# EFFECT OF TERTIARY-EDUCATION–JOB SKILL MISMATCH ON YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT IN KAMPALA

**BY**

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## DECLARATION

I, **NTEGYEREIZE TOM,** declare that this dissertation is my original work. It has not been submitted to any university or institution for the award of any academic qualification. All sources of information used have been duly acknowledged.

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## APPROVAL

This dissertation has been submitted for examination with my approval as the designated University Supervisor.

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## DEDICATION

This dissertation is lovingly dedicated to my mother, **KORUHENDA PEACE**, whose unwavering love, constant prayers, encouragement, and sacrifices have been a pillar of strength throughout my academic journey.

Her steadfast support, wise counsel, and belief in my abilities have inspired me to persevere through challenges and remain committed to achieving my educational goals. Her continuous prayers and words of encouragement have provided me with hope, confidence, and determination at every stage of my studies.

The successful completion of this dissertation is a testament to the values she instilled in me and the immense role she has played in shaping my life. I am deeply grateful for her enduring influence, and I dedicate this achievement to her with profound love, respect, and appreciation.

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## LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

**AOR:** Adjusted Odds Ratio

**CFYE**: Challenge Fund for Youth Employment

**CI:** Confidence Interval

**EPRC:** Economic Policy Research Centre

**GDP:** Gross Domestic Product

**ILO:** International Labour Organization

**SSM:** Soft Skill Mismatch

**TSM:** Technical Skill Mismatch

**UBOS:** Uganda Bureau of Statistics

**UNDP:** United Nations Development Programme

**UNESCO:** United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

**VIF:** Variance Inflation Factor

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## ABSTRACT

Youth unemployment remains a critical socio-economic challenge globally and within urban centers like Kampala, Uganda, where high educational attainment frequently paradoxically coincides with elevated joblessness. This study examines the effect of tertiary education–job skill mismatch on youth unemployment in Kampala. Specifically, the research evaluates three key dimensions of skill mismatch: technical skill mismatch, soft skill mismatch, and curriculum relevance in relation to graduate employment outcomes.

Adopting a cross-sectional research design and a quantitative approach, data were collected from a sample of tertiary education graduates and analyzed using descriptive statistics and binary logistic regression models. The findings reveal that technical skill mismatch and soft skill mismatch are significant determinants of youth unemployment. Specifically, the lack of practical hands-on experience and poor alignment of technical skills with labour market demands drastically increase the likelihood of unemployment, with adjusted odds ratios highlighting severe employment penalties for ill-prepared graduates. Similarly, deficiencies in essential soft skills—notably communication competencies and the recognized value of soft skills in the workplace—significantly elevate unemployment risks. Furthermore, curriculum relevance, particularly through structured internship opportunities and course content alignment, plays a vital role in enhancing graduate employability and job retention.

The study concludes that reducing youth unemployment in Kampala requires multi-faceted policy interventions and institutional reforms. Tertiary institutions must heavily integrate practical hands-on training, embed robust soft-skill development into academic programs, and forge proactive partnerships with industry stakeholders to ensure continuous curriculum updates. Collaborative frameworks involving government bodies, employers, and higher education institutions are essential to bridge the skills gap and foster sustainable employment outcomes for young graduates.

# CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1. Background of the Study

Youth unemployment is a severe global problem that is often linked to a mismatch between education and job requirements. Worldwide, about 16% of young people were unemployed in 2022 (UNESCO, World Bank & ILO, 2022), a rate far higher than for the overall adult population. At the same time, reports estimate that in 57 of 108 countries, more than half of all workers hold jobs that do not match their level of education (SAP News Center, 2022). In fact, "hundreds of millions of young people find themselves unemployed and unemployable, lacking the right skills to take up the jobs available" (SAP News Center, 2022). This skills gap – the difference between what people are taught and what employers need (Uganda Bureau of Statistics [UBOS], 2022) – has become a major concern everywhere. One reason is that the global economy is moving towards high-tech and green industries that require new technical and digital skills (SAP News Center, 2022). Young people without these skills often cannot get good jobs, so many end up idle or working informally. Globally, about one quarter of youth are not in education, employment or training, and this share is nearly one-third for young women (UNESCO, World Bank & ILO, 2022). In short, educated young people often struggle to enter the labour market because their training does not match current demands (SAP News Center, 2022; UBOS, 2022).

Similar patterns appear in many countries. For example, even wealthier countries see a mismatch problem: as one study notes, in dozens of nations over half of the workforce are "over-educated" for the jobs they hold (SAP News Center, 2022). In developing regions, the situation can be even more striking. Some crisis-hit countries illustrate this well. In Lebanon, youth unemployment (ages 15–24) jumped from 23% in 2018 to 47.8% in 2022 (United Nations Development Programme [UNDP], 2022), far above the national average, as economic turmoil crushed job opportunities. Observers there point out that the education system was slow to adapt to market needs, leaving a "constant mismatch between market needs and the education curricula" (UNDP, 2022). Technical and digital skills were especially lacking long before the crisis (UNDP, 2022). The result was that many universities and technical school graduates could not find work matching their studies, even as businesses reported skill shortages in areas like engineering and IT. Critics of the global development narrative even argue that simply blaming youth unemployment on a "skills

mismatch" can oversimplify the problem (Economic Policy Research Centre [EPRC], 2023). Indeed, merely expanding access to education without improving quality and relevance may worsen the mismatch. For example, one global report on technical and vocational training warned that many low- and middle-income countries focus on what they know (usually academic skills) rather than what students or firms actually need (UNESCO, World Bank & ILO, 2022), contributing to the unemployed youth problem. In short, at both global and regional levels, statistics and analyses consistently show that young graduates face high joblessness when their studies do not align with labour market needs (SAP News Center, 2022; UNDP, 2022).

Sub-Saharan Africa reflects these trends in its own way. The region's youth unemployment rate was about 8.9% in 2023 (International Labour Organization [ILO], 2024), which is slightly below pre-pandemic levels but still represents millions of people. This modest decline in the percentage masks a huge number of young people without jobs, because the youth labour force has grown very fast. In fact, economic growth in many African countries has been "jobless" – GDP rose but jobs did not increase enough – largely because labour supply outpaced demand (ILO, 2024; EPRC, 2023). Moreover, there is big variation across countries: from 2019 to 2023, twenty-seven of forty-seven African countries saw youth unemployment rise (ILO, 2024). A worrying feature is the gender gap: on average, young African women are more likely to be unemployed than young men (ILO, 2024), a pattern linked to social and economic barriers. These regional facts set the stage for examining national situations. In many African nations, graduates report being overqualified or having outdated skills, while employers still claim shortages in technical fields. This suggests that simply having more young people in school does not guarantee they will find appropriate jobs.

Uganda provides a clear case of these global and regional challenges on a local scale. The country has one of the world's youngest populations – more than 75% of Ugandans are under age 30 (World Bank, 2023) – and its working-age population is growing rapidly. Roughly a million young people enter the job market each year (Challenge Fund for Youth Employment [CFYE], 2019), yet the economy does not create enough formal jobs for them. As a result, youth unemployment in Uganda has remained high. Surveys report that about 13.3% of Ugandan youth (aged 18–30) were unemployed around 2016–2017 (World Bank, 2023). More recent labour force data show this rate climbing: the Uganda National Labour Force Survey found youth unemployment at 17% in 2021 (UBOS, 2022). Urban areas are even worse; for example, Kampala – the capital and largest

city – had an estimated 21% of its youth out of work by 2017 (CFYE, 2019). These figures emphasize that many young Ugandans who want to work cannot find appropriate jobs.

Another puzzling fact in Uganda is that better-educated youth often fare worse in the job market. National analyses show that unemployment is lower among those with no schooling or only primary education, and higher for those with secondary schooling or above (Sciendo, 2021). One survey found that young people who had completed tertiary education were more likely to be jobless than those with only primary schooling (CFYE, 2019). Similarly, a recent study noted that 30% of Ugandan graduates end up working in jobs that do not use their qualifications (EPRC, 2023). These findings highlight a clear mismatch: many universities and vocational graduates cannot use their skills in Uganda's current economy. Young people interviewed in Kampala put it bluntly – after years of study, a degree can feel "useless" if it does not lead to a job (World Bank, 2023). Employers and analysts echo this concern, pointing to outdated curricula and weak links between colleges and industry.

These national patterns echo what has been observed elsewhere. Across Africa and Asia, research has found that simple expansion of higher education without improving its relevance can leave graduates stranded. For instance, a World Bank-commissioned study noted that most Ugandan students hope their degrees will get them "well-paid dream jobs by age 30," but in reality many are forced into low-skill work or entrepreneurship out of necessity (World Bank, 2023). Other countries report the same paradox: Bangladesh, Cambodia and Nigeria have documented skilled youth unable to find matching jobs despite economic growth. In Uganda, the combined effect of many graduates, limited industries, and a rural economy dominated by subsistence farming means that even "educated" youth can end up unemployed or under-employed.

In summary, evidence from international and national sources suggests that youth unemployment in Kampala and Uganda is strongly connected to how well education meets labour market needs. Globally, millions of young people are disadvantaged when their skills do not match available jobs (SAP News Center, 2022; UNESCO, World Bank & ILO, 2022). In Uganda, this mismatch is seen in statistical paradoxes (more education but more joblessness) and personal testimonies (graduates disappointed by skills irrelevance) (Sciendo, 2021; World Bank, 2023). The challenge is compounded by rapid population growth and an economy that struggles to create formal jobs. Together, these facts make it clear that addressing youth unemployment in Kampala will require a

critical look at the skills delivered by tertiary education and how these align with the real needs of employers.

