

# Analisa

## Journal of Social Science and Religion

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Accredited by LIPI Number: 752/AU2/P2MI-LIPI/08/2016

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*Lydia Kanelli Kyvelou Kokkaliari and Bani Sudardi*

**RESEARCH PRODUCTIVITY FACTORS IN THE GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS (STUDY IN THE OFFICE OF RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING, MINISTRY OF RELIGIOUS AFFAIRS OF INDONESIA)**

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## INTRODUCTION FROM THE EDITORIAL BOARDS

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Analisa Journal of Social Science and Religion released a new edition vol.2.no.1.2017. This is the third edition published in English since its beginning in 2016. This volume released in the mid of various activities and the hectic schedule in the office. However, this edition is published as scheduled. Many people have contributed in this edition so that publication process of the journal is managed smoothly. The month of June in which this journal on the process of publishing is a month when Muslim people around the world celebrated the Ied Fitr, therefore we would also congratulate to all Muslim fellows to have happy and blessing day on that occasion.

This volume consistently issues eight articles consisting some topics related to Analisa scopes as follows; religious education, religious life, and religious text. Those articles are written by authors from different countries including Indonesia, Australia, India, and Greece. Three articles concern on the education, one article focuses on the life of Hindu people. Furthermore, three articles discuss about text and heritage, and the last article explores on the evaluation of research management.

The volume is opened with an article written by Muhammad Ulil Absor and Iwu Utomo entitled “Pattern and Determinant of Successful School to Work Transition of Young People in Islamic Developing Countries: Evidence from Egypt, Jordan and Bangladesh.” This article talks about the effects of conservative culture to the success of school to work-transition for young generation in three different countries namely Egypt, Jordan and Bangladesh. This study found that female youth treated differently comparing to the male youth during the school-work transition. This is due to the conservative culture that affect to such treatment. Male youth received positive treatment, on the other hand female youth gained negative transitions.

The second article is about how Japanese moral education can be a model for enhancing Indonesian education especially on improving character education in schools. This paper is written by Mahfud Junaidi and Fatah Syukur based on the field study and library research. This study mentions that moral education in Japan aims to make young people adapt to the society and make them independent and competent in making decision on their own. This moral education has been applied in schools, family, community as well since these three places have interconnected each other.

The third article is written by Umi Muzayanah. It discussed about “The Role of the Islamic education subject and local tradition in strengthening nationalism of the border society. She explores more three materials of the Islamic education subject that can be used to reinforce nationalism namely tolerance, democracy, unity and harmony. Besides these three aspects, there is a local tradition called *saprahan* that plays on strengthening the nationalism of people living in the border area.

Zainal Abidin Eko and Kustini wrote an article concerning on the life of Balinese Hindu people settling in Cimahi West Java Indonesia. They lived in the society with Muslim as the majority. In this area, they have successfully adapted to the society and performed flexibility in practicing Hindu doctrine and Hindu rituals. This study is a result of their field research and documentary research.

The next article is written by Tauseef Ahmad Parray. It examines four main books on the topic of democracy and democratization in the Muslim world especially in South and South East Asian countries namely Pakistan, Bangladesh, Malaysia and Indonesia. This paper discusses deeply

on whether Islam is compatible with the democratization or not. He reviews literature written by Zoya Hasan (2007); Shiping Hua (2009); Mirjam Kunkler and Alfred Stepan (2013); and Esposito, Sonn and Voll (2016). To evaluate the data, he also uses various related books and journal articles. Thus this essay is rich in providing deep analysis.

Agus S Djamil and Mulyadi Kartenegara wrote an essay entitled “The philosophy of oceanic verses of the Qur’an and its relevance to Indonesian context”. This essay discusses the semantic and ontological aspects of 42 oceanic verses in the Qur’an. This study uses paralellistic approach in order to reveal such verses. Then the authors explore more on the implementation of such verses on the Indonesian context in which this country has large marine areas.

Lydia Kanelli Kyvelou Kokkaliari and Bani Sudardi wrote a paper called “The reflection of transitional society of mytilene at the end of the archaic period (8<sup>th</sup> – 5<sup>th</sup> century b.c.) a study on Sappho’s “Ode to Anaktoria”. This paper is about an analysis of poet written by Sappho as a critical product from the Mytilene society of Greek.

The last article is written by Saimroh. She discusses the productivity of researchers at the Office of Research and Development and Training Ministry of Religious Affairs Republic Indonesia. The result of this study depicts that subjective well-being and research competence had direct positive effect on the research productivity. Meanwhile, knowledge sharing had direct negative impact on the research productivity but knowledge sharing had indirect positive effect through the research competence on the research productivity. Research competence contributes to the highest effect on the research productivity.

We do hope you all enjoy reading the articles.

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## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

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Analisa Journal of Social Science and Religion would like to thank you to all people that have supported this publication. Analisa sincerely thank to all international editorial boards for their support and their willingness to review articles for this volume. Analisa also expresses many thanks to language advisor, editors, assistant to editors as well as all parties involved in the process of this publication. Furthermore, Analisa would also like to thank you to all authors who have submitted their articles to Analisa, so that this volume is successfully published. Special thanks go out to Prof. Koeswinarno, the director of the Office of Religious Research and Development Ministry of Religious Affairs, who has provided encouragement and paid attention to the team management of the journal so that the journal can be published right on schedule.

The Analisa Journal hopes that we would continue our cooperation for the next editions.

Semarang, July 2017  
Editor in Chief



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# PATTERN AND DETERMINANT OF SUCCESSFUL SCHOOL TO WORK TRANSITION OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN ISLAMIC DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: EVIDENCE FROM EGYPT, JORDAN AND BANGLADESH

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## ABSTRACT

*This study considers the impact of conservative cultures, by comparing the patterns and determinants of the successful school-to-work transition of young people in Egypt, Jordan and Bangladesh. This study argues that the most consistent and significant influence of successful transition among male and female youth are micro predictors compared to mezzo and macro predictors. This study found that male and female youth are treated differently during their school-to-work transition. Conservative culture has negative influences on the successful transition of female youth while a positive transition is experienced by male youth. Education is a key strategy in reducing the negative impacts of conservative culture and promoting successful school-to-work transition particularly if both male and female youth are to attain stable employment.*

**Keywords:** *Young people, School-to-work transition, equal employment opportunity, division of labour, Egypt, Jordan and Bangladesh*

## INTRODUCTION

The transition from school to work is one of the most crucial times in young people's lives as it affects the extent of their active participation in the paid workforce into the future. One of the key aspects of this transition is the successful movement into the labour market where young people become economically independent from their parents or other adults and begin to be productive and support themselves and others (Danziger and Ratner 2010: 134; Msigwa and Kipesha, 2013: 67; National Research Council and Institute of Medicine 2005: 265). The school-to-work transition can be defined as "the passage of a young person from the end of schooling to the first regular or satisfactory job" (Elder, 2009: 8). Similarly, Schoon and Silbereisen (2009:3) define school-to-work transition as spanning "the phase between completion of full-time education or training and entry into continuous full-time employment".

However, a body of literature shows that young people face many challenges when entering the labour market (Blustein and Worthington, 2000: 436; ILO, 2013: 1; National Research Council and Institute of Medicine, 2005: 265). The International Labour Organization (ILO) for instance, reported that many young people in the second decade of the twenty-first century are unemployed and less selective about the type of job they want. Indeed, increasing numbers of young adults are turning to available part-time work or finding themselves stuck in a short-term occupation or the informal sector. Moreover, many young people also receive below-average remuneration and are engaged in employment for which they are either overqualified or underqualified. Many are forced to work in exploitative environments where they experience long working hours without protection against hazards and with little or no social protection (ILO, 2008: 1). Male youth are more likely to work

for paid or family economic gain while female youth are more likely to undertake non-economic activities. Female youth who are working in the labour market, tend to work in longer hours than male youth (National Research Council and Institute of Medicine, 2005: 267).

Unemployment is one of the most common issues among the problems that youth face. Youth unemployment rates in Muslim countries, particularly in the Middle East and North Africa are among the highest in the world (ILO, 2013: 6; Naafs, 2012: 1). ILO estimated that the proportion of youth unemployment in the Middle East and North Africa in 2012, at 28.3 percent and 23.7 percent respectively, was much higher compared to the global youth unemployment rate at 12.4 percent in 2012 (ILO, 2013: 4).

Roudi-Fahimi and Moghadam (2003: 2) argued that a conservative culture is responsible for the high rate of unemployment in Muslim countries (Middle East and North Africa) since traditional gender roles are strongly enforced in such cultures. Thornton, Alwin and Camburn (1983: 223) and Vella (1994: 197) mentioned that female attitudes towards employment are influenced by religious affiliation. Vella (1994: 197) maintains that followers of Islam have significantly more traditional views on gender roles compared to Roman Catholics. In Islamic cultures, women experience lower levels of labour force participation compared to countries with similar income levels. Men are more likely to have access to waged occupations and control over wealth, while women are mostly economically dependent upon male family members. In addition, women's work options are limited to a small number of socially acceptable jobs and professions. Women also must gain permission from a male relative, usually their husband or father, before applying for a job or starting a business (Fahimi and Moghadam, 2003: 2).

This kind of gendered cultural divide is likely to influence labour-force participation as culture has a significant impact on unemployment (Brügger et al., 2009: 2). Chamlou, Muzi and

Ahmed (2011: 1) argued that women from more conservative cultures such as societies in the Middle East and North Africa are less likely to participate in the labour market. Similarly, Syed (2008: 136) argued that there are significant differences between Arab and non-Arab Muslim countries regarding female economic activity. Female economic activities in non-Arab Muslim countries, such as Bangladesh, Indonesia, and Turkey, are comparable to countries such as Australia, Canada, the USA and the UK while female economic activity in Arab Muslim countries (Egypt, Kuwait, Sudan, Saudi Arabia, Oman, Jordan, and Syria) remain extremely low.

