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KEY POLICY DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATION, TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT

2025

JORDAN

THE EU AGENCY SUPPORTING COUNTRIES TO DEVELOP THROUGH LEARNING

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ABOUT THIS PAPER

Each year, the ETF monitors developments in education, skills, and employment in its partner countries to support informed decision-making by identifying trends, opportunities, and challenges. The results are reported by country, across countries, and by selected theme.

This document is the 2025 country-level report (country fiche) for Jordan. Like all ETF monitoring, it draws on multiple sources of evidence and is the culmination of a year-long process of data collection, analysis, and consultations. One key source of evidence is the ETF KIESE database, which provides internationally comparable indicators on areas such as country demography, economy, education, and employment. The indicators are sourced mainly from international repositories, including UNESCO, the World Bank, the OECD, Eurostat, and the ILO, while some come directly from partner countries: for instance, from their labour force surveys[1].

Another source of evidence is the Torino Process, a flagship monitoring initiative of the ETF which compiles system performance indices (SPIs) on the basis of KIESE data and expert surveys. The SPIs combine selected KIESE indicators to track policy and system performance in education and Vocational Education and Training (VET) in key areas such as access, quality, and system management. Where KIESE data are missing, the SPIs rely on expert surveys which help fill the gaps and contextualise the findings at the stage of analysis. 'Performance' in this context refers to the extent to which policies and systems deliver results in these areas[2]. In 2025, the ETF compiled SPIs for a total of 32 areas and sub-areas of performance, including for groups of learners such as youth and adults, males and females, socio-economically disadvantaged young people, and adults with no or low education.

ETF country missions complement these data sources by engaging with key policy stakeholders, gathering qualitative insights on policy developments, recently enacted legislation, and major reform steps. Finally, where necessary, the ETF draws on third-party publications and analytical work to fill gaps in available evidence or to clarify developments that are not fully captured in the ETF monitoring evidence.

The country fiche begins with Chapter 1 – a country profile that describes the demographic and socio-economic conditions in the country. Chapter 2 presents recent policies in education and training, together with the structure of the education system, including adult learning. Chapter 3 provides an overview of employment and labour market policies and introduces the main strategies, institutions, and programmes. Chapter 4, which is the final chapter, presents the results of policies and arrangements in education and training.

[1] The full selection of KIESE indicators for 2025 can be found here: https://bit.ly/4j6taZW.
[2] The subset of KIESE indicators used for the calculation of the Torino Process SPIs in 2025 can be found here: https://bit.ly/433OR8j. The full list of questions used in the 2025 round of Torino Process system performance monitoring can be found here: https://bit.ly/3YUIbXE. For a full overview of the Torino Process system performance monitoring framework, see https://bit.ly/47YGA6l. The methodology for the calculation of the SPIs can be found here: https://bit.ly/3XJg101.

CONTENTS

KEY TAKEAWAYS

- **Country profile and developments**: the population of Jordan reached 11.4 million in 2023 and continues to grow. Non-Jordanian nationals account for around one quarter of residents, which reflects the scale of refugee and migrant inflows.

  Over the past few years, economic growth has been moderate and inflation low, while remittances continue to contribute a sizeable share of GDP despite a relatively small emigrant population. Jordan has a relatively high level of human development, although poverty still affects a substantial share of households.

- **Developments in education and training**: education and training policies in Jordan are guided by the National Strategy for Human Resource Development 2016–2025, the Economic Modernisation Vision 2022–2033 and the National TVET Strategy 2023–2027. Reforms focus on improving governance coherence, labour market relevance, and quality across general education and vocational education and training. Key developments include the gradual implementation of the National Qualifications Framework, stronger policy emphasis on work-based learning and career guidance, consolidation of quality assurance arrangements in TVET, and growing attention to digital skills, green transition priorities, and adult learning. However, the implementation of reforms remains uneven across policy areas.

- **Employment and labour market developments**: Jordan's labour market and employment policies are shaped by a combination of labour legislation, social protection instruments, and economy-wide reform strategies. Following the expiry of the National Employment Strategy 2011–2020, employment objectives have been embedded mainly in the Economic Modernisation Vision 2022–2033, which places job creation at the heart of economic reform. Recent labour law amendments have modernised employment relations and strengthened protections for women and non-standard workers. However, the participation of women in employment remains among the lowest globally, and youth unemployment remains particularly high.

