STUDY ON EMPLOYMENT AND SOCIAL PROTECTION

Expertise policies promoting the employability of young people in the Mediterranean

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY ............................................................................................................. 4
FRAMEWORK AND CONTEXT OF THE STUDY ........................................................................... 8
  Profile of the six countries covered by the study ..................................................................... 8
  What is a young ? ..................................................................................................................... 9
  Child Labour ............................................................................................................................ 10
  The actual assessment of unemployment by country ............................................................ 11
  Case study : The employment situation of young Egyptian .................................................... 14
I. THE TRADITIONAL DISTINCTION BETWEEN SUPPLY AND DEMAND IN THE LABOUR MARKET ........................................................................................................ 19
  Factors of integration of young people into the labour market related to family ................ 19
  Factors of integration of young people into the labour market related to education ......... 19
  A labour market characterized by a limited supply ............................................................... 17
  Problems of growth and investment, and limitation of positions in public service .......... 18
  The limited supply on the Labour Market accelerates the use of migration .................... 19
II. THE RÔLE OF HUMAN CAPITAL ....................................................................................... 21
  The returns to education on the individual ........................................................................... 21
  The link between education and income level of a country ................................................. 21
  Human capital : a weak line ................................................................................................. 21
  Mismatch between supply and demand .............................................................................. 22
  Good practices on Human capital ....................................................................................... 25
III. YOUTH ACCESS TO INFORMATION ON THE LABOUR MARKET ................................ 27
  Role and importance of Labour market information ........................................................... 27
  Response mechanisms to support young people in their job search ................................ 27
  The role of social capital in the integration of young people .............................................. 28
  What is social capital ? .......................................................................................................... 28
  The role of social capital on access to employment and wages ......................................... 29
IV. CONDITIONS OF JOB AND BUSINESS CREATION ......................................................... 31
  Entrepreneurship ..................................................................................................................... 31
  Company’s development ....................................................................................................... Error! Bookmark not defined.
Granting a building permit ............................................
Payment of taxes .......................................................... 35
Enforcing contracts .......................................................... 36
V. THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK FOR ACCESS TO EMPLOYMENT .... 37
Youth, social security and employment protection .................... 37
Young people and their place in the informal economy ............... 37
VI. THE NATIONAL AUTHORITIES RESPONSIBLE FOR EMPLOYMENT .................................................. 38
National schemes ................................................................ 38
Summary of active employment policies devices and instruments .... 38
Tunisia ............................................................................. 40
Morocco ............................................................................ 40
Algeria .............................................................................. 40
Egypt ............................................................................... 41
Jordan .............................................................................. 41
VII. ACTIVE EMPLOYMENT POLICIES .............................................. 41
Definition of active employment policies .................................... 41
Active employment policies in the service of young Arab .......... 42
ALMPs tunisian ................................................................. 42
ALMPs moroccan ............................................................. 45
ALMPs algerian ................................................................. 45
ALMPs egyptian ................................................................. 45
ALMPs jordanian ............................................................... 45
Critical review of active employment policies ............................ 50
Conclusion et recommandations .............................................. 51
Knowledge on youth employment and future surveys ................ 51
Findings on youth employment .............................................. 54
Operational recommendations .............................................. 55
GLOSSARY ............................................................................ 56
BIBLIOGRAPHY ..................................................................... 58
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This study analyses the integration of young people into the labor market in six countries of the Maghreb and the Middle East (Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia) in the context of the Arab uprising.

As part of that work, a literature review was prepared containing all the publications that cover the subject in the target countries. On this basis, a bibliographic database was created and recommendations were drawn on studies that could be conducted to fill literature gaps.

An analysis of the labour market active policies and mechanisms set up by different countries to improve youth employment was performed based on existing information. A list of best practices from each mechanism has been developed in order to achieve an overview of what could be achieved in these countries on the field of active employment policies. This study analyses the various socioeconomic factors of integrating young people into the labor market such as gender, family background, social and human capital, economic structure at micro and macro level.

Despite a relatively good economic growth in the six countries concerned, the job creation rhythm was not able to fulfill the social demand. Meanwhile, in many countries there is a reduction in employment in the public sector. For illustration, in Algeria, employment in the public sector increased from 56% at the end of the 80s to 28% in 2010. The difference between the slow rate of job creation and the number of young people seeking employment causes a tendency among young people to migrate that becomes a social problem.

The link between education and integration into the labor market is developed in this study in the focal area of the role of human capital. It is noticeable that a major obstacle to the integration of young people into the labor market is the mismatch between the skills of graduates and demands. The present study showed that the graduate by fields of study is not best suited to the economic structure.

Access to information for young people in the labor market is also a key determinant of youth employment. Developed knowledge of the labor market, wages and working conditions are necessary for the better functioning of the labor market. The study analyses the development and mechanisms set up in order to produce more information through the national agencies in charge of employment. The study highlights that the success of these systems is disappointingly low when considering the proportion of young people using these services.

While the level of education is no longer a factor in finding a job, the role of social capital becomes important. Personal connections with family, friends, professional or social networks are methods that can be activated to seek employment.

As part of this analysis of the job market, a development perspective in economic activity, particularly in terms of entrepreneurship should also be addressed. Development of economic
activity is necessarily connected a regulatory environment stable, transparent and incentive. To date, several states, such as Morocco and Egypt undertook reforms that have led to a clear improvement in the economic environment. Others, such as Algeria and Libya, have accumulated a significant backlog in the region.

Facilitation of procedures for starting a business, representing a central element of improving the business climate in a country is under reforms. We can quote the Regional Best Practice in Morocco, "Guichet unique à la creation d'entreprise," that became fully operational in 2011. In Egypt, a reform concerning property registration has reduced the total cost of registration of more than 80%. This has had the effect of generating a bulk of confidence in the field of entrepreneurship and increased revenues by 39%. In addition to the overly complex procedures, the minimum capital requirement is one of the obstacles to business creation. Between 2006 and 2008, Morocco has divided by more than 50% the minimum capital contributed to the creation of a business. The number of new companies registered at the national level has increased by 23%.

An analysis of the integration of young people into the labor market must necessarily included a statement of the existing social protection systems in these countries. Based on the literature review that was conducted, it is clear that very few publications have been published on this subject. It is therefore difficult to achieve a true comparative study between the different social security systems in those countries. Some systems of social protection and pension systems set up over the past decade have been listed. However, few states have implemented a national policy and coherence of social security, including social insurance and services. Only Algeria has developed an unemployment insurance fund, the NACC and it is estimated that only 11.4% of young people who have a job contributing to the Social Security Fund and only 9.7% have health insurance.

All the factors mentioned above, added to the lack of action by states identified in this study inevitably leads to the following conclusion: many young people change into the informal sector. In Algeria, it is estimated that the informal sector in the non-agricultural private sector represent 37% of employment. The lack of data and economic studies on the subject hinders the identification of the country-specific and adapted policies.

Different mechanisms put in place for each country to facilitate the integration of young people into the labor market are also developed. It was found that the developed mechanisms are focus on the intermediation function. The ministry, under whose deals with the labor market, has either a national agency (National Agency for Employment and Independent Work for Tunisia National Agency for the Promotion of Employment and Skills for Morocco, National Agency for Employment for Algeria) or offices directly under its authority. Agencies or offices may, from case to case, manage the entire claims management and employment opportunities; disseminate knowledge on the private sector.

However, there is a lack of coordination between all these national agencies and the role of departments is not well-defined, some agencies are inefficient.

The study analyses active employment policies implemented in the last decade. All of these policies are different. In Tunisia, for example, the public is predominant. In Egypt, the programs are geared towards employability. Indeed, each adopts a method of its own as its social, economic and political specificities. However, we can see that the measures revolve
around key areas: accelerating the pace of economic growth, investment promotion, encouragement of entrepreneurship. The study highlights that it is in Morocco and Tunisia that programs are more comprehensive. The whole program is analyzed in this study. "Best practices", such as those of the "New Opportunities for Women in Jordan" (Jordan NOW), established by the Jordanian authorities have also been identified.

The results of these policies and programs carried out by the study, is both negative and positive. These devices are able to avoid permanent exclusion of a portion of the population. However, we can see that none of these devices have resulted in a sharp increase in the number of jobs. These programs also disadvantage young people which are excluded from the scope of these policies and not focus enough on job quality and social protection.

Based on the literature review conducted, this study provides an overview of available knowledge on the integration of young people on the labor market. We note that certain areas like working conditions, demography, social networks are not covered by the existing literature. An other observation, Libya been almost no documentation except for studies on the Arab world in general. The quality level of documentation is also analysed. Indeed, we note that the data on underemployment are not published regularly except for Egypt and Morocco. This study provides a basis for recommendations concerning studies that should be on identified areas and countries and that not or insufficiently covered.

On the basis of the analysis of active employment policies and other programs implemented, a list of recommendations was made operational. It relates in particular to public employment agencies in place, areas that should be developed as training.

Towards a young employment action plan

Component 1: Develop access to information on labour market

- Labour market active policy review points at several action plan components.
- Publish all documents on employment thema and conduct additional studies
- Make technical documents and literature techniques mutual through CMI portal
- Improve youth access to job opportunities information (online, social network, Smartphones apps…)

Component 2: Provoke structural changes of education provision

- Promote public-private partnership in technical/vocational and higher education
- Develop scientific fields of study enrolment and relevance in higher education
- Improve education quality ( including skills in international languages)
- Upgrade secondary education curricula to foster youth employability skills

Component 3: Promote better sector wide approach

- Rationalize and simplify institutional arrangements through one national coordination body
- Create a regional network of the national coordination bodies
- Set up a standardized monitoring system
Component 4 Reinforce social dialogue at all levels

- Involve civil society in education policies design
- Break down national plans into regional action plans or targeting local labour markets
- Promote social networks as les réseaux sociaux comme positive proposal forces

Each component can be better designed through specific benchmarking tool (indicators), logical framework tool and precise and measurable targets.

Key references:

African Economic Outlook 2012, Youth employment in Africa.


AFD (2011), Mesures sociales d’urgence et sortie de crise en Afrique du Nord / Moyen-Orient Cas de l’Égypte et de la Tunisie, AFD.


BAD (2011), Tackling Youth Unemployment in the Maghreb economic brief, BAD.


Banque Mondiale (2012), *Promouvoir les opportunités et la participation des jeunes*.


Population Council (2010), *Survey of Young People in Egypt: Final report and data sets*.

FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

SCOPE AND CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

The six Arab countries covered by the study are located on the southern shore of the Mediterranean or North Africa and the Middle East and are sometimes referred to as the Arab Mediterranean countries. These are: Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia.

Profile of the 6 surveyed countries

Table 1: Country profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Algeria</th>
<th>Egypt</th>
<th>Libya</th>
<th>Maroc</th>
<th>Tunisia</th>
<th>Jordan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population size**</td>
<td>35,468,208</td>
<td>81,121,077</td>
<td>6,355,112</td>
<td>31,951,412</td>
<td>10,480,934</td>
<td>6,187,227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of the population aged 15 to 24*</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% population growth**</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of the urban population**</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy rate (most recent year)</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completion rate of primary education*</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross enrollment ratio at secondary level*</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross enrollment rate in higher education*</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP per capita en $ PPP ***</td>
<td>8,715</td>
<td>6,324</td>
<td>16,855</td>
<td>4,986</td>
<td>9,15</td>
<td>6,007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average GDP growth (2005-2010) in %</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>6.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government spending as % of GDP (Moy. 2005-2009)</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>40.1</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% internet users**</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>38.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile**</td>
<td>92.4</td>
<td>87.1</td>
<td>171.5</td>
<td>100.1</td>
<td>105.4</td>
<td>109.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*2009 **2010 ***2011

Sources: Data from the World Bank and IMF

Libya has a per capita income significantly higher than the other countries and a significant proportion of these revenues allocated to government spending (40.1% over the period 2005-2009). Jordan and Morocco have similar per capita incomes but differ in the area of education of the population with a gap of thirty points literacy rate for Jordan, which may be related to its majority urban population (79% against 57% in Morocco). The proportion of Internet users in the population, an indicator of access to information, ranging from 4.3% to 38.9% in Libya in Jordan while the penetration rate of mobile devices is high in all countries. Except in Algeria with a rate of growth of 2.5% over the 2005-2010 period, all countries showed growth rates above 4%.
The share of the population aged 15 to 24 years is about the same in all six countries (around 20%). Jordan and Morocco are characterized by a relatively low population growth (around 1%), Egypt with a population size large and predominantly rural.