The World Economic Forum and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) reported that women's participation in the labour force in Muslim countries in the Middle East and North Africa is very low compared to other low and middle-income countries. In 2013, about 33 percent of working-age women in Muslim countries in the Middle East and North Africa were estimated to participate in the labour market. This was much lower than other low- and middle-income countries which registered 56 percent and 61 percent (Littrell and Bertsch, 2013: 255).

This study considers the impact of cultures with high gender differentiation, by comparing the patterns and determinants of successful school-to-work transition in three developing Islamic countries: Egypt, Jordan and Bangladesh. Numerous studies exist that analyse the determinant of labour market outcomes, and particularly the determinants of job attainment (for example Liu and Noback, 2011: 641-658; Muller, 2005: 461-485; Widarti, 1998: 93-120). However, so far, there are relatively few studies conducted about the patterns and specific factors that drive successful or good transitions into the workforce for youth in Muslim communities. Job attainment alone is not enough to protect the rights of young workers since many young people are receiving below-average salaries and work in exploitative environments (ILO, 2013: 3). Therefore, job attainment should be followed

by measurements of job quality, where the labour standards are respected. Quality job attainment is often used as a measurement of successful school-to-work transition by the ILO (Elder, 2009: 7). Understanding the determinants of successful transition for youth is crucial in targeting effective policy intervention that enables a successful transition for youth in developing Islamic countries.

The comparison of these three chosen countries is useful because it examines the similarities and differences among these three countries, which all have an increase in youth educational attainment where the young people are more educated than their parents (Barsoum, Ramadan and Mostafa, 2014: 1; Barucci and Nader, 2014: 2; Littrell and Bertsch, 2013: 1). This achievement raises an important question: does an increase in educational attainment have an impact on good school-to-work transition among young adults? What are the main determinants of successful school to work transition among the youth? To answer these questions, it is important to study the determinants of successful school-to-work transition.

## **CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

### **Determinant of labour market outcomes**

This paper employs labour force participation determinants as a conceptual framework by which to analyse the determinants of successful transition from school to work. The paper employs ecological models to categorise the predictors of successful transition, including micro, mezzo, and macro systems.

Micro-level predictors refer to individual characteristics of youth that may influence their successful transition. These include educational attainment, sex, age, marital status and presence of children (Branson and Leibbrandt, 2013: 2; Bridges and Lawson, 2009: 461; Crawford et al., 1997: 255; Ling and O'Brien, 2013: 347; Schoon and Silbereisen, 2009: 3; Staff and Mortimer, 2011: 55-69). Among those predictors, educational

attainment has been given close attention by many scholars who generally conclude that there is a positive relationship between educational attainment and labour-force participation (Branson and Leibbrandt, 2013: 2; Lloyd and Mensch, 1999: 80; Mincer, 1962: 76; Sobol, 1963: 40; Lauer, 2006: 59). Lloyd and Mensch (1999: 80) for instance, argued that school attendance plays an important role in implementing a successful transition to adulthood in developing countries through the delay of marriage and pregnancy. Schools shape the development of young persons as they provide children with the human capital that affects subsequent economic opportunities as well as influencing the transition to adulthood (Grant and Furstenberg, 2007: 420). Educational attainments are also used by employers to select labour, since more educated workers can be more quickly instructed to undertake a specific occupation at a lower cost (Escudero and Mourelo, 2014: 205). In addition, the more highly educated can perform better under unsteady and changing conditions (Schultz, 1975: 830). In contrast, school drop-outs and less educated young adults are the most likely to experience insecure employment, unstable work, poor working conditions and lower earnings later in life (Danziger and Ratner, 2010: 134; ILO 2006: 2).

The presence of children a woman has is also significant predictors of labour force participation. It is often noted that the more children a woman has and the younger their age, the more likely it is that they will not successfully participate in the labour force due to their maternal role model (Widarti, 1998: 100). Marital status is also a significant predictor of labour-force participation. The lower rate of women's participation is also influenced by the tendency of employers in the formal sectors to employ young and single women (Setyonaluri, 2013: 153). Another determinant is age which is often used as a proxy for work experience (Stephens, 2010: 5).

Mezzo predictors refer to the family backgrounds of the youth that may influence in successful school-to-work transition since

they might provide financial, emotional and motivational support to improve a youth's chances for being successful in adulthood (Blustein, et al. 2000; 439; Settersten, 2005: 539). This includes social economic status and family member occupations (Ling and O'Brien, 2013: 350). Parents' working experience also might support the career development of their children (Gembeck and Mortimer, 2006: 549). Verhaeghe, Li and Putte (2012: 686) stated that family members' occupations can be the determinant of a youth's employment prospects, since an occupation opportunity might arise from the professional network of the family members (Zhang and Zhao, 2011: 2). The socio-economic status of young people can also influence their chance of getting a job. People from poor families often experience difficulties obtaining successful transition to work (Ling and O'Brien, 2013: 351).

Macro predictors refer to environments and regional characteristics such as rural and urban areas. Regional characteristics might influence the involvement of youth in the labour market (Elchort and Zeistra, 2007: 529). Urban areas, for instance, are noted for being less discriminating against females than rural areas (Bowen and Finegan, 1969: 56).

### **Gender-based analysis**

Male and female occupations differ significantly across sectors, industries, occupations, types of job, and firms. One of the causes of the differences is the influence of culture and social norms that construct specific gender roles for males and females (Razavi, 2012: 423). The construction of males and females in a community also influences what are considered appropriate and inappropriate employment opportunities (Chafetz, 2006: 34). For instance, appropriate occupations for women in traditional cultures are considered to be teaching, medical profession field and waitressing (Roudi-Fahimi and Moghadam, 2003: 3). In traditional cultures, men are perceived as the main breadwinners while women are perceived as homemakers. These perceptions have important impacts on

human capital investment and labour-market supply (Vella, 1994: 198).

A gender-based analysis of empirical data is used in this paper to analyse the difference between males and females in their transition to work. Gender analysis is also employed to investigate the impact of traditional culture on successful transition. Sex, marital status and the presence of children are used as proxies of division of labour norms that are related to attitudes towards gender roles within the culture (Chamlou et al., 2011: 1).

### **Job Satisfaction**

Educational influence is also used as a measurement to analyse the pattern of a good school-work transition based on regular and satisfactory job criteria. Education is a main determinant of job satisfaction in which job satisfaction is a measurement of successful transition. Education has a significant influence in conditioning the kinds of expectations that workers bring to labour market. Better educated people, have higher expectations regarding conditions and the rewards they can expect from their jobs. The match between workers' expectations and the conditions of work determines the satisfaction of workers (Martin and Shehan, 1989: 184).

### **RESEARCH METHOD**

This study focuses on the determinants of successful school-to-work transition for youth between the ages of 15 and 29 years. Successful school to work transition is the dependent variable. The terms 'quality work', 'good job', 'successful or good transition' are used interchangeably to describe those youth who successfully make the transition from school into the wage market. The measurement of successful transition is varied. The first measurement is taken from the first moment of employment in any job (Fares, 2005: 3). The second measurement applies to quality elements of the work such as first regular job (stable job) or satisfactory job. The third measurement is the work that best meets the basic criteria of decent work—such as participation in

a labour union, receipt of both social protection entitlements and a good salary (Elder, 2009: 8).

The second measurement of successful school-work transition above is employed in this paper in which someone who are successfully transitioned refer to someone who is currently employed in a stable job (either satisfactory or unsatisfactory) or a satisfactory job. Regular occupation or a stable job can be defined as one in which there is an unlimited contract or a contract of more than twelve months duration. This definition excludes the employment status of those who are self-employed where the employment relationship is not defined by an employment contract. The existence of contracts mostly applies to wage and salaried workers only (Elder, 2009: 8; Toufique, 2014: 32). The opposite of stable employment is temporary employment. An occupation is considered temporary if the contract is for fewer than twelve months. Satisfaction is based on the respondent's self-assessment which is related to his/her desired career path at that time (Elder, 2009: 9).

To avoid respondents' bias, the respondents are selected from the youth who had completed their education and excluded of those youth still in education. For the purpose of analysis, the transition status of each selected respondent is then assigned by a binary dependent variable. This study takes a value of one if the individual has transitioned and zero if the individual is employed but not transitioned yet, unemployed, or inactive. The unemployed and inactive youths are pooled together with employed youth who have not transitioned yet because, in the case of young people in the labour market, their situations are often very similar. Clark and Summers (1982: 200) argued that young people have a high degree of turnover and the transitions from unemployment to employment are not much higher than those from inactivity to employment. Moreover, Pastore (2005: 4) argued that the classification between unemployment and inactivity (excluding school) often causes dramatic classification errors since the differences between unemployment and inactivity are weak. Based on this argument,

inactive and unemployed youth are combined with employed youth who have not transitioned yet into one group.

To analyse the dichotomous outcome variable, the researcher employs a logistic regression method in the analysis. The model assumes that the youth have two conditions: transitioned or not yet transitioned. The probability of their situation depends on the factors influencing their transition which are grouped into three groups including micro, mezzo, and macro predictors (see the details of the independent variable in Appendix 1).

