

YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

CHALLENGES AND POLICY RESPONSES IN
THE ARAB MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES



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Introduction

Since the global economic crisis, youth employment prospects have worsened continuously throughout the world, in developed, transition and developing countries alike. The situation is particularly acute in the Arab Mediterranean countries (AMCs)¹ as a result of additional specific factors. As well as the global economic crisis, some countries experienced extraordinary political changes in what is now called the Arab Spring. ‘Employment, Liberty, Dignity’ was the slogan of the Jasmin Revolution of January 2011 in Tunisia, which created a domino effect across the whole region. The initial economic impact of the Arab Spring was rather negative owing to political turbulence and social unrest, which have had a particular impact on the tourism, production and export sectors and on foreign direct investment.

Beyond this political and economic context, an even more important social factor is the increasing youth population and demographic pressure experienced in the region. The share of the population under the age of 30 years has exceeded 60%, and as a result the working-age population continues to approach 70% (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2011). This puts tremendous pressure on education and training systems and labour markets, and requires immediate policy action from governments. If the situation is not well managed, it may also pose a risk of social instability. The key employment challenges have already been analysed by the ETF (Martín and Bardak, 2012); a short policy note with an emphasis on youth employability is also available (Bardak, 2012).

To give a brief reminder of the key features of labour markets and their main employment challenges, Table 1 shows the latest available data on activity, unemployment and youth unemployment rates in the region. As can be seen, economic activity rates are very low: on average, less than half of the working-age population are in the labour market, and only one person in three has a proper job. This is due not only to the very low female participation rates – only one in five women is active – but also to the high levels of inactivity among young people who are not in education, employment or training (NEETs). Despite this low activity rate, youth unemployment is still high (25%), particularly for young and educated females.

¹ The analysis in this paper includes eight AMCs, namely Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, Palestine and Tunisia.

Table 1. Activity, unemployment and youth unemployment rates by gender, latest available data (%)

Country	Activity rate		Total unemployment		Youth unemployment	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Algeria	68.9	14.2	8.1	19.1	19.1	38.1
Egypt	78.2	23.9	8.9	22.7	22.5	53.2
Jordan	61.3	14.1	10.4	19.9	25.2	48.8
Lebanon	73.0	23.0	5.0	10.0	21.5	22.3
Libya	76.8	30.4	19.5 (total)		33.0 (total)	
Morocco	73.6	24.7	8.7	9.9	16.6	17.4
Palestine	61.2	17.4	23.2	27.1	36.8	49.6
Tunisia	68.7	24.8	11.3	18.8	42.3 (total)	

Source: National Statistical Offices. Data for Jordan, Morocco and Palestine are 2012. Data for Algeria, Egypt and Tunisia are 2011. Data for Libya is from ILO (2011). Data for Lebanon is problematic since there has been no Labour Force Survey (LFS) since 2004 and the figures are estimates from 2009.

The challenges can be summarised as follows.

- **Low economic activity rate among the increasing working-age population:** This shows that countries are unable to take advantage of the ‘demographic opportunity window’ offered by their young populations, who are neither employed nor contributing to the national welfare. Although increasing the levels of education among young people has many benefits for individuals and society, from an economic point of view, low activity means a waste of the resources invested in human capital development, as they are not being used in the economy.
- **Extreme disadvantage of women in the labour markets:** Despite comparable educational levels, women have very low economic activity levels compared with those of men; at the same time, the few women who are active face very high unemployment rates. The situation is particularly dire among young, well-educated females, who, unlike their mothers, want to work but simply cannot find jobs at levels that are comparable with those of their male counterparts. In all countries, female unemployment is more than double that of males, with the partial exception of Lebanon and Morocco. This indicates that there are gender-specific problems and discrimination in labour markets.
- **Higher unemployment among the young and educated segments:** Education activates young people to look for work, but does not guarantee that they will find jobs; this is especially the case for higher educated females. This highlights the low quality and relevance of the education and training, the mismatch between individuals’ skills and employers’ needs, the weak school-to-work transition systems, and the low-skills equilibrium in economies with limited ‘skilled’ job creation. Employers no longer care what a job-seeker knows; they care what s/he can do with what s/he knows and whether s/he can add value. The high preference for safe public sector jobs with unrealistic high-status job expectations further exacerbates the problem.
- **High share of young people who are not in education, employment or training (NEETs):** A large proportion of students leave education early (following compulsory lower-secondary schooling), and surveys indicate that at least one-third of young people are NEETs (Martín and Bardak, 2012). This is the least visible group, but the one that is most vulnerable to social exclusion, as they are not in education, employment or training, and remains idle in relation to the

whole economy. Uneducated or low-educated females who left school early are more likely to fall into this group than other individuals.

