

Chapter 1

Women's participation in the labour market and entrepreneurship in selected MENA countries

This chapter presents an overview of women's educational attainment, participation in the labour market and involvement in entrepreneurship in the six countries under review – Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Jordan, Morocco and Tunisia. It examines women's engagement in the economies of the six countries as compared to men's participation as well as to women's economic involvement in other parts of the world. The chapter also seeks to better understand the main features defining women's economic status and the different characteristics of men and women in employment and entrepreneurship.

Introduction

There is a striking gap between women's improved education and their limited participation in economic activities in Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia.

Despite the substantial narrowing of the gender gap in education, the percentage of women in the total employed population in the six countries is among the lowest in the world, at 17.9%, compared with the world average of 47.1% (World Development Indicators, 2014). Female labour-force participation in these countries ranges from 15.4% in Algeria to 30% in Libya. At the same time, a dramatic gap between labour supply and demand in the female workforce has been creating high levels of unemployment, in particular among young educated women. Vulnerable or informal employment is particularly high among women, resulting in poor earnings and low-quality jobs. In entrepreneurship, the gender gap in the Middle East-North Africa region is the greatest in the world, with around 12% of adult women and 31% of adult men working as entrepreneurs (GEM, MENA Regional Report, 2012).

The inclusion of skilled women in the economy should expand the talent pool, providing for a more productive and diversified economy that can engage in innovation and compete globally. Women's economic participation provides them with resources that allow them to realise their personal aspirations, and to support their families, leading to increased well-being among women, men and children. Gender parity is not only a fundamental human right but also a critical economic opportunity for countries. Research using the SIGI 2014 results reveals that gender-based discrimination in social institutions is significant and represents a cost of USD 575 billion for the MENA region (Ferrant and Kolev, 2016). Addressing the obstacles to women's and girls' empowerment could benefit the economy as a whole.

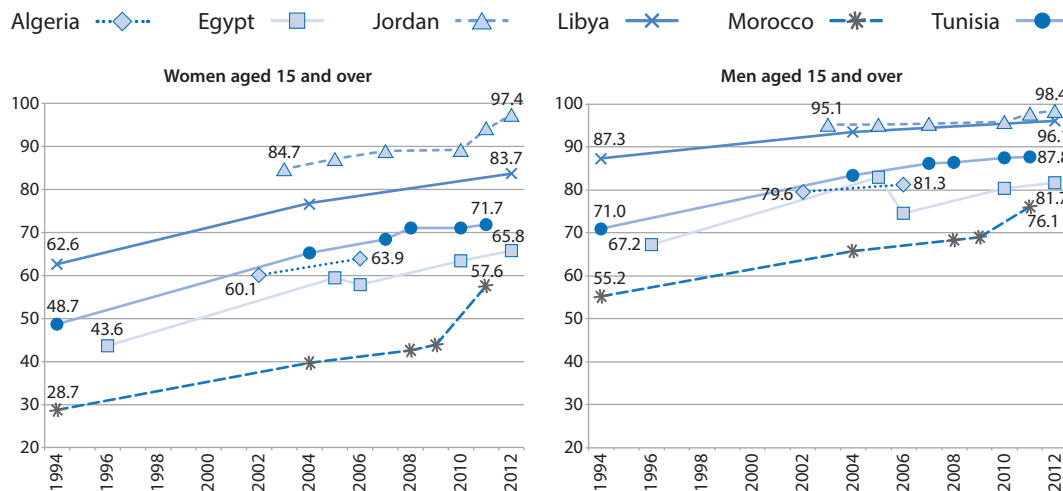
In order to understand the impact of gender inequality, data and evidence are crucial. National statistics offices have made progress collecting gender-disaggregated data, which are used by international agencies to develop internationally comparable data series and indicators. Regrettably, the overall availability of gender-disaggregated data in the MENA region is still limited. More detailed gender-disaggregated data at the national and regional levels should be collected and made available to better inform policy making and help monitor progress.

Towards gender equality in education

Since independence, education in the six countries has been declared a guaranteed right and literacy rates have significantly improved.¹ The literacy gap between women and men has also narrowed. By 2012, female literacy was almost equivalent to the male rates attained in 1994. It had reached over 70% in Tunisia and almost 100% in Jordan. But the gap is still significant in some countries. In Morocco only 57% of women were literate, compared to 76% of men, and in Egypt only 65% of women could read, compared to 81% of men (Figure 1.1).

The gender gap in participation at different school levels has also narrowed in the six countries. Girls' primary enrolment tends to be below that of boys – about 5% lower in Algeria and Morocco and roughly 2% in Jordan and Egypt. In secondary education, all countries except Morocco have 100% enrolment rates for both boys and girls. Gaps in participation in tertiary enrolment have narrowed as well. Jordan and Libya are close to gender parity, while Egypt and Morocco still face a gender gap of roughly 10% in favour of men. In contrast, female enrolment rates in Algeria and Tunisia tend to be about 50% higher than those of men (UIS, 2016).

