

Young People and the Employment Market in Morocco

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Whilst being aware of the fact that economic development cannot take place in the absence of young people's contribution, it is equally important that such economic development should be capable of responding to the aspirations, expectations and needs of youth. Youth is a trump card of economic development in that young people generally enjoy a high degree of mobility. Typically, they display qualities of versatility, open-mindedness, adaptability, creativity, dynamism and tolerance. From their viewpoint access to the labour market is a guarantee of social integration and emancipation.

Within the parameters of this chapter I shall endeavour to describe the context in which Moroccan youth is currently preparing to enter the labour market. I also intend to describe the main obstacles hampering this entry process.

Education, professional training and preparation for the labour market

As far as young people's access to education, professional training and preparation for labour market entry is concerned, Morocco can demonstrate clear evidence of significant progress since independence. Indeed, it is widely acknowledged that the rate of progress in this area has accelerated in recent years. In 2004 the rate of illiteracy among young people reached 43% (see table below). However, in 2006 Morocco recorded an exceptional result, with UNESCO awarding it the *Confucius Prize* for its Programme of non-formal and informal education. This is an innovative national literacy initiative specifically targeted at marginalised adolescents from rural areas; it aims to guarantee the right to education for all, to democratise education and to promote good governance.

Rate of illiteracy grouped according to age and sex (%)¹

Age group	Male	Female	Total
15 - 24 years	19.2	39.5	29.5
25 - 34 years	26.2	52.7	40.0

¹ Recensement Général de la Population et de l'Habitat en 2004

Total	30.8	54.7	43.0
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Indeed, the rate of illiteracy went from 80% in 1960 to 48% in 1999. In 2006 it reached 39%. In this context it is important to bear in mind that Morocco has committed itself to the target of reducing the overall rate of illiteracy to less than 20% by 2010 and of virtually eradicating the phenomenon by the beginning of 2015 (see OMD: a United Nations Organisation initiative entitled Objectifs du Millénaire pour le Développement/ Objectives of the Millennium for Development)

However, in spite of those achievements, significant challenges still remain today; notably the disparities which persist between town and countryside, as well as between boys and girls. There are also issues relating to the quality of knowledge and the diversification of subjects within education and training. This situation is also exacerbated by demographic trends. Moreover, the processes of globalisation - of opening up, liberalising and modernising the economy – and the persistence of high levels of unemployment among young people (including graduates), are factors that have placed intense pressures on the education and training system. There is an urgent need to adjust to the demands of this new context.

In order to respond to needs that have built up over time, and those which became apparent more recently as a result of the new economic conditions described above, in 1999 the Moroccan government launched a programme of reform in the education and training system. This reform was given concrete expression by the establishment of a Special Education / Training Commission (COSEF) which was assigned the task of developing the *National Charter of Education and Training*. Appointed by His Majesty the late King Hassan II, the Commission brought together all strands of Moroccan society, including political, cultural, religious, trade union and other viewpoints.

The Charter stipulates that the mission of a school – both primary and secondary - goes well beyond teaching pupils to read and write. It has to be able to develop in them a creative, competitive and – indeed - fighting spirit. Furthermore, the state is no longer perceived as the sole player in the arena of education and training. Among the other partners are families (via parents' associations), local communities, the private

sector and lay members of the public. The Charter emphasises the central importance of the school as a social institution; responsibility for which is to be shared between the afore-mentioned agencies within the framework of a social project partnership. This is very much the new model of modern education in contemporary Morocco.

As far as university and higher education are concerned, Law 01/00 acknowledges the autonomy of the university and has duly granted it structures that allow it to conduct internal reforms. The university is thus free to advance training-programmes that it considers appropriate, taking into account human and material resources as well as the specific local needs of the area it covers. The aim is to ensure the university's integration into the surrounding economic and social environment, but at the same time enabling it to discharge its responsibilities at national level. The university must therefore remain the pinnacle of learning, intellectual freedom and debate.

Across the education and training system a reforming dynamic was set in motion. This culminated in the passage of a series of new statutes aimed at effecting radical change. Thus, for example, there has been a statute relating to the legal obligation to provide education for children (04/00) and a whole package of reforming legislative measures in the areas of pre-school education (05/00), private education (06/00), regional academies of education and training (07/00), apprenticeships (12/00) and private professional training (13/00). It is within this framework that the following pathways have been established on a national level.

