



TORINO PROCESS 2010

Occupied Palestinian Territory

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List of Abbreviations

ATS	Apprenticeship Training Scheme
ETF	European Training Foundation
EU	European Union
GS	Gaza Strip
GDP	Gross domestic product
GNI	Gross national income
GTZ	German Technical Cooperation
ICT	Information and communication technologies
ILO	International Labour Organisation
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
KAB	Know About Business
LETC	Local Employment and Training Councils
LMIS	Labour market information system
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NQF	National qualification framework
OPT	Occupied Palestinian Territory
OSS	One-Stop Shop
TVET	Technical vocational education and training
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNRWA	United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestinian Refugees
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WB	West Bank

Foreword

This report represents a participatory review of progress with the technical and vocational education and training (TVET) system in the Occupied Palestinian Territory (OPT), developed within the framework of the European Training Foundation (ETF) Torino Process and aimed at providing a concise and documented analysis of vocational education and training reform in partner countries. The review includes identification of key policy trends, challenges, constraints, best practices and opportunities.

The development of the report started in April 2010 with the creation, by the Minister of Labour Dr. Ahmad Majdalani, of a specialist national team to oversee the identification of sources of data and ensure data collection and analysis. The team had the task of critically reviewing the report, providing inspiring feedback and bringing to light evidence to support arguments and conclusions. The production of this report would not have been possible without the great efforts and support of the team led Dr. Salah Al Zaroo; Mazen Hashweh merits special thanks for leading the write-up of the report and special thanks is also due to the ETF team coordinated by Mariavittoria Garlappi.

The TVET scope of this report includes formal and non-formal TVET provision and basic entry-level training as well as further, continuing and retraining offerings in all parts of the OPT, including the West Bank (WB) and the Gaza Strip (GS).

The formal TVET system, with craftspeople as its output, includes Ministry of Education and Higher Education-supervised secondary vocational schools and schools operated by private institutions and non-governmental organisations (NGO). It also includes technical colleges and university colleges, producing technicians, run by the Ministry of Education and Higher Education, the United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) and private and NGO institutions.

The non-formal TVET system includes vocational training centres providing long-term training (two years) and producing skilled workers. These institutions are run by the UNRWA and private/NGO institutions. Non-formal TVET also includes vocational training centres offering short-term training programmes (less than 1 year) and producing semi-skilled workers. These include Ministry of Labour vocational training centres, Ministry of Social Affairs rehabilitation centres, private/NGO and for-profit training institutions and others. Further training and retraining offerings by a variety of providers are also found in the non-formal TVET track, including continuing education departments at colleges and universities.

Although considered an important component of the future Palestinian TVET system being devised in line with the National TVET Strategy, due to various limitations, universities producing specialists are not considered in this report.

Data on formal TVET was more holistic and more readily available although not always in the required format; furthermore, data was missing for recent years due to the inability to obtain information from the GS. The process enabled the team to identify data and sources and also to identify the data required to be able to produce a better evidence-based report in the future. In general, the process was quite rewarding to all involved and we hope that the product will be of value to the relevant policy makers, enabling them to better support the development of a TVET system that contributes effectively to sustainable development and social cohesion in the OPT.

It is worth noting that the participatory review of progress with the TVET system in the OPT, as developed within the framework of the ETF's Torino Process, will be repeated again two years from now, i.e., in 2012/2013. In the middle to long term (2013 and beyond), the Torino Process will become a guided self-assessment exercise for monitoring TVET policies.

Executive Summary

Palestinians attach high importance to education. Education expenditure as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) increased from 7.5% in 2000 to 11.5% in 2003. TVET constitutes an important pillar of the education and human resource development sectors, despite the fact that the output of entry-level basic training institutions in terms of producing skilled workers and craftspeople is quite small in comparison with higher education, with no more than 5,500 graduates compared to more than 25,000 graduates annually, respectively. The Palestinian vision of the TVET system delineated in the National TVET Strategy is aimed at creating a knowledgeable, competent, motivated, entrepreneurial, adaptable, creative and innovative workforce in Palestine, which will contribute to poverty reduction and social and economic development by facilitating demand-driven, high quality training relevant to all people and all sectors of the economy at all levels. The system is envisaged as unified, relevant, effective, efficient, flexible, crisis-resistant, sustainable, equitable and accessible to all, participatory, lifelong-learning-oriented, permeable, transparent, holistic and attractive. The move towards realising this ambitious vision has been slow. A slight increase in enrolment has been noted (6% of the total number of students in the secondary cycle in 2009/2010, up from 4% in 1999/2000), more females are joining the system and the system is becoming more open-ended. More cooperation and coordination among the various stakeholders has been noted and attempts to revive the National TVET Strategy are underway. Stakeholders are also piloting a variety of measures that support the realisation of this vision. Increasing enrolment and enhancing the relevance of TVET constitute the main priority areas to be addressed. Tackling these priorities requires changing the negative perceptions of TVET and making the TVET track more attractive. It also requires, among other things, better interfacing with business and industry.

In terms of addressing economic and labour market needs, three main interlinked economic challenges are expected to shape the demand for skills in the near future. The first challenge is economic decline. Gross national income (GNI) has decreased by 55% and about 63% of households are living below the poverty line; this has led to an expansion of the public sector, which currently employs 25.2% of the population (17.0% in the WB and 48.1% in the GS) but requires skilled human resources in sectors such as education and health. The second challenge is represented by the growth of the informal sector, which, in 2008, accounted for 9.2% of all employees (excluding those working in the agriculture sector). There is thus a need for more self-employment and for entrepreneurial and adult training. The third challenge is economic restructuring with the expansion of the services sector, where percentage employment increased from 52.3% in 2000 to 64.4% in 2009. There is thus a need to provide more training in services to meet the rising quantitative demand but also to enhance the productivity of the agricultural and other sectors. The TVET system also has to be ready for anticipated future economic shifts resulting from planned governmental strategies, including export orientation and the boycotting of work at, and products of, Israeli illegal settlements in the OPT. To date, the TVET system has not been very successful in addressing these challenges. In terms of ensuring the availability of skills for the economy, changes in TVET offerings have not matched the needs identified in public sector education and health, for further training for the self-employed in the informal economy and for training for services, agriculture, tourism, etc as potential leading economic sectors in the future. Only 27% of 2004-2006 Ministry of Education and Higher Education vocational school graduates were employed and 55% of those were working in fields not related to their training. Nor has the system been very successful in providing adult training and in involving the private sector adequately. However there have been tangible successes in the provision of career guidance and in providing opportunities for TVET students at higher levels of education, with 51% of male graduates and 57% of female 2004-2006 graduates in vocational secondary schools continuing higher education in colleges or universities.

A number of issues block the current TVET system from better responding to changing economic needs. The system is rigid, traditional non-modular curricula are used, choices for opening or closing specialisms are centralised and inflexible, trainers have few opportunities to interact with businesses and management is disempowered in terms of responding effectively to needs in a timely fashion. Labour market monitoring is sporadic and information systems are defective. A variety of actions are foreseen for overcoming these obstacles and for addressing the challenges. Considered crucial is the official adoption and implementation of the National TVET Strategy, which foresees TVET institutions offering programmes relevant to the local market in their governorates, complementing each other and avoiding duplication. TVET centres will be able to offer services to the economy, train trainers and provide other services to the local community. TVET institutions will also have clear mandates based on a more decentralised approach. The management approach will be democratic, participatory and

cooperative and unified management procedures will be used to enable decision making on key issues like the adaptation of curricula, financial and personnel management, sectors of involvement, etc. A labour market information system (LMIS) will be developed to provide the TVET system and decision makers with relevant data. The decentralised structure will be based on the LMIS, e.g., to justify new programmes and courses.

In terms of promoting equity and addressing social education and training requirements, three main challenges shape the demand for skills. Firstly, demographic pressures in the form of high fertility and population growth exert pressure on the whole education and training system in terms of catering for increasing numbers of youth in need of preparation for life and work. The labour force has been increasing by 4.2% annually, placing a large burden on a labour market that is already suffering from a lack of opportunities and weak economic growth. Secondly, unemployment is extremely high (in 2009 it was 24.7%, 24.3% for males and 26.6% for females), particularly in the GS (38.6% in 2009). The OPT is also characterised by its low labour force participation rate, which stood at 43.3% in 2009 (for females as low as 16.3%). The question, therefore, is what the TVET system can do to address the high unemployment and inactivity rates. Thirdly, the isolation of Jerusalem and internal migration to the city of Ramallah requires tailored TVET interventions to cater for isolated and migrating populations. The TVET system has been relatively successful in addressing the social challenges shaping the demand for skills. Efforts have been made to increase the capacity of the system by establishing new institutions and expanding the intake capacity of existing institutions, to align outputs as much as possible with labour market needs and to deliver training tailored to the needs of the local communities. Huge efforts have been made to have the TVET system cater for the needs of Palestinian detainees released from Israeli prisons following the Oslo Agreement. The diverse spectrum of TVET providers in the OPT has also enabled the provision of services for various disadvantaged groups (refugees, the poor, orphans, etc) in a specialist and effective manner. A wide range of activities have been undertaken to improve the attractiveness of TVET at the national and institutional levels. Despite these efforts, TVET is still seen as a second- or last-choice track for those unable to continue in the academic track. The TVET system has been relatively successful in providing learning opportunities for the young and the most vulnerable sectors of the population but has been less successful in providing opportunities for skill upgrades, active citizenship and personal development. A variety of actions are foreseen for addressing the aforementioned challenges. These include enhancing the relevance of training, enhancing the LMIS and supporting employment creation interventions.

