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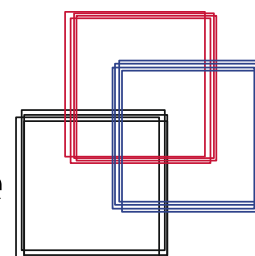
The MasterCard
Foundation

Labour market transitions of young women and men in Egypt

Ghada Barsoum, Mohamed Ramadan
and Mona Mostafa

June 2014

Youth Employment Programme
Employment Policy Department



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Preface

Youth is a crucial time of life when young people start realizing their aspirations, assuming their economic independence and finding their place in society. The global jobs crisis has exacerbated the vulnerability of young people in terms of: i) higher unemployment, ii) lower quality jobs for those who find work, iii) greater labour market inequalities among different groups of young people, iv) longer and more insecure school-to-work transitions, and v) increased detachment from the labour market.

In June 2012, the International Labour Conference of the ILO resolved to take urgent action to tackle the unprecedented youth employment crisis through a multi-pronged approach geared towards pro-employment growth and decent job creation. The resolution “The youth employment crisis: A call for action” contains a set of conclusions that constitute a blueprint for shaping national strategies for youth employment.¹ It calls for increased coherence of policies and action on youth employment across the multilateral system. In parallel, the UN Secretary-General highlighted youth as one of the five generational imperatives to be addressed through the mobilization of all the human, financial and political resources available to the United Nations (UN). As part of this agenda, the UN has developed a System-wide Action Plan on Youth, with youth employment as one of the main priorities, to strengthen youth programmes across the UN system.

The ILO supports governments and social partners in designing and implementing integrated employment policy responses. As part of this work, the ILO seeks to enhance the capacity of national and local level institutions to undertake evidence-based analysis that feeds social dialogue and the policy-making process. To assist member States in building a knowledge base on youth employment, the ILO has designed the “school-to-work transition survey” (SWTS). The current report, which presents the results of the survey in Egypt, is a product of a partnership between the ILO and The MasterCard Foundation. The “Work4Youth” Project entails collaboration with statistical partners and policy-makers of 28 low- and middle-income countries to undertake the SWTS and assist governments and the social partners in the use of the data for effective policy design and implementation.

It is not an easy time to be a young person in the labour market today. The hope is that with leadership from the UN system, with the commitment of governments, trade unions and employers’ organization and through the active participation of donors such as The MasterCard Foundation, the international community can provide the effective assistance needed to help young women and men make a good start in the world of work. If we can get this right, it will positively affect young people’s professional and personal success in all future stages of life.

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¹ The full text of the 2012 resolution “The youth employment crisis: A call for action” can be found on the ILO website at: http://www.ilo.org/ilc/ILCSessions/101stSession/texts-adopted/WCMS_185950/lang--en/index.htm.

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1. Introduction and main findings

1.1 Overview

Young people entering the labour market in Egypt face a number of severe constraints. The Egyptian economy is currently suffering from the ramifications of two major events: continuous political instability following the January 2011 revolution and the slowdown in global growth subsequent to the 2008 economic crisis. These two events have had a serious negative impact on job creation in the country. At the same time, the large number of youth, who comprise about one-fifth of the population and add approximately 600,000 new entrants to the labour market each year, puts further stress on the Egyptian employment situation and its already limited opportunities.

The Egyptian Government has long had youth employment on its agenda. The Youth Employment National Action Plan (2010–15) outlines Egypt's strategy towards more and better jobs for youth. The Action Plan identified three priority areas including technical education and vocational training, enterprise development and labour market policies and programmes.

To characterize the specific youth employment challenges and to support policy-makers in designing adequate instruments to support the transition of young people into employment, the ILO has developed its school-to-work transition survey (SWTS), a household survey of young people aged 15–29. The SWTS, implemented in Egypt in 2012, serves as a principal tool to monitor the impact of policies and programmes outlined in national instruments. This report is intended for the policy-makers and social partners who are concerned with the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of youth-related policies and programmes in the country.

The indicators generated from the survey and analysed in this report aim to present a much more detailed picture of youth in the labour market than that usually derived through standard surveys, including the labour force survey. Youth unemployment is a major national concern in the country, particularly after the 2011 revolution. The analysis provided in this report highlights two major and specific issues pertaining to the labour market in Egypt. The first relates to young women's very low labour force participation and high unemployment rates. The second relates to the poor quality of jobs held by young men and women, even among those who have completed their labour market transition.

1.2 Main findings

Despite increasing educational attainment, young people in Egypt are underutilized: unemployment affects one-sixth of the economically active youth population (15.7 per cent), and almost one-third (29.0 per cent) of youth in Egypt are neither in education nor in employment or training (NEET youth).

Young people in Egypt today are more educated than their parents. Despite an increase in educational attainment among both male and female youth, approximately one-sixth of youth in the labour market are unemployed (15.7 per cent). The youth unemployment rate is higher than the 2012 global average of 12.4 per cent (ILO, 2013) but lower than the regional average for the Middle East (28.3 per cent in 2012) and lower than in other countries/territories of the region in which the SWTS was also implemented (Tunisia at 31.8

per cent and the Occupied Palestinian Territory at 37.0 per cent).² “Relaxing” the definition of unemployment, by including those who are not working yet available to work but not actively searching for work, increases the youth unemployment rate to 22.8 per cent. Moreover, almost one-third of youth in Egypt (29.0 per cent) fall in the NEET category; they are not in employment, education or training.

The burden of unemployment in Egypt falls particularly on young women and the more highly educated.

The unemployment rate of young females is more than five times that of young males (38.1 per cent versus 6.8 per cent). The unemployment-to-population ratio is 11.9 per cent among female youth compared to 5.2 per cent among male youth.

Almost one-half of unemployed young people have completed university-level education or above (44.5 per cent of the unemployed). The second largest group of unemployed are technical vocational education and training (TVET)³ graduates (38.4 of the unemployed). Very telling is that almost one-third (30.0 per cent) of unemployed youth refused a job because the candidates felt the prospective job did not match their level of qualification. These statistics confirm a severe shortage of jobs in the occupations requiring higher skills.

The youth unemployment rate increases with each additional level of educational attainment; tertiary-level graduates have the highest rate at 34.0 per cent, compared to only 2.4 per cent among youth with less than primary-level education. However, important differences are apparent by sex. For young women, the highest unemployment rate is among those with general secondary-level education (at an incredible 76.0 per cent); the rates then decrease as the education level increases (56.0 per cent for female youth above the intermediate level and 46.9 per cent for female university graduates). The unemployment rates of young Egyptian men, in contrast, are quite low (even by international standards) regardless of the level of education attained (reaching a maximum 23.0 per cent among young male university graduates).

Gender disparity is key to understanding the situation of youth in the Egyptian labour market.

Despite significant strides in reducing the gender gap in education in Egypt, young women are much more likely to fall in the NEET category than young men (49.5 per cent and 9.3 per cent, respectively).

More young working women than men are unpaid family workers. Almost one-third of female working youth (28.9 per cent) are unpaid family workers compared to 14.2 per cent of male working youth.

Female youth are much less likely to complete their transition to a stable and/or satisfactory job than males. While 51.7 per cent of young men have transited to stable and/or satisfactory employment, only 16.3 per cent of young women have completed their transition. More than one-half of young women (53.4 per cent) have not yet started their transition, a situation also reflected in the low shares of female participation in the labour force.

² The ILO estimates global and regional values for youth aged 15–24, so estimates are not strictly comparable. Following the 2012–13 SWTS in the region, the youth unemployment rate in Jordan was below the Egyptian rate at 12.4 per cent. National reports for all SWTS countries will be available on www.ilo.org/w4y as from the second quarter of 2014.

³ TVET as used in this report includes all technical and vocational education and training at secondary level, generally comprising 3-year programmes.

Egypt has very few young entrepreneurs and they are not using institutional financial support mechanisms.

Those who are self-employed constitute 26.1 per cent of employed youth, including unpaid family workers (17.2 per cent), own-account workers (6.3 per cent) and employers (2.6 per cent). Almost three-quarters of employed youth (73.9 per cent) are wage workers. A majority of own-account workers are male youth (7.4 per cent compared to 2.1 per cent among female youth).

The family and friends of entrepreneurs were the main source of financing (for 48.5 per cent of self-employed youth), followed by personal savings (31.0 per cent). The data on youth self-employment highlight the lack of institutional lending opportunities, with only 2.6 per cent of youth receiving financing from a financial institution.

Low-quality jobs and informal employment are serious challenges facing working youth in Egypt.

The low quality of employment of many young Egyptian workers is evident from the SWTS results. A majority of young employees (75.7 per cent) have no contract and thus remain vulnerable; 81.1 per cent of young workers are in “irregular work”; more than one-third (39.5 per cent) work more than 50 hours per week; 91.1 per cent of young workers in Egypt are in informal employment.

Another aspect of job quality has to do with how well the job matches the qualifications of the young worker. In Egypt, almost one-half of working youth (47.7 per cent) are in occupations that do not match their education: 8.8 per cent are overeducated and 38.9 per cent are undereducated. The consequence of overeducation is that young workers performing a job below their level of educational qualification are likely to earn less than they otherwise could and are not making the most of their productive potential. The undereducation of workers can have a negative impact on worker productivity and thus on the output of the enterprise but also, more personally, on the sense of security of the young worker.

Most young workers surveyed expressed a degree of job satisfaction, although as many as one-half (50.1 per cent) of working youth indicated they would like to change their current job, principally due to poor working conditions.

Only 22.7 per cent of youth described themselves as very satisfied with their work, and a large share (50.8 per cent) described themselves as somewhat satisfied. Close to one-fifth of employed youth expressed dissatisfaction (13.7 per cent were somewhat unsatisfied and 6.0 per cent were very unsatisfied); 6.8 per cent had no opinion. These data should be considered with caution, however, since prevalent cultural and religious beliefs can discourage expressions of dissatisfaction. In fact, despite having asserted job satisfaction, as many as one-half (50.1 per cent) of working youth indicated they would like to change their current job (53.2 per cent of young male workers and 38.3 per cent of young female workers) because of the temporary nature of the job or to receive higher pay, experience better working conditions or match their level of qualification.

Only one-third (34.4 per cent) of Egyptian youth successfully transited to the labour market, meaning they attained a stable and/or satisfactory job.

A little more than one-third of surveyed youth (34.4 per cent) have already transited (in a stable job; in a satisfactory but temporary job; or in satisfactory self-employment). Another 29.4 per cent remain “in transition” (unemployed according to the relaxed definition; employed in a temporary and non-satisfactory job; in non-satisfactory self-employment; or inactive and not in school, with the aim to look for work later). The remaining youth (36.2 per cent) have not yet started their transition. They are still in school and inactive (inactive

student); or inactive and not in school (inactive non-student), with no intention of looking for work. The latter sub-category is dominated by young women.

Young men are almost twice as likely as young women to complete the transition, with the majority of transitioned young men attaining a satisfactory temporary job. Young women, in contrast, have twice the likelihood of young men of remaining in transition. Regarding the impact of household income level, youth from wealthier households are more likely to eventually attain stable employment while youth from poorer households are much more likely to remain in non-satisfactory temporary or self-employment.

The data confirm that investing in higher education brings a distinct advantage in terms of gaining stable employment. Nearly one-third (30.5 per cent) of youth with tertiary-level education completed the transition to stable employment compared to less than 10 per cent of youth with primary-level schooling or below, or TVET. Still, it is important to bear in mind that 37.4 per cent of youth with tertiary-level education remain unemployed compared to 12.1 per cent of youth with primary-level education. The youth with lower levels of education have a higher chance of completing their labour market transition, but not to stable employment. Rather, they are most likely to remain in satisfactory temporary employment.

1.3 Structure of the report

Following this introduction, this report is organized as follows: section 2 focuses on the socio-economic and labour market conditions of Egypt and introduces the objectives and methodology of the SWTS. Section 3 presents the results of the SWTS with details on the characteristics of the youth and their labour market outcomes. Section 4 introduces the stages of labour market transition and investigates the characteristics that lead to more advantageous labour market outcomes, and also presents indicators that define the path of labour market transition. Finally, section 5 concludes with the policy implications of the results outlined in this report.

2. Overview of the Egyptian labour market and survey methodology

2.1 The socio-economic context

The Egyptian economy is currently suffering from the ramifications of two major events: continuous political instability following the 25 January 2011 revolution and the slowdown in global growth subsequent to the 2008 economic crisis. In the 2012–13 fiscal year, Egypt's gross domestic product (GDP) grew by only 2.1 per cent (table 2.1). Moreover, the country's budget deficit reached 13.8 per cent of GDP in 2013. A key concern in 2013 was Egypt's foreign currency reserves, which hit a record low of US\$14.4 billion in July 2013, falling below the critical level set by the Central Bank of Egypt and constituting a sharp fall from US\$36 billion in January 2011. A drop in tourism revenues due to political unrest along with a serious reduction in foreign direct investment contributed to this crisis. The value of the Egyptian pound (EGP) fell to its lowest rate since 2004 in July 2013, losing 12 per cent of its value.

These national losses were felt mainly by the poor. According to Egypt's national statistical office, the Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (CAPMAS), over one-quarter (25.2 per cent) of Egyptian households lived under the absolute poverty line in 2010–11, and 4.8 per cent of households lived under the food poverty line. The proportion of

poor increased by over 5 per cent in the 3 years following 2008–09, when it was approximately 20 per cent.

Table 2.1 Macroeconomic indicators for the Egyptian economy, 2010–13

Indicator	Unit	2010–11	2011–12	2012–13	Annual % change
Real GDP (GDP at factor cost at 2011–12 prices)	EGP million	1 475 552	1 508 527	1 539 594	2.1
Real GDP per capita (at 2011–12 prices)	EGP	18 267	18 329	18 156	-0.94
Real GDP growth rate	per cent	1.8	2.1	2.1	-4.5
Net international reserves	US\$ million	26 564	12 534	14 922	19.0
Annual real growth rate of private consumption	per cent	5.5	5.9	2.8	-52.5
Overall budget deficit	EGP million	134 460	166 705	239 903	44.0
Foreign direct investment inflows	US\$ million	9 574	11 768	9 614	-18.3

Source: Helmy, Raouf and Tarek, 2013.

2.2 The labour market in Egypt

New entrants to the labour market from the youth carry the brunt of current economic constraints. Young people aged 15–24 account for nearly 22 per cent of the Egyptian population. This places significant pressure on the labour market with around 600,000 new entrants per year (CAPMAS, 2012). CAPMAS conducts the labour force survey (LFS) on a quarterly basis. The data provided in this section are based on the published results of the LFS, fourth quarter 2012. This round had a nationally representative sample of 23,864 households.

Table 2.2 provides the distribution of manpower (aged 15 and older) according to economic status, area of residence and sex. The table shows that the labour force participation rate in Egypt in 2012 was 51.9 per cent. This participation rate is low primarily due to the low participation rate of women at 24.0 per cent. The unemployment rate is much higher among women than among men (24.7 per cent compared to 9.6 per cent, respectively). The gender disparity in labour market participation and in unemployment is a key characteristic of the labour market in Egypt. The unemployment rate of 13.0 per cent in the last quarter of 2012 is significantly higher than the rate of 9.0 per cent measured in 2010. The rate increased further in 2013 to 13.4 per cent (10.0 per cent for men and 25.0 for women in the fourth quarter of 2013) (CAPMAS, 2013).

Despite women's low participation in the labour force, Table 2.3 shows that a key feature of female employment in Egypt is the prevalence of the unpaid family worker employment status; more than one-quarter (26.4 per cent) of employed women, who are mostly concentrated in the agricultural sector in rural areas, fall into this category. More than one-half of employed women are wage and salaried workers (56.9 per cent) and 13.5 are own-account workers (self-employed with no employees). The share of female employers is much smaller than that of male employers (3.3 per cent and 19.1 per cent, respectively). While almost one-third (30.9 per cent) of men in Egypt are self-employed (as employer and own-account worker), the corresponding share for women is 16.8 per cent.

Table 2.2 Key labour market indicators for the working-age population (15 and older) by economic status, area of residence and sex, 2012

Area & sex	Number					%		
	Population 15 and older	Labour force	Inactive	Employed	Unemployed	Unemployment rate	Labour force participation rate	Employment-to-population ratio
Total								
Male	26 412 700	20 884 300	5 528 400	18 879 407	2 004 893	9.6	79.1	71.5
Female	25 621 500	6 140 100	19 481 400	4 623 495	1 516 605	24.7	24.0	18.0
Total	52 034 200	27 024 300	25 009 900	23 511 141	3 513 159	13.0	51.9	45.2
Urban								
Male	11 698 000	8 977 600	2 720 400	7 837 445	1 140 155	12.7	76.6	67.0
Female	11 533 800	2 832 800	8 701 000	1 980 127	852 673	30.1	24.6	17.2
Total	23 231 800	11 810 400	11 421 400	9 814 442	1 995 958	16.9	50.8	42.2
Rural								
Male	14 714 800	11 906 800	2 808 000	11 049 510	857 290	7.2	80.9	75.1
Female	14 087 700	3 307 300	10 780 400	2 645 840	661 460	20.0	23.5	18.8
Total	28 802 500	15 214 000	13 588 500	13 692 600	1 521 400	10.0	52.8	47.5

Source: CAPMAS, 2012.

Table 2.3 Working-age population (15 and older) status in employment by sex, 2012 (%)

Sex	Wage & salaried worker	Employer	Own-account worker	Unpaid family worker
Male	63.7	19.1	11.8	5.4
Female	56.9	3.3	13.5	26.4
Total	62.3	16.0	12.2	9.5

Source: CAPMAS, 2012.

Table 2.4 provides figures on the employed population's main branches of economic activity. As would be expected, services are the dominant economic activity for those living in urban areas (78.8 per cent) but also among men in rural areas. Agriculture (and other primary economic activities, such as fishing and mining at very low percentages) is the dominant activity only among working women in rural areas.

A key feature of Egypt's labour market is the role of the government and public sector, as compared to the private sector, in providing employment opportunities. Together, the government and public sector provide more than one-quarter of total jobs (23.0 per cent and 3.7 per cent, respectively) (table 2.5). The data on the private sector are disaggregated by whether a company operates inside or outside establishments. The latter are primarily operating within the informal economy, yet they provide almost one-half of jobs in Egypt (46.5 per cent).

Table 2.4 Employed population (15 and older) by main sector of economic activity, area of residence and sex, 2012 (%)

Sector of activity & sex	Urban	Rural	Total
Agriculture & other primary economic activities			
Male	6.1	38.1	24.9
Female	6.2	61.4	37.7
Total	6.1	42.6	27.4
Industry			
Male	17.5	9.4	12.8
Female	5.6	2.9	4.1
Total	15.1	8.2	11.1
Services			
Male	76.4	52.5	62.3
Female	88.2	35.7	58.2
Total	78.8	49.2	61.5

Source: CAPMAS, 2012, table compiled from extended list of economic activities.

Table 2.5 Employed population (15 and older) by type of employment establishment and sex (%)

Employed population	Government	Public sector	Private sector		Investment	Other	Total
			Inside establishments	Outside establishments			
Total							
Male	18.8	4.0	27.3	47.8	1.8	0.3	100.0
Female	40.4	2.3	14.9	41.1	1.0	0.4	100.0
Total	23.0	3.7	24.9	46.5	1.6	0.3	100.0
Urban							
Male	20.0	5.5	41.2	30.0	2.7	0.5	100.0
Female	61.1	4.1	24.0	8.4	1.9	0.5	100.0
Total	28.3	5.3	37.7	25.7	2.5	0.5	100.0
Rural							
Male	17.9	2.9	17.5	60.5	1.1	0.2	100.0
Female	24.9	0.9	8.1	65.5	0.4	0.2	100.0
Total	19.2	2.5	15.7	61.5	0.9	0.2	100.0

Source: CAPMAS, 2012.

2.3 The school-to-work transition survey: Objectives and methodology

Current restrictions in labour market information have led to a situation in which the question of why the school-to-work transition of young people today is a long and difficult process has not yet been satisfactorily answered. At the same time, the goal of improving the transition of youth is a top policy priority in most countries. In response to this obvious information gap, the ILO developed the school-to-work transition survey (SWTS), a detailed household survey covering 15–29 year-olds (see box 1). The survey is implemented at the national level to generate information on the current labour market situation, the history of economic activity and the perceptions and aspirations of youth.

The SWTS was implemented in Egypt to collect and analyse information on the various challenges that impact young men and women as they make the transition to working life. The survey was implemented by the CAPMAS, with field work completed

from November to December 2012. Funding for the survey came from the Work4Youth partnership between the ILO Youth Employment Programme and The MasterCard Foundation (see box 2). The partnership supports the implementation of the SWTS in 28 target countries.⁴ A second round of the SWTS will take place in each of the 28 countries in 2014–15, including in Egypt.

