



TUNISIA

EDUCATION, TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT
DEVELOPMENTS 2017



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KEY EDUCATION, TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT DEVELOPMENTS IN TUNISIA

Relaunching the economy, while maintaining social stability (especially in the most disadvantaged regions in the interior and in the South), are currently the main concerns in Tunisia. Despite political volatility, which led to a change of the government in September 2017, the democratic transition is perceived as finalised thanks to the new democratic institutional setting and the Constitution in place as of 2015. In addition, internal security is putting less pressure on decision makers, permitting shifting priorities towards economic development.

The National Development Plan 2016-20 sets a number of objectives, however not all of them have been followed by strategies or action plans for the implementation. The ambitious economic objective is to reach an annual 5% GDP growth rate by 2020. However, the pace of the implementation is slow (it was 1.1% in 2016) and a strong depreciation of the Tunisian currency over the last two years appeared to be one of the additional risk factors. The EU actively supports the implementation of the plan and remains the bigger donor with an annual envelope of EUR300 million. A new programme for Education, Mobility, Research and Innovation (EMORI) has been launched with EUR 60 million budget and will reinforce the cooperation within the Horizon2020 research programme and the Erasmus+ youth mobility. In addition, a process to simplify visa procedures has been launched, as well as the negotiations for a free-trade agreement. The previously approved IRADA project is starting implementation in Autumn 2017. Building on the existing national strategic framework, it will scale up successful good practices, build multi-stakeholder partnerships by involving public authorities, social partners and civil society, and foster a bottom-up approach.

There are many positive initiatives aiming at improving the labour market situation, however the results are still weak and the lack of jobs, especially for young people, results in unemployment and inactivity. Job creation is seen as a priority and measures to foster entrepreneurship and business start-ups are promoted. A new position of the Secretary of State for Entrepreneurship became operational in 2016. The role of the private sector to co-lead and co-fund reforms is recognised in line with the Law on public-private partnerships adopted in November 2015.

Human capital development (HCD) is a top priority on the political agenda and the three ministries responsible for general education, vocational training (VET) and employment and higher education have defined clear strategies. Coordination between the three ministries is improving and a first result is the law establishing pathways between VET and higher education. There is also a plan to establish a national entity for lifelong learning. The VET reform agenda is organised around 14 major projects addressing structural issues, such as quality and relevance of provision, decentralisation and the role of social partners and civil society to improve employability of VET graduates. Nevertheless, the availability of adequate financial and human resources is not fully clear.

Given the already dense institutional and legislative setting in Tunisia, priority should be given to the implementation of existing national strategies related to HCD and scaling up good practice. Interventions should be built on a sound analysis, monitoring and evaluation of a real impact. Building partnerships with new stakeholders from the private sector, civil society and regions is an inherent element. Coordination among donors, especially from the EU Member States could be reinforced, including through a joint-programming and implementation.

1. Key demographic and economic characteristics

Youth represents an important share of the Tunisian population. Approximately 20.9% of the 11.3 million inhabitants in 2016 (INS¹) is aged 15-24. However, unlike other North African and Middle East neighbours, Tunisia will soon be shifting from being a youth-bulge country to having a transitional age structure, with a lower fertility (2.2 live births/woman according to UNDP) and a longer average life expectancy (77.0/72.3 women/men). This demographic structure and forecasted change, together with a current high youth unemployment rate (35.5% in 2015), puts severe pressure on policy makers in the short to medium perspective in terms of adequate schooling and job-creation. In a longer perspective challenges will shift to health and pensions' expenditures.

Tunisia is a lower-middle-income country. Several dichotomies affect the country's potential for the economic growth and employment generation, including an age-related, gender and regional divide. Political volatility is an additional challenge. Economic development pace is very slow with GDP growth at 1.1% in 2016², below the forecasted 1.5% and far from the annual 5% foreseen by the national plan. Agriculture, contributing to 10% of GDP, has severely affected overall economic outcome, with a fall of 8.1% in 2016. Industry and manufacturing are declining (28.2% in 2015 versus 31.6% in 2011)³. Erosion of the industrial sector has implications on the economic model, however there is no clear economic development vision and priority economic sectors have not been identified. Services play an increasingly important role and are the biggest contributor to GDP (61.4% in 2015).

