

Analysis of Capacity Building and Economic Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa

Robert Dibie, Ph.D.

School of Public and Environmental Affairs
Indiana University Kokomo, USA

Felix Moses Edoho, Ph.D.

Lincoln University
Jefferson City, Missouri

Josephine Dibie, Ph.D.

School of Business
Indiana University Kokomo, USA

Abstract

This paper examines how countries in Sub-Saharan Africa seek to enhance their human, institutional and infrastructure capacity in order to secure a stable and sustainable economy. It argues that technical capacity building will serve as a lever for economic growth and social development. Capacity building is a continuous process of development that could be accomplished through the participation of the citizens in their own development. The dynamics of development and participation at both national and grassroots levels must involve the exposure of government change agents to participatory learning and action models. The paper uses data derived from primary and secondary sources to analyze the capacity building problems. The conceptual framework is based on the social constructionist, the build block model of development, monetarist and the Keynesian theories. The findings reveal that there is a negative correlation between the nations' educational system and the kind of skills needed to achieve sustainable development. In addition, government policies have not been able to effectively galvanize the private sector and NGOs to create more technical skills and jobs for citizens. The paper recommends that the dynamics of development and participation at grassroots level must involve the exposure of government change agents to participatory learning and action methodologies. Thus, government, private sector and NGOs should collaborate to establish a mechanism for a better and efficient approach to providing skilled capacity. Sub-Sahara African nations need to establish capacity building projects that could help to nurture changes in behavior, attitudes, methods and humanist paradigm, as well as offers not only the basis for self-reliance, participatory sustainable development but a means and an end in itself.

Keywords: Capacity Building, Management of Human Resources, Economic Growth, Sustainable Development

Introduction

One of the greatest challenges facing Africa today is restoring its economic growth and sustainability goals. During the 1980s and early 1990s, some African countries were plagued with severe political instability and poverty (Ezana 2011; Nwasor 2013; UNDP 2014). Fortunately, these challenges have been followed by favorable democratic and environmental renaissance (Gwin, 2014). Indeed, the current positive conditions have become a catalyst for economic growth, bringing affordable energy, jobs, revenues and an accompanying resurgence of manufacturing and agricultural products (United Nations Human Development Index, 2014).

Many scholars have described the social, economic and institutional problems in sub-Saharan Africa to be associated with its inadequate capacity building efforts (Gwin 2014; James 1998; Eade 2005; Edoho 1998; Hayami and Gogo 2005). The principal institutional mechanism for developing human capital is the formal education system of primary, secondary, and tertiary training (Nsubuga 2003; Afolabi 2002; Ayeni and Adelabu 2012; Gwin 2014; James 1998).

However, the education systems all over the continent are poorly equipped and managed and have not given access to the poor and rural people. In some cases there has been a negative connection between the education system and the skills needed for economic growth (World Bank 2014; UNDP 2014).

According to Helpman (2004), one of the reasons for the gap between African countries and those of developed countries is the fact that nations in the African continent have failed to focus on increasing their research and development (R&D) initiatives. African countries, rather than developing their own R&D, tend to benefit from the ones that take place in the industrialized countries. Another major problem is that these R&D benefits are larger when measured in consumption rather than GDP units (Gilipin, 2001). This means that the output gain of the developed countries far exceed the output gains of African countries. Sengupta (2011) contends that most African countries are characterized by high income inequality whereby several million citizens are placed in extreme poverty. This kind of problem limits the benefits of equally shared growth in the continent. As a result, inequality further augments the adverse effect of market and policy failure on economic growth.

A World Bank (2014) report indicated that although basic socioeconomic conditions in Africa is gradually improving, market and policy failure problems continue to constitute a weak foundation for expanding public sector capacities. Gwin (2014) also pointed out that the overall level of poverty in many African countries both creates enormous need for effective public sector performance and limits the human and financial resources available to the public sector. In addition, the lack of specific political and institutional characteristics in African countries inhibits effective public sector performance (Nwazor 2012; Onah 2010)

The political situation in many African countries has further prevented the national governments to integrate formal rules with informal norms in ways that ensure good governance (Nwazor 2012). According to Hayami and Gogo (2005), Dibie (2014), and World Bank (2014), consensus building on how to move forward is often a difficult thing to do in a political atmosphere that constantly generates a complex configuration of losers and winners. Thus, political instability poses a critical challenge to capacity building and appropriate public policy implementation. On the other hand, the relatively underdeveloped state of the private sector and civil organizations of all kinds limits independent analysis and pressure for change in several African countries.

Concern for capacity building in the sub-Saharan African region led to the creation of the African Capacity Building Initiative (ACBI) in 1991. The ACBI framework called for increased participation and leadership of African citizens in the development assistance projects. It also proposed a radical change of the traditional attitudes on the part of donors towards technical assistance. In furtherance of ACBI, the African Capacity Building Foundation—a joint donor-African government entity—was established with an initial capitalization of \$100 million. The logic that informed this approach was set out in an ACBI (1991) report.

The report stipulates a vital gap is not being filled: capacity in economic analysis and development management. Despite the achievement in education and training in Africa during the 30 years, most countries still do not have a critical mass of top-flight policy analysts and managers who can help pilot economies through the storms and turbulence that must be faced daily (World Bank 1991:58). The relatively underdevelopment and poor capacity building in Africa are also caused by brain drain. Brain drain designates the international transfer of human capital from the African continent to various western developed countries (Alamirew 2008). Mohamedbhai, (2007), UNDP (2014), and Gwin (2014) contend that African continent losses about 73,000 professional personnel annually, and currently over 41,000 of its Ph.D. holders are living in Europe, Canada, or the United States.

Another major problem of capacity building is that 55 percent of the medical doctors trained in Africa leave the continent to practice in Western Europe or North America (Gwin 2014). Therefore, it could be argued that capacity building should be a very difficult thing to achieve in Africa because the continent presently: (1) lacks professional or expert human capital; (2) lacks international communication technology; and that the governments (3) do not regard development as a process that could be cumulative as well; (4) fail to see sustainable development as a process that requires all stakeholders or citizens collaboration; (5) and fail to take stakeholders as altruist when it comes to contributing to development, and never care to seek diaspora expertise to augment home-country development efforts (Nwazor 2012; Onah 2010).

While the neoclassical market model postulates that primary institutions could facilitate exchange that propel private ownership and legally enforceable contracts, institutional approach to market dynamics and economic growth has not emphasized important features to achieve sustainable development and capacity building in many countries in Africa (Helpman, 2004).

The public sector in African continue to exhibit very weak mechanism of transparency and accountability, low bureaucratic quality, large public service wage bills, and high levels of corruption (Gwin2014; Dibie 2014). In addition to these institutional problems, globalization is widening the gap within Africa and between Africa and other regions of the world. Dibie (2014) contends that if the African continent had visionary leaders they could explore globalization to help their nations respectively and collectively through easier access to global knowledge. In addition, African leaders could widen domestic income base, by pulling highly trained talents into the continent and enhancing its competitiveness in international research and development. In addition to this observation by Dibie (2014), Gwin (2014) pointed that although migration of African experts brings in remittance to help reduce poverty, it depresses public sector performance in such areas as health, science, technology, and economic management.

The ability to deal with economic, capacity building, and social challenges, and engage in responsible and ethical business practices, provide high quality product and services, as well as develop methods and measure to determine if the government is meeting the needs of its citizens have not been very effective (Sengupa 2011; Dibie, 2010). The extent to which African governments have been able to address the sustainability challenges of human resource capacity building as well as a holistic approach to capitalizing on the strengths of a diverse workforce has not been encouraging(Smith-Sabesto 2012). Despite the political and economic stability in some African countries for almost two decades, the affected governments have not been able to attract and retain a committed productive workforce in turbulent economic conditions that offer opportunity for financial success. Further, most African countries have severely ignored youth capacity building (World Bank 2013).

According to the United Nations Human Development Index (2012) youth between 16 and 25 represent more than 60 percent of Africa's total population and account for 45 per cent of the total labor force (World Bank, 2014). In Ghana, Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Kenya, and Ethiopia, it is estimated that the youth represent 25 percent of the nations' working-age population and this figure may increase in the next two decades (Nwazor 2012; Gwin 2014). In addition to youth population growth, increased poverty, environmental degradation and unemployment are problems facing most countries in sub-Saharan Africa. It is expected that this increase in the number of youth will not decline in the next four decades or more (UNDP, 2013). To compound the capacity building problems in the continent, the high cost of seeking educational and vocational skills is increasingly causing millions of unemployed and underemployed youth in several African countries to turn into criminals (Eita et al., 2010).

The underlying problems have resulted in a large number of youth under 25 years old to seek employment every year. Thousands of young people of this age group have also left the continent in search of domestic employment in Arab and Western industrialized countries (Nebil et al., 2010; Abebe & Alemu 2013). Further, the lack of employment opportunities has given rise to other economic and social problems in the society, such as increased crimes rates, suicides, poverty, alcoholism, and prostitution (Rafik et al. 2010; Eita et al. 2010). In addition, the lack of employment opportunities in several countries in Africa has spilled over to health issues, low household income, stagnated government revenue and, hence, deplorable GDP and the inability to effectively implement sustainable development strategic plans. The growing impact of unemployment exacerbate other economic problems such as home foreclosures and credit card debt, causing number of bankruptcies among people who walked all their lives (Peters 2013)

According to Kraft and Furlong (2013),the five major economic goals that governments in Africa have not been able to effectively use to promote economic growth includes low levels of unemployment, low levels of inflation, a positive balance of trade, and the management of deficits and debt. There is very scanty evidence to show that the governments of Ethiopia, Kenya, Uganda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Tanzania, and Zimbabwe have effectively utilized these economic growth policy instruments(Eade 2005; Gilpin 2001; Gwin, 2014).Although enhanced capacity is central to some African countries' development, several sub-Saharan nations continue to trade off infrastructure development for social services programs, corruption, unfruitful agriculture projects, strengthening public institution, improve public performance, increasing employment and appropriate skills for manufacturing and production. Capacity building in the African continent therefore lacks a fully articulated framework for assessing economic growth and sequencing appropriate interventions as well as determining results for both the public and private sectors (Sengupta; Gwin, 2005). As a result, new ways of building sub-Saharan African citizens 'capacity to realize a more effective environment would have to come from entrepreneurship, experimentation and learning of skills that are appropriate for its sustainable development process.

The simulation of capacity building in the public and private sector of several African countries must address the human, organizational, and institutional capacity dimensions (Dibie 2014; James 1998). According to Gwin (2005) capacity building efforts will succeed only where they take adequate account of the prevailing local politics and institutions, and are African-owned rather than donor-driven.

This paper examines how countries in Sub-Saharan Africa seek to enhance their human, institutional and infrastructure capacity in order to secure a stable and sustainable economy. It argues that technical capacity building will serve as a lever for economic growth and social development. Capacity building is a continuous process of development that could be accomplished through the participation of the citizens in their own development. The dynamics of development and participation at both national and grassroots levels must involve the exposure of government change agents to participatory learning and action models. The paper uses data derived from primary and secondary sources to analyze the capacity building problems. The conceptual framework is based on the social constructionist, the build block model of development, monetarist and the Keynesian theories.

