



YOUTH EMPLOYMENT AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN NORTH AFRICA

Youth Employment and Sustainable Development in North Africa



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Abbreviations

AfDB	African Development Bank
ANAPEC	Agence Nationale de Promotion de l'Emploi et des Compétences (Morocco)
ANGEM	Agence nationale de gestion du micro-crédit (Algeria)
CIA	Central Intelligence Agency
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
EIU	Economist Intelligence Unit
ETF	European Training Foundation
GDI	Gender Development Index
GDP	gross domestic product
GNI	gross national income
GPHC	General Population and Habitat Census
HCP	High Commission for Planning (Morocco)
HDI	Human Development Index
ICT	information and communication technology
IDSC	Information and Decision Support Centre
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
NEET	not in education, employment or training
NGO	non-governmental organization
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
ONS	Office National des Statistiques (Algeria)
SFD	Social Fund for Development
SME	small and medium-sized enterprise
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

Executive summary

This is a comprehensive report on youth employment and sustainable development that identifies and enumerates best practices, historical evidence of lessons learned and an agenda for the future. It is mixed methods research that combines quantitative and qualitative research to rigorously explore and explain the fundamental causes of youth unemployment and the elusiveness of sustainable development in North African countries. The objective is to uncover explanations and motivations for the persistently high rates of unemployment and lack of sustainable development through a combination of library research, semi-structured techniques including interviews of international and domestic non-governmental organizations (NGOs), as well as businesses in the private sector, scholars and experts on youth employment and education.

The focus is on providing a comparative analysis of the North African countries, which share the experience of significant youth unemployment issues and elusiveness of sustainable development. Relevant information and data are presented from desk research drawing on relevant country reports, including those produced by the Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU), ECA, the International Labour Organization (ILO), the World Bank, the African Development Bank (AfDB) and journal articles in scholarly peer-reviewed journals.

Key ideas and hypotheses that lead to deeper understanding of the problem were developed to reveal trends in thought and opinions of decision-makers and experts as well as the young people, about unemployment and sustainable development.

In the last two decades, young people in Africa have experienced some increase in school enrolment, and decreased gender gap in education. On the other hand, there is need for caution, and proactive responses to enhance the capacity of African young people, given that the disproportionately high levels of youth unemployment continue to militate against the continent's development. The 2008 global economic meltdown aggravated

youth unemployment to crisis proportions. Economic growth can coexist with inequity and inequality.

To achieve sustainable development by the 2030 target date of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the policies, strategies and mechanisms adopted must prioritize inclusive, sustained, pro-poor policies that include the creation of decent work and conditions that foster full and productive employment (Sustainable Development Goal 8). This is an urgent situation for the African continent, since its youth population continues to grow, and is expected to continue to do so throughout the twenty-first century, increasing by 42 per cent (321 million) by 2030.

Many of Africa's young people are forced by their dire circumstances to take jobs offered by family or other actors in the informal or agricultural sector. Such jobs mean they work long hours, but are still underemployed, lack job security and benefits, and are paid low wages. There is tremendous risk in neglecting the interests and not meeting the needs of the youth. Rampant and pervasive unemployment and underemployment (which are indicators of inadequate availability of opportunities for gainful employment and consequent upward mobility), are made worse by the disjuncture between education and training, and available job opportunities.

Unemployed and underemployed young people have a lot of unrequited pent-up expectations. They can become restive, disillusioned, frustrated, angry and anomic. They are vulnerable to despair and cynicism, and may be driven to engage in crime. Their desperate situation makes them available for recruitment by criminal and terrorist groups. Their frustration could be explosive, as witnessed in Tunisia, Egypt and other countries where they led uprisings against Governments that were perceived as uncaring and unresponsive to their economic and social needs. The challenge is not just to provide employment opportunities, but to provide decent jobs and reduce the significant insecurity experienced by underemployed and overexploited

workers who earn low wages, work under onerous, perilous conditions, and see no possibility of meeting their needs through gainful employment.

Despite this challenging situation, there are tremendous opportunities to benefit from the dynamism, enthusiasm and energy of Africa's youth population. If encouraged and supported with the best policies and programmes, they would not only meet their full potential, but contribute tremendously to significant social and economic development. Thus, for sustainable development, African countries must embrace and implement thoughtfully designed "sustained, determined, and concerted" as well as multi-pronged, comprehensive, "interdisciplinary, multisectoral and multi-stakeholder" strategies and mechanisms to reduce youth unemployment (ILO, 2012a). For Sustainable Development Goal 8 to be achieved, there should be equitable access to decent work, making for reasonable opportunities for upward mobility, human development and human security. Success in this regard will contribute to individual advancement and national development in a way that ramifies into the future.

The study proposes solutions for youth unemployment and ways of contributing to sustainable development. There must be a shift in development strategy from growth without development to equitable growth and sustainable development. One possible avenue is to embrace and implement pro-poor, cooperative solutions that foster human development. Another is to reinstate perception and experience of education as a means to upward mobility through:

- a) Domestic and international coalition for change;
- b) Multipronged public-private partnership to surmount structural barriers:

- i. Cooperatives and social entrepreneurship built into the educational system and economy, as one solution;
- ii. Capacity-building for human development through internships, mentorships, and peer motivational strategies for increased employment in private and public sectors;
- iii. Addressing challenges and opportunities of rural-urban and international migration;
- iv. Addressing gender imbalances in youth employment;
- v. Taking advantage of opportunities in the global era: preparing young people to embrace new technologies for increased, decent and meaningful employment in the information age to make for sustainable development.

The current report contends that, if sustainable development is to be achieved, the role of the State in the economy must be rethought to address the challenges and take advantage of the opportunities in the international and domestic political economies of these countries. Through public-private partnerships, and broad coalitions between development partners and the State, the structural barriers to youth employment must be corrected, using strategies that demonstrate learning from history and embrace inclusive, pro-poor, cooperative solutions.

Introduction

Today, the generation of youth is the largest in history, with the vast majority living in developing countries. According to the United Nations World Population Prospects statistics,¹ there were 1.2 billion young people 15–24 years of age globally in 2015, constituting nearly 30 per cent of the world's population. Approximately 226 million of these young people lived in Africa, making the continent the most youthful in the world. Children under 15 years of age accounted for 41 per cent of the population in Africa and young persons 15–24 years of age accounted for a further 19 per cent.

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which embraces the three dimensions of sustainability – economic, social and environmental – recognizes the central role of decent work in achieving sustainable development, as highlighted by Sustainable Development Goal 8, which aims to “promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all”.

By 2030, the target date for the Sustainable Development Goals, it is projected that the number of young people in Africa will increase by 42 per cent to 321 million. While the size of the youth population has peaked in all other regions, Africa's youth population is expected to continue growing throughout the remainder of the twenty-first century, especially in low- and lower-middle-income countries. Such a large youth population can be the force that drives Africa's sustainable development.

The socioeconomic conditions of young people have improved in recent years, but not considerably. There has been an increase in school enrolment over the past 20 years, and the gender gap in education has narrowed; however, young people continue to face a myriad of challenges that constrain them from fulfilling their full potential. Employment remains the main concern of young people in the region. African young people have

the potential of being a great impetus for Africa's sustainable development, provided that appropriate investments in creating employment opportunities are made. However, if youth issues are not addressed, Africa's sustainable development will remain stunted.

It is evident that the inability to find decent and stable employment creates a sense of frustration among young people, which imposes economic and social costs including risks of engaging in crime and being recruited to terrorist groups. Unemployed, dissatisfied young people are more likely to actively challenge their situation and can become a socially destabilizing force, as evidenced by increasing demands for change on the continent.² Unrest in some countries in North Africa illustrates the destabilizing potential of unmet aspirations of young people.

Unemployment rates reflect only the tip of the iceberg when it comes to the employment challenges that young people face. Not only are young people more likely than adults to be unemployed, they often occupy jobs with little or no social security and are more likely to work longer hours with low productivity and low wages. The lack of skills and jobs, compounded by the mismatch between skills demanded and supplied are some of the common hurdles for young people trying to enter the labour market; creating employment opportunities for young people entering the labour market every year has proved to be a challenge. The high unemployment and lack of economic opportunities are driving irregular and unsafe migration, particularly among young people. Thus, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development calls for United Nations Member States to develop and operationalize a global strategy for youth employment by 2020. The analysis in this study illustrates what Governments and other key actors are doing to ensure that employment policies achieve meaningful results for young people. Thus, the analysis will show case studies in North Africa that provide good practices

1 United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA), World Population Prospects. Available at <http://esa.un.org/wpp/>.

2 Many young people were involved in the movements and uprisings that arose in Tunisia, Egypt and Libya.

for promoting youth employment and empowerment that is sustainable.

In implementing the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the continental framework for sustainable development – the African Union Agenda 2063 – it is important to fully understand and account for the changes in the youth population that are likely to unfold in the future. The dramatic increase in the number of African young people calls for innovative approaches to tap the huge development potential that the young people readily present to the region.

To fully take advantage of its youth population and ensure future prosperity, African countries, including the ones in North Africa, must invest heavily in creating employment opportunities, for both young men and women, in rural and urban areas. The effective implementation of youth employment policies requires that youth-related issues be given high priority in sustainable development agendas.

Integration into the mainstream of sustainable development remains a priority concern for young Africans, and is linked to recent situations of civil unrest in some countries in North Africa. This issue must therefore be tackled with urgency.

African countries, in collaboration with development partners, should allocate sufficient resources to ensure that employment policies and programmes are operational and implemented, and enhance research in youth development issues, including the collection and analysis of disaggregated data through national statistical offices.

Such measures will enable young Africans to have improved access to valuable information and opportunities for making informed decisions about employment. Beyond that, collection and analysis of data are instrumental to ensuring interventions and policies are evidence-based and respond to situations on the ground.

The overall objective of the current study is to carry out a deeper analysis of youth employment and sustainable development, as a follow-up to the study “Being Young in the Maghreb”, published by the ECA Subregional Office for North Africa in 2013. This is done by highlighting the major challenges that young people face in finding employment opportunities in North African countries (Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, Sudan and Tunisia).

Relevant information and data are presented from desk research drawing on relevant country reports, including those produced by EIU, ECA, ILO, the World Bank, AfDB and journal articles in scholarly peer-reviewed journals.

This report consists of seven case studies covering North African countries. Accounting for the specific context of each country of the region, the report provides an extensive analysis on the areas of demographics, education, employment, youth policies and employment policies. It also reviews some of the international experiences most relevant to promoting the socioeconomic inclusion of youth and provides policy recommendations.

Part 1: YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT, EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT: RELEVANT GLOBAL, INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL ANALYSES

1. Mapping youth unemployment: an imperative

For youth unemployment to be properly understood, there must be accurate mapping of the situation. One good effort is the 2012 mapping report of ILO, which examines and documents programmes that promote youth employment in Africa and identify the lessons learned for future work. The report provides stakeholders with information on youth employment projects and programmes to foster a wider range of developmental processes at the local and regional levels. This report aims to create a database of youth employment efforts to better identify best practices and challenges. It includes analyses of the major weaknesses and deficiencies of ongoing youth employment interventions, including the lack of coordination due to the weakness of frameworks implemented to support youth development (ILO, 2012a). Two factors identified as contributing to youth unemployment are low growth rates of the economy and the limited relevance of the education and training system. The policy responses to the youth employment crisis include the milestone African Youth Charter; the African Youth Decade Plan of Action, 2009–2018; the July 2011 Summit; and the Regional Coordination Mechanism, which is particularly important because it is dedicated to aiding collaboration and coordination between programmes to “deliver as one”. Youth employment interventions should include special priorities such as employment for young people with disabilities and young women, since both groups are more vulnerable to unemployment and underemployment.

Anyanwu’s use of cross-sectional time series data of 48 African countries during 1991–2009 demonstrates the relationship between the combined effects of macroeconomic factors, globalization, private sector credit, infrastructure, education,

demographic factors, institutionalized democracy, time trend, and oil effects on African youth employment. Relevant macroeconomic factors include the domestic investment rate, government consumption expenditure, inflation rate, real per capita gross domestic product (GDP), and real GDP growth (Anyanwu, 2013). Globalization refers to the degree of openness to trade and foreign direct investment. Private sector credit refers to the productive capacity of businesses in relation to their access to credit. Infrastructure includes access to “affordable child care centres, energy, transport and [information and communication technology (ICT)]”. Education, especially at the higher levels, is considered in terms of broadening individual views and preparation to enter the labour market with appropriate skills. Demographic factors include measures of urban population, population growth rate, and ratio of young people to total population. Institutionalized democracy refers to the hypothesis that with democracy comes greater employment and youth empowerment. Time trend is included to demonstrate the possibility of labour market performance deteriorating over time. Lastly, oil effects are also included in the model to act as a dummy variable that shows the difference between net oil exporters and net oil importers.

Based on the results of this model’s simulations, Anyanwu proposes eight policy recommendations. The first proposal calls to increase both public and private productive domestic investments, which was indicated to significantly impact North Africa. The second asks African Governments to balance their expenditures to ensure maximum effectiveness. The third asks for effective regulation of foreign direct investment to protect labour-intensive industries that can be potentially displaced by globalization. The fourth is to restrict the degree of trade openness because this factor significantly decreases youth employment in Africa. The fifth recommendation calls for African Governments, especially in North Africa, to make credit available

for businesses as a mechanism that contributes to increased employment because financing businesses encourages young people to explore new opportunities in entrepreneurship. The sixth promotes the development of foundational infrastructure. The seventh asks for effective policies that will invest in human capital for the workforce; this includes considerations for addressing the skills mismatch between young people and the labour market. Lastly, the eighth proposal recommends that an effective democracy be fostered and grown because it is vital to youth job creation.

Anyanwu takes a serious empirical approach to examining the different macroeconomic determinants that affect youth employment in Africa. Anyanwu demonstrates why unemployment is an issue not only on the continent, but also for the rest of the world. Considering the Arab uprisings, the fear of disenfranchised African young people becoming an explosive force is visibly pushing Governments to consider tackling youth unemployment more seriously. This is seen not only as a major problem for African Governments, but also as challenging the security of countries everywhere else. However, this is a potential conflict that can be avoided with the extra effort to work with the so-called “youth bulge” in Africa. It is also important to realize that the same sorts of solutions will not work for countries that are very different from one another in terms of economic development and the types of obstacles each faces.

Anyanwu’s linkage of institutionalized democracy and increased youth employment/empowerment is progressive and comforting; however, while young people are empowered to voice their demands, and organize to bring their concerns to government in a democracy, lack of economic development puts limits on what government can do. This means Governments should strive for a combination of sustained economic development and equitable distribution of economic gains to their citizens. Further, excluded populations – including the disabled, young people and women – must be given priority.

2. Poverty, young people and social exclusion: Implications for sustainable development

Poverty is a “multidimensional human problem” that relates to health, education, housing and political opportunities. The stereotype that poor people do not work is false. It is rather that they constitute a section called the working poor, of which most are employed in the informal economy.

It is necessary to look beyond basic education for solutions. Governments must encourage better education at the intermediate, secondary and university levels.

If the desire is to integrate young people in every aspect of social, economic and political life, then seeing them as apathetic, lazy, and dependent undermines the objective of their full integration. For young people to participate in the political process to produce policies and programmes that will ultimately help integrate them into society, initiatives should not antagonize them due to the assumption that suboptimal “youth culture” is the problem.

Gender disparities are glaring in employment due to social and economic impediments to the equal participation of young women in the labour market. In cases where women prefer to work in some economic sectors (Alters, 2013), it may be due to more access to more decent conditions and better conditions of service. However, the inadequacy of employment opportunities in such sectors contributes to unemployment (*ibid.*).

Young people are the most active participants in the protest movements that have occurred in North Africa. Over the years, they also have led as well as participated in political and social transformation. They are also heavily involved with the digital revolution, and are a diverse group. Thus, they are well equipped to be at the heart of political and social discussions about how to handle the multi-dimensional vulnerability they are experiencing (ECA Subregional Office for North Africa, 2013).

The promotion of decent jobs and entrepreneurships can be facilitated by developing research to strengthen services and policies dedicated to help-

ing poorly educated and underprivileged young people. It is also necessary to increase the internal and external efficiency of education by combating the tendency to drop out and increasing demand for secondary education for disadvantaged groups such as girls and the poor. Providing support to independent networks and associations that produce mechanisms for increased participation in education, leisure-time structures, and awareness in communities about the rights and benefits of participation also helps such groups thrive and engage in longer term projects and programmes.

Empowering, educating and integrating young people into politics, their communities and the workforce is necessitated because young people are a marginalized group in the process of creating individual identities in the current political and social atmosphere. They collectively challenge pre-established models of identity which create the potential for intergenerational conflict that further marginalize young people. Protecting the rights of young men and women is supported by international conventions (such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child). However, there are also significant gender constraints on equality that exacerbate some of the challenges that young people face such as illiteracy, unemployment, inactivity, risk-prone health practices, migration, dependency on family, and increased length of time in the youth category.

Young people have great potential due to considerable reserves of energy to drive both political and social change. As a large component of the population that faces significant challenges, they also are disadvantaged by the communication divide vis-à-vis their respective Governments. Also, efforts by young people to communicate will not necessarily produce policy responses. Just because young people are making complaints does not mean that Governments will dutifully follow up on fixing the issues causing the dissatisfaction. The challenges and vulnerabilities that diverse young people face is a matter that needs to be combatted through continued productive dialogue between young people and their Governments, because otherwise misunderstandings of intentions or anything of the like runs the risk of the Government taking away the agency it wants to give to young people. To desire to empower young people re-

quires Governments to give them the autonomy to live out their lives in a dignified manner. Moreover, given the dearth of reliable data, there should be concerted effort, by governmental and nongovernmental agencies, to better collect quality data that will allow further research into potential recommendations for the region.

3. Youth migration driven by disillusionment, policy failures and perceived lack of options

Young North Africans' desire to migrate "probably" stems from the "expression of thwarted identity, the need to escape from multidimensional insecurity, regain control of their destiny and invent a future for themselves". There are also strong connections between increased emigration and the lack of opportunities at home. The failure of Governments to fulfil their duty to their people contributes to the embrace of migration as a solution to difficulties in securing economic opportunities and the social benefits therefrom. Young migrants constitute a vulnerable group because they lack the ability to live independent lives. The inability to achieve dreams or have a future makes the quest for opportunity and a comfortable life outweigh the risks of failing such an emigration. The harsh experiences drive discontent and breed political and social instability.

Active labour market programmes for young people from disadvantaged backgrounds provide useful steps in identifying and designing policies for youth employment. Four steps are identified. Step 1 is to identify the target population and the constraints to finding jobs. Young people are not a homogenous group. Each subgroup has its own unique set of constraints, which includes job-relevant skills constraints, lack of labour demand, job search constraints, firm start-up constraints, and social constraints. Step 2 is to select interventions that correspond to the constraints which involve teaching basic skills (in literacy and numeracy), technical skills, behavioural skills and entrepreneurial skills. Step 3 is to adjust the design according to country and target-group factors, which begins with understanding the "economic, social, institutional, and administrative conditions" needed for

each programme's success. Programmes are then narrowed, refined and compiled into a short list of programme options. From there is step 4, to evaluate the programme impact. It is suggested that a programme evaluation should be built into the programme design to ensure that the programme can be properly evaluated and assessed to ensure that it is effective and cost-efficient (World Bank, 2010).

4. Education, unemployment and sustainable development

There is a relationship between education and employment, as well as between opportunities for gainful employment and social problems. The lack of opportunities for work will cause young people to be more inclined to participate in "disruptive behaviours" such as drug use, civil unrest, violence, armed conflicts and other criminal activities. Thus, it is of utmost importance to provide young people with the appropriate skills and education to decrease youth unemployment. To accomplish this, the guidelines and frameworks put forth by the 2000 Dakar Framework for Action on Education for All, the African Union's Section Education Plan of Action (2006–2015), and the African Youth Charter should be observed. Education is the core area where improvement is necessary, not just in primary education, but also in higher levels of education and vocational training (ECA, 2010).

Education is a key area that requires attention in consideration of youth unemployment. Progress here means the alleviation of detrimental factors contributing to unemployment, such as inappropriate labour market skills, small private sectors, saturated public services, unequal distribution of opportunities and high dropout rates. Increased and better education will lead to increased employment and will function as a prevention strategy to keep young people away from participating in illicit activities. Frameworks to promote education for all are important to this effort. There are substantive economic benefits that can be reaped from a better education; for example, better education will provide young people with appropriate labour market skills, as well as contribute to enlightenment and the capacity to advocate one's

own rights and organize improvements in social, economic and political life (ECA, 2010).

Unemployment surged after the 2011 uprisings to 14.7 per cent in Tunisia and 12.1 per cent in Egypt. Even with Morocco, the 2016 unemployment rate is a little less than 10 per cent. There are also significant gender and generational variations, since unemployment is highest among young people 15–24 years of age, and among females, with Egypt having the shockingly high figure of 57 per cent female unemployment.

The informal economy is dominant in the labour markets in Egypt, Mauritania, Sudan, Morocco, Algeria and Tunisia. Even in the formal economy, labour laws or rights are weak, and this contributes to greater levels of informality. In consequence, executive power is used to maintain the status quo and even oversee the adoption of laws that might contravene the spirit of the Constitution. Similarly, although there are labour laws and various labour market regulations, design problems and weak enforcement lead to more informality, with the attendant lowering of welfare benefits for workers who are not protected by formal contracts and social services from either their employers or the State.

State dominance as a source of employment has diminished, while the private sector in the formal economy has not created enough jobs. The informal economy dominates in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region (World Bank, 2011). However, there is no accurate measure of the size of the informal economy and its contribution to employment and to employment quality. There are many problems caused for countries by the informal economy, including reduction in revenues, and lack of access to welfare benefits by workers in the informal economy. The informal economy is also a source of job creation. States will benefit from creative strategies that foster the integration of informal with formal economic sectors.

In 2011, the World Bank did research on informality in Southern Mediterranean countries and found "a relationship between the size of the informal sector, natural resources and the labour force... countries with abundant labour and natural resources were characterized by high rates of informal employment (80–90 per cent of the labour force

contributing an output of 20–25 per cent of GDP), whereas in countries poor in natural resources and with lower unemployment rates... informal activities employed a lower percentage of the labour force (45 per cent to 67 per cent), but generated a larger share of output (36 per cent to 40 per cent of GDP)" (World Bank, 2011).

Slower population growth is not by happenstance. From the 1960s, Morocco and Tunisia conceived of programmes for lower rates of population growth as crucial to modernization and economic development, including the ability to meet the basic health, education and employment needs of the population. Family planning was embraced, and population growth reduced. However, the nature of generational variation in population growth does not positively affect youth unemployment. While the percentage of 0–14-year-olds is decreasing, the percentage of people of working age (15–64-year-olds) is projected to increase in the future. Thus, it is more logical to conclude that it is not the model of economic development, but education and training that should be adjusted. The counterintuitive evidence that educational attainment does not lead to higher levels of employment is also an indication of a significant mismatch between labour supply and demand.

The African Economic Outlook (AfDB, OECD and UNDP, 2012) presents an analysis and critique of the failures of Governments to promote youth employment in Africa. There are four main critiques: (a) insufficient coordination among government actors who are responsible for youth employment policies, (b) lack of data to understand the challenges that young people face, (c) lack of evidence defending current programmes, and (d) piecemeal programmes that do not sufficiently address major bottlenecks for young people. There are various lessons to be learned from successes and failures of past youth employment initiatives. One programme lauded as a success is the Regional Programme for Youth Employment and Social Cohesion, a recent creation whose key to success is that each of the several institutions participating in the initiative effectively collaborated by contributing its specific expertise to the programme. Data collection is recognized as a problem by most studies on youth employment, because it is extremely essential for evaluating the challenges as well as the

effectiveness of implemented programmes. Before any solutions can even be presented, there needs to be qualitative and quantitative data as a basis for programmes and policies.

Notable strategies to address the problem of youth unemployment include local, national and global efforts to collectively study the issues and analyse them, as well as to deliberate, train and determine to adopt best strategies based on learning from other regions. Germane issues include youth employability through vocational training and education, equal opportunities for men and women, entrepreneurs/self-employment, and job creation. At the January 2004 meeting on Youth and Employment in Post-Conflict Arab Countries, it became clear that all Governments face significant challenges when devising a youth employment strategy. Some countries, such as Algeria, devise initiatives that target all categories of unemployed people. Egypt's strategy is centred on strengthening vocational training programmes because government programmes for youth employment are inadequate. Jordan considers where decision-makers need to allocate funds. Lebanon's strategy targets unemployed graduate young people. The Syrian Arab Republic emphasized the need for young people to organize into pressure groups to lobby and to participate in decision-making to address youth unemployment (DESA, 2004).

The catchphrase "youth bulge" should be deconstructed and critiqued rather than accepted and embraced ubiquitously, as is usually done. From the nationalist era to contemporary times, young people can and have been a transformative force in Africa, as evidenced by their leadership and participation in national liberation and democratization, as well as economic and social justice struggles. Youth migration for social and economic advancement should also be seen as attempts to make positive contributions to their families' economic well-being and social mobility, which have positive ramifications.

The quality and subject matter of the education that young people receive are still veered towards credentials needed in the public sector, but now without the available employment opportunities in this sector, which has become overextended and saturated. There is also inequality in access to

job opportunities because, although the education system is merit-based, it is becoming increasingly unfair. Young people with more privileged backgrounds have a greater advantage in admission into top universities, as well as the formal labour market. Two sets of reforms are recommended: (a) to replace the public sector as the employer for educated workers with private employment, and (b) to reform the education system so that it can respond to the current needs of the labour market (Salehi-Isfahani, 2012).

It is paradoxical that the most educated young people are now among the most unemployed in the Middle East and North Africa. Grounding the notion of credential equilibrium in the region's history and past policies with the current state of the region's education system and political affairs produces a framework that explains why the educated aren't employed. Rather than merely saying that education has produced a mismatching of skills required for the private sector, Salehi-Isfahani presents the history of the credentialist equilibrium and the factors that contributed to the unravelling of the social contract between State and society. This is a surprisingly compelling way to view the failings of past policies and the current education system (ibid.).

