Career guidance in the Mediterranean region

Comparative Analyses
EDUCATION AND TRAINING FOR EMPLOYMENT (ETE) IS AN EU FUNDED INITIATIVE IMPLEMENTED BY THE EUROPEAN TRAINING FOUNDATION (ETF). ITS OBJECTIVE IS TO SUPPORT THE MEDA PARTNERS IN THE DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF RELEVANT TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING (TVET) POLICIES THAT CAN CONTRIBUTE TO THE PROMOTION OF EMPLOYMENT THROUGH A REGIONAL APPROACH.

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Comparative Analyses
Career guidance in the Mediterranean region

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European Training Foundation
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A great deal of additional information on the European Union is available on the Internet. It can be accessed through the Europa server (http://www.europa.eu).

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Education and training have been identified as one of the key instruments for the promotion of social stability and economic prosperity in the Mediterranean region\(^1\) in a number of policy documents and bilateral cooperation programmes under the so-called Barcelona Process.

Among other measures to support this process, a special regional MEDA programme – Education and Training for Employment (MEDA-ETE) – was launched by the European Commission (EuropeAid Cooperation Office), and is being implemented by the European Training Foundation (ETF) between 2005 and 2008. This project aims to support 10 Mediterranean Partners – Algeria, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Syria, Tunisia, Turkey, and the West Bank and Gaza Strip – in the design of relevant education and training policies that can contribute to promote employment through a regional approach.

When the MEDA-ETE project was designed, many of the 10 Mediterranean Partners expressed the interest and need to better understand the career guidance services in the region and to identify existing good policies and practices both in and outside the European Union.

As a result, in 2006, a specific component of the project was dedicated to career guidance in the Mediterranean region. It has generated a number of outputs, such as country and cross-country analyses of career guidance policies as well as the establishment of a regional network of policy-makers in career guidance, supported by a virtual community/discussion forum on guidance.

The analysis was built upon previous experience with career guidance reviews of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the European Commission (Directorate-General for Education and Culture), Cedefop, ETF and the World Bank, and developed further the research methodology by paying particular attention to the socio-economic and cultural context of the Mediterranean region and its impact and limitations on career guidance services. It was based on the assumption that career guidance is not only important for individuals, but also can contribute to a number of public-policy goals in education and training, in the labour market and in social cohesion and equity. It further took into account the paradigm shift in career guidance that is emerging in the EU and OECD countries, from ‘choosing a career’ to ‘constructing a career’, from ‘psychological testing’ to ‘tasting the world of work’, and from ‘external expert support’ to ‘career self-management skills’.

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\(^1\) In the context of this publication, the term ‘Mediterranean’ refers to the 10 Mediterranean Partners – Algeria, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Syria, Tunisia, Turkey, and the West Bank and Gaza Strip – that are part of the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership.
Therefore, the underlying definition of career guidance used in the analysis was the same as adopted by EU Ministers of Education in 2004 (EU Council Resolution on Lifelong Guidance): ‘services to assist individuals and groups of any age, at any point throughout their lives, to make educational, training and occupational choices and to manage their careers.’

Special thanks to Carmela Doriana Monteleone and Jens Johansen (ETF) for preparing and advising on the statistical tables. The cross-country report is based on 10 country reports and profiles (see Annex B) prepared by the following local experts: Abdul Majid Abdul Ghani (Lebanon), Khayri Abushowayb (West Bank and Gaza Strip), Fusun Akkök (Turkey), Aboubakr Badawi (Egypt), Benny A. Benjamin (Israel), Abdassalem Bouaich (Morocco), Améziane Djenkal (Algeria), Issa Maldaoun (Syria), Nader Mryyan (Jordan), and Saïd Ben Sedrine (Tunisia). The report takes into account developments reported by the 10 countries and territories up to the end of 2006.

Both the analysis and the network of career guidance policy-makers covered the whole region. By early 2007 the work had already stimulated interesting follow-up initiatives, for example in Egypt, Jordan and Morocco.

We believe that this cross-country report will allow both policy-makers and practitioners to further develop national career guidance systems and structures, as well as to better relate and benchmark their activities within the international context, based on a shared vision within the Mediterranean region and with the European Union.

The ETF will actively seek opportunities for further support to Mediterranean Partners on the topic of career guidance, both at institutional level and by creating synergies with other donor activities. Meanwhile the current virtual community on career guidance, hosted by the ETF, will continue to assist in networking between Mediterranean Partners to ensure the exchange of expertise and views.

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1. SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONTEXT

1.1 Introduction

The Mediterranean Partners are: Algeria, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Syria, Tunisia, Turkey, and West Bank and Gaza Strip (WBGS). It is an area in which there has in recent years been considerable political turbulence and conflict, with potential implications across the globe. It is accordingly an area in which many other countries have an interest in supporting moves designed to encourage stability and prosperity through economic and social development.

The MEDA Education and Training for Employment (MEDA-ETE) project is part of the European Union’s contribution to such support. It is linked to the Barcelona Process, launched at a meeting of the Euro-Mediterranean Conference of Ministers of Foreign Affairs held at Barcelona in 1995. This established a broad framework of political, economic and social relations between the EU Member States and partner countries in the Southern Mediterranean. The specific aim of the project is to increase employment in the region by improving the quality of education and training, through exchanges of good practices and other forms of cooperation. It started in 2005, and within its current terms of reference will end in 2010. It has a number of components, one of which is concerned with comparative analysis. The present report is one of these analyses, the other analyses covering ‘e-learning for teacher and trainer training’ and ‘apprenticeship schemes’ in the Mediterranean region.

For the present report, use was made of a survey instrument developed in a series of reviews of career guidance policies and practices conducted by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2004), the European Commission (Sultana, 2003; 2004a) and the World Bank (Watts and Fretwell, 2004). These covered 37 countries; the key conclusions were summarised in a ‘mega-synthesis’ (Watts and Sultana, 2004). Subsequently, an adapted version of the survey instrument was used in a review conducted by the ETF in the Western Balkans (the report of which will be published in 2007).

1.2 Need for contextual specificity

The contextual specificity of the Mediterranean Partners needs to be examined in some depth here, particularly given the dangers associated with an adapted research instrument that had initially been developed for use in countries with very different economic and socio-cultural characteristics. The danger in this study is that the categories organising the collection and analysis of data used in the earlier reviews are applied indiscriminately to Mediterranean Partners. To some extent the application of such categories is unavoidable, in the interests of conceptual clarity and international coherence, and in this respect we later present some detailed definitions of career
guidance and related concepts (see Section 2.2). But it is important that distinctive issues relevant to the Mediterranean Partners do not as a result become submerged, or inadequately or inappropriately articulated. There is also a danger that they may be presented in a way that promotes a regional diagnosis of supposed ‘deficits’, failing to take into account underpinning normative approaches to knowledge, behaviour and being, some of which may clash with what, from the ‘Western’ perspective, are ‘mainstream’ points of view. The danger is even more pronounced when, as in this case, the researchers were both closely involved in the earlier studies, and their perceptions are likely to have been strongly influenced by this. Moreover, the limited funding did not permit study visits by the researchers to the countries as part of the study.

On the other hand, both researchers have considerable experience of carrying out research in low- and middle-income countries. The second researcher (Watts) was joint-author of the World Bank review which focused on such countries (Watts and Fretwell, 2004), and has analysed the impact of economic, political and socio-cultural factors on career guidance provision internationally (Watts, 1996). The first researcher (Sultana) has been involved in several projects and studies in Arab states, and has written a number of comparative reports on educational issues in the Mediterranean region (e.g. Guri-Rosenblit and Sultana, 1999; Sultana, 2001; Akkari, Gurtner and Sultana, 2001; Sultana, 2002; Sabour and Sultana, 2003). Both researchers provided critical feedback to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) when it prepared a career guidance handbook focusing on the specific needs of low- and middle-income countries (Hansen, 2006).

The OECD survey instrument was accordingly modified on the basis of these experiences, thus improving its relevance to the Mediterranean region. In this effort, the researchers benefited from the long experience of ETF staff in implementing projects in the region. In addition, special care was taken to consult the national experts participating in the survey at its inception, as well as throughout the different stages of the project, to make sure that local realities, processes and dynamics were adequately captured. In particular, the local experts were strongly encouraged to identify the economic and socio-cultural issues that might have relevance for understanding the career guidance field in the region, and a specific item was included in the survey instrument for this purpose.

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2 A key issue here is the constant debate in Arab societies, and in Islam more generally, regarding the relationship there should be with Western science. The so-called Islamisation of knowledge refers to the attempt to establish a mode of social organisation in which knowledge and learning stand in harmony with Islamic epistemology and world view (Euben, 2003). As such, one strand of contemporary Arab thinking suggests that the engagement with European culture and science should be undertaken from within Islamic epistemology, calling for a reconciliation of Islamic revelation with scientific reason through innovative interpretative approaches, or tajdid (see Mazawi, 2006).

3 Study visits were included in the OECD and World Bank reviews as well as in the ETF review in the Western Balkans, and in our view add immeasurably to the quality of such studies. In the present study, the visits were restricted to one by the second researcher (Watts) and the ETF career guidance policy expert and project manager (Helmut Zelloth) to Egypt, and a second one by the project manager and an external expert (Chris Evans) to Jordan, chiefly to gain insights that might enrich the study as a whole.

4 The sequencing of the authors of this report is alphabetical. We take equal responsibility for the report.
A focus on contextual specificity also involves, in the case of career guidance, careful attention to vocabulary, and how Western concepts have been translated, adopted, adapted and/or reformulated in (in particular) Arabic, signalling continuities and ruptures with notions of guidance as perceived and articulated in European, North American and similar contexts. Language is a key to concepts and perceptions, and great care was paid in this study to be as sensitive as possible to nuances of meaning that might be encapsulated in the vocabulary used. In this, as in many other aspects of the study, the help of the local experts and of the network of guidance policy-makers from around the region was invaluable.

1.3 Mediterranean region

The Mediterranean Partners are said to constitute a ‘region’. This could be interpreted as suggesting that, over and above geographical proximity, there are other elements that make the states and territories of this region similar and comparable to one another. The extent to which this is the case here is, however, questionable. Israel, for example, differs greatly from neighbouring countries in the structure of its economy and labour market, its education indices, its capacity for research and development, its political affiliations, and its connectedness with world markets.

Eight of the 10 countries may be referred to as ‘Arab’ states (Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Tunisia, Syria) and territories (WBGS). From certain perspectives, they form a discrete bloc in the region. Among their key unifying factors are the Arabic language, the history of the Islamic Empire, the Muslim religion and (often but not always and not to the same extent) economic underdevelopment. In addition to this, there is what can be referred to as the ‘transnational political force of Islam’ (Buzan, 1991); this ‘effectively challenges secular European nationalism which dominates an area that was Islamic for well over a millennium’ (Calleya, 1997, p. 95).

However, most of these countries have been too preoccupied with distinct domestic or subregional security and economic issues to attempt nurturing a strong network of relations with all the other Arab states in the region. Indeed, centrifugal forces have often superseded centripetal forces, despite the attempts at cooperation between Arab states in areas such as security and energy (Arab League; Gulf Cooperation Council; Arab Maghreb Union) as well as education (Arab League Educational Cultural and Scientific Organization; Islamic Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). The majority of states in the Maghreb, for example, see their future in securing market access to Western Europe rather more than in having strong economic ties with the other Arab states.

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5 This is evident in the statistical summary table (Annex A), where Israel differs markedly from the other Mediterranean Partners in its per capita gross national income, in its female labour-force activity rate, and in its participation rate in education.

6 For an extended discussion of the difficulties facing cooperation efforts between Arab states, and intra-regional fragmentation, see the various contributions to Hudson (1998).
Furthermore, distinct colonial and post-colonial experiences have left different traditions and models implanted in the different Arab states. This affects many aspects of state administration and institutions, including education. In the field of career guidance, for example, it is clear that while Egypt and Jordan – to mention only two countries – tend to have been influenced by Anglo-Saxon approaches to guidance, Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia and to a lesser extent Lebanon have been rather more influenced by French models as well as French-Canadian ones. These and other differences within and between Arab states should alert us to the dangers of essentialising ‘the’ Arab: that is, of imputing a unity of essence that is non-empirical and even ‘orientalist’ in nature.

It is also important to keep in mind that whereas Turkey shares some of the realities of the Arab states in the region – due partly to the fact that most Arab states were part of the Ottoman Empire and absorbed from it many cultural influences, and partly to the fact that the majority of Turkey’s population are Muslim – it is a secular state, with its own specificities. One is that of all the countries involved in the study, it is the only candidate for membership of the European Union. This means that it has been more subject to direct EU policy influence (see Section 1.5).

### 1.4 Economic and labour-market issues

Several aspects of the economy and of the labour market in Mediterranean countries have implications for the field of career guidance: for how it is conceptualised, for the ways in which it is practised, and for the limitations within which it has to operate. Among the most important of these characteristics are the issues of rural poverty, the preponderance of public-sector employment, the extent of the informal sector, the issue of ‘moonlighting’, the dominance of small and medium-sized enterprises, the limited role of public employment services, demographic trends, migrant labour, and political restrictions. Each of these is considered briefly below.

#### Rural poverty

The economy of several of the countries in the region – such as Morocco, Syria and Turkey – is marked by a heavy reliance on agriculture, with sizeable percentages of the population living in rural regions. This raises important questions regarding the value of

7 Such influences tend to be sustained by the cultural and economic contacts that countries maintain with their previous colonialists, via aid and assistance programmes that facilitate the transfer of expertise.

8 Edward Said (2003) used this term in his landmark book *Orientalism*, where he argues that Westerners tend to think in terms of a collective identity when they speak of Muslims. They thus give the impression that religion, as the common denominator, is the binding element that makes Muslims worldwide the same. This does not take into account other factors that make Muslims different, such as languages, cultures and histories. A danger relating to ‘essentialism’ is ‘exoticisation’ of the ‘other’, i.e. viewing differences in ways that render them superficially appealing, without acknowledging that these so-called ‘differences’ represent an imposition of taken-for-granted categories.

9 Bouaich (2006, p. 7) notes, for example, that 48% of Moroccans live in rural areas, and that over 80% of the active population in these areas work in the agricultural sector. Other countries in the region are however marked by strong urbanisation. Tunisia is a case in point: Sedrine (2006, p. 10) notes that the rate of urbanisation there has risen from 40% in 1966 to 65% in 2004, with the agricultural sector down to 16% from 28% in 1984.
career guidance to poor, rural communities, where access to education is still limited (especially for girls)\(^\text{10}\), and where the range of occupations available to ‘choose’ from may be effectively restricted to agriculture and related jobs, transmitted largely through families. People living close to or below the poverty line, whose very understanding of the notion of ‘choice’ and ‘aspiration’ is blocked by the harsh realities of survival, may not see much use or value at all in ‘career guidance’. In addition, such contexts are far removed from a key assumption underpinning career guidance: that work is not just about the daily toil that is the bane of humanity, but rather that it is a path to self-development and self-fulfilment\(^\text{11}\). As such, the construction of one’s identity around a ‘career project’ – which is at the basis of mainstream understandings of career guidance – may very well be an alien and irrelevant concept for a large proportion of rural people living in poverty worldwide, including those in the Mediterranean region.

**Public sector**

Most of the Mediterranean Partners have little if any unemployment protection. In such countries, with a social welfare structure that depends largely on family support and charity rather than on state redistribution of resources, economic precariousness is a common experience. This renders employment in the public sector – both in administration and state-owned enterprises – very attractive for such non-wage reasons as job security and social protection\(^\text{12}\). Bardak (2005), drawing on ILO statistics (2003), notes that the share of public-sector employment ranges from more than 30% in Tunisia and Egypt, 50% in Jordan, to close to 60% in Algeria\(^\text{13}\). The share of ‘civilian government employment’ worldwide is on average 11% of total employment, but in the Mediterranean region as a whole it goes up to 17.5%.

\(^{10}\) In this regard, Bardak (2005) points out that only one in ten rural women in Morocco can read and write. Referring to a World Bank (2002) study, Bardak also notes that a large proportion of school dropouts in the region include children from rural and poor families. These are likely to join informal labour markets during times of economic hardship. Poverty has a dramatic effect on access to education. In Egypt, for example, the basic-school enrolment rate for children in the top quintile of households in terms of wealth remains above 80%, while enrolments in the poorest one-fifth of households are around 50%. It is estimated that about 1.3 million children in the basic-education (primary and preparatory) age group are not enrolled in school (ETF/World Bank, 2006). For a vivid account of the state of schooling in remote, rural areas of Egypt, see Zaalouk (2004).

\(^{11}\) The notion that work is fulfilling only appeared fairly late in history. In many belief systems, work is a bane, toil that has to be endured in order to survive, possibly even a punishment for the sin of pride – as in the Judaeo-Christian tradition. Contrary notions flourished with some interpretations of Marxism, but also more recently with the notion that a knowledge economy would create knowledge-rich jobs that prove to be fulfilling for one and all – or, at any rate, for most. In Islam, every kind of work, even if it is deemed to be unimportant or unglamorous by others, can become an act of worship (Shaheer, 2005); this mirrors the Christian notion that *laborare est orare* (to work is to pray).

\(^{12}\) This is the case even in countries such as Morocco, where labour laws make it very difficult for private-sector employers to lay off workers (Bouaich, 2006, p. 11), or Algeria, where the adoption of free-market policies has been eroding the status of the public sector as a safe haven (Djenkal, 2006, p. 4).

\(^{13}\) It is proving difficult to reduce some of these figures. Bardak et al. (2007, p. 14) note that ‘despite reforms aiming at downsizing [the public sector], the evidence would indicate that the share of the labour force employed in the public sector may have increased in some countries in the last decade; this is largely because private sector stagnation has placed governments in the position of being employers of last resort’. 
The predilection for jobs in the public sector limits the relevance of career guidance for the citizen (although, as shown in Section 2.3, it also makes aspects of career guidance services appealing for policy-makers intent on encouraging entrepreneurship and employment in the private sector).

**Informal sector**

In most Arab societies, the labour market has a very strong and important informal sector, in which many find primary or secondary employment. The informal sector is commonly defined to cover unregistered or unincorporated enterprises below a certain size (usually five employees or less), including individuals who may employ family members or others on an occasional basis; it excludes agricultural activities (Bardak et al., 2007). By definition, its extent is difficult to determine, but is estimated to be very high in the Mediterranean region, and expanding (ETF/World Bank, 2006). Bardak (2005) refers to ILO estimates which suggest that informal-sector employment as a percentage of non-agricultural employment accounts for 35% to 50% in most of the Mediterranean countries, including 30% of non-agricultural employment in Algeria, 40% in Egypt, 63% in Morocco, and 35% in Tunisia. Djenkal (2006, p. 4) notes that Algerian youths have little option but to switch to jobs in the informal sector, given the lack of jobs in the formal economy.

This sector – which includes occupations in traditional arts and crafts, auto-mechanical repairs, street vending, and so on – is not highly regulated or formalised, with few if any job descriptions, qualification requirements, or occupational structures. Many of the jobs are low-skilled or even unskilled, with proficiency being acquired on the job, through informal apprenticeship with more experienced youths and adults, or by trial and error. This has important implications for career guidance, as such work tends not to feature in formal career education programmes, even though, for many students, it represents their most realistic and likely future. At the same time, the heterogeneity of the sector needs to be recognised: whereas the ‘low end’, subsistence sector is characterised by low productivity, obsolete technologies and low incomes, the ‘high end’ includes small businesses capable, particularly with support, of expanding their markets (Bardak, 2005).