The findings reveal that there is a negative correlation between the nations' educational system and the kind of skills needed to achieve sustainable development. In addition, government policies have not been able to effectively galvanize the private sector and NGOs to create more technical skills and jobs for citizens. The paper recommends that the dynamics of development and participation at grassroots level must involve the exposure of government change agents to participatory learning and action methodologies. Thus, government, private sector and NGOs should collaborate to establish a mechanism for a better and efficient approach to providing skilled capacity. Sub-Sahara African nations need to establish capacity building projects that could help to nurture changes in behavior, attitudes, methods and humanist paradigm, as well as offers not only the basis for self-reliance, participatory sustainable development but a means and an end in itself.

Framework for Capacity Building and Economic Growth

Capacity building that leads to domestic economic growth in many African countries is important because it will provide a foundation for the future of the societies in the continent. Economic growth can contribute to advancements in manufacturing, production, employment and social wellbeing of citizens, creating beneficial outcomes and solutions to many economic problems (Mankiw, 2012). Economic growth is important because it keeps all nations moving in a positive, productive direction (Mandel, 2013). Increased economic growth in Africa may enhance or increase employment opportunities. The neoclassical approach to economic growth prescribes two basic premises.

On one hand is postulates the competitive model of equilibrium, where markets play a critical role in allocating resources efficiently (Sengupta and Phillip, 2009). The neoclassical approach suggests that markets for labor, capital, and finance following competitive rules help to secure optimal allocation of inputs and outputs (Samuelson and Marks, 2015). On the other hand, the neoclassical approach assumes that technology is given. Solow (1956) used the interpretation that the technology in the production is exogenous. From this perspective, it could be argued that investing in R&D and human capital by the governments of African countries could result in enough capacity to address their sustainable development challenges. Despite its crucial contribution, the neoclassical approach fails to explain the most basic fact of actual growth behavior. Unfortunately, this means that the long-term rate of national growth is determined outside the model and is independent of preferences (Sangupta, 2011).

In the era of globalization and modern information technology, high-tech industries of the twenty-first century tend to invest in knowledge capital and have played very important role as engines of economic, capacity building, social and sustainable growth (Ebert and Griffin, 2015). In addition, several of the subsectors of the information technologies and communication sectors specializing in software services and managerial skills in the arena of international outsourcing are highly labor-intensive (Sangupta 2011; Helpman 2004). While industrialized countries are able to export the spillover of global R&D and innovation technology to other countries of the world, the authors of this chapter wonder why African countries cannot emulate such entrepreneurial strategies. The endogenous growth theory has attempted to incorporate these spillover effects and impact of market expansion in sustaining economic rate in the long run (Sangupta, 2011). Schumpeter's (1947) concept of the dynamic competition is essentially based on the notion of dynamic efficiency through flexibility in a hypercompetitive framework.

The concept explains a process of innovation involving technical change that is embodied in physical capital (Nelson and Winter, 1982). Heerje (1988), however, contends that recent upsurge in knowledge capital and information technology has surpassed the Schumpeterian innovation concept in two ways. First, is the rapid development of high-tech industries with significant increasing returns to scale and it has helped to expand the global market. Second, the market structure has become more and more hypercompetitive (Hayami and Gogo 2005; Sangupta 2011).

In today's world of technology and invasion-intensive production and trade, dynamic comparative advantage replaces the static framework. In addition, under conditions of uncertainty there is no optimum allocation of resources under the dynamics of technology innovations (Samuelson and Marks, 2015). Unfortunately, African countries have not effectively invested in learning by exploring, renewable resources, and general-purpose technology to play dynamic roles more fully in the continent. Dibie (2014) contends that what we do and how we understand what we do is key to making fewer mistakes, to learning better ways and to nurturing the hope that our future will be a better place than the past for Earth (especially for Africa) and all that lives and relies upon the continent.

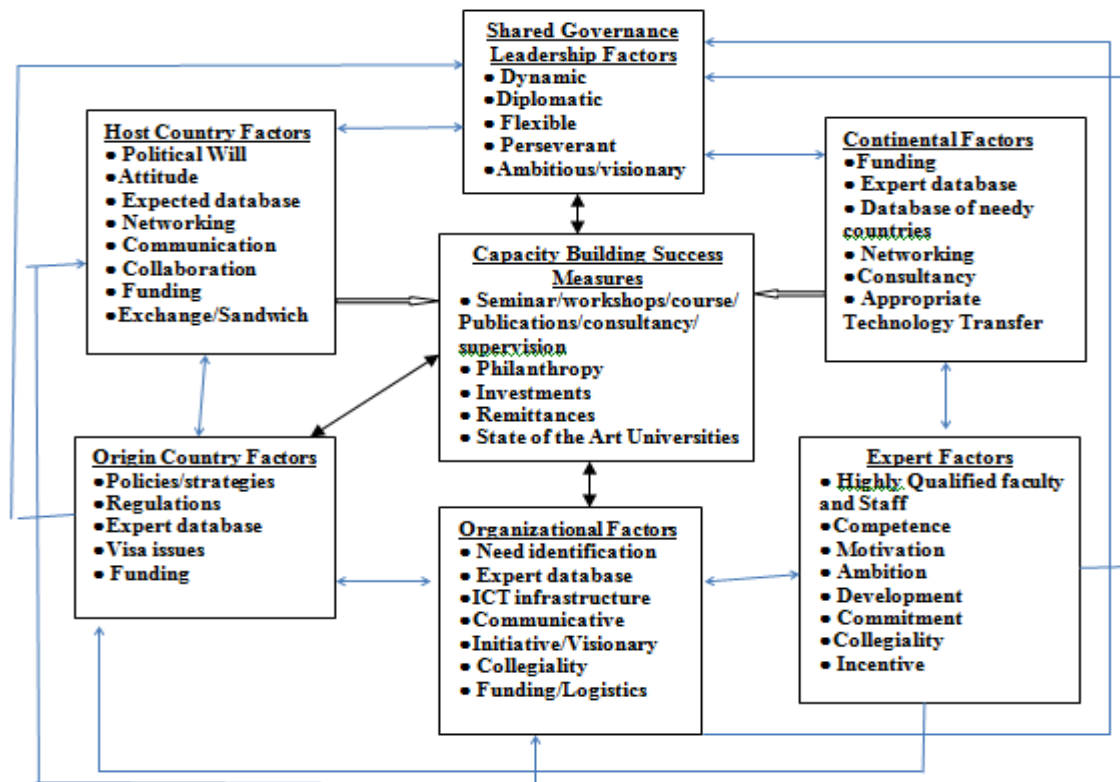
According to Ebert and Griffin (2015) growth in infrastructure represents those types of capital goods that serve the activities of many industries included paved roads, railroads, seaports, communication networks, financial systems, and energy supplies that support production and marketing for industries within sub-Saharan Africa as well as other countries. Ikharehon (2007) contends that necessity for capacity building cannot be over emphasized to achieve sustainable development. In order for sustainable development to be realized in developing countries, such nations must be able to produce more skilled human capital. This can only be achieved by the government if it invests heavily in entrepreneurship and the acquisition of technical skills (Samuelson and Marks, 2015). The quality and relevant capacity building in developing countries should help the related countries put in place machineries for sustainable development.

Theron (2005) described building block of development as a possible process in which to present a positive relation between top-down and bottom-up planning. Theron (2008) contended that building block of development model tends to show an appreciation for a social learning process, participation, empowerment and sustainable development partnership. The process helps both the change agent and the beneficiaries of development to conceptualize and contextualize the building block towards planning a development process. As a result any micro-level development engagement should consider the value of a slow-fast and incremental process, following the principles embodied in the building blocks of development (Brown 1997; Conyers & Hills 1990). Chamber (2005) pointed out that every capacity building process need congruence in institutional and personal change.

In this regard, institutional and personal transformation should ideally interact and reinforce each other. Rondinelli (1993) and Esman (1991) suggest that developing countries should adopt a radical move towards participation, empowerment and diversity. Chamber (2005) considers this prescription as a shift towards pro-poor realism. Figure 1 represents the concept of tapping talent for capacity building model. It is a representation of what happens when nations engage in collaboration to achieve development goals. Figure 1 also shows a comprehensive model of success factors in tapping diaspora expertise. The model attempt to explain that the process of achieving capacity building success in Africa may require a complicated interplay of factors such as shared governance leadership skills, host and origin country political will, state of the art universities, appropriate transfer of technology, appropriate incentives to attract the right experts, institutional, and expert collaboration (Boxer 2011).

Tapping talent for capacity building model presents an argument that change initiatives do not come about as a due process following the crafting of strategy and policy (Lehne 2012; Boxer 2011). The theory stipulates that without leadership collaboration even the most capacity building creative policy will fail (Porter 2006; Kraft and Furlong 2013). It also suggests that attending to host country factors, continental factors, original country factors, expert factors, and organizational factors could determine the likelihood that African countries or governments could achieve full capacity building and sustainable development in the future.

Figure 1: Tapping talent for capacity building model



Source: Adopted from Boxer, Lionel. (2011). "Preparing Leaders for Sustainable Future." *International Journal of Business Insights and Transformation*, Vol. 3, (January), 34-43. Bekele, T. A. & Alamirew, B. (2009). Optimal tapping of Diaspora expertise for African development: A model of success. *Ethiopian Students' Union in Oslo Bulletin*, 1(1), pp. 1-12.

According to Dye (2010) the lack of leadership could pose a major challenge and barrier to the implementation of any capacity building project and sustainable policy. He suggested that in teaching about capacity building and economic growth issues, there must be a political will, commitment and dedication to the understanding of how political and public administration leaders deal with the implementation of public policies. Dibie (2014) contends that for public policy implementation to be successful, public administrators and political leaders need to be able to inspire others to behave appropriately in a way that these capacity building and economic development policies are implemented as intended. Figure 2 shows the various components of a framework that will be used for capacity building.

Appreciating the interconnectedness of the several parts of the framework predicts that a change in one component will affect the other components. According to Dibie (2014), public policy should be the outcome that supports the public interest. Public administrators and political leaders must seriously consider the complexities of the public interest not only among themselves but in dialogue with a variety of stakeholders. Thus, conversation among stakeholders is the major instrument that could enable public policy to work towards the achievement of capacity building in African countries. Figure 1 shows that the idea platform for development is a partnership-in-planning model. This should be a partnership through which the change agent as outsider closely collaborates With the beneficiaries of a particular program or project in all the stages of planning and implementation.

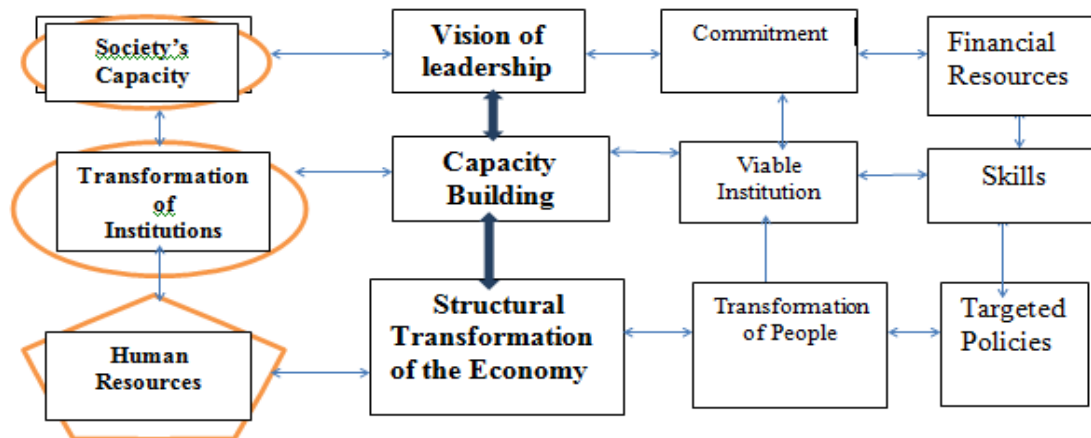
It is continuously shown all over Africa that the change agent often leans towards a mechanistic top-down approach because they believe that it works better if the development process is driven from outside due to the poor knowledge, lack of trust, and skills levels among grassroots (insider-out) participants. Thus, most governments in Africa do not trust or appreciate the talents that they have (Dibie, 2014).