Salehi-Isfahan focuses on the historical experience that has intertwined with the Arab uprisings and the region's past and present Governments to bring into view and understand why youth unemployment is such an issue now. It is also obvious that Salehi-Isfahani believes that State intervention and redistribution due to populist pressures is what generated some of the factors that contributed to the credentialist equilibrium as well as its downfall. However, it must be noted that tackling youth unemployment and having the private sector replace the public sector as a primary source of jobs does not necessarily mean that it is only up to the Government to handle the entire problem. Cooperation is needed between the two sectors to successfully mitigate the issues that caused the unravelling of the credentialist equilibrium. This in turn means that there will be increased State interventions to take care of some of the immediate consequences of such demographic pressure and unemployment. Rather than critiquing State intervention as a whole, it should be reframed and

thought of as a need to critically examine the kinds of State interventions needed here (ibid.).

Many young people and others who are excluded from or marginalized in the labour market seek migration as an avenue to upward mobility. Employment status and age are potential factors that push millions of young people worldwide to leave their countries if offered the opportunity to do so. With employment status as a factor, older adults aged 30 to 65 who are underemployed are more likely to migrate than those who are the same age and employed or unemployed. Employment status is the most important factor for older adults when it comes to migration desires. Young adults in the MENA region also mirror the desires of their older adult counterparts, because they have fewer commitments and greater mobility.

Schwettman (1997) suggests that cooperatives could help address some of the problems with labour markets. Cooperative societies are associations of "persons who have voluntarily joined together to achieve a common end through the formation of a democratically controlled organization, making equitable contributions to the capital required and accepting a fair share of the risks and benefits of the undertaking, in which the members actively participate". Cooperatives are a valuable option for pushing economic development because they hold certain advantages over enterprises, which means they also have a higher potential to create employment directly and indirectly. However, ILO believes that they are extremely undervalued, even though the cooperative movement is Africa's biggest NGO, with more than 40 per cent of all households in Africa containing members of a cooperative society.

Schwettman proposes a three-pronged strategy to cash in on the employment creation potential of cooperatives: (a) supporting macro reforms and capacity-building in organizations that assist cooperatives, (b) including cooperative development aspects into development projects, and (c) promoting worker-owned cooperatives, social operatives, and financial operatives (ibid.). Cooperatives are related to employment creation in five different ways, because they function as employers and a common workplace while also promoting self-employment and wage employment. Lastly, they also

produce spillover effects because they can produce jobs in enterprises with which they maintain commercial relations. Overall, the function of co-operatives can be highly conducive for employment creation, but it does require the extra effort to make macroeconomic and political reforms that encourage cooperatives to remain self-helping and autonomous. At that point, there is still the obstacle of maintaining a fair structure within the cooperative so that no workers or sectors are exploited. It is an optimistic development option, but its potential of employment creation will be needed now more than ever, since youth unemployment and underemployment have become intense sources of demographic pressure.

There is a need for policy changes to create employment, and to connect resources to this objective, as well as improve the environment so that sustainable livelihoods are potential solutions to poverty and its effects. The sustainable livelihoods approach is based on empowering the poor through access to opportunities and resources in such a way that it does not damage others' ability to access opportunities and resources. The notion is completely centred on human autonomy and formulating policies that will give that to the poor or at least support and protect their capacity to act as such. Instead of focusing on the needs of the poor, the proposed approach examines the current assets of communities to continually build on them. Sustainability is broadly defined to provide diversity in how sustainability can be attained in different regions, but is focused on how men and women utilize assets on a short- and long-term basis. The four points that broadly define the concept are stated as (a) the ability to cope and recover from shocks and stresses, (b) economic efficiency, (c) ecological integrity and (d) social equity.

The concept of a sustainable livelihood as an approach to take on poverty throughout the world is innovative. The notion of a sustainable livelihood is built on the idea of autonomy and the degree to which it erodes when people have few rights within a society. Any plan to tackle poverty must be people-oriented. People and their empowerment, whether they are rural or urban poor, depend on environmental resources. However, with increased education and vocational training, the opportunities available to the poor are no longer restricted to

the area in which they live. The policies proposed around rural poverty are too centred and geared towards farmers instead of all affected populations. Poverty is relational and the concept itself has connections with the environment, and the environment encompasses more than the physical resources that farmers use. The environment includes human–human interactions as well as human–environment interactions, and this should be taken into consideration when offering policies that deal with the poor and their environment. Another problematic conclusion is that focusing on just the assets of a community rather than its needs is enough to conclude the direction of the policies needed. Considerations of community assets tend to focus on the wealthier members of the community. But everyone in a community has inherent potential, and ignoring the community needs raises a red flag about which part of the community policy changes are meant to serve.

While the challenges experienced by the poor are not unique to young people, how young people experience these challenges is something worth noting. Coping mechanisms must be examined when analysing what can be done about poverty. The recent conflicts that young people have led and participated in demonstrate the deep commitment of young people to finding solutions to what had seemed to be intractable problems of economic redistribution and governance. One can also see youth responses in areas like migration, remittances and volunteerism. Such responses should be encouraged, coordinated and subjected to more sophisticated analysis.

There are numerous implications and lessons learned from the implementation of education and training programmes in developing regions of Asia, Africa and Latin America that remain relevant. Young people 15–24 years of age are important as the primary focus, but 25–29-year-olds should also be considered because of the transition to adulthood, which also includes the transition to work. The youth bulge phenomenon is also actively intertwined with youth employment and with other trends that will “deviate substantially” over the next couple of decades (Assaad and Levison, 2013). Employment inadequacy should be more clearly explicated. One means of doing so is to use data from NEET (not in education, employment or train-

ing), a measure of youth employment that considers young people for whom employment may not be an option or one that will not be beneficial to them. Another useful strategy is to assess the effectiveness of Active Labour Market Programmes, which include job search assistance/job clubs, job skills training, public employment/public works projects, entrepreneurship training/small business assistance, and wage subsidies.

Strategies to increase youth employment are crucial because each developing region currently faces problems arising from significant demographic changes that will affect their respective potential futures. South-East Asia and Latin America, regions that had an early onset of the youth bulge, are slowly decelerating in their youth populations. The NEET percentage indicates that youth employment rates have been rising among young women and is relatively stable with young men. The MENA region is also experiencing a youth bulge in addition to rising education attainment. However, the educational systems are not adequately preparing young people with the needed skills to succeed in the global economy. The shrinking public sector in the region and the frustration it caused with unemployment are some of many issues that fuelled the Arab uprisings (ibid.).

Lastly, Africa's future is still unclear because its youth population will be on the rise indefinitely, which translates to severe demographic pressures. It is with this region that the research paper argues that measures of employment inadequacy need to be developed beyond just measuring the youth unemployment rate. Some potential solutions proposed in the conclusion include establishing conditions for growing and dynamic economies, acting on the importance of high-quality basic education, pushing education and training systems to go further in equipping young people with employable skills, and integrating young people into the workforce during the education and training phases (ibid.).

The youth bulge phenomenon in the developing regions of Asia, Africa and Latin America introduces demographic pressures that are potentially the needed drivers for integrating their respective markets further into the global market. Governments must respond by actively training young people

so that they can be used strategically, because taking a lazy approach will eventually lead to internal conflict and political instability. Assaad and Levi-son (ibid.) assess the current situation with young people while also considering different methods of measuring youth activity without using the markers that are more tailored to developed nations. A clearer image of current issues will generate better solutions that will be more effective in handling each region's obstacles. However, even with a broadened definition of employment inadequacy, it is difficult to fully capture the sorts of employment young people are engaged in because there only exist measures that attempt to be universal in covering youth employment challenges in both developed and developing regions.

Regarding data collection practices that help to broaden the definition of employment inadequacy, NEET is a good start because it is a measure that takes into consideration young people for whom "employment is either not an option or at least not one worth actively searching for". One issue with this is that its data are generally not available for most developing countries. NEET also "does not take into account youth[s] engaged in unproductive or marginal employment" (ibid.). Although ILO is actively proposing measures to fully capture the extent of labour underutilization, vulnerable employment, and non-standard and irregular employment, they have not received widespread acceptance and thus are not broadly used. NEET covers a single aspect of youth employment challenges and, even though it is not expansive enough to provide the full scope of challenges developing nations face, it points towards the solution that a variety of measures can be proposed to develop a cross-data image of the challenges. To fully pinpoint certain challenges for countries within developing regions, there needs to be more exact and narrowed measures for data that may shed light on the obstacles. Broad measures are useful for superficial assessments, but if employment inadequacy is an issue that is widespread and scattered throughout the developing world, it requires fine-tuned data collection strategies to fully comprehend the situation.

The youth bulge is a phenomenon to be watched closely because it seemingly produces trends that vary by region. For example, with South-East Asia

and Latin America, although they experienced an early onset of the youth bulge, they are experiencing a “much slower deceleration of the youth population” than other regions (*ibid.*, p. 49). Developing regions share the youth bulge phenomenon, but these regions also experience it differently. It would require more research to examine this occurrence, but it will be worthwhile in the long run for understanding the course of the phenomenon. Nonetheless, the youth bulge is forcing Governments to take a heavier hand in managing certain sectors and re-evaluating macroeconomic policies to help with youth employment. Successfully handling the bulge can potentially push developing regions into the status of developed regions. This should serve as incentive to make use of youth labour if the possibility of a conflict such as the Arab Spring doesn’t already motivate States to devise the best possible solutions. However, solutions can only be successful when there is rigorous examination of the issues experienced and produced by this demographic change.

Policy analyses often negatively frame young people (especially rural young people) as a political problem. This results in further youth disempowerment, a homogenization of the group, and policies that are incoherent and lack young people’s views. Paradoxically, national youth policies tend to focus on young people as the nation’s future, nation-builders and change agents. This has manifested in the form of policies that aim to empower youth while helping them realize their economic potential. On the other hand, sector policies rarely mention young people consistently in the different areas of policy. When they are mentioned, it is usually connected with negative frames such as deviance, vulnerability, marginalized, disadvantaged, a population problem and future farmers. There are also policies and attitudes that support the idea that rural young people need to become farmers to ensure that more young people can rise out of poverty. This is combined with the agrifood nexus: a focus on schooling to push young people into out-of-school agricultural activities and changing the social attitude that agricultural work is associated with poverty. Governments in policymaking should recognize the problems produced by such framing and the agrifood nexus, to contribute to improve the prospect for the success of future policy objectives (Anyidoho and others, 2012).

The tendency to label young people as deviants when left to their own devices, and as vehicles for a nation’s future is contradictory. It also mirrors a familial dynamic where the Government acts as parents to the young people within the country. The Government also becomes a source of youth disempowerment when its policies homogenize young people as a group. By framing young people as being “change agents” – as Ghana’s policies do – young people then live out a “predetermined development agenda” rather than having change be youth-led. When Governments attempt to turn rural young people into farmers without prior consultation that takes seriously their aspirations for their future, it assumes that either the young people do not want to go into agriculture, or that the sector doesn’t hold enough incentives to attract young people. Rather than being a productive exercise, this becomes an example of the lack of a voice that young people have in policies that ultimately affect them (*ibid.*).

The background paper analysing the African Economic Outlook 2012 presents “Five Youth Unemployment Challenges” and “Five Key Areas of Action.” The unemployment challenges include (a) minimal translation of economic growth into sufficient jobs for young people, (b) demographic pressures of large youth populations on labour markets, (c) low-quality jobs for young people with many working young people remaining in poverty despite working, (d) higher percentages of discouraged than unemployed young people, and (e) women being further disadvantaged with certain challenges, causing a loss of their human resources. The key areas of action are (a) reduction of barriers to growth and job creation experienced by firms and entrepreneurs, (b) bridging the gap between education systems and employer-desired skills, (c) keeping young North Africans better informed about labour markets to produce realistic job expectations, (d) producing a level playing field for first-time jobseekers, and (e) increasing the effectiveness of government programmes that promote youth employment (OECD, 2012). All solutions depend on the Government’s role in mitigating the challenges, because without resetting “the policy agenda of North African Governments”, little change is possible (*ibid.*).

Misinformation combines with unrealistic expectations when looking at the disparity between high numbers of educated young people and employed young people (*ibid.*).

However, sectoral data on employment as well as unemployment by national statistics agencies can be very useful to students in making decisions about choice of majors and training prior to entering the workforce. Unemployment rates by education should also be provided. Such data should be easily accessible and digestible (*ibid.*, p. 8). Universities should also help disseminate such information to students so that they are aware of the sectors that would ultimately provide them with opportunities as well as more secure employment. Government programmes that promote youth employment can be made more effective by providing a “clear, sustainable mechanism for the job matching system” (OECD, 2012). Due to the existing pact between State and society on the role of government in the economy, many young North Africans expect to work in the public sector, and providing better information on alternatives might dispel unrealistic job expectations if the information is widely disseminated, and if a long-term approach is taken. Solutions can also include joint cooperation between different sectors to produce programmes that will ultimately be more effective than those that are exclusively government-instituted and implemented.

Youth development issues are found in all areas of human endeavour. There are major problems in health, education and employment. In education, one of the main issues is the lack of access to post-primary schooling, while for employment, the issue concerns the lack of jobs for the increasing population. African policymakers and development partners should pursue a broader approach that considers all dimensions of the well-being of young people – for example, the ratification of the African Youth Charter – and Governments should support the development of internships and apprenticeship programmes in the private sector (ECA, 2009).

Policymakers and development partners need to maintain a holistic approach that considers all dimensions of the challenges that young people are facing (i.e. social, economic and political), in-

stead of tackling the issues in a manner that does not serve young people’s well-being in its totality. Young people should be informed whether it is about health issues, the job market or politics. There should also be increased efforts to collect data and statistics to produce more accurate policies and plans for young people. Health is also important to considerations about employment.

We should seriously consider the implications of the challenges that African young people face and how they are structurally connected to the labour market and formal education. There is a need to better align policymaking for Africa’s education system with the potential active labour market policies that can be implemented to smooth the transition between school and work, and to ensure that young people are not disconnected from the labour market for long periods of time (ECA, 2005, pp. 1–33).

The Maghreb region is both Europe’s closest neighbour and home to the Arab world’s largest, most rapidly expanding populations. The interactions of Europe, and specifically those of the United Kingdom, with the region is predominantly related to security in terms of counterterrorism, migration control and energy security. The public and media characterizations of the region express fears about uncontrolled migration and violent extremism (Spencer, 2009). These considerations should be re-examined and changed because both the Maghreb and Europe can benefit economically from a relationship that is not solely based on curbing the spread of extremism *per se*.

How best can the issues challenging young people and preventing them from playing larger roles in the globalized business society be addressed? Many initiatives and programmes have been designed to empower and provide young people with economic opportunities, but there must be proactive policymaking to address the challenges of globalization and its push towards global integration of economies and societies. There are opportunities and demands from the global economy that Governments should study to better tailor programmes and initiatives to help young people realize their potential in these areas. One of the challenges to assessing the situation is the need to have a homogenous definition for the term “youth”,

because variance in the definition becomes problematic when attempting to address such a heterogeneous group.

Challenges that negatively affect youth opportunities to enter the globalized business society include political conditions, economic crises, illiteracy, social repression and access to finance (Adewale, 2009). Infrastructural issues, although not mentioned, are also huge obstacles to young entrepreneurs. African young people are still largely marginalized from robust participation in the digital revolution and most profitable parts of the world economy. To combat these obstacles, the young people should also demand inclusion, and this is best done through increasing their organized economic, political, social and cultural participation. Governments should respond to youth concerns and deploy mechanisms to further diminish these obstacles through initiatives in education, financial support for entrepreneurial endeavours, and health provision (ibid.).

The 2014 summit of the African Union in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, planned for the next 50 years with the focus on sustainable development. The continent has weathered financial crises and embraced policies leading to increased interest by investors who want to take advantage of Africa's growing class of consumers and its natural resources. With Africa now aligned with the rest of the world on matters of development and growth, it raises the question of how Africa strategically engages world priorities in its current position. Important issues include climate change, immigration, financial system stability and development models. However, these worries were temporarily set aside with the African Union approving a common position on the post-2015 development agenda during discussions of the Millennium Development Goals (Wall, 2014).

Some of the solutions applied to unemployment might not produce desired results. Bhaduri and Moughari (2015) suggest that public works programmes for the skilled and unskilled workforce need to be rethought and used to push societies towards full employment. Globalization has produced a shift from productive employment generation and expansion of domestic markets to a focus on export competitiveness. This shift, in ad-

dition to the global crisis that both industrialized and developing countries are facing, have significantly increased unemployment and decreased real wages. Public works programmes are potential economic and social solutions to labour market problems (Bhaduri and Moughari, 2015).

5. Issue of gender

There is increased recognition of the existence of gender-based discrimination in employment, which affects pay, conditions of work, benefits and upward mobility in the workplace. There are wide variations in the female labour force across all African countries, but female labour force participation rates are lower than those of men in every African country. In rural areas, women are mostly concentrated in agriculture and food production, while work in the formal sector offers very limited opportunities to women. As for urban areas, most women are self-employed in the urban sector as hairdressers, dressmakers or petty traders. This is due to the structural and cultural constraints that prevent them from effective participation in economic activities. This ranges from customary laws that impede women from working to gender biases in development resources such as education and training.

Gender disparities exacerbate youth unemployment in Africa and have become an increasing issue of concern for African Governments. It is now clear that, with such constraints on women, unemployment has become a gendered issue that needs to be treated as such (Okojie, 2003). Despite the realization that women's education yields more returns, including increased employment (Badawi and Harders, 2017), there are considerable challenges to surmount, because the statistics still show significant disparities in women's access to decent jobs and meaningful career opportunities in the formal economy. Not all countries are equally affected. There are large gender and generational variations in the levels of unemployment in Southern Mediterranean countries, where:

The levels of unemployment among females and youth in the age range 15–24 are higher than the national unemployment average, with female youth unemployment reaching a staggering 57 per cent in Egypt in 2015, one

of the highest rates in the world... What is noticeable is that the labour force participation rate is very different for males and females: females are barely involved in the labour market, with most of them staying economically inactive throughout their lives (Badawi and Harders, 2017).

An important and serious aspect of unemployment and the programmes dedicated to mitigating its effects concerns gender and how it is intertwined with livelihood and career options, and changes the degree to which unemployment is felt by women. This is seldom spoken about in both recent and older discussions on unemployment. At best, the challenges that women face are mentioned in a small section with a few recommendations to help with that aspect of unemployment. However, unemployment is a gendered problem that will affect national and regional development in the African continent. Structural as well as social constraints prevent women from accessing the same opportunities that their male counterparts have. Programmes and policies must be designed to combat these impediments. To simply point them out and recognize their existence is one matter, but a degree of effort is required to design employment-promoting programmes and policies that will help women in ways that they need (Okojie, 2003).

There is lack of gender-disaggregated data to fully assess the extent of the feminization of unemployment. Unfortunately, the gender dimension of unemployment is overlooked because programmes and the kinds of data collected do not reflect a concern over the effects of gender on employment. This is not only a loss of a valuable source of labour, but also an impediment to the economic growth that the rest of the world is so concerned about. Women are a particularly vulnerable group, as shown by the need to have programmes that teach women about the dangers of being trafficked into prostitution. With the lack of opportunities in the formal sector, women's options are limited to agricultural work in rural regions and the informal sector in urban areas. With the informal sector, there are constant dangers that come with employment due to the lack of regulation and legal protection. If Governments and other organizations are serious about tackling unemployment, the gender dimen-

sion of the issue needs to be recognized and addressed appropriately to fully produce a successful approach (Okojie, 2003).

Youth unemployment in North Africa cannot be successfully addressed without identifying and understanding the drivers of gender inequality in youth employment in Africa. Gender inequality in employment is an issue that demands attention not only because gender equality in employment is "essential in the fight against poverty", but also because it is a basic human right that everyone has the same opportunities (Anyanwu, 2016). Gender equality also holds the potential to produce significant macroeconomic gains in terms of a higher GDP, which will contribute significantly to an increased labour force as well as economic development. A 2015 study by McKinsey Global Institute shows that, if women were to participate in the economy equally with men, it would add up to \$28 trillion to the annual global GDP in 2025. It can be even costlier to keep up the artificial barriers that prevent female employment in the formal sector because it will increase labour costs and decrease international competitiveness.

North Africa is dealing with female employment rates (11.0 per cent) that are 22.7 per cent below the global average (33.7 per cent) (Anyanwu, 2016). The region can grow significantly from the extra attention and planning currently underway, but North Africa runs the risk of falling behind if it does not address the problem of gender inequality in employment. Gender equality is an ideal that should be strived for because it can positively contribute to youth employment and sustainable development. Young women are an untapped source of labour that can potentially be the driver of economic growth and an antidote to economic stagnation. The issue requires more research and attentiveness.

The Global Gender Gap Index ranks countries' performance in addressing disparities between men and women in health, education, economy and politics. Sudan, for example, is not among the 144 countries on the index (World Economic Forum, 2016). Sudan "ratified the Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1990 without reservations. Sudan acceded to the Optional Protocol on the involvement of children in armed conflict in 2005

and the Optional Protocol on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography in 2004" (UNICEF, 2011). There are significant challenges in Sudan. The country must address child labour. The age of marriage for boys is 15 years of age and 10 for girls (ibid.). This has implications for literacy, education and labour force participation. It also affects economic development. In literacy, school dropout rates and educational attainment, women lag men. According to the World Bank's estimate, women's labour force participation declined from 27 per cent in 1990 to 24 per cent in 2016 (World Bank).

Morocco, for example, has been making progress in promoting equality and recognition of women's rights. In 2004, the *Moudawana* (Family Code) law was amended, which regulates family law and male–female relations. This reform has defined norms and duties within the family and contributed to rebalancing family relationships. The Code of Citizenship has also been reformed in favour of women and, in 2008, Morocco removed the qualifications it had on the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women.

Despite advances in policy areas, in practice, women continue to be victims of discrimination and inequality in access to resources. The last survey carried out by the High Commission for Planning (HCP) on the prevalence of violence among women shows that 62.8 per cent of women 18–64 years of age have suffered violence (physical, psychological, sexual, economic and/or legal).

Algeria, for example, has ruled in favour of equal pay for equal work, but no Arab country has a legal quota for the percentage of women it must include on corporate boards. Women in rural areas live a double vulnerability, one based on gender and the second on geographical region, where social obstacles are added to the lack of opportunities. Gender empowerment within the context of rural society needs more action and advocacy to exploit the existing potential (Laaredj-Campbell, 2016). The Algerian State has developed a strategy for socioeconomic integration of women in society by establishing an action plan to implement it through the Ministry of National Solidarity, Family and the Status of Women (République Algérienne Démocratique et Populaire, 2014). Two agencies were built

for this purpose: The *Agence nationale de gestion du micro-crédit* (ANGEM), which aims to fight against unemployment and precariousness in urban and rural areas, especially focusing on women and the Social Development Agency, whose mission is to finance and execute social programmes for social categories living in disadvantaged conditions. The initiative includes a social aid and development programme that benefits women up to 53.6 per cent. There is a graduate-integration system for the professional integration of first-time jobseekers: 66.6 per cent of the seekers are women against 33.4 per cent of men. However, the female workforce is still suffering from many barriers, only making up 17.2 per cent of the total labour force. The 2005 amendments to the Family Law improved women's rights. In 2015, the Parliament considered legislation to amend the criminal code to toughen sanctions for violence and discrimination against women at home and in the workplace. Since 2012, quotas related to the numbers of women in elected assemblies have led to over 30 per cent of parliamentary deputies being women.

In Tunisia, for example, major improvements include the labour code or the criminal code, which made the position of Tunisian women in society stronger. Also in education, there has been a high increase in girls enrolled in education since then. But despite all these facts, participation of women in the economic sphere is still low. Tunisia ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women in 1985, although with reservations to some articles that include their rights to choose their own domicile, some related to marriage and divorce. All these reservations were removed in 2014.

The Tunisian Ministry of Women's Affairs is the government institution responsible for promoting and protecting women's rights. It has its own resources for the implementation of its programmes and projects, but it also works with NGOs for the implementation of programmes. The National Council on Women, the Family and the Elderly brings together government organizations and NGOs working on these matters (Freedom House, 2010). In 2007, the Government introduced the "National Strategy to prevent violent behaviour in the family and society, gender-based violence, and violence against women". According to Tunisia's latest report

on the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (2009), civil society organizations offer shelters (two shelters according to the Freedom House report), counselling and legal advice to women who are victims of violence. According to the most updated data from UNDP, Tunisia's Human Development Index (HDI) value for 2015 is 0.725, which put the country in the high human development category, positioning it at 97 out of 188 countries and territories. The rank is shared with Suriname. Between 1990 and 2015, Tunisia's HDI value, which measures on average the basic human development achievements of a country, rose from 0.569 to 0.725, an increase of 27.3 per cent.

Tunisia's HDI for 2015 is 0.725. However, when the value is discounted for inequality (IHDI), it falls to 0.562. To make a comparison, Morocco shows losses due to inequality of 29.5 per cent. The average loss due to inequality for high HDI countries is 20.0 per cent and for Arab States it is 27.5 per cent. The human inequality coefficient for Tunisia is equal to 21.9 per cent.

Inequality-adjusted HDI

The Gender Development Index (GDI), based on the sex-disaggregated Human Development In-

dex, reflects gender inequalities in achievement in the same three dimensions of the HDI: health, education and command over economic resources. The GDI is calculated for 160 countries in the 2015 Human Development Report. The female HDI value for Tunisia is 0.680, in contrast with 0.752 for males, resulting in a GDI value of 0.904. In comparison, GDI values for Libya and Morocco are 0.950 and 0.826, respectively.

