



Education for All Global Monitoring Report

Background Paper
2012

**Youth, skills and productive work
analysis report on the Middle East and
North Africa region**

Nermine Wally

Contents

Introduction	1
Situating the problem	2
Main challenges faced	3
Entrepreneurship education	13
Programmes: Bridging the mismatch	15
References	21
APPENDIX A: Operating programmes	24
APPENDIX B: Egyptian labour market	28

Introduction

This report presents a general overview of the current issues and trends emerging from the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region in relation to the education for all (EFA) global monitoring report 2012 theme, as well as the main findings and trends observed on the Arab youth, skills development and employment as drawn from different sources made available to date.

Firstly, the report to follow identifies very briefly the problem, before, secondly, tackling the main challenges facing youth inclusion in the labour market, such as gender participation, the state of technical and commercial education graduates, employment in the informal sector and the spatial disparities in the Arab countries. Also under the challenges section, the report refers to school enrolment trends in Egypt, school transition and exit, as well as the impact of the quality of preparatory education on education pathways in Egypt. Thirdly, this report presents a detailed description of two selected programmes for bridging skills mismatch from the MENA region, namely:

- Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) reform programme in Egypt (<http://www.tvet.org>).
- INJAZ al-Arab programme (<http://www.injazalarab.org/en/article/about-us/our-network.html>).

Finally, supporting data in the form of tabulated lists of 12 programmes from the MENA region that tackle youth skills development and selected graphic representations of some figures on the labour market in Egypt are presented in Appendix A and Appendix B, respectively.

Situating the problem

With a population estimated to be around 359 million people, including over 100 million individuals between 15 and 29 years of age (as of 2007) (World Economic Forum 2012), Arab countries should seize the opportunity to invest in the youth majority through skills development. Unemployment rates in the Middle East remain high, at nearly 11%, with young people suffering the worst labour market outcomes. Youth unemployment rates in the region averages between 20% and 25%, with many unemployed youth being forced to wait for two to three years for their first position. Young women also often face the most daunting prospects in securing a job (Assaad, Binzel & Gadallah 2010). Indeed, the Arab region as a whole also marks the highest rates for youth unemployment; youth represent 60% of the unemployed.

Investing in youth skills, notably for marginalised youth in different communities, can help integrate this population demographic into the labour market. In Egypt, for example, about one-third of Egypt's work force is younger than 25 years. Unemployment and increasing informal employment affect mainly youths and, in particular, young women. On the other hand, there is an increase in the number of vacancies, which cannot adequately be filled. Across all sectors, the private economy is complaining about the poor qualification levels of young job seekers, especially.

Main challenges faced

The inclusion of youth and marginalised groups into the labour market

Waithood phase

Consequences of youth exclusion have included young people entering 'waithood', a period during which they simply wait for their lives to begin, most notably by queuing for long periods of unemployment during which they live with parents and are financially unable to pursue marriage or home ownership. According to the *Survey of young people in Egypt* (SYPE) (Population Council 2010), the percentage of Egyptian youth aged 15–29 years grew significantly from 1988 to 2006, posing huge pressures on the labour market in terms of creating sufficient jobs for new entrants. The psychological impact of the waithood phase is also evident, with unemployment leading to apathy, as evidenced in the extremely low youth participation rates in elections, volunteer activities or membership of youth clubs. There is also considerable concern that some isolated youth, particularly in marginalised areas, are marketed to by extremist groups who prey upon their sense of hopelessness. Whilst delayed marriage is a trend seen in many societies, in Egypt for example, an increasing number of youth are engaging in *urfi* or informal marriages that offer little security to the wife and any subsequent offspring (United Nations Development Programme 2010).

Gender participation and employment

The noticeable increase in the rate of participation of girls and women in the various educational cycles in the Arab world is not matched by similar participation in the labour market, especially in the private sector. In addition, and despite some progress regarding the employment of women, the unemployment rate amongst them is usually around double that of their male counterparts in most Arab countries. Kabbani and Kothari (2005) suggests that the low rates of female labour force participation in MENA for married women is strongly linked to educational attainment, especially when the education level of the husband is taken into account. For married women, once the education level of the husband is controlled for, the education level of the wife has a much smaller effect, suggesting that intra-household decisions may dominate the income effect associated with higher wages that come with higher educational attainment. Fertility may also affect the labour force participation decision.

A World Bank (2011) survey of community college graduates in Jordan reveals that, in their final year of education, 90% of the female respondents expressed interest in joining the labour force upon graduation. The reality in the Jordan labour market is different than in Egypt. In Jordan, women's labour participation has been fluctuating around the 12% level over the last 15 years, whilst the unemployment rate of women under the age of 30 is 4% (Vishwanath & Krishnan 2010).

Using data for Egypt, Amin and Al-Bassusi (2003) suggest that young women are likely to work primarily to help cover the costs of marriage and establishing a household. However, Egyptian females often quit work after marriage. These researchers suggest that recent increases in the proportion of

young Egyptian women working and in school might be the result of a tendency to delay marriage because of increasing costs of getting married. By contrast, Assaad and Zouari (2002) find that for women in Morocco, marriage is not a constraint on labour force participation, but rather it is the presence of young children. Unlike in Egypt, young Moroccan women do continue to work after marriage. But, unlike women in Lebanon, having children greatly reduces the odds of working. One explanation appears to be employer constraints. Participation rates do not drop off as sharply for women working in the public sector, which provides more benefits and accommodations to working mothers.

Elgeziri's (2011) extensive work on women enrolled in technical education, particularly commercial secondary technical education, points to the fact that given the economic realities which have affected Egypt since the late 1980s, the new economic situation in Egypt affects the work decisions of women from the lower classes and their integration into the labour market. For example, the present labour law (Act No. 12 of 2003) (International Labour Organization 2012) allows for a great amount of flexibility concerning hiring and terminating workers' contracts. The law also allows repeated labour-contract renewals for finite periods. In addition, the protection afforded to women in Egyptian labour laws, such as maternity leave and the extra costs and restrictions involved in this, have had the effect of discouraging employers from hiring them, especially given the abundant supply of male workers. Concurrently, women themselves have been reluctant to work in the private sector because of this trend toward short-term contracts, instead of permanent employment, and the long working hours involved (Elgeziri 2011).

Technical and commercial education in Egypt

In Egypt, technical schools do not provide sufficient or often relevant training and are perceived as an alternative option for failing or underperforming students. Yet, vocational schools continue to cater to a significant proportion of secondary school students, despite their proven limited labour market results (Antoninis 2001). In the Arab countries, technical education accounts for more than 60% of secondary school students and, in Egypt, almost 70% of students, as of 2005 (Assaad 2003).

Elgeziri (2011) points out that, in Egypt, selection of either a general secondary school (leading to the university) or a technical education (which theoretically offers the chance to attend a university and higher institutes, though in practice is a dead-end education) takes place at the end of the preparatory (middle school) stage. At this point, families, especially poor ones, have to decide if they are willing and able to keep their children in school, given that free education is no longer the reality in Egypt. Thus, if poor households managed to resist withdrawing their children from schools at the early primary stage so that they could enter the labour force, at the middle-school stage many of them opted to send their children to public technical schools. During 2005–2006, technical education students constituted 56% of all secondary-school students, whilst public general secondary school students represented 33%, Al Azhar religious education was 8% and private general secondary school students constituted 3%. Although, in recent years, even though it has become increasingly obvious that technical education is superfluous and no longer serving any need, the government continues to steer

students toward it merely to limit demand on general secondary education and universities – to such an extent that technical education is now described as merely serving as the government’s safety valve for young men and women of poor socio-economic backgrounds (Antoninis 2001).

Unlike industrial and agricultural education, commercial education has always been regarded as the closest to women’s traditional interests in domestic chores and home economics and is a natural continuation of the ‘female cultural schools’ that targeted women before the 1952 revolution Elgeziri (2010, 2011) adds, whilst males were encouraged to attend technical industrial and agricultural schools.