According to Potterfield (1999), capacity building involves mobilizing people to gain the skills and knowledge that will allow them to overcome obstacles in life or work environment and ultimately help them develop within themselves or in the society.

It also involves increasing the educational, economic, social, political, gender, or spiritual strength of an individual, group or society (Ebert and Griffin, 2015). In some societies or nations, those who had previously suffered from discrimination based on disability, gender, race, ethnicity, religion, or economic status could be trained to attain equal status just like others that have been enjoying freedom (Blanchard et al 1993).

UNDP (2003) defined capacity building to cover human resources development and the strengthening of managerial systems, institutional development that involves community participation and creation of an enabling environment. Capacity building in the context of development implies a dynamic process which enables individuals and agencies to develop the critical social and technical capacities to identify and analyze problems as well as proffer solutions to them. Azikiwe (2008) contends that capacity building entails the process by which an individual, irrespective of sex, are equipped with skills and knowledge they need to perform effectively and efficiently in their different callings. Figure 2 show the capacity building model.

Figure 2: Reflection of capacity building impact



Source: Chambers, R. 2005. *Ideas for Development*. London, England: Earthscan Press.

Figure 2 describes capacity building as a process of change and the systematic management of transformation. It involves the transformation of peoples, institutional and society's capacity (World Bank, 2013). Capacity building, according to Chambers (2005), requires commitment, vision of leadership, viable institution and respective organizations, material, financial and skilled human resources.

According to Olivier de Surdan (2005) and Francois Theron (2008), capacity development takes place at three different levels: (a) the individual level; (b) the organizational level; and (c) the societal level. These three levels are interlinked and interdependent. An investment in capacity development must design and account for impact at these multiple levels. Capacity building is the sustainable creation of solutions and stabilization of capacity in order to reduce poverty, enhance self-reliance, and improve peoples' lives (UNDP, 2009).

These definitions suggest that capacity building should be treated as a goal in its own right, not merely as a means for achieving other development. Further, the definitions pointed out that support for capacity building need to address three very important dimensions of public sector capacity such as (1) human capacity—individuals with skills to analyze development needs, design and implement strategies, policies, and programs; deliver services and monitor results (Ebert and Griffin 2015); (2) Organizational capacity— groups of individual bounds by a common purpose, with clear objectives and the internal structures, processes, systems, staffing, and other resources to achieve them (Samuelson and Marks, 2015); (3) Institutional capacity – the formal rule of the game and informal norms such as collecting taxes, reporting on the use of public funds and regulating private business (Gwin 2014; UNDP 2009); (4) Community capacity building (CCB) refers to capacity as a conceptual approach to development that focuses on understanding the obstacles that inhibit people, governments, international organizations, and non-governmental organizations from realizing their development goals. while enhancing the abilities that will allow them to achieve measurable and sustainable results (Linnell 2003; United Nations, 2006); (5) Kplan (2000) contends that NGO capacity building is a way to strengthen an organization so that it can perform the specific mission it has set out to do and thus survive as an organization; and (6) Another type of capacity building is the organizational form that is focused on developing capacity within organizations like NGOs.

It refers to the process of enhancing an organization's abilities to perform specific activities (Ebert and Griffin, 2015). An Organizational capacity building approach is used by NGOs to develop internally so they can better fulfill their defined mission (Eade, 2005).

In addition, to individuals, groups, country and NGOs, capacity building may relate to leadership development, advocacy skills, training/speaking abilities, technical skills, organizing skills, and other areas of personal and professional development (Carroll and Buchholtz, 2015). One of the most difficult problems with building capacity on a local level is the lack of research based universities in African countries (Linnell, 2003; Gwin 2014). It also calls for transparency and accountability in all aspects of government functions and the activities of public officials. According to UNDP (2009), the capacity development process consists of five steps that are embedded into a policy advisory analysis and programming process

Developing national capacity is tantamount to laying a solid endogenous foundation for sustained economic growth and virtuous circle of self-regenerating development. In the public sector, the national efforts towards capacity building should cut across all sectors of the economy and all levels of government. In the private sector, capacity building should cut across all functional areas of the organization. In this context, Edoho (1998:235) conceptualized capacity building as the continuous improvements in the ability of the individuals and society to control the forces of nature and to harness them for their benefits. It has to do with developing the skill and knowledge base of the society to enable it to improve the material conditions of its citizens. Thus, capacity is the amalgam of a society' stock of managerial, scientific, technological, entrepreneurial, and institutional capabilities.

A nation's focus on what development policies and investments work best to strengthen the abilities, networks, skills and knowledge base cannot be that of intervention (Markiw, 2012). The bone of contention is that capacity building is about capable and transformational states, which enable progressive and resilient societies to achieve their own development objectives over time. Ideally, the transfer of knowledge should be in both directions whereby a mutually beneficial and empowering social learning process and a partnership in planning through which the change agent acts as a mediator between types of knowledge system. The challenge of capacity building is to see what responsible wellbeing might mean for all people, in their relation with themselves, with others, and with the environment.

According to Dibie (2014) and Helpman (2004) the major principles by which capacity building may create positive impact on people are in the areas of sustainability and equity. Capacity development is about who and how and where the decisions are made, management takes place, services are delivered, and results are monitored and evaluated. This is because the overarching ends are human well-being supported by capability and livelihood. Sustainability and equity in the implementation of appropriate economic policies are necessary instruments for achieving good quality of livelihood and security (Carroll and Buchholtz 2015). Capacity building for a society or nation can enhance the ability of citizens to become more economically and socially secured, and be able to contribute effectively to the sustainable development process of African countries.

The question in the case of sub-Saharan Africa is: do the beneficiaries experience a life-changing reality which builds their capacity, empowers them, and establishes honor, dignity, and self-esteem? The action research conducted in several African countries does not show total appreciation of this kind of reality. Argyris and Schon (1992) and Revans (1980 and 2011) developed theories of learning which incorporate the possibility of learning at the organizational level. Revans (2011) contend that learning takes place when individuals critically reflects on their life experience, generalize from their reaction, and experiment with new behaviors, by constructing experience for further reaction. Revans' (2011) approach is particularly relevant to sustainable development, because it argues that organizations will survive and prosper in turbulent times only if they develop the ability and skills to learn from their experiences.

The learned skills and experiences should incrementally exceed the rate of problems that need to be solved (Kraft and Furlong 2013; Ferrell et al 2015). Many scholars have described the "five major economic goals that government should attempt to promote in their strategic development plans. These sustainable development goals include economic growth, low levels of unemployment, low levels of inflation, a positive balance of trade, and management of deficits and debt (Kraft and Furlong 2013; Mankiw 2012; Mandel 2012; Ferrell et al 2015). Economic growth means an increase in the production of goods and services each year, and it is expressed as Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

Stable prices or low levels of inflation or an increase in the cost to goods and services measured by the Customer Price Index reflects every change in the pricing goods and services (Mankiw, 2012). A positive balance of trade is an economic goal that positively reflects the role of African countries in an international economy. In addition, full employment benefits might further galvanize the African economy. If unemployment goes up, the governments loose revenues because of the loss of taxes from pay checks. The government will have increased expenses due to welfare and unemployment expense paid to the workers (Mankiw 2012; Peters, 2013).

Governments have numerous strategic options at their disposal to try to influence the performance of the economy. Analysts believe that the two most popular options include fiscal policy and monetary policy. Other options include regulation and tax policy. The first policy that the government of African countries uses is fiscal policy. According to Chad Brooks' article, "What is Fiscal Policy" (2012), he states, "One of the factors that helps determine a country's economic direction is fiscal policy. The government uses fiscal policy to influence the economy by adjusting revenue and spending levels. Fiscal policy can also be used in combination with monetary policy. There are two main tools of fiscal policy. These tools include taxes and spending. Chad (2012) contends that taxes influence the economy by determining how much money the government has to spend in certain areas and how much money individuals have to spend.

For example, if the government is trying to spur spending among consumers, it can decrease taxes. A cut in taxes provides families with extra money, which the government hopes they will turn around and spend on other goods and services, thus spurring the economy as a whole (Brooks, 2012). Another tool that fiscal policy uses is spending. Spending allows for government money to spread to certain sectors (i.e., capacity building) that need technical skills and economic boost. Individuals who receive these dollars will have extra money and will hopefully spend it on other goods and services. It is crucial for governments to find the right balance and to make sure that the economy doesn't lean too far either way.

There are two types of fiscal policy: expansionary and contractionary. The first type, expansionary fiscal policy is designed to stimulate the economy. Expansionary fiscal policy is used during a recession and times of high unemployment or other low periods of the business cycle. It involves either the government spending more money, lowering taxes, or both. The goal is to place more money in the hands of the consumers so they can spend more and stimulate the economy. The second type, contractionary fiscal policy is used to decrease economic growth, such as when inflation is growing too rapidly. Contractionary fiscal policy also raises taxes and cuts spending. Fiscal policies are tied into the federal budget each year. The federal budget gives an overview of the government's spending plans for the fiscal year and how it plans to pay for that spending through either new or existing taxes.

The monetary policy determines the amount of money flowing through the economy and can affect the direction of a nation's economy. Monetary policy is set by the various Central Banks of African countries and influences the economic activity by controlling the country's money supply and credit. The Central Banks can control monetary policy by fluctuating rates of interest and changing the amount of money banks must have in their reserves (Mandel, 2012; Mankiw 2012). The monetary policies goals are to encourage maximum employment, stabilize prices and moderate long-term interest rates. According to Mankiw (2012) and Mandel (2012) when implemented correctly, monetary policy stabilizes prices and wages, which in turn leads to an increase in jobs and long-term economic growth. For example, the United States monetary policy plays a significant role not just in the economy as a whole, but in specific decisions consumers make, such as buying houses and cars, starting and expanding businesses and deciding to invest money (Brooks, 2012).

The key to monetary policy is finding the perfect balance; if you let the money supply grow too rapidly it increases inflation, while letting it grow too slowly stunts economic growth. Economic theory on employment and unemployment has contributed to the problem of low rates employment in many African countries. The problems with supply and the demand sides of the labor market in the country as well the lack of a transparent labor market information system has galvanized severe economic growth problems in the continent. According to Schiller (2011), supply side factors such as demographic structure, education and training policies could affect the labor market outcomes in any nations' economy. Demand side issues including aggregate demand of the economy and the absorptive capacity of the economy for labor through development of enterprises and job creation institutions are potential factors that affect unemployment rate in any country (Schiller 2011; Lehne 2012).

In addition to the ineffective labor market information system, the institutional and fiscal and monetary policies have major role in the interaction of the supply and the demand sides of the labor market in many African countries (UNDP 2007; World Bank 2013). The literature review presented several arguments that unemployment often constitutes potential low economic growth. According to Samuelson and Marks (2015) the potential danger of not achieving economic growth lies in high unemployment and inflation rate among other factors. The Phillips curve represents the relationship between the rate of inflation and the unemployment rate. W. H. Phillips (Mankiw 2012) believes that there is a consistent inverse relationship: when unemployment was high, wages increased slowly; when unemployment was low, wages rose rapidly (Mankiw, 2012; Hoover 2008).