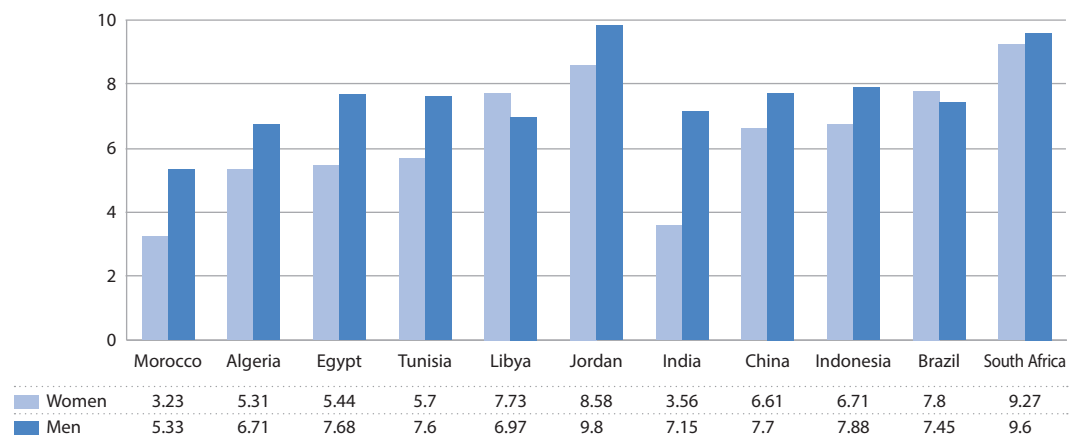
Figure 1.1. Evolution of female and male literacy rates (%)



Source: World Bank (2016), World Bank Development Indicators database; <http://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?source=world-development-indicators>.

Nevertheless, gender disparities in education persist across and within countries in terms of total years of schooling. The average length of total schooling is 1.2-2 times higher among men than women except in Libya, where women study almost one year more than men (Figure 1.2). Differences exist between urban and rural areas because wealth is an important factor shaping educational attainment. Fields of specialisation also tend to differ between males and females (WB, 2007). Women concentrate on education, arts or humanities, and are less represented in engineering or law, although progress in these fields has been noted in recent years.

Figure 1.2. Average total years of schooling by gender for people over 25 in 2010 (%)



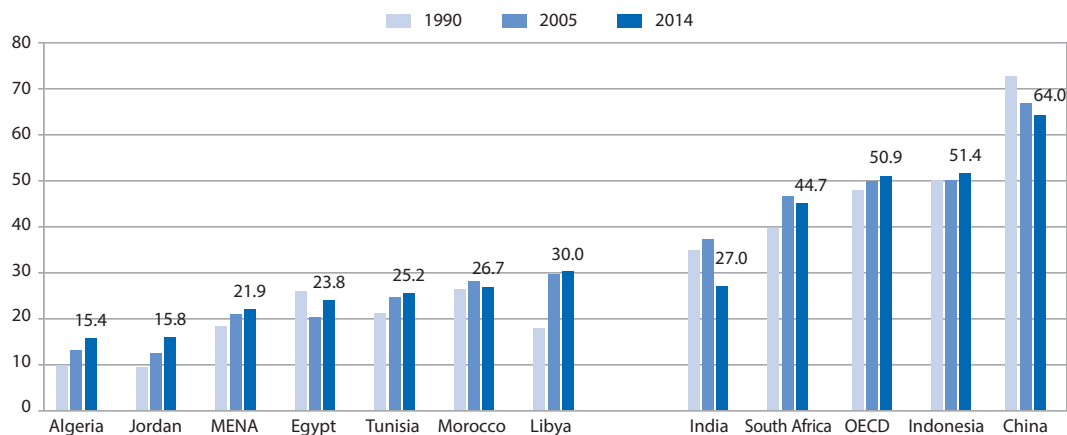
Source: Barro, R. J. and J. W. Lee. 2013. Barro-Lee dataset of Educational Attainment. www.barrolee.com, Accessed August 2015.

Despite government efforts in the six countries leading to a strong drop in illiteracy rates, and important progress in women's educational attainment in all school cycles, this has not translated into higher women's labour-force participation and entrepreneurship.

Restricted female labour force participation

Women in the MENA region remain an untapped resource for the economy. While women represent around 49% of the total population, their participation in the labour force is very low (WB gender statistics, 2016). In Jordan and Algeria only about 16% of women older than 15 participate in the labour force, whereas in Egypt, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia it ranges from 25% to 32% (Figure 1.3). The average female labour force participation rate for OECD countries is 50.9%.² In contrast, men's participation in the labour force in the six countries reached 70% or more in 2014, only slightly below other emerging economies (WDI, 2016).

Figure 1.3. **Female labour force participation (15+)**
1990-2005-2014 (%)

