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Editorial

It is no secret that the population of the developing countries is growing fast, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa where 400 million young people will seek to enter the labour market in the coming decade. What will become of them? This is a particularly burning question with Europe in the front line watching impotent as the Mediterranean Sea turns rapidly into a mass watery grave for rising numbers of young workers. These young people are driven by poverty and a lack of work to board makeshift boats in an attempt to reach what they imagine to be the European El Dorado. We could quite rightly condemn the weak-willed European response – ourselves included – as Europeans show they would rather close their eyes to this unravelling tragedy than take in their share of human suffering. Fear of a backdraft probably has a lot to do with this and the idea of building a fortress to protect ourselves from these migratory flows might well seem appealing for a short time. Yet the figures are not going away and the need to improve the employability of young people in developing countries is becoming more urgent every day. If nothing is done, migration will remain the only alternative. Is the game already over? No. Developing countries in general and Sub-Saharan Africa in particular appear to have escaped the economic crisis that started in 2008. From 2000 to 2013, low-income countries posted much higher annual GDP growth than high-income countries (5.7% on average compared with 1.7%) and although Sub-Saharan Africa still has the highest number of poor today, it is no exception to this trend with an average growth rate of 5.2% per year over the period (as opposed to just 2.7% from 1990 to 2000). Moreover, Sub-Saharan Africa is relatively sparsely populated with an estimated density of 40 inhabitants per square kilometre in 2013 as opposed to 421 in India and 145 in China. So there is nothing to say that young people in developing countries, especially Sub-Saharan Africa, should inevitably all join the procession of migrants heading for high-income countries. Yet how can job opportunities for young people be encouraged in low-income countries? What roles should be played by education, vocational training, and social and family networks? What policies could be developed to fast track labour market integration? These are some of the questions addressed by Björn Nilsson and Charlotte Guénard in the main article of this new issue of *Dialogue*. As we do every April, we also look back over the past year and review some of the joint research unit's flagship actions: the Pondicherry Winter School and the launch of a double degree by the University of Paris Dauphine and the Graduate Academy of Social Sciences in Vietnam. Note also that DIAL will soon be holding two scientific events: the 13th Pensions, Insurance and Savings workshop in partnership with Harvard (28-29 May) and the 3rd International Conference on Development (2-3 July), both at the University of Paris Dauphine.

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YOUTH EMPLOYMENT IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Introduction

In Issue 27 of *Dialogue* published in 2007, the introduction to an article on youth employment in Africa pointed up the lack of statistical data on labour markets in African countries. This issue came following an inventory of existing publications and statistics on the continent ordered by the Agence Française de Développement (DIAL, 2007). Elsewhere, another observation of the problems facing young people seeking work and stable employment highlighted another flaw in the statistics on young people's experiences in the labour market.

In 2013, 73 million young people were unemployed (ILO, 2013) for a total youth unemployment rate of 12.6%.¹ This rate is expected to continue to grow to reach 12.8% in 2018. There are 341 million young people idle in the NEET category (Not in Employment, Education or Training): an average 41% of young people in the Middle Eastern and North African countries (World Bank, 2014), 20.3% in Latin America (ILO 2013, p. 69), and 23% of 10-24 year olds in West Africa (Roubaud & Torelli, 2013, p. 90). Yet surveys specifically targeting young people and their transitions from the education system to the labour market are few and far between, especially in developing countries. This state of affairs and the need for bespoke public policies rooted in best practices have driven the creation of the Global Partnership for Youth Employment set up in 2008. This platform collects and disseminates scientific findings on youth employment to support the development of policies to promote youth employment.

Similarly, the ILO's Youth Employment Programme has set up a public-private partnership with the MasterCard Foundation to develop the body of knowledge on young people's labour market experiences. The Work4Youth partnership has scheduled 56 surveys (interviewing 120,000 young people² worldwide) on young people's transitions

from school to work. The first wave of this survey (*School-to-Work Transition Survey, SWTS*), based on a pilot test conducted by the ILO in ten countries in 2006, paints a picture of young people's transitions in 28 countries. This initiative makes for the first systematic analysis of youth transitions in developing countries in response to the growing interest in those of developed countries (Ryan, 2001).