The three main problems concerning internal efficiency and effectiveness are fragmentation, under-utilisation of facilities and poor quality training provision. Dropout rates of 20% at Ministry of Labour vocational training centres and under-utilisation of information and communication technologies (ICT) constitute other challenges to internal efficiency and effectiveness. Several TVET providers offer the same specialisms in the same geographic area with varying standards and in competition with each other. The majority of TVET institutions in the OPT are used only in the morning period and are closed for several months of the year. Improvements in the quality and effectiveness of the system are urgently required; one study revealed that 44% of employed graduates, 42% of training providers and 60% of employers believed that the training received at secondary vocational schools was inadequate. Improvements are necessary at the level of all inputs affecting quality, namely, teachers and trainers, curricula and material resources. A variety of governance and finance mechanisms are envisaged to improve the efficiency and the quality of the TVET system. At the system governance level, system unification/integration and the involvement of social partners are mechanisms proposed to enhance efficiency and quality. At the school governance level, decentralisation at the levels of the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of Education and Higher Education and UNRWA, coupled with the provision of more autonomy to school management, is seen to be vital to efficiency and quality enhancement. In terms of financing mechanisms, providing a sustainable financing base for TVET institutions to support better use of TVET facilities and thus address poor institutional efficiency is of the utmost importance. To date, the TVET system has not been successful in involving the main stakeholders in the design and management of TVET policies; neither has it been successful in developing the capacities of these stakeholders. The most significant actions foreseen for enhancing quality include setting up a national qualification framework (NQF) and a quality assurance system, improving teacher training, modernising curricula and diversifying and improving the TVET infrastructure.

In terms of innovation, partnership and entrepreneurship, several initiatives have surfaced in the last couple of years (One-Stop Shop, Local Employment and Training Councils, Know About Business, Apprenticeship Training Scheme). Innovation has been supported so far by donor and national projects through the piloting of a variety of programmes. However, for innovation to take place, systems and an institutional culture are needed that would allow innovation to flourish and this is not

the case in the current TVET system, as policies do not explicitly support innovation. Furthermore, lack of adequate evaluation, documentation and dissemination procedures constitute the main obstacles to up-scaling and mainstreaming innovation. In sum, no clear measures are stated or foreseen to support innovation in the TVET sector in the OPT.

Many of the above challenges are being tackled by the proposed National TVET Strategy although some need further addressing. Specifically, the TVET system needs to be more geared towards providing further training and retraining, needs a better understanding of and better data regarding the cost of training and requires systems that foster innovation at the institutional and system levels and to document, internalise and disseminate knowledge. These are all priority issues that need to be addressed in the near future. Moving from planning and strategising to tangible implementation seems to be the most important demand of stakeholders. Within the TVET system, developing systems for (1) adult training, (2) training cost calculations, (3) innovation fostering and (4) knowledge management seem to be quick-win areas in relation to the aforementioned priorities that can shift the change process from planning to implementation.

1. Vision and state-of-the-art in TVET

Palestinians attach great importance to education. Being left with so little, education has become their only passport for the future of Palestinians and their main asset in a hostile environment. “The commitment to the education sector is illustrated by the fact that education accounts for more than 30% of the Palestinian Reform and Development Plan proposed budget support for recurrent expenditures and approximately 20% of donor support requested for the public investment programme. Education expenditure as a percentage of GDP increased from 7.5% in 2000 to 11.5% in 2003.” (PNA, 2007).

The country’s vision of TVET is clearly presented in a National TVET Strategy. This strategy, one of 23 sectoral strategies included in the Palestinian National Plan 2011-2013 (MOPAD, 2009) is described as follows:

- **Vision and aims:** To provide human resources capable of meeting challenges and to participate actively in economic and social development as well as holistic development aimed at building a Palestinian State and ending occupation. TVET has its own value and becomes a choice for all, linked to human rights and leading to individual development.
- **Strategic goals and objectives:** To create a knowledgeable, competent, motivated, entrepreneurial, adaptable, creative and innovative workforce in Palestine and to contribute to poverty reduction and social and economic development by facilitating demand-driven, high quality TVET, relevant to all people and to all sectors of the economy at all levels.
- **TVET main characteristics:** Unified, relevant, effective, efficient, flexible, crisis-resistant, sustainable, equitable and open to all, participatory, lifelong-learning-oriented, permeable, transparent, holistic and attractive.
- **TVET role in social and economic development:** The TVET system will be a main component of social and economic development and will contribute to poverty alleviation, the enhancement of individual perspectives and the integration of marginalised individuals by building qualified human resources and promoting economic development, entrepreneurship and production.¹

Not much has changed in terms of realising the TVET vision in recent years. Although there has been a slight increase in enrolment and in the percentage of females joining the TVET system, these increases are still considered to be modest. In the last year, new attempts were made to revive the National TVET Strategy and a revised strategy is being developed to replace the strategy adopted in 1999. The main content of the former strategy has been updated and final approval is expected in the second half of 2010. Other changes that have taken place recently include opening the education system so that vocational education students can continue their higher education at universities and scaling up and institutionalising a variety of successfully piloted programmes. Additionally, there is more cooperation and coordination among practitioners, planners and donors in the field of TVET: they are competing less with each other and pooling resources.

A variety of policy measures have been undertaken by the various stakeholders to translate the adopted vision into practice. Examples of measures aimed at enhancing the relevance of training include the production of competency-based modular curricula, the piloting of an apprenticeship scheme, i.e., dual training with private sector companies, and the piloting of career guidance programmes that provide a systematic service.

Although major needs exist at all levels, two issues are considered as priority areas to be addressed (MOEHE, 2008). The first priority is enrolment in secondary vocational education, which is still quite low at only 6% of the total number of students in the secondary cycle in 2009/2010 (up from 4% in 1999/2000). The second priority is better linkage of the outputs of the TVET system with the needs of labour market, key in terms of alleviating the overwhelming youth unemployment problem.

A variety of issues stand in the way of addressing the above-mentioned priorities. Increasing enrolment requires changing the negative perceptions of TVET and making the TVET track more attractive by improving quality and opening the education system for those wanting to pursue higher

¹ Excerpts adapted from GTZ (2010).

education. Linking the outputs of the TVET system to the diversified needs of labour market is another challenge. However, identifying and articulating current and future needs in a very unpredictable environment is almost impossible, training programmes are rigid and are not easily updated or modernised, there is a high degree of centralisation at the training provision level and there is little interfacing with business and industry at all levels. For these challenges to be addressed adequately, the fragmentation of national policy formulation and implementation has to be addressed. The Ministry of Labour envisages the establishment of a National TVET Agency that will be responsible for developing, organising, coordinating and driving the entire system. Serious dialogue is currently taking place regarding this matter and only time will show whether the agency will be created. Despite private sector representation, real power still lies in the hands of government.

2. External efficiency: Addressing economic and labour market needs

Recent statistical data (PCBS, 2010) show that the labour force participation rate in 2009 in the OPT was 41.6% (67.0% for males and 15.5% for females). The rate in the GS, at 37.6% (62.5% for males and 12.2% for females) is much lower than in the WB.

Employment in services is 39.6%, with 19.1% working in commerce, hotels and restaurants. Services are the main field of employment for females (about 61.8%). Agriculture provides job opportunities to about 20.5% of females in the OPT. Employed persons in 2009 were distributed according to place of work into 63.4% working in the WB, 26.4% working in the GS and 10.2% working in Israel and Israeli settlements (all from the WB because no one from the GS is allowed to work in Israel).

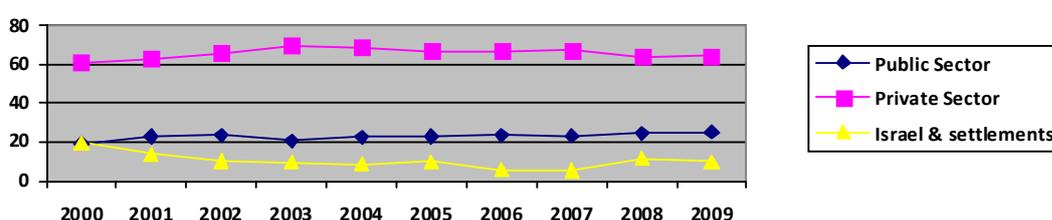
Data on employed persons according to employment status show that 6.3% are employers, 19.2% are self-employed, 66.5% are wage employees and 8% are unpaid family members. The private sector in 2009 in the OPT employed 64.6% of all persons employed (51.9% in the GS and 69.1% in the WB).

Three main interlinked economic challenges are expected to shape the demand for skills in the near future.

Economic decline. The economic decline in the OPT coupled with high population growth has led to an expansion in the public sector to provide public services and incomes to households. The Palestinian economy is negatively affected by the prevailing political situation and the collapse of the peace process. GNI has decreased by 55% and the average per capita income has declined to the poverty line (about 830 US dollars) leaving about 63% of households living below the poverty line (Khawaja and Omari, 2009). The severe economic decline has led to a consistent decrease in per capita GDP and increase in the budget deficit and has led to a large expansion of employment in the public sector, particularly in the GS. The prohibition on GS residents working in Israel since 2006 and the reduction in the number of WB residents allowed to work in Israel (from 22.4% in 2000 to 13.9% in 2009) pose a major absorption challenge for the private and public employment sectors in the OPT. The public sector employs currently 25.2% (17% in the WB and 48.1% in the GS) of the population. The expansion of employment in the public sector is mainly in the education and health sectors, as a high birth rate and population growth of 3.4% are leading to ever increasing demand for public services and are placing immense pressure on the basic social services infrastructure, especially public schools and health facilities (PNA, 2007).