- **Trends in access, retention, completion**: the monitoring results for Jordan in the domain of access to VET and adult learning are below average. From the learners' perspective, access to initial VET is hindered by high costs, limited appeal and perceptions of VET as a low-status pathway. There is also a gender factor at play: the participation of girls in VET tends to be concentrated in a few traditional fields.

  Opportunities for adult learning are more diverse and increasingly taken up by women, yet overall participation in continuing VET remains low, for the most part due to financial, geographic, and regulatory barriers. Retention and programme completion in IVET are also weak, while dropout rates are high.

- **Quality and relevance of learning**: learning outcomes in Jordan remain weak in both quality and labour market relevance. Monitoring results for young people in initial VET point to poor mastery of foundational skills, particularly among boys, combined with high underachievement and a lack of high performers. On paper, adults seem more likely to possess basic skills and competences, mainly due to widespread basic literacy, but this masks widespread gaps in technical and transversal competences reported by employers. The relevance of labour-market outcomes is limited: employment rates are low and do not vary much by educational attainment, while VET-related secondary qualifications provide only a small advantage in access to employment.

- **System management and organisation**: public spending on education and VET is modest, and VET institutions rely heavily on government budgets that leave little room for modern equipment, updated workshops, or sustained teacher development. As a result, shortages and poor-quality infrastructure affect instruction for a large share of learners, and donor-funded projects play a disproportionate role in programme modernisation, raising concerns about sustainability. Human

resource capacity is weak as well. Many instructors lack access to practice-oriented training, and staff shortages and insufficient qualifications are widely reported across VET institutions.

While Jordan has established institutional frameworks for data, qualifications, and quality assurance, these arrangements are not yet fully operational. Internal quality assurance procedures are widely in place, but external accountability, feedback mechanisms, and labour market information systems remain underdeveloped. School leadership is shaped by centralised governance, limited autonomy, and demanding working conditions, while internationalisation of VET remains largely ad hoc and driven by donor initiatives rather than embedded in a coherent national strategy.

1. COUNTRY PROFILE

Table 1.1 Demographic and socio-economic context: key indicators, Jordan

Indicator	Value	Year	Source
Total population (in thousands)	11 439.2	2023	UN DESA, World Bank
Relative size of youth population (%)	28.4	2023	UN DESA
Population growth rate (%)	1.6	2023	World Bank, UN DESA
Dependency ratio	55.2	2023	World Bank, UN DESA
Immigrant stock as % of total population	45.7	2024	UN DESA
Emigrant stock as % of total population	5.7	2024	UN DESA
GDP growth rate (%)	2.7	2023	World Bank
GDP per capita (PPP)	10 391.0	2023	World Bank
Migrant remittance inflows (mil. USD) as % of GDP	8.8	2023	World Bank
Inflation rate (%)	2.1	2023	IMF
Poverty headcount ratio (USD 8.30/day)	15.3	2010	World Bank
Gini coefficient (income inequality)	33.7	2010	World Bank
Human development index (HDI)	0.754	2023	UNDP, World Bank

Source: ETF KIESE database.

1.1 Demography

This section takes a look at a selection of indicators in Table 1.1 that describe the size and growth rate of the population, its age and its economic structure, as well as the scale and impact of inward and outward migration on population size, composition, and skills availability.

Jordan's population reached 11.4 million in 2023 and continues to expand at a rate of 1.6% per year (World Bank, 2025). Jordan is also a relatively young country: youth accounts for close to a third of the population (28.4%), while the total dependency ratio stands at 55.2, which means that just under two thirds of the population are of working age.

Population growth in Jordan is driven not only by natural increase, but also by immigration, particularly of refugees and migrant workers, who remain a decisive factor in demographic expansion (DHS Program, 2023).

Indeed, migration is Jordan's most distinctive demographic feature. Around 26% of the resident population are non-Jordanian nationals, or roughly 3 million people in 2023, including both refugees and foreign labour migrants (Department of Statistics & Higher Population Council, 2023). This demographic reality makes Jordan one of the most migration-shaped societies in the ETF monitoring sample. In contrast, emigration plays a much smaller role: Jordanians abroad account for about 5–6% of the population equivalent (Table 1.1).