In 2007, the ILO's main employment database contained information on youth employment for just 11 African countries, seven of which were Sub-Saharan (due to a lack of regular surveys). Since 2008, 34 African countries have conducted surveys that at least calculate a total labour force participation rate. However, regular employment surveys remain scarce and are organised mainly by middle-income countries. *Youth-STAT*, another ILO initiative in partnership with Understanding Children's Work (UCW), compiles indicators on the labour market for young people based on national surveys in 70 countries.

The long-standing demographic trends and growing weight of informal work since the 1980s call for the use of tools able to grasp the complex dynamics of the labour market pathways.³ The *1-2-3 surveys* meet this need while generating standard labour market indicators and are successfully conducted in a growing number of countries (Morocco, Mexico, Peru, Benin and Burundi to name but a few countries that have conducted several waves). In Sub-Saharan Africa, these surveys were conducted a number of times in the cities of Cotonou, Ouagadougou, Abidjan, Bamako, Niamey, Dakar, Lomé, Yaoundé, Douala, Kinshasa and Antananarivo from 2001 to 2005. So we now know that a large number of young Africans are in the labour force: 57.9% of 15 to 29 year olds in the West African capitals studied are economically active (Roubaud & Torelli, 2013, Table 4, p. 61). An average of 35% of the youngest aged 10 to 20 are in the labour force in these same capitals, with participa-

¹ The 2007 pre-crisis unemployment rate was 11.5%.

² 15-29 years old.

³ See Cling *et al.* (2015) on the development of the informal sector.

tion rates lower at 25% in Niamey and Bamako even though numbers are higher in these cities. In the cities at least, girls are proportionally more economically active than boys. “Some 35% to 43% of the young female inhabitants of Cotonou, Abidjan and Lomé are in the labour force: 13 to 15 percentage points more than their male counterparts of the same age,” (Roubaud & Torelli, 2013, p. 62).

Just 15.2% of the 10-29 year olds in these African cities are unemployed under the ILO definition, although one-quarter of jobseekers are aged 15 to 24 (half in Ouagadougou) while the average age of a jobseeker is 30 (Roubaud & Torelli, 2013). However, the observation changes when considering the extended youth unemployment rate,⁴ which stands at 20.9% in the West African capitals and rises to 38.9% in Kinshasa for central Africa.

Yet although efforts have been made to build up the stock of data on young people in developing countries, studies of labour market dynamics all run into an irregular output of data on the subject. The lack of dynamic studies is a major obstacle, especially seeing that young people are often the first to suffer the blows of economic shocks, as seen from the earthquake in Haiti in 2010 (Zanusso, Roubaud & Torelli, 2014). Bear in mind also the urban bias of the labour market studies, especially with respect to the youth labour market. There is still a cruel lack of studies on the situation of rural young people, due mainly to a lack of comparative data.

What labour market awaits school leavers?

The labour market transition is not a uniform process for young people and attempts to define it come up against a host of different situations. There is no universally adopted definition for the first transition concerned and studied: the school-to-work transition. Nevertheless, Ryan (2001) sees this transition as a singular

process defined by the period from the end of compulsory schooling to the start of a stable, full-time job. Yet what precisely constitutes a stable job? The SWTS takes a more pragmatic, detailed approach to this question. The transition starts when the individual leaves school, irrespective of the level of education reached, and ends when s/he finds a job that fulfils the basic decent work criteria (ILO, 2009). So temporary or own-account employment – provided the individual is satisfied with it – is enough to deem the transition complete.

However, basing their work on the SWTS surveys of 20 countries, Shehu and Nilsson (2014) note that although young informal workers make up 75% of the total sample, they account for a smaller proportion among those young people who have completed their transition. Young people working in the informal sector or informally in the formal sector are less frequently satisfied with their job (23% dissatisfaction compared with 9% for “formal” workers). In addition, the level of satisfaction among young people working in the informal sector is lower than among young people working informally in the formal sector and Sub-Saharan Africa is the region where informal workers are the least satisfied. There thus appears to be a clear correlation between informality and job dissatisfaction, including when past experience in the labour market is taken into consideration. This ties in with the findings reported by Razafindrakoto, Roubaud and Wachsberger (2012) for Vietnam, where the informal sector appears to be a fall-back strategy for many young people.

Informal workers also feel that their jobs are less stable: a smaller proportion of informal than formal workers believes their job will still be there in twelve months' time (57% versus 74%). This apparent instability goes hand in hand with a more frequent desire to change job situation among informal than formal workers (52% as opposed to 28%). The most common reason given for this is low wages.