Box 1. Definition of youth

While in most contexts, a youth is defined as a person aged between 15 and 24, for the purpose of the SWTS and related reports, the upper age limit is extended to 29 years of age. This recognizes the fact that some young people remain in education beyond the age of 24, and allows the opportunity to capture more information on the post-graduation employment experiences of young people.

2.3.1 Questionnaire development

The standard ILO SWTS questionnaire was adapted to the national context based on a consultative process between the ILO and CAPMAS. The questionnaire was drafted in English and Arabic and administered in Arabic.

2.3.2 Sample design and selection

The SWTS sample is a self-weighted multi-stage cluster sample. The SWTS sample was extracted from the LFS sample for the two rounds of the first and second quarters of 2012. The LFS has a panel design, but the SWTS sample was extracted from the LFS original household roster, that is, without including split households. The LFS sample for these two quarters comprised 16,081 households. The LFS sample is nationally representative, excluding frontier governorates, which are known to constitute less than 2 per cent of Egypt's population. The LFS sample included 1,237 enumeration areas.

Box 2. Work4Youth: An ILO project in partnership with The MasterCard Foundation

The Work4Youth (W4Y) Project is a partnership between the ILO Youth Employment Programme and The MasterCard Foundation. The project has a budget of US\$14.6 million and will run for 5 years to mid-2016. Its aim is to “promot[e] decent work opportunities for young men and women through knowledge and action”. The immediate objective of the partnership is to produce more and better labour market information specific to youth in developing countries, focusing in particular on transition paths to the labour market. The assumption is that governments and social partners in the project's 28 target countries will be better prepared to design effective policy and programme initiatives once armed with detailed information on:

- what young people expect in terms of transition paths and quality of work;
- what employers expect in terms of young applicants;
- what issues prevent the two sides – supply and demand – from matching; and
- what policies and programmes can have a *real* impact.

Work4Youth target areas and countries:

Asia and the Pacific: Bangladesh, Cambodia, Nepal, Samoa, Viet Nam

Eastern Europe and Central Asia: Armenia, Kyrgyzstan, the Republic of Moldova, the Russian Federation, The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Ukraine

Latin America and the Caribbean: Brazil, Colombia, El Salvador, Jamaica, Peru

Middle East and North Africa: Egypt, Jordan, Occupied Palestinian Territory, Tunisia

Sub-Saharan Africa: Benin, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, the United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zambia

⁴ First round SWTS data sets from 2012–13 are now available at the W4Y website: http://www.ilo.org/employment/areas/WCMS_234860/lang--en/index.htm.

The main criterion for selection of the households from the LFS sample for inclusion in the SWTS sample was to reach household members aged 15–29. The LFS sample included 9,708 households meeting this criterion. From this sampling framework, 3,500 households were selected for the SWTS. The SWTS sub-sample was selected from enumeration units with the highest concentration of households that met the age criterion. Households with more members meeting the age criterion were also more likely to be selected. Sample selection was systematized to take into account inclusion of all governorates. The sampling framework is further described in Annex III. The final sample came to 5,198 youth aged 15–29.

3. Characteristics of youth in Egypt

3.1 The demographic characteristics of youth

This section provides information on selected characteristics of youth aged 15–29, including age group, area of residence, and marital and family status.

Table 3.1 shows that young respondents were relatively evenly distributed across age categories, with slightly more young people in the 20–24 age category (38.5 per cent), followed by those in the 15–19 age category (34.6 per cent) and those in the 25–29 age category (27.0 per cent). The sample included more rural than urban youth (58.5 per cent versus 41.5 per cent). Most youth in the sample were single (77.9 per cent). More female youth were married (28.6 per cent versus 15.9 per cent for male youth).

Table 3.1 Youth population by selected characteristics

Characteristic	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Age group						
15–19	8 270 876	34.6	3 805 771	31.1	4 465 106	38.2
20–24	9 213 125	38.5	4 458 044	36.4	4 755 082	40.7
25–29	6 452 414	27.0	3 976 184	32.5	2 476 230	21.2
Area of residence						
Urban	9 923 620	41.5	4 989 222	40.8	4 934 398	42.2
Rural	14 012 796	58.5	7 250 776	59.2	6 762 019	57.8
Marital status						
Married (including divorced & widowed)	5 296 135	22.1	1 948 852	15.9	3 347 283	28.6
Single	18 640 280	77.9	10 291 147	84.1	8 349 134	71.4
With children	4 344 211	18.2	1 584 032	12.9	2 760 180	23.6
Average age at marriage	20.8		23.0		19.5	

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

The SWTS asked respondents about their current place of residence and whether it differs from their original place of residence. Table 3.2 shows that only 3.7 per cent of youth moved from their original residence. The majority of these youth (65.7 per cent) moved from rural areas, while the rest moved from urban areas. The majority of those who moved (45.8 per cent) did so to accompany family members, although the share that moved because they got married is not far behind at 38.2 per cent. In fact, among young women, marriage is the predominant reason for changing their area of residence (60.7 per cent of migrated young

women compared to only 2.4 per cent of young men). Overall, only 7.7 per cent of youth moved for employment reasons. For young males, less than one-fifth (16.6 per cent) moved for employment reasons.

Table 3.2 Youth migrants by previous residence, reason for moving, sex and area of residence

Characteristic	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total (Urban + Rural)						
Total youth population	23 936 415	100.0	12 239 998	100.0	11 696 417	100.0
Share of youth who moved from original residence	879 095	3.7	338 968	2.8	540 127	4.6
of which:						
- from rural area	301 460	65.7	240 588	71.0	337 048	62.4
- from urban area	577 636	34.3	98 380	29.0	203 080	37.6
Total	879 095	100.0	150 534	100.0	283 001	100.0
<i>Main reason for moving to your current residence</i>						
To accompany family	402 448	45.8	240 889	71.1	161 559	29.9
For education/training	36 995	4.2	25 596	7.6	11 398	2.1
To work/for employment-related reasons	67 851	7.7	56 197	16.6	11 654	2.2
To get married	336 072	38.2	8 105	2.4	327 967	60.7
Other	35 730	4.1	8 180	2.4	27 550	5.1
Urban						
Total	577 636	5.8	98 380	4.8	203 080	6.8
<i>Main reason for moving to your current residence</i>						
To accompany family	307 257	53.2	188 716	78.4	118 541	35.2
For education/training	13 927	2.4	7 891	3.3	6 036	1.8
To work/for employment-related reasons	41 912	7.3	35 876	14.9	6 036	1.8
To get married	203 471	35.2	8 105	3.4	195 366	58.0
Other	11 068	1.9	0	0.0	11 068	3.3
Rural						
Total	301 460	2.2	240 588	1.4	337 048	3.0
<i>Main reason for moving to your current residence</i>						
To accompany family	95 191	31.6	52 173	53.0	43 017	21.2
For education/training	23 067	7.7	17 705	18.0	5 362	2.6
To work/for employment-related reasons	25 939	8.6	20 321	20.7	5 618	2.8
To get married	132 601	44.0	0	0.0	132 601	65.3
Other	24 661	8.2	8 180	8.3	16 482	8.1

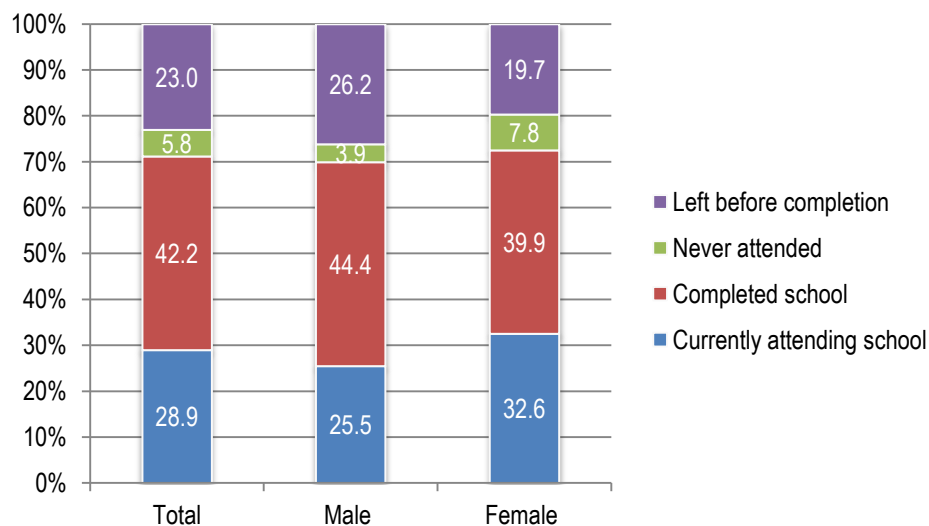
Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

3.2 Educational attainment

Education is the entry point into the labour market and educational attainment is an important determinant of the transition path for each individual. Educational attainment influences the transition into the labour force in many ways, impacting for example age of

entry, extent of preparation, type of job and future career path. A majority of the surveyed youth in Egypt had already completed their education – 42.2 per cent had earned a degree – while 5.8 per cent had never attended school and 23.0 per cent left before completion (figure 3.1). The remaining 28.9 per cent of the youth – with slightly more young women than men – were currently in school. Young men were more likely than young women to have left school before completion but more young women than men had never gone to school at all.

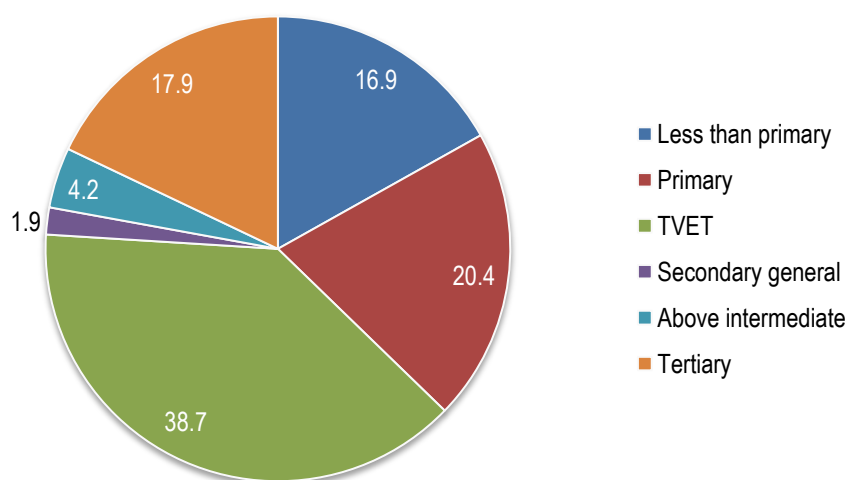
Figure 3.1 Youth by educational status and sex



Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Figure 3.2 shows the distribution of youth who completed their education by the highest level of education attained. Youth with TVET constitute the largest education segment among those who finished schooling (38.7 per cent). The second largest group is those with primary education (20.4 per cent). University (tertiary) education graduates constitute 17.9 per cent of youth. They are followed by those with less than primary education (16.9 per cent) and those with above intermediate education (4.2 per cent of youth). A small group of youth ended their education with general secondary schooling (1.9 per cent).

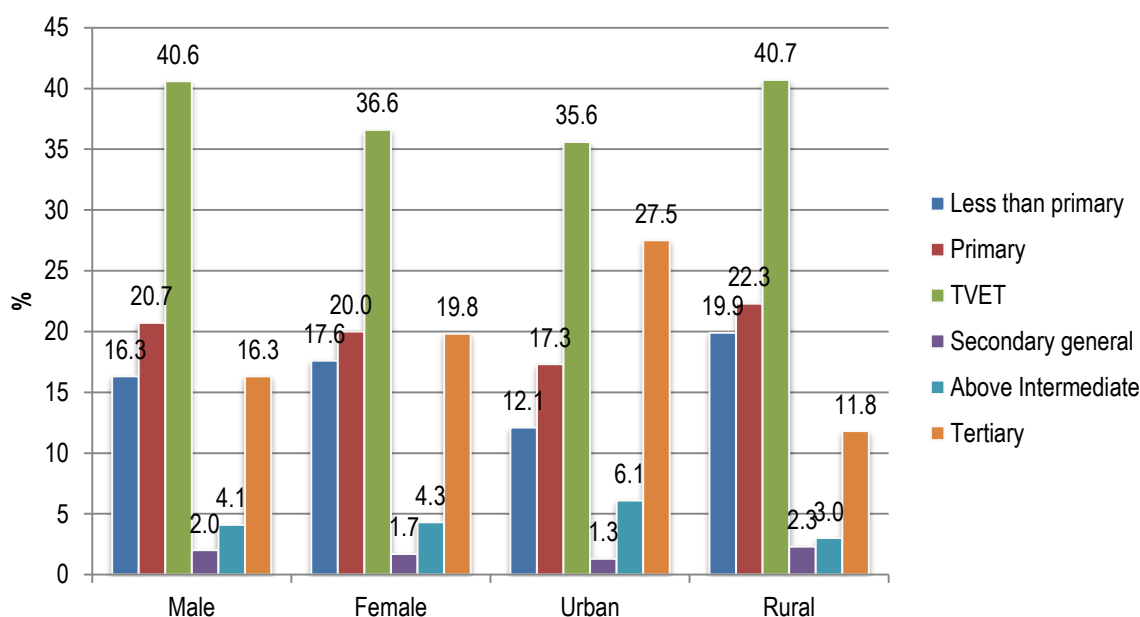
Figure 3.2 Youth by level of completed educational attainment (%)



Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Figure 3.3 shows the distribution of completed educational attainment for youth by sex and area of residence. Young females had a higher tendency than males to fall among the extremes: higher shares of young women finished school at the lowest level (less than primary at 17.6 per cent) and the highest level (tertiary-level education at 19.8 per cent). Young men, in contrast, were more likely than young women to complete TVET (although this category comprises the highest shares of both young men and women) and general secondary and primary levels. The data show the advantages to educational access and attainment that exist in urban areas compared to rural areas. Almost one-half (42.2 per cent) of youth in rural areas finished their education at the primary level or below compared to 29.4 per cent of youth in urban areas. At the other extreme, youth in urban areas were more than twice as likely to have completed tertiary-level education as youth in rural areas (27.5 and 11.8 per cent, respectively).

Figure 3.3 Youth by level of completed educational attainment, sex and area of residence



Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Those who never attended school or left school before attaining secondary level were asked about the reasons for this situation. Table 3.3 shows that 42.3 per cent of youth left education because they failed an exam or were not suited to studying and another 24.4 per cent left because they felt the level was good enough for their needs. Family poverty was the reason for 14.2 per cent of youth with less than secondary-level education and another 4.7 per cent left because of high costs. Following cultural norms, more female youth (6.3 per cent) had to leave school to help in housework, compared to only 0.2 per cent of male youth, and more female than male youth left school because their parents considered the level good enough for them (5.7 per cent of young women versus 2.0 per cent of young men).

Table 3.3 Youth with less than secondary-level education by reason for leaving

Reason	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
I was not successful in studying	2 332 249	42.3	1 590 061	49.6	742 188	32.2
Due to the high cost	256 749	4.7	166 520	5.2	90 229	3.9
Because of family poverty	781 003	14.2	442 517	13.8	338 486	14.7
I completed the level that I consider good enough for me	1 343 057	24.4	738 977	23.1	604 080	26.2
I completed the level my parents consider good enough for me	194 511	3.5	63 838	2.0	130 673	5.7
To work	134 535	2.4	123 184	3.8	11 351	0.5
To help with house work	152 478	2.8	6 529	0.2	145 949	6.3
No school nearby	15 635	0.3	3 264	0.1	12 371	0.5
Got pregnant	5 989	0.1	0	0.0	5 989	0.3
To get married	137 135	2.5	0	0.0	137 135	5.9
Disability	43 359	0.8	25 855	0.8	17 504	0.8
Do not know	17 061	0.3	11 481	0.4	5 580	0.2
Other	96 404	1.7	32 686	1.0	63 718	2.8
Total	5 510 167	100.0	3 204 913	100.0	2 305 255	100.0

Note: The data includes those with no education asked to identify why they never attended school.

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Remarkable progress in access to education for youth has been made over the past few decades. Young people in Egypt by and large are more likely to have attended school than their parents and to have more years of schooling. This has been the case for both male and female youth. As shown in table 3.4, 69.6 per cent of youth indicated that their mothers had never attended school and 57.1 per cent stated their fathers had never attended school. Gender disparity in education is clear when comparing the education of mothers and fathers. Young people's fathers show higher levels of completed education at all levels compared to their mothers. For example, 11.3 per cent of fathers had completed tertiary-level education as compared to 5.2 per cent of mothers.

Table 3.4 Youth's mothers and fathers by educational attainment

Highest education level completed	Youth's mothers		Youth's fathers	
	Number	%	Number	%
Do not have any formal education	16 666 911	69.6	13 658 958	57.1
Primary	2 017 300	8.4	2 957 634	12.4
Secondary	4 006 118	16.7	4 553 816	19.0
Tertiary	1 242 075	5.2	2 705 360	11.3
Other	4 012	0.0	60 649	0.3
Total youth population	23 936 415	100.0	23 936 415	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

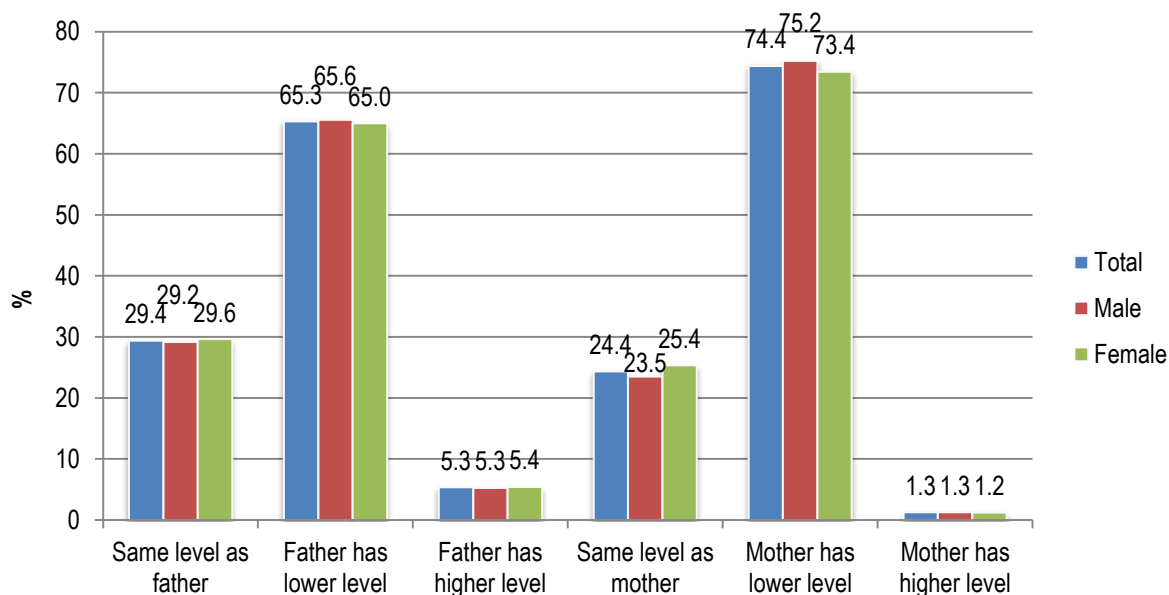
Table 3.5 show that the recent cohort of surveyed youth in Egypt was much more educated than their parents. Over one-third (38.9 per cent) of the mothers of youth with tertiary-level education had no education and about one-quarter (25.3 per cent) of the fathers of these youth had no education.

Table 3.5 Educational attainment of respondent in comparison to their parents (%)

Educational attainment	Youth's education					
	Does not have any formal education	Primary	TVET	Secondary	Above intermediate	Tertiary
Father's education						
Does not have any formal education	92.1	81.2	64.8	73.3	48.3	25.3
Primary	4.7	11.1	15.3	13.5	20.4	13.5
TVET	2.1	5.0	13.9	7.6	19.7	20.9
Secondary general	0.1	0.0	0.9	1.2	0.0	1.7
Above intermediate	0.0	0.4	2.0	4.4	5.7	5.9
Tertiary	0.0	1.7	3.1	0.0	5.9	32.6
Do not know/other	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
Mother's education						
Does not have any formal education	98.3	91.4	81.0	88.4	63.6	38.9
Primary	1.3	6.2	9.0	6.9	14.0	10.5
TVET	0.3	2.2	8.9	1.3	20.5	25.5
Secondary general	0.0	0.0	0.3	1.3	0.5	2.7
Above intermediate	0.0	0.1	1.0	2.2	1.5	5.8
Tertiary	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	16.7
Do not know/other	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Figure 3.4 Cross-tabulation of youth's and parents' educational attainment



Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Figure 3.4 further illustrates the data on the relationship between the parental education of youth and their educational attainment. Young people are now much more highly educated than their parents. About 65.6 per cent of male youth and 65.0 per cent of female youth finished their education at a higher level than their father. Similarly, about 75.2 per

cent of male youth and 73.4 per cent of female youth finished their education at a level higher than their mother.