Pre-school education (4-5 years):

Early years provision is regarded as a crucial stage of preparation for tomorrow's youth. Spreading the availability of pre-school education constitutes a key strategic aim of government. To this end the State has invested in access and training facilities as well as the development of suitable teaching materials. The Office of the Secretary of State with Responsibility for Young People (SECJ) takes a lead role in this strategy and has been assisted by private initiatives. It provides children under six years with early-learning activities and pre-school education in 327 establishments. In addition to this there is also the traditional pre-school structure, a type of Koranic School with an

archaic system of education. This is still used essentially by poor and marginalised tiers of society in both urban and rural areas.

Basic Education (6-15 years):

This stage of the education system is equally crucial in order to guarantee the preparation of tomorrow's youth. To this end programmes have been established, especially in rural areas, to improve and extend access facilities and increase the number of teachers. However, gaps in provision remain: in terms of the number of establishments, classrooms and teaching staff. Phenomena such as overcrowded classes, the use of unqualified teaching staff and the mismatch between professional experience and level of appointment have emerged. This represents an ongoing challenge. Moreover the choices made by pupils remain strongly biased in favour of arts and experimental science subjects, to the detriment of mathematical sciences and technical education. Only recently has it been possible to discern a reversal of this trend, giving rise to a suggestion that there might be the beginnings of a change of attitude on the part of young people vis à vis mathematics and technology. Needless to say, both of these subject areas are fundamental to the future economic development of Morocco.

Professional training:

During the first five years of the decade which began with the 1999 reforms, the system of professional training also underwent a sustained improvement in terms of intake capacity and widening access. The increased intake capacity in this first period of reform was significant with the almost immediate creation of 7,160 new training places and a further 4,335 places coming on stream in the 2004-2005 academic session. In total, then, almost 11,500 places were created in a five year period. Compared with the previous development of professional training, this additional capacity outstrips that put in place over the whole of the thirteen years preceding the reform (from 1987 to 2000). With the aim of diversifying the training provision and bringing it more closely into line with the expectations of business partners, programme expansion is planned in the areas of tourism (10 new establishments and 11 extensions to existing establishments), textiles (the creation of a skills development

centre and the extension of 5 existing establishments) and ICT (the creation of 5 new establishments), as well as the creation of specialist training centres managed in conjunction with business professionals. The expansion recorded for the whole of the period, with all the sectors added together in terms of the total numbers of current trainees, represents something in the order of a 63% increase in provision. The total complement of trainees rose from 133,000 in 1999-2000 to more than 216,600 by the year 2004-2005.

Non-Formal and Informal education:

This sector has been characterised by the development of social integration programmes aimed at benefiting vulnerable young people. This is true in the case of pilot experiments concerned with the reintegration of prisoners. Experimental pilot programmes were duly undertaken in partnership with the Mohammed VI Foundation for the reintegration of prisoners and the Ministry of Justice (6 pilot centres, 24 subject areas and about 2,600 beneficiaries between 2002 and 2004.). It also applies to an integration programme for people with disabilities (for example, the training offered to those with sight impairments). However, these efforts need to be accelerated in the face of the pressure imposed by the demand for professional training that must be provided in order to facilitate such programmes. For the year 2003-2004 285,219 candidates applied for entry to professional training. This represents five times more than the number of training places available, and nine times more for the level of 'specialised technician'. In addition, the element that is generally referred to as 'residential training' still dominates the training system, with 77.5% of the total student numbers (although it is worth noting that in 1999-2000 it formed 92.5% of the total). This is despite the diversification of training modes, notably with the development of sandwich courses and apprenticeships, which represent respectively 7.5% and 15% of training provision.

University and Higher Education:

This sector has also been subject to change as part of the wider reform agenda for education and training instigated in 1999. An increase in student numbers has continued, rising from 250,111 students in 1999-2000 to 280,599 in 2003-2004.

Viewed in another way, higher education has seen its intake capacity increase by 14,000 teaching places in 2003-2004. It should be borne in mind that this has taken place within the context of a new LMD teaching structure being introduced (i.e., First Degree, Master and Doctorate). Similarly, after a long period of stagnation, the profile of the teaching staff has become younger and the complement has risen by 400, bringing today's total to 10,413. This shift in the age profile of academic staff has, incidentally, been partly achieved through the introduction of a voluntary early retirement programme.

