Support Measures for Youth Insertion into the African Labor Market

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Publications Director: Rémy RIOUX

Editorial Director: Gaël GIRAUD

Designed and produced by: Flexedo, info@flexedo.com

Printed by: Imprimerie de la Centrale Lens - ICL

Acknowledgments

Our very sincere thanks to Annick Huyghe Mauro, André Gauron, and Michel Carton for their critical reading and pertinent comments.

Table of Contents

Summary

In Africa, as in the rest of the world, youth employment is a major concern—maybe even more so in Africa than elsewhere. Africa is the region that has the highest proportion of youth in the world when compared to its total population. Access to jobs, especially for youth, is a top priority for national policies and civil societies in Africa, as well as for development partners. It is an issue that drives actors to propose new responses, especially to deal with underemployment and job insecurity. In the last several years, more cross-cutting support measures have been tested to help youth in contexts where few can manage to obtain or evolve in employment conditions that satisfy them. This publication presents the policies and programs implemented by local governments and operators of the sector, as well as reflections carried out by international institutions, as well as by technical and financial partners on support for youth insertion.

Part 1 – What do we mean by "youth" in Africa?

There is no universal definition of who "youth" are. This notion depends on ages, social positions, and functions that are variable according to place, era, and gender. The period of youth is situated between childhood and adulthood; it is a period of transition with unclear boundaries. The passage from youth to adult status is often determined by the subject becoming physiologically, psychologically, socially, and financially autonomous. There are multiple trajectories for reaching adulthood, and we can see a tendency for a rise in the transition ages. As a result, youth represent a very heterogeneous category.

With nearly one out of five persons age between 15 and 24, Africa is the region with the highest proportion of youth in the world. This age group of young Africans numbered 205 million in 2010 and could reach nearly 437 million by 2050, or 33.3% of all people age 15–24 in the world. Despite growing urbanization, nearly 70% of young Africans still live in rural areas. Their possibilities for education are still judged insufficient. Indeed, there are very big gaps in access to education, especially according to family and geographical characteristics. And although considerable quantitative progress has been made in Africa in terms of access to education, the quality of the educational offer, and its results in terms of students' educational level, still appear to be very weak. Youth are the key to African development because the future of the continent is in their hands and because the current demographic dividend represents both a window of opportunity and a challenge of great importance.

Part 2 – What is the employment situation in Africa, faced with the demands, needs, and expectations of youth?

The notion of "employment" is complex and covers different situations. In some contexts, employment may be salaried, protected by a Labor Code, and accompanied by social protection. In others, it may be informal, unstable, part of a micro-unit of family production, and with or without pay.

Employment is one of the most complex statistical categories to understand, and the method for measuring it continues to be subject to both conceptual and empirical debate. While many indicators exist to describe the use of work time by youth, gathering accurate data on the labor market in Africa remains a difficult task, and the existing data must be used with caution. The information that is available shows that youth employment rates are especially high in the poorest countries of Africa and that they are lower in countries where average income level is higher, although the jobs in the latter countries are of better quality. The percentages of youth who are not in employment, education, or training are higher in the richest countries of Africa, as are unemployment rates. In fact, it seems that youth in the poorest African countries cannot afford to not work and are forced to accept insecure jobs.

By 2030, more than 30 million young Africans will enter the labor market each year. Their prospects for employment are hardly encouraging, both in the public and the formal private sectors. Employment opportunities are essentially to be created in the informal sector and in rural areas.

Part 3 – What are the processes of insertion for African youth?

Entering working life and evolving within it are the outcome of a nonlinear process that combines various more or less planned stages. For youth, there are multiple trajectories for entering working life, made up of obstacles, difficulties, mobilization of resources, and opportunities. Various social and environmental determinants have an influence on these trajectories. Personal, family, and social resources condition the paths of these youth, who must also face all the obstacles and opportunities of their surrounding environment—especially access to land, mobility, financial capital, and information.

Above and beyond the diversity of contexts and personal situations, several generic characteristics emerge: education influences the trajectories; the majority of young Africans perform their first economic activity as part of family activity and combine studies and economic activity; and multiple job holding is very common for youth, both in rural and urban areas.

Finally, several patterns for entry into working life emerge; these must be put into context and refined. Such patterns include (1) youth trained *via* formal education in urban zones, who seek wage employment; (2) youth with few qualifications, in urban or rural areas, who have been trained on the job and who enter into working life through apprenticeship with a boss or who opt for self-employment; (3) rural youth with very few qualifications and from poor

backgrounds, most of whom work on the family farm; and, finally, (4) urban or rural youth with very few qualifications and from poor backgrounds, obliged to engage in survival activities.

Part 4 – What measures have been developed to facilitate youth insertion?

Policies and initiatives to facilitate youth insertion exist. The various stakeholders that manage and implement them have a more or less direct effect on the trajectories of these youth. They include government ministries that work on youth, training, and employment issues; public job agencies; communities; families and youth networks; and organizations providing guidance to youth, to mobilize opportunities. The services of intermediation between offer and demand, embodied by public job agencies and services, are generally inefficient and poorly adapted to the African labor market.

The rather mixed results of sectoral policies have gradually imposed a more local approach based on labor market integration support measures that— above and beyond the offer-and-demand approach—share the vision of the need to both provide guidance for youth insertion and mobilize a whole range of resources and opportunities in their environment.

There are no or few analyses of these measures or reflections that would make it possible to compare the initiatives to help youth enter the labor market. However, a typology of measures to help youth insertion can be outlined. It is based on relatively recent experiences in integration support proposed by both private and public actors. In addition to decontextualized measures in "tool" form, the typology combines two approaches: (1) individualized guidance for the employment pathways of youth or for the development of businesses and action on their determinants; and (2) a more forward-looking entry into working life, through economic development. In actions of this second approach, insertion is an outcome more than a direct result of the intervention. All of these measures remain relatively unstable and strongly subject to issues of financial and institutional sustainability.

Part 5 – How to design and implement measures to support youth insertion in Africa?

The problem of youth insertion is diverse and multifaceted. Faced with this challenge, the countries of Africa, their development partners, and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have defined their orientations and recommendations. These concern several sectors and deal with four major topics: (1) economic development and job creation, (2) development of skills, (3) policy design and management, and (4) design and management of programs and measures to support youth insertion.

It seems important to acknowledge the potential that the informal sector and the rural world have for both creating jobs and added value and for facilitating access to jobs in the agricultural sector, in individual enterprises, and in modern companies in sectors that have promise. Furthermore, efforts to develop skills and to increase labor productivity must be backed up by improvement in the quality of basic education and by stronger orientation of training policies toward employment integration, by having youth join in designing and managing interventions.

Governments should develop—with the help of youth—national strategies for youth insertion, in order to make existing actions and openings coherent. Finally, faced with the issues of institutional and financial sustainability, the local measures to support employment integration should develop on several fronts. These include linking support to individual trajectories and local economic development, promoting convergence of sectoral and territorial approaches, and encouraging the actors to come together within the framework of an integrated approach to further youth insertion.

Introduction

Why is youth employment a crucial issue for Africa?

Youth employment is a major concern globally, but especially in Africa. This is because Africa is the region with the largest proportion of young people in the world, compared with the population. It is also a region where the impact of globalization may be dismantling, more than elsewhere, the traditional ways in which youth enter the labor market.

While the countries of Africa are very heterogeneous, they do share some tendencies, in particular strong demographic growth, except for North Africa and South Africa. A growing number of youth are seeking social and financial autonomy, but they are not succeeding in sustainably developing a professional activity within the family unit and must face the uncertainties of integrating the labor market.

Africa faces huge employment needs in both its rural and urban areas. Yet, the economic opportunities and prospects there, as well as the still too often limited education systems, are not able to satisfy these needs. While young Africans are the foremost resource of the continent, their social and professional insertion is currently highly unstable in the context of poverty. This presents real challenges for public authorities, who must deal with the flows of rural exodus and migration, as well as the risks of social and political instability, and especially those of crime and the rise of extremisms. Access to employment is one of the foremost priorities of national policies, African civil societies, and development partners. It is inciting the actors to propose new concrete and effective responses, especially to deal with underemployment and job insecurity. African policies often deal with employment, education, and training using a differentiated approach, and the responses proposed remain compartmentalized.

However, the issue of "insertion" is complex because of its cross-cutting nature, involving employment and training as much as economic development, and because approaches to it—which are above all local in nature—must also fit within policies and programs on a much larger scale. In the last few years, more cross-cutting support measures have been tested, in order to provide guidance to youth in contexts in which few manage to find jobs or to evolve in the job market in conditions that meet their expectations.

"Insertion" by definition combines social and professional dimensions. It cannot be summed up by integrating employment or by a fixed state. Rather, it refers to a nonlinear process that leads to social autonomy and financial independence: having a role, earning one's living, taking on one's adult responsibilities, and contributing to society. The term "insertion" in this context

originated in French-speaking countries and has been taken into account only rather recently in the literature concerning the projects and programs working on the issue of jobs in Africa. The documentation on youth-insertion measures in Africa is thus currently scarce and forms a mosaic of very diverse reference material.

In this publication, we have compiled studies and reports on the insertion of youth in Africa, produced mainly within the framework of international development cooperation. Our goal is to present a synthetic view of them that is both simple and educational. The target is a rather broad audience of development practitioners, as well as people interested by the field, in order to propose them an overview of the issues as they stand currently. The publication highlights the key questions that decision-makers and practitioners of support for youth insertion ask themselves. Covering both Mediterranean and sub-Saharan Africa, it takes into account the heterogeneity of the profiles and situations of the young Africans who are in the 15-24 age range, rural, urban, qualified, non-qualified, non-educated, etc.

Further, it is not the intention of this publication to be exhaustive on the subject, or to be part of university research. Rather, it seeks to make the subject accessible by providing a synthesis of the current status. In doing so, we see that knowledge on the subject is greatly lacking and that in-depth research is thus needed, given the importance of the issues at stake. The results also show that researchers and practitioners should work more closely together.

Although this publication calls for in-depth work on notions and concepts, it does not seek to propose an exhaustive and in-depth vision of the subject. Insertion is a complex issue to deal with because it covers many overlapping fields, specialties, and notions such as employment, youth, empowerment, etc. Literature on the subject has a plethora of references and terms, suggesting that reflection on the definition and use of these concepts is necessary, and that to do so it would be helpful to call on approaches such as sociology of work, education science, and anthropology. More in-depth work would thus be worthwhile.

Furthermore, this publication is not meant to present a semantic debate. Its perspective is to use the terminology commonly employed by development practitioners and in the field of training services. Finally, this research concerns mainly the professional aspects of insertion and the measures that fall more within policies of education, training, and employment, rather than the social aspect (citizenship, health, culture, leisure, housing) and measures for social action in the broader sense.

Based on the main documents produced chiefly by international and national institutions, this publication first provides keys to help understand the issues regarding youth in Africa and their situation faced with employment. As there is no clear consensus on the subject, the publication then proposes outlines to describe the processes of youth insertion and a typology of insertion measures. Finally, it brings together the various recommendations by the actors and highlights the main points requiring more in-depth research into the design and implementation of support measures for youth insertion in Africa.

Part 1.
What do we mean by "youth" in Africa?

The basic points:

- While the concept of "youth" is situated between childhood and adulthood, there is no universal definition of it. This notion covers very heterogeneous categories of individuals that vary according to place and era. Youth seems to be a period of transitions with fuzzy outlines, influenced in particular by becoming physiologically, psychologically, socially, and financially autonomous.
- In 2010, there were nearly 205 million persons age 15-24 in Africa. The majority of these were still living in rural areas and were particularly concerned by internal as well as international mobility. Each year sees an additional 5 to 7 million individuals added to this 15-24 age segment. This means that in the year 2050 there may be 437 million young Africans, or 33.3% of all age 15-24 people in the world.
- Africa has made considerable progress in terms of access to education, but is still very behind in terms of equity between socio-economic categories and of quality of learning. Although civic involvement by youth and access to mobile phones and Internet are increasingly widespread, the capacity to become organized and dialog with political, economic, and social partners often remains weak.

Part 1 presents what is understood by the notion of youth, the age ranges of which are difficult to define. It then underlines the importance of youth in the African population, which is linked to demographic growth. Although access to education in Africa has made considerable progress, the issue of its quality remains critical, and the offer in technical education and vocational training remains insufficient. Finally, youth are the key to African development because the future of the continent is in their hands and because the current demographic dividend represents both a window of opportunity and a challenge of great importance.

1.1. The notion of youth in the African context: definition and determinants

The notion of "youth" is situated between childhood and adulthood. It covers ages that vary according to place and era. There thus exists no universal definition of it. The main international institutions that work on the subject (namely the United Nations, the World Bank, and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development—OECD) make do with a biological age criterion and define "youth" as the population between the ages of 15 and 24. This is the definition adopted for the statistics presented in this study. However, there is often a distinction between adolescents (age 15-19) and young adults (age 20-24).

This age segment defining "youth" differs according to the contexts and has tended to expand in the last decade. For example, in France youth had long been defined for statistical purposes as age 15-24, but the French National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE) now establishes youth as the age 15-29 segment (CREDOC, 2012). The African Union considers the age 15-35 segment as "youth," and Mali goes so far as to include those age 15-40. This choice of age segment is to be considered in the light of life expectancy at birth in Africa, which is estimated at age 58 in 2012 compared to age 50 in 2000 according to World Health Organization (WHO) statistics (WHO, 2015). Depending on the definition, the "youth" period in Africa can thus last on average between 17% (10 years) and 45% (26 years) of an individual's average life span.

Above and beyond the notion of age, youth above all seems to be a period of transitions with fuzzy outlines and to be subject to social influences. Categorization of an entity called youth may be based on objective characteristics such as age, but it is generally perceived through certain more subjective and social specificities. The notion of youth is indeed strongly tied to social and cultural practices and is generally characterized by the fact that it concerns periods of transition.

According to Émile Durkheim, one of the fathers of modern sociology, youth comes just before adulthood and corresponds to a process of socialization making it possible to learn "adult roles". The aggregate of different ages would then seem to be a social construction incorporating the problems of discontinuities between different periods of life (CREDOC, *ibid.*). The status of youth thus becomes difficult to define, as the start of adulthood is judged to be vague, and this status is not necessarily applicable to the entire population. In the words of Pierre Bourdieu, "*youth is only a word*," and age is thus "*a biological datum that is socially manipulatable and manipulated*". We can thus say that there is no one youth period but many youth periods.

Becoming physiologically, psychologically, socially, and financially autonomous is a crucial determinant in the passage from the status of youth to that of adult. It seems that passage toward adulthood is generally gradual and tied to certain forms of the individual's autonomy in relation to his or her family unit (CREDOC, 2012). In most countries, the defining moments of the passage to adulthood are the end of studies, the first job, the ability to meet one's needs independently, the ability to reside outside the family home, and family autonomy as represented by marriage and one's first child.

In this regard, it seems that the status of youth ends earlier for women. This is because they leave the family home earlier than boys on average, marry or live with older men, and have children at a younger age than men. The process of youth becoming autonomous from the society of adults also seems central with regard to social and cultural aspects (tastes in music and clothes), mobility (migration and travel), and the use of new technologies (cell phone, computer, Internet, etc.).

While youth seem to form very heterogeneous categories, especially with regard to the paths of access to adulthood, we can see a tendency for the ages of transitions to be pushed back. Far from a homogenous category, youth seems to be an extremely diverse reality depending on the contexts, especially according to educational level, location, socio-economic backgrounds, and types of transition toward adulthood encountered.

In Africa, we can observe a tendency for delay in the age of "first times" (first stable job, first independent housing, first child). One reason is that women have tended to have children and get married later in recent decades (Westoff, 1992). This tendency can especially be seen in urban areas and can be explained mainly by girls staying in school longer (Ferré, 2009).

The sequence of stages of entry into adulthood is not as linear as previously. For example, we can see more and more births outside of marriage, which had been very rare previously. Analyses made in three African capitals, namely Dakar, Antananarivo, and Yaoundé (Antoine *et al.*, 2001), have shown that youth becoming independent from their family is increasingly affected by access to employment and financial autonomy being obtained at a later age, marriage occurring later, and residential autonomy being difficult to achieve. Without government social protection and aid, this extension in the period before obtaining autonomy is increasing the period of time of family support and thus strongly weighs on household resources. Later, we will see how access to income and a job is a central factor in this passage from youth to adulthood. The trajectories and pathways followed by youth for this purpose will thus be analyzed in order to bring out determinants on which youth insertion policies can act.

1.2. Youth demography in Africa: distribution, mobility, and trends

In 2010, the total population of Africa was 1.031 billion persons, of which 205 million were in the age 15-24 segment, unequally distributed throughout the continent (UNDP, 2013). Sub-Saharan Africa, with its population of 831 million persons representing 80% of the African population, made up 12% of the world's population in 2010 compared to 10.4% in 2000.

Out of the total population of persons age 15-24 in 2010 living in Africa, 34% were in East Africa, 29% in West Africa, 19% in North Africa, 12% in Central Africa, and 6% in the countries of Southern Africa. Six major highly populated areas can be identified on the continent: the Maghreb region, the Nile Valley, the Gulf of Guinea, the Great Lakes region, the southern part of Southern Africa, and Ethiopia. The Sahara and Sahel regions are very sparsely populated, whereas the coastal regions and areas along major rivers are the most populated.

In 2014, there were five cities in Africa with populations of over 10 million: Lagos (22.8 million), Cairo (20.4 million), Johannesburg (12.7 million), Kinshasa (11.2 million), and Abidjan (10.8 million). There are around 37 cities with populations exceeding 2 million, and 67 exceeding 1 million. The populations are mostly Muslim in the North and the East. The other regions are more Christian and animist.

Despite growing urbanization, nearly 70% of persons age 15-24 in Africa still live in rural areas. The urban African population has grown from 33 million in 1950 to 373 million today. It could reach 1.2 billion in 2050, making up 63% of the population of Africa. Nonetheless, in the lowest-income countries, currently 80% of youth are rural compared to 60% in the middle-income countries and 40% in the upper-middle-income countries (AfDB, 2012). The majority of young Africans thus still live in rural areas, a condition linked with the overrepresentation of agriculture in the professional activities of young people. Available data also suggest that a majority of youth live in the village or near the village where they were born (AFD, 2014).

However, the above-mentioned regional averages do not show the big differences among different countries, including when these latter have comparable income levels. For example, the gap in rate of urbanization between Kenya and Côte d'Ivoire—two middle-income countries—is 34 points. In Ethiopia, nearly five times more young people live in rural areas than in urban areas, whereas in Togo the distribution is more balanced. Young women are often overrepresented in the countryside, even though they are increasingly taking part in the rural exodus. The growing urbanization of the sub-Saharan African countries has significant consequences in terms of the sociology of youth. The rural, more traditional societies accompanied the passage to adulthood with a set of "*precisely timed and codified rites of initiation*" (Antoine *et al.*, 2001); in contrast, urban life tends to gradually do away with these rites and to modify this transition.

With nearly one individual out of five between the ages of 15 and 24, Africa is the region with the highest proportion of young people in the world (UNDP, 2013). Young Africans currently represent 16.7% of the total population age 15-24 in the world. The number of young Africans and their relative weight within the global population will probably increase sharply throughout the 21st century because of strong demographic growth. At the global level, the maximum proportion of population age 15-24 seems to have been reached in 1985. However, this stabilization in the proportion of young people was reached only in 2005 in the countries of North Africa and Southern Africa and will occur only in 2020 in East Africa, in 2025 in Central Africa, and in 2030 in West Africa (UNDP, 2013, based on mean estimates of fertility rates).

Table 1. Age 15-24 segment populations in Africa

2010	Age 15-24 population (in thousands)	% in the total population
West Africa	59,128	19.4
East Africa	69,172	20.2
Central Africa	24,781	19.8
North Africa	39,615	19.8
Southern Africa	11,929	20.3
Africa (total)	204,625	19.8

Source: UNDP, 2013.

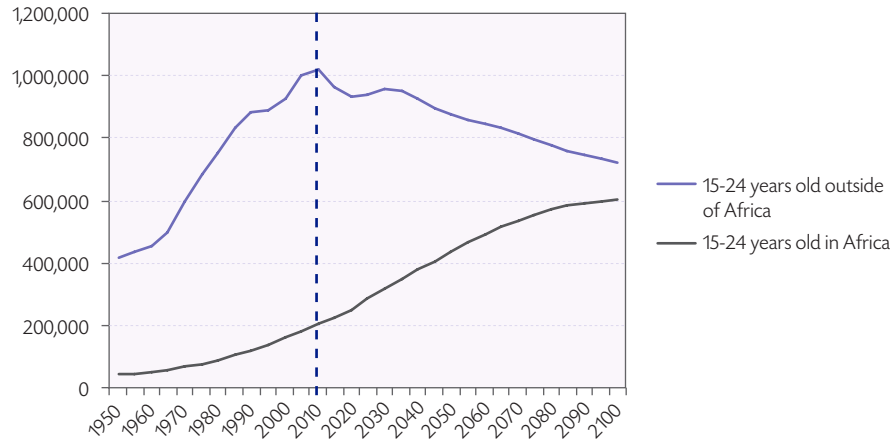
Internal migrations within Africa as well as migration to other regions concern young people in particular. According to United Nations data (UNDESA, 2013), out of the 232 million international migrants in 2013, 30.9 million seem to come from sub-Saharan Africa, making up only 13.3% of total international migration. Africa seems to host a total of 18.6 million international migrants, of which 15.3 million come from another country in Africa.

In addition to difficult economic and social conditions, which largely explain the emigration of youth seeking better chances of insertion, there are also "forced migrations" resulting from conflicts, political instability, health crises, or vulnerability heightened by the effects of environmental degradation. The proportion of African migrants going to OECD countries is increasing, but remains low compared to other regions of the world. Despite growing diversification in the destination countries of African migrants, historical and linguistic ties remain privileged. The sub-Saharan Africa emigrant population is seeing a higher proportion of women, is increasingly qualified, and remains younger than that of other regions in the world. Students from sub-Saharan Africa are proportionally small in number in the OECD countries (OECD, 2015).

Africa is endowed with especially high demographic growth compared to other regions of the world, which are aging overall. Graph 1 (UNDP, 2013) shows youth population growth trends from 1950 to 2100. We can see that African youth numbered five times less than those outside of Africa in 2010 and that this gap is shrinking rapidly and sharply. The curves tend to meet in the long term (after 2100). Graph 1 thus shows that by 2050 the population of African youth could reach 437 million, or 33.3% of all the age 15-24 segment globally, and could reach 45.5% in 2100 (UNDP, 2013).

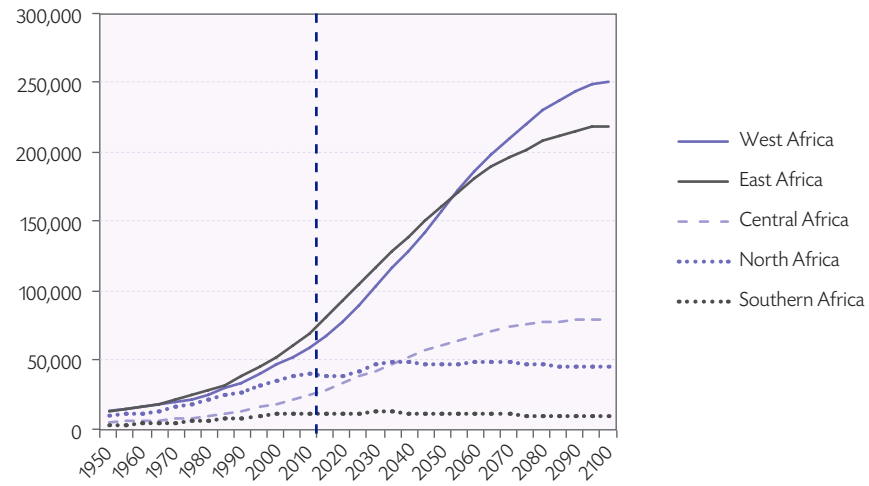
Sub-Saharan Africa is significantly behind in controlling fertility rates compared to other regions of the world. For example, only 23% of women age 15 to 49 in couples use contraception methods. This figure is 36% in East Africa and Southern Africa, but only 16% in West Africa and Central Africa (UNICEF, 2012). This behavior in reproductive health often leads to very

Graph 1. Age 15-24 population in and outside Africa, in thousands of persons



Source: World Population Prospects (UNDP, 2013), mean estimate of fertility rate.

Graph 2. Age 15-24 population by African sub-region, in thousands of persons



Source: World Population Prospects (UNDP, 2013), mean estimate of fertility rate.

early pregnancies and marriages. For example, in sub-Saharan Africa in 2011, 28% of women age 20-24 had given birth before age 18, and 24% of girls age 15-19 were married or living with a man. In 2010, fertility rates were thus nearly twice as high in sub-Saharan Africa as in the other regions of the world. The mean hypothesis predicts that these will remain higher until 2100, leading to a very significant increase in the number of Africans age 15-24, which could exceed 600 million by 2100. This growth will be driven by the massive increase of youth in West and East Africa and to a lesser degree in Central Africa. In contrast, in North Africa and in Southern Africa, the age 15-24 population should stagnate or slightly decline (UNDP, 2013). It is estimated that, each year between 2015 and 2050, there will be an additional 5 to 7 million persons age 15-24 than the previous year.

1.3. The educational situation of youth in Africa: access, equity, and quality

Africa has made considerable progress in terms of access to education, but it is still very behind compared to the global level. The number of children enrolled in school in Africa has greatly increased since 2000. In absolute terms, 125 million youth had at least a primary-school level in 2010, and 42% of the age 20-24 segment finished secondary school (AfDB, 2012).

Despite this considerable quantitative increase in the number of children in school, the fact that Africa had a lot of catching up to do combined with the region's very strong demographic growth equate to a still very low level of schooling, in quantity and especially in quality, in most African countries. In the sub-Saharan African countries in 2012, on average 20% of school-age children were effectively enrolled in pre-primary school, 79% in primary, and half in secondary. The number of students in higher education per 100,000 inhabitants is 632. The formal technical education and vocational training offer is on the increase, but still remains limited. In sub-Saharan Africa, there are for example still 29.6 million children and 12 million adolescents who are not in any kind of school or training body (UNESCO, 2015). The situation is quite different in North Africa, where the vast majority of children have access to primary and secondary education, and where access to higher education has considerably increased in recent decades. These formal training offers are rounded out by a range of other forms of knowledge transmission: traditional or restructured apprenticeship (*apprentissage rénové*), training in companies, literacy classes, as well as evening classes concern a very significant number of youth. On the other hand, formal vocational training is developing at a slow pace.

Very big gaps can exist in terms of access to studies depending on the characteristics of the child and his or her gender, family, or place of residence. Rural and isolated areas are especially disadvantaged in terms of access to education compared to urban or peri-urban areas. In both cities and in rural areas, the rate of school enrollment is lower among girls than boys.

In 2012, looking at primary-school age children, estimates finally show that 18.8 million children in West and Central Africa and 11 million in East and Southern Africa have not been able to have access to basic education. Out of a total of 57.8 million children not enrolled in school around the world, 51.3% live in sub-Saharan Africa (UIS, 2015). For lower secondary school children,

these figures are 12.5 million in West and Central Africa and 8.5 million in East and Southern Africa.[1] Out of the total of 62.9 million adolescents not enrolled in school, 34.9% thus live in sub-Saharan Africa.

These strong limitations on access to studies and training naturally differ from country to country, given the relative effectiveness of educational policies of each country. Nevertheless, we can generally observe that the phenomenon of exclusion from educational systems in Africa is more striking for the categories of the most vulnerable children. These include those from low-income households, those living in isolated areas, girls living in rural areas, children born to marginalized groups, children with disabilities, child laborers, orphans, refugees, and displaced persons. As to gender equality in access to basic quality education, Africa is the region in the world furthest behind (UNICEF, 2014).

