1 The political and institutional context

Figure 1.

The main objective of youth work is to provide opportunities for young people to shape their own futures.

Peter Lauritzen

1.1 Introduction

Have you ever taken part in a Euro-Med youth exchange? Or maybe you have been a participant in a seminar at the Council of Europe's European Youth Centre in Budapest? Or the names of cities such as Brussels, Strasbourg or Alexandria ring a bell? Have you ever applied for a visa and waited for hours in the queue? On the television you hear that the League of Arab States had a meeting, or your country has become a member of the EU. If you are involved in international youth work, probably many of these things have happened to you. But what do they actually mean?

This chapter focuses on the institutional framework for youth work in the Euro-Mediterranean socio-political context. It is an attempt to approach the contested definitions and concepts of 'Europe' and the 'Mediterranean', and deconstruct the politically constructed concept of the 'Euro-Mediterranean' as a bilateral and/or a multilateral political relationship. Referring to the (political) nature of the relationship,

this chapter also looks at the institutional effects of Euro-Mediterranean co-operation on, and its capacity to enhance, Euro-Mediterranean youth work. To discuss Euro-Mediterranean youth work with and within the institutional framework is only one way of dealing with the problems and welfare of young people. Euro-Mediterranean youth work goes beyond the institutional and political framework established by the EU and its Mediterranean partner countries, and beyond the framework of co-operation between the EU and the Council of Europe. The Euro-Mediterranean political, social and cultural realities may be diverse, but the ultimate aim of youth work remains the same: to ensure the welfare and participation of young people.

1.2 'Common' problems of young people: a global picture

The World Youth Report 2005 of the United Nations[1] clearly states the common problems of the young[2] people in the world. The findings are very striking: there are over 200 million young people living in poverty, 130 million illiterate, 88 million unemployed and 10 million young people living with HIV/AIDS.

- The report proves that the problems faced by young people in the modern world are not specific to any single part of the world but very common, though the extent and the effects may be experienced differently in different places.

- In the world, over 200 million young people, or 18% of all young people, live on less than one dollar a day, and 515 million on less than two dollars a day, which gives an idea of the extent of youth poverty.

- Although young people receive more education compared to the past, still 113 million children are not in school; 130 million young people are illiterate; and young people still struggle for opportunities in basic and higher education.

- Young people experience increased pressure to compete in a globalising labour market, regardless of their level of education. Unemployment among young people in the world has increased to record levels, to a total of 88 million, being highest in western Asia, North Africa and sub-Saharan Africa.

- In terms of health, early pregnancy has declined in many countries; HIV/AIDS is the leading cause of mortality of young people, followed by violence and injury.

- About 10 million young people live with HIV/AIDS, mostly in Africa and Asia.

- There has been an unprecedented emergence of the use of synthetic drugs worldwide, and increased use has not been prevented by partial restrictions on the marketing of alcohol and tobacco.

- There is still a need to increase young people's involvement in decision-making processes in relation to the environment.

- Delinquency of young people continues to be perceived as a threat to society.

- In terms of leisure, young people are increasingly seeking and finding new ways to spend their free time, both out of necessity and out of interest.

- Equal access for girls and young women to higher education and labour markets continues to be a concern in some countries and negative stereotypes of women persist in the media.

- New efforts to include young people in decision making are affected by the changing patterns and structures in youth movements.

- Globalisation has had an impact on global youth employment opportunities and on migration patterns, leading to deep changes in youth culture and consumerism and to manifestations of global youth citizenship and activism.

- Information and communication technologies have presented both opportunities and challenges for young people.
- Despite the international legal frameworks to protect minors and prevent their engagement in conflict, many young people are involved in armed conflicts.
- Despite its changing structure, the family remains the main social institution where generations meet and interact. The proportion of young people in the world's total population is gradually shrinking, and youth development will increasingly be viewed for the potential benefits it can bring in terms of intergenerational relations.

1.3 Solving the problems: can youth work help?

So, young people in the world have a lot of issues, as well as problems, to deal with. This is aggravated by the transformation of the role of (welfare) states. More specifically, "the difficulty within state systems to adequately ensure global access to education and the labour market" requires youth work to increasingly overlap with the areas of social services and deal with issues such as unemployment, educational failure, marginalisation and social exclusion.[3] As Lauritzen puts it, youth work includes aspects such as education, employment, assistance and guidance, housing, mobility, criminal justice and health, as well as the more traditional areas of participation, youth politics, cultural activities, scouting, leisure and sports. Youth work belongs to the domain of 'out-of-school' education, commonly referred to as either non-formal or informal learning.[4]

Lauritzen defines the main objective of youth work as "to provide opportunities for young people to shape their own futures" through "the integration and inclusion of young people in society", as well as to enhance "the personal and social emancipation of young people from dependency and exploitation".[5] These aims include activities with, by and for young people.

The definition and nature of youth work may differ in different contexts; but the ultimate aim is still the same: to provide young people with opportunities for a better life through organised activities, self-esteem and self-determination. On the one hand, youth work can help to tackle the problems, and contribute to the welfare, of young people; on the other hand, it can work towards the creation of a youth perspective on those issues that concern all young people.

1.4 Europe: a continent

In physical geographical terms, Europe is the second smallest continent in the world (after Australia), with an area of 10.4 million sq. km, occupying nearly one fifteenth of the world's land area.[6] It is bordered on the north by the Arctic Ocean, on the west by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the south by the Mediterranean Sea, the Black Sea, and the Caspian Sea. The continent's eastern boundary runs along the eastern Ural Mountains and the Ural River. It can be divided into seven geographical regions: Central Europe (Germany, Switzerland, Liechtenstein, Austria, Poland, the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Hungary); Eastern Europe (Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Belarus, Ukraine, Moldova and Russia); Scandinavia (Iceland, Norway, Sweden, Finland and Denmark); South-eastern Europe (Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Montenegro, Albania, Macedonia, Romania, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Greece and Turkey); Southern Europe (Portugal, Spain, Andorra, Italy, Malta, San Marino and Vatican City);

the United Kingdom and Ireland; and Western Europe (France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Luxembourg and Monaco).

> **Q:** Do you agree that your country is, in fact, in the region stated above? Do you think there are any other countries that should be considered as being in Europe? Are there any countries which should not be in the above list?

In demographic terms, some 800 million people live in Europe, about one seventh of the world's population. It is the second most densely populated continent (after Asia), yet it has the lowest rate of natural population growth. In some countries, birth rates are so low that net population growth is at or near zero.[7]

In cultural terms, Europe has many language divisions, with different alphabets and dialects and nationalities. There are about 60 native languages spoken in Europe, mostly falling into the three language families of Germanic, Romance and Slavic. The population is to a great extent Christian in religion, representing the three major divisions within Christianity: Roman Catholic, Protestant and Orthodox. Communities of Muslim and Jewish people also live throughout Europe; Muslims are actually the majority in some European countries. But virtually every world religion is practised in Europe, by followers that vary significantly in numbers.

In political historical terms, Greek civilisations (up to the middle of the 2nd century BCE) and the Roman Empire (up to the 5th century CE) were influential in shaping the cultural and historical panorama of the continent. The Arab and Muslim presence in southern Europe (7th-14th century), the Renaissance (15th and 16th centuries), the Protestant Reformation (16th century), colonial expansion (15th century), the Enlightenment (17th and 18th centuries), the French Revolution and the Industrial Revolution (both late 18th century), two world wars (1914-18 and 1939-45), the fall of the Berlin Wall (1989) and the disintegration of the Soviet Union (1991) can be listed among the historical milestones which shaped the political, philosophical and geographical outlook of the continent. Thus, the institutional set-up of today's Europe is embedded in the political, historical, economic and cultural interactions and struggles that have been experienced across the continent. All those interactions have been intertwined, have always been connected to "outside Europe" and have followed a historical continuum.

The most visible ideal behind the modern international institutionalisation of European nation states in a form of unification is the prevention of armed conflict, especially after the two world wars. Not only people but also national economies and polities suffered from these devastating experiences. A process of economic and political integration aiming to unite Europe has led to the development of organisations which differ in form, structure and competences, such as the Council of Europe (CoE) and the European Union (EU). For the purposes of this publication, considering their political and institutional links with Euro-Mediterranean youth work, these two institutional structures require further attention.

The continent's oldest political organisation, founded in 1949, is the Council of Europe. At the time of publication, it has 47 members,[8] the founding members of which came together with the aim of 'achieving greater unity'. The Council was set up to defend human rights, parliamentary democracy and the rule of law, to develop continent-wide agreements to standardise member countries' social and legal practices, and to promote awareness of a European identity based on shared values and cutting across different cultures. Since 1989, its role has also included acting as a political anchor and human rights watchdog for Europe's post-Communist democracies, assisting the countries of

central and eastern Europe in carrying out and consolidating political, legal and constitutional reform in parallel with economic reform, and also providing know-how in areas such as human rights, local democracy, education, culture, youth and the environment.