Two arguments are put forward by Elgeziri (2011) to explain this gender tendency in technical education. The first is that the industrial and agricultural schools and commercial schools do not likewise entail the high costs of equipment in workshops and laboratories. Therefore, successive governments have used this comparative advantage to expand the number of commercial schools and enrol more students, which served to meet the increasing demands of the lower classes to educate their children. In addition, despite (or given) this public demand amongst the three technical tracks, commercial education accepts those students with the lowest preparatory school grades. This combination of high demand, limited resources and low status has resulted in a vicious cycle of commercial schools teaching obsolete skills and offering a poor-quality education, which places their graduates at an immense disadvantage in the labour market.

The second underlying aspect put forward by Elgeziri (2011) is that commercial education has been of central importance in the lives of Egyptian women who come from modest working-class backgrounds and have illiterate parents. Even though for many of these families the dream of sending their children to college remained unattainable, the fact that they could give their daughters an education that prepared them to be clerks, accountants and secretaries was still acceptable. Moreover, traditionally commercial education guaranteed a job in the public sector within the context of the government’s massive employment scheme that was in force during the 1960s. This was a significant mark of distinction for women of this socio-economic background, as it promised a qualitative rise to the more prestigious white-collar domain and a higher social status on the periphery of the middle class.

Employment in the informal sector

The informal sector in this context is defined as employment that is not recognised, supported, or regulated by the government. According to Assaad (2003) and Elgeziri (2011), employers working in the informal sector are not registered in national employment census and are not covered by certain aspects of the law; they are almost invariably beyond social protection, labour legislation and protective measures in the workplace. This definition of the informal sector constitutes almost 55% of the Egyptian labour force, which has not been dynamic, lacks growth potential and is unable to generate ‘decent work’ for the youth, the majority of whom are graduates of technical schools forced to take such jobs merely to survive. According to Assaad and Barssoum (2007), for many new graduates this informal sector is not a temporary situation and those whose first job after graduating is in this sector will be unable to transition into formal-sector employment; 95% of those who were employed in informal jobs in 1990 were still in those or similar jobs in 1998.

Elgeziri (2011) and Assaad (2003) argue that although informal sector jobs have grown swiftly amongst women as a result of the downsizing of their main employers in the public sector in Egypt, these kinds of jobs have impacted men even more. The fact remains that women continue to be rather modestly represented in Egypt's labour market. Out of a total labour force of 19.3 million in 2001, women constituted 21% and men 79% (El Mahdi & Amer 2005). Factors accounting for women's low employment numbers have ranged from patriarchal family-value systems, household dynamics, the effects of the oil boom on the masculinisation of the workforce, and the limited demand for female labour (see Assaad & Barsoum 2007 for a detailed discussion). Recent studies have pointed to the segmentation of the Egyptian labour market, with gender identified as a central, albeit not sufficiently studied, feature of that segmentation (Assaad 2003; Nassar 2003).

Skills mismatch

Despite overall progress for educational measurement in a number of Arab countries, the quality of the education system remains low and fails to provide the necessary tools to safely pass the transition from school to work. In Egypt, for example, general education schools and technical and vocational schools do not provide sufficient skills that are demanded by the market. Whilst many scholars argue that the skills mismatch is not central to the employment problem in the MENA region, but is rather one symptom of an overarching global structural problem, they refer to the lack of skills which are becoming increasingly prerequisites in the labour market, particularly from the private sector.

In her ethnographic account of Egyptian women's job-search process, Barsoum (2004) makes reference to the skills mismatch problem, notably the secretarial and clerical work experiences of graduates from technical schools in Egypt. In the formal private sector, the representation of commercial school graduates (CSG) in clerical positions is insignificant, mainly as a result of them lacking the appropriate skills to meet the demands of this competitive sector, including the knowledge of foreign languages and computer skills. Elgeziri (2010, 2011) also points out that, in recent years, CSG employment in the formal private sector has been limited to men in such lower positions as office helpers and messengers. With the large supply of university graduates and rampant unemployment, there is no reason for the private sector to recruit technical school graduates when it can get university graduates with higher skills and on reasonable financial terms.

In addition to the lack of language and technical skills, there has been a lack of sufficient life skills training such as problem solving and the ability to apply knowledge to real problems, as well as extremely limited access to information technology. The Egypt labour market survey (Economic Research Forum & Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics 2006) shows that only 2% of those who were unemployed used computers to search for jobs, which is a form of exclusion from access to information and communication technology.

On the other hand, a number of regional initiatives on capacity development and youth skills building have been launched in many Arab countries (see the Tables in Appendix A). Many of these initiatives have a practical approach to labour-market-oriented teaching. The common feature emerging from

these initiatives is the recognition of the urgent need to invest in the supply side in order to respond to the demand in specific skills required by the labour market, particularly the private sector and specific industries. The modalities of the programmes formulated by the abovementioned initiatives are mainly focused on building the capacity of young graduates to enable them to enter the labour market. Forging public–private partnerships and integrating the private and corporate sector into the design and the types of training delivered has become a common feature in many of these regional initiatives aimed at building the skills of young people.

The TVET reform programme and youth in conflict zones

The Arab human development report series identifies that more than 80 million people currently live in conflict-afflicted and poor Arab countries, where unemployment rates are more than double the Arab world’s overall average (Chaaban 2010).

The United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) has been active in providing vocational training, particularly in designing programmes to help women and Palestinian refugees in Lebanon to overcome barriers to entry into the workplace. In the 1960s, the UNRWA established vocational training centres (VTCs) in Beirut and offered training that was oriented mainly toward the rapid economic development taking place in the oil producing countries (Yarrow 2009). This training focused on manual trades such as welding, construction and electricity, which were culturally prohibited for women. After the Israeli invasion in Lebanon in 1982, a new system of TVET provision emerged. The NGO sectors in Lebanon have taken a front step in providing vocational education (along with social support) since the 1980s and collaborated with the UNRWA in providing official certification and curriculum advice. The courses included architectural drawings, office and business practices, as well as sewing and design, refrigeration and air conditioning, television and radio maintenance, secretarial and computer studies, and nursing. The courses were chosen both on the basis of what students wanted and on market needs and possibilities of employment (Yarrow 2009). (Yarrow presents two case studies on NGOs involved on skills development for women and Palestinians refugees, but the names of the NGOs remain anonymous).

Gender perception and structural inequalities relating to gender are present in the provision of the TVET, particularly in conflict zone areas where displaced groups and women are marginalised and have very limited opportunities to carry out any economic activity.

Spatial disparity (urban–rural)

There is little evidence that can help us identify clear trends and make comparisons on the state of youth skills development between the urban and rural areas in the MENA region. By understanding the problems of the spatial disparity in the MENA region, notably the persistence of urban–rural gap (the rural poor and the urban poor), the transformation of rural areas, the social fractures engendered with urban migration, as well as inter-region migration, urban policies, governance and public spending, we

can better assess how all these factors closely link the provision of education services and employment opportunities to location.

The MENA region is urbanising fast: on average, countries were 65% rural in 1960 but 65% urban in 2007. By 2020, an estimated 70% of the region's population will be urban. Kabbani and Kothari (2005) points out that between 1990 and 1998 the 'work' migration probabilities for youth (both the 15–19 years and 20–29 years age groups) were 40% higher than for the 30–39 years age group and more than 80% higher than the 40–59 years age group. This indicates that many youth are seeking *employment* in urban locations, even if they do not live in urban areas. This trend was strongly suggested for Egypt and Morocco. Normally, urbanisation is accompanied by a shift of labour from agriculture to services and manufacturing; however, in the MENA region, that labour transition has been delayed. Agriculture has lost its share of value add, but rural areas remain centres of low-productivity employment and poverty. Moreover, this region has an unusually high rate of agricultural employment growth and too many people on too little land has become a common feature of the MENA region's lagging rural areas. One reason is that the region has an unusually high rate of growth in the working-age population.