High informality and the substantial weight of the micro and small enterprises with a weak capacity to grow, innovate and create quality jobs⁴, are making development more challenging. Tunisia ranked 77th out of the 190 countries in the Doing Business 2017 Index (it was 74th in 2016 – both very different from its ranking at 36th place in 2008). Inefficiency of government bureaucracy, political instability and corruption⁵ are the three main factors constraining the business environment according to the Global Competitive Index 2016-17, where Tunisia ranked 95/138 (much lower than its ranking in 40th place in 2011). The vast majority of important enterprises remain state-owned and public administration continues to be large. However, employment is expected to be generated by the private sector in the future given the severely decreasing state resources. This should be achieved by strengthening existing enterprises and starting new businesses and therefore encouraging entrepreneurship and new business start-ups is currently a priority for the Government.

Projections are more optimistic, of the GDP growth rate at 2.5% in 2017 and 3.1% in 2018 according to the Tunisian central bank and IMF. The speed of reforms is forecast to be accelerated and tourism, agriculture and exports should show positive outcomes. Exports could be supported by the depreciation of the Tunisian dinar (from 2 to 2.91 to the euro in the last two years⁶) and the new code for investment adopted in 2016 should help in attracting national and international capital. So far, a decline in international business development indices has continued. The National Development Plan 2016–20⁷ identifies major infrastructure works and investment in innovation and technology as drivers for growth. The success heavily depends on the country's capacity to attract investment (EUR 50 billion). The plan is expected to create 400 000 new jobs, especially for highly skilled graduates thus presenting an opportunity for VET and higher education provision. The trade

¹ INS, National institute of Statistics, Labour force survey

² INS

³ World Development Indicators, World Bank

⁴ Half of Tunisian SMEs employ less than 20 people, as per <http://jica-ri.jica.go.jp/publication/assets/01%20youth%20employment%20tunisia%20boughzala.pdf>

⁵ Tunisia scores 75/176 in the 2016 Transparency International Index on perceived corruption

⁶ Jeune Afrique 24 May 2017

⁷ The first multiannual strategic plan developed after the Revolution

agreement concluded with the European Union (EU)⁸, Tunisia's first trading partner, should also help the economic recovery but its implementation should be accelerated. Another lever for development could be the setting up of a Maghreb Union. High profile leaders from Tunisia and Morocco have started promoting this idea pointing to the cost of not having such regional integration.

Tunisia is traditionally a country of emigration, with about 6% of its population living abroad, mainly in Europe (83%). Remittances contribute significantly to GDP, accounting for 4.8% of GDP in 2014 according to the World Bank. In the last few years Tunisia has increasingly become a country of immigration, particularly for Libyans, and a country of transit for migrants from sub-Saharan Africa heading to Europe. Exact figures on immigrants are not available, however the Tunisian Ministry of Commerce estimates the total number of refugees the country hosts at around 1 million—10% of Tunisia's population. Others cite higher numbers, closer to around 1.8 million.⁹ The new country's strategy on migration prepared in 2015 marks an important step towards a global approach to managing migration which includes also inflows of migrants and asylum seekers. The strategy is one of the outcomes of the new spirit introduced by the Mobility Partnership Agreement signed with the EU in March 2014 to comprehensively manage migration issues. The implementation of the strategy is supported by the EU-funded LEMMA project. Recognition of emigrants' and immigrants' qualifications is a major issue for the education and VET systems in facilitating access to the labour market. The European Training Foundation's (ETF) MISMES project has identified some good practices in this field, which could serve as inspiration for larger-scale support measures.¹⁰

In terms of human development, Tunisia ranked 97th out of 187 countries in the UNDP Human Development Index 2016, thus falling under the 'high human development' category. However, 3.8% of the Tunisian population are classified as extremely poor¹¹. Major disparities exist, especially between interior and rural regions and those in the north of the country and along the coast. Tunisia is at the forefront of women's rights among Arab countries. Recent developments in this sense include a new law against all types of violence to women (including sexual violence) approved in July 2017 and the possibility for Tunisian women to marry non-Muslim men. However, Tunisian women suffer from social and employment discrimination.