It is stated the Council of Europe is the guardian of democratic security (founded on human rights, democracy and the rule of law), which has been seen as an essential pre-requisite for the continent's stability and peace. In 2005, it was concluded[9] that the principal tasks of the Council in the coming years are: promoting the common fundamental values of human rights, the rule of law and democracy; strengthening the security of European citizens, in particular by combating terrorism, organised crime and trafficking in human beings; and fostering co-operation with other international and European organisations.[10]
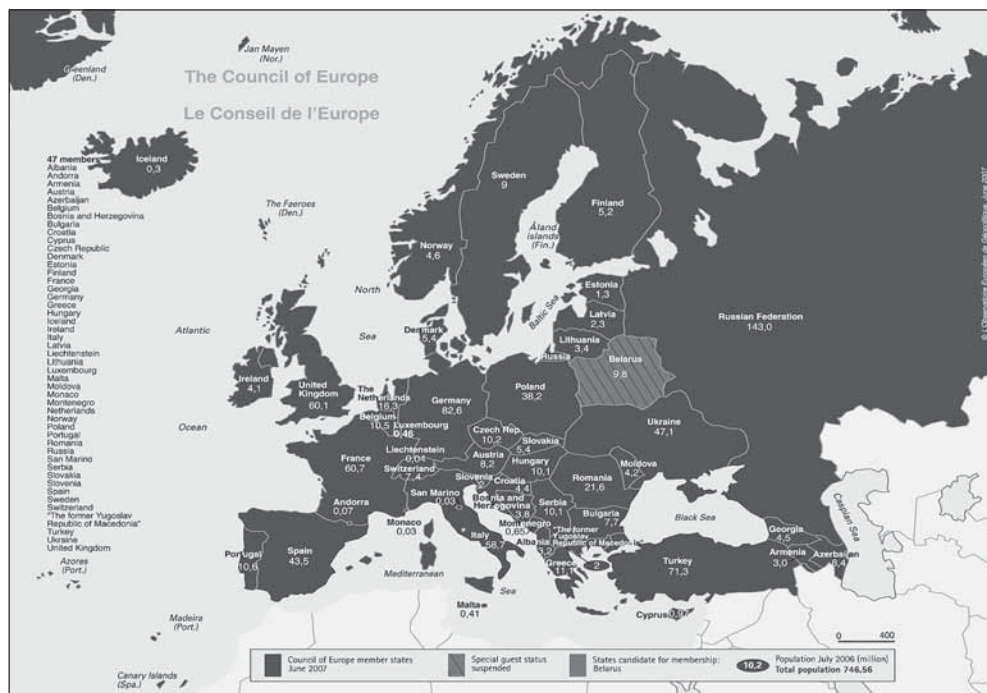

Figure 1.1: The member states of the Council of Europe

The European Union (EU),[11] on the other hand, has evolved from an economic integration project towards a political union. In its early years of its integration, six countries co-operated, mainly in the areas of trade and the economy. Integration efforts in the 1950s aimed towards a common market for coal and steel, and these were further developed in the 1960s by building the European Economic Community (EEC) based on a common market. In the 1980s, the initiative was deepened towards an economic and monetary union, alongside an increase in the number of member states. In 1993, the EEC was renamed the European Union, reflecting the increased number of its areas of, and competences in, political and economic action. The number of EU member states increased to 25 in 2004, and 27 in 2007, in parallel with the widening competences of the EU.

In 2008, the EU covered 27 countries[12] and nearly 500 million people, and it deals with a wide range of issues which directly affect people's everyday lives, including agriculture, energy, the environment, competition, taxation, customs, employment, training and youth. The EU strives to defend the shared values of Europe, such as democracy, freedom and social justice, while there are many different traditions and 23 official languages existing within the Union.[13]

Figure 1.2: The member states of the European Union

What makes the EU different from any other regional co-operation scheme is that it goes beyond a nation state or an international organisation for co-operation in any specific field of activity. It is, *sui generis*, a supranational construction. Its main characteristic is that its member states delegate some of their sovereignty to the institutions created at a supranational level so that decisions on specific matters of joint interest can be made democratically at European level. Thus, due to this supranational character, some of the decisions taken by the EU institutions are legally and equally binding on all its member states. However, this characteristic also reinforces the principle of subsidiarity, which means that in an area where there is joint competence, the Union can take action or may leave the matter to the member states.[14] In contrast, the Council of Europe is a typical international organisation with a limited set of competences and effects on its members. It is an intergovernmental platform, whereas the EU covers both intergovernmental and supranational policy-making areas with more visible direct effects on its citizens.

Q: Are the Europes of the "European Union" and the "Council of Europe" the same "Europes"?

1.5 The Mediterranean: a 'liquid continent'[15]

In geographical terms, the Mediterranean is an intercontinental (inland) sea, connected to the Atlantic Ocean to the west and surrounded by Europe to the north, Africa to the south and Asia to the east. Its coastline defines an enclosed body of water, a sort of 'liquid continent'. It covers an area of about 2.5 million sq. km.[16] To the west, the Mediterranean Sea is connected to the Atlantic Ocean by the Straits of Gibraltar; on the east it is connected to the Sea of Marmara and thence to the Black Sea, by the Dardanelles and the Bosporus respectively. The man-made Suez Canal in the southeast connects the Mediterranean Sea to the Red Sea. The largest islands in the Mediterranean Sea are Cyprus, Crete, Euboea and Rhodes in the east; Sardinia, Corsica, Sicily, and Malta in the middle; and Ibiza, Mallorca and Menorca in the west.

Figure 1.3: The countries bordering the Mediterranean Sea

The Mediterranean basin refers to the lands around the Mediterranean Sea covering portions of three continents: Europe, Asia and Africa. In the geography of the early 21st century, the nation states surrounding the Mediterranean Sea are, from 'top left', going clockwise: Spain, France, Monaco, Italy, Malta, Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, Albania, Greece and Turkey (all in Europe); Turkey, Syria, Cyprus, Lebanon, Israel, the Palestinian Authority and Egypt (all in Asia); Egypt, Libya, Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco (all in Africa). Portugal and Jordan do not have any Mediterranean coastline.

The Mediterranean Sea has been known under a number of different names, reflecting the political and strategic importance attributed to it throughout history. Originally, the term Mediterranean derives from the Latin *mediterraneus*, which means 'in the middle of [the] earth'. It was called *Mare Nostrum* ('Our Sea') by the Romans. In Turkish, it is *Akdeniz*, the 'White Sea'. In the Bible, it is referred to as the Great Sea or the Western Sea. In modern Hebrew, it is called 'the Middle Sea' (*ha-Yam ha-Tichon*), with literal equivalents being the German *Mittelmeer* and the Greek *Mesogeios*, while Arabic bridges all those meanings with 'the White Middle Standing Sea' (*al-bahr al-abyad al-mutawassit*).

Being a crossroads and a bridge between three continents, the history of the Mediterranean is the history of interaction between cultures and peoples. Its role in transport and trade for centuries developed and enriched the exchange between different cultures, civilisations, ideas and knowledge. The origin and development of the Phoenician, Egyptian, Greek, Latin, Arab and Persian cultures has always been important in understanding the development of modern civilisations up to the present day. In modern cultural terms, like Europe, the lands surrounding the Mediterranean Sea are a composite of different cultures, "each sharing some portions of a distinctive sense of being and belonging, based on a rich body of histories, traditions, philosophies and values".[17]

In terms of political history,[18] the lands surrounding the Mediterranean Sea have been a cradle for civilisations since ancient times. Around the Nile River, in Mesopotamia, in Anatolia and on Crete, formidable civilisations and empires flourished with large populations engaging in trade around the sea. The Mediterranean was also a battlefield for power. For centuries, various colonies, figures such as Alexander the Great and empires such as the Roman, Byzantine and Ottoman played important roles in the power games and domination of the Mediterranean basin. The Mediterranean became a 'Roman Lake', influential in the spread of a religion that arose in the region, Christianity. In the following centuries, another power rose in the East, that of Islam, and it spread across the region. Starting in the 11th century and lasting for centuries, Crusades became one of the major historical confrontations in the Mediterranean, with an initial motivation of 'liberating the holy land', but ending up with far-reaching political, economic and social devastation in the region.

Meanwhile, in the Mediterranean Sea, naval powers and trade from the East to Europe had grown. Between the 11th and 14th centuries, trading city states such as Genoa, Venice and Barcelona dominated the region and struggled for naval supremacy, particularly in the eastern Mediterranean. The trade route for the passage of products from Asia to Europe for centuries helped to develop coastal cities but, at the same time, this made the region an arena of continual strife. However, the establishment of a route around the Cape of Good Hope in the late 15th century and the development of ships capable of ocean travel affected the entire Mediterranean, especially in economic terms, and the Atlantic ports of western Europe started to serve as direct import points.

Colonialism is a practice of domination by nations by expanding their sovereignty and territory over other lands in the form of colonies, through exerting political and economic control over those dependent territories and indigenous populations and by exploiting their resources and labour.[19] Following the European discoveries of a sea route around Africa's southern coast in 1488 and of America in 1492, the emerging powers of Portugal, Spain, France, the Netherlands and England expanded and established colonies throughout the world.[20] By the end of the 19th century, a great deal of Africa had been colonised, as well as many other territories such as parts of the Middle East, India and east Asia.

The effects of domination on the colonised territories were not only political and economic – for example, in the creation of new governing systems, the appointment of governors from the colonising nations, the subordination of indigenous peoples or the exploitation of colonised territories through use of their natural resources and slavery – they were also social and cultural. Disruptions of existing social and cultural systems as a result of colonialism occurred in various forms. These included the introduction of ideas of cultural superiority and racism, the denigration of local cultural

heritage with efforts to replace it with that of the colonising culture and the colonising language, and the setting up of parameters of "acceptable" cultural behaviour and a sense of cultural identity, which operated under the value system of the colonising culture.

