Kingdom of Morocco
Promoting Youth Opportunities and Participation

June 2012

Middle East and North Africa Region
Sustainable Development Department

Document of the World Bank
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The present report is based mostly on the Morocco Household and Youth Survey, MHYS. The Haut Commissariat au Plan (HCP) is not responsible for the data and figures presented in this report.

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“We have a dream: 100% education, 100% employment, 100% participation; zero disrespect, zero discrimination, zero injustice”

Tariq, 29, Sidi Moumen, Casablanca
November 11, 2009
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<td>ADERE</td>
<td>Agency for Sustainable Development (previously called CDER)</td>
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<td>ADS</td>
<td>Social Development Agency (Agence de Développement Social)</td>
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<tr>
<td>AMEJ</td>
<td>Moroccan Association for Youth Education (Association Marocaine pour l’Éducation de la Jeunesse)</td>
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<tr>
<td>ANAPEC</td>
<td>National Employment and Skills Agency (Agence Nationale de Promotion de l’Emploi et des Compétences)</td>
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<td>ANPME</td>
<td>National Agency for the Promotion of Small and Medium Enterprises (Agence Nationale Pour la Promotion des Petites et Moyennes Entreprises)</td>
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<tr>
<td>BAC</td>
<td>High School Diploma (Baccalauréat)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CAP</td>
<td>Certificate of Professional Aptitude (Certificat d’Aptitude Professionnelle)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CCG</td>
<td>Central Guarantee Fund (Caisse Centrale de Garantie)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CCIS</td>
<td>Chamber of Commerce, Industry, and Services (Chambre de Commerce, d’Industrie et de Services)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CDER (ADERE)</td>
<td>Renewable Energy Development Center (Centre de Développement des Énergies Renouvelables)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CEF</td>
<td>Education and Training Center (Centre d’Éducation et de Formation)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CFA</td>
<td>Apprenticeship Training Center (Centre de Formation par Apprentissage)</td>
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<td>CFP</td>
<td>Professional Training Center (Centre de Formation Professionnelle)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CNIDJ</td>
<td>National Center for Youth Information and Documentation (Centre National d’Information et de Documentation des Jeunes)</td>
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<td>CNJA</td>
<td>National Council on Youth and the Future (Conseil National de la Jeunesse et de l’Avenir)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CNSS</td>
<td>National Social Security Fund (Caisse Nationale de Sécurité Sociale)</td>
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<td>CPE</td>
<td>Initial Employment Contract (contrat premier emploi)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CQA</td>
<td>Certified Agricultural Specialization Center (Centre de Qualification Agricole)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CRI</td>
<td>Regional Investment Center (Centre Régional d’Investissement)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CSE</td>
<td>Child Protection Center (Centre de Sauvegarde de l’Enfance)</td>
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<tr>
<td>CSP</td>
<td>Certificate of Professional Specialization (Certificat de spécialisation professionnelle)</td>
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<tr>
<td>DAF</td>
<td>Division of Women’s Affairs, Ministry of Youth and Sports (Division des Affaires Féminines, MJS)</td>
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<td>DAM</td>
<td>Dar Al Mouaten Center for Active Citizenship</td>
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<tr>
<td>DAT</td>
<td>Dar Attal Children’s Home</td>
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<tr>
<td>DH</td>
<td>Dirham (Moroccan currency)</td>
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<tr>
<td>DT</td>
<td>Dar Attalib/Dar Attaliba boy’s Educational Dormitory/ Girls’ Educational Dormitory</td>
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<tr>
<td>DEFR</td>
<td>Directorate of Education, Training, and Research (Ministry of Agriculture, Rural Development, and Fisheries) (Direction de l’Enseignement, de la Formation et de la Recherche du Ministère de l’Agriculture et de la Pêche Maritime)</td>
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<tr>
<td>E2C</td>
<td>School of Second Chances (École de la Deuxième Chance)</td>
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<td>EFE</td>
<td>Moroccan Education for Employment Foundation (Fondation Marocaine de l’Éducation pour l’Emploi)</td>
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<td>EN</td>
<td>National Assistance Agency (Entraide Nationale)</td>
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<td>ENNVM</td>
<td>Morocco National Household Survey (Enquête Nationale sur les Niveaux de Vie des Ménages)</td>
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<tr>
<td>EPS</td>
<td>Center for Social Protection (Établissement de Protection Sociale)</td>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>FF</td>
<td>Women’s Center (Foyer Féminin)</td>
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<td>GPBM</td>
<td>Professional Association of Moroccan Banks (Groupement Professionnel des Banques du Maroc)</td>
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<tr>
<td>HCP</td>
<td>High Commission for Planning (Haut Commissariat au Plan)</td>
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<tr>
<td>HDI</td>
<td>Human Development Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IGR</td>
<td>Income Tax (impôt général sur le revenu)</td>
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<tr>
<td>INDH</td>
<td>National Human Development Initiative (Initiative Nationale pour le Développement Humain)</td>
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<tr>
<td>IOM</td>
<td>International Organization for Migration</td>
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<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>Information Technology (TI)</td>
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<tr>
<td>ITC</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technology</td>
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<tr>
<td>ITA/ITSA</td>
<td>Agricultural Technology Institute (Institut)/Agricultural Institute for Technical Studies (Institut Technique Spécialisé Agricole)</td>
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<tr>
<td>LFS</td>
<td>Labor Force Survey</td>
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<tr>
<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goal</td>
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<tr>
<td>MEN</td>
<td>Ministry of National Education (Ministère de l’Education Nationale)</td>
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<tr>
<td>MENA</td>
<td>Middle East and North Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>MEMEE</td>
<td>Ministry of Energy, Mines, Water and Environment</td>
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<tr>
<td>MFR</td>
<td>Rural Family House (Maison Familiale Rurale)</td>
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<td>MHYS</td>
<td>Morocco Household and Youth Survey, World Bank</td>
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<td>MJ</td>
<td>Youth Center (Maison des Jeunes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MJS</td>
<td>Ministry of Youth and Sports (Ministère de la Jeunesse et des Sports)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFL</td>
<td>Non Formal Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-governmental Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>OFPPT</td>
<td>Office for the Promotion of Vocational Training and Work (Office de la Formation Professionnelle et de la Promotion du Travail)</td>
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<tr>
<td>PAMT</td>
<td>Active Labor Market Program</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>UAE</td>
<td>United Arab Emirates</td>
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<tr>
<td>SMIG</td>
<td>Minimum Wage (Salaire minimum)</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNFPA</td>
<td>United Nations Fund for Population Activities</td>
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<td>YSC</td>
<td>Youth Service Canada</td>
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FOREWORD

There are currently more than 100 million people between the ages of 15 and 29 in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region. They represent about one third of the region’s total population. This youth bulge is a demographic ‘gift’ with enormous potential, along with a number of challenges. Young people can be engines of growth, as the source of innovation and productivity and consumption. Yet they need open and vibrant economies that provide plenty of opportunities into which their energies can be channeled. MENA has been unable to create these conditions, despite a decade that saw periods of significant growth, and this potential has gradually turned into frustration. As the ‘Arab Spring’ demonstrated, young people’s patience with limited opportunities for economic participation and political engagement is finite.

Young people in Morocco make up 30 percent of the population, and one tenth of the region’s total youth population. Their levels of exclusion are high, even by MENA standards. A recent, innovative World Bank survey, the Morocco Household and Youth Survey, revealed that nearly half of Moroccan youth are neither in school, nor the workforce. This report attempts to identify the causes for this widespread inactivity through an analysis of the survey results, along with extensive research and direct consultations with both young people and relevant service providers and policy makers. The conclusions drawn, coupled with a complementary analysis of successful international experiences, form the basis of a series of proposals for new youth specific policies and approaches.

Morocco is undergoing dramatic changes. With a new government and a new Constitution, it is the perfect moment to launch a new conversation on how best to support young people to achieve their full potential. *Promoting Youth Opportunities and Participation* offers a road map for the way forward, and a good place from which to begin the conversation.

Simon Gray
Director Maghreb Department
Maghreb Department
Middle East and North Africa Region
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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The report benefited greatly from commentary provided at various stages including by its peer reviewers: Wendy Cunningham (Lead Specialist, World Bank) and Nora Dudwick (Senior Social Scientist, World Bank). From the World Bank: Paul Francis (Senior Social Scientist), Stefano Paternostro (Lead Economist), Paolo Verme (Senior Poverty Specialist), Michelle Rebosio (Consultant), Andrea Liverani (Senior Social Development Specialist) and Professor Niall O’Higgins (University of Salerno) also provided comments.

Invaluable support towards the preparation of the report was provided by the Ministry of Economic and General Affairs, Ministry of Youth and Sports, Ministry of Agriculture, Rural Development and Fisheries, and the Ministry of Interior.

The study would not have been possible without Silatech’s (Social Foundation for Entrepreneurship, Qatar) financial contributions and the Haut Commissariat au Plan’s collaboration especially with regards to methodology and data access. The Entraide Nationale made important analytical contributions as well.

Last but not least, the production of this report would not have been possible without the support and detailed input provided by the numerous young Moroccans who gave their time to answer questions about their lives and provided so many valuable insights.

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<th>Inger Anderson</th>
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<td>Country Director:</td>
<td>Neil Simon M. Gray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector Director:</td>
<td>Junaid Kamal Ahmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector Manager:</td>
<td>Franck Bousquet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Team Leader:</td>
<td>Gloria La Cava</td>
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Introduction
Prepared just prior to the Arab Spring, this report anticipates the demands for social and economic inclusion articulated by Moroccan young people especially following February 2011. Since then, these demands have been amplified and reached a new level of urgency. This study adopts a mixed method approach combining an innovative quantitative instrument with qualitative and institutional analysis. The goal is to provide policy makers with a nuanced analysis of barriers to employment and active civic participation encountered by young people aged 15 to 29 years so as to tailor youth interventions more effectively. It identifies a wide range of recommendations available to support youth-inclusive activities and policies, and a roadmap for integrated youth investments.

The transition to work
Youth (aged 15 to 29) make up some 30 percent of Morocco’s total population and 44 percent of the working age population (aged 15 to 64), but have been largely excluded from the sustained economic growth the country has experience in the last decade. Though the youth unemployment rate is high, averaging about 22 percent among males and 38 percent among females, it only provides a partial picture of young people’s exclusion from economic life.

• In 2009-2010, close to 90 percent of young women and about 40 percent of young men who were not in school were either unemployed or out of the labor force, suggesting that progress in educational attainment has not translated into effective transitions to the labor market.

• The bulk of unemployed youth have little or no education: almost 80 percent have less than secondary education (or no education at all); less than 5 percent have tertiary education. Yet policy interventions in Morocco have focused on tertiary graduates, while ill-serving the less educated majority.

• Gender disparities in employment are glaring in all age groups. Many young women appear reluctant or unable to work as a result of social norms and the attitudes of their families.

• Governmental programs to assist young people in job search and placement tend to have a limited impact. For example, ANAPEC, the public intermediation agency, remains mostly unknown to young people, and only 8 percent of surveyed unemployed youth who did know of ANAPEC used its services.

This report suggests that inactive youth should be considered a key excluded group. Qualitative analysis suggests that the social cost of economic exclusion is high, with young men in particular experiencing very high levels of frustration. After completing their studies with their families’ support, young men are expected to become breadwinners and earn sufficient income to care for their future family and, at times, for their parents. The inability to do so engenders feelings of failure and despair. As it is socially more

1 Note that the unemployment rate refers to the ratio of unemployed young people and young people who are in the labor force.
2 For more see Anapec.org
acceptable for women to stay at home, despite lower levels of employment, they appear more reconciled to this than are men. Nevertheless, many young women, especially tertiary graduates, demonstrated strong expectations of working.

**Employment Quality**

Young men and women who do have work widely report holding poor-quality jobs, often working without job security or benefits (about 88% of employed youth work without a contract, meaning that most have informal sector jobs), experiencing underemployment (especially in the informal sector, where many jobs are temporary or part-time), and poor working conditions.

Overall, youth in Morocco report being dissatisfied with their jobs and recount many problems with them—the most widely cited are the low pay, heavy workloads, long hours, and boredom.

**Private versus Public sector Jobs**: Approximately 50% of youth are salaried workers in private companies. The importance of the public sector as a source of jobs has declined. Only 5% of youth have public sector salaried positions. Despite the interest expressed by young survey respondents, very few are actually self-employed.

Youth feel they have little control over their economic future. Better education and skills are considered insufficient to obtain a decent job without personal or family networks and connections, whether in the public, private, or informal sector, and even just to gain an internship. This is due to limited formal job intermediation mechanisms. One in three youth desires or plans to leave Morocco because of poor future prospects.

**Youth Participation in social and civic life**

Moroccan youth participation in social and civic life is very low. Most of their time is spent on unstructured personal activities. The pattern of leisure activities Moroccan youth are engaged in strongly suggests the lack of more productive or socially constructive outlets. Youth spend little time on productive civic engagements, such as volunteer work. Apart from sports, youth participation in recreational or social activities is insignificant. Indeed, few institutions offering recreational or social activities exist and many of the youth turn to the internet and social media for social interaction.

Youth are concerned about the consequences of being excluded from economic and civic life. Dropping out of formal education, unemployment, underemployment, and the lack of support structures to facilitate social participation are all factors contributing to idleness, isolation, and frustration, making youth susceptible to high-risk behaviors such as drug use and crime.

**Analysis of Existing Youth Programs and Services**

The study reviewed a wide range of institutions and programs that offer diverse services to young people, including employment, training opportunities (for example, vocational training, skills training, personal development, basic literacy, life skills, self-employment, microfinance, and leadership), community
participation, summer camps, sports, and recreational activities, which form the foundation for a comprehensive youth program in Morocco.

Vocational training is in high demand, and is associated with improved employment prospects and job satisfaction. However, these programs still have limited coverage, especially among disadvantaged youth, and some common constraints:

- Many agencies provide similar services, without apparent coordination, leading to fragmented coverage, and some ambiguity and overlap in roles;
- Most programs are seriously under-resourced;
- Staffing is inadequate: there are few young training staff, and there insufficient trainers for new skills in demand such as ICT and broader life/work skills;
- Facilities may be poor or inaccessible, and lack necessary equipment;
- Insufficient use of partnership mechanisms to assess, improve, and provide services;
- Little (or regressive) poverty focus - the largest share of youth program funding goes to Active Labor Market programs targeted at university graduates who constitute only 5 percent of unemployed youth, while the programs of the Ministry of Youth and Sports, Entraide Nationale, and the Ministry of Agriculture directed at disadvantaged youth face significant resource and other challenges.

Together, these constraints highlight the challenges and point to the need for a more systematic, strategic, and integrated approach to youth development. Also needed is a clearer focus on targeting the disadvantaged youth.

The study also notes that it is possible to overcome these challenges. For example, several recent stakeholder partnerships in the field of youth services (i.e. between the public sector, private sector, international development agencies, charitable organizations, NGOs) show promise in facilitating the integration of disadvantaged young people into the workplace. These offer applied vocational training linked to job placements. Although the coverage of these programs is limited, their strategies and placement rates make them models for future market labor intermediation programs. Several new opportunities for active youth participation are also emerging in the new Moroccan context, as highlighted by the youth consultations held by the Moroccan Government in May 2011 (Assises de la Jeunesse).

**Recommendations**

An integrated package of measures aimed at improving existing services and offering new ones to cover current gaps is urgently needed to address youth demands for meaningful social and economic inclusion. The report recommends focusing in particular on two key areas: (i) promoting employability with linkages to labor markets and entrepreneurship and (ii) active youth participation in the programs and designing youth policies. These findings link closely to the government’s own youth strategy, currently under preparation.

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3 The analysis presented in this section was conducted under the coordination of the Ministry of Economy with the Ministry of Youth and Sports, the National Agency for Social Assistance (Entraide Nationale), and the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries.
Supporting employability and entrepreneurship

Private sector intermediation and certification could substantially improve the labor market entry of less educated and poorer youth. Partnerships with the public and/or non-governmental sector, notably through existing employability programs will be critical in this regard. This would expand the action of ANAPEC, which is the primary source of employment intermediation but which currently mostly targets youth with higher levels of education. Similarly, private skills certification and accreditation could complement the existing technical degrees offered by the Entraide Nationale and agricultural institutes.

Youth employment measures should focus on training as well as comprehensive programs, which combine technical training, life skills training, private sector internships and/or apprenticeships, wage subsidies (or a subsidized training period/paid internships), and accreditation. Among the most relevant international training plus programs are the “Jovenes” programs in Latin America, which have had significant positive impacts on disadvantaged youth, and the *Ecole de la Deuxième Chance* (E2C) in France and other European Union countries. The E2C focuses on providing youth with life skills, mentoring, psychosocial support, remedial education, training in information and communication technology (ICT), and apprenticeships with private firms. ICT training programs may be particularly effective in Morocco, since ICT offers opportunities for less formal learning and lowers barriers to labor market entry, including geographic boundaries, time flexibility and home-based work.

Comprehensive entrepreneurship programs that offer entrepreneurial skills training, access to capital, and mentoring from new and established entrepreneurs, are also needed. Such interventions would target secondary graduates and disadvantaged less-educated youth, which constitute the bulk of unemployed youth, complementing the existing Moukawalati program for tertiary graduates (who tend to show a lower propensity to self-employment).

Restructuring the Existing Youth Centers

In line with the strategic orientation of the Ministry of Youth and Sports, a new model for the Youth Centers (Maisons des Jeunes) is recommended, in which integrated services are offered under the themes of life and social skills, active youth participation, and employability skills. Investments and reforms should also focus on building partnerships and fundraising capacity, improving beneficiary targeting and outreach efforts, while introducing robust monitoring and evaluation systems. In the same manner, the Foyers Féminins need substantial investment and reform to meet their mandate of furthering the inclusion of young women, including better defining their target beneficiaries, rehabilitating and improving their current facilities and improving program content in coordination with other public programs and relevant NGO service providers.

With respect to targeting disadvantaged young beneficiaries, the report encourages the adoption of services and outreach tailored to specific age groups, gender considerations and/or youth categories. The second priority is to expand coverage of well-designed interventions in order to attract a much greater volume of disadvantaged youth in a cost-effective, inclusive manner. The third priority is to focus on the impact of cross-sectoral programs initiated by different ministries for the same beneficiary groups. This requires mapping existing program mandates and integrating them through a common and comprehensive

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4 For more see Mukawalati.ma
monitoring and evaluation system. The role of municipalities in the local coordination of youth inclusion services offered by various national entities should also be strengthened in order to facilitate synergies and cross-sectoral cooperation.

**Active Youth Participation in Programs and Policies**

There is a critical need to include youth in the delivery of quality services and the monitoring of local accountability in Morocco, especially in the context of greater youth engagement and voice in the public sphere. Youth service programs are a tested avenue to provide opportunities for young people to learn new skills while actively engaging in community development, for e.g. literacy tutoring, protecting the environment, small-scale infrastructure, etc. To promote the participation of unemployed and low-income youth, participants may receive a stipend or allowance for their work.

Youth participation in the development and implementation of national youth policy should be strengthened through **institutional channels. In most** European countries young people and their representative bodies are recognized as stakeholders and equal partners in the implementing youth policies - a system referred to as co-management. In Morocco, similar models are being developed. For example, *Conseil Local des Jeunes*, implemented by the NGO *Forum Méditerranéen de la Jeunesse et de l’Enfance* is a four-year program promoting the participation of youth in public life in rural and urban regions of each province. Meanwhile, the *Programme Concerté Maroc*, designed to build the youth capacity in exercising their civic duties and improve public policy on youth issues, has supported the creation in four Moroccan cities, of youth councils. These are working in concert with local, public, and civil society actors. These and other initiatives are promising foundations. However, wider and coordinated efforts to build representative and elected local and national youth councils will be needed to ensure a unified national approach to constructive interaction between youth, government, and society as a whole.

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5 This program is implemented by the Carrefour Network and is a partner of CCFD-Terre Solidaire. See Programme Concerté Maroc at www.pcm.ma
PROMOTING YOUNG PEOPLE’S OPPORTUNITIES AND PARTICIPATION

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Initiated prior to the Arab Spring, this report presaged the demands for social and economic inclusion articulated by Moroccan youth. Middle Eastern youth view themselves as central agents of positive socio-economic change. They believe they have a stake in their country’s future and have the assets and capacity to support positive change. The Arab Spring is the clearest expression of youth power: their demands for political change, accountability, voice, and representation contributed to a sweeping social change across the Region. This is the juncture to reflect upon their grievances rooted in their social and economic exclusion from processes which directly impact their lives. The main purpose of this study is to understand life transitions of Moroccan youth between the ages of 15 and 29. This study, which represents one of the most comprehensive analyses of youth issues in Morocco, seeks to consider some of the deep underlying structural factors to explain youth exclusion as a means to develop program and policy recommendations towards building a more youth inclusive society in Morocco.

BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The MENA Region has the largest youth cohort in modern times. With more than 100 million youth between the ages of 15 and 29, this segment represents about 30 percent of the region’s population. As recently as 1990, there were just 67 million Moroccan youth, accounting for about a tenth of the population of the entire MENA region. In 2009-2010, youth made up about 30 percent of Morocco’s population and 44 percent of the working age population (aged 15 to 64). Figure 1 presents the current Moroccan population pyramid.

This demographic situation presents both an opportunity and a challenge. Young people represent a significant asset for individual nation states and the global economy. This group will have considerable impact on the future of Morocco: through their innovations and productivity, they can serve as the key drivers to

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8 The population pyramid was created based on the representative household survey of 2,000 households and the appropriate population weights. Note that within each age group, often there are few observations, which might lead to the observed gender imbalance in some groups.
10 Estimations from the Morocco Household and Youth Survey 2009-2010.
A large and growing youth population can be a productive asset – a ‘demographic gift’ – especially with economic growth and job creation. Also, if fertility rates continue to decline, the current youth bulge will give way in the coming years to falling dependency ratios and an increase in the working age population. This should place fewer burdens on the state and, with a larger working age population, present potential opportunities for rapid economic growth—an effect that has been well documented with the rise of the Asian tiger economies. The challenge is that empirical evidence suggests that large youth cohorts are more likely to experience higher unemployment rates and pressure on wages.

Moroccan youth have largely been excluded from the country’s sustained economic growth in the recent decade. A 2007 Gallup poll indicates that 41 percent of youth were neither in the workforce nor in school. This is high even by neighboring country standards, where the median for this indicator was 28 percent (for a list of 20 Arab countries). According to the Morocco Household and Youth Survey (MHYS) from 2009/10, the situation is bleaker: 49 percent of Moroccan youth are neither in school nor in the workforce. A degree of disempowerment appears to have set in, with little optimism regarding employment opportunities: Gallup polls show that only 15 percent of Moroccan females and 13 percent of Moroccan males believe that it was a good time to find a job, slightly less than half the average for Maghreb countries. Academic observers believe there are patterns or drivers which reinforce youth economic exclusion in Morocco including: poor macro-economic performance; rapid urbanization; persistent poverty; poorly performing labor markets; and family dynamics.

Box 1: The Moroccan Economy and Labor Market: Jobless Growth?

Morocco has experienced notable economic performance improvements this past decade with growth averaging about 5.1 percent between 2001 to 2008 which is almost twice as high as the average of the previous decade. This growth is also less volatile and inflation has remained low (on average about 2.5 percent a year). With increases in investments from around 25 percent to 36 percent of GDP between 2001 and 2008, the prospects of sustained economic growth have improved as well. The economy showed resilience in the wake of the recent global financial crisis: following a slowdown in 2009, non-agricultural GDP grew by 5 percent over the four quarters of 2010, and overall GDP grew by an estimated 3.3 percent in 2010.

But though Recent economic growth has been higher than in the 1990s, this is not enough to accommodate the growing working age population, leading to high rates of unemployment and low participation rates. In 2010, less than half of the population (49.6 percent of those aged 15 and over) participated in the labor market. In fact, in the decade following 1999, labor force participation rates fell by about 5 percentage points. This trend is largely due to female labor force participation declining from 30.3 to 26 percent between 1999 and 2010. While inactivity in the labor market is high, unemployment is also high at 9.1 percent, despite the 5 percentage point decline between 1999 and 2010. Moreover, among youth (aged 15-24), unemployment is almost three and a half times as high. While higher growth performance over the last decade may explain part of the decline in unemployment, steadily declining labor force participation rates also contributed to it.

Why has economic growth not been able to absorb new entrants? A World Bank (2006) estimate suggests that given Morocco’s current growth patterns, it would need to grow at an even higher rate—at least 6 percent annually—to increase job creation over the next two decades.


13 Gallup, Inc. 2009. The Silatech Index: Voices of Young Arabs.
15 According to the official estimates of the Haut Commissariat au Plan.

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Moroccan Youth wish to engage as active citizens in their country. The evidence on political participation rates for Arab youth across various tiers of governance is scarce but there is concurrence that Arab youth do have strong expectations or desires to engage in civic matters at the community levels and beyond but it is unclear whether there are clear paths to such engagement in a form and manner which makes sense to youth. According to a 2007 analysis of youth exclusion in Morocco, the end of the 1990s is the period of initiation of democratic transitions and reform: an election code was adopted in 1997 which positively impacted the development of transparency during the 2002 elections, and laws concerning the organization of Parliament’s Assembly of Representatives and Assembly of Councilors. This same report describes progress in human by advocating national reconciliation through the creation of the Equity and Reconciliation Commission that seeks, among other things, to pay compensation for political victims. All of these achievements, including the lowering of the voting age to eighteen, and the celebration of the 10th World Youth Forum Day in 2003 have positively impacted youth as there are new forums to participate as citizens. Yes despite these, survey data shows that 73 percent of young people think that they are not adequately represented by their elected officials and that 60 percent do not trust politicians. Such findings have influenced the array of youth programs (launched mainly with NGOs) which are focused on the role of youth and the importance of their participation in the political process. Such efforts to include youth in political processes and public discussions must be leveraged and consolidated upon.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This study was designed to understand how two key youth transitions – to employment and to citizenship – can be understood in the context of the macro and political processes of Morocco. The premise of the study is that youth issues cannot be understood from a uni-dimensional perspective (i.e., solely as an economic problem), but rather the broader social, political and cultural considerations must be factored in as well. These factors need to be understood in the context of constraints and risks that are endogenous as well as exogenous. Towards understanding youth barriers to employment and citizenship, .

The 2007 World Development Report on Development and the Next Generation conceptualizes youth transitions to employment and citizenship in terms of opportunities, capabilities, and barriers defined as:

- **Opportunities**: focusing on opportunities for building human and social capital and on policies that help young people acquire, improve, and deploy their skills;

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- **Capabilities**: focusing on strengthening the capabilities of young people as they choose among opportunities available to them, through policies and services that dispense the information and incentives to help them make good decisions at any given point;

- **Barriers**: analyzing the institutional barriers preventing the full access to those opportunities, and identifying possible ways of removing them or correcting them.

What constitutes opportunities, capabilities, and barriers are not consistent across youth but is informed by socioeconomic status, geographic location, gender, and other socio-cultural factors that determine how each individual is situated in life.

The policies of youth inclusion must involve giving young people a stake in their society and this approach must involve a partnership between the government together with the public, including NGOs. Clearly, building human and social capital through more effective schooling, reforms in education and training will greatly expand the capacity of the young to transition effectively to employment. The transition to citizenship can be supported by, among other interventions, increasing the ability of youth to have ‘voice’ and use it effectively and here; having policies and programs shaped by youth themselves is a key to increasing their voice.

**METHODOLOGY**

The *Youth Opportunity and Participation* study team used a mixed-methods approach, combining a rigorous quantitative survey with qualitative investigation to explore the perspectives of Moroccan youth themselves. The survey - the Morocco Household and Youth Survey or MHYS was administered between December 2009 and March 2010. In addition to basic demographic information, data on issues such as migration, and social program participation was collected from a nationally representative sample of 2,000 households (1,216 urban and 784 rural) across the country. Data on household asset ownership was used to construct a household wealth index and classify households into welfare deciles. The MHYS also included a youth module which focused on young people aged 15 to 29 in the 2,000 surveyed households. Here, data on youth economic inclusion, aspirations, notions of leisure, community participation, and access to services and its usage were among the types of data collected from 2,883 individuals.

The qualitative data collection focused on youth goals and aspirations and this entailed thirty focus group discussions with under privileged youth conducted in four regions in Morocco across a variety of geographical settings. This methodology is fully described in Annex 2.

An in-depth analysis of institutions was the third methodological approach that was applied. The study team visited institutions, programs, and services targeted at young people and gathered, in-depth interviews, perspectives of institutions and their representatives by young beneficiaries.

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20 See Chapter 1 for a more detailed discussion of the quantitative survey methodology, and Annex 1 for the qualitative methodology.

21 The four regions were: Souss-Massa-Draa, Grand Casablanca, Fes-Boulemane, and Tangiers-Tetuan. The participants included 270 disadvantaged youth.
This original research was conducted in collaboration with the Ministry of Economy and General Affairs, the Ministry of Youth and Sports, the National Agency for Social Assistance ("Entraide Nationale"), and the Ministry of Agriculture and Maritime Fisheries (with the exception of the section of Chapter 3 on Active Labor Market Programs, which draws upon existing assessments).

**Structure of the Report**

This report consists of four main chapters. Chapter 1 analyses data on a range of issues relating to youth employment, derived mainly from the quantitative MHYS. These include unemployment, underemployment, time allocation, and perceptions about job quality. Chapter 2 presents the perceptions and aspirations of various groups of Moroccan youth, focusing mainly on the disadvantaged, drawing largely on the qualitative research undertaken for the study. Chapter 3 presents the results of the institutional analysis, and develops some recommendations to address some of the systematic institutional constraints encountered. Chapter 4 prevents a framework for the development of a youth strategy and policy for Morocco, together with a plan of integrated youth investments. It also reviews some of the international experiences most relevant to promoting the social and economic inclusion of youth.

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22 A sample of facilities and programs were selected from four sub-regions of Casablanca Region, Fez-Boulemane, Souss-Massa-Draa, and Tangiers-Tetuan.

23 The analysis also takes stock of a recent World Bank study of the targeting of social protection programs in the country, which reviews programs that address a wide range of risks throughout the life cycle. See World Bank, 2010, “Note stratégique sur le ciblage et la Protection Sociale” (Strategy Note on Targeting and Social Protection), Social Sector Department, World Bank Morocco Office, Rabat.
1.1 Introduction

Young people aged 15 to 29 years, who account for almost a third of Morocco’s population, face considerable challenges in integrating into the economic and civic life of their country. A substantial proportion is unemployed, and an even larger number remain inactive in the labor force, discouraged by their poor prospects of finding a job. Among young people who are employed, a majority work in the informal sector with little or no job security or benefits. At the same time, youth have very low levels of engagement in civic activities, largely eschewing involvement in civic associations and community affairs. Therefore, a pivotal challenge facing Moroccan society today is to facilitate the active and meaningful inclusion of its youth in economic and civic life, thereby enabling their transition to adulthood.

Morocco faces persistent socioeconomic exclusion even at a time when the economy is doing well. In the last decade, Morocco has enjoyed sustained economic growth, with an average annual growth rate of about 5 percent—almost twice its average growth rate in the 1990s. This growth has been accompanied by several encouraging trends: stable inflation, increased integration with the global economy, increased levels of investment, decreased dependence on agriculture, and a fall in unemployment and lower official poverty levels compared to the previous decade.24 Morocco has also achieved substantial gains in education in recent times, with broad access to basic education and improvements in the number of people attaining higher levels of education.

These improvements notwithstanding, a large swathe of the youth population is not fully sharing in the country’s economic development. Young people can be critical drivers of economic growth and development in Morocco, but they are not. There are risks associated with the exclusion from economic and civic life of any group including of escalating political tensions as witnessed under the Arab Spring in neighboring countries.

This chapter examines young people’s inclusion in economic and civic life in Morocco, drawing on data from a recent household and youth survey—the Morocco Household and Youth Survey (MHYS) conducted in 2009–2010. Typically, the discussion on economic exclusion in Morocco has focused on youth unemployment, and more specifically, on unemployed graduates.25 While data from the MHYS 2009–2010 demonstrate that unemployment levels are indeed high, this chapter explores the broader and multiple dimensions of exclusion from economic life faced by young men and women. In particular, a distinctive contribution of this chapter is its focus on the high numbers of young men and women who, while not classified as “unemployed,” are not active at all in the labor force, especially those

who are not in the labor force due to discouragement. In discussing the multiple dimensions of youth exclusion (i.e., unemployment, inactivity, underemployment, informality, and poor job quality), the chapter develops a profile of young people in Morocco by linking individual and household micro-factors such as education, wealth status, and gender to various labor market outcomes. Finally, the concept of exclusion among youth is extended to the area of civic and social life and how it relates to economic factors.

The phenomenon of exclusion affects the lives of youth across all socioeconomic and educational backgrounds. According to estimates from the MHYS 2009–2010, about two-thirds of all Moroccan youth who are not in school are either unemployed or out of the labor force: roughly 40 percent of young men and 90 percent of young women. A large proportion of youth who are out of the labor force, especially men, are discouraged workers. Discouragement is higher among youth from poorer economic backgrounds and with lower levels of education. Unemployment affects youth from all educational backgrounds and is not significantly more severe among those with the highest level of education (i.e., tertiary or greater). Some 95 percent of unemployed youth have less than a tertiary education and 80 percent have less than a secondary education. Among young people who are employed, about nine in ten are involved in informal sector jobs. While the informality of employment declines with more education, even one-third of youth with a tertiary education hold informal sector jobs.

Exclusion from civic life is linked to large portions of youth’s time being spent on unstructured leisure activities. Those who are economically excluded (i.e., unemployed or out of the labor force) spend a larger share of their time on unstructured leisure activities. Generally, the participation of youth in civic associations and community activities is low, suggesting that exclusion is not restricted to economic opportunities but also encompasses broader community and civic participation.

1.2 The Morocco Household and Youth Survey (MHYS) of 2009-2010

While youth account for a large segment of Morocco’s population, very little can be gleaned from available quantitative surveys on the most pressing issues that confront young people. Earlier household surveys in Morocco, with the exception of a UNICEF-led survey on health, have not focused on special groups such as youth. The quarterly Employment Survey administered by the Haut Commissariat Au Plan is the source of Morocco’s official employment-related statistics. This survey collects information on employment from individuals (aged 15 and above) across about 15,000 households per quarter, 60,000 per year, and produces reliable estimates that can be disaggregated by different age groups, such as the youth population. However, this survey focuses more on monitoring trends over time, rather than understanding the drivers of individual labor market outcomes. Existing nationally representative, multi-topic surveys (e.g., the 2007 Enquête Nationale sur les Niveaux de Vie du Ménage (ENNVM)—(National Survey on the Living Standards of Households) are more suited to linking labor market outcomes with individual characteristics. However, such surveys are typically not widely

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accessible to researchers outside of the government. As such, probing analytical studies on Moroccan youth are quite rare.\footnote{This point was also noted by a World Bank study (World Bank, 2007, “Moving out of Poverty in Morocco,” draft report 39992-MOR, Social Economic development MENA, World Bank, Washington, DC.}

**The MHYS 2009–2010 was conducted to fill the data gap on youth.** This nationally representative survey of 2,000 households (of which 1,216 were urban and 784 were rural) was carried out between December 2009 and March 2010. It focused specifically on a number of crucial youth issues, such as obstacles to access the labor market and civic participation, factors influencing job satisfaction, and reasons underpinning young people’s intentions to emigrate. The survey collected detailed information on all household members’ demographic and educational characteristics, as well as their economic activities. At the same time, it probed themes such as the ability of households to cope with shocks, their use of social assistance, and household migration behavior.

The MHYS also included a separate instrument administered to 2,883 young individuals between the ages of 15 and 29, and representing about 90 percent of the youth in the surveyed households. Information was collected on topics such as economic inclusion, community participation, and use of key public services. The survey was thus able to examine little-studied issues relating to youth such as participation in the labor force, intermediation, career choice, perceived job possibilities, use of time, use of recreational and educational activities targeting youth who have completed formal education.

**Thus, while the MHYS collected standard labor market–related statistics characteristic of a typical labor force survey, its scope was much wider.** Survey data allow for a much richer linking of individual characteristics with labor market outcomes. Furthermore, apart from collecting information from which multiple aspects of economic exclusion can be examined, the survey also permitted an examination of civic exclusion.

### 1.3 Youth Participation in the Labor Market

**Morocco has achieved substantial gains in education in recent times.** Young men and women are more educated than their older counterparts (see Table 1.1). For example, a higher proportion of young people aged 15–21 has attended school at some point than young people aged 22–29, suggesting improvements in the very recent past. This holds true across genders and across rural and urban areas. Most impressive has been the improvement among rural females. Whereas among rural women aged 22 to 29, only 40 percent have ever attended school, among rural women aged 15–21 the proportion rises to 73 percent. While rural areas still lag behind urban areas, the former appears to have experienced major improvements.

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<th>15–21 years</th>
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<td>All</td>
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<td>National</td>
<td>89.0</td>
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<td>Urban</td>
<td>96.3</td>
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<td>Rural</td>
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This progress in educational attainment, however, has not translated into a successful transition of young people to the labor market. According to a World Bank (2007) study, Moroccan youth cited unemployment and lack of access to stable livelihoods as the major problem they faced. Across the MENA region, youth are strongly disadvantaged in the labor market compared to other age groups: in particular, they are underrepresented in the labor force, face high unemployment rates, and work in lower quality jobs. The same pattern has been shown for Morocco in earlier studies, which the 2009-2010 MHYS reinforces with additional insights.

The labor force participation of youth (aged 15–29) is lower than that of the non-youth population of working age (aged 30–64), as shown in panel A of Figure 1.1. This is not surprising, since a large fraction of youth also attend school and are hence absent from the labor force. When the school-going population is excluded (panel B of Figure 1.1), the labor force participation rate among youth increases, but remains lower for male youth than male non-youth (77 percent versus 83 percent). Labor force participation also appears slightly lower among male urban youth than among male rural youth.

Women’s labor force participation rate is significantly lower than men, in all age groups. For example, while in urban areas about 75 percent of all non-school-attending young males are in the labor force, only 28 percent of young women are. In rural areas, young women’s labor force participation is less than 10 percent. Women’s generally more limited freedom of action in rural areas has often been offered as a likely reason for their low labor force participation, compared with urban areas where women are freer to engage in labor markets and manage financial resources for themselves. Notably, while young women’s participation in the labor market in rural areas is lower than that of non-youth (as is true for rural males), the opposite holds in urban areas. Young women in urban areas are the only group with higher labor force participation than that of their older peers, suggesting a marked shift among young urban women towards greater economic participation.

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29 Boudarbat and Ajbilou, 2009, “Moroccan Youth in an Era of Volatile Growth.”
30 Individuals who are employed and individuals who are looking for jobs but are not employed (i.e., who are unemployed), are considered to participate in the labor force. Those who are not employed and are not looking jobs are considered out of the labor force or inactive in the labor market.
31 Female labor force participation does not consider the valuable contributions made by females in the domestic spheres.
32 The estimates of female labor force participation in the MHYS appears lower than the official estimates of the Morocco Employment Survey. For example, for all women aged 15 and above, the Employment Survey of 2009 suggests female labor force participation to be 25 percent nationally; the MHYS estimates it to be about 15 percent. Apart from sampling error and differences in the time periods the surveys were implemented, it is likely that differences in survey protocol contribute to this difference. In particular, the MHYS considers women who have worked the equivalent of one day in the last seven days as being employed, whereas the Morocco Employment Survey has a one hour threshold. This likely leads to MHYS’s employment estimates, and in turn its labor force participation estimates for women being comparatively lower.
While a plurality of men who are not in school are employed (59 percent), a staggering 41 percent of all young males out of school are either unemployed or out of the labor force. Figure 1.2 illustrates the shares of out of school youth who are employed, unemployed or inactive due to discouragement or due to family or other reasons.

The share of inactive male youth (25 percent) is, in fact, greater than the share of unemployed youth (16 percent), as shown in Figure 1.2. Most of the inactive young males are in fact discouraged workers—those who are inactive because they believe they stand little chance of getting a suitable job. This poses a major policy challenge for Morocco.

