

# Reviewing Work-Based Learning Programmes for Young People in the Arab Region

A Comparative and Longitudinal Analysis



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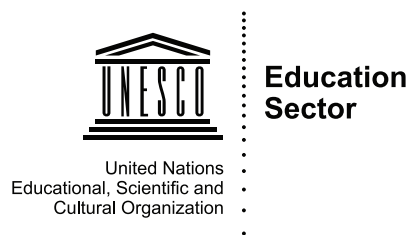
A Comparative and Longitudinal Analysis

Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Oman, Palestine and Tunisia

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Stephen Billett, Griffith University

## Foreword

Work-based learning (WBL) has become a key issue in the international debate on human capital development. In line with UNESCO's TVET Strategy (2016-2021), UNESCO promotes TVET as an integral component of education, which is a human right and a building block for peace-building and inclusive sustainable development. With its humanistic and holistic approach to education, UNESCO strives to enhance inclusive education systems where all individuals benefit from meaningful and lifelong learning, delivered through multiple formal and informal pathways.

This report is based on eight country case studies and seeks to inform policymakers and practitioners in the Arab States, including private sector and civil society about how to design and manage effective work-based learning programmes targeting young people.

Regionally, TVET's landscape is changing fast, as new programmes and new roles are emerging.

Changes in TVET are the result of political and structural changes in the overall education and training system. They are also the result of external social, political and economic factors, notably youth unemployment, demographic developments, and labour market trends driven by technological and work processes and organizational changes, as well as geopolitical turmoil in the region.

In this context, WBL is a powerful driver for expanding and improving the relevance of TVET. However, realising the potential of WBL requires policymakers and social partners to engage in partnerships and in close cooperation.

In addition, this report seeks to provide current information on the state of WBL in the region by examining the national contexts, nature and extent of WBL, policies and legislations, employer and employee organizations, resources to improve the quality of WBL programs, funding, and data on performance of WBL on employment, productivity, growth, and sustainable development. The report also examines WBL as a vector for access to TVET for disadvantaged groups including young women.

**Hamed Alhamami**

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Representative to Lebanon and Syria

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The author would like to acknowledge the guidance and support provided by Borhene Chakroun and H  l  ne Guiol from UNESCO in Paris and Salim Shehadeh from UNESCO's regional office in Beirut. Their suggestions and comments throughout have been most helpful.

Also appreciated were the comments, suggestions and contributions of the delegates to the two-day workshop held in Beirut on 21 and 22 July 2018 within the framework of the EU-funded Youth Employment in the Mediterranean (YEM) project. Those delegates comprised some of the country-study report writers, government and business representatives from Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Oman and Palestine, and representatives from the International Labour Organization, ETF and UNESCO staff (see Appendices). The meeting was facilitated by H  l  ne Guiol (UNESCO Paris), Abdelaziz Jaouani (ETF), Stephen Billett (Griffith University, QLD, Australia), and chaired by Salim Shehadeh (UNESCO Beirut).

However, the author of the report (Professor Stephen Billett) is ultimately responsible for its content, organization, findings, conclusions and recommendations. This includes his use, interpretation and syntheses of the eight reports that were prepared by the country experts.

We would like to thank our funder. This study was developed under Youth Employment in the Mediterranean project (YEM), implemented by UNESCO in partnership with relevant national actors and funded by the European Union.

The Youth Employment in the Mediterranean (YEM) project is a three-year regional initiative launched by UNESCO and implemented in collaboration with eight Member States in the period of 2018 to 2020. The YEM project is funded by the European Union and aims to improve skills anticipation systems and to promote technical and vocational education and training (TVET). The end goal is to strengthen youth employment and encourage entrepreneurship in the Mediterranean region.

This report have been mainly produced aiming to inform policy makers, employers and practitioners in Arab Region, including private sector and civil society, about how to design and manage effective work-based learning targeting youth.

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## Abbreviations and Acronyms

<b>ALI</b>	Association of Lebanese Industrialists
<b>BTC</b>	British Training Council
<b>CCIA</b>	Chambers of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture
<b>CNFP</b>	Commission Nationale de la Formation Professionnelle
<b>COE</b>	Centre of Excellence
<b>CPFP</b>	Commissions Provinciales de la Formation Professionnelle
<b>DGVTE</b>	Directorate General of Vocational and Technical Education
<b>DS</b>	Dual System
<b>EFIA</b>	Egyptian Federation of Investors Associations
<b>ETF</b>	European Training Foundation
<b>EU</b>	European Union
<b>FCCI</b>	Federation of Chambers of Commerce and Industry
<b>FPCCIA</b>	Federation of Palestinian Chambers of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture
<b>FPMT</b>	Vocational Training in the Workplace Programme
<b>GDP</b>	Gross Domestic Product
<b>GIZ</b>	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit
<b>ILO</b>	International Labour Organization
<b>MEHE</b>	Ministry of Education and Higher Education
<b>MOE</b>	Ministry of Education
<b>MOL</b>	Ministry of Labour
<b>MOU</b>	memorandum/a of agreement
<b>MSMEs</b>	Micro, Small and Medium-sized Enterprises
<b>NCHRD</b>	National Center for Human Resource Development
<b>NEC</b>	National Employment and Training Company
<b>NET</b>	National Employment and Training
<b>NQF</b>	National Qualification Framework
<b>OJT</b>	on-the-Job Training
<b>RPL</b>	Recognition of Prior Learning
<b>SIS</b>	Specialized Industry Syndicates
<b>SNFP</b>	National Vocational Training Strategy (Morocco)
<b>TVET</b>	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
<b>UGTT</b>	Union Générale Tunisienne du Travail
<b>UIS</b>	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
<b>UNESCO</b>	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
<b>VET</b>	Vocational Education and Training
<b>VTC</b>	Vocational Training Centres
<b>VTC</b>	Vocational Training Council
<b>WBL</b>	Work-Based Learning

# Executive Summary

## Introduction

This report aims to inform policy-makers and practitioners in the Arab region and other countries and agencies supporting the development of technical and vocational education and training (TVET) about what steps might be taken by government, social partnerships, TVET training institutions, private and public sector workplaces, to organize, implement, manage and evaluate effective work-based learning (WBL) programmes targeting young people. The report is mainly informed by country reports from Algeria, Egypt (El-Ashmawi, 2017), Jordan (Rawashdeh, 2017), Lebanon (Ghneim, 2017), Palestine (Jweiles, 2017), Morocco (Sennou, 2017), Oman (Al-Mujaini, 2017), Tunisia (Chelbi, 2017) and Algeria (Bedou, 2018). Other reports and sources were also drawn on.

TVET is defined by UNESCO as ‘those aspects of the educational process involving, in addition to general education, the study of technologies and related sciences and the acquisition of practical skills, attitudes, understanding and knowledge relating to occupation in various sectors of economic life’. The specific objectives of the project informing this report are to provide current information and to compare issues and processes to make progress on WBL arrangements for young people addressing the following themes:

- the nature and extent of WBL
- policies, legislation and regulation
- the participation of employer and employee organizations
- level and type of qualifications/certification
- acquisition of transferable and foundation skills
- WBL in new sectors of the economy (green, digital etc.)
- WBL as a vector for access to TVET for disadvantaged groups and gender equality
- resources to support WBL programmes and to improve their quality
- funding for WBL
- evidence, data and research on the impact of WBL on employment, productivity, growth and sustainable development.

Most of these themes have been addressed through the country reports, but those associated with detailed learning outcomes (on transferable foundational skills and skills for new economies) are less well represented.

## Method

The method for this project is a document review, preparation of a draft report and its review by in-country experts, delegates and advisers from UNESCO, the European Training Foundation (ETF) and allied agencies. The sources of those documents are fourfold. First is a series of country study reports prepared by experts familiar with each country – the political, economic, social and cultural context – and who have detailed knowledge of the TVET system and access to a range of resources in these countries. These comprise five studies organized by UNESCO (on Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Oman and Palestine) and three by ETF (on Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia). Both sets of reports used common framing, although they varied in their actual presentation.

Second, a range of resources provided by UNESCO were reviewed, including a range of earlier studies and presentations, and in particular the ETF 2009 report on WBL arrangements in Mediterranean countries.

Third, the series of Torino Process reports prepared by ETF (2016a, 2016b, 2016c) provided additional material for the accounts of Egypt, Jordan, Palestine and Lebanon’s TVET systems.

Fourth, searches were undertaken and resources accessed informing about a range of demographic, economic and institutional information from sources such as the World Bank’s World Development Indicators and UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS).

As elaborated in Chapter 1, the synthesis of these documents aims to provide a set of general findings and guidelines about how to advance the provision of WBL experiences for young people in the Arab region. These findings are derived from the specific country studies, through a process of drawing out general findings, but acknowledging the diverse circumstances from which they are drawn, and different levels and kinds of applicability to each and every one of these countries. The recommendations and guidelines are aimed to inform action, but in ways acknowledging the different ways they are likely to be pertinent to and applicable in each country.

The potential is that that the findings and guidelines here might also inform what might and should occur across these countries, and what might be applicable to many others, particularly those with analogous levels and trajectories of development.

## Reporting of findings

The findings from the review of these documents identified a range of elements and factors shaping how workplace learning arrangements progress for young people, and those associated more broadly with the provision of TVET. These are presented in **Chapters 2 to 8**. These elements include changing demographic patterns, heightened levels of youth unemployment, significant social and economic upheavals and conflicts, and changing bases of national economies, as set out in **Chapter 2**. These factors include those assisting or inhibiting the provision of WBL arrangements, such as the engagement of employers, students and social partners. For instance, youth unemployment is increasing in each of these countries, in a population age cohort that is disproportionately large (see **Figure 2.6** and **Table A2**). Moreover, although the percentage of young people in the population of some of these countries is declining (see **Figure 2.1** and **Table A1**) issues associated with their employment and skills development appear to be growing. These young people, their skillfulness and contributions are central to the future social and economic prospects of these countries, however. This fact merely gives greater carriage to the demands upon and expectations of TVET provisions. There have also been social revolutions and structural changes to government (particularly in Egypt and Tunisia) that have disrupted and fractured governmental processes, and inflows of refugees in at least two countries (Jordan and Lebanon) have added to precarious economic and employment circumstances. So there are diverse circumstances and trajectories across these countries influencing how initiatives like WBL experiences can best progress (**Chapter 3**).

There are also elements that specifically influence the provision of TVET and the WBL experiences for young people in these countries. These include the characteristics, qualities and focuses of WBL arrangements in TVET systems (**Chapter 3**); legal and institutional governance and administrative frameworks (**Chapter 4**); the extent and quality of social partnerships (**Chapter 5**); funding arrangements: their extent and sharing of the cost burden (**Chapter 6**); evidence of the effectiveness of TVET provisions (**Chapter 7**); and recommendations about improving the provision of WBL experiences for young people (**Chapter 8**). Beyond these syntheses, the extensive set of appendices provides summaries of the country studies.

### Findings: progressing WBL arrangements

In overview, a range of factors were found to influence and shape the provision of WBL experiences, how they are organized, made accessible and to whom, and on what bases. These stand as top-level findings which are drawn from the country studies in particular. These factors are sixfold:

- the kinds and qualities of legal and institutional *governance* (government mandates, laws and regulations etc.)
- *social partnerships* (the engagement of employers, unions and professional bodies, locally, regionally and nationally)
- *kinds and scale of workplaces* (particularly the predominance of small-to-medium and micro-businesses as workplaces in these countries)
- *funding* arrangements (such as sharing of costs and access to reimbursements)
- the kind and nature of the *TVET provisions* (relevance of curriculum, quality of educators, links with industry, attractiveness of qualifications, alignment with enterprise needs)
- *societal sentiments* shaping how young people, their parents and employers come to value and participate in TVET.

Findings associated with these six factors are used to structure this Executive Summary, with each factor being addressed in turn. Individually, these factors influence the provisions and participation in WBL in TVET programmes in these countries, yet by degree they are interdependent. For instance, lower than desirable levels of economic activity can lead to restricted employment and WBL opportunities. These circumstances emphasize the importance of close alignment between provisions of TVET, work-based experiences and the needs of local workplaces. Similarly, the small and micro-businesses that dominate the economy of these countries will require particular kinds of localized support, from TVET institutions that are dependent on them to provide their students with work experiences. Also, unless young people want to engage in TVET and then the occupations for which they have been trained, these goals will not be achieved. Instead, large numbers of students are using TVET as a stepping stone to higher education, although in some cases (as in Egypt) this leads to lower levels of employment. Therefore, how young people and their parents view TVET, the occupations it serves, and WBL experiences are important. Also, the valuing of these experiences by employees will likely shape the degree by which they commit to them.

### Legal and institutional governance

Clear laws and administrative frameworks providing governance arrangements at national, regional and local levels are required to optimize WBL experiences and secure their benefits (as in Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia). These frameworks also demonstrate government leadership, and can provide mechanisms to engage social partners, workplaces, students and their parents. They also can establish working relations for vocational training institutions to engage with the community to provide an effective

TVET system that includes accessible and productive WBL arrangements locally.

Another important issue is the leadership in this governance. When national responsibilities reside within a ministry for schooling and/or higher education, there is a risk that the focus on TVET and work-based experiences will be downplayed or even ignored. It is noteworthy that those countries with well-developed TVET systems also have dedicated ministries (as in Algeria and Morocco). Algeria even has statements about apprenticeships represented in its Constitution. So national leadership can exercise a strong commitment to developing an effective TVET system incorporating WBL experiences, and establish arrangements to realize those commitments.

Effective governance will include an openness to and mechanism for engaging with a range of social partners, such as employer and employee representatives, at national, regional and local levels. This was consistently supported across all country studies. Where such social partnerships are absent or not functioning properly, a key role for government is to initiate and sustain them at these three levels. This is because decision-making about TVET and its enactment, particularly with the enterprise-based commitments required to support WBL arrangements, occurs at the local level (as in Palestine). A commonly referred-to model is the German bipartite chamber of commerce that represents both employers and employees, particularly at the local level (Deisinger and Hellwig, 2005). These kinds of organization can mediate among competing interests of employers and employees, of TVET training institutions and workplaces, and also represent a voice that can be independent of partite politics, and address localized concerns. These kinds of institutional arrangement are evident in countries with enduring and mature TVET systems (Billett, 2013).

Securing coordination across government departments with responsibilities for TVET, and its WBL elements, is recommended in a number of studies (Egypt, Palestine and Lebanon), because WBL arrangements require input and administration across a range of government jurisdictions/portfolios (typically education, labour and regional development). It seems likely that the most effective coordination occurs when a ministry with responsibilities for TVET is responsible for it (Algeria). So as well as there being dedicated ministries for TVET, they also need authority to coordinate activities to promote TVET and WBL experiences.

In all, from this analysis of the country studies and other sources, the kinds of legal and institutional framing required to support WBL arrangements comprise and extend to:

- a national qualification framework (NQF) which includes links from schooling and into higher education

- accreditation and quality assurance systems to ensure quality experiences for young people in TVET institutions and workplaces
- involving social partners, educators and workplaces in processes identifying what constitute the intents (aims, goals and objectives) for TVET programmes, and the kinds of content and experience needed to secure those intents, and their adaptation at the regional and local levels, while maintaining national coherence
- recognition of prior learning (RPL) processes to support those young people learning in 'traditional' apprenticeship models that sit outside of accredited TVET programmes, including the certification of what is learned
- professional development of teachers in TVET institutions, to maintain and develop further both their occupational and educational capacities
- nationally recognized train-the-trainer provisions for those who supervise students/apprentices in workplaces
- shared funding arrangements that distribute the cost of young people's WBL across government, community, workplaces and young people, with local means of decision-making and access to those funds
- provision of labour laws that make reference to pay and conditions associated with training, and rewards for enhanced skill acquisition.

### Strategic planning

Developing, implementing and sustaining these kinds of arrangements nationally, regionally and locally requires a significant and long-term operational plan, with clear sets of incremental goals (as is found in Algeria, Egypt, Morocco, Oman and Tunisia) extending out to a decade or more. Some requirements, such as the professional development of teachers, can be ongoing. Recruiting and retaining teachers with extensive industrial and workplace experience and developing their pedagogical skills, however, cannot be achieved in the short term. Hence, long-term planning and commitment to those plans is required. The same goes for building and refining effective administrative arrangements that are responsive to local and changing circumstances (as in Algeria). These activities require extensive consultation, engagement and development over time, such as overcoming the challenges to increase the percentage of young people engaged in dual-type entry-level training arrangements, which is an ambition for a number of these countries (Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Morocco, Oman, Palestine and Tunisia). That plan needs to include finding ways to moderate and coordinate donor countries' contributions in ways that achieve the kinds of goal that these countries want and need (as in Egypt and Palestine).



**Research/evaluation studies**

Effective governance needs to be supported by evidence from research and evaluations that informs policy initiatives, and advises about the practical means to achieve policy goals. The country studies make evident the importance of having data to inform these processes, and the consequences of an absence of such data (as in Lebanon and Palestine). Some of the most detailed contributions to the country studies and this report come from specific studies that have gathered information and make informed recommendations on how to proceed in addressing particular problems (ILO, 2015).

The lack of detailed information restricted some of the analysis in this report. For instance, most of the eight countries featured in this report have traditional or informal apprenticeships. However, as this mode of preparation for occupations sits outside of TVET systems, information about them is restricted and incomplete, if it exists at all in many of these countries. Consequently, information about a central and long-standing form of occupational preparation is absent. Not all of this research and evaluation can and will be accepted by governments, social partners, workplaces and TVET training institutions. Nevertheless, the availability of such information, recommendations associated with it and proposed actions form an integral basis of an informed and mature TVET system.

**Social partners**

To be effective, WBL programmes for young people require engaging with social partners nationally, regionally and locally (as is done in Algeria, Jordan, Morocco, Palestine and Tunisia). Nationally, this engagement is directed towards advising about and informing TVET programmes and requirements for their effective conduct (see above). Regionally, it can address sector-wide or specific institutional arrangements, such as interaction between TVET training institutions and workplaces, and being inclusive of young females as well as males (as in Algeria, Jordan, Morocco and Tunisia), particularly those disadvantaged by geographic remoteness. Locally, engaging with local enterprises (often small and micro-businesses) that provide the WBL experiences for young people will be essential for access and quality of experiences. Regular and systematic reviews of how enterprises can come to engage effectively with, support and mutually benefit from their participation in these programmes are something that can be given carriage by social partners, such as chambers of commerce.

The country studies suggest that local engagements between TVET institutions and workplaces need improvement to understand all parties' needs and encourage their participation in supporting WBL for

young people (Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco and Tunisia). These engagements extend to how those enterprises can be best supported through cost-sharing easing their access to incentives or support; and identifying how best their workforce development requirements can be articulated locally and aggregated nationally and regionally. All of this does not necessarily imply burdensome administrative infrastructure. Engaging local businesses or their representatives in the governance of financial support and also the structure of courses and teachers' competence may lead to TVET provisions that are responsive to, and can balance, their needs as they assist young people to develop their occupational skills. One approach adopted by mature vocational education systems is for broad programme aims and goals and course content to be established nationally, and then objectives and selection of content to be negotiated locally (Billett, 2013). However, this requires professional skills and institutional capacity to undertake this role locally.

So, beyond engaging with workplaces, these partnerships can develop further the kinds of programme being offered, the educational focus of those programmes, relevance of their content, and applicability to the enterprises that host students and potentially become employers of TVET graduates. In the country studies, the central purposes of TVET with WBL experiences are associated with four key social and economic issues. These are addressing youth unemployment, meeting the skill profile needs of enterprises, addressing national economic development, and overcoming social inequity through effective educational provisions (see **Chapter 3**). It is doubtful whether these purposes will be achieved without effective social partnerships. An indicator of the maturity of TVET systems is the extent and quality of such social partnerships at national, regional and local levels, so they can more effectively contribute to the provision of WBL experiences for young people (see **Chapter 8**).

**Strengthening the engagement and role of social partners**

The finding suggests that strengthening engagement of social partners is based on the kinds of role they are allocated and their skills to undertake those roles effectively; and the means by which these partnerships are formed and sustained.

**Roles and capacities of social partners**

Institutionalizing employer engagement can be assisted through enhanced information-sharing by government, including information about the labour market and the implementation and outcomes of apprenticeship systems, and building the capacities of social partnerships, as recommended by the country studies. That capacity-building can include and arise from greater



engagement in the planning for, enactment of and evaluation of WBL schemes, such as apprenticeships and alternance programmes. It is suggested that employer associations might be actively involved in the piloting of initiatives and the accreditation and certification of programmes, as is done through German chambers of commerce (Deissinger, 1997; Deissinger and Hellwig, 2005). These roles need extending to the governance of training institutions at a local/regional level to realize alignments between TVET offerings and requirements of local enterprises. Such arrangements are likely to encompass both public and private sector workplaces.

A key role for social partnerships at all three levels is assisting with overcoming a shared problem of low retention in TVET programmes and in occupations after graduation, as reported in the country studies. The concerns are that efforts directed towards preparing young people for specific occupations will be squandered unless sustainable retention levels are achieved during their courses and in those occupations after their completion. If the current level of attrition continues, it will undermine the efforts not only of the TVET programmes but also of enterprises' commitment to them, and national social and economic goals.

#### ***Forming and sustaining social partnerships***

Securing partnership arrangements arises from shared commitment and engagement, and has demonstrable benefits for all parties including young people (Billett et al., 2007). Sustaining social partnerships is likely to be associated with meeting specific needs, at national, regional or local levels. National partnerships can be formed around particular occupational groupings or industry sectors, which is already the case in a range of these countries. These partners can advise about national curricula, mandatory content, and the mix of educational experiences required for the occupations or industries they represent. Having central agencies to engage social partners is important. Egypt, for instance, has the National Center for Human Resource Development (NCHRD), which is coordinating the implementation of the dual system. Morocco has the Commission Nationale de la Formation Professionnelle (CNFP), which has a national role in TVET. Oman has a body that coordinates training effort nationally. Tunisia has a national body that involves the key union body (Union Générale Tunisienne du Travail, UGTT) and employers, as does Algeria. At the regional level, these industry sector or occupational-based partners all have specific purposes, such as local development or addressing entrenched unemployment in rural areas. Locally, they can work to build and sustain partnerships among TVET institutions and workplaces, assist with fund disbursement and improve the quality of the experiences for young people (for instance in

Algeria, Lebanon, Morocco, Oman and Palestine).

It is noteworthy that in countries with distinct regions (such as Algeria and Morocco) there are regional arrangements. The actual shape and form of social partnerships is likely influenced by specific imperatives that attract partners and sustain their participation. Not the least for a consideration of WBL experiences for young people is engaging with and meeting the needs of local workplaces, the majority of which are likely to be small or micro businesses. An element of sustaining these partnerships will be how resources are distributed within and across these partnerships, their composition, and also how their contributions are recognized and implemented.

The evidence suggests that these social partnerships are most likely to be enduring when clear imperatives exist to participate, and there are accepted and acknowledged roles by government, and when the partnerships can demonstrably achieve goals that warrant continuing participation (Billett et al., 2007).

#### **Kinds and scale of workplaces**

A particular feature of the enterprises in these countries is that they are predominantly small and micro businesses. Moreover, these kinds of enterprise appear to be growing, as industry as an element of gross domestic product (GDP) is declining in these countries. These kinds of workplace are not those that predominantly feature in WBL models in some European countries such as Germany, with their in-house training ability and Meisters system. Instead, these kinds of workplace are more likely to be those that favour the traditional model of apprenticeship, as it meets their needs and capacities.

There are a range of considerations arising from the predominance of these kinds of business. First, as foreshadowed, is the fit between structured models of WBL and the capacities of these workplaces to provide the extent and quality of the required learning experiences. That is, they do not have in-house trainers and other necessary facilities. Models such as group apprenticeship schemes are likely to be required to avoid the administrative burden on these small business and provide a wider range of experiences for apprentices. Second, these kinds of business may not have the capacity to engage with TVET training institutions in the way that larger enterprises might. As a consequence, it will be necessary for the institutions to reach out, engage with and support these enterprises to realize the provision of WBL experiences for their students. Consequently, they may need a buddy system or similar model of localized support. Third, the range and extent of experiences that might be accessible within these workplaces may not fulfil the requirements of the courses in which students are participating. So consideration needs to be given to how

these small workplaces might best be engaged. This includes consideration of rotations by students across different workplaces to access a broader repertoire of occupational experiences, and a central educational concern to actively integrate and augment the experiences that students have in these workplaces with the requirements of the programmes in which they are enrolled.

As a consequence, there are specific challenges associated with the kinds and scale of the workplaces in these countries that are intended as the sites for providing students with WBL experiences. As such this stands as an important category of consideration in its own right, and one that needs to be addressed when considering TVET provisions.

### Funding mechanisms and disbursements

Central to implementing the legislative, yet distributed administrative, frameworks for TVET and WBL provisions and engaging social partners is the prospect of shared funding mechanisms. That refers to sharing the financial burden of these provisions. These include supporting WBL arrangements such as alternance programmes and apprenticeships. This kind of action necessitates allocating budgets to public TVET providers based on performance and impact in terms of processes (the kind of experiences that are provided) and outcomes (measures of skill development and employability). Perhaps the most effective outcomes will arise from arrangements that grant more financial and management autonomy for schools and centres, with local monitoring and inspecting arrangements.

To achieve effective engagements with local enterprises and strong outcomes for students and apprentices requires responsive TVET provision. In particular, those providing courses premised on WBL experiences need to respond and adapt at the local level, and modify arrangements when necessary, albeit within a consistent national framework. The local arrangements include the development of workplace capacity to provide effective learning experiences for students and apprentices, and local selection processes for workplaces supporting these learners. The source of funding for these kinds of arrangement could well derive from cost-sharing, including a national training fund (like the Algerian training levy) which could comprise either direct funding or enterprises being able to defer making taxation contributions on the basis of their commitment to and engagement in supporting TVET provisions, including WBL experiences. So institutional frameworks that include financial and non-financial incentives for employers are required to support WBL.

Central here will be the demonstrable sharing of costs. Mechanisms that share the costs, directly or indirectly, across state, young person and employer seem to offer the best

possibility for comprehensive and sustained engagement, particularly by enterprises. This will include easy to access arrangements for disbursement or reimbursement by enterprises. However, associated with such disbursements is the need for these funds to be accounted for, and assessment of the quality of the training being provided. It is probably easier and justifiable to have an inspectoral system monitoring the quality of learning experiences when workplaces are being reimbursed or supported for their contributions to young people's skill development.

### TVET provisions

The country studies offer a range of findings about how the current TVET provisions can more effectively support WBL experiences for young people. These findings point to sets of factors that can be advanced to achieve these goals. These are more or less specific to country contexts. However, they also offer a range of recommendations that apply far more broadly. These findings are categorized under the following set of headings:

- improving structural arrangements and mechanisms
- further professionalizing the TVET workforce
- supporting in-house/enterprise capacities
- enhancing traditional apprenticeship systems
- workplace-based approaches to supporting learning
- extending engagement beyond training institutions
- strategies to promote inclusion
- research-based advice and evaluation (see **Table 8.4**).

These topics are now addressed in turn.

### Improving structural arrangements and mechanisms

A range of suggestions were made about improving the structures of TVET provisions (programmes) and mechanisms for their enactment (how they might be delivered). The issue of attractiveness to young people and workplaces is important, particularly for WBL. Some reports refer to the importance of articulation between TVET programmes and those at higher levels of education, such as 'hard' technical courses and university education. Providing pathways from TVET and offering mechanisms for continual advancement for young people so they are not restricted in their educational aspirations is important also for addressing views that TVET is too job-specific and 'dead-end'. It is evident across the country studies that TVET is often used as a platform for young people to advance to higher levels and forms of education. It seems that this will be the case, given the examples from Egypt (El-Ashmawi, 2017) and Algeria (Bedou, 2018). Hence, providing articulation and pathways sets up the circumstances in which TVET programmes can be seen as offering a basis for further development while having their own specific outcomes.

Retaining those students may well be a product of their being able to realize employment ambitions. WBL experience may contribute to this goal. Some findings, for instance, indicate a need for higher levels of TVET programmes that will permit apprentices to advance to higher levels of technical qualifications, to avoid the need to enrol in universities to secure high levels of qualification.

A suggestion made in one country study (Egypt) is to rotate apprentices across different workplaces. The aim here is to provide apprentices with a diverse set of WBL experiences, thereby developing broader insights that may enhance the adaptability of what they have learned (and their ability to respond to different kinds of challenge and problem). In some ways, this is enhancing the existing alternance approach. It is also likely to be one that is helpful in economies dominated by small and micro businesses. That is, more than alternating between the training institution and the workplace, the learner moves between a range of workplaces to develop further insights. Such arrangements are quite common elsewhere (as in Australian group apprenticeship schemes) when apprentices are not employed directly by employers, but by an apprenticeship organization rotates them across a range of employers, which might have particular requirements and preferred processes. As for other initiatives, there are strengths and limitations here. Essentially, a key consideration is the degree to which coherence and comprehensiveness of experiences is provided through such structural arrangements. Securing that coherence will be a key role to be played by TVET training institutions and those who teach in them.

### **Further professionalizing the TVET workforce**

Most reports emphasize the need to further professionalize the TVET workforce. In particular, the combination of technical currency and educational abilities is often seen to be in need of further development. So part of the consideration of what makes an effective TVET sector in these countries is associated with a twofold goal of enhancing the teaching quality of the TVET workforce, but also making teachers more aware of, familiar with, and competent to engage with local workplaces. This is inevitably a long-term process with staged goals. These can include assisting existing teachers to acquire greater or more current understandings of contemporary work practices and occupational requirements; enhancing the professional preparation of new teachers, including extending their pedagogical skills; and developing the educational capacities of both existing and new teachers to participate in curriculum development activities and engagements at the local level. In-service-type models of initial teacher education and ongoing professional development are likely to be favoured here. These may well need to be offered through a university to do justice to the skills being developed, but also acknowledge the level and recognize the demands of that work.

### **Supporting in-house/enterprise capacities**

The expectation that young people's learning experiences in TVET programmes will include workplaces is growing, with one recommendation that WBL should comprise no less than 50 per cent of students' time. Yet as noted, many small and micro workplaces in these countries lack the capacity to provide effective learning experiences. It was suggested that there should be standardized training and qualifications for those providing learning support in workplaces (such as tutors and mentors), and this should include important roles in the development of occupational skills, meeting the needs of host enterprises but also the developmental needs of the learners. The concern is that without such arrangements, the learning experiences, outcomes and contributions could be piecemeal and ad hoc.

However, it needs to be acknowledged that these kinds of approach and model may not always be appropriate to the small and micro businesses that dominate the economies in these countries. Consequently, intermediary organizations, such as national professional bodies or industry sector partners, might take the lead in the development of in-house/enterprise capacities. In this way, these organizations could address governmental concerns about engaging industry sectors and also manage the TVET implementation at the local level. More than enhancing the competence of in-house or in-company trainers, and their recognition, such a step also acknowledges that assisting people to learn is important, and it should be made an attractive specialization for people in the workforce. That is, it is important to enhance the status of those undertaking the responsibilities of assisting WBL.

### **Enhancing 'traditional' apprenticeship systems**

The most common form of initial occupational preparation in many of these countries is through 'traditional' or 'informal' apprenticeships. These apprenticeships sit outside of TVET arrangements, and there is limited information about their scope, quality and the outcomes for young people. Evidently they offer a widely accepted mode of occupational preparation whose longevity indicates their efficacy. Moreover, this model of occupational preparation is probably well aligned to the capacities of the small and micro businesses that dominate these countries' economies. It has been suggested by a number of agencies (including the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the World Development Bank) and informants that this form of occupational preparation needs to be embraced by and engaged with the TVET system. Suggestions here include having off-the-job components as part of these programmes to realize personal development, adherence to occupational standards and a route to qualifications. In other words, the needs of the learners should be balanced with

the exigencies of these workplaces. External occupational assessments or examinations are suggested as a way of recognizing and certifying the skills developed through this apprenticeship model. There is also the prospect of financial support and incentives that might encourage workplaces to embrace the requirements for labour conditions, effective occupational preparation and opportunities for these apprentices to engage in off-the-job experiences, and to enjoy the benefits of recognition and certification of their skills.

Engaging more fully with the traditional apprenticeship model is an important consideration. In contrast to many schemes offered by governments and external donors, this system of apprenticeship appears to be both effective and popular (by degree) in its own terms and on its own premises. Hence, seeking to adopt or enhance this approach, without weakening, destroying or disrupting its positive attributes, might lead to positive outcomes in terms of young people's participation and skill development. It would be mistaken simply to try to apply the standard TVET structures and formats to a model of learning support that has developed outside of them and has been quite effective without such structures.

### **Workplace-based approaches to supporting learning**

A number of findings emphasize work-based approaches to supporting learning. As young people will be spending more time engaged in WBL experiences, consideration of how these experiences can be enriched and supported is required. There exist various approaches to support and enhance learning in workplaces, and these might be more broadly engaged. A range of models of workplace curricula are associated with particular workplace practices and requirements (Billett, 2016), and particular pedagogic practices are suited to workplace practices. Importantly, these approaches are founded not on what occurs and is successful in educational institutions, and through direct teaching, but what is viable and helpful in workplaces. It is also suggested that the WBL experiences that are part of TVET be considered more broadly across higher technical and university programmes as a means by which employability and relevance issues may be addressed.

### **Extending engagement beyond training institutions**

Some findings referred to extending the engagement of vocational training institutions to the workplaces and local communities. This engagement can comprise informing the local community about the programmes being offered through these institutions. Also, with TVET provisions are extending beyond the physical environment of vocational

training institutions, there needs to be greater engagement between those teaching the students in the institutions and those responsible for promoting learning in workplaces. Hence, there are suggestions about enhanced interaction at the local level, which is seen as being mutually beneficial. Workplaces will come to learn more about TVET programmes and what these institutions can provide, and also teachers in training institutions can come to understand more about the particular requirements of workplaces. This should assist them in remaining up to date in their understanding of contemporary occupational and workplace practices.

### **Strategies to promote inclusion**

A more inclusive provision of TVET programmes is required that can accommodate those who are disadvantaged, and in particular young women, but also the disabled and refugees. The programmes should extend their reach to regional and rural areas. There is evidence of success here. In Morocco, there has been a significant increase in female apprentice numbers because programmes have been developed for occupations in which young women can participate (Sennou, 2017). Beyond the broader goals of young women's engage in TVET, the provision of programmes for occupations in which female employees are dominant is an important consideration here. The situation for young people in regional, rural and remote communities needs to be addressed because of high levels of youth unemployment, and limited opportunities for WBL. Strategies associated with enhancing the mobility of these young people, young women, those who are disabled and also refugees are important so that they can enjoy similar learning opportunities to other young people. This broader access could be helpful to overcome structural inequalities and ongoing entrenched unemployment in young people in remote communities, and those who are disabled and displaced.

### **Research-based advice and evaluation**

There is a need for greater research, data-gathering, monitoring, evaluation and professional advice to inform decision-making within TVET. Informed decision-making is required given the complexity of the TVET systems that incorporate experiences in workplaces, address entrenched youth unemployment, seek to meet local needs, attempt to ameliorate social exclusion based on gender or locality, try to enhance the status and standing of TVET and the occupations it serves, and seek to engage and sustain social partners. All of these goals are important for assisting efforts directed by national governments and local agencies. International sponsors are also concerned to achieve effective outcomes. Those studies can also assist TVET systems by raising awareness of processes, outcomes and initiatives in other countries, understanding the contextual

bases of these initiatives, and translating them in an effective way to the local context. If policy borrowing and copying happens without an understanding of the context in which policies and practices are enacted, the outcomes can be meagre and translation quite ineffective.

## Enhancing the provision of TVET

In sum, the country studies identified issues associated with effective provision of TVET and WBL experiences for young people. A range of findings and recommendations are advanced that, while specific to those countries, have a broader resonance. These relate to the provision of educational experiences, the structuring and organization of those experiences, how they are implemented, and the means by which their organization is informed and effectively evaluated. As such, they are associated with:

- improving structural arrangements and mechanisms for TVET
- further professionalizing the TVET workforce through initial preparation and ongoing development
- supporting in-house/company capacities, which are so important in the provision of WBL experiences
- enhancing traditional apprenticeship systems that exist in these countries, in ways that are sympathetic to what is effective in their current mode of operation
- enhancing and utilizing workplace-based approaches to support learning in these work settings
- finding ways of extending the engagement between staff working in training institutions and those in workplaces and the communities they serve
- identifying and enacting strategies to promote greater inclusion by young women and also those in rural and regional communities
- the provision of informed advice through research and evaluation.

This set of factors can be seen as what constitutes mature TVET systems: that is, systems that engage widely, are informed by a range of sources, and are open to partnerships and supporting the needs and aspirations of young people, their communities and the private and public sector enterprises with which they engage.

## Societal views (sentiments)

In nearly every country study, a strong societal disaffection for TVET and the occupations it serves was identified. This extended to educational provisions that include WBL elements. The sentiment is that TVET and the occupations it serves are seen as low levels of education, unworthy forms of work, and demeaning ways of learning. This is stated quite explicitly (see Chapter 1), suggesting that TVET and the occupations it serves are low status and undesirable for young people and their parents. This is far from specific

to these countries alone, and is a global phenomenon that appears to be growing. It nevertheless comprises a major impediment to engagement with and participation in TVET and WBL arrangements in countries in the Arab region.

With one significant exception (for traditional apprenticeships), absent here is the kind of valuing of skills and skilful work that is central to engagement with TVET in Germany, Switzerland and Austria, for instance. That engagement comprises young people willingly taking lower levels of pay in apprenticeship programmes to learn skills that are valued and well-remunerated in their communities. Parents are willing to support their children through these programmes as they know they will get effective training. Enterprises support the development of skilful workers because apprentices receive lower levels of pay, and there is a need for these workers, and a societal obligation associated with skilful work. Here the burden of these arrangements is shared across the apprentices, their parents, the workplace and government.

As a consequence, in countries where TVET is in low regard, initiatives need to be implemented and advice provided to parents and young people about TVET and the occupations it serves. If young people and parents see TVET only as a pathway to higher education and more prestigious occupations, the nexus between the contributions from TVET to enterprises and national economies will falter. Moreover, such attrition will lead to disengagement by enterprises and questioning of national and local investment in such programmes. Also, more broadly, the evidence suggests that the answers to youth unemployment will not be found simply in ever-higher levels of education and greater competition for scarce instances of 'worthwhile' work. In addition, this societal sentiment also may undermine the very economic development required to provide stable, worthwhile and well-remunerated employment.

As a consequence, some recommendations about how this issue can be best redressed were provided in the country studies (**Table 8.5**). These recommendations can be categorized in terms of communication, engagement, and enhancing the status and standing of TVET and WBL.

## Communication

It is recommended through these studies that information about TVET programmes becomes more available and widely distributed, and also that WBL experiences are promoted as being worthwhile and helpful for securing effective skills and employment. This information needs to be communicated broadly across communities to engage students, parents, jobseekers, employers, and also intermediary organizations such as those representing the interests of employers and employees. It also needs to offer guidance on an informed



basis about occupations, what they comprise and their applicability. It is suggested that there should be structured experiences during compulsory education to assist young people to make effective decisions about their post-school pathways, and to see TVET programmes as being viable options and the occupations they lead to as worthwhile. This broad information strategy has a number of purposes, including:

- raising awareness about TVET, its programmes, and provisions of WBL experiences (given that informants in some countries indicated little knowledge of this system)
- providing more nuanced accounts to enterprises about the different kinds of training and outcomes that can, in different ways, meet their needs
- reaching out to populations that are marginalized or not included in such provisions, including small businesses
- reinforcing how skill development has been important in the past and will be in the future (with possible reference to traditional apprenticeships).

## Recommendations

The recommendations provided here arising from the synthesis and analysis of the reports and associated documents are of a general kind, rather than country-specific. The aim is to inform about how young people's WBL experiences can be best promoted and made accessible so that lessons can be learned from, and applied across, these countries. The ten recommendations below are drawn from the country studies presented here, other data, and instances of best practice drawn from other sources, such as Business Europe (2018), ILO (2015) and Asian Development Bank (2018).

1. **Enact legal and institutional frameworks.** It is necessary to establish, implement, develop further, and sustain legal and institutional frameworks under which TVET, including that associated with partners and specifically with WBL arrangements, can effectively be implemented and progressed. This includes mandating the duration of these experiences, roles and responsibilities of various actors, and shared funding mechanisms to support WBL.
2. **Enact localized frameworks and enablers.** Either in the absence of, or to further augment these national legal and institutional frameworks supporting WBL experiences for young people, it will be necessary to act regionally and locally to secure participation by both enterprises and young people, and provide effective TVET. These can include sharing of costs, kinds and duration of workplace experiences, and how they can be supported.
3. **Enhance the standing and status of TVET and the occupations it serves.** Action is required by government, training institutions, and social partners and communities to enhance the status and standing of TVET and the occupations it serves. This includes promoting the view that learning experiences in workplaces are legitimate, worthwhile, and an essential element of post-school education for specific occupations.
4. **Develop the capacity of workplaces to provide effective learning experiences.** Given the key role of WBL experiences and the unpreparedness of many workplaces to provide and support these experiences effectively, it is necessary to develop capacities in workplaces, including identifying and providing support for learning that is appropriate for work settings, and giving recognition to those who undertake this support task.
5. **Recognize, embrace and enhance the traditional model of apprenticeship.** The central role played by informal (that is, traditional) apprenticeship arrangements needs to be acknowledged, and this model of occupational preparation embraced within the TVET system and enhanced. This needs to occur in ways that do justice to this model of learning and respect the fact it is different from what occurs in TVET programmes and other models of apprenticeship. They should support its progression, and also offer enhancements and recognition to young people participating in these arrangements.
6. **Align TVET provisions with employment opportunities.** A key imperative is to more closely align TVET provisions and employment opportunities, through implementing employment-enhancing initiatives in TVET programmes and securing a balance between young people's needs and those of the workplaces that might employ them. This includes further developing the skills of the TVET workforce in terms of pedagogy, occupational currency, and ability to design and implement local initiatives.
7. **Build and sustain social partnerships at national, regional and local levels.** Social partnerships, including representatives of employers and employees at national, regional and local levels, are essential to securing alignments between models of WBL, local enterprise needs for skill development, and strategies to promote engagement in TVET, including sharing the costs of WBL experiences across government, enterprises and individuals who benefit from them.
8. **Promote localized engagement between TVET institutions and workplaces.** There is a need to promote and locally organize stronger links between TVET institutions and nearby industry sectors and enterprises,

including small and micro businesses, so that shared understandings can arise and mutual benefits can be realized in terms of young people's skill development and employability.

9. **Implement strategies to improve TVET workforce capacity.** There is a need to plan and implement both shorter-term and long-term strategies to develop the industry and occupational expertise, and pedagogic skills, of TVET teachers, including their familiarity with workplace practices and associations with social partners to generate locally appropriate, but effective and viable, TVET provisions.

10. **Support and engage with informed accounts from research and evaluation.** Decision-making about TVET policies and practices at the national, regional and local level and how it might proceed is likely to require informed accounts based upon research and evaluation, including critical appraisals of initiatives being conducted in other countries and societal contexts which are likely to be applicable to the particular country, region or locality.

These recommendations are also presented in **Table 0.1** in terms of their scope and specific strategies, which is the basis for some guidelines that are elaborated in **Table 0.2**.

**Table 0.1 Recommendations: scope and specific strategies**

Focus	Scope	Strategies
Legal and institutional frameworks	Establishing, enacting, developing further, and sustaining legal and institutional frameworks under which TVET, including those associated with partners and WBL arrangements, can effectively be implemented and progressed.	<p><b>Legal frameworks:</b> addressing qualifications, certification, advice by industry/professional bodies; conditions of employment; work-related activities; remuneration/expenses for students/apprentices; duration of indenture; incentives for employers and support provided by local training organizations.</p> <p><b>Institutional frameworks:</b> arrangements for consultation, development and maintenance of social partnerships, locally and nationally; protocols for engagement between training institutions and workplaces; arrangements for developing workplace capacity to support learning.</p>
Localized arrangements	To enact national legal and institutional frameworks supporting WBL for young people, or in their absence, promote and organize local arrangements can assist participation by enterprises and young people and provide effective TVET.	<p>Development and maintenance of arrangements at the local level including social partnerships, extending to those between employers and training institutions; engagements and negotiations between the two mediated by industry/occupational groups; reciprocal support between training organizations and workplaces to develop effective staff; ability to respond at the local level to enterprise and learner needs; tailoring of national institutional arrangements to meet local needs.</p> <p>Moreover, opportunities for developing further the skills of TVET teachers and workplace supervisors and mentors are likely to be realized through such interactions.</p>
The image of TVET and the occupations it serves	Government, training institutions and social partners need to act to enhance the image of TVET and the occupations it serves, including by promoting WBL experiences as legitimate, worthwhile and essential elements of preparation for work and occupations.	Engaging in action at the national and local level to communicate about TVET, its qualities and outcomes, and promote the worth of the occupations it serves through schemes directed at employers, young people and their parents; activities at the local level through partnerships between training institutions and enterprises to enhance the worth of specific TVET programmes and their relationship to occupations and employment; securing articulation arrangements between these programmes and higher technical and higher education programmes.
Workplaces provide effective learning experiences	The preparedness of workplaces to provide and support effective WBL learning experiences is a necessary quality for effective preparation for working and specific occupations, and the recognition of that learning.	Organizing and implementing shared cost distribution to assist sustainable development of capacities in workplaces to support young people's learning, including consideration of the organization and ordering of workplace experiences and developing staff skills to support learning. This includes preparing and implementing national programmes for developing mentors, supervisors and co-workers' skills to assist the development of skills through the use of workplace pedagogic practices, and engaging learners in effective processes of learning that require effort and agency on their part.



Engaging the traditional model of apprenticeship	The central role played by traditional apprenticeship needs to be acknowledged, embraced as a model within the TVET system, enhanced in ways that respects and builds on its effective qualities, and provides recognition for young people who complete apprenticeships.	Identifying how to understand and effectively augment the traditional model of apprenticeship, its processes of instruction and learning, and enterprise commitment to it as a model of learning without disrupting or destroying these qualities. In addition, identifying the purpose for and how any off-job learning experiences might best be organized, and also how the recognition of learning in and through this form of apprenticeship can be certified. In addition, means by which this model can be extended to other occupations, including higher technical skills, can be explored. Beyond establishing frameworks to provide this support, it needs to be implemented at the local level, and in ways that are sensitive to this existing model and the abilities of those in training institutes to provide support to workplaces, this model of learning, and the apprentices.
Aligning TVET provisions with employment opportunities	TVET provisions and employment opportunities need to be closely aligned by initiatives that secure a balance amongst young people's aspirations and workplace needs and occupational requirements.	To promote young people's employment might require a review of TVET programmes and courses to identify their alignment with potential employment opportunities, in terms of the needs of industry sectors and occupational fields. In addition review curriculum models, course objectives and content, as well as approaches to teaching and supporting learning, to more readily align the outcomes of these courses to graduates' employability. This initiative includes informing and advising young people about potential employment opportunities and the prospects of different educational pathways leading to employment.
National and local social partnerships	National and local social partnerships, including employers and employees representatives, are essential for alignment between models of WBL, local enterprise needs for skill development, and strategies promoting the image of and participation in TVET.	A national strategy associated with building social partnerships that support TVET and WBL experiences is needed. It should be supported by key industry and professional bodies, yet implemented at the local level in ways that enhance students' learning and provide productive outcomes for workplaces. At both a national and local level, the quality of partnerships will be based upon reciprocity, and the partnerships will be most readily sustained if they generate positive outcomes for all parties. That is, there needs to be evidence that workplaces support and provide rich learning experiences for young people, and that there are tangible benefits to enterprises from that engagement, including the selection of new employees and their contributions to sustaining the viability of the enterprise.
Long-term strategies to improve TVET	Developing industry and occupational expertise, and the skills of TVET teachers, including their familiarity with workplace practices and engagements with social partners, to generate mature TVET systems requires long-term planning.	The kind and extent of arrangements, actions and outcomes being proposed here can only be achieved in the longer term, and through careful planning and implementation of effective strategies to develop capacities within training institutions, social partners and workplaces, and also within communities. This includes promoting the standing and status of TVET and the occupations it serves, and engagement with young people to position them as active and focused learners.
Informed by research and evaluations	Effective decision-making about TVET policies and practices, nationally and locally, requires informed accounts based upon research and evaluations that are applicable to the particular country, region or locality.	A systematic approach to research and evaluation around key topics such as those represented here is likely to be helpful for informed decision-making at a national and local level, by training institutions, social partners and workplaces. In particular, the kinds and models of workplace curricula, processes for supporting learning in the workplace, and also for promoting engagement by young people will only come from a growing body of evidence founded upon evaluation and research. The capacity to undertake research and evaluation needs to be generated and supported so that it becomes an integral element of the TVET provision, an extension of teachers' roles and skills, and one of the actions undertaken by social partners and government agencies.

Much attention has been paid to the structural arrangements associated with TVET: that is, the kinds of outcome to be achieved, the content to be taught, the models of experience (apprenticeship, alternance, wholly work-based and so on). These have been the focus of a range of initiatives advanced both internally and also externally by sponsoring countries and global agencies. However, alongside these and perhaps superordinate to them is the degree to which they attract the interest of young people, their parents and employers. If young people are not interested in participating in TVET programmes, efforts to increase participation, outcomes, and the benefits of TVET will remain compromised. This can be achieved by enhancing their standing and status, and elevating the profile of the occupations that they serve. In addition, parents reflect and sustain the societal sentiments associated with TVET, the occupations it serves, and WBL provisions. If they remain unconvinced about its worth and status, this will continue to work against securing broader participation, and valuing of this kind of education and the occupational skills that it generates. The same goes for employers. Unless they are able to see the value and contributions of these provisions, they are unlikely to invest their effort and commitment beyond any short-term initiatives or external incentives (such as subsidies). Hence, there is a need to go beyond a consideration of structures, models and administration arrangements, to address the interests and needs of those who engage with TVET in these countries (and elsewhere).

All of this emphasizes that there are a range of actors whose interests and actions overlap and need to be taken into account in considering how to promote WBL experiences for the young people in these and other countries. In many

ways, what is proposed here is captured in consideration of the curriculum being something that is intended, implemented, and most importantly experienced.

As a consequence, it is important to consider not only the decision-making and decision-makers within the structures of the TVET system (on the intended curriculum) and advanced by government departments and social partners at a national level, but also those who are involved in its implementation. That is, the curriculum as implemented might not reflect the intended one. This includes training institutions and workplaces, and also those who make decisions about how they participate in the experienced curriculum – students, their parents and employers. As a consequence, it is worth trying to propose how this decision-making plays out across these stakeholders. **Table 2** outlines the kinds of role these actors play, and how they might come to support the provision of WBL. These actors comprise governments, government departments, social partners, training institutions, teachers, workplaces, the community, parents and young people.