A World Bank (2010) report 'Poor places, thriving people: How the Middle East and North Africa can rise above spatial disparity' suggests the productivity of capital and labour is measurably higher in Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia's leading areas. The report distinguishes between two patterns: *agglomeration*, the tight concentration of businesses in certain *places*, and *spatial disparities*, the gaps in living standards between *people* in different places. The broad pattern of spatial disparities in the MENA region is typical of low-income and middle-income countries: living standards are highest where economic activity is densest and where connections to economic density are closest. The report identifies:

- Urban areas are better off than rural areas.
- Areas close to urban centres are better off than isolated areas.
- The same pattern of spatial disparities applies to indicators of both economic and human development, including the provision of education services and attainment.
- The same pattern of disparities is found within subnational divisions.
- Women and men experience spatial inequalities differently.

For example, whilst Upper Egypt has only 40% of the population of Egypt, it accounts for 60% of its poverty and 80% of its severe poverty. However, the report points out that economic geography is not the main factor holding Upper Egypt back. In fact, demography explains 62% of the consumption gap between Upper Egypt and Lower Egypt. The problem is that Upper Egyptian workers have to share their earnings with more family members who are too young or too old to work. In other words, Upper Egypt has a high 'demographic dependency' (World Bank 2010) – the ratio of dependents to people of working age. Households with unfavourable demographic characteristics would be at a disadvantage wherever they lived.

A household's education level can also influence its success. Whilst leading areas may have better-educated people and lagging areas may provide inadequate educational opportunity, households with low educational achievement will do worse than better-educated households, regardless of location.

Three factors explain why household characteristics in those lagging areas in the MENA region differ so greatly from those in leading areas: fertility, sorting and education. The World Bank (2010) report also points out that internal migration within the MENA region confirms the sorting effect: the people with the highest earning potential leave lagging areas. This is partly the result of the tendency of people with greater education to place greater value on city amenities, and partly the fact that the jobs that make education productive tend to be concentrated in cities.

The World Bank report (2010) further highlights that the demographic and educational components of spatial disparities differ significantly from country to country, as shown in the following example:

- **Egypt:** Demography is a major contributor to Egypt's disparities. If all of Egypt's governorates had the same demographic profile, the rural–urban gap would be a full 17% lower than it is. Educational disparities are also significant, albeit less so than demography.
- **Djibouti:** Unusually, the demography of rural Djibouti mitigates the rural–urban gap. If rural and urban areas had the same demographic characteristics, the gap would be 4% *higher* than it is. Conversely, educational disparities add 11% to the rural–urban gap.
- **Jordan:** Average rural per capita consumption is 24% behind urban levels in Jordan. If demographic disparities are removed, this difference dwindles to an insignificant 12%. Controlling for educational disparities, the gap becomes just 3%.
- **Lebanon:** In looking at what separates Mount Lebanon, the North and Bekaa from Beirut, the differences in household characteristics and earnings per worker are not significant. Labour force participation and mobility are the key factors.
- **Morocco:** Morocco features only modest interprovincial disparities but a significant urban–rural gap: per capita household consumption in rural areas is only 54% of that in Morocco's urban areas. Even if rural and urban areas had the same demographic characteristics, the rural–urban gap would still be 41%. And controlling for education, rural Morocco's per capita household consumption would still be 32% lower than that of Morocco's urban areas.
- **Syria:** Syria's northeast regions lag far behind Damascus City in terms of average per capita household expenditure. Without demographic disparities, however, the north-east would not be a lagging area at all. Spatial disparities in education seem to play no role.
- **Yemen:** Without the demographic and educational components of intergovernorate disparities, the Republic of Yemen's poorest governorate would trail only 40% (instead of 65%) behind the city of Sana'a in terms of per capita consumption. The rural–urban gap would be 25% instead of 40%.

School enrolment and exit levels in Egypt

Before going into any detail regarding the school enrolment and exit data for Egypt, it becomes important to contextualise the existing educational practices of this country:

Boys and girls attend mixed classes at the primary level, but at the preparatory level the stated ideal is single-sex education. Nonetheless, some schools remain mixed. This is particularly the case in rural areas, where enrollments may not always be sufficient to justify the creation of separate schools for boys

and girls. Mixed schools can be of two types: mixed at the school level with segregated classrooms or mixed within classrooms as well. All aspects of the preparatory school curriculum are the same for boys and girls except that: girls study home economics, and boys take agricultural/industrial studies. An examination administered at the level of the governorate is taken at the end of grade 8.19. The score on that exam determines a student's eligibility to continue on to secondary school, a phase that typically lasts another 3 years. A minimum score of 50 percent is required to continue beyond preparatory; those who fail are entitled to take another exam a few months later and are allowed to repeat the last year of preparatory if they fail again. The student's score also determines whether he or she can attend general secondary or technical secondary. (Lloyd *et al.* 2003:n.p.)

Recent assessment documents on Egypt suggest that growth in school enrolment at all levels is steady, with some reports claiming that Egypt is close to achieving universal primary education and gender parity. However, others suggest that despite substantial progress today, many Egyptian children never enrol in school, whilst others drop out often before completing primary education (Langsten & Hassan 2010), and that Egypt is at risk of failing to achieve gender parity, even by 2025. School enrolment for boys in Egypt is nearly universal (95% of 10–19-year-olds have ever been to school). The percentage of girls aged 10–19 years who have ever been to school is lower (84%), but because growth in girls' enrolment exceeds that of boys, the gender gap has been narrowing. Once in school, the probability of dropout is roughly the same at each grade for boys and girls, particularly amongst the youngest cohorts. Langsten (2011) and Lloyd *et al.* (2003) suggest that the explanation for the persistence of a gender gap in enrolment lies in the difference between those who have ever enrolled and those who have not. This fact has led to confusion in the public discourse about girls' schooling in Egypt. Lower overall enrolment rates for girls have left many with the impression that girls' exit rates are higher than boys' when, in fact, this is not the case. For both boys and girls, the hazard rate of school leaving varies by grade, with slightly greater risks of school exit at the end of primary and then again at the end of Grade 8 when the compulsory phase of schooling ends (Lloyd *et al.* 2003).

A transition study on young people aged 19–22 years with regard to school enrolment and transition in Egypt over the past 20 years shows that failure to complete secondary education in Egypt was the result of drop out as the main determinant of secondary completion, accounting for at least 50% of the failure to attain this level of education, whilst failure to enrol was responsible for about 32% – 39% (Assaad 2003). Even as attainment, enrolment and retention have all improved, the proportionate share of each of the reasons for failure to complete secondary education has remained relatively stable over time (Langsten 2011). The study also indicates that transition from primary to preparatory to secondary schools improved over time, despite a relative increase in retention throughout the same period. The findings also showed that getting into schools in Egypt has always been, and remains, the most difficult steps for Egyptian youth. For those who begin school, subsequent steps are easier. Having ever enrolled in school is thus the most difficult transition for the youth to make, failure to start or to complete primary education leads to the failure to complete secondary education. Langsten (2011) makes three distinctions in this regard, (1) those who did not complete primary education, either because they never enrolled, or because they dropped out during primary schooling, (2) those who completed primary education, but dropped out at some subsequent transition and (3) those who are delayed in their studies.

The correlation between school exit and quality of preparatory schools

With regards to quality of education, a study entitled ‘The impact of educational quality on school exit in Egypt’ conducted by Lloyd *et al.* (2003) draws from data on Egyptian public schools (Grades 6–8, the last three years of the eight-year compulsory schooling sequence), which were collected in conjunction with the national survey of Egyptian adolescents.¹ In measuring school quality, Lloyd *et al.* (2003) distinguish school inputs from school outcomes. Whilst high quality schools are sometimes defined by their results (e.g. cognitive tests or examination scores) or by their material correlates (e.g. resources per student), their definition of quality encompasses elements of the educational process that are recognised in the educational literature as practices that improve cognitive competencies, encourage attendance, reduce attrition, and/or equalise opportunities by gender. These authors (Lloyd *et al.* 2003) define three major dimensions of school quality and adapt them to the specific circumstances of the Egyptian schooling system. These are, (1) time available for learning during the school day, (2) material inputs, such as books, desks, quality and quantity of teaching staff, science labs, and availability of nurses and doctors and (3) attributes of the school and classroom environment, such as orderliness, the learning environment, teacher and student attitudes, school policies, teacher treatment of students, gender messages, and student behaviour.

