



European Training Foundation

JORDAN

**EDUCATION, TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT
DEVELOPMENTS 2018**



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KEY POLICY DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATION, TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT

Regional instability and the crisis in Syria continue to dominate the economic, social and labour market panorama of Jordan. Commitments to respond to the refugee crisis and support Jordan's growth and resilience, announced by the government in February 2016, are backed with financial support from the international community¹. The Jordan Response Plan 2017–2019 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 September 2016, a new National Strategy for Human Resource Development 2016–2025 was approved. It has a focus on strengthening the education system. The strategy brings fundamental changes to the governance of the technical and vocational education and training (TVET) system in Jordan. It calls for a prominent role of the private sector through the establishment of a Skills Development Corporation, 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, and the National Training of Trainers Institute.

In 2017, three ministries in charge of TVET designed a general framework for reforming the TVET sector and presented it as an implementation plan for the Human Resource Development (HRD) strategy. In 2018, the plan was rejected by the Cabinet as it does not reflect the HRD orientations. A new labour minister was appointed and one of his first decisions was to withdraw a package of laws previously submitted to the Cabinet. The Ministry of Labour is currently working on a new implementation plan more in line with the HRD strategy.

In 2017, the National Employment and Empowerment Programme (2017–2021) was launched. It aims to decrease reliance on foreign labour, encourage labour market participation of Jordanians, and job creation for skilled Jordanians, including through supporting entrepreneurship and fostering female participation by enabling childcare services. No progress has been made in the implementation of the employment and empowerment programme due to lack of financial resources.

In May 2018, the first sector skills organisation in hospitality and tourism was established. The organisation, formed by the private sector and professional associations with public sector participation, will promote the development of specific skills needed to boost the local tourism and hospitality industry.

¹ A conference in London in February 2016 and in Brussels in April 2017 on supporting the future of Syria and the region resulted in commitments of EUR 5.6 billion for 2017, EUR 3.47 billion for 2018 to 2020, and around EUR 27.9 billion in 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

Jordan has a growing population that increased to 10 million in 2017, from about 6.7 million in 2010. During those seven years, the population increased by almost 50% as a result of immigration and high natural population growth (3.1%). Young people represented 32.1% of the population in 2017 and this share has been stable over the last seven years. This large proportion of young people maintains a strong demographic pressure on the country and requires significant public investment in education, health, employment, housing and infrastructure².

Jordan has historically been at a regional migration crossroads. On the one hand, it is a migrant-sending country, as an estimated 10% of Jordan's nationals (700 000 to 800 000) are living abroad, most of them in the Gulf States. In 2015, remittances represented almost 14% of gross domestic product (GDP)³. On the other hand, Jordan is a major migrant-receiving country. It has the highest refugee-to-population ratio and the country is also now the top refugee hosting country in absolute numbers. Indeed, it hosted more than 2.7 million registered refugees as of September 2016, of whom 2.1 million persons of Palestinian descent registered with the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East who have lived in the country for decades and 664 100 refugees under the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees' mandate including Syrians and Iraqis⁴. According to the recent data, there were 3 233 553 foreign nationals in Jordan in 2017⁵ compared to 2 918 125 in 2015 (when the last census was conducted).

Jordan is an upper middle-income country according to the World Bank income group classification and is considered an emerging market with an open economy. The country has scarce water supplies and limited natural resources, with a high dependency on energy imports. The GDP growth rate was 2.1% in 2017 and is expected to reach 2.4% in 2018. However, the economy remains burdened with ongoing uncertainty in Syria, slow revival of economic cooperation with Iraq, and an economic slowdown in the Gulf Cooperation Council. In addition, the economy is subject to a slow pace of structural reforms that is impeding a strong recovery in growth⁶.

Services is the most important sector in Jordan, accounting for 66.8% of GDP in 2016, followed by industry at 28.9%, while the contribution of agriculture remains low at 4.3%. The importance of services is even higher when it comes to employment as 80.5% are employed in the sector, while 17.6% are employed in industry and only 1.9% in agriculture (2016 data).

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. SMEs face several constraints in their development and growth, such as limited access to finance, infrastructure, technology and labour market rigidities. As a result, their capacity to create jobs is limited⁷. Following the global economic crisis, the country's ranking in doing

² ETF (2014), Employment policies in Jordan, Working paper, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, available at: http://www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/Employment_policies_Jordan.