The quality of the educational offer and its results in terms of what is learned by students at school still seems to be very weak in Africa. In addition to the difficulties of providing access and keeping young people in the school system, there are strong concerns regarding the quality of teaching provided to children and youth. Existing indices regarding the quality of the educational offer and its results in terms of what students learn at school indicate a rather weak overall quality in the region. Therefore, while a still too small number of children in sub-Saharan Africa finish primary school (and this despite the clear improvements observed in the last two decades), it would seem that an even smaller number of these youth have acquired solid and long-lasting skills in reading, writing, and arithmetic.

Recent studies tend to show that the significant efforts made in terms of access have not been followed by similar tendencies in quality and thus by results of this educational offer. For example, the surveys carried out by the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) program in 14 countries of Southern and East Africa and by the Program for Analysis of Educational Systems (*Programme d'Analyse des Systèmes Éducatifs* – PASEC)[2] for 10 French-speaking African countries show moderate performances and a quite weak level of learning in reading and math among students, as well as strong dispersion in results.

Results of household surveys carried out in 13 countries indicate that, after six years of studies, only 66% of the age 22-44 segment can be considered as knowing how to read and write. In some countries such as Nigeria, Chad, Burkina Faso, or Mali, this figure does not even reach 50% (UNESCO, 2011). Yet, as we will see in Part 2, a high level of education increases the chances of eventually finding what is considered to be a good-quality job.

The formal offer in technical vocational education and training (TVET) is still limited, whereas informal apprenticeship is very widespread. In 2012, TVET sections represented, on average,

[1] The statistics for North Africa include those of the Middle East and are 4.3 million for primary school age children and 2.9 million for lower secondary school (2015 UIS estimate based on survey data).

[2] Program implemented by the Conference of Ministers of Education of French-Speaking Countries (CONFEMEN).

only 6% of the total number of secondary school students in Africa, a figure in slight decline since 1999 (7%). In more than half of the 21 countries with available data between 1999 and 2012, the proportion of youth enrolled in TVET sections decreased, and sometimes significantly as seen in Liberia, Mozambique, and Rwanda (with a drop of more than 10%). In contrast, other countries, such as Angola, stand out with a clear increase in the number of students (from 19% to 45% between 1999 and 2010) (World Bank–AFD, 2014). In sub-Saharan Africa, technical education and vocational training, which represented only 5% of total secondary education in 2000, saw their share climb to 10% in 2012 (Pôle de Dakar, 2013).

More often than not, the TVET offer is judged to be inadequate, not only in terms of quality and of being poorly adapted to the economy's needs, but also because it trains students for the same craft professions as apprenticeship does. The formal offer is rounded out by various other pathways for acquiring technical and vocational skills. These are of variable quality and include traditional or restructured apprenticeships and semi-structured non-formal training. Informal apprenticeship remains very widespread in the region (Adea, 2014*a*). This is the foremost opportunity for vocational training and insertion for youth. In all, 75 to 90% of young Africans seeking to integrate the labor market are apprenticed by micro- and small businesses: 90% in Benin, 86% in Ghana, 80% in Kenya, and 87% in Zimbabwe. Even if they massively enter into informal-type activities, they still need to be trained in order to carry out the tasks entrusted to them profitably.

1.4. Youth's potential for African development

Civic engagement by young people is becoming increasingly widespread. However, exercise of voting rights still remains limited, and capacities to become organized and to engage in dialog with political, economic, and social partners are often weak. With regard to voting rights, in 2008 less than 40% of persons under age 22 voted during their most recent election, according to Afrobarometer. Rate of voting does, however, increase from age 22, reaching 60% among youth age 24 and over (World Bank–AFD, *ibid.*). Participation in varied local meetings seems more deeply rooted in youth practices, with nearly two-thirds of youth declaring that they participate rather regularly in a meeting or a demonstration. Furthermore, the general political atmosphere and respect for public freedoms have tended to improve since 2000. Indeed, we can observe that, in the last several years, people in general and youth in particular no longer hesitate to take to the streets to call for jobs and better wages (AfDB, 2014).

Civic engagement by young people strongly depends on socio-economic factors such as level of education or income, and it varies according to the socio-political context. It nevertheless seems that, in very many African contexts, the capacities to become organized and to dialog with political, economic, and social partners are quite limited. Despite the fact that youth are the foremost concerned, youth organizations are relatively weak and not very organized at the country level or at the international organization level. Their voices are still struggling to be

heard by political and economic decision-makers, who therefore remain largely disconnected from youth issues, the opportunities they offer, and the initiatives they can provide.

Young Africans have increasing access to cell phones and Internet. They are the top consumers of new technologies. This access to technology represents a real break from previous generations (AFD, 2015). In 2010, there were 45 active telephone subscriptions per 100 persons in sub-Saharan Africa: 42 in East and Southern Africa and 48 in West and Central Africa. However, this figure remains much lower than the average of other developing countries (UNICEF, 2012). In North Africa, access to cell phones is significantly more widespread, with often 90 cell phones per 100 inhabitants.

As for Internet access, Africa remains considerably behind other regions of the globe. It is estimated that 10 out of 100 persons in sub-Saharan Africa are Internet users: 8 in East and Southern Africa and 13 in West and Central Africa. Use of Internet is higher in North Africa, with rates of 37% in Tunisia, 49% in Morocco, 14% in Libya, 13% in Algeria, and 27% in Egypt. The increase in 3G coverage in Africa and the sharp decrease in smartphone costs could strongly increase Internet access *via* cell phones. In Côte d'Ivoire, Senegal, Rwanda, and Uganda, coverage of the population by the 3G network exceeds 50% (AFD, *ibid.*). Mobile technologies are thus being used more and more to improve the situation of young people in access to education, health care, and financial services. The role played by social networks and the media during the Arab Spring in 2011 has been mentioned as a factor for triggering and organizing these big mobilizations.

Mobile and digital technologies also provide new opportunities for access by youth to jobs. In 2012, the cell phone sector directly or indirectly employed more than 5 million Africans (AFD, 2014). Besides the thousands of jobs created directly, information and communication technologies (ICTs) targeting youth employment have several advantages. They offer opportunities for improving access to information (better connecting youth to markets and to jobs, and reducing recruitment costs for companies), improving skills (through a tutorial system and training using this medium), and enabling employees and employers to get into contact (*via* certification and evaluation of activities).

With a majority of young people working in the informal sector, the issue of information is central as much for jobseekers as for those offering jobs. Obtaining information on the labor market faces problems of cost and accessibility, reliability and quality, access time, and distances (WDR, 2016). This information travels chiefly through personal networks, contributing to labor market inefficiency and to reproducing inequalities. The vulnerable categories (including youth) are the most affected by this deficit of quality information.

On the other hand, many tools are available: SMS, interactive answering machine and automatic speech-to-text services, call-centers, and Web models (*via* telephone or smartphone). These tools are providing solutions that are starting to be used on other continents (GSMA, 2014). New mobile solutions are being developed in order to offer support for writing a mini-CV (*via* SMS, voice, MOOC, and Internet), develop a business plan (*via* remote tutoring), and

secure labor exchanges. This subject is relatively new and may have considerable impact on public policies on youth employment.

Meanwhile, the demographic dividend represents huge potential for the development of Africa, although it is also an enormous challenge. Many analyses show the importance played by the structure by age and the working/non-working relationship in the trajectories of development. The high proportion of young people in Africa, where the majority of the population is under age 25, is perceived as a novel opportunity for development. This "demographic dividend" phenomenon is characterized by surplus growth generated by a rapid drop in fertility and dependence rates, accompanied by an improvement in human capital and in the economic environment. This phenomenon is stirring up much hope in the emerging countries that benefit from it. However, the example of the North African countries shows that the increase in the working-age population will be an opportunity only if this population effectively works.

The development of conditions favorable to employment—including for women—that can absorb this labor into the economy of the countries is a crucial issue. The growth of the proportion of young people in the population could also turn out to be a factor of destabilization in the countries where the demographic transition is poorly managed. The overthrow of governments in Tunisia, Egypt, and Burkina Faso shows that the destabilizing strength of youth who are qualified, frustrated, and neglected is a very concrete reality that cannot be ignored or minimized.

Part 2.
What is the employment situation in Africa, faced with the demands, needs, and expectations of youth?

The basic points:

- Measuring youth employment in Africa, both in terms of data collection and in use of indicators, remains complex.
- The employment rate of youth is high in the poorest countries of Africa, but jobs are more insecure there. Young people often cannot afford not to work. The percentage of youth who neither have a job nor are in the education system, as well as the rate of unemployment, are higher in the African countries with better average income.
- In sub-Saharan Africa, wage employment varies between 5 and 20%; vulnerable jobs between 50 and 80%; and unemployed, discouraged, and non-working represent 20 to 40% of youth. In North Africa, wage employment can reach up to 50% and vulnerable jobs up to 30%.
- The employment prospects for youth in Africa do not seem very encouraging in either the public or the formal private sectors. Opportunities are essentially to be found in the informal and rural sectors.

Part 2 first of all presents the notions of employment, whose outlines are complex and different from one context to another, and the information making it possible to measure it. It then gives data on the African economic situation, which is improving—but insufficiently so in relation to demographic growth and the needs for job creation generated by the latter. Finally, it highlights three striking aspects regarding youth faced with employment in Africa. First, the employment rate of youth is higher in low-income countries, where they are more often obliged to work in vulnerable jobs. Secondly, there is a strong correlation between education level and job access, but the acquired skills do not adequately match economic needs. Thirdly, employment prospects for youth in Africa are essentially to be found in micro- and small enterprises and in rural areas.

2.1. Defining employment

The notion of employment is complex and covers different realities. Depending on the contexts, employment might be salaried, protected by a work code, and accompanied by social protection. In other contexts, employment may be informal, unstable, part of a micro-unit of family production, and may or may not be remunerated. According to the Global Human Development Report (UNDP, 2013), it is possible to define employment in the broader sense as "*real or attributed, formal or informal income-generating activities in monetary form or in kind.*"

However, some activities are not included in this definition, especially those carried out in violation of fundamental human rights: these cannot be considered as jobs (World Bank–AFD, 2014). The legal minimum working age is usually set at age 16, and mandatory schooling concerns children up to age 16 in most African countries. Nevertheless, these obligations are not very well respected.

Above and beyond the aspect of material benefits, the quality of the job is highlighted in the concept of "decent work" developed by the International Labour Organization (ILO, 1999). The principal thus involves opportunities for "*work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families.*" European institutions have also worked hard to formalize the notion of quality of jobs. However, the content still seems rather vague, variable, and very dependent on economic productivity.

The consequences of an insufficient job, at both the quantitative and qualitative levels, are many in number and especially significant for youth. In Africa, as in other regions of the globe, income generated by jobs is a fundamental factor (ILO, 2015). Yet, with a job, very many other things are at stake for an individual and for society as a whole. The type of remunerative activities of an individual has a strong impact on crucial aspects such as identity, status, self-confidence, and well-being. At the societal level, there is interaction between work and many societal issues such as economic growth, social cohesion, political stability, and insecurity.

Young people are especially affected by the multiple dimensions of work and its consequences. Due to their particular position in the labor market, youth are faced with a more complex

process of becoming independent and a lengthening and/or multiplication of transition periods (Antoine *et al.*, 2001). In North Africa, it has been shown that the relative incapacity of economies to create enough jobs for the increasingly numerous and increasingly better educated youth was one of the triggers of the Arab Spring movements of 2011.

Box 1

"Decent work," as the ILO sees it

Decent work has been defined as a source of personal dignity for workers, and it falls within a framework of promoting social justice and the assurance of the internationally recognized rights of workers (ILO, 2015). This perspective is reflected in four objectives identified by the ILO, which combine approaches through law, through employment, and through its social aspect: (1) the promotion of employment, which gives possibilities of investing economically; (2) the guarantee of workers' rights, which enables even the poorest to be represented and to see their working conditions evolve toward decent work; (3) respect for social dialog, which makes it possible to manage workplace conflicts and thereby ensure the building of inclusive societies; and (4) the expansion of social protection, in order to guarantee work conditions that respect people's health and safety.

The principle is to give individuals the possibility to find self-fulfillment and to become integrated into society, as well as to give them the freedoms to express their concerns, join a labor union, and take part in decisions that will have consequences on their lives. It implies equal opportunity and equal treatment between women and men.

2.2. Measuring youth employment in Africa

Many indicators exist to describe the time use of work among youth. As a statistical category, employment is very complex. Its measurement continues to be the subject of much debate because of many conceptual and empiric problems. The "Rosetta Stone" for labor markets (AfDB, 2012) lists a certain number of indicators, each of which refers to very different issues and situations. For example, unemployment rate is used more to describe the situation of young graduates with regard to employment, whereas it would not be relevant to use it to analyze the situation of less qualified youth.

Table 2. Rosetta Stone of the labor market

<table>
<tr><th>Working-age population (W)</th><th>Time Use</th><th colspan="2">Employment Status</th><th>Work status</th><th>Job quality</th><th>Formalization level of the work</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="6">In the labor force (L)</td><td rowspan="3">Full-time worker</td><td colspan="2">Wage employed</td><td rowspan="4">Employed</td><td rowspan="2">Wage employment</td><td rowspan="4">Formal or informal</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Self-employed</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Household enterprise, paid or not</td><td rowspan="3">Vulnerable employment (V)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Part-time worker</td><td colspan="2">Voluntarily part-time employed</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Involuntary = Underemployed</td></tr>
<tr><td>Job seeker</td><td>Unemployed (U)</td><td rowspan="2">Broad Unemployment</td><td rowspan="3">NEET (Not in Employment, Education or Training = N)</td><td rowspan="3"></td><td rowspan="3"></td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Out of the labor force</td><td rowspan="2">Inactive or taking care of housework</td><td>Discouraged</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Inactive</td></tr>
<tr><td>In education</td><td colspan="2">Student</td><td>Student</td></tr>
</table>

Source: Adapted from AfDB (2012).

With regard to these work statuses of individuals, four major indicators emerge to describe the situation of African youth in terms of employment.

- The *youth employment rate*, still called the rate of participation in the labor market, *i.e.* the working population age 15-24 (L) divided by the total population of the age 15-24 segment (W). This indicator measures the proportion of economically active youth (unemployed and working youth) compared to the size of the working-age population. Thus, used at the same time as the youth unemployment rate, the labor force participation rate helps assure that decrease in unemployment rate is not due to a shift of people from "unemployed" to "inactive";
- The *youth unemployment rate, i.e.* the number of unemployed age 15-24 (U) divided by the labor force age 15-24 (L). This rather precise definition requires abundant data in order to determine levels and tendencies. In order to make international comparisons possible, the unemployed must meet three classification criteria as defined by the ILO: (1) have not worked in the two weeks preceding the survey; (2) are actively seeking work; (3) are available to work;
- The *NEET (Not in Employment, Education or Training) rate, i.e.* the number of those age 15-24 who are not employed and not receiving education or training (N), divided by the total population of the age 15-24 segment (W). This is an alternative measurement of youth unemployment, often more appropriate for this age category. This rate describes a situation of youth in the labor market who do not have access to jobs and who are not

in the process of acquiring skills through education or training that would enable their more long-term insertion;

– The *rate of youth in insecure or vulnerable employment*, which measures the proportion of young people who are self-employed or who work for a member of their family. These jobs are likely to be neither regulated by a contract nor protected by a social protection program. Moreover, they are more sensitive to economic cycles. This indicator nevertheless has limits: it includes as "vulnerable" the small business owners who may be obtaining quite comfortable incomes from their business, and it does not include young wage earners who may nonetheless be experiencing vulnerable employment conditions if they work in the informal sector or if their job depends on economic cycles.

A large number of other indicators can be used in order to grasp an understanding of youth employment. Among these include: the rate of discouraged workers among youth (which indicates youth who have given up looking for work), the distribution of youth according to their job status (full-time wage employment, full-time self-employment, full-time unpaid employment, voluntary part-time employment, involuntary part-time employment); the rate of self-employed youth (which often refers to individuals working with micro-enterprise status), and the rate of poverty among working youth (which measures the rate of young people who work and who live under a certain poverty level). All these indicators ensue from normative definitions (generally developed by the ILO) and should be put into relation with the quality of existing data in the African context.

Gathering precise data on the labor market in Africa remains a difficult task, and the existing data should be used with caution. The two main data sources on the subject for Africa are administrative data and work surveys. The administrative data that come from registries are often inexistent or of very poor quality in the African countries, especially because of the shortcomings in or even non-existence of national employment agencies that count the unemployed. The work surveys help make up for this lack of data, but they are still rather rare in Africa and are conducted mainly in countries having reached a certain income level. The data presented by the African Economic Outlook (AfDB, 2012) are based on a harmonization of available administrative data ("Survey-based Harmonized Indicators Program"). The World Bank also has a harmonized database based on work surveys and household surveys available (Demographic and Health Surveys). These two sources of information are generally rounded out by data from the Gallup World Poll, which has the advantage of covering a large number of countries in Africa. However, the Gallup World Poll surveys have the disadvantage of interviewing only 1,000 inhabitants per country per year (compared to 20,000 respondents on average in a work survey). Even though they are based on representative samples, these surveys can introduce biases and may not reflect the heterogeneity of situations well, from one social-economic category to another. In this respect, the Gallup polls can only give us orders of magnitude. Reliable data on the African labor market are thus not available at an aggregated level. The fullest database to date is provided by the ILO and compiles the available sources.

Box 2

How can informal employment be measured?

Three types of surveys help to characterize employment in the informal sector. The World Bank surveys on enterprises represent an important source of data for measuring informal activity from the enterprise angle. Since informal enterprises are not included in registries and censuses, micro-surveys are required to grasp an understanding of the sector.

These micro-surveys are based on samples that, despite their representativeness, may suffer potential biases. For example, it can be expected that the enterprises included in the sample are more visible and potentially the closest to formal activity. This measure underestimates informal employment: only informal enterprises are included in the sample, yet it is possible for a worker to be hired without a job contract at a formal enterprise. A second possibility for measuring informal employment consists in estimating the volume of informal workers, based on an estimation that broadly defines informal work: the enterprises that are not registered with social protection bodies, the employers and employees of these enterprises, the non-paid workers in household enterprises, the informal workers in formal enterprises (day laborers and servants).

Finally, from the point of view of national accounting, the informal sector includes activities that deliberately avoid taxation (tax evasion, dissimulation of illegal activities not meeting regulatory criteria), or that are faced with significant constraints. Financial audits can estimate the size of this undeclared economy, as can estimations of the gross domestic product (GDP); for example, an estimation of undeclared GDP can be made by taking the difference between national aggregated incomes and national aggregated expenditures, which are two ways of measuring GDP.

2.3. The economic situation in Africa

The economic situation in Africa is improving, but not enough to match demographic growth. Economic growth there is accelerating quickly, and the medium-term prospects seem positive (AfDB, 2015). In 2014, GDP increased 3.7%, putting Africa in second place after Asia; it thus performed better than the global economy. But such regional averages hide a great diversity in sub-regional situations. In sub-Saharan Africa, for example, growth reached 5% in 2014. The most dynamic areas are East Africa (6.5%), Central Africa (6.1%), and West Africa (6%). In contrast, North Africa has the lowest growth (1.4%).

The prospects for the medium term for the continent as a whole are positive. Average growth should pick up slightly, from 3.6% in 2015 to 3.7% in 2016 (AfDB, 2016). Sectors such as agriculture, mines, construction, and services are the main drivers of African growth. As for the household side, impetus is coming from private consumption and investments in infrastructures. These results remain fragile because growth has been stimulated by the drastic rise in prices of raw materials, and they could suffer if there is a turnaround in the situation.

Although economic growth is improving in the countries, it is not creating enough jobs and remains insufficient to catch up with the demographic situation. Sub-Saharan Africa is thus the region of the world with the lowest average GDP per capita (USD 2,642 expressed in purchasing power parity – PPP) and with the highest rates of poverty (33% of the population is considered poor according to the income threshold of USD 2 per day expressed in PPP).

Table 3. African growth by region, 2014-2017, GDP growth as a percentage of GDP (AfDB, 2016)

	2014	2015 (e)	2016 (f)	2017 (f)
Africa	3.7	3.6	3.7	4.5
Central Africa	6.1	3.7	3.9	5.0
East Africa	6.5	6.3	6.4	6.7
North Africa	1.4	3.5	3.3	3.8
Southern Africa	2.8	2.2	1.9	2.8
West Africa	6.0	3.3	4.3	5.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	5.0	3.6	4.0	4.9
Sub-Saharan Africa excluding South Africa	5.9	4.2	4.7	5.6

Note: (e) estimates; (f) forecasts.

Source: African Development Bank, 2016.

It is essential for the region to maintain this growth and to see that it is inclusive and creates jobs. Given the budget and fiscal situation of the countries of the region, jobs are not to be found with the state, but rather in rural areas and in the informal economy. The solutions are especially to be found in creation, by increasing productivity in agriculture (especially that of smallholder farms) and in non-agricultural informal enterprises (World Bank–AFD, 2014).

The development of services and extractive industries is another strategy for stimulating the modern sector and making it more competitive (AfDB, 2015). To do so, improvement of infrastructures, transportation networks, energy, and water would seem necessary, as well as financial inclusion and facility of access to reliable and affordable sources of financing. A national youth employment policy associating the state and all partners—local as well as international—would seem essential to build, with a long-term perspective (*Livre blanc pour l'emploi en Afrique*, 2015). New technologies are also opening up many possibilities for the region as much in terms of access to banking services as in agriculture, health, education, and insertion.

Box 3

10 recommendations to stimulate job creation in Africa, *Livre blanc pour l'emploi en Afrique* (White Paper on Employment in Africa), Social Partners' Summit on Employment in Africa, December 2015, Casablanca, Morocco

1. Create the conditions for growth that generates decent and productive jobs.

- Business climate and environment favoring investment.
- Research and development.
- Peace, security, and good governance.
- Structural reforms and sectoral strategies.
- Productivity and competitiveness of enterprises.
- Respect and promote fundamental principles and rights at work.
- Promote small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and small- and medium-sized industries (SMIs).
- Transition from informal to formal.
- Take into account incomes and working conditions.

2. Promote institutionalized social dialog.

- Independent and representative social partners.
- Functional and permanent institutions for dialog.
- Involve the parties in working out the agenda and the schedule.
- Commitment to implement and respect the agreements.

3. Develop entrepreneurship.

- Conduct advocacy for a culture of entrepreneurship, and develop relations among enterprises, schools, and universities.
- Develop income-generating activities.
- Promote self-employment among young people and women.
- Create a motivating framework and places to house enterprises (enterprise zones).
- Set up a caravan to develop income-generating activities and to promote cooperatives.
- Training in creation and management of enterprises.
- Develop the social and solidarity-based economy.

.../...

.../...

4. Develop training that matches the needs of the labor market.

- Promote skills training in order to facilitate insertion into the labor market.
- Vocational and continuing education.
- Development of different types of training: apprenticeship, dual education combining apprenticeships and vocational education, distance learning.
- Make internships in enterprises mandatory.
- Rethink and adapt school orientation according to the demands of the labor market.
- Involvement of the private sector in training curricula/programs.
- Establish a plan for upgrading of interpersonal skills.

5. Create, develop, and regulate systems of intermediation in the labor market.

- Promote the ILO's Convention 181 on private employment agencies.
- Labor mobility that respects the rights of migrants.

6. Create a three-party observatory on employment and employability.

- Identify present and future needs.
- Foresighted management of jobs and skills.

7. Establish a recruitment incentive plan for enterprises and associations.

- Promote an incentive policy to benefit jobseekers, enterprises, and associations, in order to further job creation.

8. Negotiate, sign, and implement a three-party Social Pact at the regional level and national level with the stakeholders (state, employers, workers) for inclusive growth that creates decent jobs.

- Create the conditions for trust among social partners, by respecting the prerogatives of each party.

9. Promote the capacity building of the social partners.

10. Establish a monitoring & evaluation system.

2.4. African youth and the labor market

The percentage of youth in the labor force is particularly high in the poorest countries of Africa. This percentage decreases as income level of the country increases, but jobs are better quality in this case (AfDB, 2012). In Africa, in low-income countries (LICs) nearly 41% of the age 15-24 segment is considered to be in the labor force, compared to 26% in the low and middle income countries (LMICs) and 22% in the upper-middle-income Countries (UMICs).

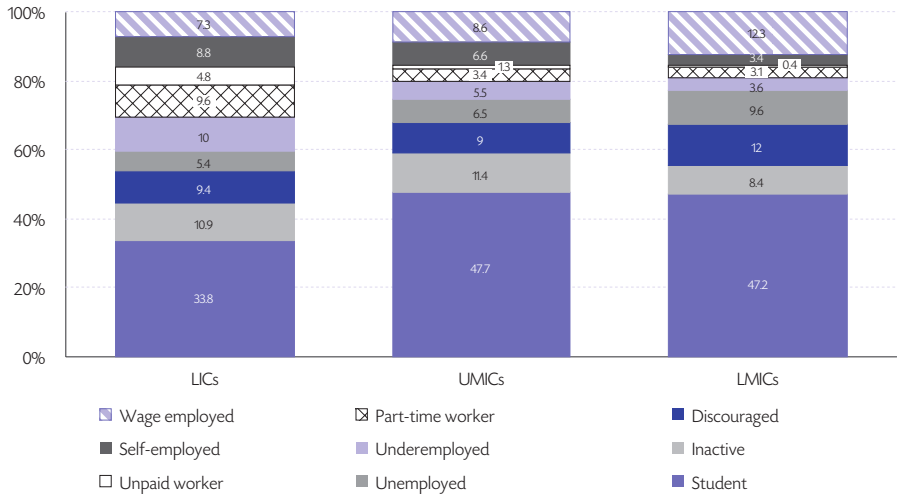
One of the main reasons for these differences is linked to the situation of youth with regard to education and training: only one-third of youth benefit from these in the low-income countries, compared to nearly half in the middle-income countries. However, for the youth considered to be in the labor force, the situation is especially difficult in the low-income countries. For example, only 17% of youth who work (7% of the total number of youth) are employed full-time and work for an employer, whereas the others have vulnerable jobs and do not work full time despite wanting to (AfDB, 2012). In the middle-income countries, vulnerable jobs are much less common, whereas the proportion of youth working for an employer is higher. In the LMICs, 36% of youth who work (9% of all young people) work full time for an employer, whereas in the UMICs this proportion is 52% (12% of the total).

The percentage of NEET as well as that of unemployment are higher in the richer countries than in the poor countries. In the UMICs, nearly one-third of youth belong to the NEET category, compared to one-fourth in the poor countries. The reason for this difference comes above all from the number of unemployed, which increases along with income level, whereas the rate of being out of the labor force tends to decrease. The majority of NEET are nonetheless made up of discouraged or inactive youth who are more excluded from the labor force than unemployed youth. In each category of country, we can see more youth considered as discouraged than youth who are unemployed.

In the poorest countries, youth cannot afford not to work and are obliged to accept vulnerable jobs. As the income level of the country increases, situations change: the living standard increases on average, enabling youth to allow themselves periods of unemployment or inactivity in order to look for a job that corresponds more to their qualifications and their aspirations (AfDB, 2012). Youth in countries with higher income experience greater unemployment but less part-time employment, voluntary or not, and they are less often self-employed. As African youth are more often discouraged than unemployed, the rate of unemployment acts as a partial indicator of the difficulties of youth.

In sub-Saharan Africa, wage employment varies between 5 and 20% and vulnerable employment between 50 and 80%. The discouraged and inactive represent between 20 and 40% of the age 15-24 population. In North Africa, wage employment can reach up to 50% and vulnerable jobs up to 30%. The situation of youth not in school can be distinguished according to four country categories, according to the relative weights of wage employment, vulnerable employment, and NEET (AfDB, 2012).