2. Education and training

2.1 Trends and challenges

Human capital development (HCD) remains high on the policy agenda¹². The national plan includes three dedicated chapters to education, vocational training and higher education. Each of the three ministries developed a structured approach to tackling the main problems and receives dedicated state budget to implement actions. Similar to pre-revolution levels, public expenditure on education was 6.1% of GDP in 2014. The Tunisian education and VET systems are predominantly public, non-fee paying and grant equal access at all levels. Private provision has been developing over the last years especially at university level and is marketed as offering better employment opportunities. Private VET centres have a longer tradition and are mainly in business related fields. Since last year special attention has been given to an integrated governance at top ministerial level of education, vocational training and higher education to better promote HCD in a logic of mutually reinforcing initiatives and life-long learning. An HCD Commission with representatives of the three ministries

⁸ The first negotiating round to establish a Deep and Comprehensive Free Trade Area (DCFTA) between the EU and Tunisia took place in April 2016. Discussions covered a wide range of issues including agriculture, services and sustainable development. The overall goal of the negotiations is to create new trade and investment opportunities and bring about the better integration of Tunisia's economy into the EU's single market. The EU is Tunisia's first trading partner.

⁹ Future development 'The impact of Libyan middle-class refugees in Tunisia', Omer Karasapan March 17, 2015

¹⁰ See www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/MISMES_Tunisia

¹¹ Ministry of Development, Investment and International Cooperation, 2016.

¹² Human capital development and equality for men and women have traditionally been high on the agenda of both citizens and the Tunisian government.

responsible has met a few times and one of the first results has been a law establishing pathways between VET and higher education (now to be implemented). This Commission is a positive development and should become a national instance on HCD ensuring systematic exchanges and joint work – as per Project 1 of the reform of the VET system.

Tunisia has made considerable improvements in literacy and schooling rates over the years: the overall illiteracy rate fell to 19% in 2015 (compared to 31.7% in 1994¹³), while youth literacy rates among the 15 to 24 age group increased to 96.8%. Educational attainment rates of the active population show a positive trend. The share of low-educated has decreased from 58.2%¹⁴ to 56.4%. Higher education levels have improved from 19.3% to 22.8%, while medium level education, including VET has decreased from 22.3% to 20.8%. The share of vocational students in secondary education has decreased even further to 6.2% in 2015 (10.6 in 2011), and this confirms the lack of attractiveness of VET. The perception of a second chance education leading to jobs with a low social status and the lack of pathways between VET and higher education are among the main drivers. Poorer security conditions after the revolution are also mentioned in policy debates as a reason to explain declining enrolment, especially in the case of girls. Further research and more precise data on rural/urban and male/female attendance would help to provide a better understanding of the issues at stake and possible policy options. Considering the need of enterprises for middle level technicians, together with the high unemployment level of university graduates, VET could be seen as a possible solution. In addition, lifelong learning for the 25-64 population is practically inexistent (at only 1.3%) and there is room to increase VET role in upskilling and reskilling. Discussions are being held on how to simplify use of existing funding mechanisms to improve access, but no specific measures have so far been adopted.

Quality of education is a critical issue. PISA results in 2015 show a worrying decline in the capacity of reading: underachievement reached 71.6% much worse than 59% registered in 2006 (EU average was 19.7% in 2016). Underachievement also increased in science (65.9%, up by also in mathematics 74.8% and at 65.9% (against EU rates at 22.2% and 20.6%). Poor quality education at primary and secondary levels is a key challenge in Tunisia and is at the heart of problems in the VET and higher education systems and, in a broader sense, in the setting up of a knowledge society. Main challenges include the improvement of selection mechanisms for teachers and their continuing training, as well as poor school conditions, especially in disadvantaged regions.

The phenomenon of NEETs is getting worse every year and reached 32.4%¹⁵ in 2016 (versus 29.5% in 2015). Early school leaving remains a major issue among 18-24 reaching 51.6% in 2015. Many reasons are behind these trends and the country so far lacks a dedicated analysis on the drivers. However, there is an increasing awareness on the need to address this issue, also in consideration of the risks of social instability and possible radicalisation. As a first measure in March 2017, Tunisia introduced new legislation making schooling or a work placement compulsory for every young person up to the age of 18. This law is intended as an obligation for the State to ensure education or employment and three pilots will soon be launched. In addition, there is a plan to set up a new agency focused on early school leaving and possible preparatory courses for early school leavers to integrate them into VET.

Transition from school to work is particularly difficult for young people. Improved education levels have not always translated into good access to the labour market. On the one hand, this is due to the inability of the Tunisian labour market to create high value added jobs. On the other hand, the education system has not been responsive enough to the needs of the private sector or to the

¹³ Ministry of Development, Investment and International Cooperation, 2016.

¹⁴ All data on education come from the National institute for statistics

¹⁵ Torino process 2016 Tunisia report

changing labour market. Concerning VET and higher education this is partly due to the lack of involvement of social partners in the governance mechanisms, which results in difficulties in analysing employers' needs. The capacity of social partners to contribute to policy dialogue is also limited – and will be addressed by VET reform (Project 10) through the establishment of dedicated skills development units inside the main social partner organisations.