Tunisia's Parliament approved an amendment to ensure that women have greater representation in local politics. It includes a proposal for "horizontal and vertical" gender parity in article 49 of the electoral law, and will guarantee effective participation of women in the decentralization process in Tunisia, since the first one requires that municipal election lists have equal numbers of both men and women. Vertical parity means that they both must alternate within each list. Both were adopted by the Assembly of Representatives of the People, the Tunisian Parliament, on 15 June 2016. Out of 134 representatives, 127 agreed to the new measure. According to the Gender Gap Report 2015, Tunisia is ranked 69th in terms of political empowerment out of 145 countries. This will allow for better representation in councils. It constitutes significant progress to-

Table 1: Gender Development Index for the countries compared

	Life expectancy at birth		Expected years of schooling		Mean years schooling		GNI per capita		HDI values		F-M ratio
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	GDI value
Tunisia	77.4	72.7	15.1	14.2	6.7	7.8	4,662	15,967	0.680	0.752	0.904
Libya	74.8	69.0	13.6	13.2	7.7	7.0	7,163	21,364	0.691	0.727	0.950
Morocco	75.3	73.3	11.05	12.6	3.8	6.4	3,388	11,091	0.579	0.700	0.826
Arab State	72.8	69.1	11.4	12.1	5.9	7.6	5,455	23,810	0.621	0.726	0.856
High HDI	77.7	73.4	14.1	13.6	7.8	8.3	10,214	17,384	0.728	0.760	0.958

	IHDI Value	Overall loss (%)	Human inequality coefficient (%)	Inequality in life education at birth (%)	Inequality in education (%)	Inequality in income (%)
Tunisia	0.562	22.5	21.9	12.2	34.6	18.9
Morocco	0.456	29.5	28.3	16.0	45.8	23.0
Arab State	0.498	27.5	27.1	17.9	37.1	26.2
High HDI	0.597	20.0	19.6	10.5	18.3	30.0

wards inclusive government, equal opportunities and gender equality.³

In Libya, for example, although women have managed to become successful in civil society, it is recognized that barriers still exist for them to participate politically. Nevertheless, there is a general belief that women have significantly benefited from the revolution. According to recent figures, only 20 per cent of women in Libya take part in civic or political activity of any kind. The ongoing conflict and lack of security across the country is the main issue affecting Libyan women's ability to work. Women's rights groups are pushing for a quota system to ensure they have a significant presence in the new Parliament, and the country's younger generation is determined to secure its

place in Libya's future. Of Libya's working women, 73 per cent choose careers in two main sectors: education or medicine.⁴ No concrete data exist on school net enrolment or attendance ratios in Libya seem to be available, although the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Institute for Statistics estimates the youth literacy rate is almost 100 per cent for both young males and females.⁵ The growth in female student enrolment in higher education is a positive aspect of the Libyan educational policy. The number of female students has increased dramatically. During the academic year 1980/81, there were only 405 female students, about 21 per cent. During the academic year 1999/2000, female students reached 51 per cent, in addition to female students enrolled in higher technical institutes.

³ UN-Women, 2016.

⁴ Women for Democratic Transformation, a Tripoli-based network that encourages prospective female politicians.

⁵ MENA Gender Equality Profile Status of Girls and Women in the Middle East and North Africa, 2011.

Part 2: COUNTRY CASE STUDIES

Algeria

1.1 Demographics

The population of Algeria is estimated at some 40 million inhabitants. It more than tripled between 1966 and 2015, from 12.1 million to 39.96 million people. Characteristics of the demographic situation in Algeria are as follows: a crude death rate of 5.7 deaths per 1,000 persons and life expectancy at birth which has climbed from 46.14 years in 1966 to 77.1 years (estimates for 2015). These are the characteristics of a country which is currently completing its demographic transition, a situation mainly due to the efforts made over the last 40 years to give the population improved access to health services and other basic services, including water, electricity and sanitation, housing and better nutrition.

It should be noted that currently there is a modest upswing in the birth rate and fertility, largely because of greater ease of access to housing and probably because of an improved security situation. The population under 15 years of age accounts for 28.8 per cent of the total population, the

group aged between 15 and 64 years represents 65.3 per cent, and those aged over 65 accounts for 6 per cent. The dependency rate, equal to the number of dependents (the population aged under 15 and over 60) per 100 persons of working age (population aged 15 to 59 inclusive) was estimated at 60.1 per cent in 2015.

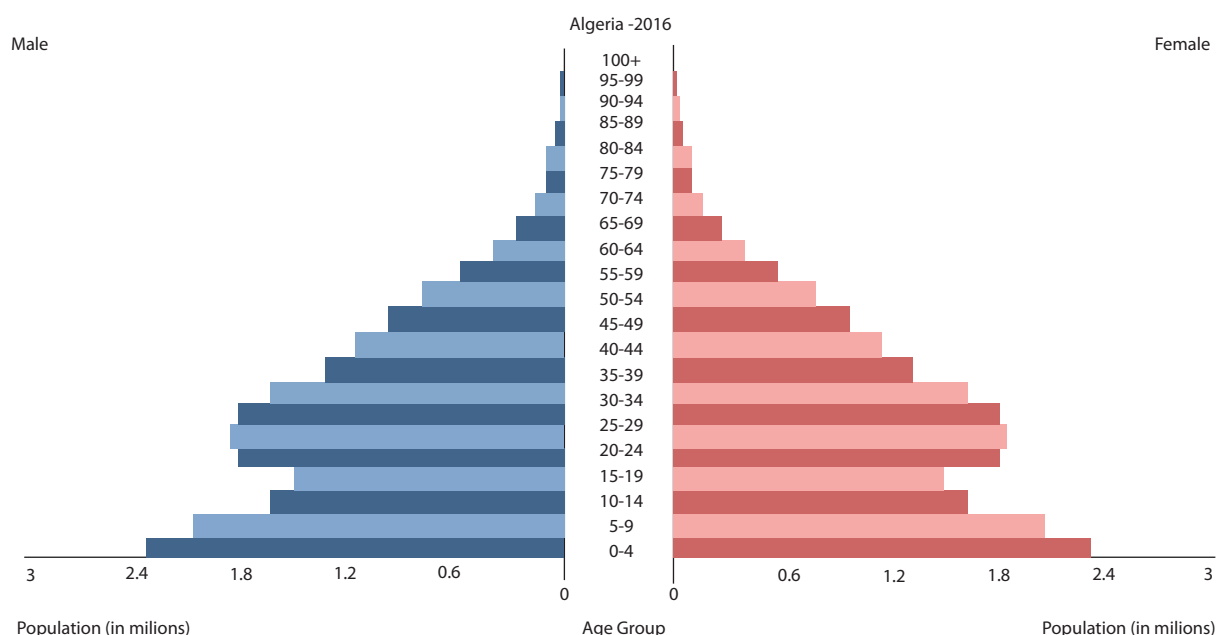
The demographic weight of the youth is very promising in Algeria. According to the *Office National des Statistiques* (ONS), 26 per cent of the Algerian population is 15 to 29 years of age. Annually, thousands of young people graduate from university, there is a high rate of female education, and the country has a good infrastructure in the fields of education, health services and facilities.

1.2 Education

1.2.1. Literacy, education and dropout rates

Algeria's efforts have yielded progress in near-universal access to primary education, an improvement in the conditions of schooling, singular advances in the length of schooling of the population and a decline in illiteracy. The literacy rate for the adult male population is 87.17 per cent (13,525,229 persons), whereas for the adult female population

Figure I: Age structure and gender as percentage of the population



it is 73.13 per cent (11,287,016 persons). Youth literacy rates are 95.65 per cent and 95.53 per cent for males and females respectively. The overall youth literacy rate is 95.59 per cent. The youth literacy rate covers the population for the ages of 15 to 24 years.⁶ There is free education at all levels. Schooling is compulsory from the age of 6 until the age of 16. The basic education programme lasts for 10 years and is tuition-free. Many young people have a high level of educational attainment, with 41 per cent of males and 59 per cent of females in universities and higher education institutions. Overall enrolment rates are in line with MENA region averages: 97.06 per cent in primary, 97.6 per cent in secondary, and 37 per cent in tertiary education. Less than half of those completing secondary school obtain the baccalaureate diploma. Dropout rates are much higher for secondary school, as around half of the pupils do not complete their education. There are many shortcomings,⁷ such as a lack of adequate space and equipment in schools and a shortage of specialized staff. Nevertheless, Algeria is establishing teacher training institutions, and there are refresher courses, to improve the level of qualification of teachers. Programmes still must be consolidated: a methodological guide on the preparatory education programme was produced in 2009 by the National Program Commission, but training in its use has not been implemented. However, Algeria is making efforts to bring the pedagogical content in line with international standards, the adoption of a skill-based approach and the gradual introduction of information and communication technologies into teaching.

Social policies implemented by the State in favour of disadvantaged families, particularly those that have a direct effect on the schooling of children (free canteen, transport, school books and allowances), are likely to ensure continuity in their schooling. There is a great need for programmes of this kind, especially in rural areas. The education system, with its three components (education, vocational training and higher education), must be complementary to ensure the optimal use of the existing framework for the development of the country and sustainable development.

1.2.2. Higher education

Universities in Algeria have been reformed using the European and American systems as models: three years for a Bachelor's degree and two years for a Master's. Several reforms have shaped the current academic institution. The last one, launched in 2004, and known as the "LMD Reform", aims to approximate higher education to the economic sphere. This system has set itself the target of improving the quality of training to:

- a) "Satisfy the needs of the socio-economic sector in its quest for performance and competitiveness, by providing it with a human resource of high quality, capable of innovation and creativity and taking an active part in the development of research and development"; and
- b) Be in line with international requirements for qualifications and skills.

Higher education must, in addition to its function of teaching and transmission of knowledge, be able to rise to a level that enables it to provide the national economy with creative, innovative, trained and skilled people.

1.2.3. Distribution of enrolments in higher education

The orientation of education to human and social sciences has not changed after the application of the LMD system. The main objective of the reform was to align higher education with the needs of the economic sphere.

As for postgraduate education, the "technology and exact sciences" sectors are in first place with a total enrolment of 21,396 enrolled in 2013, compared with 9,228 in 2003. As for the science sector, it ranked second with a student enrolment of 21,171 in 2013, compared with 14,574 in 2003.

1.2.4. Vocational training

Algeria's vocational training system is operated by the Ministries of Education and Training and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. Vocational

⁶ UNESCO, Institute for Statistics (retrieved March 13, 2016).

⁷ Algérie. C.N.E.S. Rapport National sur le Développement humain, 2013–2015.

training was expanded and diversified to be available to the large number of students completing primary education but “not qualified by disposition or grades” to continue secondary education. It was originally conceived to streamline the transition of graduates into the workforce and provide them with immediate employment.

Vocational training ensures five levels of qualification, from the skilled worker to the higher technician. It is taught in four forms: residential, apprenticeship, evening and distance learning. The Government, enterprises and trade union organizations are all involved, and it has a twofold objective: to ensure the training of a skilled workforce that meets the requirements and needs of the labour market, particularly through residential training and apprenticeship training; and the continuous training of workers according to changing requirements of the labour market (skills recycling)⁸. Most instructions in technical subjects are still in French, so the language is not adequate to all students, since it may leave out those who are not able to understand French. The lack of institutionalized job placements causes graduates to end up in positions not related to their training. There are more than 1,400 centres in Algeria that offer more than 400 courses aimed at broadening the range of skills to meet labour market needs. The number of students enrolled in vocational training in 2015/16, rose 14 per cent, exceeding 377,000. Under the 2010–2014 plan, AD178 billion (\$1.9 billion) was allocated for vocational training, for infrastructure modernization and the construction of 220 institutes, 58 vocational boarding schools and 82 training centres.⁹ Teacher training in greater use of technological solutions and local and foreign collaborations are some of the main elements necessary for the development of the sector. The government plan for 2014–2018 is the basis for the reform of the education and training system that include the following priorities:¹⁰

- a) Access to education will be increased through the construction of new schools; and

- b) Specific training programmes will be developed to target specific social groups, particularly population in rural areas.

Regarding quality of training, the plan includes:

- a) Quality assurance mechanisms for pedagogical activities, as well as financial and administrative management;
- b) Training of educational staff, particularly trainers;
- c) Enhanced career guidance and orientation services;
- d) The reorganization of the curricula in vocation and educational training;
- e) Setting up centres of excellence in the field of agriculture, construction, car mechanics, renewable energies and knowledge-based technologies;
- f) Follow-up exchange and cooperation programmes; and
- g) Follow-up of the computerization and creation of school networks.

As for partnerships with the business sector, the plan includes:

- a) Developing the apprenticeship system to involve more enterprises in the training process;
- b) Reinforcing the coordination with partners in the socioeconomic sector to adapt the offer to the needs of the labour market;
- c) Opening the pedagogical development network to research institutions and the economic sector.

1.2.5. Urban vs. rural areas

In Algeria, the urban population, which is rapidly growing, represents 66.3 per cent of the popula-

⁸ Ministère de la Formation et de l'Enseignement Professionnel. Algeria.

⁹ The Report: Algeria 2015. Oxford Businesses Group.

¹⁰ European Training Foundation, 2015.

tion, while it was 31 per cent in 1966. After being a country with a large predominance of rural population during the early years of independence (69 per cent), Algeria currently has gradually reduced its urban deficit to an estimated urbanization rate of 70 per cent.

Urban and rural areas seem to share similar levels of child schooling (71 per cent in urban areas and 69 per cent in rural areas). There is more difference between regions, with more than 13 percentage points' difference between the North-East (75 per cent) and the North-West (61 per cent). According to the wealth quintile, the Early Childhood Development Initiative is almost identical for children living in the poorest environments (71 per cent) and children living in the richest ones (72 per cent). The remoteness of infrastructure for primary and secondary school in rural areas deprives children, especially girls, of the opportunity to continue their schooling.

1.3 Youth policies

Algeria has various regulations and programmes that affect young people. The Constitution of the People's Democratic Republic of Algeria provides the right to universal free education up to 16 years of age (article 53).

The Ministry of Youth and Sports has Directorates in each of the provinces that are responsible for local youth centres, hostels, village halls and sport facilities. It is the main governmental agency for youth issues, although other governmental actors are also involved in the implementation of youth cooperation programmes: the Ministry of Health, the Ministry in Charge of Security and Local Administration, the Ministry of Culture, etc. The cross-cutting nature of the actions targeting young people causes them to lose efficiency and the results are not always satisfactory.

In the field of culture and leisure, the State seeks primarily to strengthen identity and national belonging through the preservation of cultural heritage, and participation in cultural and recreational activities, as part of integral development, as well as the promotion of artistic creation and the presence of Algerian culture in the world.

Regarding youth employment, the Government renewed its instigation policy with two additional programmes:

- a) The first one, under the protection of the Ministry of Employment and of Social Security, has been called "Plan of action for the promotion of employment and the fight against unemployment", which in its 11th objective states "to strengthen the promotion of youth employment and improve the current 12 per cent recruitment rate so that it reaches 33 per cent";
- b) The Ministry of National Solidarity set up that same year (2008) a new programme of insertion of young graduates intended for young people aged 19 to 35 years who do not earn any income but who either have a post-secondary degree or a degree of highly qualified technicians.

1.4 Employment

The youth unemployment rate in the MENA region is three times that of adults. Although the trend suggests a stable unemployment rate of around 11 per cent, among young people, the rate is expected to increase slightly, to 30 per cent in 2019 (28.7 per cent in 2012). Algeria yields the same proportions as the MENA region, as the youth unemployment rate was 29.9 per cent in 2015.

Although the average unemployment rate is relatively low at 11.2 per cent, the general situation remains worrying as most are long-term unemployed (72 per cent). The unemployment rate reached 29.9 per cent in 2015 (26.7 per cent for male and 45.3 per cent for female), increasing pressure on Algerian society and the economy.

The unemployment rate is lower for people with lower education and it increases according to education level, reaching 15.4 per cent for those with higher education (ONS). Four factors seem to determine the profile of the Algerian unemployed: being young, female, academic and urban. While some reforms have been undertaken to raise the quality of the education system, this has not yet impacted the improvement of employability for students leaving the system.

The case of young women is particularly worrying, being four times higher than the overall 2015 rate; three times higher than that of women (of all ages); and double that of young men in the same age group. The unemployment rate in Algeria has risen, passing from 10.5 per cent in September 2016 to 12.3 per cent in April 2017 (ONS, 2017), 1.8 points in total in a very short period. These data hide big differences depending on the population categories. The unemployment rate among young people 15–24 years of age reached approximately 29 per cent. Among youngsters without qualifications, the rate is 10 per cent according to figures from April 2017, 14.8 per cent among vocational training degree holders and 17.6 per cent among higher education degree holders.

Concerning the dependency ratio – the age–population ratio between individuals who are not in the labour force and individuals who are – Algeria is under pressure from people younger than 15 years (around 40 per cent of the population). The country is expected to reach a very high overall dependency rate of 60 per cent by 2035, a situation that will be exacerbated by the problem of access to employment and consequent income.

Almost 75 per cent of Algeria's poor live in urban areas, doing informal jobs, or they depend on subsistence agriculture. Work in the private sector tends to be precarious and it has a bad reputation among young people due to lack of permanent contracts and absence of social rights (compensation, holidays, health insurance, etc.). There is high demand for public sector employment because it offers the advantages that the private sector lacks, such as health insurance and long-term contracts, especially in the sectors of health, education, the security services and administration, which are the largest employers in Algeria (SAHWA, 2014a).

One quarter of the employed people in 2013 said they were looking for another job, 57 per cent were motivated by the instability of current employment and 33 per cent were non-permanent employees. These two elements highlight the existence of certain forms of job insecurity. Non-permanent wage employment is increasing in Algeria, rising from 22.9 per cent in 2004 to 27 per cent in 2015, while

its share was only 19 per cent in 2000. This share in the wage-earning sector has increased from 38 per cent to 50 per cent from 2004 to 2014, but there was a 39 per cent decline in employees in 2015. Non-affiliation to social security affects just under half of the occupied (42.5 per cent) in Algeria. Indeed, 9 out of 10 (88.2 per cent) young people 15–24 years of age working in the private sector lack access to social security, three quarters of whom have no diploma.

1.5 Employment policies

The measures put in place by the State to facilitate access to employment and the activities undertaken during the last 20 years should be retained. The political orientation of these schemes is addressed to young people under 30–35 years of age. As part of the State's efforts to diversify the national economy and further affirm the orientation towards more inclusive and equitable development, the Government of Algeria in 2008 adopted the Action Plan for the Promotion of Employment and Combating Unemployment, which places employment at the heart of economic and social policies. Seven main objectives were then set:¹¹

- a) The fight against unemployment through an economic approach;
- b) Improving the qualification of the national workforce;
- c) Promoting entrepreneurial spirit;
- d) Adapting training streams and profiles to the needs of the labour market;
- e) Improvement and consolidation of labour market intermediation;
- f) Support for job-creating investment;
- g) Modernization of monitoring, control and evaluation mechanisms.

Also, four types of tools were used by the Government to keep this situation under control:

11 *Le plan d'action pour la promotion de l'emploi et de la lutte contre le chômage.*

- a) Works of public utility with high labour intensity;
- b) The “White Algeria”;
- c) The general interest;
- d) The social insertion activities scheme.

1.5.1 The National Commission for the Promotion of Employment

This Commission was created in 2010 to assure a system of information and analysis of the labour market (also sectoral), the examination of the possible measures that can assure the creation of employment activities, the adequacy of training to available employment and youth insertion into the labour market.

To achieve this, the Commission promotes the development of partnerships between the National Agency for Youth Employment Support (*Agence Nationale de Soutien à l'Emploi des Jeunes*), and the National Insurance Fund, and the promotion of the paid employment through the National Employment Agency. The latter works through:

- a) Improving the skills of jobseekers;
- b) Tax and fiscal incentives for employers recruiting jobseekers; and
- c) Greater support for employers through employment-assisted contracts.

1.5.2 The Aid for Professional Incorporation Device (*Dispositif d'Aide d'Insertion Professionnelle*)

Employers take 60 per cent of the cost of training jobseekers to adapt them to employment. If they recruit within the framework of the aided employment contract, they receive a contribution from the State on the salary of the potential employee that depends on his/her level of education and on his or her experience. Micro-enterprises created within the framework of the National Agency for Youth Employment Support and the National Unemployment Insurance Fund can recruit two first jobseekers in the framework of the Integration Assistance

Scheme (*Agence Nationale de l'Emploi*). In the pursuit of achieving these goals, the Commission has meetings once every six months to elaborate a periodical report on the labour market situation and discuss propositions and ideas to fight unemployment.

A special fund was set up to support young project developers through State aid in the form of a loan at a reduced rate: The National Youth Employment Support Fund. During the period 2008 to 2014, it financed 184,676 projects in various sectors, creating 413,780 jobs. The service sector accounted for the largest share of employment, 29 per cent of all jobs created, followed by the freight sector (17 per cent). The sectors of agriculture (14 per cent), crafts (13 per cent) and building and civil engineering (12 per cent) follow. The remaining 13 per cent is divided between the other sectors (industry, maintenance, passenger transport, liberal professions, fishing and hydraulics).

The National Agency for Microcredit Management (*Agence Nationale de gestion du Micro-crédit*) relies on a new legal framework whose objective is the fight against unemployment and precariousness in urban and rural areas by promoting self-employment, craft activities, especially for women, and stabilization of rural populations in their areas of origin. During the period 2008–2014, ANGEM funding made it possible to create a youth employment potential equal to 243,288 people.

The risk of unemployment, particularly among younger generations, and the inherent quality of employment, still leaves Algeria with some challenges that the country will have to face in the years to come.

Some measures that can be put in place to fight unemployment in Algeria could be:

- a) Developing the spirit of research in companies and mechanisms to facilitate the creation of bridges between academic researchers and socioeconomic actors. The current information system should be adapted and renewed to inform decision-makers of the employment situation in accordance with international standards, considering national and territorial specificities;

- b) Enhancing coordination between the actors responsible for employment by creating a supervisory body for the supervision and evaluation of the devices adopted;
- c) Developing communication and publicity around the arrangements, facilities and benefits granted to young entrepreneurs;
- d) Introducing modules on entrepreneurship and managerial capacities in the education system.

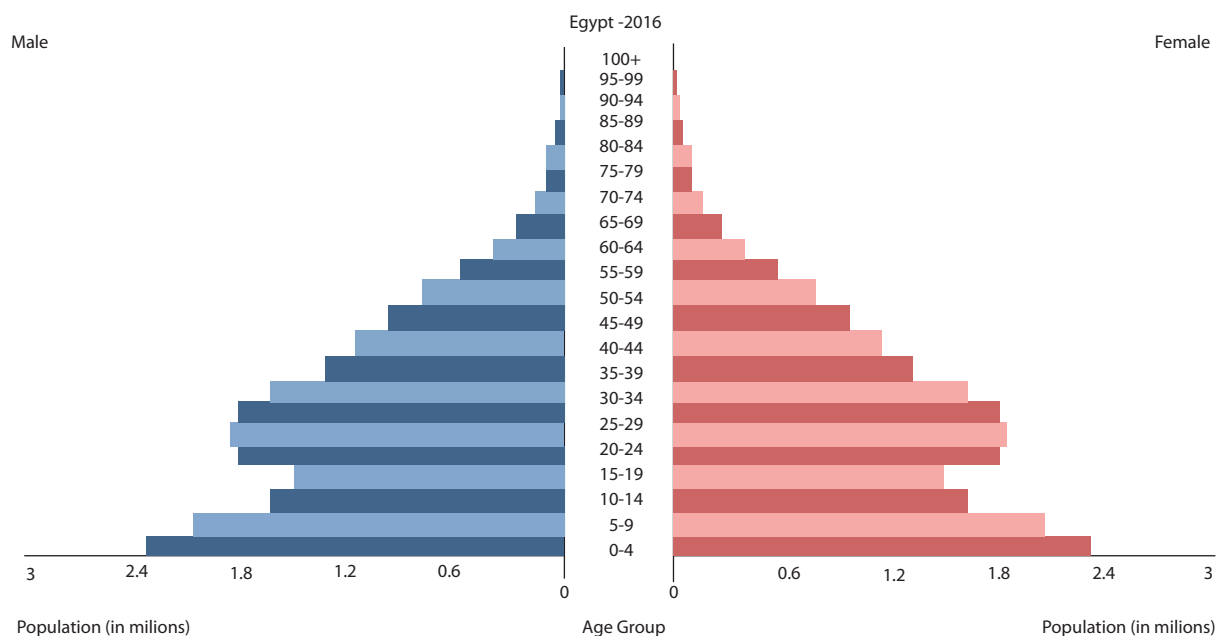
2. Egypt

2.1 Demographics

2.2 Education

The number of out-of-school children of primary school-age has dropped gradually since 2000, but the decline is fluctuating. There has been a dramatic reduction in exclusion rates for children of lower secondary school age. In addition, although the numbers are still high, out-of-school rates have declined among children of pre-primary age.

Figure II: Age structure and gender as percentage of the population



Source: Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) (2017a).

Socioeconomic context		
GNI per capita, Atlas method (current US\$)	2015	3,340.0
Mortality rate, under-5 (per 1 000)	2015	24.0
Population growth (annual per cent)	2015	2.1
Population ages 0–14 (per cent of total)	2015	33.2
Population ages 0–14, total	2015	30,344,337
Population, total	2015	91,508,084
Prevalence of HIV, total (per cent of population ages 15–49)	2015	0.1
Unemployment, total (per cent of total labour force)	2014	13.2

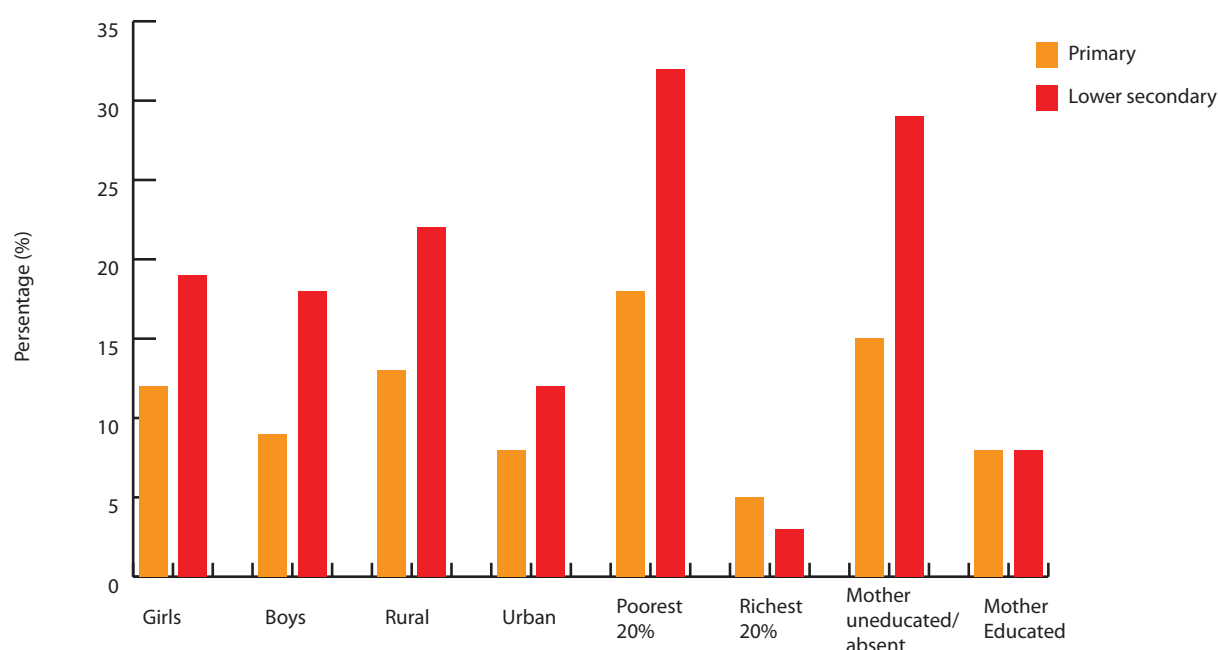
Figure III: Education at a glance, Egypt

Education Indicators		Female	Male	Total
Net enrolment rate, pre-primary	2014	27	28	27
Net enrolment, primary	2014	98	98	98
Primary completion rate	2013	104	103	104
Out of school children of primary school age	2014	33 219	80 080	113 300
Gender parity index for gross enrolment ratio, primary	2014			1
Net enrolment, secondary	2014	82	81	82
Gross enrolment rate, tertiary	2015	36	37	36
Adult literacy rate, 15+ years, (per cent)	2013	67	83	75

Currently, there are 319,126 children of primary school age out of school (2.9 per cent), and 331,074 children of lower secondary age (6.6 per cent) and 1,297,354 children of pre-primary school age (69.2 per cent). The 3 per cent dropout rate in lower secondary school is still significant. The poor are hardest hit. Boys in the urban areas and girls in the rural areas are the most likely to drop out (UNICEF, 2017).