Although these countries have common features (Islam and Arabic, for example), their socio-economic characteristics differ.

Problems related to youth in Arab societies should be analyzed: high unemployment, difficult labour market inclusion, deprivation of political and social order, etc… These fundamental issues were the focus of claims during the Arab Spring. A slight recovery in the economies of the region after the crisis has increased the cost of living rather than job creation. The instability caused by the Arab Spring has also slowed foreign investment.

This study focuses on the issue of integration of young people from the Maghreb, Egypt and Jordan, by the reduction of unemployment and the implementation of social protection schemes. This study should be a literature review that develops an adequate policy integration of young people in civic life and, on the basis of a stress analysis, risks and opportunities for the integration of young people in the market for employment and civic life.

The methodological approach we have adopted in this report is to collect bibliography as exhaustively as possible on young people in the six countries covered by the study. The starting point of this literature review is focused on the various studies in the field, including the portal Center for Mediterranean Integration of Marseille, the work presented at the workshop in Tunis in June 2011 and the work done by AFD (2011).

A summary of this report is presented separately in support of the Cairo workshop’s goals to be held on 2 and 3 October 2012.

Examine young people from the Maghreb integration is to ask the questions necessary in order to understand the turning point in the lives of young people who demonstrate their inclusion in the labor market. According Lahlimi Alami (2011), employment is the main form of social integration, the safest factor for improving living conditions and protect against the risks of poverty and vulnerability. It is also the factor the most appropriate for assessing the level of social cohesion in a country. It plays an important role in the creation of wealth and income distribution (Alami, 2011).

The main terms of reference used in this study are defined in the glossary at the end. However, it will be developed following the concept of 'youth' and the different standards to calculate the unemployment rate, in order to better target this study.

What is a youth?

The definition of youth varies according to the country. Thus, the concept of youth differs considerably from country to country, ranging from 12 to 45 years. Targeting is usually done in the following categories: 15/18-24, 25-34 and 35-44 years.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Age of youth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>18-35 years (Ministry of Labour)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18-30 years (Ministry of youth)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>10-24 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>12-30 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>18-24 or 18-45 years (depending on the survey)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: HCP, UNFPA, national data, UNDP and RARRBO

There is no ambiguity about the lower limit of the young population, set at 15 years according to international conventions of the ILO.

**Child labour**

Persons under 15 years under the Convention No. 138 on the minimum age for access to employment and labor and ILO Convention No. 182 on the worst forms of child labour, should not work.

Convention No. 138 stipulates that:

- “Each Member for which this Convention is in force undertakes to pursue a national policy designed to ensure the effective abolition of child labour and to raise progressively the minimum age for admission to employment or work to a level consistent with the fullest physical and mental development of young persons”.

- “The minimum age specified in pursuance of paragraph 1 of this Article shall not be less than the age of completion of compulsory schooling and, in any case, shall not be less than 15 years.”

Convention No. 182 defines the worst forms of child labor as:

- “All forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict”;

- “The use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances”;

- “The use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties”;
“Work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children”. \textit{Source: (ILO, 2002)}

The six countries have signed these agreements that are applicable in national law. The legal working age in these six countries is: 16 to Algeria, Jordan, Tunisia and 15 to Egypt, Morocco and Libya. It remains to consider the applicability of the law in each country and the lack of impact of child labor on the employment problems of people over 15 years.

\begin{table}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|l|c|c|c|}
\hline
Countries & Total & Garçons & Filles \\
\hline
Algeria & 5.0\% & 6.0\% & 4.0\% \\
Egypt & 7.0\% & 8.0\% & 5.0\% \\
Jordan & 3.0\% & … & … \\
Libya & … & … & … \\
Morocco & 11.0\% & 13.0\% & 9.0\% \\
Tunisia & 2.1\% & … & … \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Child Labour (5-14 years) 1999-2006}
\end{table}

\textit{Sources: Aita (2008) based on the ILO data}

Age group 25-34 or 45 years is also interesting to consider in light of the specificities of developing companies. Thus, the six countries covered by the study have young people of that age in a situation of dependency who have some difficulties to integrate into adulthood. In this report, the youth will be defined as widely as possible.

\textbf{The actual assessment of unemployment by country}

It is difficult to make a reliable comparison of unemployment figures in the six countries targeted by the study. Indeed, the meaning of the definition of unemployment differs from one country to another in terms of social, economic and political areas. You need to have the necessary tools to capture the meaning of a given percentage by a government office of statistics. It should also be noted that the unemployment rate does not reflect the exact situation of employment and non-employment in a country but is a trend indicator. Beyond the changing definitions of the concept of "unemployment", unemployment and underemployment remain "invisible" (Boubakri 2010) because of several key factors.

To develop a comparative study of six countries on the unemployment data, this study selected the unemployment rate defined below.

The \textit{unemployment rate} expresses the share of unemployed in the labor force.

Only a few countries provide unemployment benefits to those registered. This provides a measure of unemployment through administrative data. The other main source of data is the employment surveys in six countries that adopt the definitions and concepts in accordance with ILO recommendations. According to the ILO, the statistical surveys on employment are better in Egypt, Tunisia and Morocco (\textit{African Economic Outlook, 2012}). Only Egypt and Morocco are able to provide figures by quarter. On a qualitative perspective, the situation is
the same with regard to the amount of information (studies and research) concentrated in these three countries, especially Morocco.

There is a problem of convergence of statistical data on youth unemployment in Egypt. Comparability is also complicated by the issue of age limits that define youth and differ between studies within a country. It should be noted, however, the Gallup World Poll that combine data on the labor market and information on opinions and well-being of young people.

**Graph 1: global unemployment rates**

![Graph](image)

Source: International Labour organization (ILO) 2012

Nearly 75 million people are unemployed worldwide. After declining between 2001 and 2006, the crisis led to 4 million young people unemployed since 2007. For 2012, it is expected that the global rate of youth unemployment (15-24) should be stuck at its highest level of the crisis and medium-term projections (2012-16) showed little improvement for youth labor markets. Maghreb and the Middle East, where young people represent more than 50% of the unemployed, are the only regions for which the International Labour Organization is pessimistic about the evolution of the unemployment rate.
The youth unemployment rate between 15 and 24 years exceeds 30% in North Africa and the Middle East. Moreover, as shown in the report Middle East Youth Initiative (2009), unemployment among 15 to 24 years in Algeria, Morocco, Jordan and Lebanon is equivalent to more than double the overall unemployment rate of active population with 21.6% on average, it is significantly higher than the global average of 14% (not to mention that these rates are the highest in the world). In addition, in the age group of 25-34 years, rates exceed 15% in most Arab Mediterranean countries.

**Table 4 : Unemployment rate by gender, age and degree level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Unemployment rate</th>
<th>Unemployment rate 15-24 years</th>
<th>Unemployment graduates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>8.71</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>9.64</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source : World bank, ILO and national surveys

In most countries, women are more unemployed than men. For example, in Jordan, there are 45.9% of unemployed women against 22.6% of men. It is the same for Egypt where we have a significant difference between the unemployment of young men and women (47.9% against 17.2%). The difference is reduced to Morocco and Algeria. In Tunisia and Morocco, there are more young unemployed men than young unemployed women.
Case study: the situation of Egyptian youth in employment

Unemployment in Egypt is mainly due to new entrants to the labor market.

**Table 5: Proportion of new entrants among the unemployed in Egypt, by gender and place of residence (2006)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>88.9%</td>
<td>94.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>67.5%</td>
<td>69.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Asaad (2006) based on ELMPS survey

From the survey data Egypt Labor Market Panel Survey conducted with a sample of households between 1998 and 2006, Ragui Assaad (2007) analyzes the trends in the labor market and youth unemployment in Egypt. Although the figures have been questioned and the calculation of the unemployment rate is based on six different definitions, the survey showed a decline in the unemployment rate between 1998 and 2006. This decrease is attributed to three factors:

• The decline in the population growth of the working age population, especially the population 15-19, heavily exposed to unemployment

• The decline in recruitment in the public service that encourages qualified women to be more proactive in seeking employment

• The increase in jobs created by the private sector

The decline in unemployment is attributed more to discouragement resulting output of the labor market and an increase in the employment rate. The data showed that the decline in unemployment is more pronounced in rural areas and among graduates of secondary technical education whose unemployment rate is still 41% in women. The unemployment rate of university graduates is increasing.

Three sources of data converge to the rate of unemployment by level of education: the Gallup World Poll, the survey conducted by Population Council Sype and investigations Egypt Labor Market Panel Survey conducted in 1998 and 2006.
Table 6: Unemployment rate according to the level of education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bases (2009/10)</th>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>No Education</th>
<th>Primary school</th>
<th>Secondary school</th>
<th>Vocational training</th>
<th>University/Higher education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gallup</td>
<td>Low-income</td>
<td>7,9</td>
<td>12,1</td>
<td>15,9</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>18,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle-income</td>
<td>22,7</td>
<td>17,5</td>
<td>29,5</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>34,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td></td>
<td>4,9</td>
<td>9,7</td>
<td>51,2</td>
<td></td>
<td>34,2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: African Economic Outlook (2012)

In Egypt, the unemployment rate is especially high among young people with a secondary education.

The data indicated considerable variation transition time between school and labor market by gender. If 50% of young men find a job in two years in 2006 against three years in 1998, the transition time for women does not decrease between 1998 and 2006 and up to 15 years for 25% of them.

The data from the survey Sype conducted in 2009 on Egyptian youth aged 15 to 29 years (Population Council, 2010) showed that the rate of youth participation in the labor force has declined since 2006, particularly among women (22.3% in 2006 to 13.4% in 2009). This can be applied to the employment rate.

In addition, analysis by quintile demonstrated that among non-students, the participation of women in the labor force increases with household wealth, while it has little effect on the participation of young men. The table below obtained through a survey of young people (Sype) shows that women do not occupy the same jobs as men.
35% of the women surveyed work for the government, compared with only 8.3% of men.

### I. THE TRADITIONAL DISTINCTION BETWEEN SUPPLY AND DEMAND IN THE LABOUR MARKET

This chapter is devoted to the analysis of sociological and economic factors that act simultaneously on the integration of young people into the labor market. Thus we will successively deal with integrating factors of youth labor market related to family, education and the economy.

**Factors of integration of young people into the labour market related to family**

According to the survey of the National Council for Youth and the Future (CNJA) in 1993, in Morocco approximately 38% of employees are employed in the family farm (67% for rural youth and 8% for urban youth). Moreover, the framework provided by the Moroccan young family is not conducive to a possible expansion. Family farms employing fewer than five young people (92% of farms). The remuneration received by these young people categorized as caregiver is laughable. This can be considered as unemployment or under-employment. Young employees at the family level do not aspire to a prosperous farm. According to the survey CNJA 1993, 48% of young workers in family farms expect stagnation, only 16% expect prosperity and 37% a degradation. In Egypt, 9.3% of men are employed in the family and 6.9% of women.