While it is striking that a large proportion of young males who are not in school are staying out of the labor force, an overwhelming majority of young females not attending school, 82 percent, is inactive in the labor market. The share of female youth who are employed is very small—hardly 12
percent as a whole and only 5 percent in rural areas. Most women (63 percent) cite family reasons and social norms as the main reason for their economic inactivity outside of the household domain. However, among young women, as among young men, high levels of inactivity are observed due to discouragement (19 percent). In fact, about three times as many women report being inactive due to discouragement than report being unemployed (6.3 percent). Thus, inactivity due to discouragement is very high among young males, and even higher among female youth. However, findings from the qualitative survey, discussed in Chapter 2, reveal that male and female participants in focus group discussions felt that young men were relatively more disadvantaged in the labor market and suffered more stress than young women. For young men, work is considered a key aspect of adulthood, while for women, work is viewed more as an option than an obligation.

**Inactivity in the labor force is common for young men from diverse backgrounds.** For example, the inactivity rate is high and quite similar across education groups (see Figure 1.3), with slightly higher rates among young men with lower secondary or secondary degrees.

**Among females, inactivity clearly decreases with education:** among young women with no education, 93 percent are inactive, while among those with tertiary education, 37 percent are.

**Given the high level of inactivity among young people in Morocco, unemployment figures provide only a partial picture of their exclusion from economic life.** It is clear that youth account for a key group among the excluded. While there is an aspect of choice in not participating in the labor market, the data indicate that a large proportion of youth are inactive because they feel discouraged about the prospects of finding employment. Previous studies focusing on challenges faced by youth in the Moroccan labor market have tended to focus on unemployed graduates but have not paid much attention to this group of inactive youth.34

**High unemployment figures underscore the poor labor market situation of young people, especially in urban areas.**35 In general, women participating in the labor market face higher rates of unemployment than do men in both rural and urban areas. Urban male youth suffer from very high rates of unemployment vis-à-vis rural areas (31 percent versus 12.6 percent). Among young women, the unemployment rate in urban areas is almost twice as high as in rural areas.

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34 For example, see Baudarbat and Ajbilou, 2009, “Youth Exclusion in Morocco,” and 2009, “Moroccan Youth in an Era of Volatile Growth.”

35 Note that the unemployment rate refers to the ratio of unemployed young people by young people who are in the labor force.
These lower rural unemployment rates, however, do not signify a relatively better labor market situation for youth who live in rural areas. Levels of inactivity among rural and urban men are similarly high (about 25 percent), as shown in Figure 1.2. Among young women in rural areas, 93 percent do not participate in the labor force which is about 20 percentage points higher than among young urban females. At the same time, subsequent analysis in this chapter shows underemployment among rural youth, both male and female, to be more severe than among their urban counterparts.

One should recall that the purpose of the Morocco Household and Youth Survey is mainly to better understand and identify the obstacles faced by youth to access the labor market and participate actively, rather than to measure employment indicators. Hence, the figures of this survey do not purport to substitute for the official employment-survey figures, the Haut Commissariat au Plan’s ENE, which are accessible online on the HCP’s ENE website: http://www.hcp.ma.\(^{36}\)

**Vulnerability to unemployment** increases with education and appears to be highest for those with secondary education for both men and women (Figure 1.5 reflects the trends observed among the Moroccan youth surveyed). As discussed later in the chapter, those with higher education levels are more likely to be seeking work and be counted as unemployed, than those with lower education levels, among whom inactivity levels are higher.

**Regression analysis shows that the probability of unemployment is higher for female youth, youth who live in urban areas, and increases for youth with more education** (see Table A1.1 in Annex 1). For example, a young urban male with no education has a 22 percent probability of being unemployed. For a similar young woman, this probability rises to 31 percent. Unlike their counterparts in the cities, uneducated men in rural areas face a substantially lower likelihood of unemployment: 10 percent. Interestingly, the wealth of a young person’s household as determined by the asset index does not have a significant impact on his or her probability of being unemployed (see Annex 1 for a description of an asset index constructed to rank the relative economic positions of households). Based on the regression results, two groups of young people were identified as having the most divergent vulnerabilities to unemployment. On the one end of the spectrum, urban females who have completed secondary education face the greatest risk of unemployment (50 percent). While on the other end of the spectrum, young rural males with no education face the lowest risk (10 percent). **Being young, better-educated, urban, and female increases the probability of unemployment**—a finding that points to a number of constraints in

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36 Because the time periods covered in the surveys do not coincide perfectly, the two surveys may estimate unemployment rates differently. Differences also likely arise from different protocols followed to collect information on unemployment across the surveys. Furthermore, though the MHYS is nationally representative, as well as representative at the rural and urban level, some differences across the surveys can arise from sampling error.
the Moroccan labor market: initial barriers to entry, limited returns to education, lack of jobs and market-relevant skills, and potential stereotypes and restrictions based on cultural norms.

Box 1.1: Out of School and Out of Work: An Alternative Indicator of Youth Challenges in the Labor Market

To understand the challenges that youth face in the labor market, this chapter uses indicators for youth unemployment and nonparticipation in the labor market; it also looks at underemployment among young people who are working. The analysis finds that young people in Morocco face difficulties in all these dimensions.

An alternative indicator for how youth fare in the labor market is the number of youth who are both out of school and out of work (expressed as a fraction of the relevant age group), often called the joblessness rate. This indicator was proposed in the World Development Report 2007. By measuring the number of youth neither in school nor at work, this indicator attempts to express the percentage of youth who represent a “missed opportunity.” The joblessness rate was proposed as an alternative to the unemployment rate as an indicator of young people’s constraints in the labor market because unemployment does not include “discouraged” people who are not looking for work. It should be recognized, however, that the status of not working is often a choice on the part of individuals, especially women.

The MHYS 2009–2010 data indicates that youth joblessness is very high in Morocco. Almost half of all youth are both out of school and out of work. Among young females, the problem is severe: in rural areas, 9 out of 10 women belong to this category. Among young men, the problem is also severe: 3 in 10 face joblessness in both rural and urban areas. Thus, the indicator of joblessness, much like indicators for youth inactivity in the labor market and youth unemployment, point to high levels of exclusion of Moroccan youth from the labor market.

While regional comparisons are problematic, due to the comparability of the definition of joblessness and differences in survey years, some figures of joblessness are reported for the MENA region. Morocco’s joblessness figures in 2009–2010 were, for example, worse than those of Egypt in 2006 (where 18.4 percent of all males and 54.6 percent of all females were jobless, according to calculations based on the Egypt Labor Force Survey, or LFS, of 2006). By contrast, Morocco’s 2009–2010 figures appear comparable to the 2008 figures of Jordan, where the joblessness rate among men was 24.5 percent and among women, 71.5 percent (according to calculations computed by the Jordanian Department of Statistics using the Jordanian LFS).

The joblessness rate (51.6 percent) is lower than the combined incidence of unemployment and inactivity (64 percent) in Morocco. This is because school enrollment rates are relatively high compared with labor force participation rates.

Notes:
a. The joblessness rate (51.6 percent) is lower than the combined incidence of unemployment and inactivity (64 percent) in Morocco. This is because school enrollment rates are relatively high compared with labor force participation rates.
While the likelihood of a young person being unemployed appears to be higher among those with a secondary education, when looking at the total numbers, the bulk of unemployed youth are found to be uneducated or less educated. Less than 5 percent of unemployed youth has tertiary or more education, and about 16 percent have secondary education. Almost 80 percent of unemployed youth has less than secondary education (or no education at all). To date, the literature on the unemployed in Morocco, as well as policy interventions on unemployment, have focused more on educated unemployed youth. The findings in this chapter point to the fact that most policy interventions in Morocco have to date focused on a minority of unemployed youth, while ill serving the less educated majority.

**Participation rates vary widely by wealth**

Among young males, the two most striking differences are in the top and bottom decile (panel A of Figure 1.7). First, among young males in the top wealth decile, a greater share is unemployed. This may be because they are more selective about the jobs that they accept, compared to their poorer counterparts. Conversely, about 30 percent of the poorest male youth are out of the labor force, mostly due to discouragement, compared to only 20 percent in the top decile. The high level of nonparticipation in the labor market due to discouragement among poor young males is indeed puzzling. Their lack of motivation might result from the influence of networks and/or connections in finding jobs. If wealth were a proxy for connectivity to job market networks, it would not be surprising to find youth from poorer households feeling more demotivated about their job prospects. In general, the share of employed youth is greater among the richest decile compared with the poorest decile.

Among young women, the data show virtually no employment in the poorest decile households (which are mostly rural); almost all these women are out of the labor force, and a large number are discouraged (20 percent). Young women’s employment increases with wealth; however, unemployment is still high. Among the richest 10 percent of households, 70 percent of females are out of the labor force.

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However, rigorous analysis suggests that only some of the above-mentioned aspects of the labor force participation of poor youth are directly connected to the wealth of their families. Most of the observed differences are caused by factors other than wealth, such as education (see Table A1.2 in Annex 1). Consider, for example, the probability that a young person would be out of the labor force for reasons other than demotivation (e.g., staying at home due to family reasons, an inability to work). While it is true that more youth from poorer households have this status, it is primarily associated with having little (primary) or no education and being female. In fact, when controlling for all other factors, richer youth are more likely to stay at home than their poor counterparts.

Other significant aspects of the labor force participation (or lack thereof) of poor young people are linked more directly to family wealth: youth from the poorest households are much more likely to stay out of the labor force due to demotivation than the richest youth. However, education and age also play a role in youth demotivation—regression results from the survey data show that youth with secondary or less education are significantly more likely to be out of the labor force due to demotivation, and that older youth are less likely to be found in this category.
Greater education (with the exception of vocational and tertiary education) raises the probability of unemployment and lowers the probability of employment, compared with those with no education. Only in the case of vocational and tertiary education were increased chances of both employment and unemployment observed. Results from regression analysis on education make a strong point that educated youth have a stronger drive to participate in the labor force even if they are unable to find a job. Youth of older ages act in a similar fashion (i.e., greater age raises both the probability of unemployment and employment). Wealth is the only characteristic that raises the probability of employment while lowering that of unemployment.

1.4 Quality of Young People’s Jobs

While young men and women struggle to participate in the labor force, those who do participate widely report poor quality jobs. The types of jobs that young people hold are critical to their welfare, as this section will make clear.

Most youth in Morocco (almost half) are employed as salaried workers in private companies. As shown in Figure 1.8, other common forms of employment are family aid (15.5 percent of all employed youth) and apprentices (10 percent). Public salaried positions are rare—only 5 percent of employed youth have such positions—even though they are greatly coveted: 46 percent of youth survey respondents preferred public sector jobs to either private sector jobs or self-employment. The importance of the public sector as a source of jobs, however, is lower among younger people. Among the non-youth working population aged 30 to 64, 11.6 percent work in the public sector—almost twice the rate among working youth. Not surprisingly, self-employment among youth is also less frequent than among the working non-youth population.

Box 1.2: Youth Educational Attainments Are Linked to Household Wealth

Regression estimates, using the date of the MHYS 2009–2010, suggest that the completion of primary or lower secondary education among youth 25–29 years of age is significantly associated with the wealth level of their families, gender, and location. The lowest probability of completing primary or lower secondary school (6 percent) is found among rural females from the poorest households. A similarly poor rural male has a much higher probability of completing either of these levels of education (16 percent). Completion rates are higher in urban regions: the poorest males in urban areas have a higher probability of finishing at least primary school (38.2 percent). Finally, the wealth of a young person’s family is another important factor in completion rates: the richest urban males have the greatest probability of completing primary or lower secondary schooling (89.6 percent).

For secondary education, the probability of completion depends mainly on the location of a young person and his or her family’s wealth. Again, the differences are striking: a poor rural youth has only a 1 percent probability of completing secondary education, while a typical rich urban youth has a 34.2 percent probability. Finally, the probability of completing a vocational or university degree also depends on family wealth and location: a poor rural youth has virtually no likelihood (0.6 percent) of completing either degree, while rich urban youth have a 35.6 percent likelihood of completing either one.

Note:

Another way of looking at how educational attainment is affected by household background is to see its link with the education level of parents, which in itself is a strong correlate of household wealth levels. Not surprisingly, in regressions we see a positive association between the education of the father and the education of the mother on youth education levels.
An overwhelming majority of young females in urban areas—almost 4 out of 5—are employed as salaried employees in the private sector. About 10 percent of all employed female youth in urban areas work in the public sector. In rural areas, young employed women most commonly work as private sector wage workers (about 40 percent); while a little over 25 percent are family aids. Among young men in both urban and rural areas, private sector salaried positions are most common. However, compared to women, there appears to be more diversity in the sectors that men work in, particularly in urban areas. For example, while hardly any female youth work as apprentices or are self-employed, among urban young men, 11.5 percent work as apprentices and about 15 percent are self-employed (both inside and outside of the home).
About 88 percent of employed youth work without a contract (see Figure 1.10). Thus, most youth who work have informal sector jobs, as in other MENA countries. Interestingly, among employed non-youth (aged 30–64), there is a lower incidence of informal jobs, but the percentage is still very high (about 81 percent). When alternative indicators of formality are used, such as contributions to social security or receiving health insurance through a job, the picture is even bleaker—especially in relation to older workers. Only 11.4 percent of employed youth contribute to social security and only 9.7 percent have health insurance.

Unlike informal sector jobs, formal sector jobs come with certain benefits in addition to a salary. Social security (sécurité sociale) is the most common benefit of jobs with contracts—78 percent of youth with contracts reported having this benefit. Social security is slightly less common in rural areas with 62
percent of youth in formal sector employment receiving it; however, its coverage is considerably lower among rural youth (33 percent) than urban youth (68.4 percent). The third most common benefit is a holiday bonus, which about 40 percent of youth working in the formal sector receive. Training is not common as a benefit. Among urban youth jobs, 17 percent reported receiving training, but none of the small number of formal sector workers in rural areas reported receiving it.

However limited the number of informal jobs in urban areas (see Figure 1.11), the gender divide in informal employment in urban areas is quite staggering: 40 percent of all employed women have contracts, while 13 percent of men do. It is also likely that the low prevalence of young women in the informal sector keeps their overall employment low. Rural areas offer virtually no formal sector employment for women and very little for men (about 6 percent).

Youth with lower levels of education are more likely to be employed in the informal sector. However, the prevalence of informal sector jobs is also large among youth that are more educated. For example, as shown in Figure 1.12, 40 percent of working young men with tertiary education are employed in the informal sector. Among women with the same education, the percentage is lower (27 percent).

The chances of a young person having a job contract, i.e., having formal employment, increases with the wealth of his or her household and with higher education, as suggested by regression analysis (see Table A1.4 in Annex 1). Conversely, the chances are lower for uneducated youth from poor backgrounds. Regression analysis suggests that the informality of a job does not depend significantly on the gender or location of a young employee. To illustrate the differences in the probability of having a formal job, consider an uneducated poor youth, who has a 3.3 percent probability of having a formal job, vis-à-vis a youth with tertiary education from a wealthy family, who has a 91 percent probability.

Figure 1.11: Types of Job among Male and Female Youth (ages 15-29), by Location

![Bar chart showing the distribution of contract and no contract jobs by gender and location.](chart)


38 These statistics are not disaggregated by gender due to the small sample size.
Key Work-Related Problems Reported by Employed Youth

Deeper analysis of employment patterns reveals that employed youth face high levels of underemployment, that is, they work fewer hours than they desire. The incidence of underemployment among employed young people is almost twice as high among young men than young women—29 percent versus 16 percent (see Figure 1.13). Youth in rural areas—both male and female—fare worse than youth in urban areas: in rural areas, about one-third of male and female youth report being underemployed. This is largely due to the pervasiveness of informal jobs in the rural sector. On the other hand, few urban employed females (10 percent) report being underemployed because a larger number of them hold formal sector jobs.

Underemployment is significantly higher in the informal sector, where many jobs are short-term or temporary. Some 31 percent of the youth employed informally are available for additional work and 5.5 percent are actively looking for additional employment. In contrast, only 9 percent of youth employed in the formal sector feel that they could work more, and none are actively looking for work. Controlling for the level of completed education, youth from wealthier backgrounds are less likely to feel underemployed, perhaps due to the higher quality of their informal jobs, which may be more fulfilling. Females are also associated with a lower risk of underemployment, a finding that probably reflects the differences in their employment preferences and the types of jobs that they accept.
Most young people are dissatisfied with their jobs—about 25 percent of youth survey respondents said that they were completely dissatisfied, and 45.5 percent were barely satisfied. Controlling for a wide range of personal and job characteristics, the wealth of a young person’s household contributes most significantly to a greater level of job satisfaction, perhaps because wealthier youth are able to find more suitable jobs. Some 62 percent of youth in the richest decile report being generally satisfied with their jobs, while only 15 percent of the youth in the bottom decile report being so. The second most important factor that contributes to job satisfaction relates to the formality of the job: 61 percent of youth with formal jobs are satisfied, while only 25 percent of youth with informal jobs are. This finding may suggest either that there is a strong preference among young people for stable jobs or that formal jobs tend to be of better quality, or a combination of both.

Youth frequently reported various types of problems with their jobs—the most serious appear to be lack of pay, heavy workloads, long hours, and boredom. Physical abuse and unclear pay are less commonly reported. For males, work hazards are important, while females often feel harassed at the workplace and on the way to work.

Figure 1.14: Problems that Employed Youth (Males and Females) Report at Their Jobs

Work Preferences

Despite the dissatisfaction of employed youth with their working conditions, young people place a high value on working: a majority of surveyed youth (67 percent) stated that they would like to work or continue to work. However, there are significant differences in the propensity to work across various youth characteristics, the most important of which are gender, education, and area of residence. Men are much more likely to be willing to work (97 percent) than women (41.9 percent), a fact that is doubtless a reflection of very different employment preferences between the sexes. Urban youth are also more likely to wish to work (75.6 percent) than rural youth (58.9 percent), a factor which is significant even when controlling for differences in wealth and education levels between these two categories of youth. Encouragingly, a higher percentage of educated youth, especially those with vocational training (99.1 percent) and tertiary education (93.8 percent), intend to work than uneducated youth (55.9 percent), likely because uneducated youth tend to be more discouraged. Finally, the wealth of a young person’s family (as represented by the asset index rankings), even after taking into account all other characteristics, plays a small yet persistent role in reducing his or her willingness to work.

In general, women respondents report many obstacles to working that men do not report. For example, women report being reluctant to work because of social norms or the attitudes of relatives. Some 30.6 percent of young women state that they are unwilling or unable to work because their husbands do not allow it, while another 23.2 percent are prohibited by their parents. Another 22.9 percent report that they are too busy doing household chores to work (see Figure 1.15).

Of surveyed youth without jobs who were available to work, a very large majority (70 percent) reported that they were not looking for a job. As seen earlier in this chapter, this is the result of a high level of discouragement. A majority (57 percent) of youth who indicated a desire to work, but were not looking for a job, believed no jobs were available. The second most important reported reason (14.4 percent) for not looking for a job was being tired of the job search. To understand which types of youth are more likely to succumb to such negative views of job opportunities, the probability of being discouraged was related to key youth characteristics (e.g., gender, urban or rural surroundings, type of education, and length of time a young person had previously tried to look for a job).

The belief that no jobs are available is held nearly universally by all youth with the important exception of young people who have completed vocational training, who are less likely to believe that jobs are not available. With respect to being tired of looking for a job, males, urban youth, and young people who have been looking for over one year are generally more susceptible to this sentiment. Youth with vocational training are also more likely to feel tired of looking for a job. Given that this group is
generally more optimistic about the availability of jobs, it can be speculated that young people who have obtained vocational training have higher expectations of finding a job, and thus, get tired and/or impatient more quickly if they fail to find one.

**An interesting finding is that most unemployed youth do not refuse the jobs offered to them**—only 11.4 percent of unemployed youth had refused a job in the three months preceding the survey, mainly because the wage offered was too low. Another 61 percent of unemployed youth who reported refusing jobs did so for this reason. However, the probability that a particular young person might refuse a job offer based on his or her gender differs from the probability that he or she would do so based on the wealth of his or her family, as suggested by the results of the regression analysis. While a poor male youth may refuse a job with a 5 percent probability, a rich male youth is likely to refuse a job with a 16.8 percent probability. Finally, the probability that a rich female youth will refuse a job is even higher: 23 percent, as opposed to 7 percent for a poor female.

**Most surveyed youth (74 percent) identify good pay as the number one factor in their job search, with little variation across different categories of young people.** Only in the region of Rabat (and the greater metropolitan region of Rabat/Salé/Zemmour/Zaer, which is the capital region of Morocco, was there disproportionately more interest in obtaining public sector jobs. The next most important factors (when the top three preferences were listed) are more varied, and include job permanency (39 percent), working close to home (33 percent), working in the public sector (22.8 percent), and health and social security coverage (21 percent). **Even though many young people would like to have a job in the public sector, few cite this preference over their preference for good pay.** Regression analysis of survey results suggest that the strength of a young person’s desire for a public job depends on his or her education and location. Youth with more than primary education, except those with vocational education, are much more likely to list public employment as their top preference than are less-educated youth; similarly, urban youth are more likely to list work in the public sector as their top preference than are rural youth. Unlike several other MENA countries, where youth “queue for jobs in the public sector even as these sectors retrench,” the quantitative data used in this chapter implies that this phenomenon is not prevalent among Moroccan youth. Public sector employment is already very small and youth do not appear to refrain from taking up employment while waiting for a public sector job.39

**Despite the level of interest expressed by young survey respondents, very few are actually self-employed.** Depending on the formulation of the question, the rate ranges between 9.3 percent (when referring to employment over the past 12 months, as reported by the head of the household) to 2.5 percent (self-reporting of immediate employment status in the youth survey module). **Of those who are not presently self-employed, only 9 percent have considered establishing their own business, in either the past or the immediate future.** Interestingly, 39 percent of those who do not own a business have not attempted to establish one and, although they are not thinking of establishing one in the near future, they want to have their own business in ten years.

**The key problem identified by youth with regard to establishing or running a business is access to capital**—81.4 percent of surveyed youth responded that this factor was important or very important. The

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second most important concern was financial risk (62 percent of respondents). On the other hand, several possible obstacles were seen as important by far fewer respondents, including corruption (13.2 percent), workload (14 percent), and lack of social protection (20.2 percent). Interestingly, a quarter of surveyed women stated that their gender is an important obstacle preventing them from establishing or running a business.

**Desire and Plans to Migrate**

Migration is an important element in Morocco’s economic development. Approximately three million Moroccans, about 10 percent of the total population, live abroad. According to recent estimates, they contribute about US$ 6 billion (about 9 percent of GDP) each year to the country’s economy. In fact, the youth survey shows that youth in Morocco have a strong desire to migrate.¹⁰

**One young person in three reported having a desire or plans to leave Morocco at some point in the future.** Moreover, roughly the same percentage of respondents (29 percent, or 10 percent of all surveyed youth) says that they have an actual plan or strategy for emigration. Unsurprisingly, young men are by far more likely to desire emigration (48 percent would like to emigrate). The desire to emigrate rises with higher education and falls with a rural location. Multiple explanations are consistent with this result. To the extent networks or connectivity matter, many people may not be fully aware of the full range of options open to them. In that case, this phenomenon could arise if less-educated rural youth have lower levels of knowledge of life outside of Morocco.

**While young men and urban youth may wish to emigrate more often, when asked about specific plans and strategies to emigrate, these differences no longer matter**—living in rural areas and female gender in no way reduce the probability of a young person having plans or strategies to emigrate. Supporting the notion that knowledge and availability of funds are essential for emigration, education and wealth are indeed among the most important determinants of the likelihood that a young person has plans to emigrate. Some 20.5 percent of all youth with tertiary education and 18.8 percent of the youth from the highest wealth decile report having plans or strategies to leave Morocco permanently. However, plans to emigrate are not completely determined by a young person’s available means, but are also driven by internal motivation. Youth who hold the most unfavorable views of the opportunities to improve their

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social status are also much more likely to have plans to emigrate (14.6 percent) than youth who are content with their social status (7.4 percent).

The desire to emigrate is thus very strong among Moroccan youth, especially among young people who have some education, relative to countries in the region. At the same time, it appears that young people with the highest level of education, and hence an apparently greater ability to migrate, are likelier to have specific plans to do so. According to a Gallup survey of young adults aged between 15 and 29 in the Arab League countries, about 30 percent of the surveyed youth would like to migrate permanently to another country if they had the opportunity. For Morocco, the figure is 37 percent. Of countries in the MENA region, only Tunisia’s average is higher than Morocco’s (with 44 percent of youth wanting to emigrate permanently).41 At the same time, it is worth noting that an earlier World Bank (2007) study found that despite recognizing the increased economic opportunities of migration, young people also expressed ambivalence about migration due to the associated costs, hardships, and potential risks. In interviews, rural youth in particular expressed concerns about adjusting to life in the cities. Young people, especially girls, also expressed concerns about the negative impacts that migration has on families and communities.42

1.5 USE OF YOUTH LABOR SUPPORT PROGRAMS

The objective of this section is to provide some basic evidence of the use of existing programs using micro data from MHYS to give the user’s perspective.

ANAPEC

In 2000, the government set up the National Agency for Promoting Employment and Skills, or ANAPEC, with the objective of matching up the skills of job seekers with the demands of employers. ANAPEC gathered job offers from employers and attempted to link job seekers with these positions. Job seekers enrolled in the ANAPEC were eligible to receive career counseling and young entrepreneurs were eligible to receive advice on their projects. Initially, ANAPEC was targeted to youth who had completed secondary education and above. Very recently, ANAPEC has decided to increase its reach to lower educated youth as well, however, without a visible increase in utilization. Findings from the MHYS suggest both awareness and use of ANAPEC to be low among Moroccan youth. Although the survey was not specifically designed to target potential ANAPEC beneficiaries, it is nonetheless noteworthy that a large portion of the sample did not know about ANAPEC.

The level of knowledge of the ANAPEC among young people remains relatively poor—only 14 percent of the surveyed youth know of the program. It appears that ANAPEC is more successful in reaching youth in cities than in villages. The survey shows that while 22 percent of urban youth have heard of the program, only 4 percent of the rural ones have. Of the unemployed youth, 25 percent know of the program. This suggests a low level of awareness among the group of people who could benefit from ANAPEC’s services the most.

Besides ANAPEC being mostly unknown to young people and those seeking employment, only eight percent of the surveyed unemployed youth who did know about ANAPEC used its training services. When asked why they did not use ANAPEC services, about half of those who had heard about ANAPEC reported that they actually did not know what exactly ANAPEC did. The second most common reason unemployed youth gave for not using ANAPEC’s services (nearly 18 percent) was its unavailability in the place where they lived, especially in the regions of Tangiers/Tetuan and Marrakesh/Tensift/Al Haouz (Figure 1.18). While use of ANAPEC’s services such as training is very low, a larger number of the unemployed youth who knew about ANAPEC used it for basic information purposes (about 38 percent).

Other programs

While its profile is high, the ANAPEC program appears to be less important than some other programs in terms of reaching youth. For example, in the MHYS 2009-2010, while only 2 percent of the surveyed youth who were looking for jobs in the past week reported having used ANAPEC’s services (training, etc.), about 18 percent of those youth participated in separate job training programs, and 6 percent participated in IT training organized outside the ANAPEC. Furthermore, respondents reported these two latter programs as useful in helping them find jobs—72 percent of those who participated in job training and 82 percent of those who attended IT training stated that attending these programs raised their employment or income generating prospects.

The importance of non-ANAPEC programs in helping youth find jobs is apparent in our regression, which shows that youth who have participated in IT training are somewhat less likely to have given up on searching for a job due to their belief that jobs are unavailable (Table A 1.1). We do not find a similar impact for ANAPEC’s services. However, it is important to note other characteristics such as gender, location, and vocational education is much more important in determining whether a youth will give up on their job search due to job unavailability.

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43 These programs are numerous and with different outreach. So we analyze this section considering all non-ANAPEC programs jointly. We describe the institutional aspects of all such programs in detail in Chapter 3.
In addition to finding that IT training may help youth find jobs, we also find that youth who had used this service are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs. Regression results (Table A 1.12) show that having participated in IT training significantly raises the probability of job satisfaction. However, we note that many other factors, such as having a job contract and higher wealth status, are much stronger determinants of youth satisfaction with their jobs.

1.6 Participation of Youth in Social and Civic Life

Previous sections highlight the high levels of unemployment and non-participation in the labor market among young people in Morocco. What do the youth feel about the social and civic aspects of their lives? How well are young people integrated into social and civic life? What do young people do with their time? This section attempts to explore these questions using data from the quantitative survey.

Studies from across the world show that young peoples’ participation in social and political life—i.e., their exercise of “citizenship”—shapes their identity and enhances their well-being and status. In addition to its impact on young people themselves, active citizenship is also a social good, which influences development outcomes by: (i) enhancing the human and social capital of individuals; (ii) promoting government accountability for the delivery of services; and (iii) enhancing private decision making and the overall climate for investment. Active citizenship at a young age is likely to have enduring, even lifelong effects on the level and quality of a person’s political and social engagement.44

Rigorous data on the practices and opinions of young people with respect to active civic participation is scarce in Morocco. The Household and Youth Survey of 2009-2010, however, afford us the opportunity to look into these issues. Utilizing this survey data, we begin this section by looking at how youth spend their time. (The time use module in the survey gathers youth responses on whether young people had

engaged in a list of activities and the time spent on those activities.) It then looks at youth participation in social activities and in programs targeted to them. The next chapter, which utilizes the findings from a qualitative study, complements the discussion.

How do youth in Morocco spend their time?

Young Moroccans on average report spending 80 percent of their time engaged in leisure activities. Leisure activities include time spent with family and friends, on watching television or listening to radio, reading, listening to music, engaging in religious activities, using the Internet, volunteering, playing sports, etc. Female youth report spending an average of about 15 percent of their time on household activities, while male youth report spending almost no time on it. The remainder of their time is spent on work or school-related activities, and a very small amount on commuting.45

In light of the large youth population in Morocco, which is unemployed or out of the labor force, it is indeed worth noting that the quantitative survey shows that most of young peoples’ time is spent in unstructured activities. The recent qualitative study, the findings of which are discussed in Chapter 2, discusses the risks of youth with free time turning to unproductive and risky behavior. A World Bank (2007) study has also speculated on how unemployment, coupled with the lack of activities and means of distraction may “create a sense of idleness among youth which may in turn encourage them to engage in risky behaviors.”46

Given that youth spend so much time on leisure activities, it begs the question: What type of leisure activities do they engage in? Figure 1.20 shows the composition of youth’s leisure activities. Youth mostly spend their leisure time in unstructured activities—with family and friends, listening to radio or music and watching television. These activities on average take up about 90 percent of young people’s time. In general, young women spend more time with family and less time with friends than men do. Young women also spend a greater share of their leisure time watching television then do young men. Young women who are discouraged workers or out of the labor force for other reasons spend about 30 percent of their leisure time watching television.

45 Note that these figures are based on data from three months of the year and do not account for seasonality concerns.

The problem of youth “idleness” is addressed in studies concerning other countries as well. For example, Chigunta (2002) argues: “An unwholesome aspect of youth unemployment and underemployment in many cities in Africa is visible ‘idleness,’ whereby youth congregate at bars and eating places to drink or converse or smoke marijuana, for substantial parts of the day.” (Chigunta, F, 2002, “The Socio-Economic Situation of Youth In Africa: Problems, Prospects and Options,” Paper presented at the Youth Employment Summit, Alexandria, Egypt, September 2002.)
Volunteer activities are virtually absent. Youth also report spending very little time in clubs, associations, and civic organizations. Focus group discussions with youth (described in Chapter 2), and youth responses to certain questions in the MHYS indicate that youth report the poor availability of such outlets as well.
Box 1.3: Internet Access and Use

Internet availability in Morocco remains low with only 12.2 percent of households having an Internet connection at home. Additionally, Internet connections are very unequally distributed among the households of different incomes: while 63.5 percent of the richest households have an Internet connection, only 2.5 percent of the poorest ones do. Urban households are more likely to have an Internet connection than rural households.

Despite the low Internet access in Moroccan households, young people use the Internet often: nearly 29 percent of the surveyed youth reported having used the Internet in the past month. Internet use is higher in urban compared to rural areas, and among youth from wealthier households. Internet use is higher among school going youth.

The Internet is used largely for social and recreational purposes. The most frequent activity of Internet users is personal emailing (65 percent of the Internet users have reported this activity), closely followed by visits to social websites (61 percent) (Figure B.1.3). Downloading of music/videos/movies (57 percent) and school related research (47 percent) is also common activities. About a quarter of young users report blogging. A smaller percentage uses the Internet to search for jobs; however, this may be due to the limited availability of job postings and related information online.

Access to the Internet remains limited in Morocco: only 12.2 percent of households are connected to the Internet. In addition, these connections are unevenly distributed among households with varying revenue levels: while 63.5 percent of wealthier households have an Internet connection, only 2.5 percent of the poorest do. Urban households are also more likely to have an Internet connection than rural ones.

The leisure activities of the youth in Morocco are in a sense symptomatic of finding nothing more productive or constructive to do. Overall, this section indicates that youth spend a lot of time simply “hanging out,” and relatively little time on work, studies or productive civic engagement.

Youth Participation in Recreational and Social Activities

While the Time Use module gives us good insight into how youth allocate their time, the summary statistics of youth participation in social and recreational activities in their neighborhood or school paints an equally modest picture of participation in civic life (Figure 1.20). About a third of all young men report having participated in sports related activities (for at least two months), while a fifth of young women report having done so. Participation in sports increases with wealth and is higher in urban areas compared with rural areas. Apart from sports, youth participation in recreational or social activities is insignificant.
While participation levels are low, opportunities for youth participation also appear limited. About 40 percent of young males and a quarter of young females report the availability of sports facilities in their neighborhood or school. Among those who report the availability of sports facilities, about four-fifths actually participate in sports activities, implying a high level of interest. However, for other activities, youth report much lower levels of availability. It is also entirely possible that these low reported numbers have to do with lack of knowledge of organizations offering such activities.

To address this scarcity of local non-curricular social and educational activities, the Ministry of Youth and Sports (MSJ) created youth centers. However, when available, MSJ youth centers remain underutilized. Responses from the survey indicate that only 3 percent of the surveyed youth reported using them. Their use is slightly greater among students (7.5 percent), urban youth (4.6 percent), and males (4.4 percent). While use is low, about 70 percent of youth report being aware of the existence of youth centers. Wealthier, more educated and male youth are more aware of them. This awareness, however, does not translate into use. Chapter 3 discusses the reasons for this, which are related to problems of accessibility and the relevance of programs offered.

The next chapter, based on qualitative findings, also reinforces the picture of low participation of youth in civic activities. However, the qualitative findings indicate the yearnings of Moroccan youth to be involved in civic life and in civil society institutions. They want these associations to provide them with outlets for recreation and creativity. However, jobs continue to be an important focus, and young people thus want civic associations to provide job relevant training and intermediation services. Many youth reveal their disappointment with the present education system’s inadequacy in helping them find jobs. While not eager for additional formal education, youth feel that civic associations can be venues to provide them with job relevant training and intermediation services.

1.7 Concluding Remarks

The youth bulge in Morocco places an enormous stress on its labor market, which is unable to absorb the large supply of working age youth. Consequently, a large number of the youth remain excluded from work altogether, and a large number remain involved in temporary and marginal work in the informal sector. Our analysis suggests that youth face marginalization in their civic life as well. There are very few
outlets for productive civic engagement, and a considerable amount of the youth’s time is spent on leisure activities. This exclusion endures despite the sustained economic growth Morocco has achieved over the last decade, and notwithstanding Morocco’s recent improvements in education-related outcomes. There is however, no reason to be pessimistic since Moroccan youth have tremendous potential, voice their desire for inclusion loud and clear, and demonstrate creativity and determination to contribute to social and economic development.

Unemployed youth, Rabat   Photo: CNDH 2011.
CHAPTER 2:  
YOUNG PEOPLE’S OPPORTUNITIES AND PARTICIPATION: A QUALITATIVE PERSPECTIVE

This chapter presents findings from an in-depth focus group study undertaken between late 2009 and early 2010 in four regions of Morocco. It begins by considering the role of families and cultural norms in shaping the social and employment expectations and experience, and the value assigned to work by young men and women of different socioeconomic backgrounds. It goes on to consider perceptions about those factors, including training, that affect success in finding employment, as well as perceptions of the quality of training on offer. The experience of disabled youth is also considered. The chapter then turns to young people’s perceptions of youth associations and NGOs, as well as their levels of participation. Finally, risk factors impinging on youth are explored, along with the consequences of leaving school early, unemployment, and discouragement, and the factors that are protective of young people’s well-being.

2.1 The Role of Families in Shaping Young People’s Views on the Transition to Work

The notion of “youth” in Morocco is a relatively recent concept. According to Rachik, the concept of youth as a period in the life cycle of an individual became significant in Moroccan society only with the country’s economic modernization, which began after its independence in 1956.47 In traditional Moroccan society, in which extended families worked together in agriculture or other rural activities, the transition between childhood and adulthood was seamless. At a relatively early age, men were expected to contribute to the family through work, and women upon reaching maturity would marry and contribute to the family primarily through household work.

With the expansion of the market economy, Morocco became a more urban, and educated society. Young people, particularly men, increasingly became drawn into wage labor and commercial activities outside the household. As part of this economic transformation, youth emerged as a defined life period, characterized by continued learning and skills building, along with personal growth and development.

While the traditional extended family as an economic unit of production is disappearing in Morocco, especially in urban areas, many social customs and expectations characteristic of a traditional rural setting have remained intact in the modern nuclear Moroccan family, and continue to impinge on young people, even in a changed social and economic environment. Young people are thus invested in traditional roles and responsibilities with respect to their parents, future spouses, and extended family.

However, the very different economic challenges, which they face compared to previous generations, make it extremely difficult for them to meet these expectations.

**Responsibilities such as contributing to the family or starting their own families are now postponed, and families continue to support young people in their transition to work,** providing material support during their studies and job search. However, families may be ill-equipped to advise young people on school and career choices, and often cannot afford to keep young people in school. The study showed that the family continues to play a key role in shaping young people’s value systems, including their goals and attitudes towards education and work. A majority of respondents linked the value they placed on education and work to the orientation that they received from their families. Even young respondents from poor family backgrounds emphasized that despite having low levels of education themselves, their parents encouraged them to pursue their studies and avoid risky behaviors. Of course, there are gender differences, the main one being that women feel the authority of their family over them much more strongly. In many cases, respondents refer to the “freedom” of young men compared to young women. Also, families are the main decision-makers determining whether young women study further or work before getting married. However, at the same time, many parents seem to struggle to understand the challenges that their children face in the new market economy environment, while young people often feel that their parents lack the knowledge and means to help them succeed.

**Most young people said that their families and local communities considered marriage and building a family to be crucial life goals.** Consequently, youth often view the transition from living in their parents’ households to independent living as a matter of necessity. In this context, their inability to find employment, and thereby achieve independence, exacerbates their feelings of frustration. According to young people, their parents view their age of autonomy as coinciding with the (voluntary or involuntary) end of their educations. Young people expressed the combined sense of responsibility, frustration, and humiliation that they felt because of the difficulties faced in making the socially sanctioned transition to autonomy and their own households.

### 2.2 The value of work and its gender dimensions, as seen by young people

**Work is considered a central pillar of life for virtually all young men and for many young women,** with some important distinctions. For young men, only employment enables them to reach full adult status, fulfill the social expectations of an acceptable spouse, and find dignity within their families. For example, even young informal sector workers found that their jobs, though very burdensome, were still a positive addition to their lives because work allowed them to gain financial autonomy and acceptance from their families. Apart from being necessary to develop one’s personality and identity,
work is also often cited as a cornerstone of being a good Muslim. Being employed is often contrasted with the idleness of unemployment, which is associated with failure.\footnote{48}

While the MHYS, and indeed most previous quantitative surveys of employment, have found levels of employment by women to be quite low, especially among rural women, this is likely due, at least in part, to the “invisibility” of their labor in the informal and domestic contexts. For instance, an historic bias has been noted in studies of labor towards salaried work, toward employment associated with formal education, and towards work undertaken in public space.\footnote{49} Together these biases may collude to make women’s labor, much of which takes place in the domestic and informal spheres, less visible, especially, though not only, in rural areas. Activities of rural women, which may be underrepresented in formal surveys, take place in several spheres including: domestic (preparing meals, provisioning of water, wood, etc.); farming (e.g., of vegetable and fruits, as well as specific agricultural activities such as sowing and weeding); livestock management (feeding and watering stock, maintenance of stock areas, processing of products such as milk, wool, etc.); and gathering of medicinal and aromatic plants; weaving, handicrafts, etc. Furthermore, with out-migration of men from rural areas increasing, women effectively have become heads of households, responsible for the management of farms.\footnote{50}

Women’s appreciation of work seems founded in the benefits of employment itself, rather than in meeting family expectations. However, women with more education feel a stronger urge to work to feel fulfilled. A variety of views on women’s participation in the labor market were revealed, reflecting the changes and contradictions in social norms in contemporary Moroccan society. Some young women attached the highest priority to professional success, and those who were already working said that work had improved their lives. Girls often expressed the belief that they were more diligent and more “deserving” in a professional setting than their male counterparts because they were less likely to fall into unconstructive behavior and more likely to remain disciplined and focused on work.