3.3 Current activity status of youth

As Table 3.6 shows, slightly fewer than one-half of the youth in the sample were employed (45.6 per cent), one-quarter were inactive students (25.1 per cent), one-fifth were inactive non-students (20.8 per cent) and 8.5 per cent were unemployed. The gender disparity in young people's current activity is evident. More female youth are inactive non-students than male youth (37.9 per cent of female youth versus 4.6 of male youth). Also, more female youth are inactive students (30.8 per cent of female youth versus 19.6 per cent of male youth). Inversely, more male than female youth are employed (70.6 per cent versus 19.4 per cent, respectively).

Table 3.6 Youth by main current activity status and sex

Main activity	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Employed	10 916 469	45.6	8 646 604	70.6	2 269 865	19.4
Unemployed	2 027 258	8.5	631 380	5.2	1 395 878	11.9
Inactive student	6 003 226	25.1	2 402 160	19.6	3 601 066	30.8
Inactive non-student	4 989 463	20.8	559 854	4.6	4 429 609	37.9
Total youth population	23 936 415	100.0	12 239 998	100.0	11 696 417	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Table 3.7 lists the key labour market indicators for youth in Egypt. It shows that the employment-to-population ratio is 45.6 per cent for all youth, which means that about one-half of young people are employed. However, the ratio drops severely to 19.4 per cent among female youth and increases to 70.6 per cent among male youth. The labour force participation rate is 54.1 per cent among all youth, but is a low 31.3 per cent among female youth, compared to 75.8 per cent among male youth. This means the gender gap in the employment ratio is as much as 50 percentage points, with the gap in the economic activity rate not far behind. The differences are so significant that it is important to bear in mind the extreme segregation of the labour market by sex in Egypt and to regard aggregate data with care.

Table 3.7 Key labour market indicators for youth by sex, 2012 (%)

Indicator	Total	Male	Female
Employment-to-population ratio	45.6	70.6	19.4
Unemployment-to-population ratio	8.5	5.2	11.9
Unemployment rate	15.7	6.8	38.1
Labour force participation rate	54.1	75.8	31.3
Inactivity rate	45.9	24.2	68.7
Share of inactive & out-of-school youth (neither in labour force nor in education/training)	20.9	4.6	37.9

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

The unemployment rate of young people is 15.7 per cent. Female youth are more than five times as likely as male youth to be unemployed (38.1 per cent versus 6.8 per cent, respectively). Similarly, the unemployment-to-population ratio is 8.5 per cent for young people, although it is 11.9 per cent among female youth and 5.2 per cent among male youth.

Table 3.8 presents data on young people neither in education nor in employment or training (also called the NEET population). More than one-quarter of surveyed youth in Egypt (29.0 per cent) fell in the NEET category; of these, 36.1 per cent were unemployed non-students and 63.9 per cent were inactive non-students. The gender disparity is clear in the data on the NEET youth. Female youth are much more likely to be in the NEET category than male youth (49.5 per cent of female youth compared to 9.3 per cent of male youth). While nearly three-quarters of female NEETs are inactive non-students (71.1 per cent), nearly three-quarters of young male NEETs are unemployed non-students (72.7 per cent). The differences in the number and distribution of NEET categories by area of residence are not stark, but there is a slightly higher tendency towards inactivity among non-students in rural areas and towards unemployment in urban areas.

Table 3.8 NEET youth by area of residence and sex

Characteristic	Total youth population	Total NEET ¹ youth (% of total youth population)	NEET status			
			Unemployed non-students		Inactive non-students	
			Number	%	Number	%
Total youth population	23 936 415	29.0	1 945 576	36.1	4 989 463	63.9
Male	12 239 998	9.3	582 406	72.7	559 854	27.3
Female	11 696 417	49.5	1 363 169	28.9	4 429 609	71.1
Urban	9 923 620	28.3	928 942	41.2	1 880 231	58.8
Rural	14 012 796	28.3	1 016 634	32.7	3 109 232	67.3

¹Neither in education nor in employment or training.

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Table 3.9 shows the distribution of youth by educational attainment level and activity status. The greatest share of employed youth who finished schooling (39.5 per cent) had completed TVET. The second largest group comprised youth who had completed primary education (20.5 per cent), followed by those who had less than primary education (17.7 per cent). Youth who had completed university education constituted the largest education group among the unemployed (44.5 per cent). The second largest group among the unemployed comprised those who had finished TVET (38.4 per cent). Among inactive youth, those who had completed TVET made up the largest group (37.3 per cent), followed by youth who had completed primary-level education (26.1 per cent).

The data on the employed male and female youth surveyed show that the educated young women were more likely to be employed than the uneducated young women. In addition, about two-thirds of employed women had secondary-level and above education (32.6 per cent had TVET, 0.5 per cent had secondary general education, 3.9 per cent had above intermediate education and 29.7 per cent had a university education). The pattern was not the same among employed young men; those with secondary-level and above education constituted just over one-half of the employed (41.3 per cent had TVET, 1.9 per cent had secondary general education, 3.8 per cent had above intermediate education and 13.3 per cent had a university education).

Table 3.9 Youth by educational attainment level and current activity status (completed education and youth still in school, %)

Educational attainment level	Total			Male			Female		
	Employed	Unemployed	Inactive	Employed	Unemployed	Inactive	Employed	Unemployed	Inactive
Highest education level completed									
Less than primary	17.7	2.3	21.0	17.5	3.5	11.8	18.2	1.8	22.2
Primary	20.5	5.0	26.1	21.9	5.6	18.8	15.1	4.8	27.0
TVET	39.5	38.4	37.3	41.3	27.6	43.8	32.6	43.1	36.5
Secondary general	1.8	2.3	1.9	2.1	2.2	0.0	0.5	2.4	2.1
Above intermediate	3.8	7.4	3.8	3.8	6.5	6.7	3.9	7.7	3.4
Tertiary	16.7	44.5	10.0	13.3	54.6	18.8	29.7	40.3	8.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
For those currently attending school									
Primary	7.8	0.0	8.2	8.0	0.0	7.0	6.9	0.0	9.0
TVET	51.9	33.6	29.1	53.5	43.8	30.1	45.7	18.5	28.5
Secondary general	9.4	4.9	22.6	7.1	8.3	22.2	18.2	0.0	22.8
Above intermediate	4.9	4.9	3.2	4.6	8.2	2.8	5.9	0.0	3.4
Tertiary	26.1	56.5	36.9	26.8	39.8	37.9	23.3	81.5	36.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Table 3.10 disaggregates the data on the education status of youth by current activity and sex. A strong majority (87.5 per cent) of male youth who were currently out-of-school were employed while the majority of out-of-school female youth were inactive (56.2 per cent). Only 26.6 per cent of non-student female youth were working, with another 17.3 per cent trying to find work (unemployed).

Table 3.10 Out-of-school youth and youth with no schooling by current activity status and sex

Sex	Total		Employed		Unemployed		Inactive	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total out-of-school youth	17 010 805	100.0	10 075 766	59.2	1 945 576	11.4	4 989 463	29.3
Male	9 122 092	100.0	7 979 832	87.5	582 406	6.4	559 854	6.1
Female	7 888 712	100.0	2 095 934	26.6	1 363 169	17.3	4 429 609	56.2
Total youth who never attended school	1 390 353	100.0	693 458	49.9	12 712	0.9	684 183	49.2
Male	478 412	100.0	443 410	92.7	0	0.0	35 002	7.3
Female	911 941	100.0	250 048	27.4	12 712	1.4	649 181	71.2

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Among youth who never attended school, there was an even higher tendency for young males to be employed (92.7 per cent) and a slightly higher share of employed female youth at 27.4 per cent. An assumption here is that those with no schooling were likely to come from poor households and therefore had a more urgent need to work for an income. This idea is somewhat confirmed by the extremely low unemployment rate among youth with no schooling.

3.4 Aspirations and life goals

The survey tool included questions to youth about their primary life goals. Table 3.11 shows that having a job was the primary life goal of the greatest percentage of employed and unemployed youth at 36.0 per cent and 84.2 per cent, respectively. Having a job as a life goal ranked third for inactive youth at 24.0 per cent, after the goals of being successful in work (36.7 per cent) and having a good family life (35.9 per cent). Having a good family life, on the other hand, was the most sought after goal among female respondents, both employed and inactive (reported by 49.5 per cent and 47.3 per cent, respectively). The importance of finding work among both unemployed male and female youth is clear; 83.1 per cent of unemployed female youth and 86.6 per cent of unemployed male youth put having a job as their primary life goal.

Table 3.11 Youth by primary life goal, current activity status and sex

Primary life goal	Employed		Unemployed		Inactive	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total						
Having a job	3 932 948	36.0	1 707 369	84.2	2 641 753	24.0
Being successful in work	2 168 424	19.9	90 028	4.4	4 039 132	36.7
Making a contribution to society	234 610	2.2	10 963	0.5	130 171	1.2
Having lots of money	1 331 016	12.2	14 567	0.7	134 832	1.2
Having a good family life	3 114 250	28.5	190 691	9.4	3 943 480	35.9
Other	135 220	1.2	13 640	0.7	103 321	0.9
Total	10 916 469	100.0	2 027 258	100.0	1 0992 689	100.0
Male						
Having a job	3 413 491	39.5	546 921	86.6	1 070 868	36.2
Being successful in work	1 692 704	19.6	45 099	7.1	1 578 950	53.3
Making a contribution to society	174 669	2.0	0.0	0.0	35 754	1.2
Having lots of money	1 263 538	14.6	0.0	0.0	71 523	2.4
Having a good family life	1 990 961	23.0	31 336	5.0	148 111	5.0
Other	111 242	1.3	8 025	1.3	56 808	1.9
Total	8 646 604	100.0	631 380	100.0	2 962 014	100.0
Female						
Having a job	519 458	22.9	1 160 449	83.1	1 570 885	19.6
Being successful in work	475 720	21.0	44 929	3.2	2 460 181	30.6
Making a contribution to society	59 942	2.6	10 963	0.8	94 418	1.2
Having lots of money	67 478	3.0	14 567	1.0	63 309	0.8
Having a good family life	1 123 289	49.5	159 354	11.4	3 795 369	47.3
Other	23 978	1.1	5 616	0.4	46 513	0.6
Total	2 269 865	100.0	1 395 878	100.0	8 030 675	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

3.5 Characteristics of employed youth

Table 3.12 shows that the majority of employed youth surveyed (73.9 per cent) were wage and salaried workers. The second largest segment was unpaid family workers (17.2 per cent), followed by those who were own-account workers (6.3 per cent) and employers (2.6 per cent). The incidence of self-employment was highest among male youth: 10.3 per cent in total, including 2.9 per cent as employers and 7.4 per cent as own-account workers. Another 14.2 per cent were in unpaid family work. In contrast, only 3.3 per cent of working female youth were self-employed (1.2 per cent as employers and 2.1 per cent as own-account

workers). Almost one-third of female youth (28.9 per cent) were unpaid family workers, amounting to twice as many as male youth.

Table 3.12 Employed youth by employment status and sex

Employment status	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Wage & salaried worker (employee)	8 070 019	73.9	6 532 880	75.6	1 537 139	67.7
Employer	281 683	2.6	253 954	2.9	27 730	1.2
Own-account worker	684 675	6.3	635 910	7.4	48 766	2.1
Unpaid family worker	1 880 090	17.2	1 223 860	14.2	656 230	28.9
Total	10 916 468	100.0	8 646 604	100.0	2 269 865	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

In terms of main branch of economic activity, Table 3.13 indicates that the greatest percentage of employed youth (44.7 per cent) were employed in the service sector, while the agricultural sector comprised the smallest share of employed youth at 23.0 per cent. The rate of prevalence of agricultural activities was higher among female than male youth (31.1 per cent compared to 20.9 per cent, respectively), concurring with the data in the previous table on employment status and the prevalence of the work status of unpaid family worker among female youth, which is usually connected to home-based agricultural and animal husbandry activities. Table 3.14 shows the sectoral distribution of employed youth in more detail. Here it is clearer that young men had a larger presence in industrial activities like construction (18.7 per cent) and manufacturing (17.3 per cent), and in service activities like transport (9.4 per cent), while young women were more concentrated in activities associated with the public sector – for example, education (14.6 per cent), and health and social work (10.7 per cent) – as well as in agriculture. Only in wholesale and retail trade were young males and females similarly distributed.

Table 3.13 Employed youth by aggregate sector and sex

Sector	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Agriculture	2 511 135	23.0	1 805 346	20.9	705 789	31.1
Industry	3 521 602	32.3	3 204 977	37.1	316 625	14.0
Services	4 883 731	44.7	3 636 280	42.1	1 247 451	55.0
Total	10 916 469	100.0	8 646 604	100.0	2 269 865	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Table 3.14 Employed youth by sector at the 1-digit level and sex (%)

Sector	Total	Male	Female
Agriculture & forestry	22.4	20.2	31.1
Manufacturing	16.3	17.3	12.9
Construction	14.9	18.7	0.5
Wholesale & retail trade	17.4	17.1	18.4
Transport	7.6	9.4	1.1
Accommodation	4.2	5.1	0.7
Professional scientific activities	1.2	0.9	2.4
Public administration	2.1	1.7	3.7
Education	4.6	2.0	14.6
Health & social work	3.3	1.3	10.7
Other services	1.9	2.3	0.4

Note: Only sectors that made up more than 2 per cent of the total area are shown.

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Table 3.15 illustrates the occupations of employed youth, again showing strong gender differences. Employed young women were mainly distributed between three main occupations: agriculture (31.1 per cent), professionals (21.7 per cent), and service and sales work (16.0 per cent). This pattern differed among working young men, who held fewer professional jobs (6.1 per cent), more craft and related trades occupations (29.7 per cent) and fewer jobs in agriculture (20.5 per cent). The table shows young women split between either high-skill jobs (professionals) or very low-skill jobs (in agriculture and sales).

Overall, about one-quarter of working youth's occupations were in craft and related trades activities (23.8 per cent), about one-fifth were skilled agricultural and fishery workers (22.7 per cent) and the third most prevalent occupation was in service and sales (15.8 per cent). Managerial and clerical jobs were those least held by working youth, followed by the occupation of technician and elementary occupations.

Table 3.15 Employed youth by occupation and sex

Occupation	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Managers	221 664	2.0	199 470	2.3	22 193	1.0
Professionals	1 014 912	9.3	523 390	6.1	491 521	21.7
Technicians & associate professionals	629 566	5.8	393 910	4.6	235 657	10.4
Clerical support workers	256 377	2.4	107 621	1.2	148 757	6.6
Service & sales workers	1 729 450	15.8	1 365 597	15.8	363 854	16.0
Skilled agricultural & fishery workers	2 478 234	22.7	1 772 446	20.5	705 789	31.1
Craft & related trades workers	2 593 470	23.8	2 563 366	29.7	30 104	1.3
Plant & machine operators & assemblers	1 359 286	12.5	1 143 245	13.2	216 041	9.5
Elementary occupations	633 510	5.8	577 560	6.7	55 949	2.5
Total	10 916 469	100.0	8 646 604	100.0	2 269 865	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

3.5.1 Wage and salaried employment

As noted earlier, wage and salaried employment was the employment status of most working youth in Egypt (73.9 per cent). Table 3.16 shows the number of young wage and salaried workers surveyed who received benefits from their jobs by type of benefit and sex. Access to benefits beyond salary proved quite low in Egypt. The most common benefit was annual paid leave, but even it was received by only one-fifth (22.6 per cent) of wage and salaried workers. The next most prevalent benefits were a meal allowance and paid sick leave, with 19.9 per cent of young wage and salaried workers receiving each. That more young women worked in the public sector than young men is reflected in the higher access to benefits that young female workers received. As many as 42.8 per cent of young female wage and salaried workers received paid annual leave, 39.2 per cent received paid sick leave, 35.4 per cent were covered by medical insurance, and from 20 to 30 per cent had access also to pensions, severance pay, overtime pay and bonuses. Still, only 16.9 per cent of female workers benefited from maternity leave. These results hint that while young women were much less likely to work than young men, the few who did attain employment – largely in the public sector as an only option for many women – could be considered in “better” jobs than their male counterparts due to the security provided by non-wage entitlements.

Table 3.16 Young wage and salaried workers by access to benefits/entitlements and sex

Benefit/entitlement	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Transport or transport allowance	1 201 386	14.9	944 765	14.5	256 621	16.7
Meals or meal allowance	1 602 187	19.9	1 330 059	20.4	272 128	17.7
Annual paid leave (holiday time)	1 822 986	22.6	1 164 398	17.8	658 588	42.8
Paid sick leave	1 605 421	19.9	1 002 879	15.4	602 542	39.2
Pension/old age insurance	1 093 130	13.5	679 807	10.4	413 323	26.9
Severance/end of service payment	945 827	11.7	589 696	9.0	356 131	23.2
Overtime pay	1 383 265	17.1	975 712	14.9	407 553	26.5
Medical insurance coverage	1 484 593	18.4	940 707	14.4	543 886	35.4
Bonus/reward for good performance	1 174 906	14.6	772 287	11.8	402 619	26.2
Social security contribution	687 401	8.5	401 227	6.1	286 174	18.6
Educational or training courses	592 649	7.3	353 187	5.4	239 462	15.6
Occupational safety/protective equipment or clothing	655 361	8.1	458 573	7.0	196 788	12.8
Childcare facilities	329 595	4.1	104 168	1.6	225 428	14.7
Maternity/paternity leave	396 992	4.9	136 648	2.1	260 345	16.9
Total	8 070 020		6 532 880		1 537 139	

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Table 3.17 Young wage and salaried workers by type of contract, area of residence and sex

Type of contract	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total (Urban + Rural)						
No contract	6 106 544	75.7	5 284 013	80.9	822 531	53.5
Unlimited duration	1 054 518	13.1	642 250	9.8	412 268	26.8
Limited duration	908 958	11.3	606 617	9.3	302 340	19.7
Less than 12 months	186 150	2.3	101 955	1.6	84 194	5.5
12 months to less than 36 months	669 225	8.3	465 239	7.1	203 986	13.3
36 months or more	53 583	0.7	39 423	0.6	14 160	0.9
Total	8 070 020	100.0	6 532 880	100.0	1 537 139	100.0
Urban						
No contract	2 378 831	69.9	1 957 553	75.1	421 277	52.8
Unlimited duration	505 554	14.8	294 322	11.3	211 232	26.5
Limited duration	520 557	15.3	355 941	13.6	164 616	20.7
Less than 12 months	101 545	3.0	40 706	1.6	60 839	7.6
12 months to less than 36 months	385 501	11.3	291 990	11.2	93 511	11.7
36 months or more	33 511	1.0	23 245	0.9	10 267	1.3
Total	3 404 942	100.0	2 607 816	100.0	797 125	100.0
Rural						
No contract	3 727 714	79.9	3 326 460	84.7	401 254	54.2
Unlimited duration	548 964	11.8	347 929	8.9	201 035	27.2
Limited duration	388 401	8.3	250 676	6.4	137 724	18.6
Less than 12 months	84 605	1.8	61 249	1.6	23 355	3.2
12 months to less than 36 months	283 724	6.1	173 248	4.4	110 476	14.9
36 months or more	20 072	0.4	16 179	0.4	3 893	0.5
Total	4 665 079	100.0	3 925 065	100.0	740 013	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

A majority of young employees (75.7 per cent) had no contract, leaving them vulnerable (table 3.17). The absence of an employment contract is a key sign of informality (Gatti et al., 2011). Paid work without a contract concerned 80.9 per cent of young male workers and 53.5 per cent of young female workers. Only 9.8 per cent of male workers and 26.8 per cent of female workers had contracts of unlimited duration. Those with limited duration contracts constituted 9.3 per cent of young working men and nearly one-fifth (19.7 per cent) of young working women. Most of the youth in this group had a limited-duration work contract that ranged from 1 to 3 years (8.3 per cent). The absence of employment contracts, as would be expected, was more prevalent in rural areas at 79.9 per cent than in urban areas at 69.9 per cent.