---

**Table 7 : Type of employment by gender among Egyptian youth aged 15-29**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>8,3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public companies</td>
<td>1,5</td>
<td>2,7</td>
<td>1,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private formal regular wage</td>
<td>7,9</td>
<td>11,8</td>
<td>8,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private informal regular wage</td>
<td>44,4</td>
<td>32,2</td>
<td>42,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irregular wage</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7,9</td>
<td>22,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unpaid Work family</td>
<td>9,3</td>
<td>6,9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own employee/employeur</td>
<td>3,7</td>
<td>3,5</td>
<td>3,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subtotal self employment</strong></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10,4</td>
<td>12,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subtotal employee</strong></td>
<td>87</td>
<td>89,6</td>
<td>87,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of employed respondents</strong></td>
<td>2727</td>
<td>574</td>
<td>3301</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Population Council 2010
Factors of integration of young people into the labour market related to education

Aware of the importance of education, including higher education, the inclusion of youth in the labour market, and in accordance with changes in the socio-economic context, as illustrated by the World Bank, the Arab countries spent in the long term between 5 and 6% of their GDP to the education sector against 3% on average in Latin America or East Asia. This investment has resulted in a considerable improvement in literacy rates and school enrolment ratios (primary and secondary) for both men and women. However, the gross rate of access to higher education during the period 2000-2010 is still only 13% in Morocco, 30% in Egypt and 40% in Jordan, while the integration of graduates and "outgoing" of universities is not valid (AFD, 2011).

However, as was noted by the ILO, schools, universities and educational institutions produce graduates who have not acquired the skills needed by competitive labour markets. Very often, the degrees are not recognized internationally. The percentage of young people who are both out of school and unemployed is higher in Arab countries than in any other developing region (60 percent) (ILO 2005). Indeed, as the report showed the World Bank on Morocco (2012), the Moroccan educational system is two-tiered, with one side private school that trains elite in French, and another public school that welcomes all students and offers courses mainly in Arabic. However, the labor market requires mastery of the French language, which de facto excludes graduates from the public system. In addition, public schools are overcrowded and their programs do not meet the needs of the labor market (World Bank 2012).

A labor market characterized by a limited supply

Recent economic growth in these countries has not created enough jobs to absorb new entrants into the labour market, or it has only generated poor quality jobs. Economically, governments in the region had failed to create jobs, especially for young people. The pace of decent jobs creation fails to follow the population growth and the labour force, particularly high in Jordan (3.3%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>1985</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2020</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>...</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source : Aita (2008)
On the other hand, in order to attract foreign investment, the majority of countries covered by this study attempted to carry out reforms related to improving the macroeconomic environment, legal, administrative and institutional business and create a environment conducive to private investment. Certainly, foreign direct investment has created jobs for young people, especially young women in export processing zones (EPZs). In Morocco, young women make up 80% of the workforce in these EPZs. These EPZs offer them jobs primarily in manufacturing industries to labor-intensive as well as in the service sector.

However, according to Said Saadi (2003), the multi-national operating in EPZs are most likely to hire young women unskilled or low-skilled, they provide them minimal training and downsizing are relatively frequent. In addition, under institutional and economic constraints, foreign investment in all of these countries remains limited, which in turn limits the possibility for a large part of young people to be hired and integrated into the life economy. The Arab Spring has created a climate of uncertainty that has slowed foreign investment, source of employment.

Problems of growth and investment, and limitation of positions in public service

When considering public expenditure as a percentage of income, as in the euro area, we see that it tends to increase in all countries, especially in Algeria, but lower in Jordan. The withdrawal of the state as an employer of choice has a direct impact on the labor market. The withdrawal of the State from productive sectors and the saturation of its needs participated in the rise of graduate unemployment and stagnating employment, particularly in the public service.

Thus, according to Khader (2011), employment in the public sector in Algeria increased from 56% at the end of the 80s, to 28% in 2010. In Tunisia, it rose from 25% to 21% in 2010 and 13% in Morocco to 9%. Libya is an exception, the public sector continued to employ more than 70% of the workforce. This indicator is related to the share of national income allocated to public expenditure (40.1%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Public services</th>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>25.3%</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>22.0%</td>
<td>2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>34.8%</td>
<td>2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>14.6%</td>
<td>2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>19.1%</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Aita (2008)

Education et Territoires Maghreb -Varlyproject-Amadeus Institut.
The private sector that continues to benefit from the largesse of the state in terms of support, grants and incentives also remains highly regulated. It does not feel concerned by social priorities of the government as evidenced by the low turnout to hiring managers, vocational training, scientific research and environmental protection. This sector continued to "negotiate" its lack of involvement in the political orientation through favorable tax policies and the extension of benefits provided by the state. (Touzi, 2008).

According Bichara Khader (2011), the private sector in Algeria remained handicapped by a rentier economy, Tunisia by family structure and the corporate takeover of the regime on the country's economy, Libya by the influence of the State. Morocco is better than all the other countries, but the industry still needs to be revitalized to create sources of employment quality. In all countries of the Maghreb, and in fact in all Arab countries, private sector was not sufficiently diversified and it has not enough progressed in the range of products (technologies) to absorb graduates and offer them wages decent.

Table 10 : Structure of the employed population by sector of activity (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Agriculture and Fisheries</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Trade and services</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lybia</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5,5</td>
<td>82,5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Made by the authors based on data from ILO

The agricultural sector is very active in Morocco and Egypt and employs 40 and 32% of the workforce while trade and services employ 82.5% of the population in Egypt. The industry provides one third of jobs in Algeria and Tunisia. National economies have succeeded, as evidenced by the case of Morocco and Algeria, to achieve a rate of job creation over the growth of their workforce. However, if the insertions made by the intermediation agencies (ANAPEC ANEM, ANETI) during the last decade have involved a large staff of young, they are still insufficient.

The limited supply on the labour market accelerates the use of youth migration

Due to the slow pace of job creation in the countries of North Africa, Egypt and Jordan, to the poor quality and below expectations and aspirations of job seekers, especially youth, an important part of the youth may become more sensitive to the temptation of migration. The migration studies showed that young feed constantly flows of legal immigration but also illegal. If this migration is an opportunity for these countries, it also has a double risk. On the one hand, a risk to the country where youth migration is synonymous with competence and brain drain leakage. In this regard, it should be noted that increasingly, young graduates and skilled seeking to emigrate because they feel excluded and not valued in their own country. On the other hand, there is a risk to the young because the illegal migration in full force strikes excluded young people, especially rural youth living in remote areas and marginalized. Indeed, the distribution of migration by age shows that rural youth are migrating to the cities.
The causes of rural migration are known: low productivity and high level of underemployment in traditional agricultural activities, dominant in terms of area and volume of employment (Agénor, 2003), recurrent droughts and their impact on agricultural production and income, lack of multiple activities generating incomes in rural areas (Akesbi, 2003). Also, poverty rates are much higher in the countryside than in cities (World Bank, 2004). The non-integration of young people in the Arab economy and society pushes them to maintain life projects focused on alternative migration abroad.

Indeed, in Tunisia and according to Hassan Boubakri (2010), 41.1% of young people aged 15 to 19 years old want to migrate, including 15% by illegal means. Another statistical study in Algeria in 2002 showed that 37% of young Algerians want to migrate (44% male and 18% female) (Martin), and a study in Egypt underscored that nearly a young Egyptian in five expressed interest in emigration to live and work in another country. Among them, 68% would emigrate to Arab countries (especially Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates), 21% to a Western country, the other to the rest of the world. Cited motivations for migrating stem primarily to conditions of employment and remuneration (Population Council, 2010). Factors of irregular migration of young people related to the marginalization and exclusion: illiteracy, low productivity, high levels of underemployment. Young people in these countries, even if they are educated, seeking to emigrate when they struggled to find the professional valuation, social and civic life. The example of students is significant in this regard.

A survey of student youth showed that Moroccan students, regardless of their social and academic profile, trying to escape from poor social conditions by migration (Bourqia, 1995). Migration, as shown in this investigation, first attracts boys (64.9%). But more and more, young girls are also attracted from abroad. More than half of female students (54.9%) want to go abroad to continue their studies as much as flourish. However, it is also an opportunity for personal enrichment, as long as the mobility of young people in Arab countries is done smoothly.

Without a starting material capital for young people to start in working life, the majority of them want to emigrate abroad. But, as pointed out a sociological study, although the desire to emigrate is among students from all socio-economic groups, we note that it is more pronounced among the most disadvantaged. These are the son of small farmers, lack of social capital and vulnerable labour market, seeking to escape of their conditions and to pursue the dream of promotion that emigration could possibly get (Bourqia, 1995). This finding was also reported by the survey CNJA 1993: approximately 56% of young people are prone to leave the family farm.

We also note that this desire is reinforced by the family who is also in solidarity with his younger members of a family project: "Some households began sell their land directly against the insurance of the emigration of their children abroad" (World Bank MOP, 2005). Moreover, there is no information that inform us about the concern that drives many families to invest in the emigration of young people. This requires the use of conducting surveys that can shed light on the role of emigration in the integration of young people into the labour market.
II. THE ROLE OF HUMAN CAPITAL

The returns to education on the individual

Like any investment, investment in education can also be evaluated in terms of rate of return. According to the theory of human capital, the private returns to education correspond to the wage gap generated by an additional human capital endowment. Theories of Mincer (1974) but also Becker (1975) on human capital provide a methodology for estimating the increase in individual income resulting from additional year of education (Arestoff, 2000).

The link between education and income level of a country

Today according a number of economists, it is the existence of a working population with a high level of education that allows and promotes growth (OECD, Human Capital: How what you know shapes our lives 2007). The OECD describes a relationship of reciprocity between human capital and growth: student, individuals are more likely to perform more complex jobs and better wages and simultaneously, this is the existence of such jobs that encourages individuals to study. In the long term, the study time without being paid will result in obtaining a job that will reward the efforts (OECD, Human Capital: How what you know shapes our lives, 2007).

Human Capital : a weak line

But the stock of human capital in the Maghreb economies is insufficient. In Morocco, despite stronger growth and urban unemployment declined in recent years (Achy, 2011), much remains to be done in terms of labour productivity and the rate of coverage of foreign trade. The feasibility of these structural changes depends on four factors by Lahcen Achy, a researcher at the Carnegie Endowment Middle East : strong exports, diversification of production, technological sophistication and creative destruction.

However, the human capital in Morocco, as in most other countries of the Southern Mediterranean, is a weak link. In Morocco, the illiteracy rate among working population is beyond the 35% bar, in Tunisia, it exceeds 10%. Countries in the region are also characterized by low flows in higher education : the gross enrollment ratio in higher education is 13% in Morocco, nearly 30% in Egypt, nearly 34% in Tunisia, and nearly 40% in Jordan. In addition, flow training outside education system through the estimated proportion of firms offering training to their employees, is also low: about 17% in Egypt, 22% in Jordan, 25% in Morocco. As an indication, it reached 85% in China.

The MENA region is experiencing the highest unemployment rate in the world, and is particularly high among young people (21% and 25% respectively for the Middle East and North Africa), women, and new graduates. This is very problematic because the young people entering the labour market are certainly more qualified than before, but fined themselves unable to use the time and money invested in their education as they do not find jobs in their respective work area (Jaramillo & Mélonio, 2011). The lack of jobs in the formal sector forced them to integrate the informal sector or to withdraw from the working population.
But if getting a job in the informal sector is certainly one way to enter into the labour market, gain experience and even get a formal job, the merely having to work in the informal sector is for the young a great loss of human capital. Indeed, it has been shown that the return to education tends to be significantly lower in the informal sector. Jobs in this sector are generally low paid suggesting productivity levels lower than in the formal sector (Jaramillo 2011). More, human capital cannot be developed if it is widely used and, conversely, loses its value if it is not.

Among the main obstacles to youth employment: the mismatch between the skills of graduates. It is important to note that the unemployment rate is much higher among those with an intermediate level of education or higher, and much lower among those who had not completed primary school (Sayed, 2010). This paradox is explained mainly by the low absorption level of demand in the formal sector of employment.

Mismatch between supply and demand

One of the major problems mentioned by employers is related to the choice of training. Most graduates of higher education are moving towards the programs of social sciences and humanities. However, if these profiles can meet the demand for graduates in the public sector, they remain highly unsuited to the requirements of the recent expansion of private sector services (Morocco, Algeria) and manufacturing (Tunisia). As an illustration, graduates’ letters were more until 2007 in Morocco. In 2009, nearly 25,000 young people obtained a degree in social sciences, 10,000 in letters and 10,000 in engineering industries.

