

State of

SKILLS



International
Labour
Organization



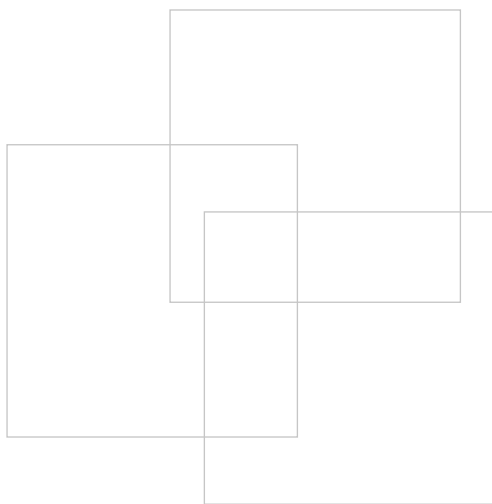
1919-2019



Tunisia

State of

SKILLS



Tunisia

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The socio-economic context

The Tunisian economy is one of the most diversified in the entire Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region. Politically, the country has made important progress in completing the transition to an open and democratic system of governance, after economic and social injustices triggered the revolution of 2011. Despite this, Tunisia's labour market continues to be characterized by slow job creation. As a result, it fails to absorb the growing supply of skilled youth available. Furthermore, the skills provided by the education and training system seem to be in low demand. High rates of economic growth in the post-revolution period have therefore failed to translate into quality employment, and many labour market and regional disparities have become more pronounced (World Bank Group, 2014).

The Tunisian economy is experiencing an upswing.

Annual growth is projected to increase to 3.5 per cent by 2019 (OECD, 2018), after stagnating at 1 per cent in 2015/16. This turnaround is partially due to improvements in the security situation, which are contributing to a revival of the tourism industry. More importantly, there has been real growth in manufacturing and non-manufacturing industries, as well as in market services, driven by a surge in demand from a recovering European Union, Tunisia's main trading partner (AfDB, 2018). Model projections suggest that these industries also hold the greatest potential for the long-term creation of jobs (Sassi and Goaid, 2016). This raises an important question: how is Tunisia to exploit recent developments to improve the performance of its labour market?

The country's labour market suffers from a skills mismatch.

Tunisia has invested heavily in education. As a result, its levels of educational attainment are among the highest in the region. More than 40 per cent of the population has completed at least intermediate (28 per cent) or advanced (13 per cent) education,¹ and of these roughly 68 per cent are of working age – a dividend of the country's young population. However, labour force participation is considerably lower, at 52 per cent. This is due to the weak presence of women in the labour force (28 per cent), with those with less than basic education recording the lowest levels of participation. In addition, youth unemployment, which stood at 34 per cent in 2013, is a persistent feature of the Tunisian economy, with well-educated young women particularly affected. Around 30 per cent of young men and 20 per cent of young women who have attained only basic, or less than basic education are unemployed. By contrast, 61 per cent of young men

¹ An increase of 6 per cent over a period of eight years.

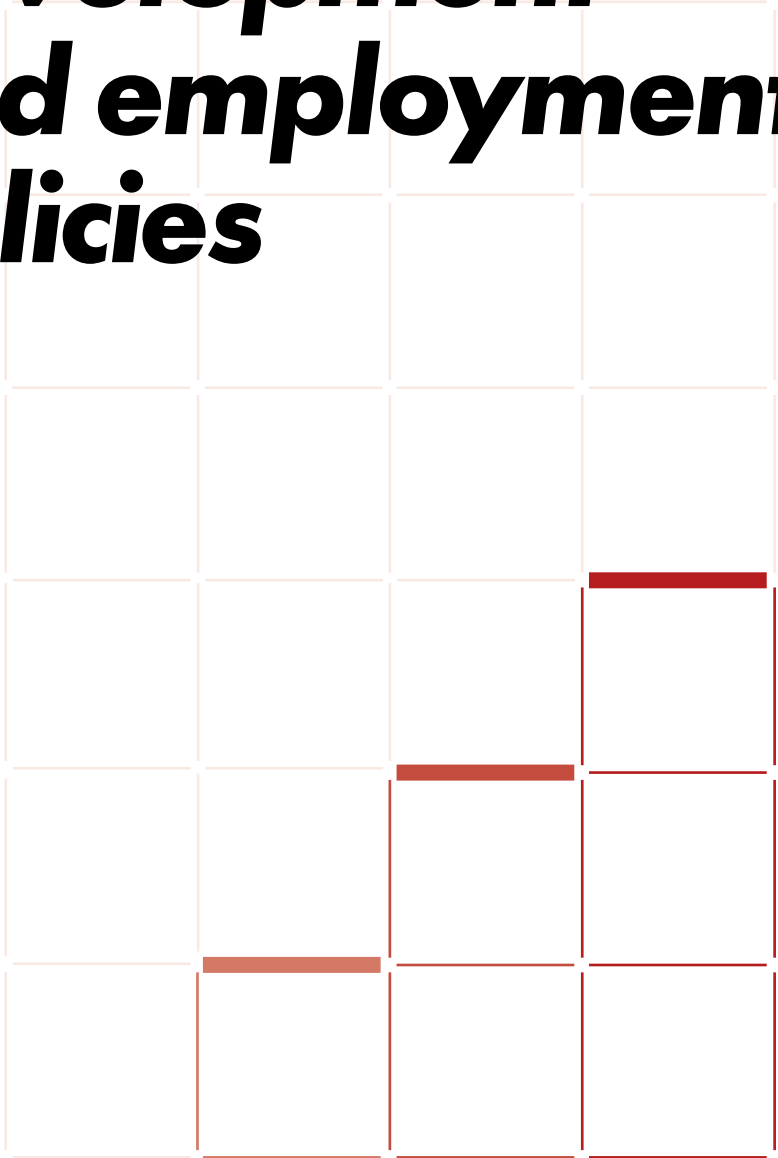
and 72 per cent of young women with advanced education are without employment.² Despite this, 31 per cent of Tunisian companies surveyed by the ILO in 2015 stated that lack of qualified labour is the main constraint to filling longstanding vacancies, especially in the industrial sector (ILO, 2015). This indicates a mismatch between the skills required by industry and those being provided by education.