The analysis in this study is based mainly on secondary data including the School to Work Transition Survey (SWTS), which is a household survey of young people aged 15 to 29 years that was conducted by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) in 28 developing countries in 2012 and 2013. The sample size was 9,125 respondents (4,175 males and 5,022 female) in Bangladesh; 5,198 respondents (3,132 males and 2,066 females) in Egypt and 5,405 people (2,913 males and 2,492 females) in Jordan (2012-2013 SWTS in Egypt, Bangladesh, and Jordan). However, since this research is interested in predicting the impact of education on successful transition, the researcher has limited the sample size to the youth who have completed their education: 6,730 young people (2,931 males and 3,799 females) in Bangladesh; 3,726 young people (2,333 males and 1,393 females) in Egypt; and 3,114 people (1,744 males and 1,370 females) in Jordan (see Appendix 1 for further details).

## RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The result of logistic regression modelling the determinants of successful school-to-work transition for all male and female youth at the age of 15 to 29 years old in Bangladesh, Egypt, and Jordan are presented in Table 1. The model as a whole suggests that the influence of education, age, sex, having children, marital status, social economic status, father's/mother's occupation, and geographical characteristics on the successful transition to work is significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) for young

adults in Bangladesh, Egypt, and Jordan. From Table 1 we can see that generally micro predictors play more significant roles in determining successful school-to-work transitions among the youth compared to mezzo and macro predictors. Each predictor (except the 'having children' predictor in Egypt) has a significant influence determining successful transition for youth. In mezzo predictors, socio-economic status shows a significant association, but the father's/mother's occupation generally shows an insignificant association while at the macro level, living in urban areas in Bangladesh has a strong association with successful transition,

but it appears to be an insignificant association in Jordan and Egypt.

### Micro predictors

Turning to the effect of each independent variable, the impact of age in determining successful transition to good work is definitely significant in all countries for both male and females (Table 1). Table 1 describes the probability of obtaining good work is increased as people get older. In Jordan, it is estimated that each additional year of age is associated with an 18 percent significant increase in the ability to get a

**Table 1.** The Odds Ratios of Determinants of Successful Transition by Sex and Country (N=6,730 in Bangladesh; N= 3,726 in Egypt, and N= 3,114 in Jordan)

Variable	Bangladesh			Egypt			Jordan		
	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All
<b>Age</b>	<b>1.073</b>	<b>1.058</b>	<b>1.071</b>	<b>1.093</b>	<b>1.091</b>	<b>1.110</b>	<b>1.178</b>	<b>1.206</b>	<b>1.180</b>
<b>Education attainment</b>									
Non or less than primary	<b>1.352</b>	<b>1.743</b>	<b>1.571</b>	<b>1.828</b>	0.654	<b>1.431</b>	<b>0.308</b>	empty	<b>0.269</b>
Primary	<b>1.339</b>	<b>1.411</b>	<b>1.415</b>	<b>2.246</b>	0.853	<b>1.827</b>	<b>0.440</b>	0.358	<b>0.407</b>
Junior Secondary/Preparatory program	1.233	1.049	1.132	<b>2.090</b>	0.507	<b>1.369</b>	<b>0.509</b>	0.352	<b>0.448</b>
Senior Secondary/Secondary Academic	Ref	Ref	Ref	1.179	0.225	0.941	<b>0.507</b>	0.346	<b>0.426</b>
Secondary Vocation				Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref
Tertiary	0.809	<b>4.864</b>	<b>2.073</b>	<b>0.713</b>	<b>1.667</b>	0.986	<b>0.484</b>	1.886	0.882
<b>Marital Status</b>									
Single	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref
Married	<b>1.451</b>	<b>0.329</b>	<b>0.853</b>	1.158	<b>0.305</b>	0.698	<b>2.759</b>	<b>0.444</b>	1.001
<b>Have child</b>									
No				Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	ref
Yes				1.266	0.787	1.040	0.425	0.550	<b>0.489</b>
<b>Sex</b>									
Male			ref			ref			Ref
Female			<b>0.080</b>			<b>0.147</b>			<b>0.086</b>
<b>Social Economic Status</b>									
Well off	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref
Fairly well off	1.101	<b>1.831</b>	<b>1.336</b>	0.741	0.751	0.752	0.857	0.674	0.819
Around the national average	0.922	<b>1.865</b>	1.236	0.607	0.476	<b>0.553</b>	0.783	0.715	0.787
Fairly poor	0.871	<b>1.597</b>	1.134	0.539	0.511	<b>0.532</b>	<b>0.273</b>	<b>0.417</b>	<b>0.338</b>
Poor		6.106	6.507	<b>0.212</b>	0.322	<b>0.237</b>	<b>0.257</b>	0.292	<b>0.290</b>
<b>Father occupation (Mother occupation in Jordan)</b>									
Managers	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref
Professionals	0.796	0.567	0.713	<b>1.659</b>	1.160	<b>1.518</b>	0.730	1.128	1.216
Technicians and associate professionals	2.846	0.424	1.330	1.333	1.239	1.343	0.752	1.603	1.439
Clerical support workers	0.891	0.379	0.769	1.808	0.497	1.422	1.532	1.261	1.748
Service and sales workers	1.427	0.846	1.181	<b>1.841</b>	1.101	<b>1.624</b>	0.710	1.745	1.117
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers	1.175	0.758	1.045	1.281	0.953	1.201	2.086	12.468	4.256
Craft and related trades workers	1.888	0.955	1.502	<b>1.991</b>	1.743	<b>1.925</b>	1.515	Empty	0.976
Plant and machine operators, and assemblers	1.814	0.756	1.332	1.383	1.074	1.326			
Elementary occupations	1.065	1.062	1.126	1.433	1.259	<b>1.382</b>	1.264	1.190	1.478
Armed forces occupations	2.294	Empty	1.058						
Don't Work/Other	1.663	0.897	1.330				1.311	0.836	1.417
<b>Residence</b>									
Rural	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref
Urban	0.954	<b>1.501</b>	<b>1.176</b>	0.957	1.021	0.969	<b>0.692</b>	1.295	0.836

Note: Bold letter = p<.05

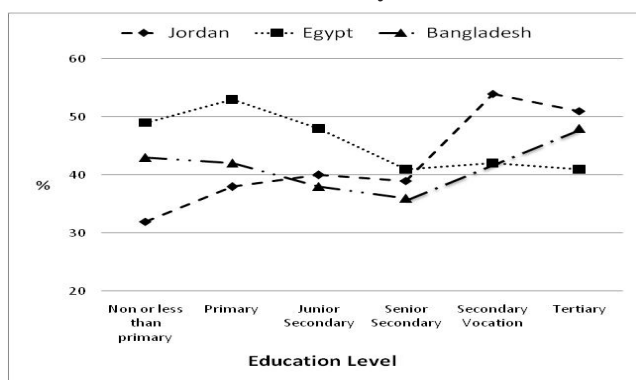
Source: Calculated from 2012–2013 SWTS in Bangladesh, Jordan and Egypt

good occupation compared to Egypt at 11 percent and Bangladesh at 7 percent (Table 1).

This finding is similar to previous studies that conclude that age has positive associations with job attainment (Widarti, 1998: 93). Based on this similarity, the author assumes that the pattern of the influence of age on successful school-to-work transition among youth can also be predicted using the job attainment measurement pattern.

In addition, the estimated model of successful transition determinants clearly shows that educational level has different influences for youth workers in Bangladesh, Egypt, and Jordan. Table 1 shows that the level of education does not appear to be significantly related to determining a successful transition of youth from school to work in Egypt. Figure 1 describes that the probability for being successful in school-to-work transition is higher for youth who have no education or less than primary education compared to youth who finish higher education. The pattern of educational influence in Egypt shows that the more educated the youth the less likely they are to have transited successfully. The exception is those who completed primary education. The highest probability for having a successful transition is the youth who have completed primary education at around 53 percent and the lowest probability is those youth with tertiary and senior secondary education at 41 percent.

**Figure 1.** The Predicted Probabilities of Being Transited to Good Work by Education Level



Source: Calculated from 2012–2013 SWTS in Bangladesh, Jordan, and Egypt

Similarly, the effect of educational level on successful school-to-work transition in Bangladesh remains about the same as in Egypt. There is a pattern in which the more educated the youth, except for the youth who completed tertiary education, the less likely they are to have successful transition. The logistic regression estimates that the youth having senior secondary education (reference group) have significantly lower odds of attaining successful transition compared to those with lower educational levels. However, the youth with tertiary education are significantly more likely to have successful transition compared to those who completed senior secondary education (Table 1), as nearly 100 percent of those with tertiary education transitioned successfully.

The limited influence of educational levels on successful school-to-work transition in Egypt and Bangladesh appears to contradict previous research that found a positive association between education and labour-market participation (for instance Cameron et al., 2001: 459; Evans et al., 1993: 25). This finding implies that the increase in labour market participation and job attainment because of educational attainment is not always followed by the attainment of a quality job. Those young workers who are not successfully transited might work in exploitative working conditions or they may just work in jobs that they find unsatisfactory. As maintained by the ILO, job attainment on its own is not enough as many young people are forced to work in exploitative environments and conditions such as long working hours with little or no social protection (ILO, 2008: 5; ILO, 2013: 1). Based on this argument, the researcher argues that good transition cannot be measured by job attainment per se.