In addition, although a higher education degree is not always a requirement to work in the field of agriculture, the number of graduates of this sector do not exceed 796 students, which is incommensurate with the importance of this sector in the economy (16.4% of GDP) and its potential uses. One consequence: Morocco lack of skilled workforce capable of supervising the development of the agricultural sector to improve its productivity and competitiveness (Varly & Oulad Benchiba, 2012). It is therefore imperative that the distribution between the different streams of study would be better adjusted to the economic structure.

On a macroeconomic level, the educational level of the population measured through an index of human capital (Amadeus, 2012) showed little relationship with the diversification of the economy. It should be noted the special position of Algeria that has greatly expanded higher education in recent years, but failed to diversify its economy and reduce unemployment.
Table 11: Proportion of university graduates by discipline, in Africa and in the world (2008-2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Education, Arts and literary subjects</th>
<th>Social sciences and business and law</th>
<th>Sciences</th>
<th>Ingineering, manufacturing and construction</th>
<th>Agriculture</th>
<th>Health and social</th>
<th>Services</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>26 %</td>
<td>44 %</td>
<td>12 % (3 % TIC)</td>
<td>4 %</td>
<td>2 %</td>
<td>5 %</td>
<td>0 %</td>
<td>7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Africa</td>
<td>22 %</td>
<td>51 %</td>
<td>8 % (1 % TIC)</td>
<td>10 %</td>
<td>1 %</td>
<td>6 %</td>
<td>1 %</td>
<td>1 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>23 %</td>
<td>30 %</td>
<td>6 %</td>
<td>20 %</td>
<td>4 %</td>
<td>9 %</td>
<td>4 %</td>
<td>4 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America</td>
<td>23 %</td>
<td>38 %</td>
<td>7 %</td>
<td>9 %</td>
<td>2 %</td>
<td>13 %</td>
<td>3 %</td>
<td>5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>25 %</td>
<td>37 %</td>
<td>10 % (3 % TIC)</td>
<td>11 %</td>
<td>2 %</td>
<td>11 %</td>
<td>4 %</td>
<td>1 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: data from PEA, Unesco

Based on a study which focused on the 22 countries of the League of Arab States, among others Algeria, Egypt, Jordan and Morocco, the Education for Employment report from IFC and the Islamic Development Bank Group (IDB) highlights the serious mismatch between the training provided to young people and business skills expectations.

The following graph showed the increase for each sector jobs according to the distribution of graduates. We can see the increase in jobs in Morocco (2010/2009) on the ordinate and view the other hand, the abscissa the distribution of graduates in the country.
Graph 3: Increase employment by sectors according to the distribution of graduates in Morocco

We actually note that the distribution of graduates by sector does not follow the increase in jobs. Indeed, there is a sharp increase in jobs in industry while the greater part of the population is graduated in services.

This fact reflects the structural mismatch between some degrees and qualifications and the labour market, as well as the insufficient volume of jobs created at the macro level that grows a large proportion of young people into poorly paid jobs. Young people in school who are non-graduated and young people who left prematurely of a school without the skills and qualifications required can only access to low paid jobs and only have the circuits of the informal economy to work and survive. This confirms the conclusion of the ILO is that in many countries, many young people working in situations of informal employment, temporary and insecure and are often subjected to unacceptable working hours (El-Aoufi Bensaid, 2005).

Similarly, as it was found by AFD (2011), young people's access to employment is only known by school level category ("no level", "primary", "secondary ", " high level "). This is not enough to guide the reform of higher education or active employment policies. The total lack of public data on the wages of graduates is also responsible for a considerable uncertainty about the actual level of employment obtained at the output of the studies, and the possibility of future downgrades. Similarly, such an investigation would improve measure at the regional level, the adequacy of training opportunities offered and available jobs, which could improve the distribution of tertiary services (AFD, 2011).

Source: conducted by the authors from the first results of the survey on employment in Morocco (2010)
**Good Practices on Human capital**

Private institutions seem to be the most appropriate to meet market requirements. With a governance structure allowing them to adapt more quickly, they are generally more specialized and more flexible than public schools. Moreover, their concern for efficiency and to recruit more students, encouraging them to develop innovative models of education in terms of pedagogy. (Jaramillo & Mélonio, 2011).

In addition, their ability to connect with the market, allows them to obtain a higher added value in terms of the employability of graduates, including through training more professional, network, fairs recruitment on campus and partnerships with other companies (Jaramillo & Mélonio, 2011). A joint study by the International Financial Corporation and the Islamic Development Bank (IFC / IDB), indicated that to increase their employability, students must receive adequate training in i) theoretical and applied, ii) "kanow-how" that is mean, leadership, creativity, interpersonal skills and problem solving, and iii) languages, especially Arabic and French or English, depending on the context (Jaramillo & Mélonio, 2011).

Trenner (2011) has identified certain types of private institutions that have distinguished themselves through the creation of private institutions, perfectly illustrating the relevance of this type of education, taking into account the criteria mentioned above:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of private school</th>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Illustration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Private universities</td>
<td>Pursuit of excellence. Expertise in specific areas. Approach innovative problematic.</td>
<td>University of Saint Joseph (Lebanon), EGE Rabat (Morocco)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher education</td>
<td>Adapt the educational offer a specific need of the labour market in a relatively short period of time</td>
<td>Algerian school of business (Algeria), EGE Rabat (Morocco)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical and vocational school</td>
<td>Provide effective and professional training that easier to increase employability.</td>
<td>Al-Araby Group Training Academy (Egypt)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private higher education</td>
<td>Usually targeted, they meet a specific need predetermined.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (Jaramillo & Mélonio, 2011)
The improvement of human capital through the development of technical and vocational skills involves both the acquisition of knowledge, skills, know-how and behavior required for an occupation on the labour market.

Several educational institutions in the MENA region have focused on strengthening human capital. Referring to the criteria used by the IFC and IDB to increase the employability of students, it would be interesting to identify some institutions in the region illustrating good practices.

Table 13: Criteria for classifying types of private schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria used by the IFC and IDB</th>
<th>Private Universities</th>
<th>Enseignement post-bac spécialisé privé</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adequate training in theoretical and applied growth</td>
<td>EGE (Morocco)</td>
<td>Algerian school of business (Algeria)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate training in theoretical and applied growth</td>
<td>General academic skills and transdisciplinary approach (social sciences, management). Mandatory internship to expose students to the professional world.</td>
<td>Many programs offer alternative education (theory and practice). Course defined by the needs of companies, that are school partners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;know-how&quot; (leadership, creativity, interpersonal skills and problem solving)</td>
<td>Promoting teamwork, leadership and corporate values. Curriculum includes a year abroad.</td>
<td>Offers courses in &quot;Leadership,&quot; &quot;Personal Development&quot;, &quot;intercultural negotiations&quot; or &quot;management team.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Languages (Arabic and French and / or English depending on context)</td>
<td>Arabic, French, English</td>
<td>French, some courses provided in English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Amadeus Institut

It is currently impossible to determine the success of the EGE in terms of employability of these students, it was created in 2008. The Algerian School of Business (ESAA), founded in 2004, is already among the best business schools in the region (second in Africa according to a classification established by Jeune Afrique on the basis of forty criteria). If the ESAA respects the criteria used by the IFC and IDB as shown in the table above, it is noted that this business school also draws its success of its partnerships with several leading French schools but is also supported by large companies such as BNP Paribas, Deloitte, KPMG or Danone.

Their principal mission is to:

- ensure the relevance of training provision in relation to the expectations of the world of work;

- facilitate the employability of students by offering courses and alternative education;
-Advise the school in developing training programs.

Today many Maghreb and Mediterranean schools attach great importance to the establishment of agreements and exchanges with various academic partners. These partnerships can take different forms: student exchanges, faculty exchanges, curriculum developed and conducted jointly, or double degrees such as is the case with the National School of Engineers of Tunis that offers a double degree in association with the *Ecole des Mines* of Paris.

## III. YOUTH ACCESS TO INFORMATION ON THE LABOUR MARKET

According to the ILO, labour market information (LMI) plays a significant role whatever the level of development of a country.

### Role and importance of labour market information

A better understanding of opportunities in the labour market - the nature and location of employment, working conditions and wages opportunities, support required to exploit this information are vital to improving the functioning of the labour market. According to the report *Education for Employment* (2011) the provision of information on the labour market and training will facilitate the meeting between job seekers and employers, and also with the training institutions, employers and young people.

### Response mechanisms to support young people in their job search

Given the scale of youth unemployment and to produce information on the labour market, each country followed its own approach to develop devices or instruments of intervention to try to absorb unemployment among young graduates.

We will try to analyze some of the reasons why this will to improve the information has resulted to such meager results.

In Algeria, the National Agency for Employment (ANEM) channels a small part of the supply and demand of employment. According to (MUSETTE, 2003), the agency produced a basic knowledge of the market whose content is a reflection of the level of activity.

In Tunisia, the National Agency for Employment and Independent Work (ANETI) has developed a free service supply-demand job (www.emploi.nat.tn), connected to an information system on functioning of the labour market. According Mathlouthi and Mezouaghi (2006), the entry into service of the new system has literally revolutionized, not only the relation between operators and the labour market, but also the effectiveness of employment services. In parallel with this agency, the government established the Tunisian Agency for Technical Cooperation (ATCT). Since its inception in 1972, it provides abroad placement skills.
In Morocco, a recent study by the World Bank (2012) indicated that the level of knowledge of the ANAPEC by young Moroccans, remains relatively low. Only 14% of young people (15-29 years) interviewed in the EMJM survey were aware of the program and in rural areas, the percentage was even lower (5%). Even among unemployed youth interviewed, only one quarter of them knew the program and only 8% had used its services. The study showed that 22% of urban youth have heard of the program against only 4% of rural youth. Only 8% of young unemployed knowing ANAPEC used its training services.

All studies emphasize that young deplore the lack of information about the skills expected by employers and sectors with the best prospects. Report Education for Employment (2011) indicates that there are now few sources of reliable information on the nature and availability of jobs, the skills required to qualify and institutions to prepare properly in the Arab world.

Young people therefore need to use their network of relationships (social capital) to find a job.

**The role of social capital in the integration of young**

**What is social capital?**

Social capital encompasses, in a very broad definition, links and relationships between individuals. It plays a role in reducing unemployment either on a collective level (better information sharing) or individual (mobilization of the family network, for example). With similar qualifications, a young person who has developed a network of relationships with family, friends, social and professional, will have more chance of getting a job than another. Integration into the labour market, the possibility of starting a business but more broadly social mobility is therefore dependent on relationships maintained by an individual. In countries having an economy directed by a small part of the political class (as the Ben Ali clan in Tunisia), these phenomena are amplified and create a situation of social frustration. However, these aspects are not taken into account by policies for better integration of young people. Internet is an important factor of the Arab revolutions, has considerably developed social capital. Can it be instrumented to improve youth employment?

Bourdieu (1986), who is a sociologist, distinguishes three forms of capital: economic capital, cultural capital and social capital, defined as "aggregate of actual or potential resources which are associated with the possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of knowledge and mutual identification."

Coleman (1988), economist, meanwhile distinguishes three forms of capital:

the level of social trust (in people);

the existence of a legal system (legal framework defining social norms);

the existence of communication channels.

While noting a reconciliation of views among economists and sociologists on the notion of social capital (Barbie, 2006), the broader definition of social capital of Coleman has the
advantage of including communication channels and therefore apply to many social networks on the web.

On Internet social networks the number of relationships also provides an indicator of social capital, but not indicate the true proximity between individuals, or the ability of different individuals to provide employment or information leading to employment. Thus, "our" definition of social capital, largely quantitative, can be broken down into a set of relations that can be distinguished into four types:

- Number of family relationships (also called “strong link”, Lenoir 2003)
- Number of friendly relations
- Number of professional relations (also called weak link) or motivated by a mutual interest
- Number of virtual relationships (via Internet)

This operational definition has the advantage of providing a measure of capital that can be obtained by sampling directly with youth.