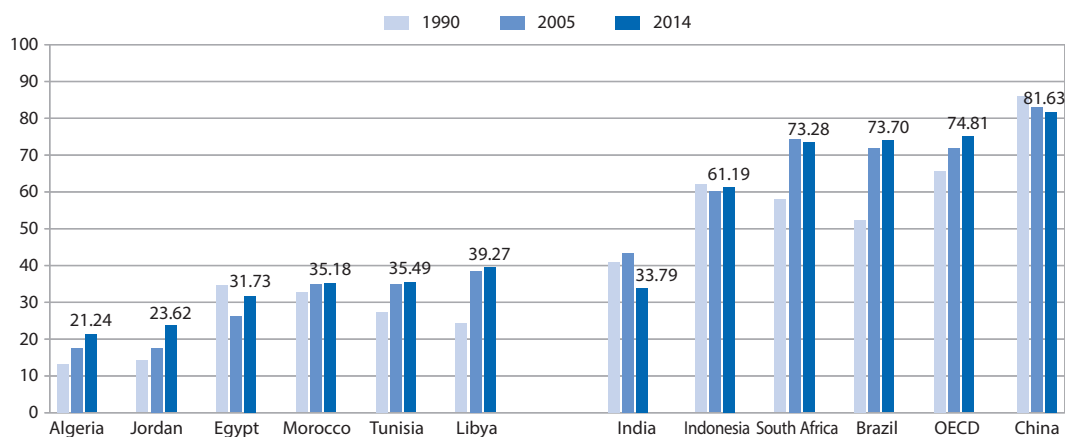


Source: World Bank (2016), World Bank Development Indicators database, <http://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?source=world-development-indicators>.

Note: Female labour force participation refers to the percentage of women older than 15 years who are economically active. According to the World Bank data, the MENA region includes the following countries: Algeria, Bahrain, Djibouti, Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syrian Arab Republic, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, West Bank and Gaza, and Yemen.

The female-to-male labour force participation ratio in the six countries ranges from 21.2% in Algeria to 39.3% in Libya, compared to the average of 74.8% in OECD countries (Figure 1.4). The gap between male and female participation was reduced during the 1990s, but this progress slowed afterwards. Between 2005 and 2014, the gap continued narrowing only in the countries that had been lagging behind: Algeria, Egypt and Jordan.³ This deceleration can be partly explained by the expansion of secondary and tertiary education, which considerably reduced the labour force participation rate among the youngest. In Morocco, for instance, labour force participation of women aged 15-24 decreased by 12 percentage points from 1999 to 2013 (OECD findings).

Figure 1.4. **Female-to-male labour force participation ratios**
1990-2005-2014 (%)



Source: Labour force participation ratio is the proportion of the population aged 15 and older that is economically active: all people who supply labour for the production of goods and services during a specified period. Female-to-male labour force participation measures how many women are active in the labour force for every 100 men.

Note: World Bank (2016), World Bank Development Indicators database, Washington, DC, <http://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?source=world-development-indicators>.

Women's employment in the public and private sectors

In the MENA region, the public sector has traditionally employed the majority of women. In 2013, the percentage of working women employed in the public sector was 91% in Libya, 61% in Algeria and more than 50% in Egypt.⁴ Public sector employment has been preferred by women as it is considered more socially acceptable (Sayre and Hendy, 2013). The public sector is associated with higher job security, a safer work environment, better reconciliation with family duties (Assaad, 2014). It is also perceived to provide higher salaries and benefits, particularly at the local level and certainly for entry-level jobs.

Within the public sector, women tend to work in what have traditionally been considered female domains, in particular in the education and service sectors. In Morocco in 2009, women accounted for around 50% of employees in the ministries of Health and Social Affairs, but only 4% in the General Directorate for Civil Protection and 6% in the General Directorate for National Security (OECD, 2014b: 164).

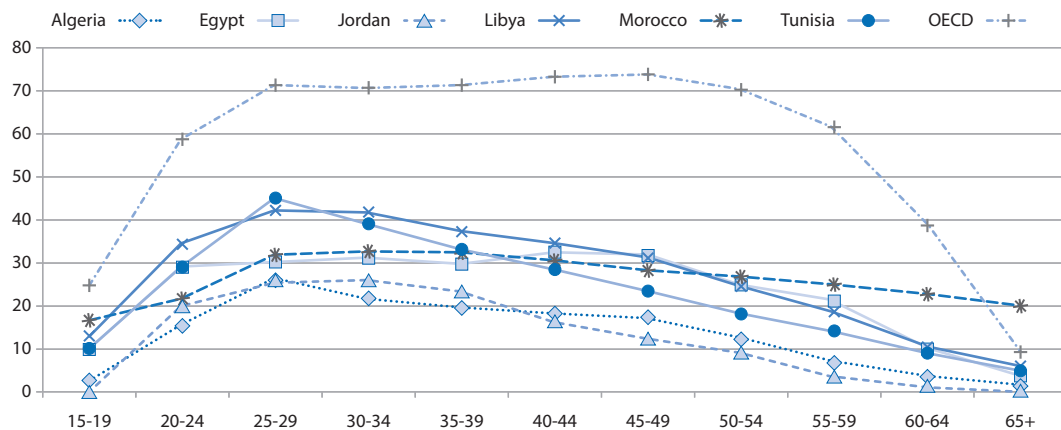
Overall, women's participation rate in the private sector is limited (Assaad, 2014). Women continue to work in a more restricted range of professions than men. Independently of educational attainment, women are likely to remain in low-pay jobs with few responsibilities and are under-represented in high-level managerial positions or on boards of directors. They are also frequently employed in the informal sector.

Labour market dynamics in the region over the past decades have not favoured female labour force participation. On one hand, the number of available public sector jobs in the region declined with the Structural Adjustment Policies initiated in the 1980s. On the other, this decline was not compensated by a sufficient increase of jobs in the private sector – the MENA region has the world's lowest private-sector investment contribution to growth – and the majority of the region's investments were directed to low-skilled and capital-intensive sectors in which women's participation is lower.