People with little education, especially in rural areas, are often engaged in vulnerable forms of employment.

It is important to bear in mind that the absolute number of unemployed young Tunisians without a university degree is about 3.5 times higher than the total number of unemployed university graduates (World Bank Group, 2014). The fact that people with basic and secondary education are more likely to be employed might be due to their relatively greater need to find employment. These workers are therefore more likely to be found in so-called vulnerable forms of employment, such as own-account work, contributing family work and informal employment. Indeed, while informality affects only 42 per cent of employees with tertiary education, it affects 83 per cent of those with just primary education. Most jobs are concentrated in the northern or central coastal areas. People living in the inland regions and the south are therefore at a double disadvantage. These young men and women are more likely to leave education early, drop out of school, become contributing family workers, or work in the informal economy (Mansuy and Werquin, 2015).

² Elaborations based on 2013 ILOSTAT data.

Development and employment policies



In 2015, the so-called “national dialogue quartet”—comprising the General Labour Union (UGTT), the Union of Industry Commerce and Artisans (UTICA), the Tunisian Human Rights League and the Tunisian Order of Lawyers – won the Nobel Peace Prize for its contribution to social dialogue and a peaceful transition. Two years earlier, the Tunisian Government had signed a new social contract with UGTT and UTICA. The 2013 contract pledged to combine structural reforms with efforts to raise investment in disadvantaged regions and bolster social protection measures. It led to the adoption of a new constitution in early 2014, which states that “All citizens, male and female, shall have the right to decent working conditions and to a fair wage” (article 40).

In early 2016, the Government the reform invited its social partners to participate in the “national dialogue on employment”, which culminated in the issuing of the Tunis Declaration for Employment. The declaration calls on the Government to introduce a development model that can: create decent jobs, especially in inland regions; improve the business and investment climate and further strengthen social dialogue; reform the education and training system, to increase complementarity between different components of the human resource development system; and establish a system at sectoral and regional levels to identify and reap new employment creation opportunities (MFPE et al., 2017).

Subsequently, in July 2016, the Government published its latest five-year development plan (2016–2020). The programme aims to achieve a minimum annual economic growth rate of 4 per cent, marking a return to immediate post-revolution levels. Moreover, it aims to create 400,000 jobs and to reduce unemployment by more than 5 percentage points by 2020. In line with the objectives laid out in the Declaration for Employment, the plan’s main axes are:

- I.** Diversifying and upgrading the economy to create decent jobs at all skills levels;
- II.** Improving the education and training system to increase the employability of its graduates;
- III.** Promoting regional development through decentralization; and
- IV.** Improving natural resource management to ensure environmental protection (MDICI, 2016). The need to safeguard a healthy environment and to tackle climate change also features strongly in the new constitution.

The five-year plan is well regarded by international development partners, and it is expected that Tunisia will benefit from the dividends of strategic reforms adopted within the plan (AfDB, 2018). To achieve its objectives, however, the Government must ensure rigorous implementation of the plan, through the genuine and effective involvement of social partners at all stages of the process. The creation of the Higher Council on Social Dialogue in 2018 provides an additional space to strengthen involvement of social partners in policy-making, including on vocational education and training (VET).