Graph 3. Youth time use by country income group[3]

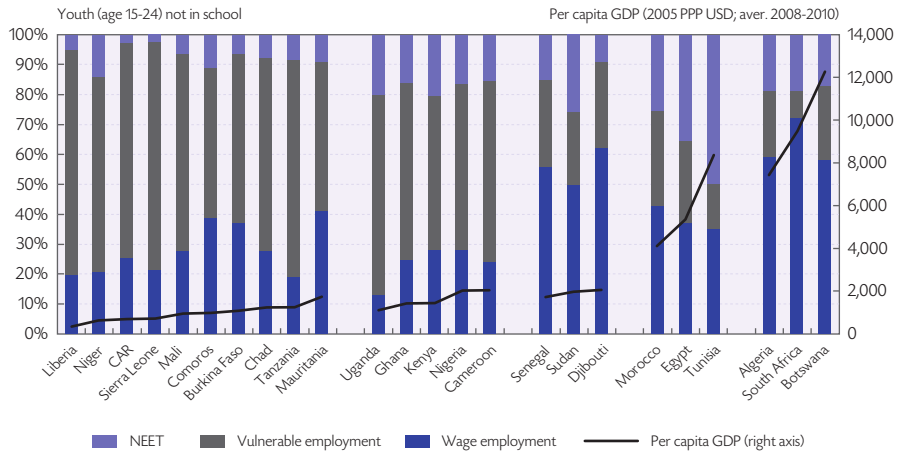


Sources: AfDB, 2012; Gallup World Poll data, 2010.

In a first group including the poorest countries, the age 15-24 segment not in school encounters difficulties obtaining wage employment, and between 50 and 75% of them work in vulnerable jobs. The proportion of youth with wage employment varies but is less than 10%, and the NEET (*i.e.,* the unemployed, discouraged, and inactive), make up more than 20%. Uganda, Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, and Cameroon stand out, with rates of wage employment of around 20%, but with a proportion of NEET that remains relatively stable. Senegal, Sudan, and Djibouti form a group apart, which combines a significant proportion of NEET (around 50%) and a low rate of vulnerable employment (30%). Finally, in a last group we can find Algeria, South Africa, and Botswana, where more than 60% of youth are unemployed, discouraged, or inactive, with the rest divided between vulnerable employment and wage employment.

[3] LICs are countries with per capita GDP less than USD 1,035.
LMICs are countries with a per capita GDP between USD 1,035 and USD 4,085.
UMICs are countries with a per capita GDP between USD 4,085 and USD 12,615.
In the AfDB analysis (2012), these categories include the following countries:
- LICs: Liberia, Niger, CAR, Sierra Leone, Mali, Comoros;
- LMICs: Burkina Faso, Chad, Tanzania, Mauritania, Uganda, Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, Cameroon, Senegal, Sudan, Djibouti;
- UMICs: Morocco, Egypt, Tunisia, Algeria, South Africa, Botswana.

Graph 4. Four types of labor market for youth



Source: AfDB (2012); data: Gallup and World Bank survey.

The relationships between education and access to employment are significant. The country studies (AfDB, 2012) show that the probability of having wage employment with better pay, rather than a poorly paid formal vulnerable job, is higher for more educated young people. Access to higher education is nonetheless correlated to an unemployment rate that is higher among youth and lower among adults. A diploma thus contributes to better insertion in the medium term, but often implies an intermediate period of unemployment. This rate of unemployment largely depends on the diploma. Discouragement is more frequent among youth with no or very little schooling, and the NEET rate is lower among youth who received tertiary education.

Matching acquired skills and required skills is often a problem. Many youth are looking for a job, but many African companies have difficulty filling available positions. This problem affects not only university graduates, but also those who have completed vocational training or secondary school. The reasons for this situation include the poor quality of teaching and the lack of relations between the educational system and job needs. African higher education in fact still largely seeks to integrate young people into public sector jobs, and private sector jobs are largely ignored.

The job prospects for youth in Africa are hardly encouraging overall in both the public and formal private sectors. Opportunities are essentially to be found in the informal and rural sectors. In view of the demographic dividend, Africa's capacity to create jobs will be all the more crucial by 2030, when more than 30 million youth will enter the labor market each year (Beaujeu *et al.*, 2011). Yet, currently, the labor markets are not favorable to young people, and African

growth is not creating enough jobs for them. In the public sector, the number of employees has been significantly reduced in most of the African countries over the last two decades, and this tendency is continuing. The importance of the public sector as an employer will thus continue to decrease. The formal private sector remains too limited to be able to absorb an increasingly numerous labor force, and the possibilities of transition between informal and formal work seem limited. Thus, the informal sector and especially rural jobs will have to continue to play an essential role as a social net, absorbing the youth that enter the labor market. Micro- and small enterprises, especially those working in rural areas and in sectors with the potential for creating added value and jobs, should be an integral part of any public policy aimed at youth employment.

References (Parts 1 and 2)

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Part 3.
What are the processes of insertion for African youth?

The basic points:

- The transition toward employment is often made through a combination of studies and economic activities. Few young people have a stable job formalized by contract. They generally exercise their first economic activity within the family.
- The most important resources for young people are support from their family and the people around them. Family background conditions the possibility of insertion for many youth.
- The vast majority of youth are very poorly qualified. Those in rural areas who benefit from a minimum of access to resources in their immediate environment start on the family farm. Those in urban areas acquire skills through apprenticeship in artisanal workshops. Youth without this access to resources are obliged to engage in vulnerable jobs, and often more than one at a time.
- Unemployed youth with diplomas, who are relatively few in number, look for formal wage employment. While their level of qualification allows them to consider this type of employment eventually, it does not enable faster access to employment. Looking for a job at the end of one's studies is a critical juncture. Faced with the limits of the formal labor market at this time, youth may experience disappointment.

Part 3 introduces the notion of the process of insertion and examines the main factors that influence the pathways of youth. These are family situation, access to relational networks, and qualifications, but also include access to land, financial capital, information, and mobility. It will then present the generic traits of the insertion pathways specific to youth in Africa. Finally, an original characterization of the insertion process of youth will be given, according to four profiles: young urban graduates, poorly qualified youth in survival self-employment, young apprentices working independently, and rural youth from modest farming families.

3.1. What do we mean by "insertion process"? Initial fuel for thought...

Even though age is not a sufficient criterion in itself to define "youth," and despite the fact that many definitions coexist in Africa, the age 15-24 segment used by the United Nations (UN)[4] has been adopted here to facilitate understanding.

Defining what covers the notion of "insertion process" is difficult for several reasons. Socio-professional insertion can, for example, be considered very differently by individual social actors depending on the targeted objective. However, most surveys conducted among youth (see Part 1) present insertion as the search for autonomy characterized by the ability to find a job and thereby participate in economic and social life, and to be able to deal with adult responsibilities. A cross-cutting reading of literature on the issue of youth insertion helps shed light on the diversity of the analytic approaches and terms used by development practitioners: employment, insertion, process, pathways, school-to work transition, guidance, qualification, decent work, etc. As an introduction, it may be useful to verify some of the most used ideas and terms.

Box 4

The terminology surrounding "insertion"

Employment and insertion, two notions with distinct outlines

The surveys conducted among youth engaged in the process of insertion clearly show that employment is an objective that is always present in the approach by youth. These latter are motivated by a search for income that will help improve their living conditions, as well as by status and the possibility for personal development and self-fulfillment. Employment is important in their eyes for the prospects it opens up in terms of independence from their family and the taking on of responsibilities. These aspects, which are closely linked to an income-generating job (freedom autonomy, status, or image) represent powerful drivers for youth. They also show that insertion thus has socio-professional dimensions and that it is not limited to just access to work: insertion also puts work into the dynamic process of life trajectory and of expectation for an economic and social position.

.../...

[4] http://www.unesco.org/new/en/social-and-human-sciences/themes/youth/youth-definition/

.../...

Insertion process and pathway

Even if the notion of insertion pathway is not necessarily perceived by youth as such, insertion is what underlies the concept of process or progressive evolution involving a set of stages that are more or less planned and of different natures (training, independent activity, more or less formal jobs, inactivity, etc.). It is not a question of qualifying a given state of youth seeking insertion, but rather of qualifying a pathway that is pursued and that calls simultaneously on the youths' own experiences, what they can mobilize during their pathway, and what they aim at in terms of insertion. In this regard, the ILO talks of transition toward active life (School-to-Work – SWT) and has recently been developing a methodology for specific surveys to provide elements to help assess these youth insertion pathways.

Guidance

Most insertion-support actions are based on this idea of process and pathways, and they have characteristics in common. They do not propose one-off resources; rather, they fall within a long-term framework where there is a diversity of needs. They are consistent with the end goal of empowerment and seek to improve the performance of the process undertaken by youth. They are thus focused on personal capacity building and may be accompanied by actions to remove barriers from their environment or factors identified as blocking their path. Guidance—or support for insertion, as understood here—thus targets all the measures, systems, or actions that accompany this pathway and seek to both help individuals overcome the obstacles they encounter in their access to employment and to improve their living conditions (Huyghe Mauro *et al.*, 2013).

Qualification/skills

To carry out a profession or a set of tasks related to a job, the individual mobilizes a range of useful and required skills. A skill refers to a set of knowledge, know-how and interpersonal skills—or a set of not only cognitive resources that a person can mobilize in situations to successfully carry out a task and succeed in an action. The notion of qualification should be understood in the broad sense: it is not limited to the technical knowledge mobilized in work; it also covers the status and the social conditions of work. From among these, the following can generally be distinguished (*cf.* CEREQ, 2009):

i) The qualification of the person who brings together all the acquired skills, such as knowledge, know-how, and interpersonal skills that can be used in work. These are the "acquired skills";

ii) The qualification of the job position, which brings together all the knowledge, skills, and experiences required for exercising the tasks entrusted to the person. These are the "required skills";

.../...

.../...

iii) The qualification that is acknowledged and validated by the awarding of a diploma or title that is formally recognized and awarded. Furthermore, it is important to underline that it is very frequent to engage in multiple professional activities in Africa, and that job specialization is still limited, especially in rural areas. A job can thus require very diversified skills. Youth working as self-employed or in micro- or small enterprises are faced with the need to be polyvalent in their activities or professions (ADEA, 2014). Finally, qualification in the broader sense is still often acquired in real professional situations ("on the job"). Training, which includes a significant period in working situations, is often the most apt to prepare for the qualifications required for jobs. Apprenticeship or dual education (apprenticeship and classes) are examples of these (Huyghe Mauro *et al.*, 2013).

The several existing studies on youth insertion in Africa (ILO, 2014; World Bank–AFD, 2014; AFD, 2011; MAE / AFD / GRET, 2013*b*) highlight the need to put the analysis into context. Insertion into the labor force is indeed conditioned by customary and legal rules, as well as by institutions that may greatly vary from one country to another depending on their respective history and culture. It also depends on the levels of schooling, which go barely beyond the end of primary school for nearly one out of two youth and the end of middle school for four out of five youth.

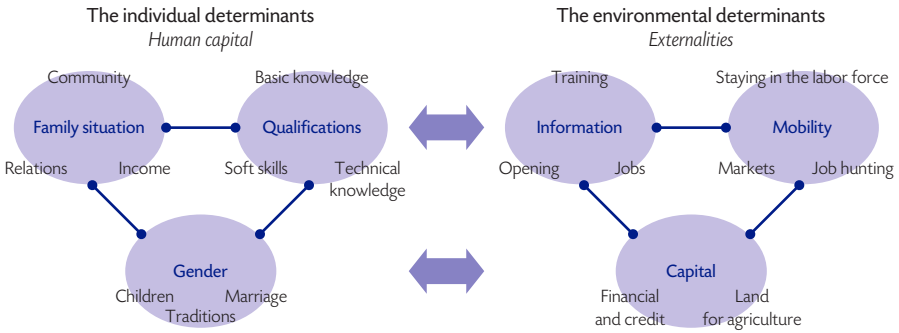
Besides the diversity of contexts and individual situations, some data are applicable for the majority of African contexts. These help lay the foundations for an analysis of the pathways and processes of insertion. Several generic characteristics of insertion processes emerge, making it possible to define the outlines of the problem. Several model youth insertion pathways can be observed that highlight the dynamics of insertion. Finally, the factors that influence these processes are similar, even if their weight is different from one context to another, as are the types of services and actors that work on and influence the pathways. Highlighting these data, which have different weights but are in generally in common with the different African contexts, can help fuel reflection and analysis on the youth-insertion-support measures and policies.

3.2. The main factors influencing youth insertion pathways

Youth work out their insertion pathways and evolve by trying to use as best as possible the resources that their immediate environment can provide them. Many studies concur to distinguish two main categories of factors that condition, in one way or another, youth insertion pathways. These are first of all factors unique to each youth, depending on their capacities, level of education, family ties, networks, and other characteristics that make each individual different and enable him or her to find opportunities for training and for work. This first category is generally called *human capital* (World Bank–AFD, 2014). Next come factors that are

beyond the immediate control of the youth going through the insertion process. These affect their employability or productivity: the conditions of information and of orientation; access to land, capital, and financing; infrastructures, technologies, and markets; and the potential jobs of their environment. Public policies, regulations, and programs likely to influence the choice of economic activity and its achievement are also part of this second category, generally called *business environment* (World Bank–AFD, *ibid.*).[5]

Diagram 1. What determines youth pathways?



Source: GRET in-house production.

3.2.1. The individual determinants, linked to human capital

Human capital includes *"the knowledge, skills, competencies and attributes embodied in individuals that facilitate the creation of personal, social and economic well-being. Human capital represents an intangible good that can develop or support productivity, innovation, and employability."* (OECD, 2001).

The skills that can be put to profitable use in the labor market are sometimes presented as the main factors influencing capacity for access to jobs. But in societies that are still very inegalitarian and characterized by a poorly structured labor market, there are many other factors that take on a high level of importance in the insertion trajectories of youth.

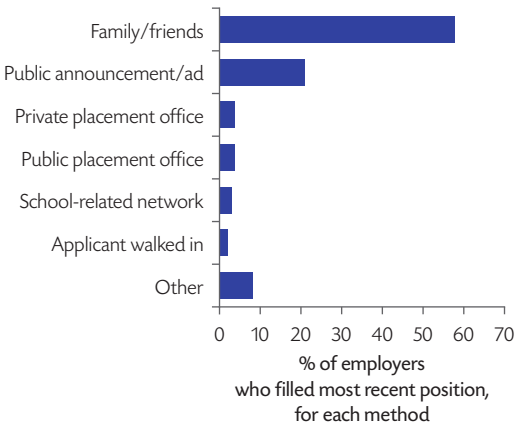
Social and relational capital as well as the social class one belongs to often strongly determine insertion pathways. For example, young women have to deal with more difficulties than young men in their insertion pathways. Handicaps in any of their forms as well as geographical, ethnic, or religious origins are all forms of exclusion or at least of great difficulties in how trajectories evolve toward employment. The question of the various forms of exclusion is crucial when it comes to studying the pathways, and it represents a field of research in and of itself.

[5] For its part, IFAD speaks of the "livelihoods assets" pentagon, which distinguishes between human capital, social capital, natural capital, physical capital, and financial capital.

a. Family background, especially the family's relational network

For many, family background conditions the possibilities for youth insertion. Schooling and training, mobility, and access to employment information and opportunities largely depend on young people's family and social capital. The family's income level greatly influences the length and quality of young people's schooling and post-primary studies. The educational and training system is very inegalitarian, and the best schools or training centers, which are often private and nearly always in cities, are in fact unaffordable for the great majority of less well-off families. Furthermore, youth from poor families are considerably more likely to have to help in household tasks and in the family economy (especially young girls, and particularly those in rural areas). This often has a very significant impact on their skill acquisition. Youth from less well-off families and/or who live too far from big cities are thus truly at a disadvantage in terms of capacities for studies and insertion when compared to youth from more well-off families living in urban areas.

Graph 5. The importance of personal networks for finding wage employment



Source: Youth Employment in Sub-Saharan Africa, World Bank–AFD (2014).

In addition to school and training, access to jobs is also very dependent on the family's relational or social networks. Youth from families benefiting from a certain social position and from a network of relations to support them will have considerably greater chances of finding a job that will satisfy them than will youth from families having less relational capital. Access to information and to diverse and varied assistance can also make a big difference—even if it is only for being taken as an apprentice for a small business owner in a rural area who knows the parents, or for an internship at a company or administration in an urban area, where a friend of the family works. Surveys carried out among companies clearly show that the majority of jobs are obtained through various social networks, and that those whose networks are limited are at a great disadvantage (World Bank–AFD, 2014). Generally speaking, most people obtain a job thanks to contacts of family and

friends, especially in the case of modern salaried jobs. Nearly 60% of companies interviewed in 14 countries report having filled their most recent job through contacts with "family or friends".

African societies are still very inegalitarian; in this context, we can see phenomena of discrimination based on belonging to a community or a neighborhood. Surveys conducted among youth engaged in the insertion process who are from disadvantaged neighborhoods of big cities sometimes report having been victims of mistrust from directors of training centers or from employers. These differences in treatment intensify the already strongly inegalitarian nature of most African societies and can lead to a feeling of frustration and loss of self-confidence among youth with less access to network-related resources.

b. Gender and social, cultural, and family responsibilities

The insertion pathways of young women are considerably different from those of young men. The possibilities open to them are more limited for many social and institutional reasons. On average, young African women tend to quit school earlier, but their insertion pathway is often affected by situations imposed on them, such as marriage and maternity. In Morocco, after marriage, the decision-making power of women is considerably reduced (World Bank, *ibid.*). Young women are less likely to both leave the agricultural sector and to find a salaried job. In fact, North Africa has one of the lowest rates in the world for female participation in the labor force (World Bank, 2013). Possibilities for employment may also be limited by professional segregation, social norms, or fear of sexual harassment.

The family responsibilities of young women limit their opportunities for training and employment. For the great majority of youth, employment and founding a family are intimately linked, and this on a rather universal basis. In Africa, the impact of being married is different for young men and young women. In general, men start a family when their means of subsistence are ensured; this may explain why they marry appreciably later than young women. Men tend to remain single before age 25 and not to marry until they are around 30. In contrast, half of African women are married before age 20, and 80% of women age 25 already have at least one child (World Bank–AFD, 2014). They are more exposed to the social pressure that marriage and maternity put upon them. It is not rare to see young women who have decided to invest in training put a premature end to the latter following their marriage or maternity. Girls and young women in rural areas who have young children indeed lack the possibility to participate in any activity requiring long absence from the household (IFAD, 2014).

Access to job opportunities for young women is strongly limited by cultural norms and/or by responsibility for household tasks and for minding children. Once they are in a situation of family responsibility (married and with children), young women are limited in their professional options. It then becomes very difficult for them to manage their domestic responsibilities concurrently with work outside their home. Often, their only option is to put an end to their paid activity outside the home, to limit the number of hours they spend on it, or to arrange the time they spend on all those activities so that they are compatible with their domestic and family duties. In Liberia, 41% of young women, 31% of adult women, and only 11% of young men report family

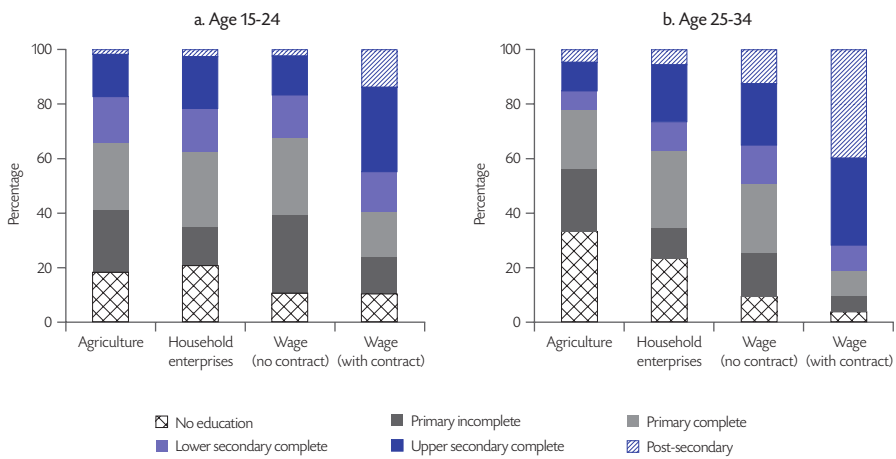
responsibilities as the reason for their "inactivity" (World Bank–AFD, 2014). Indeed, "flexible working arrangements" are the norm for African women. Furthermore, in rural areas access to land by girls and young women generally remains linked to their marital status (IFAD, 2014).

c. Skills and qualifications

The type of skills or the level of qualification obtained by youth can clearly expand or limit the job opportunities and the income to which they may aspire. Educational background (type and level of skill and qualification) generally has an influence on the sector of activities in which they invest, and on income. Recent studies (World Bank–AFD, 2014) show the relationships between level of education and job sector (see Graph 6). Most people who do not complete primary school work in agriculture or the informal sector. Those who attended primary school and lower secondary school are often self-employed in non-agricultural activities. In contrast, youth with a higher level of education have the strongest chances of entering the modern wage-employment sector.

Education thus tends to shape and orient employment insertion trajectories. The influence of the level of education can thus be quite significant in terms of the quality of job found. Studies on youth insertion pathways, conducted by the ILO in eight African countries, show that, for youth, the chances of acquiring a stable job (with a written or oral contract and a term of more than 12 months) increases appreciably along with the level of education. The least educated youth are therefore much more likely to have a temporary or self-employed job. The survey nevertheless indicates that the fact of having a higher level of education does not necessarily signify faster access to employment.

Graph 6. Education shapes prospects: education by employment sector for the age 15-24 and age 25-34 age segments



Source: Youth Employment in Sub-Saharan Africa, World Bank–AFD (2014).

While education is important, it is above all the mastery of several types of skills and/or complementarity of qualifications that is decisive. Indeed, while the rapid growth of schooling and level of education over recent decades is a reality, this progress is often made to the detriment of the quality and diversification of the offer, particularly with regard to the needs for productive employment. To facilitate access by youth to employment and to keep them employed—whether it be in agriculture, self-employment, or the modern wage sector—it is important to make sure that the education and/or vocational training make it possible to acquire skills that can be used in work situations. This involves various types of skills— not only basic cognitive ones, but also behavioral and socio-emotional skills (often called "soft skills"), skills in job searching (techniques and tools used in looking and applying for jobs), professional skills, and business skills (entrepreneurship). These three types of skills are the focus of special attention in the programs and measures to support youth insertion.

The development of behavioral and socio-emotional skills, or "soft skills," is important, but technical skills remain fundamental. Soft skills are often highlighted by employers. For now, there is not enough data on the way in which teaching transfers these specific skills (World Bank–AFD, 2014). However, experiences clearly show that improvement in these socio-emotional and behavioral skills can have a strong impact on the employability of young people, especially for those whose insertion occurs through individual entrepreneurship or the modern wage-employment sector.

Job search skills are increasingly essential within labor markets where the rarity of offer and the proliferation of demand are intensifying competition. Yet, these skills are also very often nonexistent. Studies carried out among insertion counselors have brought this situation to light. For example, the Nigerien NGO Afrique Fondation Jeunes (AFJ) in Niamey counsels youth (in an urban environment) preparing their insertion into the labor market. It reports that, out of the hundred or so youth it meets with per month, none have a CV or even know what a CV is, and that few know how to write a motivation letter or to present and uphold their candidacy (Le Bissonnais, 2010).

There are many programs that teach skills in entrepreneurship. Although these skills are necessary, the studies on the pathways for enterprise creation, especially the lessons learned from the Malian Youth Support Program (PAJM) in Mali (see Box 12), insist on the need for knowledge of the profession as a precondition to the entrepreneurial approach, as training in entrepreneurship is not enough. This confirms the priority of technical skills over others. In short, while soft skills are important, technical skills remain fundamental and have a direct and strong causal link with insertion.

Some studies carried out based on surveys with large samples of youth seeking to join the labor market tend to show that nearly all youth currently in the labor force would like to undergo training or studies in order to have a better job (and that this tendency is similar for both formal and informal jobs). The survey conducted among 544 young people age 15 to 29 in Maputo, Mozambique (ESSOR, ILO, Embassy of France to Mozambique, 2006) showed that, among the respondent youth, 97% of those working in the formal sector and 86% of those working

in the informal sector would like to strengthen their skills and their level of qualification. This desire shows the importance given to the education system and to training, as an effective means to improve one's chances of getting a job.

However, it is very difficult or even nearly impossible to build one's capacities and qualifications other than through practice, as training possibilities are still rare. The various forms of apprenticeship in the beginning of the insertion process or when the activity is established are exceptional, as is the training targeting artisans already established and funded by Francophone Africa training funds.[6]

3.2.2. The resources and services offered by the youths' environment

Besides personal, family, and social situations, external factors may act as either barriers or as opportunities the youth can seize upon. Indeed, a certain number of factors outside of the immediate control of youth exist in their environment, such as access to land, to capital, to infrastructures, to technology, or to markets. They can be the result of local norms and customs, public policies, regulations, or the local offer of services. They condition the insertion possibilities of youth, with various degrees of differences.

Faced with the lack of local offer, migration for employment is intensifying, even though it is still relatively limited. Most youth look for insertion possibilities in their own environment, which is also that of their family network. The question of social qualities and gaps in qualification go hand in hand with that of regional inequalities. Living environments offer neither the same opportunities for employment nor the same access to networks that are determinants in the pathways of youth.

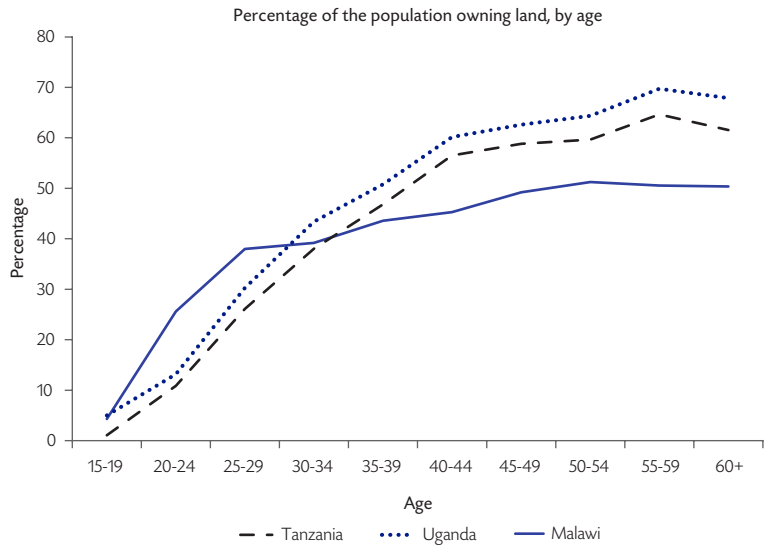
Three essential elements are presented in this section: access to land, especially for farming jobs; access to information; and mobility.

a. Access to land for employment in the agricultural sector.

To attract youth, agriculture will have to be more dynamic and more attractive than it is currently, and youth will have to have a more positive impression of it (World Bank–AFD, 2014). In most economies of the world, the job markets evolved over the 20th century, with a significant decrease in the number of workers in the agricultural sector and an increase in the industry and services sector. Africa, however, has not evolved this way, due to lack of industrial activities. It is thus important to figure out how African youth can best benefit from these employment opportunities in agriculture. The problem is that many youth are unaware of these opportunities and of the potential dynamism of agriculture. When asked what are, according to them, the best or worst means to earn a living in their community, rural African youth rarely answer agriculture as the "best job".

[6] In the case of dual apprenticeship (the majority of which is training in the workshop, with the complement in a training center) it is necessary to train master artisans so that they accept apprentices in this "restructured" apprenticeship.

Graph 7. Youth are generally landless (World Bank–AFD, 2014)



Source: Youth Employment in Sub-Saharan Africa, World Bank–AFD (2014).

Access to land and land security are the foremost factors for engaging in an agricultural activity. However, these are made difficult for young people because of customary rights, gender relations, and intergenerational relations. Drop in child mortality, which represents important progress, makes transfer of land more difficult on farms and forces many youth to find alternatives. Access to land is very often reserved for older people (see Graph 7). Access to land is even more difficult for girls and young women than for young men (IFAD, 2014). The role of village chiefs in attributing plots of land is also an aspect of traditional regulation that is not always advantageous for youth who wish to start up or consolidate an activity.