### 1.2. Problem statement

Many young people in Kampala complete tertiary education but still cannot find work that uses their skills, and this problem has worsened as more youth continue to enter the labour market each year. Uganda continues to experience high youth unemployment, with the national rate reported at about 17% in 2021, while Kampala faces even greater pressure because it attracts many graduates seeking formal employment. Around three in ten graduates end up in jobs that do not use their qualifications, which shows a clear technical mismatch between what is taught in tertiary institutions and what the labour market requires. Employers and students also report that many college programmes emphasise theory more than practical digital, technical, and soft skills, leaving graduates inadequately prepared for available jobs. At the same time, the relevance of tertiary curricula remains a concern because many programmes are not updated quickly enough to reflect changing labour market demands. These gaps contribute to long job searches, underemployment, and movement into informal work among graduates in Kampala. This study therefore examines how technical skill mismatch, soft skill mismatch, and curriculum relevance affect youth employment outcomes in Kampala.

### 1.3. General Objective of the study

The general objective of the study is to examine how the mismatch between skills acquired through tertiary education and the skills demanded by the job market affects the level of youth unemployment in Kampala.

### 1.4. Specific objectives

1. To determine the extent to which technical skill mismatch from tertiary education influences the rate of youth unemployment in Kampala.
2. To assess the relationship between soft skill mismatch and youth employability levels in Kampala.

3. To measure the effect of curriculum relevance in tertiary institutions on youth employment outcomes in Kampala.

### 1.5. Research Questions

1. To what extent does technical skill mismatch from tertiary education influence the rate of youth unemployment in Kampala?
2. What is the relationship between soft skill mismatch and youth employability levels in Kampala?
3. How does the relevance of tertiary education curricula affect youth employment outcomes in Kampala?

### 1.6. Scope of the Study

#### Content Scope

The study focuses on examining the effect of tertiary education job skill mismatch on youth unemployment in Kampala. It specifically addresses three dimensions of skill mismatch: technical skill mismatch, soft skill mismatch, and curriculum relevance in relation to labor market needs. The study is limited to quantitatively analyzing how these factors influence youth employment outcomes, excluding other variables such as government policies, family background, or general economic conditions.

#### Geographical Scope

The study is geographically confined to Kampala District, Uganda's capital city, which hosts the largest number of tertiary institutions and youth job seekers. The research focused on graduates from tertiary institutions located within Kampala and employers operating in the same area.

#### Time Scope

The study covers the period up to December 2025, focusing on data and trends relevant to this timeframe to reflect current and emerging dynamics between tertiary education skill outputs and youth unemployment levels in Kampala.

### 1.7. Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework illustrates the relationship between Tertiary Education Job Skill Mismatch (independent variables) and Employment Status (dependent variable) among youth graduates in Kampala. The study assumes that mismatches in technical skills, soft skills, and curriculum relevance reduce the likelihood of being employed or self-employed. The independent variables are technical skill mismatch, soft skill mismatch, and curriculum relevance. The dependent variable is employment status, measured as employed/self-employed versus unemployed. Employability level and job retention duration are useful descriptive concerns, but they are not treated as separate dependent variables in the main logistic regression model.

Independent Variables: Technical Skill Mismatch; Soft Skill Mismatch; Curriculum Relevance.

Dependent Variable: Employment Status (employed/self-employed versus unemployed

The framework is divided into two main categories:

1. **Independent Variables (Tertiary Education Job Skill Mismatch)**

   Technical Skill Mismatch

   Soft Skill Mismatch

   Curriculum Relevance

2. **Dependent Variable (Youth Unemployment)**

   Unemployment Rate among Graduates

   Employability Level

   Job Retention Duration

*Figure 2.1: Conceptual frame work*



# CHAPTER TWO

# LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.1. Introduction

This chapter systematically examines the existing academic literature pertaining to the effects of tertiary education job skill mismatch on the level of youth unemployment, which is the central focus of this study in Kampala. It starts with an in-depth review of theoretical frameworks that link educational outputs to labor market outcomes, specifically focusing on the debate surrounding the 'skills mismatch' concept, which many scholars suggest is the core problem for young job-seekers (Adely et al., 2021; Gray & Bae, 2009; Kaharudin et al., 2023). Following this introduction, the chapter is structured into three main sections that align directly with the specific objectives of the research, namely: the influence of technical skill mismatch on unemployment rates, the relationship between soft skill mismatch and youth employability, and the measured effect of curriculum relevance on employment outcomes (Esposito & Sicilianos, 2020; Dibeh et al., 2019; Rani & Sharma, 2024). By critically analyzing the arguments of various scholars, this review intends to identify the consensus, areas of disagreement, and significant gaps in the current body of knowledge, particularly those that require empirical investigation within the unique context of Kampala's labor market (Aminu, 2019; Pompei & Selezneva, 2017; Mseleku, 2022).

## 2.2 Technical Skill Mismatch and Youth Unemployment

The technical skill mismatch (TSM) is widely defined as the disparity where the specific job-related, practical, or hard skills possessed by tertiary graduates do not align with the specialized technical competencies required by employers in the job market (Handel, 2003; Gray & Bae, 2009). The widely accepted view is that this lack of specific, job-ready technical training is a primary driver of high youth unemployment rates across many economies, particularly those undergoing rapid industrial or technological change (Lindberg, 2017; Dibeh et al., 2019; Rani & Sharma, 2024). However, the scholarly community strongly argues about the *causality* and *extent* of this influence, with some suggesting that TSM is the dominant factor (Pompei & Selezneva, 2017; Aminu, 2019), while others argue that the core issue is not the skill mismatch itself but rather the lack of sufficient job creation or structural problems in the economy (Adely et al., 2021; Schaefer, 2017). For instance, scholars like Esposito and Scicchitano (2020) empirically link educational mismatches directly to increased unemployment risk, emphasizing the demand-side

failure, whereas Tåhlin and Westerman (2020) frame the issue as a structural change in the type of skill demanded by modern firms, moving the blame away from the tertiary institutions alone.

In developing countries, particularly in the African context, the debate intensifies, as technical skill mismatch is often seen as more acute due to structural rigidities and rapidly changing market demands (Morsy & Mukasa, 2020; Aminu, 2019). Aminu (2019) characterizes graduate unemployment in Nigeria as a profound education-job mismatch problem, pointing to the failure of university programs to impart relevant technical knowledge demanded by sectors like manufacturing and technology, a sentiment echoed by Bako (2022) regarding Nigeria's labor productivity challenges. However, this view is challenged by scholars who argue that the problem is not necessarily a technical *skill* shortage but rather an issue of *over-education*, where graduates possess qualifications higher than those actually needed for the available jobs, thereby creating a paradoxical situation of high graduate unemployment alongside reported skills shortages (Pauw et al., 2008; Mok & Qian, 2018; Rani & Sharma, 2024). The South African experience reviewed by Pauw et al. (2008) highlights this paradox, demonstrating that a degree alone does not guarantee a job if the economy cannot absorb highly educated individuals, which complicates the simple assertion that TSM is solely to blame.

The rapid advancement of technology and the digital transformation have been repeatedly cited as the primary accelerator of TSM, forcing tertiary institutions to constantly revise their technical offerings to remain relevant (Kayode, 2023; Chemli et al., 2024). Kayode (2023) discusses the critical challenge of technological unemployment in post-pandemic Nigeria, stressing that higher education must urgently integrate digital skills to prevent entire cohorts from becoming technically obsolete before they even enter the workforce, a point highly relevant to an urban center like Kampala. Furthermore, Chemli et al. (2024) specifically analyze how digital skill shortages contribute to TSM and impact graduate employment in the tourism sector, demonstrating that even traditional industries now require a significant, modern technical baseline (Morsy & Mukasa, 2020). Conversely, some scholars caution against placing too much focus on technology, arguing that the *rigidity* of educational institutions, rather than the *pace* of technological change, is the root cause (Sam, 2020). These critics suggest that universities globally are too slow to adapt curricula, and this inherent bureaucratic slowness institutionalizes the TSM regardless of the external economic environment (Hussain, 2025; Adely et al., 2021).

Looking specifically at the regional and Ugandan context, research strongly suggests that TSM plays a major role in the persistent unemployment crisis (Guloba et al., 2021; Namuliira et al., 2024). Studies by Guloba et al. (2021) in Uganda highlighted a clear gap between the technical skills required for high-potential sectors and the skills being produced, emphasizing the need for targeted skill development to improve youth employment outcomes. This local evidence is further supported by the work of Kobugabe Rwomushana (2024), who explicitly studied the skill gap among higher education graduates in Uganda. Yet, the argument remains that while TSM exists, its impact is poorly quantified on a local level; for instance, the comprehensive international dilemma reviewed by Gray and Bae (2009) applies generally but lacks the micro-level data required to determine the *extent* of influence in specific Kampala sectors (Kamukama, 2017; Egessa et al., 2021). This highlights a significant gap in the current literature: the precise, quantitative measurement of the technical skill mismatch's influence on unemployment rates across diverse sectors within the Kampala Metropolitan Area, a focus that the present study aims to address (Kaharudin et al., 2023; Aminu, 2019).