Given that experience on the labour market is not a static process, individuals probably review their employment prospects as

⁴ This rate covers ILO-defined unemployed individuals plus the economically inactive who have not sought work during the reference month, but remain available to work if a job were offered.

landmark events occur in their lives. The probability of labour market integration is also likely to vary over time. The time spent in a given “state” on the labour market would therefore change the probability of transition to another state. Here, Nilsson and Shehu (2014) show that young people's satisfaction is linked to the number and length of their periods of unemployment. The more time individuals have spent unemployed, the less likely they are to be satisfied with their current job. At the same time, the fact of having had periods of unemployment in the past raises the probability of having completed the transition.

A segmentation of young people in terms of jobs sought could explain this. Those who can afford the relative “luxury” of taking their time to find a job, and hence being unemployed without any unemployment benefits, are those who end up finding a stable job. At the same time, these individuals probably also have higher expectations, which would explain their relative dissatisfaction with their current job. Labour market segmentation into formal and informal markets ties in with the idea of a quality employment sector versus an insecure sector. A third of informal workers in the West African capitals are under 25 years old: 90% of 15 to 20 year olds and 80% of 20 to 24 year olds in employment have an informal job (Roubaud & Torelli, 2013). Kuépié and Nordman (2012-2013) find an equally hard situation for young people, especially in terms of unemployment and remuneration, in two Congolese cities (Brazzaville and Pointe Noire). Transition proves to be a tricky process for young people in this environment, since one-third of young people who propose their services on the labour market do not find work. Unemployed individuals available for work account for 42% of young people in the labour market, and 90% of these young people are looking for their first job. Inequalities in access to employment are also found by sector. It is becoming harder today for young graduates to enter the public sector, which used to hire them in the past. Conse-

quently, they are found in disproportionately high percentages in the informal sector and among the unemployed. This “paradox” of unemployment rates rising with young people's level of education can also be found in other situations, especially among women in India and South Asia in general and in other African countries (such as Tanzania and Rwanda) with small formal sectors where jobseekers seek job security. So although education looks to be a necessary condition for a stable, good-quality job, it is far from enough.

Note that young women are harder hit than young men by this vulnerability on the labour market: for example, they are more frequently underemployed than young men, irrespective of the underemployment indicator considered. In West Africa, they have twice as high a rate of idleness as the men at around 30% on average as opposed to 15% for the men (Roubaud and Torelli, 2013, p. 89).

Young people are the first victims of a crisis

Young people's tenuous situation can be seen not just from their insecure status and working conditions, but also their greater vulnerability. Zanuso, Roubaud and Torelli (2014) take two household living conditions surveys (2007 and 2012) to study the effects of the earthquake that hit Haiti in 2010. They observe a massive surge in labour force participation rates, particularly among 10 to 19 year olds, coupled with a sharp drop in unemployment. The deterioration in the economic environment in the wake of the earthquake has forced many families to send their children out to work to bring in extra income. These same negative economic conditions have made it impossible for some of these young people to hold out for a good quality job, as shown by the downturn in unemployment in this age bracket.

Young Haitians are also vulnerable in terms of the quality of their jobs and its evolution since 2007. The proportion of insecure jobs has grown for young people (while it has

shrunk for adults), and their average income has fallen 59% while it has risen 23% for the adults. The earthquake has also prompted a shift towards the primary sector, once again larger for young people (+28 percentage points as opposed to +3 percentage points for the adults).

Looking now to Africa and the Democratic Republic of Congo, with its turbulent past as the Second Congo War (1998-2002) and its aftermath claimed four million lives,⁵ two surveys (1-2-3) on household living conditions in 2004-2005 and 2012 show how young people's employment conditions changed during the post-crisis period with its still highly tenuous political situation (especially with fighting continuing in the eastern part of the country). They observe a downturn in participation and an upturn in unemployment across all age brackets, with the unemployment rate rising from 4.5% to 5.4% and the participation rate falling from 60.9% to 55.9% (Kankwanda, Nkenda, Nilsson, Roubaud, Torelli, & Wachsberger, 2014). Relative stabilisation, in part of the country at least, therefore appears to have produced the inverse development in the medium term to that observed in Haiti. Here again, the effects are more visible among young people (with the unemployment rate up 2.9 percentage points for 15-29 year olds as opposed to +0.9% for the population as a whole), especially in Kinshasa. These impacts are coupled with an increase in school enrolment rates. At the same time, the fall in participation rates is slightly sharper among young people (-5.1 percentage points for 15-29 year olds compared with -4.4 percentage points for 30-49 year olds). The downturns in participation therefore look to be sharper among young people, who are hence the first to "pay the price" of an economic environment shock.

