



# JORDAN

EDUCATION, TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT  
DEVELOPMENTS 2017



The contents of this paper are the sole responsibility of the ETF and do not necessarily reflect the views of the EU institutions.

© European Training Foundation, 2018  
Reproduction is authorised provided the source is acknowledged.

# KEY EDUCATION, TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT DEVELOPMENTS IN JORDAN

Regional instability and the Syria crisis continue to dominate economic, social and labour market panorama of Jordan. A set of commitments to respond to the refugee crisis and support Jordan's growth and resilience, announced by the government in February 2016, are backed with the international community financial support.<sup>1</sup> The Jordan Response Plan 2017-19 and the Jordan Compact outline specific strategies to improve access to employment and education for Syrian refugees, and to encourage investment and economic growth in Jordan. The core components include reforming the work permit and business formalisation processes, expanding exports, opening economic activity in refugee camps, and further investments, focused on special economic zones and infrastructure projects. This agenda is framed under the long-term 'Jordan 2025' development strategy in order to enhance the currently weak economic growth, combat unemployment and improve social conditions.

In view of the long-term human capital development, a new National Strategy for Human Resource Development 2016-25, focused on strengthening the education system, was approved in September 2016. The Government also decided to establish an independent centre for curricula and evaluation, so as to prepare high-quality and efficient curricula, and to encourage competitiveness, entrepreneurship and innovation for better educational outcomes. Improving teachers' skills and performance is given attention, too. The new strategy brings fundamental changes to the governance of the TVET system in Jordan. It calls for a prominent role of the private sector through the establishment of a Skills Development Corporation (SDC), which will oversee the main TVET training providers (Vocational Training Corporation, Al Balqa Applied University), the TVET Fund, the Centre for Accreditation and Quality Assurance (CAQA), and the National Training of Trainers Institute (NTTI). The Board of the SDC will be comprised in two thirds of the private sector representatives. It will substitute the existing ETVET Council, which is currently mainly dominated by the public institutions and failed to play its role as a governing body of the sector.

In September 2017, the Cabinet adopted a 'Framework for the reform of the TVET sector', which takes on board only a limited number of commitments from the Strategy. Besides establishing the ETVET Council, new Centres of Excellence will be created in the form of public-private partnerships in order better respond to the labour market needs in a selected number of sectors. In August 2017, the Cabinet adopted a national qualifications framework that covers the whole qualification system and gave a mandate to the Higher Education Accreditation Commission to manage the system. This is a major development in Jordan as the higher education sector had for a long time been reluctant to embark on a NQF.

Finally, in August 2017 the ETVET Council approved a five-year Employment Programme (2017-21), including actions for limiting reliance on foreign labour, encouraging the labour market participation of Jordanians, and job creation for skilled Jordanians through supporting entrepreneurship and fostering female participation by enabling childcare services. The overall budget allocated to this programme is estimated at EUR 110 million to be funded by the ETVET fund and it is expected that the programme will generate 35,000 jobs.

---

<sup>1</sup> London Conference in February 2016 and Brussels Conference on Supporting the future of Syria and the region in April 2017 commitments reached EUR 5.6 billion for 2017, EUR 3.47 billion for 2018-20 and around 27.9 billion commitments on concessional loans, to support the host countries in the region. Jordan received commitments covering approximately 60% of the estimated requirements.

## 1. Key demographic and economic characteristics

According to the latest population census held in November 2015, Jordan has a population of 9.5 million people.<sup>2</sup> This reflects the impact of immigration as well as a high natural population growth (3.1%). A large proportion of the population is under 30 years old (over 60%), which puts a strong demographic pressure on the country and requires significant public investment in education, health, employment, housing and infrastructure.<sup>3</sup> Out of the population of 9.5 million people, almost 3 million are foreign nationals (2 918 125 people; 31% of the total population), comprising: 1.265 million Syrians; 636,000 Egyptians; 634,000 Palestinians (from the West Bank and Gaza); almost 131,000 Iraqis; and over 200,000 other nationalities.<sup>4</sup> These numbers exclude a significant number of Palestinians who have been granted Jordanian citizenship over the decades.