The role of social capital on access to employment and wages

OECD (2001) notes few transnational researches on the link between social capital and growth but points a positive relationship between aspects of social capital and economic activity. It is difficult to quantify the importance of social capital in access to employment in order to obtain a universal relationship, many studies and surveys conducted in the Maghreb and elsewhere refer to as the "passport" for integration of young people. The social capital plays a real role, not only in access to employment, but also in the system of representations of young people about their future: "Young people have a perception of their own situation more serious than the available statistics suggest." (Embassy of France in Morocco, 2011).

In Egypt, young people are not motivated to integrate higher education because of lack of social network, they feel they have little chance of gainful employment. In Algeria, for example, 41% of respondents believe that access to employment is conditioned by personal or family relationships (African Economic Outlook, 2012). The impact of social capital on access to employment has been the object of very little research in developing countries except the work of Magali Lenoir (2003).

In an environment where the level of education is no longer a lever to promote access to employment (Bensedrine, 1998) and a high salary, university leavers mobilize various forms of job search including social network. Based on an original survey on the future of outgoing economics and legal of the Hassan II Ain Chock University, Casablanca (Morocco), Lenoir (2003) is used to analyze the impact of the network of family and friends on the probability of finding a job and the remuneration obtained five years after leaving the university.

The job search strategies generally used in the literature are:

- the use of external market a(unsolicited applications)
• modes of intermediation (public or private intermediaries as ANAPEC agency)

• the social network

The econometric analysis of Lenoir (2003) showed that if the social network increases the probability of finding a job, it leads to lower paying jobs. Similar conclusions have been obtained by Delattre (2007) from the French Survey Trajectoires des Demandeurs d'Emploi et Marchés Locaux du Travail.

Services of intermediaries’ institutional Moroccan labour market (employment agency, CIOPE, ANAPEC or assistance programs for insertion) cannot increase the probability of insertion of graduates of the Faculty Ain Chock. In addition, among the inserted who benefited from these services, the monthly remuneration obtained is 16% lower than the average. According to larger sources, in Algeria, ANEM (National Employment Agency) fails to find a job for about 11% of registered and in Morocco ANAPEC (National Agency for Promotion of employment and Skills) fails to find a job for about 9% of its members (African Economic, Outlook 2012) making it necessary to use network.

Other data obtained from life stories give consistent results and introduce a broader perspective on the issue of integration of young people. According to the World Bank (2012), in Morocco, the social network has helped to find good jobs, to acquire marketable skills. Regarding entrepreneurship "corruption and cronism represent the dark side of social capital. In both communities’ prosperous and poorer ones, informants noted that the rich use of bribes, kickbacks and political influence to get jobs and permissions required to start a business". These aspects are not taken into account in the report of the Economic and Social Council on Youth Employment in Morocco (Economic and Social Council 2011).

In Tunisia, despite integration measures implemented by the government (SIVP: Internship Integration in Working Life) means research implemented and the family are all variables that highlight the heterogeneity hazard rates in the first job. (Bensedrine 1998, Barbier 2006). Mobility and migration in Arab countries can be a solution, (Arab Labour Organization, 2010).

With regard to migration outside of Arab countries, the role of social capital is relatively well studied (Arcand 2009 and Dos Santos 2005). In Egypt, migration followed by a return in the country has the effect of lowering the capital (relationships interruptions), but this is offset by an increase in the economic and human capital (education) which allows migrants to be better equipped to create a business for example (Wahba, 2012). In Jordan, political crises and migration affect social capital (El-Said, 2009).

The social capital has not only a negative discriminatory impact. Personal contacts provide better information to employers and workers on their respective characteristics (Montgomery, 1991).

New social networks: employment factors?

It is useful to study the effect of Internet social networks compared to traditional network of relationships and to estimate their relative effectiveness. Despite heavy sociological constraints, can the new Internet social networking tools (Facebook, Linkedin, Viadeo among
others) accumulate capital other than by inheritance or family relationships or clan? Indeed, new technologies allow more information on job opportunities, simplify administrative procedures, to train, but also to raise awareness and showcase their skills.

ICT (information and communication technologies) must, by better information, helping to restore the balance of the labour market affected by the role of social capital and the lack of connection between training supply and employment (Khawaga, 2010). These technologies very popular among young North Africans can it contribute to their integration into the labour market by creating new channels of intermediation?

Apart from articles in the press, this issue is not addressed in the scientific literature. One of the few studies on the use of social networks in Arab countries does not address the issue of job search. This study aims to identify, from a random sampling, the profile of users of the Facebook website Arabia (created by a computer Egyptian) and their perception of its role as a cultural-political tool of communication and information (Zamoum, 2012). According Dref Nadia (2010): "employment and in our Moroccan context the most efficient networks are those that you made or that you have built. Virtual social networks have not yet achieved the importance they have in other places." However, a social network for young Algerian and north African was created: http://www.forssat.com.

It is quite useful to develop studies and surveys on the role of transnational social network, especially Internet platforms on youth employment. In the current configuration, the network knowledge is essential to obtain employment while new forms of sociability Internet have, it seems, not yet contributed to reducing inequalities and integration social mobility among young people.

IV. CONDITIONS OF JOB AND BUSINESS CREATION

Policy and regulatory environment that is stable, transparent and incentive is a key element in the development of economic activity. Egypt and Morocco are among the countries that have achieved the most significant progress in improving the business climate since 2005, closely followed by Jordan, enterprising respectively 23, 14 and 14 reforms to facilitate trade (Doing Business, 2012). It may be noted that Algeria and Libya have accumulated a significant delay in North Africa.

Despite a determination across North Africa, the measures take time to bear fruit. The cost and complexity of regulations were the main areas of improvement. Significant deficiencies still persist in the quality of judicial institutions. The fundamental rights of property and the rights of investors are generally less well protected in North Africa than in the rest of the world. Enforcement of contracts and the existence of commercial law, including in bankruptcy, are also deficient (Doing Business, 2012).

Entrepreneurship
We can compare the regulations affecting different steps of the life of a company such as its creation, the development of society, paying taxes, trading across borders and enforcing contracts.

**Graph 4 : Evolution of the number of procedures and time to start up a business by country**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedures (number)</th>
<th>Delay (days)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source : Doing business 2012

The simplification of the procedures to business creation represented an important part of the policy of improving the business climate in the countries of the southern shore of the Mediterranean. Two axes have enabled progress: reducing the number of procedures to register a new business and reducing the processing time of the latter.

**Best Practice International**

**Mexico** : In Mexico, reducing the time required to start a business has impacted on the number of businesses created. According to a study from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT), the number of registrations has increased by 6% and direct employment of around 2.6%.

**Regional Best Practice**

**Morocco** : Without significant developments since a long time but finally operational in 2011, the “guichet unique à la création d’entreprises” centralizes all administrations involved in the process of business creation : the Moroccan Office for Industrial and Commercial Property, Subdivision Taxes, the Commercial Court, the CNS and authentification service.

**Regional Best Practice**

**Egypt** : In 2007, a reform concerning property registration has reduced the total cost of more than 80%. Generating a shock to confidence in entrepreneurship, the reform, despite falling costs recordings, allowed revenue increase of 39%.
In most countries of the region on the southern shore, the minimum capital requirement is justified by the desire to protect creditors, but not only. In the minds of policy makers, a company must have a financial base to guard against the risk of bankruptcy and to ensure optimal operating conditions. Despite remarkable progress made over the last ten years, the requirement of minimum capital remains one of the main obstacles to business creation, in Morocco, the minimum capital still represents 10.7% of income per capita and 30% in Egypt. Egypt, Tunisia and Jordan have them permanently removed the capital requirement.

**Best Practice International**

**Saudi Arabia**: The best student in the MENA region, as well as most parts of the world (including the United Kingdom and France), reformed "business registration" and removed the minimum capital requirement. The consequence was a measurable increase in the number of new businesses by 81%.

**Regional Best Practice**

**Morocco**: Between 2006 and 2008, Morocco divided by more than 50 the minimum capital contributed to the creation of a business (see chart “Minimum Capital paid (% of income per capita)”). Sign of the success of this reform, the number of new companies registered at the national level has increased by 23%.

**Company’s development**

Legal security also requires appropriate licensing schemes for contractors.

**Granting a building permit**
In Egypt, up to 90% of real estate projects would be undertaken without permission. A worrying figure when we consider that entrepreneurs invest up to 40% when the rules are clearly established. However, thanks to the Social Development Fund, young Egyptians had more access to land and agricultural land in particular.

**Best Practice International**

**Georgia**: Between 2005 and 2009, Georgia has undertaken a complete overhaul of its procedures for granting permits. Among others, the authorities have created a “single office” to centralize all services and procedures for granting building permits. The number of procedures has been gradually reduced from 25 to 10, reducing the time needed to complete the formalities of 195-98. Today, the construction industry is the fastest growing sector of the Georgian economy. The built-up area of the city has increased by 463,000 square meters in 2004 to 1.5 millions in 2007, while the building is now 11% of GDP-against 6.3% in 2004.
Payment of taxes

**Graph 7 : Deadline for tax payment and % of gross margin**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Delay (hours per year)</th>
<th>Total to pay (% of gross margin)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source: Doing business 2012</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Best Practice International**

**Colombia** : Simplified tax procedures generally allow increase revenue. In 2007, Colombia set up an electronic system for taxes, PILA, for employer contributions to social security, mandatory for all companies. Since 2008, the number of companies that were registered in the Colombian social security system was increased by 55%, and the contributions of small businesses increases by 42%.

**Regional Best Practice**

**Tunisia** : In 2010, Tunisia has emerged as the country with the most reforms undertaken in order to facilitate the payment of the tax. An electronic platform for payment of corporate income tax and value added has been put in place, and gradually spread to most businesses. The number of annual payments has been reduced to 14 and the number of days spent by a business to pay taxes lowered by 84 days.
Enforcing Contracts

**Graph 8: Number of days of contract execution**

Legal security, translated by the time required for the judicial enforcement of contracts is an essential element of entrepreneurship. Yet this is the point where reform is most difficult, as evidenced by the lack of significant progress made on the implementation of contracts throughout the region since 2004.

**Regional Best Practice**

**Morocco** : Even within countries on the southern shores of the Mediterranean, substantial differences occur between countries. Morocco’s case is emblematic.

In the southern part of the kingdom, major reforms have been undertaken to promote the business climate: the settlement of commercial litigation takes on average 303 days. Shorter time than in Paris or Istanbul made possible by the proliferation of commercial courts.

By contrast, in the port city of Kenitra-north of Rabat-it takes 735 days for the settlement of commercial litigations: as long as Nepal and a little longer than in Benin.

The stakes are hight for entrepreneurs according to the Doing Business report, if Casablanca adopted the best practices in Morocco (Agadir those), Morocco should move up to 51th place worldwide on this indicator, not to 114th.
V. THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK FOR ACCESS TO EMPLOYMENT

Youth, social security and employment protection

The wage-setting mechanisms, legislation relating to employment protection, the regulation of fixed-term contracts and the characteristics of the system of taxation and benefits are often seen as having an impact on the youth access to the labour market. According to the ILO, they play a crucial role in matching supply and demand. In fact, the Arab countries have established pension plans and institutions relating thereto in recent decades, but they are not a lot to have developed a coherent national policy and social security including social insurance and services and transfers not subject to contributions. Only Algeria has developed an unemployment insurance fund, the NACC.

In Morocco, according to the World Bank (2012), approximately 88% of young employees have no employment contract. Thus, most young people work in the informal sector, as in other countries in the MENA region. The report also underlines that only 11.4% of young people who have a job contributing to the Social Security Fund and only 9.7% have health insurance.

The lack of transparency in access to employment, lack of effective social protection and the problems faced by youth in labour standards are often causes inactivity and frustration as just being one of the causes of revolutions and movements related to the Arab Spring.

Young people and their place in the informal economy

The informal economy is defined as the set of units that do not have a full accounting in accordance with accounting regulations, occupies an important place in the overall national employment countries covered by the study and represents an exit for the many unemployed youth.

This sector is therefore a response to the phenomena of social and economic exclusion and allows a large number of young people to earn an income and get a job instead of staying unemployed. The implications are manifold: vulnerability to insecurity and low wages typical of the informal sector; discouragement affecting young people more educated.