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“The state guarantees the right to free public education at all levels and ensures provisions of the necessary resources to achieve a high quality of education, teaching, and training.”





– Constitution of the Tunisian Republic

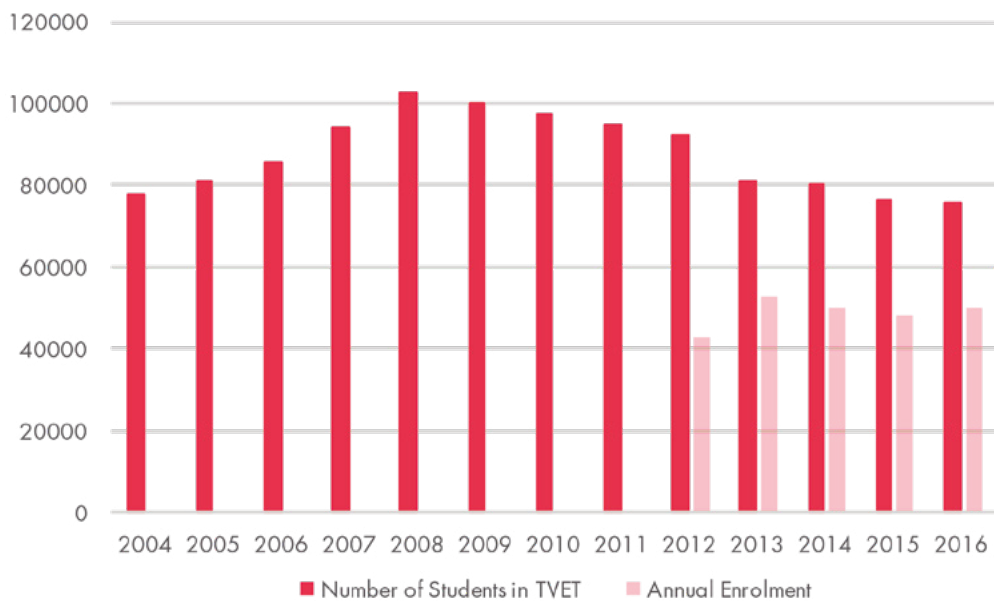
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The Tunisian skills system

Since the 1990s, Tunisia has developed a comparatively strong VET³ system. Between 2004 and 2008, student numbers increased by 33 per cent. In recent years, however, student numbers have steadily decreased. Government data reveal that this is largely due to an increase in early drop-outs, since annual enrolment rates actually increased slightly between 2012 and 2016 (see Figure 1). This implies that demand for VET is stable or, at times, slightly increasing, while satisfaction with the system's quality may have declined.

³ Technical education and training (TET) falls under the authority of the Ministry of Education. This brief focuses on VET.

Figure 1. Number of students in the public VET system (2004–2016) vs. annual enrolment (2012–2016)



Note: Data for annual enrolment rates before 2012 are not available. Data for the years 2009–2011 are interpolated.

Source: Elaborations based on data from the MFPE.

VET reform policies

In 2013, the new Government adopted the National Strategy for Professional Training (2014–2018), and embarked on a series of reforms. The aim of these measures is to adopt a systemic approach to the development of vocational training, so as to make it more responsive to the needs of employers, workers and society, while improving its management. The reforms can be classified into four strategic objectives:

- I.** Improved governance through redefined roles and systematic quality assurance, which is regionally piloted and expanded.
- II.** Increased effectiveness of training through the creation of specialized units that translate foresight data into training policies.
- III.** Better integration of VET into the overall educational system through strengthened social dialogue and functional bridges between different stages of the system.
- IV.** Diversified sources of funding catering to the above needs, and embodying the principle of lifelong learning.

The reforms are also integrated into the 2016–2020 development plan.⁴

⁴ See section II: legal and policy framework.

Governance

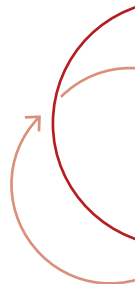
The VET system falls under the supervision of the Ministry of Vocational Training and Employment (MFPE), which operates through four public agencies:

- I.** The Tunisian Agency for Vocational Training (ATFP) manages 136 VET centres. It operates across 13 economic sectors and trains more than 80 per cent of all trainees in initial vocational training.⁵
- II.** The National Centre for Instructor Training and Training Methodology (CENAFFIF) oversees curricula development and trains instructors.
- III.** The National Centre for Lifelong Learning and Professional Development (CNFCPP) offers continuous vocational training to individuals and companies.
- IV.** The National Agency for Employment and Self-Employment (ANETI) is the public employment service responsible for labour market intermediation and active labour market programmes.