According to Anderson (2015) and Dibie (2014), in order to tackle the unemployment and capacity building gap between basic education, vocational training, and the job market life-long learning problems, the following factors are required: (1) skills provider and employers; and (2) skills development and industrial investment, trade, technology and environmental policies. Further, through institutions such as: (1) inter-ministerial mechanisms – linked to national development framework; (2) social dialogue; (3) skills forecasting and labor market information system; (4) value chain; (5) industrial clusters; (5) social inclusiveness; (6) maintaining employability of workers and sustainability of enterprises; (7) match demand and supply of skills; and (8) sustain a dynamic development process (Jones, 2001a; Lehne 2012).

It could be argued therefore that skills development can improve employability of workers, productivity of enterprises and the inclusiveness in economic growth. African nations must change both the orientation of their public administrators and those that fund them. It must also recognize that excellence in programmatic innovation and implementation are insufficient for government institutions to achieve lasting economic growth results. As a result, great programs need great organizations and capacity building measures behind them (Miller et al. 2014).

According to Dibie (2014) in order to avoid authoritarianism in African countries, a focus must be directed at developing the abilities and skills of national and local governments so that shared governance and sustainable development can be diffused across all states and regions. Capacity building in governments often involves providing the tools to help citizens best fulfill their responsibilities. These include building up a government's capacity to budget, collect revenue, create and implement laws, promote civic engagement (Chambers, 2002), be transparent, accountable and fight corruption (Boex and Yilmaz, 2010).

Research Method

This paper adopted a cross sectional study design employing both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection in purposively selected sub-Saharan African counties. Secondary data was obtained through an in-depth desk review and content analysis of relevant published and grey material (unpublished studies), policy and programs documents, regulations and laws of the selected countries in Africa. The main areas of capacity building and governance considered as key in the empowerment of citizens (men and women. While the poor are susceptible to diverse risks – political, environmental, social and economic risks, the effects of these risks have significant differential impacts on men and women with higher risks and vulnerability to poverty among women. Social protection is seen as a key strategy for tackling the 'poverty trap delivery of women included voice and decision making through representation on the governance structures, policies, laws and regulations and the key dimensions of accountability including transparency and participation in decision making, planning, implementation and evaluation of initiatives are also very important to capacity building in sub-Saharan Africa countries.

Analysis of Trends in Capacity Building

The post-independence African states have not been in the right environment in which change agents and elites work together to play major part in determining how effective capacity building programs function or are implemented. Bereketeab (2014) and Homer-Dixon (2001) describe the African environment as a continent with three scarcity sources. The sources are (1) supply induced scarcity; (2) demand induced scarcity and; (3) structural scarcity. On one hand, the supply induced scarcity refers to scarcity arising from decrease of renewable resources. On the second hand, the demand induced scarcity relates to demographical change where population increase is greater than available resources. The structural scarcity relates to shortage of resources arising from unequal access to resources. Unequal access to resources also relates to vulnerability and issues of distribution.

The issue of distribution is also associated with the nature of the political system and the types of public policies that are implemented by the African governments (Bereketeab 2014; Hauge and Ellingsen 1998). According to James (1998) the accomplishment of independence left most African countries with a small ruling elite who, although had political power, were not necessarily rich. Rather than embarking on laying the foundation for capacity-building, these elites were more determined to amass wealth at the expense of national development. It has been nearly over 50 to 60 years since most African countries achieved their independence; yet, this pattern of elite corrupt and unethical practices still continues. The ruling Africa elites are more determined than ever to focus their attention on their particular ethnic groups by mobilizing the rural population behind their self-aggrandizement.

As a result, ethnic issues continue to hinge upon who runs the government, since the government is the largest employer (Nnoli 1995; James 1998; Dibia 2014). The lack of unity to establish a national political will to focus on state building and sustainable development is central to the flaws of capacity building in the Africa continent. The political conflict over the years in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Liberia, Libya, Northern Sudan, Boko Haram issues in Nigeria, Sierra Leone, South Sudan, Mali, Burkina Faso, Rwanda, Uganda; Zimbabwe, Central African Republic are few examples of the factors militating against capacity building in the African continent.

Some African countries are enjoying higher levels of economic growth and well-being, but insecurity, as well as natural or human-induced disasters, persists in some parts of the region (Fisher and Anderson 2015). According to the United Nations 2104 Human Development Report (HDR) (2014), several nations in Sub-Saharan Africa have not been able to successfully intensify their battle against deprivation and prevent crises from setting back recent development advances. The HDR (2014) also reveals that 77 percent of the African population is in vulnerable employment. Many of unemployed and those that are in vulnerable employment are youths.

These set of unemployment youth have become recruiting avenues for Boko Haram, Al-Shabaab and other militant groups. Thus, measures to create equal access to jobs, healthcare and education opportunities have an important role to play in promoting sustainable development and capacity building. McBride and Sherraden (2004) contend that the outcome of sustainable development programs can range from peace and international understanding, to improved job skills and education, to sustained civic engagement. Dibia (2014) pointed out that achieving sustainability requires addressing agriculture, Justice and equity, wood, products, water supplies, biodiversity, climate change, manufacturing and industry, fisheries and forest. Sustainability transcends and supersedes environmentalism. Sustainability involves a transformation from a wasteful, consumptive behavior to a more pragmatic modest life style. Sustainability is based on what can be referred to as the triple bottom line: People, Planet, and prosperity for all.

The 2014 United Nations Human Development report indicated that gender inequality remains a major barrier to capacity building and other forms of human development. Girls and women have made major strides since 1990, but they have not yet gained gender equity. The disadvantages facing women and girls are a major source of inequality. Table 1 show how women and girls are discriminated against in health, education, political representation, labor market, and so on. These discriminatory practices have had negative repercussions for development of their capabilities and their freedom of choice.

The Human Development Index (2014) measures gender inequalities in three important aspects of human development—reproductive health measured by maternal mortality ratio and adolescent birth rates; empowerment, measured by proportion of parliamentary seats occupied by females and proportion of adult females and males aged 25 years and older with at least some secondary education; and economic status expressed as labor market participation and measured by labor force participation rate of female and male populations aged 15 years and older (UN Human Development index, 2014). The World Bank, World Development indicators 2013 sheds new light on the position of women in over 49 countries in the African continent. The problem of discrimination and unequal treatment has resulted in huge gender gaps in major areas of capacity building and economic growth in Africa. The component indicators highlight areas in need of critical policy intervention and it stimulates proactive thinking and public policy to overcome systematic disadvantages of women (Gwin 2014; UN Human Development index, 2014).

Table 1: Expenditure on education, public (% of GDP) (%)

HDI rank	Country	Share of seats in parliament, 2013	Life expectancy at birth, female, 2013	Life Expectancy at birth, male, 2013	Mean years of schooling, female, 2002-2012	Mean years of schooling, male, 2002-2012	Estimated GNI per PPP\$, female, 2013	Estimated GNI per PPP\$, male, 2013
109	Botswana	7.9	66.8	62.1	11.7	11.6	11,491	18,054
110	Egypt	2.8	2.8	73.6	68.8	12.7	13.3	4,225
118	S. Africa	41.1	58.8	54.7	-	-	8,539	15,233
138	Ghana	10.1	62.1	60.2	10.9	12.1	2,937	4,138
140	Congo	9.6	60.2	57.4	10.9	11.3	4,222	5,597
147	Kenya	19.9	63.6	59.8	10.7	11.3	1,763	2,554
151	Rwanda	51.9	65.7	62.4	10.3	10.2	1,263	1,550
152	Nigeria	6.6	52.8	52.2	8.2	9.8	4,068	6,594
156	Zimbabwe	35.1	60.8	58.8	9.1	9.5	1,124	1,496
173	Ethiopia	25.5	65.3	62.0	8.0	9.0	1,090	1,515
	Tanzania	36.0	62.9	60.2	9.0	9.3	1,501	1,903
	Senegal	42.7	64.9	61.9	7.8	8.1	1,642	2,717

Source: World Bank (2013). "World Development Indicators 2013." Washington, D.C.: World Bank.

Table 1 show that in 2013, sub-Saharan Africa countries had the second highest rate of progress in the Human Development Index (HDI), which combines achievements in income, health and education. Rwanda and Ethiopia achieved the fastest growth, followed by Angola, Burundi, Mali, Mozambique, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia. Despite this mile stone accomplishment, a recent troubling finding shows that 585 million people in sub-Saharan Africa, the equivalent of 72 percent of the region's population, are living in multidimensional poverty (HDR, 2014). This group of poor people also suffers deprivation in education, health and living standards or at risk of falling back into poverty (HDR, 2014). These groups often do not experience improvements in their standard of living because they have limited political participation, livelihood options and access to basic social services, and even when they do escape poverty, they can relapse rapidly into precariousness when crises hit (Gwin, 2014; Fisher and Anderson 2015).

Deprivation in health, education and living standards in Africa often could spill over to affect individuals or even entire communities over a lifespan, based on gender, ethnicity, geographic location and other factors. For example, the Report shows that the region has the world's highest disparities in health, and shows considerable gender inequalities in income, educational attainment and access to reproductive health services. Table 2 shows the average expenditure of health as percentage of GDP of selected African countries in comparison to three Western industrialized countries.

Table 2 Expenditure on health, public (% of gdp) (%)

HDI Rank	Country	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
1	Norway	8.7	8.6	9.7	9.3	9.1
5	USA	16.2	16.6	17.7	17.6	17.9
8	Canada	10.0	10.3	11.4	11.4	11.2
109	Botswana	7.2	4.4	4.9	5.1	5.1
110	Egypt	4.9	4.8	5.0	4.7	4.9
118	S. Africa	7.8	8.0	8.7	8.7	8.5
138	Ghana	6.0	5.6	5.0	5.2	4.8
140	Congo D. R.	2.5	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.5
147	Kenya	4.4	4.2	4.6	4.4	4.5
151	Rwanda	9.4	9.2	10.0	10.4	10.8
152	Nigeria	7.0	6.3	6.8	5.4	5.3
156	Ethiopia	3.9	4.0	4.4	4.4	4.7
163	Tanzania	5.7	5.4	5.6	7.2	7.3
180	Senegal	5.9	7.3	0.1	7.5	8.5
	Zimbabwe	-	-	-	-	-

Source: World Bank (2013). "World Development Indicators 2013." Washington, D.C.: World Bank. <http://data.worldbank.org>. Accessed March 4, 2015.

According to Gilpin (2001) economic globalization has led to key development in trade, finance, and foreign direct investment by multinational corporations. In addition to impact of globalization, the last four decades have experienced deregulation and privatization. These two economic factors have opened national economics to import. Technological advance in communications and transportation tend to have reduced costs and thus significantly encourage trade expansion (Falk 1999; Gilpin 2001). While several countries and businesses are taking advantage of these economic and technological changes, more and more business have participated in international market, several African countries have not been fully engage in the dynamics of technological advances, deregulation and privatization. They are somewhat excluded because of their low capacity. The only area African countries have favorable improvement is in the exportation of food and raw materials. The World Bank (2012) reported that Africa accounted for only 2 percent of total world trade.