In contrast with Bangladesh and Egypt, in Jordan the pattern of educational effects has positive associations with successful transition from school to work, in which the more educated the youth the more likely they are to transit into good work—particularly for those youth with vocational secondary or tertiary education. The

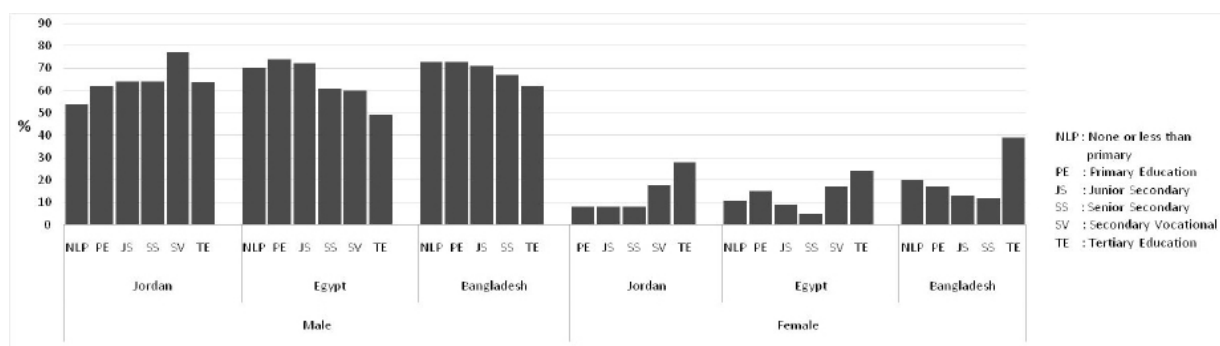
logistic equation shows that there is a significant difference between the youth with vocational secondary education compared to those having a lower educational level in which the less educated the youth the less significantly they make a successful transition. The youth with general senior secondary and junior secondary education for instance have significantly lower odds of making a successful transition by around 58 percent and 55 percent respectively compared to those with secondary vocational educational levels (Table 1).

When comparing general senior secondary and vocational secondary education, this study finds the influence is varied across the countries in the study. In Egypt, a good transition is recorded for those who leave school-based vocational training. Those from general upper secondary level are similar in that there is no significant difference between them. In Jordan, however, youth with general secondary education are significantly

less likely, by about 58 percent, to make a good transition from school to work compared with those who have achieved a secondary vocational educational level.

Based on this comparison, attaining a secondary vocational education is more influential than getting an upper general secondary level. However, it does not mean that upper general secondary education is not important as those two types of education have different orientations. Vocational secondary education is designed for a relatively early entry into the labour market while senior general secondary is mostly a preparation for further education. It can be assumed that the youth having general secondary education might not yet have reached the stage where they are ready for transition since they still have some further study to complete. However, the author emphasises the importance of learning per se for successful labour-force participation since

**Figure 2.** The Predicted Probabilities of Successful Transition by Educational Attainment and Sex



Source: Calculated from 2012–2013 SWTS in Bangladesh, Jordan and Egypt

the impact of those two types of education are similar, particularly in Egypt. The youth might be encouraged to choose the best educational route based on their needs and orientation.

Interestingly, when the model of equation based on sex is taken into account, this study finds gender disparities between male and female youth. The predicted probabilities estimate that the highest determinant of successful transition of female youth is completing tertiary education in all sample countries and secondary vocation is the second highest determinant (see Figure

2). The logistic regression equation also shows a significant difference of odd ratios between female youth with tertiary education and senior or vocational secondary education. The female with tertiary education has significantly higher odds of making a successful transition at around 400 percent in Bangladesh and 66 percent in Egypt than the female youth who has secondary education (Table 1). However, those percentages are far lower than the probability for male youth with tertiary education, even though they are among the lowest rates of being successfully transitioned as can be seen in Figure 2.

Surprisingly, tertiary education among male youth generally does not have a crucial influence as those with tertiary education have the lowest chance of obtaining stable or satisfactory jobs compared to the youth with lower education in all sample countries. This pattern implies that generally the educational level does not significantly impact on improving the chances of male youth to successfully make the school-to-work transition in all sample countries.

The limited influence of education successful school-to-work transition as explained above might be caused by some reasons. The first reason is that the more educated the youth the less time they have spent in the labour market to find an occupation as they have left school much later than the less educated, who leave school early and therefore have more time to find work and develop their careers (National Research Council and Institute of Medicine, 2005: 265).

The second reason is that many low-educated youth come from poor families. They might not afford to be able to be unemployed or inactive, which, in turn forces them into work compared to those who come from middle- and upper-class families and have secondary or tertiary education and can afford to spend a longer amount of time in the search for a better or satisfactory job. This argument is supported by an ethnographic study conducted in rural Bangladesh that concluded that educational levels are irrelevant for poor boys and girls to make a successful school-to-work transition since the labour market might not provide an appropriate occupation for educated youth. Education, to some extent, has negative

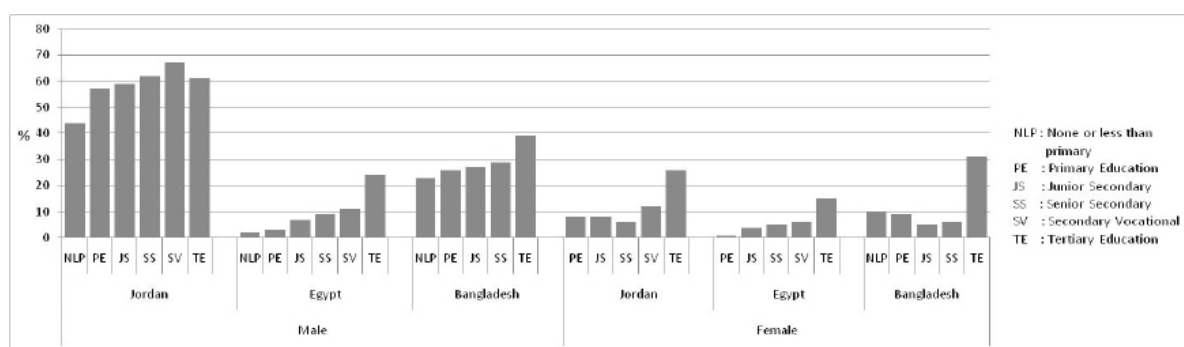
consequences such as educated female youth might have difficulties in finding suitable grooms and educated male youth might not wish to take on the only available work at the local market which is often categorised as low-status work. For the educated male youth, it would be a social burden to do such job (Heissler, 2011: 729).

The third explanation of the limited influence of educational attainment on successful school-to-work transition is found by distinguishing the type of work transition into regular jobs, and transition into satisfactory jobs. The pattern of educational influence on successful transition is very different when comparing regular and satisfactory job categories, as shown further below.

Looking in the first instance at the impact of education on attaining a regular job, Figure 3 shows that there is generally a positive relationship between education and transition, where the more educated the youth the more likely they are to become wage and salaried workers in all sample countries.

The effect of education on stable job attainment is consistent with findings from prior research on the influence of education on job attainment (for instance Branson and Leibbrandt, 2013: 2). Higher education has positive effects in providing better access to “interesting jobs”. This finding confirms the human capital theory developed by Schultz (1975: 830) and Becker (1964: 10). Both Schultz and Becker argued that job prospects, economic growth and development can be achieved through education since education provides workers with knowledge and skills.

**Figure 3.** Predicted Probabilities of Education Influence on Regular Job Attainment



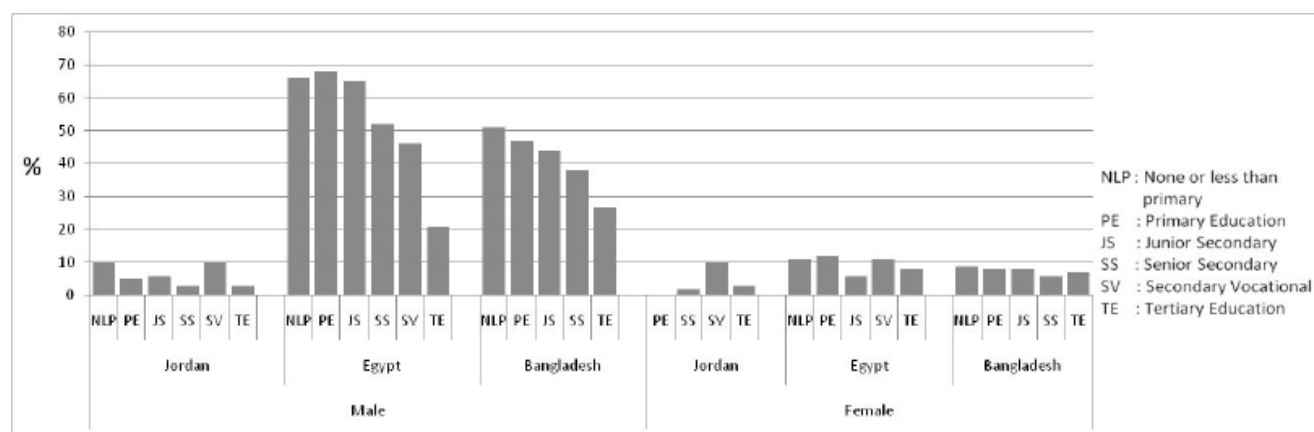
Source: Calculated from 2012–2013 SWTS in Bangladesh, Jordan and Egypt

The significant effect of education on successful transition to a stable job can also be explained by comparing the type of work undertaken by youth, since some of the occupations need high-skill qualifications. For instance, managers, professionals, technicians and associate professionals are categorised as high-skill non-manual occupations. These occupations are mostly open to those youth who have attained a tertiary education. In contrast elementary occupations are categorised as unskilled occupations which are open to youth with primary education (Quintini, 2011: 4).

The occupations that require high qualifications, such as managers, professionals,

technicians and associate professionals are mostly occupied by those youth who had completed tertiary education in all sample countries. In contrast, low-skilled and unskilled occupations such as agriculture, forestry and fishery workers; service and sales workers; and elementary occupations are mostly occupied by those with no education or less than primary education (appendix 3). This influence seems to be similar to the pattern in developed countries in Europe. It is noted in Europe that the higher the level of education attained, the higher the probability of obtaining a professional job and the higher the probability of having a full-time contract (Müller and Gangl, 2003: 461).