WBL experiences, actors, roles and actions: some guidelines **Table 2** lists actors, the roles they play, and the actions they need to take to promote greater engagement in TVET and WBL experiences by young people. This set of roles and actions is drawn from the sources for this report, and is intended as the premise for considering policy and practice initiatives to promote greater participation in WBL experiences in the Arab region and other countries. While this list might be seen as idealistic, and possibly fanciful, it sets out a set of imperatives that could be used as benchmarks for the roles and actions of these different actors.



**Table 0.2 WBL experiences: actors, roles and actions**

Actor	Roles	Actions
National government	Organize legislation and institutional frameworks that support the provision of WBL experiences at the national and local levels, adequately fund training organizations and social partners, provide frameworks for responsive TVET provisions, and encourage greater participation in TVET and workplace learning arrangements.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pass, implement, monitor, refine and sustain effective legal and institutional frameworks.</li> <li>• Provide adequate and shared funding arrangements for training institutions, and support for workplaces and young people.</li> <li>• Organize and implement effective TVET provision, including the quality of content, equipment and teaching, and the ongoing evaluation and improvement of that provision.</li> <li>• Initiate, build and sustain effective social partnerships at the national and local levels, and engage partners in organizing and evaluating TVET provision.</li> <li>• Take steps to inform the community, businesses, parents and young people about the benefits of TVET and the occupation it serves.</li> </ul>
Government departments	Work collaboratively and interdependently to realize positive outcomes across areas such as schooling, post-school education, industry development and employment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Establish and implement collaborative practices across departments that influence the provision of TVET, including WBL experiences.</li> <li>• Realize those practices at both the national and local level.</li> </ul>
Social partners	Work collaboratively at national and local levels to realize collective outcomes, which include sector-specific imperatives and needs, but also address broader social goals such as young people's skill development, unemployment, enterprise and economic development.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Engage in processes that demonstrate a collective commitment to the purpose for which the social partnerships have been established, including being willing to engage effectively with other partners, while being respectful of their needs, contributions and imperatives.</li> <li>• Be willing to make concessions and even sacrifice some individual interests in the interests of broader outcomes and collective good.</li> </ul>
Training institutions	Provide experiences for young people from which they will develop work-life capacities including specific occupational skills, provide and integrate those experiences in work settings, and engage with industry and employers in the design and implementation of programmes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Engage in processes that provide purposeful, planned and effective learning experiences for young people, including those in workplaces.</li> <li>• Provide, monitor and refine or augment experiences to achieve outcomes of occupational competence and workplace employability.</li> <li>• Demonstrate the capacity to respond to the local student and workplace needs through adapting the national curricula to meet those needs.</li> </ul>
Teachers	Be occupationally competent and workplace-oriented as a basis for effective teaching, which will arise from engagement in workplaces outside of educational institutions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Be open and responsive to developing further skills associated with occupational competence and workplace familiarity.</li> <li>• Adopt and effectively enact a broad range of curriculum roles and instructional skills to meet the need of national prescription and local requirements.</li> <li>• Work collaboratively with local enterprises.</li> </ul>
Workplaces	Provide experiences for young people that deliver quality learning outcomes for them and benefits for the organization.	Be open and responsive to developing the capacity of the workplace to provide effective learning experiences for young people, and also the ongoing development of its workforce, through engaging with local training institutions and social partners.
Community/parents	Inform young people about post-school options and the potential of TVET as a viable form of occupational preparation.	Be open and informed about the advice given to young people about post-school options, the potential of TVET and the occupations it serves.
Young people	Be informed about post-school pathways and engagement in post-school education and WBL.	Be active and critical in making informed decisions about post-school pathways, the prospects of TVET, and the occupations it serves.



## Terminology

The terminology adopted for this report emphasizes both educational provisions and learning processes.

*Educational provisions* are experiences that are provided intentionally to achieve particular kinds of educational outcome. These provisions are implemented through educational institutions (for instance, in TVET courses) or workplaces (for example, informal apprenticeships) or a combination of both (as with alternance and dual apprenticeships). They comprise the activities and interactions that are made available to achieve particular kinds of outcome (including development of skills, work readiness, awareness of the world of work, and selection of an occupation) (Billett, 2011).

*Informal or traditional apprenticeships* comprise the most common form of initial work-based occupational preparation, and indeed may be the most common form of training for young people. They are defined as ‘a system where a young learner (the apprentice) acquires the skills for a specific trade in micro or small businesses, learning and working side by side with an experienced craftsman, based on informal training agreement embedded in local norms and traditions’ (ILO, 2015, p. 1).

*Dual apprenticeships* are arrangements in which the young person is usually an employee of the host company, and throughout their indenture, which is largely workplace-based, has access to and engages in experiences in educational settings that extend their learning in the workplace. These apprenticeships are usually based on a contract between the company and the employee, and often a governmental intermediary (Deissinger and Hellwig, 2005; Fuller and Unwin, 2003). Contracts can indicate conditions on employment, levels of remuneration, and roles and expectations of both apprentice and workplace. This approach is commonly adopted in many countries with advanced industrial economies (such as Germany, Switzerland, Austria, the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand).

*Alternance programmes* are programmes that provide the student with experiences in workplaces as well as in TVET institutions, with the student alternating between the two settings across the duration of the programme (Veillard, 2015). The young person is usually positioned as a student, although in some instances they are remunerated and/or subsidized during their periods of time in workplaces. These programmes have their origins in French approaches, but increasingly this model is being adopted in countries that have an educationally based, rather than workplace-based, model of entry-level occupational preparation (such as France and Sweden).

*Learning experiences* are the experiences afforded by educational institutions, workplaces, homes and so on, in which we engage and from which we learn. Quite different kinds of experience are accessed in educational settings and workplaces (Resnick, 1987; Wegener, 2014), which is why people learn different kinds of knowledge in these settings. This is because the particular activities and interactions are shaped by the physical and social environments, the kinds of goal-directed activity in which participants engage, and how those experiences are supported. Differences in this learning are often used to understand why learning occurring in educational institutions does not always readily transfer to other settings and circumstances (such as workplaces) (Royer et al., 2005). This is because particular activities and interactions are generative of specific kinds of learning. These may or may not be readily adaptable to the activities and interactions occurring in different physical and social environments (Scribner, 1985). Sometimes educational institutions attempt to replicate workplace activities and interactions through authentic experiences or project work (Zitter et al., 2017). To a degree, these kinds of activity and interaction might help students to adopt what has been learned in and through educational programmes to situations outside of them (such as workplaces). So these are referred to as educational provisions: the experiences (activities and interactions) afforded by educational institutions or workplaces.

*Learning* is something that individuals realize in response to what they experience. That experience, in the community, educational settings or the workplace, is premised upon what they know, can do, and value (in other words, their conceptual, procedural and dispositional knowledge). Important concepts here are learners’ readiness, their ability to engage with subsequent experiences, such as those in a different environment from that in which they initially learned, and their interest in doing so. It is helpful here to distinguish between efforts directed at occupations, which hold a societal connotation (some are considered more worthy than others) and at vocations (what individuals take to be important to their sense of self and occupational identity) (Billett, 2016). While there has been great attention to the development of occupations, ultimately the degree to which individuals come to accept the occupation for which they are preparing as their vocation is likely to influence how they come to engage and learn, sustain their occupational skills, and direct interest towards doing so.

*Youth employability* is a key focus of much of this report. This refers to young people becoming attractive to employers, and able to effectively practise their occupation, secure ongoing employment, advance their career, and sustain the viability of their workplace (Australia, 2002). TVET has the ability to assist young people in achieving employability, but it needs to do so in a way that makes young people want to engage

with their occupations and workplaces. So the goals for TVET programmes involve more than just providing occupational technical knowledge and skills. They also involve alignment between the learning that arises through these programmes and what is needed to make young people employable. Much of the basis for young people's engagement in this learning, its application in workplaces, and direction towards sustained employability, is premised on their interest in and commitment to an occupation. Hence, beyond meeting occupational requirements and workplace needs, the educational task of TVET is to assist individuals to find their vocation in and through their selected occupation. WBL is used here in a way that encompasses both work-based learning and work-based education. Therefore it is important to have both of these terms defined.

*Work-based learning* refers to individuals learning through work and all workplace-based experiences. That is, individuals come to construct knowledge from what they experience in workplaces and while engaged in work-related activities. That learning is likely to be premised upon what the individuals already know, can do and value, as well as the kinds of experience they access in the workplace. For instance, an individual engaging in lots of activities that are new to them is likely to acquire new knowledge (concepts, procedures and values). However, an individual engaging in the same activity all of the time will be able to reinforce, refine and hone what they know, to a greater extent than

when only engaging in new activities. Work-based learning is therefore person-dependent. What for one individual will be a new activity from which they learn, for another individual might be a routine activity through which they can refine and reinforce what they already know.

*Work-based education* refers to the provision of experiences in the workplace, and also those work-like activities that are provided in TVET institutions. Whereas learning is a personal process, specific to a learner, education refers to the provision of experiences by the trainer or teacher. This is usually intended to achieve particular kinds of learning outcome. Just as experiences in schools and TVET institutions are organized and structured to support learning, activities in the workplace are often organized to assist participation in work activities, yet themselves can also have an educational function. Workplace education extends to not only the experiences that are directly provided, but also the support that is given by mentors, more experienced workers and other workers in the workplace. That is, these are part of what is afforded or provided by the workplace.

It is important to distinguish between work-based education and work-based learning, because one concerns the provision of experiences, and the other the learning from those experiences. One is provided by human society, and the other is largely mediated by individuals themselves.

# CHAPTER 1

## Introduction

# Introduction

## Focus and Methodology

Across educational sectors (schooling, TVET and higher education) there is a growing interest in using workplaces as learning environments for students in a wide range of programmes, albeit for diverse educational purposes (Cooper et al., 2010). Workplaces are seen as social and physical environments in which young people can variously:

- learn about working life
- engage with and make informed choices about their preferred occupations
- access learning experiences that cannot be provided in education institutions
- apply and extend what they have learned in educational programmes
- develop the skills to be 'job-ready' on completing their course or graduation
- secure skills that are relevant and applicable to the workplace in which they are employed
- learn how to continue to develop their skills across lengthening working lives (Billett, 2015).

Each of these educational purposes requires particular forms of engagement with workplace experiences, and assistance in maximizing and realizing the benefits of such experiences. For instance, an orientation to working life, or a specific occupation, can be realized through short-term workplace experiences and observation. These experiences can be helpful in assisting young people to come to understand and decide whether they are suited to the particular occupations being practised in those workplaces, and to which of those occupations they might aspire.

However, developing the skills to practise those occupations will require different and particular kinds of experience, and of greater duration, than those required for an orientation to working life, a workplace or occupation. For young people, including those from the countries referred to in this report, there are emphases on workplaces providing experiences that can assist them to achieve the twin goals of identifying the occupation to which they aspire and are suited, and developing the kinds of skills that will permit them to secure employment in their preferred occupation and enter working life (Dewey, 1916). That is, this involves developing the occupational skills (what they know, can do, and value) to assist in making them employable, either in a specific field of work or through understanding more fully the world of work beyond schooling. It is noteworthy that both of these educational goals are likely to require students' experiences in and learning through workplaces.

## Work-based learning (WBL) provisions

In UNESCO's policy definitions, WBL incorporates all forms of learning that occur in real, authentic work environments. It is held that these experiences provide individuals (here, young people) with the skills needed to successfully secure and retain jobs, and progress with their occupational development through their working life.

Apprenticeships, whether of the 'traditional' kind or those organized through educational institutions, internships/traineeships and on-the-job training (OJT) are the most commonly referred-to work-based models of education in these countries and elsewhere (ETF, 2012). However, the purposes of, drivers for, and processes of these programmes and WBL vary in their forms across the countries that are the focus of this report (see **Chapter 3**). These provisions often, but not always, combine elements of learning experiences in workplaces with those in educational institutions (such as being taught in a classroom). However, across programmes identified in the country studies, there is often a particular emphasis on experiences in one of the two settings (either the TVET training institution or a workplace), and there are even some programmes that largely only have experiences in one of these settings (see **Table 3.2**).

For instance, it is estimated that in the most populous of these countries, Egypt, approximately 1 million young people are engaged in 'traditional' or 'informal' apprenticeships, which occur in workplaces, without any access to or participation in experiences in educational institutions, and without receiving formal certification of what they have learned (El-Ashmawi, 2017).

Broadly, WBL is held to be an educational provision which gives students and apprentices real-life work experiences through which they can develop and apply knowledge and occupational skills, and develop employable skills (ELGPN, 2014). Globally, WBL is now increasingly being seen as an integral element of many schooling, TVET and higher education programmes (ETF, 2012; ELGPN, 2014). Engaging in these experiences is often seen as a hallmark of successful entry-level educational programmes such as apprenticeships, traineeships, cadetships, internships and clinical placements (Billett, 2009). Focusing on how workplace and classroom experiences can be combined for students, it follows that the various models of apprenticeship have become particularly attractive to policy-makers. Among these models, the German dual system holds a particular



prominence for, and attraction to, practitioners and policy-makers (Deissinger and Hellwig, 2005). This model is often seen as an exemplar that other countries are encouraged to emulate:

*The combination of work and learning, of the classroom and the workplace, has been an attractive, if not seductive, idea for policy makers concerned with employment, education, technical and vocational education and training (TVET) and youth transitions. Four main sets of arguments have been advanced for promoting policies that support the combination of work and learning for young people. These are that it can: 1) improve pathways to adulthood; 2) deliver economic and labour market benefits; 3) improve pedagogy and reduce costs; and 4) increase capacity within the TVET system. (UNESCO, 2017)*

However, there is rarely an easy fit between the elements of the German dual system, and what occurs and is available in other countries. WBL is also attracting increased attention in the global debate about aligning education and training with the needs of the labour market. This includes addressing issues associated with unacceptably high levels of youth unemployment (ELGPN, 2014). The key criticism in many country studies reported here is a misalignment between what is taught and learned in TVET programmes, and the requirements of the local labour market and needs of specific employers. So analyses of such programmes raise specific issues for government policy, as they require specific and long-term forms of cooperation between employers and TVET institutions (in other words, social partnerships), between the public and private sectors (institutional partnerships), and alignments and coordination between education, the labour market, economic and social policies.

Although it is acknowledged that WBL has limitations (Billett, 1995; ETF, 2012), there is recognition that it is valued, albeit in distinct ways, and differently across countries and jurisdictions (Deissinger, 2002; Frommberger and Reinisch, 2002; Heikkinen, 2002). UNESCO, through its Strategy and Recommendation for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET), has been promoting WBL. Beyond TVET, WBL is of interest to the broad education community in the context of Education 2030.

### **WBL: Arab region context**

There are also some ambiguities for countries in the Arab region. For instance, as noted there are long-standing and traditional ways of wholly work-based methods for young people to learn their occupations ('traditional' or informal apprenticeships), particularly in areas that might be described as craft-oriented. These provisions of WBL are enacted through family businesses or farms, or through

young people being apprenticed to skilled practitioners who are most likely in small businesses and are often sole traders (in other words, microbusinesses). Yet despite their long-standing nature and proven efficacy, these forms of apprenticeship are often seen as being of low standing (Ghniem, 2017; Rawashdeh, 2017), as are the occupations they serve. As such, they are perceived to be less attractive than higher technical or university education. There is also seemingly a reluctance by young people and their parents to embrace work experiences in nation states aspiring to be seen as modern and advanced.

In countries such as Germany, Switzerland and Australia, workplace experiences are increasingly being seen as worthwhile and essential components of initial occupational preparation. In these countries, WBL experiences are offered through both vocational and higher education institutions, regardless of whether the occupations being prepared for are referred to as trades or professions. Yet in the Arab region countries such workplace experiences are not necessarily welcomed. Indeed there is a strong disaffection, societal stigma or taint associated with learning through workplace experiences in countries such as Egypt, Palestine, Jordan, Lebanon and Morocco. Instead, experiences in educational institutions are far more privileged and valued, perhaps because of their institutional gravitas, legitimization, the certification they offer, and the promise of clean and well-paid work for graduates. As is the case elsewhere, there are strong societal sentiments stigmatizing occupations that require work-based training (Billett, 2014). Where this has been investigated, this appears to be because these occupations are seen as being menial, manual and dirty, which makes them unattractive to young people and their parents (Cho and Apple, 1998), a finding that is echoed in the country studies here (El-Ashmawi, 2017).

There is a range of broader consequences arising from such sentiments. These include reduced levels of government interest, societal commitment, engagement by social partners, easy assumptions about what needs to be learned that may deny the complexity and demands of knowledge required for particular occupations, and the belief that such experiences are perhaps best reserved for those young people who cannot secure access to prestigious educational courses. This sentiment seems to be present in the majority of the countries covered by this study. That low standing persists despite the evidence from countries such as Egypt (El-Ashmawi, 2017), Palestine (Jweiles, 2017), Lebanon (Ghneim, 2017) and Jordan (Rawashdeh, 2017) that the prospects for employment arising from TVET programmes including work-based experiences are potentially much stronger than those from higher education.

It seems that societal sentiments associating higher levels of educational achievement with employment in better jobs are fuelling the demand for ever higher credentials for young people. They are also frustrating. These sentiments might undermine efforts to reduce unemployment through TVET and WBL, such as in the more work-based dual apprenticeships schemes trialled in Egypt (El-Ashmawi, 2017) and the more educational-based model of alternance programmes in Tunisia (Chelbi, 2017) and Morocco (Sennou, 2017). The simple point here is that considerations of particular models of TVET and elements of WBL are insufficient. Instead, the broader context and societal sentiments associated with the implementation of these programmes need to be considered, because they will be central to their success.

## Method

The method adopted for this project was essentially a desk audit: that is, a review of a range of documents and from these, preparation of a draft report. This is in contrast to the 2009 European Training Foundation (ETF) study, which included a series of location visits and face-to-face engagements. The documents derived from four sources. First, a series of studies was prepared by experts who are familiar with the specific country – the political, economic, social and cultural context – and who have particular knowledge of TVET and access to a range of resources in that country.

These comprise five studies organized by UNESCO (for Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Oman and Palestine) and three by the European Training Foundation (ETF) (for Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia). Both sets of reports use common framing, although they vary in presentation. Second, a range of resources provided by UNESCO was reviewed, including earlier studies and presentations, and in particular the ETF 2009 report on WBL arrangements in Mediterranean countries. Third, the series of Torino process reports (ETF 2016a, 2016b, 2016c) was accessed, as these provide in the main quite current accounts of activities associated with TVET in Egypt, Jordan, Palestine and Lebanon. Fourth, searches were undertaken and resources accessed to obtain a range of demographic, economic and institutional information, from sources such as the World Bank's World Development Indicators and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS). The draft report was then subject to review and advice from UNESCO staff, and then the views, perspectives and specific contributions of the country representatives from Algeria, Egypt, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, Oman, Palestine and Tunisia who attended a two-day workshop in Beirut (on 21 and 22 June 2018) were taken into account in revisions. Representatives from the ETF, the International Labour Organization (ILO) and Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ, the German development agency) also attended and contributed to this process.

## Overview: comparative and longitudinal study

The analysis of the documents aimed to identify both comparative and longitudinal processes and outcomes. The desk review looked for areas of commonality and difference in the goals for, approaches to and outcomes of promoting WBL arrangements for young people in these countries, with the aim of making recommendations of a general kind. The longitudinal focus was on progress between the previous study in 2009 (ETF, 2009) and the more recent country studies. This analysis was largely based on demographic, economic and employment data, but also drew on the country studies. Importantly, since the 2009 study significant events in this region have affected the governance, demographics, economic activities and life prospects for all people in these countries. Young people and their educational provisions are no exception.

Egypt has undergone two significant social revolutions which have reshaped and interrupted many of its institutions, their functions and political structures. Some of the ramifications directly affected education provisions and social partnerships (El-Ashmawi, 2017). Tunisia has similarly experienced a significant social revolution and change in economic circumstances owing to acts of terrorism (Chelbi, 2017). Lebanon has continued to experience unrest associated with political instability and sectarian factions, and has been inundated with refugees from nearby Syria and subject to declining economic activity (Ghneim, 2017).

Palestine continues to remain compromised by a state of near-conflict and the constraints of a powerful neighbour (Jweiles, 2017). Jordan has been influenced to a lesser degree by nearby civil conflicts and the influx of refugees (Rawashdeh, 2017). Morocco, while enjoying the strongest economic growth in this region, still reports high levels of unemployment, particularly for young people (Sennou, 2017). Oman (Al-Mujaini, 2017), Jordan (Rawashdeh, 2017) and Morocco (Sennou, 2017) are the only countries that have largely enjoyed continuity of government and institutional stability through this period. Yet they too are facing economic challenges, brought about by the declining value of hydrocarbons and changes in economic circumstances. In summary, TVET provision is affected by external factors, such as worsening economic circumstances, including the decline in the value of oil and its related products in some of these countries (particularly Oman and Tunisia), as well as internal factors such as significant changes to or uncertainty with government, governance and partnerships. Societal sentiments also help to shape it. Despite the efforts of governments and global agencies to support TVET provision, these factors have affected the success of these efforts.

Moreover, there is a risk that initiatives such as WBL, aimed at enhancing the quality and outcomes of TVET programmes, might be viewed by young people and their parents mainly in terms of their ability to provide pathways to higher education, not whether they will develop employable occupational skills or meet the needs of local employers and the available employment. Despite their strong alignment with specific occupations, and in countries with high levels of general unemployment and critical levels of youth unemployment, these educational provisions may not be seen as valued or as a worthwhile option by young people and their parents. Beyond efforts to improve teaching, the quality of teachers and what is taught, coordinated governance and social partners' engagement, therefore, there is a real need to address factors associated with societal views about the occupations that TVET serves and the role of workplace experiences in educational provisions.

While there are common factors, such as these, it is likely that the provision of WBL experiences for young people in each Arab region country needs to be considered, implemented and evaluated in country-specific ways. This is because of their particular histories, economic bases, institutions and educational systems, as well as the specific social and economic issues they face. Some of these countries have established apprenticeship schemes as models of education arising from colonial traditions (Morocco, Tunisia). Others have systems that have been more recently established, often with outside assistance (as in Egypt) and are supported by workplace, educational and governmental institutions. Also, when evaluating what is currently occurring within these countries and proposing how best they might progress, it is important to consider variations of or alternatives to what works in countries such as Germany and Switzerland. As was stated in the workshop, the solutions need to be relevant to Maghreb, not Mashrek. This is because while these systems are well aligned with those countries' institutions, societal sentiment and needs, for reasons such as those mentioned above other systems or approaches might be more viable and have a better fit with other countries' institutions, practices and needs.

Nevertheless, in all instances considerations of how to provide effective WBL experiences, including their relations to activities in educational institutions, are now a national priority. In particular, how these provisions can best support young people's skill development is a paramount concern, given the high levels of youth unemployment and the focus on post-school education as a means of securing both personal employment and economic development.

So it would not be helpful to report just on the development of TVET in these countries since 2009, or in particular on the role that WBL arrangements play. Instead it is necessary to revisit and understand the particular national contexts, to examine

how TVET is currently provided, and how arrangements for the governance of these systems have changed or are changing. We need too to consider the engagement of social partners in supporting WBL, and also to attempt to identify evidence that permits some judgements about what is working and what needs to be done to improve the prospects for WBL provisions in these countries.

## Analytical framework

Six key elements appear to be shaping the contemporary national contexts of these countries in ways that have implications for WBL arrangements for young people. These are political stability and coherence; economic uncertainty; high levels of unemployment, particularly for young people; nascent TVET systems struggling to respond to challenges of workplace demand and youth unemployment, especially in the case of young females; absent or underdeveloped social partnerships of the kind required to promote and support WBL arrangements; and societal sentiments that position TVET (particularly when it involves WBL) and the occupations it serves as being low-status and undesirable options.

### Governance: political stability and fusion

There is some correspondence between countries that have developed a mature and responsive TVET system that has, over time, embraced WBL experiences, and political and institutional stability (both are found in Morocco, Oman and Tunisia). A number of countries in this region have experienced or are experiencing significant political instability and fragmentation of government, and this has restricted progress with policies such as WBL. These include Egypt, Lebanon, Tunisia and Palestine. It is reported that these circumstances make it difficult to coordinate action across government departments and engage with social partners, in order to implement policies and direct public policy and public funding towards targeted priorities, such as youth unemployment and TVET. This fragmentation of effort across government departments, agencies and other stakeholder groups can make it difficult to coordinate initiatives seeking to bring about changes in institutional practice. It can also duplicate or cause divergence of efforts, and complicate the process of engaging with stakeholders to promote WBL opportunities.

As a consequence, national initiatives may be unsuccessful, even when supported by well-directed sponsorship from aid or external development programmes. Consequently, initiatives supporting the enhancement of WBL experiences may need mechanisms and processes that are not wholly dependent upon national mandates, including empowering action at the local or regional level (for example in Jordan and Tunisia), as are being trialled in Palestine (Turin Research Programme [TRP], 2016). In Jordan, for instance,

apprenticeships are administered through local TVET institutions (Rawashdeh, 2017). These kinds of practice may need to occur more broadly, especially if there is a lack of stable central governance. However, even then they require particular insights and skills on the part of teachers, and a level of engagement with local enterprises, that are different from those required when TVET programmes are offered just through training institutions.

### Economic bases and certainty

Many of these eight countries have economies largely based on micro, small and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs), and much of the economic activity is in the informal sector. This is inherently dynamic and difficult to regulate or mandate. For instance, in Jordan, small businesses constitute 99 per cent of the nation's enterprises and employ 71 per cent of the workforce (Rawashdeh, 2017). In Algeria, it is claimed that 50 per cent of the market, with 95 per cent of its companies being small or micro-businesses (Bedou, 2018). In other regions MSMEs are often least likely to participate in programmes of structured entry-level training, such as apprenticeship and alternance approaches. They may, however, engage in traditional or informal apprenticeships which sit outside of TVET systems.

It is noteworthy that industry as a percentage of GDP declined in five of the eight countries from 2006 to 2016, with small increases only in Lebanon, Morocco and Palestine (see **Figure 2.4**). This is an important indicator as traditionally, WBL arrangements such as apprenticeships and traineeships have mostly been sponsored by larger enterprises. There are also high levels of economic uncertainty in Palestine, Tunisia, Egypt and Lebanon, where the bases for building economic activity, pursuing economic expansion and maximizing national productivity are imperilled by recent changes including social revolutions, armed conflict, ongoing rivalries and tensions, and shifting economic emphases. For instance, over the same period the GDP of Algeria and Morocco remained unchanged; it declined for Lebanon, Oman and Tunisia, and grew slightly for Egypt, Jordan and Palestine (**Figure 2.4**). These factors have significant impacts on employment (see **Figures 2.5** and **2.6**).

For TVET and WBL, factors such as these make it difficult to come to decisions about where the emphasis on TVET programmes should be directed; the kinds of occupations that should be emphasized in these programmes; the ability for these programmes to lead to stable employment; and opportunities for both learning and working as part of and an outcome of TVET programmes. The implications for WBL provisions are profound. There are also opportunities and possibilities here, as economies restructure and new occupations and employment opportunities arise which could require support from WBL provision.

### Unemployment levels, particularly for young people

Across all of these countries there are unacceptably high levels of unemployment among young people (see Table 1), often far higher than the international norm. In particular, young women, who in a number of these countries also represent a significant percentage of the overall population, struggle to secure employment even where the GDP is increasing (as it is in Egypt). Indeed, between 2006 and 2017 the level of youth unemployment rose in Egypt, Jordan, Morocco, Palestine and Tunisia. Only in Algeria, Lebanon and Oman did the numbers decrease (Figure 2.6). Young people stand to be increasingly structurally disadvantaged through not being able to secure employment and pursue their preferred kinds of work. In addition, tight labour markets do not usually offer sponsored opportunities for WBL programmes such as apprenticeships and traineeships.

High levels of youth unemployment stand as a key societal, governmental and individual concern. WBL can be used to promote individual employability, but more broadly it has the potential to contribute to improved economic circumstances that create employment more generally. However, in tight labour markets it is likely that significant government intervention will be required to induce organizations to participate. If learning through paid employment is not an option, other means of acquiring initial occupational skills through participating in workplaces may need to be considered. It is noteworthy that over the same period an increased percentage of young people have enrolled in post-school education (**Figure 2.7**). Yet beyond individual investment in post-school education, specific interventions such as state-supported internships, apprenticeships and cadetships are likely to be necessary. These currently only exist in small numbers, if at all. There is also much gender segmentation of the workforce, with particular occupations being undertaken largely by males or females, which can lead to gender disparities in employment levels. These social and economic issues need to be addressed at national, regional and local levels, and through mature relations between training institutions and local enterprises, so that courses reflect local needs.

### Nascent TVET systems

It seems that the TVET systems in some, and perhaps most, of these countries, even those that are long established, are struggling to respond to challenges of workplace demand and youth unemployment, and particularly to provide adequately for young women. The causes include under-resourcing, teaching staff who lack appropriate skills and work experience, misalignments between the courses on offer and the needs of employers, and the reluctance of many young people to engage in TVET other than as



a second choice or last resort. These factors represent a significant challenge for TVET systems. With the need to add WBL experiences into these programmes, other complications arise (ETF, 2012). These include the quality of relationships between education institutions and the workplaces involved. Then there is the challenge of securing a balance between addressing the educational needs of young people and the needs of employers. In the short term, though trainees do need to learn, they can also be productive. In the longer term, the programmes need to lead to employment in those or other workplaces. In some instances (including Egypt) there is considerable diversity in and fragmentation of TVET provision that includes WBL. This derives partly from external sponsors' initiatives which reflect TVET systems in their own countries (Germany promotes the dual system, for instance; the United Kingdom favours modern apprenticeships).

All these issues suggest a need to develop models of TVET that match country-specific and local needs, and can build the kinds of institutional partnership that are essential for realizing the dual requirements of trainees and employers. This might need to extend to legitimizing and recognizing informal apprenticeships (important in for example Jordan, Palestine and Egypt) (ILO, 2015). There is also a need to consider models of preparing for occupations that are embedded in practice but also involve formal education. Yet to be successful, such provision must overcome the societal aversion to this kind of training. Curiously, while the percentage of young people participating in post-school education has increased across Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Morocco and Tunisia, the proportion of young people in their overall population has seemingly declined. This would indicate that a growing portion of young people (aged between 15 to 24 years) are seeking access to effective post-school education provisions.

### Social partnerships

Social partners and partnerships are central to organizing and implementing quality WBL. The kinds of organization and agency (such as chambers of commerce) that support and realize these experiences in other countries and systems are already present to some extent in the countries considered here. In Egypt (El-Ashmawi, 2017), Jordan (Rawashdeh, 2017), Morocco (Sennou, 2017), Palestine (Jweiles, 2017), and Oman (Al-Mujaini, 2017) there are said to be ongoing efforts to build these social partnerships. Identifying partners that will sponsor WBL, and making links with them, is a key measure of an ability to provide effective WBL arrangements. If such partnerships do not exist, lack maturity, are not well developed or do not operate effectively, it is likely to impede the ability to provide effective WBL (Billett et al., 2007; Billett and Seddon, 2004). In these circumstances the work experience might be token and piecemeal, rather than

driven by the dual purposes of education and supporting the continuity of the workplace, such as in the schemes shaped by German chambers of commerce and the varied kinds of industry training arrangement that feature in Scandinavia, New Zealand and Australia.

In countries with fragmented and unstable national governments, such partnerships might need to be formed and developed at the local level (as occurs in Tunisia), albeit within national framing, such as in Palestine. Note too that there is evidence across a number of countries (such as Morocco, Tunisia and Lebanon) of distinct differences between the needs of urban and rural communities in terms of skill requirements and profiles of the unemployed. Centralized government and agencies may not be best placed to respond to the localized needs that result.

### Societal sentiments about TVET and the occupations it serves

*... there is a vicious cycle of negative image, low quality and low self-esteem related to TVET, its students and even its teachers in the Egyptian society and culture. This phenomena, is well documented and acknowledged however very little is being done to create awareness to change this. (El-Ashmawi, 2017, p. 5)*

*Social perspective towards vocational training in general is negative which led to minimal participation in VET in Jordan. (Rawashdeh, 2017, p. 14)*

*... TVET in Lebanon is socially looked as low image, and the choice of those who have no choice. (Ghneim, 2017, p. 16)*

*In general, it is socially looked at the TVET sector as low image, and the choice of those who have no choice: it remains a second option for youngsters.... The image of the apprenticeship training and WBL schemes is looked at in a lower social view – Palestine. (Jweiles, 2017, p. 6)*

Societal sentiments positioning TVET and the occupations it serves as being of low status and worth, as illustrated above, present significant challenges in developing an effective TVET system, especially one that embraces workplace experiences. These sentiments often influence the distribution of resources and opportunities, and shape young people's interest in and expectations about the kinds of occupation in which to engage, that are of interest to them, and that they will seek to prepare for.

Although these sentiments are powerful, they are not necessarily aligned with employment opportunities and outcomes (for instance, in Egypt, Palestine, Lebanon and Jordan). The employment level of TVET graduates tends to

be higher than for university graduates, particular for young women (in Algeria, Egypt, Tunisia and Lebanon). Although in some countries (such as Algeria and Egypt) there is an inverse relationship between the level of education and prospects for employment, there is still a strong societal preference for individuals to continue into higher education.

This sentiment directly affects even the most prestigious of work-based TVET programmes. For instance, in Egypt over 50 per cent of young people who successfully complete the dual apprenticeship system then go into higher education (El-Ashmawi, 2017). This implies that these young people who have entered a highly selective system, and benefited from significant public investment and support, do not actually take up the occupations for which their apprenticeships prepared them. As a result, they are not contributing the kind of skilled work that is central to developing advanced manufacturing – something that is required by most economies (Wolf, 2016).

Despite interest by global agencies and direct investment by sponsors, and even though there are relatively good prospects of securing employment, TVET is reported as being of low status and an undesirable educational pathway in Egypt (El-Ashmawi, 2017), Palestine (Jweiles, 2017), Jordan (Rawashdeh, 2017) and Lebanon. It is chosen only by those who are viewed as incapable of progressing to higher education and entering more highly regarded occupations (Ghneim, 2017). Unfortunately, this sentiment appears to play out most heavily in programmes with a strong focus on WBL. This may be because occupations for which the training has traditionally been wholly work-based (like many crafts) are viewed as unattractive by young people and their parents. This attitude also infects the perception of other programmes that include WBL components.

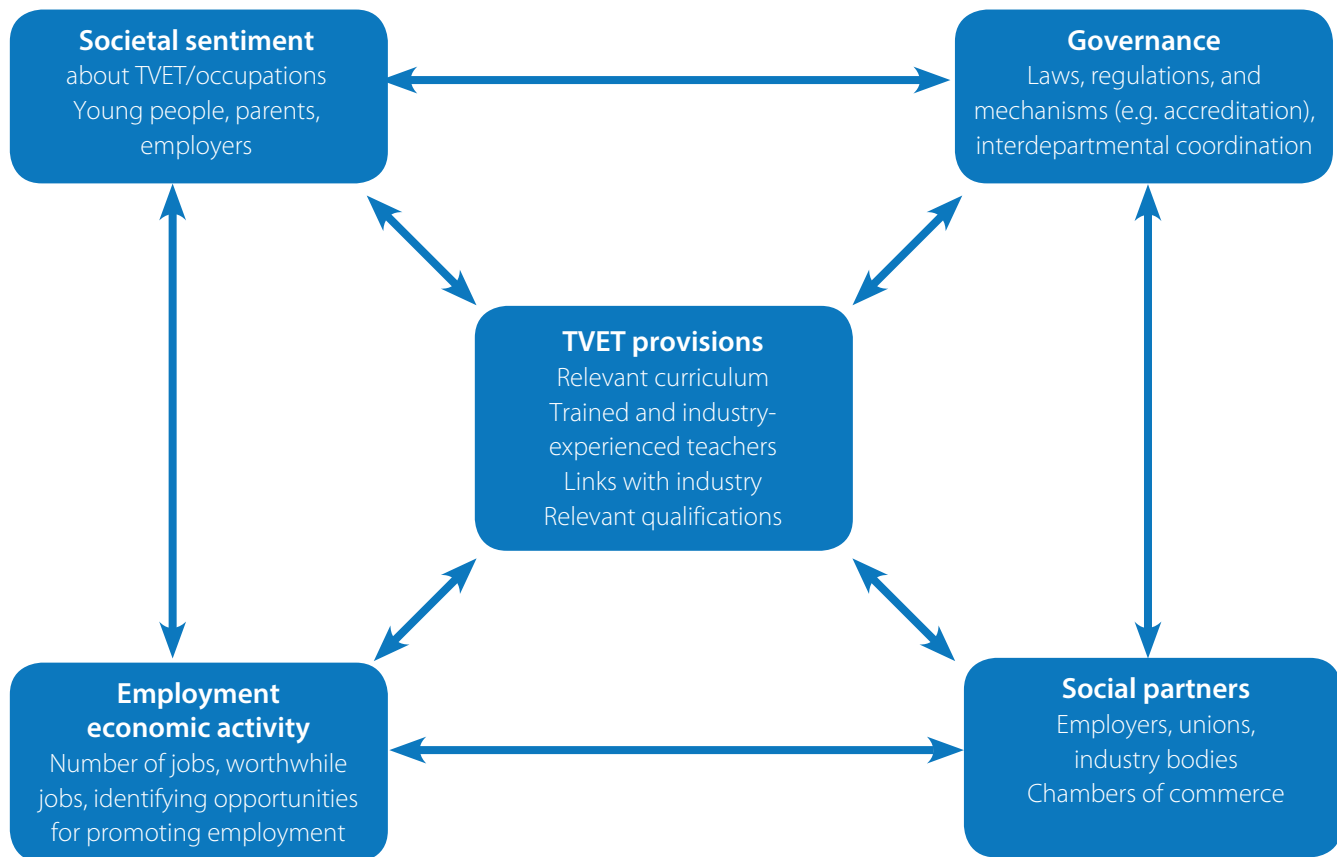
These factors create a challenge that TVET needs to address. They also shape the actions that need to be taken to achieve the outcomes the UNESCO plan seeks to realize. An important consideration here is the need to secure an alignment between the kinds of interventions that sponsors and global agencies support through institutional initiatives and governance, and those that are needed to tackle this problem. For instance, only a few initiatives have specifically attempted to enhance the standing and status of TVET, some of which are associated with incentives and support for young people, while others focus on awareness programmes in high schools (this has been done in Jordan) (Rawashdeh, 2017). Some efforts have also been directed towards building the important partnerships that make TVET relevant and effective (as in Jordan). These efforts seem to suggest that focusing on institutions, approaches and models that are country-appropriate and localized may well be more effective than national and top-down approaches (as in Palestine), particularly where the mechanisms of

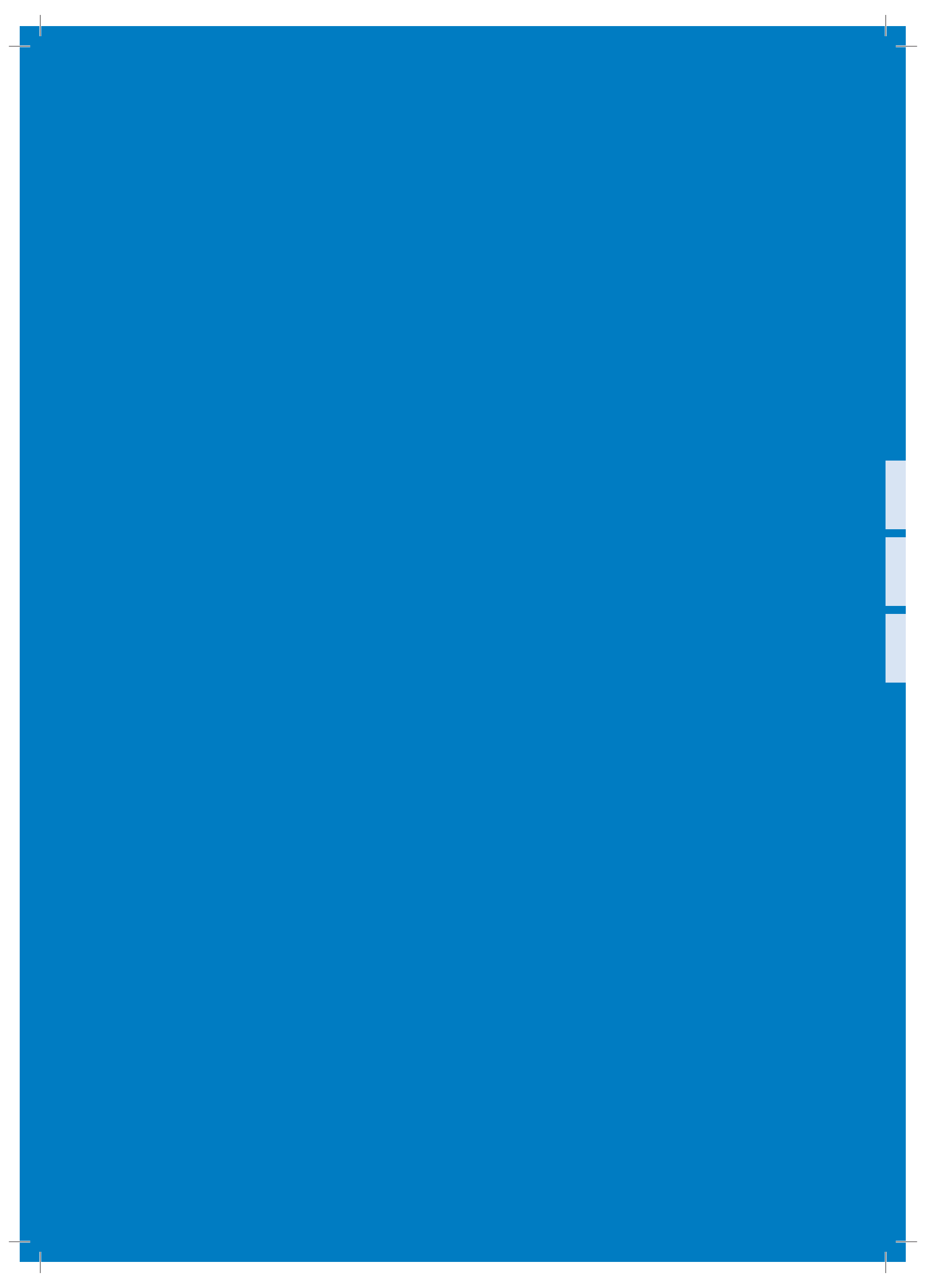
centralized governance are inappropriate and unhelpfully controlling. Given these complexities, to advance the goals of TVET, and in particular to engage more young people in WBL experiences in countries in the Arab region, we need to consider these factors and the interdependence between them. They need to be addressed concurrently, albeit in distinct but interrelated ways across these countries (**Figure 1.1**).

The key point here is that many of the factors set out above are interdependent and complex, and require considerations and actions that accommodate them. This set of interdependent factors is associated with employment, TVET provisions, governance arrangements, social partnerships and societal sentiments. Initiatives addressing only one of these factors are unlikely to be effective or successful, because of the interdependence between them. Perhaps the standing of these occupations and the training for them will only be enhanced through enhancing TVET. It needs to be seen as an important, viable educational pathway, rather than a last resort for young people in these countries. And to achieve this, TVET must be of high quality, proven to provide skills that lead to employment in worthwhile work, and be seen by employers as assisting their profitability or viability.





**Figure 1.1** Interdependent factors associated with WBL provisions



## **CHAPTER 2**

**National Contexts:**

**Current and Changing Circumstances**

## National Contexts: Current and Changing Circumstances

### Overview

A key goal for this project is to identify and map changes associated with the increasing number and quality of WBL arrangements for young people in Arab region countries since they were last reviewed in 2009. The aim here is to identify how WBL can best be promoted in these countries. However, beyond comparative analyses about the progress of policy initiatives and associated pilot projects, it is necessary to consider and accommodate changing circumstances in this region. As was noted in the **Executive Summary and Chapter 1**, many of these countries have been subject to significant social and economic disruption and changes. These include the various impacts of the so-called 'Arab spring' which led to changes in governments, a protracted civil war in Syria that has generated large numbers of refugees, disrupted economic activity associated with global changes, the declining price of oil, instability of governments, and growing uncertainty about future directions.

For instance, in this period Egypt has undergone two significant social revolutions that have reshaped and interrupted many of its institutions, their functions and political structures. Some of this activity has affected education provisions and social partnerships (El-Ashmawi, 2017). In addition, terrorist acts and incursions have had a major impact on the country's economy and security. Tunisia has experienced a significant social revolution that has brought about a change of government, and has also been subject to a change in economic circumstances owing to acts of terrorism (Chelbi, 2017). Lebanon has experienced continued unrest associated with political instability and sectarian factions, and has been inundated with refugees from nearby Syria, and subject to declining economic activity (Ghneim, 2017), leading to an estimated 46 per cent unemployment. The economy of and activities in Palestine remain compromised by a state of near-conflict and control by powerful neighbours (Jweiles, 2017). Jordan has been influenced by nearby civil wars to a lesser degree, but has faced a significant influx of refugees (Rawashdeh, 2017). Morocco, while enjoying high levels of economic growth, is still experiencing high levels of unemployment, particularly for young people (Sennou, 2017).

There are also worsening economic circumstances, including a decline in the price of oil and related products in some of these countries. Algeria's economy, for instance, is largely dependent on hydro-carbons (particularly natural

gas), which account for 97 per cent of its exports, but lack of a diverse economic base and 'slow structural change' renders it susceptible to fluctuation in economic demands (Bedou, 2018). Along with Oman (Al-Mujani, 2017), Jordan (Rawashdeh, 2017) and Morocco (Sennou, 2017), Algeria has enjoyed continuity of government and institutional stability through this period. Yet even in these countries there are increased levels of youth unemployment, and a growing reliance by young people on post-school education to achieve their work-life goals and obtain secure employment.

So it is important to account for these factors, and in particular the likely impacts they have on the provision of opportunities for employment, work experiences for young people, and interactions between TVET institutions and workplaces.

### Key measures and indicators of change

To understand the circumstances and country contexts, it is helpful to commence with an overview of current population, GDP, age distribution of the population, and levels of unemployment and youth unemployment. **Table 2.1** provides such an overview. In terms of population, Egypt (95.7 million) stands out as by far the most populous country in this study. Algeria (40.6 million) and Morocco (35.3 million) have large populations by global standards, and Tunisia (11.4 million), Lebanon (9.5 million), Jordan (6.0 million), Oman (4.4 million) and Palestine (3.7 million) have relatively small populations. The level of GDP reflects, but does not wholly mirror, population size. It also indicates differences in economic circumstances across these eight countries from the same region.

The percentage of young people in all these countries is high. Young males and females (aged 15 to 24) comprise 43 per cent of the population in Palestine, 38 per cent in Jordan, 37 per cent in Lebanon, 35 per cent in Morocco, 34 per cent in Egypt, 33 per cent in Algeria and 31 per cent in Tunisia. Most of these countries have growing youth or young adult populations. For instance, it is claimed that by 2025, those aged 30 or under will comprise 50 per cent of Algeria's population (Bedou, 2018).

There are also variations in gender balance. Four countries (Egypt, Lebanon, Morocco and Palestine) have more young males than females; the reverse is true in the other four. In Oman there is a significant disparity (almost 5 per cent).

The majority of these countries have high levels (double-digit figures) of unemployment, with Palestine most noticeably having 26 per cent. They all also have chronic and unacceptable levels of youth unemployment, with Oman the highest (48.7 per cent), followed by Palestine (42.4 per cent), Lebanon (36 per cent), Tunisia (35.4 per cent), Egypt (33.1 per cent), and Algeria (29.1 per cent). Jordan and Morocco have the lowest levels at 21 per cent.

Moreover, the rate of unemployed young women is often far higher than for young men: twice as high in Algeria, for instance (Bedou, 2018). All this indicates the urgency of providing employment opportunities and types of training that can promote individual employability and contribute to the viability and progress of the workplaces in which young people are employed.

**Table 2.1 Country statistics (year 2016)**

Country	Population (millions)	GDP (US\$ billion)	Population aged 15–24		Level of unemployment (%)*	Level of youth unemployment (%)*
			% of male	% of female		
Algeria	40.60	159.04	15.9	17.1	11.7	29.1
Egypt	95.68	332.79	17.2	16.9	11.6	33.1
Lebanon	9.45	38.65	19.1	18.2	14.9	36.0
Jordan	6.00	49.59	18.4	19.6	6.7	21.3
Morocco	35.27	103.60	17.5	17.3	10.8	21.0
Oman	4.42	66.29	13.7	18.4	16.9	48.7
Palestine	3.70	2.94	21.6	21.4	26.0	42.4
Tunisia	11.40	42.06	15.5	15.8	14.7	35.4

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

\*Year of reference: 2017

Although they share a geographical region, language base and broad cultural identity, the countries selected for this comparative study show significant diversity. There are differences in the make-up and performance of their economies, and in their institutions and education systems. Recent social and political changes have also rendered each in some ways quite distinct. There are also differences within each country (for instance, in Algeria, Egypt, Morocco Tunisia), not least because some of these countries are extremely large and contain diverse ethnic populations. These differences are all summarized in **Table 2.1**.

### Changes in key indicators since 2009

A range of key measures illuminate the changing circumstances in these countries since 2006. They indicate that while the overall population has increased, the percentage of young people (15–24 years) has declined in some of these countries, so the overall populations are ageing, it seems. At the same time, as presented and discussed below, the level of unemployment has increased in Egypt, Jordan, Morocco, Palestine and Tunisia, with Algeria, Lebanon and Oman indicating a reduction (**Figure 2.5**). However, even though they now constitute a smaller proportion of the population, for young people unemployment has increased in all of these countries with the exception of Lebanon, which indicated a small decrease (**Figure 2.6**).

Concurrently, and perhaps as a consequence, participation in post-school education has increased in Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Morocco and Tunisia, with a decline reported only for Lebanon and Palestine (**Figure 2.7**). This is probably a counter-cyclical effect: that is, it is a response to heightened unemployment. It is also noteworthy that, with the exception of Tunisia and Morocco, the majority of these educational provisions are wholly within training institutions, and most courses do not have work-based components.

In all these countries except Lebanon and Morocco, industry has declined as a percentage of GDP (**Figure 2.3**). This change in economic activity is noteworthy because the 'industry' sector generally contains the large employers that have traditionally provided work-based experience. Indeed, across these countries small and micro businesses dominate economic activity. These often lack the resources to provide effective WBL.

In summary, these countries are addressing the impact of political change, economic uncertainty and recessions, and growing levels of unemployment, particularly among young people and especially young women. Also, the complex of factors identified above leads to considerable uncertainty and instability, which makes planning difficult and uncertain, and implementation of plans challenging. None of these factors are particularly supportive of WBL.