The governance system is centralized at the national ministerial level. This is an uneasy arrangement, given Tunisia's substantial regional disparities. To address this issue, the new constitution, the strategic

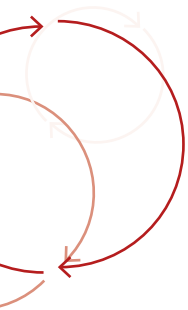
⁵ Some other Ministries also have specialized training institutions (e.g. Tourism, Agriculture, Defense and Health), as does the private sector.

development plan and the 2014–2018 VET reforms have placed regionalization at the core of their reform efforts. Recent initiatives to develop VET governance at regional level can broadly be classified into two areas: (a) MFPE initiatives to gradually hand down VET responsibilities, such as regional project development, monitoring and evaluation and tracer studies; and (b) regional pilots designed in cooperation with development partners to develop and test approaches to regionalization. While these measures are important, a gap remains between the reforms as laid out in official documents and those actually implemented. Strong regional and/ or sectoral employers' and workers' organizations could support implementation of regionalization strategies, but in Tunisia such organizations are either absent or lack the financial and human resources to participate actively in regional social dialogue and shape decision-making.



Social dialogue

Before 2013, VET governance was characterized by relatively weak involvement of social partners. Although these were represented in bodies and commissions, partnerships often excluded trade unions, and membership was limited to a few professional federations with the necessary human and financial resources. After the social contract was signed, social partners played a stronger role in policy formulation, and representation of trade unions was strengthened. These improvements have, however, not yet translated into comprehensive changes in organizational structures or decisionmaking power. Regular and genuine social dialogue is present at national level, but it tends to be sector dependent. For example social dialogue is active in the electricity, mechanics, construction and tourism sectors (ETF, 2014). Elsewhere, representatives of employers' and workers' organizations often remain outnumbered by ministerial representatives. Moreover, many coordination bodies and committees play only a consultative role. At regional level, committees continue to have only a limited influence, because social partners often lack the capacity to engage fully in consultative or decision-making bodies (MFPE et al., 2017).

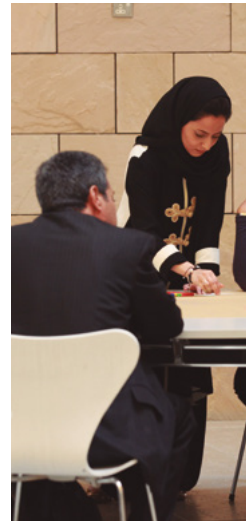


Financing

The VET system is mainly funded by public expenditure through the MFPE, whose budget is shared between active labour market programmes and VET. Most of the latter is channelled into the ATFP's training centres (MFPE, 2011–2018). Funding may also come from international donors, through the Ministry of Development and International Cooperation (MDICI). In addition, a tax on vocational training (TFP) is levied on all companies that paid more than 1,000 dinars (TND) in TFP in the previous year. TFP revenue feeds into the Vocational Training and Learning Promotion Fund (FPFPA), which can be accessed by companies either through a tax credit or a “drawing right”. While these financing instruments are mainly intended to cover continuous vocational training, they can also be used to finance on-the-job training as part of apprenticeships or alternation⁶ programmes. In fact, 60 per cent of the funds accessed through the tax credit and the drawing right are used by companies to offer apprenticeships or alternation training (ILO, 2017a). Due to the splitting of the MFPE's budget between VET and active labour market programmes, VET receives only about 10 per cent⁷ of public expenditure for education. Some 80 per cent of the available funds are used to cover operating expenses,

⁶ Alternance is a form of work-based learning, where the work-based component is smaller than or equal to the school-based component. This contrasts with an apprenticeship, where the work-based component outweighs the school-based component.

⁷ This number is hard to estimate accurately because individual household contributions and the budgets of the ministries mentioned in footnote 5 are unavailable.



including staff costs, leaving limited resources for equipment or other investments. More importantly, training centre budgets are rarely linked to student numbers, leading to an unequal allocation of resources and over or understaffing in many centres. Central management further impedes the effective redeployment of teachers between training centres. Finally, since most VET funding comes from central government,⁸ the sustainability of the system may be at risk (Aggarwal and Gasskov, 2013).

Since 2010, the MFPE has developed a strategic management tool to improve the allocation of funds and introduce results-based management. It is designed to govern the relationship between the MFPE and its agencies. However, this tool has yet to be used in practice. Moreover, since it only addresses the relationship between the MFPE and its four agencies, it cannot improve the governance relationships between national and regional levels, especially between the ATFP and its training centres (MFPE et al., 2017).



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⁸ Public expenditure ranged from 550 million TND to 850 million TND between 2011 and 2018. The TFP raises around 150 million TND per year.