At a workshop on employability, in Algiers by the World Bank, Mohamed Saib Musette (2011) states that the informal private sector excluding agriculture represents a share of 37%. In Tunisia, according to the ILO (2012), it is easier to find work if you are not qualified of higher education because the majority of jobs are created in the informal economy, in low-skilled sectors such as agriculture or trade. But these are hardly paying jobs and working conditions can be dangerous. Egypt also is the informal economy that creates most new jobs (ILO, 2012). In Morocco, the informal economy plays an important role in the overall national employment. Informal employment represents almost 40% of total non-agricultural employment. The informal sector dominates the urban sphere with 71.6% of production units.
Table 14 : Part of the informal economy and employment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Share in the economy (all sectors)</th>
<th>Share in employment (non-agricultural)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>41.3%</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>45.9%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>…</td>
<td>…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marocco</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>26.2%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources : Amadeus 2012 and national data

The share of the informal sector in each country reflects the lack of action on the part of the State in the field of employment and labour law. This can also be explained by the rise in unemployment that undermines salaried jobs.

The lack of data and economic studies on the subject prevents us from distinguishing the specific country and recommend appropriate policies.

The question of the greater number of young people exposed to intermittent employment, precarious and poorly paid in informal sector deserves special attention and requires further investigation given its scale and social visibility in urban and rural areas of the country of the Maghreb, Egypt and Jordan.

VI. THE NATIONAL AUTHORITIES RESPONSIBLE FOR EMPLOYMENT

National schemes

Summary of active employment policies instruments

Given the scale of youth unemployment, each country followed its own approach to try to put in place mechanisms or policy instruments presented in the table below.
Table 15 : Proposed model of comparative analysis of instruments of active employment policies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scheme</th>
<th>Morocco</th>
<th>Algeria</th>
<th>Tunisia</th>
<th>Libya</th>
<th>Egypt</th>
<th>Jordan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of intermediation</td>
<td>Public intermediation with limited scope</td>
<td>Segmented Intermediation</td>
<td>Public service monopoly</td>
<td>Public service monopoly</td>
<td>Public service monopoly</td>
<td>Public intermediation with limited scope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investment Undertakings</td>
<td>ANAPEC, Private agencies</td>
<td>ANEM, CNAC, Private agencies</td>
<td>ANETI, Private agencies</td>
<td>Employment offices</td>
<td>Employment offices</td>
<td>National Employment Centre, Private agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information on the labour market</td>
<td>ANAPEC, Observatory</td>
<td>ANEM, ONS Observatory</td>
<td>ANETI, INTS,</td>
<td>Ministry of the labour forces and Emigration</td>
<td>Ministry of labour, National employment Center</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment benefits</td>
<td>No unemployment compensation</td>
<td>CNAC</td>
<td>No unemployment compensation</td>
<td>No unemployment compensation</td>
<td>No unemployment compensation</td>
<td>No unemployment compensation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management of active programs</td>
<td>ANAPEC, National promotion</td>
<td>CNAC, ADS, ANSEJ, ANGEM</td>
<td>ANETI,</td>
<td>Public Management</td>
<td>Public Management</td>
<td>Public Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Credit contract of insertion + Employment training (Permanent contract)</td>
<td>Employment training</td>
<td>Credit contract of insertion (Permanent contract)</td>
<td>Credit contract of insertion + Employement training (Permanent contract)</td>
<td>Partnership with the associative sector</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information and orientation agencies (ANAPEC)</td>
<td>CNAC</td>
<td>ANETI, National training plan</td>
<td>Employment offices</td>
<td>National Employment Centre</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National and regional training plan</td>
<td>National and regional training plan</td>
<td>National training plan</td>
<td>National training plan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors

Intermediation channels are predominantly public with relative efficiency. Only Algeria proposes a system of unemployment compensation. Instruments consist mainly of standard contracts for youth and vocational training system.
Details of employment agencies shows that there are a multitude of stakeholders makes it difficult to put in place a comprehensive strategy.

**Tunisia**

In Tunisia, the labour market is under the authority of the Ministry of Employment and Professional Integration of Youth. The Department has a National Agency for Employment and Independent Work (ANETI), monopolizing management requests and job offers. It has an extensive network of 83 branches covering the country, allowing for approximately 450 unemployed for each agent. It comes to realize 100,000 investments per year. In parallel with this agency, the government established the Tunisian Agency for Technical Cooperation (ATCT). Since its inception in 1972, it provides overseas placement skills.

Private institutions responsible for employment market intermediation include business services (particularly in the areas of selection tests and skills assessments), companies subcontracting and temporary work, which are allowed to carry on the labor market (Manpower, Adecco ...). The trade union landscape in Tunisia is characterized by the monopoly of the Tunisian General Labour Union (UGTT).

**Morocco**

In Morocco, the Ministry of Employment and Vocational Training is responsible for the labour market. A National Agency for the Promotion of Employment and Skills (ANAPEC) has recently been created, but with limited means, and as "a public enterprise in the service of employers and employees." To be most effective, the agency has launched a series of initiatives to improve its knowledge of the private sector, including several studies on the skills needs of companies in different regions. 24 agencies covering the whole territory.

It should also be noted the existence of a Social Development Agency (ADS), Houses Youth, Children, Vocational Training Centres, professional institutes specialized technicians and many private agencies. Four unions (of 17 existing) dominate the landscape union in Morocco: Moroccan Labour Union (UMT), the General Union of Workers of Morocco (UGTM), the Democratic Labour Confederation (CDT) and the Democratic Federation of Labour (FDT).

**Algeria**

In Algeria, regulation of the labour market is primarily the responsibility of the Ministry of Labour and Employment and Social Security. A National Employment Agency (ANEM) also exists, with 167 agencies across the country, and has the legal monopoly intermediation role of employment (but not actually). Only 10% of job applications pass through this institution being reformed. A National Agency for Supporting Youth Employment (ANSEJ) has been operational since 1997, created to combat youth unemployment. It has 53 agencies across the country. Also, the National Agency of Microcredit (ANGEM) was founded in 1999 (49 coordination in Wilaya) and a Social Development Agency (ADS). A National Fund for Unemployment Insurance benefits before disbursement (CNAC). The UGTA (General Union of Algerian Workers) exerts an almost total monopoly on the trade union field.
Egypt

In Egypt, the labour market is under the Ministry of the Labour Forces and Emigration. The Department has a hundred employment offices distributed throughout the country. These offices are assigned the placement of job seekers both in the country and abroad. According to official statistics, on the total of the opportunities created, these offices have placed 31% in the local private sector, against 42% abroad, while 10% were employed directly by local private companies, and 17% placed by the offices of private placements. A single federation of trade unions exists in Egypt: "Egyptian Trade Union Federation", it includes 2.5 million members in 23 sectoral unions. This federation is controlled by the authorities.

Jordan

In Jordan, the labour market is the responsibility of the Ministry of Labour. Twenty-two labour exchanges exist in the country and are under the National Employment Centre, but are deemed unsuitable. We also note, 34 private equity companies registered with the Ministry of Labour. But nearly 90% of job seekers have never used such public or private agencies. 17 unions and professional associations exist in Jordan, grouped under the umbrella of "the General Union of Trade Unions of Jordan."

The intervention of these bodies lack of harmony and coordination between these different components. Institutions of the labour market are largely deficient in the six countries covered by the study: confusion in the role of Ministry, inefficient employment agencies, weak systems of unemployment insurance, unique union controlled by the authorities or multiple unions highly politicized. These deficiencies have a crucial impact on unemployment. Instead of reforming these institutions depth, the authorities are mainly oriented towards ultraliberalism with microcredit agencies and the creation of microenterprises.

VII. ACTIVE EMPLOYMENT POLICIES

In this section, we will try to analyze the extent to which current programs initiated by national and international bodies responsible for employment in the Maghreb countries, Egypt and Jordan, to meet the needs of social and professional integration of young people. To do this, we will proceed to an analysis of active labour market policies (ALMP) undertaken in recent years, particularly those targeting disadvantaged and less educated youth.

Definition of active employment policies

The active employment policies are defined as "The set of public interventions on the labour market, to correct any imbalances and / or limit the adverse effects of the latter" (Barbier, 1998). Whether subsidies on wages and on employment, training and retraining of the unemployed, programs of direct job creation or job search services, ALMPs refer to important and varied interventions adopted in developed countries and developing countries. These measures designed to create employment opportunities and manage risks in the labour market.
The weight of these mechanisms and their success differs from one country to another (Tzannatos, 2002). Global experiences show that there is not a standard format or standard active public policy. Each country chooses an approach that is unique to integrate its youth as its sociopolitical and cultural context. In this context, the ILO noted that several countries have their particular policy sector to create jobs for young people (ILO, 2005).

For example, the European Employment Strategy, which organizes the coordination of the employment policies of the Member States of the EU on common principles, is based on four main dimensions (TELLING, 2007):

- the development of labour supply
- activation and formation
- flexibility and transparency of the labour market
- limiting the cost of labour.

**Active policies of employment in the service of young Arab**

Macroeconomic policies of employment revolve around the main axes focused on accelerating the pace of economic growth, investment promotion, encouragement of private initiative and entrepreneurship. These policies are complemented by active treatment of the labour market through a range of measures and microeconomic programs. The table below provides an overview of the measures taken in favor of youth employment classified according to the analytical framework of our study. There is no information on Libya. As you can see, it is in Tunisia and Morocco that the range of policies and programs is the most complete and where there is the weakest unemployment rate of young people, including women.
Table 15: Measures and programs for employment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Improving the legal and institutional framework</th>
<th>Incentives/support for supply</th>
<th>Improved information on the labour market</th>
<th>Better Match between training/employment</th>
<th>Business creation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>Creation of an observatory of Vocational Training and Employment</td>
<td>Project to support the implementation of the policy of preservation and promotion of employment, UNDP (1997), ETF (2011)</td>
<td>Creation of social network Forsat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>Creating ANAPEC and ADS</td>
<td>exempt businesses charge for training-insertion (1993), State reimburses half the wages of young people in business (1997)</td>
<td>Creation of ANAPEC and ADS</td>
<td>Imdaj additional training program (2006); Taahil training and certification program; MEDA I and MEDA II projects; specialized training institutions.</td>
<td>young entrepreneurs receive loans (1994); Moukawalati support and financial advice</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Granting agricultural land developed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>financial and technical support</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>NOW program for women: wage subsidies and training for employability accompanied by an impact assessment</td>
<td></td>
<td>National Centre for Human Resources Development</td>
<td></td>
<td>Development and Employment fund</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors
**ALMPs Tunisian**

The Tunisian economy is characterized by a strong public sector presence especially in the sectors of industry, agriculture and services. However, since the mid-1980s, an extensive restructuring program of the national economy was established. In addition, in early 1990, a Partnership Agreement with the European Union (free trade zone) has launched a major project to upgrade the economy and human resources. In this sense, the country has privatized all public enterprises operating in industrial production and services, which has led to the emergence of a market economy increasingly integrated into the global economy.

The Government has devoted significant resources to assist the integration of the labour market. Indeed, the financial resources for ALMPs, the main instruments of government intervention to assist the unemployed and job seekers to integrate into the labour market, totaled more than 1% of GDP. A rate comparable to OECD countries most involved in the ALMPs.

Support programs for integration, vocational adjustment and incentive / self-employment development through the creation of micro-enterprises have been implemented (Halleb, 2006) according to the following principles:

- public employment services (creation of employment agencies);
- training programs and retraining for the unemployed;
- targeted measures for young, placement programs (internships), vocational training;
- wage subsidies;
- microcredit and other support to entrepreneurs

In regard to the adaptation of education and training systems, we cite the Upgrading of Vocational Training (MANFORME) and the creation of a National Centre responsible for Continuing Education (CNFCPP). In addition, employment programs implemented include support programs for integration in paid employment such as, to name a few, the National Employment Fund which aims to train in specialties that are in demand on the labour market. Other programs are assistance programs for the promotion of micro-enterprises and self-employment such as the National Fund for the Promotion of Crafts and Small Businesses (FONAPRAM), established in 1981, the Bank of Tunisia Solidarity was established in 1997 and whose objective is the financing of microcredit (4000 dinars) and micro-enterprises (100,000 dinars) without warranty.