**‘Moonlighting’**

The preponderant role of the informal sector also has implications for another common feature of labour markets in the Mediterranean region. This is the practice of combining a day and an evening job, which can be very different from one another. Workers often feel the need to supplement their regular wage with another income, obtained through part-time jobs performed ‘after hours’ and at weekends. This has implications for career guidance: in such contexts, it is not uncommon for people to approach career choice in complex and strategic ways, choosing a regular day job that provides them with a steady income (often in the public sector), but which also leaves them with enough spare time and energy to hold down a second job (whether in the formal or informal sector). This second

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14 Again, however, there are differences in this respect. Mryyan (2006), for example, notes that in Jordan the male labour force prefers to be employed in the private sector, because it offers higher pay and a more modern professional environment.

15 There is some dispute about the overlapping terms ‘informal sector’, ‘informal economy’ and ‘informal employment’. There appears to be no firm international consensus about the use or definition of these terms. We have adopted here the term and definition used in other recent ETF reports.
employment may provide more occupational satisfaction than the first one. Such considerations may need to be taken into account when developing career guidance systems and practices that are sensitive to the Mediterranean Partners’ context.

**Small and medium-sized enterprises**

Much – indeed most – of the economic activity in Mediterranean countries is carried out within the contexts of small and medium-sized enterprises. A lot of these are family-owned micro-enterprises employing less than 10 workers, most of whom may be members of the family. Young family members are commonly expected to commit themselves to the family business. The scope of career guidance in such situations is greatly restricted, as the notion of ‘choice’ is effectively circumscribed and foreclosed by family needs and expectations. On the other hand, these family-owned small businesses often require members to display entrepreneurship – a skill which can also be the target of career education and career development programmes.

**Public employment services**

Within the Mediterranean region, only Algeria, Israel and Turkey have unemployment insurance for eligible citizens who end up without a job. Accordingly, the unemployed may have little if any incentive to go to the public employment services (PES), except where, as in Morocco, the mediation with the labour market has been strengthened through the introduction of a range of services that supports client access to the labour market. In many instances across the region, however, this is still not the case. In Egypt, for example, PES perform primarily a ‘rubber-stamping’ function once people have obtained a job, for tax-registration purposes. As has been noted, many jobs are to be found in the informal sector, and vacancies there are by definition not advertised or registered by the PES; this further reduces the relevance of PES for the unemployed. It also follows that, in such situations, career guidance services are unlikely to be given much priority in PES: as shown in Section 3.5, our evidence indicates that this is the case – with the exception of Tunisia and Morocco, where each PES office now offers some guidance services, often linked to self-employment schemes, and with stress laid on personal action planning (Sedrine, 2006, pp. 15-16; Samir Ajaram, personal communication). As with most of the other countries, however, Morocco and Tunisia do not provide unemployment benefits. The lack of a benefit-policing role could enable public employment services to focus in a more concentrated way on service delivery, avoiding the conflicts between the two roles that are common in such services within the EU (Sultana and Watts, 2005; 2006).

**Demographic trends**

Demographic patterns in Arab states also have important implications for career guidance. In contrast to trends in Europe, the Mediterranean Partners have a high birth rate and a high proportion of youths in the population. In 2001 the number of children per woman in most of the Mediterranean countries was between 1.8 and 3.6, while for Palestinians in WBGS it stood at 5.9 (Eurostat, 2002). According to UNESCO (2005)

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16 Abdul Ghani (2006), for example, reports that 97% of enterprises in Lebanon are micro or small enterprises.

17 Bardak (2005) notes that, according to ILO estimates, the average official unemployment rate in the region is around 15%. Annex A indicates that it ranges from 10.3% in Turkey to 26.7% in WBGS.
statistics for the period 2000-05, the average annual population growth rate was between 1.1% (Tunisia) and 3.6% (WBGS). As a result, the region includes the largest proportion of young people in the world, with more than half of the population under the age of 25, and almost 38% under the age of 14 (UNDP, 2002)\textsuperscript{18}. Annex A indicates that the proportion of the population aged 15-24 varies from 16.1% in Israel to 22.9% in Syria.

**Migrant labour**

A common reaction to such a situation has been the exporting of labour to neighbouring countries, as well as to Europe and North America. The north-bound flow of migrant labour over the past three decades (Liauzu, 1996) has mitigated the problem of unemployment, is a significant source of national income\textsuperscript{19}, and has occasionally had a positive boomerang effect in terms of scientific and technology transfer\textsuperscript{20}. It nevertheless represents a haemorrhage that further exacerbates the weak economic position of the south (Sabour, 1993). Many Arab labourers in the Near East have also tended to find employment in the Gulf States. In the United Arab Emirates, for example, one can find many expatriate workers from Egypt, Lebanon, Jordan and WBGS, even if the majority of guest workers there are Asian in origin. Palestinians have been employed in the building and construction trades in Israel over the past few years, thus gaining access to better salaries than could be obtained in WBGS. This raises at least two issues for career guidance services. One is the extent to which they should give attention to study and work opportunities abroad\textsuperscript{21}. In Syria, for example, about one-third of young people in transition are willing to migrate, given the opportunity to do so (Maldoun, 2006, p. 4). The other is whether specific programmes should be developed to facilitate the reintegration of migrants into their countries of origin, through self-employment, reinsertion into the labour market, and micro-enterprise projects: the International Organization for Migration has developed some programmes of these kinds (Al Khouri, 2003).

\textsuperscript{18} The ILO has estimated that the labour force in the Arab region will increase by more than 3% per year between 2000 and 2015. According to World Bank figures, the labour force of the region totalled some 104 million workers in 2000, and this figure is expected to reach 146 million by 2010 and 185 million by 2020. Given this expansion, the economies of the region will need to create some 80 million new jobs in the next two decades (World Bank, 2004).

\textsuperscript{19} Badawi (2006) notes that in Egypt income from citizens working in other countries represents the second-largest source of foreign currency for the country. Globally, annual remittance flows to developing countries are considerably higher than total official development aid (Ozden and Schiff, 2005).

\textsuperscript{20} In this regard, Meyer and Brown (1999) have argued that the new phenomenon of networked scientific communities (e.g. the Tunisian Scientific Consortium) has the potential of transforming the ‘brain drain’ into a ‘brain gain’, with knowledge transfer being facilitated not only by the ‘return’ option, but also by the ‘diaspora’ option. Abdul Ghani (2006) notes that many Lebanese living abroad visit the country regularly and invest in projects within Lebanon, creating what is called the ‘image economy’.

\textsuperscript{21} In Tunisia, for example, the public employment services played an important role in the 1960s in providing guidance for those wanting to emigrate to and work in Europe (Sedrine, 2006, p. 15). Within the European Union, a network of Euroguidance centres has been established to encourage mobility by providing information on learning and work opportunities in other Member States. A Euroguidance centre was established in Turkey in 2005 as part of the candidacy process for its accession to the EU.
**Political restrictions**

Political friction as well as rising unemployment has however led to the drying up of some of these opportunities. In Israel and Jordan, to different degrees, new regulatory frameworks have been introduced in relation to the employment of expatriates, effectively removing or narrowing opportunities for such groups. In WBGS, the West Bank is under military occupation and the Gaza Strip is closed and under siege, which makes any kind of mobility very difficult (Abushowayb, 2006). Lebanon, for its part, has closed off opportunities for employment to Palestinians in 60 occupations (FIDH, 2003). Such restrictions in geographical and occupational mobility naturally have dramatic implications for any notion of ‘choice’, and can limit the scope and even the relevance of career guidance.

Political turbulence can also affect the scope for career guidance services in other ways. In Lebanon, for example, the civil war, political instability and the recent war with Israel have all caused economic stagnation and halted all development activities (Abdul Ghani, 2006). In Israel, the sustained period of violence has reduced foreign investments, and the recent conflict with Lebanon has resulted in the collapse of small businesses and loss of jobs. At the same time, the Israeli employment service has been given responsibility for the labour integration of the evacuees from the Gaza Strip, many of whom are experiencing extreme life-style changes and trauma (Benjamin, 2006).

### 1.5 Socio-cultural issues

In this section we highlight some of the more relevant issues relating to the socio-cultural environment in the region – focusing specifically on family influences, gender, patronage, directiveness, fatalism and language – and the relevance these may have to career guidance. While the countries in the region have diverse ethnic and faith groups, the primary focus in this section is on the most populous ethnic group (Arab) and faith (Islam), although many of the points made have broader application and relevance beyond this focus.

**Family influences**

In Arab states, the family plays a very important part in the orientation of young people towards specific occupations. The notion of the ‘family’ in many Arab societies commonly differs from that in Western contexts. The family is often an extended one, more akin to the notion of ‘clan’, around which several aspects of social relations come together. Clans demarcate and regulate several boundaries, including potential partners for marriage and business alliances. They frequently determine political allegiances and are an important source of influence in the community. They are also the main form of economic and social support: the cohesive system of social responsibility under which members of families support one another in hard times is one of the reasons why absolute poverty is the lowest among all the developing regions of the world (Bardak, 2005).

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22 It should be noted, however, that other forms of family formation coexist with the dominant model described here, with an increasing trend towards nuclear-type families in urbanised areas. In such families, there is likely to be stronger voluntary cooperation between children and their parents in the making of decisions and choices, in contrast to relationships that are more strongly bounded by authority and obedience in the more rural areas.
The converse of this is that families have an influence on what occupations are pursued by members of that family or clan. Indeed, the Western notion of ‘individual career guidance’ might be seen as inappropriate and/or irrelevant by some groups, since traditional notions of respect towards elders often induce young people to follow pathways decided for them by parents, older siblings, close relatives and leaders of the ‘clan’. On the other hand, there is evidence in Syria that young men are more likely to find parental involvement intrusive or irrelevant than are young women (Maldoun, 2006, p. 3). In Egypt, Badawi (2006, p. 7) notes that family preference may represent an extra factor in selecting careers but usually does not limit the young person’s freedom to choose: young people often see family influence not as requiring blind obedience but as deserving respect; and it is quite common to see parents agreeing with their sons and daughters after some exchange of views. The strength of the impact of parental influence on young people is probably related to the socio-economic status of the family, to gender dynamics within the family, and to cultural differences between more or less conservative families. There therefore remains scope for career guidance, but there may be strong pressures, and a strong rationale, for involving the family actively in any career guidance interventions.

Arab families tend to be large when compared with European ones. There is some evidence that the presence of a large number of children has an impact on the aspirations that parents have for their offspring. In some cultures, more effort is invested in helping the elder children – and especially the eldest male – to obtain access to the labour market. It is not uncommon, for example, for Palestinian parents to do their utmost to ensure that at least one of their children – normally the eldest – becomes a doctor or engineer (Sultana, 2004b). Such a dream is shared by many other parents in the Mediterranean region, who consider these two professions as the ‘royal road’ to well-being (Djenkal, 2006, p. 3).

**Gender**

While the impact of gender stereotyping on occupational choice is an issue that needs to be considered in most countries internationally, it has particular resonance in Arab states, where traditional gender roles are very important, and often legitimised not just by tradition but by particular – and sometimes contested (Belhachmi, 1999) – interpretations of religious dogma as well. Occupations are highly gender-typified, and it is often considered unseemly and even shameful for a person to transgress gender roles when exploring career futures, or for women to work in a predominantly male environment (Djenkal, 2006, p. 4). The dilemma for career guidance here is that, given the importance of the family, practitioners have to involve parents in the process of ‘choice’; but in doing so they may have simultaneously to combat the prejudices that parents bring with them and which limit aspirations, particularly for girls, whose futures tend to be narrowly tied to the roles of wife, mother, and carer of elderly relatives, including in-laws. There may however be variations in this respect: Badawi (2006) reports that in Egypt gender sensitivity is an important issue for educated people in urban areas, if not for other groups.

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23 Bardak (2005) notes that limited access of women to waged employment is an important feature in the region, and that the contribution of women to economic or productive life still tends to be marginal. Women make up 49% of the population; in some of the Mediterranean countries, as many as 63% of university students are female. However, on average, only about 25% of the labour force are women. Annex A shows that the female labour-force activity rate in the Arab countries ranges from 40% in Syria to 11% in WBGS (in Israel it is 59%). This clearly indicates that despite impressive progress achieved in women’s access to education, low female participation in the workforce is an obstacle to capturing a large part of the return on this investment.
**Patronage**

The role of the family in Arab societies includes the exercise of influence, patronage and clientalism – features that are typical of Mediterranean societies and have been explored by several scholars (e.g. Boissevain, 1974). The standing of a particular family or clan in a community determines its wasata (influence), is a major source of what Bourdieu would call ‘social capital’\(^\text{24}\), and can play a major part in providing access to opportunities for employment, particularly in the public sector. Informal networks of influence take precedence over impersonal and formalised recruitment procedures, to the detriment of developing a meritocratic society\(^\text{25}\). This is particularly the case given the democratic deficits in many of the states in the Mediterranean region, as a result of which the balance of power is often maintained through coalitions within and between clans, and between political and religious groupings, so that being a member of the right clan, political party or religious denomination can have important repercussions on one’s occupational chances, and on much else besides. This can severely restrict the scope for career guidance. Badawi (2006, pp. 6-7) notes that ‘family and friends’ is the most reliable channel to the scarce employment opportunities in Egypt. Whom you know is much more important than what you are able to do. Accordingly, many young people do not show much interest in enhancing their ability to choose because they believe that their career chances depend entirely upon their family connections.

**Directiveness**

It is not only the family that is likely to have a directive approach to career orientation. The state too has, in many parts of the Mediterranean region, tended to adopt an approach to the economy that is both centralist and command-driven. Several countries in the region have developed a succession of medium-term plans for their economies, projecting the labour requirements to implement these plans, and exerting strong policy influence to direct young people into these tracks\(^\text{26}\). As Sedrine (2006, p. 14) notes, guidance has tended to be used as a planning tool, with official circulars setting quotas for each pathway, which the schools are obliged to respect\(^\text{27}\). Within a context where state leadership is marked by a series of democratic deficits, forceful signals by the

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24 Social capital may be defined as ‘the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition’ (see Kadushin, 2004).

25 As Al-Qudsi (2003) notes, in deeply fragmented and fractured Arab societies, ascriptive cleavages are still powerful determinants of social mobility. Social networks can be faith-based. Parents may send their children to Koranic schools, for example, partly in the hope that the network of social relations that develops around these schools facilitates employment opportunities for their offspring (Akkari, 2004). As Easton (1999) notes, one of the functions of Koranic schools is to facilitate economic and social promotion, given the close connection between relational networks of Koranic schools and traditional commercial networks of the region. Koranic school graduates are better able to find work or to find an apprenticeship with traditional businesses and in the informal commercial sector.

26 The same trend has been reported for the ex-Eastern bloc countries, where a command economy stunted the development of career guidance, given that individual aspirations had to take second place to what was considered by the policy-makers to be the common good (see Watts, 1998; ETF, 2000; Sultana, 2003).

27 Sedrine (2006, p. 14) makes the distinction between previous models of guidance in Tunisia, which he refers to as ‘guidance by diktat’ (orientation contrainte), and the more recent models marked by dialogue.
policy-makers regarding which occupations young people and adults should aim for can pre-empt notions of ‘choice’ as this is normally understood in career guidance in mainstream ‘Western’ interpretations.

Directiveness is also more broadly embedded in the culture of many Mediterranean Partners. According to Bardak (2005, p. 8): ‘some researchers argue that the curricula taught in Arab countries seem to encourage submission, obedience, subordination and compliance, rather than free critical thinking. [...] This is further strengthened by authoritarian and over-protective parenthood as [the] common style of child rearing within [the] Arab family.’ Such orientations are changing, both in the public and private sphere, and indeed examples abound in the region of curricular reform and attitudinal changes which suggest a more liberal orientation that privileges individual autonomy and decision-making. In countries and areas where this transition is still in its early stages, it is likely that the concept of choice and the scope for formal career guidance services will be restricted, as also will be the expectations of, and the styles and methods adopted by, such formal career guidance services as may exist. In countries with a strong respect for authority, it is likely that individuals will expect any such guidance to be directive in nature. It has been noted in Latin America, for example, that students tend to expect their counsellors to tell them exactly what to do, and may judge the counsellor to be incompetent if this does not happen. Extensive emphasis on psychometric testing can fit well into this tradition (Espin, 1979).

**Fatalism**

Linked to family socialisation and its impact on career orientations is a deeply embedded life orientation that has been identified in many Mediterranean societies, based on fatalism. One important distinction made by attribution theory researchers refers to the difference between individuals and communities in attributing success or failure in life, as well as achievement more generally, to external or internal factors. Mediterranean subjects who have been involved in this field of research have tended to exhibit a greater degree of ‘external attribution’ than other subjects from Northern European countries, i.e. they have tended to attribute success and failure to such external factors as luck, God, destiny and so on. It could also be said that Islam – which means ‘submission to God’s will’ – reinforces and gives a religious dimension to notions of quasi-fatalistic acceptance of personal destinies defined by others²⁸. For ultra-orthodox (Haredi) Jews, too,

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²⁸ This point is made by Shaher (2005). Drawing on Sharf (2002), he underlines the fact that the career guidance field has started to explore the ways clients integrate their theological beliefs with their views of career decision-making. As Shaher notes, underpinning Islam is the notion of Al-Qadar or ‘divine preordainment’ which, among others, ‘signals the belief that Allah has written in the Book of Decrees everything that will come to pass until the Day of Resurrection, and the belief in the irresistible will and perfect power of Allah, so that what He wills happens and what He does not will does not happen’. Such notions of ‘predestination’ are not alien to some strands of Christian tradition, but have, according to Weber’s classic work (Weber, 1930), motivated entrepreneurship and capital accumulation rather than resignation to one’s fate. Capital accumulation appeased anxiety about one’s status in the afterlife, being a material sign that a person has been blessed by God and preordained for salvation. Interestingly, a recent study entitled *Islamic Calvinists* suggests that aspects of Islam have been interpreted in a not dissimilar way in parts of Turkey (ESI, 2005). It should be pointed out, however, that there is much theological debate around the notion of predestination in all of the three monotheistic beliefs in the region, with some strands emphasising that God’s omniscience does not exclude humanity from making choices and being responsible for them.
self-actualisation is attainable only by religious study, so cannot be viewed as an overt goal of career choice (Benjamin, 2006). These deeply embedded life orientations have important implications for career guidance, inasmuch as the latter is predicated on the notion that individuals are largely in control of their own destinies, and that the future is subject to rational planning rather than to forces over which they have little if any control.

Language

Significantly, perhaps, there is no single Arabic word that comprehensively reflects the word ‘career’ or the term ‘career guidance’. As Badawi (2006) points out, the words ‘counselling’ and ‘guidance’ are easily translated into *irshad* and *tawjeeh* respectively, but ‘career’ is more problematic. Some dictionaries use *masar*, which means ‘passage’; it is derived from the verb *sara*, which means ‘walked’. Other dictionaries use *seerah*, but this tends to describe a record of what has already happened in one’s life (e.g. the personal history of a dignitary who has passed away). An alternative derivative is *maseerat*, which means a passage-way. Badawi suggests *maseerat al hayat* (life passage-way), which could then be readily combined with the other relevant words to form ‘career guidance’ (*al-tawjeeh li maseerat al-hayat*) and ‘career counselling’ (*al-irshad li maseerat al-hayat*). Others consider that this is too long, that it is too broad and does not have a sufficiently work-related meaning, and that perhaps a new word or term needs to be initiated. A number of possibilities have been suggested within the project. This indicates that the concept still has some fluidity within the region.