Age-related women's labour force participation

As in most countries, women's labour force participation strongly increases between the ages of 15 and 29. After the age of 30, however, and in contrast to men, women's participation in the workforce decreases sharply (Algeria, Jordan, Libya and Tunisia) or progressively (Egypt and Morocco). This contrasts with OECD countries, where the number of women in the labour force declines somewhat in child-bearing years but increases again at a later age (Figure 1.5).

Figure 1.5. Female labour force participation rates by age groups, 2013 (%)



Source: International Labour Office (2016), ILOSTAT/ILO database of labour statistics.

Education and labour force participation

As in other regions, women's propensity to participate in the workforce increases with their level of education (Mryyan, 2014). Working women across the six countries have a considerably higher level of education than their male peers, and also higher than women in the same age range who do not work. The 2014 data for Algeria show that 70% of women with a tertiary degree are working or actively trying to find a job, compared to 44% of those with vocational training and 7% who do not have any degree (ILO statistics, 2016). This pattern also holds true for Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia.⁵ The proportion of educated women is higher within younger age groups, with the most educated between 20 and 29 years old.

In some MENA economies, women who leave the labour force after the age of 30 tend to be the most educated. In Jordan, for instance, the share of women dropping out of the labour force after 30 increases by 29 percentage points for those with a university education, while that of women with lower levels of education increases by no more than 7 percentage points (Sayre and Hendy, 2013).

Wage gaps

Pay gaps between men and women persist in the region, and the gap is generally higher in the private than in the public sector. Public sector salaries are regulated in terms of grades, seniority, etc., making discriminatory practices less explicit.

The gender pay gap varies considerably across the six countries. In 2007, the average pay gap in Egypt was estimated to be 25%, with particularly high disparities in the sectors of mining (72%), manufacturing (35%) and health and social work (25%) (Tijdens and Klaveren, 2012). The difference is significantly higher in the formal private sector (35-40%) than in the public sector (2%), which would further reinforce women's preference for the public sector (World Bank, 2014). Some studies argue that the Egyptian pay gap can be attributed mainly to "discrimination against women" and not to differences in human capital characteristics (Biltagy, 2014).

In Libya, the pay gap amounted to 7% in the public and 20% in the private sector (Elgazzar et al., 2015). In Jordan, on the other hand, the wage gap decreased considerably in 2011, to an hourly gender pay gap of 9% for the private sector and 5% for the public sector. This is lower than in OECD countries, where the average pay gap is about 15%. In the case of Jordan, the generally lower gender pay gap can potentially be explained by the fact that only a small and particularly educated share of women participate in the labour force, and that only some of them in turn are in paid employment. Thus, those remaining in the statistics show a higher level of education than for employed men on average (Sweidan, 2012).

One of the conclusions from the Moroccan focus group of jobseekers was that the pay gap is primarily due to women's lack of experience in negotiating and a tendency among women to accept whatever they are offered.⁶ The high level and long duration of unemployment may also increase women's willingness to accept wages below those of their male colleagues.

Gender gaps in senior management positions and on boards of directors

The share of women in positions of high responsibility is low in both the public and private sectors. The average share of executive positions held by women in the public and private sectors combined was 14.8% in Tunisia, 12.8% in Morocco, 9.7% in Egypt, 5.1% in Jordan and 4.9% in Algeria (ILO, 2015a). This compares to 42.7% in the United States, 35.5% in Sweden, and 25.8% in Italy, with the lowest ranking OECD country being Korea at 11%.

In Tunisia, women are employed in jobs with lower qualifications than equally educated men (Stampini and Verdier-Chouchane, 2011). The under-representation of women in positions of high responsibility may be linked to the significant female drop-out rates from the labour force at a young age, as many such positions become accessible only with considerable work experience. The difficulty of attaining senior positions could be an additional factor dissuading women from entering or staying in the job market.

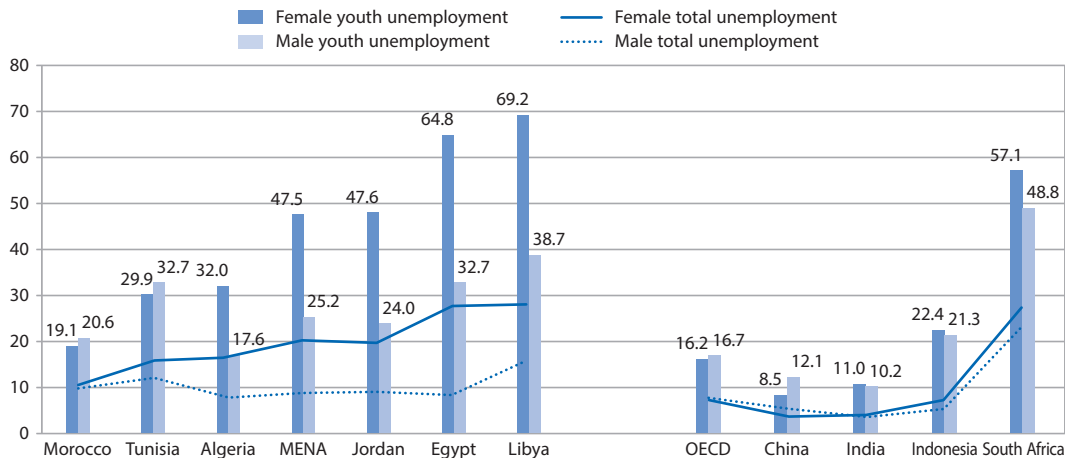
Female youth unemployment, underemployment and youth inactivity

The MENA region faces both the highest overall unemployment levels and the widest gender gap worldwide. In 2014, unemployment rates for young females ranged from 19.1% in Morocco to 69.2% in Libya, considerably high compared to an average of 16.2% in OECD countries (Figure 1.6). And while a gender gap in unemployment is almost non-existent in other emerging countries (India, Indonesia, China) or within the OECD, female unemployment rates were twice as high as those of men in Libya and Egypt, and in the overall MENA region.