The problem here is that WBL necessarily depends on factors outside of educational institutions, as well as on what those institutions and their teachers can organize and implement. This complicates the achievement of government policies. For young people to be engaged in work-based experience requires the interest and support of workplaces. This includes how they address young people’s interests and goals to gain the support of their parents, families and friends. These factors add to the array of those shaping the provision of WBL, its engagement and quality, which is premised on engagement by social partners. To advance the 2015 UNESCO TVET strategy focused on workplace learning, it is therefore necessary to capture and account for not only the activities occurring in dedicated educational institutions (essentially, TVET institutions), but also those that reach into workplaces. Perhaps most commonly across this region, this includes accounting for the traditional apprenticeships that are wholly based in work settings, yet are not incorporated or accounted for in data about young people’s participation in TVET.

Moreover, as enterprises make many of decision-making about engagements in WBL arrangements are made locally by young people themselves, and their parents, there is a need for educational policy and practices that are responsive

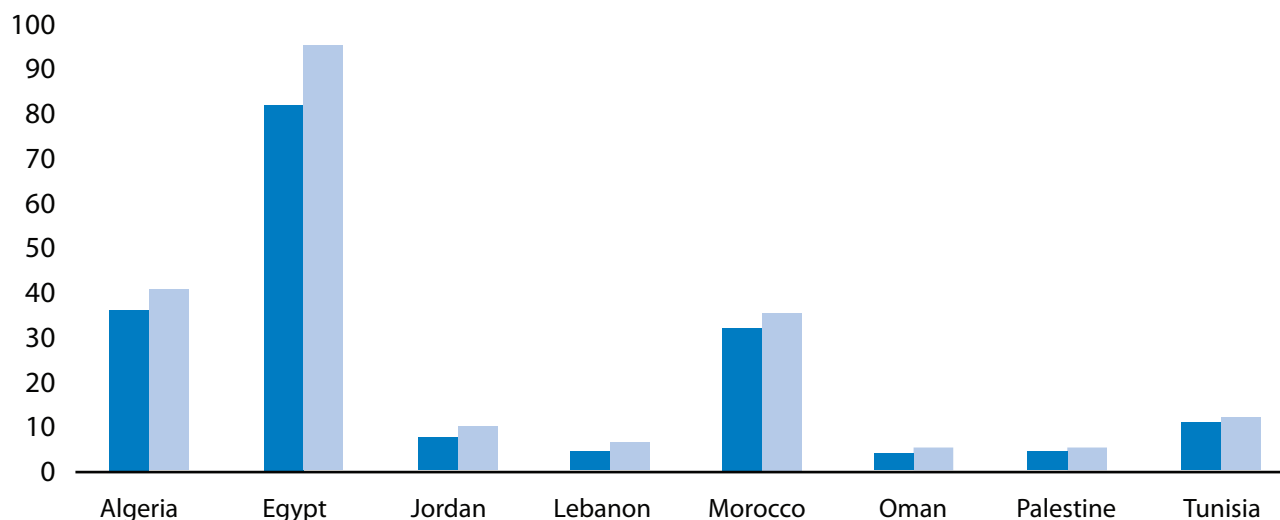
to local circumstances. These are not always understood by central government or captured through central agencies. This responsiveness is likely to include a combination of legal and institutional frameworks that extends to engagement at the local level. There may well be legal frameworks adopted nationally, but institutional arrangements such as the actions of government and social partners, and efforts associated with enhancing the standing and status of TVET and the occupations it serves, may need to be implemented through greater local governance and engagement.

Given the need to capture and evaluate progress in these countries since the last report, as well as to identify progress with WBL arrangements, this chapter sets out something of the changing national context of each of the eight countries.

### Changing population

**Figure 2.1** depicts changes in these key indicators over the decade to 2017. It shows that the populations of these countries have all increased since 2009. Oman reported the strongest growth (51.7 per cent), followed by Lebanon (42.9 per cent), Jordan (39.7 per cent), Palestine (24.3 per cent), Egypt (16 per cent), Algeria (14.4 per cent), Morocco (10.3 per cent) and Tunisia (8.6 per cent).

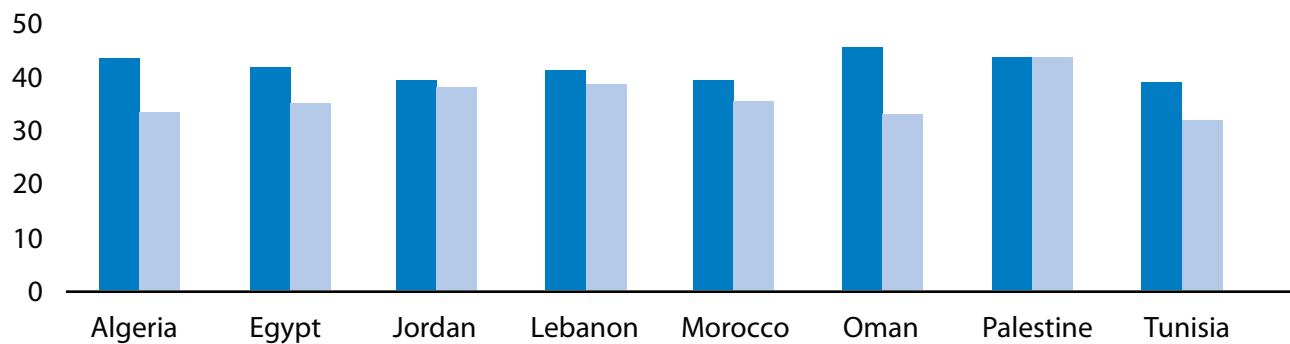
**Figure 2.1** Population increases between 2009 and 2016



In all these countries except Palestine, there has been a significant decline in the percentage of young people (aged 15–24) (see **Figure 2.2**). This applies to both males and females, albeit in different proportions in the various countries (see Table A1 in the appendices). The greatest

decline was Oman (13 percentage points), followed by Algeria (10 percentage points), Egypt and Tunisia (7 percentage points), Morocco (4 percentage points), and Lebanon and Jordan (2 percentage points). The increase in Palestine was small (0.2 percentage points). More detail can be found in Table A1.

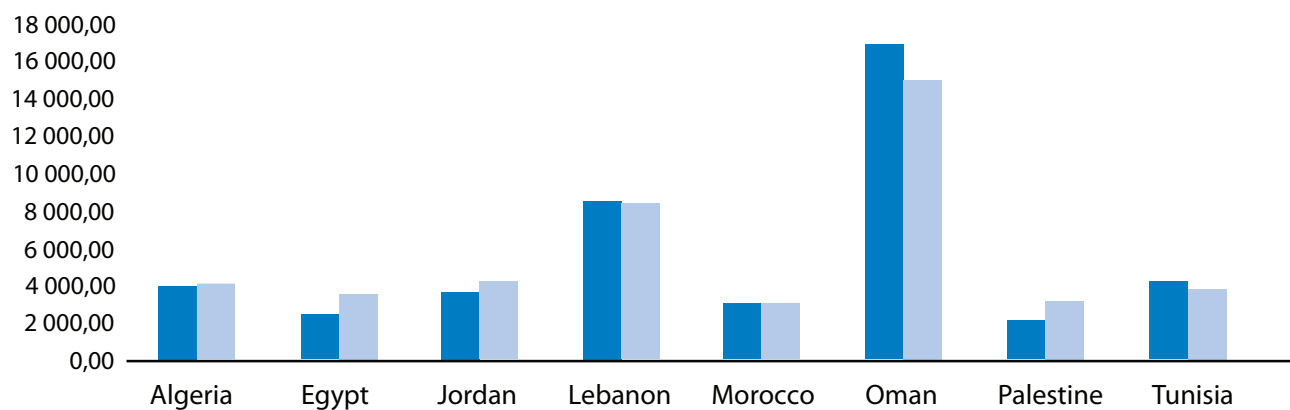


**Figure 2.2** Changes in population of young people (aged 15–24) between 2009 and 2016

### Economic activity

As noted, there have also been changes in the reported GDP for these countries (see **Figure 2.3**). Algeria and Morocco remained unchanged, whereas Egypt, Jordan, and Palestine increased, while Lebanon, Oman, and Tunisia declined. These changes are indicative of turbulent economic times such as those being faced globally, with enhanced economic competition. Some of these countries also saw a decline in

revenue from petrochemicals and impacts associated with political and social disruptions, as well as those associated with a decline in tourism because of terrorist attacks, political instability and institutional instability. Tourists bring significant revenue but are unlikely to be attracted to countries where security threats are high and political stability low. Decline in this service-related work can have particular and local consequences.

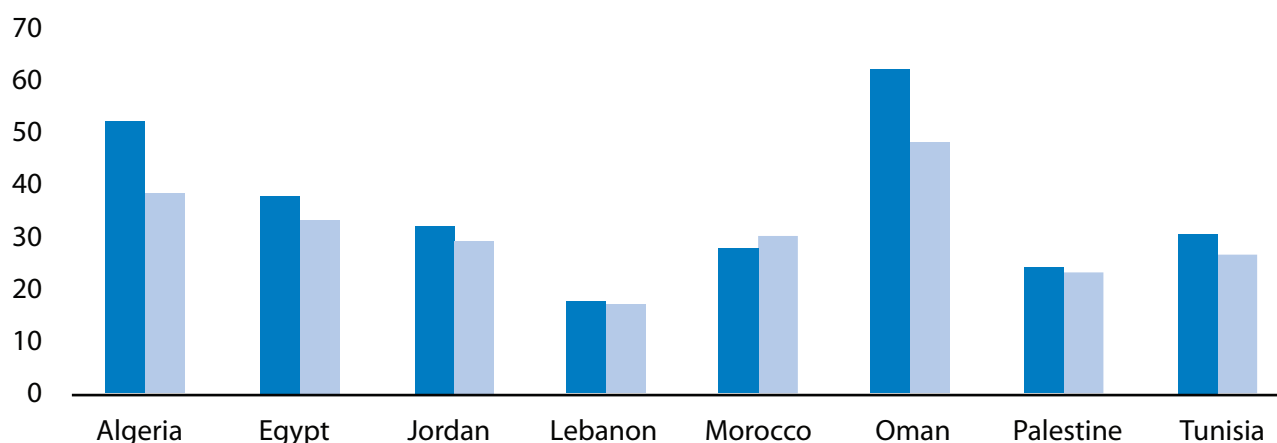
**Figure 2.3** Changes in GDP (\$US million) between 2009 and 2016

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

Industry as a percentage of GDP remained unchanged in Jordan, increased in Lebanon, Morocco and Palestine, but declined in Algeria, Egypt, Oman and Tunisia, indicating some significant changes in national economic activities (see **Figure 2.4**). This measure is important for the provision of WBL arrangements as these sectors are most familiar with formal apprenticeship arrangements, and sympathetic to learning in and through work. All of this suggests that, as with many other countries, the economic mix is changing, in particular away from the kinds of industry that have in the past, here and in other countries, hosted high percentages of WBL arrangements such as dual apprenticeships and alternance programmes, traineeships, and other industry-specific or workplace-hosted forms of TVET. Consequently,

efforts to increase WBL arrangements for young people might need to focus on new sectors of employment and away from a reliance on the small and seemingly decreasing number of large enterprises that provide this service, and to engage with those that do not necessarily have a tradition of providing WBL. All of this is confounded by the domination of small and micro businesses in these countries' economies.

**Figure 2.4 Changes in industry as an element of GDP (US\$ million) between 2009 and 2016**

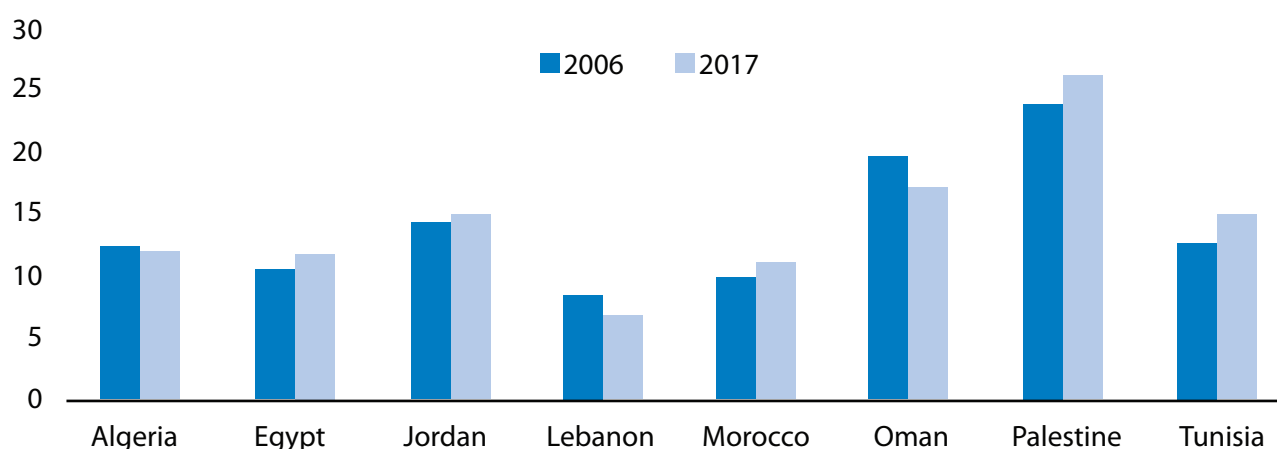


Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

As depicted in **Figure 2.5**, between 2006 and 2017 the levels of unemployment declined in Algeria, Lebanon and Oman, but increased in all of the other countries. The highest unemployment growth was in Palestine (2.4 percentage points), followed by Tunisia (2.2 percentage points), whereas Oman reported the highest growth in employment (2.6 percentage points) (see **Table A2** in the

appendices). So for the majority of these countries, including the most populous, there has been a decline in overall levels of employment. Therefore, opportunities for learning experiences that are primarily associated with engagement in work, and in the case of apprenticeships often based on employment, have also decreased.

**Figure 2.5 Changes in percentages of unemployment between 2006 and 2017**



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

## Employment

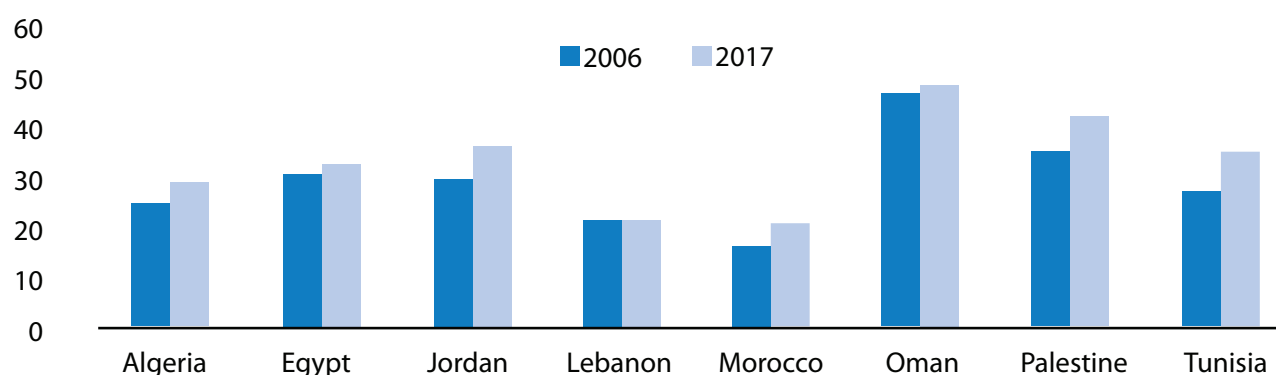
With the exception of Lebanon, of particular concern here is that across all of these countries between 2006 and 2017 the level of youth unemployment grew, to the levels reported in **Figure 2.6**. Tunisia had the highest growth of unemployment among young people (7.9 percentage points), followed by Palestine (6.8 percentage points), Jordan (5.6 percentage points), Algeria (4.2 percentage points), Egypt (2.5 percentage points), Oman (2 percentage

points), and Lebanon with a small growth (0.4 percentage points). Consequently, governments in all of these countries are making it a policy priority, and indeed a goal for TVET, to focus on promoting the employability of young people. This includes identifying how they can be provided with educational experiences that promote their employability. These governmental goals are often associated with providing more effective TVET, including better alignment of learning outcomes with the needs of employers, and also the provision of educational experiences helping graduates

to apply what they have learned through TVET in their workplaces. In some instances, (such as Algeria) government is seeking to encourage entrepreneurialism and support

start-up companies, with efforts directed towards young people (Bedou, 2018).

**Figure 2.6** Changes in percentages of youth unemployment between 2006 and 2017



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

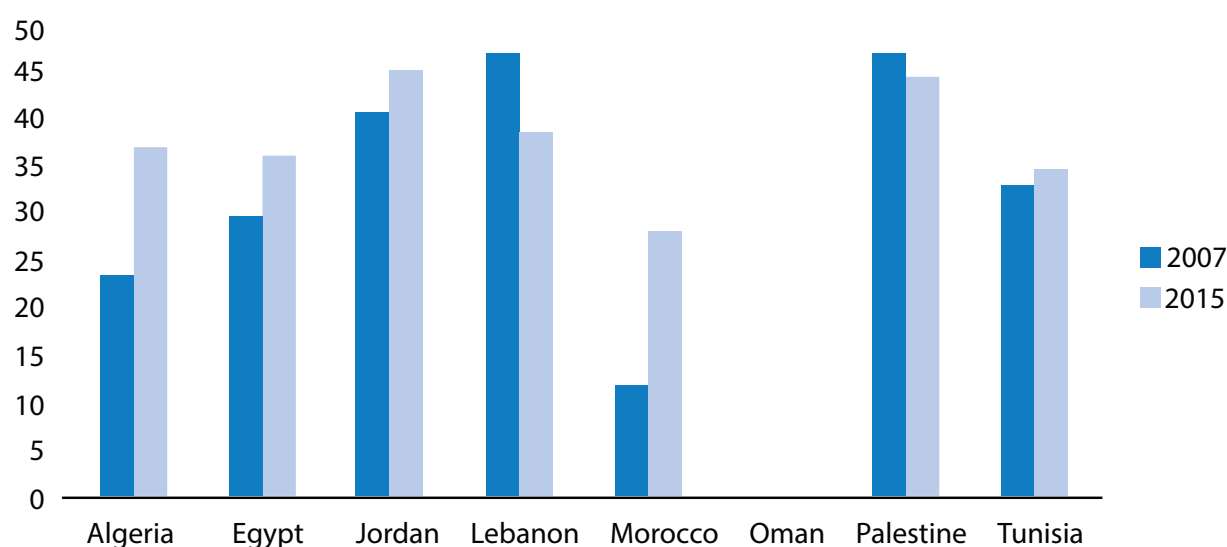
### Post-school education

Perhaps correspondingly, between 2007 and 2015 there were increased levels of participation in post-school education in Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Morocco and Tunisia, with declines in Lebanon and Palestine (see **Figure 2.7** and **Table A3** in the appendices). Some of these increases are quite significant. Again, it is worth remembering that during this period these eight countries reported declines in the percentage of young people in the population. Consequently, the increase in participation in TVET is even more noteworthy, as is referred to within the country studies.

These figures reflect the fact that government and community concerns about unemployment are being

exercised through a commitment to promote post-school education. This includes a heightened emphasis on the nature and quality of TVET, considering its alignment to needs of workplaces, the employability of young people and their capacity to support economic growth. Hence now, perhaps more than in earlier times, the policy focus is on the ability of post-school education to lead young people to employment. Yet, as foreshadowed and discussed below in all the country studies, the perceptions shaping participation in post-school education include a tendency to value conventional higher education considerably more than TVET. In particular, many young people are not attracted to manual (therefore potentially dirty) occupations, or to WBL, which fails to attract the general kudos given to higher education.

**Figure 2.7** Level of participation in post-school education between 2007 and 2015



In short, economic activity remains turbulent in these countries, with continuing high levels of unemployment. Almost universally, the circumstances for young people (aged 15 to 24) are difficult, including high and increasing levels of unemployment. Growing levels of participation in post-school education increase the competition for jobs that demand higher qualifications, even when young people comprise a decreasing percentage of the population. The country studies give particular substance to these figures, and also offer data about the length of time that young people can expect to remain unemployed after completing post-school education (for example, in Egypt) (El-Ashmawi, 2017).

Moreover, while there has been a general increase in post-school education, in most of the countries there has been a decline in the number of young people participating in work-based educational programmes such as formal apprenticeships. For instance, Morocco has experienced relatively strong economic growth and has a well-established apprenticeship training system and solid infrastructure to support it, yet it has experienced stagnation in the numbers of apprentices (Sennou, 2017). Even where there has been strong participation in TVET, as in Egypt, this has been accompanied by low levels of progress to the anticipated occupation, as young people use these programmes as a platform to take them to higher levels of post-school education, including university programmes (El-Ashmawi, 2017). This movement and aspiration can be seen as being a good thing, and it has been encouraged by governments worldwide. Yet it reinforces the problems that manual and skilled craft work has in attracting and retaining young people, and increases aspirations and expectations that do not correspond with the labour market offerings.

In sum, since 2009 when the previous study was published there have been considerable changes in patterns of economic activity, governance, government stability, demography and employment levels in these countries. Together, these increase the need for young people to experience WBL, while making it more complex and difficult to provide and attract trainees to it. While there are common elements across these countries, there are also country-specific factors and issues. Moreover, in responding to these challenges and bringing about changes that can promote the quality of TVET and determine provision of work-based experiences for young people, the challenges and solutions will be found in specific country contexts. Therefore, it is important to consider these issues and developments in the dynamic country contexts.

In all, a common feature is that TVET is seen by national governments and global agencies as a key vehicle for preparing young people for occupations and working life. Augmenting it with WBL experiences is seen to offer a more effective form of occupational preparation.

## Education and employment: country-specific contexts

### Algeria

In Algeria a specific ministry addresses TVET: the Ministry of Vocational Training and Education, which has responsibilities for vocational education, vocational training to work and continuous training of workers. Its ministerial functions are specific to the TVET sector, which has responsibility for the 30 per cent of students who take the vocational education pathway. The initial occupational preparation under these arrangements has five levels of certification (Specialized Vocational Training Certificate, Certificate of Professional Competence, Certificate of Professional Mastery, Technicians Certificate and Higher Technicians Certificate). Unusually the system reflects a concern for ongoing development of occupational skills and training for adults. It is designed to meet two sets of social and economic goals: initial training of qualified workers for the labour market, and the retraining of workers through continuous education and training. These educational provisions are for young people aged over 16, and largely through residential training in specialized institutions (national specialized institutes for vocational training, apprenticeship centres, vocational training centres, and specialized apprenticeship centres for physically disabled persons) (Bedou, 2018). This gives an indication of the central role of vocational education in Algeria.

The two goals reflect different social and economic concerns. The first is about improving young people's employability and trying to secure better alignment between the provision of TVET and the needs of the labour market. The second is about economic transformation, and efforts to diversify the national economic base and shift away from reliance on employment in the hydrocarbon sector. Both of these are key elements of the government's plan for economic growth between 2015 and 2019. There is a concern here, as elsewhere, that a growing number of young people and adults are progressing up the qualification ladder (for instance, there was a twofold increase in the number of diploma students between 2000 and 2016), but low employment outcomes are associated with higher levels of education (Bedou, 2018).

### Egypt

TVET is an important sector of the Egyptian education system, with approximately 50 per cent of secondary school students engaging in it. This sector is held to generate a higher level of employment than is achieved through higher education (ETF, 2016b). Consequently, it is seen by government as offering a means for addressing high levels of youth unemployment, particularly among young women, and in a country that has one of the youngest populations

globally. Opportunities for employment are declining, particularly in the private sector; however, there are more jobseekers coming into the labour market each year. A large percentage of these are young people leaving school or and post-school education.

The Egyptian economy is dominated by small enterprises (El-Ashmawi, 2017). An unusual feature is the relatively low level of unemployment among the lower educated, and increasing levels of unemployment among individuals with higher educational achievements. This national employment pattern is viewed as the result of an education system whose content and focus require significant reform to meet the requirements of contemporary work (El-Ashmawi, 2017). There is now significant impetus for this reform, as youth employment, including the provision of good jobs, is a salient policy priority in the country and a very sensitive political issue. That is, the aim is to provide jobs to which young Egyptians will be attracted. It is important to remember that Egypt's population is not only large, it is increasing by 2.4 per cent each year, making it one of the fastest-growing populations in the world. All of this has implications for the provision of TVET and the employment prospects of graduates.

The Torino Process report (ETF, 2016b) indicates a dual mismatch between education provision and the requirements for employment. First, there is a misalignment between chosen areas of study and opportunities for employment. Second, there is a qualitative mismatch between what is learned and the needs of employers. Many of the reforms being advocated are associated with revising the syllabus (the content of courses) and seeking industry engagement and input. Yet these kinds of measure reflect the practices of European countries, where there are different kinds of institution (national and local), economies not dominated by small businesses, and distinct societal sentiments about paid work. For instance, TVET provisions and those strongly including workplace experiences are seen as unattractive to young people and as societally perilous by many young Egyptians and their parents (El-Ashmawi, 2017). So although about 50 per cent of young Egyptians participate in TVET programmes, they are not the preferred educational pathway. Whereas in many countries TVET is the second choice, in Egypt it is a forced choice (ETF, 2016b).

These issues and sentiments are also evident in other countries, such as Lebanon (Ghneim, 2017), Palestine (Jweiles, 2017), Oman (Al Mujaini, 2017), and Jordan (Rawashdeh, 2017). In efforts to make TVET more attractive, pathways are being created through to higher education, although many of these have yet to be realized. That is, there is not necessarily an increase in numbers of TVET students currently progressing to higher education, which is seen as making this provision more attractive. Even if this progress

is enabled, how does this initiative address the burgeoning issue of high levels of unemployment among graduates, and most intensely among young women, who typically have to wait years to secure employment, if they ever do? As a consequence, arrangements driven by societal preferences to provide pathways from TVET to higher education may be counterproductive. Using significant public and private resources to advance young people from an education that offers some probability of employment to one with lower prospects of employment does not appear to be the kind of solution required to meet social and economic challenges.

The economic circumstances in Egypt also illustrate an important factor shaping the need for and quality of TVET programmes, and in particular those with a work-based component. After a period of strong growth leading up to 2011, there has been a decline in economic activity, precipitated by economic circumstances and external demands and threats (El-Ashmawi, 2017), and a decrease in industry as an element of GDP. As a consequence, the government has enacted a series of reforms to stimulate the economy, contain the growth of wages, and improve governance of areas such as TVET.

### Lebanon

Lebanon is facing significant challenges with high levels of refugee migration (over 1 million from Syria), disruptions to the economy (including the reluctance of investors), high levels of unemployment, particular among the young and especially for young women, and reduction of job opportunities, particularly for worthwhile work (Ghneim, 2017). The government is seen as constrained by institutional paralysis, which makes the necessary reforms difficult to realize (ETF 2016c; TRP, 2016).

The number of participants in TVET programmes is very small, with one estimate that only 75,000 young people participate in TVET compared with 543,000 in general or higher education. These economic circumstances have also led to high levels of migration by skilled and professional Lebanese workers. There is also reported to be a lack of information to guide labour market planning and educational provision. TVET is held to possess a reasonable physical infrastructure and processes for selection of teachers through examination (Ghneim, 2017). There are however concerns about the quality of teachers, their relevant occupational competence and workplace experience. This is because educational qualifications are the basis for employing teachers, rather than work experience or occupational competence. Beyond the traditional workplace-based apprenticeship, the dual vocational education and training (VET) system provides the main form for WBL (ETF, 2016c) and due to its work-based emphasis it offers the best option for alignment between VET provisions and workplace requirements.

## Jordan

In Jordan, much of the TVET provision is based in educational institutions (Rawashdeh, 2017). However, three modes of this TVET provision include WBL. The first is the dual arrangement under which vocational training is conducted across TVET institutions and workplaces. This addresses skilled, semi-skilled and craft occupations. Second, there are national employment and training (NET) companies that accept trainees for two to three months after basic occupational preparation in their educational institutions. Third, there is a range of enterprise or in-company training arrangements through which all training activities are conducted in enterprises. This programme is used for developing workers' skills as well as initial occupational preparation for young people. As in most of the other countries in this study, vocational training in Jordan has a low and negative standing within the community (Rawashdeh, 2017). As a consequence there is little movement from secondary education into TVET, which has become associated with low-achieving students who are considered suited to this form of education (Rawashdeh, 2017). This societal sentiment has been exacerbated by migrant workers who often take on low-skilled work for lower levels of pay and conditions, making it even less attractive to Jordanians.

## Palestine

In Palestine, with its intractable and growing high levels of youth unemployment (see **Tables 1** and 3), there are, perhaps surprisingly, again entrenched concerns about the societal standing of TVET and the occupations for which it prepares people (Jweiles, 2017). The government is seeking to redress these issues through career guidance and establishing apprenticeship programmes (ETF, 2016a). The system is quite small and nascent. Also, given the challenges faced by Palestine's national government, the role of social partners including chambers of commerce is seen to be important in bringing about these reforms locally. Reforms are often supported by agencies external to Palestine, and focus on trying to improve the quality (that is, the relevance and applicability) of what is taught (Jweiles, 2017). Yet the circumstantial factors in Palestine mean that ensuring its enterprises can absorb the growing number of young people is an enormous structural challenge.

Many policy initiatives are associated with trying to integrate TVET with workplace experiences, but again there can be societal resistance, since TVET is seen as a second and less preferred choice to higher education (Jweiles, 2017). Curiously, but for nation-specific circumstances in such a small country, it seems that there is a key focus on localized arrangements involving chambers of commerce to try to improve the relevance of TVET, including a more systematic approach to developing courses and teaching.

## Morocco

Morocco has enjoyed relatively strong economic growth compared with other countries in this region (Sennou, 2017). Nevertheless, even that growth has not been able to address the burgeoning demand for employment, particularly by young people, which has increased significantly in the last decade (see Table 4). In 2016 there were also significant disparities between unemployment levels for young people in rural (4.1 per cent) and urban areas (14.6 per cent). Like Tunisia, Morocco has a well-established TVET system (Chelbi, 2017) based on an earlier French model, some of which includes structured workplace experiences for students. As in other countries nearby, the Moroccan government's concern for TVET provisions to address the goals associated with high levels of unemployment and better alignment with the needs of industry and employers is focusing on providing universal access to TVET across the working life. The governmental key goal is to achieve this outcome through a national strategy aimed to be completed by 2021 (Sennou, 2017).

A key element of this strategy is to secure outcomes for young people and also Moroccan enterprises through a fourfold increase (from 100,000 to 400,000) in the number of vocational training interns who will have extensive WBL experiences as part of their TVET. Indeed, from 2006–17 the number of students engaging in work-based vocational training increased from 24,379 to 70,113 (Sennou, 2017). Hence, while these goals seem ambitious, they emphasize the interest in and commitment to WBL experiences as part of TVET.

## Oman

Initially established around models from the United Kingdom and Germany, the Omani TVET system has been adapted to meet local needs and cultural sensitivities (Al Mujaini, 2017). The Omani Government is seeking to develop further its TVET system to respond to growing economic challenges, including addressing the need for greater diversity in its economic base and issues of growing youth unemployment (Al Mujaini, 2017). Some of the key imperatives here include attempting to shift from an economic reliance on petrochemical production, which heightens the need for a skilled workforce that can respond to changing requirements for work. This broad-based strategy is being coordinated by the Ministry of Manpower, advised and implemented through three directorates (for technological education, TVET and occupational standards) in an effort to address these structural problems. The key emphasis, as in many other countries, is to better align the provision of TVET with the emerging needs of workplaces and prospective industries.



Part of the openness to WBL arrangements in Oman is that these are seen as being the traditional way in which work skills have been learned in this country. The government edict here is somewhat different from the sentiments elsewhere, when WBL experiences are seen to be anachronistic and of low status (Al-Mujaini, 2017). However, consistent with the concern to align educational experiences with work and occupational outcomes, a key focus for the work of the Omani Government directorates that manage the system is to ensure that WBL experiences are relevant to and helpful for achieving these goals. So it is a case not just of providing workplace experiences, but of ensuring these experiences are more aligned with specific educational outcomes (Al Mujaini, 2017).

### Tunisia

Tunisia has a well-developed TVET system, as in other countries referred to in this study, but it is given less emphasis and has less standing than higher education (Chelbi, 2017). The level of participation is quite modest, and there is a strong emphasis on moving to higher education, with TVET seen as only for those who cannot aspire to higher education. In Chelbi's report (2017), it is suggested that the majority of graduates from TVET find employment in the public sector, and only a minority (12 per cent) in the private sector. The key focus for reforms is to make TVET provisions more relevant to the labour market, and apprenticeships and the alternance system are seen as ways this policy goal can be achieved.

In summary, there are a series of common concerns and actions across these countries, and a strengthening focus on TVET – and in particular, WBL – to enhance graduate employability and also to meet the skill needs of enterprises. These twin goals feature strongly in the discussions in most of these countries, albeit distinct ways of achieving them are often proposed based upon a range of structural, demographic and governance considerations. All of this represents a major challenge because the TVET systems in many of these countries might be seen as immature, with teachers lacking current work experience and students who are looking beyond TVET to achieve their work-life aspirations.

### National contexts: TVET in times of change

The downturn in economic activity and high levels of youth unemployment often lead governments to focus reactively on TVET, and on policies and procedures to respond to these challenges in quite specific ways. Consequently there is often a high degree of government interest and control, and also heightened expectations about what TVET can achieve. Certainly, over the longer term, the development of skilled

workers and a more broadly skilled workforce is a central concern in each of these eight countries. In particular, there is a focus on TVET developing the skills to be adaptable. Securing learning outcomes can lead to more effective work practices, productive outcomes for industry sectors and individual workplaces, and ultimately a national workforce that can be both competitive with imports and export-oriented. However, expectations that unemployment will be addressed in the short term by a greater focus on TVET are often unreasonable and unobtainable. Moreover, with growing numbers of young people potentially entering the workforce and with high levels of unemployment, education increasingly serves to distribute opportunities asymmetrically, based upon participation. Of course, this works out in different ways across such diverse countries.

Globally, there is a concern that increasing numbers of young people in countries with both advanced and developing economies are participating in higher education in the hope that it will help them obtain clean, secure and well-paid work. In reality these outcomes are becoming increasingly more difficult to achieve, and only through ever-higher levels of educational achievement. However, as noted in the Morocco and Oman country studies, this has been a key focus of government action, and there is evidence of a significant increase in the number of young people participating in programmes that have work-based elements in them (Al-Mujaini, 2017; Sennou, 2017). This level of participation is noteworthy, and in some ways it contrasts with the seeming mismatch between the quest for higher levels of educational certification and the kinds of job available (as in Egypt) (El-Ashmawi, 2017).

The overall point here is that in such times governments look to TVET, and now increasingly to WBL experiences, to achieve their intended outcomes. This emphasis can lead to an intense focus on managing those provisions quite tightly, making the system overly accountable and with an expectation of responses to an external demand that it is often difficult to calculate or predict. Employment outcomes remain uncertain.

As governments in these eight countries look to TVET to address significant national issues of youth employability, all of these issues above are at play. While governments are often quite well positioned to place pressure on publicly funded educational institutions, it is more difficult to control the efforts of private education institutions, and it is also more difficult for governments to find effective means of engaging and leveraging workplaces to engage young people in WBL in ways that contribute to their development, and also meet the requirements of their workplaces. In Jordan, for instance, a survey indicated that over 70 per cent of businesses had never employed graduates from the TVET system (Rawashdeh, 2017), indicating the gap between

enterprises, their needs and perceptions, and what is being provided through TVET.

Now we have considered and discussed the specific country contexts and developments in the last decade or so, and outlined recent initiatives associated with TVET, it is time to focus more specifically on the nature and extent of WBL programmes in these countries. Certainly, these are seen to be central to the achievement of national government goals and also the expectations of supranational agencies. This is the emphasis in the next chapter.

Please note: summaries of the information used in this chapter are available in the appendices.

## **CHAPTER 3**

# **The Nature, Extent and Quality of Workplace Learning Programmes, Including Apprenticeships**

# The Nature, Extent and Quality of Workplace Learning

## Programmes, Including Apprenticeships

### Introduction

There is a growing interest from national governments and global agencies, such as UNESCO, in providing young people with WBL experiences, for a range of economic and educational purposes as noted in the earlier chapters. These purposes are typically associated with addressing the occupational readiness of young people who are completing TVET courses (that is, ensuring they are able to move smoothly to work and in a particular work practice), and in doing so supporting economic development through the development of a more skilled workforce. There are consequently focuses on these young people contributing to the efficacy and capacities of workplaces where they will be employed, adding to their complements of skills, and being able to sustain the workplace viability and help it to grow. There are also broader charters associated with elevating the relevance and applicability of young people to achieve national economic goals. Efforts in Oman (Al-Mujaini, 2017) and Algeria (Bedou, 2018) to reposition their economic activities away from a reliance on hydrocarbons (oil and gas) and their byproducts are examples of these national ambitions. These instances are also indicative of the range of factors shaping TVET programmes, in so far as they comprise key drivers, purposes, processes and outcomes. While there is some commonality, the factors also differ between these countries.

Hence, in this chapter there is a focus on how the particular provisions of young people's WBL experiences are being directed by particular purposes, drivers and processes. To elaborate these concerns, this chapter first discusses these factors and how they are manifested in each of the eight countries. Following this presentation, the particular kinds of WBL programmes being implemented are set out so that they can be understood in terms of the kinds of factor that shape them. This permits an appraisal of what more needs to happen to realize the kinds of goals that governments in each of these countries want to achieve through the provision of WBL experiences for their young citizens.

Purposes, drivers, and outcomes of WBL programmes  
One way of capturing emphases in the different countries, and thereby arriving at some judgements about progress, is to consider the purposes, drivers and outcomes of WBL programmes in these countries. As proposed in **Chapter 1**,

there are a range of purposes for providing young people with workplace experiences. These include:

- coming to understand what kind of work they are interested in and are suited to
- an orientation to the world of work
- developing the kinds of skills that are required for working life
- enhancing or augmenting what has been learned through experiences in post-school education institutions
- developing occupational or even workplace-specific skills.

From the country studies, overwhelmingly there is a focus on the latter two kinds of goal: that is, enriching and augmenting what has been provided and learned through educational programmes with a concern to develop the kinds of occupational skills that promote the prospects of these young people being employed on completion of their post-school education. Largely ignored in these countries are the existing traditional apprenticeships that have in the past provided many of the skills required by these countries' enterprises, and still do so today. Instead, the focus is on WBL experiences being an element of, or an augmentation of, TVET programmes based in training institutions.

These goals are also aligned with enhancing the productivity, efficacy and continuity of the workplaces where these young people will be employed in an era of economic turbulence, and the need to respond to changing requirements, services and technologies. Moreover, and consistent with these goals, most of those experiences are provided within occupation-specific programmes that governments are using to align post-school education provisions with the requirements of employment in occupational fields and workplaces. For instance, in Lebanon, 'The dual system's main objective is to promote employability in a changing workplace – a workplace that is both shaped by technological developments as well as by the people who work in it' (Ghneim, 2017, p. 21).

So these goals are those driving the provisions of TVET in preference to those concerned with providing young people with opportunities to experience, identify and be informed about their preferred occupations, or with assisting them to understand the world of work beyond schooling. These

kind of goal are seen as a lower priority. While this approach can be seen as expedient, there are also limitations and costs associated with it. For instance, as in many Western countries, there are significant levels of withdrawals and non-completions of apprenticeships because young people decide the occupations they are being prepared for are not what they find attractive or had anticipated. This appears to be particularly true if the Egyptian example of dual apprenticeships is considered (El-Ashmawi, 2017) (see below).

Equally, in some countries (as in Egypt, Jordan, and Palestine) TVET is seen many people as primarily a pathway to higher education. Given the significant government, workplace and personal investment in apprenticeships and alternance schemes, there are sizeable societal and personal costs when young people decide not to pursue the occupation for which they have been prepared through TVET. There is also an ongoing cost to the economy, as the kinds of skills that enterprises need and that are central to the development of advanced economies are not seen as being attractive by

sufficient numbers of capable young people (Wolf, 2016). There are, however, some variations on this theme. For instance, in Morocco, which has a well-established TVET system, WBL experiences are also used to achieve goals of engaging young people in work and working life, albeit through specific occupational preparation (Sennou, 2017).

**Table 3.1** presents a precis of the purposes, drivers, processes and outcomes associated with the developing provision of WBL. The information is drawn from the country studies and associated documents with the aim of providing an overview of the purposes for which WBL experiences are being utilized across these eight countries. The drivers are identified as either institutional frameworks (IF) or legal frameworks (LF). The processes being used to implement and support WBL in these countries are quite broadly cast, and refer to social partnerships as well as specific programmes with a focus on WBL. The identified outcomes include broad statements about what has been achieved, and where the achievements are below expectations. This listing is meant to be illustrative rather than exhaustive.

**Table 3.1 Purposes, drivers, processes and outcomes**

Country	Purposes	Drivers	Processes	Outcomes
Algeria	Aligning TVET provisions with labour market needs and the ongoing development of adults' skills	IF – Ministry of Vocational Education LF – 2008 law and recent policies on apprenticeship training IF – Institutional arrangements including inspectors IF – many local arrangements to manage LF – arrangements and protections for apprentices and disabled	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Central administrative arrangements (e.g. 5 levels of qualification), a range of distinct institutions offered</li> <li>TVET programmes and localized employment-educational arrangements including cost-sharing processes and inspectors that operate at the local level.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Reasonable engagement by young people, but only 40 per cent of available training positions are being taken up.</li> </ul>
Egypt	Reducing unemployment, overcoming social inequality, and enhancing national economic competitiveness	IF – Ministry of Vocational Education formed in 2015, but functions reintegrated into Ministry of Education (MOE) IF – No clear leadership for TVET, and social partnerships more local (e.g. alternance) than national, where they remain ad hoc IF – External agencies IF – Post-compulsory education institutional leadership is vested in higher education, which may not be wholly supportive of WBL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>A series of regional technical colleges, industrial education colleges (training tech teachers), many private and public colleges, including vocational training centres (VTCs), which have large numbers (e.g., 51,000 in non-formal courses).</li> <li>Many externally (e.g. dual system, alternance) and government (e.g. Joint School initiative, technical secondary schools) supported and shaped programmes.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Dual system students report positive outcomes in job readiness etc.</li> <li>Difficulty in securing student interest and engagement.</li> <li>Over 50 per cent of dual-system apprentice completers leave to progress to higher education.</li> </ul>
Lebanon	Promoting workplace skills and productivity of labour force, addressing unemployment	IF – Demand from informal economy IF – Lacking a key government agency	Apart from dual apprentices, lacks structured WBL schemes.	

Jordan	Skill formation across a wide range of occupations	<p>IF – Need for skills, and sensitivities associated with women’s employment</p> <p>IF – National strategy for Human Resource Development 2016–2025 – aim to increase number of young people in apprenticeships</p> <p>IF – training contracts supposed to be signed between employer and VTC institution; although legally sanctioned, not always adopted</p> <p>IF – Jordan’s national employment strategy (2011–2020), emphasizes that VET programmes are demand-driven</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Expanding programmes of apprenticeship, approving workplace training – adopting a national approach to apprenticeship provisions.</li> <li>Pilot projects in an expanded provision of apprenticeships.</li> <li>ILO-organized framework for apprenticeships in 2014, but no evidence of implementation.</li> </ul>	
Morocco	Right to occupational training Improving business performance Quality entry-level training Engaging young people in working life	<p>LF – Act36/96 – introduced in 1997 sets out arrangements for WBL</p> <p>LF – ministerial order 1999 – enacted in 2000 identified targeted occupations and conditions for host workplaces</p> <p>IF – National Vocational Education strategy</p> <p>IF –SNFP (2016–2021) – quality occupational training for all and across working lives</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Contracted arrangements – employer and novice, approved by CFA</li> <li>Financial incentives.</li> <li>Defined in the Act.</li> <li>Arrangement focuses on promoting young women’s employment.</li> </ul>	High dropout rate (up to 40 per cent) in first few months.
Oman	Building national human resource capacity to meet labour market need and changing national economic platform	<p>IF – Royal decrees – National Renaissance – plan for boosting economic diversity</p> <p>IF – 5-year growth plan (2016–2021)</p> <p>Three government directorates</p> <p>LF – courses requiring 9 months of OJT</p>	OJT scheme supported by government.	
Palestine	Addressing high unemployment in a country with a growing population, improving work readiness	<p>IF – Ministry of Labour, Palestine Federation of Chambers of Commerce</p> <p>No legal frameworks or acts</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Belgium Development Co-operation – development of admin and legal frameworks.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>A number of pilot programmes have reported success, but with relatively small numbers of participants.</li> <li>Too early to say about outcomes.</li> </ul>
Tunisia	Improving employability outcomes for young Tunisians, developing skills for economic development	<p>LF – 2008–2010 laws – central role for FP</p> <p>LF – enterprise tax (1 or 2% of payroll)</p> <p>IF – Social contract (2013) – government (MFPE), employers and unions (UGTT)</p> <p>IF – UGTT involvement – key driver</p> <p>IF – Inclusion in National Plan (2016 – 2020), role for MFPE and ATPF</p> <p>IF – government finance – i) promotion of vocational training (by payroll levy), and ii) Apprenticeship and Employment Promotion Fund (budget line)</p>	<p>Alternation, apprenticeship, internships.</p> <p>F0 – supplementary training required when workplace cannot provide experiences.</p> <p>Regional issues and mobility.</p>	

Notes: LF = Legal frameworks, those frameworks that are supported by legislation.

IF = Institutional frameworks, those frameworks that are the product of government or social partners recommending, mandating and supporting particular initiatives.



From **Table 3.1**, it can be seen that the educational purposes associated with WBL are largely those directed towards the three goals of:

- addressing youth unemployment
- developing the skills required for effective workplaces and stronger economies
- strengthening the quality of TVET experiences.

The first two goals are prominent, both in the discussions about the needs within these countries and the role that TVET can play in addressing those goals, and in how WBL experiences can support achievement of these outcomes. As noted above, the key focuses for TVET are quite utilitarian, and their success is premised on factors that in part sit outside of and beyond their auspices. There are strong expectations about what TVET should be able to achieve, particularly with WBL. Yet key factors including stagnant economic activity, the employment of young people, and specific skill needs of workplaces are difficult for it to countenance and respond to. This makes it apparent why so many of the government initiatives consider social partners and the role that they can play in aligning these kinds of goals with TVET provisions, and also why they want to involve and seek advice from employers that have a demand for skilled workers.

### Institutional and legal frameworks

The statements about purposes are noteworthy insofar as their relationships to the different institutional and legal frameworks support these arrangements across the participating countries. Those countries with stable government and institutions (Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia) seemingly have a greater array of legally sanctioned drivers than those countries that have experienced periods of instability or whose governments are fractured and dispersed. Some of the former countries have institutional frameworks imported from outside or that are the product of earlier colonial affiliations, and these offer a greater or lesser fit with the country context. In the absence of legal frameworks and agreements that can secure collaboration among employers, unions, employer groups and chambers of commerce, there is a reliance on societal sentiments and values as bases for engagement and commitment. These may be wholly exercised at the local or personal level in the absence of legal or institutional frameworks. It is apparent that the standing of TVET, particularly that with work-based elements, is quite low. This inevitably leads to concerns that without legislation in these circumstances, such educational arrangements may not find support within the community.

### Diverse approaches

An array of processes is being used across these countries to promote WBL within TVET. Some of these are associated with TVET training institutions, and others are based on

partnerships and support either within the country or external to it. There are also some pilot projects associated with raising interest in and enhancing the status of TVET. As proposed above, it is likely to be a combination of such actions that will lead to greater engagement in an acceptance of WBL experiences in TVET programmes.

As presented in **Table 3.1**, there are specified outcomes of several different kinds, and here, statements about numbers indicate that different kinds of progress are being made across these countries. In some of these countries there might even have been regression in some areas, which is not surprising given the turbulence over the last decade in some countries and the decline in economic circumstances in most.

From the above, it can be seen that there are particular purposes and a series of specific drivers in each of these countries, which are related to needs and institutional arrangements. These lead to the particular kinds of process that are intended to support WBL experiences for young people. It seems to be clear that a combination of legal and institutional frameworks that operate at the national and local level is likely to be helpful in providing the conditions through which WBL experiences might be provided. This includes the bases for their engagement by young people, and the importance of aligning the experiences provided to young people with the intended goals.

### Specific country approaches

There is also a need to understand the kinds of educational purposes that are being achieved through WBL arrangements, and what is provided for young people, the kinds of consequences for them, and the development of skills. Again, these arrangements need to be understood through the particular developments occurring in each of those countries. **Table 3.2** attempts to capture and present the array of WBL programmes across these eight countries. It does so by identifying the key kinds of arrangement that are currently being used. These categories comprise:

- the traditional mode of apprenticeship, which largely occurs in family or small businesses, and is often focused on occupational preparation for traditional crafts
- the apprenticeship system, which provides and integrates workplace experiences with those provided in education institutions, with apprentices usually having the status of employees
- the alternance model, an educational model that provides experiences in educational institutions (i.e., residences) and significant periods of workplace experience, but in which the young person is primarily a student
- enterprise- or industry-specific programmes, including OJT elements

- labour market-type programmes that are focused on specific occupations and are often quite short term
- study at distance programmes for those working, for example in traditional apprenticeships, who want also to study further.

What can be taken from **Table 3.1** is that there are quite diverse patterns of WBL arrangements across these countries. As **Table 3.2** shows, and is discussed in the sections about specific country approaches below, however, there are sometimes significant differences within some of these arrangements.

## Algeria

Vocational education is enshrined in the Algerian constitution. The establishment of a specialized ministry, legislated arrangements for provisions and national certification of vocational education across five levels, access by disabled people of any age, shared arrangements for financial support, localized agreements for apprenticeships and the range of specialized institutions illustrate the Algerian Government's concerns about vocational education. The specific focuses for current government concerns are first, initial development of occupational skills, and second, continuing development for the national workforce. These arrangements have been subject to continuous updating through new legislation in 2014 and now revisions in 2018 particularly associated with apprenticeships, all of which indicates concerted government action.

Three forms of WBL operate through these arrangements. First, there are internships in companies, which are usually between one and three months' duration during the programme, and require a six-month diploma programme. Mostly, internships occurring at the end of the period of training are paid, although there is no legislation setting the amount of pay. Second, there is apprenticeship training, in which the apprentice spends 80 per cent of their time in the workplace and 20 per cent in a TVET institution. The training covers a broad span, of twenty sectors, 306 specializations and the five levels of certification. These arrangements are for Algerians aged between 18 and 35, and those with disabilities of any age. The WBL experiences are largely a product of specific enterprises' practices and needs (Bedou, 2018). Apprenticeships are growing as a post-school pathway in Algeria, and account for nearly 56 per cent of the overall graduates from TVET in 2016, up from 37 per cent in 2000. Third, continuing education is largely directed towards those who are already in full-time employment and are seeking to upgrade their qualifications and maintain the currency of their skills. It also engages those workers who are seeking to transfer from one occupation to another.