The influx of Syrian refugees since 2015 has put a huge pressure on economy, labour market and social services. On the basis of the London Conference that brought together world leaders for a response to the Syrian refugee crisis, Jordan designed the Jordan Response Plan 2016-18. The EU and Jordan adopted the EU-Jordan Partnership Priorities in December 2016 (regional and macroeconomic stability, economic and social development and strengthening governance, the rule of law, democratic reform and respect for human rights) and the EU-Jordan Compact 2016-18. The objective of the EU-Jordan Compact, which addresses the impact of the Syria crisis, is to improve the living conditions of the host communities and the refugees temporarily staying in Jordan. The commitments taken by Jordan and the international community were further strengthened in Brussels in April 2017 [See the Box: *MISMES in Jordan*].<sup>5</sup>

Jordan has incorporated the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), into its national development agenda within the 'Jordan 2025 Vision and Development Strategy'. The strategic framework sets ambitious GDP growth rate from at 7.5%, raising the government efficiency, boosting women's participation in the labour market up to 24%, decreasing unemployment to 8% and mitigating poverty.

According to the World Bank income group classification, Jordan is an upper middle-income country and considered as an emerging market with an open economy. It has scarce water supplies and limited natural resources, with a high dependency on energy imports. The GDP growth rate was 2.4% in 2015 and 2% in 2016, despite the worsening regional conflict situation negatively impacting tourism, construction, investment and trade.<sup>6</sup> Finance, insurance, real estate, transport, storage and communications, manufacturing, and social and personal services have contributed to growth. The economy was expected to grow 2.3% in 2017, with a slightly better medium-term forecast of 2.6% over 2017-19.<sup>7</sup> In terms of economic sectors, Jordan is largely a service economy. In 2015, services constituted 66% of GDP, manufacturing accounted for 30% and agriculture accounted for just 4%. Consequently, the vast majority of jobs are in services (81%), followed by manufacturing (18%) and agriculture (2%).<sup>8</sup> The private sector is dominated by small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), which represent around 94% of existing companies. SMEs account for more than 60% of economic output and employ around 31% of the labour force.

---

<sup>2</sup> Department of Statistics (DoS), 2016. At the same time, UNDP estimates are diverse 7.6 million

<sup>3</sup> ETF (2014), *Employment policies in Jordan*, Working paper, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, at: [http://www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/Employment\\_policies\\_Jordan](http://www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/Employment_policies_Jordan)

<sup>4</sup> DoS (2015), *General results of census 2015*, at: [http://www.dos.gov.jo/dos\\_home\\_e/main/population/census2015/index.htm](http://www.dos.gov.jo/dos_home_e/main/population/census2015/index.htm)

<sup>5</sup> Migrant Support Measures from Employment and Skills Perspective (MISMES). See ETF (2017), *MISMES Jordan report (2017)*: [www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/MISMES\\_Jordan](http://www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/MISMES_Jordan)

<sup>6</sup> See <http://www.worldbank.org/en/country/jordan/publication/economic-outlook-fall-2016>

<sup>7</sup> IMF, Article IV Consultation July 24, 2017

<sup>8</sup> DoS (2015), *Jordan Statistic Yearbook 2015*, DoS, at: [http://dos.gov.jo/dos\\_home\\_a/main/yearbook\\_2015.pdf](http://dos.gov.jo/dos_home_a/main/yearbook_2015.pdf)

The impact of reforms related to stimulating private-sector investments (such as through improving regulations, access to finance for small and medium enterprises and trade facilitation) and higher exports through the European Union's relaxation of Rules of Origin (RoO) are expected to improve the economy<sup>9</sup>. The latter RoO agreement to simplify the trade of 52 industrial products was signed in July 2016 between the EU and Jordan. Producers from 18 development zones and industrial areas in Jordan can now export to the EU benefitting from the same rule of origin scheme as least developed countries. The purpose of the relaxed regime is to encourage Jordanian exports to the EU, enhance investments and create job opportunities in Jordan's formal sector, for both Jordanians and Syrian refugees. The measure is put in place for a period of ten years, and it requires benefiting companies to employ a minimum percentage of Syrian refugees (15% of the workforce in a respective production facility over the first two years of the agreement, 25% thereafter). By April 2017, six factories had obtained authorisation to export under the RoO scheme.