2.3 Youth policies

Egypt does not have a homogenous, clearly articulated age range for its youth population. According to the 2010 Euromed report on Egypt (Abdelhay), “the National Council for Youth (NYC), the predecessor of the current Ministry of State for Youth Affairs, defined youth as aged 18–30. However, recent programmes by the Ministry, such as the cooperation agreement signed with the Participatory Development Programme in Urban Areas in January

Figure IV: Out-of-school rates

Out-of-school rates for the poorest children are much higher than those for the richest: 3 times higher at primary school age and 10 times higher at lower secondary age

Definition: Age 15 and over can read and write

Total population: 73.8 per cent

Male: 82.2 per cent

Female: 65.4 per cent (2015 est.)

Out-of-school rates are also higher for girls, rural children, and children whose mothers are uneducated or absent

2013, define youth as aged 18–35" (Youthpolicy.org, 2014).

The Ministry of State for Youth Affairs is responsible for child and youth development in Egypt. Its strategic goals for 2013–2017 include enhancing political participation of youth, building cultural awareness, and developing training and research on youth. According to the *Egypt Independent* (El-Hennawy, 2012), the Ministry was a new post within the first cabinet after the 2011 revolution, though it seems to have taken over the role of the previous National Council of Youth, which was the main governmental body in charge of youth programming as described in the 2010 Euromed report (Youthpolicy.org, 2014). Although the draft budget for youth, culture and religious affairs for 2012/13 is EGP 20.4 million (Arab Republic of Egypt, 2012), the percentage dedicated exclusively to youth is unclear. With education, there is a clearer idea. The World Bank claims that Egypt spent 11.93 per cent of government expenditure and 3.76 per cent of its GDP on education in 2008 (World Bank, 2017). This is the last recorded calculation by the Bank (Youthpolicy.org, 2014).

2.4 Employment

Unemployment remains pervasive across Egypt. Youth unemployment has increased by 50 per cent over the past decade, from 28 per cent in 2000–2002 to 42 per cent in 2012–2014, because of subdued economic opportunities. A mismatch between the needs of the country and the educational and skills systems, including both general education and technical and vocational education and training, continues to persist. Significant progress has been made in increasing educational enrolment, including for females. But the more educated are also the more unemployed among young people. Several factors could have a role in the elevated unemployment rates for the educated. Those young people may have higher expectations of attaining particular kinds of work, and may also have support mechanisms (such as family) which allow them to search for jobs longer or "wait" until they get jobs which match their expectations. Further, jobs may simply not exist for the highly educated – either because companies are unable to develop these posts (or do so rarely), or because there is a mismatch between the skills acquired by the highly educated youth, and those sought by the companies (ILO,

2017). In addition, gender disparities are high, with female youth unemployment standing at 64.9 per cent in 2012, relative to their male counterparts at 23.8 per cent (ILO, 2012).

When disaggregated by gender, unemployment and illiteracy appear to be the major drivers of exclusion among women. Poverty and unemployment have a relatively higher contribution to exclusion among men. Poverty levels have also increased by varying degrees across gender. This speaks to the need for gender-sensitive policy interventions in economic and social sectors, to address the key factors that drive human exclusion across gender.

There are also stark differences in the labour force participation among men and women. Men have higher participation rates compared with women, due to many factors, including cultural and social norms (ILO, 2015). Although youth unemployment for males is lower relative to females, it has increased from 16 per cent in 2009 to 29 per cent in 2013, according to national statistics. On the other hand, female youth unemployment remained high, although it marginally declined, from 56 to 52 per cent over the same period. The marginal decline in female youth unemployment could be indicative of affirmative action and women's empowerment programmes put in place by the Government, especially in terms of training and skills development programmes to improve youth employability.

An increased pool of decent jobs, better education and equitable access to economic opportunities thereafter would reduce the current inevitability of young people accepting exploitative and marginal jobs. If this happens, the country stands to gain in many ways that ultimately contribute to sustainable development.

Although Egypt's labour market has experienced numerous shocks, the posed challenges stem from long-term trends such as the disproportionate challenges faced by women and young people that make it extremely difficult for them to access high-quality jobs. The unemployment rate alone hides the real nature of the labour market, because it conceals the fact that high-quality jobs are lacking. The three long-term trends plaguing the Egyptian labour market now are expanding informal private sector employment, decreasing public

sector jobs, and stagnant formal private sector employment. The young people face challenges in entering a labour market that little resembles the past market. This is especially troubling with the current youth bulge.

A spatial examination of the labour market is of special importance because there is a clear disparity between core metropolitan areas and the rural periphery. In addition to such disparities, there is a lack of migration, as evidenced by those living in the rural periphery when they make the decision to take jobs closer to their homes. There are much greater resources in metropolitan areas, especially because firms also make the decision to station there to have greater access to capital. The main differences between the core and periphery within the Egyptian labour market are in wages, job formality and unemployment. With increasing distance from the metropolitan core, job formality decreases and unemployment increases substantially. The brighter aspect to this issue is that there is no longer an education disparity between the core and periphery, but this gain does not make up for the disparities in the labour market segments. A current increasing problem is the fact that the periphery is catching up with the core while the core is beginning to fall behind. Although this indicates a narrowing wage gap, it highlights a deteriorating core, instead of progress in solving the problem of unemployment.

Informality has increased due to the rise of irregular workers, and this makes Egypt's labour market even more susceptible to shocks, pushes more jobless workers into informality, moves Egypt away from high productivity sectors, and creates higher wages in the informal sector (as compared with formal sector wages). With increasing informality also comes increased underemployment, and a greater reliance on the informal sector to be the last resort employer. Household microenterprises are the main employers of informal workers, but most of the microenterprises are extremely vulnerable and do not survive over time. There are thus significant challenges that could be addressed by "disentangling the structural and cyclical responses of a labour market" to understand, properly analyse and respond proactively to market trends.

Egypt can enhance efficiency and equalize opportunity. This is a balancing act because the country would be in a very precarious situation if this balancing act were to fail. The agenda should include increasing competition, entrepreneurship and job creation; addressing informality; and building an inclusive future. There is a need to consider solutions such as creating credible signals to produce transparency and accountability in the private sector. To address informality, a multifaceted approach is needed that includes institutional changes that rigorously evaluate firms. For an inclusive future, active labour market policies must be made that make the labour market more inclusive.

The Egyptian economy has faced numerous challenges over time that contribute to the deterioration of the current labour market. There are serious institutional and structural issues that also contribute to the challenges facing the labour market. Consequently, the labour market is not successfully or fairly serving its labour force. Inequality and informality plague its market, and these are only two of the long-term trends that indicate failures in the labour market.

2.5 Employment policies

In Egypt, four policy initiatives are worth highlighting:

- a) **The Youth Employment National Action Plan** was developed through a comprehensive consultative process launched in May 2009. ILO, the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) and the United Nations supported the Ministry of Manpower in the process that produced the draft version of the Youth Employment National Action Plan 2010–2015. The plan was geared toward making more decent and productive jobs available, preparing young people for the job market, and synchronizing labour supply and demand;
- b) **The Egyptian Observatory for Education, Training and Employment** was developed in 2006–2010 with funding from the European Training Foundation (ETF), under the auspices of the Information and Decision Support Centre (IDSC), and attached to the cabinet of the Prime Minister. A public–pri-

vate Steering Committee was formed with representatives from the bureaucracy, the business community and civil society. It conducted labour market analyses and capacity-building activities and a concept for a labour market observatory;

- c) **The Egyptian Forum for Youth Employment Promotion** (Egypt-YEP) was fostered by ILO and GIZ, and funded by Australia, Canada and Germany in 2014. Egypt-YEP is a high-level public–private initiative that brought together “national policy-makers (the ministries of Education, Planning, and Manpower), private stakeholders, trade unions, civil society organizations, experts and youth that endeavours to take collective and pragmatic actions to address the pressing labour market challenges of young people in Egypt and especially unemployment”;
- d) **Workforce Improvement and Skill Enhancement** (WISE) is a three-year collaboration from 2016 between the Government of Egypt, the private sector, and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) on a vocational education and training project. This \$22.1 million initiative is for reforming the technical secondary education system (through curriculum development and teacher training) and building youth skills to match the needs of the labour market.

Labour market institutions are important for devising workable solutions to youth unemployment. They are legal bodies charged with coordinating labour supply and demand. Egypt has some labour market institutions responsible for planning and coordinating employment promotion initiatives, as described by the International Labour Organization. They include:

- a) The Ministry of Manpower (MOM) is responsible for facilitating the match between labour supply and demand, helping to increase the employability of the labour force, and monitoring labour market demand. It runs its own training centres, which focus primarily on training of school

dropouts and laid-off workers. MOM is running an Employment Information Programme, which prepares labour market statistics and publishes the Monthly Vacancy Bulletin. It also organizes an enterprise census once a year, to collect information on training needs from all enterprises with more than 10 workers. The Ministry collaborates with employers and workers through the Supreme Council for Human Resources Development and also directly in shaping training policies while it encourages private enterprises to set up their own training centres and provides with them methodological guidance and certification;

- b) The Supreme Council for Human Resources Development is the main body responsible for coordinating the training policies of all ministries. It is headed by the Minister of Manpower and includes high-level representatives from all other relevant ministries. The Council meets four times a year and announces national training needs. The different ministries are supposed to integrate such announcements in their training programmes to adapt them to labour market requirements;
- c) The Information and Decision Support Centre (IDSC) is attached to the Cabinet of Ministers. It has formulated the National Youth Employment Programme. In addition, IDSC is undertaking a labour demand analysis based on newspaper advertisements;
- d) Employment offices are part of MOM and have a territorial structure;
- e) The Social Fund for Development is a semi-autonomous governmental agency under the direct supervision of the Prime Minister. It was created in 1991, as a joint initiative between the Government of Egypt, the World Bank and UNDP with the task of mitigating the negative effects of the economic reform on the most vulnerable groups of people and promote economic development in backward regions. The Social Fund for Development is very active

in the field of job creation and runs several employment programmes.

- f) Some new labour market institutions have recently been or will be introduced in the Egyptian system under Labour Law 12/2003 (hereafter referred to as the Labour Law). One of them is the National Council for Wages. It is in charge of setting minimum wages (ILO and Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics, Cairo, 2012).

Egypt ratified the ILO Minimum Wage Fixing Convention, 1970 (No. 131) regulating the minimum wage, which signals the fact that it takes its obligations seriously.

Labour market laws and wage policies shape the labour law and minimum wage policy on job creation. Labour market laws have two opposite effects: unemployment reduction as well as significant barriers to employment. Strict labour market laws also could have the effect of reducing access to employment for already marginalized population that ought to be enabled to have increased access, for example, women and young people (ibid.).

The informal economy is significant, with a 47 per cent share of total employment. The implications are that labour regulations may not increase the pool of jobs, and may also contribute to reduction in the availability of *decent* jobs (ibid.).

Egypt has a comprehensive social security system that gives extensive and inclusive coverage to employees of government, the public and private sectors, and informal enterprises. It also protects Egyptians “working abroad and some vulnerable groups. It is criticized for its high contribution rates, which discourage both employees and employers from paying their contributions and reporting actual wages. In addition, the maximum wage according to which the social security contributions are calculated is very low. Another significant disadvantage of the system is the lack of financial sustainability” (ibid.). Young people have the advantage of being covered by social security but may be in situations where employers don’t make contributions, which eliminates presumed advantages.

Public employees’ wages are determined by parameters established by law, but the private sector tends to ignore the law and workers have little recourse because there are few unions in this sector. Conditions are even more precarious in the agricultural sector and informal economy, where employers have even more discretion in the determination of wages, and there are no unions. According to Egyptian law, men and women should be paid the same wages for the same work, but there is no requirement that they are paid the same for work of equal value as per the ILO Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100) (ibid.).

Egypt has many job training initiatives. Some are sponsored by the private sector, others by Egyptian NGOs and international development partners. The Government also sponsors some training programmes and yet others are structured as public–private initiatives. Not all of these initiatives have been evaluated for impact and effectiveness. Such evaluation is necessary to identify best practices and increase possibility of success.

3. Libya

3.1 Demographics

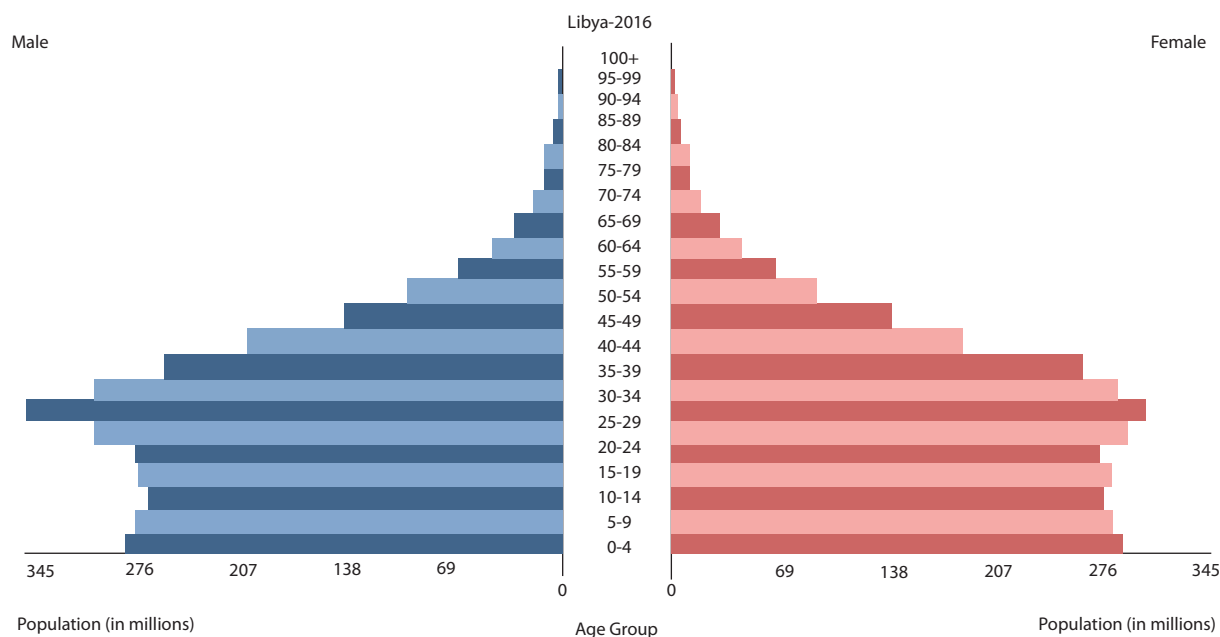
The population of Libya was 6,413,395 as of July 2017, based on United Nations estimates. The average age is 27.8 years, with 17 per cent of the population being young people from 15 to 24 years of age. Throughout the twentieth century, the population of Libya doubled 12 times, although in the last 20 years it has been in steady decline. Some projections put the 2030 population at higher than 14 million, while other projections suggest 11 million by 2050.

3.2 Education

Libya’s higher education is financed by the public budget. The Libyan national report for the UNESCO Education for All programme states that the rate of enrolment for grade one is approximately 98 per cent. The challenge concerns rather the quality of education and the relevance and type of educational provision at the secondary level.

A central part of the Libyan curriculum for primary and secondary education was the Green Book (political philosophy) during Gadhafi’s rule. Students

Figure V: Libya's age pyramid



Source: Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) (2017a).

- 0–14 years: 26.17 per cent (male 875,430/female 836,272);
- 15–24 years: 17.41 per cent (male 586,713/female 552,531);
- 25–54 years: 46.99 per cent (male 1,613,168/female 1,460,987);
- 55–64 years: 5.21 per cent (male 174,023/female 167,072);
- 65 years and above: 4.22 per cent (male 137,409/female 138,343) (2016 estimation).

from ages 9 to 18 were required to study government course in school: *Jamahiriyah* studies. To enforce these views, all curriculum designers were required to be part of the *Lijan Thawriya* (Revolutionary Committees), local committees dedicated to the interpretation of the Green Book (Morgana, 2012). In 1975, there were only two universities and around 13,418 students enrolled in post-secondary education but already by 2004, there were nine universities and 84 technical and vocational schools with over 270,000 post-secondary students. Vocational schools offer programmes for 44 different vocations in seven major fields: electrical; mechanical; carpentry; building and architectural; service industry; agricultural; and marine fishing.

Due to the increasing number of students enrolling in higher education since 1981, the university was restructured and the number of universities expanded to 13 in 1995, consisting altogether of 76 specialized faculties and more than 344 specialized scientific departments. The number of university students has increased from 13,418 in the 1975/76

academic year to 269,302 during 1999/2000. There appears to be an imbalance between enrolment in humanities and arts, and basic sciences and technology. Approximately 35.4 per cent of students aged 18–24 are enrolled in universities and higher vocational institutes. The total number of students registered at different educational levels in Libya was 1,786,270 in 1996, representing 40.3 per cent of the population (International Network for Higher Education in Africa).

As a result of the high number of university students and the pressure on the public budget, universities and institutions of higher education were formed in the private sector, for which the State does not assume any cost. These institutions have to be financed by investors.

Although no official studies have been found that can indicate the distribution of student enrolments at Libyan universities, there seems to exist an imbalance between the number of students enrolled in the humanities and arts, and those in sciences

Table 2: Student enrolment in higher education in Libya, 1975–2000

Year	Student Enrolment in Higher Education in Libya: 1975-2000		
	No. of students in Universities	No. of Students in Higher Technical Institutes	Total
1975-76	13,418	-	13,418
1980-81	19,315	1,130	20,445
1984-85	32,770	3,080	35,850
1989-90	50,475	3,916	54,391
1992-93	101,093	12,921	114,014
1993-94	116,473	16,912	133,385
1995-96	160,000	28,106	188,106
1996-97	160,112	54,080	214,192
1997-98	168,123	58,512	226,635
1998-99	165,447	58,887	224,324
1999-00	204,332	64,970	269,302

and technology (El-Hawat, 2003). The problem of members of the workforce not having the skills necessary to enter the labour market had already started in the 1980s, when the Government took notice of this problem and began reforms to solve it, starting with the establishment of the Ministry of Technical and Vocational training in 1980. There is a marked disconnect between the university system and the demands of employers. Students have no access to career counselling services at university and rarely participate in internships while they study.

The lack of qualified teachers and enrolments in vocational training has resulted in contracting foreigners to fill teaching posts, technical and other high qualification positions.

In 1980, to redress the balance, Libya enacted the “New Educational Structure”. School curricula were restructured in favour of technical subjects and, in the humanities, Arabic language and Koranic education were particularly emphasized. Students started with English language from the seventh grade. The programme allows students who drop out before completing the full nine years of basic education the opportunity to enrol in those programmes. The main goal is to prepare students for a level of specialization at university, and to provide those students not destined for higher education with a practical vocational base in preparation for the labour market. At the high school level, the plan enabled the creation of specialized vocational

and technical schools, and technical and vocational education at the tertiary level was established, making higher technical and vocational institutions grow in number.

The Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research have been required to prepare strategic plans for immediate or short-term objectives (UNESCO, 2012), namely: the maintenance of schools damaged during the 2011 uprising; accommodating children of displaced families in schools in their original areas of residence; and reviewing curricula, especially for history, civic education and Arabic language. Also, a formulation of new educational policies and sector plans for the reform of education, plans of inclusive education, a regulating private education frame, introducing e-learning, training teachers and developing institutional capacity are other areas that need to be improved.

3.3 Youth policies

After the revolution of 2011, the National Transitional Council issued a Constitutional Declaration. Young people are mentioned in article 5, which states that “the State shall take care of children, youth and the handicapped”.

Libya’s main challenge now is rebuilding people’s trust through transparency. Private property should be protected and defended, and rule-based governance must be assured. Libyans trust the public sector; under State ownership, workforce

regulations have included job security guarantees, social security programmes and relatively high public sector wages with generous non-wage benefits. The rise of the public sector in employment became a key factor in segmenting labour markets, with an employment structure biased toward better-educated graduates and women. Working time arrangements are also favourable in comparison to the much longer working hours in the private sector along with the low time commitment of the public sector.

3.4 Employment

Given the recent instability, as well as the former Government's previous practice of underreporting unemployment, it is impossible to provide accurate figures on youth employment. There are some available data, but in most of the reports they appear to be approximations. Sound analyses of the trends and challenges facing the Libyan labour market are difficult to produce, due to the lack of accurate and reliable labour market data provided by the limited Libyan information system. Statistics have not been officially updated since the revolution and there is no labour force survey conducted in the country.¹² The World Bank provides data for Libya from 1991 to 2016. The average value for

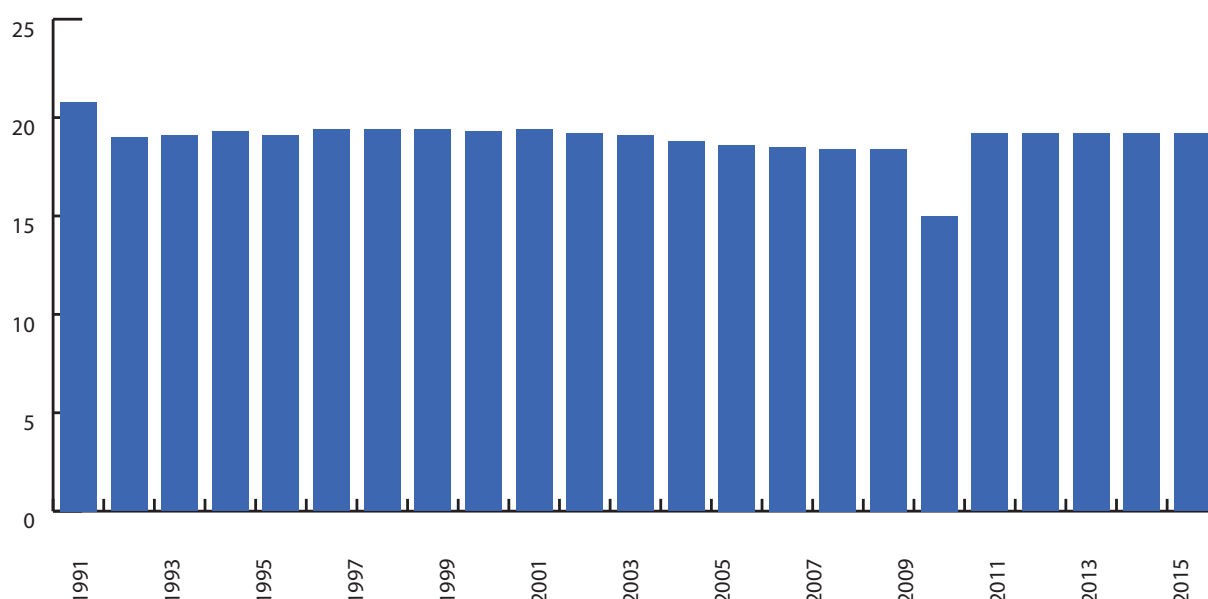
Libya during that period was 19.14 per cent, with a minimum of 17.14 per cent in 2011 and a maximum of 20.81 per cent in 1991.

As for youth unemployment (ages 15–24), the World Bank provides data for Libya from 1991 to 2016. The average value for Libya during that period was 43.21 per cent, with a minimum of 40.62 per cent in 2011 and a maximum of 48.12 per cent in 2016.