Dimensions of the African Labor Market

Two essential dimensions of the labor market are the demand and supply sides of the economy (Samuelson and Marks, 2015). The number of officials trained in the African continent by IMF increase steadily during the mid-1990s. The driving forces for this increase in officials trained by the IMF certainly lie in the interplay between demand and supply. On one hand, the demand side of the African labor market is associated with the ability of the economy to generate employment opportunity for various skill categories. The demand factors also include the political and economic development, African countries openness, and financial crisis which further let governments in the continent to feel the need to request training and loans from the World Bank and IMF (Samuelson and Marks 2015; Mankiw 2012). On the other hand, the supply side of the labor market deals with whether the current labor force in the continent countries match with the type of skills that the economy demands. In addition to the labor market, public and private institutions such as the governance of labor market-industrial relations and labor market services play significant role in employment promotion. The supply factor also relate to the creation of regional IMF training centers which have allowed for an increase in the offering of training courses in the African continent (Arezki et al 2012). This implies that an ineffective management of labor Market institutions has also led to high unemployment in sub-Saharan African countries.

The Demand Side of Labor Market Issues:

According to the World Bank report (2013)), the agricultural sector is the dominant sector in the African economy because it contributes over 41 percent of the continent's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The agricultural sector also contributes to 60 percent of African nations' exports, and is the major employer of approximately 83.5 percent of the continent's population. In addition, the agricultural sector in several Africa countries is the major employer of the rural population. As a result, job opportunity for urban youths in agricultural sector is limited. The second largest contribution to the national GDP of African countries comes from the service sector (Arezki et al 2012; UNEC, 2011). Recent reports revealed that the contribution of the service sector to African countries gross domestic product is about 46 percent (World Bank, 2013). Though the service sector of the economy has shown flamboyant performance with regard to its contribution to the GDP in recent years, it could not generate significant employment opportunity and neither is it paying as high as the industrial sector. The industrial sectors contribution is very minimal with about 13% comparative to the two dominant sectors in the African economy (UNEC, 2011). This indicates significant structural weakness of the economy. Employment opportunity for urban youth is directly related to the development of the industrial sector of the economy. The low level of development in the industrial sector of the economy therefore is one of the major issues that explain urban youth unemployment problem. In addition, maximizing the use of scarce resources is evidently a useful criterion for resource development in African countries; however, such strategies usually do not take cognizance of the environmental and social disruption created or the negative externalities or the environmental problems resulting from the maximization of resources used (Bereketeab 2014; Hayami and Gogo 2005).

Table 3 shows that some nations in African have great problems in dealing with more recent environmental problems created by industrialization, heavy automobile traffic, large quantities of solid waste, and informal society activities. Dye (2013) and Smith-Sabasto. (2012) contend that the environmental problems of African nations are as serious and urgent as the problems of underdevelopment. As alluded to earlier in this chapter, the problem of governance in some of these African nations is even more serious and urgent (Collier and Hoeffler, 2014).

Growth oriented development strategies in several African countries has failed to fully comprehend the range of economic activities that should take places in communities, cities and rural and urban towns, especially the non-monetary and sustainable activities within the plan or policy. Several scholars have attributed the demand side problems of the labor market in African economies to be the result of weakness of the economies, saturated public services and small private sector bases that are unable to employ large numbers of people (Schiller 2011; Mankiw 2012; Adebayo 1999; Rondinelli 1993; United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNEC, 2011). Table 3 shows the environmental problems in some African countries due to inadequate capacity building and economic growth.

Table 3 Environmental problems due to inadequate capacity building activities

Type of Environmental Problems	Ghana	South Africa	Nigeria	Kenya	Botswana	Egypt	Demo. Republic of Congo
Garbage Collection Problem	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Inadequate Land Fill	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Foul odors due to Dumped in Gullies	X	PX	X	X	X	X	X
Waste Dumped on the streets	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Sewage Treatment	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Effect of informal Sector	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Improper Disposal of Waste Engine Oil and Car Batteries	X	PX	X	X	X	X	X
Drainage Problems when it Rains	X	PX	X	X	X	X	X
Burning Refuse	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Use of firewood	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

Source: Dibie, R. (2014). *Comparative Perspectives on Environmental Policies and Issues*. New York: Routledge Press.

Key X = Excessive problem; PX = Partial problem

A study by Gwin (2014) reveals that the education systems in African countries have failed to promote vocational and technical trainings. This flaw in the continent's educational system has negatively affected the level of cognitive skills of students and their aspiration for success. According to the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) (2011), this inadequate vocational training skills problem is common to most African countries. Therefore, it could be argued that the negative correlation between educational systems and the technical skills needed in the labor market is one of the noticeable causes of low capacity building in sub-Saharan African countries.

The youths and adults in urban areas of many African countries are characterized also by persistently high unemployment (World Bank, 2007). Nebil et al. (2010) argue that without opportunities for today's youth to earn a living, poverty will persist through the next generation. Therefore, the commitment by all stakeholders particularly, private sector, government and NGOs and other civil society organizations in an integrated manner is indispensable for necessary measures to be taken in the country.

The Supply Side of Labor Market Issues:

To supplement the demand side of the labor market the government of some African countries has introduced specific and employment or job creation targeted programs. One of such programs is the cobblestone project in urban Ethiopia which was initiated by the Engineering Capacity Building Program supported by the German Development Cooperative (GTZ). Since 2007, the Engineering Capacity Building Program has been training the youth in traditional crafting of cobblestone paving with the dual objective of creating jobs for youth and creating clean, attractive pavement roads in Ethiopian towns. It is based on the principle of local resource utilization in a labor intensive manner to pave roads and public spaces using environmentally amicable approach adopted from the German experiences. The project created jobs for the youth organized to operate Micro and Small Enterprises. This means construction of pavements in towns and cities enabled creation of new Micro and Small Enterprises thereby boosting housing investment.

Available evidence shows that the project has resulted in the creation of more than 2,000 Micro and Small Enterprises and employed more than 90,000 youth in urban areas of Ethiopia by the end of 2011 (Ezena, 2011). The Nigerian Government has also made a number of efforts to address the unemployment problems faced by the urban youth because of the deficiency in the supply side of the labor market. It has increase the workforce of the police, and several other ministries in both the federal and state levels. The compulsory one year National Youth Service Corps program for all new higher education graduates in another good example of how Nigerian has created temporary employment for its youth. The spill-over problem that continues to affect the youth in Nigeria, however, is that there are more graduates turn out each year from universities and polytechnics than the jobs available in the country.

As part of the efforts to boost job opportunities for young people, countries such as South Africa, Kenya, Tanzania and Tunisia have developed young entrepreneurship programs and business start-up schemes supported by Small Business Development Organizations, which provide technical skills for new businesses (United Nations Economic Commission for Africa 2011). Another strategy used by other Western industrialized economies but not yet to be adopted by many African countries so far is the provision of incentives to firms for the hiring of young people. Such efforts have yielded some positive results; for example, 1.27 million jobs were created in Tanzania over the last three years as a result of these programs according to the evidence from the fact sheet of United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (2011).

As discussed earlier in respect of the supply side problems of the labor market the citizens are challenged due to high unemployment because of the mismatch between their educational training and the skills that the economy requires. The most noticeable reaction from the government to this problem was the policy reform introduced to the education system of some African countries to transform the century long theory oriented education into practice and skill development orientation.

According to the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (2010) Report, the net primary education enrollment rate in the Central, Western, Eastern and Southern African regions combined increased from 58 percent in 1999 to 76 percent in 2008, while in North Africa, it increased from 86 percent in 1999 to 94 percent in 2008. However, the increase in primary education enrollment rates has not necessarily been followed by an equivalent increase in secondary and tertiary education rates, especially for young women and girls. According to UNEC (2011) when it comes to tertiary education among youth populations in Africa, the gross enrollment rate for tertiary education level is very low. The pattern for Ethiopia, Somalia, Sudan, Eritrea, Chad, Niger, Mali and Libya are similar as the increase in primary education enrolment has not been accompanied by equivalent rise in secondary and tertiary education enrolment. The participation of women and young girls is significantly lower at the tertiary level compared with the participations in primary education due to early marriage traditions (UNEC, 2011).

In the past three decades the new education system that was introduced by many African Countries have been partially successful. According to Afolabi (2002) and Olagboye (2004) the new education system requires only those who score qualifying results on national examinations offered at the end of the twelfth grade could be admitted to polytechnics or universities. Those who do not achieve the necessary results for admission to polytechnics or universities are provided with the opportunity to pursue formal education thorough Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) which ranges from one to five years based on the level of competency the trainees want and the nature of the field of study chosen. For this purpose, a great number of polytechnics and technical training institutes were established to provide technical training in different trades and at various levels in a bid to strengthen the capacity and employability of graduates.

According to Guarcello and Rosati (2007) and UNDP (2013) report, the establishment of Polytechnics and Technical and Vocational institutions has increased the probability of being employed by 25% in urban areas and by about 13% in rural areas in some African countries. Despite the good intentions of several African countries' governments to introduce new educational systems, they have failed to sustain the quality and standards that were originally intended. Most public schools are dilapidated and inadequate to provide quality education. Polytechnics and vocational training institutions lack appropriate equipment (Dibie 2014; UN Human Development Report 2014). Afolabi (2003) and Duze and Agbah (2013) contend that classrooms in most of the public schools were inadequate in terms of decency, space, furniture, ventilation and insulation from heat and cold. The toilets in universities and polytechnics do not have running water.

Institutions that have generating electricity plants cannot effectively maintain them. The governments of many African countries cannot also effectively manage a national electricity system. As a result, schools and industries are often in darkness. Capacity building is also limited because many elementary and secondary schools in both urban and rural areas in many African countries are in disrepair, with systems in need of repair or replacement. But with state and local budgets increasingly limited, funding allocation for school construction and renovation needs to be carefully weighed. It is important to ensure that investments are going toward efforts that can best foster healthier buildings and environments (Baker and Berstein 2012; Duze and Ogah 2013; Ayeni and Adelabu 2011).

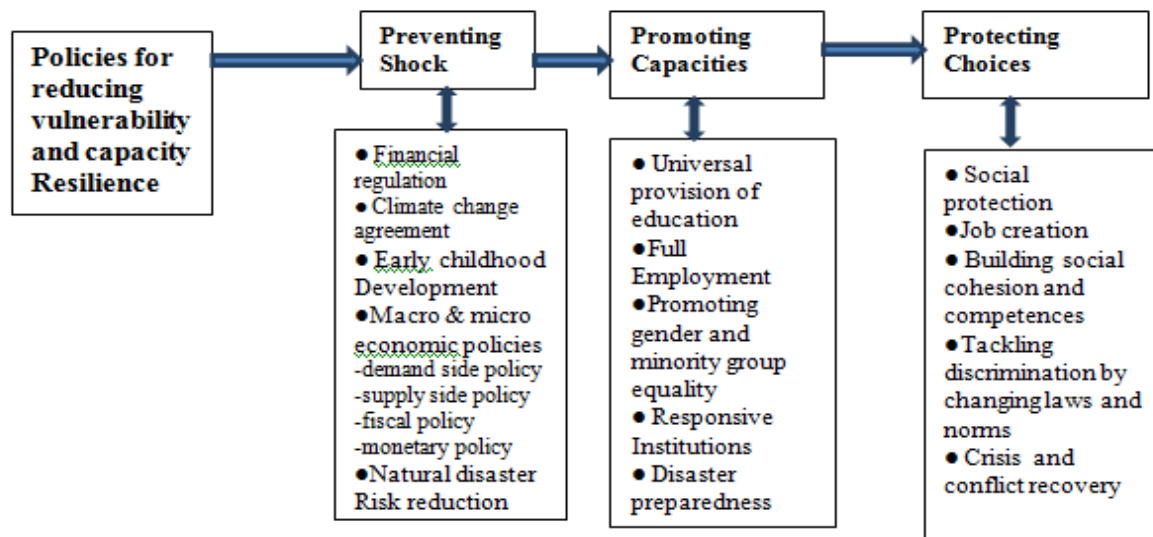
There are also clear evidence that certain aspects of school buildings have negative impact on students' health and learning, such as: (1) when deprived of natural light, studies have shown that children's melatonin cycles are disrupted, thus likely having an impact on their alertness during school (Figueiro & Rea, 2010). (2) Teachers report higher levels of comfort in their classrooms when they have access to thermal controls like thermostats or operable windows (Heschong, 2003, and Lackney, 2001). According to Baker and Berstein (2012), when ventilation rates are at or below minimum standards (roughly 15 cfm per student), an associated decrease of 5%–10% occurs in certain aspects of student performance tests (Armstrong and Fukam 2009; Baker and Berstein 2012). In recent studies, when ventilation rates were lowered from 17 cfm/person to 10 cfm/person, researchers saw a 15% increase in symptom prevalence for Sick Building Syndrome (Baker and Berstein, 2012).