This lack of fluidity in the job market acts as a barrier to youth who would like to invest in agricultural production. The living conditions in rural areas are also an obstacle to doing so. Finally, it is important to recall the crucial challenge of productivity on farms today in Africa. In the vast majority of cases, this productivity is very low, as is the income derived from it, and this makes agricultural employment less attractive for young people.

Box 5

The urban/rural paradox

If we take into consideration the previously stated factors that affect insertion, we might think that the rural environment offers conditions and opportunities that are less favorable overall to youth. It is true that the African countryside and its small and medium-sized cities do have a more limited offering in terms of information, networks, and possibilities for vocational training compared to urban areas. Nevertheless, in reality urban youth are more often discouraged than are rural youth, and they are also more often unemployed. For example, 15% of youth looking for work in rural areas report being discouraged, compared to 20% in urban areas (AfDB *et al.*, 2012). While we may question the significance of this indicator, which is subjective and linked to various factors, it does indicate a tendency.

In fact, the rural exodus of youth looking for employment stirs up more intensified competition in the urban labor market. This leads to youth unemployment that is five percentage points higher in urban areas than in rural areas. Furthermore, youth in rural areas often combine several activities in order to limit the sometimes high level of risks associated with agricultural production (periods of low production, uncertainties related to the climate, etc.) and to diversify their income as a response to underemployment. They can also participate in strategies developed at the village level, by diversifying their production or by participating in village savings programs (World Bank–AFD, 2014).

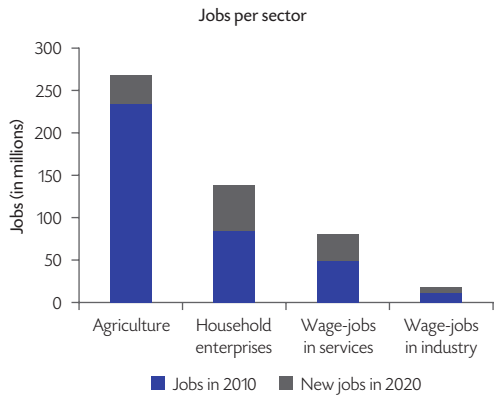
b. Access to capital and financial aid for non-agricultural self-employment

After the agricultural sector, micro-enterprises and very small or small individual enterprises, the vast majority of which are informal, make up the second largest source of jobs. Over the next 10 years, no more than one-fourth of African youth will find formal wage employment. The vast majority of jobs for young people will be offered by the sector of activity in which their parents work, *i.e.* smallholder farms and household enterprises in the informal economy (see Graph 8).

The challenge of employment is thus found in an increase in productivity of household enterprises, which need to overcome the various problems they face. Even if they also exist in agricultural value chains, micro-enterprises are mostly made up of non-agricultural activities; they lack legal status and belong to households. The people working in these enterprises either work for themselves (as self-employed) or with family members; in this latter case they are often unpaid but enjoy distribution of profits.

For many youth wishing to develop an activity that will become their definitive job and main source of income, initial capital is indispensable. However, youth are not yet capable of building up savings. This is especially true of those from the least well-off backgrounds who cannot count on financial help from their family or friends. The vast majority of them must turn to microcredit to replace family help. But while the microfinance sector has developed very

Graph 8. The informal sector: the norm in 2020?



Source: Youth Employment in Sub-Saharan Africa, World Bank–AFD (2014).

strongly in recent years in Africa, it remains inaccessible for young people. This is because very few microfinance institutions can allow themselves to lend to people starting their first business, especially when they are young and lack professional experience. Further, they ask for guarantees that youth do not have. Thus, we can understand why the start-up capital for household enterprises in Africa is made up of personal savings in 75% of cases and why more than 40% of credit for operating costs comes from family or friends. These constraints in good financial management and the risks run by microfinance institutions (MFIs) make self-employment especially difficult for young people. Furthermore, the interest rates demanded by these institutions are quite high. In the end, the MFI offer is poorly suited to young people and thus not adapted to the problems of professional insertion. But while microcredit alone seems not very effective, it still remains inescapable for youth with no other alternative for building up their start-up capital.

c. Access to information

Information is a key element in the pathway to insertion. The labor and training markets are still poorly structured in Africa. Information systems are few in number and inefficient, with the result that the labor market is not very transparent. For example, in a 2012 report,[7] the ILO indicates that in Zambia and Tanzania young people blame the difficulties they are currently encountering in their job search to the poor flow of information concerning the skills required by employers. In Zambia, even though efforts have been made to organize job fairs,

[7] This first regional report, *Africa's Response to the Youth Employment Crisis*, is a summary of the main themes and conclusions of 11 national meetings held in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Egypt, Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, South Africa, Tanzania, Togo, Tunisia, Zambia, and Zimbabwe, from March to May 2012.

these latter remain inaccessible for most youth outside the capital. No large-scale body exists in order to establish networks, diffuse information, and support both young jobseekers and employers looking for salaried labor. Very few public authorities have efficient services available for diffusing job offers. The private job-placement sector is developing in certain areas, with increasing use of new technologies (website, SMS). However, this remains mainly limited to the major cities of medium-income countries and concerns only a very limited segment of youth due to the high levels of qualification required by the modern-sector enterprises that use these diffusion services. Access to information—whether to become educated, to train oneself, or identify job opportunities—often acts as a major barrier that strongly limits the capacities of youth. For people creating their enterprise, access to information on market opportunities, regulations, supplies, as well as on financial services are all a problem. Experiments of platform-type services and information are developing locally and are tending to demonstrate that their offer can meet the needs of youth.

d. Mobility

Mobility is a factor that strongly determines the insertion capacity of youth. The previously mentioned problems interact with each other, and it is difficult to determine the relations of cause and effect between the difficulties encountered (Le Bissonnais, 2010). Thus we see that lack of skills limits access to employment, but that the very low levels of basic education lead to difficulties in access to training, and that lack of income restricts access to information and limits opportunities for insertion, etc.

Transportation cost is a big barrier to the mobility needed for access to opportunities and services. There are quite a number of other obstacles to mobility: cities are growing and spreading out, transportation systems are inadequate, and in rural areas the possibilities for collective transportation are rare. The budget for transportation can quickly become insurmountable. Sometimes, facilitating transportation for youth can break the vicious circle of incapacity and enable them to start a training program, a job, or an internship.

Furthermore, the very rapid spread of new information and communication technologies (NICT) and their just as fast ownership by youth are bringing out new behaviors and services related to information access, and these can reduce the constraints in mobility of young people. Relatively recent experiences have been giving promising results in the diffusion of information or remote access to microcredit. While these initiatives are still limited geographically or in terms of the public reached, they will probably mitigate some of the obstacles related to lack of mobility.

3.3. Some common characteristics of the insertion process

The following information comes from different studies by international bodies dealing with the problem of youth insertion in Africa in particular. The ILO report (2014) analyzes the situation of youth with regard to their approach and insertion projects,[8] *via* the survey on labor market transitions (School-to-Work Transition Survey – SWTS), implemented in eight sub-Saharan African countries. The recent report by AFD and the World Bank (2014) uses and compares different sources of studies and research used in recent years.

These data, often in the form of statistics, show some tendencies that are instructive but of a rather static nature. They show various youth insertion pathways, but without showing the dynamic aspect of insertion processes, which is where young people's possible prospects for obtaining paid work, their own experiences, as well as a whole set of external factors come together. The analysis framework of the ILO in particular is quite heavily influenced by the normative framework of decent work and labor, which is based mainly on a formal aspect (contract and rights) and thus tends not to take into account the informal forms of activity and insertion that are nonetheless very much the norm in Africa:

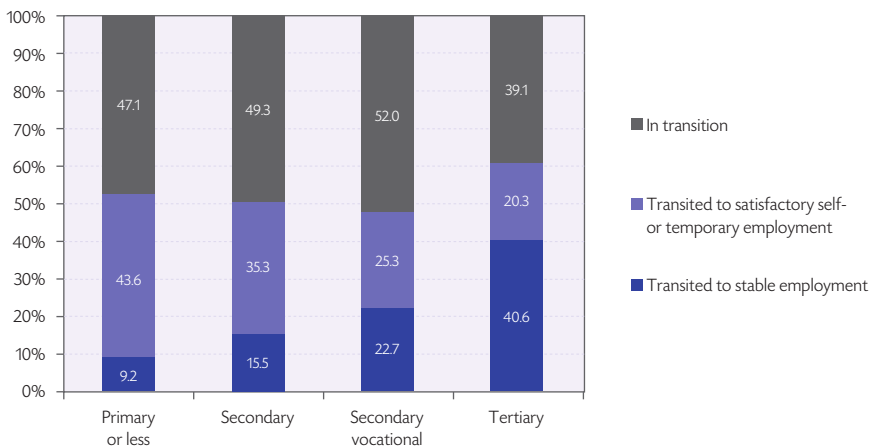
- Insertion *via* a stable job with a contract concerns only a very small minority of African youth. The results of the surveys conducted by the ILO in 2014 in several sub-Saharan Africa countries show that barely 8% of young respondents age 15-29 have a job qualified as "stable" because they have had it for more than one year and as "formal" because based on a contract (for the ILO, a job is considered stable when it is based on a written or oral contract of at least 12 months). On the other hand, slightly more than 30% reported that their work is "satisfactory", even though these youth are not in the stable-job category (because they have been engaged in it for less than a year or because they are self-employed);
- A high level of education does not guarantee faster access to a job, but it does make it possible to eventually obtain a better-quality one. The surveys conducted among large samples of youth engaged in the insertion process tend to show quite clearly that the qualification level of youth has little determination on how long it takes to obtain a job (stable or not). According to the ILO report (2014), 47.1% of youth interviewed who had a primary-school or lower level of education were still in "transition" at the time of the

[8] ILO, February 2014. This report, *Labour Market Transitions of Young Women and Men in Sub-Saharan Africa*, presents the results of the survey on school-to-work transition in eight sub-Saharan Africa countries (Benin, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Uganda, Tanzania, Togo, and Zambia). They illustrate the major pathways of insertion for youth in Africa. The concept of school-to-work transition (SWT), developed by the ILO, analyzes the transition process of youth toward the labor market, not only in terms of time period between the end of education and obtaining one's first job, but also according to qualitative criteria linked to stability and satisfaction of youth in this work. A stable job is defined in terms of employment with a contract (written or oral) of at least 12 months, and a job is considered "satisfactory" if it is considered to "agree" with the youth's employment aspirations.

survey. In contrast, of the youth interviewed who had a vocational secondary or tertiary[9] level of education, 52% and 39.1%, respectively, were in this same "transition" phase at the time of the survey. However, the difference can still be felt in terms of quality of the job found: the interviewed youth having a tertiary level had four times greater chances of obtaining a stable job than the youth with not more than primary level;

- This waiting period for the job sought after is a real problem in several middle-income African countries, especially in North Africa, faced with the problem of unemployed graduates. In Egypt and Tunisia, for example, the best educated are the most likely to be unemployed, due to an insufficient number of qualified jobs (World Bank, 2013). These unemployed graduates often struggle to find a job corresponding to their hopes, and they must deal with long and unfruitful periods of job search. This phenomenon is intensified by the fact that many graduates look above all for a job in the public sector, which is judged safer;

Graph 9. Distribution of youth according to their transition-to-employment situation, by level of completed educational attainment, average of eight sub-Saharan African countries (%)



Note: Tertiary is the sum of post-secondary vocational, university, and postgraduate education, in all countries except Malawi and Uganda, which do not have a post-secondary vocational category.

Source: Labor Market Transitions of Young Women and Men in Sub-Saharan Africa (ILO, 2014).

[9] The ILO's SWTS survey methodology defines the tertiary level as the sum of post-secondary vocational, university, and postgraduate education, in all countries except Malawi and Uganda, which do not have a post-secondary vocational category.

- The first economic activity very often materializes as part of family activity. For many African youth, the transition from—or at the same time as—school starts with an activity on the family farm or with the household enterprise (workshop or shop). Given the slow transformation of the structure of employment, most youth have their first work experience in the same type of economic activity as their parents. For more than two out of three young people in rural areas, the typical pathway consists in working first of all for one's family, and then as self-employed, which gradually replaces family work. This work within the family activity is less widespread among urban youth, as it represents less than 10% of urban youth jobs from the age of 20 (World Bank–AFD, 2014);
- The transition is often a combination of studies and economic activity. Working early, during one's schooling, is a reality for very many young people, not to mention the various forms of "forced labor", which are clearly improper and harmful to the education and development of children and young people (and which are a specific problem not to be ignored in certain parts of Africa). According to results of household and employment surveys,[10] up to 45% of youth age 15 both go to school and work. For very many youth, therefore, insertion does not follow a linear trajectory from school toward economic activity. Transition often has fuzzy outlines, with schooling occurring at the same time as a partial economic activity, or interrupted in order to carry out work and possibly taken up again afterwards. In rural areas, nearly 90% of youth go to school while working more or less regularly on the family farm or elsewhere. The still very widespread practice of traditional apprenticeship partially contributes to this situation of overlap between training period and work;

Graph 10. Combination of studies and work

Source: Youth Employment in Sub-Saharan Africa, World Bank–AFD (2014).

[10] SHIP (Survey-based Harmonized Indicators Program) surveys conducted in 17 countries between 2003 and 2011; *Youth Employment in Sub-Saharan Africa* report (World Bank–AFD, 2014).

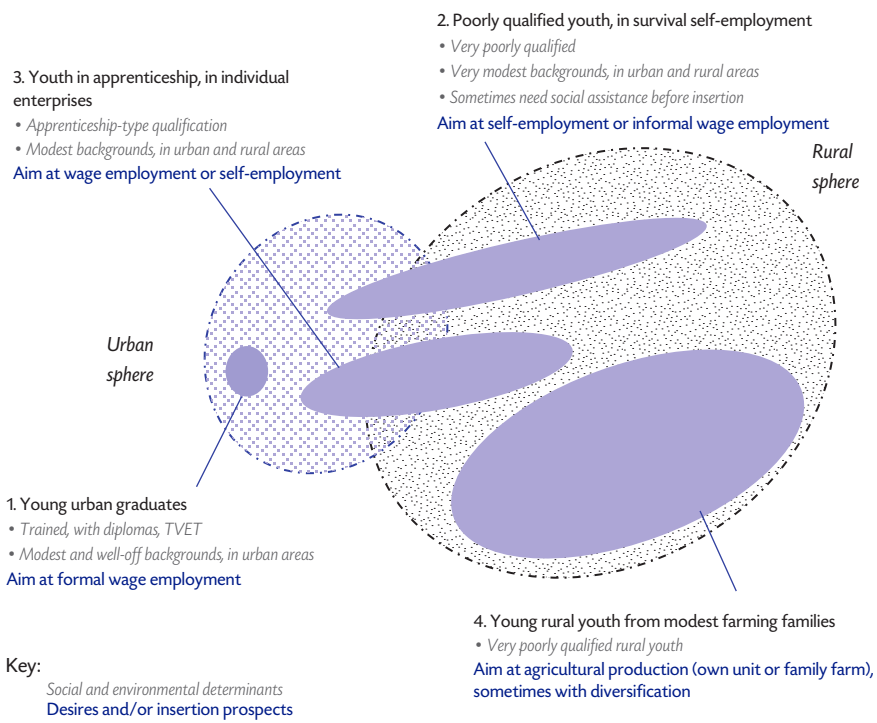
- The transition toward a stable job is on average easier for men in urban areas and after age 25. The school-to-work survey, carried out in eight sub-Saharan Africa countries (Elder and Koné, 2014), shows that completing the transition process toward a stable job is appreciably easier for young men. Furthermore, the probability of completed transition toward work increases with age, as the survey reveals that a young person age 25 to 29 has three times more chances of finding a job than does a youth age 15 to 19. Likewise, when it comes to obtaining a stable job, results indicate an advantage to living in urban areas, where family background seems to have less of an effect on the insertion trajectory compared to in rural areas;
- It is very common to hold more than one job. The vast majority of youth leave the family nest by starting their own activity and then working less within the family activity. In both rural and urban areas, multiple jobs are very frequent. A youth might start in agriculture and then engage in a non-agricultural activity as a second job. Even youth with salaried jobs might have started with occasional work that then evolved toward a more stable paid job, or might have started their own business. A survey on employment in Tanzania in 2005 indicated that half of young people age 25 carry out a secondary economic activity in addition to their job (Elder and Siaka Kone, *ibid.*);
- The duration of the transition toward work is very variable. The SWTS surveys conducted in eight sub-Saharan Africa countries (Elder and Koné, *ibid.*) indicate that the average transition duration is about two years. However, this average conceals big gaps, as the transition toward a job that is stable and/or judged satisfactory can be relatively short (less than one year) for some youth, whereas others must wait nearly four years. For example, in Benin, Liberia, Madagascar, and Tanzania, it takes four to six years for youth to find a job they consider satisfactory or stable. Finally, the results of the survey confirm that the transitions of youth toward a stable job are longer than those toward a satisfactory temporary or self-employed job.

Family and one's circle (friends or personal networks) play a fundamental role in youth insertion. The family network above all provides financial support to help in training expenses or the launch of an individual enterprise, as well as to facilitate finding youth an apprenticeship or internship in an enterprise. Influences from the family and personal networks lead to a certain form of reproduction of family patterns. For example, a farmer's son has many more chances of becoming a farmer than of engaging in a non-agricultural activity. This low level of professional mobility between generations is also found in non-agricultural employment, especially among families of small shopkeepers and small-scale artisans of smaller cities, who often have recourse to apprenticeship as a method of insertion for their youth.

3.4. An attempt at characterization of insertion dynamics: model pathways of youth

The previously covered tendencies enable us to better define the outlines of the youth insertion issue. They provide us with an initial framework for reflection, without ignoring the very broad diversity of situations and trajectories, which is also reflected by the plurality of individualities, contexts, and territories that exist even within the same country. Indeed, when analyzing the main factors that affect the insertion processes, many aspects related to individuals and their living environment can be seen to greatly condition youth transition toward work. While this diversity of situations must not be neglected or minimized, characterizing the current main insertion dynamics encountered in Africa can nonetheless provide fuel for thought on the subject.

Diagram 2. A diversity of situations: examples of insertion profiles



N.B.: The surfaces (urban/rural spheres, as zones of characterization of the profiles) are for reference only. They are not based on concrete demographic data. Rather, they seek only to propose an indication of the relative significance of the publics concerned, according to the knowledge that the authors of this study have of it.

Source: GRET in-house production.

The attempt at characterization proposed below focuses on the professional prospects of young people taking into account the main characteristics of their situation. These encompass qualification, social background, and where they live. The categories presented in no way claim to be representative, or to represent a normative framework, insofar as to do so would require refining the reflection according to various parameters such as gender, the level of development, and the resources offered in the life environment of the youth.

Reflection on this topic is the fruit of exchanges between the NGO GRET and its partners, and it is based on analysis of many projects that support youth insertion in Africa.[11] This reflection is our starting point, which should be improved, enriched, and covered more in depth in future research on the subject. More detailed characterization would especially be useful to highlight the prospects for positive evolution of youth, as well as to determine the resources to be mobilized, the support needs, and the relevant levers for guidance for each category, in relation with the social and environmental determinants of youth.

Additionally, a presentation of the needs of youth and of responses they can find in their environment would be a useful complement to this work as well as a beneficial tool for both youth and for organizations that provide guidance. In this regard, the ILO published an "Employability Manual: Resource Guide on Vocational Training, Employment, and Self-employment" for operational use, available in several countries.

3.4.1. Young urban graduates seeking formal employment.

> *Trained youth seeking a salaried or paid job in the modern sector often have diplomas but are little prepared when they join an enterprise. They may be forced to accept a job that does not correspond to their qualification or skills, or may have to give up their aspirations. Transition toward work is generally slow, but those who succeed have greater chances of obtaining a stable job.*

In Africa, this category is still very much a minority, and it is unequally distributed among countries and between various regions within countries. This category in particular includes youth who did post-secondary and higher studies; they therefore have qualifications and sometimes a diploma of a level appreciably higher than the average among youth in Africa. Despite this, these youth are not protected from the difficulties of insertion. The vast majority of these youth come from the rather protected backgrounds of the middle and upper classes, which are concentrated in the major urban centers and the secondary cities. They enjoy a high level of formal qualification, which generally does not correspond to the demands of the labor market. They especially hope to find their first job in the public sector, access to which has become more limited following adjustment plans, and they struggle

[11] This analysis was initiated by André Gauron and Annick Huyghe Mauro, based on numerous cases and reflection documents presented as part of the review "Actualité des services aux entreprises", which can be consulted on the Entreprendre au Sud resource portal: www.entreprendreausud.org.

to go after salaried jobs in the modern sector (services, banks, logistics, trade, company headquarters).

Despite the level of qualification, very many of them find themselves without a job, as local economies struggle to provide them opportunities that correspond to their expectations, but also because they are often poorly prepared to enter companies because their education has been too theoretical and far from the realities of the private sector. When they do not find a job meeting their expectations, some are quickly obliged to accept a job that does not correspond to their level of qualification, and they abandon their aspirations or choose to migrate, contributing to the African brain drain. In contrast, those who enjoy financial support from their family can allow themselves to wait.

Box 6

The migratory situation in sub-Saharan Africa

The recent data collected by the OECD–AFD study (2015) on migrants' skills helps establish a comprehensive overview of the migratory situation of Africa. The proportion of African migrants going to OECD countries is increasing, but remains very low compared to those of other regions. With 5.2 million individuals in 2010, sub-Saharan emigrants represented only 5% of the total number of immigrants living in OECD countries. Despite a growing diversification in countries of destination, historical and linguistic ties remain a priority. The characteristics of the African immigrants to the OECD are changing: there is an increasing proportion of women, they are increasingly qualified, and they remain younger than the population emigrating to other regions of the world.

In 2012, students from sub-Saharan Africa were still proportionally few in number (292,000) in OECD countries and in second lowest position in terms of region of origin of international students there. In recent years, the number of students entering the OECD countries each year has nevertheless been increasing constantly, growing from 109,259 in 2005 to 145,562 in 2012. In the labor market of the OECD countries, African migrants are strongly affected by over qualification, and at the same time the growing share of qualified migrants is intensifying the African brain drain. Intraregional migrations are very significant in Africa. These are made up of much younger and less qualified migrants than those who go to OECD countries. The great challenge for the future of Africa and its migratory flows will involve the level of its capacity to improve the economic and social opportunities for its youth (OECD–AFD, *ibid.*).

The phenomenon of unemployed graduates has particular resonance in the MIC countries of Africa. This is the case of North Africa for example where there is a combination of university education geared to the public sphere and reticence among many young people to seek jobs in the private sector (World Bank, 2013). The recent protest movements by some youth discouraged by the lack of job prospects and of recognition have strongly helped alert the general public, and decision-makers in particular, about the urgency of taking more massive

action in response to the expectations of a growing number of urban youth in the labor force, who are highly visible. The main obstacles encountered by these youth are the lack of salaried job offers, a certain mismatching of their qualifications to the needs of enterprises in the modern sector, lack of information and intermediation, and difficult access to financing for those wishing to create their own job (Kolster, 2014).

In addition to graduates of general education, there is also a small minority with similar aims and constraints: the youth who have completed TVET, most of whom hope for a salaried job, mainly in the industrial, craft, or business sector. These youth who have been able to receive vocational training mostly come from modest urban backgrounds. While certain efforts have been made to establish training centers, these latter are still very few in number and mostly concentrated in urban areas. Such formal TVET education, given in the classroom and leading to an official diploma after two or three years, remains very much in the minority in all of Africa.

Not only is this TVET sector very limited, it also has many shortcomings, with facilities and teachers that are very often unsuitable and inefficient, and methods of financing that are, relatively speaking, not very sustainable (ILO, 2012*a*). Because of this, the young graduates of these centers struggle to find a job corresponding to their training and their expectations. Most of them must thus settle with less qualified jobs, often in the informal sector, or they resign themselves to creating their own job with the help of their family or with a support mechanism that may be available in their environment. Finally, it should be noted that some youth who were not able to enter university directly take TVET training as a strategy for entering university later.

3.4.2. Poorly qualified youth

> *Youth with a low level of qualification and who have few resources in their living environment; they consequently have few other prospects than survival self-employment or opportunities for vulnerable jobs. The youth who fall into this category are mobile and develop strategies to diversify their activities and sources of income.*

The majority of youth in this situation are self-employed in the informal sector or work as day laborers. Such profiles are frequent in suburban and rural areas. These youth face difficulty on two levels. The first is their low level of qualification (rarely above primary level, this often because they had to leave school early), which confines them to the informal sector. The second is the limited resources they have available to help them in their insertion pathway. These essential resources are mainly those of their family network and may be limited due to the poverty and sometimes exclusion of their parents and relatives. In such cases, these poorly qualified youth tend to quickly put effort into the one trajectory they think they can engage in: that of informal personal activity, essentially made up of small-scale trading. These youth are consequently relatively mobile and seek the opportunities offered by big cities in particular, or by medium-sized cities for those with a rural background. Obviously, they are also available for any offer of paid activity that may be proposed to them. These are not rare in the peripheral

areas of big cities, where it is common to see business owners come look for day laborers (and sometimes for jobs lasting less than one day).

Some of these youth do not succeed in working and live in extremely vulnerable circumstances. They need social welfare and support as a matter of priority, before being able to consider access to work. The persistent poverty in some regions, as much in cities as in rural areas, has created a significant number of situations in which youth find themselves disconnected from their protective family life, without resources, and left to roam in a kind of survival mode. Many of them are migrants from remote and very poor rural areas. These youth concentrate in the disadvantaged neighborhoods and slums of major cities. More often than not, they are illiterate or have a very low level of qualification. They thus find themselves having to seize any possible opportunity for survival, which often materializes in the form of a small-scale trading activity for the luckiest ones who manage to raise a bit of capital, or of a multitude of small one-off jobs within the informal micro-economy, which is omnipresent in the poor neighborhoods in big cities (typically in market zones). Lacking resources and with very limited access to forms of family or community solidarity, these youth need, as a matter of priority, social assistance and support in acquiring basic skills (especially literacy), as well as guidance to help them set up an income-generating activity or to be set up in apprenticeship (in the craft, business, or market-gardening sectors).

3.4.3. Apprentices: future employees or owners of individual enterprises

> *Youth with a certain level of skills obtained through apprenticeship. This latter opens up prospects for them, such as creation of their own activity or a paid job. These youth often come from modest backgrounds in suburban and rural areas. They are currently largely in the majority in Africa.*

Very many youth acquire skills through traditional apprenticeship (nearly all micro- and small-scale enterprises are concerned). Apprentices will very often become employees of the enterprise in which they were trained, or they will seek to create their own business. The border between the period of apprenticeship and that of hiring is not always clear. The duration of the apprenticeship can vary appreciably, from several months to several years. The apprenticeship may from the beginning be remunerated or paid, depending on the country and the profession. This type of training, which is more often than not informal and on-the-job training, is often the only kind accessible for most youth (as it is located closely to where they or their relatives live). This is a highly appreciated type of training because it provides assurance for obtaining a job. Both parents and youth know that informal micro- and small-scale enterprises make up a significant pool of activities for which "*one doesn't remain without work for long*".[12] After what is sometimes a long period of apprenticeship (several years) and possible financial support from their families making it possible to build up start-up capital, some youth can then create their

[12] Drawn from interviews with youth engaged in the insertion process in Nouakchott, Mauritania, Le Bissonnais and Ould Meine (2012), *Étude d'impact simplifiée de Cap Insertion en Mauritanie*, GRET, 2012.

own activity. This trajectory of insertion through apprenticeship in the profession concerns a broad section of the young population from modest backgrounds. It is frequent to observe that a business owner who was trained as an apprentice will then use this practice by "*hiring in turn*".