A total of 7,500 local agreements have been established on top of 100 national agreements, to support continuing education and training in Algeria. There are reportedly low levels of participation, but these appear to be quite consistent with those in other countries. For instance, it is claimed that 11.7 per cent of the existing workforce are engaging in continuing education programmes. However, although there are funds available to support continuing education, the arrangements to secure that funding are restrictive and not often accessed (Bedou, 2018).

The arrangements for continuing education were the subject of a review in 2014, and current reforms are seeking to make it more engaging and accessible, including access to financial support. Part of this provision involves assisting existing workers to adapt their skills and train for other occupations. There is funding available for young people for up to six months who wish to engage in training – adaptation programmes. However, the criticism of these programmes is that they are tightly aligned to the practical skills required for a new occupation.

## Egypt

In Egypt, the stated purposes for WBL experiences for young people are to reduce unemployment, address social inequity and enhance the economic competitiveness of the nation's enterprises. However, these all progress in the absence of key drivers such as legal frameworks, and with uncertain institutional support, because of recent social revolutions which have disrupted and divided governmental functions and agencies (El-Ashmawi, 2017). There has also been a lack of a tradition of work-based TVET programmes (only 2 per cent of secondary school students undertake work experience) and there are difficulties engaging workplaces in offering WBL experiences. Added to this is the prevalence of small and micro enterprises – many of which operate in the informal sector – which are often ill-equipped or unfamiliar with the requirements of supporting WBL programmes, making organizing and realizing active WBL difficult (El Ashmawi, 2017). Importantly, these kinds of business represent the areas of growth in the Egyptian economy (El-Ashmawi, 2017).

Nevertheless, there is a wide range of TVET programmes that have WBL elements in them (see **Table 3.2**). These include traditional apprenticeships wholly in the workplace, different kinds of dual apprenticeship and alternance educational programmes that combine, in a structured way, experiences in workplaces and TVET institutions, enterprise-specific apprenticeship arrangements, educational programmes that divide and integrate experiences in workplaces, and specific apprenticeships that are largely workplace-based, responding to labour market needs. The diversity of these approaches and the relatively small numbers of participants

in each of these programmes gives the impression of a fragmented and differentiated system of TVET. Some of these approaches seem overly associated with the interests and preferences of external sponsors, rather than being designed to be a good fit for Egypt. For instance, the dual system is based on its German equivalent and is reported to have only 42,000 apprentices across forty-seven occupations in a country with a population of 90 million, 30 per cent of whom are aged under 30.

To take another instance, a (now discontinued) alternance system was funded by the European Union, and secured only 1,000 participants. An industrial apprenticeship scheme sponsored by the British Council had a mere fifteen participants. The most significant numbers of students are in the Oumani scheme, which permits young people who are currently employed to complete their secondary education while working. This scheme offers schooling outside of schools themselves which can lead to certification for these young people. This scheme has the hallmarks of an approach that is designed for and responds to local needs. It is estimated that as many as 300,000 young Egyptians are participating in these programmes (El Ashmawi 2017).

Alongside these are the traditional work-based apprenticeship options that are wholly in the workplace and unregulated. Consequently the level of participation is difficult to calculate confidently. One estimate is that between 40,000 and 65,000 young Egyptians engage in these apprenticeships, but another estimate took this number up to 1 million (El Ashmawi, 2017).

As Egypt is by far the most populous country in this study, it is perhaps not surprising that there are a diversity of programmes and approaches to WBL arrangements in its TVET system. However, many of these are pilots or programmes with relatively small numbers of participants. As noted, many of the schemes reflect particular approaches by external sponsors, yet the models that attract the most participation are those that are indigenous to Egypt (El-Ashmawi, 2017). These include the Oumani scheme and traditional apprenticeships. Across these WBL programmes, the majority are associated with giving young people specific occupational competences. The key exception here is the Oumani scheme, which seeks to provide more general educational (not occupational) outcomes and certification for young people already in the workforce.

### Lebanon

In Lebanon, the key purposes of TVET are to develop individuals' occupational skills and the productivity of workplaces, and to address unemployment (Ghneim, 2017). The key driver is essentially the demand from the informal economy, and this is important given the lack of a key

government agency associated with WBL. The purposes for WBL programmes are those associated with apprenticeships in eight trade occupations, and alternance programmes which are more broadly based. The dual system remains the only quality option in terms of WBL, and represents a good match with economic needs and employment opportunities (ETF, 2016c). However, outside of this system, there is a lack of regulations and arrangements to provide certainty about the quality and outcomes of these programmes (Ghneim, 2017). Nevertheless, it is reported that approximately 70 per cent of apprentices find employment on completion, and they have the option to progress to further education. Yet, as in other countries, the low standing of the occupations for which these apprenticeships train people contributes to lower levels of participation and unacceptably high levels of withdrawal from apprenticeship programmes, particularly during the first year (Ghneim, 2017).



**Table 3.2 Comparison of work-based programmes across Arab region countries**

	Traditional apprenticeships	Dual-system apprenticeships	Alternance apprenticeships	Industrial apprenticeships	Integrated schemes	Short-term apprenticeships	Work and studying at distance	Internships
Algeria		343,000 in 2016		168,000 in 2016				
Egypt	Key mode of skill development, mainly in SMEs, no credentials or education (>1 million)	Dual – 42,000 in 47 occupations	1,000 (now discontinued)	22,000 (10% female)	8,000 (6% female)	4,000 (30% female)	300,000	
Jordan	Specific craft occupations	Dual system VTC – 12,000		Dual system VTC – in-company training programmes – 3,000		Semi-skilled VTC – 2,500		
Lebanon	Widely used, especially in MSMEs and informal sector	Dual system	Alternance scheme	Enterprise training		Enterprise training		Short-term government-sponsored
Morocco		Apprenticeship (30,000 – 9% of those in training)	Alternance	Work-based training (88,000, or 20% of those in training)				Internships
Oman	Traditional work-based approach				Technology college programmes (41,000)			
Palestine	Craft sector	School-based apprenticeships	Alternance apprenticeships	Company-based apprenticeships		Traineeships		Internships
Tunisia	Unregulated	Apprenticeship	Alternance apprenticeships					

**Note:** Different kinds of WBL programmes for young people:

Traditional apprenticeships – based wholly in the workplace, for school and technical school graduates.

Dual system – structured apprenticeship of three or four years' duration comprising both workplace and educational experiences.

Alternance scheme – structured education programme in which students alternate between experiences in a workplace and a TVET institution.

Industrial apprenticeships – company-based and specific apprenticeships with work and college-based components, 3 years duration.

Integrated schemes – integrating work-based experiences with school education organized under state agreements.

Short-term apprenticeships – between 1 and 3- year occupation-specific apprenticeship based wholly in the workplace.

Working and studying remotely – for young people based in the workplace and studying remotely.



## Jordan

The stated purposes for WBL provisions for young people in Jordan involve developing skills across a range of occupations (Rawashdeh, 2017). The institutional frameworks are quite strong and well-established, and guided by national strategies associated with human resource development and promoting employment, in particular for young women. There are mandated frameworks associated with training contracts, but these are often not adopted in practice (Rawashdeh, 2017). As in other countries, the traditional mode of young people learning occupational skills through the workplace, often in their parents' businesses, still persists in Jordan, where it has a long tradition. This is particularly the case in preparing young people for craft occupations. Sometimes young people take this option alongside participation in TVET programmes (Rawashdeh, 2017). Some evidence suggests that this approach remains a large part of the skill development option for young Jordanians.

In 2014, 85 per cent of employers reported not employing individuals who had participated in TVET, indicating that the majority of employees learn their skills outside of TVET and through informal apprenticeships. It is noteworthy that when surveyed, the majority (74 per cent) of young people wanted to engage in WBL as part of their TVET programme. It is suggested, however, that these options are largely for young males, and that as in other countries (such as Oman) there are societal barriers against young women participating in WBL programmes. It is noted that some large state enterprises (like the Jordanian Petroleum Company) have their own training centres and train their own staff, but as elsewhere, these are often only for relatively small numbers of young people and for very specific forms of work (Rawashdeh, 2017).

However, TVET programmes that include structured WBL experiences have existed for over five decades in Jordan (Rawashdeh, 2017). These are largely in industry sectors that have structured apprenticeship arrangements (such as metals, electrical, automotive, refrigeration, upholstery), but also in garment manufacturing, printing, and in a range of occupations that have predominantly female workers (such as reception, housekeeping, hairdressing, secretarial work and beauty therapy). Consequently, the drivers here are associated with skill formation, and are broad enough to include a range of occupations that are predominantly female (Rawashdeh, 2017).

It is suggested that the factors shaping young people's participation in WBL programmes are fivefold. First is the extent of young people's awareness of the importance of WBL experiences to assist them to become employable and competent in their work. The second factor is the level of employer awareness of the importance of WBL in

developing the kinds of skills needed for their workplace. Surveys indicate that the majority of small enterprises (80 per cent) were not open to engaging with students from TVET programmes, although larger employers (such as hotels) were. Third is the availability of programmes: WBL arrangements are quite limited and restricted to a select number of occupational areas. Fourth, there is little financial incentive or support for young people engaging in WBL. Fifth, the regulations associated with roles and responsibilities in WBL arrangements are underdeveloped, and need to be exercised and monitored.

There are a range of apprenticeship training programmes (VTC) that involve experiences in both workplaces and training centres. These address occupational preparation in the fields that are common to apprenticeships in many other countries: welding, metal fabrication, electrics, electronics, automotive work, air-conditioning and refrigeration, carpentry, upholstery and garment making. There are also apprenticeships in fields such as hospitality and food and beverage preparation, reception and housekeeping, as well as hairdressing. These apprenticeships extend over 2,000 enterprises, and emphasize collaborative arrangements between the forty-two training centres and these enterprises. In addition, there are traditional family-based apprenticeships for occupations such as blacksmithing, carpet-making, weaving and woodworking. At the other end of the range of options, a new initiative in Jordan is to include high-level technical certificates within VTC (Rawashdeh, 2017).

## Morocco

In Morocco the purposes shaping policies and practices associated with young people's participation in WBL arrangements are associated with exercising the right to occupational training, improving enterprise performance and enhancing the quality of entry-level training (Sennou, 2017). The key drivers comprise a series of legislated and institutional frameworks setting out arrangements for WBL experiences, some of which are quite long-standing (dating from 1996). These also include legislated arrangements through ministerial orders targeting the development of skill-specific occupations (Sennou, 2017). The drivers here extend to government providing financial incentives, the regulation of workplace experiences, and efforts to enhance women's participation in these programmes. This country has a well-developed TVET system which includes programmes involving extensive workplace experience. For instance, in the work-based vocational training programmes up to 50 per cent of the duration is within workplaces. Second, apprenticeship training programmes are essentially work-based, with apprentices spending up to 80 per cent of their indenture in small- and medium-sized enterprises (Sennou, 2017). So there is an understanding of the worth of WBL experiences, and as noted above, this does not relate solely

to specific occupational preparation. These experiences are also seen as a means for engaging young people in working life, particularly those who might be otherwise disengaged from it. The number of students participating in WBL arrangements increased almost threefold over a decade, from 24,000 in 2006–07, to 70,000 in 2017.

It is also noteworthy that in Morocco, females take up 46 per cent of apprenticeships, albeit these are concentrated in specific female-dominated occupations. This proportion has increased by 17 per cent since 2006 (Sennou, 2017). Perhaps much of this participation in apprenticeships is a product of having mature and enduring institutional and administrative frameworks that have enjoyed a significant period of continuity and refinement. Certainly, the range and ordering of arrangements such as industry partnerships, categorization of forms of occupational preparation, even the fact that detailed data about TVET programmes and students can be provided for each occupational area (Sennou, 2017), are indicative of a mature TVET system that is increasingly directing its efforts to providing workplace experiences for its students.

As discussed below, a feature of the Moroccan system is that these programmes and approaches have evolved over time, and have been subject to considered legislation and evaluation of pilots and the implementation of programmes. Note that no mention is made of external sponsors or influences, albeit much of the approach is a legacy of being an ex-French colony. Instead, Sennou's report (2017) offers a clear outline of national discussions and policies evolving over three decades and responding to the country's changing circumstances. It also follows that Morocco has a strategic plan for the next five years that is detailed and seeks to achieve the kinds of goals that most of these countries are advocating: a responsive TVET system and programmes that are closely aligned with workplace and industry needs, and improving the quality of TVET provisions (Sennou, 2017).

### Oman

In Oman, the key purpose associated with young people's WBL experiences is to build the nation's human resource capacities (Al-Mujaini, 2017). This is in part a response to the need to change the mix of economic activities and move away from reliance on hydrocarbons. The key drivers are royal decrees that seek to bring about this redirection, and institutional frameworks comprising national plans for economic diversity underpinned by legal frameworks that stipulate the time that students in all courses need to spend in workplaces. The organization of TVET is distributed across three different directorates. Those students under the Technological Education directorate engage in programmes that require a nine-month on-the-job component, relevant to their course, which has to be completed before they

can obtain their qualification. Both full-time and part-time students (many of whom are employed) have to fulfil this work experience requirement before they graduate. Students under the control of the Vocational Education and Training directorate are also required to engage in up to nine months of work experience, and those experiences are the subject of an agreement between the education institution and the employer, with responsibilities on either side, as set out in bylaws. Similarly, students under the directorate of Occupational Standards Curriculum Development engage in work-related experiences; many of these are remunerated and required to be of a similar duration to the other programmes (nine months) before certification can be awarded. In these ways, there are legislative and administrative requirements for students to have access to and complete fairly extensive periods of workplace experience relevant to their programmes.

### Palestine

In Palestine, the purposes of providing workplace learning experiences are to address the high levels of youth unemployment, and specifically to improve the job readiness of young people. While there is no legal or institutional framework driving the process of achieving these purposes, there are institutional frameworks associated with collaboration between the Ministries of Education and Labour to promote these initiatives. In addition, the local chambers of commerce play a role in seeking to advance these arrangements (Jweiles, 2017). Palestine has, not surprisingly, a very nascent TVET system, and the provision of WBL is very much premised on pilots and occupational-area-specific initiatives, often funded by external agencies.

Nevertheless, it has an array of structured arrangements involving WBL (see **Table 3.2**). These include traineeships, internships, school-based apprenticeships, company-based apprenticeships and apprenticeships in work settings: the traditional model of occupational preparation. Evident in Jweiles's (2017) report is a lack of regulation and legislation associated with these provisions in Palestine compared with countries such as Morocco, Oman and Tunisia. For instance, arrangements associated with wages, instruction and assessment in the workplace, and the duration of these programmes, are described as variable and sometimes absent. Perhaps this is not surprising, and reflects the difficult circumstances under which this country is progressing and the challenges it faces economically and socially. Nonetheless there are efforts to regulate these arrangements, with contracts of training being used in programmes sponsored by donor countries. These kinds of programme are restricted to a number of specific occupations and locations (Jweiles, 2017).



## Tunisia

In Tunisia, the key purposes for work-based arrangements concern improving the employability of young people, and developing the kinds of skills that are required for developing further the nation's economy (Chelbi, 2017). There is a significant array of both legal and institutional frameworks that support these arrangements and the TVET system. These extend to an enterprise tax on payroll that is used to support the preparation and provision of contracts between the employer and the young person, but mediated by state institutions. One driver that is particularly important in Tunisia is the involvement of the main union body.

Similarly to Morocco, Tunisia has four forms of WBL arrangement for young people, with three of them being highly regulated. The two schemes featuring strong engagement with workplaces – alternation and apprenticeship – have contracted arrangements between the training institution and the workplace, based on standard national arrangements. These contracts set out requirements for both partners, the time and commitment needed for each form of experience, and arrangements for awarding TVET certificates (Chelbi, 2017). Traditional apprenticeships largely sit outside of TVET provisions, and as such are not regulated and, like elsewhere, do not lead to nationally recognized certification. As in other countries, it is difficult to calculate the number of these kinds of apprentice. In a country that relatively has much data about TVET, it seemingly does not extend to this form of apprenticeship. There are also internships that involve experiences within workplaces and are not always subject to contracts. Like many forms of apprenticeship in European countries, and also in some of these countries, remuneration for apprentices is regulated. The legislation and regulation of apprenticeships extends to a duty of care to ensure that they are not exploited. There is also a system to manage the provisions of these training programmes, and align them with labour market requirements and demand for specific occupations (Chelbi, 2017).

## WBL arrangements

As noted and elaborated, there is a diverse range of WBL arrangements for young people across these eight countries. These can be categorized broadly as:

- apprenticeships that are largely hosted by workplaces
- alternance arrangements comprising educational programmes with workplace learning experiences embedded within them
- industry or enterprise educational programmes.

In countries with mature apprenticeship systems, legislation and regulation of these arrangements is addressed by contracts and requirements stipulating the duration of

workplace experiences and remuneration for apprentices. There continue to be traditional apprenticeships – the long-standing means by which occupations have developed in these countries, usually in small and family businesses (ILO, 2015). Because these are beyond the reach of TVET programmes and government regulation, their scope and extent is far from fully understood. It seems that across many countries these arrangements apply particularly to long-established craft occupations. What is also evident is the diversity of participation across these programmes, including by young women. It is noteworthy that the country that offers the strongest data on young women's participation in WBL programmes (Morocco) has significant legislation and regulations, and an array of occupations that are subject to apprenticeship. Female apprentices are concentrated in just some of these (Sennou, 2017).

There is also evidence that, in some countries, particularly those with mature TVET systems, governance and administrative arrangements (Algeria, Morocco, Oman, Tunisia), there has been a significant increase in the number of TVET students engaging in WBL as part of their occupational preparation. All of this suggests the importance of stability in government and key social institutions, and the need for concerted efforts to identify and realize long-term goals. TVET arrangements can be well aligned with national goals such as accommodating regional needs and addressing young women's participation. Of course, this is an easy conclusion to arrive at, and it in no way offers a negative critique of other countries that have not been able to achieve this outcome. However, it suggests, as proposed earlier, that there is a complex of factors shaping the likelihood of an effective and mature TVET system, which extends into the provision of workplace experiences which necessarily engage stakeholders and partners. One particularly salient issue that is not explicitly addressed in the reports is the provision of WBL arrangements that can meet the needs of small and micro businesses, which comprise the core of economic activities and employment in these countries.

In sum, as presented in **Tables 3.1** and **3.2**, there is much similarity in the purposes for which WBL arrangements have been introduced. These comprise addressing youth unemployment, improving the quality of TVET, and contributing to the capacities of enterprises to remain effective, enjoy growth and be sustained by the skilfulness of their employees. The drivers behind these initiatives are various legal and institutional frameworks, which exist to different degrees and in different forms in these countries. Some countries have a solid set of legal frameworks that empower the institutional actions (such as Algeria and Tunisia) and in others they are absent (Palestine, Lebanon). It is also evident from **Table 3.2** that there is a diversity of approaches and programmes that include WBL experiences, and these are distributed differently across each of the eight

countries. Perhaps most noticeably, the former French colonies of Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia have probably the best-developed institutional and legal frameworks to promote and realize effective WBL experiences for young people. It is also evident that there are diverse kinds of educational programme that promote WBL in these countries, and different levels of participation by young people within and across these provisions.

In sum, countries with the strongest legal and institutional frameworks have the most mature arrangements for securing and integrating these workplace provisions within the kinds of educational provision that are being directed to social and economic purposes. Consequently, the next chapter discusses these frameworks in greater detail.

Please note: summaries of the information used in this chapter are available in the appendices.

## **CHAPTER 4**

# **Policies, Legislation and Regulation**

# Policies, Legislation and Regulation

## Introduction

From **Chapter 3**, it is apparent that the range, extent and quality of legal and institutional frameworks vary across these eight countries. It is also evident that there is a coincidence between countries with well-established legal and institutional frameworks that have been implemented and maintained (of those under consideration in this paper, Algeria, Morocco, Oman and Tunisia) and the complexity and relative efficacy of their TVET arrangements. In these countries that efficacy extends not only to setting out the goals for WBL arrangements, but also to laws and regulations on how young people should be engaged, supported and cared for. This is in addition to provisions for workplaces and requisite institutional frameworks, including how social partnerships should be established and for what purposes. At their best, these frameworks extend to monitoring the arrangements, better still at the regional and local level (as in Algeria and Tunisia: Chelbi, 2017).

Work-based components also seem to be more common and effective in these countries than in those that lack these arrangements (Egypt, Lebanon and Palestine). These frameworks are also noteworthy for their engagement with related issues such as education, the labour market, and social priorities such as access to TVET and employment for young women, those with disabilities and the geographically isolated. In addition, the extent of these legal and institutional frameworks is probably a key marker of governments' ability to engage with workplaces and social partners, since countries with strong frameworks have mechanisms that extend beyond educational institutions and into workplaces, and engage with the partners whose cooperation is essential for WBL. Taking these propositions as cues, this chapter considers the different legal and institutional frameworks in terms of their ability to permit governments to achieve goals associated with WBL for young people.

## Country arrangements

### Algeria

Algeria stands as a country that has an extensive legislative, regulatory and policy framework to promote TVET, which extends to work-based provisions such as apprenticeships and internships, and to ongoing education and training. As a starting point, access to experiences that enable people to effectively participate in working life and be educated for it is an element of the national constitution. Specifically, it

refers to apprenticeship as a means to access employment, and recognizes the state's duty to promote it (Bedou, 2018). These constitutional edicts are actioned through a series of legislative arrangements that were introduced in 2008 and updated in 2013, 2016 and 2018. These updates have responded to issues identified with implementation, which include extending apprenticeship arrangements for people aged 25 to 35, and extending support arrangements from large enterprises to MSMEs with fewer than twenty employees, which traditionally not have taken many apprentices.

So consideration of vocational education and WBL provisions is an active issue in Algeria. To take an example, in November 2013 the prime minister declared that companies awarded public contracts would have to provide apprenticeships extending to 20 per cent of their workforce. There is a long-term plan in place for vocational training and apprenticeships leading up to 2025, with incremental five-year plans seeking to expand the capacity of the TVET system and increase participation to 600,000 positions a year. To realize these goals there is a system to support apprenticeship training by covering the salary for the first three years. There is also a taxation scheme (the professional training and apprenticeship tax) to support companies employing apprentices. These arrangements have been advanced in consultation with social partners comprising employers and industry groups (Bedou, 2018).

To illustrate the extent of the arrangements, it is worth quoting the 2018 law that seeks to enhance the operation of the apprenticeship system and secure better involvement of employers and those at the local level. Among other things, this legislation addresses partnerships, sharing of costs, inspection of apprenticeship agreements and arrangements, reconciliation arrangements, recruitment, protection of apprentices including health checks, specific rights for women (such as maternity leave), mechanisms for adapting the apprentice system to changing circumstances, and embracing not only Algerian workplaces but also those from overseas companies. Items covered are:

- 'The installation of apprentices by associating employers' organizations according to the needs of training in different specialties, the establishment of a pedagogical system of learning through a mechanism based on the acquisition of know-how and training of teachers of learning in the pedagogical plan for a better supervision of apprentices.'
- 'The creation of a corps of inspectors responsible for vocational training by apprenticeship to ensure pedagogical evaluation and control.'

- 'The creation of a conciliation commission at the local level responsible for deciding on the possible disputes during the execution of the apprenticeship contract and their amicable settlement.'
- 'The employer's payment of pre-employment from the date of signature of the contract in the case of an organization employing more than 20 workers.'
- 'The possibility of recruiting the apprentice without first resorting to the employment schemes put in place by the State.'
- 'Protect the apprentice in the workplace through regular monitoring by the doctor.'
- 'Consolidate her rights including the right to maternity leave and the extension of the contract in case of inconclusive internship, besides granting copyright and patents to the apprentice.'
- 'The adaptation of the apprenticeship system to the socio-economic development of the country taking into account the amendments provided for in Law 81-07 of 27 June 1981.'
- 'Extend learning to public enterprises of an industrial and commercial nature of the National People's Army (ANP) and foreign companies active in Algeria'. (Bedou, 2018)

In these ways, it can be seen that there is a comprehensive legislative, policy and administrative regime to support vocational education, including WBL, which is implemented through key social partnerships, care for apprentices, support for local employers, and arrangements at the regional level to support the system under which apprentices are engaged and progress with their skill development, with a consideration that extends to their health care.

## Egypt

As was noted earlier, because of disruption to the government through a series of revolutions and changes in government departments and associated institutions, Egypt's legal and institutional frameworks for supporting young people's WBL are currently quite limited (see **Table 4.1**) (El-Ashmawi, 2017). Although in the past legislation for TVET has been introduced and approved, most of it has either been made redundant or is no longer being implemented (El-Ashmawi, 2017). Consequently, there is currently no unified TVET law or strategy that includes conditions for apprenticeships or WBL.

However, there have been a range of separate draft strategies led by different authorities and stakeholders in the system. These include the MOE's Strategy 2014–2025, which offers clear plans for technical education, but does not embrace vocational training of the kind focused upon here. There is also Egypt's Sustainable Development Vision 2030, which places great emphasis on TVET and the involvement of the private sector, and on taking responsibility for part of the

education and training provision. Then there are a range of donor-funded projects, such as the EU-funded TVET Reform Programme (TVET 2).

The TVET system in Egypt has multiple stakeholders, including three government ministries (the Ministries of Education and Technical Education, Manpower, and Labour). A concern for realizing coherent reform is the degree to which these three ministries can work in unison and in complementary ways (El-Ashmawi, 2017). Indeed, a key current concern here is that centrally, the potential effort for and governmental engagement with TVET and considerations of WBL seem to be fragmented and dispersed across a number of agencies. Given that these arrangements tend to require engagement across and coordination through a number of institutions, the existing situation in Egypt for supporting young people's WBL is not strong (El-Ashmawi, 2017), except through the traditional apprenticeship system, which continues and is seemingly largely unaffected by these arrangements.

## Jordan

In Jordan, the only legislation that governs WBL is the Labour law No. 8 of 1996 and its amendments, in which articles 36, 37 and 38 indicate requirements for conducting training in enterprises (Rawashdeh, 2017). These specify that workplace conditions should be appropriate for training; the qualifications of in-company trainers in a related occupational area; training contracts between employers and the trainees, which must include the training period, stages and wages (this extends to ensuring that trainees' wages in the final stage are not less than regular workers' wages), and that the training programme and form of contract need to be regulated by the Vocational Training Council (VTC). The VTC was set up under earlier (1986) legislation, and mandated to oversee the provision of apprenticeship training for young people and adults in Jordan.

The National Strategy for Human Resource Development 2016–2025 offers a range of institutional framing for young people's learning through work. An initiative entitled 'expand apprenticeship programs' has been implemented by the Ministry of Labour (MOL) and the National Employment and Training Company (NEC). The purposes here are to increase apprenticeship engagement and programmes, and to have workplaces recognized as legitimate sites for learning. Currently (2018) a draft framework for apprenticeships is being considered by Cabinet.

There are also initiatives being piloted to support effective OJT in the private sector for both young males and females. The goal here is to assist these training programmes to be more effectively 'demand driven', and to meet the needs of the labour market in quantity and quality terms. As part of this thrust to be demand-driven, the VTC, in partnership

with the private sector, has established and managed three centres of excellence (COEs), specializing in new areas of occupational training including pharmaceuticals, water and the environment, and renewable energy. WBL experiences are used in implementing training programmes in the COEs, and these programmes have been extended to address the technical level of learning required for occupations in the water sector. MOL is also supporting a range of in-company training arrangements. Noteworthy here is the focus of institutional leadership in these arrangements: a Ministry of Labour, rather than of education.

## Lebanon

Currently, whereas there is a clear legal framework for the TVET sector, no legal framework exists for WBL arrangements in Lebanon (Ghneim, 2017). In 2012 the

government prepared a TVET strategy comprising four core areas: reviewing and updating the available programmes and specialties in TVET; reviewing the academic and administrative structure of TVET; providing and developing human, physical and financial resources; and strengthening partnerships and cooperation in the field of TVET. Each core area has some projects and action plans. Decree number 8590 concerning the Fields, Levels and the Certificates of Technical and Vocational Education was issued in August 2012 and approved in 2013. However, these measures are largely associated with qualification levels and requirements, and do not extend into considerations of WBL arrangements. Consequently, there is weak alignment between the agencies and institutions necessary to support effective learning experiences for young Lebanese people, and a lack of coordination in the exercise of these provisions.

**Table 4.1** Legal and institutional frameworks

	Legal framework	Institutional frameworks
Algeria	Constitutional and legal arrangements to support apprenticeship training, with particular emphasis on sharing of costs, regulating activities, inspecting for quality, and care of apprentices.	The institutional frameworks are organized under a specialized Ministry of Vocational Education and Training, and extend to using social partnerships and local agents to ensure effective apprenticeship arrangements, and that the costs are shared between government and the employer.
Egypt	Because of governmental turbulence and restructuring there is no current legislative framework that extends to TVET, and in particular WBL.	Responsibilities by Ministries of Education and Technical Education, Manpower, and Labour
Jordan	Labour law (1996) stipulates a range of requirements for workplace training arrangements that extends to the quality of the training and the contract, wages and conditions	A range of initiatives and framings through the Ministry of Labour to align TVET provisions with the needs of private-sector businesses, including targeted ones across three emerging industry sectors. The central focus is on developing a demand-side responsive TVET provision that includes workplace experiences for students.
Lebanon	No legal framework for WBL, although there is a legal framework for the TVET sector that focuses on levels and requirements for TVET qualifications.	Institutional frameworks nicely based in educational institutional levels including those associated with the selection of teachers (by examination).
Morocco	Work-based Vocational Training Act (1996), which specified a series of occupations that would be targeted for workplace learning initiatives and the requirements for host businesses.	<b>National Vocational Training Strategy to 2021</b> (2016) – comprises a national strategy aimed at addressing deficits and the current TVET system and seeking to promote the competitiveness of Moroccan businesses. The aim is to increase the participation in work-based training from 100,000 to over 400,000 by 2021.
Oman	Royal decrees – regulating the labour market and TVET (1970), enhanced focus on skill development (1972), focusing on stakeholder contribution to TVET (1975), labour market arrangements.	Development of an Occupational Standards and Testing Centre in 2011 to align the development of skills and the outcomes of TVET systems. By-law for OJT funding.
Palestine	No legal frameworks for WBL, or for TVET.	Some institutional frameworks for WBL arrangements provided through Belgian Development Cooperation.
Tunisia	Legal frameworks associated with WBL, and in particular, involving young people who are disengaged from work and civil life. Specific legislative arrangements associated with apprenticeships.	Legislative arrangements premised upon a social compact between the government, employers and unions. The institutional frameworks include tax credits and incentives such as enterprises being able to draw upon the national training fund to support apprenticeship arrangements.



## Morocco

In Morocco, a set of institutional frameworks seeks to promote WBL, initially through apprenticeship programmes, and as directed towards promoting the growth of the Moroccan economy and extending workplaces' capacities to respond to the demands of changing demographics (Sennou, 2017). There are also some quite specific legislated frameworks, such as the Work-based Vocational Training Act, enacted in 1996 and including consideration of implementing and organizing WBL. This legislation now sits in a broader National Vocational Training Strategy (2016–2021) established in 2016. It proposes concrete and ambitious goals for increasing participation in WBL fourfold by 2021. So there is a national strategy, supported by legislation, that quite specifically addresses the requirements of WBL for young people.

## Oman

In Oman, the key legal and institutional frameworks that guide the provision of workplace learning arrangements derive from royal decrees (Al-Mujaini, 2017). These largely focus on workplace arrangements and labour requirements, and on aligning the outcomes of TVET programmes with occupational needs. However, there are also by-laws associated with OJT and requirements of the training providers to address funding.

## Palestine

There are no current legal frameworks for WBL in Palestine, nor are there any for the TVET sector more generally. However, there is some institutional framing organized through the Belgian Development Cooperation that has set down some guidelines for institutional capacity-building associated with WBL for young people. The claim is that these schemes have been very successful in linking education and training provisions with employment, and have contributed effectively to the development of the Palestinian economy (Jweiles, 2017). This arrangement provides an example of specific and locally based initiatives of the kind that might be effective in the absence of central leadership, legislation and institutions that are able to promote and support such arrangements.

## Tunisia

Tunisia has extensive legal and institutional frameworks for supporting WBL for young people, which date back to the establishment of the alternance educational system in 1993 (Chelbi, 2017). These legal measures are based on the principle of partnership with business and professional organizations. A key focus of the legislation was to help involve young people who are disengaged from education

and potentially from working life. Hence, apprenticeships have come to be seen as a means of integrating young people into economic and civil society. The legislation was updated in 2011, and emphasizes the importance of social contracts between the government, employers and unions in the management of the TVET system. This is accompanied by measures associated with improving the provisions of TVET to meet government goals. So the specific educational goals here are associated with providing young people with WBL experiences that go beyond the development of occupational skills, and extend their engagement and participation in economic and civil life. Moreover, the institutional frameworks include mechanisms, rewards and incentives for Tunisian enterprises providing WBL for young people (Chelbi, 2017). This includes credits against employers' contributions to the training fund.

In summary, across these countries there are quite distinct kinds of legislative and institutional frameworks that have been established on the basis of, and in response to, particular imperatives. Noteworthy is the extent of these frameworks and the limited degree to which they are currently being implemented. This is a concern particularly at a time when they are most likely required, given the turbulent social and economic era that governments are seeking to negotiate.

## Legislation and regulation promoting WBL

From the country-specific accounts above, it can be seen that providing WBL for young people as part of TVET is most likely to be successful when there is a combination of comprehensive national legislation and institutional arrangements. It is these that together support, organize and administer experiences for young people, and that address imbalances among a range of factors including identifying and providing the experiences, managing the circumstances in which young people participate in workplaces, the quality of the learning experiences they are afforded in those workplaces, and issues associated with sponsorship, payment and a duty of care. At their most advanced and comprehensive, these arrangements exist at both central and local levels. Moreover, they extend to specific provisions for young women, those with disabilities and the geographically isolated.

It is clear from this review that impetuses and institutional arrangements vary over time, and it is not sufficient simply to enact legislation without the institutional frameworks to support its implementation. Moreover, these educational experiences are not just dependent on what occurs in educational institutions. Consequently, there is a need to go beyond the kinds of provision that are used to organize, deliver and evaluate learning experiences in TVET institutions. Instead, a key concern is to engage, collaborate and secure

outcomes with social partners and institutions outside of those TVET facilities. Those external partnerships can involve key institutions supporting the interests of industry, employers and employees. While this kind of partnership is helpful for particular kinds of contribution, such as the content of TVET courses, how they are organized, and what interest in the economic community might translate into paid employment, alone this may not be sufficient. Providing WBL for young people emerges from decision-making in enterprises. The quality of the learning experiences is mediated by what occurs in those workplaces, and this calls for local engagement with the workplaces.

Also seemingly absent from these arrangements are considerations for embracing the traditional apprenticeships that have played such a large part in the skill development of these countries in the past, and continue to do so today. Sitting outside of arrangements that are the subject of government legislation, the efforts of social partners and the contributions of TVET institutions serve to position these important contributions as unimportant and irrelevant. So despite their significant contributions and potential as a model to be built upon, these remain unintegrated into legislative and institutional frameworks.

Added to this is the need for institutional frameworks that can support small and micro businesses to organize and implement effective WBL. Although these enterprises form the vast majority of the economic units in these countries, most lack the capacity to engage with the kinds of apprenticeship models being proposed in many countries, with their close associations with TVET institutions

and requirements for in-house trainers and so on. Instead, other approaches and models are likely to be required. For instance, at the workshop in Beirut it was suggested that buddy systems are more likely to be an effective model than trying to replicate what happens in large enterprises. As mentioned elsewhere, models such as group apprenticeship schemes might be effective as an alternative mechanism to support WBL in these enterprises. That is, institutions provide the apprentices and support their development in partnership with the small or micro-businesses. Elsewhere, for instance in Australia, these initiatives exist in some sectors, and have been extended to respond to growing levels of youth unemployment and the lack of opportunities for effective entry-level training.

The simple point here is that centralized agencies and top-level social partners play important roles, but they will be insufficient in realizing goals such as those set out by the Algerian and Moroccan governments (for instance, expanding fourfold the number of students engaged in WBL). Instead, localized arrangements through chambers of commerce, local government, local employers' associations or industry networks are likely to be essential to achieve the expected kinds of individual and enterprise outcome.

It follows then that the next chapter addresses the issue of the kinds of social partnerships that operate, how these are effective, and how they might be extended.

Please note: summaries of the information used in this chapter are available in the appendices.

# **CHAPTER 5**

**Employer and Employee**

**Organizations (Social Partners)**

## Employer and Employee Organizations (Social Partners)

### Introduction

Mature TVET systems – that is, those that are effective, responsive and enduring – are often premised on effective social partnerships (Billett, 2013). These partnerships are used to assist in the development of the intended outcomes (the aims, goals and objectives) for TVET programmes, their content, and how these programmes are implemented, but also how they are associated with employment outcomes. Perhaps, as suggested in **Chapter 3**, the best examples are where these partnerships operate at national, regional and local level, and extend to working relationships between individual workplaces and TVET institutions (this happens in Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia). This is because occupational practice and workplace requirements are not uniform across workplaces or communities. Instead, the requirements for different trades differ between workplaces. Also, it is in workplaces that decisions are made about whether enterprises will support apprenticeships and alternance students, and how they will engage with providing WBL. Much of this engagement is also shaped by their needs, and how they can best be met by the TVET system or particular programmes.

The German model of social engagement, and in particular the roles played by local chambers of commerce, offers an example of these arrangements which bring together local, regional and national partners. In this instance, the role of these social partners extends to their administering national examinations that are aligned with industry needs, and also enhance the reliability of assessments by individual TVET institutions (Deissinger, 1996; Deissinger and Hellwig, 2005). However, with WBL arrangements for young people, the role of social partnerships becomes even more important. It is central to the quantity and quality of these experiences. This is because WBL takes place outside of educational institutions and in specific workplaces. Consequently, the quality and quantity of engagement by employers is quite central to providing WBL to a sufficient number of young people. Therefore, the role of social partners needs to extend to and be exercised at the local level, to engage, secure and maintain arrangements whereby students, apprentices, alternance candidates, trainees and so on can engage effectively in WBL. So engagement with social partners needs to be considered in each of these countries at both the national level and locally.

One consideration in many of these countries is that social partnerships extend to overseas agencies that provide

support, and include institutions in donor countries. These external social partners often have particular needs and approaches that make more elaborate the processes of engagement, advice and fulfilment of expectations. That is, they are seeking to secure their own kinds of goal.

This chapter presents and discusses social partnership arrangements in all these countries. As a means of capturing their contributions and relationships to national goals associated with providing young people with WBL, **Table 5.1** presents these factors, and is followed by discussion of each country. The table indicates whether social partnerships are operating at national (N) and/or local (L) level, their role in the governance of TVET, and identifies the focus of social partnership work in terms of youth unemployment (YU), particular workplace skills (WS), building national economic capacity (EC) and overcoming social inequalities (OI). The aim here is to provide an overview of different purposes to which TVET programmes more generally and WBL in particular can be directed.

### Country-specific social partnership arrangements

#### Algeria

Partnership arrangements have been advanced within the policy and administrative arrangements that support TVET, and in particular, apprenticeship provisions. These include engaging with employer bodies and industry groups at a central level, but also at the regional level. Over 7,500 local agreements have been generated to support apprenticeship and internship arrangements, and those associated with continuing education and training. At the national level, the focus is on consultation and engagement around legislation and mechanisms for supporting WBL in the form of apprenticeships. Consideration is given to what occurs at the local level and how local actors can support and engage in WBL arrangements.

Importantly, these partnerships operate within frameworks, particularly at the local level, where there are local agreements giving carriage to national processes that seemingly can be adapted to local circumstances and needs. Indeed, Basic Law 2000 covering apprenticeships grants much of their control to those in charge of training (Bedou, 2018). That is, issues associated with technical and pedagogical control are supported, and discretion granted, at the local level. All of this is necessary because of the extent of players involved in forms of WBL such as apprenticeships.

In this instance, these arrangements include the state (which provides an apprenticeship contract and definitions associated with it); employers (who are by law required to provide vocational training); apprentices (who are afforded regulation and legal support, but must fulfil their commitments); inspectors (who are responsible for the quality of vocational training through monitoring apprenticeship arrangements); TVET institutions (which are responsible for the institutional-based training arrangements); local learning facilitation commissions (which have been established in five regions to support apprenticeship); the labour inspectorate (which has responsibility for enforcing labour laws); chambers of commerce and industry (which provide input to the apprenticeship arrangements and reinforcement of conduct of financial support to enterprises through tax exemption and reimbursements); local conciliation commissions (which have responsibilities for reconciling tensions or disputes); an annual national conference which brings together the directors of TVET institutions and local learning facilitation commission members in focusing on sustaining partnerships at the local level; and a partnership council (created in 2011). All of this supports partnership development, and all of it is supported by a tripartite approach premised on the needs of government, employers and employees.

Clearly, such a set of arrangements cannot progress without effective social partnerships operating at national, regional and local levels. These partnerships need to extend across government agencies, enterprises, business groups, educational institutions and the apprentices themselves. The complex of partnerships and arrangements here supporting workplace learning is extensive, and it could be intimidating for those countries that have not had the opportunity or lack resources to develop, implement and sustain such arrangements. However, what is indicated here is the importance of these social partnerships to ensuring an effective WBL provision.

### Egypt

In Egypt, both internal and external social partners support WBL. Under the auspices of the Egyptian Federation of Investors Associations (EFIA) is the National Center for Human Resource Development (NCHRD), which plays a key role in implementing initiatives such as the dual system. This agency works at the national level. There is also an external national social partnership funded by the European Union, which is associated with reforming the TVET sector and has established twelve independent sectoral agencies. Their role is to link employers and educational providers to help close the gap between the supply of and demand for skills. In addition, there are a range of partnerships founded on donor-funded arrangements. These arrangements tend to have specific focuses on particular industry sectors, and

reflect the TVET model preferred by the donor country or agency (El-Ashmawi, 2017). In particular, international sponsors often prefer to import the model of TVET provision that has been successful in their home country.

Each of these initiatives aims to improve the relevance of TVET, mainly through identifying the kinds of content and outcomes generated by TVET programmes, and reforming them, including providing workplace experiences for students. However, few seem to address broader issues such as society's perception of TVET, the occupations it serves, and the standing of learning through work, as opposed to learning through educational institutions.

### Jordan

In Jordan, while internally the military had a role in shaping the organization of TVET (Rawashdeh, 2017), most of the social partners for TVET are external, particularly those with an interest in providing WBL to young people. In 2014 the ILO conducted a project, 'Supporting a National Employment Strategy (NES) that Works for Youth in Jordan'. It aimed to improve the implementation of the NES through building the capacity of stakeholders at national and regional levels, and strengthening WBL practices through establishing a national apprenticeship system and upgrading informal apprenticeship practices in the northern governorates. As part of that project, all relevant stakeholders (training providers, chambers of commerce and trade unions) participated in project activities and several ILO-sponsored workshops to discuss and agree the main components of a framework for a national apprenticeship system. This implied that apprenticeship is the most appropriate form for WBL in Jordan. The resulting national apprenticeship framework was developed in 2015 (ILO, 2015). It comprised elements associated with involvement of stakeholders, standards and frameworks, enrolment, employment/training contract, rights at work, funding, training modes, training content and employment. However, to date it appears not to have been implemented (Rawashdeh, 2017).

**Table 5.1 Partners and focuses on the provision of WBL experiences**

	Internal social partners	Focus	External social partners	Focus
Algeria	N – government L – local coordination, inspection, monitoring of arrangements	WS, YU, EC, OI	Industry groups, employer associations, local employers	WS, YU, EC,
Egypt	N – NCHRD – coordinating implementation of the dual system	YU, WS, EC	N & L – EU funded 12 ETPs	YU, WS, EC
Jordan	N – military involvement	YU, WS	N – ILO sponsored national employment strategy to grow apprenticeships informed by an implementation framework	YU, EC, OI
Lebanon	N & L – Association of Lebanese Industrialists (ALI) engaging with TVET system, including individual institutions to improve responsiveness to industry needs N – specialized industry syndicates (SIS) – engaging with specific sectors with planned institutional engagement N – Chambers of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture (CCIA) – engaging to advance the needs of their members N – labour unions addressing sector-wide employment issues	WS, EC		
Morocco	N – CNFP – oversight of the TVET system, its coordination and evaluation, as well as WBL provisions L – Commissions Provinciales de la Formation Professionnelle (CPFP) – coordinating the TVET system at the local level	WS, EC		
Oman	N & L – establishment of mechanisms for engaging Omani workers, including representative committees in each workplace	WS, EC		
Palestine	N & L – Federation of Palestinian Chambers of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture (FPCCIA) has a key role in supporting TVET provision and organizing and implementing, as well as regulating and evaluating, WBL arrangements	WS, EC	L – Donor countries – engaging locally and with individual institutions to realize outcomes	WS, YU, EC
Tunisia	N – social contract involving the lead union body (UGTT), employers, and unions is central and provides advice about the TVET provision, particularly those with WBL	WS, YU, EC, OI		

Notes:

Internal social partners – national (N) and local (L).

Focuses – youth unemployment (YU), particular workplace skills (WS), national economic capacity (EC), and overcoming social inequalities (OI).

## Lebanon

In Lebanon, a key social partner is the Association of Lebanese Industrialists (ALI), which is directly involved with the TVET system as the main employer of its industrial specialty graduates (Ghneim, 2017). It has established some cooperation with the Directorate General of Vocational and Technical Education (DGVTE) and other institutions to improve the TVET system's responsiveness and to meet the needs of industry in education, training and retraining.

In addition, specialized industry syndicates (SIS) engage with and are involved in TVET to a greater or lesser degree depending on their needs. For instance, they have established a public-private partnership for the first food technicians' school in the Bekaa Valley. This project, however, has not commenced because of institutional and political problems in the Ministry of Education and Higher Education (MEHE) (Ghneim, 2017). Also, the Chambers of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture (CCIA) have engaged in partnerships to address the immediate needs of their members, through



organizing and offering training courses, and continuous education on commercial practice, auditing, taxation and business practices through private-sector service providers.

Groups representing particular professional interests have attempted to build linkages between their needs and the TVET system through offers of technical support staff (Ghneim, 2017). Long-standing social partners in the form of the labour unions focus on issues associated with employment or work in their specific sectors. So in Lebanon the key focus is on trainee outcomes and aligning the needs of TVET programmes with enterprise needs, but little in these arrangements indicates that WBL are a priority (Ghneim, 2017). In this way, it seems that the effort to promote TVET and secure WBL experiences in Lebanon remains dispersed, and social partnerships are mainly directing their efforts to sectoral rather than broader national outcomes.

### Morocco

In Morocco, there are a range of social partners (employee representatives, employer organizations and professional bodies) shaping the TVET provision, premised largely upon establishing and implementing their objectives. These partnerships emerged from reforms in 1984, and have been created at the national and local levels (Sennou, 2017). At the national level, a Commission Nationale de la Formation Professionnelle (CNFP) (National Commission for Vocational Training) has been established, although it may well now be defunct (Sennou, 2017). It is governed by the minister for vocational training, and consists of representatives from training providers, employers (two representatives from professional bodies and two from chambers of commerce) and employees (two representatives from the most highly represented trade unions). Its role is to manage, nationally, the focus and content of TVET and also its coordination and evaluation. This commission also has responsibilities, through the Act 36/96, to plan, steer and promote WBL in Morocco (Sennou, 2017). Similarly, Act 12-00 provides for the creation of two national commissions (one for agriculture and fisheries, one for craft trades and industrial sectors) attached to this commission and tasked with the management, planning, supervision, evaluation and control of learning in those sectors at the national level. So there is a structure for social partnerships and engagement with TVET and support for WBL that operates at national and local levels.

At the local (provincial) level, commissions provinciales de la formation professionnelle (CPFP, provincial vocational training commissions) have been established, governed by Walis (custodians) and governors, and bringing together, among others, employer and employee representatives. They coordinate the system at the local level, adapting the national vocational training agenda and making

recommendations to CNFP about vocational training. Locally, these commissions are also responsible for the provision of WBL, which has its own local representatives for professional trades. At the TVET institutional level, commissions governed by a professional organization or chamber of commerce are tasked with monitoring the suitability of the training provided, in line with the socio-economic needs of the job market, and evaluating the management of the TVET institution. For the Work-Based Vocational Training and Apprenticeship Training schemes, the same development councils have been invested with broad prerogatives. These include promotion of these types of training, selection of host companies, evaluation of training needs and of schemes, organization of monitoring and inspection visits for apprenticeship training in particular enterprises, and resolution of conflicts between apprentices and business owners, and training institutions and business owners (Sennou, 2017).

While this coordination and consultation model is still valid, from an institutional perspective it is no longer effective. This is because CNFP has not met since 1989 and the CPFPs are struggling from a lack of ability and resources (Sennou, 2017). The same applies for the development councils, which do not manage to fully exercise the role that they have been assigned. For apprenticeship training, partnership agreements have been secured in the main economic sectors, many of which have signed a framework agreement with the Moroccan Government. Through these framework agreements, implementation agreements are signed directly with the training providers. These define the organizational, educational and financial provisions for the training programme. Committees have been established to monitor the implementation of agreements and ensure the agreed arrangements are realized. These committees are governed by the director of the regional delegation of the DFP. The committee comprises the director of the Apprenticeship Training Centre and a representative of the training provider. However, it is worth noting that the professional organizations or chambers of commerce are only represented in the agreements to which they are signatories. Trade unions are not represented currently on any apprenticeship monitoring body (Sennou, 2017).

In this way, there is an extensive social partnership structure and frameworks for engaging with and informing the provision of TVET, including the provision of WBL. However, many of the elements of this system appear not to be operative at present, and therefore its ability to be effective is clearly compromised.

### Oman

In Oman, social partnerships are shaped by the country's particular governmental structures, including its absolute

monarchy. A long-standing strategy was developed to orient TVET to labour market needs, and was implemented in three stages that involved social partnerships (Al-Mujaini, 2017). The first stage, enforced by approving and announcing the Labour Act issued by the royal decree 34 in 1973, aimed to establish effective working relationships between employers and employees, in which each employer with at least fifty employees had to submit to the Minister suggestions concerning the establishment of joint representative bodies. The second stage, scaffolded by the Labour Act issued by royal decree 35 in 2003, provided for representative committees to include labourers at any institution where they existed. The third stage in 2010 comprised a constituent assembly of the General Syndicate for the labourers of the Sultanate of Oman to share opinions on and innovations for the megatrends affecting labour markets. Each stage has contributed to the development of WBL as part of the ultimate target, which is Omanizing the labour market (Al-Mujaini, 2017). However, it is unclear to what degree these processes extend the provision of WBL for young people in addressing the key economic challenges faced by Oman, as it seeks to broaden its economic base away from reliance on petrochemicals (Al-Mujaini, 2017).