Skills anticipation

In recent decades, Tunisia has developed a variety of tools to anticipate future skills demands. However, there is no single, comprehensive system for analysing skills needs and monitoring and evaluating the system. Lack of coordination between different actors, insufficient involvement of the social partners, and an absence of clear-cut responsibilities characterize the system. This is partially because responsibility for VET was transferred to the Ministry of Education (MOE) in 2002, and only returned to the MFPE in 2010. As a result, until recently the MFPE's statistical office, the National Observatory of Employment and Qualifications (ONEQ) played a weak role in skills anticipation.

As part of the 2014–2018 VET reform, a project for the establishment of an “integrated system of monitoring, foresight and identification of skills needs” was entrusted to ONEQ. Since 2010, foresight studies have also been conducted at regional level under the guidance of steering committees involving professional federations, and at sectoral level involving the Ministry of Trade and Industry. However, no systemic approach has yet been developed (MFPE et al., 2017). Rapid changes in the economic context, lack of reliable information, cumbersome investigations and inadequate representativeness among the companies surveyed are obstacles that have inhibited systematic periodic skills anticipation (ILO, 2017b).

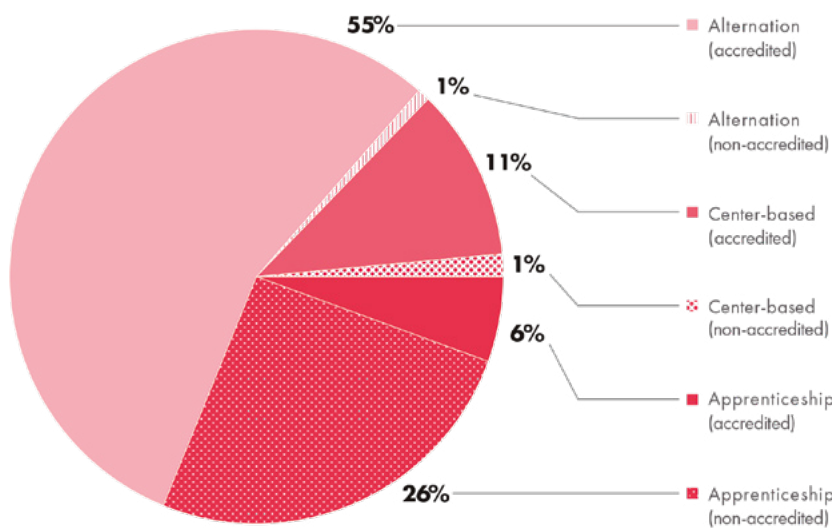


Skills development

The Tunisian VET system comprises initial and continuous vocational training. The public sector dominates VET provision, accounting for 89 per cent of all VET diplomas in initial vocational training.

While the MFPE has a mandate to control the quality of education and training offered by the private sector, in practice little information is available. The majority of private sector training is offered in the form of continuous training and occurs in the services sector. Of 1,025 private entities offering training, only 180 deliver state accredited initial training (ONEQ, 2018).

Figure 2. Training modalities in Tunisia's public VET system (accredited and non-accredited).



Source: Elaborations based on 2016 MFPE data.



(© ILO)

Improving delivery and assessment of training

Initial vocational training is largely delivered through work-based learning, which accounts for a significant share of overall public VET. In 2016, 89 per cent of learners benefited from training within a company. Most work-based learning is implemented through alternation or apprenticeships, with the former representing around 57 per cent and the latter some 32 per cent of all vocational training places (see Figure 2). Private training centres are only allowed to offer centre-based training. However, numbers of enrolled students declined in recent years, falling by 8.7 per cent between 2012 and 2016. As indicated in Figure 1, this is probably due to an increasing drop-out rate, rather than to a fall in demand, suggesting growing dissatisfaction with the system's quality. Almost two-thirds of students in VET drop out (ONEQ, 2018). Past reforms promoted a competency-based approach to learning that was rarely transferred into actual curricula. Moreover, the lack of tripartite sectoral bodies is likely to translate into inadequate tailoring of training content to sectoral needs. In addition, companies continue to play only a limited role in supervision and assessment, and workplace visits by training centre staff are not taking place at the required frequency (ILO, 2016). Accredited certificates at upper secondary and postsecondary level are accessible to learners who have completed at least nine years of schooling. A second group of certificates, so-called “non-accredited” certificates, are accessible to early school drop outs.

Learners in non-accredited degree courses complete fewer hours of complementary training in public VET centres. The vast majority of nonaccredited certificates are awarded to apprentices (see dotted areas in Figure 2). Learners who graduate with a non-accredited certificate will not have the opportunity to further their education in an accredited institution, because transitions between accredited and non-accredited tiers are disallowed. The ILO estimates that this certification gap affects roughly 26,000 young people annually (2017c).