However, the distribution of the student population across establishment type and subject area continues to be characterised by the old structural imbalances. Overall, university establishments with open access account for 92% of freshers and more than 85% of all students. 73% of students are enrolled in 'Arts' and 'Law and Economics' subjects. The course preferences exhibited by students in the second half of the 1990s are being reprised in the current period. Indeed, there is evidence to suggest that this imbalance has become even more pronounced as in the earlier period the proportion of student numbers in the subject areas of Arts, Law and Economics was 62%. Similar observations can be made in respect of student preferences in the 3rd cycle of education (the intermediate post-graduate stage that prepares students for doctoral level studies). The distribution of students by discipline at this level reveals that social and human sciences represent 60.84%, natural and applied sciences 33.93%, engineering sciences 3.92% and medical sciences 1.29%.

State-Regulated Training Establishments:

These establishments prepare young people for the labour market in various sectors. The following table presents an account of the trends.

Trends in numbers of students qualifying in management training establishments, according to area of study

Area of study	1996-1997	1997-1998	1998-1999	1999-2000	2000-2001	2001-2002	2002-2003	2003-2004
Foundation courses	739	694	687	774	779	802	713	901
Law and	8,417	9,468	10,022	10,867	10,373	9,766	8,913	9,398

Economics								
Arts and Humanities	8,112	7,843	7,393	7,893	7,169	8,051	8,164	8,923
Pure Science	5,874	5,411	4,131	3,969	3,648	3,266	2,973	2,896
Applied Science	113	991	1,614	1,060	817	770	843	908
Medecine and Pharmacy	737	723	821	711	900	812	733	847
Dentistry	149	113	174	138	141	129	163	183
Engineering	334	373	381	408	533	462	487	396
Business and Administration		192	304	410	306	374	410	412
Technology	631	695	24	955	1,002	1,054	1,184	1,229
Education	23	13	8	136	20	39	181	181
Translation	28	24	21	23	32	30	36	28
Total	25,159	26,546	26,400	27,348	25,922	25,575	24,802	26,704

Despite a significant bias in favour of subjects such as law, economics, arts and humanities, there is evidence of a strong growth in student numbers in the fields of business, technology and education. This situation is in large measure created by pressure resulting from the nature of the options available at the secondary stage, where general education subjects predominate. It also results from the weakness of structures and agencies charged with providing information, direction and advice to help guide students in their academic and professional choices.

Some key conclusions to emerge from the data as a whole can be summarised in the following terms. Firstly, the effort to expand the education and training system has grown appreciably since the reform was instigated, in terms of student numbers, intake capacity and teaching staff. However, this effort remains limited with regard to not only the measures contained in the *National Charter of Education and Training* and its stated quantitative and qualitative targets, but also with regard to the actual needs that are demonstrated by an ever-increasing demand.

Secondly, at the primary level the gaps in provision occur mainly in the most remote rural areas and – increasingly – the outlying, ‘out-of-town’ neighbourhoods where there is a concentration of marginalised and vulnerable social strata.

Finally, intake capacity - which involves additional teaching staff - would benefit from being strengthened at college level in rural areas, the secondary qualifying level in urban areas and in the sub-sector of professional training as a whole.

It must be borne in mind that educational reform was not aimed solely at the quality of service in all its manifestations. It was also integrated and developed in what might be referred to as 'academic citizenship' at all levels and stages of the education system. This can, for example, be manifested in the curriculum: teaching on Human Rights and Children's Rights should now form an integral part of apprenticeship and training. It can also be present in academic and university life through the democratic participation of pupils and students in various administrative and teaching councils established by statute within their institutions of education. Meanwhile, important opportunities for personal growth are offered by extra-curricular activities in schools and universities. These can include recreational pursuits in sport, art, and culture as well as less formal social events. Educational possibilities are also offered by exercising rights of association within the framework of co-operatives and other organisations. Such experiences enhance young people's learning and increase their standing in the community. There are, indeed, many educational and developmental spaces that can be opened up to young people within the wider social, political, cultural and economic environment. For this reason, the concept of 'educational space' is beginning to be stretched as part of a continuum in the global socio-cultural space frequented by young people. Paradoxically, though, neither lay society nor young people appear to be in a rush to claim ownership of these spaces. Should they do so, though, then it can be anticipated that young people will play a more active part in shaping the nature of future programmes, measures and statutes.