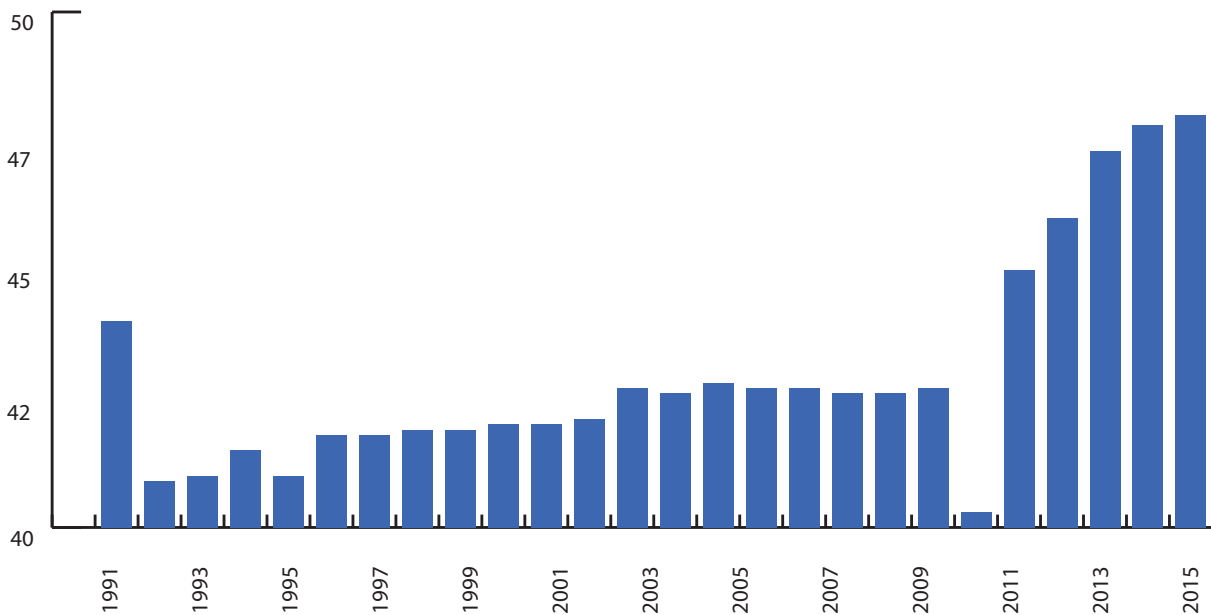
Available data show that the public sector accounted for more than 50 per cent of the country's employment (AfDB, 2012). According to a 2015 report by the World Bank, *Labour Market Dynamics in Libya: Reintegration for Recovery*, Libya has the second-highest unemployment rate in the world, 19 per cent as of 2012–2014, up from 13 per cent in 2010. And the rate for Libyan young people (15–25 years of age) is much higher, at 48 per cent, as it is for women, at 25 per cent.

The Central Bank of Libya continued to pay government salaries to a majority of the workforce and to fund subsidies for fuel and food, which caused a budget deficit of about 49 per cent of GDP. Unemployment was already on the rise even before

Figure VI: Libya Unemployment rate



¹² The figures presented in this report are a compilation from various international sources including ILO, the United Nations, the World Bank and the CIA, all of which have issues relating to limited accuracy, reliability and updating.

Figure VII: Libya Youth Unemployment

the 2011 uprising, as the population was growing dramatically and subsidies on food, energy and housing were not enough to cover up for all of them. Just before the current conflict broke out in mid-2014, Libya's labour force stood at about 1.9 million, with the majority of workers found in the public sector (70 per cent). Agriculture, the main economic source, employed only 1 per cent of the workforce, and industry (mainly oil) less than 10 per cent. The private sector employs only around 4 per cent of the labour force. Nearly 120,000 Libyans are self-employed, a classification that covers informal self-employed groups (e.g. small retail premises) and independent workers (e.g. informal sole traders). Since oil prices tumbled in 2014, Libya's economy has been in recession. Oil production is about a quarter of what it used to be.

3.5 Employment policies

The interest among people to work in the public sector has affected education. The wish of working in this sector influences directly educational choices, and the Government has encouraged investment in the types of human capital that meet the needs of State bureaucracies. Higher degrees and certificates are pursued by young people to improve their chances of getting this kind of job, sometimes not paying so much attention to the quality of education but to having an actual paper degree that can allow them to enter the public ser-

vice. As for the private sector, it consists of a small number of formal private and foreign companies, and a larger number of mostly informal small and micro enterprises. Its most important obstacles (World Economic Forum Global Competitiveness Report 2010–2011) go from corruption to the lack of ability of the business community to contribute to policy formulation. Despite the high literacy levels and enrolment rates, Libyan businessmen often mention the mismatch between the skills required in the job market and the ones that young people acquire in the education system.

The informal sector accounted for around 30 per cent of the economy in 2010 and dominates the labour market activities nowadays, which is also a challenge to face as there are no regulations. Many of the country's labour laws have discouraged job creation in the formal sector because of the minimum wage, working hours and night shift regulations. Trade, services and agribusiness are all possible areas for job placement, on-the-job training in firms and entrepreneurship. Public–private partnerships are already emerging at local levels and have continued operating even during the current conflict. In Tripoli, for example, the local municipal council and an NGO opened an employment centre in 2014 that had begun placing young people in jobs in firms, and in late 2015 mobilized an inves-

tor forum to support young entrepreneurs (Al-Ageili, 2012).

Key recommendations for Libyan policymakers to consider, even within the ongoing crisis include:

- a) Establishing a public–private partnership contracting system for entrepreneurship and job placement to stimulate job creation in the private sector;
- b) Developing a human resources strategy that includes a review of the education system to achieve a better match between the skills acquired in formal education and the requirements of a modern economy;
- c) Enhancing on-the-job training, so that young people can get the skills needed directly in the company. Semi-skilled youth, and women are the most important target;
- d) Creating a consolidated database and information system that gives job-seekers support and help monitoring the system;
- e) Establishing a “High-level Employment Committee” to provide technical policy advice on maximizing youth employment through which youth representation and voice would be warranted. Youth employment is not only important for the country’s stability and economy but also for its security. Nowadays, many young people are part of armed groups involved in criminal activity, so encouraging them to work and giving them better life expectations would keep them apart from that;
- f) Considering the most vulnerable youth through employment programmes to provide immediate jobs and income opportunities to them;
- g) Promoting cultural transformation towards ethics of social participation and respect for fundamental principles and rights at work through: (i) public awareness-raising campaigns, (ii) strengthening of the capacity of workers’ and employers’ organizations to integrate young people, and (iii) strength-

ening the capacity of the civil society associations and groups in the areas of socioeconomic participation and fundamental principles and rights at work (IOL, 2012b). The ETF (ETF, 2014) interview with the Ministry of Economy and the Ministry of Planning in May 2013 in Tripoli clearly highlighted the economic sectors considered most important for the future by Libyan policymakers. These sectors are listed below:

- i. Construction:** A sector with great development potential ready for investment in public infrastructure projects, mechanical and electrical appliances that offer many employment opportunities for skilled workers. Plans are in place to launch large-scale national and regional infrastructure projects such as roads, airports, water treatment systems, security services, food security, energy security and housing, translating to thousands of new jobs for which skills from higher education are needed;
- ii. Petrochemical industry:** Some regions in the south-west have oil and gas reserves that will last at least 100 years. A problem that needs to be tackled is that oil revenues have allowed the Government to rely on foreign workers filling the skills requirements of the labour market, so Libyans stay out of it. The total number of foreign workers was estimated at 2 million before the revolution;
- iii. Maritime sector and related industries:** The extensive coastline is conducive to development of a shipbuilding industry, ship storage and transportation services whereby Libya could become the trade hub of sea trade between Europe and Africa.

4. Mauritania

4.1 Demographics

The total fertility rate in Mauritania is approximately four children per woman. About 60 per cent of the population is younger than age 25,

Table 3: Population of Mauritania (total 3,758,571, according to July 2017 estimation)

Age structure	% of population	Males	Females
0–14 years	38.56	727 855	721 508
15–24 years	19.81	364 570	379 866
25–54 years	33.21	578 422	669 628
55–64 years	4.67	79 162	96 297
65 years and over	3.76	59 928	81 335

and population growth is projected to continue. From the 1970s, persistent economic and environmental constraints such as drought, poverty and unemployment, as well as security concerns, have been push factors causing migration from Mauritania.

4.2 Education

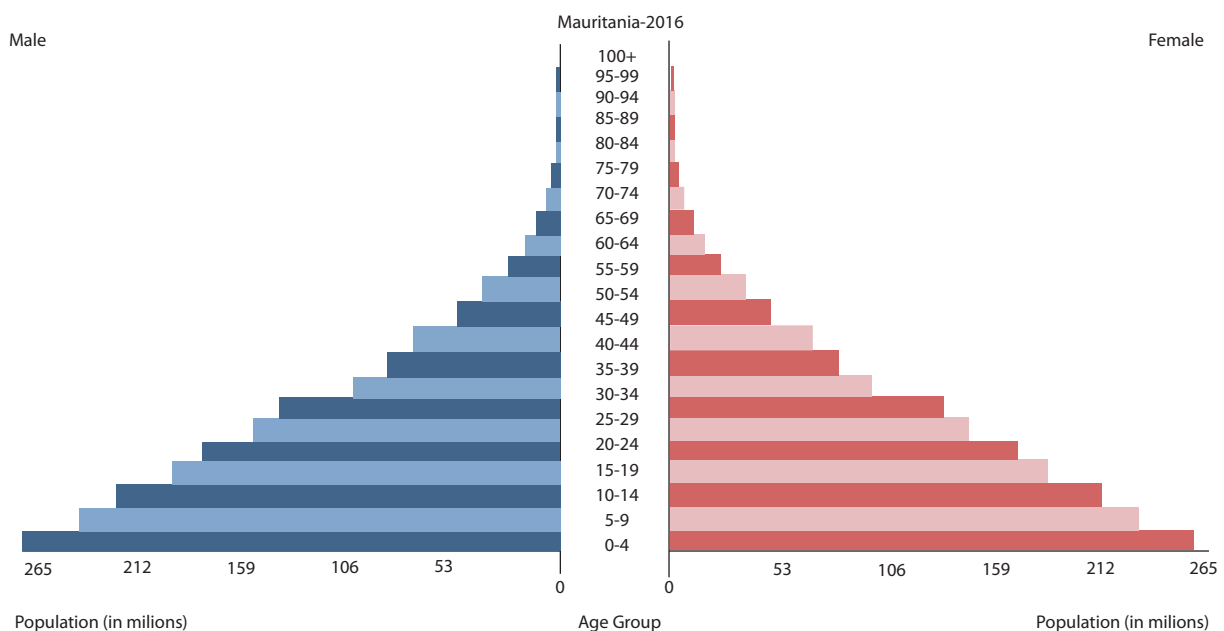
Mauritania is committed to developing its education sector. In 1999, the Government undertook “a structural reform of the education system”. In the medium term, it plans to accomplish universal primary school completion and “to regulate and improve the relevance and quality of post-primary levels” (World Bank). There have been gains in the education sector over the last few years, with most gains being made in admission to, and completion of primary school. “Between 2000–2001 and 2012–2013, the gross enrolment rates increased from 88 per cent to 97 per cent. The primary completion

rates also rose from 53 per cent in 2002 to 71 per cent in 2013” (Global Partnership for Education, 2016).

According to the Global Partnership for Education, considerable challenges that militate against the achievement of Mauritanian educational sector reform goals include the inadequacy of excellent basic and secondary education, as well as insufficiency of access to secondary education; little to no involvement by non-governmental actors such as the private sector, community and civil society organizations in the education sector; turgid flow from primary to secondary school (55 per cent for girls and 61 per cent for boys in 2013); and the need for skilled, well-trained and experienced people at the secondary school level (ibid.).

Mauritania developed its second plan for reforms in the education sector (PNDSE II), for 2011–2020

Figure VIII: Age structure, gender as percentage of the population



Source: CIA (2017b).

and identified the following objectives, geared at both responding to the challenges in the sector and accomplishing a higher level of coordination between education and job readiness:

- a) Develop access of disadvantaged groups in urban and rural areas to public and community preschool education;
- b) Promote access to education for out-of-school children and foster retention of those in school to achieve primary universal completion by 2020;
- c) Progress towards universal completion of secondary education and reduce disparities related to gender, geographic and socioeconomic conditions;
- d) Regulate the flow in numbers of students and teaching force in secondary education in order to better align education system outputs with market needs;
- e) Develop technical and vocational training adapted to social demand and the needs of the formal and informal sectors of the economy;
- f) Establish a balanced development policy for higher education and promote scientific research;
- g) Improve learning quality and relevance of education at all levels;
- h) Fight illiteracy through functional literacy and post-literacy programmes;
- i) Promote traditional teaching and enhance its contribution to basic education;
- j) Develop and implement new management strategy of human resources and materials for equitable distribution of educational opportunities and for effective transformation of inputs into results;
- k) Strengthen management in the sector by pursuing the decentralization process, in-

volving all stakeholders, and developing management tools.

4.3. Youth policies

The Mauritanian National Youth Policy (2004) defines youth as the population from 12 to 30 years of age. Its goals are “to promote youth development within the framework of national values” (République Islamique de Mauritanie Ministère de la Culture de la Jeunesse et des Sports, 2004).

The strategic priorities established in the 2004 youth policy are:

- a) Developing a legal framework of the youth sector;
- b) Capacity-building of administrative structures;
- c) Promoting youth employment and socio-economic integration;
- d) Promoting cultural activities, recreation and leisure; and
- e) Advocacy and protection of young people and adolescents.

Mauritania has lofty aspirations for meeting the needs of its youth. The Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sport has a Directorate of Youth Development mandated to focus on youth affairs, and to “design, implement, monitor and evaluate national policies” for young people. It has regional offices throughout Mauritania and is charged with supporting “youth participation, international cooperation, civic engagement, economic inclusion, youth activities, and capacity-building and networking with youth organizations and associations”. There is a Technical Advisor for Youth who reports to the Minister of Culture, Youth and Sport. Areas of focus include “youth participation, social inclusion, entrepreneurship, reproductive health, peace and democracy”.

Mauritania’s National Youth Policy (2004) states that the National Council of Youth and Sports never functioned since its establishment, and recommends its activation. According to the policy, a new youth council should be established, “sepa-

rated from sport, which should include wider representation from youth associations, and regional and departmental youth councils”.

Mauritania spent 12.99 per cent of its government expenditure and 3.69 per cent of its GDP on education provision in 2011 (youthpolicy.org). It can be extrapolated that most of the education spending is for young people, but there are needs beyond education that ought to be achieved.

4.4 Employment

The employment rates in Mauritania are much lower than those of its neighbours. The economy is overly dependent on extractive and other natural resources. Non-participation in the labour market is higher for females, young people, and men living in urban centres, whose lack of schooling prevents them from being recruited into the workforce. Non-participation also decreases with education, except for the case of young adults. Unemployment is higher in rural areas, but the rural poor are more likely to be unemployed than the non-poor. Women and young people face higher unemployment rates and women experience more discouragement than men. For young people, this is coupled with the fact that unemployment comes with increased education. The employment-to-population ratio is low in Mauritania, but the ratio is particularly low with young people and women in rural areas (Puerta, Pontara and Rajadel, 2009).

Non-participation is related to education, age and gender. The poor with no education tend to be more likely to participate in the labour market than the non-poor. However, when the poor increase the amount of received education, they participate less in the labour market than the non-poor with the same level of education. Also, young people, seniors and women in non-poor households are less likely to be in the labour market than those in poor households. The poor show substantially higher unemployment rates than the non-poor, especially the 15–24-year-old age group, for whom there is a stark correlation between poverty and unemployment. The employment-to-population ratios are similar for both the poor and non-poor. However, the non-poor are more reliant on wage earning than the poor (ibid.).

There are significant gender gaps in the labour market. Females with no education are 2.3 times less likely to participate in the labour force and three times less likely to be employed. Women do seem to participate more in urban areas than in rural areas. For rural labour markets, females tend to opt of the labour market due to family reasons. However, the presence of children in a household increases younger and older female participation in the labour market. As for the urban labour markets, the opposite is true (ibid.).

Youth labour force participation and employment-to-population indicators are the highest for poor young people. Participation decreases with education and, if employed, less educated young people are more likely to be self-employed or as unpaid family labour/apprentices. There are also substantial gender gaps in this age group. Self-employment shows lower earnings among the poor, but there is variance across living areas. There are generally lower mean wages in the public sector than in the private sector, and wages are also higher in urban areas. Wages, however, do increase with education, and a similar trend is seen among both men and women: the more the education, the higher the wages.

Non-participation, unemployment and underemployment adversely affect young people, especially poor rural young people. Even with increased education, poor rural young people have higher unemployment rates. With a labour market characterized by its low participation rates, low employment-to-population rates and high unemployment rates, Mauritania has an uphill task. Non-participation, unemployment and employment are substantially gendered. Women are disproportionately marginalized in the labour market (ibid.). This may be due to traditional barriers and household responsibilities, such as family, child and elder care, as well as early marriage, but much needs to be done to get women to increase their participation. Women in urban areas fare better than those in rural areas. Clearly, the kinds of opportunities and challenges that women face vary depending on whether they live in urban or rural areas, and policies should be tailored to respond appropriately.

4.5. Employment policies

In 1997, Mauritania created a Declaration of Employment Policy. This policy contains a global and active approach to the treatment of the questions of employment, and covers all the factors that determine the creation of employment, all the sectors that impact significantly on the improvement of employment and all the entities directly or indirectly involved, whether they are from the public or private sector.

More recently, Mauritania put in place a National Strategy for Accelerated Growth and Shared Prosperity for 2016–2030. It aims at “promoting strong, inclusive and sustainable growth”, the creation of over 120,000 jobs during 2016–2020 and a reduction of unemployment to 9.9 per cent by 2030.

The youth development programmes and the use of social dialogue on employment policies are still at an embryonic stage. Moreover, the coverage of these programmes remains limited, in the sense that it is intended for graduates of universities and vocational courses in urban areas. The investments allocated to the development of sustainable livelihoods in the short and medium term for poor young people in rural and peri-urban areas have not been substantial.

On the supply side, programmes focus mainly on vocational training and, to some extent, micro-entrepreneurship of university graduates. On the demand side, meanwhile, programmes focus on improving the development of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in relation to regulatory reforms envisaged in the medium term to improve the investment climate. Institutional support dedicated to strengthening inter-agency coordination and management of vocational training remains limited.

Public works programmes relating to local infrastructure development projects are deployed in almost half the municipalities of Mauritania, rural and urban areas. More broadly, there is need for the evaluation of regulations governing the work and their possible impact on job creation in Mauritania, particularly for certain sectors (services, trade and manufacturing) and segments of the population (new entrants and young women).

5. Morocco

5.1 Demographics

If there's something that immediately stands out when looking at the general demographic trends in Morocco, it is the country's youthfulness. With 17 per cent of the population aged 15 to 24 years, the prospects seem positive. However, an important detail that merits attention is that nearly 49 per cent of Moroccan young people are neither in education nor in the workforce. Around 20 per cent of young people holding graduate degrees are unemployed, and there are an estimated 300,000 people trying to enter the labour market each year. Young people are facing multiple challenges such as illiteracy. Often their parents are also unemployed, and may be unable to help or are not very aware of the magnitude of the problem. There is also the possibility of economic and social exclusion determined not only by their family context but by external factors. Children raised in rural areas are most likely to abandon school than those in urban areas, simply because of the long distances between home and school, and/or transportation difficulties. In order to understand the origins and consequences of youth unemployment, rather than focus on a comparison between the most sought-after career paths, the most absorptive economic sectors and the problems inherent to higher education, we have to consider underlying social, economic and political factors. Research shows that being young, female and from rural areas only increases the probability of unemployment in Morocco.

Morocco has 33.848 million inhabitants, of whom 50.2 per cent are women. It has a young population, with 26.6 per cent under 14 years of age. Life expectancy at birth is 72.4 years. It registers a population growth of 10 per 1,000, a national birth rate of 18.8 per 1,000 and a fertility rate of 2.2 children per woman. This drop in fertility rates – the birth rate per woman was seven in 1960 and four in 1990 – is an indicator of the societal changes taking place in the country over the last several decades, and suggests that social norms and values such as individualism are taking root within the Moroccan context.

In the future, the population increase will be much faster in the urban than in the rural areas, mainly

due to increased urbanization. It is projected that the urban population will increase by a factor of 1.6, from 20.4 million to 32.1 million from 2014 to 2050. Thus, in 2050, Moroccan cities would host 73.6 per cent of the country's inhabitants instead of 60.3 per cent in 2014.

It is projected that the urban working-age population will grow at a slightly faster rate due to rural-urban migration. This population would increase from 13.16 million in 2014 to 19.1 million in 2050, with an average annual growth rate of 1 per cent over the period. On the contrary, the rural population of working age would decline due to the rural exodus from 7.91 million in 2014 to 6.61 million in 2050. Thus, the annual increase in this age group would be -0.5 per cent for the period 2014–2050.

Urbanization, if not managed in a timely manner by measures that bring economic and social progress, could handicap the development of the country by producing negative impacts that have historically affected urban migrants, such as on employment and housing.

Since it is projected that there will be an increase in the proportion of people 60 years of age and over, the ageing phenomenon in a young society with inadequate employment is a challenge. The demographic transition should be a bonus, a positive potential for society, but this will all depend on the country's ability to reform the educational and training system in order to reduce the continuing deficits, improve internal efficiency and empower

beneficiaries to adjust to an increasingly demanding labour market demand.

5.2 Education

According to the High Commission for Planning (HCP), Morocco had 8.6 million illiterates out of a population of 33.8 million inhabitants in 2014, compared with 10.2 million in 2004, or 32 per cent of the population. The illiteracy rate of the population aged 10 years and over decreased from 43.0 per cent in 2004 to 32.0 per cent in 2014: 22.1 per cent for men and 41.9 per cent for women, and 22.2 per cent for urban and 47.7 per cent for rural areas. The national enrolment rate for primary education increased from 52 per cent to 98 per cent in just a decade. Similar improvements were made in lower secondary education (from 18 per cent to 57 per cent) and secondary education (from 6 per cent to 32 per cent). As a result, more young people aged 15 to 21 years have attended school (89 per cent) than their fellow citizens between the ages of 22 to 29 (74 per cent). This is true for both males and females and across rural and urban areas. Most impressive has been the improvement for rural females. Whereas only 40 per cent of rural women aged 22 and 29 have ever attended school, this proportion rises to 73 per cent of rural women aged 15 to 24. However, significant gaps remain between the genders and between rural and urban areas. This gender and geographical location gap still reflects social and cultural norms placing girls, particularly in rural areas, at a disadvantage. In rural areas, only 14 per cent of young men and 8 per cent of young women complete secondary education.

Figure IX: Percentage of pupils enrolled in private schools at the primary level

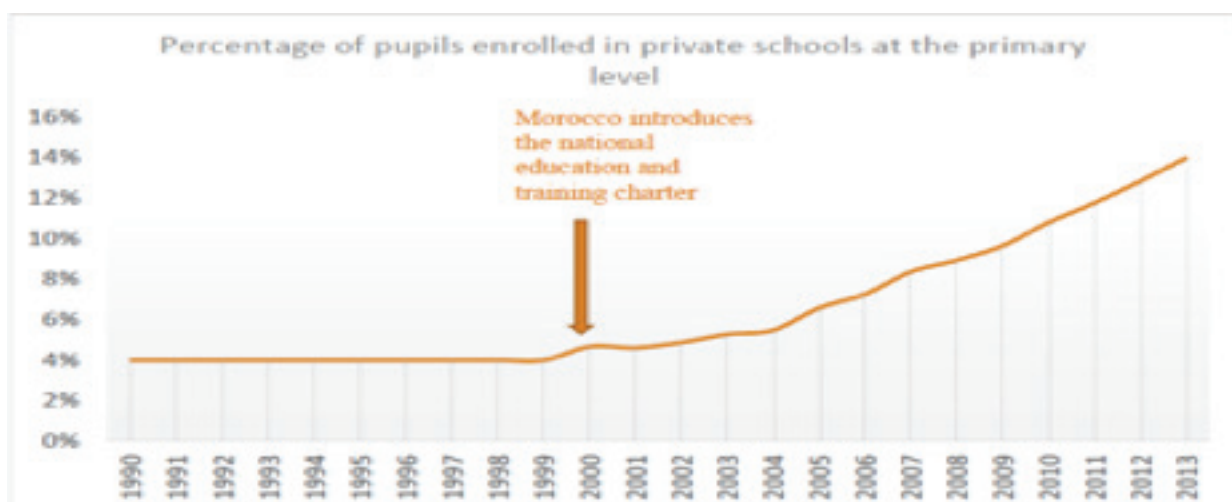


Table 4: Projections of percentage of pupils enrolled in private schools at primary level (2014–2038) applying the annual average growth for 2000–2013

Projections of enrolment of percentage of pupils enrolled in private schools at primary level (2014-2038) applying the annual average growth 2000-2013								
Year	2000	2005	2010	2013	2020	2023	2030	2038
Percentage of pupils enrolled in private schools at primary level	4.2%	5.5%	10%	13%	24%	30%	52%	97%

At the primary level, enrolment in private education has rapidly increased, from 4 per cent in 1999 to 14 per cent in 2013, while from 1995 to 2010, private enrolment at all levels has more than doubled, with an annual average growth of 6 per cent, as shown in figure IX and table 4.¹³ As for the distribution, 81 per cent of students enrolled in this sector are in primary school, 8 per cent in lower secondary and 11 per cent in senior secondary education.

The significant growth of the private sector should be analysed, taking into account the impact in terms of equal opportunities and the right to quality education for all. It is true that the chances of inclusion are higher for young people who have studied in the private sector. The results of the SAHWA Youth Survey¹⁴ show that the level of professional integration is 37 per cent for young people who studied in the public sector. It is around 52 per cent for those who studied at least partly in the private sector and 62 per cent for those educated entirely in the private sector. The Government of Morocco is aware of this fact and it aims for private education to work in line with public education. The Strategic Vision for Education 2015–2030 conceived of private education as a partner with public education, and as a stakeholder in efforts to achieve universal and equitable generalization of education, including compulsory education, diversification and quality improvement. To accomplish these goals and strengthen the capacity of the educational system to deliver, the Strategic Vision insists on:

- a) Its commitment to observe the principles of public service, affirming that private education should fulfil its functions in full synergy with those of public education; and specify

that the State should fulfil its authorization prerogatives, define organizational procedures, and guarantee quality standards, equivalence of diplomas for accredited, supervisory and evaluation;

- b) Introducing a system of systematic, pedagogical and management audit of private institutions;
- c) Drawing up new specifications adapted to the types of educational investment, their characteristics and their geographical scope;
- d) Encouraging the private sector to contribute to the achievement of the objectives of non-formal education and programmes to combat illiteracy.

Good quality education as measured by cognitive skills has a positive impact on economic growth. It is assumed that higher education will contribute to economic growth, by the higher salaries that graduates are supposed to earn. In any case, no matter how many diplomas one has, if students lack skills obtained only through rigorous training, their chances of getting employed are reduced (Hanushek, 2007).

5.2.1 Enrolment rates, dropouts and literacy

Morocco has been recently congratulated by international organizations for its improvements in enrolment rates; access to education has increased, although there are still gaps to fill.