SMEs face several constraints in their development and growth such as limited access to finance, infrastructure, access to technology and labour market rigidities.<sup>10</sup> As a result, their capacity to create jobs is limited.<sup>11</sup> Following the global economic crisis, the country's ranking in doing business deteriorated (from 80th out of 183 countries in 2008 to 113th out of 189 countries in 2016).<sup>12</sup> Development of SMEs is one of the government's priorities and accelerating reforms related to the legal and regulatory environment is planned. Implementation of the National Strategy for Entrepreneurship and Developing MSMEs 2017-20 will focus on preparing a draft law for SMEs, facilitating financing for start-ups through the network of Jordan Innovation Centres (JIC), developing trainings in technical and managerial skills for entrepreneurs, especially women and youth. An EU programme (EUR 55 million) has supported private sector development in Jordan since early 2017, including direct budget support (EUR 41 million) and two complementary actions. It promotes the private sector and supports the government in implementing "Vision 2025", which aims to increase income and employment, promote the social economic inclusion of women and young people, and facilitate economic development in disadvantaged regions.

## 2. Education and training

### 2.1 Trends and challenges

As a nation with a fast growing youth population and a lack of natural resources, Jordan considers well-educated human resources to be one of its major priorities. Jordan's education system performs relatively better compared to its neighbours: the adult literacy rate is the highest in the region, standing at 97.9% in 2012.<sup>13</sup> Nevertheless, 61.5% of the population has low educational attainment, 23.3% are medium-skilled and only 15.2% have a tertiary education. Gross enrolment rates in education are relatively high. In 2015, it had a 95% enrolment rate at basic education level (6 to 15 years) (90% when Syrian refugees and others were included)<sup>14</sup>. 82.4% enrolment rate was registered in secondary education in 2014, with a share of VET students at 3.8%. Slightly more girls than boys enrol at all education levels, but the gender-biased subject choices narrow future careers (more girls in education, health and social services). According to the International Labour Organization (ILO)<sup>15</sup>, the vast majority of Syrians have lower education compared to Jordanians: 60% of Syrian refugees above the age of 15 have never completed basic schooling, and only about 15% have completed secondary education, compared to 42% of Jordanians above the age of 15.

---

<sup>9</sup> World Bank Jordan's Economic Outlook, April 2017 and IMF IMF, Article IV Consultation July 24, 2017

<sup>10</sup> National Employment Strategy, 2012.

<sup>11</sup> After Jordan Strategic Forum Job creation in Jordan, September 2016

<sup>12</sup> Doing Business surveys at: [www.doingbusiness.org/](http://www.doingbusiness.org/)

<sup>13</sup> UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2012

<sup>14</sup> Department of Statistics, 2016

<sup>15</sup> ILO, Impact of Syrian refugees on the Jordanian labour market – findings from the governorates of Amman, Irbid and Mafrqa.

There are indications showing quality problems in Jordan's education system. Although PISA 2015 results show some improvement compared to the results of the PISA 2009 round, the share of lowest achiever students remains quite high and is far from optimal: in mathematics (67.5%), in reading (46.3%) and science (49.8%). Due to accelerated demographic growth, resulting from the influx of immigrants and refugees, Jordan's education system capacity is under high pressure in terms of infrastructure and staff. The number of students attending schools increased from 1.3 million in 2004 to 1.8 million in 2016. At the same time, the number of students obtaining higher education increased from 142,000 in 2004 to 192,000 in 2016.

## 2.2 Education and training policy and institutional setting

A key feature of the educational ecosystem in Jordan is the continuous development of policies and strategies, combined with a limited implementation. Several strategies related to TVET coexist and the most important one is the human resources development (HRD) strategy approved by the Cabinet in September 2016. The HRD strategy recognises that despite many initiatives and strategies implemented, "student learning outcomes are lagging behind and the skills of graduates are not meeting the needs of the economy".

In September 2017, the Cabinet approved a general framework for reforming the TVET sector considered as an implementation plan of the HRD strategy. However, while the latter calls for introducing profound changes in the TVET system and its governance, the general framework seems to be less ambitious. Instead of the Skills Development Corporation (private-led) proposed by the HRD strategy, the framework calls for the establishment of a new Council, the TVET Council that will replace the current E-TVET Council. The composition of this council does not reflect the analyses carried out in the framework (and in the HRD strategy) that point to the need to get the private sector playing a bigger role in the governance of the system. Indeed, the Council is largely dominated by the public sector, and the private sector will be represented by only two members out of 14, and trade unions are no longer represented.