3.5.2 Self-employment

As noted earlier, only 8.9 per cent of youth in Egypt are self-employed (2.6 per cent employers and 6.3 per cent own-account workers) and this group comprises more male than female youth. Table 3.18 breaks down self-employed youth by reason for self-employment and area of residence. The top reason was positive, the expression of wanting greater independence, which accounted for 45.2 per cent of self-employed youth. Another 18.8 per cent chose self-employment to earn a higher income. Other reasons were less positive in nature: 40.3 per cent of self-employed young workers took it up because they could not find a suitable paid job and 11.0 per cent were required by their family to follow the path of self-employment. As demonstrated in the table, the reasons for self-employment did not vary much between residents of urban and rural areas.

Table 3.18 Self-employed youth by reason for self-employment and area of residence

Reason	Total		Urban		Rural	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Could not find a wage or salary job	389 834	40.3	133 159	39.1	256 676	41.0
Greater independence	436 929	45.2	173 131	50.9	263 799	42.1
More flexible work hours	78 095	8.1	38 107	11.2	39 988	6.4
Higher income level	181 398	18.8	63 544	18.7	117 854	18.8
Required by the family	106 361	11.0	35 284	10.4	71 076	11.4
Other	19 486	2.0	0	0.0	19 486	3.1
Total	966 359	100.0	340 202	100.0	626 157	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Table A.1 (Annex II) shows the key challenges that self-employed youth report facing in running their businesses. Almost one-half of self-employed youth reported facing no major challenges (48.3 per cent). Competition in the market was the greatest problem reported (18.3 per cent of self-employed youth), followed by insufficient financial resources (12.1 per cent). There were no clear gender differences in the type of problems reported. Interestingly, political uncertainty in the country was reported as a challenge in running their business by 4.7 per cent of self-employed youth.

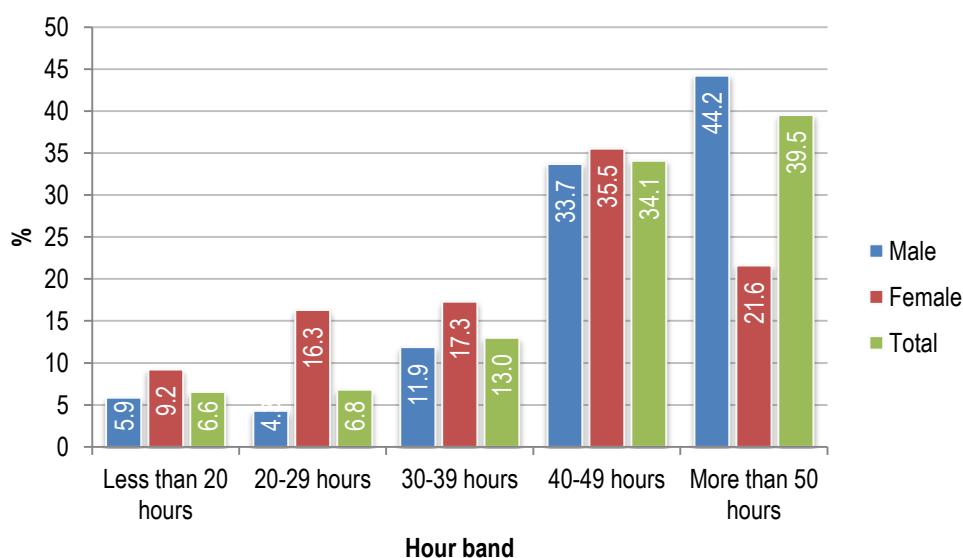
Table A.2 shows that family and friends served as the main source of financing for self-employed youth (48.5 per cent), followed by personal savings (31.0 per cent). The use of formal financial institutions was low, with only 2.6 per cent of youth receiving financing from a lending institution (microfinance institution or bank). The same pattern is apparent regarding the financial instruments self-employed youth adopt to cover the expenses required to maintain their current activity (table A.3).

3.5.3 Hours of work and involuntary part-time work

Figure 3.5 shows the employment of youth by actual hours worked per week. It illustrates clear gender variations in terms of hours of work, with young men more likely to report working a greater number of hours than young women. A majority of the employed youth surveyed worked on a full time basis, with 34.1 per cent working 40–49 hours and 39.5 per cent working more than 50 hours. Only 13.4 per cent of young workers (25.5 per cent of female youth and 10.2 per cent of male youth) were working on a part-time basis (less than 30 hours per week). A greater percentage of young men fell in the category of long working hours (more than 50 hours per week); young males were twice as likely to work long hours than young females (at 44.2 per cent and 21.6 per cent, respectively).

Only 4.2 per cent of youth working less than 30 hours stated they would like to work more hours; they therefore qualify as “involuntary part-time workers”. The share of young female involuntary part-time workers (4.8 per cent) was only slightly higher than that of young males in that category (4.0 per cent).

Figure 3.5 Youth employment by actual hours worked per week and sex



Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

3.5.4 Other job-quality indicators

Figure 3.6 attempts to characterize the youth labour market in the country along a job-quality continuum, following the framework laid out by the ILO (2013). Regarding the quality of employment, the left-hand side of the figure lists five indicators within the realm of low-quality employment:

- The share of paid employees with below-average weekly wages or income⁵ (poorly paid);
- The share of workers that claim dissatisfaction with their current job (unsatisfactory employment);

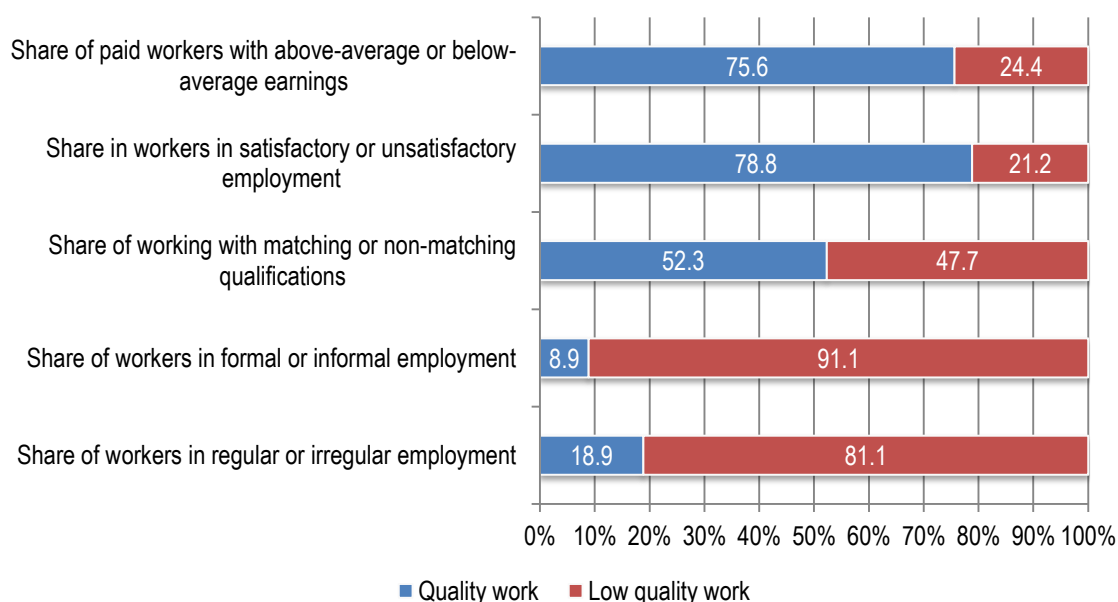
⁵ In Egypt, young wage and salaried workers were asked to identify their average monthly wage in the previous month among a pre-defined range. Individuals who earned less than 499 EGP were considered as workers with below-average monthly wages.

- The share of over- or undereducated workers⁶ (qualifications mismatch);
- The share of workers in informal employment⁷ (informal employment); and
- The share of workers with contract duration of less than 12 months, own-account workers and contributing (unpaid) family workers⁸ (irregular employment).

The blue bars in figure 3.6 illustrate the shares of better-quality employment based on above-average wages, reported level of job satisfaction, qualifications, formality (security) and stability. The chart shows some very interesting insights. While eight in ten surveyed young workers were in irregular employment and nine in ten were in informal employment, the qualifications mismatch nevertheless impacted fewer than one-half of the workers, low pay impacted only one young worker in four and young workers had a strong tendency to express general satisfaction with their job.

Among employed youth, informal employment strongly correlates with poor job quality, with 91.1 per cent of working youth classified in informal employment and, from the analysis of data on work irregularity, with 81.1 per cent of jobs being classified as irregular.

Figure 3.6 Indicators measuring the quality of youth employment



Note: The indicators are shares in total youth employment except for (a) the shares of workers earning below-average, average and above-average wages, which are percentages of young employees and own-account workers only, (b) shares of overeducated and undereducated workers, which are percentages of employed youth with completed education (i.e. excluding currently working students) and (c) satisfied or non-satisfied workers, excluding those who expressed a neutral opinion.

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

⁶ The methodology applied was that of the normative ISCO-based approach mentioned in this section.

⁷ Informal employment is measured according to the guidelines recommended by the 17th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS, 2003). It includes the following sub-categories of workers: (a) paid employees in “informal jobs”, i.e. jobs without a social security entitlement, paid annual leave or paid sick leave; (b) paid employees in an unregistered enterprise with size classification below five employees; (c) own-account workers in an unregistered enterprise with size classification below five employees; (d) employers in an unregistered enterprise with size classification below five employees; and (e) contributing family workers.

⁸ Persons not classifiable by employment status are also included in the irregular employment category.

Qualifications mismatch

The data on qualifications matching is based on the application of the normative measure of occupational skills categories from the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO). ISCO-08 includes the categorization of major occupational groups (first-digit ISCO levels) by level of education in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED)⁹ reproduced in table 3.19.

Table 3.19 ISCO major groups and education levels

ISCO major group	Broad occupation group	Education level
Managers		
Professionals	High-skilled non-manual	Tertiary (ISCED 5–6)
Technicians & associate professionals		
Clerical support workers		
Service & sales workers	Low-skilled non-manual	
Skilled agricultural & fishery workers		Secondary (ISCED 3–4)
Craft & related trades workers	Skilled manual	
Plant & machine operators & assemblers		
Elementary occupations	Unskilled	Primary (ISCED 1–2)

Source: ILO, 2013, table 3.

Workers in a particular group who have the assigned level of education are considered well-matched. Those who have a higher level of education are considered overeducated and those with a lower level of education are considered undereducated. For instance, a university graduate working as a clerk (a low-skilled, non-manual occupation) is overeducated, while a secondary school graduate working as an engineer (a high-skilled, non-manual occupation) is undereducated.

Just under one-half of surveyed working youth in Egypt (with completed education) were in occupations that did not match their level of education. Table 3.20 provides the breakdown: 8.8 per cent were classified as overeducated and 38.9 per cent were classified as undereducated. The remaining 52.3 per cent of young workers were engaged in a job that matched their level of achieved education well.

Table 3.20 Overeducated and undereducated young workers by major occupational category (ISCO-08, %)

Major occupational category (ISCO-08)	Overeducated	Undereducated	Matching qualification
Managers	0.0	68.6	31.4
Professionals	0.0	7.4	92.6
Technicians & associate professionals	0.0	77.8	22.2
Clerical support workers	43.2	1.8	55
Service & sales workers	14.1	23.6	62.4
Skilled agricultural & fishery workers	3.2	50.3	46.5
Craft & related trades workers	3.6	49.0	47.5
Plant & machine operators & assemblers	4.6	40.4	55.0
Elementary occupations	59.9	13.1	27.0
Total	8.8	38.9	52.3

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

⁹ For more information on the ISCO-based approach along with other methods of measuring skills mismatches, see Quintini (2011).

The phenomenon of overeducation tends to take place when an insufficient number of jobs match a certain level of education. The mismatch in supply and demand forces some of the degree holders to take up available work that they are subsequently overqualified to perform. The overeducated are mainly found in clerical positions (43.2 per cent of young clerks are overeducated) or in elementary occupations (59.9 per cent). It is likely that many of the overeducated are taking up these jobs as an alternative to unemployment when they are unable to find a job that better matches their level of education. The consequence is that overeducated youth are likely to earn less than they otherwise could have and are not making the most of their productive potential. Another consequence is the crowding out of youth at the bottom of the educational pyramid. The less-educated youth find themselves at the back of the queue even for those jobs for which they are best qualified.

Undereducated working youth are more prevalent in Egypt than those who are overeducated, especially in the occupations of managers (68.6 per cent), technicians (77.8 per cent),¹⁰ skilled agricultural and fishery workers (50.3 per cent) and craft workers (49.0 per cent). The undereducation of workers can have a negative impact on worker productivity and thus on the output of the enterprise but also, more personally, on the sense of security of the young worker. The question remains whether on-the-job training is a sufficient substitute for formal education.

Wages

Low wages are a key concern in youth employment. Limited work experience places young workers at a disadvantage in terms of wage negotiations. Figure 3.6 shows that one-quarter of young wage and salaried workers reported a monthly wage that was below the average. Table 3.21 presents the monthly wages of young wage and salaried workers by occupation. It shows that about one-half of young employees were within the pay range of EGP 500–999 per month.¹¹ Professionals made up the highest percentage of young workers in the highest wage bracket of EGP 3,000 and above (2.6 per cent). Conversely, agricultural workers, clerks and youth in elementary occupations were those most likely to have reported the lowest wage range (less than EGP 300 per month).

Gender disparity in pay was obvious in the data for young wage and salaried workers. The largest proportion of both male and female employees reported their monthly wage in the middle range of EGP 500–999 (49.4 per cent for males and 43.6 per cent for females), but there was a higher representation of young female than male workers among the lower wage ranges: 17.7 per cent earned less than EGP 300 and 25.7 per cent made between EGP 300 and 499, compared to 7.3 per cent and 16.3 per cent of young males in the two ranges, respectively. Similarly, in the higher pay brackets, while 12.1 per cent of female employees claimed to have earned at least EGP 1,000 a month, the corresponding share of young male workers at that level was 26.2 per cent.

¹⁰ Undereducation in this category is likely to be overstated in the context of Egypt where most technical positions require education/training at the TVET level, not the tertiary level as dictated in the general classification of table 3.19.

¹¹ The UN operational exchange rate on 1 November 2012 (at the start of the survey field work) was US\$1 = 6.1 Egyptian pounds (EGP). The EGP 500–999 range, the monthly wage range claimed by a majority of young workers, was the equivalent of US\$ 82–164 per month.

Table 3.21 Wage and salaried youth by occupation, sex and monthly wage (in Egyptian pounds)

Occupation & sex	Total	Less than 300 (%)	300–499 (%)	500–999 (%)	1 000–2 999 (%)	3 000 & above (%)	Do not know (%)
Total							
Managers	41 088	0.0	0.0	52.5	47.5	0.0	0.0
Professionals	965 216	10.7	11.4	39.2	35.7	2.6	0.6
Technicians & associate professionals	574 586	10.6	12.7	48.8	27.9	0.0	0.0
Clerks	256 377	12.4	17.4	42.3	27.9	0.0	0.0
Service workers, shop & market sales workers	1 316 006	9.2	19.2	51.5	19.8	0.0	0.3
Skilled agricultural & fishery workers	898 562	15.2	31.0	45.7	7.2	0.5	0.4
Craft & related trades workers	2 390 892	6.7	18.7	48.3	25.3	0.7	0.4
Plant & machine operators & assemblers	1 127 765	7.1	13.2	56.2	23.2	0.4	0.0
Elementary occupations	499 526	10.8	21.5	46.3	21.4	0.0	0.0
Total	8 070 019	9.3	18.0	48.3	23.5	0.6	0.3
Male							
Managers	35 099	0.0	0.0	44.4	55.6	0.0	0.0
Professionals	501 553	7.1	7.1	35.6	46.3	3.9	0.0
Technicians & associate professionals	338 930	3.2	9.3	45.1	42.4	0.0	0.0
Clerks	107 621	0.0	3.8	56.2	40	0.0	0.0
Service workers, shop & market sales workers	1 040 221	4.7	15.4	56.5	23.4	0.0	0.0
Skilled agricultural & fishery workers	780 449	14.6	29.5	46.6	8.3	0.5	0.5
Craft & related trades workers	2 368 574	6.8	18.3	48.3	25.6	0.7	0.4
Plant & machine operators & assemblers	911 724	6.3	9.7	55.4	28.1	0.4	0
Elementary occupations	448 710	10.8	18.4	48.3	22.5	0.0	0.0
Total	6 532 880	7.3	16.3	49.4	26.2	0.7	0.2
Female							
Managers	5 989	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Professionals	463 664	14.5	16.1	43.0	24.2	1.1	1.2
Technicians & associate professionals	235 657	21.2	17.5	54.2	7.1	0.0	0.0
Clerks	148 757	21.3	27.3	32.3	19.1	0.0	0.0
Service workers, shop & market sales workers	275 785	26.2	33.6	32.6	6.1	0.0	1.4
Skilled agricultural & fishery workers	118 113	19.2	41	39.8	0.0	0.0	0.0
Craft & related trades workers	22 318	0.0	53.7	46.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
Plant & machine operators & assemblers	216 041	10.6	27.9	59.2	2.4	0.0	0.0
Elementary occupations	50 816	11.0	48.3	28.8	11.9	0.0	0.0
Total	1 537 139	17.7	25.7	43.6	12.1	0.3	0.6

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Informal employment

At 91.1 per cent, almost all young surveyed workers in Egypt were classified in informal employment, according to figure 3.6. The share of informal employment was only slightly higher in rural than urban areas at 92.0 and 89.7 per cent, respectively (table 3.22).

Informal employment is made up of two subdivisions: workers in the informal (unregistered) sector and paid employees holding informal jobs in the formal sector. The latter earn a salary but do not receive the other benefits, such as social security contributions

or paid annual or sick leave that would normally be associated with a job in the formal sector. Given the dominance of paid employment among youth in the country, it is not surprising to find that a majority were informally employed youth because of their engagement in an informal job in the formal sector (63.5 per cent). The remaining 36.5 per cent were employed in the informal sector (table 3.22).

The gender differences in informal employment shares are not stark, with the share among male workers slightly higher at 92.1 per cent compared to 87.7 per cent among female workers. The prevalence of informal sector employment (compared to informal employment in the formal sector) is slightly higher among young males than young females and youth in rural areas.

Table 3.22 Employed youth in informal employment by sub-category, area of residence and sex (%)

Sub-category	Total			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Informal employment rate	91.1	92.1	87.7	89.7	90.6	86.5	92.0	92.9	88.4
<i>Categories of informal employment</i>									
Employed in informal sector	36.5	38.3	29.5	31.3	35.9	13.7	39.5	39.6	39.2
Employed in informal job in formal sector	63.5	61.7	70.5	68.7	64.1	86.3	60.5	60.4	60.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

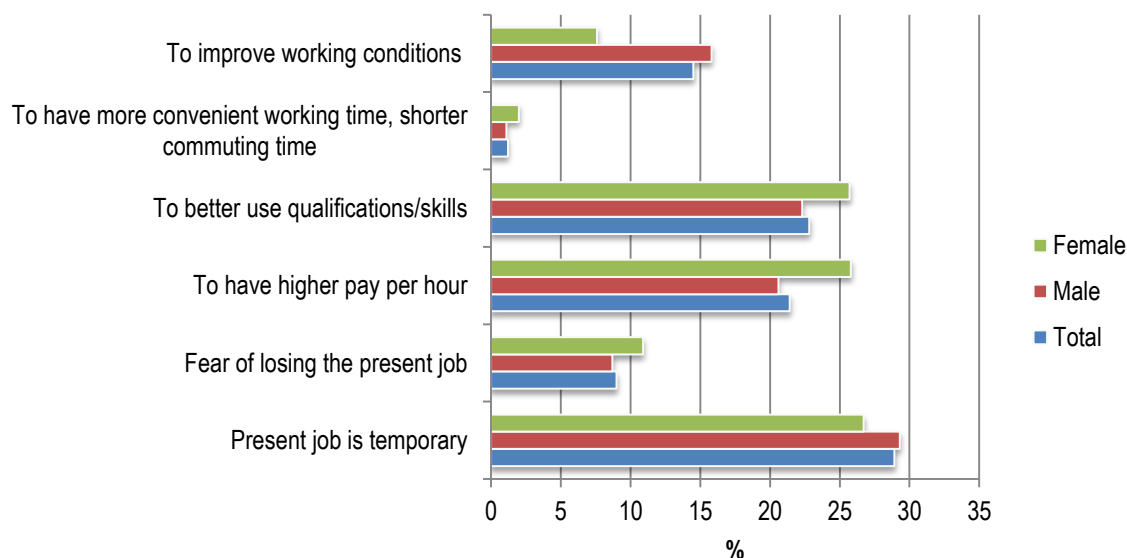
3.5.5 Security and satisfaction

Close to one-fifth (19.7 per cent) of employed youth expressed dissatisfaction with their work (13.7 per cent were somewhat unsatisfied and 6.0 per cent were very unsatisfied) (table A.4). Only 22.7 per cent of youth described themselves as very satisfied and a majority (50.8 per cent) described themselves as somewhat satisfied. These data should be considered with caution since prevalent cultural and religious beliefs discourage expressing dissatisfaction; perhaps a more accurate measure of job satisfaction is that reflected in the young workers' desire to change their current job. As many as one-half (50.1 per cent) of working youth indicated they would like to change their current job (53.2 per cent of young male workers and 38.3 per cent of young female workers).