Figure 1: Employed persons by sector

Source: PCBS, 2010



Growth of the informal economy. The economic crises and the inability of the formal sector to absorb employees has led to an expansion of the informal sector. In 2003, 98,727 persons (91,074 male and 7,653 female) were engaged in 54,885 establishments in the informal economy in the OPT. Around 62% of these people worked in wholesale, retail and repairs and another 19% worked in manufacturing. Only 6.1% of informal economy establishments were established after 2000. The number of people engaged in the informal economy through household projects (outside the establishments) was 82,303 persons (91.6% male and 8.4% female). There are no timeline surveys showing trends in the informal economy. However, the sensation is that the informal economy has grown in the past few years, as reflected by the growth of the unregulated transportation sector in the WB and the large numbers of youth working in the tunnel business in the GS. This sensation of growth however is not clearly proven by data as a 2008 study for the Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics revealed that those employed in the informal sector represent 9.2% of all employees (excluding those working in agriculture sector). In absolute figures, 52,000 persons were employed in the informal sector: 47,000 males and 5,000 females, 39,000 in the WB and 13,000 in the GS. The percentage of self-employed in the informal sector is 48%: 70% females and 46% males, 45% in the WB and 59% in the GS. The informal sector is more important where unemployment rates are higher (i.e., the GS and among females) (PCBS, 2009). Training of the self-employed is important in the transfer and development of skills and has a direct impact on productivity and therefore on incomes. It is of the utmost importance to address the needs of the self-employed already established in informal production who wish to upgrade specific skills, through an introduction, for example, to new technologies and new products.

Economic restructuring. The dependence on the Israeli market, the absence of political stability, the expansion of settlements and the restriction on movement have hindered investment in the productive sectors and delayed the growth of industrial and productive institutions in the OPT. During periods of stability, agriculture, construction and labour in Israel were the driving force behind the economy. Investments, however, were not directed towards establishing specialist export institutions that would be capable of forming the necessary basis for a sustainable and self-dependent economy.

There has been a major change in employment patterns in the last ten years, primarily a large increase in the percentage of persons employed in the services sector and a parallel decrease among those working in agriculture and in manufacturing (mainly due to a decrease in the numbers working in construction) (Table 1). Employment in the agricultural sector decreased from 13.7% in 2000 to 11.8% in 2009. Female employment in this sector decreased substantially, from 34.8% in 2000 to 20.5% in 2009 (employment for males stayed more or less the same, 9.8% in 2000 to 9.9% in 2009).

The shift in employment patterns is expected to be affected by Palestinian National Authority strategies that encourage productivity, growth and competitiveness in the industrial, agricultural, housing and tourism sectors and that allow the Palestinian economy to develop a diversified export portfolio. This will require highly qualified human resources in addition to further training for existing employees.

Labour force participation has remained almost unchanged in the past ten years (43.7% in 2000 and 43.3% in 2009) but, although the rate remains quite low, has shown an increase for females (13.5% in 2000 and 16.3% in 2009). The last ten years have also witnessed an increase in the percentage of women working as wage employees on account of an increase in the number of contributing family workers. In 2000, 55.5% of employed women were wage employees, 0.7% were employers, 10.0% worked on their own account and 33.8% were contributing family workers. In 2009, 67.1% of employed women were wage employees and 19.8% were contributing family workers.

Table 1: Contribution to gross domestic product and employment of OPT economic sectors

Source: PCBS, 2010 (Special Statistics)

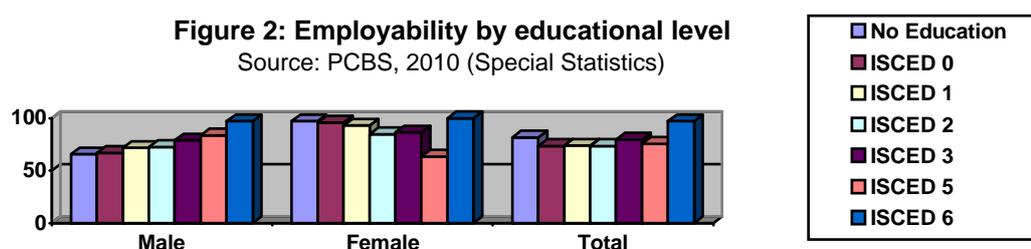
	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Agriculture						
% Contribution to GDP	9.8	5.2	5.6	5.5	5.9	4.8
% Employment	13.7	14.6	15.9	15.7	13.4	11.8
Contribution to GDP / Employment (Calculated Value)	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Industry						
% Contribution to GDP	13.2	17.0	15.0	15.3	14.9	14.6
% Employment	34.0	25.9	23.2	23.4	22.9	23.8
Contribution to GDP / Employment (Calculated Value)	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6
Services and Other						
% Contribution to GDP	77.0	77.8	79.4	79.2	79.2	80.6
% Employment	52.3	59.5	60.9	60.9	63.7	64.4
Contribution to GDP / Employment (Calculated Value)	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3

Employability in the OPT is quite polarised; it is high among those who have no education at all and those who have higher university education (Figure 2). For males, employability seems very much directly proportional to educational level (i.e., the more educated, the greater the likelihood of employment). This is not the case for females, as employability generally decreases in line with education level to reach a minimum for colleges graduates, but then rises drastically for university graduates. Formal vocational education combined with general upper secondary education is equivalent to International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 3 and formal technical education is equivalent to ISCED 5 combined with the general first stage of tertiary education. Non-formal vocational training is not reflected in the available statistics.

In addition to economic restructuring issues, the anticipated loss of work for more than 25,000 persons in Israeli settlements in the WB and the need to absorb them (probably after retraining them) in the local market will have major effects on the demand for skills and skills preparation.

Figure 2: Employability by educational level

Source: PCBS, 2010 (Special Statistics)



The TVET system has not been successful in addressing challenges for a number of reasons.

In terms of ensuring the availability of skills for the economy, the TVET system has been mainly providing low-end low-quality skills for the economy. A look at specialisms at the level of vocational training and vocational education reveals minor variations in the training offered by the Ministry of Labour (Table 2); likewise for the Ministry of Education and Higher Education except perhaps for the large expansion in commercial education for girls (Figure 3). The offer does not match, however, the needs identified earlier in the areas of public sector education and health, for the self-employed in the informal economy and for services, agriculture, tourism, etc as potential leading economic sectors in the future.

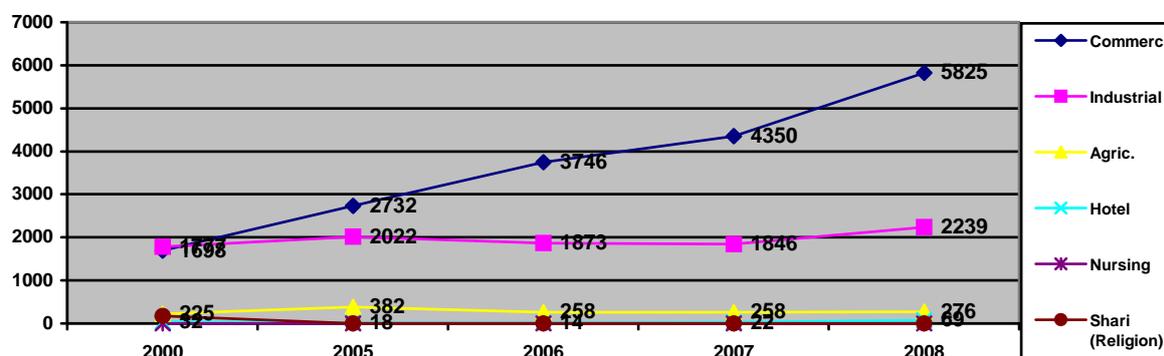
Table 2: Ministry of Labour vocational training centre graduates

Source: Ministry of Labour, 2010 (Special statistics)

Specialism	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Executive Secretary	201	305	266	155	220	226
Hairdressing	121	131	108	117	92	131
Sewing	77	58	57	50	57	69
General Electricity	18	23	44	48	43	58
Auto Mechanics	66	60	43	47	54	52
Lathing & Machining	12	15	25	14	17	20
Carpentry	39	59	47	37	53	55
Aluminum & Metal Work	99	144	121	119	113	97
Air Conditioning & Refrigeration	20	14	28	14	15	13
Car Body Painting	10	14	10	5	8	8
Car Electricity	22	33	39	32	37	34
Tiling	47	60	76	51	64	47
Architectural Drawing	47	46	34	37	31	44
Water & Sanitation	23	26	21	19	20	18
Radio & TV	7	24	22	16	18	18
Office Equipment Maintenance	0	12	0	9	0	26

Figure 3: Ministry of Education and Higher Education vocational secondary school students

Source: MOEHE, 2010



In terms of improving labour market prospects of individuals, tracer studies conducted by training providers reveal varying employability rates for TVET graduates, depending on area, profession and training provider. A recent tracer study (Al Zaroo, 2009) reveals that only 27% of the 2004-2006 Ministry of Education and Higher Education vocational school graduates (except for commercial stream students) were employed and that 55% of those working were working in fields not related to their training. In comparison, 33% Ministry of Labour vocational training centre graduates for the same year were employed. UNRWA data shows an impressive employment rate of 79.4% for 2009 graduates, 74.2% for 2008 graduates and 93.8% for 2005 graduates from Kalandia Vocational Training Centre, probably reflecting the focus UNRWA places on practical training and its investment in the quality of its teachers and trainers.