A weak culture of data collection and sharing negatively impacts the analysis of education and training. Three projects under the VET system reform aim to address this gap, in particular by reinforcing the system to monitor labour market needs (Project 4), an integrated information system on VET and employment (Project 11) and a monitoring system to measure the performance of VET (Project 12). These are important steps forward to improve VET quality and relevance. ETF is supporting data collection and analysis through the Torino process and direct support to Project 12.

2.2 Education and training policy and institutional setting

A new vision for human capital development (HCD) is currently being developed. The area of initial education and training has by far the highest profile in terms of both strategic thinking and provision. On the contrary, lifelong learning is still to be developed.

Education and training issues are addressed separately by three ministries: Education, Higher Education and Vocational Training and Employment. Vocational training is provided by several ministries, including VET and employment, tourism, agriculture, health and the army. In addition, private training centres operate in Tunisia. According to the 2016-20 plan, the main objectives for VET include improving data collection and analysis and enhancing the monitoring and evaluation function; increasing the attractiveness of VET; supporting the professional development of trainers; involving regional stakeholders; and developing entrepreneurial mind-sets across the VET system. Implementation of the reform is organised around 14 projects each one equipped with a team and financial resources; and under the umbrella of a project management unit.

VET reform implementation is proceeding slowly speed given the limited human and material resources available, and political volatility (new ministers have been appointed every year since the revolution). Two new entities are foreseen: an agency dedicated to professional guidance (to improve VET attractiveness) and a preparation centre for VET to integrate young dropouts). The creation of new functions within existing institutions should be preferred to the establishment of new institutions, particularly in the context of decreasing public funds and weak economic development capacity.

To date, only donor-funded projects have supported the capacity building of social partners in the area of education and training. The reform of VET foresees the setting up of permanent “training and employability units” within the social partner structure.

Revamping the national qualifications framework has become a priority for the country.¹⁶ Establishing a cooperative partnership between public authorities and social partners seems to be the most challenging factor at the moment. The ETF is supporting dialogue among the different parties and providing content advice for the definition of priorities for action. More transparent and portable qualifications would help professional and geographic mobility.

The new constitution drafted in 2014 recognises the decentralisation process as a fundamental basis for a new organisation and distribution of power in Tunisia. This would also imply an administration that is more efficient and closer to citizens. In line with this philosophy, the progressive decentralisation of VET functions is ongoing. This is an innovative approach to help youth employability by getting closer to labour market needs and job offers at the local level. The support

¹⁶ In spite of a law dated 2009 the framework has so far not been set-up.

provided by the ETF and other donors in this regard has proven quite effective so far in the pilot regions. Regional players in pilot regions have responded very well and taken responsibility in the VET cycle by identifying skills needs for training provision and the transition to the labour market. The EU funded IRADA programme will reinforce regional multi-stakeholders' platforms to steer HCD according to local labour market needs in eight governorates. It will also pilot improvement of VET provision with a bottom up approach where the VET centres with business will shape their own curricula and training modalities. If successful, IRADA will offer a model for VET decentralisation which could be replicated in the remaining governorates.

VET reform implementation and the future entrepreneurship strategy should be a priority for skills development. The 14 projects constitute a solid and articulated framework for reforms after a few years of high post-revolution instability. This framework counts on a high level of ownership by the Tunisian authorities and support from social partners. International donors could help the implementation of reforms by introducing innovative methods to efficiently use financial and human resources and supporting the scaling up at system level of successful good practice, such as the public-private partnerships among VET centres and entrepreneurship promotion projects.

3. Labour market and employment

3.1 Trends and challenges

Lack of quality employment, weak job creation and high unemployment, especially among youth (graduates and females) are key concerns of the Tunisian authorities. Demonstrations in Tunis and in the disadvantaged regions of Gafsa and Tataouine asking for more jobs have been recurrent in the last months.