In this analysis of the system and its educational and extra-curricular components it has been possible to acknowledge the effort invested in educating, training and preparing young people for an economically active life. Structures that are supportive of informing, directing and accompanying young people in their training and preparation for economic activity have now been put in place. The expansion in intake capacity and teaching staff, along with improvements in the quality of teaching and training, has also facilitated the possibility of integrating young people more

effectively into the labour market. The promotion of their development as active and participative citizens should also yield wider benefits for civil society as a whole. That said, cumulative delays in the system need to be addressed with renewed vigour.

Employment

	<i>Urban</i>		<i>Rural</i>		<i>Combined</i>	
	1999	2004	1999	2004	1999	2004
Categories of employment offered to young people aged between 15 and 24 years (in %)						
Unqualified	49.9	44.8	82.8	80.8	69.8	67.4
Intermediate level	43.9	47.2	16,7	18,7	27,4	29,2
Higher level	6.1	8.0	0,4	0,5	2,7	3,3
Not stated	0.1	--	0,1	--	0,1	--
Total	100.0	100.0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0
Categories of employment rate among young people aged between 15 and 24 years (in %)						
Unqualified	53.7	50.0	62.9	61.1	60.0	57.9
Intermediate level	28.7	25.3	51.3	42.7	34.3	30.3
Higher level	24.8	22.4	34.9	32.0	25.6	23.1
Total	37.0	32.1	60.4	56.3	48.3	44.0
Categories of unemployment among young people aged between 15 and 24 years according to sex (in thousands)						
Male	303	237	192	76	432	313
Female	124	102	20	11	144	112
Combined	427	339	149	86	576	425

Tableau élaboré à partir des données In Les Cahiers du Plan, N° 3, Juin-Juillet 2005

As the figures show, unemployment among young people in general and young graduates in particular remains one of the major obstacles to be tackled. Indeed, of those seeking employment, the majority come from the section of the population aged between 15 and 34 years. In 2004 the economically active section of the population aged between 15 and 24 years has witnessed a decline of 3.6% compared with the position in 1999. In terms of place of residence, the availability of employment has

decreased by 9.4% in urban areas over the same period. Added to unemployment there is also underemployment. This is widespread among young people in the casual sector and in agriculture. It should be noted that many young women in rural areas commonly undertake unpaid work. There is, moreover, a more general insecurity in terms of income and employment conditions that frequently besets young people in these less regulated sectors of the economy. It is also important to point out the rather limited expansion of economic activity among women. They were adversely and disproportionately affected by a reduction in the availability of employment between 1999 and 2004 (-11.9% at the national level, -16.3% in urban areas and -8.3% in rural areas).

Employment Rates:

Some comments need to be made in relation to young people's share of employment. For example, in 2002 young people aged between 15 and 24 years represented 41.7% of the totality of those who were economically active. If the category of young people were expanded to encompass all those between 15 and 34 years, then those in work would represent more than half of the total population of the potentially economically active (53.5%). The employment rate of young people in the population (15-24 years) is distinctly lower than that of other age groups, partly because of the increase in numbers of those in education. On the other hand, the figures for 2002 show 25-34 year-olds having particularly high employment rates (62.1%).

However, these rates conceal other forms of disparity; notably between urban and rural areas, and between the sexes. For example, employment rates are much higher in rural areas than in urban areas (in 2002 it was 52.7% compared with 32.0%). By the same token, employment rates among young men are higher than those of young women: the highest rate of the latter in rural areas being 27.2%, three times lower than that of their male counterparts at 75.8%. In urban areas the figure drops to 16% (again, a third of the male rate of 48.9%).

Youth unemployment:

The proportion of young people within the economically active population that are unemployed has reached 35.7% (33.2% in urban areas and 50.3% in rural areas). The question of unemployment among young people in Morocco is bound up with the general profile of employment and work. It results from the close interlinking of a number of factors, both macro- and micro-economic in character. Firstly, there is 'terminal unemployment'. This term is a neologism that refers to the need for a job-seeker to re-retrain and/or change career direction because the demand for their particular occupation or skill-set has fallen significantly. This type of unemployment appears to affect young people disproportionately.

The second, related, factor concerns the mismatch that may exist between the skills required by the economy and those possessed by job-seekers. Thus, unemployed people can be *well* qualified but, as far as employers are concerned, *inappropriately* qualified. There is therefore a need for a closer alignment between the needs of the economy and those institutions that provide education and training.

Thirdly, inflexibilities in management and production systems need to be addressed. This involves instigating a rolling programme of modernisation within business and industry. It is therefore important that the education and training systems produce highly trained and innovative managers and technical staff.