The framework calls for the establishment of employer-led sector councils in order (a) to define the requirements of the private sector in terms of skills, (b) contribute to the design of the curricula, (c) facilitate the placement of students on the job training, (d) participate in the design and implementation of tests, (e) facilitate the job training of instructors, and (f) review the performance of TVET training centres.

As part of the reforms intended by the framework is the growing role of CAQA as the centre will take over the responsibility for all TVET competency standards, and accreditation of TVET programmes (for vocational training and vocational education). The framework establishes rules for the revision of the standards, as they have to be revised after a maximum of five years in consultation with the private sector.

Finally, the framework calls for the creation of eight centres of excellence in various governorates covering different specialisations such as agricultural machines and equipment, furniture industry and garments professions, programming and computers etc. For each of the centres an "international party" with advanced experience in a given specialisation has been identified. The total estimated cost of the establishment of these centres is of US \$ 90 million. It is interesting to notice that the Board will directly supervise these centres while it could have been expected that they would have operated under the vocational training corporation as this is the case for the current three centres of excellence.

In terms of delivery, TVET is delivered mainly in the initial education system and most training provision is public. Three types of education coexist:

- The Ministry of Education provides the bulk of upper secondary vocational education through its vocational stream in grades 11 and 12. The total enrolment in these schools has been quite constant over the last years, around 30,000 per year.
- The VTC (a semi-autonomous agency under the Ministry of Labour) owns and operates a network of 10 specialised institutes and 35 training institutes (VTIs), with about 10,000 enrolments per year, targeting young people aged 16 and above.
- Technical education is provided by 4216 public and private community colleges offering two-year programmes (grades 13 and 14) leading to a diploma (under the Ministry of Higher Education). A total of 22 529 students were registered in these colleges in the 2015/16 academic year.<sup>17</sup> Following a two-year reform at the Al Balqa Applied University, technical courses now represent 70% of all courses in the college, while the others are administrative courses.

Higher education is offered in 33 universities (10 public and 23 private). More than 300,000 students are enrolled in higher education per year. Employment prospects are rather limited, particularly for women, as most of the jobs created by the economy do not require highly skilled workers.

In addition, a semi-public body, the National Employment and Training Company (NET), established in 2007, provides a one-year vocational training programme. This initially focused on the construction sector, but then expanded to other sectors, sometimes competing with private training providers.<sup>18</sup>

One of the major issues facing the TVET sector at policy level is its fragmentation. Many of its players operate in isolation, although legislation and agreements among stakeholders exist to promote coordination. This includes both at the policy making and service delivery levels. Entry to one type of education or another is based on grades, and the pathways from one type to another are very limited. Almost 90% of the students who complete the 10th grade of basic education are streamed on the basis of their performance, either to general education (high performers) or to vocational education in the comprehensive secondary schools. The rest (low performers) can continue into one of the VTC institutes. The lack of accreditation or pathways that allow mobility across the system has a negative impact on enrolments. Furthermore, according to the new Jordan Human Resources Development Strategy, VET provision is considered out-dated, not 'applied' enough, and not providing the skills required by Jordanian employers, e.g. graduates lack practical experience, what demotivates employers from recruiting graduates.<sup>19</sup>

In addition, despite the increasing need for more technical and vocational skills, TVET careers are not considered attractive for both, social and economic reasons, and students with high grades opt for general and academic education. Unattractive wages and overall working conditions contribute to this image and do not meet the professional career expectations of young people. Higher education may lead to stable and protected civil service jobs, however such jobs are decreasing in number, adding to high youth inactivity and unemployment. There is an increasing pressure on the labour market to create employment for young people, while the need to prepare these individuals for the right skills (at the right levels) to meet the needs of the labour market is also obvious.

Jordan currently benefits from EU support to improve the relevance of its TVET system to the needs of the labour market and society. The support consists in a sector reform contract composed of a budget

<sup>16</sup> There are 12 public colleges under the direct responsibility of BAU, five operating under other ministries, two UNRWA colleges, six military colleges and 16 private colleges.

<sup>17</sup> Note prepared by the National Committee for Human Resource Development [not published]

<sup>18</sup> NET is managed by the Jordanian Armed Forces in collaboration with the Ministry of Labour and the private sector. Its mandate is to train and employ (in the Armed Forces) 30 thousand Jordanians over 5 to 6 years. In 2013, 800 students graduated from NET.

<sup>19</sup> Torino Process 2016 Report Jordan

support component (€43 million) and a complementary support component (technical assistance and a grant scheme for NGOs and business associations, €9 million).