There is a strong tradition of informal apprenticeships in Tunisia.⁹ In 2013, a study found that around 60 per cent of the apprentices surveyed in Tunis, Kef and Gafsa were informal apprentices (MDGIF et al., 2013).¹⁰ This magnifies the transition problem described above, resulting in several knock-on effects. Informal apprentices are less likely to have an apprenticeship contract, and they receive lower wages. They are more commonly female, and from rural areas.

⁹ Almost 90 per cent of apprenticeship masters acquired their competencies through informal apprenticeships.

¹⁰ The study considers those as informal apprentices who report that they will not receive any (accredited or non-accredited) certificate at the end of their training. It further considers those who do not receive any additional training in VET centres (FO) as informal apprentices.

Skills recognition and quality assurance

Currently, learning outcomes are often assessed by the person who provides the training. Moreover, training centres certify skills of workers acquired non-formally. Since learning outcomes are not always assessed by a third party independently, there is a risk of uneven quality across training institutions and trainers.

To overcome this limitation, the MFPE, in cooperation with development partners, launched a standardization project in 2014. The initiative defined training standards and corresponding reference frameworks, together with a national system for the certification of training achievements, and a mechanism for recognizing prior learning. Implementation of the above-mentioned tools and processes was planned for 2017 onwards (MFPE et al., 2017).

The establishment of a national qualification framework (NQF) has been part of Tunisia's reform efforts since 2008. It links the certificates issued by the various institutions involved in training and education to corresponding qualifications levels. The Higher Council of Human Resource Development was then charged with its implementation through a commission that brought together different ministries¹¹ and social partners. After being dissolved and reassembled in 2011, the commission only sat once, in November 2012. It has a limited role, with a focus on registering existing qualifications, as opposed to developing new ones (Allais, 2017).

¹¹ MFPE, MOE and Ministries of Tourism, Agriculture, Defence and Health.

Social inclusion

VET is widely perceived as an unattractive option, compared with academic qualifications. Indeed, many students join a VET programme involuntarily, because they have been redirected towards the system after a failure in general education, rather than as a result of a deliberate choice, facilitated by vocational guidance.



Assessing skills development

The Government has implemented a number of initiatives to increase the attractiveness of VET. It provides small scholarships to students from low-income households enrolled in VET for occupations that have skills shortages. Efforts have also been made to strengthen social inclusion. Disabled people benefit from 600 rehabilitation and vocational training workshops offered by 295 education institutions. In 2014, 5,500 individuals were registered on these courses. In addition, efforts have been made to bridge the country's regional divide. Fourteen training centres are dedicated to young rural women; these are spread across 13 governorates and have a total capacity of 1,200 places. This system has recorded significant achievements since the 1990s. Lately, however, centres have faced difficulties due to lack of equipment and accessibility, as well as transport problems.

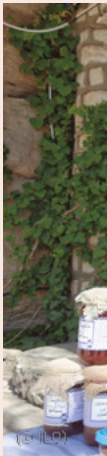


Supporting transitions to the labour market

Since 2011, the Government has increasingly tried to alleviate persistent unemployment, particularly among youth and women, through active labour market programmes (ALMPS), which are implemented by Tunisia's public employment service ANETI. ILO research, conducted to support the Government's increased efforts and covering the past 30 decades of Tunisian ALMPS (2015), revealed that in the past, most ALMPs did not comprehensively address the main obstacles to employment. These included the insufficient generation of quality employment, low quality of training and acquired skills, and low mobility of the working population. While most programmes focused on the development of short-term and entrepreneurial skills, few of their graduates actually went on to launch businesses. New programmes are trying to address these challenges.

Lifelong learning

Lifelong learning and continuous vocational training is provided through CNFCPP, and mostly takes the form of non-formal learning. CNFCPP centres provide individual degree courses through seven Institutes of Higher Labour Promotion. According to CNFCPP's statistics, roughly 9,000 people were enrolled in professional development courses in 2016. Almost 80 per cent of these were registered for distance courses, and about two-thirds were pursuing higher education. In addition, around 40,000 workers benefited from continuous training financed by some 2,000 employers. Another 2,000 companies made use of their drawing right and trained almost 20,000 employees (ONEQ, 2018). Continuous training is concentrated in the northeastern and north-western regions, in each of which 34 per cent of all continuous training opportunities were offered. The central west region follows, with 21 per cent of training opportunities (ILO, 2017a).