Young women often perceive work as a way of achieving autonomy from their families and increasing their bargaining power in decision-making within their future families. It also enables a higher level of personal consumption and greater security, especially if a woman’s husband abandons her. In some cases, young women mentioned that working enhanced their marriage ability. However, this only applies to jobs with certain characteristics (e.g., the job should not be too far from home, and must be considered sufficiently safe to meet the consent of a young woman’s family or husband).

An important exception is the case of tertiary-educated women, who expressed deep frustration and distress at not being valued, and in some cases, even blamed by their families for not finding employment. This situation suggests that the expectation that women should work rises with their level of education, and perhaps, with the educational investments made by their families. This is particularly true for women graduates from low-income backgrounds, where the investment in their educations represented an important sacrifice on the part of their families.

\footnote{48} This finding is consistent with the findings of a report prepared for the USAID EQUIP 3 Program. See EDC, 2007, “Morocco Cross-Sectoral Youth Assessment: Testing the Support to Dar Chebab Concept,” EDC, Newton, MA, 14.
\footnote{50} M. Laklalech. ‘Situation nationale de la femme et son rôle en milieu rural au Maroc.’ Terre et Vie n°. 98, July 2006.
Indeed, the quantitative data suggests that education is a key determinant of young women’s intention and ability to participate in the labor force. When asked about their willingness to work after completing their studies, young girls who are currently in school match young men in their desire to work. However, only about 40 percent of women who are not enrolled in school thought that they would work in the future. When they lack an education, women are also less likely to be able to work. Lack of support from family members or husbands likely plays a large role in this instance. In the quantitative survey, women were asked to give reasons why they did not expect or were not willing to work. Slightly over half of respondents said that their parents or husbands would not allow them to work, while roughly 20 percent said that they were too busy with work at home. Related to this, married women’s participation in the labor force appears sharply lower than that of unmarried women. The MHYS 2009-10 data indicates that of married young women aged 15 to 29 who are not in school, only 3 percent are in the labor force, i.e., they work or are searching for work. In stark contrast, among unmarried women, 23 percent participate in the labor force. The situation among men is very different: married young men are likelier to be in the labor market than unmarried men (93 versus 73 percent). While this evidence is from data at a point in time, it suggests that marriage is negatively associated with participation among women. In addition, unemployment among married young women is lower compared with unmarried women because married women hardly look for jobs.

Many of the young men who participated in the focus groups acknowledged that young women have the right to work if they want to. At the same time, the perception among most young participants was that girls remained responsible for taking care of the household and children, even if they were working. In addition, many participants specified that family economic background would strongly influence whether a woman would eventually work or be allowed to work throughout life, with women from better-off backgrounds being more likely to do so.\(^5\)

**Occupational and wage preferences and aspirations**

Uneducated youth were considered to have fewer expectations about the type of job that they would accept and therefore be less likely to be unemployed. The quantitative data show that occupational choices are highly correlated with education level for both young men and women. For instance, young people with less education almost invariably end up in informal sector jobs, which tend to be of lower quality. At the same time, many uneducated youth working in agriculture or in the informal sector—such as street vendors—lamented that they had lost hope for progressing in their professional lives and earning capacity. They also expressed regret that they had not continued their educations. Indeed, embracing work at a young age seldom seems to be a personal choice. The recurrent personal history of informal sector workers is that their entry into full-time employment coincided with involuntary early school leaving. Their departure from school was due to a variety of factors, including the need to support their families and poor performance in school.

Regardless of occupational choice, there was a consensus that young men were justified in expecting to earn higher salaries than young women. Women, on the other hand, placed more value on job quality and job safety then did men. As discussed earlier, young men feel obligated to find a job that

\(^5\) This is reflected to some degree in the quantitative survey as well, which found that about 18 percent of women belonging to the highest wealth [income] quintile were in the labor force, compared to 10 percent of women belonging to the lowest wealth [income] quintile.
can sustain their wives and families, and thus feel they need to earn higher salaries. This finding is also reflected in the quantitative data (see Figure 2.1) and is true for men and women of all educational groups. Women, on the other hand, are more demanding in terms of work environment. For example, women are unlikely to accept jobs requiring them to work at night or travel far distances. Working at night and far away from home are perceived as being unsafe by their parents or husband and not reflective of the traditional values of the community.

### 2.3 Perceptions of inequality and disadvantage in the labor market

Both men and women agree that men are more disadvantaged in the labor market. One of the advantages of qualitative analysis is its capacity to shed light on what constitutes success and failure in young people’s own words, which can enrich quantitative information on labor outcomes. The quantitative survey conducted for this report indicated far lower levels of participation in the labor force by young women than by young men. It also pointed out very high levels of unemployment and discouragement among young women. The qualitative research, however, revealed stronger feelings of exclusion among young men.

**Figure 2.1:** Young People’s Responses by Gender and Education to the Question: “What minimum salary would you accept in order to work, below which you would not work?”

*Source: Morocco Household and Youth Survey 2009-2010.*
Evidence from the quantitative survey shows that young women spend disproportionately more time than young men performing domestic chores, such as cooking, cleaning, and taking care of children. For work outside of the house, the situation is completely the opposite. When male youth respondents were asked which gender worked more outside of the house, only 3.5 percent stated that women did, while 65 percent stated that men did. However, 24 percent stated that both men and women worked outside of the home equally. The younger generation appears to favor a shift toward greater equality in the family. When asked what they would like in the future, 48 percent of all young men respondents said they would like women to participate equally in the labor market. While male youth reported that they spent shorter hours cooking, cleaning, and caring for children, their answers showed some signs that they wished for more equal gender roles. Women also wanted more equal roles for men and women in such matters, with their answers similar to those of young men.

Table B.2.1: Male Youth Responses to Present and Desired Future Division of Household Tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is the situation in the household now?</th>
<th>How would you like it to be in the future?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Females work more</td>
<td>Males work more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meal preparation</td>
<td>88.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House work</td>
<td>88.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work outside the house</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Care-giving (children, elderly, handicapped)</td>
<td>57.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Gender differences are visible in the roles that families expect young men to play. Young men often believe that women would only use their earned incomes for personal expenses, while men would use it to support their immediate family, as well as their parents when they became elderly. Young women, for their part, often considered the income from their jobs to be an important source of bargaining power and personal security in case their marriages broke down.

Education and training for the labor market: Inadequate access to skills that matter

Most participants in focus groups believed that better education and skills have a positive effect on labor market outcomes, not only in the public and private sectors, but also in the informal sector. However, young people observed that access to the right types of skills and quality education continues to be constrained by socioeconomic background and geography.
Despite this widespread recognition among young people in Morocco of the importance of education, and recent improvements in school enrollment, dropout rates remain high. Preliminary data from the quantitative survey indicates that enrollment levels begin to steadily decline after the age of 11 (around the time that most children finish primary school). The decline is far sharper for girls than for boys, especially in rural areas (see Figure 2.2). For example, for girls between the ages 11 to 15, the enrollment rates falls by about 40 percentage points.

Many young people have lost confidence in the value of pursuing higher education in light of high unemployment rates and the frequent indifference of employers to university graduates. Perceptions varied regarding the level of education and subjects of study that were more likely to lead to employment. The most common view of focus group participants—primarily underprivileged youth—was that a high school-level diploma (baccalaureate) was probably the “optimal” level of education. Many participants observed that employers in the private sector did not consider that a university degree by itself made young people employable. This observation is in line with findings from focus groups conducted with unemployed university graduates, who said that they sometimes found it necessary to conceal their university educations to increase their chances of getting a job. Most tertiary graduates have obtained degrees in non-applied disciplines, such as literature, philosophy, and social sciences.

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“I showed my resume to the human resources director of a small enterprise and he looked at me and asked if I knew how to read and write. I answered that I had obtained my university degree. He said he did not need university graduates. In general, businesses do not like to hire graduates—they prefer those with a high school level degree.”

Female law graduate,
CQS, Tanger-Tetuan Region
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“You will never see a boy or girl from a poor family speaking French. After independence, the government made the decision to replace French with modern Arabic, and look at the results: the rich speak French because they attend private schools or La Mission (French school); the others speak no French and even no Arabic. We are the victims of this policy. It is easy to understand who will be unemployed in this country.”

Unemployed young man,
MJ, Tanger-Tetuan Region
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52 This finding is consistent with that of a 2007 World Bank study: “Youth—An Undervalued Asset: Towards a New Agenda in the Middle East and North Africa,” Policy Note 43372, Human Development Department, MENA Region (MNSHD), World Bank, Washington, DC.

53 Dropout rates were even higher and have been reduced. For example, between 2006-2007 and 2009-2010, the dropout rate was reduced by 42 per cent for the primary level, 19 per cent for the middle school level, and 36 percent for secondary school (Source: Ministry of Education, MEN).
social science, law, etc. Their expectations for salaries benefits, and working conditions are higher than the non-tertiary graduates.

Disadvantaged young people appear to be dissatisfied with the quality and relevance of public education and believe strongly that they lack opportunities when compared to privately educated youth. A recurrent theme in discussions was the failure of the education system to provide the right skills, which participants believed was one of the root causes of unemployment among youth. Young people who had abandoned early formal education seemed to have virtually no belief in the value of formal education for increasing employment opportunities, but were keen to acquire relevant skills. This was the case of young men and women who had worked in the informal sector from an early age. In their view, a traditional education (baccalaureate) was of no use without proper connections. These young workers, however, were desirous of skills development and opportunities in the form of technical training, for instance, in the agricultural or tourism sectors, as both sectors were perceived as offering better wages than informal urban jobs. To address these issues, the Ministry of Education (MEN) has introduced a new set of technical specialties covering industrial sectors, marketing, ICT, construction, arts, tourism, and leisure.54

There is evidence from other sources, that employers share these reservations about the relevance of the education and training received by youth. When human resource (HR) managers in Morocco were asked: Do graduates hired in the last year have the right skills? Only a minority (about a third) agreed. Table 2.1 distinguishes between hard and soft skills, and university and vocational graduates.55

Table 2.1: Do graduates hired in the last year have the appropriate skills? (Morocco)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes - Hard Skills (%)</th>
<th>Yes - Soft Skills (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


This data highlights that “soft skills,” such as the ability to communicate clearly, personal creativity, leadership skills, problem-solving skills, critical thinking, and the interpersonal skills necessary to interact successfully in the workplace, are seen by employers as particularly lacking. In the focus groups, youth also recognize these shortcomings, and are keen to complement, and in some cases supplant, their formal education with non-formal training in hard and soft skills (e.g., learning French, English or communication skills). The situation is partly a reflection of the high proportion of graduates in the humanities, social sciences, and education (compared to medicine, science, and engineering), as well as the lack of vocational skills throughout the Arab world.

54 There are 38 training centers of this type across the country, of which five are private.
Box 2.1: A Larger Range of Skills: Life and Cross-Cutting Skills

Cross-cutting soft skills

It is clear that young people entering the labor market, as well as citizens in general, do not only need job-specific skills, but also a larger range of abilities to complement their technical skills. These types of “cross-cutting” skills can take on various forms. The most important are known as “life skills,” and as soft skills (as opposed to “know-how”). It is important to distinguish between three types of skills: (1) emotional skills (ability to manage emotions and stress, self-control); (2) cognitive skills (decision-making and conflict resolution, critical thinking, ability to set objectives and priorities, analytical abilities, and the ability to organize complex issues); (3) social and interpersonal skills (including communication, negotiation, cooperation, leadership, conflict management, and ability to evolve in professional settings). Other skills can also be considered as cross-cutting as they are transferrable from one type of employment to another, such as computer, digital, and language skills.

Importance of cross-cutting skills in life

Employers judge their employees based (for instance) on their ability to not waste time, to have constructive relationships with colleagues, to express themselves in their mother tongue, and in other languages. Employees themselves feel more confident and feel empowered thanks to these skills, which also impact other aspects of personal, social, and civic life (most notably reducing high-risk behaviors). In addition, entrepreneurship also requires skills such as self-reliance and the ability to foresee and resolve conflict. Cross-cutting skills are by definition easily adaptable to employers as well as to the needs of learners, and are thus transferable from one job and sector to another. In the long term, learning how to think is more valuable than learning what to think.

Implications of the importance of these skills

Conventional education and vocation training systems in Morocco and elsewhere tend to emphasize technical skills, which can quickly become (or already are) obsolete to the detriment of cross-cutting life skills. Yet, it has been demonstrated that such skills not only enhance employability prospects and income, but they are easily applied. These skills are usually best acquired through participatory/practical training, with implications for curricular content, as well as training methods and environments. Thankfully, there is substantial international experience in targeting the right skills and choosing the best methods to teach them.


Most youth echoed the need for more technical or skills training (see Figure 2.3). The share of youth receiving training increases with education, as does the desire to receive training. For example, only 1.3 percent of primary school educated young men had received technical training, whereas about 29 percent of working youth with a secondary or higher education had received technical training. Again, while 36 percent of young men with a primary education felt that they needed more training, this share increased to 50 percent among youth with higher levels of education. Nevertheless, the “training gap” (that is the proportion of young people desiring but not receiving technical training) was highest among the least educated. Notably, a larger share of females than males had received technical training. Young women typically receive technical training in traditional embroidery, baking, cooking, sewing, child care, and so on. Young men receive training in mechanical and electrical repairs, plumbing, leather processing, etc.
The widespread perception that the education system inadequately prepared them for the labor market extended even among young people who attended youth centers or technical training programs. For example, young people who attended youth centers and youth associations lamented the irrelevance of the theoretical content of their curricula, especially the impossibility of learning foreign languages (especially French), which put them at a serious disadvantage in the labor market compared to privileged youth. Students attending schools in which apprenticeship is a key component of the curricula (formation par apprentissage) said that their schools were often unable to provide sufficient internships to accommodate all students. Students, therefore, had to find apprenticeship opportunities on their own, often without success. This not only constrains the individual student, who leaves the institution without any practical knowledge or experience, but also the educational institution, whose links to the labor market remain restricted. Many young people believed that even the opportunity to access valuable but unpaid work experience depended on both one’s family status and social network.

Focus group participants also highlighted the need for better quality instructors. Specifically, they would like instructors who are more qualified, can better convey specific knowledge and skills, and are able to communicate with youth. They also sought more guidance and support from schools—counseling to address not just life skills, but personal issues and difficult social problems as well. Notably, young people suggested that the problem of dropping out of school requires attention, with participants calling for officials to develop solutions for students who do not wish to drop out, but who cannot continue their studies because of family obligations or other compelling reasons.

Often, participants noted that deficiencies in the formal education system can be offset by other sources of learning, such as the Internet, private tutoring, and language and technical courses, which can improve employability and access to information on job opportunities. For instance, apprentices at a cooking and information technology training center in Tetuan highlighted the value of the education they had received because it was perceived as relevant to future employability. These participants also suggested that attending professional skills courses would more likely lead them to engage in entrepreneurship in the future.
Even youth who do not believe in the need for more education demanded greater access to practical skills, e.g., languages, information technology, technical skills that can directly enhance their employability. Youth also often reported that such skills were expensive to acquire. As is the case with formal education, non-formal skills appear to be less accessible to underprivileged youth. Findings from groups of young people from rural areas, those working in the informal sector, and even current students in vocational schools indicate that access to extracurricular learning opportunities is constrained by direct and indirect costs, such as training and activity fees, as well as difficult access due to poor transportation and geographic isolation. Among young people who had left school or engaged early in full-time work, poverty is often cited as a root cause of their lack of access to opportunities for professional skills training. Because their families cannot support them during their studies, the material and opportunity costs related to attending professional training become a serious constraint to young people who seek either to initiate or to continue skills development.

Youth participants in many focus groups specifically suggested that the Ministry of Education promote the implementation and strengthening of technical training modules. Their main suggestion was that education and training should be more practical than theoretical, helping to ensure job readiness. Some participants also suggested that students who are institutionalized (e.g., Dar Atfal) should be prepared for (re)integration into society through vocational training. Lastly, informal sector participants emphasized the need for financial assistance to cover the cost of the additional training for young people who are interested in such training.

Analysis of the qualitative findings regarding the relationship between education and employment, and the underlying factors that impact this relationship, revealed several key findings regarding barriers to different levels of education and employment (see Figure 2.4).

Figure 2.4: Barriers to Employability for Disadvantaged Moroccan Youth

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Completing basic education</th>
<th>Reaching Baccalaureate level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Geographic barriers</td>
<td>• Material and opportunity costs of studying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Poverty and costs of education</td>
<td>• Cost of private tutoring needed to obtain good results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Family prejudices against female education</td>
<td>• Lack of information on appropriate educational tracks for higher employability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Vulnerability to high-risk behaviors (e.g., drugs, criminal activity)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accessing high-quality jobs</th>
<th>Becoming employable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Need for family connections or social networks</td>
<td>• Lack of networks to access internships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Employers' preference for private education</td>
<td>• Low value of some higher education diplomas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lack of previous experience</td>
<td>• Sexual harassment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lack of fluency in foreign languages</td>
<td>• Succumbing to desperation, drugs, and prostitution after initial disappointments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Cost of private courses for essential employability skills (e.g., IT, French)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors.
2.4 Access to information and guidance on the labor market

In about half of the focus group discussions, young people expressed regret about the lack of public information and general guidance on making decisive educational and career choices. This is the case, for instance, for many educated, unemployed young participants, who said that they held degrees that were unsuitable for available jobs. The same sentiment was expressed by informal sector workers, who commented that they chose their first degree based on the advice of friends, and even by current technical school students and young women attending women’s centers (Foyers Féminins).

The situation of young residents living in Dar Attaliba, which are dormitories for rural students, is worth noting. These youth were primarily from illiterate families in rural communities, and thanks to the Dar Attaliba, they have been able to obtain a high school education. This represents a formidable upward social change. However, young people who attended Dar Attaliba said that their families were not equipped to provide them adequate guidance on key career and educational choices after they completed high school, and they stressed the need for competent guidance. In general, access to professional, evidence-based information is scarce within youth centers and educational structures.

Families remain the main source of career advice, making the quality of advice highly conditional on young people’s family backgrounds. In addition to the need for counseling on career and educational choices, young people mentioned the need for guidance and mentoring. They stressed the importance of encouragement and trust for becoming better adults and making personal life choices based on a coherent set of values. Families are the natural place where young people want to find this type of support, but in many cases, the respondents pointed out those family members’ personal experiences and backgrounds are so different from the modern context of employment and education that they are not useful or constructive for young people of the current generation.

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**Box 2.2: Risky Behaviors Threatening Moroccan Youth**

The Ministry of Youth and Sports’ survey identified three main risky behaviors that threaten Moroccan youth: tobacco, alcohol, and drugs.

The 2011 survey carried out by the Ministry of Youth and Sports finds that drugs are used in all socioeconomic categories and that the consumption of hashish is increasing.

As is the case for tobacco, young people acknowledge being aware of the dangers of using these substances but do not necessarily attempt to quit or reduce their consumption. Most young people surveyed state that they know of someone within their circle who has been destroyed by drugs.

The Ministry of Youth and Sports’ Directorate for Youth Children and Women’s Affairs organizes awareness raising caravans in both rural and urban areas to reach the largest number of youth across the country.


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“Young people must have goals and work hard to be successful. I am an apprentice cook. Initially, I wanted to learn cooking, but I was directed towards pastry making. The level of organization here leaves much to be desired. But, I will obtain my certificate and find a job, because without the certificate it would be very hard to get a job. The rich have more opportunities to sign up for tutorials; they travel and go to libraries. We do not have all of this and have less chances of finding a job.”

Young unemployed woman, baccalaureate graduate, MJ, Tangier-Tetuan Region
A recurrent theme cited by young participants in focus group discussions was the need to “stay out of trouble” to remain employable. Continuing and completing education, being motivated to seek work, and ultimately, maintaining self-confidence and hope for the future are protective factors for young people, who face a difficult labor market and are vulnerable to engaging in risky behaviors. Across the focus groups, young people openly described their acute vulnerability to crime (rape, prostitution, theft, assault, smuggling, and petty crime) and drug use (“karkoubi,” “maajoune,” smoking hashish, marijuana, sniffing glue, solvents, etc.), and at times, to alcoholism and domestic violence. Such behavior is an impediment to their meaningful transition to the world of work. Early exposure to high-risk behavior is a cause and a consequence of unemployment, as well as a potential risk factor to their future employability in the labor market. According to a recent report by the Health Ministry of Morocco, 40 to 45 percent of young Moroccans have already consumed “karkoubi.” The magnitude of the phenomenon is well known throughout the country, especially in the poor neighborhoods of Casablanca. For example, in Casablanca, “about 80 percent of juvenile detainees in the prison Oukacha during the period 2009-2010 committed their crimes under the influence of karkoubi,” according to the association Addel Al Warif, which does awareness raising on these issues among vulnerable youth.

Labor market intermediation systems and social networks

In virtually all focus group discussions, most participants considered having the appropriate connections and endorsements a key requirement for obtaining a desirable job. In their view, such connections or recommendations cannot be established through education or participation in other accessible public institutions. Rather, they are based on social networks, generally established through a young person’s family and socioeconomic background. There was considerable debate and often disagreement among focus group participants as to whether education was in fact essential for obtaining decent employment.

The prevailing view among focus group participants was that social class and the power of one’s family network continued to be far more important for accessing jobs than formal educational qualifications. Young people felt that well-connected young people, or those with financial resources, could easily find a job, even if they lacked education and skills.

In Tangiers, for instance, youth participants were aware of potential employment in the private tourism sector, but considered that they did not have the connections necessary to get jobs. While this represents a perception, it is very widespread, and implies that young people may not be willing to invest as much in education or in a job search outside of their narrow social circle if they are convinced that their individual merit alone is useless without the necessary connections. Bribery, on the other hand, is often

“Family and social relations, as well as money, are important to buy gifts for the person who will help you.”
Young woman, CQS, Casablanca

University degrees are insufficient. What is necessary is specialization and experience. It is also necessary for someone to make a recommendation on your behalf; without it, it is impossible to find a job.
Young woman carpenter, DAM, Casablanca

57 Addel Al Warif, Moroccan NGO working to raise awareness of drug issues among vulnerable youth.
required for the job search processes, and many participants highlighted that corruption (e.g., providing gifts or bribes) could substitute for family connections in obtaining jobs in both the public and private sectors. This was a particular hardship for disadvantaged families.

Quantitative data reinforce these findings. “Asking friends or relatives for help” was the most frequent job search method mentioned by respondents (Table 2.2). However, young women were less likely to ask friends or relatives for help than men were, suggesting that women have more limited networks. It is striking that for both young men and women, the utilization of more formal job search methods is very low.

Table 2.2: How Young People in Morocco Look for Jobs
(Percentage of current job holders)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>All (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Registered with a private recruitment agency</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registered in a government job lottery and/or competition</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inquired at job location</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertised for work in newspapers</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied to a job advertised in newspapers</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asked friends or relatives for help</td>
<td>61.9</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>58.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contacted an employer directly</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contacted a contractor directly</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waited at recruitment locations</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied for a job through the Internet/ by email</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posted/ uploaded resume to an employment website</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registered with ANAPEC Office</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Young people’s views on employment policies

Young people continue to see the government as having an important role to play in job creation, though not necessarily by generating public employment. Many young people thought that the government should stimulate more private investment and improve the quality of jobs in the private sector by protecting fundamental labor rights. In particular, there was a broad consensus that the state should invest more resources in addressing the problems of young people, with a special emphasis on jobs and financial support. A role was also envisaged for local authorities, such as the commune, in finding solutions to youth unemployment, including in rural areas.

Yet only a minority of focus group participants saw the creation of public sector jobs as the solution. Rather, many young people suggested that the promotion of private sector jobs and self-employment (e.g., microenterprise) were the means to reduce unemployment. This is consistent with the findings of the 2010 Silatech/Gallup survey, which found that 39 percent of Moroccan youth respondents preferred self-employment, while 29 percent preferred public sector employment, and 21 percent

“The educated unemployed don’t accept any offers. They want a high position. But others are ready to accept any offer.”

Young woman,
Agricultural center, Tangiers
preferred private sector employment. Furthermore, 87 percent of young Moroccans who participated in that survey indicated that if they were unemployed for six months or longer, they would be willing to start a business. This finding contrasts with surveys of young people in many other countries in the MENA region, where public sector employment remains the expected solution to unemployment. This view may well reflect the fact that Morocco has been moving away from public sector jobs for almost three decades now. A focus on private sector jobs was one of the pillars of the country’s 1983 structural adjustment policies, which stipulated that the private sector would replace the public sector in creating job opportunities, with a particular focus on educated youth. Notably, the stated preference for establishing one’s own enterprise or small business is more prevalent among participants with less education than among university graduates.

The MHYS indicates higher interest in public sector jobs than the above discussion would suggest (see Figure 2.5). Nevertheless, a majority of male job seekers (about 58 percent) did not identify public sector employment as their most preferred job. Among young people with tertiary education or higher, however, a majority of both men and women preferred public sector jobs.

Youth believed that opportunities for youth entrepreneurship through access to credit and training should be enhanced and, in particular, be targeted to less-educated young people who are currently employed in the informal economy. Focus group participants recommended increased aid, financial and otherwise, for young people who wish to develop income-generating projects. They also expressed their belief that more help should be given to young people wishing to start their own farms or small businesses, as policies and programs that support such enterprises would contribute to economic development and further job creation.

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59 Boudarbat and Ajbilou, 2009, “Moroccan Youth.”
In addition to creating new jobs, youth participants noted that government interventions should encourage unemployed youth to consider a wider range of positions other than existing, high-paying jobs, which are scarce in number. Policies to promote stable living wages, as well as wage parity for workers outside the public sector, would encourage educated students to pursue a broader range of occupations. Participants also recommended that the informal sector be regulated to address unemployment, underemployment, and exploitative practices.

Given that social networks and family remain central in facilitating the integration of young people into economic life, young people who lived in institutions for poor children and youth, rehabilitation centers (for high-risk behaviors), and orphanages face a particularly challenging situation. Discussions with youth in these institutions revealed their unease about making the transition to work and becoming autonomous individuals, even after completing high school or professional training. Apart from lacking the emotional support of family members, these young people felt that they lacked the initial social or material assets needed to break into the labor market.

2.5 Entrepreneurship opportunities

While the idea of entrepreneurship is appealing in principle and young people (especially those with less education) appear to be very interested in it, the actual level of preparation of young people in business management is often inadequate. For example, from discussions with low-income young women enrolled in an industrial textile training program in Casablanca, it was clear that many entrepreneurial projects these women wished to pursue were not based on market analysis and would very likely be unsustainable (i.e., small embroidery, sewing, baking, catering). For these young women, interest in entrepreneurship seemed driven by the desire to escape the low pay, long working hours, and hazardous work conditions that they experienced in the informal sector, rather than an assessment of unmet market demand.

![Figure 2.6: Rating of Constraints to Entrepreneurship by Would-Be Young Entrepreneurs (percentage)](image)


Similarly, young agricultural workers who intended to establish independent enterprises and young entrepreneurs who founded their own businesses with family and personal savings did so because of adverse past experience with wages and working conditions in the informal sector. Clearly young people have the drive to take positive steps and risks for a better future. However, many of these youth remained untrained in entrepreneurship skills and could easily make unsound business decisions.
According to the MHYS 2009–2010, access to finance was identified as a key constraint to creating enterprises by 80 percent of youth who wanted to set up nonagricultural businesses (see Figure 2.6). Youth also considered it financially risky to start enterprises; 70 percent reported this as the reason for not creating a nonagricultural enterprise. Very few focus group participants reported that they found it easy to obtain a loan. On the contrary, many believed they were not creditworthy because they had no collateral. Moreover, most young people were unaware of available public programs for youth microfinance.

Notably, there was scant discussion among young people of the active labor market policies (ALMPs) launched by the Government of Morocco in 2006. This lack of attention may be because most of these initiatives were initially focused on young people with university degrees, who made up only a small part of the focus groups. These policies have been extended only recently to include secondary school graduates. These ALMPs include: (i) subsidies to employers to recruit specific categories of highly educated unemployed youth; (ii) training programs intended to respond to the needs of recruiting companies, as well as retraining and/or professional conversion programs aimed at graduates who have had difficulty entering the labor market; and (iii) microenterprise loans.

2.6 Young people in the agricultural sector

The employment situation and job opportunities for young people working in agriculture are varied, depending on their level of education, specialization, place of origin, and whether they belong to a family that has available land that can be shared. In this regard, an important differentiation needs to be made between young people who immediately embraced agriculture at the local level after finishing a few years of education, and young people who study in agricultural high schools and may originate from urban or rural settings that are not necessarily close to these schools.

Young people find the working conditions in agriculture harsh. However, they recognize that these jobs are better paying than those in the informal urban sector. A discussion with less-educated youth who work in agriculture and come from rural areas revealed, unsurprisingly, that working conditions in the field were not appealing. Interestingly, even if the remuneration of these young people is generally low compared to what they perceive as a livable decent wage, it remains substantially higher than in several other sectors (e.g., crafts in the informal sector, in which apprentices are essentially unpaid). For this reason, working in agriculture remains an important income opportunity for unskilled youth. Yet many of these young people feel trapped in a low-income job where learning and progressing upward is very difficult. For young women, geographic mobility remains a key constraint to finding better farm employment opportunities.

The circumstances of youth who study in agricultural schools, but have no prior experience in the sector, are different from those who engaged in agriculture earlier in life. The focus groups suggested that many students who attend agricultural technical schools come from other regions or from urban areas. Many local youth may not have the access to an education in agriculture because they do not meet its formal requirements. Paradoxically, many agricultural education graduates do not end up working in the sector because they were placed in these schools as a result of an educational tracking system and/or wish to return to their place of origin. In many cases, these students will not directly apply the skills that they gained in schools and technical institutions in the agricultural sector. Further, the training provided
for agricultural students is directed at eventual employment in large-scale mechanized agricultural settings. However, this kind of setting is not very common in Morocco and, consequently, there is limited demand for specialized agricultural professionals.

**Figure 2.7: Rating of Constraints to Entrepreneurship by Would-Be Young Agricultural Entrepreneurs**

![Chart showing constraints to entrepreneurship](chart.png)


**Access to finance was also reported as a key impediment to creating agricultural enterprises.** Figure 2.7 indicates that 90 percent of youth interested in setting up agricultural enterprises reported limited access to finance as an important constraint; some 50 percent also mentioned access to land as a constraint. Among students in agricultural schools who planned to set up individual farming projects after their studies, none believed they would be viewed as creditworthy. From their perspective, personal savings or the sale of family assets were the only conceivable sources of capital. Students who reported having either land or start-up capital for their individual projects considered themselves more fortunate.

**Youth in agriculture often seek greater access to skills development opportunities.** With illiteracy averaging 80 percent among rural adults aged 35–49 years in 2004 (according to census data), the older generation—which controls the use of family land—continues to have a limited understanding of the utility of a formal education in agriculture. For this reason, youth who gained specialized skills in agricultural techniques or animal husbandry reported that it would be nearly impossible to sell their services to local farms because farmers trust their own, traditional experience. Even in a family farm setting, the ability of young people to apply new technologies and knowledge is hindered by their parents’ lack of confidence in their capacity and skepticism of innovations. Interestingly, the experience of a donor-financed pilot project suggests that youth trained in agriculture are able to perform better than their fathers (however, opportunities to demonstrate the value of newly acquired knowledge on family farms should also be explored by such programs).

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61 The project targeted the alumni of a two-month technical training program on drip irrigation. These short training programs usually target young farmers with a low level of primary education. One of the main constraints of rural youth is their inability to access land. Less than half of the young project participants were able to convince their fathers to entrust some of their family land to them through an oral profit-sharing agreement, which was a precondition for participation. The successful half received the supplies needed for irrigation and cultivation from Japanese International Cooperation Agency, conditional upon signing a
2.7 Labor market challenges of youth with disabilities

A little over five percent of the Moroccan population (over one and a half million people) has some form of disability, and less than a third of disabled children between 5 and 15 go to school (a rate three times lower than for non-disabled). Although 56 percent of disabled persons are of working age (between 16 and 60—a specific breakdown for youth is not available), only 12 percent of working age disabled are employed or economically active. Similarly, the 2004 General Census of Population and Housing, using the definition of disability from WHO, found that one family in four is affected by disability and that 78 percent of disabled children (4-18 years) do not attend school.

The Ministry of Social Development, Family and Solidarity recently took several measures to facilitate the professional integration of people with special needs and better access for disabled people in the labor market. Despite the efforts of successive governments, integration of persons with special needs still encounters obstacles.

According to the survey on the situation of persons with disabilities, conducted in 2004 by the State Secretariat for Family, Children, and People with Disabilities, only 10.1 percent of persons with disabilities are active in the labor market.

According to the Minister of Social Development, Family and Solidarity, unemployed active persons account for 13 percent of all disabled persons and 15 percent of 15 to 60 year olds among them. The percentage of disabled persons of working age who are excluded from the labor market amounts to 55.2 percent. According to ministry officials, “this situation is mainly due to a number of prejudices still widely held in Moroccan society against persons with disabilities.” Awareness raising has certainly been undertaken, but its impact remains limited.

Focus group discussions were conducted with blind girls and young men in wheelchairs, given that these are some of the main forms of disability, respectively in Souss-Massa-Draa and Casablanca.

Youth with disabilities seek the means to contract with the local agricultural extension service and accepting regular visits from its technical staff. The project consisted of the following phases: facilitated project planning in small groups, award of a grant and concluding a profit-sharing agreement with parents in exchange for the use of land, installation of JICA-subsidized equipment, and supervision by agricultural extension center staff.

Youth with disabilities seek the means to

“...Youth is a good period for other people, but not for us. For us, it is difficult. We need support and help from society. We face many problems. The first problem is the looks from people when we go outside. They despise you. They avoid you. Even family members cannot look at you. It’s like society hates us. We need some associations to help us find jobs. It is hard even to register at a training center. They see us as handicapped and think that we are not normal. I had to insist on entering a youth professional association. First I was refused because of my disability, but finally I was able to register and had the best grades. I was happy to prove to the director and teachers that I am normal, exactly like others and even better.”

Young men,
Center for handicapped, Fez Region

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achieve autonomy through work and tend to display great adaptability in the type of jobs they are willing to perform. Youth with disabilities discuss labor market issues along similar lines to those of other focus group participants. The discussions and comments of these young people show a tremendous will to achieve autonomy. Yet their individual histories highlight a recurrent pattern of discrimination and obstacles. Above all, these youth feel that their disabilities are perceived as a permanent impediment to employment, rather than a factor that requires only an adapted environment with strong support services.

Youth with disabilities who participated in the focus groups felt that discrimination in the workplace and educational institutions prevented them from performing even those activities that they could conduct independently, with some adjustments in the environment. In addition, these youth believe that their physical disabilities further marginalize and exclude them from the labor market and society, given the large supply of unemployed skilled young workers. However, compared to other groups of youth participants, youth with disabilities were less discerning about the jobs they were willing to do, provided that their dignity was protected and they were remunerated “equitably.”

Two additional constraints were highlighted by disabled youth: transportation to and from the workplace and access to appropriate skills development and education. A group of young disabled women, for instance, believed that if they were to achieve a similar level of education as their peers (e.g., a baccalaureate or knowledge of French), they could find employment in a call center or as typists. However, these young women felt strongly that structures to support learning for disabled youth, or simply to promote their integration into mainstream education, remain underdeveloped.

2.8 Youth Participation

Moroccan civil society is more active than that of other countries in the Maghreb region. Young people in Morocco feel that youth associations and centers can facilitate several dimensions of their social integration and help them avoid the harmful consequences of idleness and disengagement. While data on young people’s participation is limited in MENA, it is evident that young people in the region do have strong expectations of participation at both civic and community levels in their societies. The present study bears this out for Moroccan youth, while interviews with them also revealed policies and programs that could contribute to seeing these expectations met.

Discussions revealed a keen interest in civic engagement, as well as elucidating awareness and perceptions of youth associations. Youth participants expressed concern that few associations offered professional training and technical skills development courses that could promote their civic participation while increasing their employability and providing them support in the transition to work. Discussions focused on the ways that community associations—including cultural associations, youth recreational centers, and youth clubs—could improve their relationships with youth. They explored the roles and limitations of associations in youth employment and skills development, the quality and relevance of the activities and services offered by youth centers, and youth engagement with, and trust of, community associations.
2.9 How do youth view the role of associations?

Young people suggested that youth associations and youth centers could provide young people with mentoring and training, as well as informing youth about the dangers of drugs and crime. In light of the epidemic of youth unemployment and consequent inactivity, youth believed that associations could provide structured use of free time in which youth could participate, express themselves, and display their competencies—thereby contributing to preventing risky behaviors (i.e., drug and alcohol abuse, theft, prostitution, etc.). Falling off “the right path” was a recurring fear expressed by disadvantaged youth. These associations could also play valuable learning opportunities by offering literacy, foreign language training, and tutoring services, in addition to job readiness and job search tools.

Student participants believed that the provision of mentoring, skills development, and vocational training should not be confined to the educational system. In addition, female participants felt that educational and career support should include a special focus on the development of young women. Notably, these participants were interested in opportunities to engage with youth from other areas in order to reduce their social and geographic isolation.

Focus group participants in both rural and urban areas suggested that youth membership in organizations may increase, observing that such associations were becoming more important in the lives of young people. Indeed, approximately half of focus group participants noted increased interest in associations that focused on young people. However, that by over-sampling youth who participate in youth centers, the qualitative study focus groups were not fully representative of Moroccan youth. Quantitative data for this report suggests low participation in youth associations on the part of young people in general and do not shed light on whether this is increasing.

Young people are generally aware of existing youth associations in Morocco, but they have a perception that these organizations do not yet properly address youth interests and priorities. Lack of resources, weak capacity to develop content, and lack of proper communication with young people were cited as the main reasons for this situation. Many less-educated and youth were unaware of the activities of these associations. Respondents in the rural area of Guigou (Fez region), for instance, mentioned that there were over 30 existing associations, but said that these organizations lacked the resources, capacity, and focus to address youth issues.

Other participants living in a student dormitory (Dar Taliba) in Sefrou (Fez Region) similarly stressed the importance of associations having effective channels of communication with youth and more youth-oriented activities. Many felt that the activities proposed by existing associations often seemed irrelevant and that association staff was unskilled at facilitating these activities. This finding corresponds with young people’s professed lack of familiarity and/or affiliation with youth associations, even when they participate in the activities of these associations. Also, youth felt that at present, associations depended heavily on volunteers (which means significant investment in the recruitment and training of individuals) and have high turnover. In their view, increased full- or part-time staffs, such as trainers and facility managers, would be needed for associations to provide better-quality services.

“Alone, the young Moroccan is a victim. But when he is registered in an association, he finds help and support so he is more respected by his or her family and others.”

Female student, MJ
Agadir, Souss-Massa-Draa Region

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Participants called for targeting support to active youth organizations, suggesting widespread organizational challenges. According to one respondent, who was a member of a youth center in the northern Tangiers region, the city of Chefchaouen hosts more than 200 associations, of which only eight are active. While it is difficult to define the term “active” concretely, young people perceived cultural associations and youth centers that offered sports and other recreational activities as being the most active. By contrast, associations perceived to have political ties with local authorities or international donors generally lacked credibility among youth respondents. Some participants perceived these associations as existing primarily as a means of material enrichment for a select few, rather than as a vehicle for improving the lives of young people and/or their communities.