### 3. Labour market and employment

#### 3.1 Trends and challenges

The labour market in Jordan faces important structural problems such as low participation, in particular of women and insufficient job creation to absorb the increasing influx of jobseekers. There are also weak links between education outputs and labour market needs, as well as a mismatch in terms of quality and expectations. The market is fragmented with a high division between genders, the private versus public sector and formal versus informal market. In addition, due to immigration flows, the segmentation is prominent between Jordanians, economic immigrants and Syrian refugees. The current challenging situation contributes to the informality to a greater extent.

The market situation has deteriorated in comparison to 2011. The size of the potential labour force at working age in Jordan is currently above 4 million, but economically active people represented 36% in 2016<sup>20</sup>, 3 percentage points lower than in 2011. The country has one of the lowest female participation rates in the world, with only 13.4% of women active, compared to 58.8% of men in 2016). Along with very low economic activity rates, employment rates are also low. The total employment rate decreased to 30.5% in 2016 from 34% in 2011 and female employment decreased to 10% in 2016. Furthermore, the unemployment rate has been increasing over the last few years from 12.9% in 2011 to 15.8% in 2016 and particularly for women, reaching 24.1%. Medium-skilled workers perform much better than their low skilled or high skilled peers. This may be explained by the tendency to employ low skilled migrants with lower salaries on one hand, and by a lack of good quality job offers on the other. Unemployment is particularly high among young women with tertiary education (28.6% in 2016).<sup>21</sup> Moreover, youth aged 15-24 is very much affected by unemployment and the total unemployment rate reached 35.6% (56.9% for young women). In 2012, 24.6% of young people aged 15-24 were not in employment, education or training (NEETs) and the figure for young women was more than double than that for young men (34.8% against 15.2%) .

The Jordanian labour market is dominated by the public sector, with 39.3% share of total employment in 2016. It offers better working conditions in terms of security, shorter working hours and non-wage benefits. On the other hand, the informal sector represents around 44% of employment in 2015 (according to DoS). The working conditions in the private sector (especially in informal jobs) put Jordanians at a disadvantage compared to immigrant workers and Syrian refugees. Late-payment of wages, non-payment for overtime, long and unpredictable working hours seem to be the norm according to an ILO study.<sup>22</sup> Geographical mismatch is also a problem as jobs are mainly created in the capital and the principal cities, while the majority of unemployed people are located outside these areas. The lack and poor quality of public transport further contributes to the already low mobility of the workforce.

Another important labour market trend relates to emigration of the Jordanian labour force abroad, mainly to the Gulf countries. The lack of well-remunerated employment at home has led as many as 785,000 highly skilled Jordanians to seek employment abroad.<sup>23</sup> Although this emigration of highly skilled workers eases some of the pressure on the local labour market, the long-term developmental

---

<sup>20</sup> The 2017 Employment and Unemployment Survey was conducted on the basis of a new improved methodology in line with ILO recommendations, including: the sample size has been increased to 16 thousand households based on the new framework provided by the 2015 population census; more questions were added to the questionnaire; and it narrowed down the concept of 'employed persons' by excluding the unpaid workers from the 'employed persons' definition.

<sup>21</sup> Department of Statistics online database

<sup>22</sup> A challenging market becomes more challenging- Jordanian workers, migrant workers and refugees in the Jordanian Labour Market, ILO, 2017

<sup>23</sup> ETF (2017), MISMES Jordan report (2017): [www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/MISMES\\_Jordan](http://www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/MISMES_Jordan)



implications for the country are problematic. At the same time, Jordan faces high levels of labour immigrant inflows (around 400,000 workers with work permits, and another 400,000 without).<sup>24</sup> The economy creates many low-skilled jobs, which are mostly taken by foreign immigrant workers, at wages and conditions incompatible with the rather high expectations of Jordanian workers. The main characteristics of foreign workers are that they are low skilled (62% have less than secondary education), mostly men (60%) and employed mainly in manufacturing, construction, domestic work and agriculture.<sup>25</sup>

The labour market and human resource information sources are fragmented, preventing education and training from becoming more demand-driven and meeting labour market needs. The Department of Statistics collects labour market data by conducting different surveys, such as unemployment surveys; surveys of employment in companies and businesses; and household expenditure and income surveys. In addition, various European Union (EU) projects have supported the National Centre for Human Resource Development in undertaking several sectoral studies to analyse skills requirements in the main economic sectors. Several databases exist, but they are not interconnected. Various institutions are involved in labour market data production, but there is little cooperation between them and there is a room to build a labour market information system (LMIS).