Reasons for wanting to change the current job are shown in figure 3.7. The temporary nature of work was listed as a reason by 28.9 per cent of employed youth who wanted to change jobs. Other reasons related to the skill level of the job, i.e. it did not match the young workers' levels of qualification (22.8 per cent, with a higher response rate among young women than men). At 21.4 per cent, the desire for higher pay was the third most common reason for wanting to change jobs (and the second most common reason given by young females).

Another area of concern was hinted to in the fact that as many as 50.1 per cent of young working males expressed a willingness to migrate for employment purposes (presumably to find a better job). Table A.5 shows the breakdown: 21.5 per cent of male youth indicated they would move to a capital city, 11.5 per cent noted they would move to a town/city (probably greater Cairo), as many as 15.8 per cent stated they would move to another country and 1.3 per cent were willing to move to a rural area. The attraction – whether push or pull – towards migration seems to have existed in young males only. Only 6.6 per cent of young female workers said they would move to the capital city for employment purposes and just 2.8 per cent indicated they would consider moving abroad.

Figure 3.7 Employed youth who would like to change their job by reason



Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

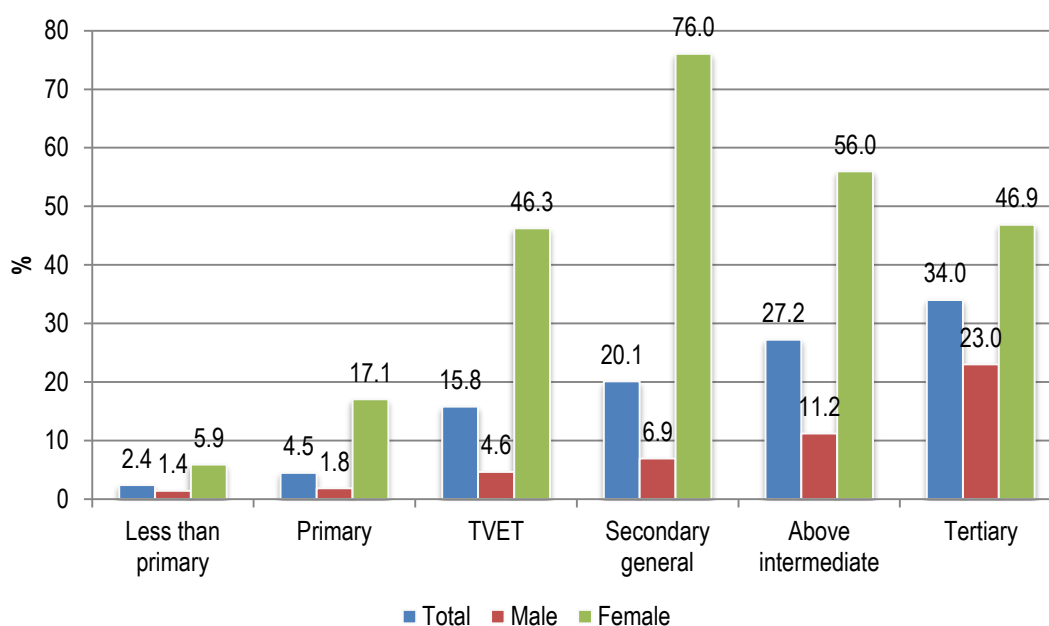
3.6 Characteristics of unemployed youth

Unemployment by education

As shown in Table 3.7, 8.5 per cent of youth in Egypt were unemployed and 15.7 per cent of economically active youth were unemployed. The latter figure was the youth unemployment rate. Table 3.9 shows results for the youth surveyed by the level of completed education, leading to the conclusion that youth who completed university education had the highest probability of being unemployed (44.5 per cent). The second largest group among the unemployed was those who finished TVET, constituting 38.4 per cent.

Figure 3.8 shows youth unemployment rates by level of completed education and presents an even clearer picture of the correlation between unemployment and education. The youth unemployment rate increases with each additional level of educational attainment; tertiary-level graduates totalled the highest rate, 34.0 per cent, compared to an unemployment rate of only 2.4 per cent among youth with less than primary-level education. However, important differences are apparent by sex. For young women, the highest unemployment rate was among those with general secondary-level education (at an incredible 76.0 per cent); the rates then decreased at the highest education levels (56.0 per cent for female youth above the intermediate level and 46.9 per cent for female university graduates). The unemployment rates of young Egyptian men, in contrast, were quite low (even by international standards) regardless of the level of education attained (reaching a maximum of 23.0 per cent among young male university graduates).

Figure 3.8 Youth unemployment rates by level of completed educational attainment and sex



Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Unemployment duration

Table 3.23 shows that 50.2 per cent of unemployed youth spent 2 or more years searching for a job. The extent of long-term unemployment among youth in Egypt is thus extremely high. A higher percentage of female youth spent over 2 years job searching (57.7 per cent) than male youth (33.7 per cent). Another 22.1 per cent of unemployed females and 21.4 per cent of unemployed males reported looking for work between 1 and 2 years. It has been repeatedly documented that long-term unemployment among youth has negative consequences, not only on skills and causing financial losses, but it also contributes to lowered self-esteem.

Table 3.23 Unemployed youth by job search duration and sex

Duration	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Less than 1 week	22 761	1.1	3 264	0.5	19 497	1.4
1 week to less than 1 month	75 715	3.7	42 180	6.7	33 535	2.4
1 month to less than 3 months	61 641	3.0	35 608	5.6	26 034	1.9
3 months to less than 6 months	191 150	9.4	89 414	14.2	101 736	7.3
6 months to less than 1 year	215 144	10.6	113 408	18.0	101 736	7.3
1 year to less than 2 years	442 845	21.8	134 823	21.4	308 022	22.1
2 years or more	1 018 001	50.2	212 683	33.7	805 318	57.7
Total	2 027 258	100.0	631 380	100.0	1 395 878	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

The survey asked jobless youth to identify the main obstacles to finding work. Limited availability of jobs was the obstacle reported by 64.0 per cent of unemployed youth (table 3.24). While a higher percentage of female than male unemployed youth (67.9 per cent versus 55.3 per cent) reported job unavailability as the main obstacle, only 1.2 per cent of unemployed female youth (and no male unemployed youth) stated that their sex (being male

or female) was an obstacle to finding work. Young women were also more likely than young men to cite discriminatory practices as an obstacle to finding work, while young men were more likely to cite the low wages or poor working conditions of available jobs as principal obstacles.

Table 3.24 Unemployed youth by main obstacle to finding work, sex and area of residence (%)

Obstacle	Total	Male	Female	Urban	Rural
Requirements for job were higher than education/training received	2.9	3.2	2.7	2.2	3.5
Not enough work experience	8.4	12.5	6.6	12.2	4.8
Not enough jobs available	64.0	55.3	67.9	52.5	75.0
Considered too young	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.4	1.1
Being male/female	0.8	0.0	1.2	1.2	0.5
Discriminatory prejudices	3.1	1.9	3.6	3.3	2.9
Low wages in available jobs	4.3	6.9	3.2	6.2	2.6
Poor working conditions in available jobs	7.7	9.6	6.9	11.3	4.3
Did not know how and where to seek work	3.7	4.3	3.4	3.9	3.5
Other	4.3	5.7	3.7	6.7	2.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

The job search

Young people were asked about their job search method; the information presented in Table 3.25 allows comparability between the job search methods used by employed youth (how they found their job) and unemployed youth looking for work. Consulting informal networks of friends and relatives was the job search method that led to jobs for a majority of the employed youth (63.9 per cent). Among unemployed youth, the most frequent response was registration at an employment office (32.5 per cent) followed by 30.4 per cent who asked family and friends. Responding to job advertisements was a method followed by 17.1 per cent of unemployed youth, but the fact that only 1.7 per cent of the employed youth reported it as the method used for finding their job demonstrates that it did not often prove successful. The danger of using informal networks to attain jobs is that it creates an outsider-insider effect. Those without “good” contacts are clearly those who remain unemployed.

Table 3.26 looks at the occupations sought by unemployed youth. Most unemployed youth sought jobs as professionals (46.5 per cent), followed by technicians and associate professionals (29.6 per cent), while only 0.5 per cent looked for jobs as skilled agricultural and fishery workers. No significant differences between male and female jobseekers were observed in terms of occupation sought; more young males than young females sought work in the areas of sales and crafts work, while more young women sought an elementary occupation, although the differences were not large.

Table 3.25 Employed and unemployed youth by job search method

Method	Employed		Unemployed	
	Number	%	Number	%
Registered at an employment centre	270 796	2.5	644 941	32.5
Placed/answered job advertisements	188 189	1.7	339 090	17.1
Inquired directly at factories, farms, markets shops or other workplaces	642 413	5.9	185 777	9.4
Took a test or interviewed	399 149	3.7	88 451	4.5
Asked friends, relatives, acquaintances	6 974 140	63.9	603 425	30.4
Searched the Internet	41 617	0.4	95 330	4.8
Mobile phone search	10 178	0.1	4 255	0.2
Waited on the street to be recruited for casual work	45 683	0.4	0	0.0
Sought financial assistance to look for work or start a business	220 636	2.0	4 265	0.2
Looked for land, building, equipment, machinery to start own business or farm	45 950	0.4	4 012	0.2
Applied for permit or licence to start a business	42 440	0.4	0	0.0
Other	2 035 277	18.6	15 824	0.8
Total	10 916 469	100.0	1 985 371	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Table 3.26 Unemployed youth by occupation sought, sex and area of residence (%)

Occupation	Total	Male	Female	Urban	Rural
Legislators, senior officials & managers	1.0	1.3	0.9	1.5	0.6
Professionals	46.5	46.9	46.2	56.1	37.3
Technicians & associate professionals	29.6	31.1	29.0	22.0	36.9
Clerks	8.8	1.3	12.2	8.4	9.2
Service workers, shop & market sales workers	4.0	7.5	2.4	6.5	1.6
Skilled agricultural & fishery workers	0.5	0.7	0.4	0.0	1.0
Craft & related trades workers	3.1	5.9	1.8	2.5	3.6
Plant & machine operators & assemblers	3.7	3.9	3.6	1.6	5.6
Elementary occupations	2.9	1.3	3.7	1.5	4.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Table 3.27 shows the high demand for government and public sector employment; 80.5 per cent of unemployed youth looked to work for the government or public sector. Government and public sector employment was more in demand by female youth, with 86.8 per cent of unemployed young women seeking employment in that sector, in comparison to 66.7 per cent of unemployed young men. It was also more in demand by unemployed youth in rural areas (87.9 per cent) than in urban areas (72.8 per cent). The public sector cannot realistically absorb the large number of young jobseekers, which explains the very high rates of unemployment in the country, especially among young women. Still, the public sector offers the only hope of employment for many young women. It remains the preferred choice of many young people due to three factors: status, security and benefits. Fewer than one-fifth (17.4 per cent) of unemployed youth wanted to work for private companies, with almost three times as many males than females (30.3 per cent and 11.6 per cent, respectively) seeking those jobs. Only 0.8 per cent of unemployed youth sought to be entrepreneurs.

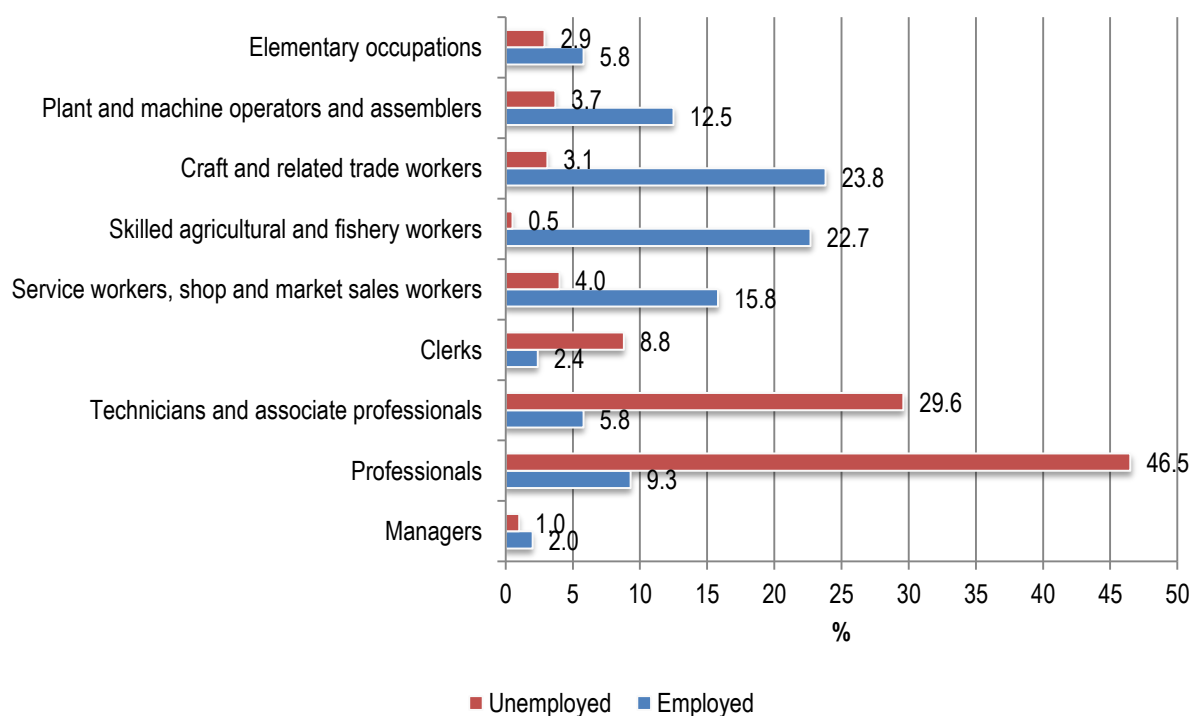
Table 3.27 Unemployed youth by type of employer sought, sex and area of residence (%)

Employer sought	Total	Male	Female	Urban	Rural
Work for myself (own business/farm)	0.8	1.7	0.4	1.1	0.6
Work for the government/public sector	80.5	66.7	86.8	72.8	87.9
Work for a private company	17.4	30.3	11.6	23.6	11.5
Work for an international or organization	1.1	0.6	1.2	2.2	0.0
Work for family business/farm	0.2	0.6	0.0	0.4	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

If the occupational distribution of the surveyed working youth can be taken as an indication of the demand for young labour, then comparing the distribution of occupations sought by unemployed youth can serve to identify supply and demand mismatches. As illustrated in figure 3.9 and table 3.26, unemployed youth looked for work mainly in the higher skilled occupations: as professionals (46.5 per cent), technicians (29.6 per cent) and clerks (8.8 per cent), with the remaining occupations obtaining less than 5 per cent of responses. In comparison, the top five occupations held by employed youth were craft and related trades work (23.8 per cent), skilled agricultural and fishery work (22.7 per cent), work in sales and services (15.8 per cent), jobs as plant and machine operators and assemblers (12.5 per cent) and as “professionals” (9.3 per cent). If the distribution comparison is used as a mismatch indicator, the mismatch between where the jobs were and where unemployed youth were seeking them becomes clear. The largest gap is evident in the category of “professionals”, an occupation that employed less than one-tenth (9.3 per cent) of employed youth, yet one sought by almost one-half of unemployed youth (46.5 per cent). On the other hand, craft work was sought by only 3.1 per cent of unemployed youth although that occupation employed 23.8 per cent of the youth with jobs.

Figure 3.9 Unemployed youth by occupation sought and employed youth by occupation



Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Relaxed unemployed and discouraged youth

The strict definition of unemployment states that to be included in the category of “unemployed”, a person must be without work, available to work and actively seeking work. Relaxing the “actively seeking work” criterion makes sense in circumstances where conventional means of seeking work are of limited relevance, where the labour market is largely unorganized, where labour absorption is inadequate or where the labour force is largely self-employed (ILO, 2013, p. 40). Table 3.28 shows that relaxing the definition of unemployment increased the youth unemployment rate in Egypt from 15.7 per cent to 22.8 per cent. Discouraged youth (those who have given up on searching for work¹²) constituted 24.6 per cent of the unemployed. The prevalence of discouragement was much higher among female unemployed youth (29.1 per cent) than male unemployed youth (11.4 per cent).

Table 3.28 Youth unemployment (strict and relaxed definition) and discouragement

Definition	Total	Male	Female
Unemployed youth (strict)	2 027 258	631 380	1 395 878
Unemployed youth (relaxed)	3 225 289	828 543	2 396 746
Unemployment rate (% , strict)	15.7	6.8	38.1
Unemployment rate (% , relaxed)	22.8	8.7	51.4
Discouraged youth as % of unemployed (relaxed)	24.6	11.4	29.1
Discouraged youth as % of labour force (relaxed)	5.6	1.0	15.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Finally, the survey aimed to establish whether unemployed youth had ever refused a job offer, to understand whether the unemployed were holding out for a “good” job rather than taking up any available offer. Job refusals did not occur often among the unemployed. Only 10.7 per cent refused an offer at one point in time (12.8 per cent of unemployed males and 9.8 per cent of unemployed females). One-third of job refusals were due to overly low wages offered (34.0 per cent) and another one-third reflected the qualifications mismatch (30.0 per cent) (table A.6). More male than female unemployed youth refused work because of low wages, 57.4 per cent compared to 20.2 per cent, respectively. Young unemployed women, on the other hand, were more likely than their male counterparts to have refused a job because of its inconvenient location, the family did not approve, they were waiting for a better offer or the hours were not convenient.

3.7 Characteristics of youth outside the labour market (inactive youth)

Youth outside the labour force remain inactive for varying reasons. A majority of youth outside the labour market were current students (60.0 per cent) (table 3.29). Reasons for inactivity specific to female youth were family responsibility or housework (37.8 per cent) and no desire to work (8.2 per cent). These two reasons were hardly chosen by male youth. The main reason for male inactivity was education (84.3 per cent) and “Other” reasons (11.8 per cent).

¹² Discouraged youth are those who are without work, available to work but not actively seeking work for one of the following reasons: they do not know how or where to seek work, feel unable to find work for their skills, looked before but found nothing, are too young to find work or feel there are no jobs available in their area of residence.