**“After four years
without a job,
I’ve finally been
able to start a
paid activity.”**

Sabrine Ben Hnia, 26,
employee of the Kesra Association
for the Production of Fig Jam



Key challenges

1 **Fragmented anticipation of skills demand.**

Positive steps have also been taken to strengthen the key areas of VET, such as training provision and skills anticipation. Recently, ONEQ has become the agency responsible for establishing an “integrated system of monitoring foresight and anticipation”. Successful implementation of this system will require effective cooperation between ONEQ and partners at regional and sectoral levels.

2 **Weak coordination between VET centres and enterprises.**

The Government has also successfully strengthened workbased learning in initial VET. However, challenges remain. The coordination systems between VET centres and enterprises are relatively weak. This is likely to be one of the causes of the uneven quality of training and contributes to the current high drop-out rate among VET students. Many apprentices are trapped in non-accredited training, and do not benefit from complementary classroom-based instruction. Pathways from VET to other parts of the human resource development system are not fully developed. The outreach of VET to rural areas is still weak. Taken together, these factors are likely to reinforce the widespread perception of VET as an unattractive option.

“After graduating,
I was able to get my first
professional experience
thanks to the installation
of an irrigation system in
my home village of Kesra.”

Wided Bougrine, 28,
hydraulics engineer in Kesra

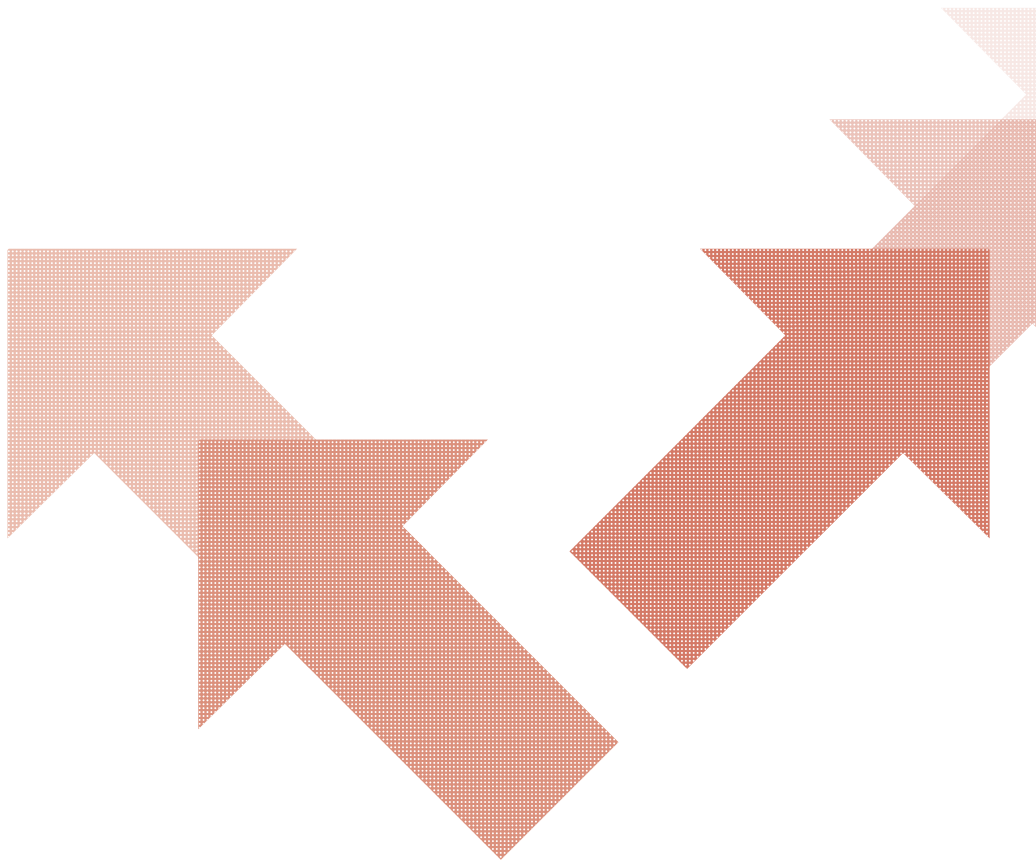



3 Centralization of VET management.

The Government has made significant efforts to strengthen the financial sustainability of the national VET system. Currently, most VET funding is provided by the state. The reform package includes mechanisms to incentivize employers to invest in VET, and to implement solutions for a more effective allocation of available funds. Yet challenges to sustainability remain; these include the centralization of VET management structures, and limited use of results-based management practices to connect regional VET centres to the MFPE's agencies. The Government has made considerable efforts to strengthen the VET system in the country, illustrating its commitment to improving young people's opportunities in the labour market. However, more work is required to address the widespread skills mismatch affecting that market, which ultimately constitutes an obstacle to economic growth. Companies, especially in the industrial sector, generally express a need for qualified personnel at the medium and highly skilled levels, stating that a lack of qualified labour is their number one obstacle to expanding production (ILO, 2015). Youth unemployment rates are almost three times higher than the global average of 13 per cent, and are especially high among skilled and highly skilled youth. Most importantly, by failing to provide opportunities for a successful transition to the labour market and career progression, the current VET system is a missed opportunity to overcome labour market inequalities and social marginalization.