3.4.4. Rural youth, from smallholder farmer families

> *Young rural youth underemployed in agriculture, from modest families of smallholder farmers. Their future prospects are usually the creation of a production unit or taking up responsibility in the family activity. When such rural youth are capable of mobility that can help them seize opportunities, or of diversified strategies that can help them obtain income, they can enter the labor market by holding down several different activities.*

The vast majority of jobs in Africa are in the agricultural sector. More than 70% of the labor force in LICs and more than 50% in MICs work in agriculture. Farmers are essentially smallholders who consume much of what they produce (World Bank–AFD, 2014). The majority of rural people live and work on the farms where they are born. Training possibilities remain very limited in rural areas far from secondary cities and major urban centers, despite the progress made in recent decades in improving access to and quality of basic education.

In reality, the vast majority of rural youth have no alternative but to help work on the family farm (and in household tasks in the case of young girls). The youth thus learn the profession of their parents, and most of them will continue to exercise that profession in the future. Mobility that depends on opportunities for extra income punctuates the life of rural youth during seasons when there is little agricultural activity. Some youth wish to abandon the rural world and decide to go live in the city, using networks of relations who will help them start up a new existence. They will join the ranks of the young self-employed in the peripheral areas of big cities; the lucky ones will become apprentices of a business owner.

Given the demographic challenges and the question of food sovereignty, the potential for agricultural jobs is a major priority in terms of employment and production. But to meet this potential, rural youth must develop their skills and resolve the problems of access to land, technologies, and financing.

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Part 4.
What measures have been developed to facilitate youth insertion?

The basic points:

- Operators from various sectors help facilitate youth insertion *via* training, information, orientation, guidance, business services, and services in the social and civic fields.
- Public action guideline and management actors, especially public institutions, are also involved in the direct implementation and the supervision of actions. Their reflections and actions are generally limited to their sphere of sectoral or geographical competencies and are not very interlinked.
- Insertion support is a field that has a particular need for cross-cutting and non-sectoral approaches that are implemented at the regional level as well as where youth live and are employed.
- Sectoral policies have rather mixed results, thereby gradually leaving room for a more localized approach initiated by measures of support for youth insertion pathways that seek to mobilize the resources and opportunities of their environment.
- A rough typology is proposed here, with two major approaches in addition to the decontextualized "tools" systems: (1) individualized guidance for the youth insertion process or for enterprise development, as well as action on their determinants, and (2) a more forward-looking approach *via* economic development. In the actions of this second type, insertion is an outcome more than a direct purpose of the intervention.

Youth employment and insertion fall within the mission of public service and are responsibilities of the state. Different actors affect the pathways of youth more or less directly, but very differently from one context to another. Part 4 proposes an overview of the main actors of insertion support according to their function (implementation of services or at a broader guideline/management or political/institutional level) and the type of services they propose (training, information, orientation, financial and non-financial support for enterprises, or social services).

Part 4 also proposes to renew the way insertion-support measures are analyzed—in particular by going beyond the offer-and-demand approaches, which are not very pertinent for explaining the complex reality of employment—and by combining different perspectives according to the objectives sought after, in particular by linking insertion support and economic development. For this purpose, a rough typology of insertion-support services is proposed, which will have to be studied more in depth and clarified.

4.1. The main operators in youth insertion support, by type of services

The implementation actors, either public or private, are those that operate in the field. They do so either within the framework of public policies or programs if these exist, or as stopgap measures if they do not exist or have not been put into operation. The actors of support for youth insertion projects respond directly to their needs. Most of them are private: professional organizations, companies, national or international civil society organizations (CSOs), or grassroots associations. They may also be public or para-public: consular chambers (chambers of commerce and industry, of crafts, or of agriculture), local authorities (at various levels, such as municipalities, groupings of municipalities, regions, or departments), or public employment or insertion services. Private actors can often intervene faster and more flexibly, thanks to the very way in which they operate.

4.1.1. Vocational training

Some countries have a rather dense network, often at the provincial level, of training centers whose purpose is to train a large number of youth in fields such as agriculture, mechanics, the public buildings and work sector, or crafts. These services, which are often under the direct authority of sector-based ministries, generally suffer from a very weak level of human and technical resources, making their training offer obsolete or ineffective. The public operators in vocational training, which often depend directly on sector-based ministries or state agencies, are diverse in terms of their forms and their missions. They exist alongside the private offer, which is made up of several major centers, managed by operators who are specialists in training or, more rarely, by big companies or very numerous small private bodies that are not necessarily approved or recognized by the state. This private training is above all provided in urban areas. The training sessions are short-term with a relatively easily accessible entry-level. They are also relatively inexpensive, and because of this they can accept a great number of

youth from families who can afford them. The private professional offer of the vast majority of African countries concerns essentially the tertiary trades; the technical offers are generally more expensive in terms of investment in materials and work tools, and they are less attractive for youth and their families.

However, it is the professional world that is the foremost operator of training. Indeed, the vast majority of individuals do not acquire their skills in the formal training system. In particular, apprenticeship—whether it be on-the-job training or restructured apprenticeship recognized by public institutions—has been in existence for a long time and is rooted in customs, especially in the craft world. However, in many countries its image is not very enhanced, and it remains a "by default" choice of training compared to continuing one's studies. With 60% of its labor force working in agriculture (the vast majority on small family farms) and 20% in small individual enterprises (mostly small-scale workshops or small shops), Africa has enormous potential for employment and training, especially through traditional apprenticeship. Although the latter has been disparaged in the past, in the last few years it seems to be appropriately acknowledged by the leaders of African states (ADEA, 2014*a*). Its restructuring and the popularization of this restructuring nevertheless remain major challenges.

4.1.2. Information, orientation, and guidance

The services that disseminate local information useful for the personal and professional projects of youth are crucial for strengthening the possibility of the latter's insertion. This is true for identifying professional and training opportunities as well as more personal types of support (information on rights, family planning, family violence, or child daycare, etc.). They make it possible to partially counterbalance the inequalities of access to information and networks needed to start up and evolve in professional life, insofar as the foremost providers and disseminators of information—other than the media—are young people's personal and professional networks.

The youth who have the least access to networks, and who are also the least educated, are often not very mobile because they live in areas where infrastructure and facilities are lacking (peripheral areas of major cities, slums, or isolated rural areas). They thus encounter more difficulties in looking for and finding the information they need. Organization of the circulation of information remains very basic or even practically nonexistent in many African countries.

Some platform-type services, which are often initiated by NGOs and/or public authorities in relation with the local support actors, also propose youth guidance services in order to construct their personal and professional projects and to make progress in them. To do so, they propose direct services (consultation, information, help in defining the project, guidance in executing the project, support in filling out their training or job application, training in soft skills, or support in carrying out the job search independently); intermediation services to identify enterprises, training, or support of various natures (family, social, medical, legal support, etc.);

and services to match needs with offers, based on networks of trust maintained with these actors. Finally, these places providing youth guidance services are also the occasions (which are in some places rare) where youth are listened to and where they can speak out freely, including with regard to their vision of society and their civic commitment.

Finally, in some countries, the ministries in charge of employment, vocational training, or youth insertion (or a combination thereof) have established dedicated public job-placement agencies to provide a national set of services to work with young people to help find them employment. The focus of their mission is intermediation between offer and demand of work (essentially formal in nature). Depending on the case, activities in the form of training in and/or support for setting up one's own business may be offered by these local agencies or entrusted to other specialized operators.

In addition, most African countries have a national job information service. However, in the vast majority of countries, these public services for employment are lacking. For example, from among the 37 countries that were the target of an AfDB survey on the shortcomings of employment services (AfDB *et al.*, 2012), only 23 proposed registration within a public job-placement service, and only 7 of these managed to compile a register of 50% of youth officially seeking work. Although the private agencies are more efficient than the public agencies, the reach of the former is above all urban, and their priority target is also the youth least remote from employment.

It can also be noted that virtual platforms (websites) for matching job offer and demand are developing, on a private for-profit or non-profit basis. More often than not they concern formal jobs and positions requiring a certain level of qualification or technical skill (for people looking for a job *via* Internet).

Box 7

Public job-placement services and local insertion measures

The first public job-placement services sprang up in the beginning of the 1990s in a certain number of Francophone African countries. They were modeled after the formal French national employment agency (*Agence Nationale pour l'Emploi* – ANPE) as public services to bring offer and demand closer together by orienting unemployed people, generally graduates, toward mostly formal job offers at companies. The creation of public job-placement services in Africa came at the same time as the rise in unemployment, before this latter exploded along with growth in population. These services are intended for the unemployed, and not specifically youth. They concern salaried jobs, which in Africa represent a very low proportion of private jobs (often less than 10% and sometimes less than 5%). Consequently, public job-placement services are for the most part useful only for youth who have at least a minimum of qualifications, given that the jobs proposed mostly come from modern-sector enterprises in urban areas.

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The guidance provided by public job-placement services is often limited to informing the unemployed about job offers at businesses and to possibly proposing them extra training to enable them to acquire the skills expected by the latter. The countries that currently make relatively good-quality public job-placement services available are few in number. In many cases, the shortcomings of these public job-placement services are partially the outcome of structural adjustment programs from the beginning of the 2000s, which considerably reduced their means of action by giving priority to a policy of free market economy, which was supposed to provide the necessary jobs. (Barlet *et al.*, 2013*a*). It is not the role of these public job-placement services to guide youth in the diversity of their insertion pathway (developing the insertion project, acquiring the information and skills needed, mobilizing financial support, etc.), nor are they organized or equipped to do so.

Nevertheless, in some countries we can observe a change in the measures to help youth insertion, wherein the services designed to provide capacity building for youth and the services seeking to create jobs come closer together. This approach toward the problem of the socio-professional insertion of youth is thus more holistic. It can materialize within a single measure, or be the result of close linkage at the local level among various distinct measures. The main spirit of motivation behind these measures is that of networking and facilitation, be it for youth engaged in insertion or for training actors, businesses, and local public authorities. However, this linkage is made difficult by the lack of practice, collaboration, and know-how in management and leadership among local authorities, with all these shortcomings acting as obstacles to these initiatives and the sustainability.

4.1.3. Financial and non-financial services for support to enterprises

These seek to provide information and counseling support to economic actors in order to further their development. The landscape of operators of non-financial services to enterprises is multifaceted. It includes public or para-public offices for meeting with and guiding enterprises, outreach services initiated by local or international NGOs, programs sponsored by the government and/or donors, actions by consular chambers (commerce, industry, trades, and craft), professional organizations, groups, and unions when the industries are sectors that are sufficiently organized. They essentially concern the formal sector. Some professional organizations provide such services to informal entrepreneurs. These support-service providers are being led to play an increasingly important role alongside local public authorities in vitalizing local economic fabric and job creation.

The actions can have very different approaches. They may focus on the agricultural sector or not, be of a social or geographical nature, or take on an operational or business-environment angle. Or, the actions may have specific targets (minorities, certain types of enterprises, women, business creators, the disabled, etc.). The main services proposed are continuing education, diffusion of information, and advice for creating and developing activities. They can be proposed on an open basis, such as that for public services for enterprises, or have a specific approach—by sector for example.

These services may also be financial (loans and guarantees) in order to meet the financing needs of economic operators. In order to start up in the labor market or to develop their still uncertain activity, youth need funds, especially to obtain equipment and constitute working capital. In the last several decades, microfinance has considerably extended its target to the disadvantaged segments of the population. Commercial microfinance generally does not target either the poorest or first-time business creators without experience, whose projects present the most risk. Thus, millions of young Africans borrow from self-managed credit and savings unions and from MFIs.

The services of financial intermediation help to establish links between people needing credit and financial institutions To do so, they help credit applicants file a solvable and solid application, thereby limiting risk-taking by the MFI (guarantee of loan reimbursement, or making a specific funding line available for a given public, etc.).

4.1.4. Services falling within the social and civic fields

Youth must often resolve difficulties outside of the professional field in order to hope to find a job or an internship, or to create their own activity. The services proposed in response to problems that families, communities, and local public institutions can only partially resolve (such as delinquency, dependency, or family planning, etc.) may fall within the social field in the broader sense. These services are frequently designed and implemented to replace services that are not provided, or are poorly provided, by public actors. They may involve actions that fall more within the field of citizenship, which act as a springboard for youth toward professional projects, or they may involve leisure, sports, or cultural actions.

Social actors play an often crucial role in the insertion pathway of young Africans. Community associations and organizations provide a range of services that strongly help youth in their pathways, depending on the context, these may be chiefdoms or traditional organizations (especially in rural environments), neighborhood actors, youth associations, school parent associations, or local NGOs. Faced with the weakness or even absence of outreach services adapted to the needs of youth, these associations initiate often innovative measures within their contexts, which act as a field of experimentation for public policies (platforms of information, places for exchanges, grants for projects) and that deal with rights, citizenship, or health, etc.

4.2. Actors of public action guidance and management

Employment and insertion-support services carry out a public service that we often call public job-placement services or public insertion services. It is the central government and/or local communities that are responsible for them. The actors that guide and manage the implementation of these services and, more broadly, all the programs and policies when they exist, are here differentiated by perimeter of responsibility, from local to national, or from closest to farthest from youth and their direct needs.

4.2.1. Local communities

In a given physical area, insertion takes shape through its various components, which are training, development of the local economy, and thus employment. This area is often where the individual is born and lives. The places that make up these areas are the main spaces in which the trajectories of youth insertion are conceived and implemented. These places (cities, sometimes neighborhoods, or rural districts) must thus be studied with regard to their function as an economic base and labor pool, by considering the opportunities they can offer in terms of education, training, access to information, and employment. Local communities therefore have to play a decisive role in developing the responses to the challenge of local jobs for youth.

To do so, cooperation is needed with the actors of the area: businesses, professional organizations, training centers, families, youth and their representatives, actors of social support and economic development, and customary organizations. However, in many African countries, the decentralization processes that have begun have not yet made it possible to bring out real skills in local development engineering. These local policies to further youth employment/insertion are still more or less in their infancy and limited to major cities, which are equipped with specific and innovative services. The actors in the territory that work in the fields of social services, training, or economic development, etc., are made to participate in the policies. These local policies and measures are especially interesting insofar as they provide a response close to the realities and needs of youth engaged in insertion. The role of facilitator and uniter of local communities is a fully fledged issue for which significant investments are necessary.

Box 8

The challenge of informal sector representation

Enterprises and their representative professional organizations are key actors of economic development. For youth, they represent a dual potential of employment and skill acquisition. Even though the informal economy is the top employer and trainer of youth, the taking into account of micro- and small enterprises in policies and strategies aiming for youth insertion is relatively recent in Africa.

Most agricultural, craft, and commercial enterprises are registered with consular chambers (Chambers of trade, craft, commerce and industry, or agriculture) and/or are members of professional organizations, especially in the agricultural or craft sectors. The professional organizations, which exist in nearly all African countries, play an important role *via* their direct involvement in counseling and training their members, to help young artisans or farmers start working, for example. They are a key player in vitalizing local economic fabrics and job creation.

However, the organizations that represent the smallest companies are still often too small and not structured enough to provide services to their members and to help in designing, managing, and implementing the public policies that concern them.

4.2.2. Ministries and national administrations

The question of youth insertion is dealt with in a rather cross-cutting way by the African countries. The related policies encompass not only education, but also vocational training and employment. Sometimes the actions in these three major areas are accompanied by closely related interventions that come under two major directions: work and social protection on the one hand, and economic development and support to the private sector on the other. Above and beyond a simple indication of the parameters of competencies, these different terms also demonstrate the diversity of the approaches toward the question of youth insertion, which can be more or less comprehensive or fragmented.

The great majority of African countries have youth ministries that enact programs to help youth insertion in the broader sense. They involve support for youth movements, promotion of citizen involvement, or prevention of risk behavior, etc. Some initiate more targeted programs on economic insertion, but these are rare (see the case of the PAJM in Mali, Box 12).

Finally, the sector-based ministries also have programs and specific measures to promote training and youth employment. Nearly each ministry has sector-based vocational training centers under its authority. These are dedicated to agriculture and fishery, industry, or the craft industry, etc. These centers show the efforts made to train qualified labor in response to the development needs of these sectors. These vocational training actions initiated by the sector-based ministries give priority to responding to the needs of public employment (for example in health care and construction). But with regard to the needs in qualified human resources for enterprises, the results are mixed and have insufficient reach. The African ministries in charge of agriculture have largely taken up the issue of agricultural and rural training, and specific actions can be seen in several countries. The ministries also sometimes set up measures aiming to develop employment and the professionalization of their sector. These follow the example of the agencies for the execution of public works (AGETIPs), which have developed in the last 20 years or so in 17 African countries. By training entrepreneurs and thereby facilitating their access to public markets, they have helped develop pools of professionals in the public works sector in these countries.

Let us note two points to conclude this section: youth insertion must involve a cross-cutting approach, and multi-actor dynamics help support and solidify the basis of such an approach. On the one hand, following the example of economic development, youth employment and insertion must involve a cross-cutting policy requiring shared vision and a coherent and coordinated approach. However, the youth-insertion-support actions in most African countries have up to now dealt with the employment problem without an overall vision of the obstacles that youth encounter when trying to enter the labor market. Many studies show that insertion-support policies based on an integrated multi-sectoral approach have on average performed better in impact evaluations (World Bank–AFD, 2014).

Furthermore, multi-actor dynamics are essential in order to share responsibilities in the management and implementation of insertion-support policies, and to enable collective

ownership of the issues and ways to do things. For example, the renovation of vocational training policies and the setting up of dual-type apprenticeship combines professional organizations and their members, states, youth and their representatives, local communities, and sometimes the support measures. Making support measures for young farmers a partner makes it possible to involve the services of the ministries of agriculture, the chambers of agriculture, the peasant organizations, and the actors of agricultural and rural vocational training. This multi-actor process thus backs up the cross-cutting approaches.

4.3. The main policies and actions to promote youth employment and insertion in Africa

4.3.1. Sector-based policies and more local approaches

For many years, the policies developed by most African countries were mainly of two sorts: on the one hand, employment policies that merged with economic development policies that were supposed to create jobs and, on the other, educational and vocational training policies sometimes accompanied by social measures to benefit vulnerable people. These first generations of policies focused on rather ephemeral efforts, mostly due to a lack of in-depth analysis of situations (World Bank–AFD, 2014). Although employment is often a core issue in political discourse, the strategies implemented to take up this challenge can mostly be summed up by the setting up of sector-based programs for vocational training, the creation of jobs through infrastructure works requiring high-intensity labor, and the promotion of independent self-employment.

These programs, which saw rapid development in sub-Saharan Africa in the 1970s, had trouble reaching their target (other than their windfalls for certain persons). The jobs they proposed often turned out to be vulnerable and provided little improvement in the living conditions of the people affected. Nevertheless, thanks to this type of program, some youth were then able to start up their own activity or begin a more ambitious pathway. This can be seen in the example of the success of public works agencies created in various countries, which helped create a pool of professional enterprises in the public buildings and works sector.

Because of these mixed results as well as of a realization of the diversity of obstacles that need to be removed, a change in the way of grasping and understanding the youth insertion issue has been observed in the last few years. Indeed, there is now better understanding about such phenomena as underemployment, the holding down of more than one job, and non-decent work, as well as of the various determinants of the socio-professional insertion of youth into labor markets still lacking in inclusivity. In addition to these changes in understanding of the youth insertion issue, which initially focused on young graduates, there has more recently been specific concern for employment in rural areas.

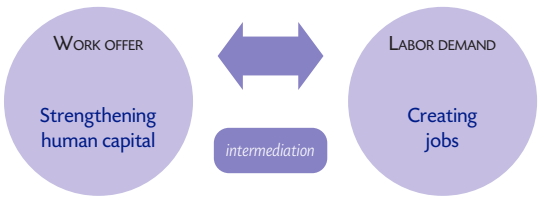
We can thus see the development of measures seeking to help the processes of transition toward youth employment. These measures work on the various determinants of their pathway. Most of them have been designed in response to the shortcomings of the major sector-based policies of job development, entrepreneurship, or training. They are deployed at the local level with inclusive local development of youth in mind.

4.3.2. Actions designed mostly based on the principle of job offer and labor demand

The actions to promote employment are relatively recent in Africa, regardless of whether they come under public action, the private sector, the state, or society. Many initiatives have been designed and jointly implemented by these various actors. The actions to promote youth employment can be divided into two major categories, as the ILO and the OECD do for the active labor market policies (ALMP) (AfDB *et al.*, 2012):

- The programs seeking to develop human capital, *i.e.* those whose objective is to improve the labor offer by generally seeking to increase youth productivity and/or employability;
- The programs to meet the need to facilitate job creation, by stirring up the labor demand among enterprises and by furthering entrepreneurship through a set of measures for the business environment.

Diagram 3. Work offer/labor demand



Source: GRET in-house production.

a. The policies for strengthening human capital

- *Educational system reforms*

The evolution of educational policies in Africa has above all been marked over the last 20 years by a significant effort in basic education: the percentage of children having completed primary school climbed from around 50% in 1991 to 70% in 2011 (UNESCO, 2015). Consequently, Africa currently has the highest school enrollment rate in its history. Substantial improvements have been recorded with regard to the level of overall access to schools. These include reduction or elimination of tuition in very many countries, significant

efforts in food for children at school, and improvement of sanitary conditions in schools (UNESCO, *ibid.*).

Furthermore, in many countries the school enrollment of young girls has markedly improved following policies to this effect. The quality of teaching and of teachers, as well as the strengthening of management tools and of decentralized governance of educational systems, have also improved in some countries. The African states have thus made substantial commitments over the last two decades.

Unfortunately, this major progress in terms of access to schooling has not always led to a proportional improvement in skill levels. It has been shown that, despite significant investments, some countries continue to suffer from very low levels in command of core knowledge (World Bank–AFD, 2014).[13] These unsatisfactory results of the basic education systems are the reason why there are entire cohorts of youth who leave school with a level that is too weak to be able to enter middle school and later high school, or to acquire skills through vocational training. In the last several years, we have been able to observe the spread of initiatives to deal with this problem in several African countries. These initiatives aim for a reappropriation by youth of core knowledge that will help their insertion, following the example of the "second-chance schools" that have developed in Europe over the last 10 years. Substantial improvement in basic education, both quantitative and qualitative, must thus remain one of the priorities of countries wishing to improve youth insertion.

- *Vocational training system reforms*

During the last 20 years, vocational training systems have undergone significant reforms, especially the TVET and apprenticeship reforms. For example, in Francophone sub-Saharan Africa, the TVET reforms sought to lessen the load of general education and to bring the training content and the labor market needs closer together, with the goal of meeting the demands of enterprises and facilitating the insertion of young graduates. Among other things, this approach led to reviewing the curricula in collaboration with the professional world, and designing vocational training with periods of apprenticeship in order to provide effective professional practice to youth. At the same time, some countries have undertaken to reform apprenticeship based on the German-Swiss dual apprenticeship model. To do so, they strongly rely on craft industry professional organizations, which they simultaneously help to become organized. However, up to now the reforms have not targeted the informal and non-formal means of skill development very much (Gauron, 2013).

In 2008, the biennial event of the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) marked a change in paradigm in vocational training policies, with the goal of revitalizing them. The TVET model, which is chiefly associated with the formal sector of training, has since then evolved toward a more holistic and inclusive concept of technical and vocational skills

[13] In 2008, 43% of students having finished primary school in Tanzania and 74% in Mozambique had not gone beyond the basic level of skills in math.

development (TVSD). The TVSD approach is a "*more flexible and more immediate response to the needs of the labor market*" than that of the traditional offer-based system. It encompasses all types of training "*that are not limited to formal education in formal classrooms*" and that incorporate any form of skill acquisition (formal, non-formal, and informal) in a coherent system (ADEA, 2012*a*; ADEA, 2012*b*). This approach examines the paths of progress that are limited neither to solely formal training nor to the simple validation of observed skills.

Nevertheless, while the reforms of apprenticeship and TVET take into account youth insertion and seek to develop partnership with the economic world, the efforts to ensure access by youth to employment remains inadequate for several reasons. Firstly, the TVET system as implemented in most countries remains obsolete both in terms of types and contents of training and of infrastructure. It is disconnected from economic realities and prepares for professions that are hardly considered to be professions of the future or promising ones. The youth who complete this training lack the vocational skills sought by enterprises, and there are not enough candidates to meet the supposed needs of the latter. Furthermore there are still few real systems of training using dual education or restructured and modern apprenticeship. Some countries, such as Egypt, Ghana, Benin, Senegal, Morocco, or Tanzania are applying measures along these lines. However, dual apprenticeship, even though approved by professionals, is not succeeding in becoming acknowledged as teaching that is on par with technical education, and its impact on apprenticeship remains low. Finally, paths of informal and non-formal training, and above all in agriculture, have been absent from the reforms, with a few exceptions, even though they concern the majority of jobs (ADEA, 2014*a*; Gauron, *ibid.*).

Even if some countries such as Egypt, South Africa, Morocco, or Tunisia have invested in broader access to technical and vocational training (ADEA, *ibid.*), in most countries TVET still concerns few youth and is largely neglected by education systems.

Box 9

Terminological references in TVET

"Dual system"

This is an educational method based on linkage between general, vocational, and technological teaching on the one hand and acquisition of know-how on the other, performed through a professional activity related to the teaching received. The teaching and the skill acquisition are carried out alternatively in enterprises and in vocational centers. This alternating "dual system" between training centers and enterprises, or between theoretical teaching and practical teaching, is used in all the vocational teaching and vocational training systems, with the exception of "traditional" and "informal" apprenticeship in Africa. The dual system covers diverse educational and regulatory situations: internships in enterprises, training periods in enterprises, apprenticeship, or German dual system. The differences are to be found in the level of rhythm of alternating back and forth and in the distribution of responsibilities for the training process between various partners.

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Apprenticeship (traditional/informal/modern/dual apprenticeship)

According to UNESCO and the ILO, three types of apprenticeship can be found: informal apprenticeship, traditional apprenticeship, and modern apprenticeship.

Informal apprenticeship is based on a training and work agreement made between a master craftsman and an apprentice. In this agreement, which may be written or oral, the master craftsman undertakes to train the apprentice in all the skills needed for the profession, usually over a period of four years. The apprentice undertakes to contribute productively to the work of the enterprise. They acquire skills by working alongside the experienced master craftsman. Whereas formal apprenticeship is based on policies and legislative instruments in the field of training, informal apprenticeship agreements fall within local norms and customs. These latter govern how the apprenticeship is organized (in particular how it is funded), its duration, and they determine the quality of the training provided and what happens if the contract is broken. This type of apprenticeship is an important training system in many informal urban and rural economies, and mainly in crafts and services such as carpentry, mechanics, electricity, dressmaking, hairdressing, and diverse maintenance and repair (automobiles, motorbikes, electronics), etc.

Traditional apprenticeship refers to an organized transfer of skills within families and social groups. In Africa, more specifically, traditional apprenticeship designates a form of training and traditional socio-professional insertion *via* complete integration into a workshop or a family-type production unit in which production activities, transfer of know-how, self-training, and socialization processes are all combined. In many regions, the traditional apprenticeship systems have developed into informal apprenticeship systems that are accessible to apprentices who do not belong to the family strictly speaking or in the broader sense. Traditional and informal apprenticeships are generally used as equivalent terms.

Modern apprenticeship is generally governed by an apprenticeship law that defines the duration of the training period, the characteristics of the training, the number of hours of work/training, and the payment of all (or part) of minimum wage, etc. In most developing countries, there are only a small number of modern apprenticeships. These are chiefly concentrated within mid-sized and large enterprises as well as in public enterprises.

In sub-Saharan Africa, the approach commonly called "**dual-type apprenticeship**" has been inspired by the German-Swiss model. It seeks to gradually structure informal apprenticeship by introducing a supplement of theoretical and practical training in a formal public or private training center. The apprentice thus has two complementary training locations: the center and the enterprise, with the latter being both a location for work and location for technical training.

Source: GRET (2013).