Finally, the scholarly debate extends to whether TSM should be treated as a structural problem or a cyclical one (Tåhlin & Westerman, 2020; Pompei & Selezneva, 2017). Tåhlin and Westerman (2020) propose that the decline in youth employment is structurally linked to an evolving skill profile demanded by the market, implying a long-term, systemic issue, whereas others see TSM as fluctuating with economic cycles (Lindberg, 2017). Crucially, the argument proposed by Adely et al. (2021) challenges the very notion of TSM, labelling it the "hegemony of the skills mismatch discourse" and suggesting that it is a convenient political narrative that distracts from the government’s failure to create decent jobs, a critique particularly relevant in politically charged environments (Schaefer, 2017). Therefore, while the literature overwhelmingly agrees that a technical skills gap exists, the present study is necessary to determine the specific *extent* to which this technical skill mismatch, as opposed to pure lack of jobs or other systemic issues, is actually influencing the high rate of youth unemployment in the specific context of Kampala (Dibeh et al., 2019; Bbaale et al., 2023).

### 2.3 Soft Skill Mismatch and Youth Employability

Soft skills, often encompassing attributes such as teamwork, communication, problem-solving, critical thinking, and professional attitude, are increasingly recognized as essential for job success,

and a mismatch in these areas constitutes a significant barrier to youth employability (Grero, 2018; Dibeh et al., 2019). The academic consensus suggests that a deficiency in these non-technical competencies, even among technically proficient graduates, reduces the likelihood of obtaining and retaining employment, thereby lowering overall employability levels (Béduwé & Giret, 2011; Sam, 2020; Rani & Sharma, 2024). Béduwé and Giret (2011), in their study on French vocational graduates, established a clear penalty on the labor market for those with educational mismatches, which often includes a soft skills component, reinforcing the notion that employers value these interpersonal capabilities significantly (Mseleku, 2022). Furthermore, Dibeh et al. (2019) found specific evidence in Lebanon that a lack of soft skills, such as appropriate workplace demeanor and communication, significantly hindered youth employment prospects, directly linking the soft skill mismatch (SSM) to low employability (Hussain, 2025; Grero, 2018).

The crucial scholarly debate surrounding soft skills is whether graduates genuinely *lack* these skills or if the job market simply *undervalues* or fails to effectively measure them, creating a perception of mismatch (Handel, 2003; Palmer, 2017). Proponents of the 'lack' argument, such as Mseleku (2022) focusing on South Africa, and Grero (2018) studying Sri Lanka, argue that the traditional, academically-focused tertiary education system does not adequately structure its programs to intentionally foster crucial skills like resilience, leadership, or critical thinking, leading to graduates who are technically competent but interpersonally unprepared. In sharp contrast, scholars like Handel (2003) contend that 'soft skills' are often ill-defined and difficult to quantify, suggesting that the reported mismatch might be a measurement issue or a consequence of employers setting unreasonably high or vague expectations (Palmer, 2017). This perspective is particularly pertinent in the informal economy, where Palmer (2017) notes that jobs and skills are mismatched in ways that traditional educational metrics fail to capture, making it difficult to assess the true relationship between SSM and employability (Kaharudin et al., 2023; Mok & Qian, 2018).

The role of tertiary institutions in bridging the SSM gap is another major area of contention among scholars (Mok & Qian, 2018; Eseza, 2025). Some academics, including Mok and Qian (2018), observe that the massification of higher education in many developing contexts, such as China, often dilutes the quality of soft skill instruction, resulting in a skills mismatch when graduates transition to the workforce. This failure suggests a systematic flaw within the institutions themselves (Aminu, 2019). However, a counter-argument focuses on the student experience

outside the classroom, where some scholars assert that participation in part-time employment, internships, or extracurricular activities is the real engine for soft skill acquisition (Jjuuko, 2021; Bako, 2022). Bako (2022), for example, explored the impact of part-time employment in Nigeria and found it a crucial factor in skills development, thereby shifting the responsibility for SSM reduction partly onto the individual's initiative rather than solely on the curriculum design (Egessa et al., 2021; Adedeji, 2022).

Within the African context, and specifically in Uganda, the mismatch in soft skills is frequently highlighted as a core constraint on youth employability (Morsy & Mukasa, 2020; Namuliira et al., 2025). Morsy and Mukasa (2020) identified SSM as a major incidence among African youth, noting that deficits in behavioral and communication skills often make the difference between an employed and an unemployed graduate, a finding that aligns with local observations by Kirabo (2017) in Uganda concerning the causes of youth unemployment. Despite this recognition, policy and public discourse often prioritize the technical skill gap (Said Ahmed, 2017), neglecting the crucial role of soft skills (Adedeji, 2022), which creates an imbalance in educational resource allocation (Guloba et al., 2021). A critical gap remains in the literature regarding the specific nature of the *relationship*—correlation versus causation—between particular soft skill deficits (e.g., lack of emotional intelligence versus poor teamwork) and the measured employability levels of tertiary graduates within the urban dynamics of Kampala, necessitating a focused assessment (Mseleku, 2022; Sam, 2020).

Furthermore, while some studies focus on the impact of SSM on employment acquisition (Rani & Sharma, 2024; Pompei & Selezneva, 2017), others emphasize its secondary, but equally important, effect on job satisfaction and long-term career outcomes (Sam, 2020). Sam (2020), in studying Cambodian university graduates, highlighted how educational mismatches significantly dampen job satisfaction, suggesting that SSM leads not only to unemployment but also to underemployment or poor job retention, which perpetually keeps youth in a cycle of instability (Kaharudin et al., 2023). Therefore, the scholarly literature strongly supports the notion that SSM is an important factor in youth employment challenges, but the strength and characteristics of the *relationship* are highly context-dependent (Lindberg, 2017). This emphasizes the importance of the present study's objective, which is to specifically assess and define the relationship between

soft skill mismatch and youth employability levels within the unique, rapidly urbanizing job market of Kampala (Kobugabe Rwomushana, 2024; Apunyo et al., 2022).

### 2.4 Curriculum Relevance and Youth Unemployment

Curriculum relevance, in the context of tertiary education, refers to the degree to which the knowledge, skills, and learning experiences offered by academic programs directly correspond to the current and projected requirements of the labor market (Aminu, 2019; Mok & Qian, 2018). There is a broad consensus among scholars and policymakers that a lack of curriculum relevance is a fundamental contributor to the widespread problem of educated youth unemployment, particularly in developing economies (Rahman et al., 2021; Adedeji, 2022; Hussain, 2025). Rahman et al. (2021), for instance, explicitly identify curriculum inadequacy as a key issue in mitigating educated youth unemployment in Bangladesh, arguing that educational content must be continually updated to reflect industrial needs and modern commercial practices to ensure graduates are immediately productive (Aminu, 2019). This perspective places a significant burden on tertiary institutions, urging them to prioritize industry consultation and practical exposure to ensure their offerings actively translate into positive youth employment outcomes (Eseza, 2025; Guloba et al., 2021).

A major point of contention and critical debate in this field revolves around whether improving curriculum relevance is truly a *solution* to unemployment or merely a politically acceptable *distraction* from wider economic failures (Adely et al., 2021; Schaefer, 2017). Proponents of curriculum change, like Mseleku (2022), argue that highly relevant, career-focused content is essential to overcome the institutional inertia that currently plagues many educational systems, thereby directly addressing the skills gap and improving job outcomes. However, scholars who adhere to the "hegemony of the skills mismatch discourse" argument, such as Adely et al. (2021), suggest that focusing too heavily on curriculum relevance deflects attention from the government's failure to generate sufficient *demand* for labor (Schaefer, 2017). The core of this counter-argument is that even a perfectly relevant curriculum will not reduce youth unemployment if the structural economy cannot create enough suitable jobs, thus framing the issue as a failure of macro-economic policy rather than a failure of pedagogical content (Tåhlin & Westerman, 2020; Lindberg, 2017).

Specific elements of curriculum relevance, such as the inclusion of mandatory internships, vocational training, and practical work attachments, are intensely debated in the literature due to

their varying effects on employment (Eseza, 2025; Béduwé & Giret, 2011). Eseza (2025) strongly advocates for vocational training in Uganda as a primary means of bridging the graduate skills gap, arguing that hands-on experience directly translates into higher employability for tertiary graduates. This aligns with the findings of Béduwé and Giret (2011), who found that practical experience can mitigate some of the negative effects of educational mismatches on the labor market (Bako, 2022). Conversely, critics like Jjuuko (2021), in his work on agricultural education in Uganda, and Bbaale et al. (2023), in their review of African youth employment policies, emphasize that the *quality* and *structure* of these practical programs are paramount; poorly managed, unpaid, or irrelevant internships offer little benefit and can even be exploitative, meaning the mere *existence* of a program does not guarantee curriculum relevance or positive employment outcomes (Adedeji, 2022; Apunyo et al., 2022).