Unemployment in the MENA region is particularly high among young adults aged 15 to 24. The unemployment ratio is 3.7 times higher for youth than adults, and it is higher than in the OECD or other regions of the world (ILO, 2015b). Despite the limited number of

women in the region's labour market, unemployment rates among young women are nearly 50% higher than among young men. Female youth unemployment rates reach levels as high as 69.2% in Libya. In Egypt and Libya, female youth unemployment increased by more than 15 percentage points from 2010 to 2013, in Jordan it increased by 7 percentage points, whereas it remained roughly constant in Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco (ILO estimates).

Figure 1.6. Youth unemployment and total unemployment rates by gender (15-24), 2014



Source: World Bank (2016), World Bank Development Indicators database, <http://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?source=world-development-indicators>.

Time-related underemployment is another issue for women in the region as it translates into a reduced income. Persons in time-related underemployment are those who are willing and able to work additional hours but who work fewer than the desired weekly hours of work. In some countries, women are much more vulnerable to time-related underemployment. In Egypt, 24% of working women worked fewer than 35 hours a week in 2012, compared with only 4% of working men. Women work mostly in the agricultural sector (60%) and manufacturing (17%). The higher share of time-related underemployment among women in Egypt may be linked to its bigger informal sector. In Morocco, on the other hand, and although the country has the highest share of vulnerable employment among the six countries, the percentage of part-time workers was 2-3% for both women and men (ILO Statistics).

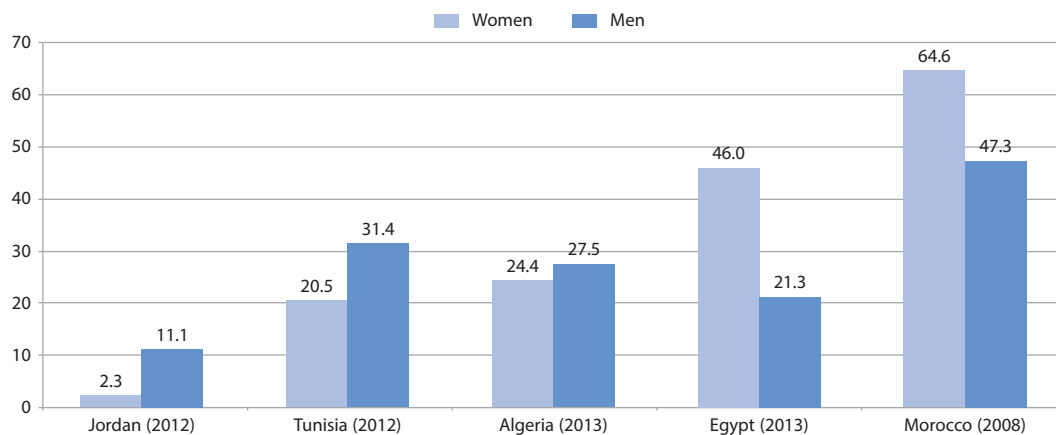
Another way to assess young women's economic involvement is to measure their degree of inactivity by looking at the share of those who are not in education, employment or training (NEET). Nowhere is NEET higher for youth than in the Middle East and North Africa. Available country data for Egypt, Jordan and Tunisia show that the share of NEET youth aged 15 to 24 ranges between 30% and 25%. For young people up to the age of 29, the share increases to about 30-35%. In the three countries, NEET is much higher for young women than young men, with the highest disparities in Egypt (ETF, 2014).

As noted above, working women in the six countries have a higher education level than men and women of working age in general. It appears that unemployed women are also better educated than unemployed men. In Tunisia, Egypt and Morocco, women with a tertiary education are more likely to be unemployed than those with lower levels of education.⁷ In Algeria and Jordan, 52% and 65% of unemployed women respectively are university graduates, compared with only 11% and 21% among men (ILO, 2016).

Vulnerable and informal employment

When no employment opportunities are offered in the formal sector, women in the MENA region seem more likely than men to work in informal and unpaid employment (Berniell and Sánchez-Páramo, 2011). Vulnerable employment, defined as the share of unpaid family workers and own-account workers (ILO), is higher among women than men in Egypt and Morocco (Figure 1.7).

Figure 1.7. Female and male vulnerable employment (as % of total male/female employment), latest available data by country



Source: World Bank (2016), World Bank Development Indicators database, <http://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?source=world-development-indicators>.

Egypt illustrates the labour market dynamics created by MENA's declining public sector since the mid-1980s. The share of informal employment among new job seekers doubled from 1975 to 2005, with informal employment defined as work performed without any labour contract, job security or social benefits (Assaad and Barsoum, 2007). Job guarantees for university graduates, now obsolete, incentivised job-seeking women to look for work in the private sector.