- **Poor quality of work with low added value:** The poor quality of jobs is linked to a business environment dominated by micro, small and medium enterprises, most of which are informal, and with low productivity, widespread precariousness, long working hours, low incomes (or unpaid work), lack of social protection and ultimately a de-valorisation of human capital. According to the World Bank (Gatti et al., 2011), the extent of informality as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) is 36–40%, while the share of the region’s workforce that is not contributing to social security is 45–67% (this covers the period 2000–07). These jobs are taken mostly by unskilled or low-skilled young people who have dropped out of school early.

Policy response to the employment challenges

In general, employment policies incorporate a coherent combination of the following elements:

Job-creation policies (investment promotion, improvement of the business environment, adaptability of enterprises, small and medium-sized enterprise (SME) development)

Effective education and lifelong learning system for all that is responsive to both economic and social demands

Active labour market programmes (ALMPs) with job placement and referral systems, including efficient public employment services (PES)

Social security and social assistance systems that support vulnerable groups in society

These policy areas are converted into legislation on the labour market, employment and the business environment, and subsequently implemented.

All labour market interventions, in the form of policies, legislation and institutional actions, aim to increase activity and employment rates, decrease unemployment, improve employability and the match between labour demand and supply, protect workers and/or jobs, encourage labour mobility towards new jobs, and ensure equality of opportunity for all social groups in the labour market. However, achieving an effective result requires concerted action in all four policy areas simultaneously.

Since the Arab Spring, employment challenges have taken centre stage, playing an increasingly important role in governments’ responses to the demands of their citizens. As employment policy became a litmus test for achieving public support and the smooth transition to democracy, it dictated some emergency initiatives within the context of exceptional circumstances in order to maintain social stability. An example of this is Tunisia, where an Employment Emergency Plan was adopted in March 2011 to increase job availability and improve skills adequacy. Four priority areas were identified and translated into four main axes in the plan: job creation; the promotion of entrepreneurship; the protection of existing and threatened jobs; and employability and the activation of young people (Amal programme).

Overall, employment policy responses to the Arab Spring can be summarised as follows.

- Wages in public administration have been increased in many countries (Algeria, Jordan, Morocco).
- The minimum wage in the private sector has been increased in many countries (Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Libya, Morocco, Palestine, Lebanon, Tunisia).
- Thousands of new posts have been created in the public sector for unemployed graduates.
- ALMPs have been increased and expanded in terms of their coverage, beneficiaries, eligibility periods and employment subsidies.
- International cooperation programmes and funds from donors have increased in the employment field (e.g. EU, World Bank, African Development Bank, bilateral donors).

These policies should certainly ease some of the labour market pressures and address the aspirations of the people, although there is a risk that they will be short-term solutions, and that some measures will lack sustainability as a result of the high costs involved and the limited institutional capacities for implementation. The increased priority given to employment has not yet been fully reflected in the institutional setup in terms of policy making, institutional coordination with other relevant policies, and strengthening of PES.

In order to gain a better understanding of the broader and longer-term framework, employment policy strategies and legislation are reviewed in the countries (Annex 1 – Legislative and policy framework on employment). As can be seen, the majority of countries have developed national employment strategies, most of which were adopted after a long period of discussion and elaboration: Algeria (2008), Egypt (2010, not approved), Palestine (2010), Jordan (2011) and Tunisia (2012). Developing a national employment strategy is on the agenda in Morocco, while no employment strategy exists in Lebanon and Libya, despite there being a clear need. Content analysis shows that most of these employment strategies focus heavily on ALMPs. The most widely cited measures are employment subsidies provided to employers for the temporary recruitment of young or first-time job-seekers, subsidies for training and internship programmes for young people, self-employment and entrepreneurship programmes, and large-scale public works and community service programmes targeted at those from poor and unskilled segments of the population.