The study summary (Lloyd *et al.* 2003) shows that whilst most dimensions are the same, certain aspects of schooling are experienced quite differently for boys and girls. Under material inputs, findings suggest that schools are much more invested in training girls in traditional domestic roles than in training boys in vocational trades. With the steady growth in the proportion of students attending secondary school, two-thirds of whom are enrolled in technical secondary schools, there may seem to be less of a need to expose boys to these trades in preparatory school than there might have been in the past. Under school and classroom dynamics, boys are much more likely than girls to have been hit as punishment by a teacher on the previous school day (22% vs 5%) or to have ever been told by a teacher that they are a failure (29% vs 11%). On the other hand, boys are more likely than girls to report that there is an adult in the school with whom they can comfortably talk (43% vs 32%). Finally, head teachers in schools which girls attend are slightly more traditional in their gender-role attitudes than head teachers in schools which boys attend.

Looking at the results (Lloyd *et al.* 2003) for the individual and family variables, both boys and girls at first appear much less likely to drop out of school, suggesting that the differences in school exit rates between rural and urban areas can largely be explained by school factors for which the prevalence differs between urban and rural areas. Furthermore, the odds of school exit for boys are affected by the family’s socio-economic situation both in terms of household wealth in rural areas and their mother’s educational attainment, and these results hold true whether or not school factors are controlled for in the model. Greater household wealth and more years of schooling for mothers significantly reduce the likelihood of school exit for boys. Whilst this is the expected result, we do not find the same effects for girls. Indeed, school exit rates for girls do not appear to be influenced by their family’s socio-economic

1. The *Adolescence and social change in Egypt (ASCE) survey* (Population Council 2007) is a nationally representative, multistage, stratified probability sample of 9128 adolescents aged 10–19 years conducted from March to August 1997, based on the recently updated census frame compiled by the Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics.

status, despite the fact that our data show that girls in preparatory school are considerably more likely than boys to have been tutored in the week before the survey – 75% of girls and 59% of boys. Finally, boys are less likely to exit school the older they are in a given grade; age is not a factor in the likelihood of school exit for girls.

Another striking finding of Lloyd *et al.*'s report (2003) is that parents value investments in schools for girls primarily for the returns that higher levels of schooling yield in the marriage market in terms of attracting better-educated and financially successful husbands for their daughters. In the case of boys, the returns come mainly in the form of improved earnings and job stability. The study results suggest that poor and relatively uneducated parents who allow their children to start school are willing to make greater financial sacrifices to educate their daughters than their sons, possibly because sons have better opportunities in the job market than daughters have in the marriage market at lower levels of education. Alternatively, it is possible that parents place greater consumption value on the education of their daughters than the education of their sons, given idealised gender roles in Egyptian society.

Lloyd *et al.*'s (2003) study concludes that that school quality is associated with the probability of school exit and, by association, with grade levels attained. Furthermore, the elements of school quality that matter differ for girls and boys. Furthermore, the schooling experience of boys and girls appears to differ in ways that are related to prevalent societal attitudes about boys and girls. Gender roles in the family and in society are sharply drawn in Egypt. Furthermore, girls' dropout rates appear to be unaffected by their parents' socio-economic status, whilst boys whose parents are poorer or less educated are more likely to drop out than those whose parents are richer or better educated.

Entrepreneurship education

Prospects in the MENA region

Some experts argue that the future of economies in many Arab countries will depend on the entrepreneurial environment for young people to establish and run profitable businesses.² Studies at a country level show that Arab youth is eager to start up their own business in a number of selected sectors. The Global Entrepreneurial Monitor (GEM) (2008, 2010) conducted surveys in Egypt, Palestine, Saudi Arabia and Tunisia, which show that the MENA countries, along with those in sub-Saharan Africa, have amongst the highest total entrepreneurial activity (TEA) rates. The survey highlights the fact that MENA economies have high levels of early-stage entrepreneurs in extractive businesses.

It has been widely believed that the aforementioned decades of public sector domination in Egypt destroyed the entrepreneurial spirit within the younger generations. However, the GEM 2008 report views the case of Egypt differently, proposing that the Egyptian population has a relatively positive attitude towards entrepreneurship and ranking it 12th amongst the 43 countries in the MENA region according to the percentage (73%) of the adult population that considers entrepreneurship as a desirable career choice. This reflects a favourable mindset towards entrepreneurship, which may lead to ultimate engagement in entrepreneurial activity. A relatively high percentage of the population is also confident that they have the required knowledge and skills to start a business; 53% were definite that they have these skills, ranking Egypt in 14th place. However, only 40% of the surveyed population confirmed that they see good opportunities for starting a business in the next six months (surveys were completed in July–August 2008), ranking Egypt 27th amongst the 43 countries.

A regional approach to TVET in the MENA region

Increasing competitiveness at the local, regional and international levels has resulted in growing demands for improving qualifications standards in the workforce. Labour markets and vocational education system in the MENA region are ill prepared to contribute to these challenges. Table 1 presents some the key players and organisations involved in human resource development and technical and vocational education and training in the MENA region. The high youth unemployment and low participation rate of women, side by side with increasing regional mobility, are amongst these challenges. In addition to this, there is a lack and inefficiency of labour market and human resource development – particularly with regard to the availability of information at a local regional and national level. In Egypt, it is estimated that annually more than 600 000 youth leave the education system to search for a job, but require support services for preparation and integration into decent work environments.

2.A report on entrepreneurship and education in the Arab states presents the cases of Jordan, Tunisia, Oman and Egypt, and identifies programmes on skills development and entrepreneurship education (UNESCO & The StratREAL Foundation 2010).

TABLE 1: An overview of organisations involved in human resource development and technical and vocational education and training in the Middle East and North Africa region.

Region of focus	Organisation
Arab regional	The Arab Labour Organization The Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization (ALESCO) The Arab Union for Technician Education The Arab Universities Union
International and multilateral	UNESCO International Center for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (UNESCO-UNEVOC) International Labour Organization (ILO) European Training Foundation (ETF) Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) The regional priorities in terms of TVET

UNESCO, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

Masri (2009) argues that prevailing TVET systems in the MENA region still need to be transformed from predominantly supply-driven into those driven by balanced supply–demand systems. He also points to the weak links and channels in higher education with regard to the concept of lifelong learning. Furthermore, Masri (2009) argues that a regional approach to TVET has the possibility of high potential returns both technically and economically, whilst maintaining the diversity and specificity of offerings. The regional priority of vocational education and training would include:

- occupational classification and standards
- testing, certification and qualification frameworks and standards (considering the increasing labour mobility and pressures of competitiveness and globalisation)
- curriculum development (methodologies, exchange of experiences, standards and labour-market relevance criteria, all of which might also include the utilisation of common curricula and education and training materials)
- teacher education and training (this might include in-service training of enterprise supervisors who are expected to undertake some training functions for trainees, apprentices and new recruits; also training of trainers and establishing excellence centres to offer services to the concerned countries)
- career guidance, counselling and employment services
- system development (this area would tackle governance, funding, legislative tools, school-based vs cooperative systems)
- publications (publication efforts in the field of TVET in Arabic languages are modest, which is useful for the use of learners, instructors and researchers locally and regionally).

Programmes: Bridging the mismatch

TVET reform programme: a project co-funded by the European union and the government of Egypt

Background

Basic technical and vocational education and training (TVET) in Egypt is provided through secondary education in technical and commercial schools and post-secondary education in training institutions. Other forms of training include training through industry attachments (such as dual systems and apprenticeships), in-service training and the re-training of people already in the labour force, both employed and unemployed.