Participants in the Moroccan focus group noted that a potential explanation for the high rate of vulnerable employment among women in Morocco is their extensive participation in the agricultural sector in rural areas. In fact, 98% of women employed in rural areas lack medical coverage, compared to 53% employed in urban areas (Moroccan Ministry of Energy and Mines dataset, 2012). In urban areas, women are more concentrated than men in small business, which tends to have more precarious work conditions – 45% and 40%, respectively (High Commission of Planning, Morocco dataset, 2013). Moreover, female employment in the informal sector is characterised by a predominance of unpaid care work and a vulnerable job status.

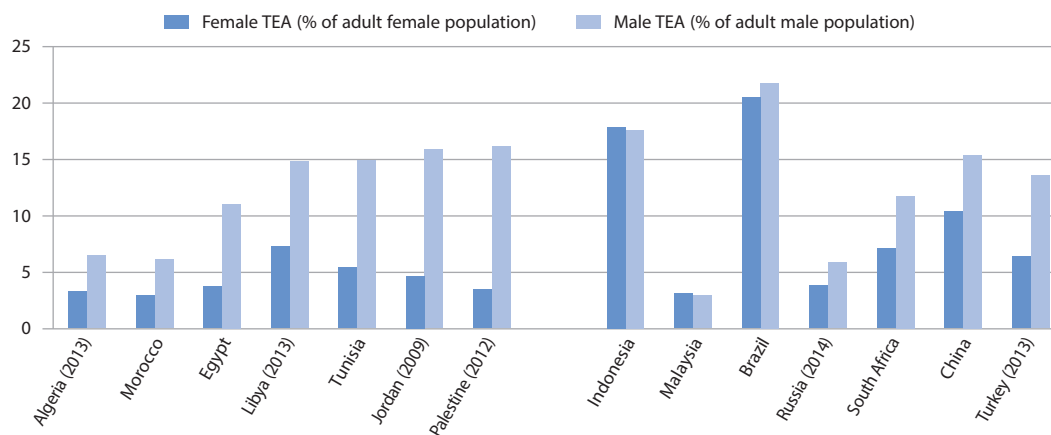
Around 12% of adult women in MENA are entrepreneurs compared with 31% of men, the largest gender gap across the regions of the world (GEM MENA regional report, 2012). However, the lack of gender-disaggregated data makes it difficult to evaluate and monitor female entrepreneurship in the MENA region.

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) provides information on individuals' entrepreneurial activities (with little attention to the characteristics of the enterprise, e.g. size or legal status), according to three phases: 1) being involved in a nascent business; 2) owning a new business that is less than three-and-a-half years old; and 3) owning an established business that is more than three-and-a-half years old.

About 34% of entrepreneurs involved in nascent enterprises in MENA are women, compared with 42% in other emerging economies. This drops to 22% during the early stage of the business life course, and the decrease continues to just 17% of established businesses. The proportion is far lower than in other emerging and developed economies.

The rate of total early-stage entrepreneurial activity (TEA) measures the percentage of the 18-to-64-year-old population involved in an entrepreneurial activity that is either a nascent (phase 1) or a new business (phase 2). While TEA gender gaps barely exist in other emerging economies (e.g. Indonesia, Malaysia, or Brazil), the gap is significant in the six countries under review (Figure 1.8). The largest difference between male and female TEA rates is shown in Egypt, where men make up around 86% of early-stage entrepreneurs and women the remaining 14%. The gap is smaller in Morocco, Algeria and Libya, where it is still twice as likely for a man to engage in an entrepreneurial activity.⁸

Figure 1.8. Early stage entrepreneurial activity rate, GEM, 2015 (or latest available data)



Source: Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (2015), Adult Population Survey Measures, 2015. www.gemconsortium.org/data.

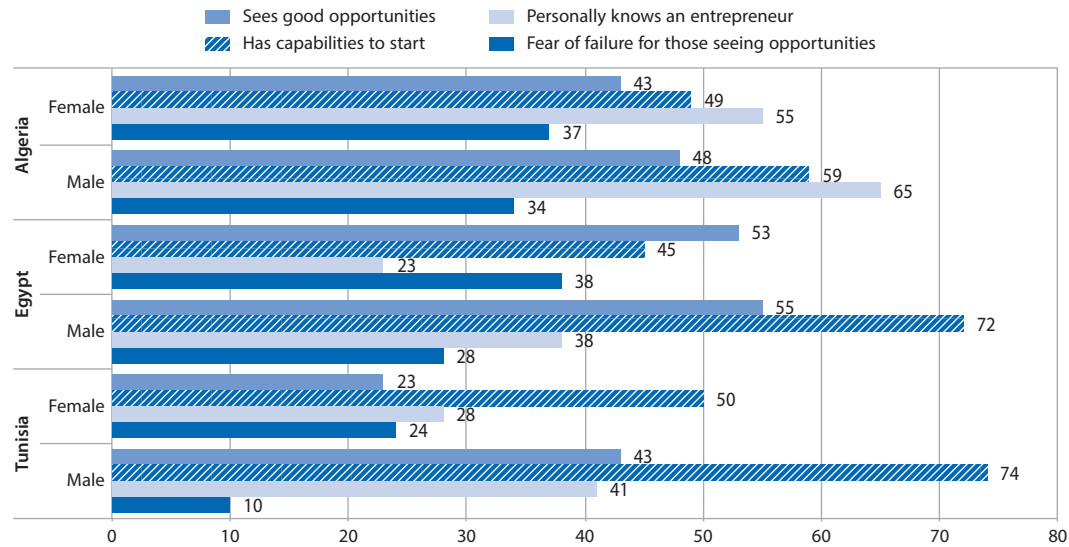
Note: TEA refers to the combined total of adults actively trying to start a new business (nascent entrepreneurs) and adults already owning a young business fewer than 42 months old.