Annex 1 also shows the existing legislative framework on employment in the countries. Labour legislation changes introduced in Tunisia (1994, 1996, 2006), Jordan (1996) and Egypt (2003) were intended to make the application of laws more flexible for employers, particularly regarding hiring and firing. In contrast, the labour laws adopted in Palestine (2000) and Morocco (2003) represent the first comprehensive protection of workers' rights in legislation in the countries. The labour laws of Lebanon (1946, last amended in 2010) and Algeria (1978) are quite old, and in Algeria a new Labour Code was to be drafted through the Tripartite Dialogue process, although this work is still pending. In 2013 the Labour Committee of the Jordanian parliament started to discuss amendments to the Labour Law, while in Libya the Labour Market Committee is currently working on drafting a new and modern Labour Law.

This short overview demonstrates that the employment policies of the region do not take into account all four policy areas equally and simultaneously. There is an overwhelming emphasis on ALMPs (No 3), and much less emphasis on policies for job creation, the education system and social security (No 1, 2, 4). Longer-term solutions require deeper reforms in the labour market, such as improving the business environment and economic restructuring, changing the legislative framework and institutions, rationalising the public sector, streamlining working conditions between the public and private sectors, SME growth and private sector development and improving conditions in the informal sector. As

labour laws are applied only to private sector workers with formal contracts, while the public sector has separate laws with more employee privileges (e.g. job safety, short working hours, social protection), one key policy is to reduce the dichotomy between the public and private, and the formal and informal sectors. This involves addressing the rigidities of legislation as well as the vulnerabilities of the informal sector.

Similarly, there is a need to focus more on improving the quality of education and lifelong learning systems. Although education has been a priority, with significant public and private investments over the decades, and despite the significant progress that has been achieved towards universal access, there has been a very low return on investment in terms of meaningful educational outcomes. Education systems throughout the region are hindered by a lack of quality, and by irrelevancy and inequity (Martín and Bardak, 2012). Indeed, some argue that the revolutions of the Arab Spring 'were not propagated by well-educated youth; these uprisings were spurred by the needs and demands of poorly educated youth, whose knowledge and skills do not meet the demands of a rapidly-advancing world' (Adams and Winthrop, 2011). A solid and good-quality early education probably represents a cheaper, more cost-effective preventative measure than later remediation through ALMPs.

Active labour market programmes (ALMPs)

ALMPs are measures to help the matching process on the labour market, and to provide institutional assistance in improving employability and job placement of unemployed individuals. They play a key role in contributing to more flexible and inclusive labour markets and in facilitating labour market access for disadvantaged groups (e.g. long-term unemployed people, and those with a disability). They have also recently become very important for large groups of labour market participants such as young people and women, mainly through four types of ALMP measures:

- skills training, retraining, internship, job-search assistance;
- hiring incentives such as wage subsidies and social security exemptions;
- self-employment and entrepreneurship support;
- public works and community services.

The main objective of labour market training and hiring incentives is to enhance employability, whereas the main objective of self-employment and entrepreneurship support is to promote job creation. The job-creation effect of public works is rather limited and short-lived. The balance between the different types of ALMP varies between countries, though training and public works are the most common ones. Nevertheless, ALMPs cannot create permanent jobs, and there is a need to ensure that expectations concerning what they can achieve are realistic. International experience shows that ALMPs often have little positive impact, and certainly do not constitute a panacea for large-scale unemployment.

Proponents of ALMPs argue that they are necessary for specific hard-to-place groups when there is a need to correct specific 'market failures'. They represent an effective instrument for countering social exclusion for at-risk groups and can have a positive impact if well targeted. Opponents of ALMPs tend to dismiss them as a waste of public money, as early education is cheaper and more cost-effective than later remediation through costly ALMPs. Most evaluations indicate that they produce modest or no return in terms of employability and earnings, and that there are problems associated with their

use, including deadweight costs², substitution effects³, displacement effects⁴ and selection bias or ‘creaming’⁵ (Betcherman et al., 2004).

At the core of employment policies in most AMC countries has been the implementation of ALMPs. Most ALMPs in Morocco, Algeria and Tunisia are provided publicly (in the two latter countries in a very centralised way through the PES), while programmes in countries such as Egypt, Jordan, Palestine and Lebanon are often provided by civil society bodies, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), international organisations and line ministries. The resources allocated to ALMPs in Maghreb are substantial, exceeding 1% of GDP (Martín and Bardak, 2012). An overview of ALMPs is given in Annex 2, including country examples, target groups and institutions.