Table 3.29 Inactive youth by reasons for inactivity and sex

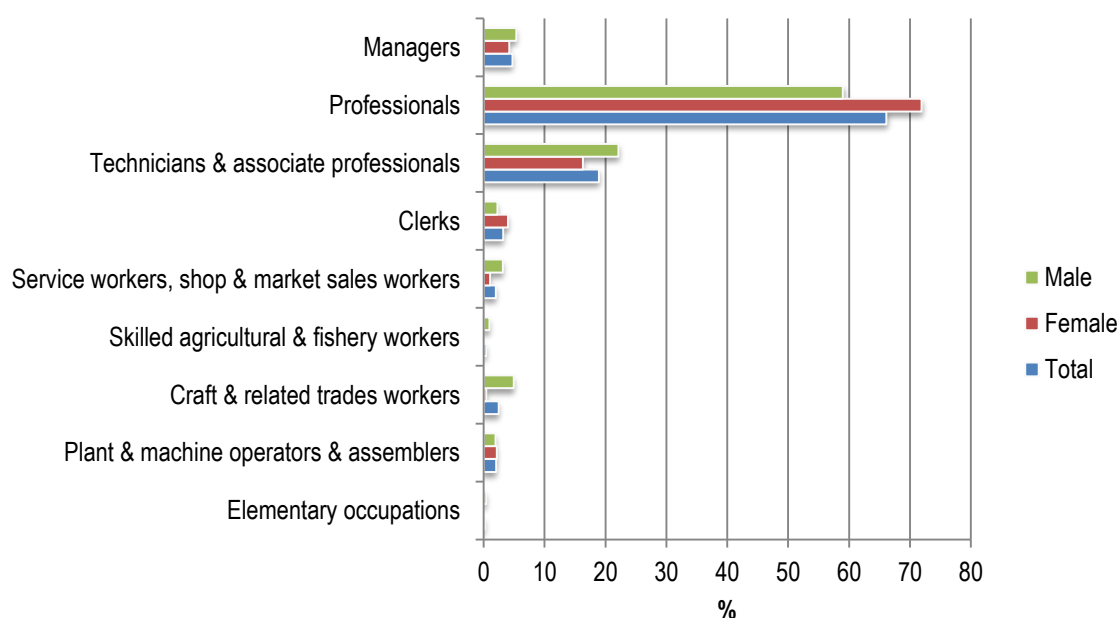
Reason	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Attending education/training	5 864 998	60.0	2 323 002	84.3	3 541 997	50.4
Family responsibilities or housework	2 661 583	27.2	7 691	0.3	2 653 892	37.8
Pregnancy	55 549	0.6	0	0.0	55 549	0.8
Illness, injury or disability	156 439	1.6	75 266	2.7	81 173	1.2
Too young to work	17 989	0.2	0	0.0	17 989	0.3
No desire to work	601 876	6.2	25 709	0.9	576 167	8.2
Other	422 992	4.3	325 441	11.8	97 551	1.4
Total	9 781 426	100.0	2 757 108	100.0	7 024 318	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

3.8 Characteristics of young students

The figures below outline the preferred fields of study and desired future occupation of surveyed students. Most in-school youth responded that they hoped to have a future career as professionals, accounting for 71.9 per cent of females, 58.9 per cent of males and 66.1 per cent of the total (figure 3.10). As previously stated, there seems to be an overwhelming glut of jobs for young professionals in Egypt, which implies that many of these young students would be better off concentrating on a more technical field. As it is, only 22.1 per cent of young male students and 16.3 per cent of female students expressed a desire to work as a technician. Regarding where surveyed students wanted to find work in the future, an overwhelming share hoped to find employment in the government/public sector (73.4 per cent) (table A.7). Only 16.4 per cent wanted to work for a private company and 5.8 per cent wanted to work at their own business or farm.

Figure 3.10 Current young students by preferred future occupation



Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

4. The stages of transition

4.1 Concepts and definitions¹³

The labour market transition of young people concerns not only the length of time from their exit from education (either upon graduation or early exit without completion) to their first entry into any job, but also relates to qualitative factors, such as whether the job is stable (measured by contract type). The SWTS was designed to apply a stricter definition of “stable employment” than is typically used. By starting from the premise that a person has not “transited” until settled in a job that meets very basic criteria of stability, as defined by the duration of the employment contract, the SWTS analytical framework introduces a new element of quality to the standard definition of labour market transition. However, as seen in section 5, only a small share of youth in developing economies attain stable employment and, if the “end goal” does not fit reality, then perhaps the statistics are not framed widely enough. Thus job satisfaction was added as a component and built into the concept of labour market transition.

More specifically, labour market transition is defined as the passage of a young person (aged 15–29) from the end of schooling (or entry to first economic activity) to the first stable or satisfactory job. Stable employment is defined in terms of the employment contract (written or oral) and the contract duration (greater than 12 months). Introducing the issue of a contract automatically excludes the employment status of self-employed, where the employment relationship is not defined by a contract. The opposite of stable employment is temporary employment, or wage and salaried employment of limited duration. Satisfactory employment is a subjective concept, based on the self-assessment of the jobholder. It implies that respondents consider their jobs to be a good “fit” with their desired employment path at that moment in time. The contrary is termed non-satisfactory employment, implying a sense of dissatisfaction with the job.

Based on this definition of labour market transition, the stages of transition are classified as follows:

Transited – A young person who has “transited” is one who is currently employed in:

- a stable job, whether satisfactory or non-satisfactory; or
- a satisfactory but temporary job; or
- satisfactory self-employment.

In transition – A young person still “in transition” is one who is currently:

- unemployed (relaxed definition); or
- employed in a temporary and non-satisfactory job; or
- in non-satisfactory self-employment; or
- inactive and not in education or training, with an aim to look for work later.

Transition not yet started – A young person whose “transition has not yet started” is one who is currently:

- still in school and inactive (inactive student); or
- inactive and not in education or training (inactive non-student), with no intention of looking for work.

¹³This section is adapted from ILO, 2013, Chapter 5.

Two elements of this classification are noteworthy. First, the stages of transition span across the boundaries of economic activity as defined in the standard labour force framework.¹⁴ The “transited” category includes a sub-set of youth classified as employed; the remaining employed fall within the category of “in transition”, which includes those who fall under the strict definition of unemployed and portions of the inactive (namely, those without work, available for work but not actively seeking work¹⁵ and inactive non-students who have stated an intention to join the labour force at a later stage). The “transition-not-yet-started” category is the residual of the inactive population.

Second, the stages of transition are not intended to be a normative framework. Because of the inclusion of youth in satisfactory self-employment and satisfactory temporary employment, one cannot say that all surveyed young people in the transited category had transited to a “good” job. In fact, many young people in self-employment – the own-account workers and unpaid family workers – were among the poorly paid workers in the informal economy and thus were included in the low-quality work segment shown in figure 3.6. By definition, they made up the bulk of the country’s share of irregularly employed. Yet they expressed a degree of satisfaction with their job, and they were likely to have finished their transition in the sense that they will remain in the self-employed classification for the remainder of their working lives.

4.2 Stages of transition

Table 4.1 outlines the stages of transition by sex. The surveyed youth population was fairly evenly distributed across transition stages. A little more than one-third of the youth population (34.4 per cent) had completed the transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment; about one-third was in transition (29.4 per cent) and the remaining youth (36.2 per cent) had not started their transition. Female youth were much less likely to have completed the transition than male youth; while 51.7 per cent of male youth had transited to the labour market, only 16.3 per cent of female youth had completed their transition. More than one-half of female youth (53.4 per cent) had not yet started their transition, which is further reflected in the low shares of female labour market participation.

Table 4.1 Youth population by transition stage and sex

Transition stage	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Transited	8 233 708	34.4	6 330 030	51.7	1 903 678	16.3
In transition	7 026 305	29.4	3 485 964	28.5	3 540 341	30.3
Transition not yet started	8 670 914	36.2	2 424 005	19.8	6 246 910	53.4
Total	23 930 927	100.0	12 239 999	100.0	11 690 929	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

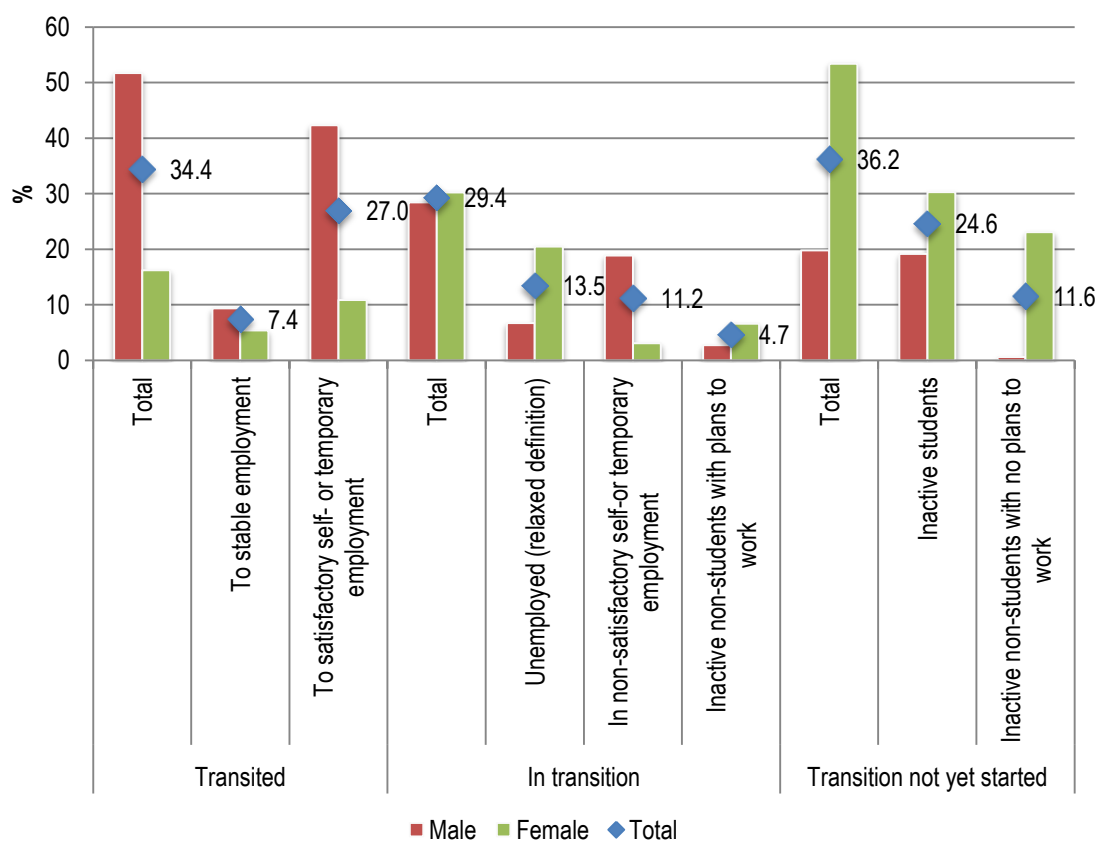
Figure 4.1 shows the breakdown of the youth population by transition stage sub-category. The figure shows that only 7.4 per cent of youth had completed their labour market transition to stable employment and about one-third of youth (27.0 per cent) were in satisfactory self- or temporary employment. Those who were still in transition were primarily unemployed (using the relaxed definition), accounting for 13.5 per cent of the

¹⁴ The international guidelines for measuring statistics on the economically active population, set out by the 13th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) in 1982, provide the framework for measuring who is counted as employed and as unemployed according to the economic production boundaries set out by the System of National Accounts.

¹⁵ This is the portion added to the “strictly” unemployed category to make up the unemployed (relaxed definition).

youth population (more females than males). The share in non-satisfactory self- or temporary employment accounted for 11.2 per cent of youth, while the share of inactive non-students with an eventual attachment to the labour market was small at 4.7 per cent. One-quarter (24.6 per cent) of Egyptian youth had not yet started their transition because they were still in school and another 11.6 per cent – almost all female – were inactive non-students with no plans to work in the future.

Figure 4.1 Youth population by sub-category of transition stage



Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Table 4.2 shows the stages of transition according to different characteristics, including age group, area of residence, and the overall financial situation of the household. In terms of age group, the likelihood of transition clearly increases with age. Most of those who had completed the transition (52.3 per cent) were aged 25–29. The largest per cent of those in transition (38.4 per cent) were aged 20–24, and most of those whose transition had not yet started were aged 15–19 (62.3 per cent), which makes sense since a majority of youth within this age range were in school.

In terms of disparity by sex, as noted earlier more male youth had transited, at 51.7 per cent, compared to only 16.3 per cent of female youth. Slightly more female youth were still in transition (30.3 per cent), compared to 28.5 per cent of male youth. A larger percentage of female youth had not yet started their transition (53.4 per cent), compared to only 19.8 per cent of male youth. Regarding area of residence, the youth from rural areas had a higher tendency to complete the transition than youth from urban areas, while youth from urban areas had a higher chance of not having started their transition yet (reflecting higher educational enrolment).

Table 4.2 Youth population by stage of transition, age group, sex, area of residence and household income level

Characteristic	Transited		In transition		Transition not yet started		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Age group								
15–19	1 811 320	21.9	1 309 188	15.8	5 150 369	62.3	8 270 876	100.0
20–24	3 050 430	33.1	3 532 584	38.4	2 624 622	28.5	9 207 637	100.0
25–29	3 371 958	52.3	2 184 533	33.9	895 924	13.9	6 452 414	100.0
Sex								
Male	6 330 030	51.7	3 485 964	28.5	2 424 005	19.8	12 239 998	100.0
Female	1 903 678	16.3	3 540 341	30.3	6 246 910	53.4	11 690 928	100.0
Area of residence								
Urban	3 049 322	30.7	2 862 445	28.8	4 011 853	40.4	9 923 620	100.0
Rural	5 184 386	37.0	4 163 860	29.7	4 659 061	33.3	14 007 307	100.0
Household income level								
Well off	214 833	33.8	146 464	23.0	274 490	43.2	635 787	100.0
Fairly well off	1 457 646	34.7	952 334	22.7	1 786 318	42.6	4 196 298	100.0
Average	4 902 013	34.7	4 134 425	29.3	5 098 562	36.1	14 135 000	100.0
Poor	1 571 894	34.1	1 592 881	34.6	1 440 798	31.3	4 605 572	100.0
Very poor	87 321	24.4	200 201	55.9	70 747	19.8	358 269	100.0
Total	8 233 708	34.4	7 026 305	29.4	8 670 914	36.2	23 930 927	100.0

Note: Household income levels are self-reported, i.e. based on the perception of the young respondent.
Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

The breakdown of the data by household income level seems to reflect little correlation between income level and the young person's likelihood of completing their transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment. A young person from a well-off household had the same chance (around 34 per cent) of completing the transition as a young person from a poor household. Only the youth from a very poor household had a slightly lower chance of transiting, at 24.4 per cent. Within this lowest income group, the young person was most likely to remain in transition (55.9 per cent). The correlation between income level and transition stage was strongest in the category of transition not yet started, where it is clear that youth from the wealthier households were those most likely to stay or school and not yet start the transition (approximately four in ten youth compared to two in ten youth from very poor households).

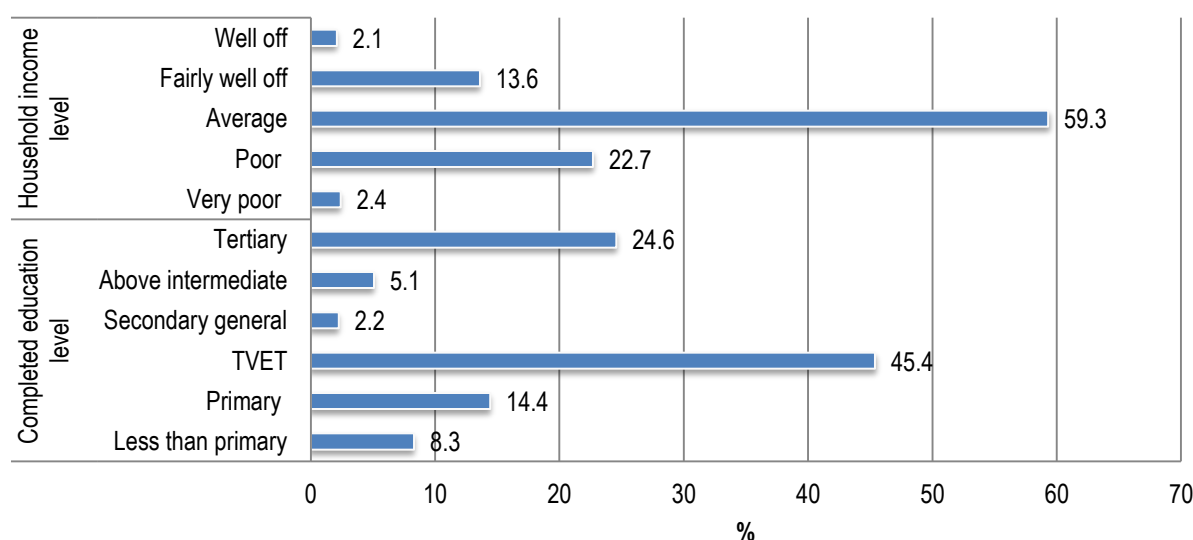
4.2.1 Youth who had not started the transition

Of the youth in the SWTS who had not yet started their transition, 68.0 per cent were young students without a job and 32.0 per cent were inactive youth with no work aspirations (table A.8). The gender disparity is quite clear in this table. Many more female than male youth did not start their transition to the labour market because of extended inactivity rather than school attendance (43.2 per cent and 3.2 per cent, respectively). This difference is very telling and corresponds closely with the data on limited female labour force participation in Egypt.

4.2.2 Youth in transition

A young person in transition is a youth who is unemployed (relaxed definition), engaged in self-employment or in a paid temporary job that they have expressed dissatisfaction with, or is an inactive non-student with an attachment to the labour market, indicated by their expressed desire to work in the future. The reason most youth in transition were in that stage was because of their relaxed unemployed status, followed by those who were in unsatisfactory self- or temporary employment (figure 4.1). Figure 4.2 presents youth in transition broken down by level of completed education (excluding current students) and household income level. The majority of young people who were in transition came from average income households (59.3 per cent) and had achieved TVET (45.4 per cent) or tertiary-level education (24.6 per cent). More youth in transition came from poor households (poor and very poor combined) than from wealthy households.

Figure 4.2 Youth in transition by levels of household income and completed educational attainment



Note: Household income levels are self-reported, i.e. based on the perception of the young respondent.

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

4.3 Characteristics of a completed transition

Table 4.3 breaks down the stages of transition again by sex, area of residence, household income level and completed education level, but excludes the youth who have not yet started the transition. The aim is to look only at the economically active categories of transition to ascertain if certain characteristics offer advantages during the transition path.

The first conclusion has already been made clear: young men were almost twice as likely as young women to have completed the transition, with the greatest percentage of transitioned young men having attained a satisfactory temporary job (37.0 per cent of economically active males). Young women, in contrast, were twice as likely as young men to remain in transition, mainly because they were unemployed (44.0 per cent of economically active females). The second conclusion is that youth in urban areas were more likely than their rural counterparts to attain stable employment but also to remain unemployed. Youth in rural areas were more likely to attain satisfactory self-employment (17.7 per cent).

Table 4.3 Youth in transition and transited by sub-category, sex, area of residence and levels of household income and completed educational attainment (%)

Characteristic	Transited			In transition			Total
	Stable employment	Satisfactory self-employment	Satisfactory temporary employment	Unemployed (relaxed definition)	Non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment	Inactive non-student with plan to work in future	
Total	11.6	14.1	28.2	21.1	17.6	7.3	100.0
Sex							
Male	11.7	15.8	37.0	8.4	23.6	3.5	100.0
Female	11.6	11.1	12.3	44.0	6.7	14.3	100.0
Area of residence							
Urban	15.6	8.5	27.4	24.7	17.5	6.2	100.0
Rural	9.1	17.7	28.7	18.9	17.6	8.0	100.0
Household income level							
Well off	35.9	10.0	13.5	30.9	5.7	4.0	100.0
Fairly well off	21.2	15.7	23.7	25.0	11.7	2.8	100.0
Average	11.0	14.3	28.9	20.8	16.9	8.1	100.0
Poor	4.4	12.8	32.5	17.8	23.7	8.8	100.0
Very poor	1.8	13.4	15.2	24.4	35.2	10.1	100.0
Completed education level							
Less than primary	0.9	29.1	42.4	5.1	16.9	5.6	100.0
Primary	3.5	16.7	43.0	12.1	16.4	8.3	100.0
TVET	9.9	12.1	26.1	21.9	20.7	9.4	100.0
Secondary general	9.0	12.5	25.0	22.9	18.9	11.8	100.0
Above intermediate	24.4	5.3	17.0	30.2	13.9	9.2	100.0
Tertiary	30.5	3.6	10.7	37.4	12.5	5.4	100.0

Note: Household income levels are self-reported, i.e. based on the perception of the young respondent.

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Regarding the impact of the household income level, table 4.3 clearly shows that youth from wealthier households were more likely to attain stable employment. Youth from wealthier households were also more likely to remain unemployed than youth from poorer backgrounds since they could rely on the household income to sustain them during the job search. Youth from poorer households were much more likely to remain in non-satisfactory self- or temporary employment than those from wealthier households.

A final conclusion relates to education. The table shows that investing in higher education brings a distinct advantage in terms of gaining stable employment. Nearly one-third (30.5 per cent) of youth with tertiary-level education completed the transition to stable employment compared to less than 10 per cent of youth with primary-level schooling or below, or TVET. Still, it is important to bear in mind that 37.4 per cent of youth with tertiary-level education remained unemployed compared to 12.1 per cent of youth with primary-level education. The youth with lower levels of education had a higher chance of completing their labour market transition, but not to stable employment. Rather, they were most likely to remain in satisfactory temporary employment.

Table 4.4 shows the distribution of transited youth by occupation and sub-category of transition. Most transited youth were spread among four occupations – crafts work (22.5 per cent), skilled agricultural and fishery work (21.9 per cent), service and sales work (13.7 per cent), and plant and machine operating work (13.2 per cent). Only just over one-tenth (11.4

per cent) of transited youth worked as professionals, while the remaining occupations totalled 17.3 per cent cumulatively.