The TVET project started in July 2005 and ran for six years until 2011. The total cost of the project was €66 million. The government of Egypt contributed €33 million and the European Union (EU) €33 million as co-funding. The overall programme objective was to contribute to improving the competitiveness of Egyptian enterprises on the domestic and international markets, with a specific objective to develop decentralised quality technical and vocational training institutes that depend on market demand. The project worked on the macro, micro and meso levels and sought to develop key building blocks by introducing national regulating bodies as a basis for a decentralised system of demand-driven TVET. To what extent the programme was able to achieve this objective is not the focus of this brief. Despite the availability of project documents and numerous publications, limited access to independent evaluation and evidence based documentation was made available.³ Nevertheless, the relevance and necessity of the project has been highlighted in many government reports and news pieces to date.

The model of the project was to establish a number of ‘enterprise training partnerships’ (ETPs) amongst the private and public sector and a public–private partnership to assist the TVET reform. Hence, the project fell on the supply side and was set up under the TVET reform programme. To date, the TVET reform programme has established 12 partnerships or ETPs across a range of sectors, from textiles to tourism, and six local ETPs out of a total target of 12 in industrial zones, to support local partnerships and training providers. The project has contributed to capacity building in the following areas:

- **Training providers:** Through curriculum development, upgraded workshops and pre-qualified trainers and teachers, the programme has improved around 140 training centres and around 100 in-company training facilities in the ready-made garments (RMG) sector.
- **Trainers:** To date, around 1680 trainers have been trained in the RMG, food, building material, engineering, wood and furniture industries.
- **Training packages:** The programme has developed a wide range of training packages based on industry needs, and developed curricula for 16 occupations (based on the technical

3.cf. The interview with Dr Aboubakr Badawy, which was part of the Cairo meetings, August 2011 – UNESCO, EFA, GMR office, Paris.

secondary schools and vocational training centres) with close support from sectoral and local ETPs.

- **Training sessions:** To develop qualified human resources infrastructure as trainers and Master of trainers in the different sectors, with an ‘end of programme’ target of 4000.
- **Study visits:** These visits are aimed at creating common understanding, awareness and exchange experience between the local training specialists and their counterparts in EU countries.
- **Twining arrangement:** This arrangement is an institutional capacity-building mechanism positioned in relation to the regulatory framework. The programme also contributed to developing a system of quality in the field of industrial training, including standardisation.

Skills delivered

Whilst the skills delivered by the TVET reform programme vary in scope and in target, they are centred on four components:

- **Occupational standardisation, certification and accreditation (Coordinating ETP: RMG):** This component addresses policymakers and technical staff of central public and private organisations.
- **TVET management centres or centres of competence management (Coordinating ETP: Chemical Industries):** These training sessions specifically address management and department heads of centres of competence and other vocational training centres.
- **Training of masters, trainers and tutors (Coordinating ETPs: RMG – Chemical Industries – Food Processing):** This training is open for master trainers, trainers and tutors working in public and private TVET training institutions, training specialists and coaches and tutors in companies. The component consists of delivering technical tools for the use of machinery and equipment depending on type of sector. It involves upgrading the core competencies of masters, trainers and tutors on the principles of competency-based learning, such as teacher competencies and performance, teaching methodology and learning styles, training needs analysis, job analysis and the ‘developing a curriculum’ (DACUM) method.
- **Jobseeker guidance and vocational counselling (Coordinating ETP: Food Processing):** This component aims at upgrading the system of vocational counselling and jobseeker guidance in Egypt in order to better coach pupils, students and unemployed young people with regard to their educational and occupational choices. The goal is to enable them to make good choices for further steps on the labour market or continued education and to advise them as young adults. Modules focus on: revised planning systems for jobseeker guidance, labour market information systems, upgraded coaching procedures, testing and assessment systems for educational and occupational choice-making, and occupational information systems.

Targeted groups

The abovementioned training programmes are designed for officials, civil servants, managers of public and private TVET institutions, teachers and trainers and tutors working in the TVET area, as well as already enrolled workers. The short-course programmes are usually based on sessions of four or five days to be run in Cairo and other regions of Egypt. The initial aim is to train a maximum of 4000 trainees in the subjects mentioned above.

The component on jobseeker guidance and vocational counselling is targeting students and unemployed youth at the end of completion of preparatory schools, during, and at the end of, their school career in initial secondary vocational education, and is specifically interesting for counsellors in preparatory and secondary TVET schools and staff of local employment offices.

Achievement and sustainability

The programme avails a good amount of documentation and information regarding the programme situation and process; however, evidence-based research has not been accessible on the impact of the programme. According to the available sources, the programme has reached out to students, workers and jobseekers who were trained and certified (around 37 000 to date). The fact that the programme is directly involved with graduates of technical and industrial schools is indicative of it targeting an already marginalised group of young people who have little prospect in finding decent jobs in the labour market upon graduation. Also, it is not clear whether the training packages are delivered systematically by the training centres to different target groups or whether training is delivered on *ad hoc* basis. In other words, it is not clear to what extent the training modules and materials are used and continue to be used by training centres outside the umbrella of the project. It is also important to note that the programme depends on building strategic partnerships with public and private entities who are heavily involved in setting forth their demand for skills and training.

Furthermore, many women have benefited from the skills training provided by the programme, notably in sectors that are highly feminised such as textiles, RMG and food processing. Other sectors are highly intensive in male labour, notably the chemical industry, civil engineering, building materials, and industrial engineering.

As for sustainability, the programme has been characterised as successful but still was not able to implement substantive reform at the macro level as intended, notably at the TVET policy reform level. Some characterised the programme as a successful initiative created in parallel to the already fragile and failing TEVT system in Egypt, and some experts raise questions about the financial and structural sustainability of the programme.⁴

⁴.cf. Interview with Dr Aboubakr Badawy, Cairo meetings, August 2011.

INJAZ al-Arab: profiling the Egypt and Bahrain regional programmes

Background

INJAZ al-Arab (<http://www.injazalarab.org/en>), a mini replication of the American Junior Achievement Program, promotes culture of entrepreneurialism and business to Arab youth. INJAZ al-Arab is implemented in 12 countries in the MENA region and delivers training in financial literacy and entrepreneurship.

About the regional project

INJAZ al-Arab provides students (aged between 11 and 22 years) with skills and tools in entrepreneurship, economics, business skills, financial literacy, business ethics, and work, career and life skills. Every semester, business leaders send their staff into local public schools for a number of hours each week to share their professional experience with young people. The aim is to offer students an unbroken chain of educational opportunities to:

- Strengthen their innovation.
- Deepen their understanding of the business world.
- Give them professional qualifications that enable them to start up and operate their own independent companies.

INJAZ al-Arab runs the Young Arab Entrepreneurs Competition. The award based annual completion brings Arab young professionals from many Arab countries to present innovative products or business projects, judged by a panel and awarded.

Target market and geographical coverage

INJAZ al-ARAB is based in Jordan, and has regional offices/networks in Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, Palestine, Lebanon, Kuwait, Qatar, the UAE and Oman.

Focus on INJAZ Egypt

INJAZ Egypt (<http://www.injaz-egypt.org/en/index1.html>) works with students aged 12 to 21 years old in middle schools, high schools and universities. Each year, students are trained and coached by experienced staff recommended by key business leaders who come to schools to deliver the training.

The organisation defines itself as an economic education organisation ‘on a mission to inspire and equip young people to learn and succeed through enterprise’ (<http://www.injaz-egypt.org/en/index1.html>). Programmes on skills development are implemented, covering attitudinal and life skills programmes (for youth aged 11–14 years), as well as enterprise in action on principles of business, economic incentives and business organizations (for 16–22-year-olds). Training on life

leadership skills (for 13–22-year-olds) and INJAZ success skills (for 12–17-year-olds) are provided in two versions, for school level and university level, and tackle career choices, conflict resolution, and communication and teamwork. Other programmes cover business ethics training, including: the company programme (for 16–22-year-olds), which allows students to set up and run their own business, the entrepreneurship Master class (for 12–17-year-olds) and personal economics training (for 14–17-year-olds) to help students learn about budgets, personal and financial management and career choices.