Nevertheless, existing organizations also offer rays of hope and confidence. Participants in one group comprised of young people involved in an association that focused on disabled youth had a largely positive perspective on the association, expressing the view that it gave their members renewed hope. Because individuals with disabilities often face isolation, they considered that associations played a crucial role in enabling members of these vulnerable populations to come together. In addition, individual young people benefit from making friends and learning new skills. Unfortunately, very few associations exist specifically to serve the needs of this vulnerable population and most associations and their activities are not accessible to disabled youth.

2.10 The Role of NGOs in Youth Employment and Skills Development

Many young people consider that NGOs can facilitate their economic integration through income-generating activities, which in turn will facilitate social integration. In fact, NGO-run associations often serve as centers for youth training and skills development. They mainly prepare youth for the job search by offering training courses and internships. Some participants see these associations as having the potential to become their primary source of life skills training, employment, counseling, and job placement. They also have suggestions for improvement. For example, one respondent in a Citizen’s House (Dar Al Mouaten) in Casablanca suggested creating partnerships between associations and enterprises as a way to foster the kind of skills acquisition and training needed to meet labor market challenges. Other participants mentioned training youth in communications or advocacy as an important NGO focus. Others suggested that more vocational training was needed than is presently available. Participants also posited that dependence on volunteers could be avoided by paying young people to perform specific roles—and potential jobs—in associations. That is, associations themselves could provide job opportunities for youth.

“The human being is born to work, to participate in society’s active life. Young people study to reach an educational level, to take a degree and at the end, they find no job. There should be help and support for youth. They must find jobs.”

Young man, MJ
Fez Region

“Today anyone can create an association and present, with the help of friends in the administration or voters, projects to the INDH. I personally know several associations that only exist on paper and benefit from all possible assistance. These associations are often led by a president or some office members, and do not want other people, particularly those who are better educated, to come sticking their noses in their affairs!”

Young unemployed university graduate woman,
Tangiers-Tetuan Region
Nonetheless, youth considered that associations are *not* doing all that they can for young people, particularly in the area of employment and skills development. Many focus group participants expressed dissatisfaction that the associations do not specifically target either young people or the unemployed. Moreover, even when associations are seen as providing important job skills, there are often no jobs to be had, according to many participants. Moreover, some focus group discussants rather paradoxically saw unemployment as a barrier to youth participation in associations. Young men and women perceive that they cannot focus on organized recreational activities and associations as long as they have not resolved their life priority of finding a stable job.

*Other activities*

Beyond employment services and skills development, youth participants also want these organizations to provide relevant, entertaining, and youth-led, structured activities that address their recreational interests. Youth feel that clubs and community associations can play an important role in reducing their lack of social engagement and isolation, particularly for unemployed young people and those who are of school-going age but are not in school. Consequently, they felt that local NGOs should continue to provide leisure activities, in addition to activities that are more goal oriented or job focused. The most commonly mentioned activities mentioned as useful by focus group participants included sports, arts and culture, as well as learning opportunities (e.g., French language, literacy).

Sports and cultural associations (i.e., those that engage in theater and music) are viewed as the more active and beneficial organizations for youth and generated interest among many participants. The quantitative survey also indicated a strong interest in sports among Moroccan youth, with one-third of male youth and one-fifth of female youth recently having participated in some sports activity. Some individuals indicated an interest in having NGOs provide or arrange for mentorships for young people with an interest in pursuing careers in nontraditional fields, such as sports (e.g., football) or the arts. A few participants observed that certain NGOs gave undue priority to constructing infrastructure which was of benefit to the overall community (e.g., mosques), but which did not have a particular direct utility for youth. Many young people noted that NGOs should create more recreational and educational opportunities in poorer neighborhoods and improve the infrastructure of existing facilities.

2.11 Youth participation in associations

In other countries of the MENA region, youth participation in civic associations appears quite low. For example, only 3.7 percent of young people surveyed in Tunisia in 2000 reported that they were members of civil society organizations.⁶³ A 2009 survey by the Population Council in Egypt indicated that only 2 percent of young people aged 10 to 29 years participated in volunteer work, with the highest participation rate (3.2 percent) among the 18–24-year-old group.⁶⁴

The MHYS of 2009–2010 paints a similar picture of low participation in civic associations by young people. This quantitative survey asked youth about their participation in specific civic associations (e.g., youth centers) and asked about their access to a menu of recreational and social activities. Based on their

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answers and time use patterns, youth participation in civic associations indeed appears low in the country. For example, less than one percent of youth reported having been involved in volunteer work for at least two months.65

**Previous surveys in Morocco had presented a brighter picture.** For example, a national survey of Moroccan youth in 2000 found that 15.2 percent of young people reported being involved with an association (see Figure 2.8), with a remarkably high participation rate of almost 44 percent among the 15–19-year-old group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure 2.8: Youth Participation in Associations, Morocco, 2000</th>
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<tr>
<td><img src="chart.png" alt="" /> Source: MYS “National Youth Consultation.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

65 It is unclear whether such low response rates were documented because the bar for participation was set at two months.
Box 2.3: A Winning Life: A Young Man Recounts His Experience of an Association

“The creation of the association in 2002 was certainly the first and most decisive factor in the evolution of my life. This was a decisive action, with the primary objective of helping young people in my neighborhood who have the same problems as me. Administrative procedures were not too difficult and we enjoyed the aid of a French association working in the same area. Initially, my parents were totally against it, but eventually they realized that this association brought much good to the neighborhood kids; I was serious and made the association effective. District authorities provided grants to the association—approximately €5,000 per year. The other crucial factor was getting a job. I have a high school degree and two years of university [education]. I could not continue because the university was very far from home and the transport [was] too expensive for us. So I obtained a diploma in computer science, but I could not find work even with the diploma. I finally found a little job in a call center and was paid €250 (DH 2500) per month. In 2007, I left the call center and contacted a foundation specializing in youth employment, thanks to a neighborhood association where I worked as a volunteer. I sent my CV to this foundation and two weeks later, they called me for an interview. I was admitted to receive training for three weeks, after which they helped me find potential employers and prepare for interviews, including helping me with role playing, all at no cost. I finally found a job based on my skills and receive a salary of €300 (DH 3,000) per month. Having a job that uses my skills and pays relatively well will enable me to achieve a life goal, which is to be able to purchase an apartment for my parents, who still live in cramped housing. After this, I plan to go back to school to learn English.”

Mohammad, Social Entrepreneur, 25 years old, Casablanca

In regions known to have a stronger tradition of civil society activism (e.g., Souss-Massa-Draa and the South), one-third of youth reported participating in NGO activities—twice the national average. Participation rates of young men were almost double that of young women, and those of urban youth were double those of rural youth. In a recent study of 1,139 young people aged 13–25 years conducted in 2007, 20 percent of young people reported being engaged in associations (e.g., organizations related to community development and human rights), which suggests a positive trend in participation rates. However, it should be noted that this survey was not based on a randomly selected national representative sample, as was the case for the MHYS 2009–2010.

Early school leaving, unemployment, underemployment, and the lack of support structures that facilitate social participation are all factors that contribute to idleness among youth and often lead them to engage in high-risk behaviors. The quantitative study also found that Moroccan youth spend considerable amounts of time being idle. Young unemployed people and discouraged workers were even more susceptible to this.

The social consequences of the lack of employment for young people were much discussed in the focus groups. A group of young people living in state orphanages (Dar Atfal) held that unemployment increases the vulnerability of youth to “falling into the wrong circles,” resulting in risk-taking behavior, including drug use, drug trafficking, smuggling, prostitution and illegal migration. More than half of the focus groups across the four regions shared this view, including youth from diverse backgrounds (i.e., those who attended high schools and youth centers and those who did not). Illegal immigration is identified by many participants as a negative consequence of lack of any opportunity to be self-sufficient adults.

Most participants described drug abuse as an undesirable and humiliating outcome for youth, one that was associated with increasing idleness and unemployment. This finding is similar to that of a recent USAID report on disaffected youth in urban peripheries in Morocco, which revealed that drug use was a consequence of repeated exposure to barriers to labor market entry, exploitation, family pressure to get a job, lack of clear pathways to better income opportunities, and vulnerability to poverty. Focus group discussions conducted for this study suggested that the exposure of vulnerable youth to such risks is widespread. Notably, while drug abuse among young men was most frequently mentioned as a high-risk behavior, the most commonly mentioned risk-taking behavior for women who cannot find employment was prostitution. This was mentioned at least indirectly in ten of the thirty focus groups. Young women also frequently expressed their concern about the availability and use of drugs among Moroccan youth, particularly among males. One female participant was concerned by the effect that drugs might have on young men’s reliability and therefore the difficulty that young women might have in finding acceptable husbands.

A confounding factor is that while young people who interrupt their education early are particularly at risk, schools seem to be one of the places where young people first come into contact with drugs. Youth who raised concerns regarding drug use did not mention the legal risks that might be associated with drug consumption and seldom mentioned the existence of public initiatives to reduce access to and the availability of drugs.

2.13 Protective factors to reduce risk-taking behavior

According to focus group participants, vulnerability to drug use could be avoided through employment and civic engagement, which would restore young people’s self-confidence and increase their capacity to form a family. Youth feel that, in the absence of credible ways of achieving a sense of self-accomplishment, drug use becomes a way to escape reality.

It is noteworthy that youth in centers for professional training and educated youth both pointed to a need to invest in skills and professional training as a way to prevent high-risk behavior. Similarly, focus group respondents in youth centers indicated the positive role of services that facilitated access to jobs, but also said that opportunities to engage in sports and recreational activities were an important means of stimulating youth and keeping them away from harmful behaviors.

Focus group participants suggested that associations and public institutions must address high-risk behavior among youth—including drug abuse—because most young people do not fall into addiction deliberately and would welcome greater help in dealing with this issue. For instance, several young people in a juvenile correction center pointed out that one of the main advantages of being in the center is that they were relatively protected from the dangers of the street, above all, drugs. In addition, participants identified the need for role models who can provide guidance. Promoting mentorship programs would encourage young people to make healthy life choices. Mentors could address social needs, as well as educational and career-oriented goals, thereby helping to break the cycle of unemployment, disaffection, and high-risk behavior.

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Young people stressed that family, and then religion, was the most important protective factors that informed their behavior. Religious practice and the religious message of Islam appear to be very important in making youth resilient to high-risk behaviors, especially young people from more underprivileged backgrounds. For instance, women discussed the role of religion in helping them remain focused on positive behavior and avoiding prostitution. In groups of young male workers, religion was their main source of strength for resisting drugs and dealing with the perils of working in the streets.

In addition to its role as source of moral guidance, religion is also perceived as aiding young people in overcoming their lack of self-confidence and uncertainty about the future. Especially for young people with low social status, such as street vendors (who report facing daily humiliations in the workplace), the message of religion becomes an important means of for restoring dignity and finding hope for the future.

2.14 Concluding remarks

The qualitative study revealed that young people in Morocco are acutely aware of the challenges that they face in the labor market and have concrete ideas for improving their situations. While focus group participants over-represented disadvantaged youth, many of their views were shared by young people from all socioeconomic backgrounds. First and foremost, most young Moroccans continue to be invested in traditional social expectations and roles, even though rapid economic and social change makes it extremely difficult for them to meet these expectations. Parents and family are likewise still considered the most important source of advice on education and career decisions, yet the generation gap means that most parents—especially in lower-income and rural households—are unable to competently guide their children in such decisions. Young people accordingly register the need for better public information on the labor market outcomes of different educational and career tracks.

Despite widespread unemployment, young men are still expected to become breadwinners and earn sufficient incomes to care for their own families and parents. Young men and women both agree that men are more disadvantaged on the labor market, not because the labor market situation is more adverse for them, but because the social costs of their exclusion from the market are so high. They also agreed that young men were justified in expecting to earn higher salaries than young women. Although women—especially women with higher education—increasingly want to work, it remains socially acceptable for them to stay at home. Youth with disabilities continue to face discrimination and high barriers to labor market entry. Long-term unemployment and the difficulty of finding work means many young people are idle and suffer from isolation and frustration. As a result, many young people succumb to drug use and engage in risky behaviors (including crime and prostitution)—risks of which all youth are acutely aware.

Participants in most focus groups believed that better education and skills, as well as personal networks and connections, have a positive effect on labor market outcomes in all economic sectors: public, private, and informal. Disadvantaged young people appeared dissatisfied with the quality and relevance of public education and strongly believed that they lacked opportunities when compared to privately educated youth. However, young people from lower-income households were less likely to be unemployed because

“I see myself as a Muslim first because nothing good can happen without our Islamic faith. I am a Muslim girl and I practice my religion in order to build a good future. Religion helps me make the right choices, which is why I consider myself a Muslim girl and am proud to be Muslim.”

Young woman, DT, Casablanca Region
they had fewer expectations of the types of job that they would accept. These youth also considered high school education to be of maximum utility on the job market. The perception that the education system is inadequate (i.e., fails to provide students the skills needed on the job market) was widespread even among youth who attended youth centers or technical training programs. Among young people’s suggestions for improving labor market opportunities for young people were introducing professional training modules, making financial assistance and flexible schedules available to young people who wish to finish high school or pursue technical training, stimulating government investment in the private sector to create jobs (particularly via self-employment and microfinance projects), and targeting youth association and youth center activities to offer job-relevant skills and professional training (e.g., information technology, French language, literacy). Focus group participants in both rural and urban areas suggested that youth membership in community and youth associations may be increasing, since such associations are becoming more important in the lives of young people.
CHAPTER 3

PROGRAMS AND SERVICES FOR YOUTH: AN INSTITUTIONAL ANALYSIS

Morocco has numerous institutions that offer young people a wide range of services including: employment, training opportunities (e.g., vocational training, skills training, personal development, basic literacy, life skills, self-employment, microfinance, and leadership), community participation, summer camps, sports, and recreational activities. The findings of earlier chapters have shown that in fact most young people make little use of such services, either because they are not accessible or because they are not seen as responding to their needs.

Recognizing that many gaps remain in youth services, the Ministry of Youth and Sports has begun to develop an integrated national youth strategy to address these gaps and improve the efficiency and quality of services targeted to youth.\(^{69}\) This chapter seeks to contribute to that strategy by analyzing the quality and outreach of existing youth training, employment, social protection, and community participation programs and services,\(^{70}\) particularly those targeted to disadvantaged and less educated youth from low-income backgrounds (See Annex 3 for a list of programs analyzed). Finally, the chapter summarizes the key common issues facing these institutions as a whole, and outlines a strategic way forward towards refocusing public programs to respond more effectively to the needs of young people.

The chapter considers the following main programs: (i) Youth Centers, Women’s Centers, Child Protection Centers and National Information and Documentation Center for Youth (under the Ministry or Youth and Sports); (ii) Dar Atfal (Maisons des Enfants), Dar Attalib (La Maison des Etudiants), Dar Al Mouaten (La Maison du Citoyen), Vocational Training Centers and the Assadaka Center (all under Entraide Nationale); and (iii) Agricultural Institutes for Specialized Technical Studies, Agricultural Technology Institutes, Certified Agricultural Training Centers, Vocational Centers by Apprenticeships (CFA), and Rural Family Houses (under the Ministry of Agriculture, Rural Development and Fisheries). Finally, a number of important Active Labor Market Programs are reviewed.

3.1 Programs of the Ministry of Youth and Sports

The youth programs of the Ministry of Youth and Sports (Ministère de la Jeunesse et des Sports, MJS) fall under the three divisions of the Directorate of Youth, Children, and Feminine Affairs.\(^{71}\) There are 909 facilities under this Directorate, including:

- Youth Centers (Maisons des Jeunes, MJs), under the Youth Division;
- Women’s Centers (Foyers Féminins, FF), under the Women’s Affairs Division;
- Child Protection Centers (Centres de Sauvegarde de l’Enfance, CSEs), under the Childhood Division;
- Vocational Training Centers (Centres de Formation Professionnelle, CFPs); and

\(^{69}\) The Ministry has led the process of study and consultations to develop the strategy, signing a partnership agreement for its development in March 2009 with the Ministry of the Interior (Direction Générale des Collectivités Locales), the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), and the United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA). Other agencies have since joined this group, among them, the Ministry of National Education, which became a member in 2010. The MJS engaged Capital Consulting (www.capitalconsulting.ma) to document the various development stages of the strategy.

\(^{70}\) The chapter covers only those social service programs that existed in Morocco at the time of data collection in early 2010.

\(^{71}\) The other directorates are Sports, Budget and Equipment, and Human Resources.
Table 3.1 shows these facilities by type and expenditure.

**Table 3.1: MJS Programs, Budget, and Expenditures, 2009**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MJS Programs</th>
<th>Number of centers</th>
<th>Total cost*</th>
<th>Direct beneficiaries</th>
<th>Cost by beneficiary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>DH</td>
<td>US$</td>
<td>Young females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth Centers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth Division</td>
<td>479</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>2,275,475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Protection Centers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children’s Division</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11,808,000</td>
<td>1,414,132</td>
<td>1,265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women’s Centers</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>652,500</td>
<td>78,156</td>
<td>19,000 (tbc)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women’s Affairs Division</td>
<td></td>
<td>504,400</td>
<td>71,197</td>
<td>5,255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational Training Centers</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth Documentation Center</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>909</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Documents provided by MJS, 2010.
Note: Dollar figures are rounded.
*1 USD=8.35 MAD, 2009.
**According to MJS sources, 5,688,687 young people participated overall in youth centers’ activities, of which 60 percent were young men. However, given that they include repeated attendances, it is not possible to calculate the unitary cost for the youth centers.
N/A: Not Available
*** Costs per beneficiary were not calculated, as there would appear to have been multiple counting of beneficiaries.

**Youth Centers (Maisons des Jeunes, MJs)**

Morocco’s Youth Centers constitute a significant network dedicated to the development of young people, second only to the formal school system. These MJs are not formal educational institutions, but non-formal learning venues offering various services, including cultural, educational, social, artistic, and sports activities to youth. Their aim is to offer opportunities including:

(i) Young people’s development through individual outreach and mentoring by youth workers within interactive thematic clubs (e.g., painting, sports, theater, computers, and reading);

(ii) Capacity building and support to registered youth associations that meet the eligibility requirements of the MJS; and

72 Source: Youth Directorate.
73 Non-formal learning (NFL) provides young people—particularly disadvantaged youth—the soft and hard skills needed to facilitate their entry into the workforce and encourage their active citizenship. NFL is a voluntary, intentional, and youth-led process that takes place outside of the formal education sector and covers a wide variety of learning fields, including youth work, youth clubs, sports associations, voluntary service, peer education, and many other activities that offer practical learning.
(iii) Social inclusion and participation—involveing local young people of different socio-cultural backgrounds in MJ activities.

Thus, overall, MJs offer various services aimed at mentoring youth and enabling them to fulfill themselves through cultural, artistic, and sports activities led by departmental staff members. It also facilitates the provision of services by youth associations to local communities, enabling them to develop youth-led initiatives at the local, regional, and national level.

Formally speaking, MJs are governed by an elected board, composed of the MJ director and representatives of youth associations. Activities are largely coordinated by the MJ directors, who are civil servants that have graduated from higher training institutes of MJS, and who have advanced expertise in providing social and cultural activities for youth.

A number of constraints limit the effectiveness of MJs, including resources, facilities, staffing, and the content of activities.

Resources: MJs are underfunded. The government is only one of a number of sources that fund youth centers. The Ministry of Youth and Sports provides each center a yearly operating budget of 3,000 DH. This is supplemented by funding from the MJS, thanks to the support of partners, and is essentially based on a project-approach. Some MJs also suffer from understaffing.

Accessibility and design of facilities: On average, there is only one youth center per 20,888 young people aged 15–24 years, 40 percent of which are located in rural areas. Some MJs are housed in buildings with inadequate construction standards, especially in rural areas. In fact, the Youth Ministry has not been in charge of building facilities since the 1980s, a task entrusted to local authorities (provincial communes-councils).

The Ministry of Youth and Sports has adopted a sectoral approach aimed at progressively upgrading all MJs, depending on budget availability, to make models out of them. This upgrading includes MJ architecture and construction as well as adequate equipment. Two hundred MJs have benefited from this upgrading operation.

Staffing: MJ staff tend to be from an older age cohort, with few recent, younger, recruits. This appeared, at least in some centers, to be associated with poor motivation of staff, poor communications between staff and young beneficiaries, and low attendance. Over the next three years, 1,800 employees aged 54 and 55 years—out of a total of staff of 2,800—will retire. This presents an important opportunity to revitalize many centers by recruiting young staff with backgrounds and qualifications more suitable for working with youth.

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74 Youth center regulation, as provided by the MJS.
75 Increased from 900 DH in 2008.
Targeting and Content of Activities:

According to youth surveyed by the MYHS, MJs should be more accessible. Seventy percent of youth answered that they knew MJs well, but 40 percent stated that there are not any in their area. In addition, 26 percent of youth surveyed suggested that the activities offered should be better suited to the needs/requests of youth. In some cases, youth set up their own associations to meet the needs of young people in the neighborhood, but often without clear objectives or sufficient funding. Nevertheless, they express interest in taking on responsibilities within MJ management bodies.

Lastly, to meet the expectations and aspirations of young people, MJs’ approach must be revamped to achieve this potential, by improving performance and coverage, and basing this on a more thorough assessment of the needs and location of target populations.

To this end, the Ministry of Youth and Sports recently adopted a policy aimed at upgrading these facilities, within available budgets, and has sought to foster partnerships to this end. In 2011, the MJS developed a new type of MJ, the Centers at the Service of Youth (CSJ), which provide the services of several actors.

Women’s Centers (Foyers Féminins, FFs)

The Division of Women’s Affairs (Division des Affaires Féminines, DAF) of the MJS’s Directorate of Youth and Sports, is responsible for designing, implementing, and monitoring programs for Moroccan women. With a national network of institutions dedicated to the training of young girls, young women, and children, DAF has become one of the most important training providers in Morocco (second only to the Office for Vocational Training and Work Promotion—Office de la Formation Professionnelle et de la Promotion du Travail, OFPPT).

DAF formally targets young women between 15 and 22 who have not had access to formal education, have dropped out of school early, or have left school without a degree. However, in reality, many older women use the centers. For vocational training courses, women must have finished ninth grade. DAF programs have two main goals: (i) labor market entry via rapid qualifications training, and (ii) women’s self-development. To this end, FFs offer three services: vocational training (offered through Vocational Training Centers, CPF), women’s development (via mentoring and training in FFs), and early child care (i.e., child care centers). Nationally, these services are offered in 299 FFs, 110 of which house Vocational Training Centers (CPF). Also, 343 child care centers are associated with the FFs, enabling beneficiaries to attend training programs while providing preschool care and education to children of vulnerable working women.

FFs are among the oldest structures of the Ministry of Youth and Sports that specifically target girls and women. The first FFs were created in the 1950s, soon after Morocco’s independence in 1956, with the goals of raising women’s awareness, fighting illiteracy, providing health education and reproductive health, offering classes on cooking, sowing, embroidery and child care, and providing

“I really like the women’s center. It’s next door to my house and my husband allows me to go there. I meet my mother, my sisters, my mother-in-law, and my neighbors at the center.”

Young girl, Fez, Fez-Boulemane Region
basic Islamic and civic education. Today, the most popular programs offered are sewing and computer training.

As is the case for the youth centers, a number of factors constrain the performance of the FFs, including: facilities, staffing, and the relevance of activities, in addition to the scarcity of resources.

**Location and quality of facilities: Inadequacies of facilities and equipment limit the operations and impact of FFs.** The location of many FFs in inaccessible areas seriously undermines their attractiveness and impact. For example, after the relocation of a FF to new facilities far from its original location in downtown Fez, the number of beneficiaries fell from 80 in 2009 to only 20 in January 2010. Furthermore, the majority of FFs, CFPs, and child care facilities are located in a single complex, where all three DAF programs are implemented, resulting in competition for the inadequate space available.

FFs need both multipurpose training rooms and specialized rooms for technical training (computer training, hairdressing, sewing, etc.), but often such facilities are not present or functional. The floor space of FFs varies greatly, e.g., from 45.5 square meters in Aïn Harrouda, Casablanca Region to 4,000 square meters in Hay Hassani, also in the Casablanca Region, due to the fact that the MJS is no longer in charge of building youth facilities in general, and is limited to providing training and equipment. It would therefore be advisable to establish standard criteria for the use of space. In fact, a new type of FF was created in 2011 to better meet the needs of users.

The MJS has begun a renovation and equipment program that has to date overhauled 35 centers. However, these renovations will not cover the substantial minority of facilities not actually owned by the ministry, and focuses mainly on CFPs.

Equipment, especially for ICT, is also scarce in the centers. In Chaouen and Aïn Harrouda, young girls use the center’s computers to practice what they learn in high schools classes. However, because of their value, the computers are generally kept locked away, making access difficult. In addition, there are only one or two computer staff at these centers, making it impossible to offer adequate IT training. As a result, the centers offer only introductory IT classes.

Sewing is the second and oldest, main training offered at FFs. This training is valued by housewives seeking employment opportunities in garment factories. However, heavy usage of the sewing machines frequently leads to break-downs (e.g., in Chaouen, four out of 15 sewing machines were out of service and six did not work properly). In addition, students must purchase their own supplies (e.g., thread, fabric, etc.), a practice that excludes the most disadvantaged girls from training.

Finally, the number and child care centers associated with FFs are reportedly insufficient to meet needs, discouraging the attendance of mothers. Child care centers are particularly rare in rural areas.

**Staffing: FFs lack sufficient qualified staff.** Only a small minority (one to two per center) of FF staff, typically the managers, is permanent (i.e., civil servants). The qualifications and skills of training staff tend to reflect the original mission of centers, which concentrated on the teaching of basic

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76 Interview with FF representatives.
77 Many facilities are rented or borrowed, rather than owned, by the MJS.
techniques of sewing and embroidery, rather than with a formal training curriculum. Further, the staff of FFs, like those of youth centers, are an aging cohort, yet there has been little recent recruitment to replace them. Most actual trainers and facilitators have only “auxiliary” personnel status.\(^\text{79}\) Their training has been acquired from experience, rather than formal programs or qualification, which is especially the case among vocational training personnel. These women are not paid a salary, but receive a subsidy, which does not amount to the minimum wage. Naturally, this is a source of considerable frustration and demoralization for those concerned.\(^\text{80}\)

**Relevance of activities:** The relevance of the training available in the FFs is open to question. With the rapid economic and cultural changes of recent decades, the skills needed by the young women using the FFs and CFPs have evolved. However, the content of the activities offered has not changed to meet these needs.

These constraints have impinged on the quality and relevance of training offered by FFs, and this is reflected in declining attendance at the centers. Between 2005 and 2009, the total number of direct FF beneficiaries fell from 38,574 to 17,423, while the number of centers grew from 282 to 295 (see Table 3.2). These figures reflect a fall in the average number of beneficiaries per facility from 137 to 59 over the period, a decline particularly marked in rural areas.

### Table 3.2: Attendance at FFs, 2005–2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Centers</th>
<th>Human Resources</th>
<th>Beneficiaries</th>
<th>Outreach activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>U</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>672</td>
<td>556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>453</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source:* Department of Youth, Sports, and Women’s Affairs, 2010.

*Note:* Urban; R – Rural; F – Ministry Staff; A – Assistants; T – Total.

The declining trend in FF attendance may also reflect competition from a proliferation of institutions and programs offering similar kinds of technical training for young women. In addition to the MJs and other FFs offering training outside the MJSs program, these include the OFFPT, the *Entraide Nationale*, and the National Human Development Initiative (INDH).

In conclusion, clearly some rethinking of the FF program is needed if its relevance to young people is to be sustained in terms of content and target groups. This may require focusing more rigorously on the originally defined target group (15–29 years) and the disadvantaged. New approaches and methods could be piloted in the 35 FFs already renovated and reequipped. Partnerships with other government and nongovernment organizations are currently very limited, and expanding these could help to revitalize the program, both improving its technical content and facilitating access to job placements.

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80 The authors do not have precise data on this point. Managers are discreet on the subject; instructors interviewed for the study characterized their compensation as “meager.”
Promising new areas for training include income-generating activities, as well as cooperative and microenterprise management.

**Child Protection Centers (Centres de Sauvegarde, CSEs)**

Child Protection Centers (CSEs) exist in 20 institutions, including four centers for girls, which provide social and educational services mostly to minors who have been in conflict with the law. CSEs provide basic and technical training in manual occupations with the dual goal of education and preparing residents for social reintegration into society. Training is offered in occupations such as plumbing, metalwork, and woodwork for boys; and sewing, embroidery, cooking, and hotel work for girls. In several cities, the MJS has opened social action centers governed by the same rules as those of the CSEs, which affords residents the opportunity to freely continue their schooling or vocational training once they leave the facility.

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**Box 3.1: Goals of Child Protection Centers**

- Accommodations: providing a child a single bed, blankets, clothes, personal hygiene products, and an individual closet to store their personal affairs.
- A healthy diet in the form of three meals a day.
- Health protection and disease prevention through regular medical visits, provision of medications, and transport to a hospital when needed.
- Audiovisual equipment (e.g., television, video player, sound system); this equipment is supervised by a teacher and used for specific time slots and appropriate programs.
- Preservation of family ties: allowing families to visit children in the centers and children to enjoy an annual vacation with their families (upon authorization of a juvenile court judge), as well as the sending and receiving of personal mail.
- Participation in educational and sports activities that contribute to the personality development of children and the strengthening of their physical and mental capacities.
- Academic and extracurricular activities (e.g., literacy and vocational training adapted to the needs and preferences of the children).
- Providing books and magazines for the center library to enable children to learn and inform themselves with the goal of improving their knowledge.
- Summer camp sessions in summer centers of the MJS.
- Vocational certifications upon successful completion of various stages of training.
- Support to pregnant girls until they give birth in a hospital or maternity house. The daughter-mother has the right to stay in the center with her newborn baby if this situation is safe for both.


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81 Of the 20 existing CSEs, 10 were already in operation before the independence of Morocco in 1956.
82 The objective of the Moroccan juvenile justice system is to protect children, whether victims or offenders. Their interests are protected in national legislation that conforms to the International Convention on the Rights of the Child, which functions as the principal criteria for all decisions. See UNICEF, 2006, “Les enfants en institution au Maroc (Institutionalized Children in Morocco),” UNICEF, Rabat.
The CSEs are simultaneously social protection institutions under the MJS and places of juvenile detention. Their residents are minors detained by order of a public prosecutor or a court judgment. CSEs are overcrowded and often mix orphans with different kinds of juvenile offenders. In 2003, the Moroccan Code of Criminal Procedure was brought into line with the Convention on the Rights of the Child, which raised the age of criminal responsibility from 16 to 18. As a result, young people between 16 and 18 years of age, who had previously been detained in adult prisons, were placed in CSEs. The consequent increase in the number and age range of residents have exceeded both the accommodation and supervisory capacity of the centers, which now house 5,875 residents of both sexes in 20 centers, originally designed to accommodate only 2,075.

CSEs suffer from insufficient and inadequate staff and a severe lack of resources. They are only funded by MJS budget. Although Childhood Protection Centers are tasked with providing resident children accommodations, a healthy diet of three meals a day, medical services, and disease prevention, these standards are far from being satisfied, owing to an acute lack of financial and material resources. According to the civil servants interviewed, CSEs spend an average of 12 DH (US$1.40) per resident per day, an amount far from that required to meet the young residents’ basic needs. The figures in Table 3.1 suggest that, alarmingly, the actual amount spent is less than one dollar a day. This is particularly troublesome because the majority of residents are from very poor or vulnerable backgrounds or have ruptured all family ties, making them entirely dependent on the centers. Such deprivation is also associated with theft and violence, which characterizes CSEs.

The housing together of children and youth who have been charged with varying degrees of offences creates dangerous conditions in CSEs. Although the age of residents is supposed to be between 12 and 18 years, in the case of more severe offenses, prosecutors place much younger children in CSEs—a situation found in all CSEs visited. These young children share the same space and attend the same programs as adolescents and young men of 18. CSEs also mix children and adolescents with widely differing backgrounds and criminal records in long-term residence. Residents of the CSEs met were generally from poor families from slums or other underprivileged areas, often from a family environment disrupted by drugs, alcoholism, prostitution, a delinquent relative, or family members in trouble with the law. Young girls in detention had often been sex workers who had earlier been victims of rape or domestic violence (e.g., as housemaids, informal workers, or runaways). Boys were generally placed in detention for robbery, rape, assault, or murder.

In conclusion, addressing the budgetary and staffing needs of CSEs is urgent to provide the basic needs of residents, improve and renovate facilities, and provide educational services and

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84 Decree No. 2-02-379 (June 2002).
85 The duration of detention depends either on the nature of the offense or crime committed by a youth or the sentence of the judicial authority that ordered his or her detention. According to CSE teachers, this period may be modified after the observation period.
psychological care. CSEs programming should be radically revised to include a range of technical training, with introductory training provided while residents are in the CSEs, and vocational training on their release. This will require increasing the numbers and capacity of training staff as well as specialized professionals such as psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers. INDH should be considered as a potential source of funds for these improvements, with application facilitated by local MJS offices. Other institutional partners should also be considered, including specialized public, private and nongovernmental training organizations, the Ministry of Health’s clinical psychology department, NGOs, and international organizations such as UNICEF.

**The National Information and Documentation Center for Youth**

Launched in 2007 in Rabat, the National Information and Documentation Center for Youth (CNIDJ) is a public institution providing information to young people free of charge on a wide range of topics, including education and skills development, academic and vocational guidance, employment, culture, travel, sports, and recreation. Its main objective is to collect and centralize all information relevant to the social integration of young people who are seeking their first job or training opportunity. The main beneficiaries are young people, researchers, and youth specialists.

The CNIDJ has a staff of 12 to support research and answer inquiries. Staff members are mostly university graduates and young (30 to 35 years old), with a balance of young men and young women. The organization is located in a newly built complex consisting of a large, multipurpose room that can hold about 100 people, and three administrative offices. In addition to responding to requests for information, the CNIDJ provides users with access to the Internet, a reading room, a library, and a bulletin board that displays job and internship announcements. Its computer equipment is up-to-date and includes video projectors. These services are enhanced by outreach activities that introduce CNIDJ to young people and the general public, including open houses, study days, training sessions, and socio-cultural events. To date, however, outreach has been limited: only 626 youth had used the center's services in 2008.

In conclusion, the CNIDJ duplicates some functions of the MJS’ youth centers, such as providing information, hosting youth and youth groups, hosting workshops, and providing Internet access. One possible way forward would be to broaden the mission of CNIDJ as part of the new National Youth Strategy, for example, by reorganizing it as a National Youth Observatory. The functions of such an observatory could include conducting regular representative national surveys of young people, preparing analytic reports on priority youth policy issues, and providing a space for both youth-led training and capacity building for NGOs associated with youth services. This last role would contribute to building the capacity of local and national youth-led representative bodies.

**3.2 Programs of the Entraide Nationale, EN**

The mission of the *Entraide Nationale, EN* (National Social Assistance Agency) is to facilitate mutual assistance between all sectors of the population. In support of this mission, the agency organizes and regulates private, individual, and group initiatives that seek to help the most vulnerable population groups in the country. The agency provides a safety net for the poorest Moroccans by collecting and distributing donations and food assistance, as well as offering basic
technical training. The EN is funded by grants and local taxes, the most important of which is a levy on the slaughter of livestock. The levy amount varies by locality, and the proceeds are reserved exclusively for social protection institutions (Dar Al Atfal, Dar Attalib, Dar Attaiba). The agency also receives support from private institutions and the general public (in contrast to the MJS). (EN benefits for example from a portion of the goods seized by customs and granted to the underprivileged through a network of development associations). EN thus encourages mutual assistance between different social groups, especially from private and public sector. EN can also intervene with tax authorities to secure tax deductions for social development actors that receive donations (tax exemptions for example). EN supports the associations that manage Social Protection Centers (EPS). These centers own assets that were passed on to them in the form of grants, thus enabling them to have sufficient funds to operate.

Over this past decade, the EN has become very active in forging international partnerships to more effectively target vulnerable populations, meet their expectations, and operate as closely to them as possible. Among the institutions analyzed in this report, the EN is distinguished by its long experience in partnering with some 2,500 partners, of which local governments, government institutions, and (mainly) local, national and international NGOs, as well as the private sector.

Information on four of EN’s most important programs targeting disadvantaged youth is given in Table 3.4. The largest of these is the Centers for Education and Training (CEFs), which served 106,637 beneficiaries in 2009.

**Table 3.3: Centers for Disadvantaged Adolescents and Youth Supported by the Entraide Nationale, 2009**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Centers/Institutions</th>
<th>Staff</th>
<th>Centers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Social Protection Institution (EPSs)</td>
<td>4,092</td>
<td>925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Dar Al Mouaten (La maison du citoyen)</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Centers for Education and Training (CEFs)</td>
<td>2,894</td>
<td>1,079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Centers for Apprenticeship Training (CFAs)</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>7,580</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,145</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Figures provided by the Entraide Nationale, 2009.*

**Table 3.4 shows the relatively low expenditures per beneficiary of the EN’s main training and labor market entry programs for disadvantaged youth** (the Centers for Education and Training and for Apprenticeship Training). The average per capita cost of EN technical training programs (i.e., those offered by CEFs, and CFPs) is about three times lower than that of the Active Labor Market Programs discussed later in this chapter. These programs will need to be regularly assessed to determine their effectiveness and impact on beneficiaries, for example, by tracking their employment and placement rates by gender and socioeconomic category.

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87 One representative of the Entraide Nationale estimated that the tax amounts to 10 or 12 DH per sheep in the Casablanca Region.

88 Some associations own properties that were given to them as gifts or donations. Several centers own commercial offices and houses.
Table 3.4: Budgets and Unit Costs of *Entraide Nationale* Programs for Disadvantaged Young People, 2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programs</th>
<th>Total cost**</th>
<th>Direct beneficiaries</th>
<th>Unit cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DH</td>
<td>US$</td>
<td>DH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEF/CFP Training centers</td>
<td>309,332,399</td>
<td>35,352,274</td>
<td>154,539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAM Centers for active citizenship</td>
<td>73,159,918</td>
<td>8,361,133</td>
<td>21,103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dar Atfal, Dar Attalib Centers for social protection</td>
<td>396,646,117</td>
<td>45,330,984</td>
<td>65,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centers for children with disabilities</td>
<td>7,442,771</td>
<td>850,602</td>
<td>9,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>786,581,204</td>
<td>89,894,994</td>
<td>249,642</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


*Note: Figures are rounded.*

** Total cost includes resources provided by the state budget, *Entraide Nationale’s* own funds, and transfers from donors.

**Dar Atfal (La Maison des Enfants, DAT)**

*Dar Atfal* is an alternate term for orphanages, or charity homes, whose primary responsibility is to provide lodging and education to orphans and children from very poor families. These facilities are managed by associations supported by EN through annual subsidies, as well as by private sponsors. They are grouped into associations and governed by regulations that have remained unchanged for over 60 years. The annual expenditure per beneficiary varies from one orphanage to another, ranging from 617 to 6,062 DH. In 2006, DAT gained the legal status of Social Protection Institution, which is more in line with modern principles of child protection. In fact, law 14.05 has defined the provisions governing the opening and management of EPSs to safeguard the dignity of the child, while providing him/her with the necessary conditions for a better life.

The incomes of the orphanages were unstable prior to Law 14/05. In meeting expenditures, priority is given to wages and fixed costs; therefore, longer term planning is impossible for the essential needs of residents, including food, maintenance, etc. Managers and partner associations appeal to donors to meet the most urgent needs of these centers for children, but these appeals are not always successful. In addition, the relationship between local associations and orphanage managers is problematic. For example, one association in Casablanca has had the same chairman for over 20 years. Power relations in the city, children’s needs, and the responsibilities of Dar

> “The majority of children here have no one but us. There is no one for them on the outside. Here they can eat, sleep, and shower. But these children are difficult because they feel rejected and inferior to others. We need qualified staff to care for these children.”

*Representative, Casablanca Region*

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89 Decree of the Vizirat of 13 December, 1935, Concerning the Monitoring of Private Assistance and Charity Works.
Atfal have profoundly changed over that time, but the objectives and management of the local donor association have remained the same.