The current crisis has taken a heavy toll on the young, hitting them with the full force of

the deterioration in employment conditions despite an impressive shift to school enrolment virtually everywhere. Individuals arriving on the labour market in the world's developing regions are still all-too-often faced with insecure, dissatisfactory and poorly paid job prospects. What weapons to they have to fight these poor conditions?

The importance of networks

Virtually all labour markets studies point up the importance of networks in job seeking (Jackson, 2010). A network, made up of weak and strong ties (Granovetter), is a vehicle for information about opportunities for both young people in the labour force – whether self-employed, employees or unemployed – and for potential employers able to assume uniform productivity among members of the same network.

Nordman and Pasquier-Doumer (2015) study the question of transitions from one situation to another on the labour market based on a sample of 2,812 individuals interviewed in Ouagadougou. They take six social network measurement variables to examine the influence of strong ties on the length of transition between two states in the labour market. Their findings suggest that the probability of finding a job increases with distance from the city of origin and from the family. Two mechanisms can be put forward to explain this finding. Firstly, a remote network implies a less efficient safety net. Migrants far from their families may therefore have a greater incentive to find a job and be in less of a position to wait for a quality job. Secondly the network (here, the family) may consider it has a right to draw on its members' earnings and has a better idea of what these earnings are when the family lives near the individual. This kind of mechanism has already been put forward by the literature (e.g. Grimm *et al.*, 2013) and is mentioned in the qualitative interviews conducted by the authors. Thirdly, the network may also play a positive role in the transition. Nordman and Pasquier-Doumer show that brothers and sisters' resources (measured mainly by the fact of holding a job in the public sector) have a positive effect on the transition. The

⁵ It is extremely hard to estimate the direct and indirect cost of the war in terms of human lives. Fighting has continued and continues to flare in the country, especially in the east that has seen a multitude of uprisings and takeover bids by various factions since the signature of a ceasefire in December 2002.

conclusion drawn here is that brothers and sisters' contacts facilitate access to this type of employment. Nilson (2015) takes the SWTS surveys of 12 African, East European and Asian countries and finds correlations between brothers and sisters' pathways in the labour market. Having "successful" family members apparently shortens the length of the transition to a first job, while having unoccupied or unemployed brothers and sisters is thought to lengthen it. The data also point to labour market segmentation: having siblings who secure a wage-earning job increases the probability of making a transition to a wage-earning job, while having brothers and sisters who make the transition into the informal sector does not increase this probability.

Ever since Becker and Lewis posited that there is a trade-off between the quantity and quality of children, economic studies have focused on intra-household inequalities, mostly in terms of education, income and wages. It has therefore been suggested that the number of siblings affects the children's success. Neither the Nordman and Pasquier-Doumer study (2015) nor Nilsson's provisional analysis (2015) finds a link between the number of siblings and the length of the transition to employment (which is consistent with the findings in the literature on education and income). Hence network quality rather than size would appear to be a decisive factor for labour market integration.

Labour market integration is not necessarily gained by finding a wage-earning job. Many young people enter the labour market as self-employed workers. Fafchamps and Minten (2002) observe the importance of the social network among agricultural traders in Madagascar. Nordman and Vaillant (2014) take a comparative look at Vietnam and Madagascar and show that family member employment is associated with lower productivity, but that this gap narrows as the entrepreneur gains experience. Yet aside from networks, how can young people hope to find employment in the labour market under good conditions?

Are education and vocational training passports to a better job?

It is important to know what training young people have when they enter the labour market in order to determine whether it is an impediment to or a potential driver for a good quality job. Although the statistics show that the young generations' level of education has gradually risen virtually across the board⁶ in the last two or so decades, we have seen that education does not necessarily guard against unemployment. Is this true for all types of training? Quantitative studies of the scale and gains of on-the-job training, whether formal or informal in the shape of traditional apprenticeships, are too thin on the ground. Nevertheless, the studies by Chort, De Vreyer and Marazyan (2014) on Senegal and by Pasquier-Doumer (2014) on West Africa do go some way toward filling this gap in the research.