In terms of providing opportunities for TVET students at higher levels of education, TVET used to be close-ended when it came to universities and graduates used to continue their education in technical colleges. This is not the case anymore, as more universities are accepting vocational education graduates to study in their programmes. Even graduates of the applied vocational stream can sit for an additional examination within two years of graduation, which, if passed, enables them to pursue higher education. A recent study (Al Zaroo, 2009) showed that 51% of male graduates and 57% of female vocational secondary school graduates for the years 2004-2006 were continuing higher education in colleges or universities. The system is almost fully closed however for graduates of the non-formal TVET system, including graduates of the Ministry of Labour and UNRWA vocational

training centres. Only 4.5% of Ministry of Labour vocational training centre graduates for 2004-2006 were continuing higher education. but without having their prior training accredited.

In terms of adult training, very little is done at the level of formal TVET institutions. Most adult training is provided at the continuing education departments of universities and at the level of a wide range of non-formal civil society and for-profit institutions.

In terms of career guidance, a recent comparative study (Sultana, 2008) for the Mediterranean region, including the OPT, indicated that most career guidance services are still in their infancy for a number of inter-related economic, social, cultural and political reasons. Despite these barriers, however, Palestinians have made substantial progress in this field. Work at the level of academic schools, TVET institutions, employment offices and in informal youth settings supported by German Technical Cooperation (GTZ), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), United States Agency for International Development (USAID), etc is becoming more systematic, relevant and sustainable. Although not regulated by law, career guidance is integrally embedded in the proposed TVET system envisaged in the National TVET Strategy.

In terms of involvement of the private sector, this is limited, sporadic and inadequately institutionalised. There is also no recognition and validation of informal/non-formal prior learning and no articulated training and employment policies for the informal economy.

Enterprise involvement in TVET policy development is limited.

Enterprises represented by the Federation of Chambers of Commerce and Industry were involved in the formulation of the National TVET Strategy. The representation was, however, quite limited in number and was outnumbered by governmental institutions and ministries. This can be partially attributed to weaknesses at the Federation level, as, for example, it has not held elections since 1967 (something which is about to be remedied). Other major specialist industrial federations are not involved. The Higher TVET Council, foreseen as a platform for policy development, is not functional. Local employment and training councils (LETC) recently established in four governorates include enterprise representation through the Chambers of Commerce and Industry, but again the representation is quite small and only time will show if it is sufficient for adequate TVET policy development. Currently, there is no TVET policy development at the national level.

A variety of issues block the current TVET system from better responding to changing economic needs.

The TVET system is rigid and does not have the flexibility to be more responsive. Traditional non-modular curricula are used, making it difficult to change and adapt rapidly. Choices for opening or closing specialisms are highly centralised and, moreover, are severely constrained by the budget and human resource ramifications of such choices, particularly among public training providers. Training staff have no opportunities to interact with businesses and industry or to become updated regarding the latest pedagogical and technological innovations. Management is, in general, disempowered to respond effectively to needs in a timely fashion. Last but not least, labour market monitoring is sporadic and not conducted regularly or sufficiently and the LMIS (tracing of graduates, for example) is defective.

A variety of actions are foreseen for overcoming such obstacles and addressing challenges.

Official adoption and implementation of the revised National TVET Strategy is crucial in addressing the challenges facing TVET. The strategy foresees TVET institutions offering programmes relevant to the local market in their governorates, complementing each other and avoiding duplication. These centres will be able to offer services for the economy, train trainers and provide other services to the local community. To avoid the major limitation to the effectiveness of public TVET institutions, which is their lack of administrative autonomy from central ministries, TVET institutions should have clear mandates based on a more decentralised approach. Furthermore, the management approach should be democratic, participatory and cooperative and based on unified management procedures; this would enable managers to take decisions on key issues like adaptation of curricula, financial and personnel issues, sectors of involvement, etc, thus enhancing their capacity to change and adapt. A LMIS will be developed to provide the TVET system and decision makers with relevant data. The decentralised structure will be based on the LMIS e.g. to justify new programmes and courses.

The newly conceived TVET project supported by the European Union (EU), which is to be implemented in early 2011, proposes to do exactly what is advocated in the revised strategy, i.e., adopt a bottom-up approach to re-engineering TVET institutions in three governorates in order to

provide programmes relevant to the local labour market, working in partnership with business and industry and enjoying higher levels of autonomy.

3. External efficiency: Promoting equity and addressing social demands for education and training

A number of social challenges are shaping the demand for skills.

Demographic pressures. Although fertility rates have witnessed a decrease in the last years, they are still high, standing at 4.6% in 2006. This high fertility and consequent population growth exerts a pressure on the whole education and training system in terms of catering for increasing numbers of youth in need for preparation for life and for work. This includes the need to build new schools and other educational training facilities, employ more teachers and trainers, etc. with small budgets. The Palestinian labour force is increasing gradually (Khawaja and Omari, 2009), by about 4.2% annually, and the total increase during the past nine years (2000-2008) amounted to 37.5%. This large annual growth is almost one and a half times greater than population growth during the same period due to the fact that the Palestinian population is characterised by a wide population-pyramid base: the percentage people aged 0-14 years is about 44%. This is high relative to other countries in the region and internationally and is a burden for a labour market that already suffers from a lack of opportunities and weak economic growth; the outcome, consequently, is an increase in unemployment rates. This naturally creates push factors, sending Palestinians to seek alternatives abroad. However, finding employment abroad is very complex due to the obstacles in leaving the OPT, not to mention the difficulties associated with the latest international financial crisis.

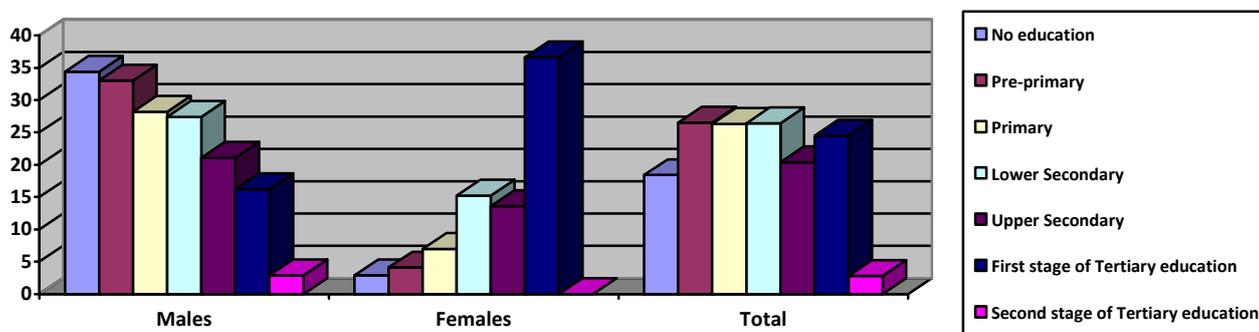
In the medium term, and if a political settlement is reached regarding the creation of a Palestinian state, there will be a large demand for skills development resulting from the return of large numbers of Palestinian refugees and the release of thousands of Palestinian detainees from Israeli prisons.

These demographic pressures require the TVET system to expand so as to cater for more students—at the entry level for youngsters and for those already in the labour force. It also requires the TVET system to be able to provide retraining programmes for adults, to perform assessment and accreditation of prior learning and experience and to offer rehabilitation training programmes that will cater for returnees and ex-detainees.

Unemployment and inactivity. The greatest social challenge is undoubtedly unemployment, which is extremely high, particularly in the GS. In the WB, unemployment² is 17.8% (17.6% for males and 18.8% for females), while in the GS unemployment is 38.6% (37.3% for males and 45.8% for females). In the OPT as a whole unemployment in 2009 was 24.7% (24.3% for males and 26.6% for females). For males, more education implies a greater likelihood of employment, whereas the opposite is true for females (Figure 4).

Figure 4: Unemployment according to educational level

Source: PCBS, 2010 (Special Statistics)



Unemployment is concentrated in the 15-24 age group, standing at 38.9% in 2009 (37.2% for males

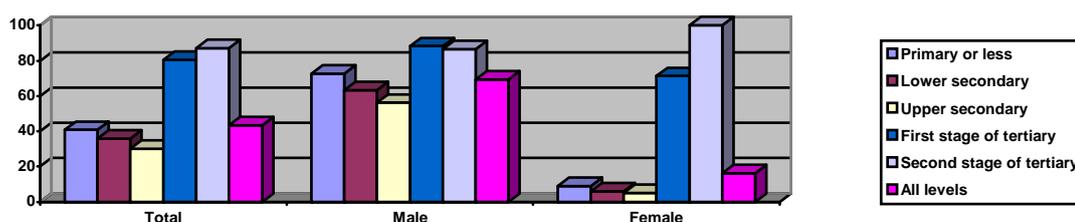
² The ILO definition of an unemployed person is someone aged 15 years and over who did not work at all during the reference week, who were not absent from a job and who were available for work and actively seeking work during the reference week.

and 46.9% for females). For males in this age group, the highest unemployment rate is found among those who have not finished schooling (63.3%), while for females it is among those who have finished the first stage of tertiary education (60.2%). The Palestinian labour market needs to create about 46,000 new jobs a year (34,000 for males and 12,000 for females), according to the most optimistic scenario (Khawaja and Omari, 2009). This is impossible, however, under the prevailing political circumstances.