Within the local context of Kampala and Uganda, numerous studies have emphasized the devastating impact of poor curriculum relevance on youth employment (Kamukama, 2017; Egessa et al., 2021; 로빈슨, 2023). Kamukama (2017) highlighted determinants of unemployment in Uganda, directly pointing to the disconnect between academic focus and the practical needs of the local labor market, a theme consistently echoed by Egessa et al. (2021), who studied the role of education in youth unemployment determinants. Furthermore, some scholars, including Mok and Qian (2018) and Palmer (2017), point out that a large percentage of employment in cities like Kampala falls under the *informal sector*, which often renders highly specialized, formal curriculum content entirely irrelevant to the day-to-day realities of local economic activity, creating a deep systemic disconnect (Namuliira et al., 2024; CHECK, R.). Thus, while there is a general agreement that curriculum relevance matters, a significant gap exists in providing a detailed, sector-specific *measurement* of how different degrees of curriculum relevance in Kampala's tertiary institutions specifically affect measurable youth employment *outcomes* (Kobugabe Rwomushana, 2024; Said Ahmed, 2017; Kamukama, 2017).

Ultimately, the most profound argumentative thread regarding curriculum relevance centers on whether educational institutions should be reactive or proactive in preparing graduates for the future labor market (Kayode, 2023; Hussain, 2025). Hussain (2025) argues that the curriculum must be constantly refined to meet immediate market demands, implying a reactive role. Conversely, Kayode (2023) advocates for higher education to be proactive, anticipating

technological changes and training students not just for current jobs, but for jobs that do not yet exist, especially in rapidly evolving fields (Chemli et al., 2024). This proactive versus reactive debate is vital for the present study as it seeks to precisely *measure the effect* of current curriculum relevance (whether backward or forward-looking) on actual youth employment outcomes in the competitive and diverse labor environment of Kampala (Gray & Bae, 2009; Pompei & Selezneva, 2017; Kirabo, 2017). The existing literature establishes the importance of the topic, but the local, empirical measurement remains the missing piece of the puzzle, providing the justification for this research endeavor (Schaefer, 2017; Sam, 2020).

# CHAPTER THREE

# METHODOLOGY

## 3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology that was used to conduct the study on the effect of tertiary education–job skill mismatch on youth unemployment in Kampala. It outlined the research design, research approach, study population, sample size and sampling techniques, data collection methods and instruments, measurement of variables and indicators, data analysis procedures, validity and reliability of instruments, and ethical considerations.

## 3.2 Research Design

The study adopted a cross-sectional research design. A cross-sectional design involved collecting data from respondents at a single point in time. This design was appropriate for the study because it enabled the researcher to examine the relationship between tertiary education job skill mismatch and youth unemployment among graduates in Kampala without requiring long-term follow-up.

The design allowed the researcher to collect data from a large number of respondents within a short period and at relatively low cost. It was also suitable for quantitative studies that aimed to establish relationships between variables such as technical skill mismatch, soft skill mismatch, curriculum relevance, and youth unemployment outcomes.

## 3.3 Research Approach

The study used a quantitative research approach. The quantitative approach focused on collecting numerical data that could be analyzed statistically in order to determine relationships between variables. This approach was appropriate because the study aimed to measure the extent to which skill mismatches influenced youth unemployment in Kampala.

Quantitative methods allowed the researcher to quantify levels of skill mismatch and unemployment outcomes, making it possible to test relationships between the independent variables (technical skill mismatch, soft skill mismatch, and curriculum relevance) and the dependent variable (youth unemployment).

### 3.4 Study Area

The study was conducted in Kampala, the capital city of Uganda. Kampala is the economic and administrative center of the country and hosts a large number of tertiary institutions as well as a diverse labor market. Despite the high number of graduates produced each year, youth unemployment remained a significant challenge in the city, making it an appropriate setting for examining the relationship between tertiary education job skill mismatch and youth unemployment.

### 3.5 Study Population

The study population consisted of youth graduates from tertiary institutions residing in Kampala. For the purpose of this study, youth referred to individuals aged 18 to 35 years who had completed tertiary education from universities, colleges, or other higher education institutions. The population included both employed/self-employed and unemployed graduates in order to examine employment status across the target group.

### 3.6 Sample Size Determination

The sample size for the study was determined using the Yamane (1967) formula for sample size calculation. The formula is expressed as $n = N / (1 + N e^2)$, where n is the required sample size, N is the population size, and e is the level of precision. Using an estimated population of 10,000 youth graduates residing in Kampala and a precision level of 0.05, the sample size was calculated as follows: $n = 10,000 / (1 + 10,000 \times 0.05^2) = 10,000 / (1 + 25) = 10,000 / 26 = 384.6$, which was approximately 385 respondents. The precision level of 0.05 is standard for undergraduate research and corresponds to a 95% confidence level.

The population estimate of 10,000 was expected to be supported by a verifiable source such as a UBOS, KCCA, or institution-specific report before data collection. If a credible source could not be obtained, the population estimate was to be revised.

### 3.7 Sampling Techniques

The study used simple random sampling to select respondents from the available sampling frame of eligible youth graduates in Kampala. This technique gave each eligible graduate an equal chance of selection and was appropriate where a reliable list of graduates was available. Purposive sampling was not used for the same respondent sample because it was inconsistent with simple

random sampling. If a complete sampling frame was not available, the researcher was to adopt a clearly justified alternative such as stratified sampling or convenience sampling, depending on access and institutional permissions.

### 3.8 Data Collection Methods

The study primarily used the survey method to collect data from respondents. The survey method was appropriate for quantitative studies and allowed the researcher to gather standardized information from a large number of respondents.

### 3.9 Data Collection Instrument

Data were collected using a structured questionnaire containing closed-ended questions designed to capture information related to the independent and dependent variables of the study. The questionnaire was divided into several sections including: Section A for demographic information, Section B for technical skill mismatch, Section C for soft skill mismatch, Section D for curriculum relevance, and Section E for employment status and related outcomes. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with statements using a Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

### 3.10 Measurement of Variables and Indicators

The study variables were measured using specific indicators aligned with the revised conceptual framework.

**Independent Variable: Tertiary Education Job Skill Mismatch**

**1. Technical Skill Mismatch**

Indicators: level of practical skills acquired during tertiary education; alignment between academic training and job requirements; availability of internship and practical training opportunities; and level of digital and technological skills acquired.

**2. Soft Skill Mismatch**

Indicators: communication skills; teamwork and collaboration; problem-solving ability; critical thinking skills; leadership and initiative; adaptability; and work ethic.

**3. Curriculum Relevance**

Indicators: alignment of curriculum with labour market needs; inclusion of practical and industry-based training; frequency of curriculum updates; involvement of industry stakeholders in curriculum development; and availability of career guidance and job preparation programmes.

**Dependent Variable: Employment Status**

Indicators: current employment status (employed/self-employed versus unemployed); duration taken to secure first job after graduation; number of job applications made before securing employment; ability to meet employer job requirements; and job readiness.

Because the main dependent variable for the regression analysis was binary, the core outcome was coded as employed/self-employed = 1 and unemployed = 0. Employability and job retention could be discussed descriptively, but they were not treated as separate dependent variables unless separate models were specified.

### 3.11 Validity of Research Instrument

Validity referred to the extent to which the research instrument measured what it was intended to measure. To ensure validity, the questionnaire was reviewed by research experts and academic supervisors who assessed whether the questions adequately captured the variables under investigation.

Necessary corrections and adjustments were made based on their feedback to improve the quality of the instrument.

### 3.12 Reliability of Research Instrument

Reliability referred to the consistency of the research instrument in measuring the study variables. A pilot test was conducted with a small group of respondents who were not part of the final study sample.

The results of the pilot test were analyzed using Cronbach's Alpha to determine the internal consistency of the questionnaire items. A reliability coefficient of 0.70 or higher was considered acceptable.

### 3.13 Data Analysis Procedures

Collected data were coded and entered into statistical software such as SPSS or STATA for analysis. Descriptive statistics including frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations were used to summarize the characteristics of respondents and the levels of skill mismatch. Inferential statistical techniques such as correlation and logistic regression were used to examine the relationship between tertiary education job skill mismatch and employment status.

The logistic regression model was specified as:

$$\text{logit}(P(Y=1)) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TSM + \beta_2 SSM + \beta_3 CR + \beta_4 Age + \beta_5 Gender + \beta_6 EducationLevel + \varepsilon$$

where Y is employment status, TSM is technical skill mismatch, SSM is soft skill mismatch, and CR is curriculum relevance. Age, gender, and education level were included as control variables because they were collected in the questionnaire and might influence employment outcomes.

Multicollinearity was assessed using the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), with VIF values greater than 5 indicating problematic collinearity. Model fit was evaluated using the Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test, with p values greater than 0.05 indicating acceptable fit. Model specification was checked using the link test. Predictive accuracy was reported using a classification table and the area under the ROC curve (AUC). Normality testing was not required because logistic regression does not assume normally distributed predictors. The findings were presented using tables, charts, and graphs for clarity and ease of interpretation.

### 3.14 Ethical Considerations

The study adhered to ethical research standards. Participation in the study was voluntary, and respondents were informed about the purpose of the research before completing the questionnaire. Confidentiality and anonymity of respondents were maintained by ensuring that personal identifying information was not disclosed. The data collected were used strictly for academic purposes. Respondents were also given the freedom to withdraw from the study at any time without any negative consequences.