The way forward






To achieve its mission and ambitious reform objectives of establishing a VET system that is truly tripartite, demand led, inclusive, and founded on the principle of lifelong learning, the Government must ensure that skills development is fully integrated into national, sectoral and local development and investment plans. The ILO has demonstrated through pilot approaches in Tunisia how local investments can create local jobs, if coupled with relevant and high-quality skills development. It currently supports the country in developing an employment policy that integrates recommendations on the VET system.



1 Supporting the development of an integrated and localized system of skills anticipation.

To anticipate which skills the labour market will need in the future requires the adoption of simple and cost-effective qualitative and quantitative analytical tools at sectoral and regional levels. Moreover, there must be a sensible division of labour between ONEQ, other VET institutions (such as CENAFFIF) and sectoral employers' organizations, some of which have played active roles in the past in identifying skills needs. Building the capacity of the players involved, and improving coordination between them, can ensure a smoother flow of information and better targeted solutions at both local and regional levels. The ILO has developed a range of such tools, and has analysed skills needs in two sectors, through the Skills for Trade and Economic Diversification methodology. Moreover, the ILO supports local development fora in identifying skills needs and job opportunities, particularly for disadvantaged groups.



2 Increasing the financial autonomy of the VET system and improving the effective allocation of available funds.

Regionalization through the consequent involvement of regional employers' and workers' organizations may further incentivize employers to invest in VET. Reviewing budget allocations, introducing budgets that are linked to student numbers, and applying existing performance-based management tools at regional and local levels could make the allocation of resources more efficient. In 2017, at the request of the MFPE, the ILO conducted a review of financing mechanisms for continuous training.

3 Enhancing the quality and quantity of VET and work-based learning.

Stronger linkages need to be developed between training institutions and enterprises in order to make VET more relevant, and a driver of economic growth. More dual programmes (apprenticeship and alternation) should be developed at higher levels, which at the same time would help to improve the image of VET. To increase capacity, other providers besides public VET centres could become accredited providers of dual training programmes. Quality assurance, training of trainers and workplace supervisors, and company training plans are all crucial to reduce dropout rates. The ILO promotes quality apprenticeships globally, and supports selected regions in Tunisia to strengthen the apprenticeship system, including through pilot interventions.





4 Strengthening inclusion through expanded access to accredited apprenticeships, training and qualifications.

The introduction of a competence certificate has broadened the options for young people who have not completed lower secondary education, as they can now gain access to accredited training programmes. Nevertheless, most apprenticeships remain non-accredited, and many apprentices do not benefit from complementary centre-based training. Recently, the MFPE has established an apprenticeship committee to rethink a national strategy aimed at addressing institutional and regulatory gaps, ensuring that these programmes are of high quality, offer value to learners, and that there are transition pathways to accredited courses. The introduction of tailored courses leading to accredited (partial) qualifications also broadens access to disadvantaged groups, such as rural women.

The ILO has conducted studies on social inclusion and apprenticeships in VET, and is working with social partners and training providers to improve the latter. Strengthening Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL), co-certification systems supported by the social partners, and aligning them with the new Jobs and Skills Classification prepared by ANETI, will reinforce lifelong learning.

5 Providing career guidance and delivering core employability skills.

To enhance the attractiveness of VET, it is important that learners are directed to the system through a deliberate choice, facilitated by a more effective career guidance system, which includes vocational guidance as part of school curricula. In addition, core employability skills are strengthened if entrepreneurial education and active learning methodologies are mainstreamed throughout general education and VET. Employment services also play a key role in providing career guidance and counselling, to enable better career choices and more effective school-to-work transitions for young women and men. The ILO has worked with ANETI on strengthening employment service delivery through improved counselling capacity, job search support and training in soft/core employability skills.



6 Strengthening genuine social dialogue.

To fully integrate the VET reforms into wider development strategies, the Government must ensure the genuine involvement of social partners in consultative and decision-making processes at all levels. Employers' and workers' organizations have a key role to play in implementing reforms, by encouraging their members to strengthen work-based learning. This requires capacity building, to enable the social partners to contribute to social dialogue and the implementation of reforms at all levels. The ILO has supported national level social dialogue in Tunisia for many years, leading to the signing of the Social Contract in 2013, and the creation of the Higher Council on Social Dialogue in 2018.

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