Finally, it is important that the long-term macro-economic and micro-economic policies pursued are those most likely to create and sustain high levels of good quality employment.

Within the above perspective, a 'career trap' has been highlighted. This is linked with the pre-eminent role of the civil service and the administration in absorbing job-seekers of all categories up to the beginning of the 1980s. This situation, supported by a favourable international economic climate (the so-called 'Thirty Glorious Years'), has not been reinforced by the establishment of an institutional system that would co-ordinate the labour market and anticipate movements within the workforce, changes of occupation and shifts in employment status. By putting an end to recruitment in the Administration, the implementation of the Structural Adjustment Plan (PAS) in 1983 to some extent generated mechanisms that freed up the management of the labour

market. But in the absence of a management 'tradition' based on the market and economic liberalism, this inevitably led to the development of informal domestic systems of job-seeking and atypical and/or insecure forms of work. This resulted in a rather chaotic labour market. The creation of the National Council of Youth and the Future (CNJA) in 1991 bore witness to the scale of unemployment among graduates at the time, which at the end of the 1980s reached unprecedented levels. The tasks and measures that were mapped out formed the basis of a new approach to young people and led in the 1990s to targeted youth employment policies. These were, however, implemented ineffectively.

Youth unemployment by place of residence:

This indicator demonstrates significant disparities between young people and adults as well as between towns and the countryside. In both cases it is to the disadvantage of young people and urban populations. At the national level almost two-thirds (64.1%) of young unemployed people have never worked; this proportion is 68% in urban areas and 48.9% in rural areas.

Youth unemployment by gender:

In 2003 the unemployment rate among young men was relatively higher than that of young women (17.4% as opposed to 15.9%). The respective positions show a stronger contrast when area of residence is taken into account. Thus, in urban areas young men appear to be less affected than young women (33.4% compared with 37.7%), whereas in rural areas the reverse is true (2.2% for young women and 6.7% for young men). The perspective on this finding has to remain relative in the light of other employment indicators and conditions of work (under-employment, unpaid work and job insecurity) which reveal that, especially in urban areas, young women are adversely affected by the crisis to a greater extent than young men. Indeed, feeling themselves more vulnerable, young women seem to withdraw more quickly and in greater numbers from the labour market. This is indicated by the considerable fluctuations in their activity and employment rates. These activity and employment rates are, incidentally, already among the lowest in the world. Such data very much underline the phenomenon of female poverty and social insecurity.

Youth unemployment by age group:

As far as disparities between adolescents (15-19 years) and young adults (20-24 years) are concerned, a decrease in the unemployment rate between the two ages has not been observed in the case of Morocco. This is irrespective of sex and area of residence. Thus, the unemployment rate among young people shows a decrease from 20.1% in 1999 to 15.4% in 2005. It conceals, however, a considerable discrepancy between young adults and adolescents. For adolescents this is 'only' 13.6% whereas for young adults it is 20.8% (a ratio of 1.53 to the disadvantage of young adults). But these disparities are even more marked in the case of young women compared with young men. Indeed, the unemployment rate among young women is 22.5% as opposed to 8.9% for female adolescents (a ratio of 2.53). It is also important not to overlook the impact of the phenomenon of child labour on the employment market. It is, of course, often casual in nature. Nevertheless, it is worth commenting that casual child labour is an enduring feature of the Moroccan economy. Added to this is the progressive exclusion of girls from the casual economy as they grow older, especially around the age of 16-19 years. This in turn augments the number of unemployed people as well as depriving key sectors of the economy of young women's knowledge and expertise.

Underemployment among young people:

Young people and those aged between 25 and 34 years make up two-thirds of the under-employed population (31.6% and 34.6% respectively). But it is in rural areas that the proportion of young people is the highest, reaching 39%. The female population is affected worse than males with young under-employed women constituting almost half (47.5%). As is the case in the casual economy, the high level of under-employment among young people is explained by the high rates of youth unemployment. Those young people who, for economic and social reasons (typically, individual and family poverty, vulnerability and/or limited social capital) as well as legal and policy reasons (breach of the labour regulations and/or absence of welfare benefits, for example), cannot afford to experience prolonged unemployment. Consequently, they are often obliged to accept less secure jobs and poorer pay.

Young people in the casualised sector:

It will be noted that reference has been made to this subject on a number of occasions already. It is, however, worth making some additional points.