Between the first and second world wars, most colonial systems were politically unstable as a result of drives towards independence. The Russian Revolution, various nationalistic movements and the process of economic modernisation all helped to erode the dominance of the colonial powers. From 1945 on, decolonisation – which refers to the process of the colonial power ceding independence – accelerated rapidly, sometimes through peaceful negotiation and sometimes through violent revolt by the native population. Among others, India and Pakistan were granted independence from Britain in 1947, followed by Britain's African colonies after 1956. Cyprus and Malta became independent in the 1960s. Britain pulled out of the Persian Gulf in 1971. France's decolonisation process in the Mediterranean was less peaceful, marked by conflicts in Morocco, Tunisia and, especially, Algeria. Belgium, Portugal and the Netherlands separated themselves from most of their overseas possessions during the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s.[21]

The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 gave renewed importance to the Mediterranean on the route to the East. In the Cold War era, from the mid-1940s to the 1990s, the strategic importance of the region was reiterated, especially as a part of the struggle between the United States of America and the Soviet Union. The establishment of the state of Israel and the start of a series of Arab-Israeli confrontations also date back to that period. After the 1990s, the tension increased in the region, which was to an extent related to social issues such as population growth, unemployment and migration, but also to old political, religious or ethnic conflicts such as the Arab-Palestinian-Israeli conflicts, the Cyprus disputes, the disintegration of Yugoslavia and wars in the Balkans. The region still has battlefields as a result of the Gulf War, the war in Iraq and events like September 11.

This brief look at the political history of the Mediterranean shows that its heterogeneous characteristics, reflected by a wide variety of cultures, political systems, socio-economic structures and levels of development, have made the region vulnerable to external influences, power struggles and internal tensions.[22]

The institutional set-up of the Mediterranean is different from that of Europe. One reason is that the Mediterranean countries are also African, European and Asian countries, which makes it difficult to politically define "one" Mediterranean. Additionally, if the Mediterranean countries geopolitically located in Europe are excluded, the countries around the Mediterranean are Arab countries, with two exceptions: Turkey and Israel.[23] Thus, it is also not possible to cover the whole Mediterranean in one Arab or Islamic institution, neither in political nor in cultural terms. This is why the Mediterranean is not "unified", even if in the Middle Eastern and northern African part of the Mediterranean there have been different attempts at unification, mostly on the basis of religious, cultural and geopolitical affinities.

The League of Arab States,[24] also known as the Arab League, is a regional organisation of Arab states, which was formed in Cairo in 1945. It has primarily political aims but its membership is based on culture rather than location,[25] going beyond the Mediterranean coasts with 22 member states.[26] The League covers some 300 million people over an area of about 13.5 million sq. km.[27] The general aim of the League is to strengthen and co-ordinate the political, cultural, economic and social programmes of its members, and to mediate disputes among them, or between them and third parties, forbidding

the use of force to settle disputes among members. The constitution of the League provides co-ordination among the signatory nations on education, finance, law, trade and foreign policy. Each member, regardless of its size, has one vote on the League Council and decisions in the Council are binding only for those countries voting in favour of it.

Among the most important activities of the Arab League have been its attempts to co-ordinate Arab economic life: the Arab Telecommunications Union (1953), the Arab Postal Union (1954) and the Arab Development Bank (1959).[28] From time to time, political unity among members of the League has been weakened by internal disagreement on political issues such as the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait in 1990[29] and issues concerning Israel and the Palestinians.[30] The Arab League resembles the Council of Europe in the sense that it has primarily political aims, but differs from it in terms of membership and purpose.

The Arab League established an Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization (ALECSO)[31] in 1970. Based in Tunisia, ALECSO is a specialised Arab organisation, whose primary responsibility is the promotion and co-ordination of educational, cultural and scientific activities at the regional and national levels in the Arab world.[32] In addition, ALECSO aims to develop Arab human resources, and educational, scientific and communication standards within the Arab world; to promote Arabic/Islamic culture and the Arabic language while preserving, restoring and safeguarding Arabic/ Islamic heritage in the fields of manuscripts, antiquities and historical sites through various publications.

Another relevant organisation for the Islamic sector of the Mediterranean is the Organisation of the Islamic Conference (OIC),[33] an inter-governmental organisation, which covers 57 states[34] from all over the world. The OIC was established in 1969 at the first meeting of the leaders of the Islamic world by states which "decided to pool their resources together, combine their efforts and speak with one voice to safeguard the interest and ensure the progress and well-being of their peoples and those of other Muslims in the world".[35] The Islamic Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (ISESCO)[36] was set up within the framework of the OIC as a specialised institution in 1979 and its founding conference was held in 1982. There are 51 member states[37] in ISESCO and its headquarters are in Rabat, Morocco. The objectives of ISESCO[38] are to strengthen and promote co-operation among member states and consolidate co-operation in the fields of education, science, culture and communication.

The African Union[39] (AU) is an international organisation with 53 member states,[40] covering the whole African continent and its Mediterranean border countries. On 9 September 1999, the Heads of State and Government of the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) issued the Sirte Declaration calling for the establishment of an African Union, with a view "to accelerating the process of integration in the continent to en-able it to play its rightful role in the global economy while addressing multifaceted social, economic and political problems compounded as they are by certain negative aspects of globalisation". The Constitutive Act of the AU was adopted in 2000 at the Lome Summit in Togo and came into force in 2001. Following the objectives of the OAU (namely, elimination of the negative effects of colonisation and apartheid in the continent, promotion of unity and solidarity among African states, and intensification of co-operation for the development for Africa), the vision of the AU is summarised in the statement that the AU is Africa's premier institution and principal organisation for the promotion of the accelerated socio-economic integration of the continent.

1.6 What makes Europe and the Mediterranean into 'Euro-Mediterranean'?

The attempt to define Europe and the Mediterranean above shows that the borders are often drawn along political, economic and other lines, such as culture or religion: "different definitions and different criteria often produce different regions".[41] Thus, one should not be surprised to realise that one person's Europe is not identical to another's, and that what one person understands by 'Mediterranean' is different from what another person means. Especially when working with multifaceted realities and contested definitions, it is not surprising that different categorisations are made in terms of geographical and cultural attributes; and different realities are emphasised in different definitions. If it is about the mental maps and imagined spaces that ultimately define communities and political regions, any divide such as 'the north and the south' or 'the West and the Orient' is also mental.[42] Politically, the institutional set-ups mentioned above are the most current reflections of this reality. It is even more likely that, in everyday life, those different definitions are reproduced through (mis)perceptions and prejudices, especially with the help of such tools as the media.

> **Q: In which group does your national football team play the preliminary matches for the FIFA World Cups?** [43] **Do you know why your country is in that group?**

There has always been an interaction among the lands surrounding the Mediterranean Sea. The form of the interactions has changed because of historical and political conjunctures and socially and politically constructed perceptions and realities – such as crusades, trade, colonialism, security considerations and migration, to mention just a few.

In the modern world, however, the key to understanding what makes Europe and the Mediterranean into "Euro-Mediterranean" is its political nature. What is referred to as Europe and the Mediterranean is much broader than the Euro-Mediterranean as a set of political, economic and social entities. Europe is not just the southern part that has a Mediterranean coastline; nor is the Mediterranean a geographically defined region. Europe also means the northern, western and eastern parts of the continent, which have been different in terms of cultural practices, economic experiences and political/policy preferences. In addition, the Mediterranean encompasses at least two international regions – its north-western sector and the south-eastern sector (the Middle East) – and three sub-regional groupings, namely southern Europe, the Mashreq[44] and the Maghreb.[45] All these categories are elastic and political constructions, and thus any theoretical framework of north–south relations underestimates the realities of both north–north and south–south frictions.[46]

Therefore, what is meant by Euro-Mediterranean youth work is a multiplicity of realities shaped by different cultural backgrounds, including the religious ones, on the one hand; and socially and politically constructed perceptions and value judgements on the other. The relation and the tensions between those realities and perceptions regarding the 'Euro-Mediterranean', together with the welfare of the young people living in such a specified geography, should be the basis for youth work in the Euro-Mediterranean context. It is important to reiterate that youth work is the subject, while Euro-Mediterranean is a defining characteristic of it.

➜ 1.6.1 The Euro-Mediterranean Partnership: the Barcelona process[47]

The Mediterranean space has always been a stage for economic, social, and human exchanges among the countries of the European Union and the southern Mediterranean. Since its foundation, the EU has placed relations with the non-member Mediterranean countries on its agenda. Historical links, old colonial ties, the amount of trade, population movements and cultural exchanges have consistently brought different parts of the Mediterranean together in different but evolving political and institutional frameworks.