It remains essential to restructure national systems for vocational training, to enable diversification of the training offer, and to see that training is adapted to the demand and needs of small-scale enterprises, especially in rural areas and in the informal sector.

- *Policies and actions to support youth*

Box 10

Youth as actors of change

Strengthening young people's citizenship and social capital in connection with aiding their insertion into the labor market are all levers that promote their empowerment.

- **The Morocco Concerted Program (*Programme concerté Maroc* – PCM)** was created in 1999 and since 2006 has more particularly concerned itself with the question of youth and its role as an actor of development. What is particularly interesting about the PCM is that it works both for and with youth. In this program, youth have not only been given the role of beneficiaries, but also that of participants in implementing field initiatives and in managing the program.

  More than 120 projects have been carried out during the PCM, especially on themes of citizenship, access to rights, professional training and insertion, facilitation and education, and social and solidarity economy. A certain number of social and behavioral changes have been observed, including more significant involvement by youth in the non-profit fabric in Morocco and in dialog with public actors, as well as greater influence by young people and civil society on the "youth" policies in Morocco.

Source: Agir en coopération pour un développement local durable et inclusif, Assemblée des départements de France.

- **Support for International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) projects aimed at rural youth.** In many IFAD projects, youth "*help others*", including their elders. The projects provide for the local leaders and populations designating the youth they consider to be the most capable and trustworthy to lead certain aspects supported by the projects. For example, these youth become advisors in enterprises within the framework of the PROMER 2 project to promote rural micro-enterprises in Senegal, the PROSPERER program to support rural micro-enterprise groupings and regional economies in Madagascar, as well as PPPMER (Rural Small and Micro Enterprise Promotion Project) in Rwanda. These youth are co-opted by their family and community to represent them or to contribute directly to development. They are treated as equals and considered as direct actors of development. Strengthened in their position within their family and their community, they are increasingly led to participate in decision-making and to represent their community.

Source: IFAD (2014), Lessons learned: Supporting rural young people in IFAD projects.

From the 1990s, many countries created more or less short-lived youth ministries in charge of specific programs for the insertion of young school dropouts. Their range of action has varied depending on countries. For example, in Niger, the Ministry of Youth and Professional Insertion of Youth created a national participation service in 1991. It offered short-term

vocational training (dual training of six months) to 250 youth age 18–25 each year. Most of these actions were oriented toward vocational training and sought to propose training for youth excluded from the school system. However, these actions have limited visibility due to their being dispersed among different administrations and by the strong compartmentalization that prevails among them (Barlet *et al.*, 2013*a*).

While the objective is insertion into the labor market, the foremost concern is often political and linked to the issues of social stability, migration, and citizenship. But the objective of insertion is also indicative of the inadequacies of the training system, which has undergone significant development but does not prepare sufficiently for employment—including in its professional component, which is still poorly developed (Barlet *et al.*, *ibid.*). Finally, many countries have developed, through their youth ministries, programs to support youth movements and non-profit movements. These programs, which are largely concentrated in the major cities, have the advantage of providing youth with means for acquiring knowledge, skills, and sometimes experiences of responsibility that can later turn out to be interesting springboards for their insertion.

b. Policies and programs for developing employment

Box 11

The Enable* program for capacity building of professional organizations in Nigeria working to help develop micro-enterprises that create jobs

With support by the British development agency (Department for International Development – DFID), the Enable program has been implemented in Nigeria by Adam Smith International and the Springfield Centre, two organizations specialized in business environment and support for small businesses. Enable works at the federal level, but also more particularly in three Nigerian states. It specifically seeks to provide capacity building for business membership organizations and the Nigerian states in their capacities for dialoguing together to promote the development of micro-enterprises that can create value and jobs for youth.

The program adopts a systemic approach to improving the performance of the business environment, by seeking to identify and deal specifically with the underlying causes (and not just the symptoms) of the weakness of the Nigerian micro-enterprise market. To do so, Enable works with the business membership organizations to improve their leadership capacities with regard to their member companies, and to carry out advocacy with public authorities and the media. Collaboration among business membership organizations is strengthened, as is their dialog with the government for the purpose of identifying the measures and appropriate policies for developing small-scale business (access to financing, standardization, fiscal matters, labor).

.../...

.../...

Over its five years of existence (2009–2014), Enable achieved very many positive results in terms of the quality of dialog and of shared viewpoint between the public authorities and the business membership organizations, even though there are more mixed results with the grassroots business membership organizations that lack structure and stability in comparison with their counterparts working at the federal level. There have been multiple impacts of the program in terms of reform, and they have improved the business environment of more than 2 million micro-entrepreneurs, including very many smallholder farmers. According to some estimates, this has led to an increase in overall income of approximately €180 million over the five years of the program.

*Enable: Enhancing Nigerian Advocacy for a Better Business Environment.

Sources: http://www.enable-nigeria.com/ and http://www.adamsmithinternational.com/explore-our-work/west-africa/nigeria/enable

- *Improvement of the "business environment"*

These actions, which mostly target modern enterprises and the creation of salaried jobs, seek to make enterprises more competitive and to increase their productivity. The basic premise is that youth access to jobs also involves increased capacity of enterprises to create jobs. This requires a complex set of intersecting policies whose aim is to improve the business environment thanks to macro-economic and political stability, reinforcement of service infrastructure (transport and energy), reduction of trade barriers, increased access to financing, or more localized interventions to help industrial and trade zones emerge (free-trade zones and clusters). For the development of this entrepreneurial fabric to be able to further youth employment, it is necessary to combine these actions with measures seeking to improve the human capital of youth, in order to increase their employability and productivity (World Bank–AFD, 2014).

Furthermore, the national investment policies aimed at the sectors and jobs of the future too frequently ignore the production and service units of the informal economy, despite the fact that at least three out of four jobs are created by the self-employed and by micro- and small-scale entrepreneurs (ADEA, 2014*a*) (see Box 11 on the "Enable" initiative).

- *Support for business creation and development*

Over the last two decades, promotion of entrepreneurship has gradually developed as an alternative policy making it possible to deal with the limited absorption capacity of wage employment markets. Support for youth wishing to start up their own business takes on various forms, such as practical training, provision of a set-up kit, or help in acquiring start-up capital (in partnership with microfinance institutions). These actions are generally based on generic tools, such as those developed by the ILO (see Box 14); they are disseminated to all public actors

and NGOs with the goal of helping candidates create their enterprise. Those wishing to create their own business can take the initiative themselves, by following the steps indicated in the recommendations. However, more often than not, these tools are used to provide support for training, during which future business creators benefit from guidance. Nevertheless, despite the significant job-creation potential it represents, few governments acknowledge the true value of individual micro-enterprises or implement effective policies and programs to help youth create productive enterprises (World Bank–AFD, 2014).

Box 12

Guidance for business creators in the PAJM

The Program for Support to Malian Youth (*Programme d'Appui à la Jeunesse Malienne* – PAJM) sought to train 550 youth in entrepreneurship and to provide technical and financial support for 300, with the hope of a survival rate of two enterprises out of three:

- The support included information for youth, a shortlisting of applicants, a three-week training session in management and developing a business plan, a second round of selection to accept applicants for a loan, the granting of a loan, and monitoring of the business over 18 months;
- The information was provided by the various public regional services (Regional Directorate of Youth and Sports, National Employment Agency, Agency for the Promotion of Youth Employment) and was diffused through radio messages. The loan was provided by a bank (Banque Malienne de Solidarité), along with a guarantee fund in case of non-reimbursement;
- Monitoring of the business included guidance for set-up and start-up of the business, analysis of the enterprise and personalized advice, monitoring of the reimbursement, and regular evaluation of the business.

A total of 300 projects were financed between April 2008 and April 2012. Of these, 240 were still in business at the end of 2012. This business creation moreover had a multiplying effect on jobs, insofar as each enterprise generated two to three salaried jobs on average. The success of this program was based more on the personalized monitoring carried out regularly at the start of the business, more than on the initial training in management.

Such monitoring is essential in order to ensure that the entrepreneur acquires proper ownership of the management tools (bookkeeping, stock and purchase monitoring, setting of prices, etc.) that can only be done in a work situation.

Source: Barlet, Gauron and Huyghe Mauro (2013a).

The business-support services are used as types of intervention in programs to support business development.[14] They make up complementary forms of action to stimulate employment. A wide range of measures to support the development and creation of enterprises exists: incubators, enterprise zones and other organizations enabling the creation and consolidation of young enterprises in a support environment, before taking off, and systems of support or counseling in management, such as support associations or offices to help enterprises adhere to administrative formalities, to identify potential markets, or to network, etc.

- *Highly labor-intensive public works programs*

Since the 2000s, many African countries have sought to find temporary jobs for youth without professional qualification and to enable them to obtain practical qualifications through this method. To do so, public authorities have widely used employment-intensive investment programs, which provide short-term jobs over periods ranging from ten days to six months. These jobs are very often for infrastructure projects managed by states or by NGOs[15] with donor funding. These programs are similar to either the notion of "*insertion through economic means*," by proposing work situations offering the possibility of training, or to the notion of "*social nets*," by providing essential basic goods and/or social services in exchange for a temporary job. (World Bank–AFD, 2014).

These programs do not only provide paid jobs to a large number of often young and unqualified individuals: the idea is to enable the participants to acquire (often their first) experience and skill to facilitate their future insertion. These programs thus increasingly provide training actions in order to produce skills connected with the paid work, thereby opening up opportunities for a more productive job for the poorest. However, there as yet exist few *ex post facto* evaluations that can measure the real medium-term impact of these programs on insertion. The evaluations that are available seek to measure whether these programs can help people "progress" toward more productive and more stable means of subsistence, as well as the extent to which this comes within the framework of inclusive employment strategies (World Bank–AFD, *ibid.*). To find out the real impact of these programs, the evaluation should strive to monitor the beneficiaries beyond the duration of the program, for a period of three to five years.

[14] With this regard, see the many articles and summaries gathered by the revue *Semestriel de l'Actualité des Services aux Entreprises*, which can be accessed online *via* the "Entreprendre au Sud" portal: www.entreprendreausud.org/

[15] For example, Liberia and Sierra Leone implemented "Cash for work" programs to mitigate the effects of rocketing food prices. In its initial phase, the program in Sierra Leone reached 16,000 beneficiaries, who worked around 50 days, between six and eight hours per day, on projects including road rehabilitation, reforestation, soil conservation, and the growing of rice and other products (World Bank–AFD, 2014).

Box 13

PEJEDEC in Côte d'Ivoire: a temporary job as a springboard toward insertion

The *Projet Emploi Jeune et Développement des Compétences* (Youth Employment and Skill Development Project-PEJEDEC), funded by the World Bank, sought to offer a first work or training opportunity to youth who have few or no qualifications. The program was implemented in partnership with Côte d'Ivoire's agency for operating and maintaining roadworks. This public agency gave priority to the use of abundant labor, thereby providing jobs for thousands of youth. Between 2012 and 2014, 12,500 youth age 18 to 30 (30% female) were thus recruited with "salubrity brigade" (*brigadier de salubrité*) contracts of six months, in 16 cities in Côte d'Ivoire.

Besides receiving a regular salary for six months, the youth recruited benefited from an awareness-raising session on themes such as civics and citizenship, HIV-AIDS, or environment and public hygiene. Some brigade members also received training on job hunting, whereas others followed classes to help them start up their own professional activity. For the designers of the program, the objective was to create temporary jobs, but the program was also useful in helping young people save more money and in helping reduce violent or harmful behaviors.

Prince Brokou, a young beneficiary of the program analyzes its impact in the following very concrete terms: "*Thanks to my salubrity brigade salary, I began to purchase the equipment I needed to open a drycleaners shop, and that way I'm going to go into business for myself.*"

Source: World Bank (2015).

4.4. Toward a revised vision of insertion-support measures

The reflections and rough typology presented in this section come from preparatory work for a seminar held in Paris in late 2012 entitled "Youth Employment and Insertion in sub-Saharan Africa." It was led by GRET for the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs and AFD.

4.4.1. Going beyond the approach of job offer and demand

The policies developed to deal with the problem of youth insertion have often been designed using a rather binary approach: on one side, the job offer of people looking for work, and on the other the demand for labor in the job market. This approach provides a relatively simple and coherent framework enabling an analysis compatible with the usual statistical data (education, training, labor of enterprises, job creation, etc.). It is thus useful for guiding public policies and facilitating comparisons between countries in particular. Nevertheless, this framework is very oriented toward the meeting of offer and demand of wage labor, *i.e.* focused on a structured and modern economy.

For this reason, such an approach is hardly appropriate for taking into account either a job exercised within a household enterprise or a case of multi-activity, which is very frequent,

especially in rural areas. Nor is it appropriate for considering the specific constraints in self-employment, which remains the norm for the vast majority of young Africans. Furthermore, this approach also tends to neglect the other social and/or cultural dimensions that condition young Africans' transition toward working life and that are not directly related to the skills required by the structured and modern economy (family and friends network, family income level, mobility, gender aspect). Thus, the majority of actions take place in these two fields of offer and demand, making this characterization relatively inoperable.

4.4.2. Different viewpoints to combine

- *Shared vision on the need for guidance on insertion pathways*

Most of the insertion-support measures agree on a single perception of insertion, seen as a pathway strewn with obstacles and opportunities requiring a proactive approach by the youth. In this pathway, youth must bring to the fore their capacities and competencies, as well as deal with their personal or social difficulties as much as the constraints of their environment. This illustrates awareness and knowledge of various insertion pathway determinants. Next, these support measures converge on a single strategic axis and a same intervention logic: to increase the performance of youth insertion pathways, it is important to reinforce a wealth of knowledge and skills that the youth must mobilize to this effect, all the while trying to act on the environment in which these pathways are found. In this respect, these measures express their desire to act on these various insertion pathway determinants. Based on this common vision of insertion and its needs, these measures deploy their support according to a logic of guidance and tools for the youth.

- *Approaches with differentiated services more or less linked with local economic development*

Above and beyond this common foundation of principles and purposes, the insertion-support measures can be distinguished in terms of deployed services that will make them instruments that are more or less restricted to a special target public or to a special need of youth. This differentiation can also be illustrated in terms of more or less marked linkage with the processes of economic and forward-looking development.

This analysis using these two complementary angles provides us an outline of a typology of the main actions currently implemented in Africa.

a. Different types of services according to the objectives pursued

In this context combining shortage of modern jobs and strong inequalities, insertion requires a proactive approach to highlight one's capacities and deal with difficulties. There are moreover many types of pathways: there is no single and linear trajectory toward employment.

Faced with the multiplicity and diversity of obstacles to employment, no form of support provided alone will be able to meet needs effectively. Rather, it is the combination of diversity and the complementarity of support that will be the most efficient.

We can thus observe two types of approaches mostly implemented at the local level to aid and guide insertion pathways: platform-type measures and targeted measures. The platform-type measures, which are open and non-selective, guide youth through direct support (orientation and information) and by the mobilization of resources of their environment, so as to optimize their strategy for access to jobs. In the targeted measures, which involve support for creating one's own business, both the public and the outcome of the guidance are predefined. In these measures, individual guidance is positioned within the framework of support for economic development, in order to direct the person toward identified or potential jobs.

The platform-type measures focus on the difficulties unique to each individual and, consequently, include a diversified range of services (intervention on human capital). In contrast, the targeted measures seek to act on certain specific obstacles related to a type of public or problem, and/or to a given sector (intervention affecting the youth and his/her environment in relation with a given sector or profession).

In these two types of support measures, there is convergence on the importance of providing guidance for youth over the long term, on the diversity of resources to mobilize, and on relations of proximity. This difference in services can also be understood in terms of objective sought for and type of public concerned.

The less the measure is focused on employment, the more it is open and generalist, with a possible plurality of pathways. It may affect quantitatively significant publics and is adapted to taking into account the situation of the youth who are the farthest from employment or who are particularly vulnerable socially. This measure is focused on the factors behind obstacles and offers little specialized support to further access to jobs. This is the case of insertion-support platforms. Guidance plays a role that is just as important, but it is not of the same nature as in a measure focused on employment.

Conversely, the more the measure is focused on a specific employment objective, the more it proposes specialized and conditional support, with selection processes that also act as tests of capacities and commitment. In this case, it targets limited publics and can be perceived as inegalitarian: access to it is available only to people who have a clear choice of orientation, a predetermined profile (*e.g.* in terms of educational level), and the ability required to pass the hurdles of a first selection. The support and guidance are focused on improving the feasibility and implementation of a project, be it wage employment, business creation, or improvement of employment conditions. In some cases, such as the Côte d'Ivoire services platform (PFS), the two types of measures may be joined together, but with the risk of distorting the purpose of the measures.

b. A more or less marked linkage with economic development

Even if the socio-professional insertion of youth is not limited to the question of employment, the fact of managing to exercise an activity guaranteeing income represents the chief illustration of insertion.

Given this fact, it seems essential to examine the insertion-support initiatives from the angle of their strategy on economic activities that can integrate youth. The question of insertion can be asked in terms of putting the work offer of youth into relation with the needs of labor by enterprises (bringing together the offer and the demand of enterprises), or in terms of contributing to the development of conditions favorable for the job search of youth resulting in the creation of a new economic activity (*e.g.* facilitating self-employment processes) or by the development of an existing activity or new activity and the creation of jobs.

Insertion-support measures are more or less rooted in the dynamics of local economic development. The interventions may focus on capacity building for entrepreneurs and enterprises, or seek to work on their environment in order to make more favorable conditions and new job opportunities emerge. It is at this level that the insertion-support measures must be thought of as uniting and facilitating a partnership approach that brings together a set of economic actors (enterprises, professional organizations, and local chambers of commerce in particular). The approach must also be in relation with the elected officials in charge of local economic development. This linkage with local economic actors seems crucial insofar as it seems that youth insertion issues are increasingly played out at the local level. Insertion in its various aspects (education, training, employment, job creation, citizenship) thereby acquires the stature it deserves, at the crossroads of development policies.

4.5. Outline of an insertion measure typology

The attempted typology presented below is the result of work carried out by GRET and its partners, based on the comparison of operational measures existing in programs mainly initiated by NGOs in various African countries (Barlet *et al.*, 2013*a*; 2013*b*).[16] At this stage, the typology is just an outline based on a review of field actions that, out of concern for effectiveness and impact, use several levers of intervention in cross-cutting strategies for sector-based public policies and for institutional frameworks. A more advanced and systematic examination of numerous measures is needed to refine this outline. It is necessary to examine the studies (compared analyses and evaluations) more in depth in order to fuel the reflection and action of the designers and the practitioners of these insertion-support measures.

4.5.1. The relatively decontextualized "tool" measures

Many multilateral or national programs offer a set of very targeted tools intended to provide capacity building for youth, either for their wage employment search (CV writing, succeeding in a job interview, etc.), or for creating their own job (with specific credit funds or business creation kits).

[16] In particular the following programs: CRREJ (Regional Resource Center for Youth Employment) in Senegal, *Cap Insertion* in Mauritania, *Plateformes de Services* in Niger and in Côte d'Ivoire, PAJM in Mali for business creation pathways, PEJEDEC in Côte d'Ivoire, and PROMER in Senegal.

These instruments involve providing tools for the youth. The tools are rather generic and can thus be used in very different contexts. The operators that use them can of course sometimes adapt them to the specific nature of their intervention contexts. The ILO has for example developed a range of business creation support tools. Teams working on youth insertion use them in their work very often (see Box 14).

Box 14

ILO tools for business creation support: SIYB, GYB, and SYB

- The SIYB ("Start and Improve Your Business"; French: GERME) tool proposes seven modules (marketing, stock management, cost calculation, etc.) that present the basic principles for proper business management in a simple and practical way. The training duration may vary between five days to three weeks. The SIYB training was designed to be more adapted to a target public with an educational level at least equivalent to the end of lower secondary school.
- The GYB ("Generate Your Business Idea"; French: TRIE) tool aids in finding the business idea most adapted to the managerial ambitions and capacities of the candidate and to the real needs of the market.
- The SYB ("Start Your Business"; French: CREE) tool supports the business creation process and particularly the development of a business plan. It also provides post-training follow-up for the new business.

Source: ILO, Start and Improve your Business Programme/Gérez mieux votre entreprise (SIYB/GERME).

- *The orientation and guidance measures: insertion platforms*

Since the beginning of the 2000s, we can see pilot development programs in Africa that provide integrated services as part of an overall support process for youth working toward insertion (examples are Cap Insertion in Mauritania, CRREJ in Senegal, and the orientation and service platforms in Niger and Côte d'Ivoire). These measures are focused on providing guidance and capacity building for youth. The intervention very often consists in providing guidance for youth during their insertion processes, however diverse these latter may be, by providing informational services. Their goal is to act as an interface between the youth themselves, institutions, vocational training centers, and economic operators. In a way, what they try to do is to help youth, in their insertion process, meet up with the potentialities of their environment, and to put local actors into synergy to further the insertion process.

These platforms thus act with local development in mind, as they are an expert operator on insertion at a given local level (city, neighborhood, or sometimes region). They propose support that is responsive to local opportunities, and they play a role of steering and putting into relation with actors proposing services that can improve or accelerate the insertion process. These latter services include training, business internships, information, etc.

These new forms of services have often appeared *via* experiments made by NGOs that were based on the observation that public job-placement services were relatively ineffective. These services are provided directly, or through partnerships made with other local actors, in order to be able to respond to the great diversity of obstacles that youth can encounter in their insertion process. These include weakness of relational networks; difficulties related to mobility, health, or family instability; and lack of information. In their role of steering, these platforms also play a role of facilitator by working to improve dialog and coordination among local actors, each of which work on insertion but often through specific entries and in a way rather disconnected from one another (business creation, training, youth, or social guidance). The mobilization of actors can also be based on the local authority, through the drawing up of a local plan for insertion.

The platform's information/orientation role may be extended by having it act as an insertion operator, in the form of a workshop-school, a public service agency, or an insertion project, as in the case of the services platform of Côte d'Ivoire. But while the former role seeks to attract a very broad target (several hundred or several thousand youth), the latter concerns a very limited one of a few dozen youth, or at best just under 100 in the same area. These measures, open or selective, do not coexist easily, and the mixture between a service open to all and actions designed for certain target publics can create distortion and situations that are difficult to manage locally.

Box 15

The platforms for youth information, orientation, and guidance in Niger

In Niger, experimentation with a youth-insertion-support center began in 2009, within the Nigerien NGO Afrique Fondation Jeunes (AFJ), which is established in the Yantala district of Niamey. Following research-action work on the problems of employment, training, and socio-professional insertion in the country, a series of interviews was carried out with young people. This led to establishing an insertion-support measure that includes the following services:

- Reception and interviews for consulting, information, and professional orientation: evaluation of the youth's situation, development of the project;
- Individualized follow-up with a reference counselor: advice, being put in relation with the partners concerned (literacy centers, training centers, national employment agency, etc.);
- Preparing the youth for starting training and providing support for application procedures;
- Preparation for starting work (CV, etc.) or for creating a business;
- Follow-up of youth undergoing training or in employment;
- Gathering and diffusing job and internship offers (in relation with the national employment agency).

Source: Barlet and Le Bissonnais (2010).

- *The main issues of open platform-type insertion support measures*

Box 16

Examples of selective platform-type measures

The **Hand-emploi platform** in Mali. It was set up in 2008, through the project for professional insertion of disabled persons (PIPROPH), initiated by the association *Emploi, Intégration des Handicapés pour le Développement* (EIDH) and Handicap International (HI), and proposes employment guidance and follow-up for disabled people, with the objective of job search for business creation:

- Peer guidance, through the creation of job search clubs supervised by persons in charge of employment and insertion, and organized according to profiles and diplomas;
- Peer guidance, through the creation of entrepreneur clubs organized according to profession.

Since 2014, the platform has been operating at a slower pace due to lack of funding.

Source: Iram (2014).

The **Harambee Project** in South Africa. The proportion of modern wage employment is higher in South Africa than in the labor markets of most of sub-Saharan African countries. This type of measure can provide responses to this particular context. Harambee was created in 2010 as an initiative by private enterprises. It targets graduates or people from higher education looking for their first job. The program plays a role of interface between demand and offer. It helps youth find a first job, especially in the private sector, and also responds to the difficulty employers have of finding and recruiting employees and maintaining them in their job. Harambee carries out the following actions:

- Contracts with employers that have available jobs;
- Identifies and selects applicants corresponding to the profiles sought by the enterprises;
- Puts into contact the applicants who meet the needs of the enterprises;
- Fills in the skills gaps of applicants;
- Finds jobs for applicants who have the basic skills and know-how needed to integrate the work world;
- Provides follow-up and guidance for both the employer and the inserted applicants, to help make sure the latter stay in their first job.

The partner enterprises contribute at several levels: they work with Harambee beforehand to find solutions that correspond to their needs, propose internships, and, after giving a job to the youth, make tutors available to follow up on them. They also contribute financially. To date, Harambee has found jobs for more than 800 applicants. Harambee's economic model, which combines payments from partner enterprises and government grants, is an example of relevant public/private partnership.

Source: ADEA, (2014b).

- *A public service objective*

The principle of open measures for insertion support is to reach out to all youth of the locations covered by the measures, regardless of their sex and level of training (youth who are school dropouts, graduates, apprentices, underprivileged, or with no special problem) by proposing them local services. Public job-placement agencies, when they exist, reach only very few youth. They do not have the resources to provide guidance for people far from jobs, especially those coming from disadvantaged neighborhoods or environments. The youth insertion-support centers may be complementary to and partners of these agencies, in the framework of national education and employment policies. Moreover, generally speaking, one of the callings of insertion-support measures is to contribute to the evolutions of employment and training policies, or even to further the creation of local insertion policies.

Thanks to the activities they carry out and the information they have gathered in databases, these measures provide detailed knowledge of the situations of youth. The measures thus take on the quality of youth observatories that are essential sources of information. Furthermore, the creation of steering or monitoring committees often enables the existence of interinstitutional frameworks for exchange and dialog on youth insertion. These spaces of dialog can then help construct policies aiming for an increase in the training offer, a qualitative improvement in responding to the expectations of youth and enterprises, and better information for youth on the types of activities and on the existing training offer.

- *An overall approach and concern for giving dynamics to local partnerships*

The approach is that of overall guidance and the taking into account of all the difficulties of youth. It involves proposing services in response to as broad a vision as possible of the various obstacles faced by youth in their search for insertion. For this, a very broad and diversified offer of services is needed. Most of the measures include—with sometimes very different forms of organization—functions of reception, information, orientation, training, and job insertion. These measures are motivated by a concern to maintain a cross-cutting nature, and their functions include acting as a link among insertion actors and mobilizing resources and local skills. Striving toward sustainability, they work together and base themselves as much as possible on existing institutions and on building partnerships, in order to increase the offer of services to youth. It is not their job to replace or add to existing national or local measures, but to mobilize and facilitate the coordination of actions to help youth.