**Lack of psychological counseling threatens residents’ social integration.** Orphanage staff unanimously stated that residents are psychologically vulnerable. Among other problems, they suffer a profound sense of inferiority vis-à-vis the outside world, especially with respect to children of the same age. Given their poverty, lack of family support, and particular living conditions, orphanage residents are treated by other students at school as “pupils of the nation” or orphanage kids. As a result, they are often rejected, seen as suspect, and their behavior caricatured. These children may also have been rejected by their families, if they have any. Because their families are frequently large and very poor, they quickly distance themselves from children living in Dar Atfal. Family visits accordingly become scarcer and scarcer, and many families avoid hosting children altogether during weekends. This frequently leads to psychological disorders, ranging from incontinence, stuttering and speech impediments to more severe disorders such as aggression, self-mutilation, and suicide. EPS staff and management consider psychological counseling and monitoring to be absolute priorities for these children—on par with food and shelter.

**Educators are in short supply and poorly paid. The situation in all orphanages is similar, with low wages, unstable employment, and lack of skilled teachers.** A feeling of instability and frustration was widely shared by all DAT educators. Although orphanage directors are generally recruited by EN, the remaining staff is heterogeneous. Thus, in the orphanage in Sidi Bernoussi (in Casablanca), home to 300 children, all staff except the director were recruited by the sponsoring organization and receive salaries that do not exceed the minimum wage (roughly 1,800 DH per month). There are approximately 86 employees in this orphanage (working in administration, food preparation, and miscellaneous services). The number of educational staff has been greatly scaled back.

**Inevitably, staff in these institutions is demotivated.** As one staff person at the Casablanca DAT repeatedly said, their work has “no added social value.” Credit for the work of staff, moreover, often goes to others, such as the Ministries of Health and Education, the Mohammed V Foundation, or international NGOs.

**In conclusion, Dar Atfal centers are expected to become more effective institutions after their current physical renovations.** A precondition for this is a sufficient and stable budget to provide care to residents. Equally necessary is the provision of educational opportunities for residents of different ages and needs, along with psychological and social support. Human resource requirements include specialized educators and peer educators with whom younger residents can identify. Equally important is staff training and ensuring that children’s rights are protected, in accordance with the Convention on the Rights of the Child. The management of Dar Atfal orphanages also needs to be addressed. Partnerships with the MJS and specialized NGOs for sports and the creative arts (e.g., theater, painting), could improve the psychological well-being of young residents, help restore confidence, and prepare young residents for future economic and social integration.
Dar Attalib and Dar Attaliba are Social Protection Institutions (EPSs) destined to provide full care (shelter, food, education, etc.) respectively to young boys and girls to enable them to complete their education in adequate conditions. These institutions mainly target underprivileged and rural youth, with the aim of mitigating the risk of them dropping out of school and encouraging them to pursue their studies, especially young girls who are confronted with the problem of living far away from their schools. The original purpose of these dormitories was to house orphaned children or children from disadvantaged families. The transition from primary to secondary school is a particular problem in rural areas, especially for girls. In 2007, for example, the enrollment rate for young girls in elementary school in rural areas was 88.2 percent, but was only 15.6 percent in middle school, and 3 percent in high schools (13–16 years old). The main causes of girls’ low enrollment rate in rural areas are cultural and economic. Many families continue to see primary education as the ultimate educational goal for girls. The transition from primary school to middle school (12–13 years old) coincides with pre-puberty in girls. Families who allow their daughters to continue their education are faced with the problem of living distant from the high school and the scarcity of Ministry of National Education affiliated dormitories. If they have the means, rural parents do not hesitate to rent a room in town for their children so that they can pursue their education, but they are much more reluctant to do the same when it comes to their daughters for reasons relating to culture and traditions.

Box 3.3: INDH (Initiative Nationale de Développement Humain)

The National Initiative for Human Development was launched by King Mohamed VI in 2005. Its operations are based on stakeholder ownership of selected projects that address social shortcomings through income-generating and job-creation activities. The three guiding objectives of the INDH are:
- human development
- the social situation in cities
- socioeconomic inclusion and participation

Its programs aim to serve:
- urban areas: 30 cities, 264 districts
- rural areas: 403 rural towns

The 264 urban districts were identified as follows: a total population of 2,501,499 inhabitants, accounting for 22 percent of the population of 30 eligible cities, and 16 percent of the national urban population. These districts have identified the following problems:
- lack of basic social infrastructure
- high dropout rates
- high unemployment rates
- slums
- poverty and low-income populations
- high rate of exclusion of women and youth
- lack of opportunities for training and social inclusion

of Morocco. Based on an average of 60 young residents per facility, the current housing capacity of these institutions is about 7,000.

Most dormitory facilities are of recent construction, have modern equipment, and offer their young beneficiaries satisfactory living and schooling conditions. However, their educational support services are constrained by a scarcity of qualified staff. For example, the dormitory in Sefrou (Fez Region) employs four people (two teachers, one cook, and one housekeeper) to supervise 66 girls ranging between 13 and 19 year of age. The lack of personnel reduces educators to mere supervisors in charge of maintaining order. As a result, the facilities appear to be mere dormitories, without the means to provide educational services. According to a facility representative, its two teachers are often reduced to supervising the comings and goings of the girls from the dormitory.

Residents have few structured leisure activities, except for television. Their feelings of isolation and frustration are exacerbated by the harsh discipline of the dormitories, as low staff numbers essentially prohibit residents from participating in outside activities or even attending neighboring youth centers. Parents accompany children living in dormitories to school on the first day of the school year and after family vacations. Most parents are faced with difficult living conditions and cannot afford to visit or care for their children during weekends, depriving them of emotional and financial family support. The only official contact with a resident’s family is in the event of an accident or serious discipline problem, such as breaking the rules of the dormitory, in which case the father or a guardian is immediately summoned.

The Ministry of National Education has identified several causes of student dropout among the residents of these dormitories, including differences in the educational level of students, both in terms of their learning capability and family support. As a result, an emergency plan has made customized support and tutoring a priority. However, the number and professional background of dormitory staff must be adjusted to enable them to provide these services.

Finally, residents face deep socialization challenges. For example, residents of boys’ dormitories often come from poor families living in rural areas. The transition from one educational level to another and the integration of these boys into schools where most students are urban residents makes them insecure. These boys cannot understand codes of conduct that are foreign to them, which leads to frustration, withdrawal, and even learning blockages. According to an institutional representative interviewed during the survey, this situation makes the boys vulnerable to risky behaviors. In the absence of family support, the dormitories neither offer nor envision psychosocial counseling.
In conclusion, overall, the DTs appear to play an important role in the fight against the lack of education in rural areas and promoting equal opportunities for boys and girls, regardless of their background, whether from rural or urban areas. However, to date, no systematic data is available on success and dropout rates. Young residents need more opportunities for socialization outside of the DTs, as well as onsite learning and psychosocial support by professional staff. Since 2004, EN and its partners launched a pilot psychosocial support and tutoring initiative aimed at EPS residents to fight school dropout, and improve their academic achievement and socialization abilities. This psychosocial development program is currently being generalized to all EPSs.

**Dar Al Mouaten (La Maison du Citoyen, DAM)**

Literally known as “Centers for Active Citizenship,” DAMs are innovative institutions that aim to improve the living conditions of populations, to strengthen social ties and engage citizens in the fight against poverty and social exclusion. There are 55 DAMs in Morocco, which provide various social mediation services (support, coaching, training, and awareness raising), and offer activities well suited to the needs of beneficiaries. DAMs support community projects and local initiatives. They provide a space for local associations to develop their activities and to contribute to rehabilitating social conditions in the neighborhoods in which they are located.

DAMs serve as spaces for dialogue and meeting needs that are identified by the beneficiaries themselves. The centers target all categories and all ages of people in a given neighborhood or community—children, youth, adults, the elderly, and the disabled. Their diverse functions essentially make them “one-stop shops” or ombudsman offices that provide clear information on other institutions and the services they provide to interested citizens (i.e., volunteering activities, vocational training and intermediation information, mobile health services, etc.). According to an EN official, the idea is based on the experience of several European and South-East Asian countries.

**DAMs are popular when local residents understand their mission, but have difficulties in reaching out to young people, especially as they charge membership fees. However, the fees charged are nominal.** DAMs can generate their own income through partnerships and the recovery of fees for services. While this reflects the local value placed on services, in disadvantaged neighborhoods extreme poverty prohibits even a minimal financial contribution from potential beneficiaries. The services and training being offered generally include literacy classes (mostly for women), basic computer training, tutoring, and counseling. Some DAMs also offer graduate-degree courses (e.g., in Sidi Moumen and Casablanca) in partnership with local associations. Young people generally attend DAMs to take a certified training class or look for job. However, the centers do not possess sufficient information on job search skills and job opportunities. The absence of an ANAPEC representative or a DAM employee trained by ANAPEC further limits the attractiveness of these centers for young people.

**Vocational Training Centers**

*Entraide Nationale* has always attached particular importance to training and mentoring as tools for improving economic and social integration, particularly of women and young women. Since the INDH

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90 DAMs are facilities aimed at promoting social inclusion across age categories. They are included in this review upon the request of the Moroccan Government.

91 Citizen’s Houses were visited in Sidi Bernoussi, Casablanca, and Fez.
was launched in 2005, the objectives of vocational training supported by the EN have developed. Currently, the agency provides training to disadvantaged young people through two kinds of centers, Centers for Education and Training (CEF) and Apprenticeship Training Centers (CFA).²

- **Centers for Education and Training (CEF)**

CEFs were launched with the creation of the *Entraide Nationale* in 1957 and are similar to the FFs of the MJS. There are 1,079 CEFs in Morocco today, where 2,894 instructors provide training to 106,637 beneficiaries. These centers have the highest rate of attendance of all EN institutions.

**CEFs are popular even though these centers only offer recognized vocational training certificates.** These neighborhood centers have always played an important role in socialization, education, and basic vocational training for women and young women, especially among the illiterate. Their relatively high number of beneficiaries reflects a loyalty that endures through the generations. The CEFs are identified as social centers and spaces for learning and apprenticeship. However, their limited staff (one instructor per 38 beneficiaries) does not allow for quality training for an extended period. In addition, most CEF instructors have extensive experience, but generally no recognized diploma. CEFs directly managed by EN offer services free of charge; whereas those managed by partner associations, in some cases, receive symbolic contributions, which enable them to partially cover their operational costs.

- **Apprenticeship Training Centers (CFA)**

Since the late 1990s, public authorities in Morocco have become more sensitive to social and economic problems caused by poverty and social exclusion. The *Entraide Nationale*, along with other ministries, has been providing vocational training through apprenticeships targeting vulnerable youth, with a view to promote their social and economic inclusion.

**The emphasis on social inclusion has led to the restructuring and modernization of *Entraide Nationale* and its training programs, adjusting them to social needs.** Specifically, the agency is refocusing its education and training centers for women and girls to target disadvantaged groups and support their socioeconomic integration. Apprenticeship Training Center (CFA) has also been restructured. Current staff of the CFAs are well educated, with trainers required to be technicians—the equivalent of two years of higher education (i.e., a baccalaureate plus two years). International partners are now directly involved in operations (14 Korean trainers are working in various centers and the International Organization for Migration (IOM) contributed to the creation of the Taboula Center (Tetuan Region).

Some of the revamped training facilities are designated as pilot centers, where new training courses and approaches are tested. They target their services to socially and economically vulnerable young people, especially secondary school dropouts. The beneficiary age group of 16–30 is fixed by law. Training methods combine theoretical instruction (20 percent of learning time) and practical apprenticeship under authentic work conditions (80 percent of learning time). The training centers are publicized through social

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² Law 12-00 on Apprenticeship and Training in Morocco. Apprenticeship training is expected to devote 80 percent of training time to actual production and 20 percent to apprenticeship training in the center. The content of training courses is set by the Ministry of Employment and Vocational Training.
marketing, including “open door” days that include activities attractive to youth and adolescents. A door-to-door technique is also used to inform recent dropouts about the CFAs and persuade them to enroll, with lists of these students provided by local Ministry of National Education offices. Finally, word of mouth helps disseminate information via young apprentices, who are encouraged to share information on the centers with their friends and neighbors. When CFAs have difficulty recruiting young people, it is generally because the same training is offered by the centers of other ministries. CFA trainees (in Tiznet) consider the training worthwhile. The demand for CFAs is increasing, but their funding remains low, affecting the quality of this qualifying training.\footnote{The diplomas delivered are accredited by the Ministry of Vocational Training.}

**The Assadaka Center (Centre Assadaka)**

Located in a marginalized neighborhood of Tangiers, the Assadaka Center represents good practice in terms of: (i) its methods of social integration of youth and children from disadvantaged backgrounds, and (ii) its partnership with the *Entraide Nationale* and Spanish NGO. The center is the fruit of a collaborative effort of the EN, the Spanish NGO Paideia, and the *Raouabit Assadaka* organization. Built with a generous donation from the Spanish Government, the social center functions as a progressive social complex integrated into its cultural, economic, and social context; as such, it targets the young population of the district.

### Box 3.3: The Assadaka Social Center

**Objectives**

The Assadaka social center for children is part of a socio-educational complex that aims to improve the quality of life of children, young people, and families who are socially at risk. Situated in Beni-Makada, one of the most disadvantaged neighborhoods of Tangiers, the Assadaka Center is one of the most important social institutions dedicated to vulnerable young people in the city. It is the realization of an exemplary partnership between the *Entraide Nationale* and the Spanish NGO Paideia. The principal objective of the center is to help young people acquire the professional skills to facilitate their socioeconomic integration and entry into the labor market, creating bridges of information and sensitization between the center and the enterprises that host trainees in the process.

**Principal programs**

A vocational training program targeted at boys and girls under 15 years old, who have dropped out of school, seeks to develop their skills through apprenticeships. The program offers training in several professions: electrical, mechanic, seamstress/tailor, cooking, and social work. Entertainment and tutoring programs that target vulnerable children in the neighborhood aged 6 to 18 are also offered, as well as a "second chance" (non-formal) education program that targets young people aged 8–16 who have either never attended school or have dropped out. A housing facility shelters young people 5–18 years old, who have been abandoned or are at social risk. The facility takes charge of these children and meets their primary needs (e.g., food, shelter, medical care, schooling, training, etc.).

**Strengths and constraints**

The center is a model of its kind, not only because of its spacious contemporary architecture, but also because of the wide range of activities that it offers to disadvantaged and vulnerable children and youth. The Assadaka Center also makes activities available such as a Social and Education Training School, the ADHAN Social Center (for literacy instruction), and finally, a sports complex—making it a unique institution for young Moroccans of the region. However, Assadaka serves only a relatively limited part of Tangiers, and the model relies upon external funding for replication.

*Source: Association Paideia, November 2010.*

*Note: Unit costs for the principal programs offered to youth in recent years were not available.*
3.3 Programs of the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries

According to the MHYS, 22.5 percent of employed youth (aged 15-29) work in agriculture, e.g., crops, livestock, and fishing. Most youth working in the agriculture sector have low levels of education, 72 percent have no formal education at all, compared to 40 percent for youth working in non-agricultural activities (see Table 3.5). Furthermore, youth receiving vocational training rarely work in the agriculture sector, whereas about 10 percent of youth working in the non-agriculture sector have received vocational training.

Most training provided by the Ministry of Agriculture is directed at the modern agriculture sector, in particular to the provision of middle managers. Smaller, family farmers, because of their low literacy and the weakness of their organizations, have less voice in defining training needs.94

Table 3.6 shows the main technical training programs offered by the ministry. The costs of the ministry’s programs detailed in panel A are residential courses and thus have higher costs. These “Alternative Training Programs” are supposed to consist of 50 percent theoretical instruction and 50 percent practical training. However, in fact, most are unable to provide practical work experience. Their students tend to join these programs because of a lack of other options. The labor market placement of its young graduates is not a clearly defined part of the ministry’s duties. However, many efforts are being deployed to improve the quality of training and facilitate young graduates’ employability.

Table 3.5: Education Profile of Youth Employed in Agriculture versus Non-agriculture Sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Agriculture (%)</th>
<th>Non-agriculture (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No education</td>
<td>71.9</td>
<td>40.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Secondary</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Morocco Household and Youth Survey (MHYS) 2009-2010.

94 The adoption of the Economic and Social Development Plan of 2000–2004 expanded the objectives of agricultural education. The plan aims to: (i) implement guidelines to strengthen alternative training, thus doubling the number of trainees from 2,500 to 5,000 per year; (ii) implement a national training program for 300,000 rural youth by 2010 (100,000 under the Plan of 2000–2004, of which 60,000 are to be trained in the agricultural sector); and finally, (iii) design new training methods to help realize the goals of this ambitious plan, including apprenticeships in the agricultural sector and the introduction of a training model along the lines of Rural Family Centers (see later subsection). See the French version of the plan on the website: http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/cafrad/unpan002445.pdf (accessed February 2011).
Table 3.6: Training Programs Offered by the Ministry of Agriculture, 2009–2010

Panel A. Alternative Training Programs (two-year programs, 2009–2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programs</th>
<th>Centers</th>
<th>Beneficiaries</th>
<th>Total cost</th>
<th>Unit cost per beneficiary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>DH</td>
<td>US$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural Institutes for Technical Studies (ITSA)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>729</td>
<td>16,911,514</td>
<td>2,049,880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>23.198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural Technology Institutes (ITA)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1,063</td>
<td>20,262,793</td>
<td>2,456,096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19,062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certified Agricultural Education Centers (CQA)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2,187</td>
<td>40,183,058</td>
<td>4,870,674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>18,374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>3,979</td>
<td>77,357,365</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Alternative training was introduced by Law 36-96, which concerns training that is split equally between practical experience in enterprises and classes at a Vocational Training Center.
* Exchange rate: US$1 = 8.25 DH.

Panel B. One-Year Apprenticeship Training (2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programs</th>
<th>Centers</th>
<th>Beneficiaries</th>
<th>Total cost</th>
<th>Unit cost per beneficiary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>DH</td>
<td>US$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apprenticeship Training Center (CFA)</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>8,000</td>
<td>32,000,000</td>
<td>3,878,788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural Family Centers (MFR)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2,500</td>
<td>15,000,000</td>
<td>1,818,182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>10,500</td>
<td>47,000,000</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: This program devotes 80 percent of instruction time to practical training.

Agricultural Institutes for Specialized Technical Studies (ITSA)

Vocational agricultural training is supervised by the Ministry’s Directorate of Education, Training, and Research. Some of this training is provided by the Agricultural Institutes for Specialized Technical Studies (ITSA), whose students are selected via a national competition of applicants less than 25 years old who have a baccalaureate. The duration of study is two years. There are eight ITSAs in Morocco, each of which offers a different agricultural specialization. For example, the Mohammedia ITSA (Casablanca Region) issues agricultural management and trade technician certificates. Among these centers, the Beni Kerrich ITSA (in Tangiers, Tetuan Region) specializes in agricultural methods designed for the Rif Region of Northern Morocco.

Whereas skilled agricultural workers acquire practical know-how that is directly usable on farms, ITSAs provide only general training. The salaries offered to ITSA graduates are thus much lower than those offered to skilled workers. Moreover, as some 70 percent of farms in Morocco are five hectares or
less in size, and 87 percent are less than 10 hectares, and most farms in the Tangiers-Tetuan Region, for example, are family owned and very small, the structural reality is that there are few opportunities for employment in the modern, mechanized agricultural sector. ITSA students are well aware of this reality and its impact on their future prospects. Because the size of the modern agricultural sector is still limited, young graduates often have to migrate to other agricultural regions, such as Souss-Massa-Draa. Other youth opt for self-employment or the creation of microenterprises, but these choices require a large personal financial contribution.

ANAPEC, as noted earlier, is the job placement agency for those with higher education. However, its services benefit few agricultural education graduates, whatever their level of study. ANAPEC programs follow a standard model that does not account for the specificities of different economic sectors. Farms do not meet the eligibility criteria established by ANAPEC because they are not classified as commercial enterprises. They therefore cannot benefit from such incentives as tax exemption for hiring graduates. With respect to salaried employment, ANAPEC’s regional agencies are not sufficiently familiar with the skills of agricultural institute graduates. In fact, graduates from rural areas rarely contact these agencies, given that they primarily serve urban youth. The resulting information gap frequently dooms the success of their job search.

Agricultural training generally has a limited impact on the development and modernization of agriculture in the regions where ITSAs are located due to the specificities of Moroccan agriculture. Thus in the highly urbanized Casablanca Region, most agriculture is grain agriculture and remains poorly mechanized, whereas industrial livestock farming is significantly industrialized and mechanized. This partly explains why owners of the latter farms tend to hire business school graduates and skilled workers. By contrast, the Mohammedia ITSA specializes in agricultural management and trade, and now competes with management and business institutes.

Agricultural Technology Institutes (ITA) and Certified Agricultural Training Centers (CQAs)

There are 16 Agricultural Technology Institutes (Instituts Techniques Agricoles, ITAs) in Morocco. Their students are selected from applicants under 25 years of age who have completed the last year of secondary education. Apprentices of the Certified Agricultural Training Centers (Centres de Qualification Agricole, or CQAs) are selected from applicants under 25 years of age who have completed the ninth grade. The objectives of the ITAs and CQAs are to enable students to gain practical knowledge via work experience. These institutes permit apprentices to gain certification, help their entry into working life, and are tailored to rural environments. However, regional differences make graduates’ success strongly dependent on farm size and the level of modernization and mechanization.

The success of graduates in finding employment varies by region. The director of the Ouled Taima ITA (Souss-Massa-Draa Region) estimates that all of its graduates at all levels (specialized technician, skilled technician, and skilled worker) are successful in finding jobs. This outcome is due to the high level of mechanization of agriculture in the region and its food-processing industry, which offers career paths

in agricultural export and marketing. The initial monthly salary offered to these graduates varies between 3,000 and 4,000 DH. These positions also come with substantial opportunities for promotion and in-house training in enterprises. By contrast, the Mohammedia ITA (Casablanca Region) is located in a region dominated by small family farms. Its graduates accordingly face more difficulties finding jobs and often seek employment in the food-processing industry or in marketing, which puts them in competition with people at the same educational level who have graduated from business and management schools. The monthly salaries offered to these ITA graduates rarely exceed 2,000–2,500 DH and their employment is highly unstable.

The abundant supply of unskilled farm laborers with no education in Morocco, together with low wages—especially for girls—is the circumstances faced by most ITA apprentices. Some students who were interviewed questioned government education policy in the agriculture sector and sought active measures to improve the situation.

**Vocational Training Centers by Apprenticeship (CFA)**

Vocational training by apprenticeship was introduced in ITSAs and ITAs in 2000. Apprenticeship Training Centers (CFAs) do not have their own facilities; rather, they are located in agricultural training institutes. This type of training mainly takes place on farms (80 percent of training time), with introductory theoretical and practical training at an institute (20 percent of training time). The duration of training varies between 9 and 12 months, depending on the specialty chosen by the trainee.

Apprenticeship training is intended especially for rural youth, most of whom are the sons and daughters of farmers who have not qualified for higher education. The only academic requirement of the CFAs is the ability to read and write. Yet the low educational level of trainees is a real obstacle to their success. Most general education courses and academic courses in agriculture are taught in French, leading to a communication gap with most students. As for integration into the labor market or self-employment, CFA representatives who were interviewed estimated that the least qualified students are also the most vulnerable, as the skills that they acquire during training are not recognized even in their immediate circles.

Training is inadequate for employment on most farms in Morocco. The small number of agricultural training institutions (a total of 40) and their limited capacity (they accommodate less than 5,000 students) sharply reduces their impact, particularly the development of rural areas where farms have little mechanization and arable land has been divided into small parcels (over 75 percent of farms in the country are smaller than five hectares). In fact, the 24 paths of study offered by the various agricultural institutes are geared toward modern, mechanized agriculture. The ability of graduates to enter the job market therefore essentially depends on the level of farming and related industries in a given region. As noted in Chapter 2, many graduates of agricultural institutes end up not working in the sector at all.

The striking predominance of traditional family farms in Morocco, the high rate of illiteracy, traditional work agreements and contracts, rural migration, and landlocked properties all point to a need for agricultural training that is more suitable for employment in this subsector. New training strategies, moreover, should be integrated into overall territorial development plans. Aware of this problem, the Ministry of Agriculture, through its regional offices, is planning to conduct studies on the human resource needs in the agricultural sector and assess the impact of past training.

81
Institutes lack the resources, financial and human, necessary to be successful. Because of the lack of staff, institute directors and some administrative staff trained in agriculture are involved in teaching and supervising apprenticeships. The limited number of budgeted positions, employee transfers, and retirements all contribute to the decline in staffing and the attractiveness of agricultural training institutes. In addition, government personnel regulations limit staff mobility between and among institutions, and prevent the introduction of an incentive system and merit-based pay. In the absence of a plan to replenish staff in the face of an increasing number of retirements, these institutes are already experiencing a skills shortage that hampers their ability to fulfill their objectives. The situation is essentially the same for extension service advisers, who are today the only local training agents in rural areas.

Rural Family Houses (Maisons Familiales Rurales, MFRs)

Rural Family Houses (MFRs) were created to respond to the challenge of educating rural youth in Morocco, especially those disadvantaged by the distance of schools from their homes, the lack of vocational training centers in their regions, and cultural and linguistic differences. Students at these Houses are generally boys or girls aged 15 to 20 years old, most of whom ended their educations at the level of secondary school. The Houses offer a training program of three years duration based on the needs of local agriculture (e.g., dairy farming, rabbit breeding, arboriculture, horticulture, and mechanics).

There are just 10 MFRs in Morocco, which are federated in a National Union of Associations for MFRs of Education, Training, and Guidance.97,98 MFRs are an experimental program created under the apprenticeship training law (Law 12-00) and the second-chance education program. A specific legislative framework is now needed to ensure the sustainability of the program and secure stable financial resources for it. Because the training offered by these institutions is in part considered second chance-education, the Ministry of Agriculture and Maritime Fisheries and the Ministry of Employment and Vocational Training jointly provide 2,000 DH for each student in their first year of study (pre-apprenticeship).99

The quality of training offered by these MFRs is currently constrained by both personnel and financial resources. Instructors consist of volunteers and staff of MFR associations, many of whom are unqualified. The MFRs are currently hiring part-time substitute teachers (e.g., engineers, technical specialists), but their operating budgets cannot cover the full need for part-time staff. In addition, the MFRs cannot afford to purchase the supplies and materials needed for practical training on a regular basis, indicating that their budgets are insufficient for effective operation.

In conclusion, while the apprenticeship training offered by MFRs is promising, the current level of resources limits their ability to promote the socioeconomic inclusion of rural youth. Young people are increasingly migrating out of rural areas in search of employment, recreation, and other opportunities, threatening the continuity of agriculture. Nonetheless, the Ministry of Agriculture is well positioned to play a leadership role in resolving this problem as part of an integrated youth strategy. For example, it could develop a directory of agricultural occupations, define the training profiles and skills needed to

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97 This number was provided by a representative of the Federation of MFR Associations.
98 According to union representatives who were interviewed, its activities in 2007, 2008, and 2009 were made possible by support from the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs, a grant from the Moroccan Ministry of Agriculture and Maritime Fisheries, and a small contribution of the Rural Family House International Foundation.
ensure the competitiveness of the agricultural sector in a global economy, and coordinate training programs with other apprenticeship tracks at the regional level.

### 3.4 Active Labor Market Programs

Morocco primarily uses active labor market programs to address the massive number of young job seekers with university diplomas in the country. In fact, active associations of young unemployed graduates that exert media and sociopolitical influence have played a significant role in forcing successive Moroccan governments to focus employment policies specifically on these youth.

Active labor market programs address three principal aspects of the labor market: demand (job creation), supply (availability of job seekers), and intermediation. With respect to the first two, the strategy is to promote private sector demand for labor, largely because the budgetary and institutional constraints of the public sector do not permit wider action in terms of hiring. Measures taken in this regard include the promotion of self-employment, the creation of microenterprises, and the integration of tertiary graduates into salaried employment through company internships. Self-employment of college graduates is primarily promoted by the Moukawalati Program, a microcredit program that grants loans to young entrepreneurs. The main service provider for internships is the Idmaj Program—a product of the Employment Action Plan—which seeks to make the “qualified” work of young graduates more attractive by reducing wage costs and introducing greater flexibility for employers.

During the period 2006–2008, active labor market programs created 200,000 new employment opportunities (compared to 106,800 opportunities in the period 1988–2004). They did so at a cost of around 1.5 million DH (about US$170 million), with an average per beneficiary cost of 7,122 DH (approximately US$840). As indicated in Table 3.8, the per capita costs of the Taehil and Moukawalati programs are considerably higher than that of the Idmaj Program. The main constraint of these programs is that they lack a rigorous impact evaluation system and target unemployed graduates, a relatively small category in terms of the overall number of unemployed and inactive youth in Morocco.

### Table 3.7: Summary of Projected Costs and Number of Beneficiaries of Major Active Labor Market Programs, 2006–2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programs</th>
<th>Total cost (DH millions)</th>
<th>Expected beneficiaries</th>
<th>Per beneficiary cost (DH/USD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imdaj (CPE)</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>65,000</td>
<td>3,231/380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taehil</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>15,000/1,765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moukawalati</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>90,000</td>
<td>8,333/980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>1,710</td>
<td>205,000</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


This analysis of employment creation programs summarizes the results of World Bank, 2008, “Développement des compétences et protection sociale dans le cadre d’une stratégie intégrée pour la création d’emplois” (Developing Skills and Social Protection as Part of an Integrated Job Creation Strategy), World Bank; and those of an evaluation report of M. Mostafa Kharoufi, 2009, “Youth Mapping Report,” mimeo.

The Moroccan non-profit sector has also started to support initiatives that promote youth self-employment in rural and disadvantaged areas, which so far had limited access to business development and start-up capital. One of the most promising is the Fondation Jeune Entrepreneur, recently created (2009). The foundation operates through a Young Entrepreneur House, a one-stop shop run by staff qualified in the creation and development of enterprises, who provide business development services to youth interested in becoming entrepreneurs. Based on the data and on the work developed by the foundation so far, the major obstacle that youth entrepreneurs face, once they are provided with thorough mentoring and advisory services, is access to finance. The MHYS validates this observation by showing the extent to which access to financial services by youth is limited: 81.4 percent of the surveyed youth in Morocco identified access to enterprise capital as the key obstacle they face to establish and run a business.

A number of donors have started small-scale initiatives to support youth access to financial services. Among them, the most relevant is the project “Linking Youth with Knowledge and Opportunities in Microfinance,” or LYKOM (which means “for you” in Arabic), funded by the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) and co-financed with private funding from Save the Children and Zakoura. The objectives of the project LYKOM are (i) to enhance and extend financial and non-financial services available to youth (15-24) and members of their households in Morocco; (ii) to develop a system to retain vulnerable youth in a program that prepares them to access appropriate financial services; and (iii) to foster inter-agency linkages for successful delivery of financial and non-financial services.

In addition to job creation (demand), skills building, and employability (supply), a third axis of public intervention for university graduates is the public job intermediation agency (Agence Nationale de Promotion de l’Emploi et des Compétences, (ANAPEC). The task of intermediation arose once the progression from “public” training to “public” employment could no longer be guaranteed. ANAPEC was accordingly created in 2001 to organize and improve job-matching services for educated job seekers. Essentially, this means that ANAPEC is an active stakeholder in public employment policies for young people, even though its mission is intermediation in the private sector. Today, the ANAPEC consists of a network of 48 agencies in different regions of the country. To increase its effectiveness, the agency has launched a series of initiatives to improve its knowledge of the private sector, including a series of studies of the skills required by businesses in different regions. It is also participating in the establishment of an observatory (i.e., public information center) on careers in hospitality and the textile industry.

As noted in Chapter 1, however, the awareness and use of ANAPEC among unemployed youth remains very low. For example, only 14 percent of the youth (aged 15 to 29) surveyed in the MHYS knew about the program, and among rural youth the awareness was even lower (5 percent). Even among surveyed unemployed youth, only a quarter knew of the program, and only 8 percent had used its services.
Concluding remarks

It is difficult to analyze definitively the impact of public policies on youth employment in Morocco because data are insufficient, partial, and insufficiently disaggregated, not having been designed or collected with the intention of monitoring and evaluating employment policies and programs. Yet there is recent progress in this sphere: the Ministry of Employment and Vocational Training is currently evaluating the Idmaj Program and ANAPEC is assessing the Taehil Program, which should lead to a better understanding of their impact and cost-effectiveness.

Despite these data limitations, it is clear that available active labor market programs do not currently reach disadvantaged youth populations. Unemployment, underemployment, and poor-quality employment, particularly in the informal sector, have also not yet been targeted by public interventions in poor urban or rural areas. Thus a recent analysis by the World Bank recommends, among other measures, supporting the employment and self-employment of poor and vulnerable young adults by: (i) strengthening income-generating programs (by sector) and microcredit programs; (ii) developing active labor market programs that target groups with no or little higher education (along the lines of the Moukawalati Program); and (iii) including disadvantaged young adults more systematically in vocational training programs.\(^\text{102}\)

Public employment programs are also inhibited by fragmentation and lack of coordination among various public stakeholders. Employment activities and programs are undertaken by different ministries without coordination, leading to inefficiency as, for example, in the case of ANAPEC’s poor performance with respect to agricultural education graduates. In addition to the lack of coordination, follow-up and evaluation studies are rarely conducted for individual programs.

Public employment intermediation is limited due to the lack of professional human resources. The functions of counseling and mentoring require complex skills in order to be both effective and sustainable, and these are scarce. Intermediation agencies currently focus on quantitative achievements (e.g. the number of agreements signed, immediate rates of employment) at the expense of qualitative aspects (e.g. sustainable labor market integration, permanent hiring, the quality and conditions of additional training and apprenticeships, and the quality of eventual employment), which are far more important.

Active Labor Market Policies appear to lack local grounding. Employment initiatives should take into account the specific local markets action plans for employment involving diverse local stakeholders, both public (including universities, training institutes, and Regional Investment Centers) and nonpublic (including NGOs), so that they can reflect local conditions and act in concert.

3.5 Broadening the Scope of Applied Vocational Training and Workplace Integration for Disadvantaged Young People

As indicated throughout this report, the problems of youth unemployment and employment are not limited to higher education graduates. A larger scope of interventions should therefore address the

\(^{102}\text{World Bank, 2010, “Note Stratégique sur le Ciblage et la Protection Sociale” (Strategy Note on Targeting and Social Protection), Social Protection, Middle East and North Africa Region, World Bank, Washington, DC.}\)
challenges of giving unemployed youth without a baccalaureate or university diploma access to vocational training and the possibility of professional employment. Public policies can benefit from the participation of other public actors, as well as from partnerships with the private and nongovernmental sectors, to expand targeting.

Several examples of innovative experiences are presented in the following boxes, which show three types of partnerships targeting different categories of disadvantaged youth: a partnership between the EFE-Morocco Foundation and the private sector (Box 3.7), a partnership between several public institutions established as part of the Maison Energie (Energy Center) Program (Box 3.8), and a partnership between the public and private sectors established by the NGO Heure Joyeuse (Box 3.9).

Box 3.7 Education for Employment Foundation, EFE Maroc

Introduction
The Moroccan Foundation of Education for Employment (EFE Moroc) is a nonprofit foundation. Its mission is to develop partnerships between the public and private sectors to implement work training programs that enhance the employment skills of youth while meeting the needs and requirements of enterprises. EFE Moroc is an independent subsidiary of the Education for Employment Foundation, which implements training programs in different countries throughout the Middle East and North African (MENA) region.

Main objective
The main objective is to implement training programs with the private and public sectors that meet the needs of businesses and create a strong link between education and employment for disadvantaged young people. These programs seek to enable youth to face the challenges of working life while acquiring the skills required by employers.

Target population
The target population is unemployed young job seekers under 30 years of age who are from disadvantaged socioeconomic backgrounds and who hold a high school diploma BAC + plus two years of advanced study. As of 2010, the total number of beneficiaries was 534, most of whom have a BAC + 2.

Programs
The programs offered are varied and include, among others, behavioral training (Workplace Success), marketing training (Marketing Power), employability skills (i.e., life skills training), and finally e-learning apprenticeships. EFE Maroc offers an example of good practice in creating links between education and employment in terms of its efforts to provide vocational training in line with the skills required and sought by employers Morocco.

Partnerships
EFE Morocco has developed partnerships with large private companies, such as Manpower, BMCE Bank, Group Premium, Shoorah, and Microsoft, to enable the labor market entry of its graduates. The Foundation also encourages academic partnerships with the University of Ain Shok Casablanca, with which it has finalized an agreement to offer the Workplace Success Program to students in their last year of study for a bachelor’s or master’s degree. This experimental program is thus willing to work with educational institutions and provide youth with appropriate skills training that will help them to find a job before they finish their studies. The Hassan II University, which included several modules of the Workplace Success Program in its curriculum several years ago, has seen a significant increase in number of students who have found jobs after receiving their diplomas. During the 2010–11 academic year, EFE plans to offer intensive Workplace Success courses and career-oriented guidance to university students.

Conclusion
According to data provided by EFE Morocco, its placement rates are above average in the Moroccan context. The challenge is to increase the number of beneficiaries while reducing the per capita cost of its programs.

Source:
EFE, 2010 http://www.efemaroc.org

Progresses of end of 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Number of programs delivered</th>
<th>Inclusion rate</th>
<th>Rate of young girl trained</th>
<th>Placement rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Per capita unit cost of the Workplace Success Program</td>
<td>DH 4,000 USD 562</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per capita unit cost of the Workplace Success Program</td>
<td>DH 18,000 USD 2,057</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second innovative example concerns Maison-Energie Morocco, a program developed jointly by the Ministry of Energy and Mines, the Centre for Renewable Energies (Centre des Energies Renouvelables, or CDER, recently renamed the Agency for the Development of Renewable Energies—Agence pour le Développement des Energies Renouvelables, ADERE) and the United Nations Development Program (UNDP). The program is currently in the scaling-up stage, with the objective of developing more than 1,000 new energy microenterprises in rural and urban areas.

Box 3.8 Morocco Energy Centers

Introduction

The concept of Maison Energie (ME, Energy Center) was developed jointly by the Ministry of Energy, Mines, Water, and Environment, the Moroccan agencies, the National Agency for Electricity (O.N.E), the Agency for Sustainable Energy (CDER recently renamed ADERE) and the UNDP. The program concerns private microenterprises created by young entrepreneurs who have received suitable training for providing energy services and supplies throughout Morocco. Launched in 2000 with support from UNDP, the program was extended after the pilot phase thanks to support from the Ministry and several other public partners (e.g. the Moukawalati Program), and above all, from the private sector, which enabled it to extend its incentives to the creation of microenterprises specifically in disadvantaged rural areas.

Objectives

The main objective of the program is to help the rural world to access sustainable energy adapted that respects the well-being of local populations and their environment. It seeks to achieve this objective by creating energy microenterprises capable of marketing energy equipment, products, and services (i.e. their installation, maintenance, and servicing). The program is the successor of a pilot project that supported the creation of 100 microenterprises. The current program intends to capitalize on the experience it has gained during this first phase and scale up its activities at the national level, thereby supporting the creation of 1,000 microenterprises in rural areas over five years. Young entrepreneurs from rural areas will be recruited, trained, and supervised to launch and developing their activities.

Target population

The principal target beneficiaries are young men and women from disadvantaged rural and urban areas who wish to engage in entrepreneurial activities.

Operations

The Ministry of Energy and Mines (MEM) supervises the project and the ADERE is the implementing agency. ADERE has been engaged by the MEM and UNDP, to which it reports, to fulfill the project’s objectives and use its financial resources.

Conclusion

The 2007 report of CDER showed mixed results. Among the constraints to the project cited by the report are a dropout rate exceeding 50 percent during the process of creating the microenterprises, due mainly to delays in obtaining loans (from the Moukawalati Program) and an enterprise failure rate of 20 percent. Nevertheless, the real strengths of the project are that it adds value to both energy programs and programs for integrated disadvantaged youth from rural areas into the labor market.