# CHAPTER FOUR

# RESULTS

## 4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents, analyses, and interprets the findings of the study on the effect of tertiary education–job skill mismatch on youth unemployment in Kampala. The results are presented in line with the study objectives and research questions, focusing on the influence of technical skill mismatch, soft skill mismatch, and curriculum relevance on youth employment outcomes. The chapter begins with the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents, followed by descriptive analysis of key study variables and inferential analysis using logistic regression to examine the relationships between skill mismatch factors and youth unemployment among tertiary education graduates in Kampala.

## 4.2. Socio-Demographic Characteristics

**Table 1: Distribution of respondents by demographic and employment characteristics**

| Variables | Category | Freq. | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|
| Age | 18-24 | 183 | 47.53 |
| | 25-29 | 125 | 32.47 |
| | 30-35 | 77 | 20 |
| Gender | Female | 197 | 51.17 |
| | Male | 180 | 46.75 |
| | Prefer Not To Say | 8 | 2.08 |
| Education Level | Bachelor's Degree | 235 | 61.04 |
| | Diploma | 96 | 24.94 |
| | Postgraduate | 54 | 14.03 |
| Employment Status | Employed | 143 | 37.14 |
| | Self-Employed | 75 | 19.48 |
| | Unemployed | 167 | 43.38 |

The majority of respondents were aged 18–24 years (47.53%, n=183), while the least represented age group was 30–35 years (20%, n=77). Females constituted the highest proportion (51.17%,

n=197), whereas those who preferred not to disclose their gender were the least (2.08%, n=8). In terms of education level, most respondents held a Bachelor's degree (61.04%, n=235), while Postgraduates were the fewest (14.03%, n=54). Regarding employment status, the largest proportion was unemployed (43.38%, n=167), and the smallest group was self-employed (19.48%, n=75).

**Table 2: Distribution of respondents on skill mismatch and employability factors**

| Variables | Agree | | Disagree | | Neutral | | Strongly Agree | | Strongly Disagree | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Freq. | Percent | Freq. | Percent | Freq. | Percent | Freq. | Percent | Freq. | Percent |
| Tech Skill Match | 69 | 17.92 | 93 | 24.16 | 96 | 24.94 | 57 | 14.81 | 70 | 18.18 |
| Advanced Tech Demand | 85 | 22.08 | 126 | 32.73 | 120 | 31.17 | 29 | 7.53 | 25 | 6.49 |
| Tech Skill Job Difficulty | 85 | 22.08 | 121 | 31.43 | 127 | 32.99 | 28 | 7.27 | 24 | 6.23 |
| Practical Hands-On Experience | 68 | 17.66 | 105 | 27.27 | 68 | 17.66 | 69 | 17.92 | 75 | 19.48 |
| Tech Skill Gaps Unemployment | 87 | 22.6 | 109 | 28.31 | 129 | 33.51 | 30 | 7.79 | 30 | 7.79 |
| Communication Skills Prepared | 76 | 19.74 | 101 | 26.23 | 97 | 25.19 | 51 | 13.25 | 60 | 15.58 |
| Soft Skills Job Difficulty | 69 | 17.92 | 118 | 30.65 | 138 | 35.84 | 32 | 8.31 | 28 | 7.27 |
| Soft Skills Valued | 74 | 19.22 | 89 | 23.12 | 91 | 23.64 | 53 | 13.77 | 78 | 20.26 |
| Problem Solving Gap | 80 | 20.78 | 119 | 30.91 | 118 | 30.65 | 35 | 9.09 | 33 | 8.57 |
| Soft Skills Reduce Employability | 85 | 22.08 | 132 | 34.29 | 126 | 32.73 | 22 | 5.71 | 20 | 5.19 |

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Curriculum Labor Market Alignment | 73 | 18.96 | 99 | 25.71 | 85 | 22.08 | 57 | 14.81 | 71 | 18.44 |
| Course Content Relevance | 68 | 17.66 | 92 | 23.9 | 85 | 22.08 | 65 | 16.88 | 75 | 19.48 |
| Curriculum Update Frequency | 67 | 17.4 | 107 | 27.79 | 87 | 22.6 | 59 | 15.32 | 65 | 16.88 |
| Internship Employability | 67 | 17.4 | 88 | 22.86 | 86 | 22.34 | 70 | 18.18 | 74 | 19.22 |
| Skill Mismatch Unemployment | 76 | 19.74 | 94 | 24.42 | 200 | 51.95 | 8 | 2.08 | 7 | 1.82 |
| Relevant Skills Job Retention | 66 | 17.14 | 78 | 20.26 | 71 | 18.44 | 70 | 18.18 | 100 | 25.97 |
| | | | | | | | | | | |

For tech skill match, the highest response was Neutral (24.94%, n=96), while the least was Strongly Agree (14.81%, n=57). On advanced tech demand, Disagree had the highest proportion (32.73%, n=126) and Strongly Disagree the least (6.49%, n=25). Regarding tech skill job difficulty, Neutral was highest (32.99%, n=127) and Strongly Disagree lowest (6.23%, n=24). For practical hands-on experience, Disagree ranked highest (27.27%, n=105) while Agree and Neutral were jointly lowest (17.66%, n=68 each). On tech skill gaps and unemployment, Neutral was highest (33.51%, n=129) and Strongly Agree and Strongly Disagree were jointly lowest (7.79%, n=30 each).

For communication skills preparedness, Disagree was highest (26.23%, n=101) and Strongly Agree lowest (13.25%, n=51). Regarding soft skills job difficulty, Neutral had the highest share (35.84%, n=138) and Strongly Disagree the least (7.27%, n=28). On soft skills valued, Neutral was highest (23.64%, n=91) and Strongly Agree lowest (13.77%, n=53). For problem-solving gap, Disagree was highest (30.91%, n=119) and Strongly Disagree lowest (8.57%, n=33). On soft skills reducing employability, Disagree ranked highest (34.29%, n=132) and Strongly Disagree lowest (5.19%, n=20). Regarding curriculum labor market alignment, Disagree was highest (25.71%, n=99) and Strongly Agree lowest (14.81%, n=57).

For course content relevance, Disagree had the highest proportion (23.9%, n=92) while Agree was lowest (17.66%, n=68). On curriculum update frequency, Disagree was highest (27.79%, n=107) and Agree lowest (17.4%, n=67). Regarding internship and employability, Disagree ranked highest (22.86%, n=88) and Agree lowest (17.4%, n=67). For skill mismatch and unemployment, Neutral was highest (51.95%, n=200) and Strongly Disagree lowest (1.82%, n=7). Lastly, for relevant skills and job retention, Strongly Disagree had the highest share (25.97%, n=100) while Agree was the lowest (17.14%, n=66).

### 4.3. Technical Skill Mismatch and Youth Unemployment

**Table 3: Relationship between technical skill mismatch and youth unemployment among youth in Kampala**

| Variables | Youth Unemployment | | | Logistic Regression | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Employed/Self-Employed | Unemployed | P-value | AOR | p-value | [95% Conf Interval] |
| **Tech Skill Match** | | | 0 | | | |
| Neutral | 65 (67.71%) | 31 (32.29%) | | 1 | Ref | Ref |
| Agree | 61 (88.41%) | 8 (11.59%) | | 0.61 | 0.373 | 0.206 – 1.809 |
| Disagree | 36 (38.71%) | 57 (61.29%) | | 1.949 | 0.176 | 0.742 – 5.121 |
| Strongly Agree | 53 (92.98%) | 4 (7.02%) | | 0.366 | 0.338 | 0.047 – 2.861 |
| Strongly Disagree | 3 (4.29%) | 67 (95.71%) | | 16.095 | 0.003 | 2.612 – 99.175 |
| **Advanced Tech Demand** | | | 0 | | | |
| Neutral (Ref.) | 70 (58.33%) | 50 (41.67%) | | 1 | Ref | Ref |
| Agree | 24 (28.24%) | 61 (71.76%) | | 0.734 | 0.516 | 0.290 – 1.862 |
| Disagree | 96 (76.19%) | 30 (23.81%) | | 2.656 | 0.037 | 1.060 – 6.656 |
| Strongly Agree | 4 (13.79%) | 25 (86.21%) | | 0.464 | 0.4 | 0.078 – 2.772 |
| Strongly Disagree | 24 (96.00%) | 1 (4.00%) | | 0.508 | 0.596 | 0.041 – 6.218 |
| **Tech Skill Job Difficulty** | | | 0 | | | |
| Neutral (Ref.) | 69 (54.33%) | 58 (45.67%) | | 1 | Ref | Ref |
| Agree | 25 (29.41%) | 60 (70.59%) | | 0.711 | 0.462 | 0.287 – 1.762 |
| Disagree | 101 (83.47%) | 20 (16.53%) | | 0.525 | 0.175 | 0.207 – 1.331 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly Agree | 3 (10.71%) | 25 (89.29%) | | 1.068 | 0.945 | 0.163 – 6.975 |
| Strongly Disagree | 20 (83.33%) | 4 (16.67%) | | 2.31 | 0.436 | 0.282 – 18.948 |
| **Practical Hands-On Experience** | | | 0 | | | |
| Neutral (Ref.) | 46 (67.65%) | 22 (32.35%) | | 1 | Ref | Ref |
| Agree | 63 (92.65%) | 5 (7.35%) | | 0.136 | 0.001 | 0.041 – 0.456 |
| Disagree | 42 (40.00%) | 63 (60.00%) | | 2.696 | 0.033 | 1.082 – 6.718 |
| Strongly Agree | 64 (92.75%) | 5 (7.25%) | | 0.147 | 0.029 | 0.026 – 0.819 |
| Strongly Disagree | 3 (4.00%) | 72 (96.00%) | | 25.145 | <0.001 | 4.726 – 133.785 |
| **Tech Skill Gaps Unemployment** | | | 0 | | | |
| Neutral (Ref.) | 74 (57.36%) | 55 (42.64%) | | 1 | Ref | Ref |
| Agree | 24 (27.59%) | 63 (72.41%) | | 0.709 | 0.467 | 0.281 – 1.790 |
| Disagree | 91 (83.49%) | 18 (16.51%) | | 1.506 | 0.408 | 0.571 – 3.971 |
| Strongly Agree | 3 (10.00%) | 27 (90.00%) | | 0.551 | 0.544 | 0.080 – 3.782 |
| Strongly Disagree | 26 (86.67%) | 4 (13.33%) | | 2.381 | 0.395 | 0.322 – 17.603 |

The findings reveal that technical skill mismatch is closely associated with youth unemployment in Kampala. Descriptively, unemployment was highest among respondents who strongly disagreed that their tertiary education provided skills matching labour market requirements (95.71%), strongly disagreed that they received practical hands-on experience (96.00%), and strongly agreed that technical skill gaps contribute to unemployment (90.00%). Conversely, employment levels exceeded 88% among respondents who agreed or strongly agreed that their skills matched job requirements and that they had acquired practical experience.