Family strategies can be observed to "place" young family members in apprenticeships or as family workers prior to organising their transition into the formal sector. As shown by Chort, De Vreyer and Marazyan (2014) based on an original survey,⁷ this kind of strategy is not automatically financially profitable. The estimated 400,000 young Senegalese family workers and apprentices, the vast majority of whom work in informal businesses, receive the same level of remuneration when they graduate to wage-earner status as in their former status. This level of remuneration is less than half that for wage earners entering the world of work directly as employees. This difference is due to the different groups' levels of education since apprenticeships cannot really be made to pay on the formal job market, unlike a more classic education. However, more of the young Senegalese generations are being placed in apprenticeships than before (in 2006, they accounted for 23.9% of individu-

⁶ This was not the case, for example in the informal sector in the West African capitals in the early 2000s when young people still had a very low level of education with an average of 3.3 years of school and were even less educated than their elders in certain capitals (Abidjan and Cotonou in particular) (Nordman & Pasquier-Doumer, 2014).

⁷ First wave (2006-2007) of the national Poverty and Family Structure (PSF) survey.

als born from 1970 to 1989 as opposed to 6% of those born from 1930 to 1949).

Nordman and Pasquier-Doumer (2014) show that workers who have served a traditional apprenticeship are in a midway position in all the West African capitals (1-2-3 surveys). They have better working conditions and wages than those with no technical or vocational training, but they have less access to formal jobs than those with vocational training or a general education. Note also that just 37% of the individuals in the West African capitals who have taken vocational training (mainly men) work in the informal sector as opposed to 50% of those with an equivalent level of education from the “classic” secondary system. Vocational training therefore makes for a better quality of labour market integration than general education and, when this training is to a high level, also secures higher wages than general education. These findings are encouraging in a way, but they only apply to a tiny proportion of the young cohorts on the labour market. In Senegal, for example, technical education and vocational training currently turn out a mere 7,000 young people a year (Chort *et al.*, 2014). And still today, there is quite a strong mismatch between training and labour market needs, especially in Africa. For example, just 2% of students are specialised in agriculture (engineer level) despite the sector’s importance to the continent in terms of both jobs and wealth creation. While strong growth in the cities continues to attract people and economic activities, young Sub-Saharanans still remain massively rural or small-town dwellers (Boyer & Guénard, 2014). Today, 60% of first jobs held by young urban dwellers in Sub-Saharan Africa are still in agriculture and the majority of the region’s jobseekers will be rural through to 2034 (Losch, 2012).

How do youth employment measures rank?⁸

With the informal sector offering young people mainly poorly paid jobs with poor

working conditions, international institutions are now turning their attention to developing this multiform sector in order to meet the youth employment challenge, focusing in particular on apprenticeships (formal and informal) and entrepreneurship development support. Where public youth employment and training programmes are found, they concentrate on acquiring commercial and/or technical skills, along with people skills, sometimes combined with measures designed to lift credit constraints. These expensive programmes are divided among an excessive number of poorly coordinated administrations and are not fully rounded enough to deal with all the stumbling blocks in the way of young people seeking employment.

A whole host of “entrepreneurship promotion” projects are in operation today,⁹ but it is impossible to get an overview of them as they have not been systematically evaluated. Evaluations of youth employment measures in developing countries, especially in Africa, are actually few and far between. A census of initiatives worldwide by Betcherman *et al.* (2007)¹⁰ finds that very few measures are seriously evaluated if at all (just 40% of the programmes covered).

Since it is impossible to gain an overall assessment of all the African youth employment, integration and employability programmes, donors advise integration measures combining training leading to a qualification with the promotion of entrepreneurship and social affairs services. These programmes mainly target young people with low incomes and low levels of education, young women and young disabled persons.

This observation of a lack of serious evaluations of the measures put in place to date seems to have prompted a response from the international institutions. Evidence of this can be seen from the World Bank’s current funding of at least 13 programmes, nine of which are in Sub-Saharan Africa, with at

⁹ <http://www.youth-employment-inventory.org>

¹⁰ The authors based their inventory of youth employment support actions on 289 studies of interventions in 84 countries worldwide.