³ https://www.euneighbours.eu/sites/default/files/publications/2018-06/emnes_study_005-human_capital-labour_market_friction_migration-egypt-jordan-morocco-tunisia_v4.pdf.

⁴ http://cadmus.eui.eu/bitstream/handle/1814/44065/MPC_PB_201606.pdf?sequence=1.

⁵ United Nations Population Division (2017), Trends in international migrant stock: the 2017 revision (UN database).

⁶ World Bank (2018), Jordan's economic outlook.

⁷ Jordan Strategy Forum (2016), Job creation in Jordan.

business deteriorated from 80th place out of 183 countries in 2008 to 118th out of 189 countries in 2016 before improving to 103rd in 2017⁸. Getting credit, protecting minority investors and resolving insolvency are pointed out as the main challenges.

Development of the micro, small and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs) is one of the government's priorities. Implementation of the National Strategy for Entrepreneurship and Developing MSMEs 2017–2020 focuses on preparing a draft law for SMEs, facilitating financing for start-ups through the network of Jordan Innovation Centres, and developing training in technical and managerial skills for entrepreneurs, especially women and young people. An EU programme (EUR 55 million) has been supporting private sector development in Jordan since early 2017, including direct budget support (EUR 41 million) and two complementary actions of technical assistance. It promotes the private sector and supports the government in implementing the Vision 2025 national strategy, with an aim to increase income and employment, promote women's and young people's socio-economic inclusion, 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 well compared to its neighbours: the adult literacy rate is the highest in the region, standing at 97.9% in 2012. In 2016, it had a 95% enrolment rate at the basic education level (for children aged 6 to 15 years) (90% when Syrian refugees and others were included)⁹. In 2017, the gross enrolment ratio in secondary education was 64.89% and in tertiary education 31.71%¹⁰. Slightly more girls than boys enrol at all education levels, but the gender-biased subject choices narrow future careers (there are more girls in education, health and social services). The share of TVET students is low; in 2014, it was 3.8% in secondary education and 13.1% in upper secondary education.

In general, the education attainment of the adult population is low. In 2017, most adults (aged 25 to 64) had a low level of education (59.1%), 23.2% had a medium level of education and 15.3% had attained higher education.

In Jordan, there are three stages in the education cycle: the pre-school (kindergarten) cycle for a maximum of 2 years, the basic education cycle lasting 10 years, and the secondary education cycle lasting 2 years. 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 2016¹¹. Higher education is offered in 33 universities (10 public and 23 private). The number of higher education institutions has increased as a result of the sustained demand for higher education, which is mainly seen as a key to entering the labour market, either in Jordan or abroad. More than 300 000 students are enrolled in higher education every year.

⁸ <http://www.doingbusiness.org/content/dam/doingBusiness/country/j/jordan/JOR.pdf>.

⁹ Department of statistics, 2016.

¹⁰ <http://uis.unesco.org/country/JO>.

¹¹ <http://extwprlegs1.fao.org/docs/pdf/jor170691.pdf>.

Indications show there are quality problems in Jordan's education system. Although the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2015 results show some improvement compared to the results of PISA 2009, the share of lowest-achieving students remains quite high and is far from optimal: 67.5% in mathematics, 46.3% in reading and 49.8% in science.

2.2 Education and training policy and institutional setting

Jordan 2025: a National Vision and Strategy (2015–2025) determines the framework for government actions. It outlines a comprehensive and long-term national strategy and identifies a set of social and economic goals to better respond to the social and economic challenges Jordan currently faces. It emphasises education as a major national asset and its importance to the economy. The National Strategy for Human Resource Development (2016–2025) (NSHRD) further provides a new vision of education as a comprehensive human resources development system that aims to enhance the skills, qualifications, capabilities and behaviours of citizens in order to achieve Jordan's social and economic ambitions.

The NSHRD establishes a set of wide-ranging reforms and action plans for all sectors related to education, from early childhood education to vocational education and training, as well as higher education. It aims to provide a range of different pathways and opportunities to students, enabling them to continue learning and developing their skills according to their capacities and interests. The NSHRD does not bring substantial change to the education system's structure but proposes a wide range of reforms to make existing structures more efficient. The main priorities are i) ensuring equal access to education for all students; ii) empowering educational institutions to take responsibility for their performance through delegated responsibilities and decentralised decision-making; and iii) incorporating innovative and creative educational approaches through the use of technologies.

Currently, the Ministry of Youth is developing the National Youth Strategy (2018–2025) with the support of steering and technical committees with representatives from different ministries, universities and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). The ministry plans to survey young people and hold public consultations to feed the strategy. The formulation of the strategy has been underway for a prolonged period but has not yet been completed and adopted¹².