Logistic regression results show that respondents who strongly disagreed that their technical skills matched labour market needs were about 16 times more likely to be unemployed than those with neutral perceptions (AOR = 16.095, p = 0.003, 95% CI: 2.612–99.175), indicating a statistically significant effect. Similarly, respondents who strongly disagreed that they had received practical hands-on experience were about 25 times more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 25.145, $p < 0.001$, 95% CI: 4.726–133.785), while those who disagreed were nearly three times more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 2.696, p = 0.033, 95% CI: 1.082–6.718).

In contrast, agreeing (AOR = 0.136, p = 0.001, 95% CI: 0.041–0.456) or strongly agreeing (AOR = 0.147, p = 0.029, 95% CI: 0.026–0.819) that they had acquired practical experience significantly reduced the odds of unemployment. Additionally, respondents who disagreed with statements regarding advanced technical skill demands were more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 2.656, p = 0.037, 95% CI: 1.060–6.656). Since the confidence intervals for these significant variables do not include 1, the results confirm that technical skill mismatch, particularly inadequate practical training and poor alignment of technical competencies with labour market demands, significantly increases the likelihood of youth unemployment in Kampala.

### 4.4. Soft Skill Mismatch and Youth Employability

**Table 4: Relationship between Soft skill mismatch and Youth employability**

| Variables | Youth Unemployment | | | Logistic Regression | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Employed/Self-employed | Unemployed | P-value | AOR | p-value | [95% Conf Interval] |
| **Communication Skills Prepared** | | | **0** | | | |
| Agree | 65 (85.53%) | 11 (14.47%) | | 0.55 | 0.272 | 0.189 – 1.598 |
| Disagree | 34 (33.66%) | 67 (66.34%) | | 3.133 | 0.014 | 1.265 – 7.763 |
| Neutral | 65 (67.01%) | 32 (32.99%) | | 1 (Ref) | Ref | Ref |
| Strongly Agree | 50 (98.04%) | 1 (1.96%) | | 0.043 | 0.029 | 0.003 – 0.731 |
| Strongly Disagree | 4 (6.67%) | 56 (93.33%) | | 18.614 | 0.004 | 2.580 – 134.324 |
| **Soft Skills Job Difficulty** | | | **0** | | | |
| Agree | 23 (33.33%) | 46 (66.67%) | | 0.614 | 0.33 | 0.230 – 1.639 |
| Disagree | 91 (77.12%) | 27 (22.88%) | | 1.331 | 0.543 | 0.531 – 3.336 |
| Neutral | 75 (54.35%) | 63 (45.65%) | | 1 (Ref) | Ref | Ref |
| Strongly Agree | 3 (9.38%) | 29 (90.63%) | | 1.926 | 0.52 | 0.262 – 14.156 |
| Strongly Disagree | 26 (92.86%) | 2 (7.14%) | | 3.431 | 0.267 | 0.390 – 30.214 |
| **Soft Skills Valued** | | | **0** | | | |
| Agree | 67 (90.54%) | 7 (9.46%) | | 0.401 | 0.081 | 0.144 – 1.118 |
| Disagree | 25 (28.09%) | 64 (71.91%) | | 9.447 | 0 | 3.989 – 22.375 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Neutral | 69 (75.82%) | 22 (24.18%) | | 1 (Ref) | Ref | Ref |
| Strongly Agree | 51 (96.23%) | 2 (3.77%) | | 0.392 | 0.338 | 0.058 – 2.660 |
| Strongly Disagree | 6 (7.69%) | 72 (92.31%) | | 42.097 | 0 | 10.904 – 162.522 |
| **Problem Solving Gap** | | | **0** | | | |
| Agree | 24 (30.00%) | 56 (70.00%) | | 0.625 | 0.345 | 0.236 – 1.656 |
| Disagree | 94 (78.99%) | 25 (21.01%) | | 1.258 | 0.658 | 0.456 – 3.473 |
| Neutral | 66 (55.93%) | 52 (44.07%) | | 1 (Ref) | Ref | Ref |
| Strongly Agree | 3 (8.57%) | 32 (91.43%) | | 1.548 | 0.739 | 0.118 – 20.317 |
| Strongly Disagree | 31 (93.94%) | 2 (6.06%) | | 1.323 | 0.804 | 0.146 – 11.995 |
| **Soft Skills Reduce Employability** | | | **0** | | | |
| Agree | 21 (24.71%) | 64 (75.29%) | | 0.788 | 0.633 | 0.296 – 2.098 |
| Disagree | 100 (75.76%) | 32 (24.24%) | | 2.306 | 0.09 | 0.878 – 6.056 |
| Neutral | 73 (57.94%) | 53 (42.06%) | | 1 (Ref) | Ref | Ref |
| Strongly Agree | 5 (22.73%) | 17 (77.27%) | | 0.046 | 0.016 | 0.004 – 0.563 |
| Strongly Disagree | 19 (95.00%) | 1 (5.00%) | | 1.551 | 0.734 | 0.123 – 19.500 |

The findings indicate that soft skill mismatch is significantly associated with youth unemployment in Kampala. Descriptive statistics show that unemployment was highest among respondents who strongly disagreed that tertiary education adequately prepared them with communication skills (93.33%) and among those who strongly disagreed that employers value soft skills (92.31%), while employment levels were highest among respondents who strongly agreed that they were adequately prepared in communication skills (98.04%) and that soft skills are valued in the labour market (96.23%).

Logistic regression results reveal that respondents who disagreed that tertiary education prepared them with communication skills were over three times more likely to be unemployed than the neutral group (AOR = 3.133, p = 0.014, 95% CI: 1.265–7.763), while those who strongly disagreed were about 19 times more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 18.614, p = 0.004, 95% CI: 2.580–134.324). Conversely, respondents who strongly agreed that they were adequately prepared in communication skills had significantly lower odds of unemployment (AOR = 0.043, p = 0.029,

95% CI: 0.003–0.731). Similarly, respondents who disagreed that soft skills are valued by employers were about nine times more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 9.447, $p < 0.001$, 95% CI: 3.989–22.375), while those who strongly disagreed were approximately 42 times more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 42.097, $p < 0.001$, 95% CI: 10.904–162.522).

Furthermore, respondents who strongly agreed that inadequate soft skills reduce employability were significantly less likely to be unemployed (AOR = 0.046, $p = 0.016$, 95% CI: 0.004–0.563), suggesting greater awareness of the importance of soft skills may enhance employability. However, perceptions regarding soft skills causing job difficulty and problem-solving skill gaps were not significantly associated with unemployment ($p > 0.05$), as their confidence intervals included 1. Overall, the findings demonstrate that deficiencies in communication skills and the perceived importance of soft skills are major determinants of youth unemployment in Kampala, with statistically significant effects confirmed by confidence intervals that exclude the null value of 1.