⁸ This brief assessment is based on the summary provided on this point in Boyer and Guénard (2014).

least three currently under evaluation: one in Benin (*Benin Youth Employment Project*), one in Côte d'Ivoire (*Côte d'Ivoire Emergency Youth Employment and Skills Development Project*) and one in the Republic of Congo (*Republic of Congo Skills Development for Employability Project*) in keeping with different impact evaluation protocols.

These evaluations underway are expected to help improve the measurement of the impact of youth employment support programmes. Do they ultimately improve employment prospects? This hardly seems likely in view of the demographic challenges, with nearly 90% of young people living in developing countries (ILO, 2013) and the young working-age population expected to grow by over 400 million people within the next decade (United Nations, 2013), mainly in Africa and highly populated countries (e.g. India Indonesia and the Philippines). It is vital to study the conditions for their labour market integration after or during their schooling. The work outlined here by DIAL researchers makes for a better understanding of the working conditions awaiting these young – mainly African – people and the labour market integration channels available to them.

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Université Paris-Dauphine

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Mercier Marion

Migration, development and politics in the homeland
Ecole des Hautes Etudes en Sciences Sociales

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September 2014

Social Sciences Winter School in Pondicherry

Report on the First Edition

The Social Sciences Winter School in Pondicherry is an ambitious team project between the French Institute of Pondicherry (IFP), Pondicherry University, the Center for South Asian Studies (CEIAS, CNRS-EHESS) and DIAL (IRD). Its brief is to develop a multi-annual programme of intensive, multidisciplinary training in social science theories, methods and research tools. The project constitutes a backbone element for partners, especially Pondicherry University, and builds their training course capacities. The project is also designed to scale up regionalism and multidisciplinary in social sciences, and to foster skills transfers and the promotion of local competencies.

The first edition was held at the Centre for Study of Social Exclusion and Inclusive Policy (School of Social Sciences and International Studies, Pondicherry University) from 7 to 13 December 2014. It was attended by some 50 students from all social science fields (Master 2 and PhD level) and young postdoctoral fellows based in India and abroad, including three Europeans. The five-day training course was taught by a team of nine French and 11 Indian professors, researchers and fellows. The chosen theme for the 2014 edition was: Health and Societal Challenges: Methodological Approaches in Social Science Research.

The course was taught entirely in English with three main tracks:

- Plenary sessions given by experienced researchers presenting the state of the art and theoretical and methodological issues for a particular research topic;
- Bespoke methodological, multidisciplinary interactive tutorial workshops for small groups: theoretical models, text analysis,

manipulation of data and different sources, survey methods and data analysis, etc.

- A half-day of knowledge restitution in the form of an oral presentation of an original research project by each workshop to the entire school (students, trainers and scientific committee) and delivery to participants of course completion certificates recognised in India.

We are grateful to all the institutional partners, Pondicherry University, the French Institute of Pondicherry (IFP), the Center for South Asian Studies (CEIAS) in Paris, the IRD ATS (Action Thématique Structurante) Programme and Hesam University in France, the event's main sponsors. This edition would not have been possible without the participation of motivated students and trainers from all over India and France who helped make this winter school such a success. This first edition is just one example of how we can perpetuate and enrich local academic partnerships and extend them to new research institutes abroad. A second edition is scheduled for December 2015 on the subject of mobility, including all forms of displacement, circulation and migration addressed through the lens of globalisation and its societal challenges. Four methodological workshops are currently being developed based on our set criteria: international target with a French-Indian emphasis, multidisciplinary with a disciplinary focus per workshop, and a mix of experienced researchers and young researchers. All the information on the event's organisation, programme and follow-up is available on the dedicated website:

<http://winterspy.hypotheses.org/>

Social Sciences Winter School



An International Collaborative Project



Health and Societal Challenges

Methodological Approaches in Social Science Research

Puducherry
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*Launch of the Double M2 Degree
“International Economics and Development”
GASS-Université Paris Dauphine, Vietnam*



Objectives

This programme trains economic analysts and researchers to achieve expertise in globalization and economic development. The curriculum provides for two Master degrees:

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Based on a strong theoretical corpus, the most recent quantitative techniques, and a good deal of practical applications, the programme of study analyses the causes and effects of economic globalization on national or international institutions, in developed, emerging and developing countries.

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