- *Multiple issues of sustainability*

Based on the principle that the need for such measures will be required to last a certain time, the question of their sustainability is critical, all the more so because most of them are the result of projects initiated by CSOs, often thanks to aid agency funding, which by definition is not indefinite. Because of this, these experiences must be analyzed according to different criteria:

- *Their effects and impacts on youth insertion.* As transition to working life is a process, the results of these first-job measures can be reasonably measured only over several years. Indeed, most are new, and it is still too early to evaluate their real impact in terms of youth access to long-lasting employment. The relevancy and quality of responses given to youth, as well as the interest that enterprises and public authorities have in them, are the main determinants of their effectiveness. Furthermore, the issue of professionalism of their teams is also essential. The profession of insertion counselor is new or does not exist yet in many African countries. Investment must thus be made in training insertion counselors and supervisory personnel, so that they have the skills and tools needed to serve youth, and to manage the measures effectively;
- *Their financial resources.* The income from just the beneficiaries (youth and enterprises) is insufficient. It is thus essential to determine the percentage of costs to be paid by the public authority (local or national depending on the case) or by an international donor, as well as to identify various additional private resources. Above and beyond the question of effectiveness, that of efficiency arises eventually, with regard to the cost efficiency relationship of such measures. From this issue very probably ensues the question of possible outsourcing of certain services that could be taken care of by technical partners, as in the example of services delegated in some countries ("Cap Insertion" in Nouakchott, Mauritania);
- *How they are rooted institutionally.* The question here is that of the contracting authority. It can be contracted by a government ministry as part of a sectoral/intersectoral policy (*e.g.* vocational training, education, employment), or by a local community within the framework of a territorial policy, or by a non-profit organization fulfilling a public service mission. This probably brings up the question of potential change in scale and geographic extension of the measures. In Côte d'Ivoire, while it is the state that sees to the management of service platforms, the status chosen for these latter is that of private association exercising public service activities. The general assemblies of these local associations bring together, at the national level, representatives from local communities, technical ministries, professional organizations, and chambers of commerce, and, at the local level, elected officials and representatives of various sectors of activity. The objective is to create local service platforms nationwide, in relation with local communities that want to establish them. Finally, in Mauritania, the Cap Insertion project is testing a policy of delegating services, between the Nouakchott urban community (CUN) and a specialized local association that will be in charge of managing the different branches of the system present in CUN. In doing so it must respect terms of reference defined by the central government for this type of youth-insertion-support service.

Box 17

The youth-insertion-support measure for certified youth of the craft sector in Benin

The project carried out in Benin by the NGO Swisscontact (with AFD funding) helps support the insertion efforts of youth who have obtained a certificate of professional qualification through the dual system in the craft sector (hairdressing, dressmaking, mechanics, air conditioning, carpentry). It involves support that takes over from technical training, by targeting specific skills not covered by the training that can help the future young artisans to set up their own business: management of a craft enterprise, determining a business plan, obtaining and managing microcredit.

For its implementation, the project relies on a significant partnership approach: the associated stakeholders integrated into the steering committee and/or follow-up committees, as much from the public as the private sector: artisans; microfinance institutions; town councils; the national confederation of artisans of Benin; the interdepartmental craftsman union of Benin; the ministry in charge of vocational training, reconversion, and youth insertion; and the ministry in charge of craft industries.

Source: www.swisscontactbenin.org

4.5.2. Measures linked to an economic development strategy

In reality, many economic development support programs have an impact on youth employment. Some seek explicitly to improve the integration of youth into the economic activities supported. Insertion then becomes an expected outcome of these programs, with activities specifically targeting youth or with privileged conditions of access to the various types of support. For example, PROMER, a project implemented in Senegal by IFAD to promote rural micro-enterprises, seeks to create jobs and to reduce the underemployment of rural youth within a strategy of development based on diversification of rural activities.

The project to support the vocational insertion of young graduates in the craft sector of Benin (see Box 17), seeks to facilitate the creation of new efficient enterprises by these young apprenticeship graduates and, through them, the development of the craft enterprise network. In these experiences, direct support to projects of youth is associated with actions to reinforce professional organizations and partnership with MFIs. As mentioned previously, these professional organizations often play a very important role in support services to enterprises. They provide information and support-counseling to economic actors in order to further their development and thereby their role of employer and contributor to youth training.

Box 18

Examples in rural areas of targeted measures linked to a strategy of economic development

The **Songhaï Center** in Benin offers a training system in agricultural entrepreneurship for farmer students. It includes four sections: a center for experimenting new techniques, a production center, a training center, and a services center (input supply, credits, networking, etc.). The training is open more particularly to youth who have a command of basic knowledge and a plot of land available. Selection tests of a physical and psycho-technical nature are required for acceptance into the center.

The center gives priority to putting the youth into real work situations. The training is broken down into several phases: selection of the youth (2 months); orientation (3 months), with discovery of six production units; specialization (15 months) in the sectors chosen, depending on objectives for setting up their own activity; and then application (12 months). The youth benefit from support for setting up their own activity, with facilitated access to credit. The economic model of the center is interesting, because part of its funding comes from the sales of some of the production produced at the center and from the sale of services to farmers, such as the processing of certain products. The Songhaï Center has been replicated in Liberia, Nigeria, Congo, and Sierra Leone. Similar activities are going to start up in Côte d'Ivoire, Burkina Faso, Gabon, Kenya, Malawi, Togo, Ghana, Uganda, and Zambia.

Source: Iram (2014).

IFAD supports projects that further small-scale rural enterprises by providing skills and other resources to rural populations, and especially to women and youth to help them create and develop local enterprises that can generate income and jobs. While they are not designed specifically for youth, more and more of the projects funded by IFAD are taking specific targeted measures to improve the human as well as the social and/or financial capital of youth. In Africa, IFAD implements projects to support small-scale rural enterprises in Senegal (PROMER), Ghana (REP), Madagascar (PROSPERER), and Rwanda (PPPMER). These projects can propose business counseling, rural technology centers, rural financial services, and support to sole-proprietorship and rural micro-enterprise organizations. Two projects underway specifically target youth: the FIER project for vocational training, insertion, and entrepreneurial support for rural youth in Mali; and PEA Jeunes (promotion of agropastoral entrepreneurship among youth) in Cameroon. They can benefit from capacity building through access to information and to training, financial support, or support services for enterprises.

Source: ADEA (2014c), IFAD (2014).

Finally, let us look at the partnerships between enterprises and vocational training centers in the framework of which enterprises include youth insertion into their human resources policy.

Table 4. Summary – Typology of actions according to economic activity strategies

Strategies / Parameters	*Propose "generic" tools*	*Seize opportunities of the environment*		*Link access to employment and development strategy*
	Development of "standardizable" tools	*Micro- and possibly meso-approach*		*Meso-micro approach*
End goal	Develop youth "employability"(*) e.g. *ILO entrepreneurial tools*	Support insertion processes so that they lead to job opportunities. e.g. *platforms, chamber of industry reorientation classes, Hand-emploi Platform, Harambee*		Support access to employment by contributing to economic development e.g. *IFAD projects (PROMER, REP, etc.)*
Target public	Not targeted or targeting not connected to an employment goal (vulnerability, age, territory, for example)			Targeted according to the economic strategy adopted.
Advantages and limits	Fairness and diversity. Immediate quantitatively, but limited impact on long-lasting employment.	Fairness and diversity. Employment impact if environment is favorable.	Selective. Employment impact if environment is favorable.	Selective. Adaptation to the economic and social processes of sectors/ territories, forward-looking dimension. Youth, among others, are actors.
Challenges	Adapting and integrating these "toolboxes" into other approaches.	Comes within an economic forecast. Linkage of platforms with support targeted on employment.		Taking into account the specific needs of youth, and especially those who are most vulnerable.

(*) Note: in the sense of acquiring the social, relational, technical, and financial capital adapted to the goal of the employment sought after.

Source: French Ministry of Foreign Affairs, AFD, GRET (2013); Proceedings of the "Emploi et Insertion des Jeunes en Afrique subsaharienne" seminar, French Ministry of Foreign Affairs, AFD, GRET. www.gret.org/wp-content/uploads/121204_Actes.pdf

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Part 5.
How to design and implement measures to support youth insertion in Africa?

The basic points:

- Better distinguishing the pathways of youth and renewing the framework for analyzing youth insertion interventions are the two key research challenges for better understanding how to design insertion-support measures.
- Economic development: it is necessary to start from existing social and economic structures and to recognize micro- and small enterprise potential for creating jobs and added value. In the modern sector, wage employment should be encouraged in promising value chains.
- Skills development: training actions should aim more resolutely at insertion—and, in particular, recognize skills—independently of how they were acquired. This implies a change toward recognizing and enhancing the value of paths of training that are currently not integrated into formal training systems, as well as strengthening for actors who design and manage these measures.
- Youth-insertion-support measures: strategies that involve youth as actors in designing and managing the initiatives that concern them must be developed. Furthermore, it is important to combine the actions that support youth in their pathways and the programs for economic development. Finally, sector-based approaches would benefit from acting in complementarity and in converging locally with territorial development issues.
- CSOs are vectors of innovation, as much technically as for identifying sustainable economic and social models for measures integrated into international programs.

The recommendations that follow are a summary of the main recommendations of international and national development cooperation institutions. They seek to inventory the major shortcomings and challenges of reflection concerning insertion and youth employment, as they have been identified by the main actors in that area. These recommendations come from the political orientations put forward by the African countries during the conference of African ministers held in Abidjan in July 2014,[17] from the cooperation partners of these same countries,[18] and from CSOs concerning experimentations on youth-insertion-support measures.

These several recommendations do not consider the specificities unique to each country. Tackling the challenge of youth insertion in a given country of course requires specific analysis taken in context. These recommendations are a summary of existing work and show the limit of the traditional plan of action found in the reports and studies of international and national development cooperation institutions, which often deal with the issue of insertion through the prism of offer/demand/intermediation. In the present publication, it is proposed to go beyond those actions.

This work brings out two key issues overall for operational and academic research in the field of employment and insertion:

- Distinguishing more finely and positively the pathways of youth than is done currently (see Part 3), as well as the opportunities and difficulties youth encounter (especially in access to certain agricultural or craft activities, as well as in obtaining financing), their support needs, the resources they can mobilize, and the levers that can help give a boost to these pathways (based on the needs of youth rather than on the offer and the actors);
- Going beyond the current framework of offer/demand/intermediation analysis of the youth-insertion-support interventions, by relying on and reviewing the typology outline presented in Part 4.

These fields of reflection are urgent and crucial to investigate, in an open and concerted way with the professionals of the sector, so that the insertion-support interventions can be based on a suitable and shared conceptual framework that is above all put to the test and enriched with lessons learned from numerous interventions with varied approaches.

More particularly, Part 5 will bring out the main recommendations put forward by the international and national development cooperation institutions, by looking at the three major subjects (1) economic development and job creation, (2) skills development, (3) design and management of youth-insertion-support programs and measures. Part 5 shall also propose ideas for research to help make headway on each of these subjects, based on and sometimes extrapolating from current approaches. These research issues are sometimes very operational and sometimes academic in nature. They come in many forms and scales and are not meant to

[17] 2014 Ministerial Conference of the Inter-Country Quality Node on Technical and Vocational Skills Development (ICQN-TVSD); Abidjan, 21–23 July 2014 (hereinafter noted as ADEA, 2014*a*).

[18] From various reports of technical and financial partners: World Bank, AFD, ILO, IFAD, AfDB, OECD, UNDP, UNESCO.

be dealt with in the same way or altogether. These issues for future research are also indicative of the importance of the conceptual field to explore with regard to the subject of this publication.

5.1. What can be done to stimulate economic development and job creation?

Box 19

The challenge of youth employment in Africa: six ideas to reconsider, in order to foster the design of appropriate youth employment policies

To help governments design national strategies for youth employment, the World Bank and Agence Française de Développement worked in 2014 to collect a set of observations and proposals to help decision-makers and youth identify sustainable economic opportunities. The report entitled "Youth Employment in Sub-Saharan Africa" (2014) also evokes the following main myths that should be debunked regarding the issue of youth insertion, so that appropriate policies can be designed:

- *"Urban employment is the main problem."*

If the unemployment rate in most African countries is in reality very low, it is because Africans simply cannot allow themselves not to work. Young Africans work—often in the same activities as their parents—on family farms and in small enterprises. But they are often underemployed and cannot manage to exercise enough paid activity. In rural areas, youth can remain entire months without activity (out of season). In urban areas, they sometimes wait a long time before their commercial activity is sufficiently productive, or before an employer hires them for some time. The challenge is to respond to this problem of underemployment, to help these working youth be more productive, and to increase their income so they can be independent and start a family.

- *"The growth Africa has experienced in the last twenty years has not created youth employment."*

This continued growth of approximately 5% per year on average for the continent as a whole has created many new jobs, but essentially in the industrial and services sectors. But these sectors, which represented only 5% on average of the working population at the beginning of the century, have been able to absorb only a very small share of the population of working youth, which is continuing to grow at 3% per year. In reality, the sectors that have created the most jobs for youth in the past years are household enterprises and agriculture.

- *"A robust industrial policy would help resolve the challenge of youth employment."*

While the Asian economies were able to create many jobs in the 1990s thanks to the manufacturing sectors, the African countries have not been able to do the same, because they lack the basic education required for acquiring technical skills. While the modernization of African economies remains a necessity, there is little chance in the near future that this process will lead to African youth enjoying massive access to wage employment in the manufacturing sector. About two-thirds of youth will have to look for a job in agriculture or in household enterprises.

.../...

.../...

- *"The problem resides in a lack of vocational training."*

Despite being the most educated generation Africa has known up to now, the vast majority of youth leave the school system with very weak basic cognitive skills. A very large proportion of youth leave primary school without a correct command of basic skills in reading and math. In such a context, it would be unrealistic to think that a massive vocational training policy can be a sufficient solution. Considerable efforts must be made to improve the quality of and access to existing vocational training, but even more large-scale actions must be undertaken to attain significant improvement in basic education so that the coming cohorts of youth in school can benefit from a solid stock of skills.

- *"Agriculture offers no hope for youth."*

Despite current levels of productivity and income that are too low, the family farm sector continues to offer very many job opportunities for youth. Africa still imports many food products, and prices are high. Appropriate policies could help the African agricultural sector undergo strong growth and meet regional and global demand. Youth can take part in this African agricultural renewal, but to do so they must have access to land, inputs, techniques, markets, and financing.

- *"The household enterprise sector is at a dead-end."*

Job creation strategies should concentrate on SMEs. In the vast majority of African countries, we can see that street vendors, hairdressers, tailors, masons, and makers of household articles are almost always small-scale entrepreneurs. These activities often represent the only possible choice for ensuring the means of subsistence for these very numerous people, who are deprived of a level of education and skills that would enable them to obtain wage employment in a modern enterprise. Because of this, national and local governments should facilitate self-employment and support and secure household enterprises by providing them with better infrastructures to increase their productivity.

Source: Louise Fox (University of California, Berkeley) and Deon Filmer (Lead Economist, World Bank), co-authors of the report "Youth Employment in Sub-Saharan Africa" (World Bank–AFD, 2014).

The six myths about meeting the youth employment challenge in Africa, available at: http://blogs.worldbank.org/jobs/meeting-youth-employment-challenge-africa-six-myths

Acknowledge the potential for job creation and growth by micro- and small enterprises, including informal and rural ones (ADEA, 2014*a*). The African governments acknowledge that the high level of exclusion of youth from the work world is especially tied to the fact that their economies do not create enough jobs. This is why the countries are calling together for a change in policies in order to give back all the importance due to micro- and small enterprises, veritable creators of wealth and jobs. They produce up to 70% of GDP in some countries and in many countries take in between 75 and 90% of youth seeking professional insertion.

However, these vital actors of the economy and of youth insertion are too often ignored by national investment policies. In North Africa, for example, the existing and active labor market

programs generally cover almost exclusively urban areas and the unemployed, whereas they should also work in rural areas and with informal workers (World Bank, 2013).

The African countries thus face the challenge of placing measures that can stimulate the informal/traditional economy at the core of their development strategies, and of giving the informal/traditional economy the means to shift from subsistence level to that of innovation and entrepreneurship. Several countries have realized this and are anticipating stronger competencies of micro- and small entrepreneurs in urban areas as in agricultural and rural areas. There will of course have to be coordination with tax policies (in particular the shift from a set tax to one on real profits) and with productive investment, which only several countries have started to establish.

> *In this respect, it is necessary to develop research in order to better study 1) the conditions of the economic development of the traditional or informal economy and 2) the various forms of support for the informal sector and their combination. Regarding the latter, it is especially important to go deeper into the idea of involvement by the diasporas (migrant networks abroad) for technical (tutorship) and financial support; to better study the possibilities of strengthening the status of micro-/small enterprises; to support the organization and representation of micro-/small enterprises (in particular by strengthening their professional organizations), and to develop the exchange of good practices between countries on these national policies and programs.*

Facilitate access to jobs in the agricultural sector (World Bank–AFD, 2014). The potential for agriculture in Africa remains very significant, given its demographic situation, the distribution of the population, and its needs for food sovereignty. This sector has long been neglected in terms of its potential for youth employment. It is in the interest of African countries to better develop robust agricultural sectors that can contribute to economic development and provide long-lasting jobs for youth. To do so, the obstacles that weaken the potential of this sector must be reduced or eliminated, so that rural youth can have access to land. Such strategies will involve reducing the cost of land transfer, promoting land rental markets, encouraging land redistribution that is favorable to youth, and promoting local or state land management that focuses youth. It would also be important to develop access to more efficient techniques to expand the range of agricultural skills and to increase access to information by targeting young people more.[19] Finally, with a view to sustainable development of the agricultural sector, it would be necessary to strengthen producer organizations to make them more effective and inclusive, and to facilitate intergenerational transfers (of land, knowledge, and markets).

[19] The specialists of the *Formation Agricole et Rurale* (FAR) network nevertheless consider that the concept of "agricultural extension" is not adapted to African countries.

> *Here it is a question of studying more what potential agricultural value chains[20] have in integrating young people; of strengthening knowledge on the needs for agricultural land reforms in the various countries; investing more in the study of balances to be found between export agriculture and agriculture for local markets; implementing agricultural and rural training adapted to African contexts; developing research on labor-intensive programs in the agricultural sector; identifying obstacles youth face in setting up agricultural activities–and studying the conditions for successful reinstallation of youth in rural areas ("back to the land" programs).*

Facilitate access to jobs in individual enterprises (World Bank–AFD, 2014). These enterprises were long ignored, but their job-creation potential has finally been recognized. National strategies to develop them should be drawn up in most countries. Such strategies would imply strong participation by local communities, which represent the most appropriate level to work along with the dynamics of this activity at the local level. Measures at the national level will have to back up the efforts at the local community level. This will involve encouraging youth to start up in the creation or development of an individual enterprise, through integrated approaches that simultaneously tackle the various obstacles encountered by youth.

> *Points required: acquiring better knowledge of the nature of support that fosters the development of forms of individual employment (access to financial services, access to markets, skills development, provision of urban and rural services and equipment, regulations, etc.); strengthening the study of the diversity of family activities and jobs and their impact on women in particular; strengthening the understanding of youth entrepreneurship dynamics as well as the understanding of the obstacles they encounter when creating individual enterprises.*

Facilitate access to wage employment in modern enterprises and promising sectors (World Bank–AFD, 2014). At this level it will involve public authorities promoting economic development that is supposed to create a significant number of jobs, especially in economically promising value chains and in terms of jobs. To do so, governments are called on to deal with the aspects of the business environment that reduce productivity (transport and logistics infrastructures, energy services, access to financing and land, corruption, securing of investments). In North Africa, where access to credit is strongly based on privileges and where relations and profitable markets are still protected by multiple legal and regulatory barriers, the political options to create a dynamic private sector require reforms in regulating the business environment. For example, equitable rules of the game must be created, access to credit provided, and arbitrary application of regulations ended (World Bank, 2013).

[20] *"Agricultural Value Chain (AVC) identifies the set of actors (private, public, including service providers) and a set of activities that bring a basic agricultural product from production in the field to final consumption, where at each stage value is added to the product. It may include production, processing, packaging, storage, transport and distribution. Each segment of a chain has one or more backward and forward linkages. Thus, with AVCs, we move away from a commercial, segmented form of agriculture in which many separate links operate in isolation."* (AfDB, 2013).

These state actions do not produce tangible effects on employment in the short term, but they are fundamental insofar as they prepare economies to take up the dual challenge of domestic development and of gaining a foothold in globalization. In most countries, the reforms should be guided by a desire to increase production of added value locally and to consequently generate jobs associated with it (development of processing activities following production of raw materials). Achieving these results requires special attention being paid to sectors that offer many employment opportunities, especially the agricultural and agribusiness sectors, which are the most significant sectors. Following the example of certain West African countries, special actions could also focus on setting up tax-free zones, combined with an attractive business environment, or the granting of customs protections to support some national production (as can be seen for example in the policy of harmonizing a common external tariff within the Economic Community of West African States–ECOWAS and in the exclusion of some products from trade liberalization agreements with external partners). These efforts will have to be supported by the development partners.

> *It would be useful to 1) strengthen research on the effects that development has on promising value chains, especially in terms of the formation and development of the micro- and small enterprise fabric, as well as on the way the potentialities of jobs for youth in the "value chain" approaches are understood; 2) improve knowledge on the needs for strengthening state statistical systems, in order to better guide these macro-economic policies; and 3) study the costs and effects of the different types of contracts, social protection, and incentive measures (wage subsidies, tax incentives, etc.).*

Fill in the gaps in cross-cutting knowledge, and make recommendations regarding economic development and job creation:

- Develop research on the issues related to the quality of employment in general, and in agriculture in particular, as well as on the effects on youth and women becoming independent;
- Analyze whether job creation necessarily benefits youth, and under what conditions;
- Identify, within the economic development projects that have had an impact in terms of youth employment, the "insertion measures" implemented, even if they had not been designed as such, and then 1) investigate them to understand which were levers for youth integration into the economic activities supported and 2) determine the lessons to be learned on access by youth to the various support provided by such projects (Barlet *et al.*, 2013*a*);
- Fine-tune the understanding of the different forms of exclusion in the study on insertion pathways.

5.2. What to do with regard to skills development?

Give education back its fundamental role (World Bank–AFD, 2014). While it is true that Africa as a whole has made significant progress in terms of school enrollment rates, this must not hide the low-quality overall of its educational and training systems. For the last 10 years or so, the quality of basic education has only deteriorated, to the benefit of quantity (ADEA, 2014*a*). Major inadequacies in the quality of teaching hinder the effect of education on productivity. It thus seems urgent to invest massively in the quality of teaching and in teacher training, especially for basic education, which is the highest level of schooling that the majority of youth will be able to reach. It is a question of seeing to it that youth who enter the labor market have a solid base of skills learned during basic education.

At the same time as basic learning, it is important to better develop the acquisition of behavioral and socio-emotional skills needed to obtain a job, maintain it, and be productive. There is less and less doubt about the importance of these skills for productivity; educational systems must thus consider instilling it into youth at the same time as the more traditional cognitive skills (World Bank–AFD, 2014).

Dealing with the issue of these shortcomings is not easy. Surveys in schools reveal great weaknesses in the provision of services (absenteeism, very poor quality of material and of teachers); accountability and decentralization must be developed in order to fight against these mediocre performances. Better information on performance must be rounded out with targeted approaches that strengthen the role of the main stakeholders: the students and their parents (World Bank–AFD, *ibid.*). Measures to make sure that teachers are fully prepared for teaching and supported in their tasks are also indispensable. Better training and perfection in teachers is one of the keys for improving the quality of teaching (UNESCO, 2012).[21]

Generally speaking, monitoring and evaluation of the quality of education are essential (World Bank, 2013). Furthermore, the development of private schools in Africa must not be stifled, but instead encouraged and channeled, all the while maintaining fairness, so that as many youth as possible have possibility of learning. Finally, more than the constant revision of programs, the African school needs to develop a results-based culture enabling it to work with the teaching community, the students' parents, and local elected officials.

Recommendations:

- *Develop research on systems of information on teaching at the primary and secondary levels, as well as on the formalization and exchange of good practices between schools and between countries;*
- *Improve knowledge on the measures for training and motivating teachers, and on an evaluation of what has been learned;*

[21] In Kenya, the score of some teachers in primary level math tests is no higher than 17%. In Gambia, 77% of primary school teachers trainers have never taught in a primary school (UNESCO, *ibid.*).

- *Develop regular evaluations on the quality of education;*
- *Experiment with public-private partnerships, especially to encourage private schools to take in excluded categories;*
- *Experiment, on a small scale, with certain types of information and communication technology for education (ICTE).*

Reconsider training policies and programs so that they are more oriented toward insertion (ADEA, 2014*a*). While economic reforms are essential in order to have more inclusive development that creates jobs for youth and especially for the most disadvantaged, it is also important not to neglect the essential and crucial contribution of educational and training policies. Sufficient accumulation of human capital will long remain the key to success for the processes by which youth start their working life. But given the considerable deficiencies and backwardness of education and training systems in many African countries, work on the systems remains very important. The first priority for this work should be a change in paradigm so that educational and training policies truly aim at professional insertion of youth rather than the systematic continuing of studies. With regard to vocational training, it is important to shift from a system based solely on TVET to a system that favors all forms of skill acquisition, which the African countries call "*Technical and Vocational Skills Development*" (TVSD). This means that the production of skills to aid in youth insertion cannot be limited to action by just formal public and private training centers, but rather that all forms of skills acquisition be recognized, by reconsidering the essential contribution of non-formal and informal training systems implemented by civil society actors and by micro- and small enterprises, which integrate and employ the vast majority of young Africans. To do so, the African countries identify two levels of reform priorities: the education-training continuum and the evolution of vocational training systems.

A) *The education – training – insertion continuum*

Based on the observation of the weakness of most educational systems, which produce way too many youth in situations of failure or with a level that does not allow them to enter the work world, African countries are restating the urgency of finding ways and means to strengthen bridges between education, training, and insertion. To do so, it is important to strengthen ties between the worlds of education and training, and between the time when one finishes basic education and enters traditional apprenticeship. It is essential to continue to modernize this latter so that youth do not face a time of exclusion, which is devastating for them. African governments have identified several possibilities to carry this out:

- A greater number of local systems for training and apprenticeship should be created as close to youth as possible, during or at the end of schooling and especially in rural areas. Their goal would be to facilitate accessibility to jobs. For information, among the forms of training offered by its projects, IFAD's experience shows that short-term training courses organized locally are practically the only way for young girls in rural areas, as well

as for most breast-feeding mothers, to have access to training, this because of cultural norms and/or their family responsibilities (IFAD, 2014);

- Youth without a basic level of education should be reoriented toward traditional apprenticeship, which should be restructured;
- The quality of basic education should be significantly improved. Without this, such reorientation toward training systems will not have the effects that are counted on.

B) *Vocational training systems*

It is an accepted fact that acquiring technical and vocational skills helps facilitate young people's transition toward work. African governments have identified several levels of action to develop these skills:

- TVET reforms should be reoriented, as just improving their quantitative offer is not enough. Even if some countries have improved access to TVET (North African countries and South Africa in particular), most other countries still have systems that train a very small minority of youth coming out of the school system (between 1 and 6%). Further, the purpose of TVET is often hardly different from that of apprenticeship and is inadequately adapted to the needs of modern enterprises. Some experts recommend "*re-converting and refocusing the technical and vocational teaching offer so as to meet the needs in technical skills and in intermediate supervision of the modern sector*." They also advise that TVET give up craft industry training (cooking, dressmaking, hairdressing, masonry, mechanics, etc.), which is already proposed *via* apprenticeship (Gauron, 2013). It would thus be important to redefine, with professionals, which trades TVET should prepare for in order to markedly increase their enrollment capacities in response to growing demand, and to strongly improve quality out of concern for more direct connection with the work world;
- Partnerships that would make it possible to establish real bridges between the skills acquired and those required by the work world. Among other things, these partnerships will help remedy the obsolescence of the content and material of training, and prepare as best as possible a growing number of youth in trades that are poorly targeted today. This strengthened partnership requires the economic and training actors to be able to dialog with one another and to design together the reorientation bridges for this training-employment continuum. To do so, the incentive and steering role of public authorities will be crucial. Considerable effort must be accomplished with regard to the teaching world, in order to guide its evolution and to make it a key actor of this partnership;
- It will be important to achieve modernization and very considerable development of the dual-system training and apprenticeship, and recognition of this path of training for youth destined for self-employment or for working in micro- and small enterprises. The reforms started up along these lines by certain countries (*e.g.* Ghana, Benin, Senegal, Morocco, and Tanzania) deserve to be capitalized on so as to stir up analogous policies in other countries. It would especially be important to recognize and improve traditional

apprenticeship. This qualitative improvement, following the example of the dual system supported by the German and Swiss development agencies among others, involves capacity building for the apprentice instructors and would make it possible to validate what was learned in the apprenticeship. Entrepreneurs of the informal urban and rural economy are in reality the main trainers of African youth. Everyone agrees on the need to raise the skills of these professionals—artisans, apprentice instructors, and heads of production and service units—who are the real actors of insertion and of putting youth to work (ADEA, 2014*a*). Finally, some advocate going beyond traditional apprenticeship over the long term and gradually replacing it by dual-type or restructured apprenticeship (Gauron, *ibid.*);

– Substantial improvement is needed for systems of information and of production of knowledge on countries' labor markets. These systems can facilitate the development, monitoring, and evolution of policies to further youth insertion. Improvement is also needed in providing information to youth on training, job, or business start-up aid opportunities. Significant effort must also be made in terms of studies and research that can diagnose the dynamics that are in the midst of change. Based on these, it will be possible to think ahead about the training and skill-development offer;

– To supplement the broad range of vocational training opportunities (World Bank–AFD, 2014) provided by the private sector, the public sector could concentrate its vocational training action on groups of carefully targeted youth who do not have access to the private sector. For this, it would be necessary to strengthen the structuring of professional organizations so that they can design, with public authorities, different targeted programs of training. The public-private partnerships to be given priority for carrying this out would help make sure that the training is aligned with business needs. Evaluation of the quality of training given will also have to be established.