**Figure 4.** Predicted Probabilities of Education Influence on Satisfactory Job Attainment.



Source: Calculated from 2012–2013 SWTS in Bangladesh, Jordan and Egypt

Having considered the transition to stable employment, the analysis will now move to the category of satisfactory employment. In contrast to stable job attainment, when the equation is specified to test the work transition into a satisfactory job, educational levels do not appear to be significantly related to a successful transition. This is demonstrated in Figure 4.

Figure 4 generally shows that the more educated the youth the less likely they are to be satisfied with their work. In Bangladesh, for instance, male youth with tertiary education have significantly reduced their odds of attaining satisfactory work by around 42 percent, although these odds increase significantly for those who completed below senior secondary education

to about 29 percent, 49 percent and 70 percent subsequently compared to those youth with senior secondary education. The effect of educational levels on job satisfaction remains about the same in Jordan and Egypt (Appendix 2).

The logistic regression equation (Appendix 2) explains that education has a strong positive influence on stable job attainment, but for jobs outside the regular sphere, such as satisfactory self-employed and temporary jobs, it might mean that some youth are overqualified in terms of their education. As a result, the more educated the young person is, the less satisfied they will be with their work.

This finding confirms the theory of job satisfaction that insists that education is a major

determinant in job satisfaction. Education plays a significant part in determining the kinds of expectations that workers bring to the labour market. Better educated people, have high expectations regarding their job conditions and the rewards they expect to receive from their jobs. The match between workers' expectations and the conditions of work determines the satisfaction of workers (Martin and Shehan, 1989: 184). Self-employment and temporary jobs clearly do not match with the expectation of those youth who have achieved a higher education. As a result, the more educated the youth the less likely he/she is to be satisfied with his/her job. This in turn influences the overall rate of educational influence on successful school-to-work transition.

### **Gender and Transitions**

Traditional gender roles also determine how successful the school-to-work transition is. To measure traditional gender roles, the researcher used the sex, marital status and having children variables as proxy for the division of labour norms that are related to attitudes toward gender roles. The first variable is sex. The sex of the youth is definitely a significant predictor of successful transition. In the sample countries, male youth are significantly more likely to transit to regular and satisfactory jobs than female youth. At around 92 percent female youth are significantly less likely to have successful transitions compared to male youth in Bangladesh and Jordan. Similarly, female youth have significant lower odds (at around 85%) of gaining regular or satisfactory jobs relative to male youth in Egypt (Table 1). The higher participation of females in the labour force in non-Arab countries, particularly in Bangladesh (as reported by UNDP) seems not to appear to significantly close the gap with male youth, who are significantly more likely to make a successful transition (Fukuda-Parr et al., 2004: 9).

This finding reflects the strong influence of traditional gender roles in Muslim countries where males are considered to be the breadwinners within a household. In Jordan, for instance, traditional attitudes are often codified in laws

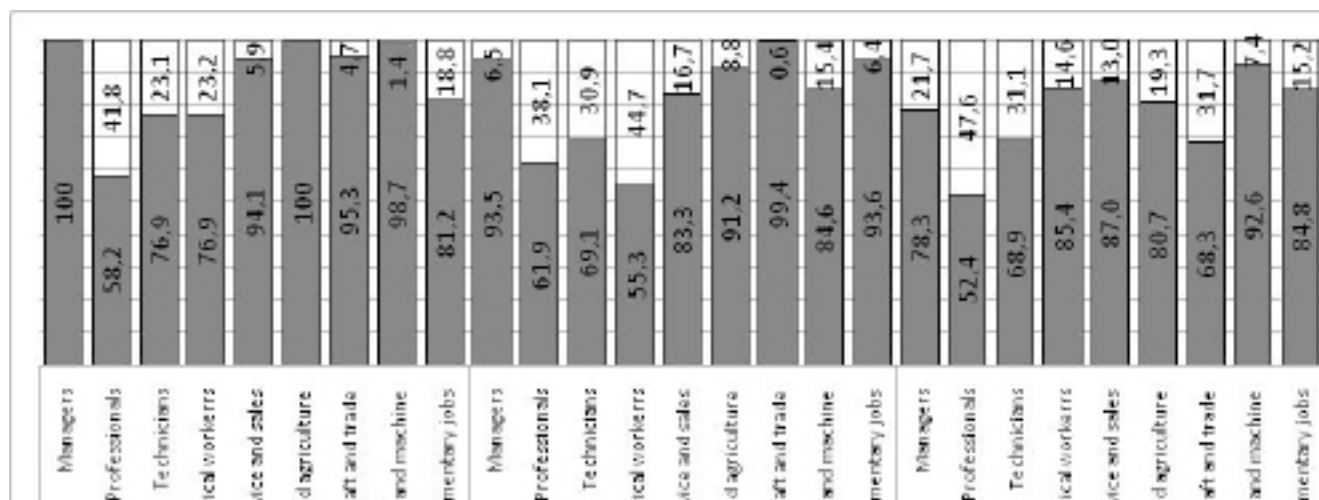
explicitly or implicitly requiring husbands or male relatives to give permission for women to work. As a result, women in Muslim communities are often less likely to participate in the labour force and make successful school-work transitions (Chamlou et al., 2011: 1). The strong influence of culture is also shown in Bangladesh where female youth are generally restricted to their houses after puberty (National Research Council and Institute of Medicine, 2005: 266).

This finding also reflects gender inequalities in the labour force in Muslim societies. The inequalities can be seen on the proportion of occupations of transitioned male and female workers. Figure 5 shows the unequal proportions in occupations between male and female youth in the sample countries. Male youth have significantly higher proportions of work in each type of occupation compared to female youth—particularly in the occupations which need high skills such as managers, professionals and technicians. The relatively better distribution of youth employment is in Bangladesh which it is noted by the UNDP as having better female labour participation compared to Muslim societies in Arab countries.

The second variable used as a proxy for gender roles is the marital status of the youth. Table 1 clearly shows that there is a different impact of marital status on the successful school-to-work transition of female and male youth. The estimation result based on logistic regression shows that being married significantly reduces the chance of successful transition for female youth—by 67 percent in Bangladesh; 70 percent in Egypt and 58 percent in Jordan—compared with single female youth. In other words, being married is significantly and negatively associated with the probability of successful transition. Yet, being married significantly increases the probability for male youth to get good work by 45 percent in Bangladesh, 172 percent in Jordan and 16 percent in Egypt compared with single male youth (Table 1).

This finding confirms previous research

**Figure 5.** The Proportion of Youth Occupation Type by Sex and Country



Source: Calculated from 2012–2013 SWTS in Bangladesh, Jordan and Egypt

findings that married women have low rates of labour participation due to domestic responsibilities (Chamlou et al., 2011: 1; Utomo et al., 2014: 1189). This finding reflects the traditional division of labour within households where husbands work in the market sectors as the main income earners while wives are domestic workers. For women, this strong negative relationship between being married and having a successful school-to-work transition reflects the strong influence of traditional gender roles in Muslim communities.

The third variable as a proxy for gender roles is the presence of children. The impact of having children on the possibility of gaining good work is also different among countries. Those youth with children in Jordan have significantly lower odds of working in good occupations, at around 51 percent compared to those who do not have children. By comparison, there is no significant relationship shown in Egypt. The finding in Jordan confirms the previous research (such as Vella, 1994: 198; Vlasblom and Schipper, 2004: 375) who found that the presence of young children in the household reduces the level of labour market participation. When the segregation between males and females is taken into account, the logistic regression estimates that there is no significant difference between male and female who have children and those youth who do not have children (Table 1).

#### *Mezzo and macro influences on transition – socio-economic status, father’s or mother’s occupation and geographical areas*

The impact of social economic status on good work attainment is different between the Arab Islamic countries (Jordan and Egypt) and the non-Arab country (Bangladesh). Low socio-economic status clearly reduces the probability of attaining a good job in Arab Muslim countries. The higher the economic status of a young adult’s family, the more likely it is that he/she will get good work in Jordan and Egypt. The logistic regression equation also shows that youth from poor and fairly poor family backgrounds have significantly reduced the odds of gaining good jobs by 76 percent and 37 percent respectively in Egypt, as well as 71 percent and 67 percent in Jordan compared to those youth who come from rich families as a reference category (Table 1).

In contrast, the poorer the youth in Bangladesh the more likely they are to get good jobs. However, the logistic regression equation shows that there is no significant difference between the youth from rich families and other socio-economic statuses for gaining good work in Bangladesh. The youth from fairly well off families are significantly more likely to work in good conditions compared to the youth from rich families (Table 1).

Another predictor of good school-work transition is the father's (Egypt and Bangladesh) or mother's occupation (Jordan). The pattern of the parents' occupation impact on the possibility of gaining good work remains about the same across the sample countries. The youth whose fathers work as managers are less likely to complete the transition to good work in comparison to other occupations. Interestingly, although the odds ratios is insignificant, the youth whose fathers are jobless or in another category are more likely to get a good job by 33 percent compared to youth whose fathers work as managers in Bangladesh (Table 1).

The last determinant of good transition is geographical area. Elchort and Zeistra (2007: 529) argued that geographical characteristics often influence the labour market decision made by the individual. The division of geographical characteristic into rural and urban areas have different influences for the sampled countries. The youth who live in urban areas in Bangladesh are significantly more likely to complete the transition by 18 percent compared to those who live in rural areas. Yet, young people who live in urban areas in Arab Muslim countries (Egypt and Jordan) are less likely to have a successful transition compared to those who live in rural areas. However, the difference between rural and urban areas is insignificant as shown in Table 1.

When the sex separation equation is taken into account with macro predictors, there are different effects between male and female youth. The male youth who live in urban areas are less likely to get good work compared to males in rural areas. Male youth in Egypt who are living in urban areas, for instance, have significantly less likelihood of obtaining good work by 32 percent compared to male youth who live in rural areas. In contrast, female youth living in urban areas are more likely to complete transition to good work in all sample countries. Female youth who live in urban areas in Bangladesh, for instance, are significantly more likely by 50 percent to get good jobs (Table 1).