This means fast and major improvement in school enrolment in just seven years, taking into account

¹³ UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2013.

¹⁴ The SAHWA Project (SAHWA, 2014b) is an FP-7 interdisciplinary cooperative research project led by the Barcelona Center for International Affairs and funded by the European Commission.

the age ranges mentioned, raising the national enrolment rates from 52.4 per cent to 98.2 per cent in primary education, 17.5 per cent to 56.7 per cent in lower secondary education and from 6.1 per cent to 32.4 per cent in upper secondary education.

The Ministry of Education has released the figures for the school year 2016/17. While the number of pupils increased by 3.3 per cent, this is not the case for the number of teachers, which declined by 5.6 per cent to 210,367, compared with 222,736 a year earlier. This decline concerns both primary (-5.6 per cent) lower secondary school (-5.7 per cent) and higher secondary school (-5.2 per cent). However, the number of classrooms increased by 11.9 per cent, from 146,634 in the academic year 2015/16 to 164,028. Schools also increased, from 10,756 to 10,922, for this re-entry. The boarding schools have increased from 794 to 845. By sector, 87 per cent of pupils attended public schools, compared with 13 per cent in private schools. There are disparities between urban and rural areas, with 61 per cent of students studying in urban areas, compared with 39 per cent in rural areas. By gender, the distribution is almost equal, 52 per cent of boys and 48 per cent of girls. For the post-baccalaureate vocational training, the total number of trainees is 492,587, representing an evolution rate of 18 per cent. Boys are more likely to attend vocational training (65 per cent). The Government of Morocco has made major improvements in its educational system. The Moroccan Ministry of Education is working to improve the quality of education and training through a comprehensive reform of the education and training system, with a view to develop a culture of quality by refocusing action on the student, the teacher and the institution.

Among the objectives set by the Ministry and which constitute the main lines of action of the reform, it is worth highlighting (a) improvement of the quality of the educational infrastructures that give rise to an adequate environment to favour the learning process; (b) reinforcement of the pedagogical competences of teaching staff through the implementation of training programmes (initial and continuous) that allow teachers to acquire more experience and resources to teach; (c) encouraging the implementation of the pedagogy of integration through the organization of activities that promote respect for human rights, non-violence and education for citizens; (d) promotion of the participation of parents and other social agents in the education system; and (e) integration of girls into the formal education cycle, with special attention to rural areas.

In its 2015–2030 Vision for Moroccan education, the Higher Council for Education believes that schools must contribute to building a society of citizenship, democracy and development. The school must thus go beyond its role as a simple place of knowledge and become a place for the training of future citizens.

In the same direction and in the context of the revision of the Moroccan educational system, the Higher Council for Education encourages the change of the role of the teacher to become a “pedagogical actor”, and a greater involvement of the families monitoring the educational path of their children.

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5.2.2 The higher education system

After independence in 1956, the Moroccan university underwent multiple changes – administrative, scientific and technical – with a presence in many cities of the Kingdom. Higher education in Morocco has been engaged since 2000, along with the entire education system, in a major reform of the pedagogical and governance aspects. Nowadays, there are three levels of training, as in Europe: Bachelor’s degree, Masters and Doctorate. When this reform was done, it came with an opportunity to review the programmes and the contents of the courses to develop students’ skills. Now, there are two main problems in the higher education system: the almost non-existent training programmes that equip students with the relevant skills needed for the labour market and the inconsistent linguistic duality of the educational system. In some disciplines, the teaching is done in French in higher education, while the language of instruction is Arabic in the lower levels; the language poses a real difficulty for students and can in part explain the failure rate and high dropout rates observed during the first year of the bachelor (license or undergraduate level).

Post-baccalaureate vocational training is provided in high schools, and also in Universities. The Ministry of Higher Education is now focusing on developing these programmes that correspond

to significant needs in the employment market in both open and selective establishments, so that the students can get the experience beforehand to potentially become official workers. There is also a large private sector of vocational training, which is often created by companies wishing to offer training adapted to their needs.

5.2.3 Vocational training

Most vocational training is the responsibility of the Vocational Training and Promotion of Labour Office, an organization run by the State, professionals and employees. This training is essential for people to acquire new skills to be part of a professional environment (and a social one), which one gets through formal and informal education and training on the job.

Vocational training in Morocco uses a mixture of training and apprenticeships. It is articulated around three mechanisms: residential training (78 per cent of the workforce); alternate training, spending half of the time in an enterprise (7 per cent of the workforce); and training by apprenticeships (15 per cent of the workforce). The 380 branches of vocational training cover a large part of the trades and professions (including administration, management, trade, industry and crafts).

Vocational training was born with the aim of palliating youth unemployment and dropouts, being established as a tool for socioeconomic development, providing training to a large number of young people by matching the needs of the labour market.

Despite the way vocational training is structured, to improve the chances for young people in the labour market, the prospects are not very heartening. Unemployment among students who attended vocational training is still very high and not very different from those attending higher education. In 2016, this rate increased from 22.1 to 23.2 per cent, compared with 25.3 per cent among graduates of universities. This situation shows that vocational training is suffering weaknesses, since it was specifically designed to provide young people with the necessary skills to get a job.

The National Strategy for Vocational Training 2021 is part of the 23 priority measures for the reform

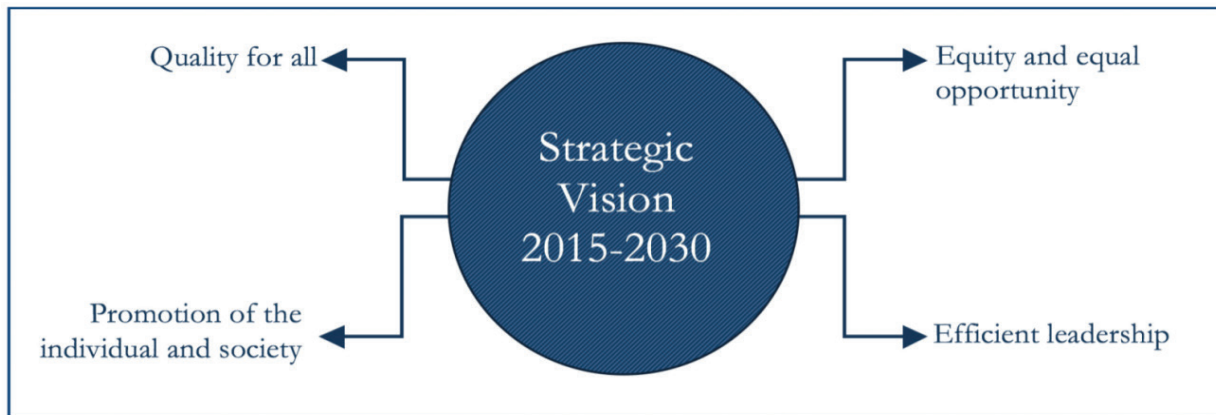
of the education and training system. It was developed in a way that allowed for the participation of all stakeholders and public and private actors concerned. It aims to train and qualify approximately 10 million citizens from 2015 to 2021 for a total budget of DH 66 billion. Its objectives are in line with the orientations and pillars of the 2015–2030 Strategic Vision of reform of the Higher Council of Education, and aims to:

- a) Guarantee the right to vocational training for all and throughout life, expanding accessibility to the sector for people with special needs;
- b) Maximize professional integration through continuous improvement of the quality of training and the performance of operators. It aims to ensure the link between the need for skills and the provision of training for potential employees to get inserted in the labour market;
- c) Strengthen the integration of general education and vocational training;
- d) Improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the system.

It introduces a more open system and an expanded and more inclusive training offering, which is based on bringing training to the needs of the national economy and continuously improving its quality.

The current system of initial vocational training will be extended and open to a greater number of young people aged 15 years and older. Apprenticeship training programmes will be strengthened giving priority to young people from the neighbourhoods and municipalities targeted by the National Initiative for Human Development, rural areas and low-income families.

Continuing training will be extended to all active employees and extended to those in the process of change of employment, retraining or loss of employment, and to self-employed workers (craftsmen, farmers, fishermen, etc.).

Figure X: Strategic Vision 2015–2030

Vocational training must meet the needs of employers and employees to maintain the development of skills and professional qualifications, and improve the competitiveness of enterprises. It must also meet the social demand for training in line with the needs of the economic environment, and improve the quality of training and the performance of the operators.

The financing is ensured by Moroccan and international actors. The Ministry of National Education will count both on its own funds and on aid provided by the Moroccan State and the Office for Vocational Training and the Promotion of Work. The World Bank, USAID and the European Union are also involved in financing this strategy.

The financial resources of the vocational training system will be diversified and optimized (Ministry of Economy and Finance, Performance Project 2016, Professional Training). The Strategic Vision for Education also includes vocational training. It assures the short- and medium-term enlargement of the supply of vocational training by the continuous increase in its capacity through the creation of new establishments and the improvement of existing ones. The desired strategy ought to emphasize the strengthening of the links between vocational training and the economic network, between vocational training and the university, and the renewal of training and continuous adaptation to the evolution of the labour market. This is meant to be achieved by encouraging companies, associations and professional groups to provide training within their institutions; making the most of the training facilities available to the voluntary sector; and the strengthening of vocational training at the region-

al level and its extension in rural areas, extending to them apprenticeship training. It foresees the partnerships with economic and social actors, to increase training opportunities and practical work experience in small and medium-sized enterprises.

5.2.4 Strategic Vision for Education 2015–2030

This Strategic Vision is based on four main principles: equal opportunities for all, quality in education, promotion of the individual and society, and efficient leadership.

The reforms emphasize education as a gateway to social and personal development, and the facilitation of a community dialogue that strengthens relationships between institutions and their communities. The reorganization of the Strategy is also meant to reduce inequality by including and promoting the education of girls, poverty and isolation by paying special attention to rural areas, while meeting the demands of the twenty-first century labour market at the same time. The King stressed that the “rehabilitation of education remains pivotal in achieving development and is key to ensuring social openness and emancipation”.

To achieve the objective of “equal opportunities for all”, the Strategy aims to ensure attendance and combat dropouts and repetition rates by generalizing the access of all Moroccan children (girls and boys) to education, at the level of compulsory education for ages 4 to 15 years, and for those with special needs. It also intends to (a) consolidate and extend the system of financial aid for the benefit of needy families; (b) sensitize families for their

awareness of the dangers of early school leaving; and (c) consolidate the role of non-formal education to promote the reintegration of young people, either in formal education or vocational training, or to prepare them for socioprofessional integration. The adoption of a specific pedagogical model aims to ensure the coherence and modernization of the programme, unified in its aims and objectives, and diversified in its style and methods.

The reform emphasizes education to achieve social and personal development. The reorganization that it proposes is also meant to serve to reduce inequality by including and promoting the education of girls; and poverty and isolation by paying special attention to rural areas, while meeting the demands of the current labour market.

In this context, it recommends:

- a) The introduction of a career path from the college;
- b) Strengthening the specialization and qualification of secondary education, with the expansion of its educational offer to make it possible the diversification of vocational baccalaureate pathways and the preparation of the pursuit of studies at the level of higher education or professional qualifications.

The difficulties of economic and sociocultural integration of the graduates constitute one of the major dysfunctions of the school and explain the lack of confidence of society in it. A school for individual development and social advancement appears to be a strategic choice and a goal of educational reform. However, the Strategic Vision emphasizes that the low level of integration of graduates must also have to do with the economy itself, whose supply is limited in relation to demand and the growing number of graduates.

The “promotion of the individual and society” is based in the Strategy on promoting vocational training and improving skills that could be adapted to the labour market to secure employment for youth and human capital development. To accomplish this, the Government of Morocco plans to create programmes that prepare students for the current labour market by providing them with internships and necessary technical training.

5.3 Youth policies

The Government developed a National Integrated Youth Strategy, to improve the employment situation for young people, create youth councils and promote a national dialogue with civil society to develop laws that could guarantee their participation in decision-making. As a result of this movement, a national youth policy saw light in April 2014. Following the promotion of civil dialogue, it was young people who organized dialogues and forums to discuss and stand for their needs and priorities and the importance of youth employment policies that would be stated in the new Constitutional reforms, that requires young people’s concerns to be considered in the budgets and programmes of local authorities.

5.3.1 Constitution of 2011 and the Consultative Council on Youth and Social Work

Articles 33 and 170 of the Constitution concern the institutionalization of young people’s affairs. The first one¹⁵ foresees the establishment of the Consultative Council of Youth and Social Work (Conseil Consultatif de la Jeunesse et de l’Action Associative), the second one¹⁶ states its responsibilities. An important role in monitoring the implementation goes to the mentioned committee, composed of youth and law experts, civil society representatives and government bodies that drafted a law on youth¹⁷ presented to the Government in 2014 and aimed to regulate a legislative and institutional framework for youth related issues. The Governing Council adopted a bill on the Consultative Coun-

15 Art. 33 Const. 2011: “Il incombe aux pouvoirs publics de prendre toutes les mesures appropriées en vue de: Étendre et généraliser la participation de la jeunesse au développement social, économique, culturel et politique du pays, aider les jeunes à s’insérer dans la vie active et associative... faciliter l’accès des jeunes à la culture, à la science, à la technologie, à l’art, au sport et aux loisirs... Il est créé à cet effet un Conseil consultatif de la jeunesse et de l’action associative.”

16 Art. 170 Const. 2011; “Le Conseil de la jeunesse et de l’action associative... est chargé d’étudier et de suivre les questions intéressant ces domaines et de formuler des propositions sur tout sujet d’ordre économique, social et culturel intéressant directement les jeunes.”

17 Draft Law 89–15 Relating to the Consultative Council of Youth and Social Work.

cil on Youth and Social Work in June 2016. The law identifies frameworks and commitments of a national youth policy specifying its administrative and financial resources. The main tasks of the Consultative Council will be to express its opinion on the matters referred to youth in front of the King, the Head of Government or both Houses of Parliament, to contribute to projects and strategies developed by the Government to promote the participation of young people as well as to carry out studies and research on the issues of youth and voluntary work. It is compulsory now, thanks to the new Constitution, for local councils to involve young people in decision-making processes through associations and local youth councils.

5.3.2 Youth political participation

It is estimated that less than 1 per cent of Moroccan young people are involved in a political youth organization and most show no interest in political/public life. The culture of being active in political life cannot be found in society, as parents didn't encourage their children to do so in the past. The event that pulled the trigger for young people to start becoming interested in active participation was the 20 February movement. Youth participation in Morocco has always been quite poor when it comes to political life, but this movement implied a real boost for youth activism. Since then, many associations, networks and NGOs have been created, protected and assured by the new Constitution of 2011, along with partnerships with international NGOs.

The social demands since 2011 have restated the obligation of the Government to be transparent and reliable, reinforcing and guaranteeing the civil, economic and political rights of young people.

In May 2016, Morocco launched its anti-corruption strategy with a critical component on the inclusion on the public and the youth in the fight against corruption.¹⁸ In 2015, the Government of Morocco adopted the *Stratégie Nationale Intégrée de la Jeunesse 2015–30* to guide, coordinate and increase the coherence of policy interventions in favour of

young people. The process of drafting the new national youth strategy, which started in 2009, also stimulated youth participation, at least in political life and the decision-making processes. Many regional and national forums and conferences were organized, in which thousands of young people took the opportunity to have their voices heard by politicians and decision-makers.

5.3.3 National Integrated Youth Strategy

The National Integrated Youth Strategy¹⁹ was submitted to the appreciation of nearly 27,000 young people during the national youth debate organized on 22 September 2012. The reaction of young people was identified, along with proposals for the improvement of their situation. Its draft has meant a big step for giving importance to young people's voices and for their work. It means a firm commitment from the Government of Morocco for investing in youngsters, involving this sector in all policy areas, adapting their needs to its programmes. The Strategy pays special attention to unemployed young people and states that all young people should "have the capacities and opportunities for a successful transition to adult life, through high quality education, access to employment, appropriate health services and the active participation in the political, social and cultural life". Currently, the Ministry of Youth and Sports is responsible for coordinating the drafting of the strategy and the Action Plan and the Consultative Council will take this responsibility. Although it has been conceived and developed by this Ministry, the strategy is not sectoral, but integrated and coordinated among all the government sectors to ensure convergence in the actions dedicated to young people in all domains (education, employment, culture, etc.). The strategy revolves around five strategic axes:

- a) Increasing economic opportunities for young people and promoting their employability;
- b) Increasing youth access to quality basic services and reducing geographical disparities;

18 *Stratégie Nationale de Lutte Contre la Corruption 2016*. Ministère de la Fonction Publique et de la Modernisation de l'Administration.

19 All the sentences in cursive letters in this section are taken directly and literally from the official document – *Stratégie Nationale Intégrée de la Jeunesse 2015–2030*.

- c) Promoting the active civic participation of youth in social life and in decision making;
- d) Promoting respect for human rights;
- e) Reinforcing institutional measures for effective communication, information, evaluation and governance systems.

The Strategy puts emphasis on all the aspects analysed thus far, which shows that the Government of Morocco is aware of the situation of young people and is taking measures to address it, considering the differences among young people depending on the territory and establishing key areas and policy measures set by goals: a total of 62 up to 2020. These are all great achievements, but there is still need for implementation. An action plan was put in place with this aim, and this makes the operationalization of the strategy more possible, as it includes priority measures, a strategy, monitoring and evaluation indicators, financial aspects and co-ordination mechanisms.

5.3.4 Youth centres

The Government's main instrument for youth engagement in public life is the network of youth centres (*maisons des jeunes*), which act as a direct link between them and the Government and whose main function is to support and facilitate programmes and activities run by local youth NGOs and associations, mainly in the fields of sports and leisure activities. This is also a way for young people to get engaged in activities, even when they are unemployed, avoiding consequences such as crime and drug abuse. This network of around 500 youth centres has different aims:²⁰

- a) Support young people's development through individual outreach and mentoring by youth workers;
- b) Support and build the capacities of registered youth associations;
- c) Stimulate social inclusion and participation by involving local young people from dif-

ferent social and cultural backgrounds in its activities.

These centres also face many challenges: (a) the number of centres is too low for such a large youth population; (b) they suffer from a lack of funds; (c) most of them are poorly equipped and are in buildings with poor construction standards, especially in rural areas; and (d) they are not equitably distributed geographically. Finally, young people are not very aware of their existence, let alone the services offered.

The national Government has acknowledged the deficits in the network of youth centres. In the National Youth Strategy, the Ministry for Youth and Sports stressed the investment needed to improve the network of youth centres, the main needs being accessibility for young people, new skills for trainers, financial resources and information campaigns for young people to be aware of their existence.

5.4 Employment

The high rate of unemployment affects urban populations (for whom the rate is more than 20 per cent) more severely. The most dramatic aspect of unemployment in Morocco is its positive correlation with the levels of education attained by the labour force. Already in the early 1990s, both urban and rural unemployment was paradoxically lower for workers without formal education, whereas it was higher among those who had completed compulsory basic education.²¹ Unemployment among graduates has also assumed alarming proportions and is one of the visible symptoms of the crisis in the education system. Thus, not only does education not necessarily reduce the probability of unemployment, but it may even increase it. The longer this phenomenon persists, the more likely it is that disillusionment will grow, with undoubtedly drastic consequences in the long run. The dualism observed in national development models at the dawn of the twenty-first century, combined with the phenomenon of unemployment among graduates in large urban areas, represents a potential risk for the human and social development process, as well as for the political transition initiated

²⁰ Youth work in Morocco and youth participation projects at local level. Regional Capacity-Building and Support Unit for the EuroMed Youth Programme IV, 2014.

²¹ Éducation au Maroc : Analyse du secteur.

at the end of the 1990s. Currently, the Government of Morocco is trying to adopt reforms and revolutionize booming sectors to bring hope to the millions of Moroccan jobseekers. Employment is one of the main avenues of social integration, the most important factor in improving living conditions and preventing poverty and vulnerability, and the most appropriate indicator of social cohesion in a country. It plays an important role in wealth creation and income distribution. The cyclical developments in the labour market mobilized public authorities to promote a national youth strategy in Morocco. Despite the increase of foreign firms in the country, urban and rural Moroccan young people are affected by catastrophic unemployment. However, the Government of Morocco is trying to adopt reforms and make the most of booming sectors to bring hope to millions of jobseekers. Labour market policies in Morocco have caused profound income disparities, separating workers in the formal sector (especially the public sector) from the rest of the labour force; thus, demographic change is one of the factors explaining the extent of youth unemployment. In this sense, the net creation of employment by sector of activity has evolved, while participation in the labour force and the unemployment rate in Morocco are explained by the existence of a considerable workforce that may not be competent enough to do the available jobs, and by the inadequate supply of appropriate jobs for the educated workers.

5.4.1 Participation in the working life and rate of unemployment in Morocco

The labour force participation rate is the percentage of the population aged 15 years and older that is economically active. This includes the employed and unemployed. In Morocco, the labour market is characterized by low participation rates in the formal economy. According to data from the National Employment Survey, less than half of the working-age population (47.4 per cent) was involved in economic activity in 2015. Compared with 2000, when it was 52.9 per cent, this figure shows a 5.5 point reduction. In addition, the female participation rate was almost 24.8 per cent in 2015, 22.6 points below the national average.

The World Bank data for Morocco from 1990 to 2016 show that the average value for the country during that period was 52.24 per cent, with a minimum of 50 per cent in 2010 and a maximum of 54.6 per cent in 1999.

The labour market participation rate for women is around 24 per cent. There are many factors that explain this:

- a) Until less than 20 years ago, the public space belonged only to men. Women in Morocco started to be present in public life relatively recently;
- b) Women work, but the kind of jobs they do don't appear in the public figures and statistics, and 54.2 per cent of women in rural areas are working without a contract. To be a housewife is not considered "a job", and it doesn't count as such. Working conditions of domestic workers have not been addressed yet;
- c) As already mentioned, women in rural areas are affected the most by the situation in Morocco, and they are still widely impacted by illiteracy and analphabetism.

The labour market in Morocco is characterized by a high unemployment rate due to demographic development and the impact of the global economic crisis on the sectors of economic development. Data from the National Employment Survey (2014) show that it is important that employment promotion interventions also target unemployed people with a low level of education. They are vulnerable and have limited access to human capital or financial resources, which does not allow them to develop in the labour market. Nearly 60 per cent of the potential labour force (population aged 15 years and over) doesn't have a diploma. Slightly less than one third of the working-age population have a degree and only 1 in 10 has a higher education diploma (Bachelor's and higher).

5.4.2 Main structural characteristics of the Moroccan labour market²²

The main characteristics of the labour market in Morocco include (a) high unemployment, strong disengagement, a considerable workforce that is not competent enough, and which has unrealistic expectations in terms of employment; and (b) academically qualified workers with no practical skills, insufficient employment creation, a weak regulatory framework, high prevalence of informal activity, and limited opportunities of expression for workers wishing to draw attention to these problems and demand reforms in this area. The demographic evolution of recent decades in Morocco has resulted in a change of the age structure of the population. This is mainly due to a decline in the population of less than 15 years and the growth of the working-age population (15–59 years). Since 2007, the unemployment rate has had on average 1.8 percentage points of difference between men and women. Young people are the most exposed to unemployment, which in 2015 affected 20.8 per cent of active young people aged 15–24 years, compared with 9.7 per cent at the national level.²³ Holders of diplomas, particularly those in higher education, are the ones who suffer the most from unemployment. In 2014, it was 15.5 per cent of those with a medium-level diploma (22.4 per cent vocational training), and 21.1 per cent of holders of a diploma of level (24.1 per cent university degree holders). In rural areas, the proportion of long-term unemployed is relatively smaller (44.7 per cent) than in rural areas (66 per cent). There's a great disparity between both areas. In 2014, when comparing long-term unemployment by degree, this is predominant among graduates, especially among those with a higher diploma (76.4 per cent). The percentage is lower for non-graduates: 41.9 per cent. It should be noted that more highly-educated females from urban areas are most affected by the phenomenon of long-term unemployment. In a labour market where access has become problematic, holding a diploma is a relative protection against the risk of unemployment. Normally, it is easier to enter the labour market with a diploma, which often allows a quicker integration and under more stable conditions.

In Morocco, new generations are much more academically qualified than past ones, but this has not been accompanied by job offers for graduates. Data from the National Employment Survey (2014) show that graduates are very hard hit by unemployment.

These unemployment rates, in particular those of the unemployed who are graduates, are symptomatic of the inadequacy between the skills acquired by young Moroccans leaving education and training structures, and the skills needs of businesses and the economy. The high rate of unemployment among graduates is also due to the decline in job creation in the public sector, the main source of employment for faculty recipients.

5.5 Employment policies

Since the 1990s, the employability of young people has begun to be considered a real problem. Active employment programmes have been implemented by the Ministry of Employment and Social Affairs so as to facilitate youth integration into the labour market.

Active employment programmes have been implemented by the Ministry of Employment and Social Affairs. The Ministry promotes employment as one of the priorities set out in its programme, with the aim of reducing the unemployment rate through the improvement and the consolidation of measures for (a) the adequacy of employment training and support for the creation of businesses (Moukawalati programme); (b) access for young people to their first professional experience and skills training (the Idmaj programme); (c) entry into the workforce contract; and (d) training under contract (the Taehil programme). The Taehil programme aims to improve the employability of jobseekers by enabling them to acquire vocational skills in job positions. It is open to graduates and vocational training recipients. It is organized in three types of training – Contractual, Qualifying or Conversion Training, and a Supporting Training for Emerging Sectors. The National Programme of Support for the Creation of Enterprises “Moukawalati” (for self-employment) supports both the promoters of business creation and ensures the sustainability of the regional eco-

22 Ministère de l'Économie et des Finances du Maroc. Fiche relative au marché du travail national.

23 HCP Maroc, emploi 2015.

conomic networks, through a monitoring system for companies. The third programme, "Idmaj", aims to increase the employability of graduated job-seekers, helping them acquire professional skills through their first experience in the enterprise. It also works to improve the management of human resources. These three programmes presented some dysfunctions, though since the situation of young people in employment has not improved, some objectives have been reached. According to the note of presentation of the bill of Finances for 2014,²⁴ the Idmaj programme enabled the insertion of 34,626 jobseekers during the period from 1 January–31 August 2013. The Taehil programme benefited more than 101,537 jobseekers from 2007 to August 2013. The Moukawalati programme has brought the number of new small companies created since the launch of this programme in 2007 to August 2013 to 5,139 small businesses, which generated 14,117 jobs. Something that these programmes are lacking is that they don't pay attention or have no impact on some (often more vulnerable) groups of people: young graduates from small towns who lack a local economic base, the long-term unemployed and young people with special needs.