ALMPs have been given a further boost in the aftermath of the Arab Spring. However, despite the substantial amount of resources they absorb, there is limited information even on their basic features, such as budgets, the number and characteristics of their beneficiaries, drop-out rates, the follow-up of beneficiaries, and evaluation of each policy’s effectiveness in terms of job placement rates, impact on duration of unemployment and quality of employment (e.g. average earnings, formality).

The limited evidence that does exist suggests that there is a proliferation of schemes, often overlapping and with little coordination between them; a strong concentration of ALMPs on unemployed male graduates in urban areas; a high priority given to university graduates at the expense of hard-to-place groups who are most vulnerable; the use of quantitative targets (such as the number of integration contracts) at the expense of qualitative objectives (sustainability and conditions of integration); limited impact and even questionable results on the employment performance of beneficiaries (traineeships as ‘waiting jobs’ rather than facilitating labour market insertion for young people); a lack of emphasis on business start-ups and SME growth; and a lack of monitoring, evaluation and impact assessment of the measures implemented (Martín and Bardak, 2012).

In order to increase effectiveness, ALMPs need to address the needs of the heterogeneous groups, with special attention being given to women, unskilled workers and low-skilled workers. As they are expensive, every ALMP must have an in-built monitoring and evaluation system, so that the results of programmes are assessed for policy revision and the effective use of resources, with a greater focus on prevention rather than remedies, and with strategic long-term thinking applied to short-term policies. The use of ALMPs only is also criticised as ‘being limited to symptomatic treatment of unemployment’ (simply an analgesic for beneficiaries), without addressing the real underlying causes of economies.

As mentioned above, more emphasis needs to be placed on job-creation policies, high-quality education and lifelong learning systems, and broad-based social security. Longer-term solutions require a comprehensive policy vision, adequate legislation and public policy, and deeper reforms in the labour markets and education systems. To support policy vision, it is necessary to develop anticipation mechanisms to reduce skill mismatches, integrated labour market information systems (LMISs), specific mechanisms to ease school-to-work transition, sound skill-development systems for all groups, and greater cooperation between education and business. The implementation capacity of institutions that are responsible for employment policies and ALMPs needs to be increased in terms of

² Programme outcomes contribute nothing more than what would have occurred in the absence of the programme. For example, public funds are spent on unemployed individuals who could have been hired anyway without subsidies.

³ A worker in a subsidised job is substituted for an unsubsidised worker who would otherwise have been hired. The net employment effect is thus zero.

⁴ This usually refers to displacement in the product market. A firm with subsidised workers increases output, but displaces the output of firms operating without subsidised workers. This can also occur when individuals are given help to start enterprises that reduce or ‘crowd out’ regular employment elsewhere in the economy through competition in the goods market.

⁵ Programme outcomes are influenced by unobservable factors that lead to self-selected participants due to the social superiority (e.g. males, higher-educated), or participants ‘most likely to succeed’ due to personal talents (‘creaming’).

both human and financial resources. Finally, social partners and newly emerging social dialogue mechanisms following the Arab Spring have a great potential to enhance employment policies.

EU approach to youth employment

Several international and EU organisations are preoccupied with mitigating the impact of the economic crisis on youth employment. The 2012 International Labour Organisation (ILO) Conference Resolution (ILO, 2012) calls for the fostering of pro-employment growth and the creation of decent jobs (including measures to improve employability, labour market policies, and supporting youth entrepreneurship). More recently, the report on Global Employment Trends for Youth (ILO, 2013) highlights the decline in youth employment rates and repeats the call for comprehensive growth strategies and job-creation measures. Coordination among stakeholders, enhanced employment services and the promotion of entrepreneurship, social enterprises and cooperatives are among the key recommendations.

The EU 2020 Strategy for growth and jobs (European Commission, 2010a) places special emphasis on three interrelated priorities that can deliver high levels of employment, productivity and social cohesion: growth needs to be smart (knowledge-based), sustainable (environmental-friendly) and inclusive (social market economy). Education and training is considered to be one of the key policy tools for reaching this objective, and the six EU 2020 headline targets refer to ambitious achievements in the field of education, employment and social cohesion⁶.