One of the explanations for this pattern might be explained by the fact that urban areas have more moderate cultural values compared to rural areas. Urban areas tend to have less conservative cultural influences which allow for broader opportunity for female youth to work. Another explanation is that urban metropolitan areas are characterised by a relative abundance of female-related occupations, such as in education, government and health care. Higher female participation in the workforce is expected in those sectors (Bowen and Finegan, 1969: 56).

## **CONCLUSION AND POLICY IMPLICATION**

The aim of this paper is to obtain insight into the determinants of successful school-to-work transition of young adults in Islamic developing countries. Using the 2012–2013 Bangladesh, Egypt, and Jordan School to Work Transition Surveys, the researcher models successful transition measured by stable or satisfactory jobs and found that there are significant similar patterns of the determinants of successful school-to-work transitions in all sample countries as some determinants are common to most, if not all. Micro predictors appear to be the most significant determinants of successful transition compared to mezzo and macro predictors. Each predictor of micro predictors (except the 'having children' predictor) has a significant influence on successful school to work transition.

Surprisingly, the role of education appears to be limited in Egypt and Bangladesh particularly for male youth. The cause of limited education influence is found by distinguishing the type of work transition into regular jobs, and transition into satisfactory jobs. Education has a strong positive relationship to stable job attainment since the more educated the youth the more likely they are to get a stable job. The strong positive influence of education on the successful transition to stable jobs confirms human capital theory as the main theoretical framework of school-to-work transition. In contrast, education does not seem to have a significant influence on

getting a satisfactory job since the more educated the youth the less likely they are to be satisfied with their work. This finding confirms the theory of job satisfaction that insists that education is the main determinant of job satisfaction. Education has a significant influence in conditioning the kinds of expectations that workers bring to labour market. The better educated the people, the higher their expectations are of job conditions and they expect greater rewards from their jobs. The match between workers' expectations and the conditions of work determine the satisfaction of workers.

Attaining a secondary vocational education is more influential than getting an upper general secondary level. Vocational secondary education is designed for a relatively early entry into the labour market while senior general secondary is mostly a preparation for further education. It can be assumed that the youth having general secondary education might not yet have reached the stage where they are ready for transition since they still have some further study to complete.

Traditional attitudes measured by sex, marital status and the presence of children variables indicate that traditional culture plays an important role in successful transition for youth. Traditional cultures influence the pattern of school-to-work transition between males and females differently. For female youth, married female youth and those female youth with children there are significant negative impacts on successful transition. In contrast to female youth, for male youth, married male youth and male youth with children there are significant positive impacts on successful transition. This pattern reflects the strong influence of traditional gender roles in Islamic developing countries through the division of labour conduit in which the male is the main breadwinner. In this context, traditional culture tends to be a barrier to successful transition for female youth.

At the mezzo predictor levels, in contrast to findings from previous research, parents' occupations generally do not appear to have a significant influence on successful transition.

The influence of socio-economic status differs among the sample countries. The higher the economic status of a young adult's family, the more likely he/she is to get good work in Arab Muslim countries. In contrast, the higher the economic status of a young adult's family in a non-Arab Muslim country, the less likely he/she is to successful transit.

Geographical areas appear not significant in influencing successful transition. The impact of geographical areas is different for male and female youth. The male youth who live in urban areas are less likely to get good work compared to males in rural areas, while female youth who live in urban areas are more likely to complete the transition to good work in all sample countries. Less conservative cultural attitudes in urban and metropolitan areas coupled with a relative abundance of female-related occupations, such as those in education and health care, might explain the differences.

To improve successful school-to-work transition among youth in Islamic developing countries, this research clearly continues to highlight the need to focus on improving attendance at tertiary and senior secondary education—in particular secondary vocational training. Improving those two types of education for young people (particularly female youth) would be the most effective strategy for improving successful school-to-work transition, particularly into a stable job, in Islamic developing countries.

The strong negative influence of traditional culture raises a need to improve awareness raising and campaigns relating to gender equality in the work environment. Awareness raising and campaign activities might be conducted by introducing more moderate Islamic interpretations on the division of labour between male and female. Ignoring these recommendations will not only hamper the successful transition of

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Pattern and Determinant of Successful School to Work Transition of Young People  
in Islamic Developing Countries: Evidence from Egypt, Jordan and Bangladesh  
Muh.Ulil Absor and Iwu Utomo

Appendix 1. Descriptive Statistics of Youth

Variable	Bangladesh						Egypt						Jordan					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n
<b>Dependent Variables</b>																		
<b>Economic activity (Logistic Regression)</b>																		
Employed	83.4	2,444	18.1	689	46.6	3,133	87.7	2,046	26.7	372	64.9	2,418	74.9	1,307	18.6	255	50.2	1,562
Successfully Transited Youth (1)	85.47	2,089	86.7	597	85.7	2,686	69.8	1,427	65.1	242	69.0	1,669	84.3	1,102	87.1	222	84.8	1,324
Not yet transited (0)	14.5	355	13.4	92	14.3	447	30.3	619	35.0	130	31.0	749	15.7	205	12.9	33	15.2	238
Unemployed (0)	5.1	148	3.8	144	4.3	292	6.3	148	17.4	242	10.5	390	16.9	294	14.1	193	15.6	487
Inactive (exclude in education) (0)	11.6	339	78.1	2,966	49.1	3,305	6.0	139	55.9	779	24.6	918	8.2	143	67.3	922	34.2	1,065
<b>Type of Jobs (Multinomial Regression)</b>																		
Satisfactory regular job	31.2	651	45.7	273	34.4	924	18.2	259	42.6	103	21.7	362	51.5	568	51.4	114	51.5	682
Non-Satisfactory regular job	6.0	126	5.9	35	6.0	161	1.7	24	2.9	7	1.9	31	41.3	455	42.3	94	41.5	549
Satisfactory temporary job	23.6	493	32.0	191	25.5	684	66.5	949	49.6	120	64.1	1,069	1.7	19	5.9	13	2.4	32
Satisfactory Self-employment	39.2	819	16.4	98	34.1	917	13.7	195	5.0	12	12.4	207	5.4	60	0.5	1	4.6	61
<b>Independent Variables</b>																		
Age		21.71		21.63			22.9		21.1				20.9		20.9			
<b>Education attainment</b>																		
Non or less than primary	19.1	561	15.9	603	17.3	1,164	16.6	388	17.4	243	16.9	631	3.3	58	2.6	36	3.0	94
Primary	35.9	1,051	27.6	1,049	31.2	2,100	12.7	297	9.5	132	11.5	429	50.4	879	42.6	584	47.0	1,463
Junior Secondary	22.7	664	26.8	1,019	25.0	1,683	7.8	181	10.4	145	8.8	326	4.9	85	4.5	61	4.7	146
Senior Secondary (Reference in Bangladesh)	19.5	570	27.3	1,037	23.9	1,607	2.1	48	1.8	25	2.0	73	12.2	212	16.1	220	13.9	432
Secondary Vocation (Reference in Egypt and Jordan)							40.5	945	36.8	512	39.1	1,457	6.4	111	1.2	17	4.1	128
Tertiary	2.9	85	2.4	91	2.6	176	20.3	474	24.1	336	21.7	810	22.9	399	33.0	452	27.3	851
<b>Marital Status</b>																		
Single (Reference group)	53.8	1,576	14.6	555	31.7	2,131	79.0	1,843	58.7	817	71.4	2,660	88.1	1,537	56.0	767	74.0	2,304
Married	46.2	1,355	85.4	3,244	68.3	4,599	21.0	490	41.4	576	28.6	1,066	11.9	207	44.0	603	26.0	810
<b>Sex</b>																		
	43.6	2,931	56.5	3,799	100	6,730	62.6	2,333	37.4	1,393	100	3,726	56.0	1,744	44.0	1,370	100	3,114
<b>Have child</b>																		
No (Reference group)							82.9	2	65.8	916	76.5	2,851	90.7	1,582	61.0	835	77.6	2,417
Yes							17.1	398	34.2	477	23.5	875	9.3	162	39.1	535	22.4	697
<b>Social Economic Status</b>																		
Well off (Reference group)	10.0	293	11.6	440	10.9	733	2.3	54	2.2	30	2.3	84	11.0	191	12.1	166	11.5	357
Fairly well off	45.7	1,338	46.3	1,759	46.0	3,097	14.7	344	15.5	216	15.0	560	22.1	385	25.4	348	23.5	733
Araound the national average	23.7	695	21.4	813	22.4	1,508	59.1	1,378	59.4	827	59.2	2,205	54.2	946	50.6	693	52.6	1,639
Fairly poor	20.6	605	20.7	785	20.7	1,390	21.9	511	21.4	298	21.7	809	10.9	190	10.7	147	10.8	337
Poor			0.1	2	0.0	2	2.0	46	1.6	22	1.83	68	1.8	32	1.2	16	1.5	48
<b>Father occupation (Mother's occupation in Jordan)</b>																		
Managers (Reference group)	0.9	27	0.9	35	0.9	62	10.5	246	10.5	146	10.5	392	0.57	10	0.36	5	0.48	15
Professionals	1.8	52	2.4	92	2.1	144	5.9	137	6.3	87	6.0	224	5.56	97	6.5	89	5.97	186
Technicians and associate professionals	1.1	31	0.8	32	0.9	63	6.8	158	7.4	103	7.0	261	0.92	16	1.24	17	1.06	33
Clerical support workers	1.2	34	1.0	37	1.1	71	1.8	43	1.2	17	1.6	60	1.09	19	1.17	16	1.12	35
Service and sales workers	13.5	397	14.3	544	14.0	941	6.0	140	5.2	72	5.7	212	1.72	30	2.26	31	1.96	61
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers	52.1	1,528	55.5	2,107	54.0	3,635	32.8	764	34.3	478	33.3	1,242	0.46	8	0.15	2	0.32	10
Craft and related trades workers	9.3	273	8.4	319	8.8	592	14.6	341	13.2	184	14.1	525	0.4	7	0.36	5	0.39	12
Plant and machine operators, and assemblers	3.6	105	3.0	115	3.3	220	9.7	226	9.9	138	9.8	364						
Elementary occupations	9.0	264	7.4	282	8.1	546	11.9	278	12.1	168	12.0	446	2.12	37	1.53	21	1.86	58
Armed forces occupations	0.2	6	0.1	5	0.2	11												
Don't Work/Other	7.3	214	6.1	231	6.6	445							76.05	1,520	86.42	1,184	86.83	2,704
<b>Residence</b>																		
Rural (Reference group)	55.5	1,628	53.8	2,045	54.6	3,673	62.2	1,452	61.7	859	62.0	2,311	18.4	320	17.5	239	18.0	559
Urban	44.5	1,303	46.2	1,754	45.4	3,057	37.8	881	38.3	534	38.0	1,415	81.7	1,424	82.6	1,131	82.1	2,555