### 3.2 Employment policy and institutional setting

The Ministry of Labour is responsible for employment policies and operates with 21 employment offices. Three of these offices (Amman, Irbid, Zarqa) were transformed into 'one-stop-shop' services. They should offer a range of services: (i) advisory and placement services related to vocational training; (ii) information on locally available job opportunities collected by a local marketing specialist responsible for liaising with the private sector and maintaining a database of locally available vacancies and for organising events aimed at linking job seekers and employers; (iii) employment counselling services; and (iv) referral to microfinance providers. A further 40 private employment agencies co-exist on the market. There are several active labour market programmes (ALMPs), which are implemented within the National Employment Strategy and they aim to enhance the quality of human capital, empower women economically and enhance entrepreneurship and business development.

An online platform to match jobseekers and employers (the National Electronic Employment System (NEES)<sup>26</sup>) and job fairs are available to support matching demand and supply. The NEES has three access points for: jobseekers, companies and the staff. Jobseekers can register in three ways: online, in the employment office or in the municipality with the support of a dedicated staff trained to use the system. The NEES envisages an on-line career guidance which is not yet operational.<sup>27</sup> In addition, public employment services provide training and on-the-job-training programmes. Activating the role of the private sector as a major engine for job creation and entrepreneurship and self-employment are supported by a microfinance scheme within PES.<sup>28</sup> Despite the existence of a dedicated section in the Ministry of Labour, career guidance services are still underdeveloped within PES, but also within the Vocational Training Centres. The latter however conduct tracer studies, which provide evidence on labour market performance of graduates.

The National Centre for Human Resources Development (NCHRD) in coordination with the Ministry of Labour is conducting sector surveys. The studies look at the current and future labour market needs in terms of skills and match them with the current training provision. Each study provides a mapping of the workforce in the sector by occupation, gender and education level. They also analyse training

<sup>24</sup> ETF 2017, *ibid.*

<sup>25</sup> Department of Statistics

<sup>26</sup> See <http://nees.jo/>.

<sup>27</sup> Torino Process Report 2016, Jordan

<sup>28</sup> Ministry of Labour, Jordanian Labour Market Policies, Third UfM Conference 26-27 September 2016

provision in terms of level of qualification and quantity. The study puts a special focus on female employment opportunities.<sup>29</sup> The NCHRD also maintains a database that compiles data from the Department of Statistics, the Ministry of Labour (migrant workers), the Social Security Corporation (SSC), the Vocational Training Corporation (VTC), the Ministry of Higher Education and the Civil Service Bureau.

Jordanian labour market policies aim to empower Jordanian youth academically and professionally by instilling an entrepreneurial mind set while providing the required funding and enabling environment. The activities focus on restructuring technical and vocational education and training (TVET), expanding the establishment of centres of excellence<sup>30</sup> for vocational training to match training programmes and labour market needs in cooperation with the private sector, spreading a culture of entrepreneurship and self-reliance through self-employment programmes in coordination with the private sector and reorganizing the labour market to limit reliance on foreign labour. In August 2017, The ETVET Council adopted a five-year Employment Programme (2017-21) with an overall budget of EUR 110 million, which plans to decrease reliance on foreign labour, encourage the labour market participation of Jordanians, and create jobs for skilled Jordanians, including by supporting entrepreneurship and fostering female participation by providing childcare services. The programme should generate 35,000 new jobs.

In order to foster the employment of Jordanians, there is a plan to revise the minimum wage and a tripartite committee has been set-up. Moreover, a stricter control on work permits is planned. Currently, the majority of the work permits are issued in agriculture, accommodation and food services, and in sales. However, many immigrant workers with permits from agriculture are working in other sectors. Therefore, the authorities plan to introduce a stricter labour control and enforce legislation.

---

<sup>29</sup> <http://www.nchrd.gov.jo/>

<sup>30</sup> There are currently 3 centres of excellence and the government intends to establish 9 new centres as part of the general framework for the reform of the TVET sector.