Numerous state actors shape Jordan's education policies. The Ministry of Education (MoE) supervises public and private schools, while the Council of Education develops curricula and contents. The Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research is responsible for implementing the higher education policies, while the Higher Education Council formulates policies and supervises universities and community colleges. The Higher Education Accreditation Commission monitors the compliance of higher education institutions with regulations and quality standards. The Employment, Technical and Vocational Training (E-TVET) Council and Fund promotes vocational education and training opportunities. These government structures are supported by other institutions and organisations, such as the Vocational Training Corporation (VTC) (a semi-autonomous agency under the Ministry of Labour), the National Centre for Human Resources Development, the Jordan Education Initiative, the Madrasati Initiative and other royal NGOs.

Over the last few years, sustained efforts have been made to offer career guidance and counselling services. These services support students in selecting post-secondary paths that match their abilities and aspirations. It should be mentioned that these services remain insufficient at lower education levels. The NSHRD stresses the importance of providing secondary students with career guidance

¹² https://www.oecd.org/dev/inclusivesocietiesanddevelopment/Youth_well_being_policy_review_Jordan.pdf.

and counselling services as a way to demonstrate the different education opportunities and the employment outcomes of chosen paths. In higher education, the King Abdullah II Fund for Development (KAFD) centres in 27 universities aim to support students in understanding labour requirements and equip them with the necessary skills to increase their employability.

Jordan 2025 places great importance on TVET as a potential policy measure to ameliorate the youth labour market. The NSHRD acknowledges that TVET provision is outdated, not 'applied' enough, and is not providing the skills required by Jordanian employers.

The Jordan National E-TVET Strategy (2014–2020) aims to develop and implement a demand-driven TVET system that enables Jordanians to fulfil their career aspirations and contribute to the country's economic growth and social development. In 2017, three ministries in charge of TVET designed a general framework for reforming the TVET sector and presented it as an implementation plan for the NSHRD. In 2018, the Cabinet, considering that it does not reflect the NSHRD strategic orientations, rejected the plan. In February 2018, a new labour minister was appointed. One of his first decisions was to withdraw a package of laws previously submitted to the Cabinet. The Ministry of Labour is currently working on a new implementation plan that will be more in line with the NSHRD.

TVET is delivered mainly in the initial education system and most training provision is public and comprises a wide range of programmes. The TVET system is divided into three branches: vocational training, vocational education and technical education. The MoE provides the bulk of upper secondary vocational education through its vocational stream in grades 11 and 12; the VTC owns and operates a network of 10 specialised institutes and 35 training institutes; and technical education is provided by 42 public and private community colleges offering two-year programmes (grades 13 and 14) leading to a diploma (under the MoE). In addition, a semi-public body, the National Employment and Training Company (NET), provides a one-year vocational training programme. Initially, it focused on the construction sector, but then expanded to other sectors, sometimes competing with private training providers¹³.

A major issue that the TVET sector is facing both at policy and service delivery levels is its strong fragmentation. Many of the TVET system players operate in isolation, although legislation and agreements between stakeholders exist to promote cooperation. Entry to one type of education or another is based on grades, and the pathways from one type to another are very limited. Based on their performance, almost 90% of students who complete the tenth grade of basic education are streamed either to general education (high performers) or to vocational education in the comprehensive secondary schools. The rest (low performers) can study in one of the VTC institutes. The lack of accreditation or pathways that allow mobility (permeability) across the system has a negative impact on enrolments.

In addition, despite the increasing need for more technical and vocational skills, TVET careers are not considered attractive due to 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 is seen as a better option to lead to stable and protected civil service jobs; however, such jobs are decreasing in number, adding to high youth inactivity and unemployment.

¹³ NET is managed by the Jordanian Armed Forces in collaboration with the Ministry of Labour and the private sector.

The TVET system in Jordan is benefitting from the support of many donors. Along with an EU programme including a budget support component (EUR 43 million and a complementary support component of EUR 9 million), many donors are active in the area of TVET. The Ministry of Labour has recently mapped out the donor interventions, which revealed that there are currently 36 projects with a total budget of JoD 223 350 000 (approx. EUR 268 million). The interventions cover the areas of job placement, enhancement of workforce participation and curricula development, and career guidance. The two key target beneficiaries across all projects are women and young people.