Jordan has traditionally been a destination country, hosting successive refugee waves since the mid-20th century. The most significant demographic impact in recent years has come from Syrians, with about 1.3 million currently residing in Jordan, nearly 90% of whom are registered as refugees (UNHCR, 2023). Alongside Syrians, Egyptians constitute the largest migrant labour group, estimated at more than 600 000 workers (Jordan News, 2023). Other significant communities include Palestinians without Jordanian citizenship (about 634 000), Iraqis (about 130 000), and smaller groups of Yemenis and Libyans (Department of Statistics, 2016; UNHCR, 2025). These groups account for more than a quarter of the total population of Jordan.

1.2 Economy

The data in this section describe the economic context of the country in terms of GDP growth rate, GDP per capita (PPP), migrant remittance inflows as a percentage of GDP, and the inflation rate (Table 1.1).

In 2023, Jordan's economy expanded at a moderate pace, while inflation remained low. Real GDP grew by 2.7%, a rate that typically suggests resilience but may not be sufficient to generate broad employment opportunities or significant improvements in fiscal space.

With a GDP per capita of USD 10 391 (PPP), Jordan retains its position as a middle-income country, despite high immigration pressures and a challenging economic and geopolitical context. Inflation was at 2.1%, keeping consumer prices relatively stable in real terms, supporting household purchasing power and providing predictability for investment decisions.

Remittances accounted for 8.8% of GDP in 2023. This is striking when viewed against the emigrant stock of only 5.7%. It suggests that in Jordan, remittances play a somewhat disproportionate macroeconomic role, as Jordanians abroad appear to send home relatively large amounts compared to emigrant populations of similar size in other countries. The reasons are beyond the scope of this report, but may relate to the income levels of host economies where Jordanians work, the sectors of employment, or a strong remittance culture.

1.3 Income and living standards

The final section in this chapter describes the economic well-being and living standards of the population in terms of poverty levels, income distribution, and overall human development.

The Human Development Index (HDI) of Jordan stood at 0.754 in 2023, which places the country in the category of countries with a high level of human development. Education contributes strongly to this HDI score. Expected years of schooling were at 13.1 in 2023, compared to a mean of 10.2 years for the adult population (UNDP, 2024). These figures reflect both the expansion of access to education in recent decades and the high literacy rate, which currently exceeds 98% (World Bank, 2023b). According to third-party reports, younger generations benefit from greater opportunities, compulsory free education up to age 16 and sustained government prioritisation of learning (UNDP, 2024).

On the other hand, income per capita in Jordan remains a relatively weak HDI component. Limited natural resources, high dependency on energy imports, and severe water scarcity all hamper economic and large-scale industrial growth (World Bank, 2023a). In addition, the protracted impact of regional instability and refugee inflows have weighed on economic performance, while the public budget remains under pressure (World Bank, 2023c).

There is no recent data for income inequality in Jordan; the latest comparable dataset stems from 2010 (Gini coefficient of 33.7 in that year). The most recent poverty estimates for Jordan, based on the 2017–18 Household Expenditure and Income Survey, place the headcount ratio of those living close to the poverty line at 15.7%, which suggests that many households are likely exposed to shocks in employment and prices. This result is consistent across both the nationally defined poverty line of JOD 105.60 per person per month and the World Bank's international upper-middle-income poverty line of USD 8.30 per day (Department of Statistics, 2019; World Bank, 2023e). In contrast, extreme poverty, as defined in global terms, is very rare: less than 1% of Jordanians live below the USD 3.65 per day line, which is the international benchmark for lower-middle-income economies (World Bank, 2023d).

1.4 Recent developments

In 2025, the political context in Jordan was shaped by the outcome of parliamentary elections in September 2024 and the formation of a new government. King Abdullah II appointed Jafar Hassan as prime minister on 15 September 2024, and the cabinet operated during 2025 under a programme

focused on continuity of governance and socio-economic priorities (Reuters, 2024; Human Rights Watch, 2025). The 20th Parliament convened under the revised electoral framework, which increased the role of political parties compared to the previous legislature. The Islamic Action Front (IAF), commonly described as the political arm associated with the Muslim Brotherhood, secured 31 of 138 seats, becoming the largest single party grouping. Parliamentary majorities, however, remained in the hands of pro-government blocs and independents (Arab Reform Initiative, 2024; Reuters, 2024).