Besides the issue of unemployment, the OPT is characterised by a low labour force participation rate which stood at 41.6% in 2009 (54% in Jordan, 56.5% in Israel and 64% in Syria). This low participation rate is attributed mainly to the low participation rate for females, which is only 15.5% compared to 67% for males. Among females, the lowest participation rates are in the 15-24 (9.5%) and 55-64 (10.8%) age groups. The female participation rate increased from 13.5% in 2000 to 16.3% in 2009, yet still remains one of the lowest in the world. The main reason for females being outside the labour force is housekeeping, representing 66.6% (47.3% of both sexes) in 2009. Females are also more illiterate than males (8.3%, compared to 2.6% for males in 2009) making it more difficult for them to join the labour force. There will be major effects on the TVET system if policies are designed and implemented to further train or retrain these females so that they can actively rejoin the labour force and get employment. Such a policy is reinforced by the data showing that the more educated people are, the higher the activity rate. Males and females finishing tertiary education are much more active than those with less education.

Figure 5: Activity rate according to educational level

Source: PCBS, 2010 (Special Statistics)



Providing subsidised structured training within industry and internship opportunities for the unemployed, and particularly recent graduates, is an option for the TVET system to address unemployment and inactivity challenges in the short run.

Isolation and internal migration. The isolation of Jerusalem and other areas by the Israel-built separation wall has meant that entire communities have become separated from their natural social and employment environment. In East Jerusalem for example, it is becoming increasingly important to train for the Israeli market as movement and access to the rest of the OPT is becoming harder every day. Ramallah has become a centre of work in the last couple of years due to the concentration of governmental and other financial services in this city. This has led to substantial migration of workers from all over the WB to Ramallah, where the services sector plays an important role, providing employment to more than two thirds of females and one third of males. Commerce and construction constitute two other major sectors employing males in Ramallah.

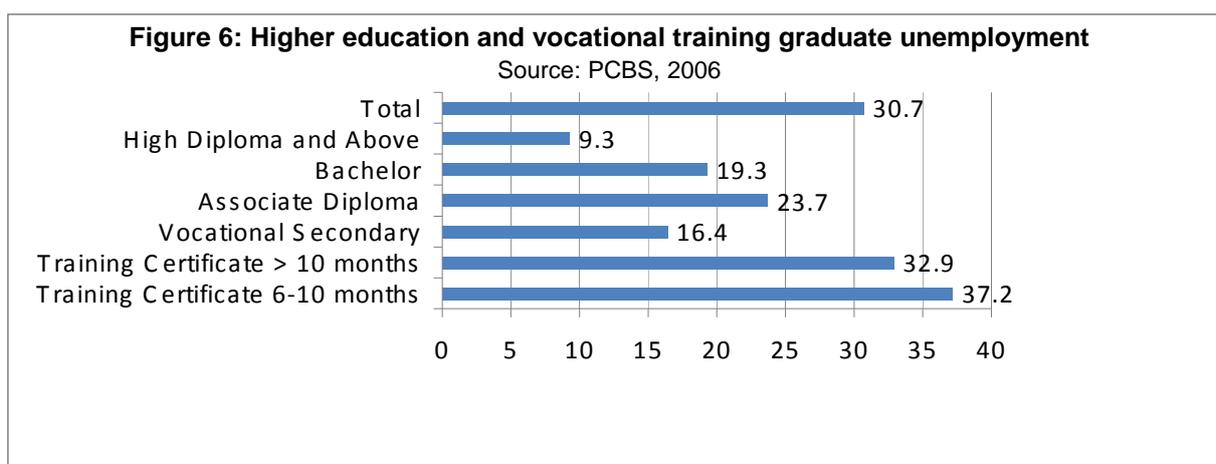
To address isolation and internal migration issues, the TVET system needs to develop and implement specific learning/teaching modules tailored to specific geographic localities so as to enhance relevance (the Hebrew language, for example, to be used in the Jerusalem schools). Training should be based on international standards so as to enable multi-accreditation (Palestinian and international accreditation, for example). Another policy option is to expand training provision in the Ramallah area for occupations in the services sector.

The TVET system has been relatively successful in addressing the social challenges shaping the demand for skills.

In response to demographic pressures, the TVET system has been trying to increase its capacity by establishing new TVET institutions and expanding the intake capacity of existing institutions by adding new specialisms and new workshops run particularly by NGOs. Apprenticeship and other cooperative models of training have been piloted and are now ready for rollout; the aim is to enhance the relevance of training and also to expand the system's output capacity. Few attempts—mainly due to various management and financial challenges—have been made to utilise TVET facilities more

efficiently as a means of capacity expansion. Attention is also mainly focused on basic entry-level training and not on providing opportunities for adults already in the labour force.

In terms of addressing the issues of unemployment and inactivity, the TVET system has been trying to align its outputs with the needs of the labour market. Long-term compared to short-term vocational education has been showing better employability results, as reflected in a Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics survey of graduates from higher education and vocational training (PCBS, 2006) (Figure 6). The results should encourage TVET policy makers to concentrate their efforts on producing, from the short-term entry-level basic training programmes offered by various providers (including the Ministry of Labour), semi-skilled workers and providing further and retraining opportunities for the unemployed. Such programmes coupled with other active employment measures would enable the Ministry of Labour to take the lead regarding one of the main challenges currently facing the Palestinian community.



As for the population affected by the separation wall, the TVET system has been more responsive and is trying to deliver training tailored to the needs of the local communities as exemplified by the NGO institutions operating in East Jerusalem. It is worth noting that huge efforts were made to have the TVET system cater for the needs of Palestinian detainees released from Israeli prisons following the Oslo agreement.

The diverse spectrum of TVET providers in the OPT has enabled the provision of services to various disadvantaged groups in a specialist and effective manner. UNRWA vocational training centres, for example, cater specifically to Palestinian refugees; Ministry of Social Affairs centres provide social rehabilitation services; a variety of civil society centres cater for the poor and orphans, etc. The diversity of the TVET system is a good thing; however, confusion arises among employers and students regarding the inconsistent outputs of the system, given the fragmentation implied by different providers providing similar offerings but with great variety in quality, training period and training outcomes.

A wide range of activities have been undertaken to improve the attractiveness of TVET at the national and institutional levels. Public awareness campaigns have been conducted, in some cases using radio and TV, to raise awareness and bring visibility to the important role TVET for individuals and particularly youth. Vocational guidance and career counselling have been provided to varying degrees. Exposure to TVET institutions through open days and guided visits for potential trainees and their families are among the initiatives taken at various institutions. However, the lack of reliable and updated data on the status of graduates makes it difficult for TVET institutions to sell their case.

Despite these efforts, moreover, the TVET track is still seen as a second or a last-choice track for students unable to continue in the regular academic track. One of the main reasons is that TVET is seen as a closed dead-end system that does not allow graduates who are capable and interested to pursue further education and training. This has been changing in recent years, with vocational education students now able to join most technical colleges and local universities. To further counteract negative perceptions, many institutions are attempting to obtain accreditation from international institutions and bodies such as Oracle, Microsoft, Intel, Cisco, the Dublin School of Tourism, etc and some centres located in Jerusalem have tried to obtain Israeli accreditation for their training offerings. Several NGO providers have also tried to improve the attractiveness of their institutions by providing non-segregated training for males and females.

The TVET system has been relatively successful in providing learning opportunities for the young and the most vulnerable; however it has been less successful in providing opportunities for skill upgrades, active citizenship and personal development. The system has had a long history in providing learning opportunities for a wide range of citizens. Through UNRWA vocational training centres, it has catered for refugees, many of whom have taken up excellent work opportunities in the Arab states and abroad. It has also catered for the poor, providing them with the entry-level basic training needed for employment. The system however provides few opportunities for skill upgrades for those already in employment and for unemployed adults. The TVET system in the OPT in 2006 catered for around 10,000 people in basic training and around 25,000 people (3% of the labour force) in continuing training. The percentage of enrolled students in formal vocational secondary education was only 4.9% of the total number of secondary school students, rising to 5.6% in 2008; the percentage of students in TVET at post-secondary level also rose. Female participation at the secondary level in TVET is 33.5%, which is not satisfactory compared to other countries in the region. It is to be noted that most of the girls in this sector enrol in commercial courses whose nature is more academic than vocational.

The number of students joining the TVET system has been increasing in recent years, particularly the vocational secondary schools, where the numbers increased from 3,906 in 2000 to 8,409 in 2008. The annual number of graduates from Ministry of Labour vocational training centres has revolved around 900 graduates, while graduates of UNRWA vocational training centres and technical colleges in Ramallah has ranged between 200-300 graduates annually per centre. In general, TVET places more emphasis on conveying technical skills to students. Little emphasis is put on life skills and on civic education; TVET also does not facilitate personal development.

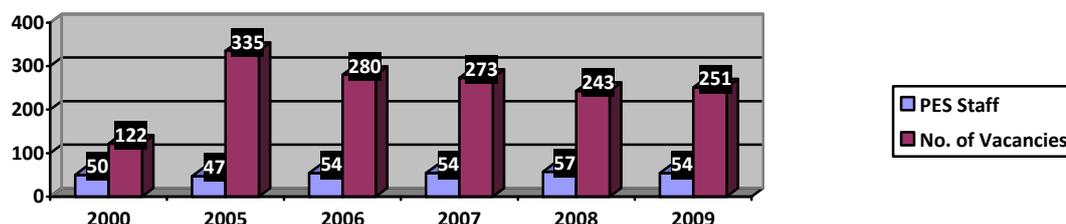
A variety of actions are foreseen for addressing the aforementioned challenges.