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 linkages 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, segmentation is prominent between Jordanians, economic immigrants and Syrian refugees. The current challenging situation in the labour market contributes to the high level of informality.

The labour market situation has deteriorated in the last few years. The size of the potential labour force at working age in Jordan is currently above 4 million, but economically active people represented only 36% in 2016¹⁴. The country has very low female participation rates, with only 17.3% of women active compared to 60.8% of men in 2017. Along with very low economic activity rates, employment rates are also low. The total employment rate decreased to 32% in 2017 from 33.4% in 2012, although it has slightly improved compared to 30.5% in 2016. The female employment rate is particularly low (11.9% in 2017).

Furthermore, the unemployment rate has been increasing over recent years, from 12.2% in 2012 to 15.3% in 2016 and 18.3% in 2017, affecting women more (31.2% in 2017). Medium-skilled workers perform better than low- or high-skilled workers. The unemployment rates for these categories were 8.7%, 14.6% and 21% respectively in 2016. This may be explained by the tendency to employ low-skilled migrants with lower salaries, on the one hand, and by a lack of good-quality job offers on the other hand.

The labour market outcomes for young Jordanians are alarming. The country's youth unemployment rate is approximately twice the rate for the overall population. In 2016, the youth unemployment rate (for those aged 15 to 24) reached 35.6% (56.9% for young women). Even more striking, approximately one third of unemployed young people are university graduates, which indicates a mismatch between skills supplied and skills demanded in the labour market. One explanation is the decline of the public sector as a main employer of individuals with university degrees, while the private sector has not

¹⁴ The 2017 Employment and Unemployment Survey was conducted on the basis of a new and improved methodology in line with International Labour Organisation recommendations; the sample size has been increased to 16 000 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 unpaid workers from the 'employed persons' definition.

emerged as an equally powerful employer. Unlike in the past, the public sector cannot absorb the large number of university graduates.

Furthermore, many young people are in vulnerable, informal and low-paid employment¹⁵. In 2012, 24.6% of young people aged 15 to 24 were not in employment, education or training, with young women more affected than young men (34.8% compared with 15.2%).

The Jordanian labour market is characterised by a high percentage of people employed in the public sector: 37.2% of total employment in 2017. It offers better working conditions in terms of security, shorter working hours and non-wage benefits. At the same time, the labour market is negatively affected by the large size of the informal sector, which represented 44% of total employment in 2015¹⁶. The working conditions in the private sector (especially in informal jobs) put Jordanians in a disadvantageous situation compared with immigrant workers and Syrian refugees, due to the latter two groups' acceptance of low salaries for the same categories of jobs.

Another important labour market trend relates to labour migration. The lack of well-remunerated domestic employment has led to as many as 785 000 highly skilled Jordanians seeking employment abroad, mainly in the Gulf countries. Jordanians have traditionally regarded the Gulf countries as virtual extensions of the local labour market for skilled and experienced professionals. At the same time, Jordan faces high levels of labour immigrant inflows (about 400 000 workers with work permits live and work in the country, and another 400 000 without legal permits)¹⁷. 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 the 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.

3.2 Employment policy and institutional setting

In 2011, Jordan adopted a comprehensive National Employment Strategy 2011–2020 (NES) to tackle employment challenges, specifically poor job growth, high structural unemployment and especially high youth unemployment, low labour force participation of women and the lack of policy coherence. The strategy includes supply-side, demand-side and institutional elements. On the demand side, the strategy underlines the importance of enabling the private sector to move up the value chain, increase its productivity, expand its ability to export products and services, and create more and better jobs. On the supply side, the objective is to create a skilled and motivated labour force to meet labour market demand. Institutional objectives include enhancing the government's capacities in policy planning, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation, as well as improving social protection and establishing a health insurance system for all.

In reality, the NES served as an umbrella for a collection of already existing projects and was used to mobilise additional resources. Reporting on the NES is limited to informing on the stage of implementation of these projects/actions; there is no substantive reporting either on the impact of interventions or on the achievements of the objectives of the strategy. At the request of the government of Jordan, in 2015, the International Labour Organisation carried out an evaluation of the NES; however, the report has never been published.

¹⁵ https://www.oecd.org/dev/inclusivesocietiesanddevelopment/Youth_well_being_policy_review_Jordan.pdf.

¹⁶ ETF (2017), Migrant support measures from an employment and skills perspective (MISMES): Jordan, available at: www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/MISMES_Jordan.

¹⁷ Ibid.