Labour market participation remains very weak (47.2% in 2016), with a particularly wide gender gap at 41.9% (26.6% compared to 68.5% for men). Notwithstanding this outcome, the female activity rate has improved from 2011 levels. According to the research conducted by the International Labour Organisation (ILO)¹⁷, the gender gap is driven by age and home town. Differences between young women and young men are small in dynamic urban areas, but wider in the less dynamic regions and in rural areas. Young women living in the northern or central interior areas are more vulnerable to unemployment and those living in southern areas are more often classified as being out of the labour market. Unemployment remains a huge challenge, although it has been decreasing over the recent years (15.6% in 2016 versus 18.3 in 2011). The positive change is registered for both men (12.4%) and women (23.5%), but the latter are affected to a greater extent. Geography also affects unemployment trends and significant differences exist between the regions: from 9.9% in the centre and east of the country to 26.2% in the southwest.¹⁸

Youth is even more affected by unemployment than the adult population, with 35.5% rate for those aged 15-24, indicating their difficulties in accessing the labour market. Graduate unemployment is a prominent feature of the Tunisian labour market. The main factor underlying this phenomenon is the low demand for (quality) skilled labour and employers' preferences for low-wage and low-skilled labour in light of the low technological level of most SMEs. The low quality of jobs created by the national economy, often within the informal sector, creates frustration among young graduates, who frequently prefer to remain unemployed while waiting for formal jobs – 29.6% of graduates were unemployed for

¹⁷ ILO "Labour market entry in Tunisia: The gender gap", 2015

¹⁸ 2016 Torino Process Report

more than 2 years in 2015.¹⁹ The situation is changing in the services sector, where the requirements of higher skills may also lead to the increase of jobs quality.²⁰

Informality is widespread (according to some sources reaching 50% of employment) and hinders progress towards quality. According to the IMF, the informal sector accounted for 30% of GDP 2012 with precarious jobs, long working hours, low incomes (including unpaid family workers, most of whom are female), the lack of social protection and ultimately a devaluation of human capital. In addition, self-employment accounts for almost one third of the overall employment (26.7% in 2015) rate down from 31.5% in 2010 to 26.7% in 2015.

Services accounted for the largest share of employment at 51.7% and the highest productivity, followed by industry (33.2%, including construction) and agriculture (14.7%) with the lowest productivity. The public sector's capacity to create employment is decreasing as the state is facing severe financial restrictions. However, it is still very attractive to young people as it provides safe and (relatively) well paid employment.

Concerns about the skills of the workforce are increasing. High unemployment rates coexist with job vacancies. According to the National Observatory on employment and qualifications (ONEQ) about 29,000 jobs were available in 2015, of which 24,000 for more than one year. 31% of enterprises claimed this was due to the inadequacy of skills available. Similar to the information gap on education outcomes, information on labour market trends calls for improvement. Data collection, analysis and sharing be improved, including through developing the capacity of existing monitoring institutions such as ONEQ. Building a skills forecast system would improve the planning of the adjustment of the VET system to labour market needs. For this purpose, a more systematic approach needs to be developed.

3.2 Employment policy and institutional setting

Employment issues are the responsibility of the Ministry of Vocational Training and Employment that is in charge of developing strategic political priorities and policy orientations. The National Agency for Employment and Independent Work (ANETI) is the main body that is responsible for the implementation of employment policies in Tunisia. It is a public, non-administrative body attached to the Ministry of Vocational Training and Employment. ANETI's mission is quite broad and includes the implantation of active labour market measures, including support to self-employment and entrepreneurship. Young people, migrants and people with special needs are among target groups. Information, intermediation and guidance are the main task of the offices within the country. ANETI counsellors support jobseekers using three 'traditional' methods: publishing job requests and job offers; supporting internships and access to the labour market; and promoting self-employment. In January 2016, ANETI launched the new Forsati (My Chance) programme, which provides personalised support to jobseekers to identify and give shape to professional development projects. The objective of the programme is to provide training in languages, information technology, communications, life skills or other technical specialisations. The main idea behind Forsati is to improve competences and skills on the basis of the needs of the labour market, whether this is with a view to being employed or self-employed in Tunisia or abroad. A total of 85,000 potential beneficiaries have already applied to the programme and the aim is to reach 120 000 beneficiaries by the end of 2017. The personalised support provided to jobseekers and their active involvement in the design and implementation of their professional project is a very specific feature of this new programme. The programme is to be offered in all regions throughout Tunisia. Regional authorities are also involved so that job opportunities are identified and created in accordance with the specific strategic development priorities of each region. The implementation of the programme gave the evidence of a weak capacity

¹⁹ Torino process, 2016

²⁰ e.g. telecommunications, banking, insurance, health and education

of ANETI, in particular its staff, to deliver the programme. The ILO has started some small-scale training actions in a couple of pilot regions.