Policy activity during 2025 included reforms framed around security, civic responsibility, and institutional management. A central development was the adoption of legislation reinstating mandatory military service, scheduled to take effect in early 2026. Official reporting indicated an initial annual intake of approximately 6 000 18-year-old men, increasing to around 10 000 in later phases. The law also introduced penalties for non-compliance (Asharq Al-Awsat, 2025; Lexis Middle East, 2025). Government communication presented the reform as a structured civic and security measure rather than an electoral initiative (Asharq Al-Awsat, 2025). At the same time, international monitoring sources described political participation as more competitive than in earlier periods, while noting that executive authority continued to play a central role in decision-making (Freedom House, 2025).

The regulation of civic space remained a consistent feature of domestic political management in 2025. International organisations reported ongoing restrictions on expression and association, including in online environments. The Cybercrimes Law adopted in 2023 continued to be used as a legal basis for actions against online speech considered to threaten public order or national unity (Amnesty International, 2024; Human Rights Watch, 2025).

1.5 The crisis/war and its impact

Although the war in Gaza was external to Jordan, it had domestic implications throughout 2025. These effects were visible in patterns of protest, security responses, and the treatment of organised political actors. In response to public demonstrations linked to Gaza, in April 2025 authorities introduced additional restrictions on protest activity. Media reporting referred to bans on specific demonstrations and to tighter controls on the use of symbols during public gatherings (The Guardian, 2025; The New Arab, 2025). Government statements justified these measures on security grounds and referred to disrupted threats and public order considerations (The Guardian, 2025).

The most significant domestic political measure taken in this context concerned the organisational status of the Muslim Brotherhood. On 23 April 2025, the Ministry of Interior announced a ban on the Muslim Brotherhood's activities and initiated procedures to confiscate its assets, formally designating the organisation as illegal. The decision was publicly linked to alleged security concerns (Associated Press, 2025; International IDEA, 2025). Subsequent reporting documented enforcement actions affecting premises associated with the Islamic Action Front, including raids and the seizure of documents. The IAF stated publicly that it operated in accordance with Jordanian law (Associated Press, 2025; The Guardian, 2025). Analytical commentary connected these measures to increased public mobilisation related to Gaza and to the stronger parliamentary presence of Islamist opposition following the 2024 elections (Financial Times, 2025; Arab Center Washington DC, 2025).

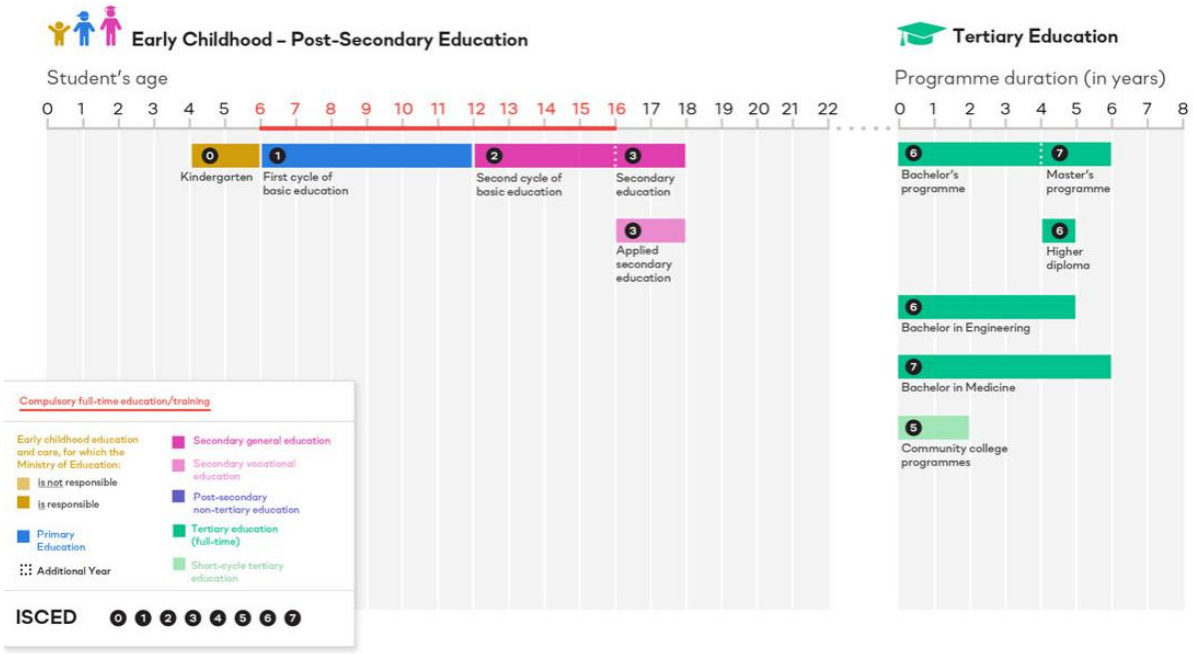
Developments related to the crisis also intersected with digital governance. Reporting on the April 2025 measures referred to official warnings regarding online expressions of support for banned organisations and highlighted the continued relevance of the 2023 Cybercrimes Law in this context (The Guardian, 2025; Amnesty International, 2024).