In April 2008, INJAZ Egypt held its second national student company competition, which was sponsored by Mobinil, a leading telecommunications company in Egypt. This competition presented students (aged 14–21 years) from high schools and universities with an opportunity to take their newly found business and entrepreneurial skills and learn to compete against one another, something they were rarely afforded in the classroom. The regional company competition for the ‘Best Student Company’ was held in Oman on 05–06 May 2008, in which the winners from 10 INJAZ countries in the region participated. Here the Egyptian team was awarded third place.

Focus on INJAZ Bahrain

INJAZ Bahrain (<http://www.injazbh.org/default.aspx>) focuses on “private-public-partnership” and involves with the business community sponsorship, classroom volunteers, or board members, to advance the project objectives.

Incorporating the same approach, INJAZ Bahrain’s programmes teach economics, entrepreneurship and financial literacy, focusing on the importance of market-driven economies, the role of business in the economy, the relevance of education in the workplace (lifelong learning). As such, INJAZ Bahrain runs a skills development package of six programmes which include: company, enterprise in action, success skills, banks in action, learn-to-earn and project business. Programmes are implemented in girls’ and boys’ secondary schools, including commercial technical schools for girls.

The 2008 INJAZ Bahrain annual report states that programmes reached out to over 2500 young minds from both government and private schools. With multiple new programmes and international accreditation, 97 volunteers from 33 organisations implemented programmes focusing mainly on the three pillars of enterprise education: entrepreneurship, financial literacy and work readiness.

The year 2008 also marked the third that INJAZ Bahrain, in partnership with Kuwait Finance House (KFH), sent 16 students from selected government schools on a two-week mentorship programme to the Sophia Antipolis Science Park in France. This programme, fully sponsored by KFH as part of their contribution towards INJAZ Bahrain’s Young Arab Leaders initiative, is offered to 16 students who met a set of criteria, including above-average performance in academic pursuits.

As part of INJAZ Bahrain’s extended learning initiatives, 94 students from four secondary schools (Riffa Secondary Girls’ School, Sitra Secondary Girls’ School, Al Noaim Secondary Boys’ School and

Sh. Khalifa Institute for Technology) completed the Young Enterprise Company exam, administered by the Cambridge International Examination Board.

March 2008 marked the debut of INJAZ Bahrain's 'company competition', which endeavoured to expose students to real-life businesses challenges and test their skills by competing against their peers. During the yearlong competition, four student companies consisting of 120 students overall were judged on traditional business metrics such as profitability, environmental impact and sustainability. In addition to receiving a trophy from the executive director of INJAZ Bahrain, Sheikha Hessa Bint Khalifa Al Khalifa, the winning company was also awarded with the opportunity to represent INJAZ Bahrain and the Kingdom at the regional competition in Muscat, Oman in May 2008.

Reflections on the INJAZ al-Arab programmes

The INJAZ regional programmes have been instrumental in reaching out to secondary schools students and in catering for a specific set of skills. However, the results seem to differ from one country to another, depending on the key level of key stakeholder involvement and the degree of volunteer engagement expressed from the private and corporate sector. The programme is rather well accounted for in both Egypt and Bahrain, whilst little information is given on its results in other countries. INJAZ in Egypt and Bahrain is clearly targeting educated youth, notably those who are enrolled in top universities and top of their classes. For accreditation and exchange programmes, INJAZ requires from students a high level of language proficiency (in English) and caters for a selected group of students. For this reason, students graduating from the programme are able to compete on the regional level with other students (cf. the film on the INJAZ programme in Egypt, produced in 2009 by PBS *Frontline*, available from http://www.pbs.org/frontlineworld/stories/egypt804/video/video_index.html).

Nevertheless, INJAZ Bahrain accounts for several interventions in public technical schools, and integrates young female secondary students as shown in their annual report 2010–2011, although it is not clear to what extent the programme targets marginalised groups, notably from disadvantaged communities (school drop outs and marginalised communities in rural and urban areas). INJAZ Egypt was not explicit as to whether interventions targeted public schools outside Cairo, where limited resources are invested in students.

References

- Amin, S. & Al-Bassusi, N., 2003, 'Wage work and marriage: Perspectives of Egyptian working women', *Research Division Working Paper 171*, Population Council, Cairo.
- Antoninis, M., 2001, 'The vocational school fallacy revisited: Technical secondary schools in Egypt', *European University Institute Working Papers – Mediterranean Programme Series*, Robert Schumann Centre for Advanced Studies, Fiesole.
- Assaad, R., 2003, 'Gender and employment: Egypt in comparative perspective', in E.A. Dumato & M.P. Posusney (eds.), *Women and globalization in the Arab Middle East: Gender, economy and society*, pp. 119–143, Lynne Rienner Publishers, Boulder.
- Assaad, R. & Barsoum, G., 2007, *Youth exclusion in Egypt: In search of 'second chances'*, Dubai School of Government Middle East Youth Initiative, Dubai.
- Assaad, R., Binzel, C. & Gadallah, M., 2010, 'Transitions to employment and marriage among young men in Egypt', *Middle East Development Journal* 2(1), 39–88.
- Assaad, R. & Zouari, S., 2002, 'The timing of marriage, fertility and female labor force participation in Morocco', paper presented at the Ninth Annual Conference of the Economic Research Forum, Dubai, 26–28 October.
- Barsoum, G.F., 2004, 'The employment crisis of female graduates in Egypt. An ethnographic account', *Cairo Papers* 25(3).
- Chaaban, J., 2010, 'Job creation in the Arab economies: Navigating through difficult waters', *Arab Human Development Reports Research Paper Series*, United Nations Development Programme – Regional Bureau for Arab States, New York.
- Economic Research Forum & Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics, 2006, *The Egypt labor market panel survey (ELMPS 06)*, Economic Research Forum, Cairo.
- Elgeziri, M., 2010, 'Wading through treacle: Female commercial school graduates (CSG) in Egypt's informal economy', *Feminist Formations* 2(3), 40.
- Elgeziri, M., 2011, 'Al Tahmeesh Wa Tahmeesh Al Zat: Al Taaleem Al toujary wa Kherejeeh [Marginalisation and self-marginalization: Commercial Technical School and its Graduates]', unpublished.
- El-Mahdi, A. & Amer, M., 2005, 'Egypt: Growing informality, 1990–2003', in T. Avigran, L.J. Bivens & S. Gammage (eds.), *Good jobs, bad jobs, no jobs: Labor markets and informal work in Egypt, El Salvador, India, Russia, and South Africa*, pp. 31–69, Global Policy Network Economic Policy Institute, Washington, DC.
- Global Entrepreneurial Monitor, 2008, *Global report 2008*, viewed n.d. from <http://www.gemconsortium.org/docs/264/gem-2008-global-report>
- Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2010, *Executive report 2010*, viewed n.d. from <http://www.gemconsortium.org/docs/266/gem-2010-global-report>

INJAZ, 2011, *Annual report 2010–2011*, viewed n.d. from <http://www.injaz.org.jo/Portal1/Upload/PhotoGallery/Gallery/Documents/aae76683-f33c-4b05-b0e6-5456283262c7142.pdf>

INJAZ Bahrain, 2008, *Annual report July 2007 – June 2008*, INJAZ Bahrain, viewed n.d. from <http://injazbh.org/wp-content/uploads/2010/10/Injaz-Annual-Report-2008-Third.pdf>

International Labour Organization, 2012, *Egypt labour codes, general labour and employment acts*, viewed n.d. from http://www.ilo.org/dyn/natlex/natlex_browse.details?p_lang=en&p_country=EGY&p_classification=01.02&p_or_igin=SUBJECT

Kabbani, N. & Kothari, E., 2005, 'A situational assessment of youth employment in the MENA region', in O. Nour (ed.), *Urban children and youth in the MENA region: Addressing priorities in education – Statistical papers*, n.p., Dubai Municipality, Dubai.