The National Observatory for Employment and Qualifications (ONEQ) is a specialist institution that supports decision making in the area of employment and skills. Its principal mission is to collect labour market statistics, analyse employment and skills data using relevant indicators and issue regular reports on labour market trends. With the new VET reform ONEQ will be reinforced in its capacity to support skills' forecasting (Project 4).

In December 2012, the Ministry of Vocational Training and Employment adopted the National Employment Strategy 2013–17, however it has never been implemented. Specific measures to support employment are envisaged in the National Development Plan 2016–20.

Tunisia has a tradition of employment policies, focused on active measures. Following the revolution, a number of initiatives were announced and are referred to in a decree.²¹ They include: a job search assistance cheque; employment subsidy to encourage private companies to hire people looking for their first job; a support programme for small enterprise creators; a partnership programme with the regions to promote employment and facilitate the insertion of various types of unemployed people into the labour market by supporting local and regional initiatives for job creation. Financial measures are expected to complement the training support and increase its attractiveness to potential beneficiaries. However, complete data and information on the progress and impact of the implementation of the various initiatives is not publicly available. Nevertheless, labour market measures seem to have a limited impact on the labour market, as reflected by weak employment performance. The limited capacity of ANETI to fulfil its public employment service role, especially as an intermediary, constitutes one of the main challenges.²² Addressing governance challenges among institutional stakeholders and building partnership with social partners and civil society are important steps to improve the effectiveness of employment policies. Better targeting and focus on monitoring and evaluation should be taken into consideration in the design of the labour market measures.

Entrepreneurship is currently seen as a priority at policy level. This is reflected in the national Entrepreneurship Strategy, adopted at the end of 2016, and in the draft law 'Start-up', aimed at creating a conducive environment for innovative companies. A new authority - Secretary of State for Entrepreneurship - was created at the Ministry of VET and Employment. This decision stems from the urgency to define new strategic approaches to employment generation given the dramatic situation affecting particularly youth and the limited capacity of the state to ensure jobs in the future. A new strategy for entrepreneurship development was expected by the end of 2017. Lessons from the ETF project to foster the entrepreneurial spirit throughout the VET system will contribute to the strategy.

Social dialogue and the involvement of social partners in the design and implementation of employment policy is still limited. The tripartite dialogue introduced by the 'Contrat social' among the state, the main employers' union and trade unions is the main platform for a social dialogue and some pilot actions are currently tested. Nevertheless, social partner inputs often come at the end of the decision making process and only with a consultative basis.

²¹ Decree No 2012-2369 of 16 October 2012 'fixant les programmes du Fonds national de l'emploi, les conditions et les modalités de leur bénéfice' [*establishing the programmes of the national employment fund, the terms and conditions of their benefit*].

²² Better Policies Series: Tunisia 2015, OECD 2015

ANNEXES

Statistical annex Tunisia

This annex reports annual data from 2011 and 2016 or the last available year.

Indicator		2011	2016
1	Total Population (000)	10,674.4 ⁽¹⁾	11,305.5 ⁽¹⁾
2	Relative size of youth population (age group 15-24) (%)	28.8 ⁽¹⁾	20.9 ⁽¹⁾
3	Youth Dependency ratio (%)	33.5	34.2
4	Old-age Dependency ratio (%)	10.8	11.3
5	Global Competitive Index	Rank	40
		Score	4.5
6	GDP growth rate (%)	-2.4	1.2
7	GDP per capita (PPP) (current international \$)	10120.7	11598.5
8	GDP by sector (%)	Agriculture added value	9.1
		Industry added value	31.6
		Services added value	59.3
9	Poverty headcount ratio at \$2 a day (PPP) (%)	M.D.	M.D.
10	Gini index (%)	M.D.	M.D.
11	Educational attainment of active population (aged 25-64) (%) ⁽²⁾	Low	58.2
		Medium	22.3
		High	19.3
12	Gross enrolment rates in secondary education (%)	92.1	88.2 (2015)
13	Share of VET students in secondary education (%)	14.0	6.2 (2015)
14	Gross enrolment rates in upper secondary education (%)	76.9	77.9 (2015)
15	Share of VET students in upper secondary education (%)	10.6	9.6 (2015)
16	Low achievement in reading, mathematics and science – PISA (%)	Reading	50,2 (2009)
		Mathematics	73,6 (2009)
		Science	53,7 (2009)
17	Participation in training/lifelong learning (age group 25-64) by sex (%)	Total	1.3
		Male	1.3
		Female	1.4
18	Early leavers from education and training (age group 18-24) by sex (%) ⁽³⁾	Total	51.0
		Male	55.4
		Female	46.5
19	Activity rates by sex (aged 15+) (%)	Total	47.2
		Male	70.1
		Female	24.9
20	Employment rates by sex (aged 15+) (%)	Total	38.5
		Male	59.6
		Female	18.1