These combined deficiencies constitute a major gap in the quality of learning environment in many African countries' educational institutions. Thus, the question the authors of this chapter beg to ask at this point is: Are some African countries actually serious about capacity building for their citizens? If the answer is positive, why are the respective governments in the continent unable to provide state of the arts building, furniture, and equipment that could contribute to positive learning environment, quality education, and capacity building process for all citizens to work towards the attainment of sustainable development? The quality of the school buildings, equipment, and furniture as well as provision of instructional resources facilities for teachers will determine the government commitment to capacity building for higher performance in the public and private sectors.

Appropriate Solutions and Policy Strategies

In establishing supply side policies for capacity building, equal emphasis has to be placed on the demand side of the labor market as well. In other words, it is necessary to try to reduce unemployment by addressing the lack of skills or poor attitudes of young people while concentrating on promoting economic growth and job creation. In this regard, the recent double digit economic growth that some African countries have witnessed in the past two years, self-assessment should also lead both the public and private sectors to improve in areas where weaknesses are identified. According to Berman et al. (2016), deficiencies in capacity building can be reduced through self-study and reading training inside or outside the organization, and formal education. Addressing weaknesses in capacity building takes considerable self-discipline because it is easier to ignore or hide them, but not taking steps to mitigate those damages both job prospects and performance.

In a competitive market, lack of exceptional or unusual knowledge, skills, and abilities may be a weakness because basic qualifications are assumed (Carroll and Buchholtz, 2015). Despite these facts the public and private sectors have not created sufficient job opportunity nor did they change the structural weakness of the economy so far. This implies that there is a need to pursue growth policies and strategies that are labor intensive (Samuelson and Marks, 2015). In order to achieve sustainable economic growth, capacity needs to be built at every level and across all fields of activity that impinge upon the development and management of cities and settlements. However, in every situation, there are priorities which, for reasons of urgency or deficiency, take precedent over others in their need for attention and resources. These vary with the particular circumstances of any specific country or region, though it is becoming increasingly apparent that, in Africa, the weakest link in the chain is at the level of local government and municipal or metropolitan administration (UNDP, 2013). Figure 3 shows policies for reducing vulnerability in Africa.

Figure 3 Policies for reducing capacity building vulnerability

Source: United Nations Human Development Report 2014

The capacity building problems previously discussed reveals that many African countries are faced with the challenges of under employment. As a result of these delicate challenges, the labor market policies are not enough, considering that most jobs are in the informal economy (Bourguignon et al 2007; Gilpin 2001; Ebart and Griffin 2015). Therefore, pursuing full employment and reducing employment related vulnerability in the future requires policies that promote job-creating growth, and that extend a social protection framework for all in both the formal and informal sectors all over the Africa continent. Figure 3 shows that structural transformation of the economies of African countries are necessary in order to provide more jobs by using targeted policies that support the development of strategic sectors and activities. This means, government investment into infrastructure development has to maintain its momentum and private sector development in the industrial sector has to be encouraged.

Entrepreneurship has to be promoted making it easier to start and run enterprises in order to provide more and better jobs for young people; and employment creation has to be enhanced placing job creation at the center of macroeconomic policy. Central to the promotion of economic growth and development is the promotion of investment in the real sector of the economy. For this purpose, it is essential to periodically evaluate and revise the incentives provided for investment to redirect the allocation of the available capital to industrial development. The development of micro and small enterprises has to be strengthened, encouraged and facilitated by the government offices in charge of this responsibility because the sector practically proved to be one of the fundamental solutions to urban capacity building in sub-Saharan Africa. Enhancing the labor market information system through investments to improve information resources for employment creation is essential to avoid the mismatch between skills that educators entrust to their graduates and the technical skills that the economy requires (Dibie and Dibie, 2014). In a poorly developed labor market information system, many people inevitably stumble in their initial career steps due to poor information about the world of work, leading to poor choices about education and careers. High quality labor market information and career guidance can help citizens make better informed decisions about their future, including the selection of academic/vocational programs.

Better information will also help citizens to make good decision to complete high school, and an optimal combination of education and work. The development of labor market information is also useful for the effective design and implementation of appropriate policies. Further, the collection, analysis, and evaluation of labor market information are crucial to ensure that laws and policies are evidence-based and responsive to situations on the ground. Measures that can enable the African people to have improved access to valuable information and opportunities so that they might make informed decisions about their lives are important. To this end, it is important to enhance the capacity of the labor market institutions.

A labor market study by World Bank (2007) proved that both the private sector brokers and the public sector labor market information providers are weak to serve the market function properly. This fact explains why employers have not been able to attract the most qualified. In a similar fashion, qualified job seekers cannot find sufficient job and revert to personal networks to get employed. This means that the lack of the informal networks would lead to unemployment and economic problems for qualified urban people. Currently, the labor-market information systems in most African countries are insufficiently developed to provide information for both job seekers and employers.

Moreover, the available information on labor-market developments in the continent is often fragmented and limited in scope or out-of-date. The situation in Ethiopia, Zimbabwe, South Africa, Benin, Senegal, Kenya and Nigeria with this regard is similar to that of many sub-Saharan African economies (Dibie, 2014). The relevant labor market institutions which are causes of youth unemployment in Africa include labor demand barriers, such as observed discrimination by employers towards gender on the grounds of lack of experience and information gaps between job seekers and potential employers (United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, 2011). Hence, strengthening the labor-market information system is therefore very important so that it can play its intermediation role between the supply side and the demand side.

Demand-side Policy:

Supply-side interventions can only be successful with complementary efforts that help to expand job opportunities for all citizens. In an environment with low labor demand, young people will have a hard time finding a job, no matter what their skills level and educational attainment are. Thus, programs that generate jobs and foster local businesses are vital to reduce the prevalence of unemployment in urban areas (Ikatu, 2010). The following strategies are critical for the government to explore in the near future

1. Reduced entry barriers by reducing experience requirements
2. Avoided discrimination on the basis of gender during recruitment process.
3. Avoided discrimination during recruitment process on the basis of relationships, economic status, ethnicity, disability, etc.
4. Financially and/or technically support entrepreneurship
5. Organize and provide financial and technical support for youth to start their business.
6. Increased interests for government organization to hire qualified.
7. Provides incentives for private sectors and NGOs to encourage them in hiring new graduates from universities and polytechnics
8. Promote investment in public works and labour-intensive infrastructure projects that can absorb new graduates in the respective nations.

Supply-side Policy

The supply side policies enable the citizens to get prepared for the labor demand market. Thus, attention to strategies listed below is very essential. However, both employed and unemployed citizens indicated the minimal level of government efforts in capacity and employment awareness creation. It is very important for the government to help citizens to gain skills and training or education that has high labor market demand for the sustainable future. Further the Government of African countries should establish training institutions at national and regional levels that exclusively focus on providing the needed skills for people in their country. This kind of vocational training institutions could galvanize people to start their own businesses. The following supply side policy strategies are options for the African countries governments to explore in the near future.

1. Establish national vocational and technical training institutions that could provide appropriate training in the utilization of advanced technologies, and
2. Creating an opportunity for youth to easily join Technical vocational educational training in order to gain education that leads to high skills in technological areas and experience in self-job creation.
3. Awareness creation for unemployed citizens to explore employment opportunities.
4. Encourage citizens to develop skill in technical and vocational training institutes
5. Establish policy for citizens to participate in apprenticeship or internship when they are still in school to gain practical skills.
6. Help graduates to get adequate training/ education that has high demand in the market.

7. Give training that help citizens to start their own business rather than searching from other sector
8. Produce enough food,
9. Preserve the integrity of ecosystems,
10. Use resources efficiently (land, water, energy),
11. Use renewable energy, and Recycles nutrients (Dibie and Dibie, 2014).

Capacity building is a continuous process of development that could be accomplished through the participation of the citizens in their own development. The dynamics of development and participation at both national and grassroots levels in African countries must involves the exposure of government change agents to participatory learning and action (Boxer 2011; Smith-Sabasto 2012). Rather than government change agents directing in a top-down manner, they should assume a supportive and facilitative role. Government change agents should be willing to relinquish power control over the relationship between change agent and community stakeholders in mutual social learning and capacity building process (Jones 2001a; Theron, 2008). These principles if well implemented could ensure radical changes in thinking, planning and training. After protracted planning and accompanying frustration, the role of facilitation can be assuming more practical and capacity-building dimensions.

Sustainable development goals in sub-Saharan Africa should be based on the following orientations and alternative approaches. According to Tucker (2014) and Theron (2008), the following are areas that a nation could focus its capacity-building efforts:

1. **Organizational training:** This informal practical training in group dynamics, simple bookkeeping and accounting, adult literacy, banking and proposal writing.
2. **Technical training:** Technical capability is needed for developing countries to engage effectively in the global economy; direct foreign investment, international trade, mobility of engineers, and the flow of work to countries with cost-effective talent will result. This based on needs and priority defined by the people themselves. Training opportunities in various skills need to be arranged either externally or internally.
3. **Indigenous science and technology capacity:** Indigenous science and technology capacity is needed to insure that international aid funds are utilized effectively and efficiently – for initial project implementation, for long-term operation and maintenance, and for the development of capacity to do future projects. And a sufficient pool of engineers can enable a developing country to address the UN's Millennium Development Goals effectively, including poverty reduction, safe water and sanitation, etc.
4. **Technical Workforce Pool:** In order to stimulate job formation in developing countries, a technical workforce pool is needed, made up of people who are specifically educated and prepared to engage in entrepreneurial start-up efforts that meet local needs.
5. **Leadership Development:** This is informal training in leadership development and the planning, implementation and evaluation of projects.
6. **External Linkages and Capacity Building.** People need to be assisted in establishing linkages and building networks with external agencies. Part of this process is helping people to acquire the skills, confidence and capacity required in establishing and maintaining such linkages.
7. **Exchange of Experiences:** People should be assisted in arranging visit to, and exchange with similar groups, projects, training and research center, and attending internships, on-the-job training sections, of-the-job conferences, workshops and fieldtrips (Chambers 2002; 2005).
8. **Support and Encouragement:** The presence of the change agent living and working in the country and sharing the experiences and problems of the people is often a decisive factor in encouraging people to persevere in their early efforts to improve their own lives. Once a sustainable participatory development projects has been initiated it should become a neither continuous process with nor visible end to it. Samuelson and Marks (2015) contends that the only thing that should end the project is the intervention of the change agent who should withdraw as soon as the local citizens can maintain the development project or process.
9. **International Experience:** The formulation of policies for a developmental state not only requires ongoing work within the state, but also the capacity to rapidly learn from international experience. It should be the objective of government in the medium term is to strengthen its engagement with society and with social partners.