Source: Calculated from 2012 - 2013 SWTS in Bangladesh, Jordan and Egypt

**Appendix 2:** The Odds Ratios of Determinants of Successful School-Work Transition by Type of Good Transition Measurement (N=6,730 in Bangladesh; N= 3,726 in Egypt and N= 3,114 in Jordan)

Variable	Bangladesh				Egypt				Jordan			
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female	
	RJ	SJ	RJ	SJ	RJ	SJ	RJ	SJ	RJ	SJ	RJ	SJ
<b>Age</b>	0.980	<b>1.079</b>	<b>1.045</b>	<b>1.057</b>	<b>1.205</b>	<b>1.047</b>	<b>1.252</b>	1.011	<b>1.140</b>	<b>1.122</b>	<b>1.206</b>	1.125
<b>Education attainment</b>												
Non or less than primary	<b>0.696</b>	<b>1.701</b>	<b>1.721</b>	<b>1.568</b>	<b>0.129</b>	<b>2.290</b>	empty	1.028	<b>0.351</b>	1.051	empty	empty
Primary	0.818	<b>1.489</b>	1.383	1.343	<b>0.268</b>	<b>2.536</b>	0.157	1.103	<b>0.622</b>	<b>0.438</b>	0.583	<b>0.022</b>
Junior Secondary	0.901	<b>1.286</b>	0.805	1.293	0.595	<b>2.209</b>	0.577	0.465	0.679	0.545	0.589	empty
Senior Secondary	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	0.751	1.262	0.748	Empty	0.773	<b>0.295</b>	0.484	0.130
Secondary Vocation					Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref
Tertiary	1.507	<b>0.583</b>	<b>7.011</b>	1.145	<b>2.839</b>	<b>0.303</b>	<b>2.865</b>	0.686	0.751	<b>0.299</b>	2.821	0.224
<b>Marital Status</b>												
Single	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref
Married	<b>1.227</b>	1.147	<b>0.316</b>	<b>0.458</b>	1.732	0.874	0.622	<b>0.201</b>	<b>2.452</b>	0.820	<b>0.405</b>	1.414
<b>Have child</b>												
No					Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref
Yes					0.968	1.204	0.766	0.688	<b>0.372</b>	2.292	0.613	0.282
<b>Social Economic Status</b>												
Well off	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref
Fairly well off	1.031	1.055	<b>1.594</b>	<b>1.957</b>	<b>0.477</b>	1.705	1.404	0.338	0.848	1.188	0.757	0.137
Araound the national average	1.214	0.799	1.431	<b>2.230</b>	<b>0.400</b>	1.507	0.511	0.486	0.751	1.384	0.695	1.177
Fairly poor	<b>1.407</b>	<b>0.670</b>	1.368	<b>1.791</b>	<b>0.223</b>	1.550	0.486	0.492	<b>0.330</b>	0.336	0.470	empty
Poor			10.586		empty	0.657	0.633	0.231	<b>0.334</b>	empty	0.336	empty
<b>Father occupation (Mother occupation in Jordan)</b>												
Managers	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	empty	Ref	empty
Professionals	0.801	0.951	0.533	0.742	<b>2.338</b>	0.851	1.641	0.620	0.575	Ref	1.032	Ref
Technicians and associate professionals	1.616	1.458	0.439	0.465	1.702	1.015	1.618	0.808	0.669	empty	1.253	2.461
Clerical support workers	1.463	0.624	0.287	0.731	<b>3.304</b>	0.887	empty	1.216	1.410	empty	1.327	empty
Service and sales workers	1.084	1.290	0.659	1.285	1.311	1.579	1.001	1.106	0.515	1.498	1.789	empty
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers	1.007	1.162	0.625	1.109	1.018	1.187	1.104	0.881	0.591	<b>10.101</b>	12.161	empty
Craft and related trades workers	1.060	1.625	0.834	1.248	0.859	<b>1.992</b>	1.416	1.613	1.471	empty	empty	empty
Plant and machine operators, and assemblers	1.358	1.289	0.795	0.818	1.235	1.247	0.565	1.366				
Elementary occupations	1.253	0.868	0.935	1.354	1.625	1.187	0.712	1.453	0.830	1.823	1.257	empty
Armed forces occupations	3.094	0.646	1.000	Empty								
Don't Work/Other	1.211	1.311	0.690	1.373					1.018	0.972	0.762	0.921
<b>Residence</b>												
Rural	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref
Urban	1.045	0.930	<b>1.785</b>	1.167	1.238	0.854	0.662	1.445	<b>0.673</b>	1.340	1.214	3.069

Source: Calculated from 2012–2013 SWTS in Bangladesh, Jordan and Egypt

**Appendix 3: The Proportion of Youth Employment Types by Education Attainment**

Employment Types	Egypt						Bangladesh					Jordan					
	NLP	PE	JS	SS	SV	TE	NLP	PE	JS	SS	TE	NLP	PE	JS	SS	SV	TE
Managers	1.74	2.23	0.73	6.25	2.71	4.42	0	0.32	0.84	1.53	7.45	0	0	0	0.62	0	0.22
Professionals	0	0	0	0	1.91	52.49	0.37	0.21	1.34	8.97	46.81	0	0.37	0	0.62	0	63.94
Technicians and associate professionals	0.7	0.45	0.73	0	11	13.81	0.37	1.07	0.67	3.44	11.7	0	2.93	0	6.21	2.27	13.94
Clerical support workers	0	0	0.73	0	3.35	6.91	0.19	0.21	1.51	4.58	5.32	0	7.69	0	18.63	3.41	7.3
Service and sales workers	9.41	7.59	14.6	21.88	19.78	10.5	15.73	14.62	18.79	24.62	17.02	40.74	51.47	24	50.31	46.59	10.84
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers	22.65	18.75	11.68	3.13	8.93	0.55	31.27	23.69	21.14	14.89	2.13	0	0.55	2	0.62	0	0
Craft and related trade workers	41.46	47.32	39.42	28.13	28.07	4.14	25.84	36.07	40.44	30.53	6.38	44.44	19.41	46	8.7	29.55	2.43
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	14.63	16.96	21.9	28.13	18.34	3.59	8.05	9.61	6.71	5.53	0	3.7	8.06	20	7.45	5.68	0.44
Elementary occupations	9.41	6.7	10.22	12.5	5.9	3.59	16.48	12.38	6.71	3.63	0	11.11	9.52	8	6.83	12.5	0.88
Armed Forces							1.69	1.81	1.85	2.29	3.19						

NLP: None or less than primary, PE: Primary Education, JS: Junior Secondary, SS: Senior Secondary, SV: Secondary Vocational, TE: Tertiary Education

Source: Calculated from 2012–2013 SWTS in Bangladesh, Jordan and Egypt

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## AUTHOR GUIDELINES

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### GENERAL GUIDELINE

1. The article has not been previously published in other journals or other places
2. The article should be written in English (United State of America English) with a formal style and structure. This is because it is a fully peer-reviewed academic journal, so that an oral and informal language would not be accepted
3. The article should be written in word document (MS word), 1 space (single space), 12pt Georgia,
4. The article should be written between approximately 10,000 – 12,000 words including body text, all tables, figures, notes, and the reference list.
5. The article has to be an original work of the author/s
6. The author/s have responsibility to check thoroughly the accuracy of citation, grammar, table and figures before submission
7. The author/s has responsibility to revise their article after receiving a review from the editorial boards.
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9. The article should be submitted via online submission at the e-journal of Analisa
10. The articles will be reviewed by editorial boards
11. The author should use a “template” provided by Analisa Journal (it can be downloaded from the Analisa website) to write their article.