Indicator		2011	2016	
21	Unemployment rates by sex (aged 15+) (%)	Total	18.3	15.6
		Male	15.0	12.4
		Female	27.4	23.5
22	Unemployment rates by educational attainment (aged 15+) (%)	Low ⁽⁴⁾	12.4	8.8 (2015)
		Medium	20.6	16.3 (2015)
		High	29.2	26.8 (2015)
23	Youth unemployment rates by sex (aged 15-24) (%)	Total	42.3	35.5 (2015)
		Male	40.8	34.0 (2015)
		Female	45.5	33.5 (2015)
24	Proportion of long-term unemployed out of the total unemployed (aged 15+) (%)	39.5	M.D.	
25	Long-term unemployment rate (aged 15+) (%)	5.8	M.D.	
26	Incidence of self-employment (%)	28.8	26.7 (2015)	
27	Share of the employed in a public sector (%)	M.D.	M.D.	
28	Employment by sector (%)	Agriculture	16.2	14.7
		Industry	33.5	33.2
		Services	49.6	51.7
29	Employment in the informal sector	M.D.	M.D.	
30	Proportion of people aged 15–24 not in employment, education or training (NEETs), by sex (%)	Total	28.6	29.1 (2015)
		Male	24.0	25.3 (2015)
		Female	33.6	32.8 (2015)
31	Public expenditure on education (as % of GDP)	6.5	6.1 (2014)	
32	Public expenditure on education (as % of total public expenditure)	24.4 (2010)	20.6 (2012)	
33	Skill gaps (%)	N.A.	9,5 (2013)	
34	The share of SMEs in GDP (%)	M.D.	M.D.	
35	The share of SMEs in employment (%)	59 (2012)	M.D.	

Last update: 01/09/2017

Sources:

Indicators 1, 2, 11, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 28, 30, 31 – National Statistical Office of Tunisia (INS)

Indicators 3, 4, 6, 7, 8 – World Bank, World Development Indicators

Indicator 5 – World Economic Forum

Indicators 11, 16, 33 - OECD

Indicators 12, 13, 14, 15, 32 - UIS UNESCO

Indicators 24, 25, 30 - ILOSTAT

Indicator 26 – EUROSTAT

Indicator 35 – OECD, European Commission, ETF (2014) SME Policy Index

Legend:

N.A. = Not Applicable

M.D. = Missing Data

Notes:

Labour market data refers to second quarter of the year

⁽¹⁾ Estimates

⁽²⁾ Classification used for Indicator 11 (ISCED 97), Low = ISCED 0-2 (includes no schooling), Medium = ISCED 3-4, High = ISCED 5-6