To find a solution for this situation, it is important to 1) improve knowledge on the vectors of change in scale of the vocational training and dual-system programs; 2) develop research on restructuring traditional apprenticeship and on its shift toward dual or restructured apprenticeship; 3) study the economy of vocational training and the relationships between enterprises, labor market, and training content; and finally 4) evaluate the capacity of each form of TVSD (formal, informal, non-formal) to attest to the skills acquired (Gauron, *ibid.*).

Professionalize local competencies.

The design, implementation, and political management of local youth-insertion-support measures requires a command of a whole set of quite specific competences and knowledge. This know-how must be mastered by various actors, each at their own level:

1. The workers who provide support for youth in the field, in order to meet with, inform, orient, and support them. In most African countries, these types of competencies hardly

exist. The innovative projects in the matter, initiated chiefly by NGOs, are very often accompanied by actions to train and professionalize workers recruited for this purpose. It seems important to go further and to perpetuate the availability of such competencies by more clearly defining those that are needed in each context. This can be done by formalizing the competencies and moving toward recognition and certification of these specific professions;

2. The economic actors organized and structured so as to actively make proposals. It can be observed that there is a lack of representation of micro- and small enterprises in professional organizations, which are themselves often weak. However, these representative bodies have a role to play in designing and steering measures of vocational training and of support to insertion, enterprises, and entrepreneurship. It is thus essential to help guide the structuring of these important economic actors, as is the case in certain countries with artisan or farmer organizations, which are a guarantee for better dialog among all the stakeholders;

3. The local public authorities reinforced in their role as facilitator and leader in promoting local youth insertion plans. Youth insertion requires making development dynamics that are often sector-based converge in a single territory. This role of leadership and local engineering should be developed within the personnel of government administrations and local communities. The decentralization policies at work in many countries are generally accompanied by programs for training elected officials and local technicians; they should be taken advantage of so as to develop these competencies that are part of the public mandate of local authorities;

4. The youth themselves, involved in the design and management of the measures. Another enduring feature of insertion-support initiatives is that few have youth participate in their management. The youth and their representative organizations, who are the foremost concerned, have little presence in the design, implementation, and management of actions, even though they have an important role to play in them. Attention must be paid to improvements along these lines. The IFAD projects initiated to help rural youth provide ideas for reflection, and they show that empowering youth as fully fledged actors is a powerful support instrument. Youth are no longer dependent on others and are real and acknowledged actors—for example, when they distribute information on the project, as effective providers of advice and support services, or through intergenerational cooperation. IFAD advocates strengthening the trust placed in youth by having them join in all decision-making within projects (management team, steering committee) and in all the stages of the project cycle (IFAD, 2014).

It is thus important to improve the level of knowledge on the needs for capacity building of local actors with regard to youth insertion policies.

5.3. What can be done in terms of designing and steering policies?

Toward national policies to promote youth insertion (ADEA, 2014a)

The review of the various policies at work today in the African countries gives the impression that policies for integrating youth into the work world are dispersed and poorly coordinated. In many cases, within a single country, we can find a great number of programs implemented concomitantly either on overlapping target publics or on identical themes, and sometimes competing measures. Often maintained by massive recourse to external financial resources from development partners, these so-called remediation policies markedly lack coherency, coordination, and consistency in their vision and action. To solve this problem, adoption of a multi-sector and multi-party approach as well as strengthening of coordination are advocated (ILO, 2012*a*).

For their part, the African governments would like to invest more in long-term strategies, out of a dual concern for economic development and integration of as many youth as possible. Use of various sector-based policies or occasional programs should be replaced by the development of national strategies for youth insertion. These would act as a structuring framework that establishes coherency in sector-based, educational, training, and economic-development policies. Finally, in order to optimize investments in the design and implementation of the reforms underway in nearly all the countries, many agree on the necessity of strengthening inter-country cooperation and pooling (ADEA, 2014*a*).

> *Solving this situation would require: 1) developing research on methodologies for drawing up and steering national youth-insertion strategies that would give structure; 2) strengthening exchanges on good practices in the matter; 3) enlarging reflection beyond Africa (there are interesting examples especially in Latin America and in Asia); 4) strengthening research on support for national statistical systems enabling monitoring and inter-country comparison; 5) quantifying the cost of youth exclusion; and, finally, 6) developing awareness-raising actions targeting institutions and enterprises, among others, showing the cost of "waste" to avoid, and through the potential offered by the demographic dividend.*

Adopting a reform approach that combines short and long term (World Bank–AFD, 2014)

It would be good to adopt an overall approach making it possible to work on the human capital and the business environment both in the short and long terms. Time will thus be required before the urgent improvements made to basic education lead to growth in productivity and improvement in youth employment. It will also be necessary to work on other levers at the same time: reform of the business climate, vocational training, and economic development.

It is also important to strengthen both decentralization and local communities so that local actors can play their role of facilitator in inclusive local development that includes youth insertion as a main objective. To do so, the territorial level is crucial as a space of needs analysis,

design of suitable measures, mobilization of common-law policies coming from states, as well as capacities to remove the obstacles to developing new activities by youth. Such obstacles include those of access to land, post-apprenticeship, and the setting up of businesses by former apprentices. The question of where to intervene can vary from one context to another, in particular according to population density and economic activities.

Further, the notions of economic basins, employment, and training should be systematically questioned. Local communities and traditional chiefdoms would then be called on to play a role of territorial engineering and of facilitator of partnership processes between actors, and this according to a process of subsidiarity with competencies from central governments. Efforts must still be made to better determine the needs for support among communities in this area, in order to help them take on this role that will be one of the keys to success for youth insertion policies.

> *Strengthening the search on the training needs for local communities with regard to youth insertion in local development, and improving knowledge on the realities of notions of basins of economic development and employment would help to solve this.*

Having youth work in designing and managing policies

A consensus is emerging on the need to improve the effective involvement of youth, in order to take into account their concerns as much in the development as the implementation of the employment and training programs that concern them (ADEA, 2014*a*). It is recommended that a mechanism be set up that will enable youth to work in the design, planning, implementation, and evaluation of policies and programs related to youth employment (ILO, 2012*a*). It is also recommended to improve access to data and to information by including participation beforehand by all the social actors, including youth, in dialog on the reforms and their implementation, so that each party and especially the youth can evaluate what has been done (World Bank, 2013). Finally, initiatives by youth and the formation of youth associations should be supported.

> *This would thus involve strengthening research on the forms of citizen participation by youth in designing and steering policies.*

Box 20

Employment in development policies: a challenge for development cooperation partners

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A large proportion of the efforts made up to now by development agencies has been focused on the formal segment of the economy, with the limited outcomes that we know. In order to maximize the impact on employment and reduction of poverty, it seems more appropriate to improve the skills of the poor and to put more attention on the dynamics and realities of the informal economy as well as on the obstacles related to the work of women and youth. The idea is to promote entrepreneurship; strengthen dialog between the public and private sectors; and increase productivity in the informal economy, especially in rural areas, all the while helping youth integration into the formal economy. The measures taken by development agencies are numerous and diverse, but agreement can be found on several fundamental points:

- All the agencies seem convinced that priority on employment is necessary and that this issue has not received adequate funding up to now;
- Bilateral cooperation still predominates. Except for several rare exceptions, cooperation among donors is not very widespread in this area. The shift from project aid to support for sector-based programs will enable better coordination;
- A profusion of measures exists, but actions dealing with vocational training, development of trade capacities, and business environment predominate;
- The informal sector still suffers from lack of support, but its "formalization" will not resolve everything. Indeed, contribution by the formal private sector to overall employment and its growth is limited, all the more so because it corners most private investment and benefits from substantial support. The main reason for this is that, in the absence of opening up to exportation, domestic demand—and consequently of a potential market—grows only slowly;
- The lack of objectives backed up by figures has often led to the fragmentation of interventions and to weak visibility. It would be good to include results indicators in terms of employment within the projects and programs.

There is no immediate solution. Experimental work remains to be done even if, in recent years, original initiatives have been developing. Indeed, all parties acknowledge the potential for increase in rates of economic growth by adopting policies and programs focused on employment. We can currently observe the initial stages of work in networks whose aim is to include the objectives of employment and decent work into poverty reduction strategies at the country level. The ILO is leading the Youth Employment Network, a partnership it has established with the UN and the World Bank to fight youth unemployment. It is also working with the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) to include employment in the common strategy for developing countries. Efforts exist within the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) and are currently being examined in partnership with the ILO in order to promote rural employment within agricultural policy support strategies.

Source: AFD (2011). Extract, adapted from the report "Demographic Transition and Employment in Sub-Saharan Africa".

5.4. What can be done regarding insertion-support measures?

Given the previously mentioned needs for structural reforms, it would seem that states are facing a dual challenge with regard to youth insertion: designing, structuring and federating national strategies oriented toward this youth insertion objective, and encouraging a range of local and dynamic initiatives led by economic actors, local communities and authorities, and civil society organizations. Public authorities generally lack the tools for implementing and ensuring local follow-up. Their action, as in the case of PAJM in Mali or of the service platforms in Côte d'Ivoire, must be combined with those of local actors or private operators who ensure the fieldwork.

It is at this level that civil society organizations and especially NGOs position their general action, as go-between between public authorities and local economic actors. Civil society organizations also make the most of a certain expertise regarding the socio-economic problems faced by many youth. This gives them quite good knowledge about the constraints and opportunities youth encounter in their pathway (access to information and training, mobility, self-confidence and confidence in enterprises and institutions, need for follow-up and guidance, etc.). Because of this, they are in a position to design offers of local support services that are adapted to the variety of needs. In this sense, the support measures that have been experimented, with close cooperation between local public and private actors, seek to be a response to political limits. These local measures emerge from an offer/demand process, by providing intermediation and creating links between expectations of youth and the opportunities in their environment. Experimentation of local actions makes it possible to identify suitable responses in the countries, even if the sustainability of these interventions is not yet guaranteed. The link between public authorities and civil society organizations is a condition for the effectiveness and sustainability of the support measure.

Combine support actions for youth insertion processes with those aiming at local economic development.

Insertion support relies chiefly on the combination of two types of strategies: support for youth insertion processes on the one hand, and the development of economic activities designed to create jobs and business opportunities on the other. To do this, the priority is to find solutions helping to link as best as possible these two major orientations. Ideally, the services to support youth in their insertion pathways should rely on forward-looking economic analyses in order to identify promising sectors, and they should include their actions within the framework of local economic development plans. However, these frameworks do not always exist at the local level, which means it is also important to develop the know-how of local authorities in planning and development support for enterprises, and more broadly in economic development.

> *To solve this problem, it is important to strengthen research on local economic development plans and on the capacities of local actors to include the issue of youth insertion in them.*

Make sector-based development approaches converge at the local level, so that they help youth insertion.

The objective of youth insertion should concern and involve all actors locally. Indeed, youth insertion concerns not only the actors who explicitly and specifically give themselves this objective, but all the actors of economic and social development of countries, at all levels (national, devolved, decentralized, and local).

In order to make progress toward making concern with youth employment shared in both sector-based and territorial strategies, each actor must be able to take into account and translate these issues into its actions. From this there ensues, at the local community level, a need for leadership, in terms of organizing local actions and its actors, that will promote local strategies that bring together economic development, social cohesion, and youth employment.

> *To solve this problem, two recommendations can be made: better understanding of how to integrate sector-based policies within local development policies that include youth, and a definition (and integration) at the territorial level of the cross-cutting indicators for monitoring youth insertion.*

Promote an integrated approach to youth support, by taking into account their specific needs (IFAD, 2014).

Most development practitioners agree on the complementarity of support to provide in order to understand the full potential of youth. From its projects, IFAD has learned that it is necessary to put into play several aspects simultaneously: empowerment, basic education, vocational training and skills acquisition for everyday life, financial support, and an offer of business development services (IFAD, 2014). Other experts emphasize that the insertion measures are more effective when they act on several levers at the same time, for example training, post-training guidance, and access to credits (AfDB *et al.*, 2012). It is important to link the support to the determinants of the contexts of the youth; to take into account the latter's socio-economic situations (ILO, 2012*a*); and to analyze the potentialities and constraints of their environment, their strong points, and their aspirations (IFAD, 2014). These are prerequisites for adapting measures that are most likely to further their insertion.

> *Several possible solutions are provided. They involve improving the analysis of the insertion-support measures and enriching their comparison 1) by distinguishing the perceptions of difficulties identified in the insertion process between those linked to the individual and those linked to the economic and social environment of reference; 2) by analyzing the linkage of the micro-, meso-, and macro-economic dimensions; and 3) by comparing the roles of professional organizations, business services, and local public actors* (Barlet *et al.*, 2013).

Ensure the institutional and financial sustainability of the measures.

The insertion-support measures must go beyond the stage of experimentation, so that they can provide a sustainable response to the problem of youth insertion. To do so, the experiences undertaken will have to first of all show the nature of the impact they have on youth insertion processes, by striving to evaluate the relevance and quality of the responses provided as well as their effectiveness over the medium/long term.

The question of the statistical tools that will help ensure follow-up of the youth beneficiaries over time is relatively problematic and will have to find responses, in particular in consultation with the public authorities that are supposed to be endowed with the resources to do so. Furthermore, the professionalization of the people leading these measures will be essential in order to guarantee sustainable development of the services, in both qualitative and quantitative terms.

Finally, the question of funding will clearly be a key factor in the longevity of these measures. Those in charge of these measures will have to imagine, along with the local public authorities, the varied forms that the partial or total payment of operating costs can take on, between funding that is from the central government, from decentralized sources, or from various types of private sources (economic actors, training actors, sponsors, foundations, etc.). How well these measures are rooted in institutions, or at least their recognition by the institutions in charge of these issues, will in some ways be the guarantee of the potential for change at the geographical level, and of the fairness of the services rendered.

> *This will involve strengthening research on the institutionally and economically sustainable models of insertion-support measures, and especially on the balance between national/devolved public funds and private funds.*

What can international NGOs and development cooperation NGOs do?[22]

NGOs generally position their local insertion-support measures at a local level and as actions in an experimental stage. Looking for relevant linkage with public policies is a condition for them to change scale and attain sustainability, as well as for achieving the objectives of equity and equality (access for all types of people and throughout the country), which can be guaranteed only by the state. For this, international organizations and NGOs must try, each time it is possible, to:

- Take action over the long term, at several levels. In doing so, they should target various actors, by cultivating a role of facilitator, in their quality of coordinator of the dynamics borne by the various local actors, this out of a concern for seeking coherence and impact on youth insertion (giving priority to a systemic approach in the long term);

[22] Recommendations from the AFD report *Capitalisation des actions de formation-insertion des jeunes conduites par les ONG*, September 2014.

- Develop and advocate for a bottom-up approach that recognizes the importance of working on a grassroots basis with local communities. The bottom-up process will acknowledge the wealth of innovations in the field that are experienced by organizations in direct contact with youth and the local development actors. These innovative "grassroots" projects should then be capitalized on and formalized in order to provide aspects that can enrich the change in scale of more institutional programs, within a regional and then national framework;
- Strengthen their organization into networks, in order to acquire a role in which they can put forward recognized proposals that can interest and even influence public authorities;
- Integrate the measures into the framework of national support programs for training and youth employment. This will help them get out of their sometimes isolated position, all the while furthering harmonization of practices that are favorable to change in scale and to the objective of seeking equity in services rendered;
- Become involved in the forums of multi-actor consultation organized at the initiative of public authorities. These are all opportunities for facilitating the exchange of information on a continual basis, in order to make policies and strategies evolve.

Finally, while NGOs must look for linkages with public authorities within the framework of the measures they implement, it is also up to the public authorities to become interested in and take advantage of the experiments conducted by the NGOs and to take inspiration from the pedagogical, social, and organizational innovations they have initiated.

> *For a solution in this area, it would be good to improve the capitalization of initiatives made by NGOs and their impacts on youth-insertion processes, as well as to strengthen research on the potentials for change in scale of these pilot initiatives.*

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1. Summary of recommendations

Table 5. Summary of recommendations

In economic development and job creation	In skills development	In designing and steering policies	Concerning the local insertion support measures
• Recognize the potential in job creation and growth of micro- and small enterprises, including in the informal and rural world. • Facilitate access to jobs in the agricultural sector. • Facilitate access to jobs in individual enterprises. • Facilitate access to wage employment in modern enterprises and promising sectors.	• Give back basic education its fundamental role. • Reconsider training policies so that they are aimed more towards insertion.	• Set up national strategies to promote youth insertion. • Adopt a reform process combining the short and long terms. • Have youth participate in designing and steering policies.	• Combine actions for youth insertion support and those aiming at local economic development. • Make the various sector-based development approaches converge at the local level, so that they aid youth insertion. • Professionalize local competencies. • Promote an integrated approach of youth support, taking into account their specific needs. • Ensure the sustainability of the measures, financially and in terms of how they are rooted in institutions.

Source: GRET in-house production.

Table 6. Summary of research possibilities connected with the recommendations

Recommendations	Possibilities for research	
In economic development and job creation		
Recognize the potential in job creation and growth of micro- and small enterprises, including in the informal and rural world.	• Develop research in order to better understand the various forms of support to the informal sector (types of support and strengthening financially, technically, in terms of networks, etc.). • Explore the idea of involving the diasporas (networks of migrants abroad) for technical (tutorship) and financial support. • Study more the possibilities for strengthening the micro-/small enterprise status. • Support the organization and representation of micro- and small enterprises. • Develop the exchange of good practices between countries on these national policies.	In a cross-cutting way: – Develop research on the issues of job quality in general and on agriculture in particular, as well as the effects on the empowerment of both youth and women. – Analyze whether job creation necessarily benefits youth, and under what conditions. – Identify, in the economic development projects that have had an impact in terms of youth employment, the "insertion measures" that have been set up, even if not designed as such. Question them to understand which have been levers that help the supported economic activities integrate youth. Identify the lessons learned regarding access by youth to the various types of support provided by such projects.
Facilitate access to jobs in the agricultural sector.	• Study, more upstream, the potential for integration of youth represented by agricultural value chains. • Strengthen knowledge on the needs in terms of agricultural land reforms in the various countries. • Invest more in the study of balances to be found between export agriculture and agriculture for local markets; implement agricultural and rural training adapted to contexts. • Develop research on high-intensity labor programs in the agricultural sector. • Identify the obstacles to youth starting up agricultural activities.	
Facilitate access to jobs in individual enterprises.	• Improve knowledge on the nature of support to promote the development of forms of individual employment (access to financial services, access to markets, skills development, provision of services and urban and rural equipment, regulations, etc.). • Strengthen the study of the diversity of activities and domestic jobs, and their particular impact on women. • Develop understanding on the obstacles specific to youth with regard to creating individual enterprises.	
Facilitate access to wage employment in modern enterprises and promising sectors.	• Strengthen research into the effects induced by the development of promising value chains, in particular in terms of training and development of micro- and small enterprise fabric, as well as on the question of knowing how to understand the job potentialities for youth in the "value chain" approaches. • Improve knowledge on the needs for reinforcing state statistical systems, in order to better steer these macroeconomic policies. • Study the costs and effects of the various types of contracts, social protections, and incentive measures (wage subsidies, tax incentives, etc.).	

Recommendations	Possibilities for research
In skills development	
Give back basic education its fundamental role.	• Develop research on the systems of information on primary and secondary school teaching, as well as on the formalization and exchange of good practices between schools and between countries. • Improve knowledge on the measures for training and motivating teachers, and on evaluation of skills. • Develop regular evaluations of the quality of education. • Experiment public-private partnerships to encourage the private sector to enroll excluded categories in schools. • Experiment with ICTE.
Reconsider training policies so that they are aimed more towards insertion.	• Improve knowledge on the vectors of change in scale of vocational and dual-system training policies. • Develop research on the modernization of traditional apprenticeship and its shift towards dual or restructured apprenticeship. • Study the economy of vocational training and the relationships between enterprises, market, and training content. • Evaluate the capacity of each form of TVET (formal, informal, and non-formal) to attest to skills learned.
In designing and steering policies	
Towards national strategies to promote youth insertion.	• Develop research on the methodologies for drawing up and steering national framework strategies focused on youth insertion. • Strengthen the exchanges of good practices on the subject. • Expand reflection beyond Africa (in particular with the interesting examples in Latin America and Asia). • Strengthen research on support to national statistics systems enabling monitoring and comparisons between countries. • Quantify the cost of youth exclusion, using research.
Adopt a reform process combining the short and long terms.	• Strengthen research on the needs for training local communities in how to integrate the issue of youth insertion into local development. • Improve knowledge on the realities of the notions of economic development and job basins. • Identify the obstacles youth face in setting up agricultural or craft activities.
Have youth participate in designing and steering policies.	• Strengthen research on the forms of citizen participation youth can engage in to design and steer policies.

Concerning local measures of insertion support	
Combine actions for youth insertion support and those aiming at local economic development.	• Strengthen research on local economic development plans and on the capacities of local actors to systematically integrate the problem of youth insertion in them as a central issue.
Make the various sector-based development approaches converge at the local level, so that they aid youth insertion.	• Improve knowledge on the methodologies for integrating national sector-based policies within local development policies that include youth.
Professionalize the local competencies of youth support workers in the field, economic actors, local public authorities, and youth, as stakeholders of the measures.	• Improve knowledge on the needs for capacity building of local actors in youth insertion policies.
Promote an integrated approach of youth support, taking into account their specific needs.	• Improve the analysis of insertion support measures and enrich their comparison 1) by distinguishing the perceptions of difficulties identified in the insertion process between those linked to the individual and those linked to his or her economic and social environment of reference; 2) by analyzing in depth the linkage of the micro-, meso-, and macro-economic dimensions; and 3) by comparing the roles of professional organizations, business services, and local public actors.
Ensure the sustainability of the measures in terms of financing and institutional rooting.	• Strengthen research on the economic models and forms of sustainable funding of insertion support measures, and especially on the balance between public and private financing.
Recommendations intended for NGOs	
Take action over the long term. Develop and advocate for a bottom-up approach starting from the grassroots. Strengthen how NGOs are structured into networks. Include the measures within the framework of national programs. Become involved in multi-actor consultation forms.	• Improve the capitalization of initiatives made by NGOs and their impact on youth insertion processes. • Strengthen research on the potentials for change in scale of these pilot initiatives.

Source: GRET in-house production.

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List of acronyms and abbreviations

ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
AFD	Agence Française de Développement
AfDB	African Development Bank
AFJ	Afrique Fondation Jeunes (Niger)
AGETIP	Public works execution agencies (*Agences d'exécution des travaux publics*)
ALMP	Active Labour Market Policies
ANPE	National employment agency (*Agence nationale pour l'emploi*)
AVC	Agricultural value chain
AVCF	Agricultural value chain funding
CONFEMEN	Conference of Ministers of Education of French-Speaking Countries (*Conférence des ministres de l'Éducation des États et gouvernements de la Francophonie*)
CRE	Employment research club (*Club de recherche d'emploi*)
CRREJ	Regional resource center for youth employment (*Centre régional de ressources pour l'emploi des jeunes*), Senegal
CSO	Civil society organization
CUN	Nouakchott Urban Community (*Communauté urbaine de Nouakchott*), Mauritania
DFID	Department for International Development (UK)
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EIDH	Association for employment and integration of disabled persons, for development (*Emploi Intégration des Handicapés pour le Développement*), Mali
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FAR	Agricultural and rural training network (*Formation agricole et rurale*)
FIER	Project for vocational training, insertion, and support for rural youth entrepreneurship, Mali

GDP	Gross domestic product
GYB	ILO tool "Generate Your Business Idea" (French: *TRIE*)
HI	Handicap International
ICQN-TVSD	ADEA Inter-country Quality Node-Technical and Vocational Skills Development
ICT	Information and communication technologies
ICTE	Information and communication technologies for education
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
INSEE	French National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies (*Institut national de la statistique et des études économiques*)
LIC	Low-income country
LMIC	Lower-middle-income country
MAE	French Ministry of Foreign Affairs (*ministère des Affaires étrangères)*
MIC	Middle-income country
MFI	Microfinance institution
NEET	Not in Employment, Education or Training
NGO	Non-governmental organization
NICT	New information and communication technology
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PAJM	Support program for Malian youth (*Programme d'appui à la jeunesse malienne*), Mali
PASEC	Program for Analysis of Educational Systems (*Programme d'analyse des systèmes éducatifs*)
PCM	Concerted Program Morocco (*Programme concerté Maroc*)
PEA	Promotion of youth agropastoral entrepreneurship (*Promotion de l'entrepreneuriat agropastoral des jeunes*), Cameroon
PEJEDEC	Project for youth employment and skills development (*Projet emploi jeune et développement des compétences*), Côte d'Ivoire
PIPROPH	Project for the professional integration of handicapped persons (*Projet d'insertion professionnelle des personnes handicapées*), Mali
PPP	Purchasing power parity

PPPMER	Rural Small and Micro Enterprise Promotion Project, Rwanda
PROMER	Project for the promotion of rural micro-enterprises (*Projet de promotion des micro-entreprises rurales*), Senegal
PROSPERER	Program for support for micro-enterprises and regional economies in Madagascar (*Programme de soutien aux pôles de micro-entreprises rurales et aux économies régionales à Madagascar*)
SACMEQ	Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SHIP	Survey-based Harmonized Indicators Program
SIYB	ILO tool "Start and Improve Your Business" (French: *GERME*)
SME	Small and medium-sized enterprises
SMI	Small and medium-sized industries
SWT	School-to-work transition
SWTS	School-to-Work Transition Survey (ILO)
SYB	ILO tool "Start Your Business" (French: *CREE*)
TVET	Technical and vocational education and training
TVSD	Technical and vocational skills development
UMIC	Upper-middle-income country
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WHO	World Health Organization

What is AFD?

Agence Française de Développement (AFD), a public financial institution that implements the policy defined by the French Government, works to combat poverty and promote sustainable development.

AFD operates on four continents *via* a network of 75 offices and finances and supports projects that improve living conditions for populations, boost economic growth and protect the planet.

In 2016, AFD earmarked EUR 9.4bn to finance projects in developing countries and for overseas France.

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Legal deposit: 4th quarter 2017
ISSN: 2492-8313

Support Measures for Youth Insertion into the African Labor Market

The insertion of youth into employment and into society is currently a major objective of African governments. This publication, co-written by GRET and AFD, is a summary of reflections by national and international institutions as well as by civil society organizations. Based on existing studies of measures experimented in recent years in Africa, it highlights the main issues of youth insertion and compares actions that have been implemented in several different contexts. It also points out the lack of scientific knowledge on the issue and the needs for research. The concept of socio-professional insertion of youth raises a number of questions: What are we talking about? What are the labor market insertion processes for African youth? What operational measures have been developed to promote youth insertion? How can youth insertion measures be implemented in Africa? The authors of this publication introduce some possible answers proposed by the main actors in the sector, as well as many questions that must still be investigated.

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