### **Palestine**

In Palestine, the Federation of Palestinian Chambers of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture (FPCCIA) plays a key role in social partnerships in the national context, although these are particularly applicable at the local level. It is coordinated by and in direct contact with all ten private-sector organizations (Jweiles, 2017). One of its goals has been to integrate WBL in a systematic way into TVET programmes (Jweiles, 2017). Currently, FPCCIA is involved in many projects geared to this objective, including but not limited to increasing the labour market relevance of TVET programmes; working with the two lead ministries (MOL and MEHE) in contributing to curriculum development; engaging with Birzeit University to provide an educational experience (that is, a business hub) that aims to assist the development of micro and small businesses and those in farming and the service sector while seeking to maximize graduates' employability; and promoting a Dual Study Program at Al-Quds University in which students spend half of their time in the workplace on an alternating basis (one semester at the university and one semester at the workplace), in three majors – business, management and electrical engineering.

As set down by local requirements, employer organizations and employers participate in evaluation committees at the behest of the Federation of Chambers of Commerce and Industry (FCCI) to provide advice about TVET provisions, the preparation of contracts for WBL participants, conducting evaluations of these initiatives, selecting eligible

institutions to participate in WBL activities, engaging with these institutions in preparation of technical and financial proposals, engaging students from those institutions and implementing WBL arrangements, and then conducting follow-ups and evaluation of these initiatives. Also, with apprenticeships and other training schemes with a strong focus on the development of practical skills, FCCI has formed partnerships and cooperations to implement the workplace elements of the programmes. However, there is no or little involvement for the trade unions in the implementation of WBL schemes, though they are members of many steering committees and local education and training councils overseeing the planning and implementation of the TVET sector (Jweiles, 2017).

### **Tunisia**

In Tunisia, since the revolution in 2011 there has been greater involvement by the representatives of employees (UGGTT) in decision-making about TVET and apprenticeship-type programmes, at both national and local levels (Chelbi, 2017). This social contract was verified in 2013, leading to a greater presence by representatives of labour at both levels. The particular focuses for the social partnerships are quite broadly based, including a consideration of qualities, developing the national economy after the revolution and the economic malaise that followed, and promoting skill development in Tunisian enterprises (Chelbi, 2017). Yet these efforts and their outcomes are still unclear because not all enterprises welcome such interventions, and this might affect the level of participation in training. In particular, providing WBL to young people is very much premised upon employers' interest in and willingness to engage in these arrangements. That provision is supported by beliefs that it is important, and when properly implemented can secure young people's learning, developmental outcomes for their host workplaces, and a commitment to outcomes not constrained to the immediate requirements of the workplace (Deissinger, 1997).

### **Social partnerships in conclusion**

Across these eight countries there are a variety of conceptions, formulations and implementations of social partnerships, and quite different levels of engagement in the governance and implementation of TVET. Inevitably, such partnerships will be a product of distinct institutions, histories and models of governance in each country. It is not surprising that there is also similarity across these countries, including the degree to which partners are wholly internal or include external agencies and donor countries.

As suggested above, strong social partnerships tend to be associated with mature TVET systems (Billett, 2013). They have strong links and associations between government,

representatives of employees and employers in formulating goals for and processes of TVET. For effective TVET, particularly when it involves WBL, it is clearly insufficient to rely on national-level social partnerships (as is evident in Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia). Instead, those at the local level, and working at the intersection between the TVET institutions and their visions, and local enterprises, seem to be the most effective kind of partnership engagement, and will be essential for WBL.

While such arrangements and expectations are based upon the experiences of countries to the north, the current emphases on TVET of addressing the needs of the national economy, addressing youth unemployment, and also meeting the needs of specific enterprises, suggest that such social partnerships are not only essential, but cannot be restricted to national prescriptions alone. They have to be implemented locally. Top-down approaches, including the practice of donor countries imposing their models of TVET on countries, may work well with government-to-government interactions and activities directly in the sphere of influence of governments. However, these approaches may be less successful at the local level unless flexibility can be permitted to respond to local circumstances and fit with the kinds of resources, programmes and employment prospects that are feasible within those communities; that is, where the influence and sphere of governments is more restricted.

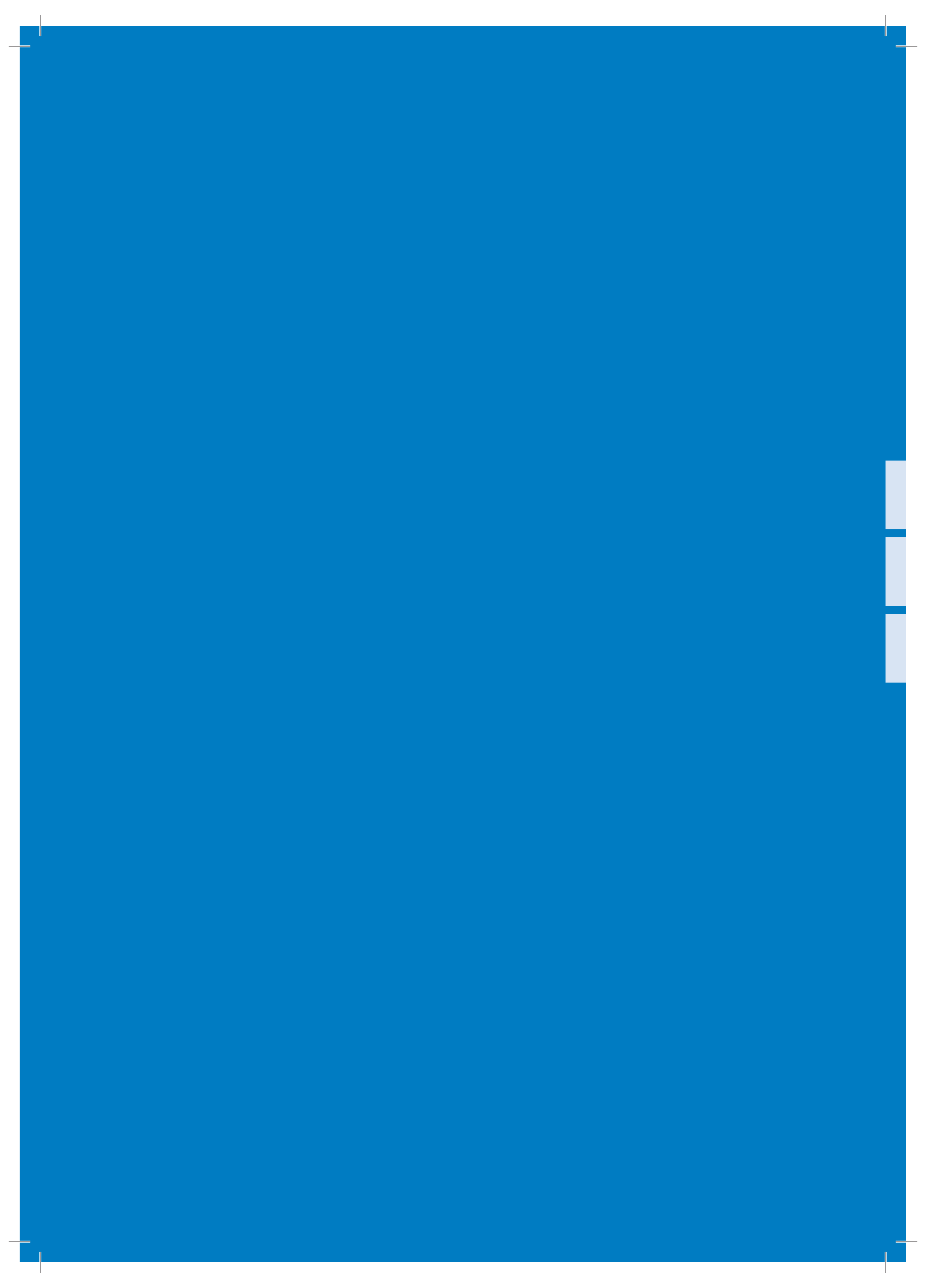
One aspect of social partnership work that is under-developed across these eight countries is the role they might play in encouraging greater social inclusion (see **Table 5.1**). This includes the involvement of young women in TVET and the workforce, and also assisting those who are disabled, or otherwise marginalized, such as migrants and refugees. It would seem that most of the purposes for which the social partnerships have been formed and are directed towards concern skill formation for young people and meeting the needs of enterprises for a skilled workforce, and thereby contributing to national economic development. Yet in many of these countries there is an explicit agenda are associated with achieving social goals as well.

In addition there is the issue of engagement with small and micro businesses, which not only form the majority of enterprises in these countries, but may well need support to provide effective WBL. Social partners are likely to be well placed to provide guidance, support and resources to assist these enterprises in contributing to young people's skill development.

Across the countries that are the focus of this study, all had clear goals for TVET in addressing either national economic development or effective enterprise outcomes, with a concern about youth unemployment as well (see **Tables**

**3.1** and **3.2**). Three of these countries (Algeria, Jordan and Tunisia) had clear and explicit mandates to overcome inequity, with well-established TVET systems (see **Table 5.1**), and Algeria's provisions extend to the disabled. So, in the current turbulent times of economic uncertainty and with countries seeking to find new economic bases and strengthen existing ones, it is perhaps not surprising that many of these countries are investing their expectations in TVET. Part of that investment and expectation involves providing workplace experiences to assist young people to become more employable, and to contribute to the viability and growth of their workplaces. Given the importance of this sector of education to national social and economic goals, it makes sense now to consider issues associated with the resourcing and funding of TVET in these countries.

Please note: summaries of the information used in this chapter are available in the appendices.



## **CHAPTER 6**

**Resources Supporting and Funding**

**Workplace Learning Programmes**

# Resources Supporting and Funding Workplace

## Learning Programmes

### Introduction

As has been noted, across these eight countries, TVET and its alignment with important economic and social goals has been stated as a key priority for governments. That is, TVET and WBL experiences for young people are being seen as central to reducing youth unemployment, developing the capacities of enterprises, making national economic activities more competitive, and assisting with the transformation of national economic bases. However, there are not necessarily direct alignments between these goals and the resources allocated to TVET to realize them. Indeed, when TVET is viewed as a way of addressing these important goals it can become the subject of ever-increasing monitoring, scrutiny and assessment, rather than receiving adequate funding and autonomy for institutions and staff. So it is helpful to understand the degree to which resources are being directed to TVET and WBL, and consider how funding burdens can be shared across government, enterprises, and young people and their families.

Of course, all this is occurring at difficult times for these nation states. The very challenges that are set before them and to which they are responding include economic constraints and limitations. Moreover, these initiatives are not just about the funding of TVET institutions or even about providing subsidies to workplace and students, to encourage students to participate in programmes that they might otherwise ignore. Instead, they extend to the resourcing required to organize and mobilize social partners, and encourage and support workplaces to become effective learning environments for young people. Then there are the challenges for workplaces to make longer-term commitments to young people through apprenticeship schemes, alternance programmes and other forms of WBL. So it is necessary to attempt to map something of the resourcing arrangements for the broad project of TVET across these countries, and how they seek to respond to high levels of youth unemployment, the growing percentage of young people participating in TVET, and also the specific interest in securing WBL experiences for those young people.

This chapter provides a country-by-country overview, but its overall aim is to capture an overarching view of how resources are being gathered and distributed on the bases of three common approaches to TVET that have work-based

components:

- apprenticeships
- alternance education programmes
- industry-based provision of TVET.

This includes attempting to provide broad accounts of how TVET institutions, students/apprentices and workplaces are resourced or seen as a resource to achieve these stated national goals. It also includes reviewing how those costs are shared.

### Apprenticeships

Seemingly, by far the most common form of apprenticeship is an informal or traditional apprenticeship. These occur in families and small workplaces where young people learn the skills needed for long-established occupations (ILO, 2015). This model of initial skill development occurs outside of and away from the formal education system, and is unlikely to lead to certification. The word 'seemingly' is used because none of these eight countries actually captures information about the extent of traditional apprenticeships. However, it is acknowledged that in countries such as Egypt and Jordan they are probably the most common form of young people's engagement in WBL (Rawashdeh, 2017). For instance, the first estimate of the number of informal young apprentices in Egypt was between 34,000 and 65,000, but on seeking further advice from an out-of-country expert, El-Ashmawi (2017) increased the estimate to 1,000,000. The key point is that it is quite likely that in all of these countries, a significant amount of apprenticeship training is occurring, in ways that remain out of the sight of and unacknowledged by the TVET system and its resourcing. Instead, the training is provided solely by the employer, and the apprentices effectively sponsor it through their own labour and lower levels of pay, should they be paid at all. Possibly in countries with an advanced and more comprehensive apprenticeship system (Morocco and Tunisia, and perhaps Jordan), the formal apprenticeship scheme covers some of the areas which in other countries are the subject of traditional apprenticeships.

The country studies do provide a range of data about apprenticeship programmes that are organized by the state. These are sometimes referred to as formal apprenticeships (see **Table 6.1**). To a greater or lesser degree, they are



regulated in some way, combine experiences in educational institutions with those in work settings, and in some cases, attract resourcing beyond what is provided for the education institution in terms of incentives for employers and subsidies for apprentices.

### Algeria

Just as vocational training, especially apprenticeship, is embedded in the Algerian constitution, so too are the arrangements for funding it. Central to these arrangements is a tax which provides a revenue stream which is then disbursed via government agencies and social partners at national, regional and local levels (Bedou, 2018). This tax takes the form of a levy on enterprises that do not train their staff. Enterprises have to demonstrate that they are spending at least 1 per cent of their budget on staff training and development, or pay an equivalent amount. A similar system operated in Australia as the Training Guarantee Scheme. Legislation also provides that young people engaged in apprenticeships should be paid 15 per cent of the minimum wage for six to twelve months, with government and the employers sharing the cost. Employers can seek additional financial support if their spending on apprenticeship exceeds 1 per cent; they are reimbursed at a local level. In addition, the government provides direct scholarships to trainees for their time in residential training.

So these funding arrangements are quite comprehensive, including support for enterprises taking on apprentices, and payments to those apprentices when they are both in training establishments and in workplaces. Importantly, the cost burden is shared between the employers and the government. There are also arrangements for financing short-term training for the development of specific skills such as entrepreneurialism, and reductions in taxation for companies that are investing in their personnel.

### Egypt

In Egypt, apprentices in formal apprenticeship systems receive a monthly allowance which increases across the three years of their indenture, from about US\$17 a month initially to US\$28 a month in the third year. Companies pay small administrative fees for having apprentices, and in many instances pay apprentices' transport costs. Apprentices are not charged for their tuition either in the workplace or at school, but pay a small registration fee to the TVET institution (El-Ashmawi, 2017). Beyond these schemes are industrial apprenticeship schemes, for which there are training contracts. These apprentices are paid a small allowance which is equivalent to up to a quarter of the adult working wage, with transportation and equipment allowances paid by the organizing body (El-Ashmawi, 2017). There is also an apprenticeship scheme organized

by the Ministry of Manpower, in which apprentices receive a progressive wage stipulated in a contract between the apprentice and the employer.

### Jordan

In Jordan, the government does not offer any financial incentives to employers for apprenticeship schemes under the VTC programme. It is, however, the source of funding for off-the-job components. Under the NET programme the trainees receive monthly payment from the company for the days they spend in the workplace and an allowance for health-care insurance and uniforms (Rawashdeh, 2017). All of the off-the-job costs are provided by NET, which draws upon the ETJET fund, which is generated from guest workers' permits paid annually by Jordanian employers.

### Lebanon

It is reported that in Lebanon (Ghneim, 2017) there is no financial support allocated by government for WBL schemes, so these arrangements are supported and sponsored by enterprises, in terms of time and resource commitment.

### Morocco

Morocco has an extensive TVET system, including apprenticeships, which are funded from the state budget (Sennou, 2017). Enterprises provide a financial allowance to apprentices, and cover the cost of transport and food during their time in the workplace. There is an expectation that the apprentice and their family will also make a contribution. Sponsorship is also provided by the government to encourage greater apprenticeship uptake, although this has not been wholly successful (Sennou, 2017). In 2006, there were discussions about establishing a national tax or levy to cover the cost of apprenticeship training. There is no indication that such an arrangement has been implemented.

### Oman

In Oman, there is a by-law securing funding of OJT. Training providers have to work within the parameters of this by-law (Al-Mujaini, 2017).

### Palestine

In Palestine, there are no government funds allocated for WBL schemes or financial support directed to them (Jweiles, 2017). Sometimes overseas donors, such as the British Training Council (BTC), provide specific funds to support the development of WBL arrangements such as apprenticeships. For instance, it supports up to 70 per cent of the TVET institutional costs of those programmes (Jweiles, 2017).

## Tunisia

In Tunisia, there is a specific line of budgeting associated with apprenticeships, and this is linked with initiatives associated

with growth in employment (Chelbi, 2017). In this way, there is a clear alignment between this mode of entry-level training and other government priorities (such as promoting economic growth and tackling youth unemployment).

**Table 6.1 Apprenticeships: resources supporting and funding WBL programmes**

Country	Programme	TVET institution	Young person	Workplace
Algeria	FNAC – formal apprenticeships (330,000)	Supported by the state	Supported by the state	Reimbursed by the state through the FNAC scheme
Egypt	Traditional apprenticeships (>1 million)	N/A	No funding, sometimes subsistence wages	Usually part of work practice
	Formal apprenticeships	Funded by state	Low wages, below the adult rate (up to US\$28 a month)	Pays registration fee and transport costs for the apprentice
	Ministry of Manpower apprenticeship scheme		A progressive wage that is the subject of a contract between the worker and the employer	
Jordan	Vocational Training Centre (VTC)	Funded by the state	A small stipend is paid to the apprentice for training days in the workplace	Pays a small stipend to the apprentice for days at work, no financial incentive from government
	NET	Funded by the state (NET) – from the ETJET	Receives a monthly payment of JOD50 from the company for all training days	Pays trainees' monthly salary and also health care insurance and uniform
Lebanon	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Morocco		Funded by state	Receives an allowance and expenses from workplace	Can secure a grant from the government for each apprentice
Oman		Funded by state	By-laws determining support for young Omani	By-laws determining the level of support provided by Omani enterprises
Palestine		By government, but specific funding for WBL outcomes from sponsors (e.g. British Training Council)	Some companies cover the cost of salary and transport	Employers subsidize the programme by providing a salary
Tunisia		Funded by the state on the basis of training levy paid for by employers	Supported through levy	Contribute to repay levy

It can be seen across these examples that direct government support for apprenticeships is most likely when the governance is strong, clear sets of educational and economic goals are identified, and resources are directed accordingly. In other words, there exists institutional framing, governmental interest, and the resources to direct this effort to achieving national economic and social goals. This presence extends out to engaging with, and either supporting or sharing the cost with, participating workplaces. Again, this indicates that TVET programmes extending into the workplace cannot be

wholly implemented through agencies and institutions directly under the control of government.

Where there are indications of lower levels of resourcing, this does not necessarily signal a lack of interest or of the desire to have an effective apprenticeship system linked to goals associated with unemployment and economic progress. It may say more about whether there are governance structures, social partnerships, and also the resources available to be directed towards such programmes. There is

also a sharing of the burden with enterprises, and this occurs in different ways related to economic circumstances and also the presence or otherwise of legislative frameworks. It is noteworthy that where those frameworks are strong, they extend beyond the ambit of educational institutions.

It is also necessary to rehearse two further considerations associated with apprenticeships, as presented in **Table 6.1**. First, the most common form of apprenticeship (traditional apprenticeships) appears to progress without direct engagement by or support of government. However, these apprenticeships progress on the basis of enterprise commitment. That is, these arrangements are supported because the enterprises hosting them believe they are worthwhile and valid. Second, and to make this point stronger, it is important to be reminded that significant resources directed to, and engagement in, apprenticeship programmes such as the dual system in Egypt do not necessarily achieve the kinds of outcome government and sponsors intend (El-Ashmawi, 2017). This is because, as with the traditional form of apprenticeships, these schemes are not necessarily highly valued in these communities. Consequently, there appears to be a high attrition rate from this form of formalized apprenticeship system. It would be interesting to compare these with attrition rates from traditional apprenticeships in these countries. However, given there are no firm data available on the latter and the traditional apprenticeships address different occupational areas, such comparisons are not possible.

### Alternance education programmes

The alternance system is usually an educational programme that provides and combines alternating experiences in workplaces and educational institutions. The term alternance is derived from the French word for alternating, and this is the most common approach adopted in mainland France. This approach to initial occupational preparation is particularly prevalent in countries that have a legacy of French institutions and practices, as presented in **Table 6.2**, for instance in its ex-colonies. Some programmes such as those in Sweden, although labelled as apprenticeships (Berglund and Loeb, 2013), are best categorized in this way, as can be the approach in Norway (Billett, 2011). Whereas formal apprenticeships, mentioned above, are based in the workplace and the apprentice is an employee either in fact or in kind, there are differences between these and alternance schemes where the young person is regarded as a student. Often, but not always (Chan, 2013), apprentices identify as a nascent occupational practitioner, whereas alternance students more likely to identify as a student of a particular occupation. As indicated in the examples of Sweden, where the school-based apprenticeships could be classified as alternance schemes, such categorizations are more helpful than inaccurate labelling. In this section, those

programmes that have the characteristics of alternance schemes are discussed across these eight countries.

### Algeria

The report from Algeria does not refer specifically to alternance training, as is the case in Morocco and Tunisia. However, there are funding arrangements for students in vocational education and training programmes to undertake internships in workplaces. In particular, the expectation is that during their courses young people will undertake an internship of one and three months, and for longer courses leading to diplomas there is the expectation of a six-month internship. It is suggested that whereas the first kind are sponsored by students themselves, for longer periods of internship the individuals are often paid. That rate of pay needs to be aligned with national wage guidelines, but there is no specific requirement. Presumably this expenditure by enterprises is also claimable under the training levy arrangements. That is, it can constitute an element of the 1 per cent of expenditure on staff training.

### Egypt

In Egypt, the Alternance Training Scheme is supported by the European Union. This scheme provides students with a stipend of approximately US\$28 per month during their time at the workplace (El-Ashmawi, 2017). There is also a Joint School Initiative in which a contract is signed between the company and the student for the duration of the programme, with many of the students being employed in the same workplace. This might give the impression that the young people are regarded as providing cheap labour. The students receive a minimum wage, usually the same as under the apprenticeship scheme (up to US\$28 a month) (El-Ashmawi, 2017).

Note that the country studies for Jordan, Lebanon, Oman and Palestine do not report having alternance type programmes, and therefore are silent on issues of resourcing.

### Morocco

In Morocco, these kinds of programmes are referred to as work-based vocational training, and are funded from the general budget that covers the cost of initial vocational training, both residential and work-based (Sennou, 2017). However, it does not provide any direct financial incentives to host enterprises. There are instead a range of non-financial incentives, including exemption from income tax, vocational training tax, and social security contributions associated with providing guidance to and supervision of apprentices during the training programme (Sennou, 2017).

**Table 6.2** Alternance programmes: resources supporting and funding WBL programmes

Country	Programme	TVET institution	Young person	Workplace
Algeria	FNAC	By state	By state and employer	Acquittal and reimbursement of training costs through FNAC
Egypt	ATS – sponsored by the European Union		Stipend of US\$28 per month while in the workplace	
	Joint School Initiative		Low wages, below the adult rate (up to US\$28 a month)	
Jordan	NA	NA	NA	NA
Lebanon	NA	NA	NA	NA
Morocco	Work-based Vocational Training	From the national budget		Taxation relief for costs associated with apprenticeships
Oman	NA	NA	NA	NA
Palestine	NA	NA	NA	NA
Tunisia		Funded directly by government on the basis of specific kinds of programme	?	?

### Tunisia

In Tunisia, there is a specific line of budgeting associated with promoting TVET, which is linked with an industry levy on payroll to support this development (Chelbi, 2017). The providers of the TVET are also expected to raise revenue from their programmes and from the sale of training products. However, this comprises a small element of their budget. Interestingly, the resource allocation from government is not based on student numbers but on the provision of specific programmes. These arrangements, however, lead to disparities in funding of TVET across different sectors (Chelbi, 2017).

From this review of countries that have alternance schemes, a similar pattern emerges. That is, those countries with well-established and functioning set of institutional and legal framings as well as strong social partnerships, and possessing the resources to do so, are most likely to be able to support alternance types of scheme. So infrastructure and resourcing, as well as social partnerships, which may or may not be part of the resourcing arrangements, seem central to the development of alternance style programmes.

### Industry-based programmes

There are also a range of industry-based programmes across these countries, which take quite different forms and have quite distinct resourcing arrangements, as presented in **Table 6.3**.

### Egypt

In Egypt, one of these programmes is the Industrial Modern Adult Apprenticeship Scheme, in which the apprentices receive a salary that is intended to cover the cost of transport, meals and insurance (El-Ashmawi, 2017). However, this programme is primarily for adults, not young people. One scheme for young people is a Private Sector Technical Schools initiative, and an example of this is the German Hotel School. In this situation young people pay a fee to take this course: for instance in 2011 the cost was US\$650. However, El-Ashmawi (2017) reports that many of the young people attending this programme are provided with scholarships from public and private institutions and foundations to support their participation in this private programme.

### Jordan and Lebanon

The reports from Jordan (Rawashdeh, 2017) and Lebanon (Ghneim, 2017) do not indicate any such arrangements occurring in those countries, nor any funding arrangements associated with similar, but country-specific, initiatives.

**Table 6.3 Industry-based arrangements: resources supporting and funding WBL programmes**

Country	Programme	TVET institution	Young person	Workplace
Algeria				
Egypt	Private Sector Technical Schools	Private/donor	Pays fees, or is sponsored	
Jordan	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Lebanon	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Morocco		By government directive institution		Government grant to cover the costs of skill training.
Oman		By government with some sector-specific programmes providing centralized funding		Addressed through by-laws.
Palestine		By direct government funding, but no specific funding for WBL. Sometimes sponsors	Some companies cover the cost of salary and transport	Employers subsidize the programme by providing a salary.
Tunisia		By beneficiaries (students)	State subsidizes the cost of training.	

### Morocco

In Morocco, there is state sponsorship for craft businesses providing coverage of the cost of training, which indicates appropriate levels of infrastructure, frameworks and resourcing (Sennou, 2017). In Oman, individual workplaces are expected to contribute to the costs of this training, as set out in by-laws (Al-Mujaini, 2017). It seems that those funds need to be expended directly in the workplace or administered through an external agency.

### Palestine

In Palestine, there are no government funds allocated for WBL schemes of this kind, or financial support directed towards them. Sometimes overseas donors, such as BTC, provide specific funds to support the development of WBL arrangements such as apprenticeships. For instance, it supports up to 30 per cent of the private TVET providers' institutional costs.

### Tunisia

In Tunisia, the cost of training in private centres is borne by the students. However, the state intervenes by subsidizing part of the cost of this training through an evaluation mechanism. It is not clear whether this approach is addressing the demand side of the equation or the supply side. The changes proposed here (Chelbi, 2017) include making processes easier and less burdensome, and attempting to reduce the costs by local government arrangements. To this end, a regional committee has been established comprising representatives of the ministry, professionals and trade unions; this committee will have local management of the provision of courses, what is funded, and the alignment of course provision with available employment opportunities.

## Resourcing support and funding of WBL programmes: Conclusions

In conclusion, a clear pattern emerges from the country studies about the resourcing for programmes of WBL for young people. Prospects for the resourcing of these experiences differ widely. At their best, they are budgeted for and institutionalized, and most likely to be provided in countries that have a combination of stable government, clear institutional and legal frameworks, and interlinked social partnerships. When mature, these arrangements are particularly important in finding ways to distribute the costs of these provisions and across government, industry, enterprises and students. Of course, in some way this is no surprise and merely rehearses the role these factors play in the effective provision of TVET (BusinessEurope, 2018). To achieve this distribution of costs requires approaches, nationally and locally, that go beyond the resourcing of educational institutions.

It is also evident that, given the prevalence of small and micro businesses in these countries, models of financing need to be ones that can support and sustain the engagement of these kinds of enterprise. This may well come not through the direct provision of subsidies, but rather through agencies that can support the apprenticeship provision and the learning of apprentices in the circumstances. Certainly, it is necessary to avoid extensive bureaucratic processes either in the organization or in the shared funding arrangements. Again, it seems that those countries with the most established models of governance may well be the best place to reach out to small and micro businesses in promoting wide-scale increases in the number and quality of WBL experiences for young people.

Also sitting in here is a broader consideration of public–private partnerships for these circumstances. Perhaps most commonly, such partnerships are seen in terms of large projects in which both government and private sector enterprises have stakes and involvement. Here, the concept of these public–private partnerships may take quite a different form, and their structure would be more directed towards the needs of small and micro businesses rather than large corporations. This likely extends to how training levies are administered and the funds from them distributed.

As indicated in Figure 1, this is part of an overall finding about the interconnectedness of the complex of factors comprising interests, collaboration and support that is central to effective TVET. Put simply, extending these experiences to the workplace engages a far greater range of interests, needs and bases of participation than when they are offered only through education institutions. Hence the resourcing is reflected in these arrangements. It might also be concluded that the external sponsorship of programmes probably needs to be more located and embedded in these sets of factors, and be generative of programmes that can be sustained using the resources of these countries. For instance, there seems little point in introducing complex, multi-partnered reliant arrangements unless there are the mechanisms (such as legal and institutional frameworks, and partnerships) in place for these to be effectively implemented and sustained, and local resourcing is able to be secured for their continuing operation.

Please note: summaries of the information used in this chapter are available in the appendices.



# **CHAPTER 7**

**Evidence, Data and Research**

**Supporting Insights by Country**

## Evidence, Data and Research Supporting Insights by Country

### Introduction

Governments, global agencies, industry partners, overseas sponsors and local enterprises are all interested in gauging the outcomes of their commitment to and efforts associated with TVET. Providing young people with WBL experiences is no exception to this interest. As noted in **Chapter 3**, there are a series of purposes to which national efforts are being directed. Broadly, these can be seen as being fourfold:

- addressing youth unemployment
- developing capacities and specific workplaces
- developing national economic capacity
- overcoming social inequalities in participation in work and education.

In terms of the first purpose, it should be possible to get indications of patterns of youth unemployment, and then seek to understand the ways in which those who have participated in TVET and with WBL experiences have been able to secure employment. The variables here are influenced by the buoyancy of the labour market, the kinds of skills being required, the location of the skill demand, and the fit between the capacities with which young people graduate from TVET programmes and the needs of workplaces. Some approximations can be attempted, however, to support the overall aim to address youth unemployment by developing the kinds of capacities required in the labour market.

With the second and third purposes, it has been long established that identifying convincing measures of costs and benefits and attributing them to training and development is perilous, difficult and hard to validate (Carnevale and Schulz, 1990; Smith and Billett, 2003). That is, seeking to identify and attribute particular benefits to expenditure or particular actions is very difficult because it requires isolating the training from a range of other factors. Attempts to quantify achievement of these outcomes are often more the interest of government than of enterprises. However, it seems that enterprises are often concerned with whether the training meets specific goals such as addressing particular skills, responding to new challenges, or the implementation of new processes. What this suggests is that taking qualitative accounts of the needs of the circumstance (for instance, in a particular workplace) may be helpful. Also, with the fourth goal, while quantitative measures may be helpful in informing patterns of change, it is likely to be qualitative enquiries that can identify the ways in which these programmes and the employment outcomes for young women or young people in rural or regional settings have had their needs addressed and are able to participate more effectively in education and working life.

Nevertheless, it is helpful to use the available information to understand the degree by which these four purposes are being addressed. In **Table 7.1**, a summary of the information provided in the country studies is consolidated.

**Table 7.1 Evidence supporting the efficacy of WBL**

Country	Evidence	Impact
Algeria	Participation levels across the five levels of the apprenticeship system, including those at the higher levels of TVET, and the implementation of arrangements to support these programmes across the five regions of Algeria	YU, WS, EC, OI
Egypt	Dual system (DS) – over 56 per cent of the trainees have been offered jobs in the companies involved in their training, but the majority (around 80 per cent) opt to bridge to middle technical colleges and universities	YU, WS, EC
Egypt	DS yielded better links with labour market needs; better character-building for students; companies were more content with the skills of DS students; graduates had better work opportunities as well as further learning options; better understanding of working ethics and conditions	YU,
Egypt	PVTD industrial apprenticeship scheme – struggling because of lack of skilled instructors	YU, EC
Egypt	The Integrated TVET Scheme (Joint School Initiative) – struggles to secure students because it is seen as a rival to the DS approach	YU, EC
Egypt	Alternance training scheme – graduates well received yet problems with continuity because of funding	YU, EC, OI

Egypt	TVET Reform Programme – has not progressed because of funding constraints, including equipment purchase, difficulty of securing qualified and experienced teachers, schools implementing the initiatives are reliant on their own resources, workplaces are often inaccessible for young people, and there is a lack of structures in place to provide quality assurance	YU, WS, EC, OI
Lebanon	It is difficult to offer evidence about any of these key purposes because it is absent	NA
Morocco	It has been identified that formal apprenticeships comprise 9 per cent of the overall number of young people engaged in occupational preparation, but with 20 per cent involved in WBL	YU, EC
Morocco	A German-funded study indicates that there is significant benefit for Egyptian enterprises from participating in workplace experiences across two industry sectors (textiles and hospitality) with the latter indicating the highest level of benefit	YU, WS, EC, OI
Morocco	This study has provided a set of concrete recommendations for how these programmes might be improved, in terms of interactions with hosting enterprises, the role that institutions play, and the kind of educational frameworks and qualities of teachers that are required to implement them effectively	YU, WS, EC, OI
Morocco	The data about apprenticeship numbers provide clear indication that the number of apprentices has remain the same over the last decade (30 K), but the composition of these apprentices has changed considerably in terms of sector affiliation and gender	YU, WS, EC, OI

**Notes:** Impact – youth unemployment (YU), particular workplace skills (WS), national economic capacity (EC), overcoming social inequalities (OI).

## Algeria

The evidence provided in the Algerian country study refers to two kinds of outcome. The first is solid levels of participation by young Algerians across the five levels of apprenticeship programmes. Solid participation is included in each of the five levels, as is evidence of interest, and sustained engagement, in the apprenticeship levels leading to higher levels of these qualifications. Approximately 25 per cent of the apprentices take this option, which equates to over 36,000 young Algerians progressing to these higher levels. Note too that these apprenticeships occurred across all five regions of Algeria. In this way, equity goals associated with young people's participation in regional areas are seemingly being addressed. There is no information on the percentage of these apprentices who are female, however.

The second line of evidence is structural change and reform. The establishment of localized arrangements for supporting apprenticeships, and evidence that there have been specific initiatives and developments at specific locations, indicate innovations and discretion being exercised locally. All of this is important for addressing regional needs, and accommodating local requirements such as those of specific enterprises. It is evident in the report that there are number of arrangements between specific employers and particular educational institutions in at least some of the regions. It seems much of this development has occurred through the support of an external partner (the German government), and that this has led to particular outcomes in fields such as engineering and sustaining partnerships at the local level (Bedou, 2018).

A survey in 2011 identified that developmental goals being advanced included the preparation of trainers in enterprises,

which lead to the improvement of apprenticeship programmes and outcomes, and guidance on how the in-company learning experiences for apprentices might best progress. Here, concerns about pedagogic practices are emphasized. That survey specifically emphasized the importance of: the preparation of masters of learning (the German Meisters), the regulation of trades and partnership arrangements between training institutions and companies, professional bodies and commissions that support the quality of partnerships and advice, that 87 per cent of the apprentice masters who participated in the training were satisfied with the skills they developed, and that 70 per cent of the companies were satisfied that the Registry programme provide greater alignment between the educational processes and the in-company training they required, and was linked to their specific needs (Bedou, 2018).

## Egypt

In Egypt, the evidence suggests the informal or traditional apprenticeship system remains a vital element in providing WBL to young people (El-Ashmawi, 2017). Indeed, it seems to be the most important element. It plays a central role in bridging the gap between the skills needs of the labour market and the outcomes of the formal education system, and supplies the largest number of workers to the labour market. In short, though not part of the TVET system, it remains the main mechanism for young people's skill development in this country.

Of the approaches comprising the TVET system, the dual system has been relatively successful, with over 56 per cent of the trainees being offered jobs in the companies involved in their training. This indicates a great deal of satisfaction by

employers with the dual system process and its apprentices. However, this success is severely limited because the majority of the apprentices (around 80 per cent) have opted to leave the occupations they trained for, to progress to courses in middle technical colleges and universities. That is, this programme has served more as a bridge for the students to progress into higher forms of post-school education. Nevertheless, it is claimed that the dual system has achieved:

- more effective links with labour market needs, lack of which has been a key criticism of the Egyptian TVET system
- positive non-occupational specific outcomes for students (such as 'character building')
- satisfaction among employers with the skill developed
- better work opportunities as well as ongoing learning opportunities for dual system graduates
- better understanding by these graduates of workplace requirements and work ethics (El-Ashmawi, 2017).

So the evidence suggests this model is demonstrably successful for the occupations it serves. However, it has not been successful in overcoming a strong societal sentiment against it, also associated with favour for progressing on to higher education and an aversion to work that is seen to be not clean.

Evidence suggests the PVTD industrial apprenticeship scheme has been hampered by a shortage of qualified trainers, because the most qualified are on long-term leave, working in the private sector or abroad. Moreover, government recruitment of suitably qualified trainers is very limited. It is also suggested that in some governorates where there are few large enterprises, student placement is very difficult to guarantee and has to be compensated for in the PVTD training centres (El-Ashmawi, 2017). That means that the WBL will be limited. Training provided in the training centres may not provide the trainees with the range of experiences they need to meet the needs of workplaces, overcome their employment disadvantage, and contribute to overall economic development.

It seems the integrated TVET scheme (Joint School Initiative) has been unsuccessful as a transition from the dual system. This is because many of the potential participating companies were already involved in that system so they were not able to secure the number of students in those programmes. As a consequence, some companies have apparently formed their own schools in cooperation with MOE (El-Ashmawi, 2017).

The alternance training scheme was introduced by the European Commission-funded TVET Reform Programme.

Although the first batches of graduates of these programmes have been well received by industry, there have evidently been some problems (El-Ashmawi, 2017). The scheme did not proceed beyond the first phase because of a change of strategies and because ITC ceased to fund the project, so equipment could not be purchased. There was no system to engage and motivate teachers to spend time in the workplaces to support students during periods of workplace experience. Arguably this lack of incentive and support meant some teachers discouraged students from taking WBL placements. Although some of the forty-one schools that were planned to engage in this scheme have continued, this has largely been on the basis of their own resources. There has been no systematic effort by MOE to evaluate the effectiveness of, or institutionalize, the alternance system. A practical issue is the distance of many workplaces from trainees' homes. Finally, unlike with the dual system and conventional TVET, no quality assurance system was established.

Much of what is discussed here revisits issues referred to earlier, especially the need for institutional and legal frameworks that can support and influence what occurs. This seems to be most salient because the quality of experiences and outcomes cannot be determined by what occurs only in the educational institutions. Instead, there is a need to reach out and engage with industries and local enterprises, to organize student placements and align learning with enterprise as well as trainee needs.

## Lebanon

Very limited information is available for Lebanon, so it is difficult to report on levels of engagement or whether the needs of employers, students and the broader national economy are being met (Ghneim, 2017). For instance, there are no clear statistics on employers and companies involved in apprenticeships on the national level. There are also no means to measure the satisfaction of apprentices with their programmes, or to identify changes that would improve their learning experiences. Also, there is no available information on employers' satisfaction with trainee performance, on wages paid, completion rates or the annual intake. What evidence is available was gathered by individual TVET institutes. These data are for their own use and are not publicly available.

In addition, there are no national organizations or individual researchers with a particular focus on research and evaluation of apprenticeships and WBL in Lebanon (Ghneim, 2017). So it is impossible to report reliably on how TVET and WBL contribute to goals such as reducing youth unemployment, developing the work skills required by particular enterprises, the economic development of Lebanon and improving social equity.

## Morocco

The country study from Morocco (Sennou, 2017) offers a significant amount of evidence. It indicates that in 2015–16, 9 per cent (30,079) of young people were engaged in formal apprenticeships (those organized through apprenticeship training centres). Another 20 per cent (87,951) were in work-based vocational training. The aim of Morocco's current national vocational training strategy is to increase the overall proportion of those involved in these two schemes to 50 per cent by 2021: that is, a total of around 344,000 (Sennou, 2017). A study on the involvement of businesses in TVET in Morocco, conducted by the German Development Institute in 2001, evaluated WBL in three main sectors: MMEEI, textile/clothing and tourism. The legal and procedural framework has not changed since, so these results should be a fair guide to the current situation. In 2009 GIZ evaluated the actual financial contribution of businesses to apprenticeships in the textile and hospitality sectors for the FPMT (Vocational Training in the Workplace) project. It identified a significant benefit to both sectors, though it was greater for the textile sector (Sennou, 2017).

### A case study: an evaluation of the FPMT programme

The findings of that GIZ study are worth setting out in some detail here because they provide unique information to this overview. It found that Moroccan businesses were most likely to contribute to WBL for mutual and interdependent reasons. Their need for workers meant that providing WBL placements could meet both their needs and those of the TVET institutions. This allowed them to engage with and select prospective employees, and in the process, contribute to national goals associated with economic development.

Interesting evidence was also provided on the quality of the WBL experiences. Regarding supervision and monitoring by the host company, the study found the businesses were not always able to provide the required skills training because of their lack of readiness and because they did not practise the specified skills in that workplace. Most host enterprises placed trainees directly in production departments, and only a few held specific training workshops first. However, the WBL experience must still have been helpful because there were reasonable levels of subsequent employment of trainees by the host in all three sectors (textiles 57 per cent, tourism 43 per cent and commerce 31 per cent). It was also claimed that those not subsequently employed in the same enterprise were readily able to secure employment elsewhere.

Moroccan regulations stipulate a contract between the trainee and the business owner, and this appeared generally to occur in the textile and commerce sectors, but fewer

than half the companies in the tourism sector drew up a formal contractual relationship. Although most textile and commerce enterprises paid trainees a salary, only a third of tourism enterprises did so, although this sector generally provided other forms of support such as food, transport and uniforms. In summary, the arrangements were quite sector-specific.

Some findings also illustrated the quality of the governance and partnership arrangements. For instance, the TVET institution rather than the workplace selected the trainees, but this was not a concern for the enterprises, which claimed they did not have the time to do so. Around 50 per cent of the businesses claimed that they had not contributed to the structure of the overall training programme, and were critical of it. Enterprises evidently have different ways of choosing to engage with the educational institutions and have their needs met. In spite of the criticisms of programme structure, there was general satisfaction with the pace, but as is often the case, employers would have preferred greater links between the theoretical and practical elements. Communication between the training institution and the host business was often thought unsatisfactory. This suggests that rather than a central body or advisory process assuming how enterprises wish to engage with the TVET institution, it is essential to identify how, and about what, they want to do so. This is best done at the local level, and perhaps through local partnerships – a model that appears to work in other countries.

In all, enterprises' evaluation of this programme indicated they generally perceived it as helpful in terms of their needs and the development of employable graduates. In almost all cases, the businesses were willing to continue this kind of engagement and partnership. These arrangements were favoured mostly by large and multinational companies; a broader rollout of such an initiative would probably encounter a range of challenges of the kinds mentioned above, since the greatest difficulties arose when dealing with MSMEs. Beyond the provision of courses by the training institutions, it was suggested that there needs to be an increase in the availability and capacities of these enterprises to be successful. It is important to emphasize that the most popular form of apprenticeship training in Egypt – the traditional apprenticeship – occurs largely in small businesses and even with sole traders, and does not receive government support (El-Ashmawi, 2017).

This report then listed a set of concerns and made recommendations to improve the system. These are mostly of general applicability, and are worth repeating here. From the perspective of the *host enterprises*, it was suggested that there needs to be:

- more information and awareness of the requirements and potential benefits of WBL

- strengthening of operational capacities through mechanisms such as mentoring, monitoring of performance and educational support, and remuneration for training-related issues
- professional preparation for workplace mentors' roles.

From the perspective of *the training institutions*, the key issues identified were the need to:

- train the trainers
- more readily monitor the progress of trainees on placement
- allow greater operational flexibility so the programme can meet the operational requirements of specific enterprises
- grant greater autonomy to respond to the needs of local businesses
- adapt their approaches to secure the kind of quality required at the local level, and also the particular circumstances in which their students might engage, to ensure their rights are protected.

At the heart of improvement to these processes was the quality of coordination between the TVET institutes and the host enterprises. This was seen as essential in order to adapt programmes for specific host enterprises so that both trainee and enterprise needs can be met. It was also suggested, at the local level, that there should be greater collaboration in planning for the implementation, structuring and evaluation of programmes, and the selection of participants.

For *trainees*, it was suggested they should always receive a minimum salary when on placement. At a *system level*, it was suggested that:

- the governance of these systems should have greater and more robust involvement with the host enterprises
- a developmental strategy was needed that would make the various social partners aware of their particular responsibilities and what they might get from their participation, and also how that participation will be supported
- these kinds of programme should not be restricted to lower levels of TVET programmes, but should extend to the highest levels of the Moroccan national qualifications scheme: that is, similar arrangements should be in place for undergraduate, postgraduate and research students.

The Moroccan country study (Sennou, 2017) also provided specific information about the apprenticeship system. It notes that in 2015–16 there were 30,079 apprentices, a 5 per cent decrease from 2014–15. This included 46.25 per cent of females, which is quite outstanding. A total of 324 training institutions and 9,977 companies contributed to supervision of trainees in 2015–16. All this indicates a wide network of

engagement associated with apprenticeship training. The female proportion increased from 17 per cent in 2005–06 mainly through females being involved in the craft sector and in other trades deemed appropriate for women. Indeed, crafts was the main training sector, with 21.2 per cent of the total trainees, followed by the agricultural sector with 16.83 per cent and CFA-IE with 18.54 per cent. There is felt to be still significant potential in mobilizing the industrial and services sectors (Sennou, 2017). Since 2008 there has been a decline in some sectors that traditionally hosted large numbers of apprentices, including agriculture, fisheries and craft trades, compensated for by training in new sectors such as the automotive industry. However, overall and despite these efforts, the number of apprentices has stagnated since 2008.

### Evidence, studies and reports supporting country studies

As should be apparent from this summary, not all country studies were able to offer any evidence on progress in providing young people with WBL experiences. Again, the patterns seen elsewhere are reinforced here. That is, where there are stable governance, social partnership arrangements, clear intents, and institutional arrangements and frameworks supporting WBL, it is most likely evidence will also be available to inform and guide strategies.

The detailed studies undertaken provide guidance, and sometimes sets of clear guidelines as well as nuanced advice on how to proceed. For instance, the Algerian and Moroccan country studies show how enterprises need to be engaged with in ways that address their priorities (Sennou, 2017; Bedou, 2018). This suggests that national frameworks and regulatory arrangements, though important, are not sufficient. It is at the local level where these partnerships need to be formed, maintained and sustained. One point arising from this is that for these partnerships to be effective, the TVET institutions themselves need to be empowered to adapt and modify national guidelines to meet the needs of local enterprises and communities. This appears to be done in Algeria. In Algeria and Morocco, regional issues are important, and to address the needs of industry sectors, trainees and the particular needs of host enterprises, TVET institutions must be able to use discretion at the local level (Sennou, 2017; Bedou, 2018). This necessarily requires teachers at the local level who have the expertise, and curriculum frameworks that can be adapted, to respond to local needs.

These insights are powerful in terms of advising how the provision of WBL experiences for young people can best be addressed. To repeat, it is a concern that centralized and top-down approaches may not be successful in responding to localized circumstances, where the readiness of learners, the



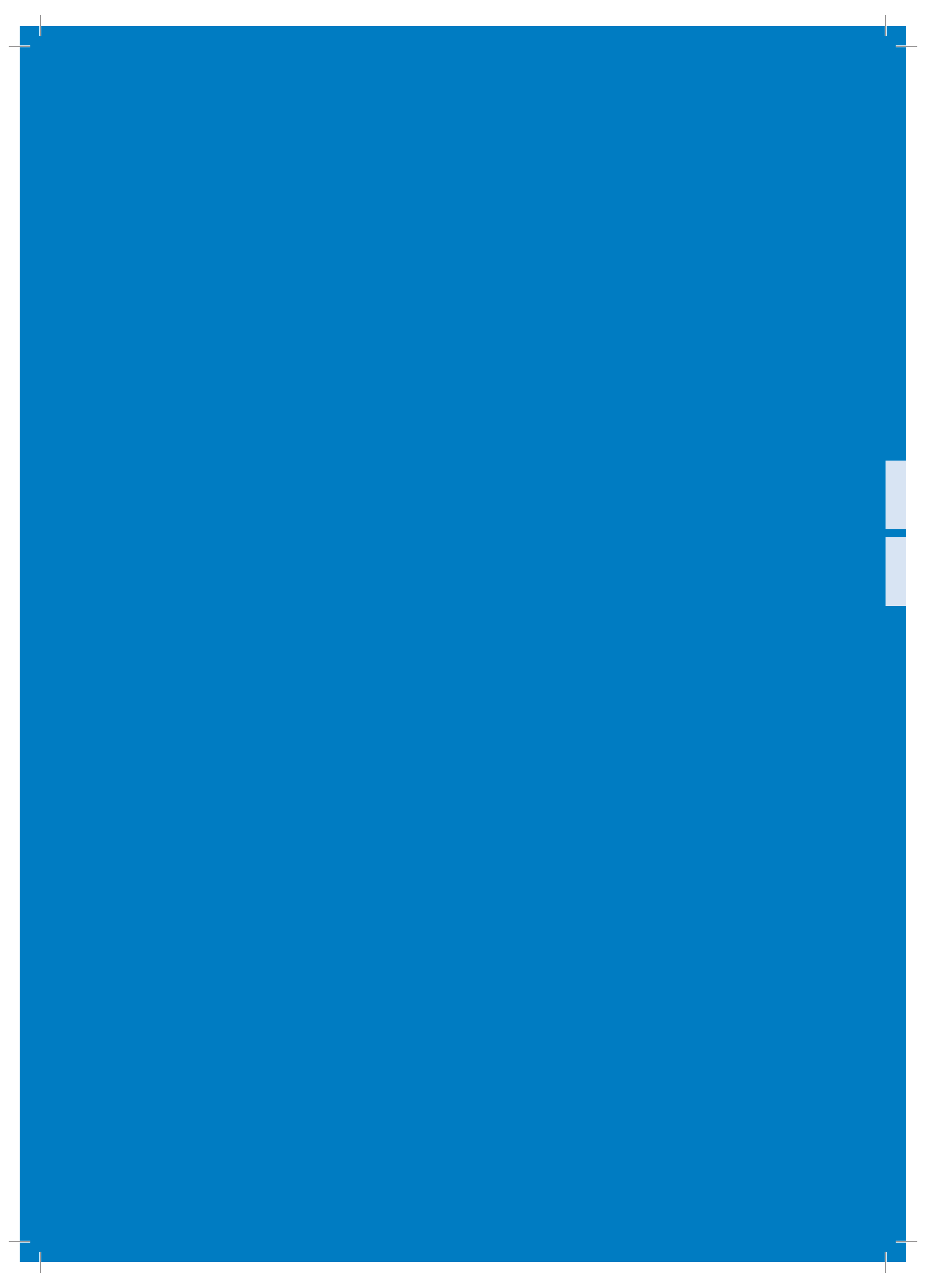
needs of workplaces, and the particular kinds of educational provisions are likely to be distinct.