⁽³⁾ Provisional data, low reliability

⁽⁴⁾ ISCED 0-1, and does not include no schooling

Annex: Indicator definitions

	Description	Definition
1	Total population (000)	The total population is estimated as the number of persons having their usual residence in a country on 1 January of the respective year. When information on the usually resident population is not available, legal or registered residents can be considered.
2	Relative size of youth population (age group 15-24) (%)	The ratio of the youth population (aged 15–24) to the working-age population (usually aged 15–64 or 15–74).
3	Youth Dependency ratio (%)	The ratio of younger dependents (people younger than 15) to the working-age population (those in the 15–64 age group).
4	Old-age Dependency ratio (%)	The ratio of older dependents (people older than 64) to the working-age population (those in the 15–64 age group).
5	Global Competitiveness Index	The Global Competitiveness Index assesses the competitiveness landscape providing inside into the drivers of countries' productivity and prosperity. It expressed as scores on a 1 to 7 scale, with 7 being the most desirable outcome.
6	GDP growth rate (%)	The annual percentage growth rate of GDP at market prices based on constant local currency.
7	GDP per capita (PPP) (current international \$)	The market value of all final goods and services produced within a country in a given period of time (GDP), divided by the total population, and converted to international dollars using purchasing power parity (PPP) rates.
8	GDP by sector (%)	The share of value added from Agriculture, Industry and Services.
9	Poverty headcount ratio at \$2 a day (PPP) (%)	The percentage of the population living on less than \$2.00 a day at 2005 international prices.
10	Gini index (%)	Gini index measures the extent to which the distribution of income (or, in some cases, consumption expenditure) among individuals or households within an economy deviates from a perfectly equal distribution. A Gini index of 0 represents perfect equality, while an index of 100 implies perfect inequality.
11	Educational attainment of adult population (25-64 or aged 15+) (%)	Educational attainment refers to the highest educational level achieved by individuals expressed as a percentage of all persons in that age group.
12	Gross enrolment rates in secondary education (%)	Number of students enrolled in a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education.
13	Share of VET students in secondary (%)	The proportion of VET students in secondary education out of the total number of pupils and students in secondary education (general + VET)
14	Gross enrolment rates in upper secondary education (%)	Number of students enrolled in a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education.
15	Share of VET students in upper secondary education (%)	The proportion of VET students in upper secondary education out of the total number of pupils and students in upper secondary education (general education + VET)
16	Low achievement in reading, maths and science – PISA (%)	The share of 15-years-olds falling to reach level 2 in reading, mathematics and science.
17	Participation in training/lifelong learning (age group 25-64) by sex (%)	The share of persons aged 25–64 who stated that they received education or training in the four weeks preceding the (LFS) survey.
18	Early leavers from education and training (age group 18-24) by sex (%)	The percentage of the population aged 18–24 with at most lower secondary education who were not in further education or training during the four weeks preceding the (LFS) survey. Lower secondary education refers to ISCED 1997 level 0–3C short for data up to 2013 and to ISCED 2011 level 0–2 for data from 2014 onwards.
19	Activity rates by sex (aged 15+) (%)	Activity rates represent the labour force as a percentage of the population of working age.
20	Employment rates by sex (aged 15+) (%)	Employment rate represents persons in employment as a percentage of the population of working age.
21	Unemployment rates by sex (aged 15+) (%)	Unemployment rate represents unemployed persons as a percentage of the labour force.
22	Unemployment rates by educational attainment (aged 15+) (%)	Educational levels refer to the highest educational level successfully completed. Three levels are consider: Low (ISCED level 0-2), Medium (ISCED level 3-4) and High (ISCED 1997 level 5–6, and ISCED 2011 level 5–8)

	Description	Definition
23	Youth unemployment rates by sex (aged 15-24) (%)	Youth unemployment rate represents young unemployed persons aged (15-24) as a percentage of the labour force (15-24).
24	Proportion of long-term unemployed out of the total unemployed (aged 15+) (%)	Number of unemployed persons aged 15+ who are long-term unemployed (12 months or more) as a percentage of unemployed persons aged 15+.
25	Long-term unemployment rate (age 15+) (%)	Number of unemployed persons aged 15+ who are long-term unemployed (12 months or more) as a percentage of the labour force aged 15+.
26	Incidence of self-employment (%)	The share of self-employed as a proportion of total employment. Self-employment includes employers, own-account workers, members of producers' cooperatives and contributing family workers.
27	Share of the employed in a public sector (%)	The share of employed in a public sector as a proportion of total employment.
28	Employment by sector (%)	The share of employed in Agriculture, Industry and Services.
29	Employment in the informal sector	Share of persons employed in the informal sector in total non-agricultural employment.
30	Proportion of people aged 15–24 not in employment, education or training (NEETs) (%)	The percentage of the population of a given age group and sex who is not employed and not involved in further education or training.
31	Public expenditure on education (as % of GDP)	Public expenditure on education expressed as a percentage of GDP. Generally, the public sector funds education either by directly bearing the current and capital expenses of educational institutions, or by supporting students and their families with scholarships and public loans as well as by transferring public subsidies for educational activities to private firms or non-profit organisations. Both types of transactions together are reported as total public expenditure on education.
32	Public expenditure on education (as % of total public expenditure)	Public expenditure on education expressed as a of total public expenditure. Generally, the public sector funds education either by directly bearing the current and capital expenses of educational institutions, or by supporting students and their families with scholarships and public loans as well as by transferring public subsidies for educational activities to private firms or non-profit organisations. Both types of transactions together are reported as total public expenditure on education.
33	Skill gaps (%)	The percentage of firms identifying an inadequately educated workforce as a major constraint.
34	The share of SMEs in GDP (%)	The share of value added from small and medium sized businesses (SMEs).
35	The share of SMEs in employment (%)	The share of persons employed in small and medium sized businesses.

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