Between 1962 and 1972, the European Community signed bilateral agreements with most of the Mediterranean countries,[48] agreements which were independent and reflected similar principles to former colonial ties between the Community and the Mediterranean states.[49] The insufficiency of the bilateral agreements led the European Community to prepare a Global Mediterranean Policy (GMP), with the aim of promoting close trade and financial relations between the Community and the Mediterranean countries.[50] The GMP can be seen as an important change from the Community's bilateral relations with countries of the region to multilateral relations, in which the Mediterranean basin is treated as a single region.[51] However, there were no significant developments within this framework in the early 1980s, partly due to economic and political conjunctures caused by the oil crisis of 1973-74 and the Arab-Israeli war in 1973. A new framework for relations was prepared by the European Community in 1989 and new protocols were signed with the Mediterranean countries, targeting the launch of the Renovated Mediterranean Policy (RMP). The aims of the RMP were to facilitate the creation of a prosperity zone in the region and to strengthen the process of democracy and regional co-operation among Mediterranean countries.[52]

In the 1990s, the Mediterranean was also a focus of EU foreign policy because of the region's new geopolitical importance arising from the new members from southern Europe in the 1980s. By the time of the Barcelona Conference (1995), there was consensus between the north and south of the EU against what was commonly perceived as a threat from the Mediterranean, stemming from migration issues and religious extremism. The EU and Mediterranean Foreign Ministers' gathering in Barcelona on 27-28 November 1995 marked the start of a "partnership" between the EU and 12 Mediterranean partner countries, which has been a broad framework of political, economic and social relations between the member states of the European Union and the Mediterranean partner countries.[53] The Barcelona Declaration at that point had 15 EU member states and 12 Mediterranean states: Algeria, Cyprus, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Malta, Morocco, the Palestinian Authority, Syria, Tunisia and Turkey. With the EU enlargement on 1 May 2004, two Mediterranean partners (Cyprus and Malta) changed their status by becoming EU member states. In 2008, the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership comprised 37 members: 27 EU member states and 10 Mediterranean partners. Libya has observer status.

> **Q: Can you think of any countries which have a Mediterranean coastline but which have not been directly involved in the Barcelona process? Or vice versa? Why might this be?**

The Barcelona Declaration[54] expressed the three main objectives of the Partnership:

- Establishing a common Euro-Mediterranean area of peace and stability based on fundamental principles including respect for human rights and democracy, through the reinforcement of political and security dialogue (Political and Security Chapter);

- Creating an area of shared prosperity through the progressive establishment of a free-trade area between the EU and its Partners, and among the Mediterranean Partners themselves, accompanied by substantial EU financial support for economic transition in the Partner countries and for the social and economic consequences of this reform process (Economic and Financial Chapter); and,

- Developing human resources, promoting understanding between cultures and rapprochement of the peoples in the Euro-Mediterranean region through a social, cultural and human partnership aimed at encouraging understanding between cultures and exchanges between flourishing civil societies (Social, Cultural and Human Chapter).

The Euro-Mediterranean Partnership has two complementary dimensions. The European Union carries out a number of activities bilaterally with each country. The regional dimension refers to multilateral relations and regional co-operation, designed to support and complement the bilateral actions and dialogue. Regional dialogue also covers the political, economic and cultural fields (regional co-operation). It has a strategic impact as it deals with problems common to many Mediterranean partners while it emphasises national complementarities.

The MEDA programme is the principal financial instrument of the EU for the implementation of the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership. It offers technical and financial support to accompany the reform of economic and social structures in the Mediterranean partners through funds dedicated to co-operation programmes, projects and other supporting activities.

➔ 1.6.2 The Euro-Mediterranean Partnership: a shared vision or imposed co-operation?[55]

Euro-Mediterranean politics have always been determined by international, regional and domestic dynamics. Thus, it will be very misleading to take the Euro-Mediterranean as an entity by itself. Any analysis of it must be considered in relation to greater global and inter-regional influences and relationships. At the global level, the terror attacks of 11 September 2001, the involvement of the United States of America (USA) in the Middle East as a hegemonic power (based on the so-called idea of preventive war) and a divide of 'the West versus Islam' have put large obstacles in the way of the Barcelona process.[56] In the regional context, the Israeli-Palestinian conflict also has great implications in relation to the Arab countries, the EU and the USA. Regional developments such as the change of political elites in some of the Mediterranean countries, but also the evolution of a unilateral European Security and Defence Policy and the process of EU enlargement, have had a decisive impact on the evolution of politics in the Mediterranean too.[57] It has been suggested that most of these developments have been disadvantageous to the political and socio-economic processes that had started to prosper in the aftermath of the cold war.[58]

Figure 1.4: The countries of the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership

In such a global and inter-regional context, the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership has become of interest to academics, leading many scholars to closely and critically monitor the major challenges and opportunities that the Partnership has created. In general, these scholars could be split into two camps, optimists and pessimists.

Some of the optimist camp claim that the Barcelona process and the agreements signed consist of innovative structural and functional elements for inter-regional co-operation, such as the three-basket approach (the three chapters of the Partnership). It is argued that, contrary to previous European approaches, Euro-Mediterranean relations after 1995 are not only based on lasting multilateralism but also on reciprocity, political dialogue, gradual (albeit controlled) politico-economic liberalisation, respect for diversity and political pluralism.[59] In terms of economic conditions, it is argued that, as the partner countries restructure and liberalise, foreign and domestic investment will fuel new industries and replace lost employment; productivity and investment will be affected,[60] and investment growth would lead to job creation and a rise in the standard of living.[61] Such an economic improvement is expected to reinforce the stability of the region and in turn the stability of the EU.

The pessimists focus on the limited achievements of the process and on the challenges that have come from both the international context and Partnership's own development. One weakness of the Partnership is seen as the lack of trans-Atlantic co-ordination and common understanding in dealing with regions to the south of Europe[62] and the lack of balance between its participants.[63] This refers to an asymmetry between the EU and the Mediterranean countries, so-called North and South, in institutional terms. The EU is a clearly defined actor but the Mediterranean is notable for the lack of

institutionalised regional groupings.[64] All of the partnership agreements in existence involve two signatories: the EU acting as a single entity on behalf of its member states and an individual Mediterranean partner country acting on its own behalf.[65] The issue of asymmetry is linked to the idea that the Partnership is directed by European institutions and the southern partners lack sufficient influence in the decision-making process.[66]

In addition, the level of South–South integration in the Mediterranean in terms of political and security co-operation is seen as weak.[67] This criticism is also valid for economic co-operation. Moreover, it is feared that the shock of economic integration with the EU will have a devastating rather than a renewing effect on the economies of the Mediterranean, because economic liberalisation will expose local industries to a degree of competition that they will be totally unable to cope with; and it is feared that the withdrawal of the state from the economy may reduce private-sector competitiveness rather than strengthen it.[68] The MEDA programmes and funds which help to ease the process of transition in the Mediterranean partner countries are perceived as a positive initiative but also insufficient to compensate for the social disruption that the transition process may cause.[69]

Scholars have also pointed out some other challenges: Western and European co-operation with eastern Europe is more rapid than that with the Mediterranean;[70] there is mutual mistrust about political reform in southern Mediterranean countries; and a lack of progress is apparent,[71] in particular over human rights and democratisation.[72] In terms of security, it is argued that the collapse of the peace process in the Middle East renders security co-operation within the framework of the Barcelona process unfeasible.[73] After September 11, the challenge of the US to multilateral organisations and co-operative security is considered to be the cause of a rift within the EU over the Barcelona process.[74]

Compared to the other two, the third chapter of the Partnership (social, cultural and human affairs) has received less attention. The reason for this relative neglect is the assumption that economic liberalisation is the key to the success of the whole Barcelona process; thus the second basket is prioritised in further analysis and because of the EU's relative lack of practical experience in the cultural dimension of partnership.[75] This component of the Partnership has been more to do with decentralised co-operation and involvement of civil society in a bottom-up approach. However, large parts of this basket are considered susceptible to being developed in the same top-down manner as the other two, since cultural co-operation is considered to be mixed with security perspectives.[76] As a result, the developments in the third basket are also considered as tentative and partial, and lacking an overall strategic coherence.

The conclusions drawn from different analyses suggest that although the Partnership represents an innovative initiative for relations between Europe and the Mediterranean, the process remains rather EU-centric and masked with vagueness.[77] However, it is still too early to make final judgements on the process and its outcomes, because the process itself has a long-term perspective, which is affected by various dynamics in a diverse group of states and societies with different levels of political and economic development. The Partnership in its first decade has provided a platform for the emergence of a multilateral policy framework, with weak but promising institutional features.[78] The evaluation conducted by the EU in 2005 on the 10th anniversary of the Partnership reiterated that the "Partnership has not yet realised its full potential" and also set out a work plan for the next five years with revisited priorities on democracy and human rights, sustainable growth and better education for all, as well as a focus on South–South co-operation, working towards the creation of a free trade area by 2010.[79]

1.7 Euro-Mediterranean youth work:
an institutional framework

Young people in the Euro-Mediterranean region face common global problems. What is particular to youth work in the Euro-Mediterranean political setting is the multiplicity of factors in defining the problems of youth and in attempts at their solution. Different institutional frameworks have created, in Lauritzen's words, different "opportunities for young people to shape their own futures", to help Euro-Mediterranean youth work achieve its objectives. One of those efforts has been the Euro-Mediterranean Youth Programme, as a product of the Barcelona process between the EU and the Mediterranean partners, in which it was planned for young people to be important actors in the construction of what is called the "Euro-Mediterranean".

In the third chapter of the Barcelona process (Social, Cultural and Human Affairs), dialogue between young people from the 37 Euro-Mediterranean partners[80] was suggested to "help to foster mutual understanding among the people of the region, to integrate young people into social and professional life, and to contribute to the process of democratisation of the civil society". In that process, youth exchanges were defined as a means to prepare future generations for closer co-operation between the Euro-Mediterranean partners. Based on the experience acquired through the EU's Youth for Europe and European Voluntary Service programmes and taking account of the partners' needs, the Euro-Mediterranean Youth Programme was adopted in 1998 by the European Commission[81] and the Euro-Mediterranean Committee.