These programs offer, as well, further training to all beneficiaries and require high insertion rates. These include: the Internship Introduction to Professional Life, designed for graduates, and the Integration Contract of Graduates of Higher Education (CIDES) intended for graduates who are unemployed and looking for a job for at least three months (Mezouaghi 2006). Industrial, commercial, craft or services, as well as farms can accommodate young trainees under the Contract Job Training "CEF" (created in 1981). (And BEN Halleb SEDRINE, 2006).
The evaluation of performances of all these programs implemented shows that the poorest groups do not fully benefit from the advantages offered. In addition, the unemployment rate for hight graduates is on the rise. And said, in a context where integration problems persist and where instruments implemented are insufficient, the Tunisian government has initiated a major reform of the active employment policy which resulted in a reduction in employment programs in March 2009 and the implementation of programs that specifically target specific groups.

The main objective of the second project Employment and Training funded by a World Bank is to increase the competitiveness of the Tunisian economy. This project resulted in the creation of an Observatory for Employment and Skills (ONEQ) in 2000. But the division of the Ministry of Vocational Training and Employment is a problem of institutional anchoring of ONEQ.

The year after the events of the Arab Spring and to better respond to market needs, the Tunisian Government has developed a new strategy called AMAL ("Hope"), which was launched on 1 March 2011. The program aims to provide to 200,000 unemployed graduates personalized support based on their skills assessments. These unemployed perceive against the training they will receive a monthly allowance of 200 DT. (ADB, 2011).

A recent briefing note produced by the Ideas program (2012) a list of recommendations:

- better coordination between all public actors,
- have a catalog detailing the nomenclature trades
- implement an emergency plan to save threatened jobs and companies in difficulty
- Encourage international organized migration, labour force and particularly high level of qualification,
- adopt a sectoral policy based on the consolidation of sectors with high added value and potential of intensive skilled labour
- break with development policies developed centrally,
- integrate the future participation of regions in the definition, management and evaluation of reforms and actions required.

**ALMPs Moroccan**

Since 1980, vocational training known in Morocco, a process of upgrading, aiming to the gradual restructuring of the sector to enable it to produce the skills development of the country. According to Bernard Forucade (2006), the reform started, is clearly oriented towards the needs of businesses, and fails to take into account the social demands with the exception of the French language, Forgemont (2012).

In 1993, after diagnosis of the situation, CNJA resulted in a first law to incentive for businesses to hire young graduates: state exempts charges companies.
In 1994, a fund for the promotion of employment is established, it allows recent graduates wishing to start their own business to receive a loan.

The Moroccan authorities have introduced a new Program of Action for Employment (PAE) from 1997, which aims to promote the integration of graduates in employment in the private sector (Bouharrou, 2001).

In October 1997, the "young-job-training" program, that aims to put 20,000 graduates each year in business, has been implemented. However, in 1997, these programs have hardly been the source of more than a thousand hires. In practice, these companies reported "employment" but only the state paid its share. In addition, after 18 months of internship under the contract between the company and the state, and despite the incentives developed by the latter, young people were not integrated into the company. (Mohamed, 2011)

At the level of active labour market program, Morocco launched a series of specific and proactive measures particularly since 2006 - Imdaj Programs, and Taahil Moukawalati - on the initiative of the Ministry of Employment.

The Imdaj program aims to develop young graduate’s skills with a first professional experience in a company. Launched in 2006, it allows students to acquire additional training adapted to the needs of companies in order to facilitate their integration into working life and offers tax and social exemptions. It also provides for the establishment of training / insertion schemes to ensure improved social protection to beneficiaries of training / insertion contracts following recruitment under a permanent contract upon the assumption by the state of the employer's share for one year. (Kharoufi 2009). There were 172,000 insertions at the end of 2009 (more than 10% of the target), and a percentage of women insertion of 43%.

Taahil program is for young job seekers and provides two types of training: (i) a training under contract to meet the needs of new recruits and (ii) a certified skills training or retraining to improve their chances of entering into the labour market. The TAEHIL program had a completion rate of 70% (35,000) of the initial objective assigned for the 2007-2009 period and a completion rate of 78% of the objective enshrined in the Action Plan ANAPEC of 2009 (14000 beneficiaries).

The Moukawalati program, for the creation of very small businesses, encourages young graduates to work on their behalf. It provides services easy to understand, that correspond to the necessary steps to create a business. On the other hand, this program facilitates access to finance (secured and advanced business), which is implemented by delegating guarantees bank loans to regional offices of banks. Regarding MOUKAWALATI program, beneficiaries are active interested in developing projects with total investment does not exceed 250,000 dirhams. It is nearly 2,300 businesses founded between 2007 and 2009, some 8,000 jobs, or an average of 3.5 jobs per project.

Three programs to support employment, described above, showed the government's ability to implement large-scale projects through ANAPEC. The assessment was made of these projects by AFD (2011) can already conclude that they respond to a request of employers and young workers. Remains a doubt about their impact and the possibility to further expand to participate in the reduction of youth unemployment. In particular, support for
entrepreneurship remains the most complex area to implement on a large scale and this issue deserves an evaluation, given the low number of beneficiaries Moukawalati (AFD, 2011).

It is also clear from the Moroccan experience that the gap between the public offering employment and social demand is obvious. In this perspective, the study of El Aoufi (2011) pointed out the discrepancy between the relatively high cost of public policies and interventions for the reduction of youth unemployment, and the results considered unsatisfactory. In this context, the report of the World Bank (2012) reported that the lack of coordination among the many agencies providing these services to youth, led to a fragmented coverage and a certain ambiguity. Reform of the labour market is supported, technically and financially by various donors (World Bank, European Union, France, Germany, Canada, Belgium, Italy and Spain) through several projects. Following the MEDA I project, which involved already upgrading of vocational training, the MEDA II, supported by the European Union and carried out under the authority of the Ministry in charge of training, retained the sectoral approach as the most relevant. (Fourcade, 2006)

**ALMPs Algerian**

Algeria has a natural resource, oil, that is managed by the State and that has a very significant impact on the economy and influence the nature of the decisions, the types of governance and institutions. That is why, at the active employment policy level, the State remains a major employer in Algeria. Economic policies implemented during the years 70-80 were different from those implemented by Morocco or Tunisia. These two countries had started early economic reforms while Algeria has started its reforms much later in the 1990s and the economy was highly protected (Carnegie Middle East Center, 2010)

Thus, in Algeria, youth policy tends to move towards an intersectoral and general approach. Indeed, public policy for young people covers many areas: unemployment, job training, drug prevention, education, non-formal and sports. There is no yet coordination between ministries responsible for youth issues (Rarrbo).

Algeria has established with UNDP in 1997 a project name "Support to the implementation of the policy of preservation and promotion of employment" to support the national strategy based on incentives for productive investment by the private sector and the development of SMEs (Small and Medium Enterprises), the effective opening of the banking and financial sector to international competition, improving the competitiveness and productivity of public and private Algerian companies and the restructuring of public sector. This project consisted of three major aspects, including the desire to promote the improvement of information on employment and training:

(i) support the implementation of the national strategy for employment, training and learning

(ii) strengthen the conceptual and operational capacities of national institutions and private partners in the areas of employment assistance, management programs and associated measures for the implementation of the statistical system

(iii) strengthen the capacities of central agencies and of the Ministry of Labour (Fourcade, 2006).
This project ended in 2001 without producing the expected results, was reopened in 2011 with the help of the European Training Foundation (ETF) and of a "project group" including representatives of the main actors in the employment / training. This group has promoted a dynamic in which the officers of the department of vocational training have played a role, seeking to closely associate the information on employment and vocational training. The group's work led to the design of an Observatory for Vocational Training and Employment (OFPE), that would not be a new structure, but a new function organized under the form of an intersectoral network. It is too early to judge whether this double creation will encourage the production of missing information for the control of employment policies and vocational training, through proper coordination of efforts, or if it will cause new problems, causing for example, conflicting approaches, as there was about the extent of unemployment (Edjekouane, 1998).

**ALMPs Egyptian**

Egypt has adopted a number of measures to promote the employability of young people, especially young graduates in the public and private sectors. Interest has also been given to the creation of micro-enterprises for the benefit of young people. Thus, the Social Development Fund was created by public authorities to support medium and industrial micro-enterprises to achieve profits graduates by providing them agricultural land developed. Another program, "We work young", aimed at creating 4.5 million jobs. It supported the creation of micro-enterprises for youth in facilitating their access to bank loans and technical support in order to market their products.

Among the programs implemented by the Egyptian government, there are:

- The "Housing for the Future" program which aims to provide housing at reasonable prices for youth;
- The national project for capacity building of young graduates to improve their employability;
- The "young companions" which aims to provide agricultural land equipped, with a housing and a micro farming project in the field of industry or services. (Youssef, 2011).

In Egypt, the Mubarak-Kohl Initiative (Kanyenze, Mhone and Sparreboom, 2001) on vocational training is a project that intends to institutionalize the dual apprenticeship system and the concept of cost management between public industry and private sector throughout the technical education system in the country. To achieve this purpose, pilot projects have been implemented in order to better understand the strengths and weaknesses of the dual apprenticeship system and its ability to adapt to the local environment and encourage the private sector to make contribution (for example, by funding, internship offers).

Similarly, the national program of technical education and vocational training (national technical and vocational education and training (TVET)) aims to support the reform process to promote human and institutional capacities to devising and implementing this program of promotion of business in seven business sectors.
In order to assist the policy change and supporting Egypt, the World Bank Group emphasizes inclusiveness, transparency, accountability and the urgent need to increase economic opportunities for all Egyptians, until December 2013. The new strategy of the Bank for this country will be accompanied by a project to create immediate jobs with the launch of a program of major projects in the most vulnerable communities. The World Bank Group will support the creation of jobs and provide technical assistance to improve the quality of education and create a climate conducive to growth by relying on the private sector.

**ALMPs Jordanian**

The authorities have created a "development fund and employment" which provides loans to young entrepreneurs and a "National Centre of Human Resources Development" more focused on training.

In terms of active employment policies, the pilot program "New Opportunities for Women in Jordan" (NOW Jordan) is intended to rigorously evaluate the effectiveness of two active employment policies: on the one hand, the short-term wage subsidies and secondly, training for employability. Wage subsidies in the short term (a “bonus” of six months of minimum wage) are a motivation for companies to seize the opportunity to hire young graduates. This project helps to combat stereotypes directly alongside young women at work, thus increasing the demand for female labour force. Despite a predominantly urban population and educated, it’s in Jordan that the unemployment rate of women is higher and reached 18.3%.

Employability formations, strengthen the technical skills that graduates learn in a community college by practical skills required to find employment and succeed in the job. Although this pilot intervention is still underway, preliminary results suggest that there is a strong demand for these policies. According to the baseline survey, 93% of new female graduates say they intend to work when they will be graduate and 91% say they want to work outside the home after marriage. 62% of girls invited to attend the training courses completed it, married women are much less likely to attend. Four months after the launch of wage subsidies program, about a third of those who received “bonus” were employed in using them (NOW Jordan).

The report of the European Training Fundation (2005) based on a detailed analysis of the unemployment problem in Jordan makes a number of useful recommendations:

- Develop local infrastructure or network services on the youth labour
- Increase the potential benefits of center of registration process for youth employment and institutions of technical education
- Improve access to credit
- Provide basic training in entrepreneurship and business
- Redefining a dual training system in partnership with the private sector
Critical review of active employment policies

The state of integration policies of young people in these countries has helped to highlight both successes and failures. Certainly, the various measures implemented over the past twenty five years have not eliminated the social and economic problems that still affect a significant proportion of young, but it is established that the accompanying devices have, in many cases, prevented a permanent exclusion and ensure the stability of political regimes in some countries. It is in this sense that we can say that beyond the return to work, which must remain the horizon of integration policies, it also have a role of protecting public order even though the high cost of revolutions in North Africa in terms of economic growth and transfers to households to stabilize the situation, are certainly higher than active employment policies well structured to reduce unemployment while improving growth potential, as reported by Ould Zeidane (2011).