1.6 Educational issues

The education system in many Arab states is characterised by a number of difficulties that have a direct or indirect impact on the field of career guidance. These include:

- a culture of elitism that prevails among system administrators, teachers and parents alike, where the legacy of historically meritocratic systems aiming at ‘excellence’ for a few has led to a preoccupation with selectivity. Such practices are well known to have a variety of negative repercussions on education, including the ‘cooling out’ of large numbers of disaffected students who, for reasons that are often social in origin, do not initially perform well at school, are accordingly labelled negatively by teachers, and then give up on formal learning. These practices can also lead to increasing differences in quality across education establishments, with the distribution of resources – including guidance services – biased towards the more successful students and institutions;
- curricula and teaching methods that emphasis memorising and rote learning rather than critical thinking, stress coverage rather than mastery, and place an emphasis on ‘knowing that’ and to some extent on ‘knowing how’ rather than on ‘knowing why’ and on competencies generally, including the higher-order skills that have become so critical to competitive survival in the modern global economy;

29 See Sultana (2005), Bardak (2005), ETF/World Bank (2006), and especially the extended discussions in UNDP (2003). Many of the educational reforms in the Mediterranean region attempt to address these challenges, and much headway has been made in some countries, such as in Tunisia (Sultana, 2001; 2005).
pedagogical practices that do not take sufficiently into account the different learning needs and styles of pupils, and do not encourage or facilitate the development of autonomous learning. While some investment has been made in introducing information technology into the curriculum, this has not yet significantly changed teaching and learning methods;

- assessment strategies that are summative in nature, and where the primary purpose seems to be selection and channelling rather than the formative processes of diagnosis, remediation and support;

- centralised administrative structures that are inimical to innovation and to flexible responses to challenges;

- lack of sufficiently trained teaching staff, with weak – and sometimes non-existent – initial and continuing teacher education structures, particularly for the secondary cycle. In addition, teachers have little to encourage them to update their pedagogical practice or to adopt more learner-centred modes of instruction, and are constrained by centralised curricula that inhibit them from responding creatively and professionally when faced with heterogeneous classes. Heads of schools are similarly limited by lack of training and space for autonomy;

- problems with equity, with major imbalances along urban/rural and coastal/interior axes, which manifest themselves through such indicators as learning achievement, repetition of levels, and dropout rates.

In such a context, there is little scope for guidance for those students who are identified as weak by the education system, are ‘cooled out’ of school, and end up in low- and unskilled jobs in the informal sector. In addition, where early selection leaves little possibility of transfer from one pathway to another, the very notion of educational guidance is jeopardised.

The strong segregation and social distance between elites and the common citizen in Arab societies, as well as between religious groupings, is reflected in the difference that can often be found between private and state schools. This is particularly significant in Lebanon, where 47% of school pupils are enrolled in the private sector (Abdul Ghani, 2006). More generally, UNDP (2002) highlights an emerging duality in Arab education systems: an exclusive private education system enjoyed by the minority, and a government education system of lower quality for the majority. Career guidance services are more likely to be found in the private education sector, both at secondary-school level and in higher education (see Section 3.2).

Another aspect of education with implications for career guidance is the massification of the higher education sector in the Mediterranean region30. This has led to a situation where further selection strategies are employed to ensure that only the very

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30 The massification of the higher education sector which, in Europe and the United States had already commenced by the mid 20th century, took off in earnest in the Mediterranean countries from the 1970s onwards. Indeed, it is estimated that more than half of the universities in Arab countries were established after 1970 (Shaw, 1997), with the student enrolment figures increasing fivefold in most countries over the last two decades, and even more in Algeria (increased by 13 times), Morocco (by 16 times), and Jordan (by 20 times). In Turkey, there was a 42% enrolment increase in formal tertiary education between 1983 and 1992, and within one academic year (1992/93) the capacity was increased by another 33% (Simsek, 1999, drawing on Guruz et al., 1994). Between 1994/95 and 1997/98, WBGS saw a 78% increase in the number of its university students (Hashweh and Hashweh, 1999). The first EuroMed Civil Forum (ICM, 1996, p. 162) noted that between 1979 and 1995 the number of university students had multiplied tenfold in almost all the countries of the Southern Mediterranean.
best enter the medicine, science and engineering degree courses, with the vast majority ending up in the humanities, even if that was not their preferred choice. At the same time, technical and vocational education has been developed largely as a low-status alternative to higher education. Much of this is related to cost considerations. As the ETF/World Bank report notes (2006, pp. 21-22): ‘Student dropouts and the tracking of large numbers of students into vocational streams have been achieved in most cases through the administration of exams designed not to measure what students learn but to limit student flows into higher education’\textsuperscript{31}. The rigidity of the status hierarchy means that formal examinations – especially the \textit{tawjihi} (end of high school rite of passage) – determine futures, rather than individual choice or aspirations.

Many Mediterranean Partners have been unable to keep up with the demand for higher education from an increasingly youthful population. One way of managing the situation has been to provide scholarships and aid so that students carry out their studies elsewhere. Target universities have generally been those in Europe and the United States, as well as in other institutions in the region, particularly Egypt and Syria, as well as Iraq\textsuperscript{32}. Given instability in the region, and post-11 September vigilance on travel to Europe and the United States, the most recent trend has been for American and European universities to set up outreach campuses in Arab countries. In both cases, the availability of choice as to where to study creates opportunities for guidance.

A final point worthy of note is the prevalence of military service within the region. This is linked to the recent history of military conflict and the concern for security it has engendered. But it means that schools and universities tend to be more insulated from the labour market than they might otherwise have been, because many of their graduates do not enter this market but instead have assured military employment for a period.

\subsection*{1.7 Conclusion}

This introductory section affirms the importance of addressing contextual specificity in studies of this kind, and examines a number of aspects of the Mediterranean region that seem likely to influence the extent and nature of career guidance provision. These include economic and labour-market issues, such as the extent of rural poverty; the predominance within the labour market of the public sector, the informal sector, and small

\textsuperscript{31} According to the UN (2001), 72.7\% of 1998/99 university graduates in the region majored in the fields of education, arts and business. In contrast, 6\% majored in science subjects, 7.4\% in medicine and 9.8\% in engineering.

\textsuperscript{32} The number of students studying abroad has reached staggering proportions, and was even more striking in the 1970s, before declining economies and strained international relations took their toll (Za’rour, 1988, p. 21). The Jordanian government, for example, estimates that 40,000 students are carrying out their studies overseas, largely due to lack of space in home universities (Nucho, 1998, p. 342); 25,000 go abroad to foreign universities each year (Burke and Al-Waked, 1997). For Egypt, the number is about 10,000 (Burke and Al-Waked, 1997, p. 212). Students from the Maghreb have, in the past, flocked to France where university studies were heavily subsidised. A total of 55,830 students from Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia carried out their higher education studies abroad in 1983, with 78\% of these going to France (Za’rour, 1988, p. 21). Such student mobility can have an enormous toll on human resources development. Gizard (1992) reports, for example, that an estimated 250,000 graduates have emigrated northwards and eastwards from the Maghreb alone in the last 25 years, representing an average of 10,000 graduates per year.
and medium-sized enterprises; the limited role of public employment services; demographic trends, notably the high proportion of young people; the extent of migration; and political factors that restrict access to opportunities. They also include socio-cultural issues, such as the importance of family influences; the impact of gender stereotyping; the influence of patronage; the cultural tendencies towards directiveness and towards fatalism; and linguistic issues, notably the lack of an Arabic equivalent for ‘career’ or ‘career guidance’. Finally, they include educational issues, mainly concerned with rigidity and inequitability within the education system.

These factors together seem likely to have constrained the development of formal career guidance services within the region, as well as influencing the forms that existing services have taken (outlined in Section 3). Many of them also need to be considered in any future development of these services, to ensure that they are embedded in their context and not merely imported from elsewhere.

At the same time, it is important to stress the diversity of the region (exceptions can be found to most of the generalisations made) and the extent to which it is changing. The nature of some of these changes, and their implications for career guidance, are examined in Section 2.
2. DRIVERS FOR CHANGE

2.1 Introduction

As Bardak (2005, p. 2), points out, ‘most countries in the Mediterranean region can be defined as economies in transition’. In particular, they are changing towards open market economies. The aim is to create, within each country, a more efficient public sector and a more dynamic private sector. This is linked to the aim of establishing a Euro-Mediterranean free-trade area by 2010, in the context of the Barcelona Process (see Section 1.1). An important issue is how this transition can be carried out without negative social consequences and with benefit to the entire national community. Reforms to education and training systems are seen as playing a fundamental role (Chakroun, 2003).

The key issue for this report is what role improved career guidance services might play in this respect. This section will accordingly explore this issue in conceptual terms, to provide a base for the review of current provision and the discussion of relevant issues in the later sections of the report. First, we will define career guidance and distinguish it from some related concepts. We will then examine aspects of current reforms in the Mediterranean region which open up the need for enhanced attention to career guidance provision.

2.2 Defining career guidance

For the purposes of the present project, career guidance is defined as an abbreviated way of referring to career information, guidance and counselling services intended to assist individuals, of any age and at any point throughout their lives, to make educational, training and occupational choices and to manage their careers. This is closely in line with the definitions used in the OECD and related studies (see Section 1.1). The scope of the definition of such services is broad.

- They include services provided to those who have not yet entered the labour force, job-seekers, and those who are already employed.
- The services may be based in schools, universities and colleges, public employment services, companies, and the voluntary and private sectors.
- They may be on an individual or group basis.
- They may be face-to-face or at a distance (including web-based services).

More specifically, services may comprise the following:

- career information (in print, ICT-based and other forms): this may include information on educational courses within schools and tertiary education, training courses, and occupations and employers;
- assessment and self-assessment tools: these may include aptitude tests and interests inventories;
• counselling interviews: these are usually conducted on a one-to-one basis;
• group guidance programmes;
• career education programmes: these are within the curriculum and designed to help students to develop their self-awareness, awareness of the world of work, and skills for managing their careers;
• work-experience programmes: these are designed to enable young people to experience the world of work before entering it ‘for real’;
• job-search skills training programmes: these are designed to help individuals to develop their skills in looking for jobs, and in presenting themselves in job applications and selection interviews.

It is important to distinguish career guidance from three related but basically different processes:

• selection: i.e. making decisions about individuals – aptitude tests, for example, may be used for guidance purposes, but are more commonly used for selection purposes;
• promotion: i.e. attempting to persuade individuals to choose particular opportunities at the expense of others – college/company brochures, for example, may be designed primarily for promotional purposes;
• induction: i.e. supporting entrants in managing their transition into a new learning or work environment.

The first two of these processes are primarily designed to serve the interests of ‘opportunity providers’ (education and training institutions, employers). Career guidance, by contrast, is concerned with helping individuals to choose between the full range of available opportunities, in relation to what is likely both to utilise their abilities and also to meet their interests and values, so leading to greater fulfilment and satisfaction. Career guidance programmes can make use of activities and resources designed for promotional purposes, and can help individuals to prepare for selection processes; induction programmes may include some career guidance components (where there are still genuine choices to be made within the new learning/work environment). Career guidance programmes can also incorporate attention to influences upon individuals’ choices from other sources, notably parents: they may indeed include interventions addressed to parents as well as their children. But their fundamental purpose is distinctively addressed to the interests of individuals, within their social context.

Linked to this, there is a distinction within the education and training systems between certain situations:

• situations in which individuals are allocated to particular programmes;
• situations in which they in principle have choices, but these choices tend to be determined by rigid status hierarchies – i.e. a kind of self-imposed allocation operates;
• situations in which there is more genuine choice, but no formal guidance services exist to support such choices: i.e. support for them is left entirely to informal sources;
• situations in which choices exist, and are supported by formal guidance services.

The main focus of this report is on the last two of these.
A further related distinction is between career guidance and placement. Job placement is concerned with matching individuals to specific jobs. Some career guidance services include job placement as part of their activities; some do not. The report is concerned with job-placement services only where they include wider career guidance functions.

2.3 Potential contribution of career guidance to current reforms

**Human capital development**

Bardak (2005) notes that ‘human capital’ is considered a major component in the generation of economic growth. She identifies two major factors as influencing the impact of human capital on growth:

- the quality of the education and training systems and the resultant quality of human capital;
- the allocation of human resources into the labour market.

Career guidance is in principle relevant to both of these.

**Education and training reforms**

Public spending on education and training in the Mediterranean region is high by international standards. The regional average in 2000 was 5.3% of GDP for education alone, compared with 4.3% for upper-middle-income countries globally (ETF/World Bank, 2006, p. 8). As a result of the massive investment in education and training in the region over the last 40-50 years, its performance on such indicators as literacy rates and educational attainment has improved rapidly. But its coverage and attainment levels still lag behind other parts of the developing world, as does its impact on wage levels and labour force productivity (Bardak, 2005, pp. 5-6, 13-14). Expansion has tended to emphasise quantity at the expense of quality, and to have been inadequately related to the needs of the labour market.

This has implications for economic growth within the region. Bardak et al. (2007, pp. 19-20) note that the level of growth has been disappointing, and that such growth as has occurred has been based on gross capital investment and labour force growth rather than on total factor productivity (which represents the efficiency of the investment in human – and physical – capital). As Bardak (2005, p. 14) puts it: ‘The fact that increases in the average years of schooling per person during the past 40 years have been higher than any other region in the world (with the exception of East Asia) while productivity has

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33 It may in addition have a broader relevance. The OECD (2002) suggests that career management skills may play an important role in economic growth. It points out that less than half of earnings variation in OECD countries can be accounted for by educational qualifications and readily measurable skills. It argues that a significant part of the remainder may be explained by people’s ability to build, and to manage, their skills. Included in this are career-planning, job-search and other career-management skills, all of which can be developed by career guidance services. Seen in this perspective, it seems that career guidance services have the potential to contribute significantly to national policies for the development of human capital.
been amongst the lowest in the world, proves that structural imbalances are an obstacle to the formation of human capital.’

In response to this, efforts are being made to improve the quality of education and training systems, and their links with the labour market. Such efforts have received support from a wide variety of international donor organisations, which has varied in its effectiveness (Bardak, 2005, p. 10). Many of these efforts have involved structural reforms, including stronger but also more flexible articulation both within the education and training system and in relation to the labour market. This in turn opens up more scope for individuals to make choices within the system. Arguably, however, it is not enough simply to increase the scope for choices; it is also important, if these reforms are to be effective, to take steps to ensure that support is available to help individuals to make these choices in a well-informed and well-thought-through way. This is where career guidance can play an important role.

A case in point is the steps being made to transform the status of technical and vocational education and training (TVET). In the recent past, the main role of this sector has been as an educational alternative for those who ‘fail’ academically and for those who cannot be accommodated in higher education. It has been of low status and low quality, promoting specialisation in narrowly defined fields, often leading to employment dead-ends. Only a few students in the region have opted voluntarily for TVET as an alternative to general education (ETF/World Bank, 2006, p. 14). Now, however, efforts are being made to reform TVET as an instrument for developing a knowledge-based economy. This requires elevating its quality and status, and encouraging more students to choose it rather than accept it by default (see Section 3.3). It is recognised that this will need to be accompanied by ‘developing links and pathways between general and vocational tracks in a lifelong learning framework’ (ETF/World Bank, 2006, p. 40). Such passerelles are particularly important given the fact that students are increasingly aware of the fact that degree courses do not necessarily facilitate employment, inciting a switch to VET courses which are considered to be closer to the labour market (Djenkal, 2006, p. 3).

At the same time, work has started in a number of Mediterranean countries on developing qualification frameworks designed to relate qualifications in different sectors to one another, developing linkages and pathways with portable credits that allow students to move more flexibly from one sector of education and training to another. This is linked to moving away from detailed job profiles as the basis for TVET to more fluid descriptions

34 Maldaoun (2006, p. 18), for example, comments that ‘the Syrian VET system was designed for a centrally planned economy’ and that ‘it builds on a supply-driven logic in almost complete isolation from labour market needs’. In Jordan, tracer studies found that only 34% of trainees ended up working in the specialist fields they were trained for (ETF/World Bank, 2006, p. 39).

35 An example of this is noted by Akkôk (2006, p. 32), who reports that in Turkey a recent law entitles graduates of vocational and technical schools to continue their education in vocational higher education institutions (two-year courses) without having to sit the university entrance examination so long as they remain in the same field: up to 10% may then have the opportunity to transfer from these two-year courses to university. Vocational and technical secondary education institutions provide career guidance to their students on the higher education programmes they can attend.

36 The proportion of graduates who are unemployed is increasing across the region. Tunisia is a case in point: the figure there rose from 3.8% in 1994 to 10.2% in 2004 (Sedrine, 2006, p. 12).
of competences. This, it is hoped, will let individuals respond more flexibly to the changing needs of the labour market.

All these changes increase the opportunities and indeed requirements for students to make choices. They accordingly enhance the need for career guidance to be available not just on exit from the education and training system, but within this system and as an integral part of it. Such guidance may include the following:

- information on the course choices available;
- information on the longer-term career implications of these choices;
- career education as part of the curriculum, to include exploration of the areas of the labour market to which their competences might be transferable (career education in this sense is a means of broadening the concept of vocational education, which has traditionally been concerned with preparation for entry to a particular occupation or group of occupations);
- career counselling to help to ensure that their personal choices are well-informed and well-thought-through.

The argument for such provision is based on grounds both of efficiency and of social equity. Leaving such choices totally to the natural forces of informal influences is:

- inefficient, because such sources are likely to have access to information only to a limited range of the opportunities available, and this information is often out of date;
- inequitable, because some students have access to much richer networks of support than others.

A specific aspect of efficiency is the risk that opening up choices without providing adequate support will lead to high dropout rates. This point is made by Benjamin (2006, p. 19) in relation to higher education students in Israel:

‘Many higher education students seek to change their majors or even drop out due to inappropriate choices, traceable to a lack of self-awareness of abilities and preferences as well as insufficient career information. These aborted academic tracks carry […] a substantial personal price (feelings of inadequacy, failure, confusion, loss of resources) as well as a societal price (poor matching between individual and professional choice, lowered achievement for those in the “wrong” professions and underachievement for those unable to re-track themselves due to financial or other constraints).’

Enhanced attention to career guidance is also linked to the move towards more active and student-centred forms of learning, based on ‘dialoguing’ with students rather than just lecturing to them (Maldaoun, 2006, p. 15). It is further linked with efforts to encourage more motivated students, with goals that go beyond passing of examinations as ends in themselves37.