The National Strategy for Employment 2015–2020 aims to promote productive and decent employment. It points out that the country, due to demographic transition, will by 2025 face a high demand for decent jobs and societal changes. The Strategy states that public policies fail to stabilize the labour market or improve the quality of jobs, and it underlines that active employment programmes and measures are insufficiently targeted to women, young people and disabled people, going also through macroeconomic and sectorial policies and the institutional framework for governance and the observance of the labour market.²⁵ The promotion of employment at the Moroccan level is marked by several observations:

- a) Poor coverage and coordination of employment programmes: A multitude of actors intervene in the promotion of employment, but without a real coordination of the various measures and programmes and the various public actors participating from them. There are several, but their actions are not well articulated. The number of authorized private employment agencies is relatively low (45 agencies approved in 2013);
- b) Active labour market policies have certain limitations: Urban unemployed young people are the main target, while more than two thirds of the unemployed people don't have a diploma or even a primary school level education. Measures targeting untrained, illiterate and inactive workers are limited;
- c) *Agence Nationale de Promotion de l'Emploi et des Compétences* (ANAPEC): ANAPEC does intermediation, information circulation, employment counsellors, etc., but despite a real effort of dissemination, its network of agencies does not ensure an exhaustive coverage of the territory. The information system remains partial, static and uncoordinated, while access to information is very limited; it does not meet the needs of local actors. Similarly, the labour market information system does not make it possible to monitor the impact of sectoral policies on job creation.

Moreover, there is no formalized framework for the monitoring and evaluation of employment programmes and the consultative bodies on employment remain poorly operational and weakly coordinated. The Higher Council for the Promotion of Employment²⁶ has a structure that does not include ministries' departments in charge of employment issues. The Regional and Provincial Employment

²⁴ Le Projet de Loi de Finances 2014 sees an increase of 5.5 per cent in gross salaries.

²⁵ "La SNE élargit les cibles sociales : - jeunes diplômés exposés au chômage de longue durée ; - jeunes déscolarisés précocement et confrontés à un travail précaire ; - femmes soumises à l'inactivité et à la discrimination à l'emploi ; - travailleurs des TPE et de l'économie informelle."

²⁶ Le Conseil Supérieur de la Promotion de l'Emploi is the advisory body responsible for coordinating the Government's employment policy and giving its opinion on all matters concerning employment at national level.

Promotion Councils²⁷ have not been activated so far. Similarly, the other councils provided by the Labour Code are not operational enough. The budgetary resources mobilized by the Ministry of the Economy and Finance are allocated to the Fonds de Promotion de l'Emploi des Jeunes and to the operating budgets of ANAPEC. Within the framework of the National Employment Strategy, these resources must be increased and managed within the framework of the Gestion Axée sur les Résultats (Results-Based Management). The budgetary resources allocated to the sectoral departments are not determined by the impact of sectoral plans on employment, although they could be the subject of an in-depth examination to maximize the impact of the sectoral plans on the creation of decent jobs. To improve this situation, the Strategy focuses on the following strategic axes (La Stratégie Nationale pour l'Emploi du Royaume du Maroc. Document de synthèse, 2015):

- a) Promoting job creation/enhancing human capital: This is based on three pillars: the valorization of the female labour force, the establishment of quality education and training, and social protection for all of the women's labour force:
 - i. The Strategy plans to facilitate women's access to jobs through the establishment of a "specific program carried out by employment intermediation services" and the improvement of their conditions at work;²⁸
 - ii. Quality education and training, another pillar of the human capital in this Strategy,²⁹ is meant to be implemented through three types of training: continuing education, alternative training and apprenticeship training. The Minister of Employment also wants to "improve vocational guidance at school level";

- iii. Concerning social protection for all, the Ministry proposes "reform and extension of social insurance schemes (family allowances and pensions), better prevention of work accidents";

- b) Improving the effectiveness of employment programmes and strengthening labour market intermediation;

- c) Developing labour market governance.

To accompany these measures, the Strategy foresees the constitution of two institutions: The Inter-Ministerial Committee for Employment, responsible for drawing up and adopting the future action plan; and the Regional Employment Committees, responsible for preparing "multiannual and annual programmes".

Morocco's commitment to the problem of unemployment was reflected initially through actions aimed both at consolidating the institutional framework in the first place, by mobilizing and building the capacity of stakeholders to promote employment, and the management of public affairs in socioeconomic matters.

The diagnosis of employment in Morocco highlights many challenges from the point of view of labour market governance. This includes a low coverage of labour regulations, which covers only one third of workers, i.e. employees with formal contracts. The system of legal protection is not adapted to other forms of work and is not sufficiently inclusive. Similarly, the scope of the labour inspection is restricted to enterprises in the formal sector.

It is worth highlighting though, that the diagnosis of employment brings up opportunities and advantages of the dynamics of employment in Morocco that should be considered:

27 Les Conseils régionaux et provinciaux de promotion de l'emploi are the public bodies responsible for activating dialogue, consultation, partnership between the various actors and ensuring coordination with all the parties concerned at the local level for the promotion of employment and for the development of joint programs in this field.

28 According to the Ministry of Employment, the promotion of the female labour force also requires the fight against "discrimination against women".

29 For the Ministry of Employment, the State must "ensure that all new entrants to the labour market are qualified", "bring the supply of training to the needs of the labour market" and "improve the level of qualification of workers".

- a) Political stability and advances in democracy;
- b) The adoption of a societal project with political support;
- c) Political will to bring about and consolidate the structural reforms initiated since the end of the 1980s and which affect the economic, social and political spheres;
- d) The development and implementation of sector strategies supported by a substantial investment effort to upgrade basic infrastructure;
- e) Potential positive opportunities of international cooperation;
- f) The potential positive phase of demographic transition.

To tackle the problem of unemployment, the Government of Morocco has also established some programmes through ANAPEC, the Foundation Mohammed V for Solidarity, and the Moroccan

Centre for Innovation and Social Enterprise. The Foundation has contributed to the realization of 20 vocational training centres whose attendants have been admitted to the training and qualification programmes in the various trades and industries carriers such as crafts, building and public works, hotels, etc.³⁰ For example, the training centre for the building trades meets the needs of qualification of the young people of the region of Meknes–Tafilalt, which aims to promote youth employability through training. With capacity for 1,000 students, and carried out by the Foundation, the centre has electricity-building workshops, carpentry, aluminium, plumbing, painting, glazing and cladding facades, as well as a laboratory of civil engineering. The Moroccan Centre for Innovation and Social Entrepreneurship is a small NGO based in Rabat started to find entrepreneurial and innovative solutions to social challenges in Morocco, bringing an entrepreneurial mindset to young people, by raising awareness of the opportunities it generates, building the capacities of small youth NGOs, doing research, and offering a space for young people with ideas. But these kinds of centres still lack appropriate technical support and structural funding.

30 Royal Institute for Strategic Studies, 2015.

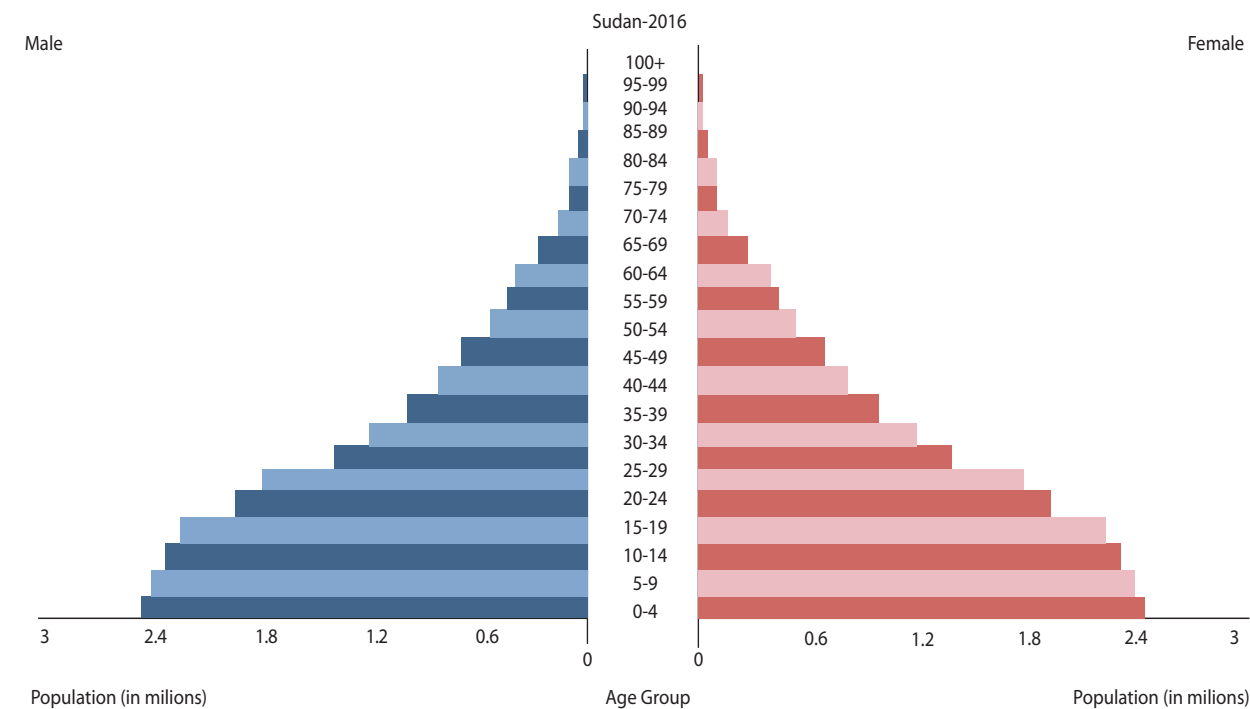
6. Sudan

6.1 Demographics

Table 5: Population of Morocco (37,345,935 according to July 2017 estimation)

Age structure	% of population	Males	Females
0–14 years	38.68	7 335 613	7 111 552
15–24 years	21.04	4 033 787	3 823 098
25–54 years	32.77	5 943 906	6 293 921
55–64 years	4.24	824 577	760 014
65 years and over	3.27	655 795	563 672

Figure XI: Age structure, gender as percentage of the population



Source: CIA (2017b).

6.2 Education

Figure XII: Education at a glance, Sudan

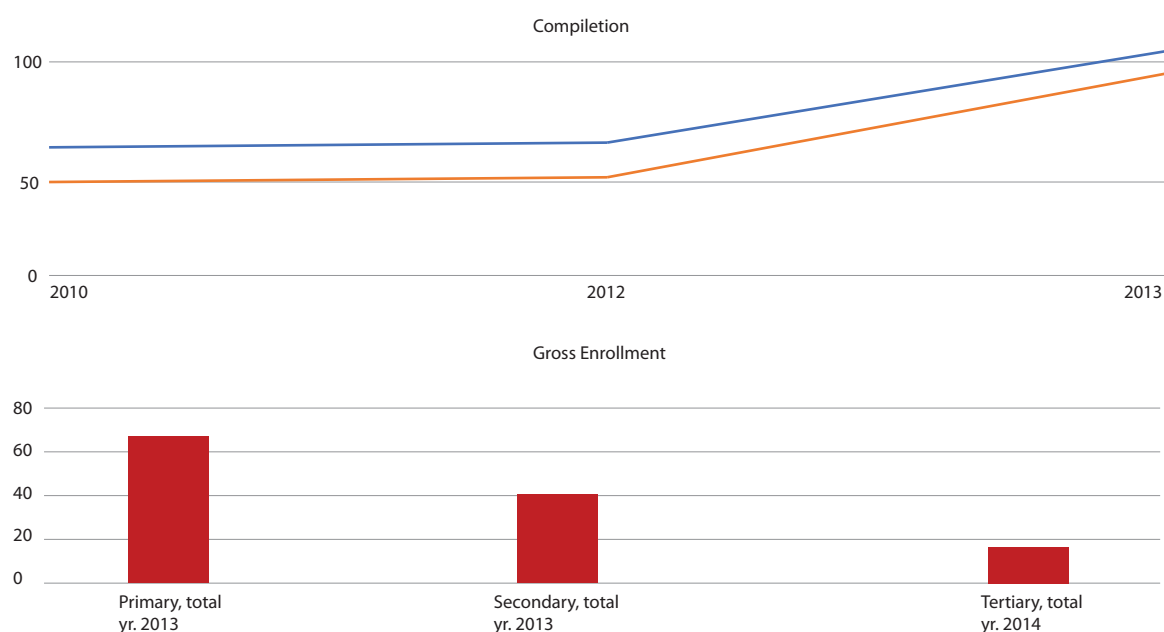


Table 6: Education indicators and expenditures

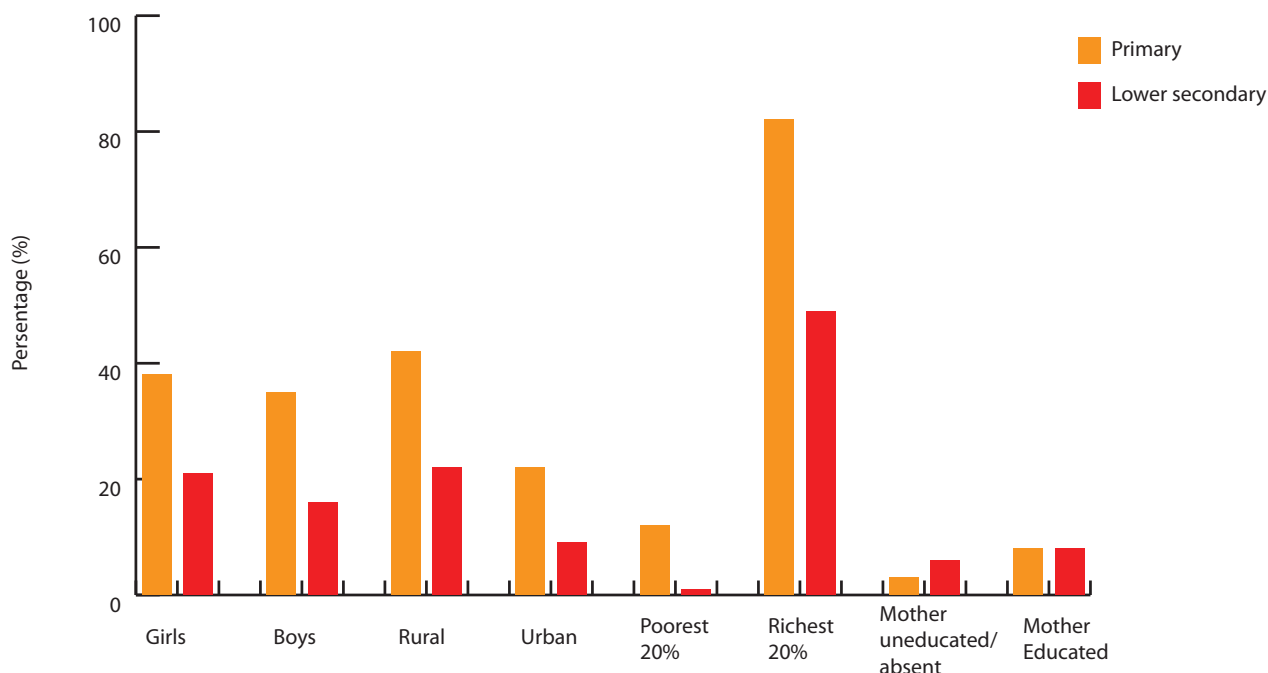
Education indicators		Female	Male	Total
Net enrolment, primary	2012	56	52	54
Primary completion rate	2013	54	59	57
Out-of-school children of primary school age	2012	1 298 832	1 413 736	2 712 568
Gender parity index for gross enrolment ratio, primary	2013			1
Gross enrolment rate, tertiary	2014	17	16	16
Adult literacy rate, 15+ years, (%)	2008	47	60	54
Expenditures				
Expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure (%)			2009	10.8
Government expenditure on education as per cent of GDP (per cent)			2009	2.2
Socioeconomic context				
GNI per capita, Atlas method (current US\$)			2015	1 840.0
Mortality rate, under-5 (per 1 000)			2015	70.1
Population growth (annual %)			2015	2.2
Population ages 0–14 (% of total)			2015	40.5
Population ages 0–14, total			2015	16 296 440
Population, total			2015	40 234 882
Prevalence of HIV, total (% of population ages 15–49)			2015	0.1
Unemployment, total (% of total labour force)			2014	13.2

Enrolment rates, dropouts and literacy

Sudan has significant problems with school enrolment. It has “the largest number and the highest rate of out-of-school children in the region”.

Approximately 3 million 5–13-year-olds are not in school. This includes “490,673 5-year-olds who should be in pre-primary (50 per cent), 1,965,068 primary school aged children (37 per cent) and

Figure XIII: Out-of-school rates



Out of school rates are higher for girls, rural children and the poorest 20%

Out-of-school rates for children whose mothers are uneducated or absent are much higher than those living with an educated mother

LITERACY

Definition: age 15 and over can read and write

Total population: 75.9 per cent

Male: 83.3 per cent

Female: 68.6 per cent (2015 est.)

641,587 lower secondary school aged children (40 per cent)" (World Bank).

In addition, "15 per cent of primary school children are at risk of dropping out before the final grade of primary school" (All in School, n.d.).

The literacy rate in Sudan is 75.9 per cent, and it ought to be improved. There is also significant disparity between male and female literacy rates as seen below.

6.3 Youth policies

Sudan is yet to produce and put its youth policy in the public domain. The definition of youth is found from its development partners' categorization. For example, in its study on youth unemployment in Sudan, the African Economic Outlook (2012) defines a youth as a person aged 15–24 years (AfDB, OECD, UNDP, ECA, 2012).

Youthpolicy.org gives an accounting of Sudan's public record on youth policy as seen below:

According to the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) in its 2013 Giving Young People a Priority (UNFPA, 2013), UNFPA claims to have supported and developed the National Youth Strategy (2007–2031), but the document cannot be found online. They have also supported youth policy and programmes at national and state level. The African Economic Outlook (2012) notes that the programme "Creating Opportunities for Youth Employment in Sudan", was launched in 2008 with \$15.7 million. The programme, run by the Ministry of Youth and Sports (no online profile), aims to train 5 million young people and provide micro-finance support. However, it is noted that the impact of these initiatives has been limited. UNDP's programme, "Youth Volunteers 'Rebuilding Darfur'" has provided training in environmental management and planning with a particular focus on

building sustainable livelihoods and entrepreneurship (UNDP, n.d.).

The Ministry of Youth and Sports is responsible for youth affairs. It does not have an online profile. According to *Giving Young People a Priority* (UNFPA, 2013), UNFPA has developed the National Youth Strategy (2007–2031) in partnership with the Ministry, and supports youth participation and youth policy structures and programmes. The African Economic Outlook (2012) notes partnership projects focusing on youth unemployment delivered by the Ministry of Youth and Sports.

No information can be found as to the existence of a National Youth Council in Sudan. According to *Giving Young People a Priority* (UNFPA, 2013), UNFPA has established Youth Parliaments in all states of Sudan and have supported youth participation in policy development and monitoring. This has been addressed through capacity-building and strengthening of youth groups, training on leadership, management, advocacy and strategic planning, fostering adult–youth partnerships and policy research.

6.4 Employment

According to the results of the 2011 Labour Force Survey, the national unemployment rate in Sudan is around 18 per cent. The rate varies according to:

- a) Location: Unemployment in urban areas (22.8 per cent) is higher than in rural areas (15.3 per cent);
- b) Age: The youth unemployment rate (33.8 per cent) is almost double the national rate; and
- c) Gender: The unemployment rate for women aged 15 to 24 is 57.9 per cent, while that for young men stands at 22.2 per cent.

The distribution of the working population by sector of activity shows 44.6 per cent work in the agricultural sector (39.8 per cent for men and 60.2 per cent for women), 15.32 per cent in the industrial sector (15.7 per cent for men and only 3.8 per cent for women) and 40.1 per cent in the service sector (44.5 per cent for men and 35.5 per cent for women). Estimates also indicate that having a job does not automatically lift the person concerned out of poverty; 30 per cent of people working in Sudan belong to households that are considered poor, despite having regular employment.

Results at the national level indicate a very high level of human exclusion, with a declining trend during the period 2007–2015. This improvement is more important as it coincides with the loss in oil revenue and the ongoing reforms in the country.

Figure XIV: Youth unemployment



6.5 Employment policies

National employment policies are often centred on the promotion of an active policy on employment through the establishment of an efficient system of employment services, the development of employment promotion programmes, the reduction of informal employment, support to employment protection, the improvement of conditions of work, and the support to social dialogue. Public employment services in Sudan face critical challenges in their ability to support the promotion of an active policy on employment. Inefficiencies were the result of both structural and functional shortcomings.

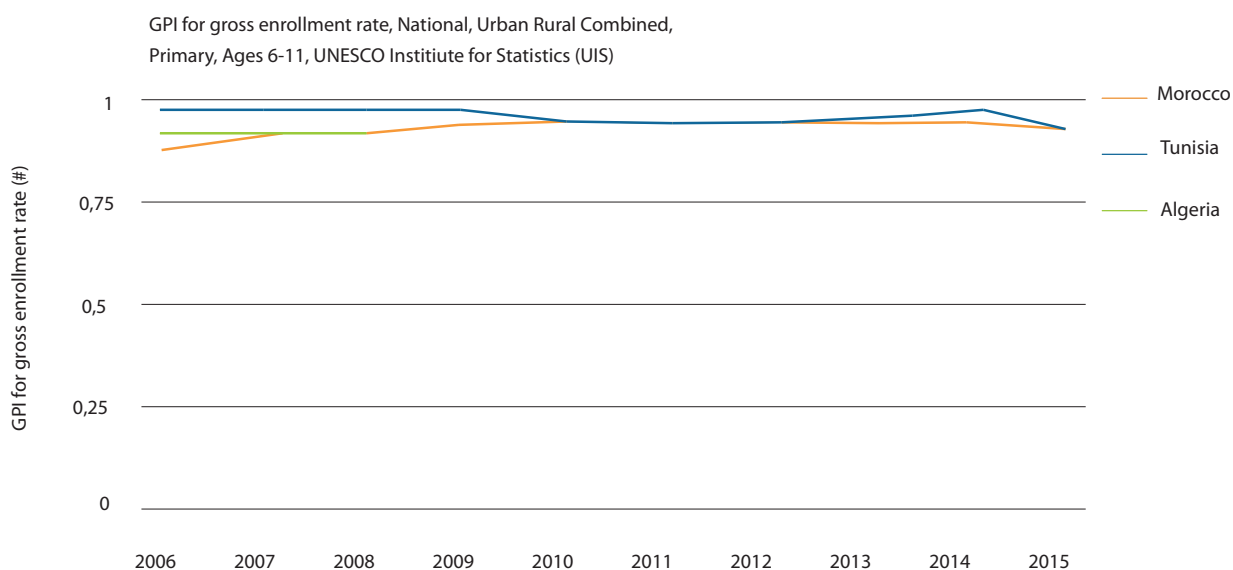
The 1997 Labour Code of Sudan still provides the legal basis for public employment services. Passive labour market policies and formal social protection institutions are few in Sudan and an unemployment insurance scheme is not yet approved. The Zakat Fund – based on Islamic Sharia principles – the Social Security Fund, and the National Pension Fund have been created to meet the needs of poor and vulnerable groups, but these institutions appear to be underfunded compared with the rising demands on them. Informal individual and family ties continue to provide a last resort for many people.

The Government has adopted the objective of universal coverage of social benefits by 2031, thereby launching a series of reforms and pilot initiatives, which led to the creation, in 2011, of the Social Support Programme. The Social Support Programme, financed by the Ministry of Finance through the State Budget and the Zakat Chamber, has five components, covering:

- a) Conditional cash transfers for families living in extreme poverty;
- b) Microfinance;
- c) Health insurance for the 1 million families in the poorest bottom quintile;
- d) Housing; and
- e) Subsidies for students to attend secondary and tertiary education in public institutions.

The Ministry of Human Resources Development and Labour is working on the formulation of labour policies to ensure minimum standards and the protection of rights of workers, both in the formal and informal contexts.

Figure XV: Genuine progress indicator for gross enrolment rate, national, urban and rural combined, primary ages 6–11



7. Tunisia

7.1 Demographics

Tunisia has a population of 11.4 million people. Tunisia's demography, like many of its neighbours in the region, is characterized by the presence of a large youth population bulge: 15 per cent of the population is made up of young people 15–24 years old. Over 28 per cent of the population is 15–29 years of age, and 51 per cent of the population is under 30. The country's overall unemployment rate spiked by 6 per cent following the revolution, from 13 to 19 per cent. For highly skilled young people, aged 15–29, the unemployment rate exceeds 44 per cent. Birth rates are in decline and the number of young people from the ages of 15 to 29 is expected to decrease to fewer than 21 per cent in the coming years.

7.2 Education

Since the 1980s, Tunisia has shown great progress in education, as its Governments have focused on developing an education system, increasing their Human Development Index (HDI) score through investments in this field. From 1990 to 2015, Tunisia's HDI value increased from 0.569 to 0.725, an increase of 27.3 per cent. Years of schooling increased by 3.7 years and expected years of schooling increased by 4.1 years. Tunisia's GNI per capita increased by about 86.2 per cent from 1990 to 2015 (UNDP, 2016).

The budget of the Ministry of Education was allocated D 4.862 billion, which represents 15.1 per cent of the general budget of the State.³¹ However, there has been a decline in the educational system despite the investments made, as a significant skills mismatch exists between labour market demands and the university level graduate skills obtained. There is a high presence of theoretical classes and a low preparation for actual life. Many graduates finish their studies not prepared to enter the workforce. The improvement should come from giving students practical training opportunities.

Tunisia ranks at the 96 percentile in access to education. The rate is 97 per cent among the youth

population; this is lower than the average youth literacy rate in other upper-middle-income countries, but a high one compared with lower-middle-income countries.