Characteristics of women entrepreneurs and their businesses

Women entrepreneurs in the MENA region tend to have a lower socio-economic profile than their male peers (OECD, 2014a; OECD/IDRC, 2013). Women entrepreneurs generally come from households with lower income levels and have fewer resources to set up a business. Women who own and manage ventures have lower education levels than men, although they are more educated than the average MENA woman. They also have much less work experience, given their overall low level of labour force participation, affording them fewer opportunities to acquire skills, identify potential business opportunities and set aside savings. Women's limited work experience before starting a business is likely to drive a higher attrition rate, since business experience is critical for success (OECD/IDRC, 2013).

Women also differ from men in their attitudes and aspirations towards entrepreneurship. Across countries with available data (Algeria, Egypt, Tunisia), women have a higher fear of failure, believe less in their own capabilities, are less connected to other entrepreneurs and are less optimistic about potential business opportunities (Figure 1.9).

Figure 1.9. Entrepreneurial perceptions of women and men in Algeria, Egypt and Tunisia, 2012 (%)



Source: Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (2013), Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2012 Women's Report, www.babson.edu/Academics/centers/blank-center/global-research/gem/Documents/GEM%202012%20Womens%20Report.pdf.

Note: Data for Jordan, Libya and Morocco is not available.

Although the data is not disaggregated by gender, several factors seem to indicate that more women than men are driven to entrepreneurship by necessity. In the MENA region, the share of entrepreneurial activity resulting from “necessity” rather than “opportunity” tends to be high and has been increasing over the past years (GEM, 2013).⁹ In Egypt, for instance, the share of men and women entrepreneurs driven by necessity rose from 20% in 2008 to 75% in 2010. At the same time, the percentage of women-owned and managed enterprises also increased (OECD, 2014a: 60). In Tunisia, the share of men and women driven by necessity increased from roughly 22% in 2009 to 35% in 2012 (GEM country report 2012).

Women entrepreneurs typically value the flexibility that comes with being their own boss. They are more likely than men to cite work/life balance as their motivation for becoming an entrepreneur rather than growth or profits. And yet, women consistently rate self-employment as being less feasible than men do because of cultural attitudes and higher perceived barriers.

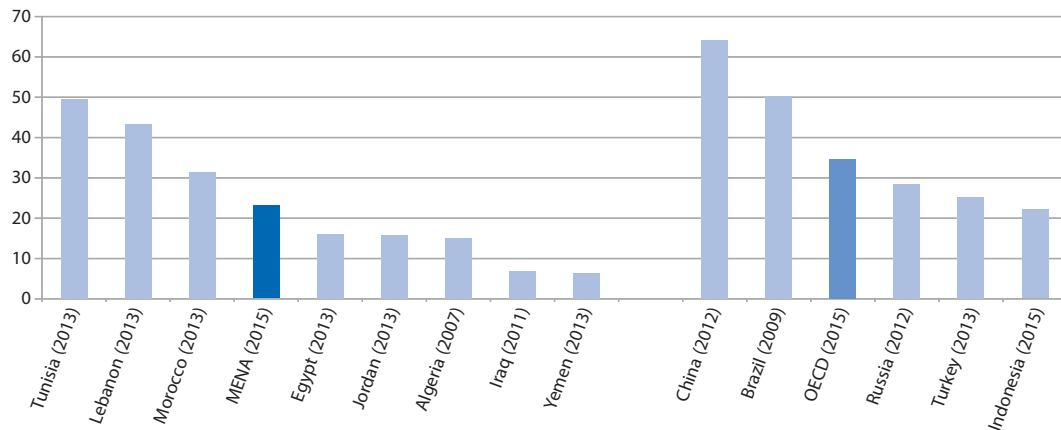
Female-owned enterprises are more prevalent in consumer-oriented sectors and businesses like health and beauty, retail, hospitality and social services. Start-up costs and entry barriers are relatively low in these areas, but they also generally offer limited development potential. Women are less present in the transforming and extractive sectors (OECDa, 2014). In Egypt, for instance, female-owned enterprises tend to be concentrated in the trade (50%), manufacturing (22%), education and health sectors, while men's businesses are generally more diversified across the economy (GEM country report 2012).

Business ownership

Corporate ownership, defined as the presence of at least one woman among the owners of a business, can be an important element in promoting overall gender equality. The gender of the dominant shareholder in a company can be a key governance factor favouring diversity in leadership positions (Sekkat et al., 2015). For instance, the chief executive of firms with a female dominant shareholder has a significantly higher probability of being a woman than in other firms. The effect is more pronounced when the female shareholder holds a higher share of the capital (Sekkat et al., 2015).