The Anna Lindh Euro-Mediterranean Foundation for Dialogue between Cultures[82]

The foundation is the first joint institution, established in 2005 by members of the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership. It is located in Alexandria, Egypt. The foundation pursues its aims through a process of intellectual, cultural and civil society exchange, mainly targeting young people and acting as a network of national networks from each Euro-Mediterranean partner. Its objectives are:

to bring people and organisations from both shores of the Mediterranean closer to each other, by spreading knowledge and cultural awareness about the area, its peoples, history and civilisations, and through practical experience of co-operation across borders;

to help bridge the gap by establishing and maintaining a close and regular dialogue aimed at eradicating xenophobia and racism; and

to promote dialogue and tolerance by furthering exchanges between members of the diverse civil societies in education, culture, science and communication.

The foundation organises activities on diverse themes such as the empowerment of women; learning, education and knowledge societies; higher education; peace; human rights; popular music; school networks; Euro-Med heritage; culture of religions; school textbooks and curricula; and educational and cultural journalism. Particular importance is attached to the development of human resources in order to strengthen intellectual co-operation and capacity building.

The existence and active involvement of civil society[83] and youth civil society organisations[84] is a central theme in the Partnership, especially in the construction and implementation of youth policy and in the development of youth work. The Partnership has aimed to ensure development of and support to Euro-Mediterranean youth work by helping to increase the quality and quantity of intercultural youth projects and youth

workers and leaders' skills. Civil society is also crucial for the involvement of youth-related matters in this Partnership. Experience shows that civic involvement in the process has been two-fold: the structure of the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership defines a specific place for the involvement, development and support of civil society and youth organisations on the one hand; and, civil society, through its organisations, provides support for the construction of a new space called the "Euro-Mediterranean" on the other.

Chronology of the involvement of young people in the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership

1992   EU support for dialogue between young people and for youth exchanges included the Mediterranean, through the EU programme Youth for Europe

1996   Launch of the EU programme European Voluntary Service for the Mediterranean partners

1996   A conference in Amman on "Youth Exchanges between the European Union and its Mediterranean partners" brought officials and NGO representatives together, for discussion on the objectives of a new co-operation scheme under the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership

1997   The second Euro-Mediterranean Conference, held in Malta in April 1997, reiterated that a programme of activities for young people should be put forward soon

1998   The first Euro-Mediterranean Youth Action Programme[85] was adopted by the European Commission and the Euro-Mediterranean Committee

2001   The second phase of the Euro-Mediterranean Youth Programme was adopted

2005   Before launching Phase III of the Euro-Med Youth Programme, the centralised mode of the programme was reviewed and preparations were made to decentralise management of it[86]

2007   The decentralised Euro-Med Youth Programme III started

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The Euro-Med Youth Programme[87] is seen as a means to enable intercultural dialogue and non-formal education activities for young people from its 37 Euro-Mediterranean partners and to prepare future generations for closer co-operation at Euro-Mediterranean level, based on mutual respect and tolerance. Based on the priorities of the YOUTH (in Action) programme,[88] it adapts them to Mediterranean needs: the fight against racism, discrimination and xenophobia; greater and easier access to life for young people with fewer opportunities; and dialogue with other cultures. Gender equality, minority rights and protection of the environment and the cultural heritage are also among the thematic priorities of the programme.

➜ 1.7.1 Euro-Med Youth Programme III

The objectives of the Euro-Med Youth Programme III[89] are:

- Fostering mutual understanding and intercultural dialogue between young people within the Euro-Mediterranean region;
- Promoting young people's active citizenship and their sense of solidarity;
- Enhancing the contribution of non-governmental youth organisations to civil society and democracy;
- Contributing to the development of youth policies.

Euro-Mediterranean youth work can consist of many different types of youth activities, such as exchanges, seminars, conferences, festivals, training events or producing publications. Institutionally speaking, the Euro-Med Youth Programme supports and provides funds for three particular types of activity: youth exchanges, voluntary service and support measures. Considering the priorities of the programme, those activities can be organised according to various different themes.

Each Euro-Med youth exchange[90] brings together groups of young people from at least four different countries and gives them a space to discuss and confront various themes. Exchanges also offer an opportunity to learn about each other's countries, cultures and languages. In youth exchanges, young people come into contact with other cultures and other realities and have an opportunity to discover and explore similarities and differences between their cultures. Such an experience is meant to help combat negative prejudices and stereotypes. Moreover, increasing positive awareness of other cultures not only has an impact on the young people themselves and their associations' activities but also on their local communities.

No obstacle

The Anatolia Folk Dance Youth Association (AFDAG), a regional NGO in Turkey, organised a youth exchange entitled No Obstacle. The project brought 29 participants to Ankara, from Austria, Italy, Algeria, Jordan and Turkey, among them 12 wheelchair users. The aims of the project were to draw attention to problems that disabled young people face in society and to encourage them to participate in the Euro-Med Youth Programme. Through workshops, intercultural learning activities, visits and the building of a ramp, the participants gained in self-confidence and tolerance towards disabled people.[91]

The Euro-Med voluntary service[92] is, in contrast, more of an individual experience for young people. It consists of an unpaid, full-time and non-profit-making transnational voluntary activity for the benefit of the community. It helps young people to become actively involved in a local, regional or national voluntary activity abroad. It aims to provide an intercultural experience built on a transnational partnership between youth organisations and the volunteer, and promotes the mobility of young people through international activities with a non-formal education dimension.

Work camps

The Association from Tunisia for Voluntary Action (ATVA) provides young Tunisian people with the opportunity to go to work camps in other countries and also hosts young foreigners in work camps in Tunisia, in a voluntary capacity. In this context, the organisation hosted six volunteers from Morocco, France and Germany to manage a social project in two centres, one in a disadvantaged area and the other helping women to integrate into civil society.[93]

Euro-Med support measures[94] are defined as instruments to help all those involved in youth work prepare and develop projects and initiatives within the context of the programme. These target youth workers, trainers, support people, mentors, project

managers, youth leaders, groups of young people, youth organisations and civil society actors in non-formal education. They cover activities such as training courses, contact-making seminars, study and feasibility visits and establishing transnational networks. The aims are to assist development of other activities of the programme, by supporting training, co-operation and information projects, and to foster and strengthen youth policies.

Youth workers together

The training course planned by Le Club de Jeunes l'Etage offered an opportunity to 24 youth workers who work with disadvantaged young people. The workers, from Germany, Belgium, Italy, France, Turkey, Jordan, Tunisia and the Palestinian Authority, were able to acquire knowledge and skills in non-formal education techniques and forum theatre, particularly street theatre. In various workshops, the participants had the opportunity to discuss and reflect upon the different forms of social exclusion existing in each country and the role of youth workers in fighting this exclusion. By working together, they learned how to set up international projects.[95]

By 2005, more than 800 projects of youth activities had received funding from the Euro-Med Youth Programme. This enabled about 20 000 young people and youth leaders to participate in international youth mobility activities in the Euro-Mediterranean area. The programme has a good overall gender balance, with 51% of participants being women, and a good geographical balance, with 48% of the participants from Mediterranean countries.[96]

Q: From your experience, do you think this number of participants represents all social groups of young people? Why? Why not?

The main target groups of the programme are young people, youth organisations, youth leaders, youth workers, project managers, non-profit-making organisations, associations and structures working in the field of youth and non-formal education. Besides the target groups, there are also institutional actors involved in the management of the programme, playing different roles in the realisation of the programme's objectives. It is important to note that these actors may change or can be replaced by new ones for political, institutional or managerial reasons.

The European Commission,[97] the Youth Unit of the Directorate General for Education and Culture (DG EAC), the Directorate General for Europe Aid Co-operation Office and the Directorate General for External Relations of the European Commission (EC) in Brussels have taken active roles in managing the Euro-Mediterranean Youth Programme on behalf of the EU.

Embassies and legations of EU member states represent the Commission in Mediterranean countries and they have appointed staff responsible for the Euro-Mediterranean programmes. They monitor the EMYUs (see below) and participate in the evaluation committees of project proposals as observers.

➜ 1.7.2 Euro-Med Youth Units and other bodies[98]

The management of the programme in Mediterranean partner countries in its first and second phases was carried out by national co-ordinators (NCs), appointed by their national authorities. They were responsible for informing young people and youth organisations about the programme, organising training events and providing support for youth organisations in submitting projects in order to ensure, in co-operation with the EC, the implementation, promotion and development of the programme in their country.

With the decentralisation of management of the programme in phase III, the Euro-Med Youth Units (EMYUs) in Mediterranean countries replaced the NCs. Founded by the authorities of the Mediterranean countries, these units are responsible for the traditional tasks of the NCs and, in addition, all managerial tasks in the different phases of the programme such as application, selection, contracting, monitoring and financial management of all the projects presented by youth organisations from the Mediterranean partner countries.

National agencies (NAs)[99] exist in all 27 EU member states to promote and implement the programme at national level. They are the primary source of information for users of the programme and act as a link between the European Commission, project promoters at national, regional and local level, and the young people themselves. Within each national agency there is a person responsible for the Euro-Med Youth Programme, who is in charge of implementation of the decentralised part of the Euro-Med programme in their country.

The Euro-Med Youth Programme for me is the realisation of the intentions of the Barcelona process!

Åsa Fahlgren , Ungdomsstyrelsen, Swedish National Agency

The Euro-Med Youth Programme, as I see it, has effects at three different levels.