A breakdown of the age structure of the active population involved in the casual economy shows the relatively high rate of the population aged under 35 years (46.6%). The proportion of those under 18, which obviously contains adolescents, makes up a small proportion (6.5%). The proportion of young adults is, though, more significant (14.4%). This discrepancy is explained by the invisibility of children (under 18 years) who are generally recognised as apprentices.

In broad terms young people are concentrated in the categories of labourers and unskilled workforce members (76.0%) and unqualified and qualified crafts workers (14.7%). However it should be noted that 61.2% of them occupy unpaid positions. This may, for example, involve helping within family businesses. The work is, therefore, almost always in the private sector.

Unemployed graduates:

Among existing graduates there are great differences between those who have pursued an academic course of study in the universities and those who have pursued their studies in college or some other further/higher education establishment. But even in this area, it is generally young people who are the worst affected. The category of young qualified people who experience the most unemployment in urban areas is that of the university graduate (apart from graduates in medicine), with an unemployment rate of 77.8%. This is almost six times higher than the rate experienced by those aged between 35 and 44 years. Next come technicians and middle managers, with an unemployment rate of 50.2% (nine times higher than those aged between 25 and 44 years). On the other hand, those who have qualified at colleges and non-traditional university further/ higher education establishments (including faculties of medicine) have the best outcomes, with a relatively lower rate of unemployment. This is in the

order of 36.6%, but that in turn cannot be compared with the rate among 35-44-year-olds, which is only 2.2% (the former is 16.6 times higher).

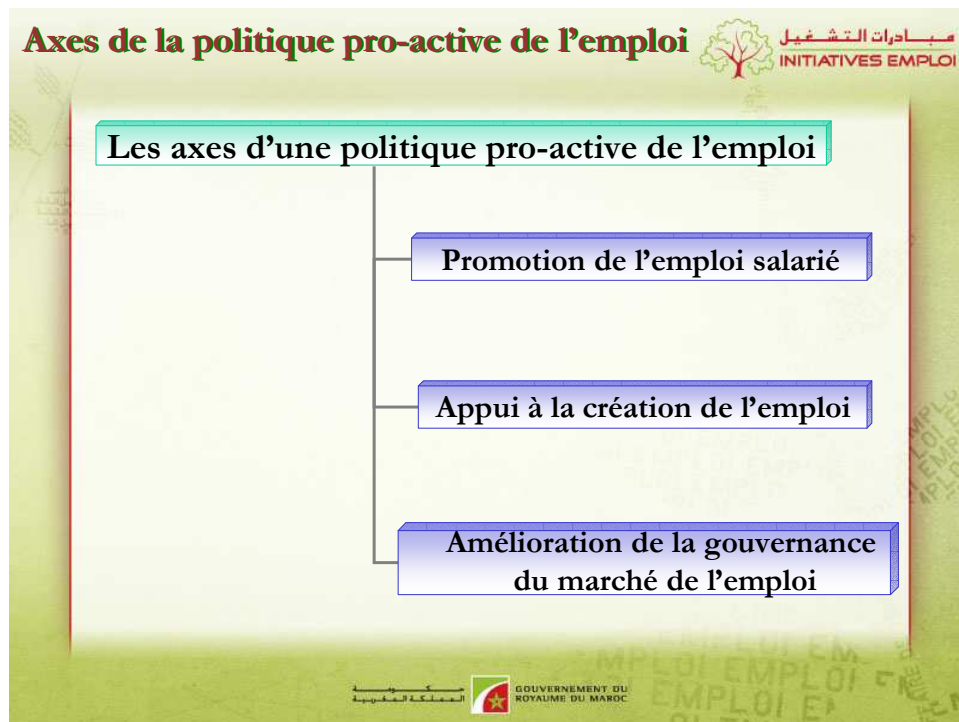
The explanation for disparities between types of qualification and between young people and adults can be found in the nature of the training system in general, but particularly at the higher end. This is especially the case following the arabisation of scientific subjects at the level of basic and secondary education. Moreover, as has been observed already, there is a mismatch between the needs of the economy and the nature of the education and training being pursued by many students. The management priorities and styles adopted by some companies may also have a bearing.