Some figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assistance to young entrepreneurs</th>
<th>5,000 à 50,000 €</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beneficiaries</td>
<td>2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maisons- Energie (jusqu’à 2009)</td>
<td>325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Youth –jobs created</td>
<td>1500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A third example of an innovative practice comes from the NGO Heure Joyeuse, a nonprofit association that has been working since 1959 to help disadvantaged youth from early childhood through their integration into working life. The association established a specific program in 2009 to meet the academic, professional, and social challenges faced by a large proportion of Moroccan youth. The Professional Guidance and Labor Market Entry Program (Cellule d’orientation et d’insertion Professionnelle, COIP) seeks to enhance the employability of young people from disadvantaged areas who encounter difficulties in obtaining career guidance and entering the labor market. Launched in June 2009, it served 76 young people between the ages of 15 and 24 years old (90 percent of whom were young men) through September of that year.

Box 3.9 L’Heure Joyeuse

Founded in 1954, Heure Joyeuse is a Moroccan charitable association that received the status of a public service association in 1959. Its first goals were to provide care and instructional assistance to young children. Today, its basic services have been extended to all young people under 25 years old and many professional training programs have been created to promote social inclusion. Heure Joyeuse works in three main areas of intervention at its Casablanca headquarters: a multipurpose center for children and families, vocational training, and ongoing activities.

Objectives

While the organization’s first objective was to assist vulnerable children, the association has been working for several years to promote the socioeconomic reintegration of young people in precarious situations through vocational training and then employment in enterprise.

Target population

The main beneficiaries of Heure Joyeuse services are young people from disadvantaged backgrounds, aged 15 to 25 years old, whether they come from urban or rural areas. Young girls are either oriented towards domestic work or pediatric nursing programs and young boys, through vocational training in the clothing industry or the recently launched center for metalwork training.

Training offered

Several types of training are offered to youth, such as ironwork training. Finally, two types of training are very successful but are almost exclusively reserved for girls: vocational training in tailoring and for employment in a multipurpose family center.

Partnerships

In addition to many private benefactors, the Heure Joyeuse works with numerous national and international partners—both public and private—such as the Mohammed VI Foundation, the INDH, the Entraide Nationale, and the Programme Concerté Maroc, PCPM.

Conclusion

The COIP is a very promising program for supporting the socioeconomic inclusion of disadvantaged youth, although its total coverage remains limited. One of its strengths is the customization of training and placement programs based on gender. Certain methodological approaches, if properly assessed, could serve as a basis for replicating the program on a larger scale.


Key dates and numbers

Services provided to 100 young people per year (70 percent girls, 30 percent boys)

1981: Launch of clothing industry training, which became a Center for Apprenticeship Training in 2009
2006: Training for multipurpose family centers (girls)
2007: Launch of a Center for Apprenticeship Training in metal work, the Chouhada Center (boys) in partnership with INDH, the Entraide Nationale, the PCM, and the Auteuil International Foundation
2009: Creation of the Professional Guidance and Labor Market Entry Program (COIP)

Per unit costs not available.
These innovative initiatives show great potential to support young people’s integration into the job market, particularly those who find themselves in difficult situations for reasons other than education, such as under-employment, informal employment, and various forms of unsuitable work. Nevertheless, the very small number of young beneficiaries suggests that larger resources are needed to scale up the impact of these interventions.

3.6 Overall Conclusions and Prospects of Existing Programs and Services

This chapter has reviewed a wider range of institutions and programs, which form the foundation for a comprehensive youth program in Morocco. Skills training, apprenticeships and job search support are in high demand. However, these programs still have limited coverage, especially among disadvantaged youth. The chapter revealed a number of common constraints which would need to be resolved for the potential value of these kinds of programs to be fulfilled. These include the following:

- Many agencies provide similar services, without apparent coordination, leading to fragmented coverage, and some ambiguity and overlap in roles;
- Most programs are seriously under resourced;
- Staffing is inadequate: there are few young training staff, and there insufficient trainers for new skills in great demand such as ICT and broader life/work skills;
- Facilities may be poor or inaccessible, with the necessary equipment lacking;
- Insufficient use of partnership mechanisms to assess, improve, and provide services;
- Little (or regressive) poverty focus (the largest share of youth program funding goes to the ALMPs programs targeted at university graduates who constitute only 5 percent of the unemployed youth, while the programs of the MJS, Entraide Nationale, and the MoAg directed at disadvantaged youth face significant resource and other challenges).

Together, these constraints point to the need for a more systematic, strategic, and integrated approach to youth development, based upon an assessment of the needs and priorities of youth, promote a wider coverage, and define clear priorities on social targeting for the disadvantaged. The following recommendations, based on the diagnosis in this chapter, delineate some major themes which could be considered for reform.

Target Young Disadvantaged Beneficiaries Accurately and Effectively

Most programs reviewed in this chapter are not intentionally targeted; that is, they do not identify a specific target population and analyze the employment and participation barriers which they face. Four major priorities for improving targeting follow from the analysis. The first is to segment services and outreach by specific age groups and categories of young people. Appropriate age categories would be: 15–18-year-olds, 19–24-year-olds, and 25–29-year-olds, since their needs and priorities differ. The groups can be further segmented, as appropriate, by gender and socio-economic group. In addition, consideration of specific subgroups, such as unemployed school dropouts, informal male urban workers, and rural girls, would ensure that the specific needs of these subgroups are addressed specifically. Table 3.8 illustrates the main skills facilitating access to the labor market.

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104 These age categories reflect international and regional definitions of adolescence and youth, adapted to the Moroccan context.
Table 3.8: Main skills facilitating access to the labor market

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employability skills</th>
<th>Underprivileged youth</th>
<th>Unemployed (Level II), Dropped out of school</th>
<th>Unemployed (High school/2 year tertiary degree)</th>
<th>Workers in the informal sector</th>
<th>Young girls in rural areas</th>
<th>Child or young residents in institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>French language</td>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>19+</td>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>19+</td>
<td>15-19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remedial tutoring</td>
<td></td>
<td>15-19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational training</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ALL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills certif. (public, private, NGO)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ALL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career counseling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training in microfinance management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>19+</td>
<td>15-19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active citizenship skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civic and community participation</td>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>19+</td>
<td>19+</td>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>19+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports, creativity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ALL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young volunteer programs</td>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>15-19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-cutting skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ALL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ALL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health lifestyle</td>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>19+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15-19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psycho-social support</td>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>19+</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15-19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: report authors
The second priority for increasing program impact on target populations is to expand the coverage of well-designed interventions to reach a much larger number of disadvantaged youth in a cost-effective, inclusive manner. This expansion would require greater outreach to girls in both rural and urban areas, as well as to young informal workers, by providing accessible venues near their residences and convenient times for their participation in skills development training. In addition, adolescents in correctional facilities and orphanages should be offered opportunities to attend training outside these facilities and to broad social interaction, together with non-formal learning opportunities, psychosocial support, and mentoring.

A third priority is to improve the functioning of institutions hosting very vulnerable minors, especially by providing adequate resources to meet the basic needs of their young residents. These institutions should also introduce psychosocial services, skills training for employment, and leisure activities needed to ensure quality care, especially within institutions such as CSEs, orphanages (DATs) and students’ homes (DTs). A social reintegration intervention should be especially tailored to the post-institutionalization period of the young people leaving the institutions at age 18.

An example of the potential for improved targeting of youth programs is the INDH. The preceding institutional analysis noted that while several youth centers, women’s centers, and secondary school dormitories have been given free equipment by INDH, this provisioning could be better aligned with its mission to fight exclusion and vulnerability. To better achieve its goals, the INDH could place greater emphasis on renovating and equipping facilities that serve the most vulnerable children and youth, including, for example, orphanages (Dar Atfals), Child Protection Centers (CSEs), and Rural Family Centers (MDRs). These facilities would benefit significantly from having improved or renovated kitchens, dormitories, bathrooms, playrooms, meeting rooms, libraries, and other enhanced physical infrastructure. In addition, INDH should pay due attention to operation and maintenance of these facilities, as well as to the need for sufficient and appropriately trained human resources.

In the future, moreover, the INDH could more accurately target the majority of its youth interventions to less educated, poorer, and more vulnerable young people within clearly defined age groups. It could also ensure ongoing evaluation and quality assurance of its programs, measuring both its own broad goals and the specific objectives of each activity or project, including, for example, assessment of such outcomes as improved access to services and income changes resulting from income-generating activities. Given its significant role in supporting young beneficiaries, the INDH could also help maximize the impact of interventions on young people by providing incentives—including grants—for coordinated approaches
for youth support. Rather than the simple demand-driven approach currently in use, the INDH could introduce more active, strategic, and selective criteria for its support to strengthen synergies across youth interventions. This approach would add greater value while avoiding the duplications observed in the youth services analyzed in this chapter.

**Improve the Quality of Services and Tailor Them to the Needs of Youth and the Labor Market**

An increasing consensus is emerging that the skills necessary for employment include: (i) basic work-readiness skills, such as responsibility, communications, and interpersonal and teamwork skills; (ii) training in information technology and finance; (iii) technical skills relevant to an individual’s type of employment (e.g., manufacturing, information technology); and (iv) professional and leadership skills. Specifically, employers in Morocco, as elsewhere, are increasingly giving priority to behavioral over technical skills, noting the absence of such skills among new hires. However, young people, especially the most disadvantaged, have very limited opportunities to gain these soft skills.

Morocco’s private sector is growing at a rate of 3.2 percent a year and the International Monetary Fund projects that this growth will increase to 5.0 percent a year by 2012. The country is an attractive destination for foreign investors, in part due to the large pool of young workers and the country’s favorable labor legislation, as well as other comparative advantages. Morocco is also entering into a free trade agreement with the European Union, which will entail growing need for workers with a strong work ethic, leadership ability, and cutting-edge professional and technical skills. This demand will run up against the scarcity of qualified workers in expanding economic sectors, such as tourism, information, and communication technology (e.g., for call centers), and retail commerce, which are capable of absorbing unemployed youth.

As indicated in Chapter 2, employers generally favor workers with a secondary school diploma. However, given increasing labor market needs, demand will increase for less educated workers who are currently underemployed and under-qualified. This chapter has analyzed the various services targeted at youth and emphasized the urgent need to improve the content, methods, and overall relevance of apprenticeships. The certification process also needs to be better aligned with labor market and employer needs. This would help address one of the key problems encountered by young beneficiaries of such establishments as youth centers, women’s centers, Centers for Apprenticeship Training, and Agricultural Training Institutes: limited job-relevant skills, including basic skills, technical skills, IT skills, practical work experience, and job placement support.

**Training in the French language, computer skills, and basic life skills—considered essential for employment—are particularly in demand.** This was the case for all young people, whether boys or

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girls, urban or rural residents and particularly by the most disadvantaged who cannot afford to acquire these skills through private classes. The need for French language training was frequently expressed; French proficiency is perceived as a trump card. Certainly, many 15–29 year old respondents said they knew French. However, while a large number of young people understand the rudiments of French, few speak it at a level acceptable to employers.

Regarding the agricultural institutes, it would be desirable to redirect and upgrade these facilities in terms of educational subjects, equipment, demonstration materials, and operating costs so that new training tracks, such as food processing and the marketing and trade of agricultural products, could be introduced to meet the skills needs of the Green Morocco Plan. In addition, apprentice-based agricultural training would be more effective if taught in Arabic, which would adapt it to the linguistic background of young trainees, who come generally from public schools, which use Arabic, rather than French as the language of instruction. The need for vocational training for agricultural workers is being addressed to some extent, but this training is usually in French and is often not adapted to the level of the young people participating in the training. Presentations and reading materials need to be either translated into Arabic or presented in a way that students are more able to understand. The teachers of these programs also need to be trained to provide instruction at an appropriate level. Furthermore, these materials need to be updated to take into account the most used agricultural methods in both traditional and modern farming, and include instruction related to the health and safety of agricultural workers.

**Improve Coordination Between Institutional Providers**

**Better coordination is needed between the various programs implemented by different ministries for the same youth beneficiary groups.** This will require analyzing existing programs and integrating them into a comprehensive monitoring and evaluation system. A starting point would be an integrated roster of youth beneficiaries by age, gender, location, type of training attended, and placement outcome (e.g., contract type, sector, job duration). Given its youth mandate and the large number of facilities under its jurisdiction, the Ministry of Youth and Sports would be best placed to create and manage this roster. Data could be collected at the municipal (commune) and/or provincial level and eventually include young beneficiaries from other programs, such as those offered by the Entraide Nationale. The benefits of such institutional coordination are evidenced by the success of programs jointly initiated by different ministries, such as the Youth for Youth Program (youth health clubs).

**Local governments could promote coordination by ensuring integration at the local level,** reducing the duplication of mandates in the same area and improving synergies across local programs and facilities so that beneficiaries of one service can more easily have access to another (e.g., young people living in orphanages or child protection centers could attend the activities of youth centers).

**Utilize Partnerships and Existing Networks More Effectively**

**To improve the overall quality and relevance of youth services, partnerships are essential: no single practitioner is specialized in all dimensions of youth development.** The most effective solutions involve partnerships among employers, NGOs, and the public sector, as illustrated by good practice cases such as *L’Heure Joyeuse*, the Assadaka Center, and the Energy Centers.
Public institutions such as the Ministry of Youth can also sub-contract relevant services to youth-led NGOs or individual youth workers. The governance of youth-oriented institutions and services will also be improved by wider engagement of beneficiaries and other stakeholders in the planning and delivery of services.

The two Casablanca nonprofit organizations discussed in this chapter illustrate how a tailored approach can be more successful in job placement and retention than similar services offered through either active labor market programs or the training programs of the MJS, Entraide Nationale, or the Ministry of Agriculture. These organizations involve private employers in the design of technical training, the job placement of young beneficiaries, and their monitoring during a post-hiring period. Although the volume of trainees remains limited and impact evaluation data is scarce, if not unavailable, the experience of L’Heure Joyeuse (which offers OFPPT diplomas), and the Education for Employment (EFE) Foundation (which does not), as well as the Assadaka Center appear promising and should be considered for scaling up, subject to a more in-depth analysis of their cost effectiveness. Another promising partnership is currently being developed by the MJS Youth Centers and EFE in a pilot project jointly supported by Manpower and Microsoft, which has good potential for rapid expansion.109

Private Sector Intermediation for Less-Educated and Poorer Youth

In addition to limited job-relevant skills, another important constraint of youth programs are the mechanisms available to young people in their search for jobs, and for accessing information on possible mentoring opportunities. Although ANAPEC is the primary source of such information, the youth survey showed that the overwhelming majority of young unemployed respondents were either unaware of ANAPEC altogether or did not use it for job intermediation. This was particularly true for disadvantaged youth, specifically for young rural women, and more generally, respondents who were less educated. As shown in the MHYS, ANAPEC serves virtually only unemployed tertiary graduates and focuses almost exclusively in urban areas. MHYS results also indicate that while young people with vocational training are more confident about finding a job, disadvantaged young people become increasingly discouraged if an unfruitful job search continues for more than a year.

This gap in labor intermediation could be filled by strengthening the role of the private sector and NGOs specialized in job intermediation services, especially in urban areas. They have demonstrated a capacity to tailor their services to the needs of employers and target the specific needs of less educated, disadvantaged young people, and investing in ICT programs for job intermediation (see Chapter 4 for a successful model of such intermediation). A complementary approach would be to broaden the official training diplomas offered by the Entraide Nationale and agricultural institutes, using private certification and accreditation of different entry-level positions. This system would offer the added benefit of certifying skills training courses that presently do not award a diploma, as is true for the MJS, for example. ANAPEC could also benefit from partnering with private intermediation and NGO providers to increase its outreach and impact.

109 The pilot project—Creating Opportunities, Providing Jobs, Changing Lives—is funded by the MasterCard Foundation and has the key objectives of (i) providing job opportunities to underprivileged youth via access to high-quality, market-driven training linked to job placements; (ii) improving the capacity of universities and youth centers to increase the employability of the young people they serve; and (iii) increasing the continuous learning and civic engagement of young people to improve their communities.
Strengthen the Capacity of Youth Service Providers

Engaging with and supporting the development of young people requires both a broad set of knowledge and skills—ranging from those related to the physical, emotional, and psychological development of adolescents and youth, to organizational and group engagement skills, to general technical skills, to the specific skills offered by youth training. Personnel working with youth also need to be skilled in the development, implementation, and assessment of age- and ability-appropriate activities. This skill is essential: while some programs are more general, many require adaptation to reach a greater number of young people, including those who suffer from language or mobility disabilities.

**Being an effective youth service provider requires a personal commitment to responding to the multiple needs of young people, especially those who are disadvantaged.** It also requires clear knowledge and practical understanding of both Moroccan policies and programs related to youth and the international agreements pertaining to the rights of young people (e.g., the International Convention on the Rights of the Child, of which Morocco is a signatory). This should be the profile of every staff member working in the vast networks of youth and social service centers throughout the country.

The *Entraide Nationale*, for example, has only one specialized institute in Tangiers for its social workers (the National Institute of Social Action), but plans to launch a multipurpose center for lifelong learning that will offer innovative, interactive training in social work. This type of investment is urgently needed. With respect to the Royal Institute for Youth Workers Training (*Institut Royal de la Formation des Cadres*) of the Ministry of Youth and Sports, the training of youth workers could be improved through better teaching techniques, content, and core education and management skills (e.g., social work, psychosocial support, life skills, mentoring, participatory monitoring and evaluation of results, financing, and establishing partnerships to maximize the resources of public, private, and nongovernmental institutions). In addition to upgrading the training of social workers, NGOs specializing in youth services should be given significant access to the training provided by these two institutes or to other special training programs, such as those mentioned in the earlier discussion of a National Youth Observatory.

This chapter has reviewed a broad range of projects and policies impacting youth in Morocco. The next step is to build on existing programs inspired from the lessons learned to develop programs that are more ambitious to better serve the expectations and needs of Moroccan youth.
Youth policy can have a transformational impact in modern-day Morocco. This chapter proposes a package of key measures that can support youth demands for meaningful social and economic inclusion, drawing on both international and local good practices.

The Ministry of Youth and Sports’ new *Stratégie Nationale Intégrée de la Jeunesse* plans to expand the network of integrated youth services across the country, especially in the under-served regions, which at present lack access (i.e., to extra-curricular activities geared towards social inclusion, sports facilities and organized activities, ICT access and training, as well employment training and entrepreneurship). In particular, these integrated youth services include *Centres Socio-Sportifs de Proximité Intégrés* (CSPI), *Centres au Service de la Jeunesse* (CSJ) (which constitute a new model for Maisons des Jeunes), *Centres de Formation Féminine* (a new model for Foyers Féminines), and *Centres de Vacances et de Loisir* (CVL).

The chapter opens by defining three key principles for developing youth policy and interventions: the participation of youth in decision-making; the use of non-formal learning methods; and the provision of integrated, youth-friendly services. Two key areas for intervention are then addressed, consistent with the structure of this report, promoting employment and entrepreneurship, and promoting active youth participation and citizenship. Employment and entrepreneurship are to be promoted through training “plus” comprehensive programs, entrepreneurship, intermediation, and employment creation programs. Some of the main interventions promoting youth participation and citizenship focus on providing support to and fostering the capacities of youth-led organizations and initiatives as well as youth volunteering programs and services.

### 4.1 Principles of the approach to developing youth policy and interventions

An effective approach to developing youth policy should be governed by three principles: youth participation, an emphasis on non-formal learning methods, and the delivery of integrated, youth-friendly services.

(a) **Participatory Orientation**

Participatory decision making in the development of youth policy and investment measures, as well as in community organizations, yields benefits for all stakeholders, while increasing the positive impacts of public investments. Participation is one of the eleven guiding principles for effective national youth policy put forward by the Council of Europe. These principles range from the need to offer training in life and technical skills that complements the formal education system to the establishment of representative youth advisory bodies that contribute to government decisions on youth issues (see Box 110 Operations Evaluation Department, 2004, “An OED Review of Social Development in Bank Activities,” World Bank, Washington, DC.)
4.1). It would be valuable to align Moroccan youth institutions and practices with these international good practices to strengthen youth participation in the design, implementation, and evaluation of youth-focused policies and programs. Given the level of disengagement and often mistrust towards public institutions, it would be essential to ensure a transparent selection process of democratically chosen youth leaders, with term appointments and age limits. Top-down selection of youth interlocutors should be avoided, as it may be perceived as tokenism and ultimately discourage genuine participation.

### Box 4.1: Council of Europe’s Eleven Principles of a National Youth Policy

1. Non-formal learning – encourage active learning outside of the formal education system (e.g., life skills, foreign language training, technical skills, etc.) through open and inclusive youth NGOs.
2. Youth training policy – promote the development of good trainers in the youth sector, a prerequisite for the formation of effective youth NGOs.
3. Youth legislation – legislation that includes youth NGOs in policy decision making, and ensures the efficiency of government institutions working on youth issues.
4. Youth budget – allocate administrative and project grants to youth organizations and youth NGOs.
5. Youth information policy – inform young people about opportunities that exist for them, ensure communication among all stakeholders in youth policy and transparency in the conduct of youth policy.
6. Multilevel policy – outline youth policies to be implemented at both the national and local levels.
7. Youth research – regularly identify the key issues for youth well-being, best practices in addressing these issues, and the potential role of youth NGOs.
8. Participation – support the active involvement of youth organizations in the design and implementation of youth policies.
9. Inter-ministerial cooperation – implement youth policies in a cross-sectoral manner, ensuring joint ministerial responsibility, possibly via a coordinating youth agency.
10. Innovation – stimulate creative and innovative solutions to youth problems.
11. Youth advisory bodies – establish a structure (e.g., consultative committees) with a mandate to influence government on youth issues.


### (b) The non-formal learning approach

Non-formal learning (NFL)\(^{111}\) is a second pillar for effective national youth policy and can provide Moroccan young people—particularly disadvantaged youth—the soft skills needed to enhance their employability and active citizenship. NFL is a voluntary, intentional, and youth-led process that covers a wide variety of learning fields and takes place outside of the formal education sector, including through youth work, youth clubs, sports associations, voluntary service, peer education, and many other activities that offer practical, experiential learning opportunities.\(^ {112}\) Supporting young beneficiaries through non-formal peer learning strengthens their self-confidence and sense of identity, as they can more directly

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\(^{111}\) The term “non-formal learning” as used in this report follows international usage. In Morocco, the term is generally used to refer only to second-chance education.

relate to experienced young mentors. Connections among peers can also help overcome discouragement, as well as gaps in information and social capital. This approach has been used successfully in several youth development programs at the international level to foster a positive work ethic and youth-friendly spaces (which complement formal schooling). Such spaces also offer young people constructive options for their free time, such as training in soft and technical skills (including IT) and healthy behaviors.113

(c) Delivering integrated, youth-friendly services

An integrated approach to youth services enables young people to access a range of relevant services (such as training, job information, mentoring, peer learning, leadership development, recreational opportunities, etc.) from a single facility. Consistent with the participatory approach outlined above, youth should have a strong voice in the design of facilities and the content of programs. The following discussion of two key institutions serving youth—Maisons des Jeunes and Foyers Féminins—suggests how such a reorientation could be achieved.

Maisons des Jeunes

The Morocco’s Maisons des Jeunes constitute a potentially powerful instrument for fostering youth socioeconomic inclusion and creativity, as well as for increasing their access to information and technology. However, as analyzed in Chapter 3, despite their number, the content and outreach provided by Maisons des Jeunes do not respond to youth needs across Morocco. Based on the lessons learned by global experience, the following investments and improvements to these institutions are needed:

Create more youth-friendly facilities. The location and infrastructure of Maisons des Jeunes are critical in order to properly target youth beneficiaries and provide youth-friendly spaces where young people can develop innovative ideas and activities. For this reason, a first measure would be to rehabilitate and upgrade the current infrastructure of these centers. Youth should be involved and participate in this process of rehabilitation so that the Maisons become more appealing to them. A second measure would be to establish new youth-friendly facilities and, where needed, satellite youth centers, especially in rural areas. The internal look of these centers could also be improved, considering that they should express the ideas of young people and their ownership of these spaces. Youth involvement and participation in this process is also key. Finally, the equipment of these centers requires improvement and updating.

Implement better outreach and targeting. A new model of youth-friendly facilities and their outreach should consider how young people’s access to Maisons des Jeunes can be improved and supported, especially in rural areas, where youth face major obstacles to access. For this purpose, measures such as providing transportation services to beneficiaries, especially girls, and developing mobile outreach services would be advised. In addition, activities should be tailored to the 15–24-year-old age group, with specific targeting for subgroups aged 16 to 19 years and 19 to 24 years, in gender-sensitive ways (see Table 3.8 in Chapter 3).

Develop program content and activities that respond to youth needs. As indicated in Chapter 3, Maisons des Jeunes are public spaces meant to host different learning activities, the content of which

Improving governance and sustainability of Maisons des Jeunes. As shown in Chapter 3, at present there is a gap between the current administrative staff of these centers (which answer to the Ministry of Youth and Sports) and existing youth organizations and associations (which implement various programs in these centers). The latter organizations currently seem to prefer to organize many activities elsewhere. To reduce this gap and improve the governance of Maisons des Jeunes, it will be important to: (i) promote local workshops to maximize local input and ownership of the centers by youth stakeholders, as well as

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114 Groups of young Moroccans, often from difficult neighborhoods in major cities, are becoming well known on the Internet due to their creation of an original form of music that mixes rap, hip-hop, and traditional Moroccan music. Called “rai-hop,” “metal-gnawa,” or “electro-chaabi,” the music and associated groups are now notorious far beyond Morocco due to ICT, which is at the root of this original, identity-based, contemporary music.
further involve parents, municipality officials, and other NGOs in the design and implementation of center programs; (ii) facilitate greater engagement of local youth organizations in the delivery of Maisons de Jeunes services; and (iii) create partnerships among governments, NGOs, and the private sector. As global experience has demonstrated (see Box 4.2), the involvement of a broader swathe of local youth stakeholders and the creation of partnerships improves the relevance and sustainability of youth centers. These partnerships can support management, program content, and outreach by means of additional programs, volunteers, fundraising capabilities, and expertise.

**Monitor and evaluate center activities and beneficiary numbers in Maisons des Jeunes.** The introduction of a monitoring and evaluation system that would track beneficiaries through regular satisfaction surveys is key to measuring the results and cost-effectiveness of these centers. Specifically, monitoring data would allow the government to identify the exact number of youth beneficiaries by type; determine the sources and level of funding of various activities; and establish an institutional learning process among stakeholders by providing them a means to exchange experience, feedback, and information on good practices and lessons learned, and to make constant improvements to the activities and services they provide.
Box 4.2: Lessons from Macedonia

In 2001, the Macedonian Government launched a Development Project for Children and Youth, with the financial and technical assistance of the World Bank, which significantly increased the social integration of disadvantaged young people from different socio-cultural backgrounds.

The Macedonian Agency of Youth and Sports, in its capacity as the implementation agency, established a national network of 33 youth centers that offered services which integrated young people at the community level via non-formal education modules related to life skills and employability, information technology, foreign language training, entrepreneurship, and healthy lifestyles, as well as sports and creative activities.

In reality, these cost-efficient centers offered social inclusion in the guise of a complement to the formal school system in Macedonia, which tended to segregate ethnic groups and suffered from high numbers of dropouts among disadvantaged young people.

In 2006, the youth centers reported that roughly 16,000 young beneficiaries had participated in their regular activities and 2,000 others had attended programs outside of the centers. The cost per beneficiary fell from US$54 at project launch to US$17 at the end of the project, thanks to enhanced engagement of young people in center management, peer mentor volunteers, local government contributions, local private sector donations, and the introduction of minimal fees for several training activities.

In terms of employment results, the number of young people 19 years of age who benefited from at least two years of center activities and found jobs was 16 percent greater than the number of 18-year-olds who found jobs and participated in the program for only one year. Optimism about finding a job was also 7 percent greater among the first category. With respect to civic engagement, the project had a significant impact on young people’s motivation to participate in community activities. The longer that they benefited from youth programs, the more active they became in their respective communities, including participation in youth organizations and direct interaction with municipalities. Thus, nearly 25 percent of beneficiaries enrolled in youth center activities since 2004 had participated in community activities by 2006.

Key numbers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Cost per beneficiary</th>
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<td>2001</td>
<td>US$54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>US$17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Foyers Féminins

Similar to the Maisons des Jeunes, the Foyers Féminins require substantial improvements to address their current challenges (see Chapter 3). To reprogram the activities of these centers and enable them to serve a greater number of beneficiaries, they could: (i) better define their targeted beneficiaries as women aged 15–29 years, with a focus on less-educated young girls from low-income backgrounds; (ii) rehabilitate and improve the current facilities of the Foyers Féminins; and (iii) improve the program content offered by these centers in coordination with other public programs and relevant NGO service providers (e.g., Heure Joyeuse). In particular, these centers should offer programs that give women basic life and social skills, including modules on income-generating activities, microfinance, and cooperative and microenterprise management. These kinds of modules would broaden the labor market and entrepreneurship possibilities of the center beneficiaries and provide them with an opportunity to use the training they receive in sewing, cooking, computers, etc. The centers should also offer modules on how to find a job and basic French language training. Finally, the Foyers should improve their outreach and
monitoring and evaluation of center activities and beneficiary numbers (see Box 4.5 for a relevant experience from Jordan).

**Box 4.3: Jordan New Opportunities for Women (Jordan NOW)**

Despite growing education levels in Jordan, only 15 percent of 29 to 65 year old women work, compared to 79 percent of men in this age range. This labor force participation rate gap also holds among the more educated, and with community college graduates starts immediately upon graduation (Figure 1). These low employment rates make it difficult for new graduates to enter the labor market to find jobs.

In this context, the Jordan New Opportunities for Women (Jordan NOW) is a pilot program designed to rigorously evaluate the effectiveness of the following two active labor market policies: short-term wage subsidies and employability skills training.

Short-term wage subsidies provide an incentive for firms (six months of minimum wage covered by a voucher) to take a chance on hiring young female graduates. Through this project, firms have an opportunity to directly observe the young women working for them, thereby helping to overcome stereotypes and increase the demand for female labor. Employability skills training, on the other hand, augments the technical skills graduates learn in community college with the practical skills needed to find, and succeed in employment. In the pilot program, students received 45 hours of instruction in team building, communication skills, presentation skills, business writing, customer service, interviewing skills, and positive thinking.

Although this pilot intervention is still ongoing, early results suggest there is strong demand for these initiatives. In the baseline survey, 93 percent of recent female graduates say they plan to work after they graduate, and 91 percent say they would like to work outside the house after they are married. Sixty-two percent of those invited to attend the training courses completed them, with married women being much less likely to attend. Those who began the courses overwhelmingly gave them positive reviews, claiming the courses had given them great confidence to begin searching for jobs. Four months into the wage subsidy program, approximately one-third of those offered the vouchers had found a job using them.

Source: NOW Jordan.

**Figure 1: Large Gender Gaps in employment Rates for Community College Graduates in Jordan**

Source: NOW.

4.2 Priorities for Investment Programs for Youth Employment and Entrepreneurship

International evidence shows positive impacts of youth employment programs that directly focus on beneficiaries from poorer, disadvantaged backgrounds. This is particularly relevant for Morocco, where the bulk of unemployed youth are less-educated, low-skilled youth, although such programs may also provide short-term solutions for unemployed university graduates. Employment packages that

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include a combination of the interventions discussed below are designed to respond to the youth unemployment crisis. They are highly recommended for Morocco and other countries in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) that are currently experiencing youth bulges, together with high youth unemployment, youth discouragement, a skills mismatch, limited labor demand, and job search constraints.

**(a) Training “plus” comprehensive programs**

Training “plus” comprehensive programs—which emerged in response to the limited success of institution-based vocational and technical programs in both transition and developing countries—combine technical training, life skills training, private sector internships and/or apprenticeships, wage subsidies (or a subsidized training period), and accreditation. These programs have a strong emphasis on skills training that is developed in agreement with the private sector, which then offers young people apprenticeships and work-study options. The “Jovenes” programs in Latin America (see Box 4.4) present a successful model of this kind, one that has had significant positive impacts on disadvantaged youth, including young women.

**Box 4.4: Jovenes Employment Programs for Disadvantaged Youth in Eight Latin American Countries**

The *Jovenes* programs offer comprehensive training to unemployed and economically disadvantaged youth 16 to 29 years of age, to improve their human and social capital and employability. The demand-driven model has been customized throughout Argentina, Chile, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, and the República Bolivariana de Venezuela. Technical training and internship experiences with employers are combined with training in basic life skills and other support services to ensure beneficiaries’ social integration and job readiness. Private and public institutions—contracted through public bidding mechanisms—provide the training and organize the internships.

The programs target the poor, with more than 60 percent of participants coming from low-income families. The highest education level completed by beneficiaries was secondary school, with significant participation by school dropouts (50 percent in Chile Joven). Other targeting criteria, such as employment, gender, and age were also applied. Most beneficiaries had precarious employment conditions before the program. Targeting focused on 16–24 year olds, which comprised about 70 percent of all participants.

**Employment.** The programs increased the probability of beneficiaries finding employment upon graduation, especially for young women. In Argentina, the program increased the probability of employment for young adult women (21 years and older) by about 10 percentage points over a control group. In Chile, the program increased the probability of employment by 21 percentage points, with strongly significant results for youths aged 21 and younger.

**Earnings.** In Argentina, the program increased monthly wages by about 10 percent over a control group, with results more favorable for young males and adult females. In Chile, one study showed a negative impact on wages of 8.8 percent, which was led by a reduction of wages in the formal sector. Subsequent analyses found a positive impact on earnings approaching 26 percent, strongly significant for youths aged 21 and younger. In absolute terms, the wage impact was higher for young men, but in a comparison of pre- and post-program earnings, young women had a slightly higher increase relative to men.

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Table B4.2: Costs and Impact of Programs Across Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Argentina</th>
<th>Chile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beneficiary coverage</td>
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<td>165,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost per trainee (US$)</td>
<td>$2,000</td>
<td>$730–930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact on employment</td>
<td>+ 10 percent</td>
<td>+ 21 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact on earnings</td>
<td>+10 percent</td>
<td>+ 26 percent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Adapting this type of program design and targeting to the Moroccan context would aim to:

(i) promote greater effectiveness and coverage of current vocational training programs, such as those offered by Entraide Nationale centers (CFA, CEF/CFP) with or without certificates, and by the Ministry of Agriculture (CQA, ITA/ITSA), as trainees will be more integrally connected to practical experience with employers, rather than having most of their experience limited to theoretical learning;

(ii) attain higher placement rates than those achieved by current programs (e.g., the estimated placement rates for IDMAJ are 44 percent, 10 percent of which are jobs with open-ended contracts) thanks to private intermediation mechanisms, and

(iii) measure program outcomes by rigorous impact evaluation.

Another well-tested training “plus” comprehensive program that is highly relevant to the reintegration of more vulnerable and at-risk youth categories in Morocco is the École de la Deuxième Chance (E2C). The E2C offers an alternative, yet officially recognized, learning track linked to the formal school system and focused on the provision of life skills (e.g., time management, communication skills, teamwork), mentoring, psychosocial support, remedial education, information and communication technology (ICT) training and apprenticeships with private firms. The approach is geared towards imparting greater self-esteem and confidence to beneficiaries in support of their successful socioeconomic reintegration. This model has the additional feature of providing residential facilities to young trainees without parental support. It could therefore fill current gaps in addressing the reintegration needs of young people coming of age in social protection centers (i.e., Dar Atfal, Centres de Sauvegarde de l’Enfance) or living in especially vulnerable circumstances in Morocco. Those young people typically require more personalized care than that offered by standard training “plus” comprehensive programs.

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117 The OECD benchmark for placement rates of on-the-job training programs is estimated at around 80 to 85 percent.
Morocco already possesses an adequate network of public, private, and nongovernmental vocational training centers and a private sector willing to hire apprentices, which would facilitate the introduction of training “plus” programs. Special agreements with clear cost-sharing agreements for internships could be arranged with the private sector in order to avoid the low placement rates currently experienced by similar programs aimed at unemployed Moroccan graduates, once the employer subsidy is over. A final important consideration is that although effective, these training “plus” comprehensive programs may not, by themselves, resolve the youth unemployment and discouragement problem in Morocco and should therefore be combined with additional measures, such as entrepreneurship programs.

**Box 4.5: Ecole de la Deuxième Chance**

Established in 1997, the Ecole de la Deuxième Chance (E2C) in Marseille was the first school of its kind. Since then, dozens of similar structures have sprung up across France and the European Union. E2C schools are one of the tools proposed for investing in disadvantaged youth and reducing the number of young people without education or training, in line with the objective of the Lisbon European Council “to halve, by 2010, the number of unemployed and inactive dropouts aged 18–24 years.”

The key objective of E2C schools are to support employability and skills validation by:

- Ensuring the professional and social integration—through education and training of at least one year—of young adults 18 to 25 who have left the formal school system without a diploma; and
- Encouraging the socioeconomic inclusion of disadvantaged youth and their access to the labor market.

The schools adhere to the following five principles:

- Provide youth with a comprehensive approach that takes into account professional competencies and social skills.
- Integrate enterprises and/or businesses from the start of the training process.
- Use more active teaching and less formal passive learning.
- Involve all local and regional economic and/or social actors to address the specific needs of the socioeconomic area.
- Offer useful basic skills, such as computers, French, communication, English.

The main partners of E2C schools are:

- More than 2,000 enterprises and organizations in those sectors that offer the greatest number of jobs: the hospitality industry, commerce, retail, construction, and public works.
- Many local authorities, social services, and associations.

**Funding:**

About 95 percent of the allocated E2C budget is covered by the city of Marseille and the local regional council.

**Outcomes:**

In total, nearly 3,200 young adults have benefitted from the E2C in Marseille since its creation. The school has trained more than 400 trainees per year since 2008, with a placement rate of more than 32 percent. Among students, 19 percent enroll in vocational training leading to professional qualifications and more than 8 percent receive vocational training contracts. More than 50 European E2C schools are currently operational.


Note: No impact evaluation measurements were available for the impact figures.
(b) Comprehensive entrepreneurship programs

Comprehensive entrepreneurship programs combine entrepreneurial skills training with mentoring from new and established entrepreneurs and access to capital. This is another important area of potential investment in Morocco, especially for secondary school graduates, graduates of technical training courses, informal urban male workers, and rural youth (including young women) with promising business ideas. Such interventions would complement the current focus of the Moukawalati program on unemployed graduates, but target more secondary graduates and disadvantaged, less-educated youth, who tend to have a stronger entrepreneurial spirit (and constitute the bulk of unemployed youth). In addition, graduates tend to prefer public civil service careers or stable jobs in the private sector.

Successful global experiences point to different approaches for increasing the effectiveness of youth entrepreneurship programs. Such approaches include: (i) providing extensive mentoring and business development services to young beneficiaries throughout the entire project business cycle, where possible through the direct participation of existing entrepreneurs (recruited through chambers of commerce, for instance) in mentoring aspiring entrepreneurs; (ii) guiding and helping young entrepreneurs to gradually build the practical and empirical knowledge necessary to start and consolidate a new business, as well as find concrete opportunities to enter already existing value chains, (iii) strengthening beneficiaries’ self-esteem and confidence as entrepreneurs; and (iv) accompanying young entrepreneurs in their search for, and securing of, financial services to support their businesses.\footnote{Cunningham, Sanchez-Puerta, and Wuermli, 2010, “Active Labor Market Programs for Youth.”} Box 4.6 presents the key features and positive outcomes of the Young Micro Entrepreneurs’ Qualification Program in Peru, considered one of the best examples of global best practices in youth entrepreneurship.
Box 4.6: Young Micro-Entrepreneurs’ Qualification Program in Peru

The Programa de Calificación de Jóvenes Creadores de Microempresas is being implemented by the Peruvian NGO Colectivo Integral de Desarrollo. The program started in 1999 as an initiative to counteract the significant lack of entrepreneurial skills among low-skilled young people. Its objective is to improve the earnings and quality of life of beneficiaries by providing assistance and training in how to develop business plans and create profitable businesses. The target population consists of economically disadvantaged young people 15 to 25 years old who own a small and/or informal business (in operation for less than a year) or demonstrate entrepreneurial skills, and reside in the targeted localities.

The program offers different types of services. During the preparation phase, interested youth benefit from mentorship and training in order to prepare business plans that will be presented for selection. After selection, eligible youth or beneficiaries of the program are offered mentorship, training, and internship services. Program beneficiaries can also access microcredit.