At the individual level, this programme gives young people a fantastic opportunity to learn about other cultures, countries and people. The effects are deep; changing the way that young people see themselves and showing them that they have developed skills and acquired experiences that would be difficult to achieve otherwise. Also a long-lasting bond – friendship – has often emerged. They return motivated and with new skills to change or improve their situations at a local level!

At the organisational level, the programme gives youth leaders a new dimension and a new tool in their work. The organisations and youth leaders gain new skills, ideas and a better understanding of other cultures and organisations. Long-lasting relations between cultures, countries and organisations arise!

The third level, the political dimension of the programme, promoting young people and their rights, human rights, equality and gender awareness, gives rise to many interesting discussions and comparisons of the opportunities and rights of young people in different countries. This has spurred interest in learning from each others' youth policies at a governmental and administrative level – all to the advantage of young people in the whole Euro-Med region!

For me personally, participating in the Euro-Med community has been a very interesting, stimulating, developing and challenging part of my work. It's the Barcelona vision coming true!

The SALTO Euro-Med Resource Centre[100] is one of the centres for Support and Advanced Learning and Training Opportunities.[101] It acts as a support for NAs and EMYUs to

enhance Euro-Mediterranean co-operation between all actors in the field of youth work and non-formal education. It develops new training concepts and supplies thematic training courses based on the needs of NAs and EMYUs, and on the priorities of the Euro-Med Youth Programme. It compiles and disseminates educational good practice in training and youth work to create a common memory, by editing and publishing educational material (e.g. reports, videos, training tools), giving support to networks, organising and supporting events, and collecting and disseminating good practice (e.g. in newsletters and magazines).

The Euro-Med Youth Platform[102] was launched in September 2003 with a seminar attended by about 100 youth organisations from the programme countries. Its activities involve mainly promoting partnerships and networking among youth organisations in the member states and countries of the southern Mediterranean basin, the exchange of best practice and the development of new projects. Through its portal it provides useful facilities such as a database for partner search, a discussion forum, country profiles and a magazine.

The European Youth Forum[103] (YFJ) is an international youth organisation established by national youth councils and international non-governmental youth organisations to represent the interests of young people from all over Europe and to positively influence policy issues affecting young people and youth organisations. It is designed as a channel for the flow of information and opinions between young people and decision makers. Besides the European programmes, the YFJ addresses the Euro-Mediterranean region in the general framework of youth co-operation and shows a commitment to co-operation and development of democratic youth structures in the Euro-Mediterranean region.

The Euro-Med Youth Programme covers many of the activities that can be exploited in Euro-Mediterranean youth work. However, not all Euro-Mediterranean youth work is a part of the Barcelona process, either in terms of the type of activities or geographical coverage. There are also some other institutional efforts towards the development and support of youth work. The Council of Europe (CoE) also develops programmes that address issues of common concern for young people across the Mediterranean, because the CoE[104] sees the promotion of peace, co-operation and human rights in Europe as connected to the realities around Europe, in particular across the Mediterranean. Both through the North-South Centre[105] and the Directorate of Youth and Sports (in particular at the European Youth Centres and through the European Youth Foundation), the Council carries out several youth projects in global education, human rights education, intercultural dialogue and youth policy development. The Council of Europe's youth programme is based on co-management by governments and youth organisations.

All Different – All Equal is one of the Council of Europe's best-known campaigns. First launched in 1995, to fight against racism, anti-Semitism, xenophobia and intolerance, the Council ran a new European youth campaign for Diversity, Human Rights and Participation from June 2006 to September 2007. This campaign aimed at encouraging and enabling young people to participate in building peaceful societies based on diversity and inclusion, in a spirit of respect, tolerance and mutual understanding. Its activities were organised mostly by young people in partnership with public authorities and with civil society at the local, national and international levels, with a focus on involving young people at local level.

In addition to the efforts of various institutions, the partnerships between institutions increase the opportunities for Mediterranean youth work. One of these is the partnership of the Council of Europe (CoE) and the European Commission (EC). These two institutions have signed a series of agreements to co-operate in the development of a coherent strategy in the field of youth training, youth research and youth policy co-operation. A specific aspect of this partnership, Euro-Mediterranean youth co-operation has focused in the training of trainers and project leaders, human rights education, intercultural dialogue and youth policy co-operation. These activities are done in co-operation with national partners and with other organisations active in the region, such as the SALTO Euro-Med Resource Centre, the Euro-Med Youth Platform, the European Youth Forum, the Anna Lindh Foundation for Dialogue between Cultures and the League of Arab States. One of the added values of the Partnership is to bring in a pan-European dimension to the issues (i.e. including virtually all European countries) and, similarly, to take into account experiences in Euro-Med youth work that go beyond the EU's Euro-Med Youth Programme.[106]

Figure 1.5: The countries directly concerned by the Euro-Mediterranean activities of the Partnership on Youth between the Council of Europe and the European Commission.

To be able to provide educational tools and support for youth workers and trainers in Euro-Med youth work, many activities have been organised within the framework of the Partnership. Seminars and training courses, especially on issues of common concern such as citizenship, intercultural learning and dialogue, human rights and

participation in the Mediterranean, have been important outcomes of this process. The production of training and education materials has been another field of activity for the Partnership. This T-Kit on Euro-Mediterranean youth work is a product of that partnership and aims to bring together educational experiences and methods used in youth projects. This is complemented by activities in youth policy co-operation that bring together national youth policy institutions, youth researchers and youth workers to exchange approaches and projects on youth policy development, monitoring and evaluation.

1.8 Where does youth policy stand?

Conditions and challenges related to the welfare of young people are not independent of local, regional, national and international socio-economic and political conditions. In national politics, most of the time at policy level, youth issues are neglected, reduced to or involved in different contexts such as sports or formal education. However, one of the tools for ensuring young people's well-being, in order to provide them with adequate learning, ensure their inclusion and empower them to participate, is youth policy.[107]

A national youth policy presents "the philosophy, vision, formula, framework, priorities, areas and approaches … that are agreed upon through consultation with all stakeholders in youth development".[108] It determines "the place and role of youth in society, as well as the responsibility of society and public institutions towards youth".[109] Accordingly, the purpose of youth policy is "to create conditions for learning, opportunity and experience which ensure and enable young people to develop the knowledge, skills and competences to be actors of democracy and to integrate into society, in particular playing active part in both civil society and the labour market".[110] Thus, youth policy is a joint effort by society and political actors, for and with young people.

Approaches to young people in different national or political contexts play a role in the making of national youth policies. Apart from differences in the definition of youth, two opposing but interlocking images of youth are seen to have a decisive impact on the aims of national youth policies, especially in Europe: the images of "youth as a resource" and of "youth as a problem".[111] In the first image, young people represent the idealised future; they are "a receptacle of the values that each generation transmits to the next and, therefore, a societal resource which must be given the best opportunities for development". According to the second image, young people are perceived as a problem, "as a source of danger or a period of vulnerability in response to which protective measures must be devised". According to the same study, historically the image of "youth as a resource" prevails in periods of stability, economic growth and social reforms, while the image of "youth as a problem" prevails in periods of economic and political instability. These images of youth can be found in historical and current youth policies of individual countries, but the emphases and priorities given to them change over time and vary from country to country.[112]

Youth policy, as a policy, is not merely the sum of actions taken by the different sectors towards young people but rather "a conscious and structured cross-sectoral policy of

the youth field to co-operate with other sectors and co-ordinate services for youth, involving young people themselves in the process."[113] In that sense, it requires youth participation and youth empowerment through various mechanisms such as youth structures (youth NGOs and national youth councils) and through civil society, from the formulation to the implementation and evaluation of the policy. Since youth NGOs play a key role in reaching young people with programmes and services and in representing their interests, the implementation and co-ordination of a national youth policy also involves reaffirming their existence and scope of action.[114]

Young people face a broad range of dangers or challenges in the modern world. However, youth policies in many countries are only one-dimensional, focusing on one aspect of these challenges, for example in the area of education, welfare or culture.[115] A broader strategy has to be adopted covering a variety of such policy domains at national, regional and local levels as employment, formal education and training, health, housing, leisure, culture, social affairs and protection, welfare, the family and criminal justice. This approach is called 'integrated youth policy'[116] and it has been strongly encouraged by different international organisations. In this respect, some of the issues to be covered by a youth policy are education, employment, hunger, poverty, the environment, health, drug abuse, juvenile delinquency, leisure-time activities, girls and young women, and the full and effective participation of young people in the life of society and in decision making.[117]

In addition, to manage integrated youth policies across the key policy domains, mechanisms of co-ordination and intervention are seen as necessary at national and local levels. These mechanisms cover youth-policy planning, cross-sectoral co-ordination (a body or a person responsible for youth affairs), the administrative capacity to run a co-ordinated policy, a youth representation strategy (youth council/parliament, youth hearing/panel) and other means of listening to the voice of young people, for example, youth studies and surveys.[118]

In the final analysis, the formulation, making and implementation of a youth policy is in the hands of the policy makers at various policy levels, whether they be local, regional, national and/or international. However, the relation between youth policy and youth work is very close, through its organised mechanisms such as youth organisations and national youth councils. To the extent that youth policy requires the participation of young people with all their needs, problems, dynamism and potential for innovative thinking, youth work provides a space for young people to be involved and be influential in political (and institutional) mechanisms that affect their well-being.