Despite the diversity of measures implemented by the countries targeted by the study, evaluations of these programs show that these policies have been inefficient (Mathlouthi and Mezouaghi, 2006). The World Bank report on Morocco (2011) found that current programs against youth unemployment are characterized by dysfunction knowing that the majority of these programs targeted mainly graduates of higher education in this countries. However, these graduates represent only 5% of young unemployed, thus leaving the rest of the unemployed without any program. (El Aoufi, 2005). Graduates are better prepared to organize in association to promote collective claims than non-graduates. They therefore receive more attention from political authorities.

The Tunisian State has long used some of these devices to support employment, but since the 1990s, their focus has expanded to cover different areas and beneficiaries. Nevertheless, the main objective is the same: to help the unemployed to find a job and improve their skills. The study of Touzi (2008) showed that the youth policy, established in the early 90s was an economic policy, strongly influenced by the political crisis with the Islamist movement. It was basically authoritarian, vertical, non-participatory and even anti-participatory, and oriented towards social needs and political support.

Similarly, it is clear that active programs for the labour market available today in most countries covered by the survey do not affect populations of disadvantaged youth. Unemployment, underemployment and poor employment, particularly in the informal sector have not yet been targeted by government intervention, whether in urban areas or in poor rural areas.

The lack of access to credit is another problem that hinders the inclusion of young people from the disadvantaged population groups. Indeed, the cumbersome administrative procedures, the difficulty of raising funds from banks and high interest rates on loans, continue to discourage young people to take initiatives to create jobs. Public measures in place to help young people to start their own businesses have enabled some young people succeed in their projects. Other young people have seen their businesses fail. However, the available data do not allow us to fully understand the factors that failure (the role of the state in supporting young entrepreneurs, the type of degree, the locality, the nature of the project, the real difficulties, ... ). Also present data do not allow us to have a clear idea about the types of young people who have failed in their projects.
In conclusion, it is therefore clear from the analysis of public employment policies that there are not, in the countries covered by the study, specific policies for young people since all the measures taken in this direction are measures of general scope. Outside Jordan, there is little projects specifically young women.

Despite the importance of public schemes that help integrate young people into society and despite the clearly posted in the political discourse to support young job seekers, integration difficulties of young Arab persist in their societies.

However, recent changes taking place in the Arab countries also show the potential and determination to meet these challenges. They carry a lot of promise for the Arab youth that have an important social and economic significance. Certainly, employment programs are important in public strategies of the countries studied but without adequate macroeconomic framework and a good knowledge of the job market (supply and demand), these policies can hardly be effective. An effective policy for generations of youth employment must be integrated into a comprehensive strategy to create jobs through economic growth, high employment intensity. It is therefore as recommended by the ILO to adopt policies at the macro-economic that allows to examine the problems of youth employment in terms of job growth.

**Conclusion and recommendations**

**Knowledge on youth employment and future surveys**

The study on employment and social protection of young people outline the available knowledges on employability policies of young people in the Arab countries in the Mediterranean. The study provides sufficient lighting along several axes such as supply and demand in the labour market, human capital (education) and social access to information, the legal framework for access to the employment, social dialogue, creating the conditions for business and jobs, the national authorities responsible for employment and active employment policies.

A bibliographic database was created, classifying 215 documents studied by topic, language, keywords, and providing the Internet link and summary. A statistical analysis of the basis can produce the following table:
Table 16: Structure of the database on youth employment

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<th>Thesis</th>
<th>Reference Work</th>
<th>Rapport</th>
<th>Note</th>
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Issues related to the integration of young, job-training adequacy, economy, youth employment policies, labour market, social mobilization and mobility are relatively well covered. But issues of social networks, working conditions, demographic and business creation in practice do not seem covered in the literature. The relationship between the supply of training and the labour market is very well studied, but little seems to be clear policies, as evidenced by the continued distribution of graduates by sector, for example.

There is very little written on youth in certain countries such as Libya, for example. Data on underemployment are not available or accessible, highly fragmented and very limited and cause problems of comparability. In addition, data are not published regularly except in Egypt and Morocco and are especially very little disaggregated by major demographic characteristics, including age. This lack of data requires conducting surveys combining quantitative and qualitative approaches to understand the question of a social and economic integration of young people in society and in the economy. At this step it is important to explore the relationship between young people with the labour market.

It is also important to carefully examine the problem of lack of access of young people to information and the means of production (resources, capital ...) and its impact on their integration. The use of certain families of young children work in the informal sector or to craft for boys, or as domestic servants in urban households in the case of rural girls deserves further research. However, there is no information on this sensitive subject. The informal sector for the majority of young people is a viable alternative in terms of income and job search despite all the physical and institutional difficulties they can face and meager income.
they can expect. This fact deserves special attention to appreciate its scale and social visibility in cities and in the countryside.

There are some studies and baseline surveys that provide analytical and useful frameworks:

- The work of the ILO

- The World Bank report on Morocco "Promoting opportunities and participation of young people" (2012) which addresses the issue of the integration of youth from different aspects

- The Egyptian survey “Survey of Young People in Egypt” (Sype) which provides a framework for comprehensive analysis

- The work of the High Commission for Planning in Morocco

- The Euromed report for the case studies and statistics, despite some problems of comparability

- A note on employment in Tunisia performed by the Ideas program

- The report of the European Training Fundation on unemployment in Jordan

To develop and complete them, we propose:

1. Support the Libyan government to conduct studies and surveys on youth employment and active employment policies

2. Achieve a regional survey among young people on the basis of investigation Egypt Sype

3. Harmonize the mechanisms of production data on unemployment

4. Take into account gender, age and socio-economic groups in studies on youth employment

5. Conduct studies on working conditions, including child

6. Conduct studies on the practice of internships and job insecurity

7. Improve documentation the administrative regional mobility (visas, work contracts for foreigners)

8. Promote studies in Arabic

9. Produce and provide international data on the distribution of graduates by sector
10. Conduct studies on the role of social networks on access to employment and the integration of young people.

Findings on youth employment

Given the extent of graduate unemployment, governments in these countries have implemented public policies promoting employment-based on Action – Employment program, skills training, credit young developers and contractors, business incubators program, sectoral agreements of employment and the system of microcredit. However, the analysis of government policies shows that employment is not the topic of a specific policy for young people since all the measures taken in this direction have a general scope and affect all categories of population, which in turn contributes to the ignorance of the reality of Arab youth. More generally, the results of this study provide an overview of the status of youth in the countries covered by the study. Public mechanisms are not efficient enough to cope with labour market reforms, nor able to implement macro-economic strategies needed to ensure long-term growth for the integration of young people into the market of employment.

The withdrawal of the State as an employer of choice in most of the countries studied has a direct impact on the labour market. The withdrawal of the State from productive sectors participated in the rise of graduate unemployment and stagnating employment, particularly in the public service. Recent developments in national macroeconomic context have not benefited all categories of young people, especially graduates of middle and higher levels. The high rate of illiterate young people shows the great deficiency plaguing the education system in the countries studied.

Similarly, in the field of vocational training, programs offered are rarely based on a good knowledge of the job market and those reserved for girls in particular are mostly restricted to learning sewing, cooking, etc… The dropout and illiteracy motivate young people to work in low-paid jobs, which do not allow a better inclusion of young people in their socioeconomic environment. The poorly paid work has a negative impact on young people and may cause them to adopt unhealthy lifestyles.

Vulnerability and fragility of the job market and the non-inclusion of young people in the economy explain the desire to emigrate burden on the majority of Arab youth. It is imperative to pay more attention to issues such as youth participation in the reform and democratic governance, and encourage cooperation between sectors on priority development needs.

The intervention of international bodies responsible for employment provided undeniable proof of the need for cooperation and enhanced complementarity between research, policy and practice in the field of youth, as well as between actors of youth in the countries studied, in particular because of the increasing problems in recent years, expanding the range of activities and ensuring complementarity between the activities undertaken by each of these instances. The establishment of a regional program for monitoring the issue of youth employment, the literature on best practices, exchange of experiences in these countries and with the outside could be a point of departure. As such, the Global Partnership for Education is an example to follow regarding the dialogue in international fora and technical support provided for the financial implementation of well-planned policies. (Varly, 2012).
Recommendations and an Action Agenda for Employment in the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership are developed to improve intermediation systems. Thus, to meet the alarming challenge of employment in the Euro-Mediterranean region, the project "Euromed Employment" provides, in the long term, to develop policies to ensure growth to create a sufficient number of jobs to absorb the increase in the labour force and in the short term, adopt active employment policies to ensure the right to work for each of the partner countries. The emergence of new governments and new constitutions provides an ideal opportunity to launch a new dialogue on how best to help young people achieve their full potential (World Bank on Morocco 2012).

**Operational recommendations**

Based on recommendations from the country studies and the diagnosis in this report we are able to make the following proposals:

1. Streamline intermediation devices in ensuring do not multiply agencies and observatories;

2. Improve the efficiency of public investment agencies by defining a purpose in terms of placement rates;

3. Take measures to ban child labour;

4. Develop courses of technical and scientific education in cooperation with private companies;

5. Centralize the management of vocational training system;

6. Establish a regulatory framework to oversee non-accredited institutions to avoid the formation of poor quality;

7. Encourage regional and organized emigration, labour and particularly high level of qualification;

8. Improve information on job vacancies online;

9. Enable SMEs to publish job offers at reasonable rates

10. Develop training modules on entrepreneurship;

11. Experience in other countries, the Jordanian program NOW grant and training for young women;

12. Experience in other countries, the program Moroccan or Tunisian program Idmaj introductory courses in Professional Life (SIVP).
Glossary

- **Labour productivity:** at the macroeconomic level, labour productivity is the ratio of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and employed population, over a given period.

- **The rate of activity:** report of the working population in the working age population, varies according to age, gender and place of residence.

- **The concept of inactive:** are considered inactive pupils, students, housewives (including young housewives), retirees, pensioners, disabled or sick people, the elderly.

- **The concept of active:** population potentially ready to contribute to the production of goods and services in the nation. At this level, there are some who actually participates in this production is the labour force, they constitute the employed working population.

- **Underemployment:** is generally classified into two categories:
  - **visible underemployment:** which includes insufficient time jobs, involuntary part-time or temporary work;
  - **invisible underemployment:** that includes work with low productivity (Holger, 2005).

- **Unemployed:** according to the ILO, "unemployed" include all persons above a specified age who during the reference period were both:
  - "Without work, that is to say, they were not in paid employment or were not self-employment;
  - Available to work: they were available for paid employment or self-employment during the reference period;
  - Looking for a job: they had taken specific steps in a specified reference period to seek paid employment or self-employment. "(African Economic Outlook, 2012) and (ILO / Key indicators on the labour Market, 2012).

Forms of unemployment are numerous and include:

- case-independence of their own will (when it is believed that the work is not available locally or report not having the grade or qualification or experience to get a job);

- Where people consider themselves too young or are people with disabilities to find employment;
- **Unemployment rate**: expresses the share of unemployed in the labour force.

It goes without saying that the unemployment rate is defined as a hidden reality in a population with inactive status such as students or students.

- **Discouraged workers rate** among young people, is similar to the rate of youth unemployment, but reports of young people who gave up looking for a job.

- **The overall unemployment rate for young people**: adds the rate of discouraged young workers in the youth unemployment rate which adds discouraged youth in the labour force.

- **The youth rate of NEET**: it is another indicator of the rate of youth unemployment. It calculates the total number of unemployed youth not attending education or training (NEET) in proportion to the age group. A youth is considered NEET if he left the school system, does not work and he is not training.

- **The concept of job search**: this term is used in the broadest sense, the job search is related or not to the will of the young. The reference period for job search is 24 hours, last week for people who have not worked the previous day, month and if necessary the year for seasonal activities. A first distinction is to separate active and inactive.

- **The active employment policies (PAE)**: are all public interventions in the labour market, to correct any imbalances and / or mitigate the adverse effects of the latter (Barbier, 1998).
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