Policies and programmes established to respond to youth employment and mobility issues

There are a number of aspirations that could be mentioned with regard to youth employment and mobility: the promotion of self-employment and entrepreneurship; clearer routes into the labour market for graduates; effective integration into the economy of those with a background in agricultural training; the availability of relevant and improved qualifying training; given the nature of globalisation and the need for a flexible and mobile workforce, preparing young people for current and predicted economic trends; and the adaptation of training to development needs and anticipated areas of growth. A strategic plan for employment has been adopted for the period 2006 – 2008 by the Ministry of Employment and Professional Training. Some of the key elements of this plan include: the promotion of salaried employment for graduates; training, re-training and adaptation strategies; support for the creation of small businesses; improved management and governance of the labour market; rigorous evaluation of the workings of the labour market, including the establishment of a research institute that monitors employment; the regulation of part-time working; and the opening up of temporary work to private agencies.

The introduction of operational measures for the promotion of employment (Shkirat 7/6/2006) shows evidence of a change of direction in employment policies in favour

of young people, and especially of graduates. As is demonstrated by the diagram below, these measures stem from a pro-active policy.



Within the framework of this policy, a restructuring of services offered through parent organisations has been carried out. The following agencies can be mentioned by way of illustration.

L'Agence Nationale de Promotion de l'Emploi et des Compétences (The National Agency for the Promotion of Employment and Skills (ANAPEC) :

To find solutions to unemployment in general and youth unemployment in particular, several mechanisms have been put in place. One of these is ANAPEC. This agency (with its 24 offices, of which 15 are located in the regional capitals) invites local communities, professional bodies, chambers of commerce and NGOs (several of which are made up of young unemployed graduates) to enter into a partnership with the aim of establishing subsidiary agencies. The partner shares the running costs as well as the initial financial outlay required for setting up the sub-branches. Job-seekers are duly provided with relevant documentation, access to information on vacancies and the databases of ANAPEC. Many of the resources made available to

job-seekers take the form of an 'employment self-service' facility. In order to convey some idea of the breadth and scope of the work undertaken, it is worth recording here some of the results for the year ending December 2003: there was contact with approximately 100,000 job-seekers in total; 17,085 job seekers were integrated into the labour market; placements abroad were arranged for more than 350 graduates; 100 employment self-service points were installed; and the project, *Support for Employment Creation* (within the framework of the MEDA I programme) was launched. The performance indicators achieved by ANAPEC in the year 2003 demonstrated the following: a placement rate in the order of 70% on the employment offers negotiated; a rate of 75% on non-subsidised contracts among the employment offers negotiated; an integration rate of 50% subsequent to completion of training period contracts; an integration rate of 70% subsequent to qualifying training; and a rate of 50% on the creation of businesses (the figure describing the relationship between the number of businesses created and the complement of accompanying business candidates).

The placements found by ANAPEC in the course of the year 2003 involved a total number of 17,085 people, of whom 51% were female. The average age of those placed was 27 years, with 71% of the candidates placed being under 30 years of age. 59.5% of the placements were carried out within the framework of common law contracts (CDC) and the remainder in the form of a placement contract (CI).

L'Office de la Formation Professionnelle et de la Promotion du Travail - OFPPT
(*Office of Professional Training and Work Promotion*)

This initiative has assumed paramount importance as far as employment is concerned. The number of trainees currently on placement with this office has exceeded 120,000. According to an announcement made in Casablanca (9/22/06) by the Board of Directors for this office, the figure represents an increase of 15% in comparison with the total for 2005. It should be pointed out that this occasion marked the launch of the third tranche of the government commission aimed at achieving 400,000 trainee places by the year 2007-08. This pace of development is possible due to accompanying measures based on the creation of establishments dedicated to growth sectors such as ICT, "offshoring", tourism, transport, plastics technology and food-

processing. This substantial increase in numbers has been linked with a high quality approach to the training process along with a strategy of optimising human and material resources. The professionalisation of management and communication tools has also enhanced overall performance of the agency. The year 2005 has therefore been characterised by targeted actions. Among other things, it is a question of reconfiguring training modules, restructuring subject areas, training the trainers and pursuing certification (Iso9001) for appropriate training establishments.

Furthermore, ongoing training - one of the priorities of this public Office - has benefited from special attention as a result of the preparation of solid foundations for the future activities of the Specialist Training Centres (CSF). Accordingly, a new manual of procedures has been developed in close collaboration with relevant institutions, social partners and the business sector. Despite budgetary constraints, an effort to rationalise and optimise resources has made it possible to realise substantial gains in productivity, which have in turn been used to help finance the OFPPT Action Plan for 2006.