Enhancing training relevance. Enhancing the interface with business and industry at all levels is required to make training more relevant. Implementing apprenticeship training programmes and developing competency-based modular curricula are examples of the modalities foreseen.

Enhancing labour market information. Although labour market data is available, it is incomplete and does not be easily used for decision making. A great deal of effort and funding have been invested in the public employment offices established in 1998 under the Ministry of Labour with the assistance of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics, yet these offices fail to provide useful data on the unemployed and on employment vacancies and there are no benefits or incentives for the unemployed or businesses to use their services. Data provided by the Ministry of Labour reveal that staff working in these offices number around 50 and registered vacancies are quite few, even negligible (Figure 7).

Figure 7: Employment office staff and registered vacancies

Source: Ministry of Labour, 2010 (Special Statistics)



The numbers of unemployed registered with these offices (years in brackets) were 132,932 (2005), 35,499 (2006), 9,653 (2007), 12,898 (2008) and 10,867 (2009). The larger numbers registered in 2005 and at the beginning of 2006 are due to the implementation of an emergency employment programme in the years 2004-2006. To develop a functional LMIS through the employment offices, the Ministry of Labour needs to provide incentives for individuals and establishments to use these offices.

Supporting job creation. Training does not create employment by itself. If TVET is to be effective in addressing youth unemployment, it has to be enriched with a range of active labour market policies and measures. There is no data on the level of expenditure on these measures, but it is believed to be quite small. In 2004, the Ministry of Labour established an employment fund as a programme to

reduce the unemployment rate. By mid-2005, about 394,000 unemployed persons had registered for this project (62% male and 38% female). The programme was stopped in 2006 due to lack of further funding (Khawaja and Omari, 2009). Besides the employment fund, the government also runs emergency employment programmes within the emergency investment plan. These three-month employment programmes (Khawaja and Omari, 2009) place the unemployed in sustainable projects. It is based, as much as possible, on local raw material and women are particularly interested in being involved. In addition to this, UNRWA is a major partner in providing employment and relief programmes for Palestinian refugees, who represent about 44% of all Palestinians. UNRWA has designed and implemented a job creation programme in the OPT to provide job opportunities for unemployed Palestinians, starting in 2001. The most recent data on the job opportunities provided revealed that, in the WB in 2007, UNRWA alone provided 39,000 job opportunities with 300,000 thousand beneficiaries. No training to help the unemployed was devised and implemented, although major efforts were exerted to activate the Ministry of Labour employment offices where the One-Stop-Shop (OSS) was designed as a convenient, accessible and efficient option for jobseekers to register, be assessed, trained if necessary and be matched with a suitable job vacancy as soon as one became available.

4. Internal efficiency, quality, governance and financing

The Palestinian TVET system offers five levels of qualifications delivered by a broad spectrum of providers.

The first level of **semi-skilled workers** is delivered in the non-formal TVET track by a wide range of vocational training centres offering short-term training programmes (less than 1 year). These include 13 Ministry of Labour vocational training centres (7 in the WB and 5 in the GS), 13 Ministry of Social Affairs rehabilitation centres (8 in the WB and 5 in the GS) and a large number of private/NGO, for-profit, employer and other public training institutions. Except for Ministry of Labour vocational training centres (with 906 graduates in the WB in 2009), no adequate up-to-date statistics are available regarding the number of graduates from these centres, but the total is estimated to be over 5,000 annually.

The second level of **skilled workers** is also delivered in the non-formal TVET track by 4 UNRWA vocational training centres (2 WB and 2 GS) and around 10 private/NGO training institutions. Again, no adequate up-to-date statistics are available regarding the number of graduates from these centres, but the total is estimated to be over 1,500 annually.

The third level of **craftspersons** is delivered in the formal TVET track. In 2009 there were 18 secondary vocational training institutions (13 public Ministry of Education and Higher Education and 5 private centres; 15 in the WB and 3 in the GS) with a capacity for 8,059 students and 4,021 graduates.

The fourth level of **technicians** is delivered in the formal level TVET track. In 2009, there were 25 colleges and university colleges with a capacity for 19,275 students and 5,638 graduates. It is worth noting that these numbers include students and graduates of all colleges and university colleges and not only those for technical education related to the TVET system.

The fifth level of **specialists** is delivered at university colleges and universities and is currently not considered part of the TVET system.

Further training and retraining of adults is offered in the non-formal TVET track by a variety of providers including continuing education departments at colleges and universities.

Note that the output of the entry-level basic training institutions in terms of skilled workers and craftspeople is quite small and does not exceed 5,500 graduate per year at a time when higher education produces more than 25,000 graduates annually.

Three main problems affect internal efficiency and effectiveness.

Fragmentation at the governance level. The TVET system is fragmented, with TVET offered by a wide range of providers. This fragmentation leads to inefficient use of scarce resources at the system level as several TVET providers offer the same specialisms in the same geographic area with varying standards and in competition against each other. Community/technical colleges are run by the Ministry of Education and Higher Education, UNRWA and public and private institutions. The Ministry of Education and Higher Education has overall responsibility for this sector in terms of licensing of

institutions, accreditation of programmes, definition of curricula, etc. All vocational schools are under the supervision of the Ministry of Education and Higher Education. The schools themselves are run by the Ministry of Education and Higher Education and various NGOs. Both technical and vocational education is supervised by the Directorate General for Vocational and Technical Education at the Ministry of Education and Higher Education. UNRWA colleges and vocational training centres are supervised by UNRWA's Vocational and Technical Department under the Education Office in the UNRWA (Amman, Jordan). Ministry of Labour vocational training centres are supervised by the Directorate General for Vocational Training at this ministry. In general, the governance and administration system is highly centralised. Governmental and UNRWA-run TVET institutions in particular have very limited autonomy.

Low utilisation of facilities. Although cooperative modalities of training are being piloted and gradually expanded, most TVET provision takes place in a school/centre setting. However, it is very expensive to establish and keep up-to-date a TVET institution with rapidly changing technology. The majority of TVET institutions in the OPT are only used in the morning period and are closed for several months of the year, including three months in summer.

Poor quality. There is also much room for improvement in the quality and effectiveness of the TVET system. Improvements are necessary at the level of all inputs affecting quality, namely, teachers and trainers, curricula and material resources. Employers complain of the poor quality and irrelevance of training, saying that TVET graduates lack key employable functional and extra-functional skills. A study (Khawaja and Omari, 2009) revealed that 44% of employed graduates, 42% of training providers and 60% of employers believed that the training received at secondary vocational schools was inadequate.

To the three main problems discussed above can be added two other efficiency problems faced by Ministry of Labour vocational training centres, namely, low ICT utilisation at all levels of TVET provision and the dropout rate (20.9% in 2009). This problem, incidentally, is not shared by Ministry of Education and Higher Education vocational secondary schools, where the dropout rate was only around 2.4% in 2007/08.

No assessment of the overall performance of the TVET system has been conducted. Quality is not clearly defined and there is no system to measure or assure quality, whether at the provider level or the system/policy level. UNRWA have started a skills validation programme to ensure that the outputs of their training programs are in line with international and local qualification standards. As part of its Education Development Strategic Plan, the Ministry of Education has set clear measurable achievement targets and indicators and is following progress against these targets on an annual basis. Targets related to the quality of the TVET to be achieved by the end of 2012 include:

- Updatable competency-based modular curricula will be produced by the end of 2012 for at least 10 TVET occupations and the relevance of graduate competences to local labour market should be ensured.
- Occupation analysis will be conducted for 19 TVET occupations by mid-2009.
- 340 members of the academic staff in the TVET System will be trained on the new competency-based modular curricula.
- Equipment and educational resources in 105 TVET laboratories and 66 workshops will be upgraded on a yearly basis.

These are input quality indicators, however, and they do not provide adequate evidence regarding the quality of the training process and outputs.

Several governance and finance mechanisms are envisaged to improve TVET efficiency and quality.

At the system governance level, system unification/integration and involvement of social partners are proposed to enhance efficiency and quality.

- **System unification/integration:** The efficiency of the system, or the relationship between inputs and outputs, can be improved by making better use of resources in the existing training institutions, by integrating vocational education institutions currently under the Ministry of Education and Higher Education and vocational training institutions currently under the Ministry of Labour and by improving the link between the TVET system and community colleges. These

changes will reduce the present fragmentation of the educational system and thus improve efficiency.

- **Involvement of social partners:** An active role of all TVET stakeholders is the main component of the National TVET Strategy. TVET stakeholders include government, UNRWA, local communities, the private sector, unions, labour market institutions, civil society organisations, etc. The involvement of the various stakeholders will allow for better coordination and less competition, ultimately leading to major efficiency gains. Additionally, involving all training providers in developing and using common standards and quality assurance, unified curricula and testing and validation measures will enable benefits to be drawn from all the resources available and not only those of the government.

At the school governance level, decentralisation at the levels of the Ministry of Labour, Ministry of Education and Higher Education and UNRWA, coupled with the awarding of greater autonomy to school management, is vital for efficiency and quality enhancement.