37 There is, for example, evidence from studies in Scotland – the country selected as the venue for a study-visit for policy-makers from the Mediterranean region, linked to the study reported here – that students with clear goals tend to perform better in school (Inter-Ed, 2004).
Restructuring of the labour market

In addition to its links with education and training reforms, career guidance can also be linked to restructuring of the labour market. This includes attempts to encourage stronger market mechanisms by reducing the size of the public sector (see Section 1.4). Within the public sector across many parts of the Mediterranean region, hiring decisions are often based on the ranking in the labour market queue, which in turn is linked to level of education rather than relevance of qualifications or competences (Bardak et al., 2007, p. 24). In Syria, for example, in 2003 75% of the active population with a higher education degree were employed in the public sector, and only 20% in the formal private sector (Bardak, 2005, p. 16). Syria, however, is now in transition from a centrally planned to a market economy (Maldaoun, 2006, p. 2). Similar trends are evident elsewhere.

Markets work most effectively when the participants have access to good information. Career guidance can accordingly be seen as a means of making labour markets work. In Tunisia, for example, there is concern with the frictional nature of graduate unemployment, which is partly attributed to the fact that students do not have access to appropriate labour market information (Sedrine, 2006, p. 12). Similar problems exist in Morocco, where plans are being made to launch a national observatory which will ensure that all parties have access to reliable and up-to-date information about what skills are needed in the labour market. Such weaknesses have served as incentives to integrate more guidance elements in education reforms, embedding them in legal instruments and strategy documents (Sedrine, 2006, pp. 17-20). Algeria too is looking towards career guidance to improve the balance between supply and demand (Djenkal, 2006, p. 6). In addition, there is in some countries a clear realisation that elements of career guidance can be helpful in encouraging entrepreneurship. This is the case for Tunisia, for example, where self-employment and entrepreneurial skills are targeted as key outcomes for career guidance services (Sedrine, 2006, p. 12). Similarly, Morocco’s public employment services (ANAPEC) provide support to clients in setting up their own business, and indeed launched a series of initiatives under the umbrella programme ‘Initiatives Emploi’ in 2005, with a view to supporting access to various forms of employment. Many of these initiatives have elements of career guidance embedded in them.

At the same time, moves are being made to reduce the size of the informal sector (see Section 1.4). In Jordan, for example, this includes legislative measures to protect workers (including rights, minimum wages, acceptable hours and conditions of work, social security), to decrease the taxes paid by employers and to foster entrepreneurship (ETF, 2005b, p. 11). Moves are also being made in a number of countries, notably Tunisia, to formalise the apprenticeship arrangements within the informal sector (ETF/World Bank, 2006). Such developments all extend the potential scope for career guidance, which operates more effectively where the labour market is formalised and transparent.
Policy recognition

Mediterranean Partners clearly vary considerably in the extent to which the relevance of career guidance to education/training and labour market reforms is recognised. In several countries, it clearly is currently regarded as being of low priority or outside policy-makers’ field of vision. This is particularly the case, for example, in countries such as Lebanon and WBGS which are currently preoccupied with the more immediate demands of security issues. On the other hand, career guidance is strongly congruent with the ‘future vision for young people’ set out in Syria’s five-year plan for 2006-10 (Maldaoun, 2006, p. 11). In Turkey and Tunisia, references to career guidance within recent national development plans have been more explicit, linked to the growing understanding that such services comprise one of the catalysts that will ensure the balancing and integration of society, the economy, education and the individual (Akkök, 2006, pp. 8-9; Sedrine, 2006, pp. 22, 30). In Algeria, the concern is with using career guidance as an instrument to reduce dropouts, achieve a better balance between supply and demand for skills, and help youths to manage difficult transitions (Djenkal, 2006, pp. 6-8); while Morocco took a hard look at its long-established career guidance services at a major national conference in 2005, committing itself to a thorough reassessment of these services (Bouaich, 2006, p. 15).

As reforms to education/training systems and labour markets of the kinds outlined in this section proceed across the Mediterranean region, there would seem to be a strong case for considering career guidance as an integral part of these reforms.

2.4 Conclusion

This section defines career guidance and distinguishes it from the related concepts of selection, promotion and induction. It then explores the contribution that career guidance might make to current education and training reforms within the Mediterranean region that offer increased scope for students to choose what they are to learn. The case for career guidance provision to support such choices is based on both efficiency and social equity. It is also argued that the need for more formal career guidance can be linked to steps being taken to restructure the labour market, notably by introducing stronger market mechanisms and making the labour market more formalised and transparent. Recognition within the region of the policy significance of career guidance in these respects is uneven, but growing. This provides the backcloth for reviewing in detail the extent and nature of current provision, to which we turn in Section 3.

38 There are parallels here with Maslow’s (1970) hierarchy of needs: that it is only once lower-order needs such as physiological needs and safety have been met that higher-order needs such as self-actualisation can be addressed.
3. CURRENT PROVISION

3.1 Origins

Career guidance services in the Mediterranean region have a long history. It was, for example, in 1944 that the Vocational Guidance Bureau of Hadassah was established in Israel, while the first documentation and guidance centres opened their doors in the major cities of Morocco in 1946. This was followed in the 1950s by a number of developments:

- the establishment in Egypt of a department for vocational guidance within the Productivity and Vocational Training Directorate of the Ministry of Industry, with technical assistance from the International Labour Organisation;
- short courses on career guidance run in Lebanon by a UNESCO office, leading to the introduction of career guidance to the education system by the Ministry of Education;
- the setting up in Jordan of a section for educational counselling within the Ministry of Education;
- the founding in Turkey of a Testing and Research Bureau in the Ministry of National Education, followed by the launching of guidance programmes in two secondary schools in Ankara, and the establishment of Guidance and Research Centres (RAMs) in six cities;
- the training of the first guidance counsellors at the Institute of Psychology of the University of Algiers soon after the country’s independence, with a view to providing support to students and assisting in the selection and recruitment of personnel for industry;
- the establishment of guidance to support the goals set out by the first major reform of Tunisia’s education system in 1958, when school-based guidance was expected to serve as a tool in human resource planning.

Some of these initiatives have survived or evolved; others have been discontinued or replaced. The history of services in several Mediterranean countries has been an uneven one, with some initiatives growing organically, and others proceeding on a ‘stop-start’ basis as situations and policy priorities have fluctuated.

In this section and Section 4, all evidence relating to the Mediterranean Partners, except where stated otherwise, is taken from the 10 country reports prepared for the study (Abdul Ghani, 2006; Abushowayb, 2006; Akkök, 2006; Badawi, 2006; Benjamin, 2006; Bouaich, 2006; Djenkal, 2006; Maldaoun, 2006; Mryyan, 2006; and Sedrine, 2006).
3.2 Schools

In several Mediterranean countries, as in many other middle-income and developing countries across the world (Watts and Fretwell, 2004), such formal career guidance as is provided in schools is carried out by guidance counsellors (under various titles). Their role is usually a wider one, often encompassing personal and social as well as educational guidance; the attention given to longer-term career issues tends to be limited or (in some cases) non-existent. Thus:

- In Algeria, there are almost 1,600 counsellors serving the national education system, with another 400 focusing on the VET sector. In the 1990s, counsellors moved from service provision outside the school to being based within the school.
- In Egypt, the recent introduction of electives in secondary education has led to some training in educational counselling being offered to school social workers; it is estimated that only about 20% of students benefit from such educational counselling.
- In Israel, there are around 4,000 school counsellors. Their focus has been increasingly on personal and social issues, and helping with education transitions.
- In Jordan, there are over 1,300 educational counsellors. Their main role is to provide educational and psychological counselling, but they may also cover career guidance issues in individual interviews with pupils and in intermittent class sessions.
- In Morocco, there are 680 guidance counsellors. Most will have received specialised training in the Centre for Guidance and Planning, which includes courses both in psychological aspects of adolescence and in economic and labour market issues. They are attached to schools, whether urban or rural, in order to provide information and guidance and to evaluate and support student learning needs.
- In Tunisia, most schools have guidance counsellors, but guidance is not strongly integrated within the school system.
- In Turkey, most primary and secondary schools have guidance counsellors; those that do not are serviced by guidance counsellors based in the 170 Guidance and Research Centres (RAMs). In total there are over 11,000 guidance counsellors in the country. More extensive use is made of psychometric tests than in most of the other countries in the region. In practice the guidance counsellors tend to spend much of their time on personal and social counselling of pupils with behavioural or learning difficulties. Current policy debates are however placing more emphasis on their educational and career counselling role for all pupils.
- In WBGS, schools run by the United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) usually have school counsellors (18 in Gaza; 13 in the West Bank). They deal mainly with educational and psychological problems.

Much of the attention of guidance counsellors tends to be on choices within the school. Where they attend to post-school issues, they tend to focus more strongly on higher education and military service than on longer-term career issues.

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39 Akkök (2006, pp. 27, 32) reports that career guidance in schools in Turkey is mainly focused around choosing the maximum of 18 courses that can be listed on the common higher education application form.

40 Benjamin (2006, p. 7) notes that in Israel, given that compulsory army enlistment takes place immediately after grade 12, much attention is given to this transition, with further-off career issues being ‘pushed aside’.
It is common for parents to be closely involved in these activities. In Jordan, educational counsellors meet with parents to explore ways in which they can support their children and help them in relation to education choices and other matters. In Turkey, the public employment services organise some talks with parents’ associations, and processes for encouraging family participation in career guidance programmes more generally have been initiated.

In Algeria, the French system has been adopted of making education decisions about students in a class council (conseil de classe) on which the counsellor is represented (chiefly as advocate on the student’s behalf). This is the case, too, with the other francophone countries in the Maghreb, where the role of guidance staff tends to be largely focused on educational guidance and student evaluation, assisting class councils in their decision-making as students make transitions from one school year to another. While increasing use is made of student portfolios in order to facilitate decision-making about the passage from year to year, in reality the desires of students and parents remain largely unfulfilled, except in the case of the higher-achieving students.

In some cases, support for career guidance is available from services based outside the schools.

- In Turkey, the public employment service (ÝSKUR) organises class/group discussions in some schools. A number of schools are also able to arrange for groups of pupils to visit its career counselling centres (see Section 3.5). Only a minority of schools, however, are supported in this way.
- In WBGS, the career guidance aspects of the school counsellors’ work are supported by two externally based career guidance officers (one in Gaza; one in the West Bank).

Two countries have school career guidance committees.

- In Jordan, career guidance committees have been formed in each of the 35 local education directorates. These encourage each school in their area to set up its own career guidance committee, to comprise the educational counsellor, the vocational education teacher, and parent representatives. Its role is to coordinate lectures from professionals from various sectors and field visits to factories and companies, in order to extend pupils’ knowledge of the world of work. These regional and school committees are not, in general, very effective in practice, and in some cases exist on paper only.
- In WBGS, there are Steering Wheel Committees in both Gaza and the West Bank, which support career guidance activities in the UNRWA schools. In addition, some of these schools have career guidance committees comprising interested teachers. As well as inviting workers in different occupations to answer pupils’ questions, they carry out other activities, such as organising group sessions and preparing wall magazines and other materials.

In Turkey, a potentially important role is played by class guidance teachers. All teachers undertake this duty in addition to their subject teaching responsibilities. The role includes some class guidance activities, in coordination with the guidance counsellor at their school, but the system varies in its effectiveness.
A few countries have introduced career education into the curriculum.

- In Algeria, guidance counsellors make an input in the curriculum at regular times throughout the year, and occasionally organise work orientation visits as well as work experience.
- In Egypt, a ‘practical fields’ curriculum in grades 7-9 in principle includes some attention to the world of work, but it tends in practice to focus mainly on limited practical exercises, and in many schools is not provided at all.
- In Jordan, the vocational education classes provided for all pupils in grades 4-10 is based mainly on workshop practice, and include some introduction to relevant areas of the world of work. In addition, the educational counsellors conduct monthly classes which include some attention to career education.
- In Turkey, the role of the class guidance teachers (see above) includes group activities in weekly guidance hours. Educational/career development and guidance is one of the seven competences that provide a framework for this programme. Teacher handbooks have been introduced to provide a support for these classes in grades 9-11; further resources are being developed. In addition, the technology and design curriculum from grade 4 includes some attention to career fields; and a programme on ‘information and guidance’ has been introduced in grade 9, to provide information on higher education and professions and help pupils in their career choices.
- In WBGS, career education is a minor topic within the civic education curriculum in grade 10.

Other activities include:

- inviting guest speakers to talk about different careers (e.g. Morocco);
- career/job fairs (e.g. Syria);
- higher education and training exhibitions designed to promote awareness of study possibilities both in the country and abroad (e.g. Syria);
- programmes to encourage entrepreneurship and employability skills (e.g. Egypt, Jordan, Syria and Tunisia). These are often supported by private-sector volunteers, through non-governmental organisations (see Section 3.6).

In general, as noted in Section 1.6, career guidance programmes tend to be stronger in some private schools than in government schools. They tend to have smaller class sizes, and more resources at their disposal. In Lebanon, in particular, provision in state schools tends to be informal at best, whereas about 50 private schools have appointed school counsellors or career guidance officers. Some of these have developed sophisticated career guidance and counselling systems, including interviews, tests, career education lessons, and career open days with lectures from local professionals. The International College of Beirut, for example, has developed a website which offers various career resources including self-assessment tools and information on higher education and career paths (students from other schools can access the website on payment of a small fee). Students in grades 10-12 are required each year to use these resources to prepare a career essay relating to their career plans.
3.3 Technical and vocational education and training

To encourage more students from basic schools in Turkey to consider technical and vocational education options, a variety of orientation activities have been developed, including conferences, visits and workshops, as well as posters, pamphlets and audio-visual materials. Technical and vocational education fairs are organised in all cities to showcase teacher and student products demonstrating the advances made in this sector. Similar activities are organised in Algeria and Morocco, where websites clearly setting out the TVET offer have been put online, and information, guidebooks, posters, promotional videos and open days sustain the attempts to attract more students to the VET sector.

In Egypt, students entering vocational schools used to be offered a one-week orientation programme to familiarise themselves with the options available and to make an informed choice between them. This provision is, however, currently ‘frozen’, largely for resource reasons. There are, however, some career guidance elements within particular programmes. In particular, the pilot ‘dual system’ (Mubarak-Kohl initiative), based on the German model of work-based apprenticeships interwoven with periods in vocational schools, has been promoted in various ways including school visits, meetings between employers and parents’ groups, and student visits to factories.

Within vocational schools, career guidance provision tends to be limited. Often the main provision is the informal help which may or may not be offered by individual teachers/trainers. Examples of more formal provision are as follows.

- In Algeria, TVET institutions generally have an information and guidance service, and they also offer two guidance-related modules, one on developing job-search skills and the other on entrepreneurship.
- In Syria, an EU-supported Modernisation of Vocational Education and Training Programme includes plans to introduce career guidance into the pilot VET institutions. This will include guidance and placement services for their graduates, and links with the public employment services.
- In Tunisia, counsellors at the vocational training centres are responsible for matching students’ interests with a roster of employers offering workplaces for apprentices, and for monitoring and supervising their progress – although in practice this tends to be an administrative rather than a career guidance process (ETF/World Bank, 2006, pp. 51-52).
- In Turkey, some services are offered by the public employment service, as in general schools (see Section 3.2).
- In WBGS, each of the UNRWA vocational training centres has a student counsellor who provides career guidance alongside other services.

In Israel, adult vocational training centres have a counsellor available for trainees who are experiencing difficulties in their programme, and to help with developing job-search skills and with finding internships at the end of the programme.
3.4 Universities and colleges

In a number of Mediterranean countries, at least some universities have careers services for their students.

- In Egypt, a number of private universities, including the American University in Cairo, offer job-placement services for their students, as well as guidance services for applicants and newly admitted students. Some other universities and colleges organise job fairs and occupation days, to bring students together with potential employers.

- In Israel, two universities have strongly developed services: at Tel-Aviv University the career guidance service is separate from the student counselling service; at the University of Haifa the two services are integrated. Services are offered not only to students but also to potential students and adults from the community. They include study skills, help with selecting a major, and job-search skills. The Haifa service includes a vacancy-matching website. Some other institutions offer more limited careers services.

- In Jordan, the King Abdullah II Fund for Development in collaboration with the Al-Manar Project at the National Centre for Human Resources Development has established career counselling centres in 20 public and private universities. Many of their staff, however, have come from academic or administrative positions elsewhere in the university, and their capacity is currently limited.

- In Syria, there are plans for a career development centre to be established at Damascus University, to be funded by UNDP and implemented in association with the Syrian Young Entrepreneurs Association. It will offer career planning support and collect and advertise job vacancies. A career planning team is also available at the country’s ‘virtual university’ through which students can obtain degrees from international universities.

- In Turkey, some universities have career planning centres which include job placement. All universities are required by law to offer guidance and psychological services; many also appoint academic staff to act as academic advisers to help students with their course choices. In a few universities, too, student organisations run some careers activities, including liaison with employers. All students can also use the public employment service’s job-placement services, which include special provision for university students.

Israel also has a system of pre-academic preparation, whereby all universities and many community colleges offer a programme to potential students before they are admitted. This is designed in particular to extend access by offering help to potential students who might not otherwise be admitted, especially from disadvantaged groups. The services include help with choice of courses. Some 46 centres country-wide are loosely coordinated and partially funded by a central administrative office.

Elsewhere, career guidance services are limited (to occasional careers fairs, for example) or non-existent. This is linked to the pressure of numbers. Bardak (2005, p. 8) notes that higher education students in the region are commonly faced with ‘overcrowded classes, inadequate libraries, poorly equipped laboratories, low-quality and non-enthusiastic teachers and non-existent student services’. Despite this, however, there is an increasing awareness of the need for career guidance services at this level. Algeria is planning to start a student advisory service, while Tunisia is concerned about the high rates of frictional unemployment due to lack of labour market information for graduates.
addition, in 2005 Tunisia opted to adopt the three-cycle system of higher education (bachelor-master-doctorate) as promoted in the EU’s Bologna Process\(^{41}\). This is leading to more flexibility in choices of pathways at university; consequently the need for guidance is much more pronounced than before, when the system was rigid, inflexible and subject to fixed quotas for specific courses.

### 3.5 Public employment services

As noted in Section 1.4, public employment services are poorly developed in many Mediterranean countries, partly because only three (Algeria, Israel and Turkey) have unemployment insurance schemes, and partly because the services have limited funding and limited credibility with employers\(^{42}\). Not surprisingly, therefore, their career guidance functions tend to be restricted too. The main exceptions are the following.

- In Israel, the National Employment Service includes a National Career Counselling Centre which provides individual and group counselling, psychometric testing, career-change workshops and job-search workshops, as well as being responsible for the production and distribution of occupational information. Its counselling and testing services are provided free to referrals from the local employment services\(^{43}\), and to other citizens on payment of a small fee. It also has 12 occupational information centres across the country.
- In Turkey, steps are being taken to upgrade the career guidance provision of the public employment service (İŞKUR). Draft legislation has been prepared to give a legal status to its career counsellors, distinguishing them from employment counsellors\(^{44}\). Of the 81 employment offices across the country, 29 offer employment and career counselling services (including testing); a further 43 have career information centres offering information on occupations, training and jobs to anyone seeking such information.
- In Tunisia, each public employment service office has a team offering career guidance, where clients are given support in developing a personal action plan, and where focus is placed on active measures, including the promotion of self-employment and entrepreneurship.
- In Morocco, ANAPEC places great importance on offering guidance services to clients. Some of these services are embedded in the range of programmes offered to individuals or special target groups. Other programmes have an even stronger career guidance element, with deeper interview sessions assisting clients in devising personal action plans or ‘life projects’ (as they are termed). Nearly two-thirds (64\%) of the 357 ANAPEC employees play a role as employment advisers: many have received some general training in career guidance, others have followed specialised programmes to work with target client-groups.