To enforce the mechanisms for such influence and involvement is highly challenging in complex political cultures such as those of Europe and the Mediterranean. However, there are international efforts for youth-policy development and co-operation in the broader Euro-Mediterranean context, notably the focus on youth policies in Euro-Mediterranean co-operation within the framework of the Partnership on Youth by the Council of Europe and the European Commission. The reasons for developing activities on youth policy development in this framework relate to different challenges that young people face both in Europe and the Mediterranean countries, and the need to learn from each other and deepen their knowledge of the two regions because they are deeply inter-related.[119]

The Cairo round table

The international round table on Youth Policy and Research Development in the Euro-Mediterranean Co-operation Framework, held in Cairo in May 2005, identified the following common strands:[120]

1. Transition from school to work, including access to vocational training, employment and the quality of education.
2. Globalisation and social change, including knowledge-based economies, lifelong learning and mobility.
3. Lack of relevant youth data.
4. Empowerment of children and young people; promotion of youth advocacy.
5. Children and youth as a factor in development; the socio-economic scope of youth work.
6. Youth representation.
7. Migration and brain drain; impact of 'diasporas'; intercultural relations; the transfer effect and the model character as opposed to rejection of 'homecomers' and modernity.
8. Youth policy as good governance and its integration with/in other domains: health, employment, criminal justice, leisure, housing, risk behaviour, security, gender, family and religion.
9. Intercultural learning, the concept of 'tolerance of ambiguity', the refusal of one truth, the challenge of diversity, and possibilities for personal development and socialisation.
10. The eight millennium development goals and – in short – the United Nations agenda.
11. Vulnerability, the process of marginalisation, despise of the 'weak', work with gender items, minorities, disabled, drop-outs from the school and formal education systems.
12. Country processes and national action plans and how to develop a 'management by objectives' approach in youth policy development.

Cross-cutting youth policy agendas were also identified at the same meeting:

1. Identity formation and political socialisation.
2. Nation building, Europe building, regional belonging and the problem of identification.
3. Modernity and modernisation.
4. Social change and young people as actors of social change.
5. Participation.
6. Power (analyse it, work in it and with it, develop it).
7. Information, specifically youth information.

1.9 Opportunities and limits of the institutional frameworks for Euro-Mediterranean youth work

Euro-Mediterranean youth work deals with the common problems that young people face in their daily lives. These problems are summarised in the introduction of this chapter on a global scale and will be explored in depth in the following chapters.

What makes Euro-Mediterranean youth work special is its international, inter-regional and domestic features, which in fact go beyond the political and institutional definitions

of its geography. The institutional setting that it takes place in is politically constructed by a multiplicity of factors: different but co-existing cultural, social, political and economic realities of the Euro-Mediterranean space. This characteristic does not change the fact that young people suffer from various problems in both European and Mediterranean countries, but that Euro-Mediterranean youth work tries to overcome these with the various means available to it.

The Euro-Med Youth Programme of the European Union and the opportunities provided by the Partnership between the Council of Europe and the EU are only two of the possible means to be used in the practice of international youth work. They are not ends in themselves, but they provide valuable support for Euro-Mediterranean youth work. Practice and experience have shown that making use of the material resources and support provided by these institutions has helped young people to realise, discuss, question and, to some extent, overcome some of the problems that they face in their daily lives.

Maybe the most significant among these achievements is the further development of youth organisations and their place in the formation or development of national youth policies. Youth organisations, as an efficient way of getting young people organised to fight for their own rights, play an important role in enhancing the welfare of young people. This is because young people have a double relevance in the construction of the Euro-Mediterranean space: on the one hand, the success of institutional co-operation lies in young people being the dynamic element of the societies involved; and on the other hand, tackling the problems that young people face and finding successful and sustainable solutions to young people's problems form the key to success for any international co-operation.

Notes

1. United Nations (2005) *World Youth Report 2005: Young People Today, and in 2015*, Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Available at http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unyin/wyr05.htm.

2. Arriving at commonly agreed definitions of the terms "young" or "youth" is hard, because both are relatively new social constructs. For the International Youth Year in 1985, the United Nations General Assembly defined young people as those falling between the ages of 15 and 24 years inclusively and this is the basic definition used within the UN system. But if one looks more closely, the situation becomes more complicated: the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child defines "children" as people up to the age of 18; discussions in the European Union centre around the age range of 13 to 30 for eligibility to participate in the "Youth in Action" programme; if one considers the Youth and Sports Ministry of Indonesia, "youth" means all those between the ages of 18 and 40. One may just have to accept that the concept is fluid and changes depending on different perspectives and contexts. (Mark Taylor, unpublished note on the definition of youth).

3. Lauritzen, P. (2006) *Defining youth work*. Internal Working Paper, Council of Europe, Strasbourg. Available at: www.youth-partnership.net/youth-partnership/glossary.html.

4. Ibid.

5. Ibid.

6. "Europe" (2002) *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 2002 Standard Edition CD-ROM.

7. Ibid.

8. The CoE members are Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Moldova, Monaco, Montenegro, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, the Russian Federation, San Marino, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, "the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia", Turkey, Ukraine and the United Kingdom.

9. The Council of Europe's third Summit of Heads of State and Government, Warsaw, 16-17 May 2005.

10. Available at www.coe.int.

11. http://europa.eu.int, but see also Fontaine, P. (2003) *Europe in 12 Lessons*, European Commission Directorate-General for Press and Communication.

12. The EU members are Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

13. Available at http://europa.eu.int/abc/panorama/index_en.htm.

14. See http://europa.eu/scadplus/european_convention/subsidiarity_en.htm.

15. Xenakis, D. and Chryssochoou, D. (2001) *The Emerging Euro-Mediterranean System*, Manchester University Press: Manchester, p. 25.

16. Area including the Sea of Marmara, but excluding the Black Sea.

17. Xenakis, D. and Chryssochoou, D. (2004) "Organising the Mediterranean: the state of the Barcelona process", *Agora Without Frontiers*, Vol. 9, No. 4, pp. 267-287.

18. A well-known resource for the history of the Mediterranean is the classic book, written originally in French in 1949 by Fernand Braudel, *The Mediterranean and the Mediterranean world in the age of Philip II* and published by various publishers in various languages.

19. "Colonialism" in http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Colonialism and "Colonialism" in the Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy at http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/colonialism.

20. "Colonialism, Western" (2008) in *Encyclopædia Britannica.* Retrieved 28 January 2008, from Encyclopædia Britannica Online: www.britannica.com/eb/article-9106074.

21. "Colonialism", *Encyclopædia Britannica*, 1994-2002.

22. Canalioğlu, E. (2001) "The Euro-Mediterranean partnership: analysis of past, present, future relations", *Dış Politika – Foreign Policy*, Vol. 27, No. 3-4, pp. 36-52.

23. For such a statement, Malta and Cyprus as islands are 'politically' considered as part of the European continent.

24. See www.arableagueonline.org/arableague/index_en.jsp.

25. See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Arab_League.

26. The founding member states were Egypt, Syria, Lebanon, Iraq, Jordan, Saudi Arabia and Yemen. Other member states are Libya (1953); Sudan (1956); Tunisia and Morocco (1958); Kuwait (1961); Algeria (1962); Bahrain, Oman, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates (1971); Mauritania (1973); Somalia (1974); the Palestine Liberation Organisation (PLO, 1976); Djibouti (1977); and the Comoros (1993).

27. See http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/world/middle_east/country_profiles/1550797.stm.

28. *Columbia Encyclopedia*, 6th edn, 2001-05, accessible at http://www.bartleby.com/65/ar/ArabLeag.html.

29. Ibid.

30. "Arab League", *Encyclopædia Britannica*, 2005. Encyclopædia Britannica Premium Service, 24 Dec. 2005. See http://www.britannica.com/eb/article?tocId=9008144.

31. See www.alecso.org.tn.

32. See www.uis.unesco.org/ev.php?ID=5287_201&ID2=DO_TOPIC.

33. See www.oic-oci.org.

34. The OIC members are Afghanistan, Albania, Algeria, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Benin, Brunei, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Chad, Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Egypt, Gabon, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lebanon, Libya, Malaysia, the Maldives, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Oman, Pakistan, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Sudan, Suriname, Syria, Tajikistan, Togo, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Uganda, the United Arab Emirates, Uzbekistan and Yemen.

35. See www.oic-oci.org.

36. See www.isesco.org.ma.

37. In May 2004, the member states of ISESCO were Azerbaijan, Jordan, Afghanistan, the United Arab Emirates, Indonesia, Iran, Pakistan, Bahrain, Brunei Darussalam, Bangladesh, Benin, Burkina Faso, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Tajikistan, Chad, Togo, Tunisia, Algeria, Djibouti, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Suriname, Syria, Sierra Leone, Senegal, Somali, Iraq, Oman, Gabon, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Palestine, Kazakhstan, Qatar, Comoros, Kyrgyzstan, Cameroon, Cote d'Ivoire, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, the Maldives, Mali, Malaysia, Egypt, Morocco, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria and Yemen.

38. See www.isesco.org.ma/English/historique.html.

39. See www.africa-union.org.

40. The AU members are Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, the Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the Republic of the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Western Sahara (SADR) (1984), São Tomé and Príncipe, Senegal, the Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe. Morocco has a special status within the AU.

41. Xenakis, D. and Chryssochoou, D. (2001).

42. Ibid.

43. The "groups and standings" can be found at the FIFA website: www.fifa.com/worldcup.

44. *Mashreq* is the Arabic term for, generally speaking, the region of Arabic-speaking countries to the east of Egypt and north of the Arabian Peninsula. It refers to a large area in the Middle East, bounded by the Mediterranean Sea and Iran. "Mashreq" in Wikipedia, available at: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mashreq.