- **Decentralisation.** To overcome the major limitation to the effectiveness of public TVET institutions, which is their lack of administrative autonomy from central ministries, institutions will have clear mandates based on a more decentralised approach. Moreover, their management approach should be democratic, participatory, cooperative and based on unified management procedures to enable decision making on key issues like curricula, financial and personnel management, sectors of involvement, etc, thereby expanding their capacity to change and adapt.
- **School autonomy.** TVET institutions should offer programmes relevant to the local market in their governorates, complementing each other and avoiding duplication, so as to excel in certain specialisms as regional centres of competence. These centres should be able to offer services to the economy, train trainers and provide other services to the local community.

In terms of financing mechanisms, providing a sustainable financing base for TVET institutions that support better utilisation of TVET facilities and thus addressing the problem of poor institutional efficiency is of high importance. The system is currently heavily dependent on government and donor funding. Although community college students pay for their training, students at public vocational schools and training centres and UNRWA institutions do not pay any fees. NGOs charge for a percentage of the training cost and obtain the rest from donor contributions. Almost all infrastructure and development expenses are covered by the donor community. There is very little, if any, private sector financial support for the TVET system.

Financing is considered of utmost importance not only to enhance efficiency and quality, but also to establish a sustainable TVET system. It is recognised that the need for financing will increase vastly in the future, as the capacity of the system will have to be increased manifold and because the system is in great need of development. Various means for financing of the Palestinian TVET system have been suggested but will probably be based on five sources: the government, a levy/tax on employers, payments from students, income-generating activities and donations and grants.

Except for UNRWA and most NGO providers, little is known about the cost of training. Cost per trainee and public and other expenditures on the TVET system need to be identified and analysed regularly to increase efficiency and to adequately plan the financing of the system. Furthermore, it is not clear whether budget allocations at the level of governmental training providers are made based on students numbers or other input or output indicators.

To date, the TVET system has not been successful in involving the main stakeholders in the design and management of TVET policies nor has it been successful in developing the capacities of stakeholders. The Higher TVET Council never became operational, and accordingly, stakeholders were not adequately involved in the design and the management of TVET policies. The current involvement of Chamber of Commerce training departments within the LETC is a step in the right direction, although probably insufficient. At the level of the Ministry of Labour, a tripartite committee has been set up and serious capacity building with the assistance of the ILO has been embarked upon.

The National TVET Strategy envisages extensive involvement of all stakeholders. The private sector is expected to act as a partner in policy making, funding, implementing and participating in cooperative training (apprenticeship), in developing programmes and curricula and in testing, assessment, monitoring and evaluation. It will also participate in changing the culture in both the TVET system and

the labour market for the benefit of mutual cooperation and in allocating in-house resources for training. Unions are envisaged to participate effectively in TVET policy making and implementation, in enhancing TVET in terms of providing decent employment for the Palestinian youth and in encouraging members to participate in retraining and further training programmes, thus enhancing their employment status.

The most significant ideas foreseen for enhancing quality include setting up an NQF and a quality assurance system; they also include teacher training, curriculum modernisation and TVET infrastructure diversification and improvement. The National TVET Strategy details these issues as follows:

- **Setting up an NQF.** The TVET system will ensure options for the articulation of students within the entire educational system on the basis of comparable levels and accreditation of graduation certificates within a unique NQF, providing vertical and lateral channels between the two streams of formal and non-formal TVET, so that both patterns form an integrated system that allows learners to move from one stream to the other according to specific criteria and enabling lifelong learning.
- **Setting up a quality assurance system.** To ensure ongoing improvement and development of operations and outcomes of the TVET system, a quality management system will be adopted as an integral part of the TVET system to assure the relevance of outcomes to labour market demands and to ensure the employability of TVET graduates, all to be done through the effective and efficient use of available resources and according to unified quality standards. Furthermore, to ensure the quality of the system, the TVET examination scheme will be decentralised for all TVET level qualifications and will follow a predefined examination system that will ensure the involvement of the private sector and external experts in its development. TVET examinations will combine practical and theoretical assessment and will evaluate knowledge, skills and attitudes; passing these exams should lead to licenses or eligibility to move to a higher TVET level. Also planned as part of the TVET system are a comprehensive occupational testing system, the granting of licenses to individuals and workplaces for on-the-job practice and performance and skill-level tests to measure the needed competencies as outcome.
- **Teacher training.** To develop, enhance, qualify and retain all TVET human resources, including directors, teachers, administrators, support staff, teacher trainers, system developers and personnel in the development and administration structure, a national human resource development programme will be established to investigate the capacity-building needs in the TVET system, relate them to labour market needs and match them with the qualified providers. To date, no system exists for qualifying TVET trainers, teachers and other staff. Trainers are either graduates of colleges and universities or, a lesser degree, trained within business and industry. Highly qualified personnel opt to work in business and industry or to set up their own business, as the rewards are much higher.
- **Curriculum development.** Under the unified TVET system, curricula will ensure vertical and horizontal articulation and will be subject to permanent review and update. To increase employability, life skills should be developed and incorporated into curricula, including critical thinking, problem solving, teamwork, entrepreneurship, social and life skills, etc. Qualifying to international standards can only be ensured by applying modular training directed at complex tasks that enhance knowledge and skills step-by-step. Students trained in a module based on a complex task repressing an occupation will be qualified to fully complete an assignment independently. After attending and successfully finishing the modular training course, students will receive certificates of achievement and will graduate as skilled workers.
- **TVET infrastructure diversification and improvement.** To ensure quality and efficiency, TVET institutions should be continuously equipped with sufficient up-to-date technologies relevant to the curricula and meeting international standards for tools and equipment. Equipment and facilities should also meet standards enforced by the National Accreditation and Quality Assurance Unit in terms of space and layout of classrooms, workshops, premises, safety and health, special needs, gender, etc). TVET diversification refers to the utilisation of business and industry premises for training purposes. In close cooperation between the TVET institutions and the employers, a new

apprenticeship scheme needs to combine practical and theoretical learning. The envisaged apprenticeship scheme is aimed at introducing apprenticeship contracts, setting age requirements and remuneration levels, providing incentives to employers in the form of exemptions from tax obligations and introducing compulsory accident insurance for apprentices.

5. Innovation, partnership and entrepreneurship

In TVET, particularly in relation to employability, several innovative initiatives have surfaced in the last couple of years :

- **One Stop Shop (OSS).** Placed in Ministry of Labour labour offices, with GTZ support, the OSS was designed to be convenient, accessible and efficient for jobseekers, who register, are assessed, trained and placed in a suitable job vacancy.
- **Local Employment and Training Councils (LETC).** Established in 2009 in four governorates (Nablus, Ramallah, Bethlehem and Hebron) under the guidance of governors and with GTZ support, these councils include representatives of the Chambers of Commerce, universities, colleges, local authorities, social partners and local consultants. Their primary target is local development. In this sense they can play a valuable role in reinforcing social dialogue and collaboration.
- **Know About Business (KAB).**³ KAB, supported by the ILO, is a training programme for trainers and teachers in vocational education, secondary education and higher education, based on a 120-hour course for young students aged 15 to 18 years that integrates entrepreneurship, leadership, and innovation competencies in curricula.
- **Career to School Programme.** This programme, supported by USAID, has introduced vocational guidance and counselling in academic schools in the 8th, 9th, and 10th grades for more than 600 youth in four government schools, two private schools and two youth centres.
- **Apprenticeship Training Scheme (ATS).** With the support of the GTZ, a 2-year apprenticeship programme in auto mechanics and tourism was piloted in several governorates. Attempts are underway to institutionalise and scale-up this programme this coming year.
- **Other.** Listed as follows: the Injaz programme aimed at teaching entrepreneurial and financial competencies to school and university students through private sector volunteers; an experiential learning programme through Ruwwad; collaborative financing by donors through technical assistance pooling; quality improvement funding for technical education through the World Bank supported by the Quality Improvement Fund; supporting innovation in learning and teaching methodologies through the Elham programme; awareness building and career guidance activities through the Sharek programme, etc.

Innovation has been supported by donor and national projects through the piloting of a variety of programmes. However, for innovation to take place, needed are systems and an institutional culture that would allow innovation to flourish and be mainstreamed and this is not the case in the current TVET system. Risk taking is not supported; on the contrary, it is discouraged. TVET managers, trainers and students are expected to 'comply' with procedures and practices which are the only 'right' ones. Managers and trainers are not given the space or power to experiment. There are no procedures at the local institutional or national level that try to capture innovative practices and reward those responsible and no funds are allocated to new innovative practices.

TVET policies do not explicitly support innovation. For example, there is no mention of innovation, learning and knowledge management or of supporting the risk-taking necessary for innovation.

Lack of adequate evaluation, documentation and dissemination procedures constitute the main obstacles to upscaling and mainstreaming innovation. There is a recent tendency to evaluate pilots and to scale them up to the system level. However, adequate evaluation, documentation and

³ See <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/region/eurpro/moscow/areas/kab.htm>.