Langsten, R., 2011, 'Measuring progress toward universal primary education: An examination of indicators', Social Research Centre, the American University in Cairo, unpublished.

Langsten, R. & Hassan, T., 2010, 'Assessing progress toward universal primary education in Egypt', Social Research Centre, the American University in Cairo, unpublished.

Lloyd, C.B., Tawila, S.E., Clark, W.H. & Mensch, B.S., 2003, 'The impact of educational quality on school exit in Egypt', *Comparative Educational Review* 47(4), 444–467.

Masri, M.W., 2009, 'Vocational education, training reform and regional integration in the Middle East', in R. Maclean & D.N. Wilson (eds.), *International handbook of education for the changing world of work: Bridging academic and vocational learning*, pp. 427–435, vol. 2, UNESCO International Center for Technical and Vocational Education and Training, Bonn.

Nassar, H., 2003. 'Egypt: Structural adjustment and women's employment', in E.A. Dumato & M.P. Posusney (eds.), *Women and globalization in the Arab Middle East: Gender, economy and society*, pp. 95–118, Lynne Rienner Publishers, Boulder.

Population Council, 1997, *Adolescence and social change in Egypt (ASCE) survey*, Population Council, Cairo.

Population Council, 2010, *Survey of young people in Egypt (SYPE)*, Population Council, Cairo.

TVETipedia, 2010, *Information on TVET in Egypt*, viewed 15 September 2011, from [http://www.unevoc.unesco.org/tvetipedia.0.html?&tx_drwiki_pi1\[keyword\]=Egypt#Qualifying_technicians_and_technical_trainers](http://www.unevoc.unesco.org/tvetipedia.0.html?&tx_drwiki_pi1[keyword]=Egypt#Qualifying_technicians_and_technical_trainers)

UNESCO & The StratREAL Foundation, 2010, *Entrepreneurship education in the Arab states – Case studies of the Arab states (Jordan, Tunisia, Oman, Egypt) and regional synthesis report*, M. Masri, M. Jemni, A.M. Al-Ghassani & A.A. Badawi (eds.), UNESCO Regional Bureau for Education, Beirut.

United Nations Development Programme, 2010, *Egypt human development report*, UNDP, Cairo.

Vishwanath, T. & Krishnan, N., 2010, *Jordan Now: New Work Opportunities for Women*, viewed October 2010, from <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/10912>

World Bank, 2010, *Poor places, thriving people: How the Middle East and North Africa can rise above spatial disparity*, viewed n.d., from

<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/MENAEXT/0,,contentMDK:22612648~menuPK:2246554~pagePK:2865106~piPK:2865128~theSitePK:256299,00.html>

World Bank, 2011, *Jordan: New work opportunities for women pilot project*, viewed n.d., from <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/MENAEXT/0,,contentMDK:22872667~menuPK:3949143~pagePK:146736~piPK:226340~theSitePK:256299,00.html>

World Economic Forum, 2012, *Addressing the 100 million youth challenge: Perspectives on youth employment in the Arab world in 2012*, World Economic Forum, Geneva, viewed n.d., from http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_YouthEmployment_ArabWorld_Report_2012.pdf

Yarrow, R., 2009, 'TVET, women and conflict: Palestinians in the Lebanese Civil War', R. Maclean & D.N. Wilson (eds.), *International handbook of education for the changing world of work: Bridging academic and vocational learning*, pp. 849–861, vol. 2, UNESCO International Center for Technical and Vocational Education and Training, Bonn.

APPENDIX A: Operating programmes

Overview of programmes for bridging skills mismatch

TABLE 1-A: Operating programmes by name on youth skill development and employment in the Middle East North Africa region.

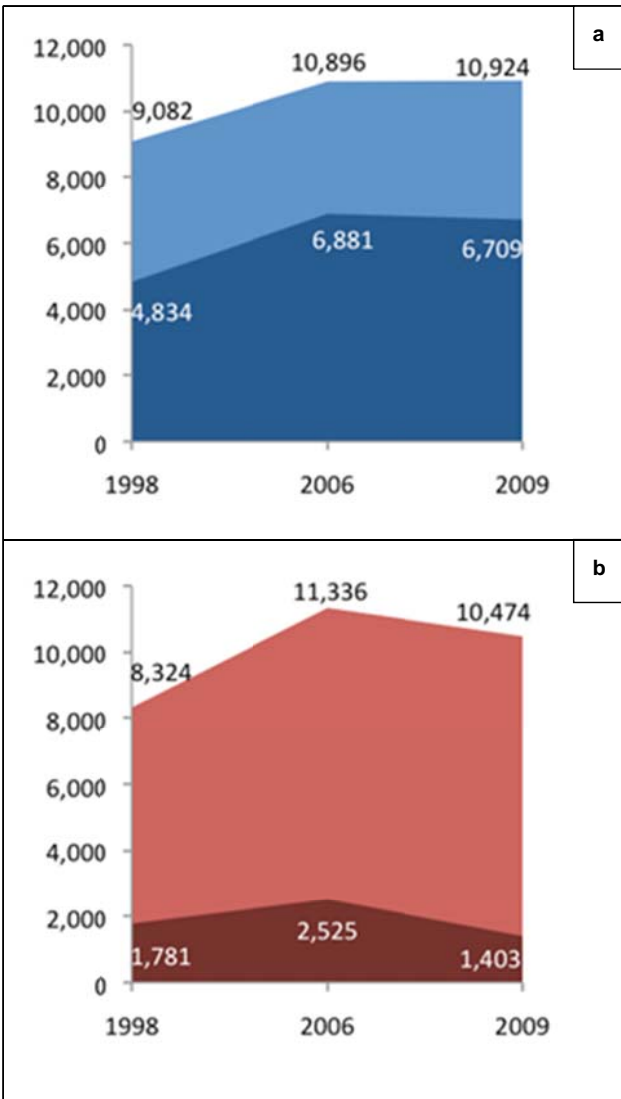
No	Name	Country Duration	Mission	Type of skills and sector	Target group
1.	SELATECH http://www.silatech.com/index.php	Morocco Syria Yemen 2004-2018	To connect young people, 18-30 years old, with employment and enterprise opportunities. Committed to mobilize interest, investment, knowledge, resources and action to drive large-scale comprehensive employment and enterprise development programs.	- <u>Access to Employment</u> , certification and working with accredited centres, job placement and counselling - <u>Access to Enterprise</u> : Microfinance and support to SME - <u>Knowledge & Policy consortium</u> . Silatech Index is a regional initiative created to poll the opinion of young people in the Middle East and North Africa twice a year	young people in the Middle East and North Africa aged between 18 to 30 years old
2.	Education for Employment Foundation http://www.efefoundation.org/homepage.html (*this program is different than the E4E Realizing Arab Youth Potential, with the Islamic Bank for Development and IFC, but they might be closely related http://www.e4earabyouth.com/)	Jordan West Bank Gaza Morocco Egypt	The E4E foundation Provides youth with limited means and minimal connections access to professional and vocational skills training related directly to job opportunities	Work Place Success training provided as a stand-alone training or in conjunction with technical curricula such as banking, teaching, construction management, land surveying, hospitality, sales, textile merchandising, or “mini MBA programs. Programs have Alumni services	Enrolled and graduates students from secondary and technical schools
3.	Skills fro Employability The British Council http://www.britishcouncil.org/learning-	Egypt Tunisia Morocco Yemen, more?	Skills for Employability is the British Council’s flagship program for skills development and vocational education,	The program does not deliver skills training directly but implements activity in the following areas:	Young graduates, students in TVT centers aged between 16 and