This can be achieved by, amongst other things, improving the function and capability of institutions, strengthening the participation of organised sectors of society within them, and by enhancing the capacity of representative bodies by, among others, improving their research and representative support capacity on economic development and industrial policy (Dibie and Dibie 2014). Without this capacity, it is more likely that the environment for engagement will be reactive and that productive partnerships will not emerge.

10. **Economic Sustainability Strategy:** Economic sustainability is an actionable strategy companies engage in to ensure they remain a going concern. Different strategies include lean accounting or management, competitive market analysis, product differentiation, concentrated growth, or similar strategies (Gwin, 2014). A nation's operating environment will rarely remain static; external forces will pressure the country to make changes to public and business practices that will help the government maintain economic sustainability (Carroll and Bunchholtz, 2015). Using one or more of these strategies can ensure the country remains competitive and stable in all economies.

Finally, it is very important to note that capacity building projects that has foundation behavior and attitudes, methods and sharing planted in the humanist paradigm, offers not only the basis for self-reliance, participatory development but a means and an end in itself.

Conclusion

This paper has examined the problem of capacity building and economic growth in sub-Saharan African countries. It argues that capacity building efforts in sub-Saharan Africa are incomplete because the respective governments failed to incorporate vulnerability and resilience in their analysis. Sustained progress in capacity building and economic growth in Africa is a matter of expanding people's choice and keeping those choice secured (United Nations Human Development Report 2014). Capacity building in Africa will also require visionary and ethical leaders that are committed to structural transformation of institutions, people, skills and appropriate policies to address vulnerability. Such leaders will enact appropriate fiscal and monetary policies to provide universal education, full employment, promotion of gender and minority group equity programs as well as ethical responsive institutions. African nations must also be prepared for emergency in order to prevent natural disaster. Building social cohesion and competences as well as tacking discrimination by effectively adopting new laws and norms will enhance capacity building.

There seem to be a negative correlation between the current educational systems and the technical skills needed in the labor market. Further, the small private sector bases that are unable to employ large numbers of people are not giving incentives by the governments. Technical capacity building in Africa will serve as a lever for economic and social growth in the continent (Jones, 2001a; Carroll and Buchholtz 2015). This fact is currently being recognized as an important priority in the global sustainable community. Despite the increasing significance of the market and economic globalization, economic outcomes in Africa are determined not only by economic forces but also by governments and their policies (Sengupta 2011; Gilpin 2001). Yet African countries and their national societies differ fundamentally in the degree to which their governments play a meaningful role in the economy and in the ways in which they attempt to manage their economies (Samuelson and Marks 2015; Gilpin, 2001).

In order to increase job absorption by the private sector, incentive packages, such as special tax breaks to promote persistent labor-intensive investments, should be considered by the government rather than giving uniform tax advantages to all private firms (Jones, 2001b; Ebert and griffin 2015). Strategies for creating an enabling environment for the private sector and NGOs should be clearly defined in the national policy. In addition, the strategy that enhances the collaboration of government, the private sector, and NGOs to deal with urban and rural unemployment should be designed and implemented accordingly. There should be periodical forums in which potential private sectors, NGOs and government participate to discuss national economic transformation issues (Dibie and Dibie 2014; Sengupta 2011).

Finally, how people preserve or abuse the African environment will largely determine whether capacity building and citizens' living standards improve or deteriorate. Growing human numbers, urban expansion, and resource exploitation do not resonate well for the future. Without seeking capacity building and practicing sustainable development behavior, the citizens of Africa may face a deteriorating environment as well as even invite ecological disaster that they probably do not have the skills to address (Dibie 2014; Carroll and Buchholtz 2015).

The strategy of economic adjustment can mean letting the market work and implementing judicious interventionist policies to shift the African economy away from those industries and economic activities in which it is losing comparative advantage and toward those in which it is gaining advantage (Sengupta 2011; Gwin 2014). African governments may have to expand regional economic and political integration in order to better address some of their economic growth problems.

References

- Abebe T, & K. Aelmu. (2013). Analysis of Urban Youth Unemployment in Ethiopia: The Case of Addis Ababa. *Journal of International Politics and Development* Vol, 11, no 1 &2, pp.131-162
- Adebayo, A. (1999) . “Youth unemployment and National Directorate of Employment and self-employment programmes”. *Nigerian Journal of Economics and Social Studies* 41 (1), 81-102.
- Afolabi, F. O. (2002). “The School Building and its Environment: Implication on the achievement of functional Universal Basic Education Program in Ondo State.” In T. Ajayi, J. O. Fadipe, P. K., Ojedele, & E. E. Oluchukwu (Eds.), *Planning and Administration of Universal Basic Education in Nigeria*. National Institute for Educational Administration and Planning (NIEPA) Publication, pp.101-110.
- Alamiirew, B. (2008). “Migration Brain Drain and Remittances. Paper Presented at the 4th General Assembly of Ethio_Europe Research and Innovation Link, University of Giessen, Germany.
- Anderson, J. (2015). *Public Policy Making*. Stamford, CT: Cengage Learning
- Anderson, J. (2011). *Public Policy Making*. Boston, M.A.: Wadsworth Press
- Arezki, R., A. Dupuy and A. Gelb. (2012). *Resource Windfalls, Optimal Public Investment and Redistribution: The Role of Total Factor Productivity and Administrative Capacity*. IMF Working Paper. <http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/wp/2012/wp12200.pdf>. Accessed April, 10, 2015.
- Argyris, C. and Schon, D. (1992). *Theory in Practice: Increasing Professional Effectiveness*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Press
- Argyris, C. and Schon, D. (1978). *Organizational Learning: Theory, Method and Practice*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Armstrong, S. and C. Fukami, C. (2009). *The Sage Handbook of Management, Learning, and Development*. Los Angeles: Sage Press
- Ayeni, A. J., and M. Adelabu. (2012). Improving Learning Infrastructure and Environment for Sustainable Quality Assurance Practice in Secondary Schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Research Studies in Education*, Vol. 1, No. 1, 61-68.
- Azikiwe, U. (2008). *Standard in Tertiary Education: Capacity Building and Sustainable Development in Nigeria*. A lead paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Faculty of Education, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Anambra State, Nigeria.
- Baker, L. and Berstein, H. (2012). *The Impact of School Buildings on Student Health and Performance*. <http://media.mhfi.com/documents/GreenSchoolsWP-2012.pdf> . Accessed March 2015
- Bekele, T. A. & Alamirew, B. (2009). Optimal tapping of Diaspora expertise for African development: A model of success. *Ethiopian Students’ Union in Oslo bulletin*, 1(1), 1-12.
- Bereketeab, R. (2014). “Environmental Change, Conflicts and Problems of Sustainable Development in the Horn of Africa.” *African and Asian Studies* 13, pp. 291-314.
- Berman E, Bowman, J., West, J. and Van Wart, M. (2016). *Human Resource Management in Public Service*. Los Angeles, C.A.: Sage Press.
- Blanchard, K.H., Zigarmi, D., & Nelson, R.B. (1993). Situational leadership after 25 years: a retrospective. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, 1(1), 21-36.
- Boex, J.; Y. Serdar (2010). "An Analytical Framework for Assessing Decentralized Local Governance and the local Public Sector". Urban Institute Center on International Development and Governance.
- Boxer, L.(2011). “Preparing Leaders for Sustainable Future.” *International Journal of Business Insights and Transformation*, Vol. 3, (January), 34-43.
- Bourguignon, F., Pleskovic, B, and Elkana, Y. (2007). *Capacity Building in Economic Education and Research*. Herndon, V.A.: World Bank Publications.
- Braungart, R. G., (1984). ‘Historical and Generational Patterns of Youth Movements: A Global Perspective’, *Comparative Social Research* 7(1): 3–62.

- Brooks, C. (2012). What is fiscal policy? Business News Daily, Retrieved from <http://www.businessnewsdaily.com/3484-fiscal-policy.html>. Accessed April 12, 2014.
- Brown, M. M. (2004). Human Development Report. New York: United Nations Development Program.
- Brown, C.J. (1997). The Societal Dimension of Projects Management. *Management Dynamics* 6 (5): 69-87.
- Carroll, A. and Buchholtz, A. (2015). *Business and Society: Ethics, Sustainability and Stakeholder Management*. Stamford, CT: Cengage Learning.
- Chambers, R. (2005). *Ideas for Development*. London, England: Earth scan Press.
- Chambers, R. (2002). *Participatory Workshop: A Sourcebook of 21 Sets of Ideas and Activities*. London England: Earthscan Press.
- Choucri, N. (1974). *Population Dynamics and International Violence: Propositions, Insights and Evidence*. Lexington, MA: Lexington.
- Collier, P. and A. Hoeffler. (2004). 'Greed and Grievance in Civil War', *Oxford Economic Papers* 56: 563-595
- Conyers, D. and Hills, P. (1990). *An Introduction to Development Planning in the Third World*. New York: John Wiley.
- Dendir, S. (2006). Unemployment Duration in Poor Developing Economies: Evidence from Urban Ethiopia. *The Journal of Developing Areas*, R23, J64, O55
- Dibie, R. and Dibie, J. (2014). "The Dichotomy of Capacity Building and Unemployment in Ethiopia." *Africa's Public Service Delivery and Performance Review*, vol. 2, (3), pp.25-76.
- Dibie, R. (2014). *Comparative Perspective of Environmental Policies and Issues*. New York, N.Y.: Routledge Press.
- Dibie, R. (2010). Social Impact of Environmental Policies in Ethiopia. *Journal of International Politics and Development*, vol. 8, no. 1, pp.1-32.
- Duze, C. and Ogbah, R. (2013). "Retaining and Developing Quality Teachers: Critical Issues for Administrators in Nigeria Secondary Schools." *Journal of Sociological Research*, vol. 4, No. 1, 145-161
- Dye, T. (2013). *Understanding Public Policy*. 13th Edition. New York: Longman, pp. 210-231.
- Eade, D. (2005). *Capacity-building: An Approach to People Centered Development*. London, United Kingdom: Oxfam Press, pp. 30-39.
- Ebert, R. and Griffin, R. (2015). *Business Essentials*. Boston, MA: Pearson
- Echebiri, R.N. (2005). Characteristics and Determinants of Urban Youth Unemployment in Umuahia, Nigeria: Implications for Rural Development and Alternative Labor Market Variables. A Paper presented at the ISSER/Cornell/World Bank conference on "Shared Growth in Africa" held in Accra, Ghana, July 21-24.
- Edoho, F.M. (1998). Management Capacity Building: A Strategic Imperative for African Development in the 21st Century. In James, V. U (Editor), *Capacity Building in Developing Countries: Human and Environmental Dimensions* (pp. 228-251). Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Eita, J.H. and Ashipala, J.M. (2010). Determinants of Unemployment in Namibia. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(10), 92-104.
- Englama, A. (2001). "Unemployment: Concepts and Issues." *Bullion Publication of the Central Bank of Nigeria* 25 (4), 1-6.
- Esman, M. J. (1991). *Managing Dimension of Development: Perspectives and Strategies*. Connecticut, Kumariam Press.
- Ezana H. Woldegebriel. (2011). Factors Influencing Affected Group Participation in Urban Redevelopment in Addis Ababa: The Case of Senga Tera-Fird Bet I Project; International Institute of Urban Management, Erasmus University of Rotterdam
- Ezeani, E.O. and Otaki, O.A. (2003). Youth Unemployment in Nigeria: Some Implication for the Third 2 (1) 21-26.
- Freeman, R. and D. Wise (eds.) (1982). *The Youth Labour Market Problem: Its Nature, Causes and Consequences*. University of Chicago Press.
- Falae, S.O.(1971). "Unemployment in Nigeria". *Nigerian Journal of Economics and Social Studies* 13(1) 65
- Falk, R. (1999). *Predatory Globalization*. Oxford Polity Press.
- Ferrel O. C., G. Hiirt & L. Ferrell. (2015). *Business: A Changing World*. New York, N.Y.: McGraw Hill Press.
- Figueiro, M., & Rea, M. S. (2010). Lack of Short-wavelength Light during the School Day delays Dim Light Melatonin onset (DLMO) in Middle School Students. *Neuroendocrinology Letters*, 31(1), 21-48.