There is sometimes a mismatch between the purposes of these programmes (addressing youth unemployment, developing skills for specific workplaces, contributing to national economic development, and overcoming social disadvantage) and the gathering and availability of evidence. In only a few instances do empirically driven studies appear to have investigated the kinds of process that are likely to be central to the success of WBL for young people to support TVET programmes and outcomes. To understand the complex relations set out in **Figure 1.1**, more than this threadbare statistical data is needed. More comprehensive quantitative, and in particular qualitative, studies are required. For instance, understanding the ways in which local arrangements between training institutions and employers might progress most effectively will be central to the success of establishing, progressing and sustaining those relationships. Equally, coming to understand the kinds of skills sets that teachers will require, and the autonomy they need to exercise to respond to local enterprise needs, will be important in advancing the quality of the TVET provision and the skills of its teachers. Then there is the issue of social inclusion. Understanding the complex of factors that are necessary if young women are to participate at higher levels in apprenticeship programmes and engage in WBL is likely to be important for advancing such arrangements, directing government support, and enabling positive outcomes for these young people.

The evidence available and the lack of some that is needed inevitably lead to a consideration of how to move forward at a general level. That is, what kind of lessons can be taken from these studies and what has been presented in the previous chapters? As was set out in the **Introduction**, the key issue here is to learn from these country studies so that broader lessons can be drawn and applied, now and in the future. This is so other countries not included in this study that are seeking to develop further the provision of WBL for young people can benefit. A particular issue that has emerged in this chapter is the desperate need for more informed accounts of what is occurring, how it is occurring, and what changes need to be made to achieve the goals of governments, global agencies, enterprises, communities and young people for TVET and WBL.

Consequently, **Chapter 8** seeks to gather recommendations about moving forward from these country studies and other sources, and to suggest how WBL might be best progressed more generally. That is, what can be learned from these studies, and what are their implications for the Arab region, and also for countries elsewhere?

Please note: summaries of the information used in this chapter are available in the appendices.



## **CHAPTER 8**

### **Conclusions and Ways Forward**

# Conclusions and Ways Forward

## Introduction

This chapter seeks to offer some broad conclusions and general suggestions about the kinds of pathways required to enhance the quantity and quality of WBL provisions for young people. Broadly, the conclusions and recommendations arise from and are associated with the country studies and other sources outlined earlier, as well as from the discussions earlier in this document. It is acknowledged that there are significant differences between these countries, which affect the conclusions to be drawn from their experiences and the proposals for future development. For instance, those countries lacking well-developed legal and institutional frameworks to support the provision of WBL need to make their development and implementation a priority. Those countries with these frameworks (such as Algeria) have priorities of a different kind and order, as they seek to refine and developed further their policies and practices (Bedou, 2018). Both these requirements can be either easy or difficult to realize. Consequently, this chapter sets out conclusions and recommendations at both country-specific and more general levels.

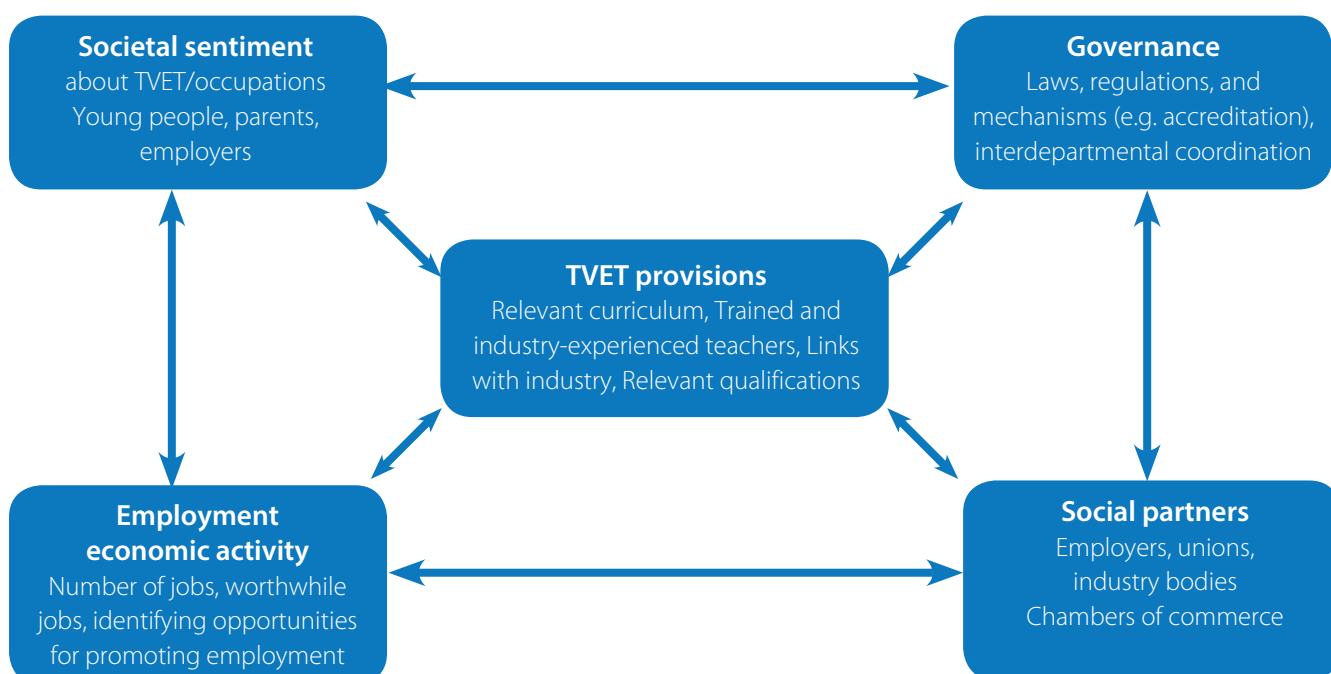
## Progressing WBL arrangements

As stated in the **Executive Summary** and **Chapter 1**, a complex of factors influence and shape the provision of WBL experiences, how they are ordered, organized, made

accessible and to whom, and on what bases. These are depicted in **Figure 1.1**, repeated here as **Figure 8.1**. Given that these factors both support and inhibit the extent and take-up of WBL provisions within TVET in these countries, there needs to be a range of aligned and interdependent initiatives. For instance, lower than desirable levels of economic activity mean restricted employment and learning opportunities. Therefore, there has to be a close alignment between provisions of TVET and WBL, the needs of workplaces, and the ability of that training to support economic activity and economic growth, at the enterprise level in particular. Yet unless young people want to engage in TVET and to pursue the occupations for which it prepares them, rather than merely using TVET as a vehicle to advance to higher education, then these goals will not be achieved. Therefore it is important to address issues associated with how young people and their parents view TVET, the occupations it serves, and WBL.

These factors are interdependent, and are related in particular ways. They are also likely to be different in each country, depending on the development of its governance arrangements, the maturity of social partnerships, the levels and kinds of employment, the quality and extent of existing TVET, the degree to which societal sentiment is supportive of TVET, and the provision of learning experiences through work.

**Figure 8.1** Interdependent factors associated with WBL provision



While acknowledging that the factors shown in **Figure 8.1** are interdependent, this chapter seeks to take these five elements and, using recommendations associated with them arising from the country studies, draw out both country-specific and more generally applicable conclusions. It is these that are fashioned into a set of general recommendations.

This figure suggests that a complex of six factors is associated with WBL:

- the kinds and qualities of legal and institutional *governance* (government mandates, laws and regulations and so on)
- *social partnerships* (the engagement of employers, unions and professional bodies, locally, regionally and nationally)
- *kinds and scale of workplaces* (taking into account the predominance of MSMEs in these countries)
- *funding* arrangements (such as sharing of costs and access to reimbursement)
- the kind and nature of the *TVET provision* (relevance of curriculum, quality of educators, links with industry, attractiveness of qualifications, alignment with enterprise needs)
- *societal sentiments* shaping how young people, their parents and employers come to value and participate in TVET.

These factors are used to structure this chapter, and each of them is addressed in turn, drawing on conclusions and recommendations primarily from the country studies, but also from other sources.

## Governance

To address issues of fragmentation and lack of coherence, there need to be laws and regulations associated with the provision of TVET, and also administrative arrangements at the national, regional and local levels to implement initiatives such as WBL for young people.

### Legal and institutional frameworks

There is a stated need for clear laws and administrative frameworks that provide a governance structure, and these also provide leadership and mechanisms to improve the TVET system and WBL arrangements. The important point here is the designation of a leader and the way in which this role operates. For instance, if the responsibility resides within a ministry largely concerned with schooling and higher education, the focus on TVET and WBL might be partial or downplayed. It is noteworthy that countries with well-developed TVET systems have dedicated ministries (such as in Algeria). It is important that leadership includes qualitative elements associated with interest in and commitment to developing an effective TVET

system that recognizes, incorporates and acknowledges the contribution of WBL. Part of that leadership involves an openness to engage with a range of stakeholders, such as representatives of employers and employees, and at both national and local/regional levels. In particular, where such social partnership arrangements are absent, a key role for government is to initiate and sustain such arrangements both nationally and locally. Perhaps the most commonly referred-to model is that of chambers of commerce, particularly when these are bipartite and able to represent both employers and employees on behalf of national interests, albeit at a local level (Deissinger and Hellwig, 2005). It seems that often these kinds of organization mediate between the competing interests of employers and employees, training institutions and workplaces, and also represent a voice which is seen in some senses as being independent. That leadership needs to have TVET as its primary focus, yet put in place arrangements that enjoy support in the community and can work to mediate between or among various competing interests. Again, these kinds of institutions generally reflect mature TVET systems.

In all, the kinds of legal and institutional framing required to support WBL arrangements comprise and extend to:

- a national qualification framework (NQF) that provides links from schooling and into higher education
- accreditation and quality assurance systems, to ensure a quality experience for learners in vocational training institutions and workplaces
- an inclusive processes involving social partners, educators and workplaces that can identify the aims, goals and objectives for TVET programmes, the kinds of content and experience that will secure all those intents, and how they are able to be adapted at the regional and local levels, while maintaining national coherence
- recognition of prior learning (RPL) processes that can lead to certification of skills for young people learning in traditional apprenticeship models which sit outside of vocational training arrangements
- professional development of teachers, to maintain and develop further both their occupational and pedagogic skills
- nationally recognized train-the-trainer provisions for those who supervise students/apprentices in workplaces
- shared funding arrangements that distribute the cost of young people's WBL across government, community, workplaces and the participants themselves, with local means of decision-making and access to those funds
- labour laws that make reference to pay and conditions associated with training, and rewards for enhanced skill acquisition.

Elements of the legislation need to address issues of duty of care towards trainees engaging in WBL, and in particular for apprentices, conditions of employment including pay, support, insurance and leave arrangements.

### **Funding mechanisms**

Associated with these legislative and administrative frameworks are funding mechanisms. These are required for all types of TVET, including supporting WBL as well as apprenticeships. They need to cover both institution-based training and workplace-based training, and for what occurs in workplaces in terms of the kind and quality of experiences. Budgets should be allocated in a way that relates funding to performance, and impact in terms of processes (the kinds of experience provided) and outcomes (measures of skill development and employability). The best outcomes are likely to arise from arrangements that grant more financial and management autonomy to schools and centres. As noted elsewhere, a responsive TVET system, and particularly one that encompasses WBL, needs to be able to respond at the local level, adapt its provisions, and modify arrangements, albeit within a consistent national framework, to achieve effective engagements with local enterprises and strong outcomes for trainees.

Among the local arrangements could be the development of workplace capacity to provide an effective experience for trainees, and local selection processes for participating workplaces. Funding could well derive from cost sharing, and might include a national training fund. Such funds are typically built up from levy contributions. They can provide direct funding, and enterprises are sometimes able to defer making contributions on the basis of their commitment to and engagement in TVET, including WBL. Institutional frameworks can also accommodate other financial and non-financial incentives for employers to support WBL. There are examples from other countries, and the legislative and administrative arrangements might be informed by international and regional best practice.

### **Ordering of experiences**

Administrative frameworks also need to ensure the integration of experiences in educational institutions and workplaces for young people in metropolitan, regional and rural areas. A mandate for this would be difficult to legislate and probably unenforceable. However, administrative arrangements associated with the accreditation of training institutions could stipulate the kinds of processes needed for responding to young people's participation in local workplaces, and then the educational processes that seek to integrate the two sets of experiences, as proposed in Oman and Morocco, for instance. The key point here is that the experiences in both the training institution and the

workplace are important, but when they are harmonized and integrated the best outcomes are most likely.

### **Engaging with partners**

Given the centrality of engaging with enterprises, both public and private, regular reviews about how those enterprises can effectively engage with, support and mutually benefit from their participation in WBL programmes for young people are warranted. It was suggested in some of the country studies that the engagement with workplaces needs to be improved, by providing or enhancing existing arrangements, and that can perhaps best come from understanding enterprise needs and encouraging their participation. This encompasses understanding the needs, discovering what kinds of incentive or support are most likely to be effective, identifying how their interests can best be articulated and engaged with both nationally and at the local level, and determining the optimum kinds of interaction with local training institutions. All of this does not necessarily involve burdensome administrative infrastructure; indeed, it may be better without it. However, local processes of engagement that are empowered from the centre and responsive to local feedback may well be an effective way of engaging local businesses, enhancing their participation with the TVET system, and being responsive to their needs as they assist young people to develop occupational skills.

### **Governance itself**

A number of studies suggested there needs to be improved coordination between government departments with responsibilities for TVET, particularly when WBL is involved. As has been noted, often inputs and administration are needed from a range of government ministries: typically those with responsibilities for school education, TVET or higher education, the labour market, and in particular industry engagement. It is important in all cases that there is a high level of coordination rather than one dominant body. It is probably reasonable to suggest that the interests of TVET and associated WBL are likely to be most effectively coordinated when a ministry with that particular interest has leverage over the others. So it might not be enough to have a ministry specializing in TVET; that ministry needs coordinating powers across other ministries so that these interests can be advanced in ways that promote TVET and WBL.

### **Strategic planning**

All of this action calls for a significant and long-term operational plan, with clear annual goals but also with goals extending out for a decade or more. Some of the requirements, such as the professional development of teachers, can be ongoing, but it will not be possible to create a team of training staff with extensive industrial and workplace experience in a short



period. Building effective administrative arrangements that are operable at the national and local level is not achievable in the short term, but will require extensive consultation, engagement and development over time. Forward planning to incrementally increase the numbers of students engaged in dual-type entry-level training arrangements is proposed to promote the broad use of WBL. Part of that plan is to find ways to include and coordinate donor countries' contributions and efforts so as to achieve the goals of the recipient country, rather than maintaining an emphasis on the donor countries' preferred models.

### Research/evaluation studies

These governance arrangements need to be supported by evidence from research and evaluation that can inform

policy initiatives and directions. It is also evident in the suggestions from country studies, and in this report, that it is important to support empirically informed studies, evaluations and research projects that can inform these processes. It is noteworthy that some of the most detailed contributions to the country studies and also this overall report come from specific studies that seek to address a problem, gather information and evidence about it, and offer recommendations for how to proceed. Of course, the evidence is that by no means all of this research is accepted by governments, or even by those organizations that sponsor it. Nevertheless, it is an integral element of an informed and mature TVET system, which needs to operate in ways that are informed, shaped by evidence, and have the capacity to take into account situational factors.

**Table 8.1 Governance issues and recommendations**

Recommendation	Country
Develop further the processes for implementing a comprehensive system of governance for WBL schemes, particularly with mechanisms that allow action at the local level in terms of quality provisions in the workplace, accessing financial support, and providing information to inform decision-making by local actors.	Algeria
Draft and finalize a TVET law and strategy that includes explicit and clear articles on governing the system, including WBL and apprenticeship provision, limiting the current fragmentation and creating an umbrella organization that provides the necessary leadership and supervision. The law and strategy development should include all stakeholders, especially employers from the private sector and employee organizations.	Egypt
Reform the quality assurance and accreditation system, creating coherence and clear procedures for developing standards and qualifications, developing further curricula, administrating assessments, training of trainers, and RPL. This should extend to completing the NQF which has been slowly progressing. The provision of WBL and apprenticeships, especially OJT and within schools in factories, needs to be included.	Egypt
Funding mechanisms for TVET, including WBL and apprenticeships, are required for both TVET institutions and employers. This necessitates allocating the budgets for public TVET providers based on performance and impact. It should also permit more financial and management autonomy for schools and centres, restructuring and reactivating the National Training Fund (and the training levy) with clear quotas for WBL, and providing financial and non-financial incentives for employers to support WBL. Issues associated with private sector incentives could be informed by international and regional best practice.	Egypt
MOE should prepare a realistic operational plan with clear indicators and timelines set to expand the dual system from the current 2 per cent to 50 per cent of all technical school students by 2025, and increase the number of training facilities in workplaces from 50 to 500 in the next five years. The challenge will be to engage with and incentivize overwhelming enterprises that are small and informal. The current system relies on larger companies taking on average ten apprentices per year, and those with the financial means to establish their own training facilities enrolling on average 160 students per year. The key here is to provide financial incentives like tax reductions or wage subsidies (and other means according to international good practice). Furthermore, the new GIZ project, Enhancement of the Egyptian Dual System (EEDS), will start soon experimenting with the idea of an 'Inter-company training concept', piloting clusters of small enterprises sharing in the training of apprentices who rotate across the enterprises to gain the skills required for a broad-based occupation. Employers will share the cost of apprentices' wages. It will be interesting to see the results of this, and the government should play a leading role in monitoring and evaluating this pilot and assessing the feasibility of mainstreaming it, if it is successful.	Egypt
The government should take more responsibility in coordinating donor activity in TVET reform in general and WBL in particular. The priorities and activities where technical support is needed from donors should be set by the relevant government body to make sure all support areas are covered and to avoid duplication and fragmentation, especially in introducing too many models from different countries without having an agreed Egyptian model for WBL.	Egypt

Develop the current legal framework within the labour law for vocational training.	Jordan
Develop and apply criteria for selecting companies/workplaces to implement apprenticeship training.	Jordan
Develop the legal framework for TVET to cover apprentice status as a worker and not a trainee, so apprentices receive all related rights such as social security, health care, insurance and an allowance for leave; training contracts, enforceable on different parties (the employer, training provider and apprentice/trainee), and remuneration for the apprentice through a percentage of skilled workers' wages, increasing according to the stage of training; and related TVET providers that apply apprenticeships or WBL in identifying in-company training programmes and not only VTC.	Lebanon
Developing and applying criteria for selecting companies/workplaces to implement apprenticeship training which ensures its appropriateness for the targeted training programme.	Lebanon
Retention reports to be submitted by the employers based on the requirements they have agreed with the training provider.	Oman
Training to start at earlier stages, not only after high school completion or after age 16.	Oman
Policies for WBL to be highlighted, reviewed and periodically amended.	Oman
Research body for improving TVET and its schemes to be more active and current.	Oman
Provide support for the legal basis for WBL, through a legal analysis that provides a basis for necessary changes of some laws and/or by-laws. This process has to be explicitly supported by MOL and MEHE as changes in the legislation should facilitate the WBL processes.	Palestine
Establish local hubs for coordination of WBL.	Palestine
Identify the organizational framework for an apprenticeship system (including legal and financial aspects); establish occupational standards.	Palestine
Develop a WBL strategy and legal framework on the national level.	Palestine
Create a national training fund, co-financed by the private sector, to assure the institutionalization of WBL	Palestine
Facilitate the registration of economic establishments that participate in providing training.	Palestine
Adopt an NQF to create the organizational regulations needed for the implementation of WBL and apprenticeship schemes.	Palestine
Harmonize training and employment by reviewing and rethinking the connection between the three main stakeholders: host enterprises, trainees and TVET institutions.	Morocco
Consultation with enterprises, chambers of commerce and training providers regarding the development of work-based training methods, including work-based vocational training and apprenticeships, to establish a better connection and harmonization between work-based and TVET-institution-based training.	Morocco
Rework the two types of work-based training, with a twofold objective: harmonization of governance, planning and production procedures, monitoring/evaluation, financing, and consequently significantly improving training in the workplace; and addressing all levels of qualification, including postgraduate levels, to strengthen the employability of university graduates, who are the category of young people most affected by unemployment.	Morocco
Research the conditions likely to improve harmonization between the social function of apprenticeships, which consists of ensuring young people gain a qualification, and its economic function, aiming to provide a qualified workforce that corresponds to businesses' needs.	Morocco
Improve access conditions for young people from poor or rural areas through the implementation of internships, as well as bursaries for combating the drop-out rates of students owing to transport and accommodation problems.	Morocco
Strengthen the role of businesses. This requires: i) conducting a review of the current ineffective practices of their involvement across all decision-making levels: strategic and operational, at the sectoral, regional and/or local level; ii) empowering host businesses to receive apprentices or interns in ways that enable them to fulfil their needs; strengthening organizational capabilities for hosting, designing training programmes, work-based training and coordination with the training institutions, and in particular, providing support for training tutors, apprenticeship mentors and providers; iii) implementing incentive measures to benefit tutors or apprenticeship mentors, and ensuring their status is valued; iv) compensation for the additional costs incurred by business as the result of recruiting an apprentice or intern, alongside benefits in legislation in the form of exemption from income tax and social security contributions so they are not exploited or passed on to young people; v) clarifying responsibilities of the stakeholders (businesses, trainees, training institutions) to reassure large businesses given the real or perceived social risk that obstructs their involvement in WBL; vi) engage with lead bodies (e.g. General Federation of Moroccan Businesses) to strengthen their advocacy capacities with the government, and the promotion of WBL across business sectors, federated professional associations and large businesses.	Morocco

In summary, this list of recommendations for governance has precedence for both countries with good governance arrangements and those seeking to develop them. It is proposed that there should be both legal and institutional frameworks that support the provision of TVET, in ways that engage with and capture the contributions of a range of stakeholders, and are empowered to shape the provision of TVET nationally, including an ability to respond to local needs and requirements. Such a system also requires adequate funding, and this includes distribution of costs. These arrangements extend beyond those directed towards training institutions, but include consideration of young people participating in them and the degree by which it will be necessary to provide both financial and non-financial incentives to encourage broader participation by local enterprises. It is acknowledged that such incentives may be necessary particularly since MSMEs dominate the economies of most of these countries. Many models of industry engagement are based around large enterprises. However, these are very much the exception in these countries, and a key task is therefore to find ways of engaging with small businesses so that they participate in a system that promotes WBL for young people. As a consequence, governance arrangements need to reach out and be responsive at a regional or local level. That extends to stipulating the kinds of experience that young people are to have, while providing flexibility in how they are implemented.

Probably more than any other, this sector of education needs to engage with social partners, and in particular with local workplaces. Its ability to provide students with an effective education is premised upon access to substantive, high-quality WBL experiences. Therefore, as mentioned many times, the provision of TVET, especially when it includes WBL, needs to be supported by effective social partnerships. These partnerships include national leadership by employer bodies, those representing employees and government. However that level of partnership, while essential, is not sufficient. Instead, governance mechanisms need not only to formulate national social partnerships but also to have arrangements in place so that these partnerships can be fostered, nurtured and sustained at the local level. It is the development and maintenance of these local arrangements that is likely to generate positive outcomes for young people's WBL.

In all of this, it has been noted that coordination and collaboration and persistence between government departments is needed, otherwise the effort, focus and engagement with social partners will become blurred, ill-directed and duplicated.

It is emphasized here that in different ways across these and other countries, there is a need for strategic planning to achieve these goals. Improving the industry experience

of teachers in training institutions, developing the skills of trainers in workplaces, and aligning more effectively the intents and content of courses to enterprise needs cannot be achieved overnight. Instead this is likely to require long-term planning, incremental processes of development, and arrangements that initiate and support these developments. All of this requires planning, in ways that might differ from region to region.

Finally, a key issue for effective governance is appropriate information. It was evident in preparing this report that where there have been empirically driven and carefully conducted evaluations, research projects and informed enquiries, the evidence and suggestions for improvement seem well-focused and salient. As a consequence, this field would benefit widely from having more systematic studies, evaluations and reviews.

### **Social partnerships**

As has been advanced frequently across this report, the country studies and also other sources indicate the importance of social partnerships for effective TVET, especially when it includes WBL. As well as being necessary elements for engaging with workplaces so as to provide experiences for young people, these partnerships are helpful for developing further the kinds of programmes being offered, their educational intent, the relevance of content, and their applicability to the needs of enterprises that might employ graduates from TVET programmes. It has been noted repeatedly how the central purposes of TVET involving WBL are to address youth unemployment, meet the skill profile needs of enterprises, address national economic development, and overcome social inequity through effective educational provisions. It is unlikely that any of these will be achieved without effective relations with social partners (see Table 8.2). Moreover, an indicator of the maturity of TVET systems is the extent and quality of such social partnerships, which need to occur at both national and local levels. It follows then that many of the recommendations associated with social partnerships are about strengthening both the partnerships themselves, and what and how they can contribute to the provision of WBL for young people.

### **Strengthening the engagement and role of social partners**

Strengthening the engagement of social partners is likely to be premised upon the kinds of roles that they are allocated and their skills to undertake those roles effectively, and the means by which these partnerships will be formed and sustained (see **Table 8.2**).

**Roles and capacities of social partners**

It is suggested that institutionalizing employer engagement can be assisted through enhanced information-sharing by government, including labour market information, the implementation and outcomes of apprenticeship systems, and building the capacities of social partnerships. That capacity-building can include and arise from greater engagement in the planning for and evaluation of WBL schemes such as apprenticeships and alternance programmes. For instance, it is suggested that employer associations might be actively involved in the piloting of initiatives and the accreditation and certification of these kinds of programme, much as occurs in countries such as Germany through its chambers of commerce. It is suggested that these roles might extend to the governance of training institutions at a local/regional level to increase the alignment between TVET offerings and the needs and requirements of local enterprises. Such arrangements are likely to encompass both public and private enterprises, to engage the broadest range of workplaces.

A key role for the social partnerships is to address and seek to overcome the common problem of low retention in programmes and in the targeted occupation after graduation. Both sponsors of TVET and enterprises have a shared concern that the effort directed to preparing young people for specific occupations will be squandered unless there is a sustainable level of retention. If the current level of attrition continues, it will undermine not only the TVET programmes, but enterprise commitment to them.

**Forming and sustaining social partners**

Realizing these partnership arrangements is likely to

require reciprocity in the form of shared commitment and engagement, and demonstrable benefits for all parties including, of course, young people. The nature and form of sustainable social partnerships is likely to be associated with meeting specific needs. As a consequence, the form and delineation of these partnerships will be important. For instance, it is likely that national partnerships will need to be formed around particular occupational groupings or industry sectors. It is these partners that will be able to advise about national curricula, mandatory content, and the mix of experiences required for those training for these occupations or industries. At the local level, there may be replication of these national bodies (industry sector or occupational based). Alternatively, local partnerships might be shaped to achieve different kinds of purpose, such as local development, and addressing issues such as entrenched unemployment in rural areas. So the actual shape and form of these social partnerships is likely to be influenced by imperatives that attract partners and sustain their interest in participating. An element of that process will be the degree by which resources are distributed within and across these partnerships, their composition, and the degree to which their contributions are recognized and acted upon.

The evidence from elsewhere suggests that social partnerships are likely to endure most effectively when there are clear imperatives to participate, accepted and acknowledged roles, and the partnerships are able to achieve goals that warrant continuing participation. One indicator of the quality of such partnerships is whether partners are willing to give up something to sustain the partnership (Billett et al., 2007); that is, their participation is demonstrably not purely partisan.

**Table 8.2 Social partnerships**

Recommendation	Country
Develop further the processes for engaging social partners to support young people's WBL, particularly having engagements that allow action at the local level in terms of quality provisions in the workplace, accessing financial support, and information to inform decision-making by local actors.	Algeria
The relevance of TVET to labour market needs should be improved by institutionalizing employer engagement at all levels of the system, as well as establishing sustainable and regular sources of information through labour market information systems, which are quite underdeveloped in Egypt.	Egypt
Strengthen partnerships of labour market companies in the planning, implementation and evaluation of apprenticeship and other work-based training.	Jordan
Build the capacity of selected employers' associations to pilot an accredited and certified apprenticeship training programme.	Jordan
Strengthen partnerships of labour market companies in the planning, implementation and evaluation of apprenticeship and other work-based training	Lebanon
Build the capacity of stakeholders, and raise awareness about WBL among private and public stakeholders.	Palestine

Sign memoranda of understanding (MOUs) between training providers and private-sector representatives.	Palestine
Implement a preliminary advisory and guidance system that is present and effective on the ground (a guidance portal is certainly useful but not enough) for the benefit of apprentices and their parents. This would limit the massive drop-out rates from the national education system (in particular, the drop-out peak recorded during the last year of the academic cycle) and encourage a switch towards vocational training in the workplace. Consolidate and develop sector-based partnerships (for textiles, clothing, tourism, craft trades and so on) and partnerships with the major business sectors (banking, telecoms operators and so on) including bodies that are not sufficiently or not at all engaged in WBL, owing to fears of a potential social risk. Develop consultation bodies involving the various training stakeholders and partners, enabling a uniform approach and creating a synergy of actions, and optimizing resources. This includes involving partners other than the business/civil society for the entry of young people in their urban and rural spaces and having an impact on the level of development of these spaces. There should be partnership and synergy of action between the authority and bodies in charge of employment and other aspects.	Morocco
Participation of professionals in the governance of training centres is a necessity if the training is to more closely meet the needs of workplaces and be implemented in them.	Tunisia
Concerning professional and trade union organizations, implement workplace training support units and ensure they are eligible for certain funding tools so that they can play a role in coaching their members and are credible and representative negotiators with MFPE. UAF should be remunerated for the continuing training actions it organizes, in a way that needs to be specified. In this way, training offices will be able to remunerate professional organizations from the budget provided for this purpose. This will ensure the sustainable intervention of professional organizations in the system, which is an important goal.	Tunisia

### Social partnerships in prospect

For these social partnerships to be effective there need to be clear purposes for their formation and engagement, and specific roles for them that can be seen as influencing the provisions of TVET, in ways that meet some of their specific sectoral, workplace and/or community needs. Moreover, they need resources and capacities to be effective in their role, and to be acknowledged, rewarded or otherwise able to see the benefits of their engagement and participation. It is quite likely that industry sector or occupationally based social partnerships will be necessary at a national level, and perhaps also locally depending on the particular needs of the communities they serve. In all, their formation, operation and longevity will be based on clear purposes and being able to achieve the kinds of goals that are set for them and that they are committed to, as well as a commitment to the partnership itself (Billett et al., 2007).

One of the key issues that will undoubtedly drive the work of social partnerships is overcoming entrenched levels of youth unemployment. This is a key consideration for TVET and the provision of WBL.

### Kinds and scale of workplaces

A particular feature of the enterprises in these countries is that they are predominantly MSMEs. Moreover, the share of these kinds of enterprise appears to be growing, as large-scale manufacturing is declining as an element of GDP. These kinds of workplace play little part in the WBL models of some European countries such as Germany, which

focuses on in-house training ability and the Meister system. Instead, these kinds of enterprise are more likely to favour the traditional model of apprenticeship, as it meets their needs and capacities.

A range of considerations arise from the predominance of these kinds of business. First is the fit between structured models of WBL and the capacities of these workplaces to provide the extent and quality of training required. They do not have in-house trainers and associated facilities. Second, MSMEs may not have the capacity to engage with TVET training institutions in the way that larger enterprises might. As a consequence, it will be necessary for TVET institutions to reach out, engage with and support these enterprises to help them provide WBL for trainees. Third, the range and extent of experiences accessible in these workplaces might not fulfil course requirements. So consideration needs to be given to how these small workplaces might best be engaged. Proposals include rotating trainees across different workplaces so they access a broader repertoire of occupational experience, and ensuring it is a central educational concern to actively integrate and augment trainee experiences so they meet programme requirements.

The specific challenges associated with involving MSMEs in WBL are an important category of consideration in their own right, and one that needs to be addressed when considering TVET.



## Employment

The country studies had little to say specifically about recommendations for overcoming high levels of youth unemployment. The key contribution here is the suggestion that accurate and sector-specific information would help ensure the policies associated with TVET provision and funding, and other government resources, are directed in ways that help to address the issue. This includes the national pattern of youth unemployment. For instance, the Moroccan country study suggested creating a permanent instrument for gathering, analysing, and providing relevant information on the training offered and the demand from the jobs market at a national, sectoral and regional level.

## TVET provisions

The country studies each provided a range of suggestions and recommendations about improving the current arrangements to more effectively support the provision of WBL experiences for young people. They identified a range of factors that influence the provision of these experiences and how they might be advanced. Again, some of these comments are quite specific to individual country contexts, but others apply far more broadly. These recommendations can be categorized as:

- improving structural arrangements and mechanisms
- supporting in-house/enterprise capacities
- enhancing traditional apprenticeship systems
- workplace-based approaches to supporting learning
- extending engagement beyond training institutions
- strategies to promote inclusion
- research-based advice and evaluation (see **Table 8.4**).
- These topics are now addressed in turn.

### Improving structural arrangements and mechanisms

A range of suggestions were made about improving TVET programmes and their delivery. The issue of attractiveness to young people is an important aspect. Some of the recommendations here refer to articulation between TVET and higher levels of education, such as hard technical courses and university education. This recommendation is associated with providing ongoing pathways from TVET and offering the prospect of continued advancement for young people so they are not restricted in their educational aspirations by having taken a TVET course. It also assists in addressing the view that TVET is in some way overly specific and 'dead-end'.

Of course, an ongoing problem for TVET in these countries is that it is often used merely as a platform to advance to higher levels and forms of education. It seems that regardless of what is done, this will be the case, given the examples

from Egypt (El-Ashmawi, 2017). Providing articulation and pathways enables TVET programmes to be seen as offering a basis for further development as well as having their own specific outcomes. Indeed, strengthening the requirements for completion to meet the needs of articulation to higher levels can be used in itself to strengthen the quality of TVET programmes. Some suggestions point to the need for higher levels of TVET programme, so graduates can acquire further training and qualification without having to enrol in other types of higher education institution.

Another suggestion made in a couple of country studies is for the rotation of apprentices across different workplaces, so they gain wider experience related to the occupation for which they are training. These richer and more diverse experiences might help apprentices to develop broader insights which may well lend themselves to enhanced adaptability (being able to respond to different kinds of challenges and problems). In some ways, this is enhancing the existing alternance approach. That is, more than alternating between the training institution and the workplace, the learner travels across a range of workplaces to develop further insights. Such arrangements are quite common in some countries which adopt the group apprenticeship approach, in which apprentices are not employed directly by employers but by an apprenticeship organization which then 'leases' them to a range of employers, each of which might have quite different work requirements and processes. As with other initiatives, there are strengths and limitations in this system. Essentially, a key consideration is the degree to which coherence and comprehensiveness is provided through such structural arrangements.

As part of the overall concern is to professionalize the TVET sector, it is proposed that there needs to be greater understanding about what constitutes occupational competency, how best that might be developed, and what kinds of educational intent and process are likely to secure these outcomes. So part of the long-term plan for the development of TVET sectors in these countries is associated with a twofold goal of enhancing the teaching quality of the TVET workforce, but also making them more aware of, familiar with, and competent to engage with local workplaces.

### Supporting in-house/enterprise capacities

Since increasingly it is anticipated that the provision of young people's learning experiences in TVET programmes will occur in workplaces, many of the recommendations were associated with the quality of those experiences and the preparedness of individuals in the workplaces to provide effective learning experiences. It was suggested that there should be standardized qualifications for those providing learning support in workplaces (such as tutors and



mentors), and that these individuals should have adequate preparation. Their important roles in the development of occupational skills, meeting the needs of host enterprises, and contributing more broadly to the development of national economic capacity need to be realized effectively. The concern is that without such arrangements, the learning experiences, outcomes and contributions could be piecemeal and ad hoc.

Hence, there were suggestions about the need for arrangements and agreements between government and employers to maximize the processes and outcomes of WBL for young people. It was suggested that intermediaries such as national professional bodies and industry sector partners might take a lead in the development of in-house/enterprise capacities. In this way, these organizations could mediate the intentions of governments with those of specific industry occupational sectors, and understand ways in which these arrangements could be implemented locally. It is suggested that not only is this a question of enhancing the competence of in-house or in-company trainers, the issue of recognition of their work is also important. Training needs to be seen as a valuable and attractive specialization for people in the workforce.

### Enhancing traditional apprenticeship systems

As has been acknowledged, probably the most common form of initial preparation for skilled work is traditional apprenticeships. These largely sit outside of TVET arrangements and are not recognized in qualification frameworks, and there is limited information about their scope, quality and outcomes for young people. However this very widely accepted mode of occupational preparation appears to be effective, given its longevity and its ongoing presence in many countries.

It has been suggested that traditional apprenticeships need to be embraced and engaged with by the TVET system. One suggestion is that this form of training should include off-the-job (in other words, classroom) components. Others include efforts to regulate, mandate and evaluate the quality of learning experiences and outcomes. For instance, external examinations could enable this learning to be recognized, monitored and certified. Incentives for employers and host workplaces could encourage them to embrace the requirements for specified working conditions, effective occupational preparation and opportunities for off-the-job training. For traditional apprentices to enjoy the benefits of recognition and certification of their skills could benefit their employers too.

This area of initiative seems important. In contrast to many of the efforts by governments and external sponsors, the traditional system of apprenticeship, though it is used

in a limited number of occupational areas, seems to be effective and popular in its own terms. Promoting and seeking to improve and expand the provision of this form of apprenticeship is clearly in the interests of countries, the young people in them, and the enterprises they serve, as well as the economic contributions they make, but it is important that any interventions do not weaken, destroy or disrupt the positive attributes of this system. That is, it would be mistaken simply to try to apply the standard TVET structures and formats to a model of learning support that has developed outside of them and has been quite effective without them.

Consequently, care is required in advancing these arrangements in ways that are sensitive to and supportive of the factors that currently support and sustain them. It is far better to do nothing at all, than to intervene and disrupt a successful model.

### Workplace-based approaches to supporting learning

A number of recommendations point to the need for WBL to be given particular attention, rather than being accepted as naturally occurring when young people are in workplaces. The point here is that as young people will be spending more time engaged in WBL and it will become a growing part of their overall programme, consideration needs to be given to how these experiences can be enriched and supported. A broad range of approaches to learning in workplaces might be more widely understood and engaged with. For instance, a range of curricular models are associated with the particular practices and requirements of workplaces (Billett, 2016), and there are also particular pedagogic practices that fit what occurs in workplaces and show how the learning there can be developed. The key point here is that rather than considering models and pedagogic practices that have their origins in and are suited to educational institutions, it is necessary to identify and use those that are appropriate for and best aligned with WBL. It is also suggested that the WBL experiences that are part of TVET be considered more broadly across higher technical and university programmes as a way of addressing employability and relevance issues.

As a consequence, it is proposed here that the understandings about how learning can best be secured in workplaces, and the variety of curriculum models and pedagogic practices that can support that learning, might well be promoted in ways that go beyond accounts of learning through work which see it as simply 'learning on the job' (see **Table 8.3**).

**Table 8.3 TVET provisions**

Recommendation	Country
Develop a national training plan for trainers in vocational training institutions and workplaces, including the development of national programmes and qualifications to improve the standard of learning support in both institutions and workplaces.	Algeria
Create a national body of contractors and training professionals to assist in developing the quality of educational provisions, and act effectively in both vocational training institutions and workplaces.	Algeria
Give more attention to setting clear and standardized qualifications for in-company tutors and mentors responsible for the in-company training of apprentices. Furthermore, establish consistent and regular training for these tutors rather than leaving the current ad hoc status. This should be incorporated in the system and in the agreements drafted between the government and employers.	Egypt
Establish more advanced and regular evidence-based research, data collection, and monitoring and evaluation tools at the national level, with networks at the local level for TVET in general and WBL in particular. The objectives should include analysis of the system, best practices and short-comings, and the information can be used as a tool for informed decision-making. This could be initiated by a central government body like MOE or the new TVET umbrella authority, and could receive donor funding to start, but it is crucial that sustainable measures are in place from the beginning. Better information on informal/traditional apprenticeship schemes, for which information is almost nonexistent, is crucial to better understanding the extent and nature of WBL.	Egypt
Provide intermediary employer organizations with capacity-building for better managing the process of WBL, especially at the enterprise level. Also enhance the relationship between government bodies and employer organizations at the operational level, with more cooperation and alignment in the overall objectives of WBL. Employer organizations should also develop orientation programmes in enterprises for off-the-job teachers and trainers in order for the links to be stronger between TVET institutions and enterprises. This will benefit trainees, especially since most practical instructors have not had specialized training, and many trainers do not have technical qualifications in the subjects they teach. The government should also involve trade unions in the reform and planning of WBL as this is in reality rare; despite that, they do serve on the boards of some institutes, like the PVTD for example.	Egypt
Apprenticeship should be seen as a link in the life-long learning chain, opening channels with other and higher types of education (Badawi, 2012), and there should be expansion of adult apprenticeship for jobseekers. Despite some small-scale pilots, the current WBL system focuses on school-aged learners. There is a lot to learn from the British experience in this area.	Egypt
Supplement the traditional informal training system with off-the-job training in well-established training centres in the local areas where apprentices work.	Egypt
Further strengthen the traditional informal training system through public-private partnerships. MoMM could play a leading role in this respect by enacting a three-year contract between the family of the apprentice and the workshop owner. MoMM should also ensure that the enterprises take into account occupational health and safety requirements. The enterprises applying to join such a system should regularize their situations accordingly, entering the formal economy. During the three years, the enterprise should determine the level of the apprenticeship, for a low, medium or high-skilled occupation. After completion of the on-the-job and off-job training the apprentice should be examined by MoMM and awarded certification of the skills acquired. This way the certified worker would be entitled to register for employment services and would be eligible for migration schemes regulated by the ministry. In return for enterprises joining this scheme and participating in organized training of apprentices, MoMM could either offer financial support to help cover their expenses, or provide them with loans in order to upgrade their machinery and equipment (El-Mahdi, 2012).	Egypt
Introduce specializations that may be more culturally suited to female apprentices.	Egypt
Establish marketing and employment units in TVET institutions.	Jordan
Promote the concept of a certified in-company trainer who trains and/or monitors the training process for apprentices/trainees through their in-company training.	Jordan
Provide free training of trainers (TOT) courses for in-company technicians/supervisors.	Jordan
Transfer apprentices/trainees from one company/workplace to another as needed.	Jordan

Expand the use of work-based methods/techniques to provide training and work experience opportunities for new graduates from universities and community colleges.	Jordan
Extend apprenticeship schemes to include training to technician level.	Jordan
Open channels between different TVET levels and systems.	Jordan
Establish marketing and employment units in TVET institutions for marketing apprenticeships and other work-based training schemes to enterprises, particularly those of large and medium scale; and for assisting apprentices/trainees in finding job opportunities after graduation in the private sector.	Lebanon
Expand the use of work-based methods/techniques to provide training and work experience for new graduates from universities and community colleges to assist them in getting the work experience required for employment.	Lebanon
Extend apprenticeship schemes to include training to technician level beside the currently targeted occupational levels (semi-skilled, skilled, and craftsman).	Lebanon
Open channels between different TVET levels and systems allowing upward and sideways movements of trainees according to specific criteria.	Lebanon
Ensure training providers gather feedback from the company they contracted with on trainers' skills level and satisfaction after completing the programmes and working for a good amount of time.	Oman
Review curricula and periodically update them based on sector skills requirements.	Oman
Globalize WBL as a scheme. Though it may need more research, this could provide a wider effective platform for employment, improvement, innovation, funding and so on for all trained under it.	Oman
Conduct sectoral studies to define the feasibility of WBL and apprenticeship schemes.	Palestine
Support the extension of WBL and apprenticeship programmes to higher education through feasible pathways and bridging schemes.	Palestine
Rework the two types of work-based training, with a twofold objective. First, to harmonize governance, planning and production procedures, monitoring/evaluation, financing, and consequently significantly improve training in the workplace. Second, to cover all the levels of qualification, including postgraduate levels, in order to strengthen the employability of university graduates, the category of young people most affected by unemployment.	Morocco
Improve access conditions for young people from poor or rural areas through internships, and bursaries to help combat dropping out owing to transport and accommodation problems.	Morocco
The status of trainers and apprenticeship advisors is a fundamental issue. The current trend is a growing lack of interest in trainers following up trainees during WBL. This has a twofold negative consequence. First, it greatly undermines the quality of the training of the young person, who no longer has access to a training centre. Second, it distances the trainers from the reality of the field and what happens in the company, which negatively affects the adequacy of training in relation to needs. Therefore, this issue needs to be raised urgently and translated into a commitment by trainers and learning advisors to fulfil their mission of trainee follow-up.	Tunisia
Understanding of the competency approach is a topic that needs to be raised again. A misunderstanding of this approach has devalued it and made it no longer accepted by several trainers. The APC should facilitate OJT by dividing programmes and assessing competencies separately and not by mastering a comprehensive curriculum.	Tunisia
Facilitate the mobility of young people between regions to make it possible for training in the workplace to better succeed. The aim is to give priority to the geographical location of training centres within industrial zones. This will allow apprentices to work in an organization in an easier way since the training centre is on the same premises. This question of distance between training centres and enterprises is a major obstacle to the development of training in the workplace.	Tunisia

## Extending engagement beyond training institutions

A number of recommendations are associated with extending the engagement of training institutions to the workplaces and communities that they serve. Some of that engagement is associated with advertising and marketing programmes to both the community and local workplaces: that is, making the community more aware of the kinds of TVET provision and anticipated outcomes as a way of securing greater engagement. With the provision of TVET increasingly extending beyond the physical environment of training institutions, there were also suggestions about the need for greater engagement between those teaching the students in these training institutions and those responsible for the learning in the workplace. Hence, there are suggestions about enhanced interaction at the local level, which is seen as being mutually beneficial. That is, the workplaces come to learn more about the TVET programmes and what they can potentially deliver, and also the trainers in TVET institutions come to understand far more about the particular requirements of workplaces, and remain current in their understanding of contemporary occupational and workplace practices.

## Strategies to promote inclusion

The provision of TVET programmes that include young women and can extend to regional and rural areas is an important priority for greater inclusion. It is noteworthy that in Morocco, there has been a significant increase in the number of female apprentices because programmes have been developed for occupations in which young women are able to participate (Sennou, 2017). Beyond the broader goals of having young women engage in programmes without gender constraints, providing programmes for occupations dominated by female employees seems to be an important consideration here. Moreover, the situation for young people in regional, rural and remote communities needs to be addressed, as these locations often suffer from high levels of youth unemployment, and the opportunities for WBL may be quite limited. Therefore, strategies associated with enhancing the mobility of young people living in these regions is important, so that they can enjoy the experiences other young people have. This could be helpful to overcome structural inequalities and ongoing entrenched unemployment in young people from those kinds of community.

## Research-based advice and evaluation

It was suggested that given the complexity of the educational project being undertaken through TVET systems incorporating WBL, addressing entrenched youth unemployment, seeking to address local needs, attempting

to ameliorate social exclusion based on gender or locality, trying to enhance the status and standing of TVET and the occupations it serves, and engaging and sustaining with social partners, there is a need for greater research, data-gathering, monitoring, evaluation and professional advice. All of this is deemed to be important for ensuring that the efforts directed by national governments, local agencies and also international sponsors are directed to achieving effective outcomes. That research can also assist the TVET system by raising awareness of processes, outcomes and initiatives in other countries. The contextual bases of these initiatives can then be understood and translated in an effective way to the national context. The point here is that if policy borrowing and copying happens without an understanding of context, the outcomes can be meagre and translation can be quite ineffective.

## Enhancing the provision of TVET

The country studies identified a range of issues associated with effective TVET provision, especially as it relates to WBL. The resulting range of recommendations includes some specific to those countries, and others that have resonance far more broadly. Here, the recommendations relate to many aspects of the provision of educational experiences, their structuring and organization, how they are implemented, and the means by which their organization is informed and effectively evaluated. As such, issues are associated with:

- improving structural arrangements and mechanisms for TVET
- supporting in-house/company capacities which are so important in the provision of WBL
- enhancing traditional apprenticeship systems in ways that are sympathetic to what is effective in their current provision
- enhancing and utilizing workplace-based approaches to support learning in work settings
- finding ways of extending engagement between staff working in training institutions and those in workplaces and the community they serve
- identifying and implementing strategies to promote greater inclusion by young women and those in rural and remote communities
- providing informed advice based on research and evaluation (see **Table 8.4**).

In many ways, this set of factors reflects what is found in mature TVET systems: that is, systems that engage widely, are informed by a range of sources, and are open to partnerships and supporting the needs and aspirations of young people, the communities in which they are located, and private and public-sector enterprises.

## Societal views (sentiments)

Nearly all of the country studies that inform this report claimed that there is a strong disaffection for TVET and the occupations it serves, and in particular, courses that include WBL. These appear to be perceived as offering lower-quality education, leading to undesirable jobs, and a demeaning way of learning. The studies stated quite explicitly (see Chapter 1) that TVET and the occupations it serves are low-status and considered undesirable by young people and their parents. Although this is a global phenomenon, and is being addressed by policy initiatives in many countries, it plays out in particular ways in countries in the Arab region because their inhabitants show such a strong aversion to the kinds of work for which TVET programmes prepare people. With one significant exception (of traditional apprenticeships), there is no sense of the kind of valuing of skills and skilful work that is central to engagement with TVET in Germany, Switzerland and Austria, for instance. When that engagement exists, young people are willing to take lower levels of pay in apprenticeship programmes to learn skills that are valued and well remunerated in their communities; parents are willing to support their children through these programmes because they know they will get effective training leading to a well-paid job; and enterprises support the development of skilful workers because they pay apprentices at lower levels than for trained workers, they need the trained workers they will become, and there is a societal obligation associated with skilful work.

As a consequence, in countries where this aversion is apparent, initiatives need to be undertaken and advice provided to parents and young people about TVET and the occupations it serves. If young people and parents see TVET only as a pathway to higher education and more prestigious occupations, the nexus between the contributions from TVET to enterprises and the national economy will falter. Moreover, such attrition will lead to disengagement by enterprises and questioning of national and local investment in TVET programmes. Also, more broadly, the evidence suggests that the answers to youth unemployment will not be found simply in ever-higher levels of education and greater competition for scarce instances of 'worthwhile' work. In addition, this societal sentiment also may undermine the very economic development required to provide stable, worthwhile and well-remunerated employment.