Despite the reforms introduced in the education system and quantitative performance, internal performance has not improved. Repetition and dropout rates keep increasing. Many students still drop out of school, especially at the upper secondary level (9 per cent), without having acquired the basic skills required to enter society. The secondary dropout rate is 10.1 per cent.

For the Baccalaureate, there was a deterioration in the percentage of admissions (percentage of individuals who took the exam and obtained the bac), which accounted for only 55.9 per cent of the workforce in the fourth year of secondary education in 2012, compared with 72 per cent in 2002. As for the distribution of admissions and graduates of the bac by branch, humanities are still predominant, although the economy–management and technical sections have undergone a remarkable evolution in the number of baccalaureate graduates. This has obvious implications for employability.

In mid-May 2016, the Ministry of Education published "The White Paper: Education Reform Project in Tunisia", with the following slogan: "For a fairly high-performing Tunisian school that trains citizens and the homeland".³² This is a founding document that sets out the main lines of the new education and training policy for the years to come, on the basis of the principles laid down by the new Constitution and the Second Republic, and referring to the philosophical choices relating to the national vision for education, training and the type of Tunisian citizen that the country wants to be trained and prepared, taking into account international guidelines in the field of education and training. The White Paper on the reform of the Tunisian education system has chosen to summarize the different problems of education in four major challenges:

- a) Ensuring equity and equal opportunities in education;

³¹ Tunisian Ministry of Finance, Budget 2017.

³² « Projet de réforme du système éducatif en Tunisie » « Pour une école tunisienne équitable, hautement performante qui forme le citoyen et relève la patrie ».

- b) Improving the quality of teaching and learning;
- c) Ensuring the integration of the school into the economy and society. This integration is currently absent, according to the report. The proof is the large number of unemployed graduates (predominance of knowledge-based education at the expense of skills and abilities, devaluation of vocational training, etc.);
- d) Better governance of the Tunisian education system. According to the White Paper, the reform must tackle these two aspects by initiating a systematic review of the way in which financial resources are managed by introducing “participatory” management, transparency and accountability, but also carrying out a functional reorganization of the central and regional administration.

7.3 Youth policies

The new Constitution of 2014 provides an excellent framework for the integration of young people in the development of policies and programmes that could help propel them into the workplace. But Tunisia suffers from structural problems that accentuate the crisis. The economy remains weak and people rely too much on the public sector to provide them with jobs, as in the case of Algeria. Most university graduates enter the public sector, with only 44 per cent working in private industry. They perceive the public sector as the most stable work with better conditions, whereas the private sector is seen as precarious and abusive.

The World Bank report “Overcoming Obstacles to the Integration of Young People” (World Bank and Centre pour l’Intégration en Méditerranée, 2014) offers a comprehensive analysis of the social, economic, political and cultural obstacles encountered by young Tunisians. It is based on quantitative data based on survey results, in-depth qualitative research, and direct consultations with young people, service providers and decision-makers to identify root causes and levels of general inactivity among young people. It concludes that people who are not working or studying need more en-

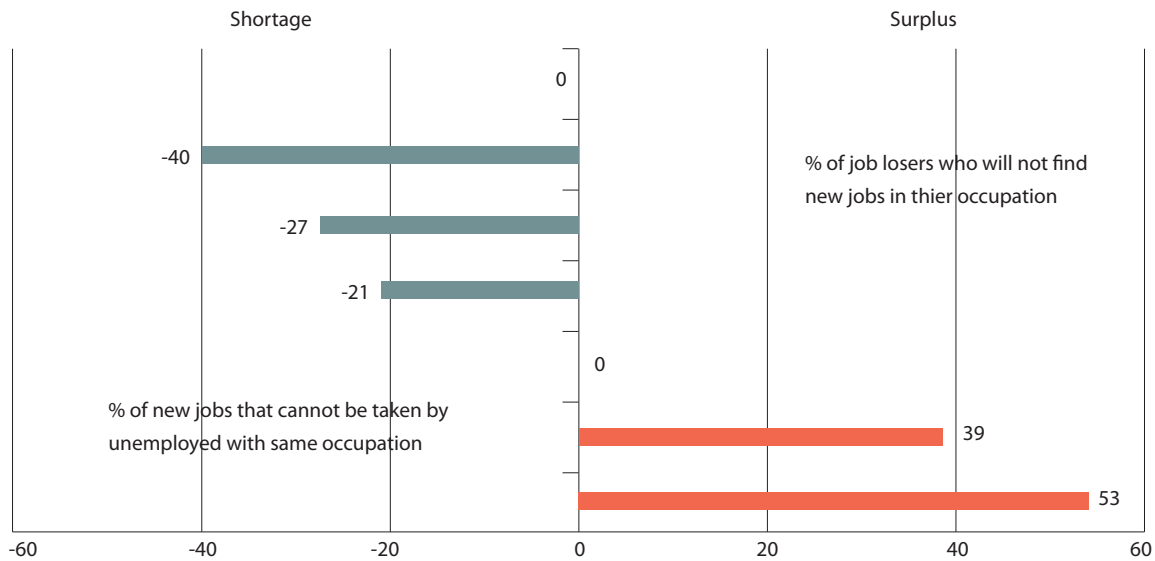
couragement to return to work than those who consider themselves simply newly unemployed. As so, it recommends labour market programmes to be redirected to young people with low levels of education. Also, it demonstrates the need for more NGOs as well as civil society organizations to bring young people closer to existing local institutions.

7.4 Employment

Youth unemployment in Tunisia had reached 31 per cent just before the 2011 revolution. The 5 per cent average annual growth of the three years preceding the revolution in fact hid a very hard economic situation for the young people of the country. According to the Tunisian National Institute of Statistics, the number of unemployed graduates had doubled in only four years, from 66,200 in 2005 to 128,100 in 2008. Many university graduates, once in the job market, could not find work to match their qualifications. Such a situation has been badly experienced by young people and Tunisian society in general, especially since the country made investment in education a pillar of its development. Those without degrees have more opportunities to find jobs, but it will be under bad conditions and with no opportunities for advancement. Also, employers often offer short-term contracts, not taking the risk of hiring someone long term or because the laws for contract of this kind are very rigid, and people fall into instability.

Educated young people expect not only more jobs but also better conditions. However, the better their level of education, the harder it is to find a job. Across the labour force, the unemployment rate for university graduates was above 20 per cent in 2010 and above 30 per cent for the young university graduates. The number of the unemployed with university degrees was close to 200,000 in 2011 (compared with around 700,000 unemployed in total) (Global Economy and Development, 2013). Although their unemployment rate is lower than those with higher education, they are the most desperate, as they generally can only hope for low-paid informal jobs with very little job security. Currently, close to 40 per cent of the unemployed wait at least one year before finding a job. The general unemployment rate reached 15.6 per cent in 2016, compared with 15.2 per cent in 2015.³³ The results

33 Institut National de la Statistique (INS), Tunisie.

Figure XVI: Percentages of new jobs and job losers in Tunisia

Source: World Bank.

of the national population and employment census carried out in the fourth quarter of the previous year revealed that the number of unemployed was 632,500 unemployed people for the third quarter of the same year, which means an unemployment rate of 15.5 per cent. In the fourth quarter of 2016, it was 12.5 per cent for men and 23.1 per cent for women. On the other hand, the number of unemployed graduates of higher education reached 262,400 during the fourth quarter, an unemployment rate equal to 31.6 per cent. According to the World Bank, among the countries in the Middle East and North Africa, Tunisia has one of the highest rates of young people who are neither in the education system nor in training, and who are unemployed (around 33 per cent).

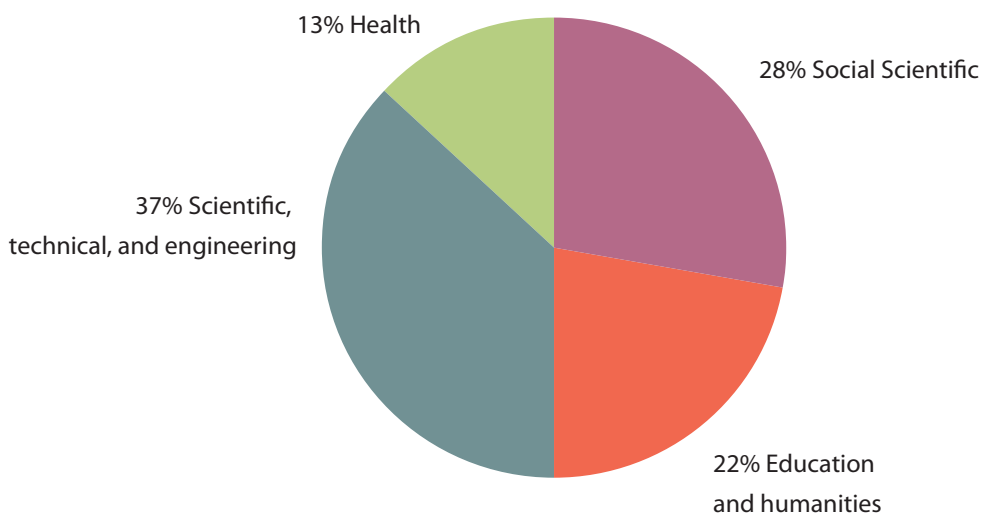
This type of discouragement in relation to the labour market is particularly high in rural Tunisia, where more than 58 per cent of young men and 85 per cent of young women are affected. There is a slight improvement in Tunisia's urban environment, where 46 per cent of young men and 42 per cent of young women are affected.

The World Bank report "Overcoming Obstacles to the Integration of Young People" (World Bank and Centre pour l'Intégration en Méditerranée, 2014) offers a comprehensive analysis of the social, economic, political and cultural obstacles encountered by young Tunisians. It is based on quantitative data based on survey results, in-depth qualita-

tive research, and direct consultations with young people, service providers and decision-makers, to identify root causes and levels of general inactivity among young people. It concludes that people who are not working or studying need more encouragement to return to work than those who consider themselves simply newly unemployed. As such, it recommends labour market programmes to be redirected to young people with low levels of education. Also, it demonstrates the need for more NGOs as well as civil society organizations to bring young people closer to existing local institutions. Graduates in the humanities represent 15.9 per cent. They are followed by computer science and multimedia with 15.6 per cent. Engineers account for only 10.4 per cent of graduates. In developed countries, the relationship between holding a degree and the employment rate is generally positive. In Tunisia, this relationship is negative. Thus, the evolution of the unemployment rate by level of education over the period 2005–2010 shows a general downward trend for the different levels, with the exception of higher education. Indeed, the unemployment rate for young people with a higher level increased by 8.9 points, from 14 per cent in 2005 to 22.9 per cent in 2010. This increase went higher in 2011, to 29.2 per cent.

In 2012, more than 61,000 graduates of higher education were newly enrolled in the *Agence Nationale de l'Emploi et du Travail Indépendant*. There is therefore a structural quantitative imbalance.

Figure XVII: Percentages of university graduates in Tunisia



Tunisia has invested a lot in education, which is normally something positive for the development of a country. However, nowadays there is a shortage of unskilled and semi-skilled workers in Tunisia, while technicians and professionals are in surplus. The skills of the workforce are a main point of concern in a country where the levels of secondary education are among the highest in the region. Young Tunisians need more vocational guidance than what they are getting from universities and schools, with formal education that should extend outside the classroom to include technical and life skills, and foreign languages.

In recent years, various forms of career guidance counselling have emerged more and more among educational institutions, even earlier than in higher education or vocational training, from school, so that students can choose the right path. These benefit the students themselves as well as society. This method would focus on strategies to match more exactly actual employment situations in different regions of the country. This should meet students' needs more effectively.

The education and training system lacks the information necessary to become responsive to the needs of the labour market, and the latter lacks the capacity to play its role in a demand-driven skills development system. This is particularly relevant in vocational education and training, where the role of employers is crucial in ensuring that the skills ac-

quired are relevant for access to the labour market. Entrepreneurship skills help the labour force adjust to the changing needs of the economy, and vocational education and training systems can play a significant role in helping many young people acquire these skills.

The proportion of those enrolled in vocational training rose from 27.9 per cent in 2002 to 73.1 per cent in 2011.

The Tunisian Agency for Vocational Training has a mandate from the Ministry of Vocational Training and Employment to introduce students to entrepreneurship. However, the support system involves several ministries and agencies, and their activities often overlap and would benefit from increased coordination.

Key recommendations for Tunisia in this field are to develop a national strategy for entrepreneurship support in the vocational system and work together with all involved actors to coordinate among each other and achieve results in common, and to develop a national strategy that outlines how entrepreneurship should be supported within the vocational training system. The objective of this national strategy should be to define entrepreneurship within the context of vocational training in Tunisia, identify the roles for each actor and outline short- and long-term objectives, and develop indicators for a good tracking of results.

7.4 Employment policies

Aligned with the Government's priorities, job creation and skills development have a prominent role in the 11th Development Plan (2007–2011). The Government recognizes the need to take a multi-sectoral approach, and that not only more jobs need to be created from investments in the private sector, but they also need to be good quality jobs that assure social security and faster growth at the same time. These reforms would not come alone, as the country would also need to invest in new youth and education policies, labour regulations, the already-mentioned social protection system and a better coordination among actors.

Tunisia has implemented many reforms to improve the business climate. Important agencies and policies associated with youth employment include the already-mentioned Tunisian National Employment Agency, which has implemented a network of 82 service providers covering all regions; and the presidential youth programme of the 11th Economic Development Plan, which focuses on three priorities:

- a) People with specific needs;
- b) Education and job creation through self-employment; and

- c) Providing support to entrepreneurs.

According to the Minister of Employment and Vocational Training, exceptional advantages will be granted to companies recruiting unemployed graduates. Companies will benefit from a training bonus of D 3,000 for each recruit, while each graduate recruited will be entitled to an allowance of D 200, to be charged to the State to discharge D 350 in respect of the emoluments of the employee during one year in case of his recruitment by the company.

Until 2010, the World Economic Forum repeatedly ranked Tunisia as the most competitive economy in Africa, and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) as well as the World Bank heralded Tunisia as a role model for other developing countries. Tunisia holds a big potential that includes a skilled workforce, a quite stable administration building, good road infrastructure across the country that can benefit markets and tourism, and well-communicated ports and airports. It is also geographically well connected, right next to Europe, its largest trading partner: 78.1 per cent of Tunisia's exports went to the European Union, and 56.9 per cent of Tunisia's imports came from the European Union in 2015.

Part 3: CONCLUSION AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

This report shows that the causes of youth unemployment are multiple and interconnected, ranging from poor education to weakness of the governmental structure to address the problems. There are many programmes geared at finding solutions for youth unemployment, but a lot of them focus on the quantity – and not the quality – of jobs available, and a large proportion of young people keep working long hours under poor working conditions, for little remuneration, mainly in the informal sector.

Multiple reports from the World Bank, IMF, UNDP and UNICEF give us an insight into the socio-economic situation of African young people during periods of economic decline and restructuring. Due to the absence of institutional support (e.g. for health care and education) and social marginalization, young people in contemporary Africa are an untapped resource facing many structural problems that funnel into a vicious cycle of political and social instability. The lack of institutional support partially stems from inadequate planning and funding of government programmes designed to mitigate the economic stress on unemployed young people. This includes adjusting school curricula to provide young people with practical skills to be used in employment and/or providing basic public services.

Africa's youth–education–employment nexus in the global economy should be considered from the perspective that access to education is the precondition for poverty reduction, political stability, peace and security, and sustainable development. Although there has been significant emphasis and progress in terms of prioritizing education and youth employment at the global, regional, subregional and national levels, these innovations have not yet been included in macroeconomic plans and activities. In addition, it is vital that countries continue to push young people into secondary and tertiary education levels after primary schooling to provide youth with the flexibility to handle the changing globalized labour market. If chronic

unemployment is to be meaningfully addressed, there is need to change the attitude towards youth, using an integrated approach to handling education and employment, and Government must proactively take measures to harness the potential of youth in the global economy (ECA, 2011).

There should be policies that enable young people to use the skills that they already have for the labour market. This will start up job creation and employment, and allow subsequent policies to evolve opportunities that fit today's world. For youth education and employment, the focus should not be on enrolment numbers, but on the effectiveness, attendance and relevance of education. Africa must continually nurture its young people by encouraging their foray into higher levels of education and later into the labour market to use and improve on the acquired knowledge and skills. The more vulnerable groups – such as women, the disabled, the displaced and refugees – are disproportionately disadvantaged in education and employment. For example, girls can experience discrimination early on in education, where they are encouraged to pursue social sciences and arts rather than life sciences and engineering subjects (ECA, 2011).

African countries can learn from policies from the global, regional, subregional, and national levels. At the global level, declarations and conventions that can support efforts to address youth employment include the 1965 Declaration on the Promotion of the Ideals of Peace, Mutual Respect and Understanding between Peoples; the World Programme of Action for Youth; and the Millennium Development Goals. At the regional level, the African Youth Charter and the Fifth and Seventh African Development Forums are useful. At the national level, improvements can be made on the established foundation of the National Youth Council and the Youth Ministry found in several African countries. These approaches should be integrated into a single approach to successfully address education and youth employment. To do so, African countries would need to embed these policies into

their macroeconomic policies to deal with barriers in the labour market that make all prior initiatives successful.

Niranjan Sarangi's examination of the nexus between "economic growth, employment, poverty and inequality" in developing economies of the Arab region provides an empirical explanation of factors that affect poverty reduction and purchasing power parity (PPP). The data and conclusions reveal factors that need to be considered when evaluating methods to improve the quality of economic growth. Sarangi notices the discrepancy between quantitative and qualitative economic growth because it is particularly clear with the Arab region that the percentage of GDP growth did not correlate with increased income per capita. There was an increase in poverty as determined by the international poverty line of \$1.25PPP (Sarangi, 2015). The effects of being integrated in the international trade system and the international market and how that has come to shape these economies must also be considered.

If a country wants its socioeconomic situation to improve, tackling youth unemployment is crucial for overcoming poverty and restoring political and social stability since, as mentioned, the collateral damage such as young people getting into crime, drugs, etc. because of not having an occupation, or being underemployed, cause their frustration about not being able to feed their families, producing even more devastating consequences. That is, the creation of decent employment for young people is also crucial for sustainable development: the young people of today will be the parents of the children of the future and on them will depend their situation and education, producing a chain of consequences depending on the actions taken nowadays. A link between employment policies and development needs is required and crucial. Youth employment should be integrated into comprehensive national development programmes and be a part of constructing new policies.

We can make some key recommendations that can be used in all the countries analysed in general. Here are some key investments:

Information and communication technology:

ICT is rapidly transforming our lives, the way we do business, and access information and services, fuelling the global economy. Unemployed young people can use ICT to discover job opportunities and become employed within new jobs that are created through the deployment of ICT. One use of ICT is to provide online services for job placement through electronic labour exchanges in public employment service or other placement agencies. The transparency enabled by ICT opens up possibilities for precise information-seeking.

ICT in the form of tele-centres, especially at the rural level, can act as a nodal point for community connectivity, local capacity-building, content development and communications, as well as serving as hubs for applications, such as distance education, support to SMEs, promotion of e-commerce and youth empowerment. Tele-centres can offer the opportunity to use ICT for business purposes to SMEs that do not have their own private facilities.

The Internet is considered a new world of opportunities for youth employment. Through social networks such as Facebook, LinkedIn or Twitter, young people are getting to match with employers, training volunteers and other forms of placement. The Internet has contributed to redefining traditional forms of communication.

b. Small and medium-sized enterprises:

The development of this sector has proven to have the potential to reduce poverty and inequality (equitable distribution of benefits of economic growth helps reduce problems associated with uneven income distribution), being an engine of economic growth and sustainable development. The main advantage of SMEs is that they operate right from simple agricultural markets to industrial-related ones, at a low level of investment per job compared with large companies. Since they mostly employ young people, they help to enhance their participation in economic activities and improve their living conditions. Young people should be trained on how to run their small companies and businesses.

According to OECD, SMEs are today's main employers, with 33 per cent of jobs created over the last 10 years. This means that big companies don't represent the main sources of employment any more and that it is necessary to prepare young people for an entrepreneurship culture. This takes us to another recommendation: entrepreneurship.

c. Fostering entrepreneurship:

Recent studies advocate entrepreneurship to solve the problem of youth unemployment, believing that it would reward innovation and creativity. This, though, would need a good structure and administrative framework so that young people could create new jobs, and this would also play a crucial role in economic life through sustainable innovation.

Major constraints to entrepreneurship are regulatory, including registration requirements, administrative and compliance costs, firm closure, poor infrastructure for doing business, and access to capital.

For SMEs and informal sector businesses in African countries, the most likely source of finance would be the micro and informal financial sector.

To achieve this goal, Governments should invest in teaching young people the leadership and management skills they need to become innovators and entrepreneurs: communication, teamwork, decision-making, organizational skills and self-confidence. They should consider innovative approaches such as promoting self-employment (micro-enterprises) through entrepreneurship support programmes and introduce targeted training and assistance to young people, including assessment of business proposals, accessing technical information, marketing and other business skills, such as preparation of loan applications.

One of the important social benefits of entrepreneurship is the demonstration effect and active approach, which helps address issues of dependency and passiveness in relation to traditional forms of welfare. Entrepreneurship offers alternatives to those disadvantaged in the mainstream economy, such as women and young people.

d. Microfinance Industry:

Microfinance is assuming greater importance for poverty reduction in many African countries. Microfinance providers are hoping to directly address the crisis of youth unemployment through the young people themselves, by boosting youth-led business creation and enabling self-employment. The interest is not just in the impact promised by microfinance on poverty reduction, but also on its potential contribution to catalysing rural development and achieving income redistribution.

This industry responds to the crisis of youth unemployment by developing innovative ways to extend integrated microfinance services (savings, loans and cash transfers) and non-financial services (health education, business training) to young people in a cost-effective way.

Microfinance can increase the number of low-income families and individuals with access to finance for their development activities, and improve the distribution of loans to rural areas.

e. Pro-poor industrial clusters:

One of the potential policy instruments to promote SMEs in favour of the poor is industrial cluster development. Clustering brings agglomeration benefits and promotes collective efficiency, which makes it possible for smaller firms to access markets through division of labour. Economies of scale and scope can allow individual small firms to survive by specializing in specific tasks within the production process and by accessing specialist skills and services and inputs from within the cluster.

Contribution of clustering to poverty reduction is through cluster employment and incomes, especially in pro-poor clusters. Poverty impact of these clusters includes addressing issues of risk, vulnerability, empowerment and participation for poor and marginalized groups. However pro-poor outcomes may not necessarily emerge from cluster development without forms of policy interventions. A poverty-focused strategy requires stronger attention to people within clusters, namely entrepreneurs and workers, their households and the wider community.

African countries should identify clusters that have a high incidence of poor households. It could be on the nature of employment (vulnerability of unskilled workers, young people and women), or it could be on the nature of the sector, such as concentration of relatively labour-intensive work. It should also promote pro-poor partnerships through identifying the key stakeholders (individuals and institutions) that can support pro-poor cluster policy interventions.

f. Craft industry:

The craft industry is one of the fastest-growing industries in African countries, and has the potential to contribute significantly to the development of these countries if given the right support.

Morocco, for example, has a rich tradition of artisanship that dates back centuries. It has long been renowned for its workmanship in the Middle East and North Africa. More recently, the country's flourishing tourist industry has helped spread that reputation. The advantage of the craft industry is that its raw materials are mostly locally produced and therefore easy to access. The industry faces many challenges – market access, marketing strategies, movement of crafts and people, standards and sustainability of production – and they must be addressed to reap the benefits that could come through the development of the craft industry in Africa.

Promoting craft development for export markets can create job opportunities in rural areas. However, the preservation of traditional culture is often neglected in this undertaking. This in turn affects the livelihoods of the artisans and their families, and ignores export potential based on a strong cultural reference. Crafts producers are often unaware of the opportunities to export due to lack of contacts. In addition, artisans are frequently not organized well enough to realize their potential capacity of production, and the quality of products is often not sufficiently high to meet foreign market needs.

It is fair to think that African countries should allow duty- and tax-free movement of crafts; put in place trade information centres where craft producers can know in advance what each country's import requirements are; and organize trade fairs for crafts

as a way of promoting the sector and building the confidence of the producers to realize that they can survive on their trade.

g. Tourism:

This industry in Morocco is well developed, with a strong tourist industry focused on the country's coast, culture and history, which could benefit from pro-poor tourism, which is a specific approach of the sector that aims to increase the net benefits for the poor from tourism, and ensure that tourism growth contributes to poverty reduction. The industry is the second largest foreign exchange earner in Morocco, after the phosphate industry. The Government of Morocco is investing in its development. A large government-sponsored marketing campaign to attract tourists has advertised Morocco as a cheap and exotic, yet safe, place for European tourists. If this is taken and profited by another approach, it will provide contributions and incentives for natural and cultural conservation, as well as opportunities for community livelihood. Community-based tourism has the potential to create jobs and generate a wide spectrum of entrepreneurial opportunities for people from a variety of backgrounds, skills and experiences.

Poor communities are often rich in natural assets: scenery, climate, culture and wildlife. Community-based tourism is closely associated with ecotourism, and is regarded as a tool for natural and cultural resource conservation and community development. If the communities were mobilized to work on what they have, they could provide services to visitors, act as official guides and get involved in the activities in general. The links between tourism and other value adding activities, including traditional craft and cultural industries, should be strengthened.

h. The private sector and poverty reduction:

Private sector investments can create jobs, improve productivity and foster innovation. For the poor to benefit, these potential jobs should be those that take advantage of the skills and talents they have to offer. This sector can participate through public-private partnership in building physical and social infrastructure, including provision of basic services that will benefit the poor.

The development of a strong and dynamic private sector is crucial to long-term, rapid economic growth, and is necessary for poverty reduction. African countries must create an enabling environment for private sector participation in policy development; an effective regulatory framework is also essential. The private sector can reduce poverty by adopting ethical business practices and providing employment opportunities to the poor, and through indirect positive impacts on macroeconomic policy and business development. Private operators can provide infrastructure, public services and projects targeting the poor through various

mechanisms, including public–private partnerships.

African countries should develop short-term programmes supporting entrepreneurship in educational curricula, covering all levels from primary school to higher education to foster entrepreneurial spirit and knowledge. Also, they should design capacity development programmes for the private sector to enable it to actively participate in the necessary reforms.

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