## Migrant Support Measures from an Employment and Skills Perspective (MISMES) in Jordan

The ETF's MISMES inventory carried out in 2016 in Jordan revealed the complexity of migration as a phenomenon, and the complicated interaction of different migrant groups (emigrants, immigrant workers, and refugees) in the context of Jordan. Most Jordanian emigrants are highly skilled professionals, whose remittances have become one of the main sources of wealth and economic growth. By increasing the reservation wages of low-skilled Jordanians at home, remittances have contributed to the immigration of cheaper foreign (low-skilled) labour, mainly from Egypt and Asian countries. This has resulted in the Jordanian labour market developing a particular structure, with the emigration of high-skilled Jordanians balanced by the immigration of low-skilled foreign workers in almost equal numbers.

The Syrian crisis and refugee influx since 2011 have exacerbated the already difficult situation in the labour market by creating a sudden labour supply shock. Poor working conditions in sectors with high immigrant/refugee workers have spurred a 'race-to-the-bottom' that impacts Jordanian workers as well. In view of the challenges, Jordan developed the Jordan Response Plan for the Syria Crisis (JRP) 2016-2018, supported by the international community with financial assistance. JRP was further reinforced by the Jordan Compact, bringing together short-term refugee policies and long-term developmental strategies for Syrian refugees and vulnerable Jordanian host communities'. Jordan allowed the Syrian refugees to work legally in its labour market, putting them on the same footing as migrant workers and allowing them to find employment in 'sectors open to immigrants' such as agriculture, construction, services, the wholesale trade and manufacturing in the Qualifying Industrial Zones (QIZ).

There are at least, 35 MISMES initiatives in the fields of labour market integration of migrants and efficient utilisation of migrants' skills. Most of these measures focus on refugees (23 out of 35), although they all include a minimum number of beneficiaries (30%) from vulnerable members of Jordanian host communities. There is a limited support to **Jordanian emigrants** (and expatriates), mainly by helping to find a work abroad. Seven measures are focusing on **foreign immigrant labour**. They relate to protecting migrants' labour rights, however further improving of the working conditions for immigrant workers and better link their labour market conditions with national employment policies are needed. The majority of MISMES are developed for **Syrian refugees**. Some of them relate to a formal and non-formal training of refugees, including life skills, soft skills, financial and market literacy, and language skills for young people and vulnerable groups. Others take the form of employment-related measures, sometimes preceded by skills training.

The number of MISMES beneficiaries remains extremely low as the measures reach only a very limited proportion of the targeted migrant groups. Thus operational costs are high (both in individual programmes and in aggregate terms) and cost-benefit efficiency is low. In addition, there is a high fragmentation and risk of duplication among MISMES for refugees due to a lack of central coordination and low ownership of these activities.

The main recommendation of the report is the need to design a comprehensive labour migration strategy within institutional structures, directed both to foreigners and Jordanians, in cooperation with social partners and international organisations working in the field. There is room to increase institutional ownership and improve cooperation for a better coherence and alignment of migrant support measures, also in view of cost-efficiency. Taking control of the process, while creating the conditions for peaceful and productive coexistence would enhance migrant communities' engagement to contribute to an inclusive growth and the Jordanian generosity will pay off.

For more info, see ETF (2017), *MISMES Jordan report (2017)*: [www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/MISMES\\_Jordan](http://www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/MISMES_Jordan)