As a consequence, some recommendations on how this issue can be best addressed were provided in the country studies (**Table 8.5**). These can be categorized in terms of communication, engagement, and enhancing the status and standing of TVET and WBL, and are briefly discussed below.

### Communication

It is recommended that information about TVET programmes becomes more available and widely distributed, and also

that WBL experiences are promoted as being worthwhile and helpful for securing effective skills and employment. This information needs to be communicated broadly across communities to engage students, parents, jobseekers, employers, and also intermediary organizations such as those representing the interests of employers and employees. This information needs to offer guidance on an informed basis about occupations, what they comprise, and who might be suited to them. It is suggested that there should be structured experiences in compulsory education to assist young people to make effective decisions about their post-school pathways, and to see TVET programmes as being viable options and the occupations they lead to as worthwhile. This broad information strategy can have a number of purposes, including:

- raising awareness about TVET, its programmes and WBL, since informants in some countries indicated little knowledge of this system
- providing more nuanced accounts to enterprises about the different kinds of training and outcomes that can, in different ways, meet their needs
- reaching out to populations that are marginalized or not included in such provisions, including small businesses
- reinforcing how skill development has been important in the past and will be in the future (with possible reference to traditional apprenticeships).

### Engagement

The kinds of engagement required to enhance the standing and status of TVET and the occupations it serves can best be achieved through involvement in and engagement with social partners and communities. Insights, imperatives and mechanisms can be provided by social partners that participate in this process, which include finding ways of engaging with the community and the means by which different elements can best be informed. It is suggested that government can assist in this engagement by supporting social partners in developing the capacities to champion the occupations they represent, the kinds of work involved, and how that can be undertaken. For instance, gathering the perceptions of young people, their parents and teachers about how they make these decisions might be important given that ultimately it is young people who decide on the occupation they wish to pursue and then a training course that will qualify them for it. Clearly, others are influential in this decision-making, but young people have a key role. Engaging social partners and stakeholders in this task provides a mechanism for their engagement, their perspectives, and also for coming to understand the scope of the issue and how it might be addressed in a way that is beneficial for young people and enterprises, as well as local communities (see **Table 8.4**).



**Table 8.4 Societal views**

Recommendation	Country
Create more structured information on and promotion of WBL at all levels for students, parents, jobseekers, employers, and intermediary employer and employee organizations. This will also require establishing effective life-long career guidance and counselling services from an early age in school, in employment service offices and other relevant settings.	Egypt
The government, in partnership with all stakeholders, should to implement an integrated campaign to change the image of TVET in general and WBL in particular. This should include untraditional tools like social media and messages in drama and reality show competitions addressing the target group.	Egypt
Build the capacity of stakeholders and raise awareness about WBL among private and public stakeholders.	Palestine
Promotion, communication and information: adoption of a more active policy in terms of information for young people and their parents, awareness-raising among host businesses, and promoting these types of training with businesses; the establishment of a communication campaign that is adapted to a population which is at risk of marginalization and exclusion from the education system and victims of early unemployment, as well as small businesses and microenterprises; placing greater value on the ancestral training method: implementing mechanisms to guide young people in selecting and learning a trade.	Morocco
A specific communication action is needed to enhance WBL. This is a general communication that will remedy the negative image of TVET and WBL in Tunisian society. TVET centres should communicate differently on the subject and enhance their offer of training in partnership with companies. They should also emphasize that this form of learning is not addressed to those excluded from education, but is a form of training offering many benefits for both companies and young people.	Tunisia

### Enhancing the status and standing of TVET and WBL

It is apparent that for UNESCO, governmental and industry goals to be achieved – developing the kinds of skills that will provide young people with employment, make workplaces more effective and sustainable, and contribute to the national economy in ways that are increasingly inclusive – the issue of the low standing and status of TVET and WBL needs to be addressed. Reports such as those from ETF (2016a, 2016b, 2016c) seem to say that if elements of a European training system (centralized mechanisms and standards, a national curriculum, competency-based training, industry-derived occupational standards) are adopted, it is possible to deliver an effective TVET scheme. However, the evidence is clear that a number of pilots and schemes have been unsuccessful, not progressing beyond the pilot stage, and even those that are well supported and sponsored attract limited interest and have relatively low levels of occupational retention. As a consequence, initiatives associated with enhancing TVET and workplace learning experiences need to go beyond such measures and find ways of engaging with young people, their parents, employers and industry representatives.

Part of that engagement involves informing and advising people about TVET and the occupations it serves, and attempting to change societal perceptions about its low status and standing. This again is an opportunity in which partnerships can play a key role, and in doing so, can

develop capacities and bases to provide effective learning experiences. Without effortful engagement by students, support by parents and engagement by local enterprises, TVET is unlikely to progress beyond being a less than preferred option for young people, and one that is not fully able to achieve its potential. Therefore it is necessary to take action through the provision of information and engagement to enhance the standing and status of TVET and the occupations it serves.

### Recommendations

The recommendations provided here arising from the synthesis and analysis of the reports and associated documents are of a general kind, rather than country-specific. The aim here is to inform about how young people's workplace learning experiences can be best promoted and made accessible so that lessons can be learned from, and applied across, these countries. The ten recommendations below are drawn from the country studies presented here, other data, and instances of best practice drawn from other sources, such as Business Europe (2018), ILO (2015) and Asian Development Bank (2018).

- *Develop legal and institutional frameworks* – It is necessary to establish, implement, develop further, and sustain legal and institutional frameworks under which TVET, including that associated with partners and specifically with WBL arrangements, can effectively be implemented and progressed. This



includes mandating the duration of these experiences, roles and responsibilities of various actors, and shared funding mechanisms to support WBL.

- *Implement localized frameworks and enablers.* When there is no national legal and institutional framework supporting WBL experiences for young people, or to further augment those that exist, it is necessary to act regionally and locally to secure participation by both enterprises and young people, and provide effective TVET. These provisions can include sharing of costs, kinds and duration of workplace experiences, and how they can be supported.
- *Enhance the standing and status of TVET and the occupations it serves.* Action is required by government, training institutions, and social partners and communities to enhance the status and standing of TVET and the occupations it serves. This includes promoting the view that learning experiences in workplaces are legitimate, worthwhile, and an essential element of post-school education for specific occupations.
- *Develop the capacity of workplaces to provide effective learning experiences.* Given the key role of WBL experiences and the unpreparedness of many workplaces to provide and support these experiences effectively, it is necessary to develop capacities in workplaces, including identifying and providing support for learning that is appropriate for work settings, and providing recognition to those who undertake this support task.
- *Recognize, embrace and enhance the traditional model of apprenticeship.* The central role played by informal (or traditional) apprenticeship arrangements needs to be acknowledged, and this model of occupational preparation embraced within the TVET system and enhanced. This needs to occur in ways that do justice to and respect that this model of learning is different from what occurs in TVET programmes and other models of apprenticeship, support its progression, and also offer enhancements and recognition to young people participating in these schemes.
- *Align TVET provisions with employment opportunities.* A key imperative is to more closely align TVET provisions and employment opportunities, through introducing employment-enhancing initiatives to TVET programmes and securing a balance between young people's needs and those of the workplaces that might employ them. This includes further developing the skills of the TVET workforces in terms

of pedagogy, occupational currency, and ability to design and implement local initiatives.

- *Build and sustain social partnerships at national, regional and local levels.* Social partnerships, including representatives of employers and employees at national, regional and local levels, are essential to secure alignments between models of WBL, local enterprise needs for skill development, and strategies to promote engagement in TVET, including sharing the costs of WBL experiences across government, enterprises and individuals who benefit from them.
- *Promote localized engagement between TVET institutions and workplaces.* There is a need to promote and locally organize stronger links between TVET institutions and nearby industry sectors and enterprises, including small and micro businesses, so that shared understandings can arise and mutual benefits can be realized in terms of young people's skill development and employability.
- *Implement strategies to improve TVET workforce capacity.* There is a need to plan and implement both shorter-term and long-term strategies to develop the industry and occupational expertise, and pedagogic skills, of TVET teachers, including their familiarity with workplace practices and associations with social partners to generate locally appropriate, but effective and viable, TVET provision.
- *Support and engage with informed accounts from research and evaluation.* Decision-making about TVET policies and practices at the national, regional and local levels, and how it might proceed, is likely to require informed accounts based on research and evaluation, including critical appraisals of initiatives being conducted in other countries and societal contexts, which might also be applicable to the particular country, region or locality.

These recommendations are now elaborated in greater detail below in terms of their scope and specific strategies. This information is also presented in **Table 1**.

Much attention has been paid to the structural arrangements associated with TVET: that is, the kinds of outcome to be achieved, the content to be taught, the models of experiences (apprenticeship, alternance, wholly work based and so on). These have been the focus of a range of initiatives advanced both internally and also externally by sponsoring countries and global agencies. However, alongside these issues and perhaps superordinate to them is the degree to which TVET attracts the interest of young people, their parents and employers. Unless young people can be brought to want to

participate in TVET programmes, by enhancing their standing and status, and elevating the profile of the occupations they serve, efforts to increase participation, outcomes, and the benefits of TVET will remain compromised.

In addition, while parents, who in some sense reflect the societal sentiments associated with TVET, the occupations it serves, and workplace learning provisions, remain unconvinced about its worth and status, their continuing appraisal of these efforts will continue to work against securing broader participation, and valuing this kind of training and the occupational skills it generates. The same goes for employers. Unless they are able to see the value and contributions of these provisions they are unlikely to invest their effort and commitment beyond any short-term initiatives or external incentives (such as subsidies). Hence, there is a need to go beyond a consideration of structures, models and administration arrangements, to address the interests and needs of those who engage with TVET in these countries (and elsewhere).

All of this amplifies the point that there are a range of actors whose interests and actions overlap and need to be taken into account in considering how to promote WBL experiences for the young people in these and other countries. In many ways, what is proposed here is captured in considerations of the curriculum as something that is intended, implemented and most importantly, experienced.

As a consequence, it is important to consider not only the decision-making and decision-makers in the structures of the

TVET system (who are responsible for the intended curriculum) but also those who are involved in its implementation (that is, the experienced curriculum). The intended curriculum is advanced by government departments and social partners at a national level; those involved in how it is implemented include TVET institutions and workplaces, and also those who make decisions about how they participate in it – trainees, their parents and employers. As a consequence, it is worth trying to propose how this decision-making plays out across these stakeholders. **Table 2** (page 000) outlines the kinds of role that these actors play in each country, and how they might come to support the provision of WBL in these countries. These actors comprise governments, government departments, social partners, training institutions, teachers, workplaces, the community, parents and young people.

### WBL experiences: actors, roles, and actions

**Table 2** sets out a list of actors, the roles they play, and the actions they need to take to promote greater engagement in TVET and WBL experiences by young people. This set of roles and actions is drawn from the sources for and discussion presented in this report, and is intended as the premise for considering policy and practice initiatives to promote greater participation in WBL experiences in these and other countries. While this list might be seen as idealistic, and possibly fanciful, what it sets out is a set of imperatives that could be used as benchmarks for the roles and actions of these different actors.

**Table 8.5 Recommendations: scope and specific strategies**

Focus	Scope	Strategies
Legal and institutional frameworks	It is important to establish, enact, develop further, and sustain legal and institutional frameworks under which TVET, including that associated with partners and specifically associated with WBL arrangements, can effectively be implemented and progressed.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Legal frameworks:</b> addressing qualifications, certification, advice by industry/professional bodies; conditions of employment; work-related activities; remuneration/expenses for trainees; duration of indenture; incentives for employers and support provided by local training organizations.</li> <li>• <b>Institutional frameworks:</b> arrangements for consultation, development and maintenance of social partnerships, locally and nationally; protocols for engagement between training institutions and workplaces; arrangements for developing workplace capacity to support learning.</li> </ul>
Localized frameworks	In the absence of or to augment national legal and institutional frameworks supporting WBL for young people, it may be necessary to act locally to secure participation by both enterprises and young people, and provide effective TVET.	Development of arrangements and social partnerships at the local level between employers and training institutions; engagements and negotiations between the two mediated by industry/occupational groups; reciprocal support between training organizations and workplaces to develop effective staff; ability to respond at the local level to enterprise and learner needs; tailoring of national institutional arrangements to meet local needs.

Enhance the standing and status of TVET and the occupations it serves	Concerted action is required by government, training institutions, and social partners and communities to enhance the status and standing of TVET and the occupations it serves, including by promoting the view that learning experiences in workplaces are legitimate, worthwhile, and an essential element of post-school education for specific occupations.	Engaging in action at the national and local level to communicate about TVET, its qualities and outcomes, and promoting the worth of the occupations it serves through schemes directed at employers, young people and their parents; activities at the local level through partnerships between training institutions and enterprises to enhance the worth of specific TVET programmes and their relationship to occupations and employment; securing articulation arrangements between these programmes and higher technical and higher education programmes.
Develop the capacity of workplaces to provide effective learning experiences	Given the key role of workplace learning experiences and the unpreparedness of many workplaces to provide and support effective learning experiences, it is necessary to develop skills within these workplaces, including identifying and implementing support for learning that is appropriate for work settings, and providing recognition to those who undertake this task in those settings.	Organizing and implementing shared cost distribution to assist sustainable development of skills in workplaces to support young people's learning, including consideration of the organization and ordering of workplace experiences, and developing staff skills to support learning; this includes preparing and implementing national programmes for developing mentors, supervisors and co-workers' skills to assist the development of skills through the use of workplace pedagogic practices, and engaging learners in effective processes of learning that require effort and agency on their part.
Recognize, embrace and enhance the traditional model of apprenticeship	The central role played by informal (or traditional) apprenticeship arrangements needs to be acknowledged, and this model of occupational preparation needs to be embraced within the TVET system and enhanced in ways that do justice to it and respect that it is different from what occurs in TVET programmes and other models of apprenticeship. It is important to support its progression, and also offer enhancements and recognition to young people participating in these apprenticeships.	Identifying how to understand and effectively augment the traditional model of apprenticeship, its processes of instruction and learning, and enterprise commitment to it as a model of learning without disrupting or destroying these qualities. In addition, identifying the purpose for off-job learning experiences and how any might best be organized, and also how the recognition of learning in and through this form of apprenticeship can be credentialed. In addition, means by which this model can be extended to other occupations, including higher technical skills, can be explored. Beyond the establishment of frameworks to provide this support, they need to be implemented at the local level, and in ways that are sensitive to this existing model and the abilities of those in training institutes to provide support to workplaces, this model of learning, and the apprentices.
Align TVET provisions with employment opportunities	A key imperative is to close the separation between TVET provisions and employment opportunities, through implementing employment-enhancing initiatives in TVET programmes, in ways that secure a balance between and an alignment with young people's needs and practices, and workplaces that might employ them.	To promote young people's employment might require a review of TVET programmes and courses to identify their alignment with potential employment opportunities in terms of the needs of industry sectors and occupational fields. In addition, a review of curriculum models, course objectives and content, as well as approaches to teaching and supporting learning to more readily align the outcomes of these courses to graduates' employability, is needed. This initiative includes informing and advising young people about potential employment opportunities and the prospects of different educational pathways leading to employment.
Build and sustain social partnerships at both national and local levels	Social partnerships, including representatives of employers and employees at both national and local level, are essential to securing alignments between models of WBL, local enterprise needs for skill development, and strategies to promote engagement in TVET.	A national strategy associated with building social partnerships that support TVET and WBL experiences is required to be supported by key industry and professional bodies, yet implemented at the local level in ways that both benefit the students' learning and also secure productive outcomes for workplaces. At both national and local level, the quality of partnerships will be based on reciprocity, and sustaining these partnerships will most likely depend on their ability to generate outcomes for all parties. That is, evidence that workplaces support and provide rich learning experiences for young people, and that there are tangible benefits to enterprises from that engagement, including the selection of new employees and their contributions to sustaining the viability of the enterprise, will be essential.

Promote localized engagement between training institutions and workplaces	There is a need to promote and organize locally stronger linkages between TVET institutions and nearby industry sectors and enterprises so that shared understandings can arise and mutual benefits can be realized in terms of young people's skill development and employability.	Central to the effective implementation of these partnerships and their contributions to young people's learning will be localized engagement between training institutions and workplaces. Perhaps only through teachers engaging with workplaces and workplaces coming to understand the needs of TVET programmes, negotiating contributions, and shaping the provisions to meet the needs of local students and enterprises will the best outcomes be achieved for both the learners and the workplaces. Moreover, opportunities for developing further the skills of TVET teachers and workplace supervisors and mentors are likely to be realized through such interactions.
Implement long-term strategies to improve TVET	There is a need to plan for and implement long-term strategies to develop the industry and occupational expertise, and pedagogic skills, of teachers in TVET, including their familiarity with workplace practices, and their links and associations with social partners to generate mature TVET systems.	The kind and extent of arrangements, actions and outcomes being proposed here can only be achieved in the longer term, and through careful planning and implementation of effective strategies to develop the capacities of training institutions, social partners, workplaces, and also within communities. This includes promoting the standing and status of TVET and the occupations it serves, but also engagement with young people to position them as active and focused learners.
Support and engage with informed accounts from research and evaluation	Decision-making about TVET policies and practices at the national and local level and how it might proceed likely requires informed accounts based on research and evaluation, including critical appraisals of initiatives being conducted in other countries and societal contexts, which are likely to be applicable to the particular country, region or locality.	A systematic approach to research and evaluation around key topics such as those represented here is likely to be helpful for informed decision-making at a national and local level, by training institutions, social partners and workplaces. In particular, the kinds and models of workplace curriculum, processes for supporting learning in the workplace, and also for promoting engagement by young people, will only come from a growing body of evidence founded on evaluation and research. Generating the capacity to undertake research and evaluation needs to be supported so that it becomes an integral element of the TVET provision and an extension of teachers' roles and skills, and actions undertaken by social partners and government agencies.

**Table 8.6 WBL experiences: actors, roles and actions**

Actors	Roles	Actions
National government	Organizing legislation and institutional frameworks that support the provision of WBL experiences at the national and local levels, adequately funded training organizations and social partners, providing frameworks for responsive TVET provisions, and encouraging greater participation in TVET and workplace learning arrangements.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pass, implement, monitor, refine and sustain effective legal and institutional frameworks.</li> <li>• Provide adequate and shared funding arrangements for training institutions, and support for workplaces and young people.</li> <li>• Organize and implement effective TVET provision, including the quality of content, equipment and teaching, and ongoing evaluation and improvement.</li> <li>• Initiate, build and sustain effective social partnerships at the national and local levels, and engage these partners in organizing and evaluating TVET provisions.</li> <li>• Implement processes to inform the community, business, parents and young people about the benefits of TVET and the occupations it serves.</li> </ul>
Government departments	Working collaboratively and interdependently to realize positive outcomes across areas such as schooling, post-school education, industry development and employment.	Establish and implement collaborative practices across departments that influence the provision of TVET, including WBL experiences. Implement those practices at both the national and local level.

Social partners	Working collaboratively at national and local levels to realize collective outcomes that include sector-specific imperatives and needs, but also address broader social goals such as young people's skill development, unemployment, enterprise and economic development.	Engage in processes that demonstrate a collective commitment to the purpose for which the social partnerships have been established, including being willing to engage effectively with other partners, while being respectful of their needs, contributions and imperatives. Be willing to make concessions and even sacrifice some of their own interests in the interests of broader outcomes and the collective good.
Training institutions	Providing experiences for young people from which they will develop work-life capacities, including specific occupational skills, providing and integrating those experiences in work settings, and engaging with industry and employers in the design and implementation of programmes.	Engage in processes that provide purposeful, planned and effective learning experiences for young people, including those in workplaces. Provide, monitor, and refine or augment experiences to achieve outcomes of occupational competence and employability. Demonstrate the capacity to respond to the local trainee and workplace needs through adapting the national curricula to meet those needs.
Teachers	Being occupationally competent and workplace-oriented as a basis for effective teaching which will arise from engagement in workplaces outside of educational institutions	Be open and responsive to developing further skills associated with occupational competence and workplace familiarity. Adopt and effectively implement a broad range of curriculum roles and instructional skills to meet the need of national prescription and local requirements. Work collaboratively with local enterprises.
Workplaces	Providing experiences for young people that deliver quality learning outcomes for them and benefits for the workplace.	Be open and responsive to developing the capacity of the workplace to provide effective learning experiences for young people, and also the ongoing development of the existing workforce, through engaging with local training institutions and social partners.
Community/parents	Informing young people about post-school options and the potential of TVET as a viable form of occupational preparation.	Be open and informed about the advice given to young people about post-school options, and the potential of TVET and the occupations it serves.
Young people	Being informed about post-school pathways and engagement in post-school education and workplace learning.	Be active and critical in making informed decisions about post-school pathways, and the prospects of TVET and the occupations it serves.

As a consequence, it is important to consider not only the decision-making and decision-makers within the structures of the TVET system (who produce the intended curriculum) advanced by government departments and social partners at a national level, but also those who are involved in its implementation (the enacted curriculum) This includes training institutions and workplaces, and also those who make decisions about how they participate in it (the experienced curriculum): students, their parents and employers. As a consequence, it is worth trying to propose how this decision-making plays out across these players. In Table 8.7, presentation is made of the kinds of roles that these actors play and how they might come to support the provision of workplace learning in these countries. These actors comprise governments, government departments, social partners, training institutions, teachers, workplaces, communities, parents and young people.

This set of roles and actions are drawn from the data in discussions presented in this report, and are intended as premises for considering policy and practice initiatives to promote greater participation in WBL experiences in these and other countries. While this list might be seen as idealistic and possibly fanciful, it sets out a set of imperatives that could be used as benchmarks for the roles and actions of these different actors. It is with these that the report concludes.

**Table 8.7 WBL experiences: actors, roles, and actions**

Actors	Roles	Actions
National government	Organizing legislation and institutional frameworks that support the provision of WBL experiences at national and local levels, adequately funding training organizations and social partners, providing frameworks for responsive TVET provision, and encouraging greater participation in TVET and WBL arrangements.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pass, implement, monitor, refine and sustain effective legal and institutional frameworks.</li> <li>• Provide adequate funding arrangements for training institutions, and support for workplaces and young people.</li> <li>• Organize and implement effective TVET provision, including the quality of content, equipment and teaching, and ongoing evaluation and improvement.</li> <li>• Initiate, build and sustain effective social partnerships at the national and local level and engage these partners in organizing and evaluating TVET provisions.</li> <li>• Enact processes to inform the community, business, parents, and young people about the benefits of TVET and the occupation it serves.</li> </ul>
Government departments	Working collaboratively and interdependently to realize positive outcomes across areas such as schooling, TVET, industry development and employment.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Establish and enact collaborative practices across departments that influence the provision of TVET, including WBL experiences.</li> <li>• Implement those practices at both the national and local level</li> </ul>
Social partners	Working collaboratively at national and local levels to realize collective outcomes that include sector-specific imperatives and needs, but also addressing broader social goals such as young people's skill development, unemployment, enterprise, and economic development.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Engage in processes that demonstrate a collective commitment to the purpose for which the social partnerships have been established, including being willing to engage effectively with other partners, while being respectful of their needs, contributions and imperatives.</li> <li>• Be willing to make concessions and even sacrifice some of their own interests in the interests of broader outcomes and collective good.</li> </ul>
Training institutions	Providing experiences for young people from which they will develop work–life capacities including specific occupational skills, providing and integrating those experiences in work settings, and engaging with industry and employers in the design and implementation of their programmes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Engage in processes that provide purposeful, planned and effective learning experiences for young people, including those in workplaces.</li> <li>• Provide, monitor, and refine or augment experiences to achieve outcomes of occupational competence and workplace employability.</li> <li>• Demonstrate the capacity to respond to the local trainee and workplace needs through adapting the national curricula to meet those needs.</li> </ul>
Teachers	Being occupationally competent and workplace oriented as a basis for effective teaching that will arise from engagement in workplaces outside of educational institutions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Be open and responsive to developing further skills associated with occupational competence and workplace familiarity.</li> <li>• Adopt and effectively enact a broad range of curriculum roles and instructional skills to meet the need of national prescription and local requirements.</li> <li>• Work collaboratively with local enterprises.</li> </ul>
Workplaces	Providing experiences for young people that deliver quality learning outcomes for them and benefits for the workplace.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Be open and responsive to developing the capacity of the workplace to provide effective learning experiences for young people and also the ongoing development of its workforce through engaging with local training institutions and social partners.</li> </ul>
Community/ Parents	Informing young people about post-school options and the potential of TVET as a viable form of occupational preparation.	Be open and informed about the advice given to young people about post-school options, the potential of TVET, and the occupations it serves.
Young people	Being informed about post-school pathways and engagement in TVET and workplace learning.	Be active and critical in making informed decisions about post-school pathways, the prospects of TVET, and the occupations it serves.



In conclusion, the focus and contents of this report are directed towards promoting and enhancing the quality of WBL for young people in the Arab region and other countries. The overall structure of the report has been to draw upon a series of country studies and additional material that identified a range of country-specific and general factors associated with the provision of these experiences. Then, progressively over the duration of this report, the focus has turned to offering general recommendations and advice for advancing these policy and practice agendas. The aim here is to provide a set of premises, conditions and goals to be achieved for improvement in the provision of those experiences, both in these countries and beyond them.

Of course, many of them appear as idealistic and 'blue sky' suggestions. Yet all of these ideas are born out of practice of different kinds across a range of countries. In this way, they suggest things that are possible and can be developed and initiated, sustained and developed further. The prospect here is for some recommendations and ways forward that can be used to reshape TVET and how we think about the provision of occupational preparation for young people, and in ways that embrace the community, local businesses, young people and their parents. These ways do not always exist, and are inhibited when the provision of TVET is seen as being the proprietorial quality of training institutions. The prospect here is to open up and engage more widely that proprietorship.

Please note: summaries of the information used in this chapter are available in the appendices.

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# APPENDICES

## Appendices

**Table A0.1** Changes between 2009 and 2016 in population and GDP

Indicators	Year	Population (millions)	% youth population	GDP (\$US million)	Industry as % of GDP
Country					
Algeria	2009	35.5	42.7	3,868.8	51.6
	2016	40.6	33.0	3,916.9	37.8
	+/-	+5.1	-9.7	-48.10	-13.8
Egypt	2009	82.5	41.4	2,291.7	37.6
	2016	95.7	34.1	3,477.9	32.9
	+/-	+13.2	-7.3	+1,186	-4.7
Jordan	2009	6.8	38.8	3,492.1	32.1
	2016	9.5	37.3	4,087.9	28.9
	+/-	+2.7	-1.5	+595.8	-3.2
Lebanon	2009	4.2	40.1	8,480.9	17.7
	2016	6.0	38.0	8,257.3	16.7
	+/-	+1.8	-2.1	-223.6	-1.0
Morocco	2009	32.0	38.9	2,861.6	27.3
	2016	35.3	34.8	2,832.4	29.5
	+/-	+3.3	-4.1	-29.2	+2.2
Oman	2009	2.9	44.9	16,784.3	61.4*
	2016	4.4	32.1	14,982.4	47.5
	+/-	+4.4	-12.8	-1,801.9	-13.9
Palestine	2009	3.7	42.8	1,963.2	23.3
	2016	4.6	43.0	2,943.4	23.2*
	+/-	+0.9	+0.2	+980.2	-0.1
Tunisia	2009	10.5	38.5	4,130.0	30.3
	2016	11.4	31.3	3,688.6	26.4
	+/-	+0.9	-7.2	-441.4	-3.9

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.



**Table A0.2** Changes in level of unemployment between 2006 and 2017

Indicators	Year	% unemployment	% youth unemployment
Country			
Algeria	2006	12.3	24.9
	2017	11.7	29.1
	+/-	-0.6	+4.2
Egypt	2006	10.5	30.6
	2017	11.6	33.1
	+/-	+1.1	+2.5
Jordan	2006	14.0	30.4
	2017	14.9	36.0
	+/-	+0.9	+5.6
Lebanon	2006	8.4	21.7
	2017	6.7	21.3
	+/-	-1.7	-0.4
Morocco	2006	9.7	16.6
	2017	10.8	21.0
	+/-	+1.1	+4.4
Oman	2006	19.5	46.7
	2017	16.9	48.7
	+/-	-2.6	+2.0
Palestine	2006	23.6	35.6
	2017	26.0	42.4
	+/-	+2.4	+6.8
Tunisia	2006	12.5	27.5
	2017	14.7	35.4
	+/-	+2.2	+7.9

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

**Table A0.3 Level of participation in post-school education**

Indicator Country	Year	% participation in post-school education
Algeria	2007	23.4
	2015	36.9
	+/-	+13.5
Egypt	2007	29.7
	2015	36.2
	+/-	+6.5
Jordan	2007	40.4
	2015	44.9
	+/-	+4.5
Lebanon	2007	46.9
	2015	38.5
	+/-	-8.4
Morocco	2007	11.8
	2015	28.1
	+/-	+17.7
Oman	2007	--
	2015	--
	+/-	--
Palestine	2007	46.9
	2015	44.3
	+/-	-2.6
Tunisia	2007	32.7
	2015	34.6
	+/-	+2.1

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

**Table A0.4 Policies, legislation and regulation by country**

Country	Policies, legislation and regulation
Algeria	
Egypt	<p>To meet the legal requirement for awarding a certificate equal to the technical secondary schools TSSs certificate, the duration of most formal apprenticeship schemes is 3 years after passing the basic preparatory school certificate (9 years). Currently, the legal base for Egyptian apprenticeship is derived from a number of documents valid for different conditions and circumstances under the broad term of apprenticeship, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Presidential Decrees 1956 and 1964</b> covering the operation of the Productivity and Vocational Training Department (Mol), which runs one of the main formal apprenticeship programs in Egypt.</li> <li>• <b>Ministerial Decree no. 162 of 2011</b>, complementing Ministerial Decree No. 62 of 2007 for 'Regulating and developing procedures and controls for the dual education and training system in secondary technical education three years'.</li> <li>• <b>Labour Law no. 12 of 2003</b>, and <b>Ministerial Decree No. 175 of 2003</b>, Concerning the Rules and Procedures Regulating Vocational Apprenticeship, which refers to apprenticeship and the relationship between apprentices and employers, with the intent of regulating formal apprenticeship.</li> <li>• <b>Child Labour Law no. 126 of 2008</b>, amending provisions of Child Law no. 12 of 1996.</li> </ul> <p>In addition a number of <b>protocol agreements</b> have been issued between various stakeholders with the purpose of implementing and/or piloting an apprenticeship scheme.</p> <p>There is no unified TVET law or strategy that also incorporates apprenticeship or WBL. However there are many separate draft strategies led by different authorities and stakeholders within the system.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The Ministry of Education Strategy 2014–2025 includes clear plans for technical education; however it does not include vocational training.</li> <li>• Egypt's Sustainable Development Vision 2030 places great emphasis on TVET and the involvement of the private sector, and on taking responsibility for part of the education and training provision.</li> <li>• Numerous strategies led by donor-funded projects like the EU-funded TVET Reform Programme (TVET 2).</li> </ul>
Jordan	<p><b>Legislation and regulation</b></p> <p>The only legislation that governs work-based training in Jordan is Labour Law No. 8 of 1996 and its amendments, where articles 36, 37 and 38 indicate the following requirement for conducting workplace training:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Workplace condition to be appropriate for training.</li> <li>• The in-company trainer is well qualified in the related occupational area.</li> <li>• A written training contract to be signed between the employer and the trainee, to include training period, stages and wages, providing that the trainee's wage in the final stage is not less than peer workers' wages.</li> <li>• The training programme and contract form to be regulated by VTC.</li> </ul> <p>According to Law No. 11 of 1986 and its amendments, VTC is mandated with providing apprenticeship training for young people and adults in Jordan.</p> <p><b>Strategy and policy</b></p> <p><i>National Strategy for Human Resource Development 2016–2025</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• a project titled 'expand apprenticeship programs' implemented by MOL and NEC.       <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Expand the programmes of apprenticeship, so that training at the work site is an approved methodology.</li> <li>2. Adopt the draft national apprenticeship framework that is currently with Cabinet.</li> </ol> </li> <li>• Projects titled 'Expand the current pilot programs that allow direct on-the-job training with the private sector for both males and females' to address the objective of 'ensuring that vocational training programs are demand driven to meet the needs of the labour market in quantity and quality terms'.</li> <li>• VTC in partnership with private sector established and managed three COEs, each specialized in a new training area including pharmaceutical, water and environment and renewable energy. Work-based training is used in implementing training programmes in the COEs, and programmes were extended to cover the technician level in some occupational areas such as the water industry.</li> </ul> <p><b>Policies</b></p> <p>MOL adopted the policy of promoting in-company work-based training linked with employment (financed by EVET fund):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• provides incentives for both young people and employers</li> <li>• launched an initiative in 2008 called satellite factories through which the ministry encourages companies to establish branches in rural areas characterized with high unemployment and poverty rate by providing buildings for the factory free of charge for five years:       <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. fifteen factories mainly in garment industry established and operated</li> <li>2. 3,095 (2,914 female and 181 male) trained and employed Jordanian workers.</li> </ol> </li> </ul> <p>VTC adopts a policy for promoting apprenticeship training among young people in Jordan through conducting annual awareness campaigns targeting MOE schools, particularly Grade 10 students.</p>

Lebanon	<p>For the time being there is no legal framework for WBL, whereas there is a clear legal framework for TVET sector. In 2012, the Government of Lebanon prepared a TVET strategy composed of four core areas: (1) reviewing and updating the available programmes and specialties in TVET; (2) reviewing the academic and administrative structure of TVET; (3) providing and developing human, physical and financial resources; and (4) strengthening partnerships and cooperation in the field of TVET. Each core area is associated with certain projects and an action plan. On 8 August 2012, Decree 8590 concerning the Fields, Levels and the Certificates of Technical and Vocational Education was issued; it was approved in 2013. This decree made some major modifications such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The Efficiency Level' that led to a CAP certificate was called off.</li> <li>• The complementary level is unchangeable.</li> <li>• The TS level changes from a three-year course to two years, and the LT level from two years to one; the LET level likewise.</li> <li>• Transfers can be made from vocational and technical education to general higher education.</li> <li>• The Meister degree is included in the middle level of vocational education.</li> <li>• The same enrolment conditions are applied for the LP or the BT Level; they permits students who failed the Brevet Certificate to join these two levels.</li> <li>• A specific certificate, 'Preparatory Technical Rehabilitation Certificate' was added, which is particularly established for students not holding the Brevet Certificate.</li> </ul>														
Oman	<p>Some of the main royal decrees that contributed directly or indirectly to forming strategies are:</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>The enabler ( royal decree)</th> <th>Brief description</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>The establishment of the Ministry of Communications and Social Affairs in December 1970.</td> <td>The foundation stone and the first structure to regulate labour and TVET in Oman.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>The establishment of the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labor on 20 May 1972.</td> <td>Carry on the role of the previous structure mission, and more focus and support is geared towards enhancement of young people's skills so they will fit the booming labour market.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Royal Decree 22/75 regarding instituting the council for TVET and its role and structure.</td> <td>Members of all stakeholders should contribute to TVET development including financing it as per the Labor Act provision active at the time.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Royal Decree 26/75 setting specific authorities and giving equal responsibilities to the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labor.</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social legislation guaranteeing protection for labourers and their rights and duties with the ultimate goal to achieve overall common good.</li> <li>• Planning for Omani human resources investment as well as receiving expatriates' employment applications and licensing them.</li> </ul> </td> </tr> <tr> <td>The establishment for the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training by Royal Decree 5/90</td> <td>The Ministry of Social Affairs is given more authority and responsibility, and its previous structured mission concerned with TVET mission and development is transferred to the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="2">A number of royal decrees enhancing the development for TVET were issued as per the Country Renaissance demands.</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>TVET in Oman has recently been given more support in legislation. In 2011 Ministerial Decree No. (76/2011) established the Occupational Standards and Testing Center (OSTC) which is tasked with the development of an occupational standards system that caters for all types of occupations at all different levels of skills.</p>	The enabler ( royal decree)	Brief description	The establishment of the Ministry of Communications and Social Affairs in December 1970.	The foundation stone and the first structure to regulate labour and TVET in Oman.	The establishment of the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labor on 20 May 1972.	Carry on the role of the previous structure mission, and more focus and support is geared towards enhancement of young people's skills so they will fit the booming labour market.	Royal Decree 22/75 regarding instituting the council for TVET and its role and structure.	Members of all stakeholders should contribute to TVET development including financing it as per the Labor Act provision active at the time.	Royal Decree 26/75 setting specific authorities and giving equal responsibilities to the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labor.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social legislation guaranteeing protection for labourers and their rights and duties with the ultimate goal to achieve overall common good.</li> <li>• Planning for Omani human resources investment as well as receiving expatriates' employment applications and licensing them.</li> </ul>	The establishment for the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training by Royal Decree 5/90	The Ministry of Social Affairs is given more authority and responsibility, and its previous structured mission concerned with TVET mission and development is transferred to the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training	A number of royal decrees enhancing the development for TVET were issued as per the Country Renaissance demands.	
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A number of royal decrees enhancing the development for TVET were issued as per the Country Renaissance demands.															
Palestine	<p>At the moment there is no legal framework for WBL, neither is there a legal framework for the TVET sector in general. Belgian Development Cooperation (BDC) has initiated a project for Work Based Learning (WBL) Legislation, under a project 'Enhancing capacities for Institution Building Program (ECIB)'. The introduction of WBL schemes in the TVET sector in Palestine has proven to be a very successful approach to link education and training with employment, and has contributed to a group of impacts.</p>														
Morocco	<p><b>General vocational training and work-based training policy</b></p> <p>The development of WBL has always constituted a significant concern for the public authorities since the 1984 reform, and an ambitious objective was set at that time. It aimed at training 50 per cent of those enrolled in apprenticeships up to 1995. This objective has not been reached to date.</p> <p>The goal for the public authorities was twofold:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• to involve businesses in the act of training, in order to respond as effectively as possible to the Moroccan economy's growth needs</li> <li>• to expand the hosting capacity in order to meet growing social demand due to the significant demographic growth.</li> </ul> <p>However, the first type of training based on the principle of regulated WBL, since independence, only took place in 1996 through the enactment of Act 36/96 implementing and organizing work-based vocational training.</p>														

Morocco	<p><b>Recent policies: the National Vocational Training Strategy to 2021</b></p> <p>In June 2016, the National Vocational Training Strategy to 2021 was adopted by the Moroccan Government. SNFP 2021 has the aim of mitigating the qualitative and quantitative deficits of the current instrument. It proposes ‘quality professional training everywhere, for everyone throughout their lives, for the benefit of development and adding value to human capital, as well as the improved competitiveness of businesses’.</p> <p>Objective 2, entitled ‘Improve the competitiveness of business as both a stakeholder and privileged training space’, anticipates the strengthening of initial training in a professional setting, among other aspects. This concerns increasing to 50 per cent the number of vocational trainees involved in training in the workplace through apprenticeship training or work-based vocational training, as shown in the graph below. Thus this would represent an increase in learners in the workplace from around 100,000 in 2016 to around 420,000 up to 2021.</p> <p>An emphasis will be placed on planning through the implementation of the Professional and Regional Trades and Skills Sector Unit (Sector Unit). Managed by the General Confederation of Moroccan Businesses, the Sector Unit has the main task of producing a current database containing forecasts on the needs of the job market, expressed in the form of Learning Outcomes by qualification level within the Moroccan National Certification Framework. This database is made up of ‘Trade-Employment list cards and Employment-Skills Benchmark cards’, set for each professional sector at a national level and rolled out at the regional level.</p> <p>Finally, the generalization of the Delegated Management Institutions to professionals is also anticipated for the effective support of sectoral macro-strategies and improving graduate entry into the job market.</p> <p><b>Legal framework implementing and organizing work-based vocational training (Act no. 36.96)</b></p> <p>The Department of Vocational Training has written, in close collaboration with the training departments and professional associations, the legal framework on the organization and implementation of Work-Based Vocational Training, the Act for which was published in the <i>Moroccan Official Journal</i> on 7 November 1996 (becoming effective as of the autumn term 1997/98). The decree enacting this Act was adopted and published in the <i>Moroccan Official Journal</i> of 19 February 1998. A ministerial order defining the list of professions targeted by WBL, as well as the conditions that the host businesses must fulfil, was published in the <i>Official Journal of Morocco</i> on 4 November 1999.</p> <p><b>Legal framework implementing and organizing apprenticeship training (Act no. 12.00)</b></p> <p>The legislator has been guided in drafting the legal framework for apprenticeships by a certain number of guidelines. First, the apprenticeship should be open to a maximum fringe group of school leavers, even if they have not completed Grade 6 of basic schooling, in view of the absence of appropriate instruments for this category of young people, the pool of which is ever-increasing with the annual school drop-out rates. Second, the legal framework should enable a certain flexibility in terms of organization for containing the specificities and requirements for each sector (agriculture, fisheries, tourism, craft trades and industry). Finally, the apprenticeship instrument should offer more appealing incentives to attract both small businesses and young people who are looking to gain a qualification.</p>
Tunisia	<p><b>General Policy of PT and WBL</b></p> <p>Since the launching of the MANFORME program and the 1993 law that accompanied it, the residential mode has tended to decrease more and more to the benefit of alternation, which is intended to further anchor the FP system in its relationship with the company.</p> <p>The philosophy adopted is based on the principle of partnership between the state and business and professional organizations. This partnership begins at the upstream level, in terms of identifying training needs, choosing pathways, setting up programmes, managing schools and so on. This philosophy has been well integrated in the two laws on the Tunisian FP of 1993 and 2008 (see § the legal framework).</p> <p>As far as apprenticeship is concerned, a large part of the scheme is oriented quite markedly towards the integration of young people who have not necessarily succeeded in integrating into the FP system. This is called F0 type apprenticeship, where the apprentice does not receive further training at the centre.</p> <p><b>Recent WBL policy</b></p> <p>Since the revolution of January 2011, changes in the practices of training in the workplace have been observed, although the legal texts have not undergone substantive changes.</p> <p>Among these changes are</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The social contract – one of the fundamental changes was the UGTT’s greatest involvement in the functioning of the FP system. The social contract concluded in 2013 between the government, the employers and the union defined the main orientations in this direction.</li> <li>• The new PT reform covering the period 2014–18 and adopting four objectives       <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Integration of the National FP System (DNFP) into the national RH development system.</li> <li>2. The effectiveness and efficiency of DNFP.</li> <li>3. Governance that responds to the aspirations of individuals, businesses, society and the region, in harmony with the social contract.</li> <li>4. An FP funding system that responds to the needs and aspirations of individuals, businesses, the region and society, thereby realizing the principle of lifelong learning.</li> </ol> </li> </ul>

Tunisia	<p><b>Legal framework</b></p> <p>Legislation on workplace training has evolved since the country's independence. A new strategy for the sector was also drawn up in 2013, but has not yet been followed by legal texts amending the law of 2008.</p> <p>Law 2008–10 reserves a comprehensive section for OJT. It stipulates that this training takes place within the framework of a partnership with the economic enterprises, according to two principal modalities, alternation or apprenticeship. Another particular mode can be envisaged in the form of specific programmes organized by contract with the company.</p> <p>The 2008 Act considers training in the workplace to be the rule, the residential mode being more or less an exception. Article 16 of the law states that training takes place in the centres when it cannot be organized with the company.</p> <p><b>Specific regulations on apprenticeship</b></p> <p>Learning has long been the subject of particular attention by the legislator in Tunisia. The first regulation dates back to the year of independence of the country, with a decree of 12 January 1956 relating to the FP. The second is the Labour Code, which in article 339 described learning as a component of the FP. Subsequently, each new law on vocational training (in 1993 and 2008) dealt specifically with apprenticeship (and alternation). Field experience has shown that, although Tunisian legislation is quite advanced, some provisions are not really being implemented and are still more an objective to be achieved. An example is the requirement for a follow-up booklet that details the course of the apprenticeship period. In practice, such a booklet is often insufficient or is not properly maintained. Similarly, the F0 apprenticeship scheme does not involve the organization of further courses in a training centre, whereas the legislation provides for a minimum of 160 hours per year.</p> <p><i>Incentives for workplace training in the law of 2009 on Continuing Education</i></p> <p>A reform of the financing tools for continuing vocational training in Tunisia was introduced in 2009 and has mainly provided for two tools: the tax credit (CI) and the drawing right (DT). Decree No. 2009-292 of 2 February 2009 describes the functioning of these two tools.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>The tax credit</b> concerns companies subject to the TFP: they can benefit from an advance on the TFP consisting of a tax credit equal to 60 per cent of the amount of due tax for the year N-1 of training course. The CI also finances the company's initial training effort. Specifically, a company that hosts trainees as part of their initial or alternate apprenticeship training is funded. It receives, for each young person hosted, and per month, 100 per cent financing of the SMIG for the trainees and 50 per cent of the SMIG for the apprentices.</li> <li>• <b>The drawing right</b> is addressed to private companies not subject to the TFP or whose annual TFP is less than TND1,000 or whose TFP is greater than or equal to TND,000 and that did not use the CI or they consumed. The DR is also aimed at artisans and small trades. Workplace training is encouraged and considered as a prerequisite to benefit from this tool. The maximum amount to which the company is entitled under the DT to finance its in-service training activities is limited to the amount of expenditure on initial training (work-study or apprenticeship), i.e. the amount of wages and allowances paid to trainees and apprentices.</li> </ul> <p><b>Institutional framework</b></p> <p>Public administration and training centres</p> <p>The system is managed by the Ministry of Vocational Training and Employment, which develops the government's policy in this area, implements it and evaluates it. It is also responsible for the coordination of the various institutions and the pedagogical guardianship.</p> <p>The system comprises the institutions under (i) the control of the MFPE; (ii) the Ministry of Agriculture; and (iii) other ministries such as the Ministry of Tourism, the Ministry of National Defence and the Ministry of Health.</p> <p><i>The private sector</i></p> <p>There are a large number of establishments for initial training (nearly 1,000 centres) and continuing education with about 2,700 organizations.</p> <p><i>The social partners</i></p> <p>While the Patronal has been associated at length with the governance of the FP system, particularly since the MANFORME program, the trade union organization UTICA was really only involved after the 2011 revolution. This was reflected in the 2012 social contract between the government, Tunisian Union of Industry, Trade and Handicrafts and the UGTT.</p> <p>In the case of employers, the approach taken during the MANFORME program was that of steering the system by demand. As a result, the role of employers has been highlighted in all stages of steering and managing the system. Thus, any creation or restructuring of centres cannot be done without a demand from the profession. Employers have been associated with the governance of the centres, since they have been responsible for chairing their governing boards. This arrangement was no longer operational after the revolution of 2011.</p>
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**Table A0.5 Employer and employee organizations by country**

Country	Employer and employee organizations
Algeria	
Egypt	<p>Some of the most prominent employer organizations managing apprenticeship programmes are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The National Center for Human Resource Development (NCHRD) under the umbrella of EFIA has a major role in the application of the Dual System in TVET in Egypt initiated by the Mubarak Kohl Initiative (MKI) in the context of the partnership with MOE.</li> <li>• The EU-funded TVET Reform Programme (TVET 1) established twelve ETPs as independent sectoral bodies to link employers and education providers, with the main objectives of bridging the gap between the supply of and demand for skilled workers in the different priority sectors. The ETPs were directly linked by the relevant chambers, and covered Industry (Engineering, RMG, Furniture, Food processing, Building materials, Leather, Printing, Chemicals), Tourism (two ETPs) and Construction (two ETPs).</li> <li>• <b>Donor-funded support to WBL:</b> Currently several large-scale projects are active. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The largest is the EU-funded TVET II (€117 million as cost-share between the European Union and Government of Egypt, contributing €67 million and €50 million respectively).</li> <li>2. USAID's workfare development project (WISE) stated to be worth \$25 million in 2015.</li> <li>3. Other smaller projects by the Germans, Italians, UNESCO and the IOM.</li> </ol> </li> </ul>
Jordan	<p>In 2014, ILO conducted a project on 'Supporting a National Employment Strategy that Works for Youth in Jordan' aimed at improving the implementation of the National Employment Strategy through (a) building the capacity of stakeholders to enable the project's implementation at national and regional levels, and (b) strengthening WBL practices through establishing a national apprenticeship system and upgrading informal apprenticeship practices in the northern governorates.</p> <p>Under the second component of the project, all relevant stakeholders (training providers, chambers, trade unions) participated in project activities and several ILO workshops to discuss and agree upon the main components of a proposed framework for a national apprenticeship system. Doing so reflected their common view that apprenticeship is the most appropriate form for WBL in Jordan.</p> <p>As part of this project, a national apprenticeship framework was developed in 2015. It is built around the following components: Involvement of stakeholders, Standards and frameworks, Enrolment, Employment/training contract, Rights at work, Funding, Training modes, Training content, Employment.</p> <p>However, there is <b>no evidence that such a framework has ever been implemented.</b></p>
Lebanon	<p>The Association of Lebanese Industrialists (ALI), directly involved with TVET as the main employer of its industrial speciality graduates, has established some cooperation with DGVTE and other institutions in order to improve system responsiveness and meet the needs of the industry in education, training, and retraining.</p> <p>SISs, involved in TVET to a greater or lesser degree depending on their needs, have established a public-private partnership for the first food technicians school in the Bekaa Valley. This project, however, has not yet been started owing to institutional and political problems in MEHE.</p> <p>CCIA cater to the most immediate needs of their members, and as such have been organizing and offering training courses, and continuous education on commercial practice, auditing, taxation and business practices through private-sector service providers.</p> <p>Professional groups have strived to provide the required linkages between their needs and the offer of technical support staff.</p> <p>Labour unions are organized for employment or working sectors.</p>
Oman	<p><b>Trade unions</b> – A strategy was developed to orient the labour market with the local force being trained to cater for their needs, being implemented in three stages:</p> <p>The first stage was enforced by approving and announcing the Labour Act issued by Royal Decree 34 of 1973, aiming to establish effective relationships between employers and employees where each employer with a minimum of fifty employees needs to submit to the minister suggestions concerning the establishment of joint representative body/ies.</p> <p>The second stage is scaffolded by the Labour Act issued by Royal Decree 35 of 2003. It enables labourers at any institution to establish among themselves representative committees to voice their affairs relative to the state.</p> <p>The third stage known and contributing to the overall international situation in a nutshell: a constituent assembly of the General Syndicate for the labourers of the Sultanate of Oman attended a convention held on 15 February 2010 along with other syndicates from the Gulf countries and different international countries to share opinions and innovations for the megatrends affecting labour markets among other aims.</p> <p>Each stage has contributed to the development of WBL development as part of the ultimate target, which is Omanizing the labour market.</p>