In September 2017, the government launched a National Employment and Empowerment Programme (2017–2021) with an overall budget of EUR 110 million. The aim is to decrease reliance on foreign labour, encourage the labour market participation of Jordanians, and enhance job creation for skilled Jordanians, including through supporting entrepreneurship and fostering female participation by enabling childcare services. The plan has been designed with the aim to gradually replace migrants with Jordanian workers after training and certification. The programme covers the following sectors: tourism, manufacturing (except garment), construction, agriculture, day-care centres and petrol stations. For each of these sectors, the programme has set up annual targets for decreasing the number of migrant workers, ranging from 10% for the construction sector to 25% for tourism. No progress has been made so far in the implementation of this programme due to lack of financial resources.

The Ministry of Labour is responsible for employment policies and operates with 21 employment offices. Three of these offices (Amman, Irbid and Zarqa) were transformed into ‘one-stop-shop’ services. They 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 jobseekers and employers; (iii) employment counselling services; and (iv) referrals to microfinance providers. Despite the existence of a dedicated section in the Ministry of Labour, career guidance services are still underdeveloped within public employment services. A further 40 private employment agencies co-exist on the market.

An online platform to match jobseekers and employers – the National Electronic Employment System (NEES)¹⁸ – is available to support matching demand and supply. The NEES has three access points for jobseekers, companies and staff. Jobseekers can register in three ways: online, in the employment office, or in the municipality with the support of a dedicated member of staff trained to use the system. It is expected that the NEES will lead to development of online career guidance but this is not yet operational.

There are several active labour market programmes (ALMPs), which are implemented within the framework of the NES, and they aim to enhance the quality of human capital, economically empower women and enhance entrepreneurship and business development. The public employment services and NGOs are the two main implementers of ALMPs. Private sector entities are involved as the lead implementing agency in 27% of all interventions. Slightly more than half of all interventions are implemented cooperatively, i.e. different types of agencies cooperate as lead implementers. There is wide variation in the number of beneficiaries of programmes, which range from pilot projects with fewer than 100 participants to large-scale programmes targeting several thousand people¹⁹. The most commonly provided ALMPs are skills training (technical and vocational skills) and employment services, whereas entrepreneurship promotion and subsidised employment programmes are less frequently offered.

Entrepreneurship is a hot topic on the economic agenda, receiving government attention in view of its value in helping address the high rates of unemployment. A programme was recently launched in partnership with the World Bank to improve access to funds for SMEs. The KAFD’s Productive Youth project connects young people with small business development funding opportunities. Another KAFD project, the Youth Empowerment Window, provides financial, technical and logistical support to turn young people’s innovative ideas into start-ups. The Development Employment Fund provides financial

¹⁸ See <http://nees.jo/>.

¹⁹ https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/documents/publication/wcms_598671.pdf.

support to small enterprises and promotes entrepreneurial culture in universities. Other organisations, such as the Jordan Enterprise Development Corporation and the United Nations Development Programme, provide business support services and financing²⁰.

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. 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 of the studies provides a mapping of the workforce in the sector by occupation, gender, and education level; it also analyses the training provision in terms of level of qualification. The studies pay special attention to female employment opportunities²¹. The NCHRD maintains a database that compiles data from the Department of Statistics, the Ministry of Labour (migrant workers), the Social Security Corporation, the VTC, the Ministry of Higher Education and the Civil Service Bureau. Various institutions are involved in labour market data production, but there is little cooperation between them and there is room to build a labour market information system.

²⁰ https://www.oecd.org/dev/inclusivesocietiesanddevelopment/Youth_well_being_policy_review_Jordan.pdf.

²¹ <http://www.nchrd.gov.jo/>.