- Fisher, J. and Anderson. (2015). "Authoritarianism and the Securitization of development in Africa." *International Affairs*, 91, 131-151.
- Gilpin, R. (2001). *Global Political Economy: Understanding the International Economic Order*. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press.
- Guarcello, L. and Rosati, F. (2007). *Child Labor and Youth Employment: Ethiopia Country Study*. SP Discussion Paper No.0704. The World Bank
- Gwin, C. (2014). *Capacity Building in Africa. An OECD Evaluation of World Bank Support*. Herndon, V.A.: World Bank Publication.
- Gwin, C. (2005). *Capacity Building in Africa: An OECD Evaluation of World Bank Support*. Herndon, VA, USA: World Bank Publication.
- Hayami, Y. and Gogo, Y. (2005). *Development Economics*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Hauge, W. and Ellingsen, T. (1998). "Beyond Environmental Scarcity: Causal Pathways to Conflict." *Journal of Peace Research*, 35 (3), 299-317.
- Heerje, A. (1988). "Schumpeter and technology Change." In H. Hanusch (ed.), *Evolutionary Economics: Applications of Schumpeter's Ideas*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Helpman, E. (2004). *The Mystery of Economic Growth*. Cambridge, M.A.: Harvard University Press.
- Heschong, L. (2003). *Windows and Classrooms: A Study of Student Performance and the Indoor Environment*. (P500-03-082-A-7). California Energy Commission.
- Homer-Dixon, Thomas F. (2001). *Environment, Scarcity, and Violence*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University
- Hoover, K. D. (2008). Phillips curve. Library of Economics and Liberty, Retrieved from <http://www.econlib.org/library/Enc/PhillipsCurve.html>. Accessed April 11, 2014.
- Huntington, S. P. (1996). *The Clash of Civilizations and the Remaking of World Order*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Ikatu International. (2010). *Global Youth Employment: An Overview of Need and Interventions*. Revised Report.
- Ikharehon, J.I. (2007) . *Capacity Building for National Sustainable Development. The Nigerian Experience*. *Journal of Social Sciences*. (154), 25-29.
- James, V. (1998). *Capacity Building in Developing Countries: Human and Environmental Dimensions*. Westport, C.T.: Greenwood Press.
- Jones, R. (2001a). *Engineering Capacity Building in Developing Countries to Promote Economic Development*.www.worldexpertise.com/Engineering_Capacity_Building_in_Developing_Countries.htm. Accessed March 19, 2014.
- Jones, M. (2001b). *Sustainable Organizational Capacity Building: Is Organizational Learning a Key?* *International Journal of Human Resource Management* 12:1 February 2001 91-98.
- Kaplan, A. (2000). "Capacity Building: Shifting the Paradigms of Practice". *Development in Practice*. 3/4 10 (10th Anniversary Issue): 517-526.
- Katsioloudes, M. (2006). *Strategic Management: Global Culture Perspectives for Profit and Nonprofit Organizations*. New York, N. Y.: Elsevier Press.
- Kraft, M, and S. Furlong. (2013). *Public Policy: Politics, Analysis, and Alternatives*. Washington D.C.: Congressional Press, pp. 322-337.
- Lackney, J. A. (2001). *The State of Post-Occupancy Evaluation in the Practice of Educational Design*. Paper presented at the Environmental Design Research Association, EDRA 32, Edinburgh, Scotland.
- Lahne, R. (2012). *Government and Business*. Washington D.C.: Congressional Quarterly Press.
- Linell, D. (2003). *Evaluation of Capacity Building: Lessons from the field*. Washington, D.C: Alliance for Nonprofit Management.
- Mandel, M. (2012). *Economics: The Basics*. New York, N.Y.: McGrall Hill Press.
- Mankiw, G. (2012). *Macroeconomics*. New York, N.Y.: McGraw Hill Press
- Mangozho, N. (2001). "Higher Education and Labor Market Dynamics: The Case of Zimbabwe" (MA Research Paper- Institute of Social Studies, the Netherlands).
- McBride, A.M., & Sherraden, M. (Eds.) (2004). *Civic service: Toward a global research agenda [special issue]*. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 33(4).
- Miller R., Benjamin, D. and D. North. (2014). *The Economics of Public Issues*. Boston, M.A.: Pearson
- Mohamedbhai, G. (2007). *Higher Education Reform in Africa*. Paper presented at the 19th Annual European Association for International Education Conference, Trondheim, Norway, September 12-15.

- Nebil, K., Gezahegn, A., and Hayat, Y. (2010). Enabling the Private Sector to Contribute to the Reduction of Urban Youth Unemployment in Ethiopia. Addis Ababa Chamber of Commerce and Sectoral Associations, Addis Ababa.
- Nelson, R. and Winter, S. (1982). *An Evolutionary Theory of Economic Change*. Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press.
- Nnoli, O. (1995). *Ethnicity and Development in Nigeria*. Aldershot, Hants, England: Avebury Press.
- Nsubuga, Y. (2003). "Analysis of Leadership Styles and school performance of secondary Schools in Uganda." <http://docs.mak.ac.ug/sites/default/files/JournalArticle%5B1%5D.pdf>. Accessed March, 18, 2015.
- Nwazor, J. C. (2012). Capacity Building, Entrepreneurship and Sustainable Development. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies (JETERAPS)* 3 (1): 51-54
- Nzinga H. B. and T. Gebrekidan. (2012). Youth Unemployment: Ethiopia Country Study; International Growth Centre Working paper 12/0592 London School of Economics and Political Science
- Okojie, C.E.E. (2003). "Employment Creation for the Youths in Africa." *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth* 1(131), 1-13.
- Olagboye, A.A. (2004). *Introduction to educational management in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Daily graphics (Nigeria) Limited.
- Olivier de Sardan, J. P. (2005). *Anthropology and Development: Understanding Contemporary Social Change*. London, England: Zed Books.
- Oluwagbuyi, O. L. and A. O. Adaramola. (2013), Triple Bottom Line Reporting: An Assessment of Sustainability in Banking Industry in Nigeria. *Asian Journal of Finance and Accounting*, Vol. 5, No. 2, 57-72.
- Onah, F.O. (2010). "Urban Unemployment Situation in Nigeria." *Journal of Social Sciences* 2 (1) 21-26.
- Peters, G. (2013). *American Public Policy*. Washington D. C.: Congressional Quarterly Press
- Porter, T. B. (2006). Co-evolution as a Research Framework for Organization and the Natural Environment, *Organization and Environment*, 19 (4) 479-503.
- Potterfield, T. A. (1999). *The Business of Employee Empowerment: Democracy and Ideology in the Workplace*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing Group
- Rafik, M., Ahmad, I. Ullah, A. And Khan, Z . (2010). Determinants of Unemployment: A Case Study of Pakistan Economy (1998-2008). *Abasyn Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(1).
- Rajagopal, B. (2003). *International Law from Below: Development, Social Movements, and Third World Resistance*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Revans, R.W. (1980). *Action Learning*. London: Blond & Briggs.
- Revans, R. W. 1982. *The Origin and Growth of Action Learning*. Brickley, UK: Chartwell-Bratt.
- Revans, R.W. (1991). *International Perspectives on Action Learning*. Manchester: Institute for Development Policy and Management, University of Manchester .
- Revans, R. W. 2011. *ABC's of Action Learning*. Burlington, VT: Gower Press.
- Rondinelli, D. A. (1993). *Development Projects as Policy Experiments: An Adaptive Approach to Development Administration*. London, England: Routledge Press
- Samuelson, W. and Marks, S. (2015). *Managerial Economics*. Eight Edition. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley and Sons.
- Schiller, B. (2011). *Essentials of Economics*. New York, N.Y.: McGraw Hill Press.
- Sengupta, J. (2011). *Understanding Economic Growth: Modern Theory and Experience*. New York: Springer Press.
- Sengupta, J. and Phillip, F. (2009). *Efficiency Market Dynamics and Industry Growth*, New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Schumpeter, J. (1947). *Capitalism, Socialism, and Democracy*. (Second Edition). New York Harper Brothers Press.
- Smith-Sebasto, N. (2012). *Sustainability*. New York, N.Y.: McGrall Hill Press.
- Solow, R. M. (1956). "A Contribution to the Theory of Economic Growth." *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 70, 65-94.
- SparkNotes. (2013). Problems with monetary policy and fiscal policy. Retrieved from <http://www.sparknotes.com/economics/macro/policydebat>. Accessed April 12, 2014.
- Steven K. (2005). The employment intensity of growth: Trends and macroeconomic determinants. *Employment Strategy Papers; International Labour Office*.

- Theron, F. (2008). *The development Change Agent*. Pretoria, South Africa: Van Schaik Press.
- Theron, F. (2005). *Trends in Micro-level Development*. In David I, Theron F., Maphunye, K. *Participatory Development in South Africa*. Pretoria: J. L. van Scaik Press.
- Tucker, I. (2014). *Survey of Economics*. Mason, OH: Thompson Higher Education.
- UNECA. (2011). *Africa Youth Report: Addressing the Youth Education and Employment Nexus in New Global Economy*.
- United Nations. (2010). *Millennium Development Goals report*, <http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/pdf/MDG%20Report%202010%20En%20r15%20low%20res%2020100615%20-.pdf>
- United Nations Development Program. (2014) . *Human Development Report*. UNDP, New York: Oxford University Press.
- United Nations Development Program. (2013). *Human Development Report*. UNDP, New York: Oxford University Press.
- United Nations. (2012). *Human Development Index*. New York, N.Y.: Oxford University Press
- United Nations Development Program (UNDP). (2009). *World Survey on the Role of Women in Development. Women's Control over Economic Resources and Access to Financial Resources, including Microfinance*. New York: United Nations Press
- United Nations Development Program. (2007). *Human Development Report*. UNDP, New York: Oxford University Press.
- United Nations Development Program (UNDP). 2004, 2005 & 2006. *Human Development Report*. UNDP, New York: Oxford University Press.
- United Nations Development Program. (2003). *Human Development Report*. UNDP, New York: Oxford University Press.
- World Bank. (2014). *World Bank Development Report*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- World Bank. 2013. *World Bank Development Report*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- World Bank. (2007). *World Bank Development Report*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- World Bank. (2002). *Empowerment and Poverty Reduction: A Sourcebook*. Washington D. C.: World Bank Publication.
- World Bank. (2002). *World Bank Development Report*. New York: Oxford University Press
- World Bank. (1998). *World Development Indicators*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- World Bank. (1991). *The African Capacity Building Initiative: Towards Improved Policy Analysis and Development Management in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- World Commission on Environment and Development. (1987). *Our Common Future*. New York: Oxford University Press.