Palestine	<p><b>FPCCIA role</b></p> <p>FPCCIA coordinates and is in direct contact with ten private-sector organizations. FPCCA attempts to integrate WBL in a systematic way into TVET. Currently it is involved in many projects geared to this objective, including but not limited to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A WBL programme (with BTC support), whose main focus is to increase the labour market relevance of TVET work.</li> <li>• GIZ and its thematic working groups, especially one for Curriculum Development, together with the two lead ministries (MOL and MEHE).</li> <li>• A Business Hub at Birzeit University. The 'B-Hub' is an innovation space where students and enterprises are matched and empowered to serve the most needed economic sectors – micro and small industries, farming and services – and at the same time serve to maximize employability among university graduates.</li> <li>• A dual study programme at Al-Quds University where the students have to spend half of their time in companies (one semester at the university and one semester at the workplace, on an alternating basis). It is offered for three majors: Business, Management and Electrical Engineering.</li> </ul> <p><b>Role of employer organizations</b></p> <p>Employers are participating in evaluation committees composed from members from the ministry, federation of industry and FPCCIA, according to pre- determined and set criteria. In particular, they participate in the following activities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Preparing the terms of reference and applications for grants.</li> <li>• Preparing the contract for the participants in WBL.</li> <li>• Conducting the evaluation process for the initiatives submitted (and membership of the evaluation committees).</li> <li>• Selection of eligible institutions to benefit from the WBL initiatives (Annex (6))</li> <li>• Participation with the training institutions in the preparation of technical and financial plan proposals.</li> <li>• Signing contracts for the WBL initiatives.</li> <li>• Receiving students from different levels and institutions, and implementing initiatives.</li> <li>• Conducting follow-ups and monitoring and evaluation for participants in the WBL initiatives.</li> </ul> <p>For WBL, apprenticeships and other practical training schemes, FPCCIA cooperates with other players and participates in implementing the practical components of the curricula at the companies.</p> <p><b>Role of trade unions</b></p> <p>There is no or little involvement for trade unions in the implementation of WBL schemes in Palestine, though they are members of many steering committees and LET councils overseeing the planning and implementation of the TVET sector.</p>
Morocco	<p>Several actors are involved in setting and implementing the objectives, such as employee representatives and employer organizations, and in particular the professionals who participate across the vocational training sector in a general manner.</p> <p>In accordance with the guidelines from the 1984 reform, consultation bodies have been created at a national and provincial level, as well as the establishment of training:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>At the national level:</b> CNFP has been established. It is governed by the minister for vocational training and made up of training provider representatives, employer representatives (two representatives from professional bodies and two from chambers of commerce) and employee representatives (two representatives from the most well-represented trade unions). It ensures the definition of the general guidelines, as well as coordination and evaluation. This same commission has been tasked, by virtue of Act 36/96 in relation to Work-Based Vocational Training, to plan, steer and promote work-based vocational training. Similarly, Act 12-00 provides for the creation of two national commissions (one for the agriculture and fisheries sectors and the other for the craft trades and industrial sector) attached to this commission and tasked with the management, planning, supervision, evaluation and control of learning at the national level.</li> <li>• <b>At the provincial level:</b> CPFs have been established, governed by <i>Walis</i> [custodians] and governors, and bringing together, among others, employer and employee representatives. These coordinate the system at the local level, adapt the vocational training agenda and make recommendations to the government authority tasked with vocational training. These same commissions are also in charge of work-based vocational training. The creation of apprenticeship commissions attached to the main commission is anticipated for work-based vocational training, to be governed by professional trades representatives, appointed by the <i>Walis</i> or governors.</li> </ul>

Morocco	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>At the level of institution or group of training institutions:</b> a development commission has been established, governed by a professional and tasked with monitoring the suitability of the training provided, in line with the socio-economic needs of the job market, and evaluating the management of the institution. For work-based vocational training and apprenticeship training, the same development councils have been invested with broad prerogatives, ranging from the promotion of these types of training through to their evaluation, the selection of host companies, the evaluation of training needs, the organization of monitoring and inspection visits for the apprenticeship training within the business, and the management of conflicts between the apprentice and the business owner, or the training institution and the business owner.</li> </ul> <p>While this coordination and consultation model is still valid from an institutional perspective, it is no longer operational in reality, since CNFP has not met since 1989 and the CFPs are struggling owing to a lack of efficacy and resources. The same applies for the development councils, which do not manage to fully exercise the role that they have been assigned.</p> <p>As regards apprenticeship training, partnership agreements are secured in the main economic sectors, mainly those having signed a framework agreement with the Moroccan Government. Through the implementation of these framework agreements, implementation agreements are signed directly with the training providers. These define the organizational, educational and financial provisions for the training programme.</p> <p>Monitoring committees are established to ensure the monitoring of the implementation of agreements and to ensure the correct development of the activities set out in these agreements. These committees are governed by the director of the Regional Delegation of the DFP. The committee comprises the director of the Apprenticeship Training Centre and a representative of the training provider. The professional organizations or chambers of commerce are only represented in the agreements to which they are signatories. Trade unions are not represented on any apprenticeship monitoring body.</p> <p>While the monitoring committees for the apprenticeship training agreements are demonstrating a certain efficacy in managing apprenticeship programmes, one can note the absence of a larger body at the national and provincial level which has sufficient visibility and reach to evaluate the system, steer it and propose amendments and improvements.</p>
Tunisia	n/a

**Table A0.6 Supporting resources and funding by country**

Country	Supporting resources and funding	
Algeria		
Egypt	<b>WBL model</b>	<b>Financing arrangements</b>
	Informational/traditional apprenticeship system	Training varies from one workshop to another, with no training fee and minimal wages for the trainees.
	Formal and non-formal WBL	i)
	Dual system (DS)	Apprentices receive a monthly allowance of around EGP300 (US\$17) during the first year, EGP400 (US\$22) during the second year and EGP500 (US\$28) during the third year. Companies pay administrative fees to the RUDS (up to EGP40, US\$2.27) per student per month, and many also cover apprentices' transportation. No tuition fees; students only pay minimal registration fees as in other public schools.
	PVTD industrial apprenticeship scheme	Training contract: apprentices paid a small allowance, 15–25 per cent of the adult worker wage; off-the-job costs covered by PVTD.
	Integrated TVET Scheme (Joint School Initiative)	Trainees sign contracts with the company for the full duration of the programme and, in many cases, almost all graduates are offered employment by the same company. Pay: they receive at minimum the same as under the dual system, but some companies pay more.
	Alternance Training Scheme introduced by the EC-funded TVET Reform Programme	Students are paid a stipend of on average of EGP500 (US\$28) per month during their time at the enterprise,
	Ministry on Manpower Apprenticeship Programme	A progressive wage is specified between the worker or their guardian and the employer.
	Private Sector Technical Schools (e.g. German Hotel School in El Gouna)	The fees are quite high relative to other TSSs (EGP11,000, US\$650 in 2011) but most of the students have scholarships from various public and private institutions and foundations.
	Industrial Modern Adult Apprenticeship Scheme	The apprentices receive 'competitive' salaries to cover transport cost, meals and insurance.
Schooling from home for students above 18 years with affiliation to an employer (Oumal System)		
Non-formal schemes by NGOs	The average cost is EGP1,000 (US\$57) and the trainee has to fund 25 per cent of this, with the remainder coming from CEOSS and the employer.	
Jordan	<p><b>In VTC</b> the employer is required to pay a minimum JOD2 per day to apprentices for training days in the workplace. The government provides no financial incentives to employers for taking part in the apprenticeship training scheme. The government is the main source of funding for off-the-job training.</p> <p><b>In NET</b> NET work-based training programme trainees receive monthly payments of JOD50 from NET company for the entire training duration, in addition to health care insurance and uniforms.</p> <p>All the costs of off-the-job training are covered by NET without a direct employer contribution.</p> <p>Funding for NET comes from the ETNET fund which is financed from guest worker annual permits, usually paid by employers.</p>	

Jordan	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Department</th> <th>Finance</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>VTC</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The employer is required to pay a minimum of JOD2 per day for the apprentice for training days in the workplace.</li> <li>• Government does not provide any financial incentives to employers for taking part in the apprenticeship training scheme.</li> <li>• Government is the main source of funding for the cost of the off-the-job training.</li> </ul> </td> </tr> <tr> <td>NET</td> <td> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• NET work based training programme trainees receive monthly payment of 50 JD from NET company for all training duration in addition to health care insurance and the work uniform</li> <li>• All the costs of the off-the-job training are covered by NET without direct employers contribution</li> <li>• Financial source of NET comes from ETVET fund which is financed by the guest workers permits annual fees usually paid by employers</li> </ul> </td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Department	Finance	VTC	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The employer is required to pay a minimum of JOD2 per day for the apprentice for training days in the workplace.</li> <li>• Government does not provide any financial incentives to employers for taking part in the apprenticeship training scheme.</li> <li>• Government is the main source of funding for the cost of the off-the-job training.</li> </ul>	NET	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• NET work based training programme trainees receive monthly payment of 50 JD from NET company for all training duration in addition to health care insurance and the work uniform</li> <li>• All the costs of the off-the-job training are covered by NET without direct employers contribution</li> <li>• Financial source of NET comes from ETVET fund which is financed by the guest workers permits annual fees usually paid by employers</li> </ul>
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Lebanon	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No financial support is allocated specifically for WBL schemes in Lebanon.</li> <li>• Donors through international NGOs and NGOs secure ‘stipends’ for apprentices. These are considered as an incentive, and cover the apprentices’ expenses during their apprenticeship training.</li> </ul>						
Oman	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A budget allocated for training is provided by the government through a proved process:</li> <li>• A bylaw for OJT funding in which many training providers has worked their financial training plan within its framework</li> <li>• Other labour market institutes contribute financially either through the authority or separately for WBL schemes that provide training tailored to their business.</li> <li>• The Oman Authority for Partnership for Development finances training under In-Country Value schemes.</li> <li>• The Human Capacity Building Program, a cooperation between the Ministry of Manpower and the Oman society for Petroleum Services (OPAL), is given the funding required in all forms by petroleum sector stakeholders and the Ministry of Oil and Gas to cater for the skills need in the sector.</li> </ul>						
Palestine	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There are no funds, budgets or financial support allocated specifically for WBL schemes in Palestine.</li> <li>• Donors, specifically BTC, which is currently supporting the WBL scheme, provide funds for the training institutions as well as for the companies.</li> <li>• BTC has funded WBL initiatives during several different stages. It has just concluded a project in which specific funds were allocated to support both the supply and demand sides.</li> <li>• The portion allocated to the TVET institution is less than or equal to 70 per cent of the value of the grant.</li> <li>• The portion of the grant to the private sector institutions is more than or equal to 30 per cent of the grant value.</li> <li>• The employers subsidize the job placement of graduates in their firms by sharing the cost of their salaries for a certain period, normally not less than six months.</li> <li>• Some companies in the private sector have contributed to the costs of students and apprentices, including transportation costs and meals during on-the job training.</li> <li>• The relevant ministries involved in the provision of the TVET sector cover the costs of the education and training in their institutions, including the formal and non-formal activities, and off-the-job training in apprenticeship and enterprise-based learning schemes.</li> </ul>						

Morocco	<p><b>Financing of vocational training</b></p> <p>Annual investment and operational budgets were leveraged for financing the vocational training system in 2015, and there was also a distribution by contribution category and their development according to SNFP 2021.</p> <p>The additional contribution in relation to business (30 per cent between 2015 and 2021) corresponds to the costs undertaken by the business for hosting an additional flow of trainees into workplace settings (for apprenticeship or work-based vocational training), increasing from 29 per cent in 2015 (workforce around 134,000) to 50 per cent in 2021 (overall number around 350,000, of whom 120,000 are in apprenticeships). In the absence of significant incentives for companies, the feasibility of such a scenario remains to be demonstrated.</p> <p><b>Financing of apprenticeship training</b></p> <p>Apprenticeship training is financed by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• the general state budget</li> <li>• businesses in the form of a financial allowance granted to apprentices or the direct assumption of certain costs (transport, meals, etc.), administrative and educational supervision time for the apprenticeship mentors, the potential ring-fencing of a job for the apprentice, and so on.</li> <li>• the families and the apprentices themselves, who meet personal costs and the end product of the productive work.</li> </ul> <p>For craft businesses, Act 12-00 grants a financial contribution from the Moroccan state towards training costs. Each year, the Department of Vocational Training allocates a grant for organizing apprenticeship training. This occurs within the scope of agreements signed with the training providers, public or private training centres, associations (professionals or NGOs) or businesses. This amount is set at MAD250 per apprentice per month. It represents a significant cost for the apprenticeship budget but remains largely insufficient in encouraging businesses to take up this type of training to any great degree.</p> <p>The Department for Vocational Training uses the FPEJ funds, implemented through Act 13-94, for the financing of apprenticeship training, and has been doing so since 2001. An annual employment programme (initial and follow-up) has been implemented, together with the Minister of Finances, for the allocation of apprenticeship grants established by monitoring committees and steering committees formed through the learning agreements. FPEJ receives its funding from the general state budget for the Department of Vocational Training and contributions from the Ministry of Agriculture and Ministry of Crafts.</p> <p>Since the launch of apprenticeship training, the cumulative amount of the apprenticeship grants allocated to FPEJ and given to the apprenticeship training providers and stakeholders is MAD683,911,186.59 (source: Department for Vocational Training, 2016): that is, an average annual grant of around MAD50,000,000.</p> <p>The contributions are paid into the funds, and are then transferred in the form of grants through the Department of Vocational Training – the delegated authorizing body of FPEJ - to the contracting parties within the scope of the agreements.</p> <p>Apprenticeship workshops for the national education and training bodies, held on 31 October and 1 November 2006, examined the question of financing and identified the need to find new resources for addressing the development prospects for this type of training. Therefore the workshop recommended conducting a study with a view to identifying the sources of financing for apprenticeship training, in particular exploring the possibility of establishing an apprenticeship tax or assigning a portion of the vocational training tax to finance this type of training.</p> <p><b>Financing of work-based vocational training</b></p> <p>WBL is essentially supported and implemented by OFPPT within the scope of initial vocational training. The budget for the 2017 action plan reserved for initial vocational training is around MAD2.4 billion. Those in WBL were 20 per cent of the total number in initial training in 2016.</p> <p>The budget share allocated to WBL has not been resolved since OFPPT does not have a duty to provide accounting management that is separate from WBL. The expenses for WBL are approved as part of the Initial Vocational Training expenses, all types of training included (residential and work-based).</p> <p>WBL does not provide any direct financial incentive for the host company. However it provides non-financial incentives in the same way as apprenticeships: exemption from income tax, vocational training tax and social security contributions deductible from the salary of trainees, assumption of costs for providing insurance cover for trainees, monitoring trainees in the businesses, and coordination of the training programme.</p>
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Tunisia	<p>The funding of the vocational training scheme under MFPE is provided by the state budget and by two funds: the Fund for the Promotion of Vocational Training, and the Apprenticeship and the Employment Promotion Fund. The first fund finances continuing education and, in part, the initial training centre of the ATFP. It is financed by the tax on vocational training paid by companies (1 or 2 per cent of their payroll). The second fund is financed by the budget, and finances the mechanisms for promoting employment.</p> <p>The centres also have a share of their own revenue from continuing education activities as well as registration fees and the sale of training products. But this represents a small part of their overall budget.</p> <p>In terms of the principle of resource allocation, the budget allocated to the centres is not determined in proportion to the number of learners. Rather, it is evaluated on the basis of the identification of the means to be implemented. This leads to large discrepancies in the cost per learner from one centre to another, regardless of differences between specialties.</p> <p>The cost of training in private centres is borne by the trainees. The state also intervenes by subsidizing part of the cost of this training through the training check. However, this tool has not undergone any significant development, mainly owing to the complexity of the procedures, which call for tenders for priority areas. Since the end of 2016, MFPE has tried to lighten these procedures and decentralize management.</p> <p>Thus, it allocated a quota of training posts per governorate. The possible time is 700 hours for the CC (duration 7 months) and 900 hours for the CAP (duration 1 year).</p> <p>A regional committee composed of the regional structures of MFPE and professional and trade union organizations has been set up to identify needs (through unfilled job vacancies). On this basis, a call for applications will be launched at private training centres. The centres selected will have to propose a training programme for validation, then it is their job to recruit trainees. The cost of this training will be borne by MFPE on the basis of a pre-determined scale.</p> <p>As regards <b>continuing training</b>, it is financed through two instruments:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>The tax credit:</b> this is an amount allocated to the company to finance the in-service training of its staff. It is capped at 60 per cent of its TFP.</li> <li>• <b>Drawing rights:</b> These are training fees granted to companies in connection with their participation in the initial training effort (apprenticeship or alternation) to finance continuing education activities. Two cases can arise: individual access of the company to this instrument, or collective access in the framework of a set-up of training actions involving professional organizations and the CNFCPP after the signing of an agreement.</li> <li>• A third instrument existed until 2016, Article 39 of the Investment Code: it financed training related to the realization of technological investments. However, it was never particularly popular owing to the formalities of its implementation. It was financed by the state budget. With the promulgation of the new investment law in 2016, this instrument is no longer operational.</li> </ul> <p>More specifically, with respect to the funding of WBL, a subsidy is granted to each apprenticeship or trainee that a company hosts in training, according to a scale fixed by a decree of 10 February 2009:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 50 per cent of SMIG per month for each apprentice</li> <li>• 100 per cent of SMIG per month for each trainee in company training.</li> </ul> <p>In addition the salary or allowance granted by the company to apprentices is defined by the law at the rate of 30 per cent of the SMIG for the first three months, increasing by 10 per cent to 80 per cent at the end of a three-year apprenticeship contract. It is exempt from payroll taxes.</p> <p><b>Among the shortcomings of the financing mechanism</b>, several actors contacted for the purposes of this study mentioned:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The lack of compensation for guardians.</li> <li>• The absence of specific provision for the agricultural sector. Indeed, this sector has the particularity that farms are often far from the training centres, and are located in areas not served by public transport. As a result, trainees must be housed on the farm during their training course. However, there is no funding for this accommodation.</li> <li>• The absence of compensation for trainees, apart from apprenticeships. Indeed, trainees in the context of alternation are considered as learners in a training centre. When they go into businesses, the legislation does not provide for any compensation. This remains at the discretion of the company, and many do not make payments. However, trainees have additional costs, such as transportation and food, which, when in the centre, are covered by the registration fee and the boarding school.</li> <li>• The absence of a financing mechanism for professional and trade union organizations so that they can play an active role in vocational training. This issue has been discussed at length with MFPE and a funding mechanism for training support units (UAF) is being implemented.</li> </ul>
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**Table A0.7 Conclusions and ways forward by country**

Country	Conclusions and ways forward
Algeria	
Egypt	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Draft and finalize a TVET law and strategy that includes explicit and clear articles on governing the system, including WBL and apprenticeship provision, limiting the fragmentation and creating an umbrella organization that provides the necessary leadership and supervision of the system. The law and strategy development should include all stakeholders, especially employers from the private sector and employee organizations.</li> <li>• Reform the quality assurance and accreditation system, creating coherence and clear procedures in areas related to developing standards and qualifications, developing and updating curricula, administrating assessments, training of trainers and RPL. This should also include accelerated development of the NQF, which has been a work in progress for a long time. All this needs to include WBL and apprenticeship, especially OJT and schools in factories.</li> <li>• The relevance of TVET to the labour market needs should be improved by institutionalizing employer engagement at all levels of the system, and establishing sustainable and regular information through labour market information systems, which are quite underdeveloped in Egypt.</li> <li>• Restructure funding for both institution-based training and employers. This will require allocating budgets to public TVET providers based on performance and impact (and allowing more financial and management autonomy for schools and centres), restructuring and reactivating the National Training Fund (training levy) with clear quotas for WBL, and providing financial and non-financial incentives for employers to engage in WBL. This issue of incentives to the private sector could be investigated through international and regional good practice in countries with similar economic structures and size to Egypt.</li> <li>• MOE should draft a realistic operational plan with clear indicators and timelines for the targets set to expand the Dual System from the current 2 per cent to 50 per cent of all technical school students by 2025, and increasing the number of training facilities in factories from 50 to 500 in the next five years. The challenge here will be the structure of the Egyptian economy, in which the overwhelming majority of enterprises are small and informal. How will the government incentivize this segment of employers to take apprentices? The current system relies on larger companies taking on average ten apprentices per year, or those with financial means to establish their own training facility enrolling on average 160 students per year. The key here will be to provide financial incentives such as tax reductions or wage subsidies (and other means according to international good practice). Furthermore the new GIZ project, Enhancement of the Egyptian Dual System (EEDS) will start soon experimenting with the idea of an 'Inter-company training concept' which will pilot the idea of forming clusters of small enterprises to share in the training of apprentices, where learners will rotate among these enterprises to gain the skills required for a complete occupation, something that most individual small companies might not be able to do individually because they do not have the range of skills found in larger companies. Employers in that scheme will also join in paying the wages for apprentices. It will be interesting to see the results of this, and the government should play a leading role in monitoring and evaluating this pilot and assessing the feasibility of mainstreaming the project if the pilot is successful.</li> <li>• More attention should be given to setting clear and standardized qualifications for tutors and mentors responsible for the in-company training of apprentices. Furthermore, consistent and regular training for these tutors should be established and not left in its current ad hoc status. It should be incorporated in the system and in the agreements drafted between the government and employers.</li> <li>• More advanced and regular evidence-based research, data collection and monitoring and evaluation tools should be established at the national level, with networks at the local level for TVET in general and WBL in particular. The objectives should include analysis of the system, best practices and shortcomings, and be used as a tool for informed decision-making This could be initiated by a central government body like MOE or the new TVET umbrella authority, and could receive donor funding to start up, but it is crucial that sustainable measures are in place from the beginning. Crucial to understanding the extent and nature of WBL better is to have better information on informal/traditional apprenticeship schemes, on which information currently is almost nonexistent.</li> <li>• More structured information on and promotion of WBL should be established at all levels for students, parents, jobseekers, employers, intermediary employer organizations and employee organizations. This will also require establishing effective life-long career guidance and counselling services from an early age during school, in employment service offices and other relevant settings.</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Capacity-building should be provided to intermediary employer organizations in better managing the process of WBL, especially in enterprises. Also the relationship between government bodies and these employer organizations needs to be enhanced at the operational level, with more cooperation and alignment in the overall objectives of WBL. Employer organizations should also develop orientation programmes in enterprises for off-the-job teachers and trainers in order for the links to be stronger between school and enterprise. This will also benefit learners, especially since most practical instructors have not had specialized TOT training and lack technical qualifications in the subjects they teach. The government should also involve trade unions in the reform and planning of WBL as this is currently rare, although they do serve on the boards of some institutes, PVTD for example.</li> <li>• The government should take more responsibility for coordinating donor activity in TVET reform in general and WBL in particular. The priorities and activities where technical support is needed from donors should be set by the relevant government body to make sure all support areas are covered, and to avoid duplication and fragmentation, especially in introducing too many models from different countries without having an agreed Egyptian model for WBL.</li> <li>• Apprenticeship should be seen as a link in the life-long learning chain, opening channels with other and higher types of education (Badawi, 2012) and expansion of adult apprenticeships for jobseekers. Despite some small-scale pilots, the current WBL system focuses on the young. There is a lot of room to learn for the British experience in this area.</li> <li>• The traditional informal training system should be supplemented with off-the-job training in well-established training centres in the local areas where apprentices work.</li> <li>• The traditional informal training system needs to be further strengthened through public-private partnerships. MoMM could play a leading role in this respect by introducing a three-year contract between the family of the apprentice and the workshop owner. MoMM would also ensure that the enterprises involved take into account occupational health and safety requirements. The enterprises applying to such a system would have to regularize their situations accordingly, entering the formal economy. During the three years, the enterprise needs to determine the appropriate level of training to develop a low, medium or high-skilled worker. After completion of the on-the-job and off-job training the apprentice will be examined by MoMM and awarded certification of the skills acquired. This way the certified worker would be entitled to register for employment services and would be eligible for regulated migration schemes. In return for the enterprises joining this scheme and participating in organized training of apprentices, MoMM could either offer financial support to help them cover their expenses, or provide loans to upgrade their machinery and equipment (El-Mahdi, 2012).</li> <li>• It is necessary to introduce specializations which may be more culturally suited to female apprentices.</li> <li>• The government, in partnership with all stakeholders, should implement an integrated campaign to change the image of TVET in general and WBL in particular. This should include untraditional tools like social media, messages within drama and reality show competitions addressing the target group.</li> </ul>
Jordan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Develop the current legal framework within the labour law for the vocational training.</li> <li>• Establish marketing and employment units in training institutions.</li> <li>• Develop and apply criteria for selecting companies and workplaces to host apprentices.</li> <li>• Strengthen partnerships with companies in the planning, implementing and evaluating of apprenticeship and other WBL.</li> <li>• Build the capacity of selected employers' associations to pilot an accredited and certified apprenticeship training programme.</li> <li>• Promote the concept of a certified in-company trainer to train and/or monitor the training process during in-company training.</li> <li>• Providing free TOT training courses for in-company technicians and supervisors.</li> <li>• Transfer apprentices/trainees from one company/workplace to another as needed.</li> <li>• Expand the use of work-based methods to provide training and work experience opportunities for new graduates from universities and community colleges.</li> <li>• Extend the apprenticeship training scheme to include training to technician level.</li> <li>• Open channels between different TVET levels and systems.</li> </ul>

Lebanon	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Develop the legal framework for the vocational training to cover:                             <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. apprentice status as a worker and not a trainee, so apprentices have all related rights such as social security, health care, insurance and leave</li> <li>2. the training contract, which should specify what the different parties (employer, training provider and trainee) are to do</li> <li>3. remuneration for apprentices as a percentage of skilled workers' wages, increasing according to the stage of training</li> <li>4. including related TVET providers that apply apprenticeships or WBL in identifying in-company training programmes, and not only VTC.</li> </ol> </li> <li>• Establish marketing and employment units within training institutions for:                             <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. marketing apprenticeship and other WBL schemes among enterprises, particularly those of medium and large scale</li> <li>2. assisting trainees in finding private-sector job opportunities after graduation.</li> </ol> </li> <li>• Develop and apply criteria for selecting companies and workplaces to implement apprenticeship training that ensure their appropriateness for the targeted training programme.</li> <li>• Strengthen partnerships with companies in the planning, implementing and evaluating of apprenticeship and other WBL.</li> <li>• Expand the use of work-based methods to provide training and work experience opportunities for new graduates from universities and community colleges, to assist them in getting the work experience required for employment.</li> <li>• Extend the apprenticeship training scheme to include training to technician level beside the currently targeted occupational levels (semi-skilled, skilled and craftsperson).</li> <li>• Open channels between different TVET levels and systems, allowing upward and sideways movements of apprentices according to specific criteria.</li> </ul>
Oman	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Retention reports should be submitted by employers based on the requirements agreed with the training provider.</li> <li>• The training providers should gather feedback from companies they have contracted on satisfaction with trainers' skills levels after completing the programmes and working for a good amount of time.</li> <li>• Reviews of curricula should identify and reflect the changing requirements of employers.</li> <li>• Training should start at earlier stages, not only after completion of secondary school or after age 16.</li> <li>• Policies for WBL should be highlighted, reviewed periodically and amended where necessary.</li> <li>• The research body for improving TVET and its schemes must be more active and current.</li> <li>• Globalization of WBL as a scheme might need more research, but it could provide a wider effective platform for employment, improvements, innovations, funding and other aspects for all trained under it.</li> </ul>
Palestine	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provide support for the legal basis for WBL, through a legal analysis that would provide the basis for necessary changes to some laws and/or bylaws. This process should be explicitly supported by MOL and MEHE as changes in the legislation should facilitate WBL processes.</li> <li>• Establish local hubs for coordinating WBL.</li> <li>• Build the capacity of stakeholders, and raise awareness about WBL among private and public stakeholders.</li> <li>• Conduct sectoral studies to define the feasibility of WBL and apprenticeship schemes.</li> <li>• Sign MOUs between training providers and private sector representatives.</li> <li>• Identify the organizational framework for an apprenticeship system (including legal and financial aspects) and establish occupational standards.</li> <li>• Support extension of WBL and apprenticeship programmes to higher education through feasible pathways and bridging schemes.</li> <li>• Develop a WBL strategy and legal framework on the national level.</li> <li>• Create a national training fund, co-financed by the private sector to ensure the institutionalization of WBL.</li> <li>• Facilitate the registration of the economic establishments that participate in providing training.</li> <li>• Adopt an NQF to ensure the organizational regulations needed for the implementation of WBL and apprenticeship schemes exist.</li> </ul>

Morocco	<p>WBL and apprenticeship training are at the core of the issue of harmonizing training and employment. It is necessary to review and rethink the connection between the three main stakeholders:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• the host business</li> <li>• the trainee</li> <li>• the vocational training institution or VTC.</li> </ul> <p>Therefore, actions need to be undertaken at several levels:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>The strategic vision of work-based training:</b> <p>A clear vision that is established in consultation with organizations, chambers of commerce and training providers regarding the development of work-based training methods, whether work-based vocational training or apprenticeship training, and that seeks to establish a better connection and harmonization between the two types of training, and between those and residential training.</p> <p>In particular, a reworking of the two types of work-based training is essential, with a twofold objective:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. harmonization of governance, planning and production procedures, monitoring/evaluation, financing, and consequently significantly improving training in the workplace</li> <li>2. cover of all the levels of qualification, including postgraduate, in order to strengthen the employability of university graduates, who are the category of young people most affected by unemployment.</li> </ol> <p>The vision should also conduct research into the conditions that are likely to promote an improved harmonization between the social function of apprenticeships, which consists of ensuring young people gain a qualification, and its economic function, aiming to provide a qualified workforce that corresponds to businesses' needs.</p> </li> <li>• <b>Promotion, communication and information:</b> <p>The adoption of a more active policy in terms of:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. information for young people and their parents</li> <li>2. awareness-raising among host businesses</li> <li>3. promoting these types of training among businesses.</li> </ol> <p>Establish a communication campaign adapted to a population that is at risk of marginalization and exclusion from the education system and victims of early unemployment, as well as small businesses and microenterprises. Place greater value on the traditional method of learning a trade.</p> <p>Implement mechanisms for selecting and guiding young people.</p> <p>Develop a permanent instrument for gathering, analysing and providing relevant information on the training offer and the demand from the job market at national, sectoral and regional levels.</p> <p>Improve access conditions for young people from poor or rural areas through the implementation of internships, as well as bursaries for combating the drop-out rates of students owing to transport and accommodation problems.</p> </li> <li>• <b>Partnership and coordination:</b> <p>Establish a preliminary advisory and guidance system that is present and effective on the ground (a guidance portal is certainly useful but not enough) for the benefit of apprentices and their parents. This would limit the massive drop-out rates from the national education system (in particular, the drop-out peak recorded during the last year of the academic cycle) and encourage a switch towards vocational training in the workplace.</p> <p>Consolidate and develop sector-based partnerships (for textiles, clothing, tourism, craft trades and so on) and partnerships with the major business sectors (Sharifian Phosphates Office, banking sector, telecoms operators and so on) which are not sufficiently or not at all engaged in work-based training, owing to the fears of a potential unmanaged social risk.</p> <p>Establish consultation bodies between the various training stakeholders and partners, enabling a uniform approach and creating a synergy of actions, as well as optimizing resources.</p> <p>Involve partners other than businesses, such as civil society for the entry of young people in their urban and rural spaces and having an impact on the level of development of these spaces.</p> <p>Ensure partnership and synergy of action between the authority and bodies in charge of employment: Ministry of Employment and Social Relations, National Agency for Employment and Skills and so on.</p> </li> </ul>
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Morocco	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Strengthening of the role of businesses:</b>                      Conduct a review of the current ineffective governance as regards the involvement of businesses across all decision-making levels: strategic, operational, whether this is at the sectoral, regional and/or local scale (of vocational training institutions and apprenticeship training centres).                     <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Empower businesses to receive trainees and help them fulfil the role assigned to them.</li> <li>2. Strengthen organizational capabilities in terms of hosting, designing the training programme, work-based training and coordination with the vocational training institutions and apprenticeship training centres. In particular, provide support for training tutors, apprenticeship mentors and providers.</li> <li>3. Implement incentives for tutors or apprenticeship mentors, including a status that is valued and provides incentives.</li> <li>4. Provide compensation for the additional costs incurred by the business as the result of recruiting a trainee, alongside the benefits anticipated by current legislation. These benefits (exemption from income tax and social security contributions) are underexploited or not used at all since in the majority of cases the payment is low or even inexistent.</li> <li>5. Clarify the responsibility of the stakeholders (businesses, trainees, vocational training institutions/apprenticeship training centres) in order to reassure large businesses given the real or perceived social risk that obstructs their involvement in work-based training.</li> <li>6. Finally, the General Federation of Moroccan Businesses has been called on to strengthen its advocacy capacities with the government, as well as the promotion of WBL with different business sectors, federated professional associations and large businesses.</li> </ol> </li> <li>• <b>In terms of management:</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Place business at the heart of governance by rigorously associating it with management of apprenticeship training and work-based vocational training systems.</li> <li>2. Put in place mechanisms for monitoring, evaluation and inspection of training in the workplace and clarifying the responsibilities of each actor at the local, provincial and national levels.</li> <li>3. Grant greater freedom for initiative, decision-making and financing to the vocational training institutions/apprenticeship training centres so they have greater proximity with businesses and can adapt to their requirements.</li> </ol> </li> <li>• <b>In terms of resources:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Human:                             <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Strengthen the human resources of professional training institutions in terms of staff, ongoing training (vocational teaching, communication and so on.) and greater access across the economic and industrial environment.</li> <li>2. Examine the feasibility of creating skills centres for training trainers and apprenticeship mentors.</li> </ol> </li> <li>3. Educational:                             <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>4. Simplify and adapt the methodological framework of the APC (skills-based approach) to the apprenticeship training model, addressing trades that are not very demanding in terms of basic qualifications.</li> <li>5. Prepare basic guides and instruments to support trainers and tutors in the involvement of new training guidelines.</li> </ol> </li> </ul> </li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Financial:                     <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Look for new sources of financing, in particular the allocation of a portion of the Vocational Training Tax reserved for initial and ongoing training, for the financing of apprenticeship training and work-based vocational training (which would not only benefit the OFPPT's institutions) and the establishment of an apprenticeship tax.</li> <li>2. Examine the opportunity of sharing costs among the state, the business and parents.</li> <li>3. Meet trainees' transport costs, and provide accommodation for destitute or poor students.</li> <li>4. Ensure that a decent income is paid by the business to the trainees, and that apprenticeship mentors/tutors are certified. These payments can be made through a compensation fund, fed by a fund designed for this purpose.</li> </ol> </li> <li>• In terms of evaluation:                     <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Establish adequate mechanisms for regular evaluation of the vocational training system, targeting policies and their implementation as well as the decisions taken and their impact.</li> <li>2. Establish an information system on WBL (apprenticeship and work-based vocational training), which enables the efficient steering of the instrument and an analysis of its performance.</li> </ol> </li> </ul>



Tunisia	<p><b>Participation of professionals in the governance of training centres:</b> this is a necessity to get the training world closer to that of enterprises in order to develop training in the workplace.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The status of trainers and apprenticeship advisors is a fundamental issue. The current trend is a growing lack of interest by trainers in following up trainees when they are on placement. This has a twofold negative consequence. First, it greatly undermines the quality of the training of the young person, who no longer has a contact in the centre. Second, it distances the trainers from the reality of the field and what happens in the company, which negatively affects the adequacy of training in relation to needs. Therefore, this issue needs to be raised urgently and translated into a commitment by trainers and learning advisors to fulfil their mission of trainee follow-up.</li> <li>• The understanding of the competency approach needs to be revisited. A misunderstanding of this approach has devalued it and means it is no longer accepted by several trainers. APC should facilitate OJT by dividing programmes and assessing competencies separately and not by mastering a comprehensive curriculum.</li> <li>• A specific communication action is needed to enhance WBL. This general communication would help remedy the negative image of learning in Tunisian society. For their part, the centres are called upon to communicate differently on the same subject and to enhance their offer of training in partnership with companies. They should also emphasize that this form of learning is not only addressed to those excluded from education, but that it is a form of training offering many benefits for both companies and young people.</li> <li>• A recommendation is to be made to improve the functioning of non-diploma-based learning by allowing private training centres to take on additional training.</li> </ul> <p>This means that a company can hire an apprentice and send them to a private centre for additional training. Since the skills targeted tend to be theoretical or behavioural (soft skills), private centres will have the capacity to train people in them. The advantage is also that private centres will be motivated to prospect with companies to spread the culture of learning. This will have a definite impact on the development of this practice of learning, which for some years has been losing momentum in Tunisia. It should be noted that private centres will of course be remunerated for this supplementary training, using the existing tools that are available to companies. In this way, the company will receive the grant for apprenticeship and use it to pay the training centre. A refinement of this modality will undoubtedly be necessary.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• We propose to grant the financing by the check only if there is a need expressed by a company, and that this company expresses well its predisposition to take care of the beneficiary in the course of training.</li> <li>• Concerning professional and trade union organizations, the recommendations concern the implementation of workplace training support units and their eligibility for certain funding tools so that they can coach their members and act as a credible and representative interlocutors with MFPE. These UAF should be remunerated for the continuing training actions they organize, in a way to be specified together with other aspects. In this way, the training offices will be able to remunerate professional organizations from the budget provided for this purpose. This will ensure the sustainability of the intervention of professional organizations in the system, which is an important goal. The case of Morocco with the GIAC is worth mentioning, since it has, for example, set up a system that allows such remuneration.</li> <li>• Finally, a reflection should be proposed in order to facilitate the mobility of young people between regions and to make it possible for training in the workplace to succeed better. The aim is to give priority to the geographical location of training centres in industrial zones. This will allow trainees to work in an organization in an easier way since the training centre is on the same premises. Indeed, distance between training centres and enterprises is a major obstacle to the development of WBL.</li> </ul>
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**Table A0.8 Evidence, data and research supporting insights by country**

Country	Evidence, data and research supporting insights	
Algeria		
Egypt	<b>WBL model</b>	<b>Efficacy</b>
	Informational/traditional apprenticeship system	An important role in bridging the gap between the skills needs of the labour market and the outcome of the formal education system, as well as supplying the largest amount of workers to the labour market à a main mechanism for skill development
	Formal and non-formal WBL	
	Dual system (DS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• over 56 per cent of trainees are offered jobs in the companies involved in their training</li> <li>• the majority (around 80 per cent) opt to bridge to middle technical colleges and universities.</li> </ul> DS yielded better results: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• better links with labour market needs</li> <li>• better character-building for students</li> <li>• companies were more content with the skills of DS students</li> <li>• DS graduates had better work opportunities as well as further learning options</li> <li>• better understanding by DS students and graduates of working ethics and conditions.</li> </ul>
	PVTD industrial apprenticeship scheme	There is a general shortage of qualified trainers as the most qualified are on long-term leave working in the private sector or abroad and government recruitment is very limited. In some of the governorates where industry is limited, the student attachments are very difficult to guarantee and their lack is compensated for in the PVTD training centres.
Integrated TVET Scheme (Joint School Initiative)	While the first batches of graduates of these programmes were well received by industry, there have been some problems associated with the initiative: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The initiative did not proceed beyond phase 1 owing to change of strategies and withdrawal of funding from ITC.</li> <li>• The required new equipment was not purchased for all centres again owing to financial constraints from ITC.</li> <li>• No system was in place to motivate teachers to join trainees at the factories, and some teachers even discouraged trainees from participating in OJT.</li> <li>• Some of the forty-one schools are still adopting the system but MOE has not evaluated and institutionalized the system of alternance education and addressed all the outstanding issues.</li> <li>• The factories were usually far from the areas where trainees lived, making the commute and timing very difficult.</li> <li>• No structures and systematic quality assurance processes were in place, as for DS and conventional technical education.</li> </ul>	
Alternance Training Scheme introduced by the EC funded TVET Reform Programme	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• When this model was introduced to the private sector in 2008 it was a natural transition from the DS as most of the companies involved were involved in the DS but were not able to get the number of students needed, so they decided to establish their own training centres in cooperation with MOE.</li> </ul>	

Lebanon	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There are no clear statistics on employers and companies securing apprenticeship opportunities on the national level.</li> <li>• There is no system that can measure satisfaction either for apprentices or for employers regarding graduates' performance.</li> <li>• Statistics on graduates' wages are completely absent and all that is available on completion rates is the annual number of students taking up apprenticeships.</li> <li>• Statistics on enterprises cooperating in implementing apprenticeship training programmes are collected and documented by each vocational training institute. However, these statistics are kept in the institute for its own use and not published.</li> <li>• No national organizations or individual researchers have a particular focus on research and evaluation of apprenticeship and WBL in Lebanon.</li> </ul>
Morocco	<p><b>Specific data regarding training in the workplace</b></p> <p>In 2015–16 9 per cent (30,079) of the population were in initial training through apprenticeship training centres, while 20 per cent (87,951) were involved in WBL. The aim of the national vocational training strategy is to increase the overall number of those training in workplaces (apprenticeship training centres plus work-based vocation training) to around 344,000 (50 per cent) by 2021.</p> <p><i>Work-based vocational training</i></p> <p>There are no more recent studies, but a study into the involvement of businesses in vocational training in Morocco, conducted by GIZ in 2001, evaluated WBL in three main sectors: MMEEI, textiles/clothing and tourism. The legal and procedural framework governing WBL is unchanged since then.</p> <p>In 2009 GIZ – within the scope of the FPMT (Vocational Training in the Workplace) project – evaluated the actual financial contribution of businesses to apprenticeships in the textile and hospitality sectors, and highlighted a net annual cost (expenses less increase in profits) per apprentice in the textile sector of around MAD23,000. In the hospitality sector this amount was around MAD19,000. Conversely, no study has been conducted to evaluate the third source of financing.</p> <p>The learning grant allocated to training providers and actors within the scope of the Young People's Employment Fund (FPEJ).</p> <p>The main conclusions of this evaluation can be summarized in the following points.</p> <p>Businesses contribute to WBL for several reasons: to respond to the demand for placements from training institutions, to respond to their own needs, to benefit from the operational profile of graduates of WBL and to meet a national duty.</p> <p>In terms of supervision and monitoring of interns by the host company:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Businesses cannot always provide the skills included in the programme owing to a lack of preparation by the trainee or the unavailability of the activity in the business.</li> <li>• 57 per cent, 43 per cent and 31 per cent of those who completed WBL in the textile/clothing, tourism and MMEEI sectors respectively were recruited by the companies in which they trained. The remainder, according to the vocational training establishments and professional associations, did not encounter any difficulty in finding a job elsewhere.</li> <li>• While contracts between the trainee and the business owner, as stipulated by regulation, were almost generalized in the textile and MMEEI sectors, less than half of companies in the tourism sector formalized the relationship.</li> <li>• The majority of businesses place trainees directly into production. A minority of businesses hold a specific training workshop first.</li> <li>• The majority of businesses in the MMEEI and textile/clothing sectors pay trainees a salary, but only one-third do so in the tourism sector. However, in the tourism sector the businesses generally pay for food, transport and work uniforms.</li> </ul> <p><i>Coordination between the host company and the training institution:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Businesses are not involved in the selection of trainees; however, this does not seem to concern them, since they say that they do not have time to manage this process.</li> <li>• Three-quarters of the businesses interviewed said they had not participated in drawing up the structure of the training programme, and many were critical of its content.</li> <li>• The pace of WBL was deemed satisfactory by the majority of businesses, but some requested greater cohesion between the theoretical and practical elements.</li> <li>• Monitoring of trainees in the business, and communication between the training institution and the business, were considered unsatisfactory.</li> </ul>

Morocco	<p><i>Evaluation of work-based vocational training by businesses:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• WBL is generally viewed favourably by the businesses that have experienced it. In almost all cases they envisage continuing this type of training.</li> <li>• While WBL has experienced clear success among large and multinational companies, its expansion has encountered several difficulties.</li> <li>• Indeed, the resources to increase the availability and aptitudes of the businesses – which is key to success for this type of training (especially in SMEs/MSMEs) – were judged to be unsatisfactory and sometimes inadequate.</li> </ul> <p>The inadequacies and corrective actions listed concern:</p> <p><b>The businesses:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• information and awareness-raising of business owners in relation to the requirements and benefits of WBL</li> <li>• strengthening operational capacities through hosting, mentoring, monitoring and educational training, remuneration and mobilization of educational resources, and so on</li> <li>• training mentors in vocational teaching methods.</li> </ul> <p><b>The vocational training institutions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• TOT</li> <li>• regular monitoring of trainees while on placement</li> <li>• greater flexibility in terms of management for consolidating opportunities for businesses, and notably the effective management of WBL</li> <li>• ability to make decisions and act independently, so as to adapt to the needs of businesses operating in their specific environment, while respecting quality requirements and protecting the rights of learners.</li> </ul> <p><b>Coordination between the vocational training institutions and businesses:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• the adaptation of programmes to the requirements of WBL</li> <li>• the involvement of businesses in planning, educational content/structure of WBL, and the evaluation and selection of trainees.</li> </ul> <p><b>The trainee</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• a compulsory minimum salary to be paid to trainees on work placements.</li> </ul> <p><b>The system</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• a review of the governance system for WBL to include a more robust involvement from businesses</li> <li>• a clear strategy, of which stakeholders are made aware, defining the governance (role and tasks of the different stakeholders), adequate mechanisms (management, promotion/incentivization, planning, monitoring, evaluation and so on) and appropriate ad hoc financing, enabling the qualitative objectives of SNFP 2021 to be reached</li> <li>• an extension of WBL to the qualification levels relevant for higher education undergraduate degree, Master's, PhD, i.e. levels 6, 7 and 8 of the Moroccan national qualifications grid.</li> </ul> <p>To enable the development of this type of training, monitoring measures were implemented within the scope of the MEDA 1 project (1995–99), mainly focused on training executives and training in work-based vocational training methods, as well as managing this type of training.</p> <p>While residential and work-based training have not been able to respond to the training needs of a significant marginal portion of the young population, their unsuitability for certain sectors and certain levels of training has led the public authorities to experiment with new apprenticeship instruments: in this case, the apprenticeship training method.</p> <p><b>Apprenticeship</b></p> <p>There were 30,079 apprentices in 2015/16, a 4.99 per cent decrease from 2014/15. Of these, 46.25 per cent were female. A network of 324 training institutions and 9,977 companies contributed to supervision in 2015–16. It is also worth noting the increase in female participants since 2005/06 period (17 per cent), figures provided by the Department of Craft Trades and CFA-IE. Of note is the almost unanimous percentage of female participants to the contribution of AREFs.</p> <p>Crafts are the main training sector with 21.2 per cent of the total number in apprenticeship training, followed by the agricultural sector with 16.83 per cent and CFA-IE with 18.54 per cent. There is still significant potential to mobilize the industrial and services sectors.</p> <p>By training level, 54.57 per cent of apprentices were at the Specialisation level (S), 21.2 per cent at Qualification level (Q), 18.71 per cent at Vocational Apprenticeship Certificate level and 5.52 per cent at Technician's Certificate level.</p> <p>Three issues are significant here:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>the withdrawal of apprenticeship training through OFPPT (around 70 per cent of the number in initial training), this being entirely dedicated to WBL</li> <li>the significant reduction in traditional sectors: agriculture, fisheries and craft trades, compensated by new sectors such as the automotive sector</li> <li>the resulting stagnation of numbers, at around 30,000 apprentices a year since 2008.</li> </ul>
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## Workshop attendees

### Regional Workshop on Work-Based Learning in Arab Region: Recent Developments and New Challenges (Beirut, 21–22 June 2018)

#### A. National Representatives

Country	Name	Position
Algeria	Chihi Lahcene	Vice president of Vocational Education
Egypt	Ahmed El-Ashmawi	Senior TVET Expert – Freelance Consultant
	Salem Al Khoudary	Professor, Ain Shams University
Jordan	Hesham Dabbour	Head of Department of Vocational Education and Production
Lebanon	Issam Abi Nader	Chief of Theoretical studies/Coordinator Higher Industrial Technical Institute, DG TVE, MeHe
	Oussama Ghneim	Head of 21 <sup>st</sup> Century Skills Department - CERD Ex-Head of Vocational and Technical Education Department - CERD General Coordinator of Technology - CERD Head of Ward NGO
	Tony Elie Rachid	Head of Vocational Rehabilitation department Directorate of Vocational and Technical Education, DG-TVE, MeHe
Oman	Khaled Bin Mohamed Al Hadrami	Head of Mechanics Department, Vocational college - Seeb
Palestine	Wesam Abuobeid	Acting director General, Ministry of Education and Higher Education

#### B. Private Sector

Organization	Name	Position
Algeria - Association des femmes en économie verte	Karima Bergheul	Présidente
Egypt - Federation of Egyptian industries	Khaled Abdel Azim	President
Jordan - Ajloun Chamber of Commerce	Arab AlSmadi	Chairman
Lebanon - Chamber of Commerce Industry and Agriculture of Beirut	Rabih Sabra	Director General
Morocco- Confédération Générale des Entreprises du Maroc	Slassi Sennou	Président du Directoire.

#### C. Young Representatives

Organization	Name	Position
Lebanon - DPNA NGO	Wissam Abdou	DPNA NGO
Lebanon - Mentor - Mirco Mentor	Hoda Bitar	Empowerment & Entrepreneurship Certified Trainer
Lebanon - WARD NGO	Suha Farraj	Ward NGO

**D. UN Agencies and other organizations**

Organization	Name	Title
Belgian Development Agency-Enabel - Palestine	Naser Ghanim	Project Coordinator Enhancing Capacities of Institution Building (ECIB)
ETF	Abdelaziz Jaouani	Specialist in VET Policies and Systems, Operations Department
FAO – Food and Agriculture Organization - Lebanon	Abir Abul Khoudoud	Abir Abul Khoudoud Project Manager for “Upgrading the Agriculture Education System in Lebanon OSRO/LEB/NET” FAO FAO – Lebanon Country Office Lebanon
GIZ - Lebanon	Enzo Sciolla	Team Leader
GIZ - Lebanon	Janet Gohlke-Rouhayem	Key Expert for Practice Oriented VTE EU funded project: Technical Assistance for More Practice Oriented VTE in Lebanon (ProVTE) Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH (German International Cooperation – المؤسسة الألمانية للتعاون الدولي) c/o Directorate General for Vocational Education, Lebanon
Griffith University – Australia (UNESCO Consultant)	Stephen Billett	Professor of Adult and Vocational Education
ILO - Lebanon	Yasser ALI	Skills Development Officer
ILO – Lebanon	Rayan El Masri	Intern
UNESCO – Lebanon	Tala Haikal	Intern
UNESCO - Paris	Hélène Guiol	TVET programme Specialist
UNESCO- Lebanon	Emmanuel Wilson Walla	Basic and non-Formal Education Officer
	Lilian Eido Bazzi	Programme Assistant
	Melodie Haddad	Intern
	Salim Shehadeh	Program specialist Technical and Vocational Education
UNICEF – Consultant - Lebanon	Nabil Naccache	TVET Senior Consultant
UNICEF - Lebanon	Alex Schein	Chief of Youth and Adolescent Development - Youth and Adolescent Development Programme
UNRWA – Lebanon	Samer Serhan	Principal, UNRWA Sibling Training Centre









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## Stay in touch

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