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\(^{41}\) On the Bologna Process, see http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/educ/bologna/report06.pdf

\(^{42}\) This point is also made by Bardak (2005, p. 18), who comments that ‘employment services (or labour offices) although present in almost all countries have very limited capacities in terms of staff resources and facilities to provide relevant advice to job seekers’.

\(^{43}\) The employment counsellors are empowered to make unemployment benefits contingent on professional counselling, but this sanction is not implemented in practice.

\(^{44}\) Here too, unemployment benefits can be withdrawn if the beneficiary does not accept career development or other services without providing a valid reason, or does not attend after accepting.
In Israel, career guidance services within the public employment service have recently come under some pressure as a result of stronger emphasis on outcome performance measures for public services, sometimes linked to contestation of services. Such measures include ‘quality job placement’, defined as staying in a job for a specified minimum period (usually three months; sometimes a year). It is difficult to demonstrate short-term job-entry outcomes from career counselling, partly because it often leads to investment in career preparation before entering the labour market. Accordingly, there has been some pressure to focus less on such counselling and more on interventions such as job-search workshops which lead more directly to job placement. If career guidance services are to flourish, performance measures appropriate to their goals need to be developed. There have also been suggestions that it might be cheaper for the public employment service to purchase such services from the private sector than to provide them itself. Plans have called for the drastic reduction of vocational psychologists employed by the National Employment Service at the National Career Counselling Centre by the end of 2006. The very few remaining psychologists employed by the service nationwide are expected to focus their energies on job placement, with longer-term career planning activities no longer being offered. This significant reduction or even elimination of publicly provided career counselling services, along with the closing of the Hadassah Institute (see Section 3.6) has made 2006 a critical transition year for the field in Israel. It is anticipated that some of the service gap will be filled by the private sector, with many other clientele of all ages being left without such a service.

In both Israel and Turkey there are moves towards tiering of services, with some customers being encouraged to use more of a self-service approach, as is common in EU public employment services (Sultana and Watts, 2005; 2006). The development of web-based services (see Section 4.2) has a major contribution to make in this respect. In Israel, a career telephone hotline has been developed sporadically for certain groups (notably single mothers and recent evacuees from Gaza) and there are plans to develop it into a more fully functioning service. Another aspect of tiering is targeting of services to special groups that may need more assistance. In Tunisia, for example, a law passed in 1989 stipulates that people with disabilities have priority of access to public employment services.

Examples of career guidance activities within public employment services in other Mediterranean countries are as follows.

- In Egypt, a career guidance department trains employment counsellors in the employment offices to use tests to guide job-seekers. In addition, career counsellors have been introduced into a number of employment offices through a Canadian-funded project.
- In Jordan, the National Centre for Human Resources Development through the Al-Manar Project provides labour market information and career guidance services.
- In Lebanon, a law has been passed to develop a career guidance department within the National Employment Office, but this has not yet been activated. Five job centres have been established to provide career information services and to broker job applications, but they are still at an early stage of development.
- In Syria, a joint plan of action has been signed with the International Labour Organisation for 2006/07, to develop the national employment offices and extend their employment and career guidance services.
In some cases, employment services are offered to particular groups by other government bodies.

- In Algeria, the Agency for Social Development is responsible for placing graduate unemployed.
- In Israel, the Ministry of Immigrant Absorption has operated six regional guidance centres, which include language training, occupational evaluation and job-placement services. These services are now being outsourced, with fees partially tied to placement rates. In addition, the Israeli Ministry of Defence provides regional career information centres for newly-demobilised soldiers, supported by mini-centres staffed by non-professionals.
- In WBGS, the Ministry for Released Political Prisoners provides guidance and rehabilitation services to enable its target-group to resume their work lives.

### 3.6 Non-governmental organisations

In a number of Mediterranean countries, some non-governmental organisations (NGOs) have been active in the provision of career guidance services. In countries such as Egypt and Lebanon, for example, a range of faith-based and other organisations have offered services including career guidance components, chiefly to young people and disadvantaged groups. Such provision also includes entrepreneurship programmes, some of them addressed to young people (e.g. INJAZ in Jordan and SHAHAB in Syria), and others to women (e.g. in Jordan, Syria and WBGS). In Algeria, several youth and cultural associations can be quite effective in channelling career and labour market information, but much of this takes place informally, and little if any of it is embedded in an activity that can be specifically referred to as career guidance in the way the term is used in this report.

Other significant initiatives by NGOs have included the following.

- In Israel, the pioneering work in offering career guidance services was carried out by the Vocational Guidance Bureau of Hadassah. It was set up initially to support immigrants, subsequently went through a number of changes of name and direction, and has now been discontinued (although many of its services continue to be offered by a large private human resources organisation).
- A more recent major initiative in Israel is the extensive TEVET programme, run as a government-funded and NGO-administered project under the Joint-Israel Agency. This provides employability programmes addressed particularly at high-risk youth, ultra-orthodox Jews, non-Jewish minorities and disabled citizens; towards the end of the (typically) three-year programme, career guidance is to be offered to develop longer-term career plans.
- In Lebanon, the Rafik Al-Hariri Foundation, which provides grants to enable graduates to study abroad for postgraduate degrees, has established a career guidance department staffed by two experienced professional career counsellors. In addition to offering individual and career counselling services to school students and others, it publishes career information, organises an annual week-long career exhibition, and runs training courses in career guidance skills for schoolteachers and others (see Section 4.1).

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45 Although in Egypt, following the events of 11 September 2001, the government has introduced measures attempting to regulate or curb the general activities of faith-based groups.
### 3.7 Employers

Career guidance services offered by employers are very limited in the Mediterranean region. Such services are offered by a few multinational companies operating in the area. In addition, some larger employers in Israel and Turkey in particular offer career guidance as part of outplacement services for discontinued employees, usually purchasing these services from the private sector (see Section 3.8).

The OECD (2004, pp. 66-67) indicated that where governments wished to encourage employers to provide more career development support to their employees, one way they could do so was – in countries that had training levies – by including such provision as allowable expenditure against these levies. Training-levy systems are currently being established in Algeria, Egypt, Jordan and Morocco (ETF, 2005a). So far, however, no steps appear to have been taken to use them for career guidance purposes.

There have also been some interesting developments in a number of EU and OECD countries in trade unions offering career guidance services for their members (OECD, 2004, pp. 67-68; Sultana, 2004a, p. 61). In the Mediterranean region, unionisation rates tend to be low because of the limited industrial base and the prevalence of small companies; such unions as exist are concentrated mainly in public-sector organisations (Bardak et al., 2007, p. 46). Some unions have shown interest in including training in collective-bargaining agreements, but none has so far developed guidance services of its own. In Lebanon, however, the syndicate (professional association) of engineers does provide some career guidance services to its members.

### 3.8 Private sector

The only Mediterranean country in which there is a significant private sector providing career guidance services to individuals is Israel. Fees for individual career counselling or coaching tend to be similar to psychotherapy hourly rates (around US$80 per hour); they are about three times higher than the fees charged by the public employment service to private citizens who are not referred by local employment services (cf. Section 3.5). The growth of the private sector in this as in other fields has also been encouraged by the Israeli government’s recent practice of outsourcing public services: a major example is the welfare-to-work scheme based on the US Wisconsin model, in which the guidance function is recognised as a crucial element; another example is female empowerment programmes. A number of private career guidance services base their business model mainly on the provision of such outsourced services.

In Israel and Turkey, a number of consultancy organisations provide consultancy services on career development to large and medium-sized enterprises. Most are headhunting activities relating more to selection than to career guidance. But outplacement activities often incorporate strong career guidance elements: the organisation is interested in helping its discontinued employees to leave in a positive way, but has no interest in determining the outcome of the process.
A number of Mediterranean Partners have private-sector employment services. In some countries, including Egypt, Israel, Morocco and Turkey, employment services were until recently a public-sector monopoly. Now, however, private employment offices can be registered. In Turkey, 193 registrations had been accepted by November 2006. In Jordan, there are 31 employment/recruitment companies providing services for recruiting Jordanians to work in the Gulf countries. The legislation usually insists that the fees for such services are paid entirely by the employer, not by the individual. Accordingly, they usually include little if any attention to career guidance elements. In Tunisia, the law still does not permit the setting up of private employment agencies, but some private provision nevertheless exists because it is possible for the state agencies to subcontract aspects of their work to private entities set up for the purpose. Manpower has recently established itself in Tunisia, after setting up a base in Morocco, but here too the focus is largely on recruitment, temporary work and the management of contracts. Tunisia also has some private agencies that specialise in placing Tunisians in overseas employment.

Other relevant private-sector activities include:

- offering help with job search, including how to prepare a CV, interview skills and the like (e.g. Egypt);
- organising careers fairs (e.g. Lebanon);
- producing careers magazines (e.g. Syria).

### 3.9 Conclusion

This section reviews the extent and nature of current career guidance provision within the 10 countries of the Mediterranean region. It examines, in turn, provision within schools, technical and vocational education and training, universities and colleges, public employment services, non-governmental organisations, employers, and the private sector. Provision is much more extensively developed in some of the countries than in others, and tends to be much more widely available for young people than for adults.

In Section 4 we address a number of cross-sectoral issues relating to this provision. These issues were identified as significant policy issues in earlier studies (OECD, 2004; Sultana, 2003; 2004a; Watts and Fretwell, 2004), and their importance was underlined in the country reports prepared for the present study.
4. POLICY ISSUES

4.1 Staffing

In many Mediterranean countries, little formal training exists in the field of career guidance. Accordingly, services are offered by individuals trained in cognate fields (e.g. psychology or personal counselling), or in career guidance abroad, or on short courses lasting a few days or a couple of weeks (often unaccredited), or without any formal relevant training at all.

Requirements for people working as school guidance counsellors are strong in some of the countries. In Israel, for example, Ministry of Education requirements have recently risen from a B.Ed. in counselling together with a teaching certificate to a second degree (M.Ed.). In Turkey, guidance counsellors must have at least a bachelor’s degree in guidance and psychological counselling or in psychology. Diplomas and degrees in counselling are offered by universities in a number of countries, including Algeria, Egypt, Israel, Jordan and Turkey (in Turkey, they are offered by 16 universities). Some of them include career guidance courses, but they are usually optional rather than compulsory, so reinforcing the low priority of career guidance within the role. The training offered by Algerian universities tends to be somewhat academic and disconnected from the knowledge base and skills that are required by the job of career guidance in different contexts; this is partly because the different ministries that employ counsellors are not involved in the development of training programmes. As a result, guidance staff lack knowledge of both the education system and the world of work. In Turkey, some attention to guidance (broadly defined) is also included in the ‘pedagogical formation’ courses that all prospective teachers must undertake at university in addition to their specialist subject.

An extensive, two-year training programme is offered by the Centre for Guidance and Planning in Morocco, and this is open to primary- and secondary-school teachers and inspectors who have four years of teaching experience behind them. The centre also offers a training programme for inspectors of guidance services, who are often also responsible for in-service and refresher courses.

In some cases, relevant training programmes are run by NGOs. In Lebanon, for example, the Rafik Al-Hariri Foundation (see Section 3.6) runs training courses in career guidance skills for schoolteachers and others. This includes training around 25 students annually from the psychology department at the Lebanese University, as well as about 30 student trainees from vocational and technical education institutes.

Particularly substantial career guidance training programmes are offered in Turkey by the Faculty of Political Sciences at Ankara University. These include an eight-month employment and counselling services course run for staff of the public employment service, plus a master’s degree in human resource management and career counselling.
Few Mediterranean Partners have professional associations for career guidance professionals. The main example in the region is the Israel Association for Vocational and Career Counselling, which has 70-80 members, and has twice organised international events in collaboration with the International Association for Educational and Vocational Guidance. It has developed competency standards and an ethical code. It has also made some attempts to establish a certification process for career counsellors in Israel, based on international models; but so far these efforts have been unsuccessful largely because the association values the heterogeneity of its membership. In Turkey, there is a Turkish Psychological and Guidance Association, which is addressed mainly to guidance counsellors in schools and pays some attention to career guidance as part of this. Morocco too has an Association of Counsellors; it also has an Association for Inspectors of Counselling Services, whose main impact seems to be at a formal level, when it comes to policy development and the elaboration of texts regulating services in their field.

### 4.2 Career information

In some Mediterranean countries career information is very restricted. In Egypt, for example, information is available on post-compulsory education and training, but on occupations it is currently limited to some information sheets. In Lebanon, the only regular career publication has been the annual universities guide produced by the Ministry of Education. In WBGS, the information available is limited to a few leaflets and brochures. For some countries in the region (e.g. Algeria, Morocco), the move from a planned to a free-market economy has increased the challenge of collecting and organising labour market information; as a result, the little that is available tends to be outdated and unreliable. This greatly limits the potential of career guidance staff in helping clients to orient themselves in relation to employment opportunities. In many cases, too, countries in the region do not have the methodological and other resources needed to generate profiles of the skills needed by the labour market in the future.

More strongly developed career information systems include the following.

- In Israel, the Hadassah Bureau (subsequently Institute) (see Sections 3.1 and 3.6) was a leader in providing occupational information, in both paper and computerised forms. The National Career Counselling Centre’s 12 occupational information centres (see Section 3.5) include information on hundreds of occupations and studies leading to them, collected by the centre’s Information and Job Analysis Unit.
- In Turkey, an Occupational Standards Commission (MEDAK) has been established to ensure the reliability, validity and standardisation of career information. Over 600 career information files have been approved and are openly available on the internet.

Progress is now also being made elsewhere.

- In Egypt, work has started on developing an Occupational Information System, which is being adapted from a Canadian model with the support of the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA).
- In Lebanon, the National Employment Office has recently produced a guide containing all known occupations in the Lebanese labour market, with occupational descriptions based on ILO definitions.
In Tunisia, the problem of different entities producing labour market information data sets that remain fragmented may be overcome through the creation of a centre within the Ministry of Education. In addition, the National Statistics Council was specifically set up in 1999 in order to coordinate information and avoid duplication of effort.

Computerised and web-based services are strongly developed in some countries.

- In Israel, programs have been developed by a number of organisations. Professor Itamar Gati of the Hebrew University of Jerusalem is a leading world authority on the application of computer technology to career guidance (see e.g. Gati, 1996).
- In Jordan, the National Centre for Human Resources Development through the Al-Manar Project is developing a web-based job-matching system.
- In Turkey, a computer-aided career guidance program (Bildemer) matches extensive self-assessments to education/career fields for high-school students/graduates when they are choosing a higher education programme. In addition, the Ministry of National Education is planning the development of a web-based Career Information System.

Elsewhere, development in the use of computer technology has been slower (although see, for example, the website developed by the International College of Beirut, mentioned in Section 3.2). Aubert and Reiffers (2003) reported that in 2001 only 1% of the world internet users were from the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region, and the personal computer penetration rate was only some 2%. More recently, however, Abdel-Kader (2006) has indicated that this is now the developing region with the fastest rate of growth in internet users, so future scope for extending its use for career guidance purposes would seem to be considerable.

In a number of countries, work is under way on developing improved labour market information, often with donor support. This is the case, for example, in Egypt, Jordan and Syria. The MEDA-ETE project incorporates a regional 'observatory' function which includes the development of common indicators and a shared methodology for this purpose. Bardak (2005, p. 18) notes that in many cases – as in the example of Tunisia cited above – it is a question of bringing together and complementing currently dispersed data sources rather than starting from scratch. This will potentially provide a basis for developing such information in a form that individuals can use in their career decision-making.

### 4.3 Quality

Quality assurance has been receiving increased attention in OECD and EU countries (Plant, 2005). So far, however, attention to this issue in the Mediterranean region has been limited.

- In Israel, the tendency has been to manage quality assurance through assuring the credentials of the professionals who are delivering services. More recently, as noted in Section 3.5, emphasis has grown on outcome performance measures for public services, including career guidance services.

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46 The MENA region is more extensive than the Mediterranean region, as defined in this publication, but excludes Turkey.
• In Turkey, the public employment service (ÝÞKUR) has made some use of generic Total Quality Management (TQM) standards. A new law passed in 2006 is designed to determine national competencies in technical and occupational fields, based on national and international occupational standards. In addition, the Ministry of National Education has plans to address the issue of more specific career guidance quality standards in the context of a Secondary Education Project to be carried out in 2006-10.
• In the francophone countries, the tendency is to rely on inspection in order to ensure quality. This is especially true of Morocco, where inspectors of guidance services are specifically trained to fulfil this role. In Morocco, too, guidance staff have to write up an annual plan of activities for approval by the ministry. Inspectors, on their part, have to evaluate the service offered in the zone that falls under their responsibility.
• Quality assurance is also a priority for the Algerian government. The revision of the TVET staff status and more particularly the newly established inspectorate are seen as levers for enhancing quality in guidance processes.
• In Tunisia, there has been an interesting shift in the approach to quality across the whole of the education sector, with emphasis on mastering of competences and benchmarking of attainment. As such, while there are as yet no quality-assurance measures in the field of guidance, the climate is now favourable to the development and implementation of standards of delivery.

4.4 Evidence base

Bardak (2005, p. 9) points out that in general the level of scientific research and generation of knowledge in the region is poor. This applies to the field of career guidance as it does to others. Moreover the collection even of throughput data is weak. This means that the evidence base for policy-building in the field is limited.

Exceptions include the following.

• In Israel, the Ministry of Education carries out a decennial survey of school counselling services, based on both quantitative and qualitative data. A number of other evaluation studies have been carried out.
• In Turkey, ÝÞKUR collects very detailed throughput data and has also developed web-based questionnaires to evaluate its employment and career guidance services. The Ministry of National Education carried out a study of the opinions of teachers, pupils and parents on guidance services in basic education, which inter alia demonstrated that career guidance services were not performed in a sufficiently systematic way. The Human Resources Management and Career Counselling Research and Implementation Centre at Ankara University conducts academic studies in the career guidance field.

Elsewhere, some research may be carried out by students preparing for career guidance qualifications – as in Morocco. But the purpose and value of these projects are largely to initiate students into research, rather than to provide robust data that could be used to steer policy-making.
4.5 Strategic leadership

Most Mediterranean Partners currently have weak policy frameworks for career guidance. Some have relevant legislation, although sometimes it is purely definitional (e.g. Egypt) or general (e.g. Jordan, Syria) in nature; and even where it is more specific, it is sometimes ignored in practice (e.g. Israel, Lebanon and Tunisia). Such services as there are tend to be fragmented and lacking a coherent support structure. There are exceptions:

- Morocco, where coordination between different ministries is regulated by a Ministerial Note, although the process tends to be top-heavy and bureaucratic;
- Turkey, where in the National Development Plan guidance services are viewed as a basic strategy, field of development and priority area for increasing the quality of education, developing human resources, and increasing employment. In addition, a formal cooperation protocol was agreed between the Ministry of National Education and the Ministry of Labour and Social Security in 2002, and was subsequently revised in 2004 to embrace a wider range of organisations, including those representing employers and trade unions.

In Lebanon, the Ministry of Education and Higher Education has recently developed a national education strategy, in which career guidance is a priority. Similarly, in Tunisia, the education reform of 2002 highlighted the role of guidance, and the 11th National Development Plan promoted the value of guidance in the attainment of the overall objective of restructuring the economy and developing a knowledge-based society.