Labour Laws:

The new labour laws which came into effect on 8 June 2004 take note of the hugely significant developments that, over the course of the latter two decades of the last century, took place in the spheres of technology, economy and social life. These developments also affected organisational life in both the public and private sectors, causing a restructuring of key professional relationships in the employment field. The cumulative results of the social dialogue that has taken place in the intervening period, particularly since the mid-1990s, have influenced the nature of the relevant statutes. Mechanisms that favour young graduates reflect the basic tenets underpinning the reforms. It is expressed very clearly in the Charter of Education and Training: namely, to achieve a better fit between what is offered by the education system and what is needed by the world of work. This explains how the so-called LMD reform (Degree, Master, Doctorate) which began to be implemented in 2003-2004 has opened the way for a system of modules, life-long credits and easier movement between training and employment. These reforms allow the possibility of interrupting one's studies at a given point in time while retaining credit for modules completed.

This gives people the right to resume their studies after a period of professional experience should they so desire.

Migration:

The question of migration remains a major concern because of the social and economic haemorrhaging effect that can occur *in extremis*. Migration from the countryside to the town can exert considerable pressure on the urban labour market whilst simultaneously undermining social and economic life in rural communities. Migration abroad provided a solution to unemployment and inadequate employment for tens of thousands of people during the 1960s and the first half of the 1970s before it was then abruptly stopped. This had the result of intensifying pressure on the labour market at home, especially in towns. Nonetheless, Moroccans living abroad today constitute more than two million people. The pattern of distribution is set out in the table below.

(Numbers in thousands)	1984		1997		2002	
Geographical area	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Europe	842.4	73.9	1,609.8	83.9	2,185.8	84.7
Arab countries	248.0	21.7	219.2	11.4	232.0	9.0
America	40.0	3.5	84.4	4.4	155.4	6.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	10.0	0.9	3.2	0.2	5.4	0.2
Asia	-	-	0.6	1.0	1.0	0.0
Australia	-	-	0.8	0.0	2.5	0.1
Total	1140.4	100.0	1918.1	100.0	2582.1	100.0
<i>Sources</i> ²	CERED		Fond. Hassan II – MRE		MAEC	

This migration abroad is predicated not only on the quest for a better material standard of living, but also meets the some of the cultural and lifestyle aspirations of young people. Europe, and the French-speaking world in particular, remains the preferred destination. Given the historical links and geographical proximity of French-speaking countries, this is unsurprising. With the tougher new European

² Sources marocaines : Centre d'Etudes et de Recherches démographiques (CERED), Fondation Hassan II pour les Marocains Résidents à l'Étranger (Fond. Hassan II-MRE), Ministère des Affaires Étrangères et de la Coopération (MAEC).

policies on migration and the tragic events of 9/11, though, migration to Europe has become something of a chimera for many less well educated young people.

Illegal migration has been reported widely in the news media because of the many dead victims who litter the beaches following their doomed and desperate efforts to pursue the dream of a better life. Likewise there has been extensive coverage of the networks of prostitution and organised crime that profit from human trafficking. For Sub-Saharan migrants, Morocco's status has now moved from being a transit country to a country of destination.

There is, however, silence with regard to another aspect of migration: the skills exodus or, as some prefer to describe it, the 'brain drain'. The economic power imbalance between Morocco and wealthy developed societies leaves little meaningful choice available to those young people who emigrate and the mother country that has educated and trained them. In effect, of course, the South finances the development of economies in the North because it is in the countries of origin that migrants receive most, if not all, of their education. The better the level of education and training attained in those areas of expertise required by the North, the quicker migrants are integrated into those economies. The beneficiaries of Morocco's investment in young people's education and training will, so often, be the economies of Europe - especially Northern Europe. The policy of 'voluntary migration defended by the European Union (EU) is very revealing indeed.

As a conclusion to this review of the relationship between young people and the labour market in Morocco, it emerges that the question of employment (or rather employability) of young people is the cornerstone of the new policy embarked upon by the Moroccan state since the shift of political power in 1996. It is, though, taking a long time for this policy to reassure young people and reverse the pattern of exclusion and unemployment from which they have been suffering for so many years. In an emerging economy, and with the disastrous effects of globalisation, young Moroccans' access to the labour market demands not only a policy based on voluntarism but also a framework of co-operation with the European Union. Ideally, this should be a partnership of equals.