As part of the comprehensive EU 2020 priorities, the Agenda for New Skills and Jobs (European Commission, 2010b) focuses on four key priorities for full employment:

- improved functioning of labour markets through flexicurity;
- a more skilled workforce;
- improved job quality and working conditions;
- stronger policies to promote job creation.

Flexicurity is an EU policy approach aimed at achieving a balanced combination of flexibility and security in labour markets in order to improve competitiveness and at the same time maintain the European Social Model. It requires concerted action in four key directions:

- flexible and reliable contractual arrangements;
- comprehensive lifelong learning;
- ALMPs;
- modern social security systems.

The EU Agenda for New Skills and Jobs calls for these four components of flexicurity to be reinforced and the institutional setting enhanced in order to reduce the risk of long-term unemployment and increase labour market participation for all.

⁶ Early school leavers (less than 10% of those aged 18–24 with at most lower secondary education and not in further education or training), tertiary educational attainment (at least 40% of those aged 30–34 who have successfully completed university or university-like education), lifelong learning (at least 15% of those aged 25–64 participating in education and training), four-year-olds in education (at least 95% participation rate in education), OECD PISA Results (less than 15% of pupils with lowest performance on the reading scale), at least 75% of employment rate for those aged 20–64.

Several EU initiatives emphasise the severe impact of the economic crisis on the labour market situation of young people, and call for decisive steps at EU and Member State level (e.g. European Commission, 2011, 2012). The most recent initiative (Council of the European Union, 2013) calls for partnership-based approaches for early intervention, activation and supportive measures for the swift integration of young people into the labour market. This document also calls for 'Youth Guarantees' to ensure that all young people under the age of 25 years 'receive a good-quality offer of employment, continued education, an apprenticeship or a traineeship within a period of four months of becoming unemployed or leaving formal education'.

Questions for debate

1. What are the main pillars of the national employment policies in your country (e.g. reducing unemployment, job creation, improving job quality and working conditions)?
2. What is the impact of the ALMPs implemented so far in your country?
3. Are there legislative initiatives to reduce unemployment and/or improve job quality in your country?
4. How can regional and/or EU and ETF cooperation help your country's efforts to address employment challenges?

ANNEXES

Annex 1. Legislative and policy framework on employment

Countries	Legislation	Policy strategies
Algeria	<p>Law No 78-12 of August 1978 on the general status of workers.</p> <p>Tripartite Dialogue was asked to draft a new Labour Code, but the work has yet to be completed.</p> <p>In 2012 the minimum wage was increased by 20% to DZD 18 000 (Algerian dinar) per month.</p>	<p>National Employment Policy (NEP) drafted in 2008 within the Five-Year Plan 2010–14. The goal is to reduce unemployment to below 9% in 2013 with the creation of 3 million new jobs. The path taken in 2008 has since been strengthened, with additional facilities and measures added in 2011 and 2013 to cover more beneficiaries.</p>
Egypt	<p>The 2003 Labour Law introduced more flexible clauses for hiring and firing labour in the private sector.</p>	<p>Youth Employment Strategy and National Action Plan 2010–15, designed in 2010; awaiting review following the Revolution and not yet formally ratified by the parliament. It aims to reduce youth unemployment to 15% by creating 3 million jobs by 2015.</p>
Jordan	<p>The Labour Law No 8 of 1996 and its amendments.</p> <p>In 2013 the Labour Committee of the Jordanian parliament started to discuss several potential amendments to the Labour Law.</p> <p>In 2012 the monthly minimum wage was increased by 26% from JOD 150 (Jordanian dinar) to JOD 190.</p>	<p>National Employment Strategy (NES) 2011–20, drafted in 2011 and launched in 2012 to increase Jordan's labour participation and create more and better jobs in productive sectors.</p> <p>The Law of the Employment–Technical and Vocational Education and Training (E-TVET) Council (Law No 46 of 2008) restructured the TVET Council and Fund to support the reform of the employment and TVET sector.</p>
Lebanon	<p>The Labour Code of September 1946, amended several times over the years, the most recent amendment by Law No 129 of August 2010.</p> <p>In 2012 the monthly minimum wage was increased by 35% to LBP 675 000.</p>	<p>No employment strategy exists.</p>
Libya	<p>The Labour Market Committee is currently drafting a new and up-to-date Labour Law, which will provide more protection for workers.</p> <p>In 2009 the minimum wage increased to LYD 450 (Libyan dinar) and unemployment assistance to LYD 500 (per household).</p>	<p>In 2013 the Labour Market Working Committee was established as a public body under the General National Congress. The Committee is discussing a general labour strategy in the context of the reconstruction of the country.</p>
Morocco	<p>The first Labour Law (Employment Code No 65-99), passed in 2003, brought protection for workers, but recognised the need for temporary work to give greater flexibility.</p>	<p>Discussions on drafting a National Employment Strategy (NES) have just started.</p>
Palestine	<p>The 2000 Labour Law provided more protection for workers, but its strict provisions on hiring and firing are seen as decreasing formal employment.</p> <p>In 2012 the monthly minimum wage was increased to ILS 1 450 (shekel).</p>	<p>The National Employment Strategy (NES) was drafted in 2010 through a participatory process. The aim is to link it with the economic strategy, the TVET strategy and social development and planning.</p> <p>The Labour Sector Strategy 2011–13 is in place. The new sector plan for 2014–16 is in preparation.</p>