A number of other countries have established divisions of career guidance within a relevant ministry, which provide a focal point for policy support:

- in Jordan, a Division of Vocational Guidance within the Ministry of Education;
- in Lebanon, a career guidance department within the Ministry of Education;
- in WBGS, a Placement and Career Guidance Unit within the education department for UNRWA schools.

The OECD and related reviews have argued the need for stronger coordination and leadership mechanisms in order to articulate a vision and develop a strategy for delivering lifelong access to career guidance services. Some Mediterranean Partners show embryonic developments that could provide a basis for leadership structures of this kind.

- In Israel, a body bringing together many of the relevant organisations has been formed as an advisory body for the Joint-Israel Agency (see Section 3.6).
- In Jordan, the Al-Manar Project at the National Centre for Human Resources Development, funded by the Canadian International Development Agency, has assumed a catalytic role in developing and promoting career guidance in schools, universities and the labour market.
- In Syria, the State Planning Commission could provide a focal point for developing a more coherent strategy.
- In Turkey, two policy workshops with broad-based representation were held in 2004/05 to discuss ways of improving career guidance services on a lifelong basis.
4.6 Role of international donor organisations and development agencies

International donor organisations have played a significant role in a number of the major developments outlined in Sections 3 and 4. Examples include the role of the Canadian International Development Agency in Egypt and Jordan, of the United Nations Development Programme and International Labour Organisation in Syria, and of the World Bank in Lebanon, Tunisia and Turkey.

Not all such efforts have been effective. For example, a World Bank project in Lebanon on vocational and technical education that included substantial career guidance elements was cancelled in 2004.

A further important influence in Turkey has been the process of harmonisation with EU standards as part of the candidacy process for admission. This was significant, for example, in establishing lifelong guidance and learning among the priorities for the new national plan.

4.7 Conclusion

This section explores a number of cross-sectoral issues relating to current career guidance provision within the Mediterranean region. In general, it concludes that the extent of formal training in career guidance, career information and attention to quality assurance are all limited. It is also noted that policy frameworks tend to be weak, as do coordination and leadership mechanisms. On all of these, however, there are examples within the region of good practice on which future development can draw. The support of international donor organisations should be designed to enhance such developments.
5. WAYS FORWARD

5.1 National level

The 10 Mediterranean Partners – Algeria, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Syria, Tunisia, Turkey, and West Bank and Gaza Strip – are at different levels of development in relation to career guidance services, and have different needs. Each of the 10 country reports (Abdul Ghani, 2006; Abushowayb, 2006; Akkök, 2006; Badawi, 2006; Benjamin, 2006; Bouaich, 2006; Djenkal, 2006; Maldaoun, 2006; Mryyan, 2006; and Sedrine, 2006) includes detailed recommendations relevant to the country in question. These are summarised in the country profiles (Annex B).

Six broad themes emerge from these recommendations:

- improving the comprehensiveness and quality of career information;
- establishing career education more strongly within the school curriculum;
- extending career guidance services more broadly, where possible building on existing provision in an organic way;
- ensuring that such provision takes full account of, and is strongly grounded in, the socio-cultural context;
- developing the competences of career guidance staff;
- identifying a focal point for strategic leadership across the career guidance field, on a lifelong basis.

A few brief comments follow on each of these themes.

1. **Improving the comprehensiveness and quality of career information**

This is mentioned as a priority by almost all the countries. Good information is not a substitute for good career guidance; but it is an essential prerequisite. Comprehensive provision needs to include:

- information on education and training courses (including content, entry requirements, qualifications to which they lead, labour-market outcomes);
- information on occupations (content, characteristics, personal attributes and qualifications required), and about the relationships between the two;
- information on the labour market (on present and likely future supply and demand for different occupations, preferably at national, regional and local levels).

No country in the region yet has an adequate career information system in these terms, although there are encouraging developments in several countries (see Section 4.2). In many cases such information as exists is fragmented: strong partnerships are needed between education and employment authorities to address this issue. The potential of the internet for disseminating career information needs to be harnessed; but until levels of access in the region become much higher, other media need to be used too.
2. **Establishing career education more strongly within the school curriculum**

   This is mentioned as a priority in the country profiles by four countries (Algeria, Israel, Lebanon and Tunisia). There are existing programmes in a number of countries (see Section 3.2). Career education is important in helping young people both to orient themselves to the world of work and to develop the skills for managing their careers.

3. **Extending career guidance services more broadly**

   Where possible, extended career guidance services should build on existing services in an organic way. In some cases there is a need for new services: examples are mentioned in the country profiles. But much can also be done by improving the services that already exist, and supporting them with clearer policies.

4. **Ensuring that such provision takes full account of the socio-cultural context**

   The nature of this context, and the importance of attending to it, are discussed in detail in Section 1. An example of its implications for career guidance services is the importance of the family (see Section 1.5). This suggests that career guidance interventions need where possible to include the family. At the same time, there needs to be space on occasion for individuals to review their own futures, taking into account the influences of their family, so that they 'own' the impact of these influences on their decisions. The balances here are subtle, and need to be adapted sensitively to local circumstances.

5. **Developing the competences of career guidance staff**

   This is mentioned in several of the country profiles. The quality of services depends significantly upon these competences. At present, the extent of specific career guidance training provision in the region is very limited (see Section 4.1). Attention to this issue is crucial if the quality of services is to improve.

6. **Identifying a focal point for strategic leadership across the career guidance field**

   This again emerges as a strong theme in several country profiles. As noted in Section 4.5, most Mediterranean Partners currently lack such a focal point, and their policy frameworks tend to be weak. In Egypt, encouragingly, the country profile records some steps that have already been taken as part of the project. In other countries, such as Algeria, these strategic structures might take the form of a network of service providers and key stakeholders in guidance. The nature of the strategic structures that emerge is likely to vary. But if there is to be progress on a more systemic basis than in the past, the need for some focal point of this kind is clear.
5.2 Regional level

We also recommend that steps should be taken to sustain the networking across the Mediterranean region which has been a feature of the project reported here. As experience with other initiatives led by such agencies as ETF and GTZ has suggested, knowledge networks in this region are difficult to sustain.

One reason is that, as indicated in Section 1.3, the region is in many ways a ‘construct’, and the dynamics of knowledge flows tend to follow other impulses and stimuli than those dictated by politically inspired ‘regional groupings’. North-South research exchange far exceeds South-South dialogue, reflecting the geography of economic force-lines as well as what Samoff (1992) calls the ‘intellectual-financial’ complex in educational research and policy. Post-colonial dynamics lead to privileged links between ‘peripheral’ and ‘metropole’ countries, with the children of the elite either travelling to universities abroad, or with American and European universities locating outreach campuses in the Mediterranean, vying to establish fields of influence in a knowledge-hungry and youthful market (see Sultana, 2001).

In addition, regional networks often tend to overlook the fact that knowledge and practices do not travel easily unless they seriously take into account the distinctiveness of context. Projects that set out to establish a set of disembodied principles to guide action in diverse national contexts are doomed to fail.

Having said that, there are several examples of knowledge networks that work well and that support capacity-building strategies, the transfer of knowledge and know-how, as well as policy learning (Creech and Ramji, 2004). These epistemic and policy communities can serve as information exchange networks, facilitating the coordination of research priorities and projects, and supporting research policy consultation.

The career guidance network that has been launched by the ETF, and is made up of both national experts and policy-makers from each of the 10 participating Mediterranean Partners, could indeed become the kind of knowledge network that we are referring to, where the whole becomes greater than its constituent parts, and where ideas and practices are shared by like-minded participants. As with all such networks, sustainability is a major issue, particularly as EU and ETF funding will only sustain the initial phases of the network, with the members having to take over the management at the end of the project cycle. Meanwhile the current virtual community on career guidance, hosted by the ETF, will continue to assist in networking between Mediterranean Partners and ensure continuous exchange of expertise and views.

However, without a formal governance structure, or at least some degree of formality, the risk is high that the network will break down and will not be sustainable. Two possible options are:

1. that an international donor organisation or regional organisation that has on its agenda education, training and employment issues, takes on board and supports this regional networking function;
2. that one Mediterranean Partner volunteers and starts to lead the continuation of this process, according to a ‘light’ governance function based on a rotating principle.
Finally, we recommend that an early task for the network might be to pursue and complete the discussion that has taken place within this project on appropriate Arabic terms for ‘career’ and ‘career guidance’ (see Section 1.5). Language matters. If the concept of career guidance is to become more strongly embedded within the Mediterranean region, adequate Arabic words to express the concept are essential.

Another task for the regional network might be to follow up with a biannual report on the progress made in career guidance reform, compared with the initial policy recommendations in the country and cross-country reports.
## ANNEX A: COMPARATIVE STATISTICS

### BACKGROUND (2005)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Algeria</th>
<th>Egypt</th>
<th>Israel</th>
<th>Jordan</th>
<th>Lebanon</th>
<th>Morocco</th>
<th>Syria</th>
<th>Tunisia</th>
<th>Turkey</th>
<th>WBGS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total population (millions)</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>73.2</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population of working age (15-64) as a % of total population</td>
<td>65.8</td>
<td>61.7</td>
<td>62.1</td>
<td>59.6</td>
<td>64.0</td>
<td>64.1</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>67.8</td>
<td>65.4</td>
<td>51.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth population (15-24) as a % of total population</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GNI per capita, Atlas method(*) (current US$)</td>
<td>2 270</td>
<td>1 250</td>
<td>17 360</td>
<td>2 260</td>
<td>6 040</td>
<td>1 570</td>
<td>1 270</td>
<td>2 650</td>
<td>3 750</td>
<td>1 120</td>
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</table>

### LABOUR MARKET (2005)

<table>
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<th>Algeria</th>
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<th>Lebanon</th>
<th>Morocco</th>
<th>Syria</th>
<th>Tunisia</th>
<th>Turkey</th>
<th>WBGS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labour force activity rate (% of population aged 15-64)</td>
<td>61.0</td>
<td>49.3</td>
<td>62.1</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>64.6</td>
<td>54.9</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>40.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female labour force activity rate (% of female population aged 15-64)</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>58.7</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth labour force activity rate (% of population aged 15-24)</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>39.8</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>58.1</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>48.9</td>
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<td>22.2</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>30.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate (% of labour force aged 15+)</td>
<td>17.7&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>11.0&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>10.7&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>15.3&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>10.8&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>11.7&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>14.3&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>10.3&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>26.7&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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<td>Female unemployment rate (% of female labour force aged 15+)</td>
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<td>23.3&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>20.7&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>m</td>
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<td>24.1&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>9.7&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>20.0&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Youth unemployment rate (% of labour force aged 15-24)</td>
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<td>33.6&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>22.9&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>16.5&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>21.4&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>14.2&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>40.3&lt;sup&gt;(a)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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### EDUCATION (2004)

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<th>Algeria</th>
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<th>Syria</th>
<th>Tunisia</th>
<th>Turkey</th>
<th>WBGS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participation rate in education (ISCED 1 to 6)&lt;sup&gt;(1)&lt;/sup&gt; of young people 15-24</td>
<td>73.2</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>89.7</td>
<td>79.0</td>
<td>83.8</td>
<td>57.8</td>
<td>62.6</td>
<td>75.4</td>
<td>69.1</td>
<td>81.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Participation rate in education (ISCED 1 to 6)&lt;sup&gt;(1)&lt;/sup&gt; of female young people 15-24</td>
<td>73.0</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>92.1</td>
<td>79.9</td>
<td>85.2</td>
<td>54.0</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>77.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>VET participation in upper secondary school (VET share of ISCED3)</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>63.3</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>5.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female VET participation in upper secondary school (VET share of ISCED3)</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>60.7</td>
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<td>3.3</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy rate (people aged 15+)</td>
<td>69.9</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>97.1</td>
<td>89.9</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>52.3</td>
<td>79.6</td>
<td>74.3</td>
<td>87.4</td>
<td>92.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth literacy rate (people aged 15-24)</td>
<td>90.1</td>
<td>84.9</td>
<td>99.8</td>
<td>99.1</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>70.5</td>
<td>92.2</td>
<td>94.3</td>
<td>95.6</td>
<td>99.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early school leavers&lt;sup&gt;(2)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female early school leavers&lt;sup&gt;(2)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sources:** ILO, UNDP, UNESCO, World Bank

**Notes:** (a) = age group 15-64; (b) = age group 10+; (*) = 2004; (**) = 2003; (***) = 2002; (****) = 2000;

1. Gross enrolment ratio, all levels (except pre-primary);
2. Rate of primary school-age children out of school; m = missing data
Algeria

Country profile

**EDUCATION (2004)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participation rate in education (ISCED 1 to 6) (1) of young people 15-24</td>
<td>73.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation rate in education (ISCED 1 to 6) (1) of female young people 15-24</td>
<td>73.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VET participation in upper secondary school (VET share of ISCED3)</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female VET participation in upper secondary school (VET share of ISCED3)</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy rate (people aged 15+)</td>
<td>69.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth literacy rate (people aged 15-24)</td>
<td>90.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early school leavers(2)</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female early school leavers(2)</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**BACKGROUND (2009)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total population (millions)</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population of working age (15-64) as a % of total population</td>
<td>65.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth population (15-24) as a % of total population</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GNI per capita, Atlas method (current US$)</td>
<td>2,270(*1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**LABOUR MARKET (2005)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labour force activity rate (% of population aged 15-64)</td>
<td>61.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female labour force activity rate (% of female population aged 15-64)</td>
<td>37.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth labour force activity rate (% of population aged 15-24)</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth female labour force activity rate (% of female population aged 15-24)</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate (% of labour force aged 15+)</td>
<td>17.7(*a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female unemployment rate (% of female labour force aged 15+)</td>
<td>18.1(*a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth unemployment rate (% of labour force aged 15-24)</td>
<td>21.7(*a)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: ILO, UNDP, UNESCO, World Bank
Notes: (a) = age group 15-64; (*1) = 2004; (1) Gross enrolment ratio, all levels (except pre-primary)
(2) Rate of primary school-age children out of school

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**Career guidance in the education sector**

Students receive guidance:

- at the end of the fourth year of middle school (end of basic compulsory education), either for entry into the first year of secondary school or to pursue vocational training to CAP (certificate of vocational competence) level, or to apply for a job;
- at the end of the core curriculum in their first year of secondary school, for admission to the specialised courses in the second year;
- at the end of the third year of secondary school, either for admission into higher education for holders of the baccalauréat, or to pursue specialist vocational training at technician or senior technician level;
- at the end of the core curriculum for certain university disciplines;
- when applying for a job.
Guidance services are provided by qualified guidance counsellors. Advice is based on the person’s educational profile and aspirations, interviews and guided tours of workshops, as well as documentary information, etc.

The national career information, guidance and counselling network currently comprises:

- Public Centres for School and Career Guidance (COSP), which come under the Ministry of National Education;
- Reception, Information and Career Guidance Offices (BAIO), which are located in VET establishments under the Ministry of Vocational Education and Training.

**Career guidance in the labour-market sector**

With few exceptions, the staff responsible for providing job-seekers with career guidance, information and counselling are not formally qualified. Advice is based on information and interviews.

The principal services responsible for career guidance in the labour market are:

- Labour Recruitment Offices, under the National Employment Agency (ANEM);
- the National Youth Employment Support Agency (ANSEJ), established in order to manage the national youth employment support fund;
- the Corporation of Youth Establishments (ODEJ), a national network under the aegis of the Ministry of Youth and Sport.

These organisations are run independently of one another.

**Strengths**

- New measures to build bridges between the different branches of Algeria’s education and training system.
- The establishment of joint councils to bring together education and vocational training, including career guidance, for young people at post-compulsory education level.
- Information and awareness-raising campaigns organised jointly by the National Education Ministry’s COSP and the Information Offices in vocational training establishments.
- The launch of training for a new type of practitioner – the continuing education counsellor – aimed at better provision for adults and workers seeking vocational training or retraining.
- The gradual introduction of a system for the validation of professional experience and achievements.

**Challenges**

The career guidance services are still overburdened by administrative tasks: they are obliged to respect the constraints of the pedagogical school map, which is established in advance of counselling being provided.
The counsellors’ workload is largely taken up with assessment activities, which are mainly pedagogical in nature. The career guidance staffs are inefficient due to their diverse backgrounds and experience. Nothing is yet being done for comprehensive and grammar school pupils to help them make educated decisions and plan their school and career trajectories. Guidance support to pupils moving from education to training tracks is also lacking. The career guidance requests made by pupils and their parents at the end of the fourth year of middle school and the first year of secondary education – and even by holders of the baccalauréat – are rarely satisfied. The university training courses for career guidance counsellors take no account of the real needs of the users. Reliable information about career opportunities and labour-market information in general is lacking, partly due to the absence of relevant institutions to take responsibility for the production and dissemination of relevant tools and sources. Career guidance counsellors in the vocational training sector are not properly supervised. Ongoing, effective coordination between guidance (school, training and employment) services is lacking.

Ways forward

- Establish, between the different sectors concerned, a career guidance and redirection system that is integrated, coherent, complementary and ongoing.
- Establish a reliable system for gathering, processing and disseminating information on careers, occupations and the world of work.
- Reinforce the specialist career guidance staff by assigning a counsellor to each comprehensive school, grammar school and vocational training establishment.
- Rapidly revise the university training course for counsellors, including input from the education, training and employment sectors.
- Create an inspectorate to oversee the vocational training sector, in order to ensure that career guidance counsellors receive good-quality supervision.
- Reinstate the use of aptitude tests in vocational training, especially in continuing education, retraining and the validation of professional experience and achievements.
- Provide tuition on the available options and assistance with career planning in comprehensive schools (middle-school level) and the newly established vocational education and training tracks.
- Intensify and generalise the modules on preparing for entrepreneurship and on job-search techniques for all trainees at the end of their vocational training.

Améziane Djenkal
The Egyptian education system and economy are still affected by decades of socialist approaches in which the government became the ‘father and mother’ of every citizen. This is now beginning to change. Enhanced career guidance services could play a role in achieving the change.

**Career guidance in the education sector**

Since the mid-1950s, Egypt has had several initiatives offering aspects of career guidance services in general, technical and tertiary education. At present, some of these initiatives are not fully operational, due either to budget constraints or to doubts concerning their validity in a labour market with relatively high unemployment. The plan in basic education includes a topic called ‘practical fields’ where students practise some aspects of pre-vocational skill training but with no connection to the labour market.

Educational guidance and counselling is offered in general secondary schools, in particular in connection with selection of elective subjects. Several universities, private and public, have components of career guidance services, mainly at the beginning and end of their programmes, including orientation activities, job fairs, occupation days and placement services. Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) students do not usually have access to career guidance services; the limited exceptions are in some...
initiatives supported by technical cooperation projects which only cover a small fraction of TVET students. Many education officials and senior management staff are sympathetic to the drive to introduce a comprehensive career guidance system, but much needs to be done to translate their sympathy into actual provision on the ground. Meanwhile, the services offered are limited and fragmented.