### 4.5 Curriculum Relevance and Youth Employment Outcomes

**Table 5: Relationship between Soft Skill Mismatch and Youth Unemployment among Youth in Kampala**

| Variables | Youth Unemployment | | | Logistic Regression | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Employed/Self-employed | Unemployed | P-value | AOR | p-value | [95% Conf Interval] |
| **Curriculum Labor Market Alignment** | | | **0** | | | |
| Neutral (Ref) | 61 (71.76%) | 24 (28.24%) | | 1 | Ref | Ref |
| Agree | 61 (83.56%) | 12 (16.44%) | | 0.876 | 0.829 | 0.263 – 2.919 |
| Disagree | 35 (35.35%) | 64 (64.65%) | | 1.813 | 0.269 | 0.632 – 5.199 |
| Strongly Agree | 54 (94.74%) | 3 (5.26%) | | 2.82 | 0.341 | 0.334 – 23.844 |
| Strongly Disagree | 7 (9.86%) | 64 (90.14%) | | 1.251 | 0.786 | 0.249 – 6.296 |
| **Course Content Relevance** | | | **0** | | | |
| Neutral (Ref) | 53 (62.35%) | 32 (37.65%) | | 1 | Ref | Ref |
| Agree | 58 (85.29%) | 10 (14.71%) | | 0.707 | 0.564 | 0.218 – 2.295 |
| Disagree | 37 (40.22%) | 55 (59.78%) | | 0.346 | 0.039 | 0.126 – 0.950 |
| Strongly Agree | 63 (96.92%) | 2 (3.08%) | | 0.042 | 0.029 | 0.002 – 0.721 |
| Strongly Disagree | 7 (9.33%) | 68 (90.67%) | | 0.496 | 0.382 | 0.103 – 2.388 |
| **Curriculum Update Frequency** | | | **0** | | | |
| Neutral (Ref) | 58 (66.67%) | 29 (33.33%) | | 1 | Ref | Ref |
| Agree | 59 (88.06%) | 8 (11.94%) | | 0.75 | 0.636 | 0.228 – 2.468 |
| Disagree | 42 (39.25%) | 65 (60.75%) | | 0.477 | 0.183 | 0.161 – 1.417 |
| Strongly Agree | 54 (91.53%) | 5 (8.47%) | | 30.707 | 0.009 | 2.316 – 407.200 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly Disagree | 5 (7.69%) | 60 (92.31%) | | 0.867 | 0.87 | 0.157 – 4.797 |
| **Internship Employability** | | | **0** | | | |
| Neutral (Ref) | 58 (67.44%) | 28 (32.56%) | | 1 | Ref | Ref |
| Agree | 56 (83.58%) | 11 (16.42%) | | 0.747 | 0.622 | 0.234 – 2.385 |
| Disagree | 30 (34.09%) | 58 (65.91%) | | 3.7 | 0.008 | 1.403 – 9.761 |
| Strongly Agree | 69 (98.57%) | 1 (1.43%) | | 0.03 | 0.019 | 0.002 – 0.561 |
| Strongly Disagree | 5 (6.76%) | 69 (93.24%) | | 17.894 | 0.002 | 3.005 – 106.545 |
| **Skill Mismatch Unemployment** | | | **0** | | | |
| Neutral (Ref) | 111 (55.50%) | 89 (44.50%) | | 1 | Ref | Ref |
| Agree | 27 (35.53%) | 49 (64.47%) | | 0.921 | 0.843 | 0.407 – 2.080 |
| Disagree | 71 (75.53%) | 23 (24.47%) | | 0.873 | 0.761 | 0.364 – 2.095 |
| Strongly Agree | 2 (25.00%) | 6 (75.00%) | | 0.174 | 0.084 | 0.024 – 1.264 |
| Strongly Disagree | 7 (100.00%) | 0 (0.00%) | | 1 | Ref | Ref |
| **Relevant Skills Job Retention** | | | **0** | | | |
| Neutral (Ref) | 52 (73.24%) | 19 (26.76%) | | 1 | Ref | Ref |
| Agree | 58 (87.88%) | 8 (12.12%) | | 0.595 | 0.345 | 0.202 – 1.749 |
| Disagree | 32 (41.03%) | 46 (58.97%) | | 3.558 | 0.006 | 1.435 – 8.819 |
| Strongly Agree | 67 (95.71%) | 3 (4.29%) | | 0.374 | 0.337 | 0.050 – 2.793 |
| Strongly Disagree | 9 (9.00%) | 91 (91.00%) | | 14.68 | 0 | 4.279 – 50.364 |

The results suggest that soft skill mismatch significantly influences youth unemployment in Kampala. Descriptively, unemployment was highest among respondents who strongly disagreed that they were adequately prepared in communication skills (93.33%) and that soft skills are valued by employers (92.31%), while employment was highest among those who strongly agreed that they were prepared in communication skills (98.04%) and that soft skills are valued (96.23%).

Logistic regression results show that respondents who disagreed that tertiary education prepared them with communication skills were over three times more likely to be unemployed than the neutral group (AOR = 3.133, p = 0.014, 95% CI: 1.265–7.763), while those who strongly disagreed were about 19 times more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 18.614, p = 0.004, 95% CI: 2.580–134.324).

In contrast, respondents who strongly agreed that they were adequately prepared in communication skills had significantly lower odds of unemployment (AOR = 0.043, p = 0.029, 95% CI: 0.003–0.731). Likewise, respondents who disagreed and strongly disagreed that soft skills are valued by employers were significantly more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 9.447, 95% CI: 3.989–22.375, $p < 0.001$; AOR = 42.097, 95% CI: 10.904–162.522, $p < 0.001$, respectively). However, soft skills-related job difficulty and problem-solving skill gaps were not significantly associated with unemployment since their p-values exceeded 0.05 and confidence intervals included 1. Overall, the findings indicate that inadequate communication skills and failure to recognize the labour market value of soft skills are significant predictors of youth unemployment in Kampala.

# CHAPTER FIVE
# DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

## 5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the study on the effect of tertiary education-job skill mismatch on youth unemployment in Kampala, drawing directly from the study results and the literature reviewed in Chapter Two. The discussion is organized around the three specific objectives of the study, namely technical skill mismatch, soft skill mismatch, and curriculum relevance, and it highlights where the findings agree or disagree with earlier scholars. The chapter concludes with recommendations and a brief conclusion.

## 5.2 Discussion of Findings

### 5.2.1 Technical Skill Mismatch and Youth Unemployment

The first objective sought to determine the extent to which technical skill mismatch from tertiary education influences the rate of youth unemployment in Kampala. The findings show a strong and practically important relationship between technical skill mismatch and unemployment. Descriptively, unemployment was highest among respondents who strongly disagreed that their tertiary education provided skills matching labour market requirements (95.71%, n=67) and among those who strongly disagreed that they received practical hands-on experience (96.00%, n=72). In contrast, employment was highest among respondents who agreed or strongly agreed that they had acquired practical experience, where employed/self-employed respondents accounted for 92.65% (n=63) and 92.75% (n=64) respectively. The regression results reinforce this pattern. Respondents who strongly disagreed that their technical skills matched labour market needs were about 16 times more likely to be unemployed than those with neutral perceptions (AOR = 16.095, $p = 0.003$, 95% CI: 2.612-99.175). Likewise, those who strongly disagreed that they had gained practical hands-on experience were about 25 times more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 25.145, $p < 0.001$, 95% CI: 4.726-133.785), while those who disagreed were nearly three times more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 2.696, $p = 0.033$, 95% CI: 1.082-6.718). Respondents who disagreed with the statement on advanced technical skill demand were also more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 2.656, $p = 0.037$, 95% CI: 1.060-6.656). At the same time, not all technical-skill indicators were statistically significant; for example, perceptions of technical skill job

difficulty and technical skill gaps as a general cause of unemployment did not show significant associations, with p-values above 0.05.

These findings largely agree with Guloba et al. (2021), who argued that Uganda's labour market leaves many graduates with skills that do not translate into suitable jobs, and with Namuliira et al. (2024), who noted that employers and students alike see a strong gap between theoretical training and practical digital, technical, and soft skills. The results also support EPRC (2023), which warned that many Ugandan graduates work in jobs that do not use their qualifications, and they echo the broader argument by Esposito and Scicchitano (2020) that educational mismatches raise unemployment risk. In this study, the size of the effect is especially clear in the very high odds ratios for lack of practical experience (AOR = 25.145) and poor skill-job matching (AOR = 16.095), which indicate that technical training remains central to employability in Kampala.

However, the findings also complicate the literature. Adely et al. (2021) and Schaefer (2017) caution against treating skills mismatch as the sole explanation for youth unemployment, arguing that structural job shortages and political economy factors may be the deeper problem. The present study does not fully reject that argument, because not every technical variable was significant, but it does show that the strongest and most consistent unemployment risks were tied to practical skill deficits rather than to the mere existence of unemployment in the labour market. In that sense, the findings lean more strongly toward the skills-gap explanation advanced by Aminu (2019), Rani and Sharma (2024), and Tåhlin and Westerman (2020) than toward the view that unemployment can be explained mainly by labour demand conditions alone. The Kampala evidence therefore suggests that technical skill mismatch is not a side issue; it is a measurable contributor to unemployment, especially when tertiary education offers limited hands-on learning and weak alignment with employer demands.

### 5.2.2 Soft Skill Mismatch and Youth Employability

The second objective examined the relationship between soft skill mismatch and youth employability in Kampala. The findings again show a clear association, especially for communication skills and the perceived value of soft skills in the labour market. Descriptively, unemployment was highest among respondents who strongly disagreed that tertiary education adequately prepared them with communication skills (93.33%, n=56) and among those who strongly disagreed that employers value soft skills (92.31%, n=72). By contrast, employment was

highest among respondents who strongly agreed that they were adequately prepared in communication skills (98.04%, n=50) and that soft skills are valued in the labour market (96.23%, n=51). The regression results confirm this pattern. Those who disagreed that tertiary education prepared them with communication skills were more than three times more likely to be unemployed than the neutral group (AOR = 3.133, p = 0.014, 95% CI: 1.265-7.763), and those who strongly disagreed were about 19 times more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 18.614, p = 0.004, 95% CI: 2.580-134.324). At the same time, respondents who strongly agreed that they were adequately prepared in communication skills had significantly lower odds of unemployment (AOR = 0.043, p = 0.029, 95% CI: 0.003-0.731). Similarly, respondents who disagreed that soft skills are valued by employers were about nine times more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 9.447, p < 0.001, 95% CI: 3.989-22.375), while those who strongly disagreed were approximately 42 times more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 42.097, p < 0.001, 95% CI: 10.904-162.522). The study also found that respondents who strongly agreed that inadequate soft skills reduce employability were significantly less likely to be unemployed (AOR = 0.046, p = 0.016, 95% CI: 0.004-0.563), suggesting that awareness of soft-skill importance may itself support employability. By contrast, perceptions of soft skill job difficulty and problem-solving gaps were not statistically significant, as their p-values exceeded 0.05.