JORDAN: STATISTICAL ANNEX

Annex will report annual data from 2012 and 2016 or the last available year

	Indicator	2012	2016	2017	
1	Total Population (000)	7427 ⁽¹⁾	9798 ⁽¹⁾	10053 ⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾	
2	Relative size of youth population (age group 15-24) (%)	32.1 ⁽¹⁾	32.1 ⁽¹⁾	32.1 ⁽¹⁾	
3	Youth Dependency ratio (%)	61.7	59.2	M.D.	
4	Old Dependency ratio (%)	6.2	6.3	M.D.	
5	Global Competitive Index	Rank	64	63	65
		Score	4.2	4.3	4.3
6	GDP growth rate (%)	2.7	2.0	M.D.	
7	GDP per capita (PPP) (current international \$)	9129	9048	M.D.	
8	GDP by sector (%)	Agriculture added value	3.1	4.3	M.D.
		Industry added value	30.1	28.9	M.D.
		Services added value	66.8	66.8	M.D.
9	Poverty headcount ratio at \$2 a day (PPP) (%)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	
10	Gini index (%)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	
11	Educational attainment of adult population (aged 25-64 or 15+) (%) ⁽³⁾	Low ⁽⁴⁾	59.4	61.5	59.1
		Medium ⁽⁵⁾	25.4	23.3	23.2
		High ⁽⁶⁾	15.2	15.2	17.7
12	Gross enrolment rates in secondary education (%)	74.2	70.1 (2014)	M.D.	
13	Share of VET students in secondary education (%)	3.5 (2011)	3.8 (2014)	M.D.	
14	Gross enrolment rates in upper secondary education (%)	69.1	62.9 (2014)	M.D.	
15	Share of VET students in upper secondary education (%)	12.3 (2011)	13.1 (2014)	M.D.	
16	Low achievement in reading, mathematics and science – PISA (%)	Reading	50.7	46.3 (2015)	N.A.
		Mathematics	68.6	67.5 (2015)	N.A.
		Science	49.6	49.8 (2015)	N.A.
17	Participation in training/lifelong learning (age group 25-64) by sex (%)	Total	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.
		Male	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.

	Indicator		2012	2016	2017
		Female	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.
18	Early leavers from education and training (age group 18-24) by sex (%)	Total	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.
		Male	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.
		Female	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.
19	Activity rates by sex (aged 15+) (%)	Total	38.0	36.0	39.2
		Male	61.3	58.7	60.8
		Female	14.1	13.2	17.3
20	Employment rates by sex (aged 15+) (%)	Total	33.4	30.5	32.0
		Male	54.9	50.9	51.9
		Female	11.3	10.0	11.9
21	Unemployment rates by sex (aged 15+) (%)	Total	12.2	15.3	18.3
		Male	10.4	13.3	14.7
		Female	19.9	24.1	31.2
22	Unemployment rates by educational attainment (aged 15+) (%)	Low ⁽⁴⁾	12.3	14.6	M.D.
		Medium ⁽⁵⁾	7.0	8.7	M.D.
		High ⁽⁶⁾	15.9	21.0	M.D.
23	Youth unemployment rates by sex (aged 15-24) (%)	Total	29.3	35.6	M.D.
		Male	25.2	31.5	M.D.
		Female	48.8	56.9	M.D.
24	Proportion of long-term unemployed out of the total unemployed (aged 15+) (%)		38.2	43.2	M.D.
25	Long-term unemployment rate (aged 15+) (%)		M.D.	M.D.	M.D.
26	Incidence of self-employment (%)		15.8	12.9	16.0
27	Share of the employed in a public sector (%)		38.7	38.6	37.2
28	Employment by sector (%)	Agriculture	2.0	1.9	M.D.
		Industry	17.5	17.6	M.D.
		Services	80.5	80.5	M.D.
29	Employment in the informal sector		M.D.	M.D.	M.D.
30	Proportion of people aged 15–24 not in employment, education or training (NEETs), by sex (%)	Total	24.6	M.D.	M.D.
		Male	15.2	M.D.	M.D.
		Female	34.8	M.D.	M.D.
31	Public expenditure on education (as % of GDP)		M.D.	M.D.	M.D.

	Indicator	2012	2016	2017
32	Public expenditure on education (as % of total public expenditure)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.
33	Skill gaps (%)	N.A.	9.5 (2013)	N.A.
34	The share of SMEs in GDP (%)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.
35	The share of SMEs in employment (%)	N.A.	31.0 (2014)	N.A.

Last update: 05/06/2018

Sources:

Indicators 1, 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, 33 – OECD

Indicator 30 – ILO

Indicator 35 – International Financial Corporation

Legend:

M.D. = Missing Data

N.A. = Not Applicable

Notes:

(1) estimations

(2) census data

(3) Jordanian population

(4) Low = Less than secondary + Illiterate

(5) Medium = Secondary + Intermediate diploma

(6) High = Bachelor and above

ANNEX: INDICATORS' 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 dependants (people younger than 15) to the working-age population (those in the 15–64 age group).
4	Old Dependency ratio (%)	The ratio of older dependants (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)

	Description	Definition
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)
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.

	Description	Definition
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 businesses.
35	The share of SMEs in employment (%)	The share of persons employed in small and medium businesses.

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