Career guidance in the labour-market sector

For several decades all school and tertiary education graduates were automatically placed, mainly in the civil service or public-sector enterprises, regardless of the needs of these workplaces. Underemployment and overstaffing became a regular phenomenon and the less-than-adequate salaries were seen as a social subsidy rather than wages. With the recent movement towards privatisation, public employment offices have not been able to cope with the new employment mechanisms. Rapidly increasing unemployment, among new graduates as well as among the workers who lost their jobs following privatisation, are placing limitations on what career guidance can do. With technical cooperation from the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), public employment offices are now undergoing basic reforms which include a career guidance component. This is to be extended to cover all or most of the 264 public employment offices. Its impact has yet to be seen.

Improved information on the labour market and future trends is crucial. The current labour market information system (LMIS) in the Ministry of Manpower and Emigration, as well as the observatory function, should be the pillars of this provision. Current efforts in the ministry are focusing on matching job-seekers to available vacancies through psychometric approaches.

Strengths

- Within the ongoing discussions about reforming education and reducing youth unemployment, high-level officials are showing interest in examining the possibility of introducing more systematic career guidance.
- The labour market information system of the Ministry of Manpower and Emigration is linked to other information databases through the observatory function with the Information and Decision Support Centre (IDSC) as the host institution. Career information could readily be derived from these resources, especially as both activities are supported by the European Commission and executed by the ETF.
- The high-level council for human resources development, headed by the Minister of Manpower with representation from several other ministries including education, could provide an appropriate umbrella organisation to develop a comprehensive career guidance strategy, covering not only the education system but also the labour-market sector and beyond.
- There is already a functioning department in the Ministry of Manpower and Emigration that could be part of a comprehensive career guidance system.
- Several technical cooperation initiatives (e.g. Mubarak-Kohl with Germany, the Education Reform Project (ERP) with the United States, the TVET Programme with the EU, the National Skill Standards Project, the Labour Market Service Reform with Canada) have career guidance components. Linking these components together within a general framework around the broad concept of career guidance would enhance the achievement of their objectives.
Challenges

- The broad concept of career guidance as a means to better-educated free choices by the individual is not yet, in general, widely understood or accepted.
- Following decades of individuals' destinations being based on selection by education institutions and employment agencies rather than individuals' free choices, families and individuals have got used to this system and have doubts about the 'fairness' and possible misuse of alternative systems, including career guidance.
- There is at present no cadre of career guidance professionals: steps need to be taken by the universities and other organisations to build such a cadre. This will require technical and financial assistance.
- If career guidance is mainly concerned with assisting individuals in making educated choices and managing their career, this very concept is challenged by the current high rates of long-term unemployment. Many young people do not see any light at the end of the tunnel.
- With about 16 million students in the basic and secondary education system and millions more in tertiary education, in addition to about 5 million unemployed people, career guidance services would require a large and costly system that will take time to develop.
- Many people live in rural areas where providing access to career guidance services would not be an easy task.
- For a career guidance system to function effectively, an environment of trust and transparency is crucial. The present rigid bureaucracy and its authoritarian culture must be changed to make it possible to create such an environment.

Ways forward

Much needs to be done to integrate the current isolated segments of career-related services and activities into a comprehensive career guidance system. This needs to be flexible and decentralised, linked to the observatory function and to the development of a career guidance profession. It requires action on the part of government and also of education providers, universities, employers’ and workers’ organisations, NGOs and civil society, youth and their families, the media and international technical cooperation providers. The active participation of all these bodies and groups, and effective articulation of their efforts, are crucial for success. The development of the system could also be significantly facilitated by identifying a dedicated and influential ‘champion’ who believes in its impact.

To maintain the momentum created by the present study, a set of priority steps are proposed for immediate action. A career guidance network representing the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Manpower and Emigration has been formed, together with the national consultant, who will take the lead in realising the objective. The immediate aim is to form a national team consisting of concerned government agencies and ministries, universities, representatives of civil society, and employers' and workers' organisations that will develop and agree a concept paper establishing the need for a comprehensive career guidance system. This will identify the human and physical resources required and the anticipated impact of such a system on education and employment in Egypt. Technical cooperation providers will be invited to contribute to realising this objective.

Aboubakr Badawi
Country profile

One of the key themes of Israel’s short social history since 1948 has been, given the enormous disparity of cultures and waves of immigrants from various economic, social and intellectual backgrounds, how blatant social-class discrepancies can be eliminated or minimised. Much of education and social policy has strived towards the goal of reducing social and economic gaps and allowing maximum access to educational and professional opportunities. Many of the career guidance policy enactments and projects are offshoots of these concerns.

Career guidance in the education sector

School-based career guidance services are offered only minimally under the auspices of the Education Ministry’s Psychological Counselling Services, focusing primarily on articulation from elementary school to high school and preparation for the transition to military life. The main focus of school counsellors is currently on inculcating life skills, especially the ability to cope with the challenges of drugs, violence and stress, and teaching intercultural mediation, etc. Providing information and guidance on the world of work is at present a low priority.
Israel has a system of pre-academic preparation programmes as an adjunct to a large number of post-secondary education institutions (colleges and universities). These programmes offer career and educational counselling as a part of this important transition year, alongside some advance academic work recognised in the host institution. During this year participating students seek to complete or enhance their matriculation requirements and study skills as they make their final decisions regarding which field to apply to for the ensuing academic year. In almost all cases, the student needs to be accepted by a specific department in the university or college from the outset, rather than determining their major mid-way through their academic studies.

Four of Israel’s universities offer career counselling as distinct from clinical services offered on campus. Two universities have developed full careers services: Tel Aviv University and, on a smaller scale, the University of Haifa.

**Career guidance in the labour-market sector**

In the labour-market sector, key government providers are the Israel National Employment Service’s employment counsellors and placement coordinators, plus the vocational psychology staff of the National Career Counselling Centre. This centre has provided traditional career counselling and testing as well as job-search workshops for almost 30 years. A recently established career ‘hotline’ provides telephone consultations with vocational psychologists for those in career or employment difficulties. Given an extensive downsizing of vocational psychological personnel at the end of 2006, the extent of the continuation of these services is unclear.

Further services include the vocational counselling system of the Trade, Commerce and Employment Ministry’s technological training secondary-school sites, and the country-wide career information providers of the Defence Ministry’s demobilised soldiers’ information clearing-houses. Considerable government investment for new immigrants (up to 10 years in the country) is implemented by several recently outsourced regional guidance centres of the Ministry of Immigrant Absorption.

Other key service providers include:

- the Wisconsin-model welfare-to-work programme, currently a two-year demonstration project in four regions: this project is anticipated to provide the future model for employment services in Israel, with the Israel National Employment Service declining in its scope and more outsourced services being contracted by the government;
- various private-sector career counselling centres, which also work in candidate selection as well as other human resource projects: among these are a firm that has bought out the expansive professional tools and services of a recently closed 60-year-old career counselling institute, and another whose niche is career counselling of disabled adults (especially those with learning disabilities);
- innovative seed programmes, jointly funded by Joint-Israel (an NGO) and the government, and evaluated by the Brookdale Social Research Institute. The Joint-Israel mega-project currently sponsors approximately 40 programmes, each targeting an underserved population group, with the goal of integrating them into the labour market through work-readiness workshops, empowerment interventions, work-first plans, and long-term follow-up, in keeping with the goal of long-term social mobility.
Strengths

- Recent years have seen the growth of government-NGO partnerships offering creative interventions with identified populations leading to job placement, and preparedness on the part of funding sources to seek out initiatives, especially during years of high unemployment rates.
- The prominence of guidance services offered during the extensive pre-academic preparation year is unique to Israel and strives to close the gap of academic eligibility among challenged populations.
- The recent focus on adults with learning disabilities includes promotion of more appropriate vocational choices and job placements, and enables wider participation in post-secondary education.

Challenges

- There is minimal evidence of career guidance practices and of more general orientation to the world of work in the state school system, with no indication of priority changes in the future.
- The national trend of privatising public services carries the risk that commercial considerations will impact adversely on the professional aspects of the field. Alternatively, private-sector institutions may broaden the scope of creative professional interventions, while also answering the call for outsourced service provision.
- Properly trained and selected personnel are lacking among the ranks of the Israel National Employment Service employment office counsellors.
- Formal professional training options in career guidance, both in the education-based programmes for school counsellors and in counselling psychology programmes for vocational psychology, are inadequate.

Ways forward

- Creation of a national clearing-house (on the model of ERIC in the United States) to encourage experimental programmes and academic work in the field, such as offering measurements of effectiveness of various career guidance services.
- Implementing a free, government-sponsored career guidance component on the gov.il internet portal, perhaps with private partnership (along the model of the US O’NET), where awareness at all ages could be enhanced and free self-assessment tools accessed. Initial elements of such an information-based portal have been proposed by the Israel National Employment Service.
- Rectifying the lacuna in career education in the public schools. New thinking needs to be introduced to make this critical component of life skills more attractive to counsellors and pupils alike.
- Professionalising the employment counselling component of the Israel National Employment Service, based on properly selected and trained personnel.
- Adoption of a career professional credential, perhaps based on the US or the new International Association for Educational and Vocational Guidance (IAEVG) model, so that, in the absence of appropriate formal university training, career professionals can be held to basic criteria for hiring and promotion.

Benny A. Benjamin
Country profile

Career guidance services are fairly new to Jordan. The cultural value attached to education is however significant, the literacy rate is one of the highest in the Arab world, and work has started to develop more systematic career guidance services.

Career guidance in the education sector

The Ministry of Education established its section for educational counselling in 1969. It allocates counsellors by quotas to all education directorates. The total number of counsellors in private and public schools reached 1,337 in 2005, in addition to 53 counsellors in the directorates. The ministry has supported the development of counselling services through programmes and training workshops. The work of the counsellors is primarily concerned with educational and psychological counselling, but includes helping students to discover their vocational interests and utilise their potential talents. In addition to seeing pupils individually, they conduct occasional classroom sessions.
The Ministry of Education has developed a *Me and My Profession* series in collaboration with UNICEF, plus a career guidance plan for grade 10 pupils to assist those eligible to choose the educational stream matching their capabilities and interests. The vocational education classes provided for all pupils in grades 4-10 are based mainly on workshop practice and include some introduction to relevant areas of the world of work. The education directorates help schools to establish career guidance committees comprising the educational counsellor, the vocational education teacher and parent representatives. Their role is to coordinate lectures from professionals from various sectors and field visits to factories and companies in order to extend pupils’ knowledge of the world of work, but they are not very effective in practice and in some cases exist on paper only.

King Abdullah II Fund for Development with the Al-Manar Project at the National Centre for Human Resources Development (NCHRD) has established career counselling centres in 20 public and private universities. These provide career counselling services and labour-market information to university students and graduates. The community colleges, however, do not currently have career counselling centres.

**Career guidance in the labour-market sector**

The employment services in the Ministry of Labour have hitherto been weak, and career counselling services have been largely non-existent. However, the ministry has established a National Employment Centre supported by USAID to enhance and promote its employment services. Its aim is to develop electronic services, including career counselling for job-seekers. The Electronic Labour Exchange is a bilingual web-based system designed to increase the efficiency of the labour market.

Alongside this, the Al-Manar Project funded by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) at the NCHRD is aiming to increase public awareness of the importance of career planning for individuals and organisations, and to introduce career counselling principles, tools, tests and techniques to the education and labour-market sectors in Jordan. This is linked to the development of a human resources information system designed to provide students and job-seekers, as well as employers and policy-makers, with information to enable them to assess the state of the labour market.

Some NGOs provide career counselling services in cooperation with public institutions. An example is the family counselling and guidance centres supported by the Ministry of Social Development, which aim to empower women economically and socially. Another example is INJAZ, which aims to enhance the skills of young people aged 14-24 so that they are able to enter the labour market as employees or entrepreneurs.

**Strengths**

- Counselling services have existed for some time in education institutions at different levels, and educational counselling is provided within such institutions in a reasonably systematic way.
- A substantial cadre of professional educational counsellors is linked to the Ministry of Education.
- In recent years career counselling ideas and systems have been promoted by donor-funded projects in schools and universities.
- The Al-Manar Project has a catalytic role in developing and promoting career counselling know-how and applications in schools, universities and the labour market.
Challenges

- In schools and universities, career counselling services are much less extensively provided than are educational and psychological counselling.
- Career counselling is relatively new in Jordan, and has not yet been strongly developed or implemented.
- The importance of career counselling is not widely recognised by policy-makers in the education sector.
- Vision, action plans, programmes and procedures for career guidance are lacking both at schools and universities and in the labour-market sector.

Ways forward

- Create two interdepartmental career guidance teams: one from Al-Manar and the Ministry of Education, and the other from Al-Manar and the six universities participating in the Al-Manar career counselling pilot.
- Conduct training of trainers’ programmes for selected counsellors at schools and universities, so that they can train other counsellors in career guidance skills.
- Develop and implement a mechanism for using the career counselling manuals and tests already developed by Al-Manar.
- Involve more policy-makers in education and labour in career counselling activities and programmes.
- Conduct a career guidance awareness campaign.
- Link career counselling services at schools and universities with the labour-market data warehouse at Al-Manar.

Nader Mryyan
The Lebanese civil war broke out in 1975 and lasted for 17 years, during which most systems collapsed and skilled workers and trainers fled the country. Serious efforts have been made since 1992 to reconstruct the Lebanese education system. International support and government efforts have resulted in the achievement of major milestones in the restructuring process. However, much remains to be done, and progress has been seriously disturbed by the military conflict with Israel in 2006.

**Career guidance in the education sector**

Career guidance provision in government schools tends to be informal. Around 50 private schools, on the other hand, have appointed school counsellors or career guidance officers. Some of these have developed sophisticated career guidance and counselling systems, including interviews, tests, career education lessons and career open days with lectures from local professionals.

The International College of Beirut, for example, has developed a website which offers various resources including self-assessment tools and information on higher education and career paths (students from other schools can access the website on payment of a small fee). Students in grades 10-12 are required each year to use these resources to prepare an essay relating to their career plans.
Career guidance in the labour-market sector

Legislation has been passed to develop a career guidance department within the National Employment Office, but this has not yet been implemented. Five job centres have been established to provide career information services and to broker job applications, but they are still at an early stage of development. The National Employment Office has recently produced a guide containing all known occupations in the Lebanese labour market, with occupational descriptions based on International Labour Organisation (ILO) definitions.

A range of faith-based and other organisations offer services that include career guidance components, chiefly to young people. For example, the Rafik Al-Hariri Foundation, which provides grants to enable graduates to study abroad for postgraduate degrees, has established a career guidance department staffed by two experienced professional career counsellors. In addition to offering individual and career counselling services to school students and others, it publishes career information, organises an annual week-long careers exhibition, and runs training courses in career guidance skills for schoolteachers and others.

Strengths

- Responsibility for career guidance in Lebanon is shared between public and private education and training providers, and legislation exists for the issue to be addressed and to accelerate building a system.
- There are some well-established practices in private schools and NGOs that could be extended and built upon.
- Lebanon has a well-educated population with a growing awareness of the importance of career guidance.
- The Ministry of Education and Higher Education has recently developed a national education strategy, in which career guidance is a priority. This could provide a base on which to build a sound career guidance system.

Challenges

- Currently, the government shows little interest in building a career guidance system around the existing structures of public organisations.
- There are no national guidelines or quality standards for career guidance providers.
- Finance is not available to establish career guidance services within public schools and for job-seekers.
- There is a shortage of career information and of a national inventory for job profiles, job availability, and current and future labour-market trends.

Ways forward

- Organisational structures need to be established for career guidance services. These should include a directorate for career guidance and counselling at the Ministry of Education and Higher Education, a career guidance department at the National Employment Office, a cross-sector career guidance coordination body, a body for career guidance monitoring and evaluation at national level, and a national research centre for the development of career guidance techniques and methods.
• A career information and guidance information database should be built up, based on a comprehensive market analysis identifying occupations and their requirements. Tools should be constructed to gather and analyse information from the labour market on a continuing basis.

• Career guidance should be systematically introduced into the education system. This should include methods to help students to identify their career tendencies at an early age. Career guidance should be part of national education curricula at all levels.

• Steps should be taken to ensure the preparation of qualified career guidance staff. Private universities should be encouraged to establish majors in career guidance and counselling, and career guidance specialisations should be established in the College of Education and in higher education. Training centres and programmes should be set up at policy and operational levels for continuing professional training of career guidance staff.

• Higher education institutions should be encouraged to establish career guidance and job placement centres.

• A mechanism should be established to support the efforts of NGOs in delivering career guidance services and training within the national framework. Faith-based groups and NGOs should be encouraged to work within this framework.

• Legislation should be drafted to establish a national coordination body for career guidance, to make career guidance services the responsibility of education and training providers, employer groups, syndicates, trade unions and the various education and employment agencies in the country, to enforce national career guidance national policies, standards and frameworks, and to guarantee employees in all sectors the right to pursue developing their career through continuing training.

Abdul Majid Abdul Ghani
Two features of the development of Morocco’s career guidance system since the first organisations were set up in 1946 have been the diversity of the organisations and services its various clients (pupils, students, parents, etc.) can call upon, and the increasing numbers of career guidance practitioners. The reform of the education and training system in 1985 led to the setting up of coordination mechanisms between the Ministry of National Education and the Ministry of Vocational Training. The subsequent National Education and Training Charter emphasised the importance of school and career guidance by devoting four articles to it.

**Career guidance in the education sector**

Career guidance in schools is carried out by career guidance counsellors, assigned to school districts (comprising between two and five secondary schools). The role of a career guidance counsellor in a school district is to help pupils to gain better knowledge of themselves and of the different school and vocational options, and to assist them in making choices about courses and careers. The counsellors are secondary-school teachers who have undergone two years of training at the Centre for Educational Guidance and Planning. Their work is supervised and evaluated by school and career guidance inspectors: these are guidance counsellors who have undergone two additional years of training at the centre.
Consultation and Guidance Centres come under the Ministry of National Education. Their target population consists of pupils, their parents, and young people who have left the education system.

The Information and Careers Guidance Reception Centre is under the aegis of the Chancellor of Mohamed V University. Its target population consists of students and graduates from the various higher education establishments.

The Irchad Attalib Centre comes under the Department of Higher Education. Its target population consists of pupils wishing to enter higher education in Morocco or abroad.

**Career guidance in the labour-market sector**

Career guidance and employment promotion counsellors are employed by the Vocational Training and Employment Promotion Office and assigned to vocational training establishments. They are teaching staff with a background in psychology or sociology who have undergone three to six months of training in the field of career guidance. The target population for this service is people wishing to undergo vocational training.

The National Agency for the Promotion of Employment and Skills (ANAPEC) comes under the Ministry of Employment and Vocational Training. The target population consists of job-seekers holding qualifications of any kind. ANAPEC is staffed by job placement advisers: these are social science graduates who have undergone three months of training in communication and counselling skills.

**Strengths**

- A well-established training centre for career counsellors.
- The diversity of guidance structures and the developing coordination between them.
- The range of information sources, enhanced by the growing use of new technologies.

**Challenges**

- The lack of legal provision relating to the role of career guidance in vocational training.
- The lack of research on the efficiency of the guidance system and customer satisfaction.
- The lack of studies on the changing labour market.

**Ways forward**

- To create a formal status for career guidance counsellors, supported by initial and continuing training.
- To initiate research on career guidance, including evaluation studies.
- To extend services, in particular for those with no higher education.
- To reinforce coordination between the different guidance structures.