Countries	Legislation	Policy strategies
Tunisia	<p>The 1994 and 1996 Labour Law includes some changes to achieve greater flexibility.</p> <p>Law No 2006 of 18 May 2006 is the most recent amendment to the previous law.</p> <p>Decree No 2012-2369 of October 2012 covers employment support programmes.</p>	<p>The 2011 Employment Emergency Plan (Roadmap for Employment).</p> <p>The National Strategy for Employment 2013–17 was approved in December 2012 with the objective of progressive alleviation of unemployment. It has not yet been fully implemented.</p>

Annex 2. Overview of active labour market programmes (ALMPs)

Countries	ALMPs
Algeria	<p>Algeria has a long record of implementing ALMPs, with substantial amounts of public funding, thanks to oil revenues. Five institutions are delivering programmes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Employment Agency (youth employment programmes called DAIP); • National Agency for Employment Support of Youth (creation and expansion of micro-enterprises by young people aged 19–35); • National Unemployment Insurance Fund (unemployment benefits and support for creation of micro-enterprises for unemployed individuals aged 30–50); • Social Development Agency (public works programmes for social inclusion of the poor); • National Agency for the Management of Micro-credits (micro-credits to the poor). <p>There is a wide range of instruments intended to reach thousands of beneficiaries, with two main functions: (i) services to ease social tensions by providing immediate temporary work contracts/internship experiences and public works programmes for the poor; and (ii) services to support entrepreneurship and micro-enterprises through providing business advice, training, credits, tax exemptions and business monitoring.</p>
Egypt	<p>There are a number of ALMPs in place, including employment services for job-seekers (through 300 employment offices), public works (particularly through the Social Fund for Development, and also recently through support from donors such as the World Bank and the EU through the Emergency Employment Investment Project) and training for employment measures. The most recent development was the approval of the National Programme for Training for Employment (NPTE), which was implemented under the umbrella of the Industrial Training Council (ITC, belonging to the Ministry of Industry and Foreign Trade) and which has been in the pilot implementation stage since October 2012. The programme aims to improve the skills of Egyptian industrial labour through three main components:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • setting up a labour market information system (LMIS); • training and qualifications; • matching job-seekers to decent jobs. <p>The total cost of the project is estimated to be EGP 500 million (Egyptian pound) (limited government funding, plus contributions from the private sector and international donors). In the pilot project, 17 000 individuals were granted a job (jobs created in 10 different sectors, 50% of them in the ready-made garment sector), and social and medical insurance for employees was introduced.</p>
Jordan	<p>Work has been ongoing on the reform of employment offices, the National Campaign for Employment and the launch of an online Electronic Labour Exchange System. Seven principal employment programmes are funded by the E-TVET Fund and have been implemented for 34 000 trainees during the period 2005–11. The most important of these programmes are those delivered by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Employment and Training Company (NET); • Vocational Training Corporation (VTC); • National Training and Employment Programme; • Ministry of Labour which implements joint ALMPs with NGOs and private sector. <p>One such project is called ‘Satellite units in the garment sector’: foreign workers in six operational satellite units are replaced by Jordanian women, with wage subsidies and incentives paid to employers. Other projects are in the medical services and nursing, fuel retail, restaurants and hotels, ICT, telecommunication and construction sectors. In most cases internship programmes are developed with the private sector, and employment subsidies are paid to employers (e.g. half of salaries) for a certain period of time.</p>