These results agree strongly with Morsy and Mukasa (2020), who identified soft skill mismatch as a major employment barrier among African youth, and with Dibeh et al. (2019), who linked weak communication and workplace behaviour to poor labour-market outcomes. The findings also support Grero (2018) and Mseleku (2022), who argued that academic systems often fail to cultivate the interpersonal and behavioural competencies required in work settings. In the Kampala sample, the most decisive indicators were communication skills and the perceived labour-market value of soft skills, which produced very large and statistically significant odds ratios. This suggests that soft skill shortages are not merely abstract concerns; they have concrete effects on who gets employed and who remains unemployed.

At the same time, the study partly disagrees with Handel (2003) and Palmer (2017), who caution that soft skills are sometimes difficult to define and measure, and that reported mismatches may reflect employer expectations or measurement problems rather than genuine deficits. The Kampala evidence does not support the idea that soft skills are too vague to matter. The strong results for communication preparedness and employer valuation point to a real employment effect.

Nevertheless, the non-significant results for problem-solving gaps and job difficulty show that not every soft-skill dimension carries the same weight, which gives some support to the caution raised by those scholars that soft skills should not be treated as a single, uniform category. Overall, the findings indicate that the employability of youth in Kampala is shaped most strongly by communication skills and by whether graduates believe soft skills are rewarded in the labour market, a conclusion that aligns with Sam (2020) and Rani and Sharma (2024), who emphasize the employment and retention effects of educational mismatch.

### 5.2.3 Curriculum Relevance and Youth Employment Outcomes

The third objective assessed the effect of curriculum relevance in tertiary institutions on youth employment outcomes in Kampala. The findings show that curriculum matters, but not in a simple or uniform way. Descriptively, unemployment was highest among respondents who strongly disagreed that curriculum content was relevant (90.67%, n=68), who strongly disagreed that internships enhance employability (93.24%, n=69), and who strongly disagreed that relevant skills improve job retention (91.00%, n=91). On the positive side, employment was highest among those who strongly agreed that course content was relevant (96.92%, n=63), that internships improve employability (98.57%, n=69), and that curriculum updates matter for employment (91.53%, n=54). In the regression analysis, course content relevance was statistically significant, with disagree (AOR = 0.346, p = 0.039, 95% CI: 0.126-0.950) and strongly agree (AOR = 0.042, p = 0.029, 95% CI: 0.002-0.721) showing significant associations. Curriculum update frequency also showed a significant coefficient for strongly agree (AOR = 30.707, p = 0.009, 95% CI: 2.316-407.200), although this direction is counterintuitive and should be interpreted cautiously. Internship employability was likewise significant: disagree (AOR = 3.700, p = 0.008, 95% CI: 1.403-9.761), strongly agree (AOR = 0.030, p = 0.019, 95% CI: 0.002-0.561), and strongly disagree (AOR = 17.894, p = 0.002, 95% CI: 3.005-106.545) were all associated with unemployment. In addition, relevant skills and job retention showed strong effects, with disagree (AOR = 3.558, p = 0.006, 95% CI: 1.435-8.819) and strongly disagree (AOR = 14.680, $p < 0.001$, 95% CI: 4.279-50.364) indicating greater unemployment risk. However, curriculum labour-market alignment and the general belief that skill mismatch causes unemployment were not statistically significant, since their p-values were above 0.05.

These findings broadly agree with Rahman et al. (2021), Eseza (2025), and Mseleku (2022), who argue that curriculum relevance must be strengthened through industry consultation, practical exposure, and career-focused content. They also align with Kamukama (2017) and Egessa et al. (2021), who highlight the disconnect between academic programmes and local labour-market needs in Uganda. The significant role of internships in this study is particularly consistent with Eseza (2025), who views vocational and practical training as a direct bridge to employability, and with Bbaale et al. (2023), who argue that practical programmes matter when they are well structured and linked to real work.

At the same time, the findings partly disagree with the more optimistic assumption that updating curricula alone is enough to improve employment outcomes. The non-significant result for curriculum labour-market alignment suggests that broad alignment statements may not translate into actual employment differences unless they are backed by specific practical elements such as internships and relevant course content. This point supports Jjuuko (2021) and Bbaale et al. (2023), who warn that the quality of practical programmes matters more than their mere existence. It also resonates with Adely et al. (2021) and Schaefer (2017), who caution that focusing only on curriculum can distract from broader structural limits in the labour market. In other words, the Kampala findings suggest that curriculum relevance matters most when it is practical, employer-linked, and translated into real work exposure. A curriculum may be updated, but if it does not improve internships, job retention, and the practical usability of skills, its effect on youth unemployment may remain limited. This nuanced pattern is important because it shows that curriculum reform should be measured not by policy language alone, but by its concrete employment consequences.

### 5.3 Recommendations

#### Recommendations on Technical Skill Mismatch

Tertiary institutions should strengthen practical and hands-on learning components within their academic programs. The study found that respondents who strongly disagreed that they had received practical hands-on experience were approximately 25 times more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 25.145, $p < 0.001$). Universities and colleges should therefore expand laboratory work, practical projects, industry simulations, and competency-based training to ensure graduates acquire market-relevant technical skills.

Institutions should also establish stronger partnerships with employers to regularly identify emerging technical skill requirements. This would reduce the mismatch between graduate competencies and labour market expectations.

**Recommendations on Soft Skill Mismatch**

Tertiary institutions should integrate structured soft-skill training into all academic programs. Since respondents who strongly disagreed that they were adequately prepared in communication skills were about 19 times more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 18.614, p = 0.004), communication, teamwork, leadership, problem-solving, and interpersonal skills should be taught and assessed alongside technical competencies.

Employers should collaborate with educational institutions in delivering employability workshops, mentorship programs, and career development sessions aimed at strengthening workplace readiness among graduates.

**Recommendations on Curriculum Relevance**

Curriculum review processes should be conducted more frequently with active participation from industry stakeholders. The findings showed that respondents who strongly disagreed that internships improved employability experienced very high unemployment levels (93.24%) and were about 18 times more likely to be unemployed (AOR = 17.894, p = 0.002).

Tertiary institutions should therefore strengthen internship, apprenticeship, and work-placement programs to provide students with real-world work experience before graduation. In addition, curriculum content should be continuously updated to reflect current labour market trends, technological developments, and employer expectations.

**Policy Recommendations**

Government agencies responsible for higher education and employment should establish stronger mechanisms for linking education planning with labour market needs. Policies should support regular labour market assessments, graduate tracer studies, and institution-employer partnerships to ensure that graduates acquire skills that are relevant to current and future employment opportunities.

## 5.4 Conclusion

The study examined the effect of tertiary education–job skill mismatch on youth unemployment in Kampala, focusing on technical skill mismatch, soft skill mismatch, and curriculum relevance. The findings revealed that technical skill mismatch significantly contributes to youth unemployment, particularly where graduates lack practical hands-on experience and labour market-relevant technical competencies. Respondents who strongly disagreed that they had acquired practical experience and market-relevant technical skills exhibited substantially higher odds of unemployment.

The study further established that soft skill mismatch is an important determinant of employability. Communication skills emerged as one of the strongest predictors of employment outcomes, with graduates lacking these skills facing significantly greater risks of unemployment. The findings also demonstrated that perceptions regarding the value of soft skills in the labour market strongly influence employment prospects.

Finally, the study found that curriculum relevance plays a critical role in determining youth employment outcomes. Relevant course content, regular curriculum updates, and effective internship opportunities were associated with improved employability and lower unemployment levels among graduates.

Overall, the study concludes that reducing youth unemployment in Kampala requires a coordinated effort among tertiary institutions, employers, and policymakers to improve technical training, strengthen soft-skill development, and ensure that curricula remain responsive to labour market demands. Addressing these dimensions of skill mismatch will enhance graduate employability and contribute to sustainable employment outcomes for young people in Kampala.

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# APPENDICES

## Appendix I: Budget

| Item | Details | Estimated Cost (UGX) |
|---|---|---|
| Transport | Field movement within Kampala | 300,000 |
| Printing and photocopying | Questionnaires, consent forms, and drafts | 180,000 |
| Stationery | Pens, files, clips, and notebooks | 120,000 |
| Communication | Calls, airtime, and follow-up coordination | 100,000 |
| Research assistants | Support during data collection if needed | 400,000 |
| Contingency | Unexpected field expenses | 100,000 |
| **Total** | | **1,200,000** |

**Appendix II: Timeline**

| Activity | Month 1 | Month 2 | Month 3 | Month 4 | Month 5 | Month 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Proposal approval and ethics | | | | | | |
| Tool development and pretesting | | | | | | |
| Data collection | | | | | | |
| Data cleaning and coding | | | | | | |
| Data analysis | | | | | | |
| Report writing and submission | | | | | | |