To date, the program is ongoing: every year the Executing Agency opens up a competition for interested youth. However, available data exist only for the first three years of program operation: 1999–2001 (see Table B4.4a). During these specific years, the program benefitted youth throughout the country, but for evaluation purposes (in order to avoid a dispersion of the sample), only beneficiaries living in principal urban areas were considered. Within this framework, the program had the following outcomes in the first three years of its execution.

Impact

Impact estimates based on quasi-experimental data collected four months after the end of the 2001 program year suggest an increase of 7.8 percentage points in the probability of beneficiaries’ having an operating business and an 8 percent increase in their average income.\(^{119}\) These estimates also show an increase of almost 40 percentage points in the probability of a business operating for more than a year and an increase in earnings of 40 percentage points. An important secondary effect was job creation. Beneficiaries employ 17.3 percent more workers than the control group (which consisted of interested but non-enrolled peers).

Even though evaluations have not produced cost-benefit estimates, the program seems to yield positive net gains. Further evaluation and follow-up is needed to monitor the success of the program over a longer span (e.g., a follow-up on businesses in operation for at least two years). Regarding its replication in other localities, increasing the program’s scale may actually hamper its effectiveness, as the Executing Agency may not have sufficient capacity to offer the types and frequency of personalized services previously rendered to youth. The institutional capacity of the Executing Agency and/or of the institutions involved—as measured by personnel, knowledge, and types and frequency of services—is critical. Low frequency and low quality of services would dramatically reduce the program’s probability of success.


\(^{119}\) The program gathers data on program beneficiaries (treatment group) and eligible non-participant youths (comparison group) to evaluate impacts on a broad set of outcomes by applying different econometric methods (e.g., propensity score matching, difference in difference estimates).
To conclude, youth entrepreneurship training and access to financial services by broader categories of youth may have a significant impact on job creation and social inclusion in Morocco and should be supported by specific interventions in the very near future.

*(c) Alternative programs for job intermediation and job creation*

Technology-based and private job intermediation can help connect job seekers to employers in cost-effective ways and reach a larger number of young people than physical job placement offices. The labor market problem in Morocco is not merely due to a lack of employment opportunities, but also due to a lack of tools that connect job seekers and employers. Only 1 percent of young respondents surveyed for this report were registered with ANAPEC offices in Morocco, while the majority (58 percent) asked friends and relatives for help in finding a job. Given the limited outreach of existing job intermediation services, Morocco would benefit from adopting mobile platforms such as *SoukTel’s JobMatch* service—which enables young job seekers to submit their basic resume through a mobile phone and match it with job advertisements—among other possible private intermediation options. No impact evaluation is available for *SoukTel*; however, its growth and financial self-sustainability make the service an attractive option to explore. An important lesson from this type of program is that the job search and matching process should not exclude the informal sector, as this will drastically reduce the number of jobs advertised.

**ICT is another example of non-formal learning programs that should also be supported.** ICT expands the boundaries of work by lowering the degree of formal education required for the labor market. Instead of university degrees that require time and monetary investment, this sector places greater emphasis on applied skills that young people can acquire through vocational training and accreditation (e.g., installation, repairs, and maintenance). Finally, ICT employment lowers the barriers to entry to the job market. It also eliminates geographic boundaries, provides flexibility in the value chain, and enables young people to compete for higher-level jobs due to their specific skill advantage in technology.

As ICT is a high-growth industry centered on technology, it absorbs a high share of the young workforce—particularly the mobile sector. The creation of easy-to-use, accessible software services can facilitate participation in the labor force by enabling micro-tasking and crowd-sourcing. ICT can, for example, enable young women to increase their participation in the labor force through remote tasks, which allow for working at home and flexible hours. ICT also has a high potential for youth entrepreneurship, as seen in examples of globally known entrepreneurs, and more recently, entrepreneurs in emerging markets, such as Vishal Gondal of India. Gondal launched his company, Indiagames, when he was 23 years old, after dropping out of college.

4.3 Promoting Active Citizenship among Youth

*(a) Capacity building and support for youth-led organizations and initiatives*

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120 This section is adapted from G. La Cava, G. Rossotto, and C. Paradi-Guilford, 2011, “ICT for Youth in the Middle East and North Africa Region: Policies to Promote Employment and Social Inclusion,” *Arab Brief*, no. 1 (February), World Bank, Washington, DC.

121 W. Cunningham, Sanchez-Puerta, and Wuermli, 2010, “Active Labor Market Programs for Youth.”

122 These are emerging employment trends and may require controls on child labor and dispute resolution mechanisms.
Well-organized, coordinated, and sustainable youth-led organizations can be another pillar of active youth participation, as they can provide both community-based services to young people and represent them as advocates. In this context, it would be important to support a broad-based network of youth-led associations in Morocco, which would benefit from more human and financial resources, as well as from support for their management and targeting capacity. Support for youth organizations should thus become part of a broader investment plan to revamp youth centers and women’s centers, and from the variety of other youth employment initiatives. National agencies such as the EN, for example, emphasize the importance of developing or strengthening youth organizations at the municipal and/or local level to establish a permanent dialogue with local elected officials about the quality and accessibility of youth services, as well as to engage youth in monitoring local youth budgets.

Finally, youth participation in the development and implementation of national youth policy should be strengthened through proper institutional channels. In most European countries, for example, young people and their representative bodies are recognized as stakeholders and equal partners of government in the implementation of national youth policies, a system referred to as co-management. The development and support of youth bodies involves various youth and student organizations, as well as national- and local-level youth councils. These organizations serve as key channels for expressing youth opinion and voice on various critical public policy issues. In Morocco, the establishment of such youth representative bodies could facilitate the interaction and coordination of youth services and other youth-related programs with national policy makers and/or commune or provincial-level authorities. Such a process could be supported by the European Youth Forum and the Youth and Sports Directorate of the League of Arab States. These new youth-led institutions would complement institution-building measures to strengthen the performance of public bodies such as the Royal Training Institute for Youth Workers and the National Information and Documentation Center for Youth, as highlighted in Chapter 3.

Among European Union countries, the organization of youth work and youth policy in Finland can be considered best practice for addressing youth needs and reducing their social exclusion. The Finnish government transfers funds to local authorities for youth work and extends grants to youth organizations and national youth centers. It also extends grants for the construction of facilities for young people, youth research, and international youth cooperation. Annual government expenditure on youth work in 2006 amounted to €50 million, roughly one-tenth of one percent of the national budget. Municipal youth work appropriations in that year amounted to another approximately €190 million—roughly six-tenths of one percent of all municipal budgets. Youth work emphasizes cooperation with school communities to coordinate activities at youth centers, which offer services such as youth empowerment, citizenship, and after-school activities. In 2005, Finnish youth centers provided about 160,000 youth course days in a country with a population of merely 5.4 million, of which about one million, or 18 percent, were aged 15 to 29. It should be emphasized that Finland was a top performer in the 2003 PISA educational assessment and has one of the lowest early school-leaving rates (8.3 percent) in the European Union (EU), pointing to the excellent complementarities of sound education and youth policies.

123 Useful examples of youth policy development can also be found in the transition countries of Eastern Europe, such as Slovenia, which have joined the European Union.
Youth service programs represent another recommended area for future investments in Morocco, as they provide opportunities for young people to learn new skills while engaging in community development (e.g., literacy tutoring, protecting the environment, small-scale infrastructure, etc.) for a period of up to one year. Unemployed youth may receive cash for work to ensure both their income support and participation. Participation in service programs empowers young people to become active citizens and helps build their self-esteem while meeting community needs through volunteer work in areas such as public health, conservation, and tutoring. A quasi-experimental evaluation of the public service program AmeriCorps in the United States showed that participants had a greater incidence of post-program civic engagement and more positive attitudes towards employment, but no significant increase in educational attainment as compared to a control group. By contrast, Youth Service Canada is considered to have had positive impacts on both the post-program employment and further education of beneficiaries.124

Box 4.7: Youth Service Canada

Youth Service Canada (YSC) is a youth service corps designed to provide unemployed and out-of-school youth between 15 and 30 years of age an opportunity to participate in a project that usually lasts 6 to 9 months with the aim of gaining relevant work-related experience. Projects are run by not-for-profit nongovernmental organizations that have developed proposals approved by Human Resource and Skills Development Canada. These implementing organizations assist young people in planning career choices, making a successful transition to the labor market, returning to school, and providing community services. YSC’s terms and conditions are designed to be flexible in order to accommodate regional and local variations. Youth may receive a weekly stipend, a completion grant, or a combination of both for total compensation no greater than Can$ 10,000 per participant.

YSC was established in response to severe problems in the youth labor market. Official data from the monthly Canadian Labor Force Survey showed that youth employment had not recovered from the recession of the early 1990s in the way that adult employment had. As a result, the gap between youth and adult unemployment rates increased. Employed youths were more likely to be able to find only part-time employment, whereas in the 1980s, more youth found full-time employment.

The impact evaluation showed that YSC projects responded well to participants’ needs in the following ways: (i) career plans were developed in almost 75 percent of projects; (ii) two-thirds of participants who went on to school or training credited a career plan developed in a YSC project for their decision; (iii) 30 percent of youth who completed the program said that the project influenced them to a large extent; (iv) team skills, self-confidence, and gaining an appreciation of community service, among a variety of other personal benefits, were mentioned with considerable frequency by participants; and (v) just over half of currently employed participants saw their current job as a step toward a career goal.


The rapidly evolving social situation and consciousness of youth in Morocco presents a clear opening for the development of an innovative and ambitious vision: the development of a new “social contract” between government and this growing and aware segment of society, which responds to their abilities and enthusiasm for constructive engagement, and provides a springboard for a new phase of development. The way forward will need to be carefully planned, targeting interventions in a situation that is inherently

124 W. Cunningham, Sanchez-Puerta, and Wuermli, 2010, “Active Labor Market Programs for Youth.”
dynamic, and to the real needs of a group that is socially, economically, and educationally diverse. It will also need to be founded in the kind of consultative dialogue with youth and possibilities for new institutional partnerships between government, private sector, community and civil society. This report represents a contribution to the development of such an evidence-based, consultative, strategic response to the needs of young Moroccan women and men, aimed at their further inclusion on both the economic and the institutional planes, so that future investments in youth can be targeted as directly and effectively as possible. There could not be a more opportune moment for turning the massive potential of Morocco’s youth into agents and assets for the long-term development of the country and society as a whole.

These lessons and insights offer a clear opportunity to create a clear and feasible vision for the future of youth in Morocco. Three principals have been proposed for this strategy: promoting the participation of youth in decision-making; using non-formal learning methods to provide skills relevant to both employment and civic participation; and providing integrated, youth-friendly services to enable young people to access the range of services they need for effective socioeconomic development.

These principles underlie interventions in the creation of employment and entrepreneurship skills on the one hand, and an infrastructure for participation and services for youth on the other. Promising elements on the employment side, as we have seen, include the “training plus” approach to skills building, entrepreneurship programs, and programs for job intermediation and creation. Underlying the promotion of participation and citizenship would be capacity building and support for youth-led organizations and initiatives, as well as youth service/volunteer programs. The global experiences showcased throughout the present chapter, including a number of European models, offer a range of tested good practices to be seen as a stock of tools, knowledge, and experience from which a partnership of government, youth, and other stakeholders, can draw in seeking solutions to their quite specific challenges.

These global experiences also show that sound youth investments do pay off—creating reliable pathways for young people to successfully transition to work and active citizenship. An integrated investment plan of this kind for Morocco is urgently needed to address the root causes of youth disadvantage and include young people as partners in development.


AEDO, C., AND M. PIZARRO VALDIVIA. 2004. “Rentabilidad Economica del Programa de Capacitacion Laboral de Jovenes ‘Chile Joven.’” INACAP (Universidad Tecnológica de Chile) and MIDEPLAN (Ministerio de Planificación y Cooperación), Santiago, Chile.


Washington, DC.


———. 2010. “Kingdom of Morocco; Poverty in Rural Areas: What We Know, What We Don’t Know, What We Should Know.” Policy Note. Middle East and North Africa Region, MNSED, World Bank, Washington, DC.


Annex 1

1. Regression Results

Regression A.1.1: Probability of being unemployed among all youth in the labor force as a function of sex (male/female), area (rural/urban) and education

|                      | Estimate | Std. Error | z value  | Pr(>|z|) |
|----------------------|----------|------------|----------|----------|
| (Intercept)          | -1.24600 | 0.25035    | -4.977   | 6.46e-07 *** |
| factor(SEX) FEMALE   | 0.46656  | 0.17984    | 2.594    | 0.00948 **  |
| factor(AREA) RURAL   | -0.93033 | 0.17008    | -5.470   | 4.50e-08 *** |
| factor(EDUC) PRIMARY | 0.09279  | 0.26150    | 0.355    | 0.72270    |
| factor(EDUC) LOW SECONDARY | 0.54693 | 0.26328    | 2.077    | 0.03777 *   |
| factor(EDUC) SECONDARY | 0.78191 | 0.28773    | 2.718    | 0.00658 **  |
| factor(EDUC) LOW TERTIARY | 0.19007 | 0.35454    | 0.536    | 0.59188    |
| factor(EDUC) TERTIARY | -0.09951 | 1.18613    | 0.084    | 0.93314    |

1108 observations

Regression A.1.2: Probability of a youth having different labor market status

Multinomial logit results: marginal probability changes at average characteristics

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<th>EMPLOYED</th>
<th>UNEMPLOYED</th>
<th>DEMOTIVATED</th>
<th>OTHER</th>
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<td>0.0523</td>
<td>0.236***</td>
<td>0.00681</td>
<td>-0.295***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.0557)</td>
<td>(0.0597)</td>
<td>(0.0594)</td>
<td>(0.0235)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ED_TERTIARY</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td>0.157*</td>
<td>-0.00262</td>
<td>-0.305***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.0969)</td>
<td>(0.0905)</td>
<td>(0.0934)</td>
<td>(0.0235)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AI</td>
<td>0.0118**</td>
<td>-0.00144</td>
<td>-0.0172***</td>
<td>0.00687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.00496)</td>
<td>(0.00269)</td>
<td>(0.00458)</td>
<td>(0.00512)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regression A.1.4: Probability of having a formal job among employed youth as a function of wealth (AI) and education
Regression A.1.5: Probability of being underemployed among employed youth as a function of wealth (AI), formality of the job (CONTRACT) and sex (male/female)

| Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr(>|z|) |
|----------|------------|---------|----------|
| (Intercept) | -3.36467 | 0.42140 | -7.984 1.41e-15 *** |
| AI | 0.20567 | 0.06241 | 7.984 1.41e-15 *** |
| factor(EDUC)2 PRIMARY | 0.75569 | 0.41959 | 1.801 0.071697 . |
| factor(EDUC)3 LOWSECONDARY | 0.80515 | 0.47860 | 1.682 0.092509 . |
| factor(EDUC)4 SECONDARY | 2.14606 | 0.53381 | 4.020 5.81e-05 *** |
| factor(EDUC)5 VOCATIONAL | 2.19649 | 0.45353 | 4.843 1.28e-06 *** |
| factor(EDUC)6 TERTIARY | 3.84599 | 0.83508 | 4.606 4.11e-06 *** |

389 observations

Regression A.1.6: Probability of a young person being paid less than minimum wage

FILL UP

Regression A.1.7: Probability of wanting to work among youth as a function of sex (male/female), location (rural/urban) and education

| Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr(>|z|) |
|----------|------------|---------|----------|
| (Intercept) | 3.64476 | 0.24996 | 14.581 < 2e-16 *** |
| AI | -0.05184 | 0.02493 | -2.079 0.037582 * |
| factor(SEX)2 | -3.97133 | 0.20762 | -19.128 < 2e-16 *** |
| factor(AREA)2 | -0.53175 | 0.13790 | -3.856 0.000115 *** |
| factor(EDUC)2 PRIMARY | 0.67694 | 0.14812 | 4.570 4.87e-06 *** |
| factor(EDUC)3 LOWSECONDARY | 1.21990 | 0.22491 | 5.424 5.83e-08 *** |
| factor(EDUC)4 SECONDARY | 2.97640 | 0.61942 | 4.805 1.55e-06 *** |
| factor(EDUC)5 VOCATIONAL | 4.54573 | 1.01898 | 4.461 8.16e-06 *** |
| factor(EDUC)6 TERTIARY | 2.99247 | 0.75917 | 3.794 8.09e-05 *** |

2127 observations

Regression A.1.10: Probability of wanting the emigrate sometime in the future as a function of sex (male/female), location (rural/urban), education and the level of satisfaction with one's education and the opportunities to improve social status in the future (1-very satisfied—4-dissatisfied)

2882 observations
Regression A.1.11: Probability of having an actual plan for emigration as a function of sex (male/female), education and the level of satisfaction with: one's participation in the community, voice in youth matters and the opportunities to improve social status in the future (1—very satisfied—4—dissatisfied)

|                  | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr(>|z|)   |
|------------------|----------|------------|---------|------------|
| (Intercept)      | -3.440   | 0.315      | -12.72  | < 2e-16    |
| AI               | 0.090    | 0.029      | 3.14    | 0.0017     |
| factor(SEX)2 FEMALE | -0.27    | 0.13       | -2.06   | 0.039      |
| factor(AREA)2 RURAL | 0.68     | 0.19       | 3.55    | 0.0003     |
| factor(EDUC)2 PRIMARY | 1.69     | 0.39       | 4.38    | 0.0002     |
| factor(EDUC)2 LOWSECONDARY | 2.99     | 0.33       | 9.13    | < 2e-16    |
| factor(EDUC)2 SECONDARY | 4.64     | 0.35       | 13.15   | < 2e-16    |
| factor(EDUC)2 VOCATIONAL | 4.27     | 0.37       | 11.61   | < 2e-16    |
| factor(EDUC)2 TERTIARY | 6.62     | 0.68       | 9.71    | < 2e-16    |

Regression A.1.12: Probability of knowing about ANAPEC as a function of sex (male/female), location (rural/urban), education

|                  | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr(>|z|)   |
|------------------|----------|------------|---------|------------|
| (Intercept)      | -0.49     | 0.22       | -2.22   | 0.026      |
| AI               | 0.09      | 0.03       | 2.93    | 0.0034     |
| factor(SEX)2 FEMALE | -0.27    | 0.13       | -2.06   | 0.039      |
| factor(AREA)2 RURAL | 0.68     | 0.19       | 3.55    | 0.0003     |
| factor(EDUC)2 PRIMARY | 1.69     | 0.39       | 4.38    | 0.0002     |
| factor(EDUC)2 LOWSECONDARY | 2.99     | 0.33       | 9.13    | < 2e-16    |
| factor(EDUC)2 SECONDARY | 4.64     | 0.35       | 13.15   | < 2e-16    |
| factor(EDUC)2 VOCATIONAL | 4.27     | 0.37       | 11.61   | < 2e-16    |
| factor(EDUC)2 TERTIARY | 6.62     | 0.68       | 9.71    | < 2e-16    |

Regression A.1.13: Probability that a youth who is looking for a job or has given up due to the belief that no jobs are available has given up as a function of gender, area, education and participation in job services

|                  | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr(>|z|)   |
|------------------|----------|------------|---------|------------|
| (Intercept)      | 0.35     | 0.22       | 1.53    | 0.12       |
| factor(AREA)2 RURAL | 0.58     | 0.22       | 2.66    | 0.0076     |
| factor(SEX)2 FEMALE | 1.28     | 0.19       | 6.54    | 7.84e-11   |
Regression A.1.14: Probability of being satisfied with the current job as a function of wealth, industry of employment, and the knowledge and use of selected job services (ANAPEC and non-ANAPEC)

Coefficients:

|                      | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr(>|z|) |
|----------------------|----------|------------|---------|---------|
| (Intercept)          | 0.3095   | 0.2258     | 1.370   | 0.17057 |
| factor(AREA)2 RURAL  | 0.6026   | 0.2173     | 2.774   | 0.00555 ** |
| factor(SEX)2 FEMALE  | 1.2843   | 0.1970     | 6.520   | 7.05e-11 *** |
| factor(EDUC)2 PRIMARY| -0.5724  | 0.2398     | -2.387  | 0.01701 *  |
| factor(EDUC)3 LOWSECONDARY | -0.5603    | 0.2914     | -1.923  | 0.05452 . |
| factor(EDUC)4 SECONDARY | -0.2367    | 0.4788     | -0.494  | 0.62110 |
| factor(EDUC)5 VOCATIONAL | -0.9992    | 0.4412     | -2.265  | 0.02352 *  |
| factor(EDUC)6 TERTIARY | -0.6570    | 0.6771     | -0.970  | 0.33193 |
| USEDANAPECSVCS       | 0.2106   | 0.7327     | 0.287   | 0.77374 |
| USEDJOBTRAINING      | -0.4919  | 0.3428     | -1.435  | 0.15128 |
| USEEDITTRAINING      | -0.5110  | 0.4947     | -1.033  | 0.30163 |

Number of observations 595
2. **Construction of the Asset Index to Rank Household Economic Position**

In order to classify the households by their wealth, we developed an asset index taking into consideration the various types of assets and services that households have access to (following an approach developed by Filmer and Prichett 1998). While household expenditures (measured from detailed expenditure modules) is a superior measure of assessing household welfare, several studies demonstrate the asset index to be a reliable indicator of welfare as well. For example, studies by Filmer and Scott (2001) and Filmer and Pritchett (2001) illustrate that the ranking of households according to their economic positions based on the asset index are very close to rankings based on expenditures.

In constructing an asset index from the MHYS 2009-2010 we used available information on dwelling characteristics (e.g., construction material of dwelling, the number of rooms, household use of kitchen, toilets, etc.), and household possessions of durable items (e.g., vehicles, television, refrigerator, etc.). Using principal component analysis, we constructed an index which allowed us to rank households by their wealth and then group them into ten groups (deciles) ordered by the level of wealth.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Weight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of housing</td>
<td>Shelter or similar=0 else 1</td>
<td>0.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many rooms does your household occupy?</td>
<td>Number of rooms</td>
<td>0.158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the main construction material of the roof?</td>
<td>Straw or other=0 else 1</td>
<td>0.093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the main construction material of the wall?</td>
<td>Bricks, rocks or wood=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What type of floor does the house have?</td>
<td>Tile, cement=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How is lighting provided in your household?</td>
<td>Electrical=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is this house connected to a drinking water supply?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>-0.241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does this house have a Kitchen?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>-0.140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does your household have exclusive use of the kitchen?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does this house have a bathroom?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>-0.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the bathroom used only by members of your household?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does household have a toilet?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>-0.211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the toilet used only by members of your household?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuel for cooking</td>
<td>Gas or electricity=1, LPG=0.5 else 0</td>
<td>0.140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does household have a refrigerator?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does household have a television?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does household have a satellite dish?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does household have a radio?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does household have a landline phone?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does household have a computer?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does household have the internet?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does household have a car?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does household have a motorcycle?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does household have a bicycle?</td>
<td>Yes=1 else 0</td>
<td>0.234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Annexe 2

Note méthodologique pour l’analyse qualitative

Table des matières
I. Contexte et problématique
II. Objectifs de l’étude
   Objectifs généraux
   Objectifs spécifiques de l’étude qualitative
III. Méthodologie
   Echantillonnage
   Techniques de l’enquête
      a) Le focus group
      b) L’entretien individuel et le récit de vie
      c) L’analyse des institutions de prise en charge des jeunes

Document annexe 1 - Projet guide d’animation des Focus Group
Document annexe 2 - Projet guide d’entretien
Document annexe 3 - Fiche de collecte des données services Jeunesse

I. Contexte et problématique :

Les résultats du Recensement Général de la Population et de l’Habitat (RGPH, 2004) montrent l’importance dominante de la population des jeunes âgés de 15 à 29 ans au sein de la population globale (29.1 %, soit 8,6 millions). Cette catégorie de jeunes potentiellement productifs représente un atout démographique unique qui atteindra son maximum en 2013 (avec un effectif de 9,8 millions) à précipiter un déclin économique et une déstabilisation sociopolitique.

Cette catégorie est, en effet, la plus touchée par les transformations socioéconomiques et culturelles rapides, notamment le taux de chômage très élevé, qui touche 17,2 % des jeunes de 15-24 ans et 14,4% des jeunes de 25-34 ans, par rapport à une moyenne nationale de 9,8%. La jeunesse la plus instruite (éducation supérieure et plus) connaîtra le taux de chômage le plus élevé du pays. Néanmoins, les moins instruits, qui représentaient, en 2006, 82% des jeunes actifs (15-34), rencontrent aussi beaucoup d’obstacles à l’insertion sur le marché du travail. Dans les régions urbaines, 17,9% des jeunes âgés de 15-24 sans diplôme primaire et 38,8% des jeunes ayant abandonné leurs études sans compléter le secondaire (bac) étaient chômeurs en 2006. Dans les régions rurales, le taux de chômage des sans-diplômes était de 4,2 %, et celui des jeunes ayant abandonné l’école secondaire était de 13,2%. En 2006, 75% du stock des jeunes chômeurs (15-34), soit environ 637000 jeunes, avaient déclenché un moyen courant pour les jeunes de tenter de fuir l’exclusion...
économique, le taux relativement bas du chômage des jeunes en milieu rural doit aussi être associé à ceux observés dans les régions urbaines.

Si les facteurs socio-économiques sont les causes majeures de l’exclusion des jeunes, le handicap, sous toutes ses formes\textsuperscript{130} risque d’exclure durablement d’autres catégories de jeunes. Leur intégration demande une meilleure connaissance de leurs problèmes particuliers et nécessite la prise en considération de leurs besoins spécifiques.

Dans ce même contexte, les jeunes filles doivent faire face à davantage d’obstacles socioculturels et l’accès au marché du travail leur est difficile. Ainsi, le taux de participation des jeunes de sexe féminin équivaut approximativement au 1/3 de celui des jeunes garçons dans les régions urbaines et à la moitié dans les régions rurales\textsuperscript{131}. Paradoxalement, les jeunes filles sont très touchées par le chômage et les faibles rémunérations alors que leurs performances scolaires sont supérieures à celles des garçons.

Les études et les données relatives aux jeunes défavorisés précisant les facteurs et les effets de leur marginalisation ne sont pas nombreuses\textsuperscript{132}. Les données disponibles correspondent, en général, aux principaux indicateurs statistiques (pauvreté, travail, éducation, et analphabétisme). Exceptés les thèmes de santé et fertilité, qui ont fait récemment l’objet d’une enquête nationale parmi les jeunes\textsuperscript{133}, l’analyse des facteurs contribuant à la marginalisation économique, politique et sociale de cette population est encore dans un état embryonnaire, et on compte sur des études de nature qualitative qui couvrent seulement des zones circonscrites, surtout urbaines\textsuperscript{134}.

Conscient de l’importance des jeunes dans son projet annoncé de démocratisation, de lutte contre la pauvreté et de développement social, l’État marocain, depuis 1999, affiche une ferme volonté politique pour la promotion du statut des jeunes et de leur rôle dans la lutte contre la pauvreté. L’abaissement de l’âge du vote à 18 ans, l’Initiative Nationale de Développement Humain, et le soutien à la société civile sont quelques manifestations de cette politique.

Si les jeunes scolarisés sont encadrés par le système éducatif et ciblés par la plupart des programmes publics d’insertion au travail, les jeunes non-scolarisés, sans soutien familial ni travail, en situation de délinquance ou de travail précaire sont censés être encadrés et pris en charge par des institutions capables de répondre spécifiquement à leurs attentes et besoins\textsuperscript{135}. À ce niveau, et à partir d’un premier constat, il semble que la plupart de ces institutions (Entraide nationale, Jeunesse et Sport, Ministère du Développement Social, etc.) font face à des défis institutionnels et financières pour assumer leurs nouveaux rôles, du fait qu’elles continuent à assurer, principalement, le rôle de filet de sécurité contre la pauvreté et la prise en charge matérielle des cas extrêmes (orphelins, jeunes délinquants, enfants et jeunes sans soutien familial, etc.).

Les difficultés rencontrées par les jeunes pour assurer, par une participation active, un rôle de levier pour les programmes de développement et pour le projet sociétal en général se traduisent sur, le plan politique, par une faible participation politique et sociale (inscription aux listes électorales, vote, activités associatives, etc.). D’un autre côté la radicalisation émergente des valeurs est alimentée essentiellement par les jeunes exclus des quartiers périurbains pauvres des grandes villes, dont une partie est issue de la migration rurale. Cette migration est liée au manque d’opportunités de la jeunesse rural par rapport à l’accès à la terre, l’emploi attractif et aux services éducatifs et récréatifs.

\textsuperscript{134} La dernière étude quantitative sur la situation et les perspectives des jeunes est la « Consultation Nationale des Jeunes » faite par le Ministère de la Jeunesse et des Sportsde 2001.
\textsuperscript{135} A. Keday, Les programmes des institutions de protection de l’enfance et la question de l’insertion sociale des jeunes délinquants. (Thèse de Doctorat en arabe), Fès, 2005

- 8 -
II. Objectifs de l’étude

Objectifs Généraux :

L’étude portant sur « Lever les obstacles à l’inclusion de la jeunesse » se fixe deux objectifs principaux :

a) Documenter et analyser les facteurs qui contribuent à l’exclusion des jeunes de 15 à 29 ans des opportunités économiques et d’une citoyenneté active, participative et agissante;

b) Formuler des recommandations pour une stratégie visant la résolution des problèmes générés par l’exclusion des jeunes.

L’étude mettra l’accent sur les problèmes rencontrés par les jeunes, particulièrement les plus vulnérables, aux niveaux scolaire, administratif, économique, avec un intérêt particulier pour la question de l’égalité des sexes. Une attention particulière sera portée aux questions actuellement sous documentées, particulièrement la qualité de l’emploi, la participation à l’économie informelle, la situation de la jeunesse dans les zones rurales, l’utilisation du « temps libre » (hors école, famille et travail), toujours en mettant en perspective la question de l’égalité des sexes.

En parallèle, l’étude des institutions qui ciblent les jeunes analysera l’optimisation et le contenu des stratégies en place, et leur capacité à atteindre les diverses catégories de la jeunesse (y compris les politiques économiques, l’éducation non-formelle et les filières de formations, les activités récréatives et les programmes de protection des jeunes défavorisés).

Basée sur les résultats des recherches antérieures - ainsi que sur des expériences internationales - l’étude proposera un programme incluant des options des politiques publiques et d’investissement pour le Maroc, qui seront discutées avec les acteurs ministériels concernés par les problématiques de la jeunesse, (Jeunesse et Sports, Développement Social, Agriculture, Emploi et Formation Professionnelle, Économie, etc.).

Objectifs spécifiques de l’étude qualitative:

1. Faire l’état des lieux de la question au Maroc et construire un cadre analytique des types d’exclusion sociale des jeunes défavorisés.
2. Analyser les conditions d’exclusion des jeunes et leurs causes, y inclus les barrières institutionnelles, dans les domaines suivants:

- la transition de l’éducation formelle au monde du travail (choix de type d’activité, moyens de recherche d’emploi et attentes, lien entre choix éducative et choix professionnels, l’accès aux programmes d’emploi, de crédit et pour l’auto-emploi, accès à la formation professionnelle).
- La condition des jeunes les plus vulnérables dans le monde du travail (qualité de l’emploi dans l’économie informelle, barrières à la participation dans l’économie formelle, les expériences d’auto-emploi).
- La condition et les attentes de la jeunesse dans les zones rurales, y compris les moyens ou les obstacles d’accès à la terre, au crédit, a la formation agricole (technique et professionnelle), à l’emploi hors ferme, aux loisirs, à l’instruction, et aux services publics.
- Obstacles et degrés de participation des jeunes dans les institutions locales (famille, communes, école, associations communautaires). Analyse des facteurs sociaux qui contribuent à la formation de l’identité, des modalités de citoyenneté, de participation, et des valeurs de référence des jeunes (associations, medias, internet, groupes politiques).
- Situation des jeunes à forts risques de précarité et d’exclusion sociale (jeunes en institutions, jeunes en conflit avec la loi, etc.).
3. Mener une analyse des politiques publiques et des départements ciblant spécifiquement les jeunes défavorisées au Maroc (Ministère Développement Social, Entraide nationale, Agence de Développement Social, Ministère de la Jeunesse et Sports, etc.).

4. Formuler des recommandations qui peuvent servir à la mise à niveau des politiques publiques et proposer des options politiques et financières, en se basant sur les attentes identifiées des jeunes marocains enquêtés.

III. Méthodologie:

Selon l’approche sociologique, le choix d’une méthode de collecte de données se fait en fonction de la nature de l’information recherchée et des objectifs de la recherche.

Pour l’approche quantitative, la donnée recherchée est traduite en indicateur simple (âge, nombre d’enfants, connaissances, attitudes, pratiques, etc.). L’indicateur est toujours traduit en valeur numérique précis. Le questionnaire fermé et le traitement informatique y constituent le cadre logique de la collecte des données. Le traitement et l’analyse s’y font en terme de variables (A+B = 100). En d’autres termes, l’indicateur (la valeur statistique de la fréquence d’une réponse) ne peut avoir une signification statistique ou sociologique, que s’il est croisé avec un autre indicateur, d’où son caractère ‘‘variable’’. Toute la validité scientifique de l’approche quantitative repose donc sur la validité et la pertinence statistique de la population- mère et le degré de représentativité de l’échantillon retenu pour l’administration du questionnaire.

En ce qui concerne l’approche qualitative, le concept de donnée est tout à fait différent. L’information recherchée a exclusivement un caractère qualitatif, c’est-à-dire, non quantifiable. A ce titre, la déclaration d’un interviewé ou d’un participant à un FG n’est pas un indicateur et n’établit pas de relation de variable avec d’autres réponses. Cette dimension qualitative requiert une approche méthodologique spécifique. A ce titre, la personne interrogée représente un profil qui se dessine en pointillés et non une population statistique et l’analyse des données s’effectue en termes d’analyse du discours et non pas par un traitement statistique.

L’actuelle étude est conduite en parallèle avec une étude quantitative par questionnaire qui couvre l’ensemble du territoire marocain. A cet effet, et dans un souci méthodologique de coordination de la démarche des deux approches, nous avons pris en considération les items du questionnaire qui sera utilisé dans le volet qualitatif dans le choix des axes des guides d’animation des Focus Group. L’objectif et d’approfondir et de mieux cerner, sous plusieurs éclairages, la problématique générale qui est celle de l’exclusion des jeunes.

D’autre part, la collecte des données nécessaires à l’analyse institutionnelle utilisera, avec quelques modifications, la même fiche qui va servir à la collecte des données sur l’évaluation du système des programmes sociaux au Maroc.

Echantillonnage

La composition de l’échantillon de l’étude a été faite à la lumière de paramètres paramètre socio-spatiaux: Le Maroc est divisé en plusieurs aires écologiques (mer, plaine, montagne, oasis et Sahara). Chacune de ces aires se distingue par une composition ethnique dominante, d’une sous- culture, de croyances et de traditions. Nous proposons de retenir la Région comme base de l’identification des catégories de jeunes et des localités qui seront touchées par l’enquête de terrain.

Les régions du Grand Casablanca, Fès Boulmane, Sous-Massa Draa et Tanger Tétouan régions sont retenues.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grand Casablanca</th>
<th>Fès Boulmane</th>
<th>SMD</th>
<th>Tanger Tétouan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sidi Moumen</td>
<td>Fès Médina</td>
<td>Anza (Agadir)</td>
<td>Beni Makada (Tanger)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bernoussi</td>
<td>Sefrou El Manzel</td>
<td>Tiout (Taroudant)</td>
<td>Beni Karrich (Tétouan)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A l’intérieur de ces régions, le choix des sites d’enquête est fait sur la base des critères suivants :

- Le poids démographique (les quatre plus grandes régions du Maroc) ;
- Les données de la carte de la pauvreté (Haut-Commissariat au Plan) ;
- Le nombre des quartiers ciblés par l’INDH ;
- L’importance de la migration interne et internationale ;
- L’importance de l’habitat insalubre et des quartiers périphériques ;
- La diversité économique et écologique (Mer, plaine, Montagne et industrie, artisanat, agriculture, élevage et tourisme et économie informelle) ;
- Le type d’activité économique dominant ;
- La diversité linguistique et ethnique (arabophones et les trois langues amazigh Tachelhit, Tarifit et Tamazight) ;
- Le dynamisme du tissu associatif ;
- La présence des centres et des activités de toutes les institutions en charge de la jeunesse.

Ces critères de base seront personnalisés, selon les spécificités de chaque région :

1) **Grand Casablanca** :

- Région industrielle et côtière ;
- Le poids démographique (La plus grande métropole du Maroc) ;
- Le nombre des quartiers ciblés par l’INDH ;
- L’importance de la migration interne ;
- L’importance de l’activité industrielle et commerciale ;
- L’importance de l’habitat insalubre et des quartiers périphériques ;
- La quasi-totalité des quartiers et des villages sont accessibles ;
- Région à dominance arabophone ;
- L’activité du tissu associatif ;
- La présence des centres et des activités de toutes les institutions en charge de la jeunesse

1.1 Quartier Sidi Moumen (Milieu urbain. Municipalité de + de 100 000 habitants)
1.2 Sidi Bernoussi (Milieu urbain. Municipalité de + de 100 000 habitants)
1.3 Mohammedia (Milieu urbain. Municipalité de + de 60 000 habitants)

2) **Région Sousse Massa Drâa**

- Le poids démographique ;
- Les données de la carte de la pauvreté (Haut- Commissariat au Plan) ;
- Le nombre des quartiers ciblés par l’INDH ;
- L’importance de la migration internationale (France et Belgique) ;
- Région émettrice de main d’œuvre non qualifiée (Travaux publiques, bâtiment, etc.) ;
- Activités de pêche artisanale et industrielle, l’agriculture intensive et le tourisme (Souss) ;
- Rareté de l’eau et cultures oasiennes (Valée de Draa) ;
- L’importance de l’habitat insalubre et des quartiers périphériques ;
- Habitat rural en ksours (Groupements d’habitats fortifiés à une seule dominance ethnique, notamment dans la province de Zagora)
- Intenses activités agricoles (Pêches, agriculture intensive moderne, cultures oasiennes)
- Région à dominance berbérophone (Tachelhit)
- Importantes activités associatives fédérées (Tissu associatif, confédération des associations, activités génératrices des revenus)

| 2.1 Agadir, Municipalité d’Anza, (+ de 20 000 habitants), non enclavée |
| 2.2 Tigout, Commune rurale, Province de Taroudant, (- de 10000 habitants, 5 Km de la route ;) |
| 2.3 Tiguit, Cercle d’Agdez, Province de Zagora (- de 5000 habitant ; + de 15 KM de la route principale). |

### 3) Région Fès Boulemane

- Région semi-montagneuse ;
- Le poids démographique ;
- Le nombre des quartiers ciblés par l’INDH ;
- L’importance de la migration interne ;
- L’importance de l’habitat insalubre et des quartiers périphériques ;
- Région à composition ethnique mixte (arabophones dans les villes et berbérophones (Amazigh) dans les campagnes ;
- L’activité du tissu associatif ;
- La présence des centres et des activités de toutes les institutions en charge de la jeunesse ,
- Importante activité artisanale avec un important taux de jeunes apprentis (- de 15 ans)
- Activités agricoles et pastorales (Province de Boulemane).

| 3.1 Quartier BabFtouh, Fès (+ de 50 000 habitants) |
| 3.2 Séfrou, (+ de 50 000 habitants) |
| 3.3 Guigou, Province de Boulemane (- de 10000 habitant) |

### 4) Région Tanger Tétouan

- Région montagneuse (84 % de la province de Chefchaouen)
- Le poids démographique ;
- Les données de la carte de la pauvreté (Haut-Commissariat au Plan) ;
- Le nombre des quartiers ciblés par l’INDH ;
- L’importance de la migration interne ;
- L’importance de l’habitat insalubre et des quartiers périphériques ;
- Habita très dispersé en milieu rural ;
- Activités économiques de subsistance (autoconsommation, élevage à l’étable, contrebande et culture du cannabis au sud de la région) ;
- Région à dominance arabophone avec des foyers berbérophones (Tarifit) en montagne ;
- Importante présence des “enfants de la rue” en relation avec la migration interne et l’immigration clandestine.

| 4.1 Beni Makkada, Tanger (+ de 50 000 habitants) |
| 4.2 Beni Kerrich, Province de Tétouan (+ de 15 000 habitants) |
| 4.3 Tanakoub, Province de Chefchaouen, (- de 5000 habitants) |

A partir de ces critères, il a été retenu 12 groupes stratégiques de jeunes respectant rigoureusement la parité en terme de genre et de milieu de résidence (urbain/rural) :
Profils retenus

15-19 ans : Ce choix vise à mieux comprendre l’impact combiné de plusieurs facteurs d’exclusion des jeunes défavorisés, notamment :

- Les particularités de l’adolescence et la construction de l’identité ;
- La négociation de nouvelles relations de pouvoir avec la famille, l’entourage immédiat et la communauté ;
- Les raisons de l’abandon scolaire, le recours ou non recours à l’éducation non formelle ;
- Les moyens et les barrières à l’insertion sur le marché du travail d’une partie de cette catégorie ainsi que les déterminants de leurs choix sectorielles et /ou en matière de formation ;
- Les conditions de vie et d’épanouissement, selon le genre et le milieu de résidence

Les perceptions à l’égard de l’engagement et de la participation et social :

Les groupes ciblés pour cette catégorie d’âge sont :
- Les élèves
- Le jeunes fréquentant la maison de jeunes /foyer féminin
- Les jeunes déscolarisés/non scolarisés
- Les jeunes au travail
- Les pensionnaires de Dar Attalib/ Orphelinats (Maison de l’étudiant/e)
- Les pensionnaires des Centres de sauvegarde (Centres d’éducation des jeunes en conflit avec la loi) ;
- Les jeunes handicapés.