Table 4.4 Transited youth by sub-category and occupation (%)

Occupation	Total employed youth	Total transited youth	Transited youth		
			Stable employment	Satisfactory self-employment	Satisfactory temporary employment
Managers	2.0	2.3	1.2	7.2	0.3
Professionals	9.3	11.4	37.2	2.3	5.4
Technicians & associate professionals	5.8	6.9	22.8	1.8	2.9
Clerks	2.4	2.9	7.5	0.0	2.4
Service & sales workers	15.8	13.7	9.1	13.1	15.9
Skilled agricultural & fishery workers	22.7	21.9	0.6	56.8	13.3
Craft & related trades workers	23.8	22.5	3.9	7.6	37.6
Plant & machine operator & assemblers	12.5	13.2	10.5	7.1	17.4
Elementary occupations	5.8	5.2	7.3	4.2	4.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Examining transition sub-category by occupation shows that the greatest percentage of transited young people in stable employment were in the professionals category (37.2 per cent), which helps to explain why so many young unemployed aspire to become professionals. Skilled agricultural and fishery work was least likely to provide stable employment (0.6 per cent).

Inversely, among those who were satisfactorily self-employed, skilled agricultural and fishery work was the predominant occupation (56.8 per cent of transited youth in this group). This pattern explains the earlier data on completed transition among those who were in rural areas and those with little education. It is clear that among youth with these characteristics, self-employment is regarded as a satisfactory status to remain in.

Among those satisfactorily in temporary employment, 37.6 per cent were in craft and related trades work, followed by 17.4 per cent working as plant and machine operators and assemblers, 15.9 per cent in sales and 13.3 per cent in skilled agricultural and fishery work.

4.4 Transition paths and length

Another means of examining the school-to-work transition is through flows and identifying the labour market category held by young people prior to transitioning to stable and/or satisfactory employment. In Egypt, the largest share of transited youth surveyed made a direct transition (56.4 per cent) (table 4.5). This means they had no intermediate spell before entering their current job, which was classified as either stable in contract terms or as satisfactory self- or temporary employment. About one-fifth (17.7 per cent) of youth transited from other employment (likely to mean non-satisfactory temporary employment), 11.2 per cent from unemployment and 10.8 per cent from inactivity. Only 3.3 per cent had previously been contributing (unpaid) family workers, indicating that this employment status can become terminal. Similarly, only 0.7 per cent had transited from self-employment.

Table 4.5 Youth who completed the transition by flows to stable and/or satisfactory employment

Flow	Number	%
Direct transition	4 289 348	56.4
From unemployment	850 959	11.2
From self-employment	52 269	0.7
From contributing (unpaid) family work	249 091	3.3
From other employment	1 343 969	17.7
From inactivity	823 213	10.8
Total	7 608 849	100.0

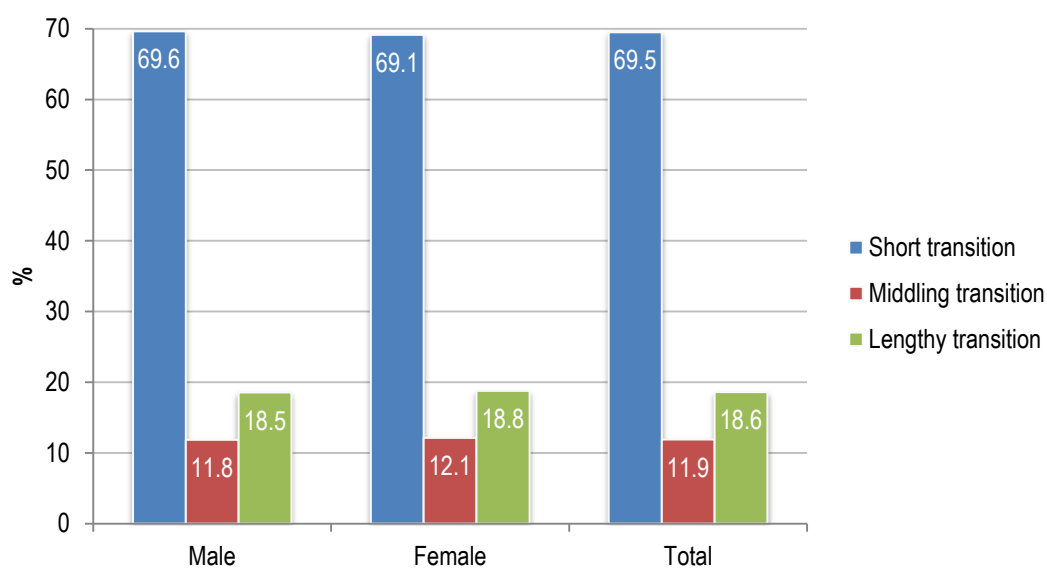
Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

The ILO has also developed a classification system for the length of transition period of youth who have completed the transition.¹⁶ Figure 4.3 shows that a large share of transitioned youth had a short transition (69.5 per cent). However, 11.9 per cent experienced a mid-length transition and almost one-fifth (18.6 per cent) experienced a lengthy transition. This demonstrates a prevalence of temporary and unstable jobs in the labour market as well as a tendency towards long-term unemployment.

The results on transition paths suggest that “shopping around” among labour market experiences is not usual in Egypt, a clear indicator of the limited number of job opportunities in the country. Examining the length of transitions more closely, the results in table 4.6 indicate that among youth who did not transit directly to stable or satisfactory employment, the path to transition involved, on average, approximately 1.4 intermediary labour market activities – whether unemployment, employment or inactivity – prior to completing the labour market transition. The average time spent in intermediary activities was very lengthy. The results show that youth who did not transit directly took, on average, 48.5 months (4 years) in the labour market before attaining transitioned status. The length in transition was longer for young men than young women (about 53 and 35 months, respectively), with the difference being the time that young men spent in non-satisfactory temporary employment since the average length of unemployment was the same for both sexes (26.5 months). As would be expected, it took the young person longer to transit to stable employment than to satisfactory self- or temporary employment, although the difference was not extreme at 18 and 13.3 months, respectively.

¹⁶ A **short transition** is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent: (1) a direct transition; or (2) a spell (or cumulative spells) of stable or satisfactory employment with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or (3) a spell (or cumulative spells) of employment of less than or equal to 1 year with no spell of unemployment or inactivity where the job(s) held is(are) classified as non-satisfactory self- or temporary employment; or (4) a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of less than or equal to 3 months; or (5) a spell of inactivity of less than or equal to 1 year. A **mid-length transition** is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent: (1) a spell (or cumulative spells) of non-satisfactory self- or temporary employment of between 1 and 2 years with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or (2) a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of between 3 months and 1 year; or (3) a spell of inactivity longer than 1 year. A **lengthy transition** is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent: (1) a spell (or cumulative spells) of non-satisfactory self- or temporary employment of 2 years or over with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or (2) a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of 1 year or over.

Figure 4.3 Youth who completed the transition by length of transition and sex



Note: Duration of transition for non-students only.

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

Table 4.6 Indicators on the path of transition for youth who completed their labour market transition by sex

Indicator	Total	Male	Female
Average length of transition – excluding direct transition	48.5 months	52.8 months	35 months
Average length of transition – including direct transition	15 months	16.2 months	11.3 months
Average length of transition to stable employment – including direct transition	18 months	21.0 months	12.4 months
Average length of transition to satisfactory self- or temporary employment – including direct transition	13.3 months	16.4 months	6.2 months
Average number of intermediate activities	1.4	1.5	1.2
Average number of unemployment spells	1.0	1.0	1.1
Average length of unemployment spells	26.5 months	26.5 months	26.5 months

Source: SWTS-Egypt, 2012.

5. Relevant institutional and policy frameworks, and policy implications

Egypt's economy is not creating enough jobs to meet the employment needs of the large cohorts of youth entering the labour market; high rates of unemployment and inactivity are the result. Crowding for the few jobs created depresses the wages of youth and leads to compromised working conditions. The survey showed that women are at a particular disadvantage; a limited scope of jobs are open to them, principally in the public sector, which results in extremely long queuing and pushes many out of the labour market for good.

Identifying the nature and extent of the youth employment challenges at the country level is a prerequisite to formulating evidence-based and integrated policies and programmatic interventions. With detailed information on the blockages that are preventing sufficient job creation from absorbing the cohorts of young labour market entrants, governments will be better prepared to design effective policy responses. Facilitating an improved school-to-work transition is a precondition to helping young people overcome difficulties in finding and maintaining decent jobs.

The analysis of the SWTS in Egypt highlights issues of low-quality employment, high levels of informal employment, depressed wages and very long transitions paths, reflected in the large shares of long-term unemployment. The evidence from the survey clearly points out that Egypt needs serious and concerted policies to address its youth employment issues. Since youth employment is highly dependent on the country's general employment situation, it is critical to prioritize youth employment in national policy-making and make it central to economic and social policies.

The Egyptian Government has long had youth employment on its agenda. The Youth Employment National Action Plan (NAP) of 2010–15 outlines Egypt's strategy towards more and better jobs for youth. The Action Plan identifies three priority areas: technical education and vocational training, enterprise development, and labour market policies and programmes. The priority of technical education seeks to develop the training system of students and to improve the basic and soft skills of graduates of both secondary- and tertiary-level education in the areas of language and technologies. The enterprise development priority area seeks to promote entrepreneurship by providing technical and marketing support to start-ups and young entrepreneurs. The priority area of labour market policies and programmes seeks to develop public employment offices and to strengthen labour market information units at the Ministry of Manpower and Immigration.

The 2012 SWTS and future data set for 2014 can make a significant contribution to providing policy-makers with information to initiate, monitor and evaluate the numerous policies and programmes outlined in the NAP and other current policy documents. In particular, the following recommended areas of action should be followed closely:

1. **Design macroeconomic policies to promote job growth.** Job creation is central to any meaningful discussion of youth employment issues. It is the role of government to create an enabling environment that allows the private sector to develop its full potential and play a role in generating employment and decent jobs (ILO, 2011). This entails forging partnerships with the private sector and civil society organizations to improve youth employment outcomes. There is little consensus in the literature as to how to create an enabling environment for job creation. The range of approaches spans from a classic focus on skill specialization and divisions of labour, to emphasis on investment in physical capital and infrastructure, to, more recently, interest in innovation, macroeconomic stability and good governance (Schwab, 2011).

2. **Strengthen the focus of job creation in the high-skilled service sector.** The increasing access to education among this generation of youth has resulted in job aspirations for work as “professionals”. The jobs available within this category are not sufficient to meet the supply of graduates in this field. Job creation policies should focus on creating jobs within the high-skilled service sector to increase the demand for workers in this type of occupation. This requires coordinated policy efforts to support aggregate demand through pro-employment macroeconomic policies and to foster growth engines through an appropriate balance of export-driven growth and expansion of domestic markets (ILO, 2013, Chapter 6). Box 3 offers general approaches in this area.

Box 3. Approaches to boost aggregate demand and promote youth employment

Policies that promote employment-centred and sustainable growth are vital if young people are to be given a fair chance at a decent job. Youth labour market outcomes are closely related to overall employment trends but are more sensitive to the business cycle. A boost in aggregate demand is key to addressing the youth employment crisis as this will create more job opportunities for young people. ILO research shows that macroeconomic policies can influence youth employment by:

1. encouraging economic diversification and productive transformation;
2. reducing macroeconomic volatility by engaging in timely and targeted counter-cyclical policies;
3. loosening constraints on private sector growth, with a particular emphasis on access to finance for micro, small and medium-sized enterprises;
4. focusing on targeted demand-side interventions with particular impact on youth employment (e.g. labour intensive infrastructure works, public employment programmes, wage and training subsidies); and
5. ensuring adequate and predictable funding for targeted youth employment interventions.

Source: ILO, 2013, box 8.

3. **Promote career counselling and public employment services to help guide youth towards technical careers where demand is stronger.** As a further means of guiding young students and graduates away from an overcrowded professional sector, career counselling services within schools and in employment service centres can improve efforts to raise the attractiveness of technical careers. Sectors that are likely to create jobs include assembly/electronics-processing, ICT, software, agro-processing, and woodwork and furniture-making. It would be crucial for the employment and skills development strategy to align with this sectoral strategy.
4. **Focus on educational quality and relevance.** The high prevalence of unemployment among the educated, particularly among university students, raises concerns about the labour market relevance of the education received and employment outcomes. Educational institutions should seek to provide graduates with the soft and technical skills needed to prepare youth to enter the labour market. Specific policy recommendations are: i) involve employers in the identification of skills standards and training needs, ii) link training and work following good examples in the region, iii) establish innovative systems for on-the-job training and youth apprenticeships, and iv) raise awareness of the importance of quality education, TVET and lifelong learning.
5. **Invest in second-chance programmes to capture the disadvantaged youth most likely to leave school early.** The increasing prevalence of access to education further disadvantages individuals left behind without education, either those not entering school or early drop-outs. Expanding investment in education is required, especially in rural areas, as is expanding access to education and training to the most disadvantaged and excluded youth. Second-chance programmes should seek to provide core skills to unskilled youth with low levels of formal education,
6. **Improve the social protection of young people by enforcing the labour laws, including those outlining the criteria of an employment contract.** The survey results show that young people continue to suffer from decent work deficits and low-quality

jobs. Most working youth are hired with oral contracts only and few have access to entitlements. Labour laws and collective agreements, including through sanctioning mechanisms, can protect young workers and facilitate their transitions into stable and decent employment. In parallel, a system of incentives to encourage the registration of enterprises is needed, while also providing incentives for employers to invest in productivity improvements and the working conditions of young people.

7. **Make labour market information and job search mechanisms available to youth.** A majority of employed youth found work through informal networks of family and friends. Disadvantaged youth are marginalized from the lack of such networks. Efficient labour market information-sharing is much needed, particularly for youth in the poorer rural and urban areas. Labour market information, job search assistance, TVET counselling and career guidance should be promoted in Egypt as active labour market policies, implemented by the Government or civil society organizations.
8. **Support entrepreneurship among youth through both technical and financial support.** Very few youth in Egypt are entrepreneurs. Those who ventured to become entrepreneurs had to use their own savings or borrow from family. This shows the limitations of lending programmes for youth. Self-employed youth listed the lack of marketing expertise as one of the key challenges they face. Technical assistance by connecting start-ups to supply chains and building up business incubators can encourage more youth to become entrepreneurs.
9. **Promote bipartite and tripartite cooperation on youth employment to yield better employment outcomes.** Establishing an enabling environment for the successful implementation of employment and labour market interventions for young people requires bipartite and tripartite cooperation. This is confirmed by the results of evaluations of youth employment programmes. Egypt's Government, employers' organizations and trade unions have a role to play by fulfilling their own specific mandates and through concerted and joint efforts to promote decent work for youth in the country. It is also essential to listen to young people and engage them in this process. Working with young people as partners throughout the policy-making and implementation process is central to understanding young people's vulnerability and authentic solutions.
10. **Take a gendered approach to the employment issues of youth to ensure a successful policy framework.** The crowding of young females in public sector employment is not sustainable. The limited career options available to women result in extremely high unemployment and inactivity rates, and wasted economic potential for the country. Efforts need to be strengthened to tackle the cultural barriers that limit the economic contribution of one-half of the youth population.

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Annex I. Definitions of labour market statistics

1. The following units are defined according to the standards of the International Conference of Labour Statisticians:
 - a. The **employed** include all persons of 15 years of age or more who during a week of reference:
 - worked for wage or profit (in cash or in kind) for at least one hour;
 - were temporarily absent from work (because of illness, leave, studies, a break of the activity of the firm, for example), but had a formal attachment to their job;
 - performed some work without pay for family gain.
 - b. The **unemployed** (strictly defined) include all persons of 15 years of age or more who meet the following three conditions during the week of reference:
 - They did not work (according to the abovementioned definition);
 - They were actively searching for a job or took concrete action to start their own business;
 - They were available to start work within the two weeks following the reference week.
 - c. Persons neither included in the employed nor in the unemployed category are classified as **not in the labour force (also known as inactive)**.
2. The International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE) categorizes the employed population on the basis of their explicit or implicit contract of employment, as follows:
 - a. **Employees** (also wage and salaried workers) are those who hold the type of jobs defined as “paid employment jobs”, where the incumbents hold explicit (written or oral) or implicit employment contracts that give them a basic remuneration that is not directly dependent upon the revenue of the unit for which they work.
 - b. **Employers** are those who, working on their own account or with one or a few partners, hold the type of jobs defined as “self-employment jobs” (i.e. jobs where the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profits derived from the goods and services produced) and, in this capacity, have engaged, on a continuous basis, one or more persons to work for them as employee(s).
 - c. **Own-account workers** are those who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, hold the type of jobs defined as “self-employment jobs” and have not engaged, on a continuous basis, any employees to work for them.
 - d. **Contributing (unpaid) family workers** are those who hold “self-employment jobs” as own-account workers in a market-oriented establishment operated by a related person living in the same household.
3. The employed are also classified by their main **occupation**, in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-08).
4. A **household** is every family or other community of persons living together and jointly spending their income to satisfy the basic necessities of life. The concept of household includes members present in the place where the household resides, as well as individuals who are temporarily absent and living elsewhere, including abroad, for business, education or other, as long as their residence in the foreign country does not exceed 1 year. A person living alone can also qualify as a household (“single household”) if s/he does not already

belong to another unit. The single household can reside in a separate or shared apartment, considered as an independent unit as long as the household's income is not shared with other residents. Collective households, such as prisons and institutions, and their members are not observed in the LFS.

5. **The reporting period**, to which the questions for the economic activity are related, is the week before the week of interview (52 reporting weeks throughout the year).
6. The following units are also defined within the SWTS analysis but are outside the scope of those defined within the international framework of labour market statistics mentioned in item 1 above:
 - a. **Relaxed unemployment** – a person without work and available to work (relaxing the jobseeking criteria of item 1b above).
 - b. **Labour underutilization rate** – the sum of shares of youth in irregular employment, unemployed (relaxed definition) and youth neither in the labour force nor in education/training (inactive non-students) as a percentage of the youth population.
 - c. **Regular employment** – the sum of employees with a contract (oral or written) of 12 months or more in duration and employers; the indicators are therefore a mix of information on status in employment and contract situations.
 - d. **Satisfactory employment** – based on self-assessment of the jobholder; implies a job that the respondent considers to “fit” to their desired employment path at that moment in time.
 - e. **Stable employment** – employees with a contract (oral or written) of 12 months or more in duration.
 - f. **Temporary employment** – employees with a contract (oral or written) of less than 12 months in duration.

Annex II. Additional statistical tables

The source for all tables is the SWTS for Egypt, 2012.