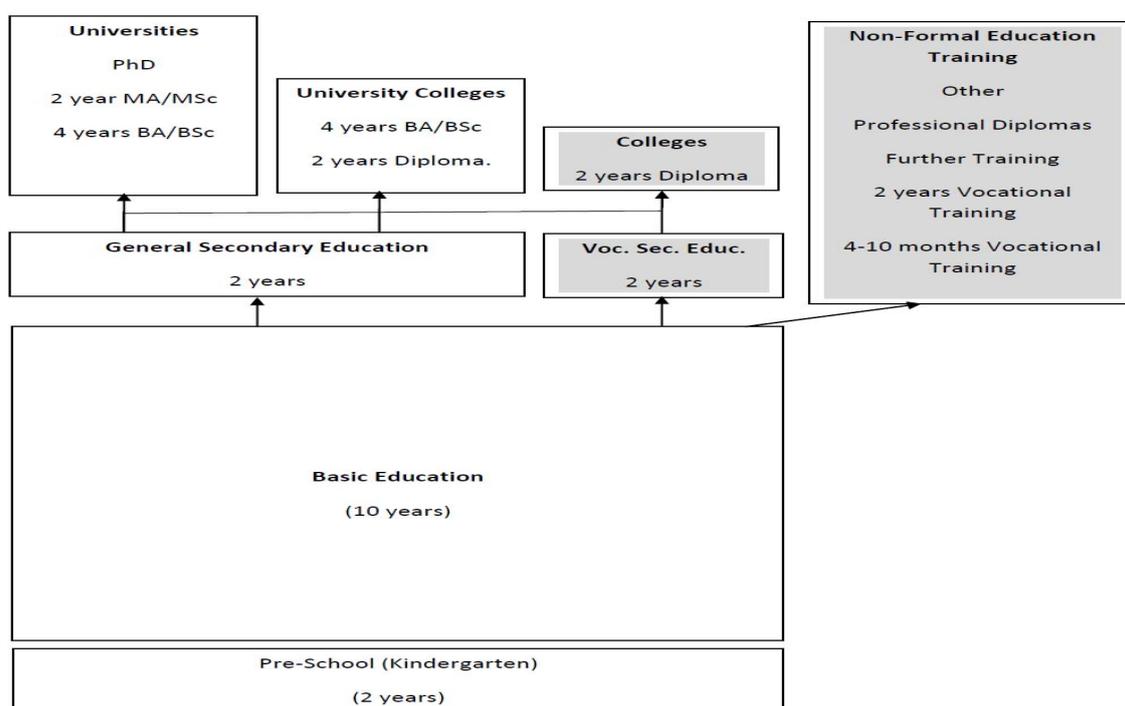
dissemination of such experiences are limited. Workshops are becoming more regular and would provide a good platform for exchanging views and getting acquainted with new innovations; however, there is a need to have a more reflective component in these gatherings in order to reach conclusions. Exposure to other international innovations is also relatively limited although recent regional projects are facilitating this exposure.

Annex: Palestinian TVET system: scope, legal and institutional frameworks and additional data

The Palestinian TVET system is a small system that cuts across the three sectors of formal school education, tertiary education and non-formal education and training (as shown in the grey shaded areas in Figure 8). As a major component of human resource development, the objectives, structure and content of the TVET system incorporates two main complementary dimensions: a social and human dimension that emphasises individual needs and human aspirations and an economic dimension that caters for societal needs and labour market requirements. As such, the TVET system is rooted in educational and human values and ideals while growing and extending in the work environment. TVET is defined as a system providing training to meet the following aims:

- To train the employees required for the various economic sectors as a result of yearly substitution through old age/sickness, economic growth and new technologies requiring new and different kinds of employee
- To provide further training and retraining for existing employees so as to increase productivity and change or adapt technologies and work structures
- To train people for self-employment
- To a lesser degree, to enable individuals to develop hobbies and interests, maintain good physical and mental health, become active citizens and acquire various life skills.

Figure 8. Palestinian education and training system



In line with the above, formal TVET is provided at vocational secondary schools offering 2-year vocational education programmes that produce craftspeople and at colleges offering 2-year technical education courses that produce technicians. University colleges and universities produce specialists.

Non-formal TVET includes basic as well as further training. Basic vocational training for youth resulting in semi-skilled workers is provided mainly by the vocational training centres of the Ministry of Labour (4-6 months). UNRWA and NGOs (2 years) run courses resulting in skilled workers. Rehabilitation training for youth is provided by the Ministry of Social Affairs and some NGOs. Adult further training and retraining is provided by NGOs, for-profit organisations, continuing education

departments at higher education institutions, various other governmental agencies, professional employer and employee associations and companies (in-service training). In general, there is a great deal of duplication of training offerings and there is no overall strategy to identify and address skill bottlenecks.

The formal TVET system has, in the last couple of years, opened pathways to higher education. Regular vocational education graduates can continue their higher education in colleges and, since more recently, in most universities. Within the vocational education stream, students can choose to enter applied vocational education, which has a larger component of practical training and is less open-ended as far as higher education is concerned. Technical college graduates can continue their education in universities. However, graduates of the non-formal TVET system have almost no opportunities for further education. Graduates of vocational training centres cannot join higher education except in very limited cases to study for a specialist vocational diploma in a limited number of colleges.

In general, the private sector plays a small role in both initial and continuing training. Many companies conduct training on the job for their new employees but are not involved in the formal or non-formal TVET offerings. Apprenticeship training has been piloted in recent years in the area of auto mechanics and tourism and there is serious consideration being given to scaling up these pilots.

There are serious weaknesses in the legal, institutional, regulatory and policy framework governing the different sub-systems. There are no well-established dedicated agencies, councils or committees regulating and supporting the TVET system. A Higher TVET Council was established several years ago but never became functional. Recently, LETCs have been established in four governorates, although their impact and value remains to be seen.

As to governance of the TVET system, it is still fragmented, with TVET offered by a wide range of providers. Community/technical colleges are run by the Ministry of Education and Higher Education, UNRWA and public and private institutions. The Ministry of Education and Higher Education has overall responsibility for this sector in terms of licensing of institutions, accreditation of programmes, definition of curricula, etc. All vocational schools are under the supervision of the Ministry of Education and Higher Education and the schools themselves are run by this ministry and various NGOs. Both technical and vocational education are supervised by the Directorate General for Vocational and Technical Education at the Ministry of Education and Higher Education. UNRWA colleges and vocational training centres are supervised by UNRWA's Vocational and Technical Department of the UNRWA Education Office (in Amman, Jordan). Ministry of Labour vocational training centres are supervised by its Directorate General for Vocational Training.

In general, the governance and administration system is highly centralised. Public and UNRWA-run TVET institutions, in particular, have very limited autonomy. Although hinted at in the National TVET Strategy, to date there is no strategy or policy for adult training or for lifelong learning. Due to the absence of a systematic assessment and certification system there are currently no mechanisms in place to recognise informal occupational learning. There is also no law governing the TVET system, although attempts are underway to formulate one.

TVET reform includes several key elements. The adoption of a new unified governance model ensures options for the articulation of students within the entire educational system on the basis of comparable levels and accreditation of graduation certificates within a unique NQF and providing vertical and lateral channels between the formal and non-formal TVET streams, the establishment of a national agency to develop, organise, coordinate and drive the entire system, the development of modular curricula, the creation of a LMIS, quality management system, etc.

Key Indicators

	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	EU average, latest year available
Population, total	3,053,334	3,498,126	3,611,998	3,719,189	3,825,512	3,935,249	497649125
Dependency rates (%): 0-14 as % of working age population	96.9	85.1	82.3	80.1	78.0	76.0	23
Dependency rates (%): 65+ as % of working age population	7.2	6.2	6.0	5.8	5.6	5.5	25.2 27 (WB, euro area 2008)
Life expectancy, years	71.5	72.93	72.5	71.3	71.5	71.8	76.07 (males) 82.21 (females)
GDP/capita, PPP (US\$)	Unavailable	Unavailable	Unavailable	Unavailable	Unavailable	Unavailable	25100 33452 (wb, euro area 2008)
GDP/capita at Constant Prices (value in US\$)	1,450.2	1,387.2	1,275.4	1,303.2	1,340.4	1,389.9	
GDP by economic sector (%)	10 (agriculture) 13 (industry) 77 (services)	5 (agriculture) 17 (industry) 78 (services)	6 (agriculture) 15 (industry) 79 (services)	6 (agriculture) 15 (industry) 79 (services)	6 (agriculture) 15 (industry) 79 (services)	5 (agriculture) 14 (industry) 80 (services)	2 (agriculture) 27 (industry) 72 (services)
Employment rates (%), total	85.5	67.2	75.9	78	73.6	75.3	64.6
Employment rates (%), female	87.4	77.5	79.2	80.6	75.7	73.4	58.6
Unemployment rates (%), total	14.5	23.8	24.1	22	26.4	24.7	8.9
Unemployment rates (%), female	12.6	22.5	20.8	19.4	24.3	26.6	8.8
% of 25-64 years old having participated in Lifelong Learning, total	Unavailable	Unavailable	Unavailable	Unavailable	Unavailable	Unavailable	42.00
Gross enrolment rate, upper secondary	Unavailable	Unavailable	Unavailable	77.4	79.7	Unavailable	110.88
Participation in VET in % of upper secondary	4.5	4.7	4.6	4.6	5.6	6	49.94
Students/Teachers ratios in VET (%) (ISCED 3)	Unavailable	18.5	18.6	19.7	16.6	Unavailable	12.17
Students/Teachers ratios in general education (%) (ISCED 3)	Unavailable	21.8	22.7	20.8	20.8	Unavailable	
Private education as % of total (ISCED 3), VET	17	4.4	2.3	3.4	4.7	Unavailable	12.58
Private education as % of total (ISCED 3), general	4.9	3.7	3.7	3.9	4.1	Unavailable	12.69
Public expenditure on education as % of GDP	7.5	Unavailable	Unavailable	Unavailable	Unavailable	Unavailable	5.04 (s)
Percentage of the population aged 25 to 64 having completed at least upper secondary education	28.3	32.4	32.8	33.5	34.6	36.1	71.5

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