45. *Maghreb* is the Arabic term for north-west Africa. It is generally applied to all of Morocco, Algeria and Tunisia, but actually pertains only to the area of the three countries between the high ranges of the Atlas Mountains and the Mediterranean Sea. "Magreb", *Columbia Encyclopedia*, 6th edn, 2001-07, Columbia University Press.

46. Xenakis, D. and Chryssochoou, D. (2001), p. 27.

47. See http://europa.eu.int/comm/external_relations/euromed.

48. Preferential trade agreements were signed with Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt and Lebanon in 1969, and Israel in 1970. Association agreements were signed with Greece in 1961, Turkey in 1962, Malta in 1970 and Cyprus in 1972.

49. Canalioğlu (2001).

50. Yeşilada, B. (1991) "The European Community's Mediterranean policy", in L. Hurwitz and C. Lequesne (eds) *The State of the European Communities*, Lynne Reinner: London.

51. Canalioğlu (2001).

52. Ibid.

53. See http://europa.eu.int/comm/external_relations/euromed/index.htm.

54. The Barcelona Declaration can be found at http://europa.eu.int/comm/external_relations/euromed/bd.htm.

55. For interesting academic studies and findings on various aspects of Euro-Mediterranean co-operation and Mediterranean politics, see the journals *Mediterranean Politics* and *Arab Studies Quarterly*, as well as the *EuroMeSCo* papers (available online at www.euromesco.net/euromesco/seccao_geral.asp?cod_seccao=1785).

56. Adler, E. and Crawford, B. (2004) "Normative power: the European practice of region building and the case of the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership (EMP)", Institute of European Studies, University of California, Berkeley; *Working Papers*, Paper 040400. Available at http://repositories.cdlib.org/ies/040400.

57. Jünemann, A. (2003) "Security-building in the Mediterranean after September 11", *Mediterranean Politics*, Summer/Autumn 2003, Vol. 8, Issue 2/3, pp. 1-20.

58. Ibid.

59. Xenakis, D. and Chryssochoou, D. "The new framework for Euro-Mediterranean cooperation" (available at www.italcultny.org/adriatico2/growth/xenakis.htm).

60. Kienle, E. (1998) "Destabilization through partnership? Euro-Mediterranean relations after the Barcelona Declaration", *Mediterranean Politics*, Vol. 3, No. 2, Autumn 1998, p. 3.

61. Ibid.

62. Aliboni, R. and Abdel Monem, S. A. (2000) "Challenges and prospects", *Mediterranean Politics*, Spring 2000, Vol. 5, Issue 1, pp. 209-224.

63. Chourou, B. (2003) "Arab regional integration as a prerequisite for a successful Euro-Mediterranean partnership", *Mediterranean Politics*, Summer/Autumn 2003, Vol. 8, Issue 2/3, pp. 194-213.

64. *Vasconcelos*, A. and *Joffe*, G. (2000) "Towards Euro-Mediterranean regional integration", *Mediterranean Politics*, Spring 2000, Vol. 5, Issue 1, pp. 3-6.

65. Chourou, B. (2003).

66. Vasconcelos, A. (2002) "Ten points on the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership", paper presented to the conference on Governing Stability Across the Mediterranean Sea: A Transatlantic Perspective, organised by the Istituto Affari Internazionali, Rome, 21-23 March 2002.

67. Vasconcelos, A. (2002).

68. Canalioğlu, E. (2001).

69. *Vasconcelos*, A. and *Joffe*, G. (2000).

70. Aliboni, R. and Abdel Monem, S.A. (2000).

71. Vasconcelos, A. (2002).

72. Aliboni, R. and Abdel Monem, S. A. (2000).

73. Vasconcelos, A. (2002).

74. Adler, E. and Crawford, B. (2004).

75. *Gillespie*, R. (2003) "Reshaping the agenda? The internal politics of the Barcelona process in the aftermath of September 11", *Mediterranean Politics*, Summer/Autumn 2003, Vol. 8, Issue 2/3, pp. 21-36.

76. *Gillespie*, R. (2003).

77. Xenakis, D. and Chryssochoou, D. (2001).

78. Xenakis, D. and Chryssochoou, D. (n.d.) "The new framework for Euro-Mediterranean cooperation" (available at www.italcultny.org/adriatico2/growth/xenakis.htm).

79. Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament, Tenth Anniversary of the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership: A Work Programme to Meet the Challenges of the Next Five Years. Euromed Summit, Barcelona, 27-28 November 2005.
Available at: http://ec.europa.eu/external_relations/euromed/barcelona_10/docs/10th_comm_en.pdf.

80. The 27 EU member states (Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom) and 10 Mediterranean partner countries (Algeria, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, the Palestinian Authority, Syria, Tunisia and Turkey).

81. The European Commission is a supranational executive body of the European Union and it acts with complete political independence. Its job is to uphold the interests of the EU as a whole, so it must not take instructions from any member state government. As 'Guardian of the Treaties', it has to ensure that the regulations and directives adopted by the Council and Parliament are being put into effect. If they are not, the Commission can take the offending party to the Court of Justice to oblige it to comply with EU law (Fontaine, 2003).

82. See www.euromedalex.org.

83. On the issues related to the role and involvement of civil society in the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership, see Reinhardt, U. J. (2002) "Civil society co-operation in the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership: from declarations to practice", *EuroMeSCo Papers* 15: May 2002; and Huber, B. (2004) "Perspectives for policy-oriented research from the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership", in Volker Perthes (coord.) "'Looking ahead': challenges for Middle East politics and research", *EuroMeSCo Papers* 29.

84. Civil society organisations, usually known as non-governmental organisations (NGOs), cover a wide range of groupings including associations, foundations, student clubs, trade unions, chambers of trade and/or commerce, networks, at national and international level.

85. See http://ec.europa.eu/youth/priorities/euromed_en.html.

86. Instead of the central management of the Euro-Med Youth Programme in its first and second phases, the Commission decided on decentralised management for the third phase. With central management, the National Co-ordinators were in charge of daily practice in the Mediterranean partner countries, whereas the final decision for funding of projects was taken in a centralised selection panel with the consent of the European Commission.
See http://ec.europa.eu/youth/archive/priorities/euromed_en.html.

87. See www.euromedyouth.net for the executive summary of the mid-term evaluation report of the Euro-Med Youth Programme for the years 1999-2001.

88. In 2006, the EU's YOUTH Programme evolved into the Youth in Action programme, covering 2007-13, with revised aims, objectives and actions, resulting from the experience gathered from the previous phases of the youth programmes of the EU. See: http://ec.europa.eu/youth/youth-in-action-programme/doc74_en.htm.

89. See http://ec.europa.eu/youth/archive/priorities/euromed_en.html.

90. See http://www.euromedyouth.net/spip.php?article6.

91. For the 2003 Compendium on Euro-Med Youth programme projects, see http://ec.europa.eu/youth/archive/program/examples_en.html.

92. See www.euromedyouth.net/spip.php?article7.

93. See http://ec.europa.eu/youth/archive/priorities/euromed_en.html.

94. See http://ec.europa.eu/youth/program/guide/action5_en.html, www.euromedyouth.net/spip.php?article8.

95. See http://ec.europa.eu/youth/priorities/euromed_en.html.

96. See http://ec.europa.eu/youth/archive/priorities/euromed_en.html.

97. See http://europa.eu.int/youth, http://ec.europa.eu/youth/program/index_en.html.

98. A contact list of the EMYUs can be found at www.euromedyouth.net/spip.php?article49.

99. A contact list with details of national agencies can be found in the Programme Guide of the Youth in Action programme and at http://ec.europa.eu/youth/youth/contacts_en.htm?cs_mid=152.

100. For the numerous activities carried out by the SALTO Euro-Med Resource Centre, see its website at: www.salto-youth.net/euromed.

101. In 2008, there were eight SALTO-YOUTH resource centres, which concentrate on three main activity areas: regional co-operation (for example: Euro-Med, Eastern Europe and the Caucasus and South East Europe), specific topics and themes (for example: cultural diversity, social inclusion), and structural elements (for example: training, co-operation and information). See www.salto-youth.net.

102. See www.euromedp.org.

103. See www.youthforum.org/en/home/welcome.html.

104. More information about the Council of Europe's activities in the youth field can be found at: www.coe.int/T/E/Cultural_Co-operation/Youth/.

105. See www.coe.int/t/e/north-south_centre/.

106. Gomes, R. (2004) "Partnership on Euro-Med youth cooperation in the field of training: a joint effort for further quality training in Euro-Mediterranean youth work", *Meet'in EuroMed* [Salto-Youth EuroMed Quarterly Magazine], August 2004, Issue 3, p. 2.

107. European Portfolio for Youth Leaders and Youth Workers, April 2007, available at: www.coe.int/t/dg4/youth/Resources/Portfolio/Portfolio_en.asp.

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117. United Nations (2005) *World youth report 2005: young people today, and in 2015*, Department of Economic and Social Affairs.

118. Siurala, L. (2005).

119. Gomes, R. (2007) "Youth policy development and cooperation in the broader Euro-Mediterranean context", *Forum 21 European Journal on Youth Policy*, 2007, Vol. 6, No. 9, available at: www.coe.int/t/dg4/youth/Resources/Forum_21/No9_en.asp.

120. Quoted in Gomes, R. (2007).