	skillsforemployability.htm		the program covers the MENA region.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Policy dialogue - Professional networks - Institutional partnerships - Enterprise and technology awards 	25 years old.
4.	<p>INJAZ ALARAB http://www.injazalarab.org/en</p> <p>Documentary on FRONTLINE World http://www.pbs.org/frontline/world/stories/egypt804/</p> <p><i>Member of the Worldwide Junior Achievement organization</i></p>	12 countries in the MENA region	<p>Equip students with practical business-related skills as part of the regular educational curriculum</p> <p>In parallel, foster among business leaders a responsibility for investing their resources in the future of the region's youth</p>	<p>Entrepreneurship</p> <p>Economics</p> <p>Business Skills</p> <p>Financial Literacy</p> <p>Business Ethics</p> <p>Work, Career, Life Skills</p>	<p><i>INJAZ ALARAB pledged to sponsor 1Million Youth by the year 2018</i></p>
5.	<p>Young Arab leaders http://www.yaleaders.org/en/</p>	Chapters in 9 Arab countries Jordan, UAE, Bahrain , KSA, , Palestine, Qatar, Kuwait, Lebanon, Egypt	Focus on Twin Pillar: education and employability of young Arab students under 25 years	<p>Four Education programs:</p> <p>1) INTILAK(Capacity building in soft skills and case studies/live experince</p> <p>2) Digital Litracry (in partnership with Microsoft)</p> <p>3) Mahara (regional internships and work placement programs to bright young Arabs)</p> <p>4) Zamala (International exchange of young executives between the Middle East and USA</p> <p>Entrepreneurship RIYADA(support young arabs to become start-up entrepreneurs through seminars, surveys and case studies)</p>	<p>University students</p> <p>Arab professionals</p>
6.	<u>Start My Own Small Business (UNESCO)</u>	(n/a)	(n/a)	The four modules developed by UNESCO	Teachers and students at the

				were adapted and translated in Arabic in 2008. Material was disseminated in UNEVOC centres in the Arab region	secondary level (formal and non-formal education)
7.	Know About Business Program ILO (Regional Office, Beirut)	9 Arab countries		Nine modules	Target teachers and instructors
8.	Entrepreneurship Education in the Arab States <u>Concept note</u> <u>Link to program in UNESCO</u> UNESCO-UNEVOC, StartREAL Foundation)	Jordan, Tunisia, Oman, Egypt 2009-2012		Partnership with StartREAL is on hold-program is stagnant (based on feedback from Dr Abou Bakr Former Country ILO Director Kuwait, and ILO expert)	
9.	The EC-TVET http://www.tvet.org/index.html (66 million Euros. The government of Egypt contributes 33 million Euros and the EU 33 million Euros as a co-funding.)	Egypt Since 2005-today	The project falls no the supply side co funded by the EC and Government of Egypt- The goal was developing decentralized quality TVT institutes that depend on market demand. Development of national regulatory and support institutions for a decentralized and demand-driven TVET system Improve of the Quality of TVET Delivery (Capacity Building) Establishment of a network of decentralized demand-driven Enterprise – TVET Partnerships (ETPs) through a PPP mechanism	Provision of training, Design of training packages, study visits, twinning arrangements. Soft skills Occupational Standards Development Strategic management, quality assurance, HRM, training of master and trainers, job Seeker Guidance and Vocational Counselling Industrial Ready Made Garment ETP, several packaging methods General training Establish three sectoral training councils	Young handcrafters and graduates (mostly men) EC-TVET has established 12 partnerships across wide range of sectors Young graduates from TVE Depends on sector Regarded as a success project
	The Mubarak-Khol initiative (MKI-Dual system)	Egypt 2007 to 2014	Enhance employability of young people is improved. Youth	Six components: 1: Pilot project for	Technical secondary school

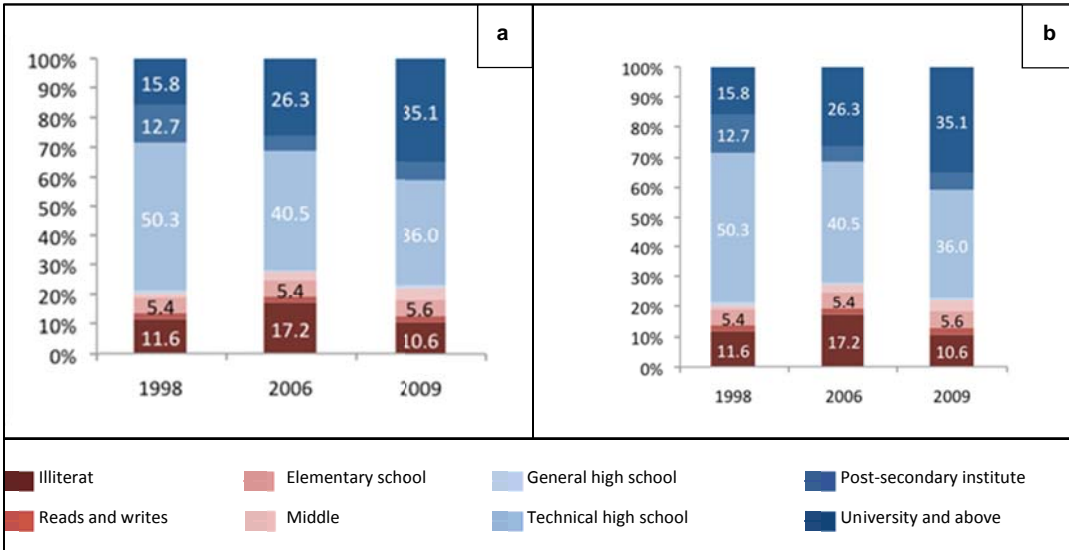
	<p>and MKI-vetEP) Support by GTZ http://www.mki-vetep.com/ http://www.gtz.de/en/weltweit/maghreb-nahe-osten/aegypten/22813.htm</p> <p><u>Qualitative review</u> available upon request (2010) <u>Fact sheet</u> 1994-2009</p>		<p>employment is strengthened through active labour market policies.</p>	<p>promotion of employability and employment of youths</p> <p>2: Institutional sustainability of the formal three year cooperative technical education (MKI-Dual System)</p> <p>3: Quality Management</p> <p>4: Capacity development of learning facilitators</p> <p>5: Structuring of labour market information (beginning 07/2009)</p> <p>6: Policy consulting</p>	<p>graduates, including females</p>
	<p>Small and Medium Enterprises CD-ROM (ALO/ACHRD) The Arab Labour Organization (ALO) and the Arab Centre for Human Resources Development (ACHRD)- Tripoli www.achrd.com.</p>		<p>Targets technical and vocational education and training (TVET) programmes in the Arab region.</p>	<p>Active learning CD-ROM on “Small and Medium Enterprises” (2005), which targets technical and vocational education and training (TVET) programmes in the Arab region. Nine training modules</p>	<p>mainly for instructors and teachers in TVET programmes and specializations.</p>
	<p>Aflatoun www.aflatoun.org/.</p>	<p>Egypt, Jordan, Palestinian Authority (West Bank and Gaza) and Sudan Four additional countries- Djibouti, Morocco, Tunisia and Yemen-are in a dialogue</p>		<p>Children are taught saving, planning and budgeting, and they practice what they learn in real-life social and financial enterprises in their communities.</p>	<p>Aimed at children between the ages of 6 and 14</p>

APPENDIX B: Egyptian labour market



Note: For more information, please see the full reference list of the article, Wally, N., 2012, 'Youth, skills and productive work analysis report on the Middle East and North Africa region'. Values in thousands, lighter colours represent population size, darker colours represent the labour force.

FIGURE 1-B: Population and labour force sizes of Egyptian youth aged 15–29 years were (a) men and (b) women..



Note: For more information, please see the full reference list of the article, Wally, N., 2012, 'Youth, skills and productive work analysis report on the Middle East and North Africa region'.

FIGURE 2-B: Egyptian labour force by education status was (a) men and (b) women.