20-29 ans : Ce choix vise à mieux comprendre l’impact spécifique de plusieurs facteurs d’exclusion des jeunes défavorisés, et leurs fluctuations par rapport à la première tranche d’âge (15-19), notamment :

- La perception du travail et du chômage et les perspectives d’avenir ;
- Les barrières à participation communautaire et politique ;
- L’impact du genre et du milieu de résidence sur le projet de vie du jeune
- La perception de la violence et des comportements à risques ;
- La perception des rôles de l’Etat et de la société civile dans l’intégration des jeunes
- Les rapports entre les sexes et les générations.

Les groupes ciblés pour cette catégorie d’âge sont :
- Les jeunes travailleurs
- Les diplômés chômeurs
- Les chômeurs non diplômés
- Les jeunes membres d’associations
- Les jeunes exerçant des activités non formelles

Techniques de l’enquête

Trois techniques seront utilisées, à savoir, l’animation des groupes de discussion (Focus Group), l’entretien individuel semi-directif et le récit de vie.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Régions</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sites par région (urbain, rural)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Récits de vie jeunes par site</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FG par site</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Focus Groups</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total récits de vie jeunes</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total entretiens personnes ressources (Analyse institutionnelle)</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
a) Le groupe de discussion (Focus Group)
L'animation de groupe est une méthode de recherche participative qui se fonde sur le principe systémique du feedback et s'élabora dans un contexte de communication ouverte et de discussion interactive. C'est un espace d'échange, de communication et d'inter-influence aussi bien que de redéploiement des stratégies de pouvoir, de conflit et de séduction.
A cet effet, trente et un (31) FG sont organisés :

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Catégorie d'âge</th>
<th>Profil des participants</th>
<th>Nombre total FG</th>
<th>FG féminins uniquement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>Elèves</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maison de jeunes /foyer féminin</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Déscolarisé/non scolarisé</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dar Attalib/Dar Attal /Handicapés</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Centre de sauvegarde</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jeunes travailleurs</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>Diplômés chômeurs</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jeunes handicapés</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chômeurs non diplômés</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jeunes en réinsertion</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Membres d’associations</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Travail non formel</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Planning FG

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grand Casablanca</th>
<th>15-19</th>
<th>20-29</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elèves</td>
<td>1 M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maison de jeunes</td>
<td>1 M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orphelinat/ Dar Attaliba</td>
<td>1 F</td>
<td>Mohammedia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre de sauvegarde</td>
<td>1 F</td>
<td>Casablanca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diplômes Chômeurs</td>
<td>1 F</td>
<td>Sidi Bernoussi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travail non formel</td>
<td>1 M</td>
<td>Sidi Bernoussi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeunes handicapées</td>
<td>1 F</td>
<td>Casablanca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Membres d’associations</td>
<td>1 M</td>
<td>Mohammedia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sous Massa Drâa</th>
<th>15-19</th>
<th>20-29</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elèves</td>
<td>1 F</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maisons de jeunes</td>
<td>1 F</td>
<td>Municipalité d’Anza</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orphelinats /Dar Attalib</td>
<td>1 M</td>
<td>Tuigt (Cercle d’Agdez)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre de sauvegarde</td>
<td>1 M</td>
<td>Agadir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travail non formel</td>
<td>1 F</td>
<td>Municipalité d’Anza</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chômeurs non diplômés</td>
<td>1 M</td>
<td>Tiguit, Cercle d’Agdez</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diplômés chômeurs</td>
<td>1 M</td>
<td>Municipalité d’Anza</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Membres d’associations</td>
<td>1 F</td>
<td>Tiguit, Cercle d’Agdez</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fès Boulmane</th>
<th>15-19</th>
<th>20-29</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maison de jeunes</td>
<td>1 F</td>
<td>Séfrou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elèves</td>
<td>1 M</td>
<td>Fès Medina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dar Attaliba / Orphelinats</td>
<td>1 F</td>
<td>Sférrou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeunes travailleurs</td>
<td>1 M</td>
<td>Fès Medina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diplômés chômeurs</td>
<td>1 M</td>
<td>Guigou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chômeurs non diplômés</td>
<td>1 F</td>
<td>Fès Medina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Membres d’associations</td>
<td>1 M</td>
<td>Fès Medina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeunes handicapés</td>
<td>1 M</td>
<td>Fès Medina</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tanger Tétouan</th>
<th>15-19</th>
<th>20-29</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maison de jeunes</td>
<td>1 M</td>
<td>Tanger (Beni Makada)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orphelinats/Dar Attalib</td>
<td>1 F</td>
<td>Tanger (Beni Makada)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Déscolarisés/ Non scolarisés | 1 | F | Tanakoub (Chefchaoun))
Jeunes au travail          | 1 | M | Beni Kerrich
Travail non formel         | 1 | F | Beni Kerrich
Diplômés chômeurs          | 1 | M | Beni Makada
Chômeurs non diplômés      | 1 | F | Tanakoub
Membres d’associations     | 1 | M | Beni Makada

Eu égard à la particularité de recrutement des participants aux FG et aux modalités d’organisation (recrutement des participants, locaux, enregistrement, etc.), le recrutement de douze facilitateur locaux (2 à 3 par région) s’avère incontournable, d’autant plus que ce profil a contribué activement à la réussite des précédentes enquêtes par FG. Ce profil sera identifié parmi les membres des associations locales actives dans les régions touchées par l’enquête. Les facilitateurs seront chargés, sous la supervision et la responsabilité du consultant de :

- Identifier et préparer les lieux d’organisation des FG et des entretiens,
- Entreprendre les démarches administratives nécessaires à l’organisation de l’enquête,
- Expliquer les objectifs de l’étude aux administrations, délégations et toute autre structure et/ou personnes qui seraient impliquées dans l’organisation ou touchées par l’étude,
- Recruter les participants au FG selon les paramètres de l’échantillon validé. Ce choix sera validé par le consultant et en coordination avec l’animateur,
- Accompagner les animateurs aux locaux identifiés pour l’organisation des FG,
- Veiller au respect strict des consignes relatives au choix des lieux de l’animation et garantir le bon déroulement des animations,
- Préparer le lieu de l’animation, s’assurer du bon fonctionnement des prises de courant et prévoir à l’avance des rafraîchissements (thé, limonades, etc.).

Puisque cette méthode est basée sur les interactions entre les membres d’un groupe elle se doit d’utiliser des groupes restreints, afin de limiter le risque de formation de sous-groupes à l’intérieur de chaque groupe. Quand au nombre d’individus à recruter dans chacun des groupes, ce nombre devrait se situer entre 6 et 10 personnes, 8 pouvant être un nombre idéal.


b) L’entretien individuel et les récits de vie

La situation de face à face offre la possibilité d’enrichir le guide préétabli par la remontée de l’information des FG. Cela permet de mieux cibler l’information recherchée chez les acteurs stratégiques centraux ou locaux des quatre régions ciblées,

Les entretiens seront réalisés à l’aide de guides d’entretiens. Eu égard à la multiplicité des profils, nous proposons dans cette note. Les questions-clés du guide d’entretien qui sera utilisé pour interviewer les directeurs provinciaux des institutions.

Le récit de vie, d’autre part, est une relation d’une expérience personnelle et unique, vécue dans la joie ou dans la douleur, déformée ou survalorisée selon le profil et le parcours de l’interviewé.

c) L’analyse des institutions de prise en charge des jeunes

Plusieurs institutions de l’Etat et de la société civile sont engagées dans les efforts d’intégration des jeunes, de la lutte contre l’exclusion et de la prise en charge, en institution, des catégories les plus vulnérables. L’avènement, en 2005, de l’INDH a fourni à l’intervention institutionnelle à caractère social l’appui politique, le cadre logique et les outils programmatiques qui lui manquaient.

Toutefois, l’INDH cible prioritairement, le développement en termes de lutte contre la pauvreté et l’exclusion économique et spatiale. Les jeunes ne sont ciblés qu’indirectement ou spécifiquement par des programmes et les plans d’action. Ce sont les départements et les institutions de socialisation et de protection sociale qui continuent à assumer le rôle d’intégration et de lutte contre l’exclusion, particulièrement les enfants et les jeunes de moins de 18 ans.
Dans ce sens, la loi de 2006 (Dahir n°1-06-154) est promulguée pour harmoniser et standardiser l’organisation et le fonctionnement des institutions de protection sociale. A ce titre, une analyse institutionnelle des principales structures existantes s’avère importante afin mieux comprendre le fonctionnement de ces institutions, leurs capacités d’intégration dans une stratégie générale de lutte contre l’exclusion des jeunes ainsi que leurs capacités de prise en charge et de coordination.

A ce titre, nous proposons d’analyser des services d’appui direct aux jeunes offerts par les institutions suivantes, à savoir :

1. La Jeunesse et Sports ;
2. L’Entraide Nationale ;
3. L’Agence de Développement Social ;

L’objectif est d’analyser :

- Le ciblage des services existants par rapport aux besoins du exprimés par les jeunes ;
- L’adoption ou non de démarches participatives dans la gestion et évaluation des services ;
- L’utilisation des ressources financières par rapport aux nombre des bénéficiaires, ainsi que les sources de financement et pérennité des actions ;
- La contribution spécifique de l’INDH dans le financement et le soutien aux services existants ;
- Les relations verticales et transversales de coordinations avec les autres acteurs, particulièrement avec les associations de jeunes ;
- Les ressources humaines disponibles (Personnel technique et éducatif).

L’analyse est faite à partir de :

- La revue de la littérature existante (Textes de loi, réglementation ; études ; rapport ; organigrammes, etc.)
- Collecte de données sur le terrain ;
- Entretiens avec des personnes ressources.

Document annexe 1 : Projet guide d’animation des Focus Group

### STRUCTURE DES FOCUS GROUPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Introduction</th>
<th>5 min</th>
<th>Présentation des objectifs de l’étude</th>
<th>Fixe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1er axe</td>
<td>30 min</td>
<td>L’identité des jeunes</td>
<td>Fixe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2ème axe</td>
<td>40 min</td>
<td>Travail et mécanismes d’intégration/exclusion</td>
<td>Adapte au groupe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3ème axe</td>
<td>30 min</td>
<td>L’intégration/ l’exclusion sociale et citoyenneté</td>
<td>Fixe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>5 min</td>
<td>Synthèse et conclusion</td>
<td>Fixe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### GUIDE GÉNÉRAL

**Note:** les animateurs des focus groups ne sont pas censés épuiser entièrement tous les points des guides d’entretiens, dans le cas où cela empêcherait d’obtenir des réponses approfondies.

**Introduction (5 minutes) :** Présentation des objectifs de l’étude et de la méthodologie de travail

**Premier axe (30 minutes) :** L’identité des jeunes

**1. Question : En tant que jeunes, quelles sont, selon vous, les principales caractéristiques de cet âge**

Questions d’exploration et de relance :

- Qu’est ce qui caractérise cet âge par rapport aux autres périodes de la vie, notamment l’âge adulte ?
- Quels sont les cas/ les situations où vous avez conscience d’être jeunes ? (exemples et cas précis) ?
- Les grands problèmes et défis rencontrés actuellement par les jeunes marocains
- Les caractéristiques spécifiques des jeunes (genre, milieu de résidence, région/l’institution)

**Deuxième axe :** Travail et mécanismes d’intégration/exclusion (40 minutes)

**2. Question : Comment considérez-vous la situation de travail et le chômage parmi les jeunes ? (Question**
commune à poser à toutes les catégories des jeunes)

Questions d’exploration et de relance :
- Quelles sont, selon vous, les véritables causes du chômage parmi les jeunes ?
- Quelles sont, selon vous, la ou les catégories de jeunes les plus touchées par le chômage ?
- Quel est l’impact du chômage le plus visible chez les jeunes ?
- Y-a-t-il, selon vous, des différences ou des spécificités entre le chômage des jeunes chez les deux sexes ?

3. Représentations et conditions de travail (questions adaptées au profil du groupe)

3.1 Profil élèves/ pensionnaires Dar Attalib

*Question : Quelle importance donnez-vous actuellement aux questions de travail et d’emploi ?*

Questions d’exploration et de relance :
- Quelle place occupe actuellement pour vous les questions relatives à votre emploi ou travail futurs ?
- Quelle décision allez-vous prendre si on vous propose maintenant un poste de travail ? Quels sont les conditions, les atouts et les inconvénients ?
- Quelle décision allez-vous prendre si on vous propose d’immigrer à l’étranger ? Quels sont les avantages et les inconvénients ?
- Quel est, à votre avis, le niveau scolaire idéal pour trouver un travail ?
- Quel est, à votre avis, le type de formation le plus demandé sur le marché du travail ? (général, scientifique, technique, formation professionnelle, etc.) ?
- Souhaitez-vous travailler, dans l’avenir, en milieu urbain ou rural ? (L’animateur oriente le groupe vers un approfondissement des raisons subjectives et objectives de leurs choix)
- D’après votre expérience, estimez-vous que la formation scolaire en général augmente les chances de trouver un emploi stable ?
- Quelles sont les sources d’information que vous avez sur vos futures carrières et sur l’emploi et le travail en général ?
- Comment l’école (et Dar Attalib) vous aident-elle à choisir et à préparer vos études futurs, votre formation professionnelle ou votre passage à la vie active ?
- Dans quel secteur souhaiteriez-vous travailler dans l’avenir ?
- Quel est, à votre avis, le niveau et le type de formation susceptible d’assurer une intégration rapide des lauréats dans le marché du travail ?
- Quel est, à votre avis, la part de responsabilité du lauréat lui-même ?
- Souhaitez-vous travailler, dans l’avenir, en milieu urbain ou rural ? (L’animateur oriente le groupe vers un approfondissement des raisons subjectives et objectives de leurs choix)

3.2 Les diplômés chômeurs

*Questions : Quelles sont, selon vous, les véritables causes de chômage des jeunes diplômés ?*

Questions d’exploration et de relance :
- Comment expliquez-vous les difficultés rencontrées à la recherche d’un travail ?
- Considérez-vous que cette situation est passagère ou durable,
- Considérez-vous que la nature même de votre formation soit responsable de ce phénomène ?
- Quelles sont, selon vous, les catégories de lauréats les plus touchées ?
- Quelles sont, selon vous, les sources d’information sur le travail et l’emploi mises à la disposition des étudiants universitaires ? quelles sont les institutions chargées de la diffusion de ce type d’information ?
- Quel est, à votre avis, le niveau et le type de formation susceptible d’assurer une intégration rapide des lauréats dans le marché du travail ?
- Quel est, à votre avis, la part de responsabilité du lauréat lui-même ?
- Souhaitez-vous travailler, dans l’avenir, en milieu urbain ou rural ? (L’animateur oriente le groupe vers un approfondissement des raisons subjectives et objectives de leurs choix)
• Quelle place occupe l’immigration dans votre projet de vie ? comment ? Où ? sous quelles conditions?
• Quelles contributions attendez-vous de l’Etat, du secteur privé et des associations pour trouver une solution durable ?
• Que pensez-vous de l’encouragement de l’initiative privée des lauréats pour la création de l’emploi ? (Coopératives, programme Moukawalati, etc.)
• Quel est le salaire ou la rémunération souhaités pour répondre aux attentes des lauréats chômeurs ?
• Quel sont véritablement, à votre avis, les meilleurs atouts face au chômage des diplômés ? (Diplômes, influence familiale, origine ethnique, sexe, corruption, clientélisme ? .etc.)
  (L’animateur demande aux participants de classer ces ‘‘atouts’’ selon l’ordre d’efficacité)

3.3 Profil maisons de jeunes/Foyers féminins

Question : Quelle importance donnez-vous actuellement aux questions de travail et d’emploi ?

Questions d’exploration et de relance
• Quelle place occupe actuellement pour vous les questions relatives à votre emploi ou travail futurs ?
• Quelle décision alléz-vous prendre si on vous propose maintenant un poste de travail ? Quels sont les conditions, les atouts et les inconvénients ?
• Quelle décision allez-vous prendre si on vous propose d’immigrer à l’étranger ? Quels sont les avantages et les inconvénients ?
• Quel est, à votre avis, le niveau scolaire idéal pour trouver un travail ?
• Quel est, à votre avis, le type de formation le plus demandé sur le marché du travail ? (général, scientifique, technique, formation professionnelle, etc.)
• D’après votre expérience, estimez-vous que la formation scolaire en général augmente les chances de trouver, dans l’avenir, un emploi stable ?
• Est-ce que le fait de participer aux activités associatives au sein de cette institution vous aide à mieux réparer votre avenir ? Comment et par quels moyens ?
• Quelles sont les sources de l’information que vous connaissez sur vos futures carrières et sur l’emploi et le travail en général ?
• Comment la maison de jeunes/ Foyer féminin vous aident à choisir et à préparer vos études futurs, votre formation professionnelle ou votre passage à la vie active ?
• Dans quel secteur souhaiteriez-vous travailler dans l’avenir ?
• Souhaiteriez travailler, dans l’avenir, en milieu urbain ou rural ? (l’animateur oriente le groupe vers un approfondissement des raisons subjectives et objectives de leurs choix)
• Quelles sont, à votre avis, les causes qui expliquent le phénomène de chômage parmi les jeunes de votre communauté ?
• Quel est, à votre avis, le type de formation le plus demandé sur le marché du travail ? (général, scientifique, technique, formation professionnelle, etc.)

(Si nécessaire, l’animateur explique la question, d’une manière simple et neutre, sans donner aucune proposition. En cas de blocage, l’animateur se contente de donner des exemples)
3.4 Profil travail précoce (15-19) et secteurs informels (20-29 ans)

*Question : Quelle est la principale raison qui vous a conduit au travail/ à ce type de travail ?*

**Questions de relance et d’exploration**

- Comment vous avez pris la décision de travailler à cet âge/dans ce secteur ?
- En plus des raisons économiques, y-a-t-il d’autres causes qui ont influencé votre décision ? Quel est leurs importances ?
- Quelles sont les personnes qui vous ont aidé/ poussé à travailler ?
- Comment vous avez cherché/ trouvé le travail que vous faites actuellement ?
- Quels changements a introduit le travail dans votre vie (positifs /négatifs)
- Est-ce que vous êtes satisfaits/ insatisfaits de votre travail actuel ? Pourquoi ?
- Quelle décision allez-vous prendre si on vous propose d’immigrer à l’étranger ? Quels sont les avantages et les inconvénients ?
- Si vous comptez changer de travail dans le futur, quel est le secteur qui vous intéresse le plus ?
- Souhaitez-vous travailler, dans l’avenir, en milieu urbain ou rural ? (l’animateur oriente le groupe vers un approfondissement des raisons subjectives et objectives de leurs choix)
- Quelles sont les sources de l’information ou les institutions qui peuvent aider à préparer votre avenir professionnel ?
- Quel est, à votre avis, le revenu mensuel moyen susceptible de satisfaire vos besoins, en tant que jeunes ?
- Quel sont actuellement, à votre avis, les principaux atouts que le jeune doit avoir pour trouver un travail à la mesure de ses ambitions ? (Diplômes, fortune, soutien familial, origine ethnique, sexe, clientélisme, corruption, etc.)

*(Si nécessaire, l’animateur explique la question, d’une manière simple et neutre, sans donner aucune proposition. En cas de blocage, l’animateur se contente de donner des exemples)*

- Quelle décision allez-vous prendre si on vous propose d’immigrer à l’étranger ? Quels sont les avantages et les inconvénients ?

3.5 Profil jeunes déscolarisés/ Non scolarisés

*Question : Quelles sont, à votre avis, les véritables causes qui empêchent les jeunes de poursuivre leur scolarité ?*

**Questions d’exploration et de relance :**

- En plus des raisons économiques, y-a-t-il d’autres causes qui ont influencé votre décision ? Quel est son importance ?
- Qui est, selon vous, le principal responsable de votre situation actuelle ? (Le jeune lui-même, l’école, l’État, la famille, les pairs, etc.)
- Quels sont, selon vous, les possibilités de réinsertion ou de travail offertes aux jeunes de votre âge et situation ?
- Souhaitez-vous travailler, dans l’avenir, en milieu urbain ou rural ? (l’animateur oriente le groupe vers un approfondissement des raisons subjectives et objectives de leurs choix)
- Quelle décision allez-vous prendre si on vous propose d’immigrer à l’étranger ? Quels sont les avantages et les inconvénients ?
- Si vous êtes à la recherche d’un travail ou d’une formation, qui vous oriente ou conseile ?
- Quelles sont les institutions qui doivent vous aider à réintégrer l’école / l’alphabétisation ?
- Quelles sont, selon vous les principales sources d’information sur la formation, la réinsertion et le travail ?
- Quel est, à votre avis, le revenu mensuel moyen susceptible de satisfaire vos besoins, en tant que jeunes ?
- Quel sont actuellement, à votre avis, les principaux atouts que le jeune doit avoir pour trouver un travail à la mesure de ses ambitions ? (Diplômes, fortune, soutien familial, origine ethnique, sexe, clientélisme, corruption, etc.)
(Si nécessaire, l’animateur explique la question, d’une manière simple et neutre, sans donner aucune proposition. En cas de blocage, l’animateur se contente de donner des exemples)

- Quelle décision allez-vous prendre si on vous propose d’immigrer à l’étranger ? Quels sont les avantages et les inconvénients ?

**3.6 Profil pensionnaires des orphelinats, maisons de sauvegarde/jeunes handicapés**

*Question : Comment préparez-vous votre avenir après avoir quitté cet établissement ?*

*Questions d’exploration et de relance :*

- Quel est, à votre avis, le rôle que peut jouer le travail dans la vie des jeunes en difficulté ?
- Quelles sont les principales difficultés que rencontrent habituellement les anciens pensionnaires ?
- Quelles sont, à votre avis, les principales causes de récidive des jeunes ? (selon l’ordre d’importance)
- Quel rôle joue cette institution dans votre préparation à l’intégration dans la société ?
- Quelles sont vos sources d’information sur les programmes et les possibilités de réinsertion ?
- Quelles sont les institutions et les associations qui s’intéressent aux problèmes spécifiques des jeunes en conflit avec la loi ?
- Quel est, à votre avis, le revenu mensuel moyen susceptible de satisfaire vos besoins, en tant que jeunes ?
- Souhaiteriez travailler, dans l’avenir, en milieu urbain ou rural ? (l’animateur oriente le groupe vers un approfondissement des raisons subjectives et objectives de leurs choix) ;
- Quelle décision allez-vous prendre si on vous propose d’immigrer à l’étranger ? Quels sont les avantages et les inconvénients ?
- Quel sont actuellement, à votre avis, les principaux atouts que le jeune doit avoir pour trouver un travail à la mesure de ses ambitions ? (Diplômes, fortune, soutien familial, origine ethnique, sexe, clientélisme, corruption, etc.)

(Si nécessaire, l’animateur explique la question, d’une manière simple et neutre, sans donner aucune proposition. En cas de blocage, l’animateur se contente de donner des exemples)

**3.7 Profil des jeunes membres des associations**

*Question : Quelles sont, à votre avis, les véritables raisons de l’actuel crise de l’emploi des jeunes ?*

*Questions d’exploration et de relance :*

- Quelle est votre définition des jeunes ?
- Quelles sont, à votre avis, les catégories de jeunes les plus exclues du marché de travail ? Pourquoi
- Quelle est la part de responsabilité des jeunes eux-mêmes ?
- Quels sont les niveaux et les types de formation que vous jugez capables de répondre aux demandes du marché de travail ?
- Quelle place occupe, à votre avis, le projet migratoire chez les jeunes de cette région/localité ?
- Que pensez-vous des initiatives de l’auto-emploi ?
- Quels rôles les associations peuvent jouer pour l’intégration des jeunes et pour le développement en général ?
- Qu’est-ce qui caractérise, à votre avis, les jeunes membres des associations face aux problèmes d’intégration économique et sociale des jeunes (donner des exemples précis)
- On dit souvent que les jeunes marocains qu’une faible importance à la participation des activités collectives. Est-ce que c’est aussi le cas pour le secteur associatif ?
- Quels sont les moyens et les structures adéquats à soutenir ou à mettre en place pour encourager l’action associative par les jeunes et pour eux ?
- Quel constat faites-vous de l’action associative au profit des jeunes dans votre région/localité,
- Est-ce que votre association a les ressources (humaines, financières, et en infrastructures) suffisantes pour réaliser ses objectifs ? Si non, pourquoi ? Quelle sont vos besoins spécifiques ?
- Avez-vous des jeunes parmi les membres de votre bureau ? Quelle pourcentage des hommes/filles ? Quelles sont les qualifications ou les expériences de votre staff ?
- Comment évaluez-vous l’efficacité des vos actions associatives?
- Y-a-t-il d’autres associations ou organisation qui assurent, localement, un bon encadrement des jeunes et répondent réellement à leurs attentes ? Si oui, quelles sont ces ONG ?

**[L’objectif est de comprendre la dynamique collaboration/compétition entre les ONG locales]**

- En dehors des associations, quelles sont, selon vous, les institutions et les organismes qui s’intéressent aux problèmes spécifiques aux jeunes marocains en général et de votre localité en particulier ?
- Quel sont actuellement, à votre vis-à-vis les principaux atouts que le jeune doit avoir pour trouver un travail à la mesure de ses ambitions ? (Diplômes, fortune, soutien familial, origine ethnique, sexe, clientélisme, corruption, etc.)

(Si nécessaire, l’animateur explique la question, d’une manière simple et neutre, sans donner aucune proposition. En cas de blocage, l’animateur se contente de donner des exemples)

### Troisième axe (30 minutes)

#### 4. L’intégration/ l’exclusion sociale et la participation communautaire

**Les associations**

*Question : Quel est, selon vous, le rôle que jouent les ONG actuellement chez les jeunes de votre âge ?*  
*Question d’exploration et de relance:*
- Quel est, selon vous, le rôle des associations et son importance?
- Quel sont les barrières ou obstacles qui empêchent des jeunes comme vous de rejoindre les associations ?
- Quelle influence les jeunes sur le processus décisionnel dans les associations qui s’occupent de la jeunesse ? Pourriez-vous donner quelques exemples d’associations qui ont des jeunes entre les décideurs principaux et qui sont ouvertes aux jeunes comme décideurs?
- Quelles sont, à votre connaissance, les actions menées par des associations de votre région/localité au profit des jeunes de même âge et situation que vous ?
- Quel est le type d’association jugez-vous plus proches de vos préoccupations en tant que jeunes ? (Associations de développement, culturelles, sportives, religieuses, thématiques, juridiques, droits de l’homme, etc.)

**La participation des jeunes au niveau local**

- Quelles sont les meilleurs moyens pour consulter les jeunes dans votre communauté’ par rapport aux décisions qui lui concernent ? Sur quels domaines publics voudrez-vous être consultés ?
- Quels rôles jouent, à votre avis, les jeunes dans les décisions qui lui concernent au niveau local ? (institutions à caractère éducatif, social, communes, etc.)

**Recommandations des jeunes (30 minutes)**

*Question : Quelles sont les recommandations ou les suggestions que vous aimeriez formuler à propos des questions que nous avons débattues ?*  
- Recommandations à l’adresse de l’institution ou à la catégorie de jeunes concernée
- Recommandations à l’adresse des différents départements et institutions
- Recommandations relatives à l’intégration et à la participation des jeunes.

### Synthèse et conclusion (5 minutes).

Document annexe 2 : Projet guide d’entretien institutionnel (en vue d’obtenir le profil de l’institution)

(Question-clés)
1. Introduction (Présentation de la problématique et des objectifs de l’étude)
2. Quelle est, selon vous, la mission de cette institution ?
3. Pouvez-vous nous expliquer son organisation et fonctionnement ?
4. Quel public cible —t-elle prioritairement ?
5. Quel est le mode de recrutement / d’adhésion des bénéficiaires ?
6. Quel est le profil moyen des bénéficiaires ?
7. Quelles sont, à votre avis, les véritables attentes des jeunes (15-18 et 19-20 ans) par rapport aux prestations de l’institution ?
8. Dans quelle mesure estimez-vous que l’institution répond à ces attentes ?
9. Quels sont, à votre avis, les aspects de l’exclusion des jeunes dans cette localité ?
10. Quelles sont les causes ?
11. Quelles solutions proposez-vous, de point de vue de votre institution ?
12. Quels sont les problèmes rencontrés dans l’accomplissement de votre mission, (par ordre d’importance) et quelles solutions proposez-vous ?
13. Disposez-vous des ressources adéquates? Si non, quelles sont les priorités ?
14. Comment voyez-vous le véritable rôle de votre institution dans l’intégration des jeunes et quels sont les moyens nécessaires.
15. Quelles sont les associations / organisations qui font du bon travail, localement auprès des jeunes ?
16. Quelles sont, à votre avis, les points forts et les points faibles de cette institution aux niveaux local et national ?
17. Quelles sont vos recommandation ou suggestions pour une meilleure prise en charge institutionnelle des jeunes (15-18 et 19-20 ans)
18. Y-a-t-il des données ou des documents que vous pouvez nous communiquer pour mieux comprendre les programmes de votre institution ?

Document annexe 3 : Fiche de collecte des données services jeunesse

(L’ANNÉE EST 2008, À MOINS QUE CELA NE SOIT EXPLICITEMENT REQUIS AUTREMENT)

I. IDENTIFICATION DU PROGRAMME/ PROJET

1.1. Nom du Programme/.................................................................
    Année de commencement: .........................................................
    Année prévue pour la fin: .........................................................

1.2 Institution / Unité responsable: ....................................................
    Formulation du Programme/ Projet: ...........................................
    Programmation Annuelle: ...........................................................
    Exécution: ...........................................................
    Suivi, évaluation et contrôle: ...........................................................

1.3 Description de l’Origine du Programme/ Projet:

1.4 Fondements Légaux du Programme/ Projet:

II. OBJECTIFS et DESCRIPTION

2.1 Objectifs:
Objectif Général:

Objectifs Spécifiques:

- 22 -
2.2 Localisation (nom des provinces, couverture nationale ou urbain, péri-urbain, rural):
................................................................................................................................................
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2.3 Description des bénéfices (services, produits) qui sont fournis:
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................................................................................................................................................
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III. ADMINISTRATION DU PROGRAMME/PROJET

3.1 Mécanisme (comment) de fourniture des bénéfices:
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3.3 Activités de suivi (évaluation) et contrôle:
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3.4 Instances/ Mécanismes de coordination avec des autres entités publiques ou privées:
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3.5 Instances/ Mécanismes de participation de la communauté:
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3.6 Personnel qui travaille dans le Programme/L’institution:
Nombre de personnels:
Administratif…………
Cadres…………………..
Autres…………………..

Caractéristiques du personnel :
Age moyen
Qualification et expériences:
Proportion de femmes:

3.7 Quels sont les principaux problèmes rencontrés par le projet/institution?
................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................
................................................................................................................................................
IV. BENEFICIAIRES DU PROGRAMME/ PROJET

4.1 Population Cible (Potentielle ou théorique)

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4.2 Bénéficiaires Réels:

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sexe/âge (nombre de personnes)</td>
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<td>2 Garçons</td>
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<td>3. Filles</td>
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<tr>
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<td>5. Filles</td>
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4.3 Degré de satisfaction des bénéficiaires ?

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4.4 Durée moyenne de permanence des Bénéficiaires dans le programme

Nombre de mois…………………..
Critère de sortie/réussite des bénéficiaires ………………

V. CIBLAGE (En théorie et ce qui se fait en pratique)

5.1 Critères de ciblage utilisés

Distribution géographique des bénéfices/services (Ex. Carte de pauvreté):

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Pour la sélection des bénéficiaires (Ex. Auto sélection, évaluation socio-économique):

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Sélection des bénéficiaires:

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VI. Eléments qui Assurent la Durabilité du Programme/ Projet après son exécution

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VII. Contact

Nom de la personne interviewée (au cas où): ...........................................................
Institution ................................................................................................................
Position: ................................................................................................................
Téléphone: ...............................................................................................................
E-mail: .....................................................................................................................
Date:  ......................................................................................................................
# Annex 3: Table of selected programs

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ministère/Organisme</th>
<th>Structure/Programme</th>
<th>Gestion</th>
<th>Groupe-cible</th>
<th>Activités et actions</th>
<th>Age min.</th>
<th>Age max</th>
<th>Nbre structures</th>
<th>Nbre bénéf.</th>
<th>Centres à évaluer</th>
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<td>Jeunes ruraux déjà travaillant en agriculture</td>
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<td>Prestations socio-éducatives et sociales</td>
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<td><strong>ONG THÉMATIQUES</strong></td>
<td>Heure Joyeuse</td>
<td>Casablanca</td>
<td>Enfants de la rue</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>ENTRAIDE NATIONALE</strong></td>
<td>Etablissements de protection sociale</td>
<td>National/provincial</td>
<td>Enfants scolarisés 6-18 ans (orphelins, issus de familles pauvres, sans soutien familial...)</td>
<td>Prise en charge et renforcement des capacités scolaires et sociales : • Hébergement et alimentation ; • Programmes socioéducatifs ; • Soins, habillement, hygiène…</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1296</td>
<td>77,865</td>
<td>Tanger Centre Assadaka</td>
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<tr>
<td>Formation qualifiante (CEF)</td>
<td>National/provincial</td>
<td>• Les femmes et jeunes filles analphabètes issues des couches sociales démunies. • Les jeunes filles et garçons déscolarisés ou non scolarisés issus des familles nécessiteuses.</td>
<td>• L’accueil, l’écoute et l’orientation ;l’apprentissage de métiers de production et de services : coupe couture traditionnelle, broderie, tricotage, informatique, arts ménagers, coiffure et esthétique, guides de montagnes, éducatrices dans le domaine de la petite enfance, peinture sur verre, peinture sur soie, décoration sur poterie, joaillerie…); • Les cours d’alphabétisation ; • Des séances d’éducation sanitaire, d’éducation à la citoyenneté, de renforcement des habilités de vie ; • L’accompagnement pour l’insertion socioprofessionnelle (création de microprojets, organisation sous forme d’associations et/ou de coopératives, création de Très Petite Entreprise)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1040</td>
<td>107,700</td>
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<tr>
<td>Formation Professionnelle (CFA)</td>
<td>Les Jeunes en situation difficile déscolarisés ou en rupture de scolarisation âgés de 15 ans et plus.</td>
<td>Les Jeunes en situation difficile déscolarisés ou en rupture de scolarisation âgés de 15 ans et plus.</td>
<td>Accueil et réhabilitation des jeunes en situation difficile et déscolarisés ; • Apprentissage des métiers adaptés à la capacité des différents groupes de jeunes et ce selon l’approche de formation par alternance; • Accompagnement et incubation pour faciliter l’insertion des jeunes lauréats ;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Animation et accompagnement: 1- DAR AL MOUATEN 2- Projet: Jeunes pour Jeunes 3- Projet: Sensibilisation et prévention éducative des IST/SIDA auprès des jeunes</td>
<td>National/ provincial</td>
<td>Jeunes garçons et filles défavorisés + Associations</td>
<td>1- • Ecoute, conseil et orientation ;  • Education et sensibilisation ;  • Locaux et moyens logistiques mis à la disposition du tissu associatif local (appui scolaire, aide à l’insertion, finance solidaire, etc.); Service itinérant d’éducation, d’encadrement et d’animation.  2- • Formation, sensibilisation et vulgarisation des approches et des services en matière d’encadrement psycho-social au profit des adolescents et des jeunes, y compris ceux en situation à risque.  • Elaboration de diagnostic et réalisation d’études pour évaluer le déficit en matière d’encadrement psycho social et d’identification des besoins ;  • Fourniture d’outils et de guides au personnel encadrant pour la mise en œuvre des programmes préconisés.  3- • Développement des connaissances et perceptions des jeunes des CEF et des EPS sur les IST/SIDA par la formation et la sensibilisation ;  • Intégrer les techniques de prévention éducative des IST/SIDA dans le cursus de formation par la formation des formateurs et d’éducateurs pairs ;  • Renforcer les compétences et habilités de vie des jeunes éducateurs pairs au sein des EPS pour faciliter l’accès à l’information.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>25,000</td>
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Annex 4: List of focus groups and interviews

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<th>FG</th>
<th>Interviews</th>
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<td>Grand Casablanca</td>
<td>- Centre de Sauvegarde Bennani, Casablanca</td>
<td>- Dar Al Mouaten</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Etablissement de Protection Sociale Entraide nationale, Ain Harourda</td>
<td>- Dar Al Mouaten</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Dar Al Mouaten, Casablanca</td>
<td>- Dar Al Atfal</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Foyer féminin Ain Harrouda</td>
<td>- Foyer féminin</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Travail non formel, Casablanca</td>
<td>- Dar Atfal</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Institut Sidi Mohamed de Gestion et de Commerce Agricole, Mohammedia</td>
<td>- ISTA Mohammedia</td>
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<td>- Dar Atfal, Casablanca</td>
<td>- ISTA, Mohammedia</td>
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<td>- Elèves, Maison de Jeunes, Mohammedia</td>
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<td>Fès Boulmane</td>
<td>- Chômeurs non diplômés, Fès</td>
<td>- Association des diplômés chômeurs, Section de Guigou</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Jeunes handicapés, Fès</td>
<td>- Dar Attalib, Bhalil</td>
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<td>- Centre de qualification professionnelle El Menzel</td>
<td>- Centre de Qualification Agricole, El Menzel</td>
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<td>- Diplômés chômeurs, Guigou</td>
<td>- Foyer Féminin, Sefrou</td>
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<td>- Jeunes au travail, Fès</td>
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<td>- Dar Attaliba, Sefrou</td>
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<td>- Foyer Féminin, Bhalil</td>
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<td>Tanger Tétouan</td>
<td>- Diplômé-chômeur</td>
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<td>- Maison de Jeunes</td>
<td>- Dar Atfal, Assila</td>
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<td>- ISTA Beni Kerrich</td>
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<td>- Associatif, Chaouen</td>
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<td>- Maison des Jeunes, Chaouen</td>
<td>- Association Paideia (Assadaka)</td>
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<td>- Centre de Formation Féminin (CFA), Taboula</td>
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## Annex 5: List of selected Agricultural Centers

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<th>Selected Regions</th>
<th>Agricultural Centers</th>
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<td>CQA OULED MOUMEN (Settat)</td>
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<td>CQA BIR MEZOUI</td>
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<td>MEKNES- TAFILALET ET FES-BOULEMANE</td>
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<td>ITA DE BEN KHIL(Khenifra)</td>
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<td>ITA D'ERRACHIDIA</td>
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<td>CQA BOUDERBALA (El Hajeb)</td>
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<td>LA/CQA DE AIN TAOUDATE</td>
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<td>MARRAKECH-TENSIFT HAOUZ- ET TADLA-AZILAL</td>
<td>ITA SOUHILA (Marrakech)</td>
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