In MENA economies, female participation in ownership is low compared with that of men, with significant variations among the countries.¹⁰ Among the six countries reviewed, only in Tunisia, and to a lesser extent Morocco, do women have a relatively high participation in ownership (Figure 1.10). In Jordan and Egypt, female participation is weak, representing around 16% in 2013.¹¹ This compares with an average rate in OECD countries of around 35%, and with about 22% in Indonesia and 25% in Turkey.¹² On the other hand, participation in ownership does not necessarily imply a high share of income (e.g. a woman's formal participation in ownership of the firm of her husband).

Figure 1.10. Firms with female participation in ownership (% of firms)
2015 (or latest available data)



Source: World Bank (2016), World Bank Development Indicators database, <http://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?source=world-development-indicators>.

Note: Firms with female participation in ownership' refers to the percentage of firms with a woman among the principal owners. Data for Libya is not available.

Conclusions

Women's economic participation remains limited in the six countries under review. These countries have among the lowest rates of female entrepreneurship and labour force participation globally, with large gender gaps. Vis-à-vis men, women are more likely to be in low-paid occupations, whether as employees or entrepreneurs, and are less likely to attain leadership positions. Although incomplete data prevent an in-depth analysis, it may be assumed that women resort to entrepreneurship by necessity given their limited opportunities for paid employment.

Such large gender gaps in employment and entrepreneurship cannot be explained by women's educational attainment, as all six countries have made important schooling gains and reduced the gender education gap in recent years. In the next chapters we will examine whether the legislative frameworks of the six countries contain provisions that hold back women's economic empowerment.

Recommendations

Governments are encouraged to:

- Produce more gender-disaggregated data on education and economic activities in order to enact informed policies on a systematic basis.
- Assess the impact of policies that support female employment and entrepreneurship and identify the determinants of female labour market participation.

Notes

1. In Jordan, the 1952 Constitution declared education compulsory and free of charge. The 1959 Constitution in Tunisia proclaimed equal access to education, which became compulsory in 1991. In Morocco, education for children aged 6 to 13 became compulsory in 1963. In Egypt, the 1971 Constitution established public education as compulsory and free of charge. In Algeria, education became obligatory in 1970. In Libya, education is compulsory and is free of charge at all levels, including advanced education.
2. According to the OECD standard age grouping (15-64), the female labour force participation rate is around 67%.
3. Jordan's increase in female labour force participation, and as a consequence, in the ratio of female-to-male labour force participation, might be due to a change in methodology after 2006, which made the female rate rise from 12% to 15% (Assaad and Hendy, 2012).
4. Egypt has traditionally had a large public sector, employing 80% of first job seekers in the mid-1970s (UNESCO, 2012). Today, the public sector remains the largest sector employing women, hiring 50% of all women in the labour force in 2012 (OECD findings).
5. In Morocco in 2012, only 14% of women with pre-primary education participated in the labour force, compared with 47% among women with post-secondary non-tertiary education. (ILO Statistics, 2016). Likewise, in Tunisia the most important share of women in the labour force has attained tertiary education, with a rate of 38.3%, against 19.1% for males, followed by females with secondary education (30%, against 37% for males), and with primary education (19.3%, against 32.9% for males) (Tunisia national census, 2014).
6. As part of the data collection process for this report, a series of focus groups was organised. For more information concerning the methodology and participant demography of the focus groups, see Annex A.
7. In 2015, the unemployment rate of women with a tertiary education was 41% and the average female unemployment rate was 15%, according to the Tunisian National Institute of Statistics. In Morocco in 2013, the unemployment rate for women with a *niveau supérieur* (high level of education) was above 25%, whereas that for a *niveau moyen* (middle level) was 20%. Women without a diploma saw an unemployment rate of less than 5% (Haut Commissariat au Plan, *Enquête nationale sur l'emploi*). In Egypt in 2012, women with a secondary education had the

- highest unemployment rate (76%), followed by those with a tertiary education (47%), primary education (17%) or less (6%).
8. In Jordan, men are 3.4 times more likely to be engaged in early-stage entrepreneurial activity. In Morocco, the TEA rate is 6.1% for men and 2.9% for women. In Tunisia, the TEA is 15% for males and 5.3% for females. In Algeria, where men are almost twice as likely to start a business as women, the TEA is 6.4% for males and 3.3% for females. In Libya, the TEA is 14.8% for men and 7.2% for women.
 9. “Necessity” refers to a “lack of alternative opportunities for earning income”, whereas “opportunity” is characterised by “belief in the existence of profitable opportunities in the market” (OECD, 2014:60).
 10. According to World Bank Enterprise Surveys, “Female participation in ownership” refers to the presence of at least one woman among the principal owners of the business.
 11. While the value in Algeria is also low, it is from 2007 and thus cannot be easily compared with that of Tunisia from 2013.
 12. Unweighted average for 12 OECD countries (World Bank Enterprise Surveys).

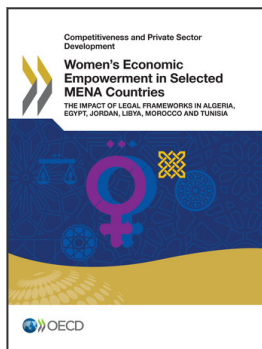
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