### STRUCTURE OF THE ARTICLE

1. Title
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3. Abstract (250 words maximum, it consists of background of the study, research method, finding of the research)
4. Key words ( 3-5 words/phrases)
5. Introduction (it consists of background statement, research questions, theoretical framework, literature review)
6. Hypothesis (optional)
7. Methodology of the research (it consist of data collecting method, data analysis, time and place of the research if the article based on the field research).
8. Research findings and discussion
9. Conclusion
10. Acknowledgement (optional)
11. Reference
12. Index (optional)

### WRITING SYSTEM

1. **Title**
  - a. Title should be clear, short and concise that depicts the main concern of the article
  - b. Title should contain the main variable of the research
  - c. Title should be typed in bold and capital letter
2. **Name of the author/s**
  - a. The author/s name should be typed below the title of the article without academic title
  - b. The author/s address (affiliation address)

should be typed below the name of the author/s

- c. The author/s email address should be typed below the author/s address
- d. If the author is more than one writer, it should be used a connecting word “and” not a symbol “&”

### 3. Abstract and key words

- a. Abstract is the summary of article that consists of background of the study, data collecting method, data analysis method, research findings.
- b. Abstract should be written in one paragraph, single space and in italic
- c. Abstract should be no more than 250 words
- d. The word “abstract” should be typed in bold, capital letter and italic
- e. Key words should consist of 3-5 words or phrases.
- f. Key words should be typed in italic

### 4. How to present table

- a. Title of the table should be typed above the table and align text to the left, 12pt font Times New Roman
- b. The word “table” and “number of the table” should be typed in bold, while title of the table should not be typed in bold (normal).
- c. Numbering for the title of table should use an Arabic word (1, 2, 3, and so forth)
- d. Table should be appeared align text to the left.
- e. To write the content of the table, it might use 8-11pt font Time New Roman or 8-11pt Arial, 1.0 space.
- f. Table should not be presented in picture, it should be type in real table-office word formating
- g. Source of the table should be typed below the table, align text to the left, 10pt font Time New Roman.

h. Example:

**Table 4.** Number of Rice, Corn and Sweet potato Production

product	2010	2011	2012	2013
Rice	1.500 Ton	1.800 Ton	1.950 Ton	2.100 Ton
Corn	950 Ton	1.100 Ton	1.250 Ton	1.750 Ton
Sweet potato	350 Ton	460 Ton	575 Ton	780 Ton

Source: Balai Pertanian Jateng, 2013.

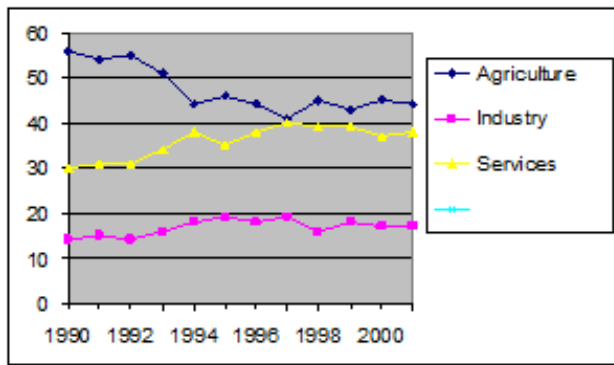
### 5. How to present picture, graph, photo, and diagram

- a. Picture, graph, figure, photo and diagram should be placed at the center
- b. Number and title should be typed above the picture, graph, figure, photo and diagram.
- c. Number and the word of the picture, graph, figure, photo and diagram should be typed in bold, 12pt *Georgia* and at the center, while title of them should be typed in normal (not bold).
- d. Number of the picture, graph, figure, photo and diagram should use an Arabic word (1, 2, 3 and so forth).
- e. Source of the picture, graph, figure, photo and diagram should be typed below the table, align text to the left, 10pt font Georgia.
- f. Picture, graph, figure, photo, and diagram should not be in colorful type, and in high resolution, minimum 300-dpi/1600 pixel (should be in white and black, or gray, ).

Example:

Figure 1

Indonesian employment in agriculture compared to others sectors (% of the total employment)



Source: World Development Indicator, 2005

## 6. Research finding

This part consists of the research findings, including description of the collected data, analysis of the data, and interpretation of the data using the relevant theory

## 7. Referencing system

Analisa uses the British Standard Harvard Style for referencing system.

### a. Citations (In-text)

Analisa uses in note system (in-text citation) referring to the British Standard Harvard Style referencing system; format (last name of the author/s, year of publication: page number).

- Citing someone else's ideas.

Example:

Culture is not only associated with the description of certain label of the people or community, certain behaviour and definite characteristics of the people but also it includes norm and tradition (Afruch and Black, 2001: 7)

Afruch and Black (2001) explain that culture is not only associated with the description of certain label of the people or community, certain behaviour and definite characteristics of the people but also it includes norm and tradition.

- Citations; quotation from a book, or journal article

Quotations are the actual words of an

author and should be in speech marks. You should include a page number.

Example:

Tibi (2012: 15) argues that "Islamism is not about violence but as the order of the world."

It has been suggested that "Islamism is not about violence but as the order of the world" (Tibi, 2012: 15)

- Citations - Paraphrasing a book or journal article

Paraphrasing is when we use someone else ideas/works and write them in our own words. This can be done two ways, either is correct.

Example:

Batley (2013) argues that some of the detainees in the bombing cases were members of JI.

It has been suggested that some of the detainees in the bombing cases were members of JI (Batley, 2013).

- Citing a source within a source (secondary citation)

Citing the source within a source, it should be mentioned both sources in the text. But, in the reference list, you should only mention the source you actually read.

Example:

Tibi (2012, cited in Benneth, 2014: 15) argues that Islamism is not about violence but as the order of the world.

It has been suggested that Islamism is not about violence but as the order of the world (Tibi, 2012 as cited in Benneth, 2014: 15).

- Citing several authors who have made similar points in different texts

In text citations with more than one source, use a semi colon to separate the authors.

Example:

Understanding the cultural differences is an important element for mediation process (John, 2006: 248-289; Kevin and George, 2006: 153-154; Kriesberg, 2001: 375; Alaeda, 2001: 7).

- Citations - Government bodies or organizations

If you reference an organization or government body such as WHO, the Departments for Education or Health, the first time you mention the organization give their name in full with the abbreviation in brackets, from then on you can abbreviate the name.

Example :

The World Health Organization (WHO) (1999) suggests that.....

WHO (1999) explains that .....

- Citing from the internet

If you cite a source from the internet (website), write last name of the writer, year of the uploaded/released: page numbers. If there is no author in that page, write the name of the body who release the article in that website, year of release.

Please do not mention the address of the url in the in-text citation.

Example:

Syrian uprising has been prolonged for almost six years and has caused thousands people death as well as millions people has forced to flee from their homeland to seek safety (Aljazeera, 2016).

Religion is an important aspect for the life of many people in the recent era. The believe

system of religion plays as a guidance for some people (David, 2015: 12-13)

## b. Reference list

- Book

Last name of author/s, first name of the author/s year of publication. *Title of the book*. Place of publication: name of the publisher.

Example:

Aly, Anne. 2011. *Terrorism and global security, historical and contemporary perspectives*. South Yara Australia: Palgrave Macmillan.

Effendy, Bahtiar. 2003. *Islam and the state in Indonesia*. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.

- Chapter of the book

Last name of the author/s, first name of the author/s. "Title of the chapter". In title of the book. Editor name, place of publication: name of publisher.

Example:

Dolnik, Adam. 2007. "Suicide terrorism and Southeast Asia." In *A handbook of terrorism and insurgency in Southeast Asia*. Tan, Andrew.T.H (ed). Cheltenham, UK and Northampton, USA: Edward Elgar.

- Journal article

Last name of the author/s, first name of the author/s. Year of publication. "Title of the article". *Name of the journal*. Volume. (Number): Page number.

Example:

Du Bois, Cora. 1961. "The Religion of Java by Clifford Geertz." *American Anthropologist, New Series*. 63. (3): 602-604

Sirry, Mun'im. 2013. "Fatwas and their

controversy: The case of the Council of Indonesian Ulama.” *Journal of Southeast Asian Studies*, 44(1): 100-117.

- News paper

Last name of the author/s, first name of the author/s. Year of publication. “Title of the article”. *Name of the newspaper*. Date of publication.

Example:

Eryanto, Hadi. 2010. “Menyiapkan Jihad di Aceh.” *Kompas*. 18 March 2010.

- Internet

Last name of the author/s, first name of the author/s. Year of publication. “Title of the article or writing”. Date of access. Web address

Example:

Suhendi, Adi. 2012. “Dana Osama bin Laden dipakai untuk bom Bali 1” (Osama bin Laden’s fund was used for Bali Bomb 1). Accessed August, 20, 2014 from: <http://nasional.kompas.com/read/2012/03/26/14001755/Dana.Osama.bin.Laden.Dipakai.untuk.Bom.Bali.1>

- Internet

If there is no author in that page, write the name of the body who release the article in that website, year of release, date of accessed, address of the website

Example:

Aljazeera. 2017. The voices missing from Syria’s peace talks. Accessed 23 June 2017, from: <http://www.aljazeera.com/indepth/features/2017/03/syria-war-missing-voices-syria-peace-talks-170322073131728.html>

- Unpublished thesis/dissertation

Last name of the author/s, first name of the author/s. Year of publication. *Title*

*of the thesis/dissertation*. Name of the university.

Example:

Muhtada, D. 2005. *Zakat and Peasant Empowerment: Case Study on Zakat Organizations in Yogyakarta*. Yogyakarta: Unpublished Master thesis for graduate school of social work at State Islamic University Sunan Kalijaga.

- Article/paper presented at seminar/conference

Last name of the author/s, first name of the author/s. Year of publication. “Title of the paper.” Article presented at seminar/conference, host of the seminar, place of the seminar, date of the seminar.

Example:

Anwar, K. 2007. “Mengungkap Sisi Akidah dalam Naskah Syair Kiyamat.” Paper presented at a seminar on text of religions, hosted by Office of Religious Research and Development Ministry of Religious Affairs Republic Indonesia. Jakarta, 30 November 2007-03 December 2007.

## 8. Transliteration system

Transliteration Arab-Latin system refers to SKB Ministry of Religious Affairs and Ministry of Education and Culture Republic of Indonesia Number 158 year 1987 and 0543/b/u/1987



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