# ANNEXES

## Statistical annex Jordan

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

Indicator		2011	2016
1	Total Population (000)	1a	6 760 <sup>(1)</sup> / 7747.8 <sup>(1)</sup>
		1b	M.D. / 9531 (2015)
2	Relative size of youth population (age group 15-24) (%)	36.2 <sup>(1)</sup>	36.2 <sup>(1)</sup> (2014)
3	Youth Dependency ratio (%)	61.1	57.9
4	Old-age Dependency ratio (%)	6.3	6.2
5	Global Competitive Index	Rank	71 / 63
		Score	4.2 / 4.3
6	GDP growth rate (%)	2.6	2.0
7	GDP per capita (PPP) (current international \$)	10324.4	9050.1
8	GDP by sector (%)	Agriculture added value	3.3 / 4.3
		Industry added value	31.1 / 28.9
		Services added value	65.6 / 66.8
9	Poverty headcount ratio at \$2 a day (PPP) (%)	M.D.	M.D.
10	Gini index (%)	M.D.	M.D.
11	Educational attainment of adult population (aged 15+) (%)	Low <sup>(2)</sup>	60.3 / 61.5
		Medium	24.0 / 23.3
		High	15.7 / 15.2
12	Gross enrolment rates in secondary education (%)	86.6	82.4 (2014)
13	Share of VET students in secondary education (%)	3.5	3.8 (2014)
14	Gross enrolment rates in upper secondary education (%)	76.9	73.8 (2014)
15	Share of VET students in upper secondary education (%)	12.3	13.1 (2014)
16	Low achievement in reading, mathematics and science – PISA (%)	Reading	48.0 (2009) / 46.3 (2015)
		Mathematics	65.3 (2009) / 67.5 (2015)
		Science	45.6 (2009) / 49.8 (2015)
17	Participation in training/lifelong learning (age group 25-64) by sex (%)	Total	M.D. / M.D.
		Male	M.D. / M.D.
		Female	M.D. / M.D.
18	Early leavers from education and training (age group 18-24) by sex (%)	Total	M.D. / M.D.
		Male	M.D. / M.D.
		Female	M.D. / M.D.
19	Activity rates by sex (aged 15+) (%)	Total	39.0 / 36.0
		Male	62.8 / 58.7
		Female	14.7 / 13.2
20	Employment rates by sex (aged 15+) (%)	Total	34 / 30.5
		Male	55.9 / 50.9

Indicator		2011	2016	
21	Unemployment rates by sex (aged 15+) (%)	Female	11.6	10.0
		Total	12.9	15.3
		Male	11.0	13.3
22	Unemployment rates by educational attainment (aged 15+) (%)	Female	21.2	24.1
		Low <sup>(3)</sup>	12.2	13.8
		Medium <sup>(3)</sup>	9.5	9.4
23	Youth unemployment rates by sex (aged 15-24) (%)	High	15.9	21.0
		Total	29.9	35.6
		Male	26.3	31.5
24	Proportion of long-term unemployed out of the total unemployed (aged 15+) (%)	Female	47.0	56.9
			41.7	43.2
25	Long-term unemployment rate (aged 15+) (%)	M.D.	M.D.	
26	Incidence of self-employment (%)	15.6	12.9	
27	Share of the employed in a public sector (%)		38.7	38.6
		Agriculture	1.7	1.9
		Industry	18.2	17.6
28	Employment by sector (%)	Services	80.0	80.5
29	Employment in the informal sector	M.D.	M.D.	
30	Proportion of people aged 15–24 not in employment, education or training (NEETs), by sex (%)	Total	24.6 (2012)	M.D.
		Male	15.2 (2012)	M.D.
		Female	34.8 (2012)	M.D.
31	Public expenditure on education (as % of GDP)	M.D.	M.D.	
32	Public expenditure on education (as % of total public expenditure)	M.D.	M.D.	
33	Skill gaps (%)	N.A.	9.5 (2013)	
34	The share of SMEs in GDP (%)	M.D.	M.D.	
35	The share of SMEs in employment (%)	N.A.	31 (2014)	

**Last update: 05/09/2017**

**Sources:**

Indicators 1a, - UNDP\_WPP15, Medium Variant estimates for 2016.

Indicator 1b – Department of Statistics Jordan (census data)

Indicators 2, 11, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28 – Department of Statistics Jordan

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

Indicator 5 – World Economic Forum

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

Indicators 16, 30, 33 - OECD

Indicator 35 – International Financial Corporation

**Legend:**

M.D. = Missing Data

N.A. = Not Applicable

**Notes:**

Indicator 1a excludes Syrian refugees, indicator 1b includes Syrian refugees

<sup>(1)</sup> estimations

<sup>(2)</sup> refers to less than secondary, including no schooling

<sup>(3)</sup> low refers to 'less than secondary' in national classification (does not include no schooling); medium refers to 'secondary' in national classification (including VET).

## Annex: Indicator definitions

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

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

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION ABOUT  
OUR ACTIVITIES PLEASE CONTACT:

COMMUNICATION DEPARTMENT  
EUROPEAN TRAINING FOUNDATION  
VIALE SETTIMIO SEVERO 65  
I - 10133 TORINO

E: [INFO@ETF.EUROPA.EU](mailto:INFO@ETF.EUROPA.EU)

T: +39 011 6302222

F: +39 011 6302200

[WWW.ETF.EUROPA.EU](http://WWW.ETF.EUROPA.EU)