*Abdassalem Bouaich*
One of the important challenges facing Syria is developing its education system. Syrian workers appear uncompetitive by regional standards. A massive upgrading of the quality of the human resource base is required to take up the challenges of opening up the economy. The Syrian labour market is characterised by strong demographic pressures, sluggish labour demand and deeply embedded rigidities leading to high youth unemployment.

**Career guidance in the education sector**

The Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education are responsible for students in schools, colleges and universities. Until recently there has been little or no focus on career guidance services in the education system, the main concentration being on restoring the infrastructure for education and training in a wider sense. Students are categorised at their various transition stages (from elementary to secondary levels and on entry to tertiary education) according to grades and final examination results. This system does not allow for any personal choice. Accordingly, any career guidance that is currently provided in schools is informal in nature. However, as part of the reconstruction process, some attention has recently been given to raising awareness of the need for career guidance at ministry level, with assistance from international agencies.
Career guidance in the labour-market sector

The Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour (MOSAL) is responsible for provision of services to the unemployed. Although the legislation relating to public employment services includes provision for career guidance services, these are not currently implemented. The employment services face severe difficulties in their institutional, administrative and technical capacities. The existing employment offices have neither the expertise nor the necessary automated systems to develop relationships and dialogue with enterprises, or to establish a clearing-house function with regard to the labour market. In their present form they are seldom used by private enterprises, and usually then only for unskilled or low-skilled labour. Their current operations are geared almost exclusively to filling jobs in the public sector. Vacancies tend to be filled on a ‘first come, first served’ basis, with strict adherence to the priority of registration rather than aptitude, experience or personal inclination. The system is inefficient, and is increasingly being questioned in the light of the public-policy commitment to reduce the number of jobs in the public sector and expand the private sector.

New initiatives to provide career and guidance services have come from NGOs with the support of MOSAL. These NGOs work in the area of economic development, and seek in particular to work with young people to promote an entrepreneurial spirit. Some examples are:

- the SHABAB (Strategy Highlighting and Building Abilities for Business) youth employability strategy, which aims to ensure that Syrian youth are guided and enabled to find employment in business;
- the Know About Business (KAB) entrepreneurship education programme, supported by the ILO and the SHABAB programme;
- the proposal developed by the Syrian Young Entrepreneurs Association (a non-profit organisation promoting entrepreneurship among youth) to establish a Career Management Centre at Damascus University;
- Shabablek Magazine, which includes information on universities, colleges and training opportunities, and is disseminated within the education sector in printed form.

A number of project proposals have been developed with international agencies to expand the career guidance services in Syria:

- the EU Modernisation of Vocational Education and Training Programme: the work plan for 2006/07 includes the design and piloting of a career guidance function, with the objective of introducing career guidance into the pilot VET institutions;
- the ILO has signed with MOSAL a Joint Plan of Action for 2006/07, which includes developing and promoting employment offices: this includes some attention to career guidance, plus creation of a database on the unemployed and cooperation with vocational training institutes and social partners;
- the proposal to set up a Career Development Centre at Damascus University (see above) is to be funded by the United Nations Development Programme.
Strengths

- The move to a social market economy and the education and labour-market reform initiatives provide opportunities for greater recognition of the importance of career guidance.
- The 10th Five Year Plan emphasises the importance of Citizen-Centred Participatory Development. It identifies the objectives and national policies for education reform, and mentions career guidance services as a way to address mismatch between demand and supply of labour.
- Some new initiatives have been launched with the involvement of international organisations, the private sector and NGOs, and young people themselves.
- Some policy-makers acknowledge the need and the importance of developing career guidance services and their relationship to economic and human resources development.

Challenges

- There is no framework or process for collaboration between the three relevant ministries on career guidance.
- The financial and resource priority accorded to career guidance is very low.
- Most developments are in their infancy.
- Apart from the MOSAL employment offices with their main focus on job brokering, there is no career guidance infrastructure on which to build. There are no defined resources, limited training and no professional staff.
- The labour-market information system is very weak, and very little career information is available to the public.
- Bureaucracy within the ministries limits the attention and focus on career guidance.
- At present there is no national policy/strategy on career guidance that outlines a future vision and the steps required to achieve it.

Ways forward

- Career guidance needs to be improved for young people in compulsory schooling, in upper secondary schooling, in tertiary education, and for young people at risk.
- Labour-market policies should be promoted to assist and orient young people. Employment offices should be activated to help young people and adults to choose a career and find a job.
- Clear objectives and outcomes should be established for career guidance programmes within overall education, training and employment policies, and used to guide the development and monitoring of training programmes for career guidance practitioners.
- The labour-market information collected needs to be transformed into learning material usable in career guidance.
- Awareness of the importance of career planning needs to be raised, both among parents and students, and in such groups as youth workers, teachers and employers.
- Steps are needed to ensure that disadvantaged groups have access to career guidance services. These include women returning to work, older adults, people with disabilities, and those living in rural communities (where outreach forms of service delivery are likely to be needed).

Issa Maldaoun
Tunisia

Country profile

The Ministry of Education has created a specific body of school and university advisers responsible for ‘informing and advising students and their families concerning the education system, universities and vocational opportunities in different sectors’. In order to be part of this body, experienced teachers received specialised training (at level 3 of university education). Legislation passed in 2002 states that ‘to be able to choose consciously his or her educational or vocational course, a student has the right to receive wide and complete information on any matters related to school or university education’.

A university guidance system has been established to manage entry into and flexibility within the university system. Admissions are computerised and managed according to transparent rules.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EDUCATION (2004)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participation rate in education (ISCED 1 to 6) of young people 15-24</td>
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<td>Participation rate in education (ISCED 1 to 6) of female young people 15-24</td>
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<td>VET participation in upper secondary school (VET share of ISCED3)</td>
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<td>Female VET participation in upper secondary school (VET share of ISCED3)</td>
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<td>Literacy rate (people aged 15+)</td>
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<td>Youth literacy rate (people aged 15-24)</td>
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<td>Early school leavers(2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female early school leavers(2)</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>LABOUR MARKET (2003)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labour force activity rate (% of population aged 15-64)</td>
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<td>Female labour force activity rate (% of female population aged 15-64)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate (% of labour force aged 15+)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female unemployment rate (% of female labour force aged 15+)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth unemployment rate (% of labour force aged 15-24)</td>
<td>m</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Sources:** ILO, UNDP, UNESCO, World Bank

**Notes:** (*) = 2004; (**) = 2003;
(1) Gross enrolment ratio, all levels (except pre-primary)
(2) Rate of primary school-age children out of school

Career guidance in the education sector

The Ministry of Education has created a specific body of school and university advisers responsible for ‘informing and advising students and their families concerning the education system, universities and vocational opportunities in different sectors’. In order to be part of this body, experienced teachers received specialised training (at level 3 of university education). Legislation passed in 2002 states that ‘to be able to choose consciously his or her educational or vocational course, a student has the right to receive wide and complete information on any matters related to school or university education’.

A university guidance system has been established to manage entry into and flexibility within the university system. Admissions are computerised and managed according to transparent rules.
Career guidance in the labour-market sector

Information and communication technology has been introduced across the public employment services. These services include an Information and Vocational Guidance Unit, staffed by guidance counsellors and others whose mission is:

- to provide information and guidance services;
- to help individuals to develop an action plan for enhancing their competences;
- to help individuals to define a pathway that will maximise their chances of entering or re-entering employment;
- to support job-seekers in gaining entry to, and managing their transition to, a job;
- to give customised responses to the recruitment needs of employers.

Strengths

- Education reforms that have sought to place the individual at the centre of the education process.
- The widespread integration of information and communication technologies in education and training establishments and in the public employment service, which should make it possible to extend access to career guidance services.
- The regular employment surveys conducted by the National Institute of Statistics, together with the existence of a National Statistics Board (CNS) that coordinates all the country’s statistical bodies and a National Employment and Qualifications Monitoring Centre (ONEQ).
- The agreements to develop a partnership between the Tunisian Industry, Commerce and Crafts Union (UTICA) and the Ministries of Education and Training and of Higher Education, which facilitates the maximum mobilisation of these parties in developing and reforming career guidance in Tunisia.

Challenges

- Over-valuing of the general education route and the lack of career education and guidance in the school system.
- The small proportion of the labour market covered by public employment services.
- The lack of cross-sectoral collaboration, which leads to an inefficient use of competent human resources.
- The fragmented nature of available information on the labour market. Much of the information produced fails to integrate the different elements required if it is to be useful for career guidance purposes.
Ways forward

The strategy for developing career guidance centres on three policy options that are consistent with the strategy adopted by Tunisia for its 11th national plan (2007-11):

- building an education and training system that offers pupils a choice between a number of different routes to success: in addition to structural reforms, this requires providing career education as a separate subject for which a certain number of hours must be formally set aside in the timetable for the second cycle of basic and secondary education;
- developing a partnership around the production of vocational information and educational resources in career education: this partnership needs to mobilise, in particular, the Resource, Information and Guidance Centre (CRIO), the National Careers Information and Guidance Centre (CNIOP), the National Employment and Qualifications Monitoring Centre, the National Statistics Board, the National Statistics Institute and sectors of industry;
- establishing a quality approach to the field of career guidance in order to meet the needs of young people and adults: this will require defining quality standards.

Saïd Ben Sedrine
Turkey

Country profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EDUCATION (2004)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Female VET participation in upper secondary school (VET share of ISCED3)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Literacy rate (people aged 15+)</td>
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<td>Youth literacy rate (people aged 15-24)</td>
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<td>Early school leavers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female labour force activity rate (% of female population aged 15-64)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Youth labour force activity rate (% of population aged 15-24)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth female labour force activity rate (% of female population aged 15-24)</td>
<td>30.0</td>
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<table>
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<th>BACKGROUND (2005)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Total population (millions)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Population of working age (15-64) as a % of total population</td>
<td>65.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth population (15-24) as a % of total population</td>
<td>18.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>GNI per capita, Atlas method (current US$)</td>
<td>3 750</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Turkey has laid down a legal framework for career guidance services as a basis for systematic implementation. Career guidance services are implemented at different levels and in different dimensions by the Ministry of National Education, the Ministry of Labour and Social Security and its subsidiary the Turkish Employment Institution (ISKUR), universities, private-sector establishments, trade unions and NGOs. The Career Information, Guidance and Counselling Services Cooperation Protocol signed between nine participating agencies and organisations in 2004 constitutes a significant step towards the coordination of these organisations and sectors.

Career guidance in the education sector

Most schools have guidance and psychological counselling services, staffed by trained guidance counsellors; those that do not are serviced by guidance counsellors based in Guidance and Research Centres (RAMs). For the first time guidance has now also been integrated into the curriculum. It is delivered by class guidance teachers, supported by the guidance counsellors. Educational/career development and guidance is one of the seven competences that provide a framework for this programme. In particular, a programme on ‘information and guidance’ has been introduced in grade 9, to provide information on higher education and professions and to help pupils in their career choices.
Thus, an important step has been completed in the formation of a flexible structure and the options available to students have been developed. Some measuring and evaluation instruments are used within individual guidance interviews in schools.

In spite of all these efforts, career guidance in schools is largely geared towards the transition to higher education. The pressure of university entrance is widely felt, with schools being ranked by their students’ success in the entrance examinations. Throughout this process, they are supported by guidance services. In higher education, guidance and psychological counselling services are provided. Some universities also have career planning centres.

**Career guidance in the labour-market sector**

The employment and career counselling services provided by İSKUR are addressed mainly to young people choosing an occupation and to adults who want to enter, change or advance in their occupation or are having adaptation problems. Currently İSKUR’s career counselling services are limited in carrying out these functions. In its e-Transformation Project, a ‘self-service’ job-search approach has been adopted and restructuring is continuing in this direction. İSKUR’s mission is defined as ‘the establishment of an efficient workforce information system, increasing the employability of the workforce and increasing the compatibility of the workforce to the unfilled job positions’.

Cooperation opportunities and projects are being prepared between various companies and labour-market institutions. Many of these are implemented under various EU projects such as Leonardo da Vinci vocational education and training or local sectoral support programmes. The career guidance and counselling services provided by the private sector in Turkey have significantly increased. Also, various NGOs collaborate with public institutions to organise training programmes including career guidance elements.

At the İSKUR Job and Career Counselling Centre, which forms the infrastructure for the services in this field, information resources are systematically prepared and presented for the use of a wide range of beneficiaries.

**Strengths**

- The general career guidance services in the school system, based on a strong structure of professional guidance counsellors.
- Strong career information services and the emergence of career guidance experts at İSKUR, as a result of efforts to provide a more official professional status for careers and employment personnel.
- Significant examples of innovative efforts for the introduction of developmental models.
- The collaboration established by the Cooperation Protocol signed by nine agencies and organisations, with meetings at national level and the development of a common approach.
- The implementation of the guidance and counselling component of the Ministry of National Education’s Secondary Education Project.
- The establishment of a Euroguidance country office in Turkey.
• The inclusion of guidance, in the scope of lifelong learning, into the new national plan priorities, linked to the initiation of membership negotiations with the EU.

**Challenges**

• The focus of the general guidance services provided in schools on personal and social counselling and educational guidance (especially for university entrance) at the expense of career information and career development guidance services.
• The limited nature of the career guidance services provided by universities, and the lack of a communication network to support them.
• The limitations of career information, especially regarding labour-market information on supply and demand in particular occupations, and the limited access to it (e.g. in schools and universities the information is usually held in the offices of career counsellors and is not open for general access).
• Confusion regarding the supporting roles of İŞKUR and Guidance and Research Centres in the career guidance services provided in schools.
• The limited extent of career guidance services for adults and for groups with special needs.

**Ways forward**

• The adoption of a lifelong learning approach, focused especially on increasing the skill levels of the workforce. This requires much more flexible teaching methods. It also needs individuals to take charge of their own learning development and to manage it, taking into consideration the needs of the labour market. This means that high-quality career guidance is a necessity throughout life.
• The movement towards the formation of a more flexible labour market that can keep up with global competition and technological advances and allow individuals to move more freely between jobs, companies and occupations. The unemployment benefit system, required for supporting such a flexible structure, is being implemented. The provision of career guidance, employment guidance and job-hunting services is important in creating the occupational and employment dynamism from which society as a whole, as well as employed and unemployed individuals, will benefit. The main responsibility here will lie with İŞKUR, working together with other partners.
• The establishment of stronger, broader and more flexible career guidance structures in the education system. For example, more students need to be encouraged to enrol in vocational and technical education at the end of grade 8. To achieve this aim, institutional reforms must provide opportunities to continue from these schools into higher education, especially at university level. Career guidance is important to support and sustain this policy.

_Fusun Akkök_
West Bank and Gaza

Country profile

The Palestinian territories have been occupied by the Israeli military force since 1967. Until 1993, they were run by the Israeli civic administration under military authority. In 1993 the Oslo Agreements for peace were signed, by which the West Bank and Gaza Strip would have a kind of pre-state administration called the Palestinian Authority, and all the civil administration was transferred to it. Almost half of the 3.6 million residents are Palestinian refugees. The United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA), established to help the Palestinian refugees, operates in the fields of education, health, relief and social services. WBGS is currently characterised by political and security instability, which affects all aspects of social life, and also by high unemployment (around 50%) and poverty (the main financial resource for development and for individual survival is international donations).

Career guidance in the education sector

The five strategic principles for the Palestinian government education system include education as a tool for social and economic development: education must meet the political, social and economic challenges of Palestinian society.
Despite this, career guidance services in the last 10 years have in the main been provided only by UNRWA for students at refugee schools and vocational training centres. The UNRWA education system includes career guidance issues as part of the guidance and counselling services provided by school counsellors. Also, a Placement and Career Guidance Unit coordinates the implementation of career guidance activities in the UNRWA schools and centres and also for refugee graduates from UNRWA or non-UNRWA universities or other education institutions. For organisational matters, the Education Management and Planning Division has constituted a Steering Wheel Committee for Career Guidance to coordinate career guidance activities.

Although much concentration has been exerted on restoring the infrastructure for education and training in WBGS, there has so far been little or no focus on career guidance. However, as part of the reconstruction process some attention has been given to securing improved matches between labour-market needs and the education and training outputs. The Ministries of Education, Higher Education and of Labour have established a National Strategy for Vocational and Technical Education, aiming at coordinating plans to make vocational and technical education meet labour-market needs, but this has not been implemented.

**Career guidance in the labour-market sector**

The labour-market sector has no activities relating to career guidance. This is true even in the UNRWA sector. The government employment offices, under the Ministry of Labour, in a previous period provided some job guidance to job-seekers, but at present they do not. Information on career options, job vacancies, education options, etc. is obtained mainly through newspapers and other media. The needs, however, are considerable. A high percentage of workers used to work in Israel and since the borders were closed have been jobless in a poor economy with low development; programmes of guidance and counselling are needed to rehabilitate them for their new circumstances.

There are a number of NGO projects aimed at the economic empowerment of women, encouraging them through guidance activities to establish their own micro-enterprises.

**Strengths**

- Increasing awareness of the importance of career guidance in life planning.
- The overall education system is now being re-engineered, so creating possibilities for developing career guidance activities within the system.
- UNRWA has experience in the field of career guidance that could be helpful for future planning.

**Challenges**

- There is no overall vision for the role of career guidance and its importance, and no coordination mechanism between the different parties that could play a role in developing it.
- There is no clear national policy on career guidance in the government sector.
- Career guidance is not a funding priority in the UNRWA education department.
- There are limited financial resources, limited training and few qualified staff.
The organisation, management and delivery of programmes are completely separate in the two sectors of government and UNRWA, so that programmes of career guidance implemented at UNRWA schools are not extended to government schools.

Ways forward

- Despite the difficult conditions in WBGS, a strategy and national policy must be developed for career information and guidance services that can help to overcome the country’s severe economic and unemployment problems.
- To develop effective career guidance services, there is a need for:
  - training and development of staff;
  - data collection and establishment of data resource points;
  - procurement of financial resources and facilities to deliver successful career guidance programmes.
- The NGOs that run programmes in the area could participate in developing and improving the quality and span of career guidance services provided to different sectors.
- To develop a national comprehensive success in delivering effective career guidance services, there must be a high level of coordination and cooperation between all relevant parties. In particular, since UNRWA has been working in this field for some years, closer links are needed between it and the government sector.

Khayri Abushowayb
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANAPEC</td>
<td>Agence nationale de promotion de l’emploi et des compétences (National Agency for the Promotion of Employment and Skills)</td>
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<tr>
<td>ETE</td>
<td>Education and Training for Employment</td>
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<td>ETF</td>
<td>European Training Foundation</td>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross domestic product</td>
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<td>GNI</td>
<td>Gross national income</td>
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<td>GTZ</td>
<td>Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (German Association for Technical Cooperation)</td>
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<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and communication technology</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organisation</td>
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<td>ISCED</td>
<td>International standard classification of education</td>
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<td>İŞKUR</td>
<td>Turkish Employment Institution</td>
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<td>MOSAL</td>
<td>Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
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<td>Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
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<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Emergency Fund</td>
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<td>UNRWA</td>
<td>United Nations Relief and Works Agency (for Palestinian Refugees in the Near East)</td>
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<td>USAID</td>
<td>United States Agency for International Development</td>
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<td>VET</td>
<td>Vocational education and training</td>
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<td>WBGS</td>
<td>West Bank and Gaza Strip</td>
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