Countries	ALMPs
Lebanon	<p>The National Employment Office (NEO) offers training, retraining and short vocational courses, primarily for those who are unemployed, and also collaborates in the management of the National Training Centre, an institution operated and financed by the Ministry of Labour. The few programmes led by the NEO in partnership with the Directorate-General of Vocation and Technical Education are insufficient given the size of the potential target group, but a new website for employment services was launched in 2012. It is also worth noting that there has been a marked increase in the number of initiatives undertaken by civil society organisations and donors in the form of literacy and entrepreneurship courses for young people and job-seekers.</p>
Libya	<p>The reintegration of demobilised fighters (145 000) is the most important priority in Libya. A Warriors Affairs Commission (WAC) was set up with a budget of around LYD 1 billion, thanks to oil revenues. Reintegration is to be achieved through three main programmes.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IFAD (literally ‘sending’) targets ex-fighters who would like to continue their higher education abroad. WAC is planning to send 18 000 individuals abroad over a period of five years, and expects support from international organisations and host countries to organise and implement this programme. • KADER (‘able’) targets ex-fighters without any skills or qualifications to enrol them in vocational training. WAC is targeting 28 000 individuals, and again, the intention is to send them abroad. • TAMOUH (‘ambitious’) supports ex-fighters in setting up their own businesses. The programme plans to support 5 000 projects.
Morocco	<p>The PES in Morocco, ANAPEC, is responsible for implementing ALMPs, and registration is compulsory in order to access programmes. The three main programmes implemented are as follows.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IDMAJ (first-time recruitment contract) aims to develop the skills of young graduates with first-time in-house professional experience through the wage subsidies and tax exemptions it gives to employers. It has been relatively successful from a quantitative point of view (300 000 beneficiaries in the period 2006–12). • Taehil (training contract) introduced contract training or retraining to improve the employability of job-seekers through conversion training in areas with job-creation potential (around 50 000 job-seekers benefitted during the period 2006–12). • Moukawalati (entrepreneurship) is the first integrated support scheme for small-business creation, and offers substantial incentives in the form of loans, pre- and post- creation assistance for entrepreneurs, and interest-free advances of investment.
Palestine	<p>Work has taken place on the reform of employment offices, the launch of the LMIS and the setting up four Local Education and Training (LET) Councils for employment initiatives at local level. The majority of ALMP measures are implemented by civil society actors in Palestine.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Sharek Forum was involved in the implementation of the United Nations Development Programme DEEP (Deprived Families Economic Empowerment) project, youth business support units, women’s computer centre and IT training, and the educational bridge programme. • The Welfare Association provides youth employment services (YES) through three types of activities: an internship programme for university graduates with wage subsidies; an entrepreneurship programme with a full package of services and business loans; and an apprenticeship programme targeting technical/vocational graduates. • Education for Employment (EfE) provides life skills programmes. • International Youth Foundation (IYF) offers internship and entrepreneurship programmes. • PADICO (Palestinian Investment and Development Company) provides internship and training programmes.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) provides employment and training support and cash-for-work programmes.
Tunisia	<p>The country has a long tradition of ALMPs implemented by the 'Agence nationale pour l'emploi et le travail indépendant' (ANETI); the National Fund for Employment (FNE) was created in 2000, and provides many measures (internships for training, self-employment support, wage subsidies for job insertion of graduates). In 2009 these programmes were reviewed, and their number reduced from around 50 to 7. Following the revolution in 2011, the Employment Emergency Plan (or 'Roadmap') was developed to support employment along four main axes: job creation; the promotion of entrepreneurship and micro-enterprises; the protection of existing and threatened jobs; and employability and activation of unemployed through training (Amal). Meaning 'hope', the Amal programme targeted unemployed graduates with training, coaching, reconversion, internships and a monthly allowance for a maximum of one year. In October 2012, four additional programmes were created through a decree:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • employability improvement cheque (chèque d'amélioration de l'employabilité); • employment support cheque (chèque d'appui à l'emploi); • support to small-enterprise creators (programme d'appui aux promoteurs de petites entreprises); • programme for partnership with the regions for promoting employment (programme de partenariat avec les régions pour la promotion de l'emploi).

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