Table A.1 Self-employed youth (own-account workers and employers) by problem in running the business, area of residence and sex

Most important problem	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total (Urban + Rural)						
No problem	466 523	48.3	418 861	47.1	47 662	62.3
Insufficient financial resources	117 077	12.1	110 721	12.4	6 356	8.3
Competition in the market	176 625	18.3	159 485	17.9	17 140	22.4
Shortages in raw materials	49 907	5.2	49 907	5.6	0	0.0
Labour shortage	7 829	0.8	7 829	0.9	0	0.0
Insufficient quality of staff	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Insufficient (personal) business expertise	9 603	1.0	4 265	0.5	5 337	7.0
Legal regulations	38 745	4.0	38 745	4.4	0	0.0
Product development	7 712	0.8	7 712	0.9	0	0.0
Access to technology	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Political uncertainties	45 244	4.7	45 244	5.1	0	0.0
Other	47 095	4.9	47 095	5.3	0	0.0
Total	966 359	100.0	889 863	100.0	76 496	100.0
Urban						
No problem	140 131	41.2	117 610	37.7	22 520	78.9
Insufficient financial resources	36 819	10.8	36 819	11.8	0	0.0
Competition in the market	61 233	18.0	55 197	17.7	6 036	21.1
Shortages in raw materials	26 419	7.8	26 419	8.5	0	0.0
Labour shortage	3 915	1.2	3 915	1.3	0	0.0
Insufficient quality of staff	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Insufficient (personal) business expertise	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Legal regulations	24 539	7.2	24 539	7.9	0	0.0
Product development	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Access to technology	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Political uncertainties	23 942	7.0	23 942	7.7	0	0.0
Other	23 204	6.8	23 204	7.5	0	0.0
Total	340 202	100.0	311 645	100.0	28 556	100.0
Rural						
No problem	140 131	41.2	117 610	37.7	22 520	78.9
Insufficient financial resources	36 819	10.8	36 819	11.8	0	0.0
Competition in the market	61 233	18.0	55 197	17.7	6 036	21.1
Shortages in raw materials	26 419	7.8	26 419	8.5	0	0.0
Labour shortage	3 915	1.2	3 915	1.3	0	0.0
Insufficient quality of staff	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Insufficient (personal) business expertise	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Legal regulations	24 539	7.2	24 539	7.9	0	0.0
Product development	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Access to technology	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Political uncertainties	23 942	7.0	23 942	7.7	0	0.0
Other	23 204	6.8	23 204	7.5	0	0.0
Total	340 202	100.0	311 645	100.0	28 556	100.0

Table A.2 Self-employed youth (own-account workers and employers) by source of funding to start their current activity, area of residence and sex

Main source of funding	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total (Urban + Rural)						
No money needed	157 471	16.3	134 747	15.1	22 724	29.7
Own savings	299 266	31.0	275 444	31.0	23 822	31.1
Money from family or friends	468 646	48.5	438 697	49.3	29 949	39.2
Loan from microfinance institutions	17 030	1.8	17 030	1.9	0	0.0
Loan from banks	7 677	0.8	7 677	0.9	0	0.0
Other	16 268	1.7	16 268	1.8	0	0.0
Total	966 359	100.0	889 863	100.0	76 496	100.0
Urban						
No money needed	60 092	17.7	42 705	13.7	17 387	60.9
Own savings	113 700	33.4	113 700	36.5	0	0.0
Money from family or friends	149 766	44.0	138 596	44.5	11 169	39.1
Loan from microfinance institutions	8 510	2.5	8 510	2.7	0	0.0
Loan from banks	4 220	1.2	4 220	1.4	0	0.0
Other	3 915	1.2	3 915	1.3	0	0.0
Total	340 202	100.0	311 645	100.0	28 556	100.0
Rural						
No money needed	97 379	15.6	92 042	15.9	5 337	11.1
Own savings	185 567	29.6	161 744	28.0	23 822	49.7
Money from family or friends	318 881	50.9	300 101	51.9	18 779	39.2
Loan from microfinance institutions	8 520	1.4	8 520	1.5	0	0.0
Loan from banks	3 457	0.6	3 457	0.6	0	0.0
Other	12 353	2.0	12 353	2.1	0	0.0
Total	626 157	100.0	578 218	100.0	47 939	100.0

Table A.3 Self-employed youth (own-account workers and employers) by use of financial instruments to cover the expenses required to maintain their current activity, area of residence and sex

Financial instrument	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total (Urban + Rural)						
No money needed	192 736	19.9	175 348	19.7	17 387	22.7
Saving collectors	379 821	39.3	355 998	40.0	23 822	31.1
Money from family or friends	283 767	29.4	253 818	28.5	29 949	39.2
Loan from a bank	4 265	0.4	4 265	0.5	0	0.0
Profits of the project	101 855	10.5	96 518	10.9	5 337	7.0
Other	3 915	0.4	3 915	0.4	0	0.0
Total	966 359	100.0	889 863	100.0	76 496	100.0
Urban						
No money needed	70 931	20.9	53 544	17.2	17 387	60.9
Saving collectors	139 703	41.1	139 703	44.8	0	0.0
Money from family or friends	88 632	26.1	77 463	24.9	11 169	39.1
Loan from a bank	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Profits of the project	37 021	10.9	37 021	11.9	0	0.0
Other	3 915	1.2	3 915	1.3	0	0.0

Financial instrument	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total	340 202	100.0	311 645	100.0	28 556	100.0
Rural						
No money needed	121 804	19.5	121 804	21.1	0	0.0
Saving collectors	240 118	38.4	216 295	37.4	23 822	49.7
Money from family or friends	195 135	31.2	176 356	30.5	18 779	39.2
Loan from a bank	4 265	0.7	4 265	0.7	0	0.0
Profits of the project	64 835	10.4	59 497	10.3	5 337	11.1
Other	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total	626 157	100.0	578 218	100.0	47 939	100.0

Table A.4 Employed youth by satisfaction with current job, area of residence and sex

Satisfaction	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total (Urban + Rural)						
Very satisfied	2 472 044	22.7	1 755 721	20.3	716 323	31.6
Somewhat satisfied	5 541 142	50.8	4 426 198	51.2	1 114 944	49.1
Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied	747 044	6.8	618 308	7.2	128 736	5.7
Somewhat unsatisfied	1 498 492	13.7	1 293 538	15.0	204 954	9.0
Very unsatisfied	657 747	6.0	552 839	6.4	104 907	4.6
Total	10 916 469	100.0	8 646 604	100.0	2 269 865	100.0
Urban						
Very satisfied	1 025 350	25.1	750 792	23.4	274 559	31.4
Somewhat satisfied	1 906 824	46.7	1 471 224	45.8	435 600	49.9
Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied	253 105	6.2	201 769	6.3	51 336	5.9
Somewhat unsatisfied	569 574	13.9	514 803	16.0	54 771	6.3
Very unsatisfied	331 511	8.1	274 394	8.5	57 117	6.5
Total	4 086 365	100.0	3 212 981	100.0	873 384	100.0
Rural						
Very satisfied	1 446 694	21.2	1 004 930	18.5	441 764	31.6
Somewhat satisfied	3 634 318	53.2	2 954 973	54.4	679 344	48.7
Neither dissatisfied nor satisfied	493 939	7.2	416 539	7.7	77 400	5.5
Somewhat unsatisfied	928 918	13.6	778 735	14.3	150 183	10.8
Very unsatisfied	326 236	4.8	278 446	5.1	47 790	3.4
Total	6 830 103	100.0	5 433 623	100.0	1 396 481	100.0

Table A.5 Employed youth by willingness to migrate for employment purposes and sex

Active step	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
None	6 574 391.2	55.1	4 520 837.1	47.4	2 053 554.1	86.0
Would move to capital city	2 203 308.3	18.5	2 046 515.6	21.5	156 792.7	6.6
Would move to a town/city	1 174 643.5	9.8	1 100 117.1	11.5	74 526.4	3.1
Would move to a rural area	141 873.7	1.2	128 033.7	1.3	13 840.0	0.6
Would move to another country	1 577 822.0	13.2	1 510 429.6	15.8	67 392.3	2.8
Do not know	253 868.7	2.1	231 539.7	2.4	22 329.0	0.9
Total	11 925 907.0	100.0	9 537 472.8	100.0	2 388 434.5	100.0

Table A.6 Unemployed youth who had refused a job by reason for refusal and sex

Reason	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Wages offered were too low	73 941	34.0	46 272	57.4	27 669	20.2
Work was not interesting	3 478	1.6	3 478	4.3	0	0.0
Location was not convenient	35 004	16.1	0	0.0	35 004	25.6
Work would not match the level of qualification	65 282	30.0	23 444	29.1	41 838	30.6
Work would require too many hours	5 489	2.5	0	0.0	5 489	4.0
Family did not approve of the job offered	14 124	6.5	3 162	3.9	10 963	8.0
Waiting for a better job	10 496	4.8	0	0.0	10 496	7.7
Other	9 617	4.4	4 255	5.3	5 362	3.9
Total	217 431	100.0	80 611	100.0	136 821	100.0

Table A.7 Current students by desired future employer and sex (%)

Type of enterprise	Total	Male	Female
Do not wish to work	3.2	0.1	5.7
Work for family business/farm	0.3	0.1	0.6
Work for an international or non-profit organization	0.9	0.9	0.9
Work for a private company	16.4	23.6	10.5
Work for government/public sector	73.4	66.8	78.7
Work for myself (own business/farm)	5.8	8.5	3.6

Table A.8 Youth who had not yet started their transition by sub-category and sex

Sub-category	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Inactive students	5 893 590	68.0	2 346 460	96.8	3 547 130	56.8
Inactive non-student youth with no future work aspirations	2 777 325	32.0	77 545	3.2	2 699 780	43.2
Total youth transition not started	8 670 914	100.0	2 424 005	100.0	6 246 910	100.0

Table A.9 Youth population by use of financial instruments, area of residence and sex

Financial instrument	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total (Urban + Rural)						
None	22 641 823	93.6	11 331 399	91	11 310 423	96.4
Business loans	70 135	0.3	64 798	0.5	5 337	0.0
Emergency loans	252 927	1.0	203 930	1.6	48 997	0.4
Consumption loans	157 985	0.7	144 440	1.2	13 545	0.1
Savings	715 999	3	488 278	3.9	227 721	1.9
Remittances/money transfer services	142 830	0.6	110 899	0.9	31 932	0.3
Other	199 440	0.8	110 006	0.9	89 434	0.8
Urban						
None	9 264 517	92.2	4 544 243	89.2	4 720 274	95.3
Business loans	29 683	0.3	24 346	0.5	5 337	0.1
Emergency loans	55 839	0.6	51 946	1.0	3 893	0.1

Consumption loans	60 365	0.6	54 606	1.1	5 759	0.1
Savings	425 081	4.2	278 560	5.5	146 521	3.0
Remittances/money transfer services	122 445	1.2	95 876	1.9	26 570	0.5
Other	91 175.60	0.9	45 838.30	0.9	45 337.30	0.9
Rural						
None	13 377 305	94.7	6 787 156	92.2	6 590 150	97.3
Business loans	40 452	0.3	40 452	0.5	0	0.0
Emergency loans	197 088	1.4	151 984	2.1	45 104	0.7
Consumption loans	97 620	0.7	89 834	1.2	7 786	0.1
Savings	290 918	2.1	209 718	2.9	81 199	1.2
Remittances/money transfer services	20 385	0.1	15 023	0.2	5 362	0.1
Other	108 265	0.8	64 168	0.9	44 097	0.7

Table A.10 Youth by source of financial services, area of residence and sex

Source	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total (Urban + Rural)						
Banks	485 286	33.3	311 472	29.3	173 814	43.9
Post office	295 662	20.3	219 132	20.6	76 531	19.4
Friends & relatives	387 002	26.6	288 619	27.2	98 384	24.9
Microfinance institutions	115 879	8.0	97 419	9.2	18 460	4.7
Money transfer operators	13 045	0.9	0	0.0	13 045	3.3
Other	160 235	11.0	144 965	13.7	15 270	3.9
Total	1 457 109	100.0	1 061 606	100.0	395 502	100.0
Urban						
Banks	346 177	47.3	221 857	42.9	124 320	58.1
Post office	135 709	18.6	112 267	21.7	23 442	10.9
Friends & relatives	130 634	17.9	85 297	16.5	45 337	21.2
Microfinance institutions	44 107	6.0	34 876	6.7	9 230	4.3
Money transfer operators	6 036	0.8	0	0.0	6 036	2.8
Other	68 822	9.4	63 063	12.2	5 759	2.7
Total	731 485	100.0	517 361	100.0	214 124	100.0
Rural						
Banks	139 109	19.2	89 615	16.5	49 494	27.3
Post office	159 953	22.0	106 865	19.6	53 088	29.3
Friends & relatives	256 368	35.3	203 322	37.4	53 046	29.2
Microfinance institutions	71 773	9.9	62 543	11.5	9 230	5.1
Money transfer operators	7 009	1.0	0	0.0	7 009	3.9
Other	91 413	12.6	81 902	15.0	9 511	5.2
Total	725 624	100.0	544 246	100.0	181 378	100.0

Table A.11 Employed youth by union membership and sex

Membership	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Member	1 004 952	9.2	657 560	7.6	347 392	15.3
Non-member	9 911 517	90.8	7 989 044	92.4	1 922 473	84.7
Total	10 916 469	100.0	8 646 604	100.0	2 269 865	100.0

Table A.12 Employed youth by company size, area of residence and sex

Number of workers	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total (Urban + Rural)						
Less than 5	5 623 821	51.5	4 601 629	53.2	1 022 192	45.0
Between 5 & 9	1 747 509	16.0	1 425 204	16.5	322 304	14.2
Between 10 & 19	940 639	8.6	770 942	8.9	169 697	7.5
Between 20 & 49	607 573	5.6	419 371	4.9	188 201	8.3
Between 50 & 499	896 694	8.2	543 570	6.3	353 124	15.6
Above 500	673 592	6.2	527 516	6.1	146 076	6.4
Do not know	426 641	3.9	358 371	4.1	68 271	3.0
Total	10 916 469	100.0	8 646 604	100.0	2 269 865	100.0
Urban						
Less than 5	1 979 235	48.4	1 719 313	53.5	259 922	29.8
Between 5 & 9	569 617	13.9	448 829	14.0	120 788	13.8
Between 10 & 19	321 904	7.9	226 649	7.1	95 255	10.9
Between 20 & 49	208 739	5.1	136 375	4.2	72 364	8.3
Between 50 & 499	458 218	11.2	245 673	7.6	212 546	24.3
Above 500	411 429	10.1	332 647	10.4	78 782	9.0
Do not know	137 223	3.4	103 496	3.2	33 727	3.9
Total	4 086 365	100.0	3 212 981	100.0	873 384	100.0
Rural						
Less than 5	3 644 586	53.4	2 882 316	53.0	762 270	54.6
Between 5 & 9	1 177 892	17.2	976 375	18.0	201 516	14.4
Between 10 & 19	618 734	9.1	544 293	10.0	74 441	5.3
Between 20 & 49	398 834	5.8	282 996	5.2	115 838	8.3
Between 50 & 499	438 476	6.4	297 897	5.5	140 578	10.1
Above 500	262 163	3.8	194 869	3.6	67 294	4.8
Do not know	289 419	4.2	254 875	4.7	34 544	2.5
Total	6 830 104	100.0	5 433 623	100.0	1 396 481	100.0

Table A.13 Employed youth by type of job-oriented training received and sex

Main field of training	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Vocational	349 288	60.5	194 275	59.0	155 013	62.6
Business development/entrepreneurship	30 823	5.3	24 834	7.5	5 989	2.4
Foreign language	21 027	3.6	0	0.0	21 027	8.5
Information technology (IT)	76 948	13.3	37 440	11.4	39 508	16.0
Accounting/bookkeeping	30 948	5.4	27 055	8.2	3 893	1.6
Health & safety	32 573	5.6	16 740	5.1	15 833	6.4
Compliance with procedures or regulations	12 222	2.1	12 222	3.7	0	0.0
Other	23 313	4.0	16 958	5.2	6 356	2.6
Total	577 142	100.0	329 523	100.0	247 619	100.0

Table A.14 In-school youth by highest expected level of educational attainment, area of residence and sex

Highest level expected	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total (Urban + Rural)						
Elementary	6 955	0.1	6 955	0.2	0	0.0
Vocational/industry	36 698	0.5	31 565	1.0	5 133	0.1
TVET	1 568 619	22.8	846 501	27.3	722 118	19.0
Secondary/Azhari	27 298	0.4	14 674	0.5	12 625	0.3
Vocational (post-secondary)	428 461	6.2	190 597	6.2	237 864	6.3
University	4 081 211	59.2	1 730 745	55.9	2 350 466	61.9
Postgraduate	739 046	10.7	270 717	8.7	468 329	12.3
Other	6 959	0.1	6 959	0.2	0	0.0
Total	6 895 248	100.0	3 098 713	100.0	3 796 535	100.0
Urban						
Elementary	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Vocational/industry	8 931	0.3	3 797	0.3	5 133	0.3
TVET	434 070	13.3	264 166	18.4	169 904	9.2
Secondary/Azhari	3 870	0.1	3 870	0.3	0	0.0
Vocational (post-secondary)	150 416	4.6	79 371	5.5	71 044	3.9
University	2 214 519	67.6	914 505	63.8	1 300 014	70.6
Postgraduate	456 021	13.9	161 358	11.3	294 663	16.0
Other	6 959	0.2	6 959	0.5	0	0.0
Total	3 274 785	100.0	1 434 027	100.0	1 840 759	100.0
Rural						
Elementary	6 955	0.2	6 955	0.4	0	0.0
Vocational/industry	27 768	0.8	27 768	1.7	0	0.0
TVET	1 134 549	31.3	582 335	35.0	552 214	28.2
Secondary/Azhari	23 429	0.7	10 804	0.7	12 625	0.7
Vocational (post-secondary)	278 046	7.7	111 226	6.7	166 820	8.5
University	1 866 692	51.6	816 240	49.0	1 050 452	53.7
Postgraduate	283 025	7.8	109 359	6.6	173 666	8.9
Other	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total	3 620 463	100.0	1 664 686	100.0	1 955 777	100.0

Table A.15 Share of young students combining work and study by area of residence and sex

Work and study	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total (Urban + Rural)						
Working during the school season	2 780 820	56.8	2 320 821	55.3	460 000	66.2
Working outside the school season	1 292 384	26.4	1 139 446	27.1	152 938	22.0
Working during & outside the school season	822 214	16.8	740 213	17.6	82 000	11.8
Total	4 895 418	100.0	4 200 480	100.0	694 938	100.0
Urban						
Working during the school season	970 568	53.4	799 775	50.6	170 792	71.5
Working outside the school season	512 315	28.2	471 944	29.9	40 371	16.9
Working during & outside the school season	336 443	18.5	308 585	19.5	27 858	11.7
Total	1 819 326	100.0	1 580 305	100.0	239 021	100.0
Rural						
Working during the school season	1 810 253	58.9	1 521 045	58.1	289 208	63.4
Working outside the school season	780 069	25.4	667 502	25.5	112 567	24.7
Working during & outside the school season	485 771	15.8	431 628	16.5	54 143	11.9
Total	3 076 093	100.0	2 620 176	100.0	455 917	100.0

Annex III. Sampling framework of SWTS-Egypt, 2012

The SWTS sample is a self-weighted multi-stage cluster sample. The sample was extracted from the sample of the Egypt labour force survey (LFS), which was fielded in the first and second quarters of 2012. The main criterion for selection of the households for inclusion in the SWTS sample was to reach members aged 15–29. The LFS sample included 9,708 households meeting this criterion. The following table shows the breakdown of households by governorate and urban/rural location.

Number of households in the LFS sample with individuals aged 15–29 by governorates and urban/rural location

Governorate	Urban	Rural	Total
Cairo	979	0	979
Alexandria	524	0	524
Port Said	82	0	82
Suez	87	0	87
Damietta	57	101	158
Dakahlia	189	518	707
El Sharkia	154	582	736
Kaliobeya	255	312	567
Kafr Al-Shaikh	84	297	381
El Garbia	155	394	549
Monofeya	83	366	449
El Biheira	122	543	665
Ismailia	54	67	121
Giza	419	391	810
Beni Suef	72	254	326
Fayoum	67	294	361
Minya	115	482	597
Assiut	103	358	461
Sohag	104	416	520
Qena	57	269	326
Aswan	74	90	164
Luxor	45	93	138
Total	3 881	5 827	9 708

The final SWTS sample included 3,500 households. The SWTS sub-sample was selected from enumeration units with the highest concentration of households that met the age criterion. Households with more members meeting the age criterion were also more likely to be selected. Sample selection was systematized to take into account larger dispersion across governorates. The following table shows the breakdown of the final SWTS sample framework by governorate and urban/rural location.

Number of households in the SWTS sample by governorates and urban/rural location

Governorate	Urban	Rural	Total
Cairo	426	0	426
Alexandria	220	0	220
Port Said	29	0	29
Suez	25	0	25
Damietta	23	35	58
Dakahlia	74	186	260
El Sharkia	62	197	259
Kaliobeya	83	132	214
Kafr Al-Shaikh	30	96	126
El Garbia	65	140	205
Monofeya	33	125	158
El Biheira	46	179	225
Ismailia	22	25	47
Giza	205	113	318
Beni Suef	26	76	102
Fayoum	28	88	116
Minya	38	150	187
Assiut	41	108	150
Sohag	36	132	168
Qena	22	85	108
Aswan	24	31	55
Luxor	17	26	43
Total	1 575	1 925	3 500



This report presents the highlights of the 2012 School-to-work Transition Survey (SWTS) run together with the Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (CAPMAS) within the framework of the ILO Work4Youth Project. This Project is a five-year partnership between the ILO and The MasterCard Foundation that aims to promote decent work opportunities for young men and women through knowledge and action. The W4Y Publication Series is designed to disseminate data and analyses from the SWTS administered by the ILO in 28 countries covering five regions of the world. The SWTS is a unique survey instrument that generates relevant labour market information on young people aged 15 to 29 years. The survey captures longitudinal information on transitions within the labour market, thus providing evidence of the increasingly tentative and indirect paths to decent and productive employment that today's young men and women face.

The W4Y Publications Series covers national reports, with main survey findings and details on current national policy interventions in the area of youth employment, and regional synthesis reports that highlight regional patterns in youth labour market transitions and distinctions in national policy frameworks.

Work4Youth



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