2. EDUCATION AND TRAINING: POLICIES AND DEVELOPMENTS

2.1 Structure and levels of education, including VET

This section provides a brief description of how the education system is organised across different levels, including pre-primary, primary, secondary (distinguishing between general and vocational tracks), tertiary, and adult learning. It uses the UNESCO ISCED classification and is based on monitoring information collected through the Torino Process expert survey[3].

Figure 2.1 Structure of the education system: Jordan (2025)



Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2021).

Formal education

Pre-school in Jordan is provided through kindergartens for children aged four to six years old. At the age of six, pupils enter basic education, which is compulsory and extends until the age of 16. This stage is divided into two cycles: the first from age 6 to 12, and the second from age 13 to 16. Both cycles are delivered by public and private schools under the accreditation of the Ministry of Education.

At the end of the tenth grade, students may continue into upper secondary education, also overseen by the Ministry of Education. Two pathways are available at this stage: the academic stream and the vocational stream. Completion of the vocational stream leads to a recognised vocational certificate (ISCED 3). After completing 12 years of schooling in either stream, all students are required to sit for the general secondary examination (*Tawjihi*). Successful candidates may proceed either to technical education in colleges, typically lasting two years and resulting in a diploma, or to universities.

University programmes vary in duration according to the discipline, but most bachelor's programmes require four years of full-time study. Fields of study include humanities, sciences, ICT, nursing, medicine, and engineering. Beyond the bachelor's degree, students may pursue master's degrees, higher diplomas (mainly in humanities), or doctoral studies. The Ministry of Higher Education, together

[3] The full questionnaire can be found here: https://bit.ly/418jfwC. In this document, the survey may be referred to interchangeably as the 'monitoring survey', 'expert survey' or 'Torino Process monitoring survey'.

with the Accreditation and Quality Assurance Commission, regulates and accredits all higher education and training institutions.

The vocational education and training system is shaped largely by public provision. The Vocational Training Corporation (VTC), together with technical colleges managed by Al-Balqa' Applied University, provides a wide range of vocational opportunities. The armed forces also deliver vocational training through National Employment and Training Company (NETC). While some private centres exist, very few are formally accredited, and comprehensive data on their number are lacking. UNRWA contributes to provision at ISCED 3 level. At post-secondary non-tertiary level (ISCED 4), the VTC offers technical diplomas lasting from several months up to two years. Entry normally requires completion of the tenth grade.

Learners in VTC programmes may enrol at one of three levels: semi-skilled, skilled or crafts. The training lasts from six months to two years depending on the chosen track. Under certain conditions, graduates with work experience can progress to applied diploma programmes in technical colleges, though this transition remains limited in practice.

Adult learning

Adult learning in Jordan is delivered through six main programmes and provider types: the formal education sector and literacy programmes; higher education institutions and continuing education centres; national institutions specialising in adult education and training; vocational and technical training providers; local and international civil society organisations; and private adult education and training institutions. More than 6 000 training providers operated across these in 2019–2020, reaching over half a million beneficiaries. Civil society organisations are the largest contributors of opportunities for adult learning (43% of the adult education offer), followed by private providers (28%) and VET institutions (12%).

In an effort to tackle the persistent challenge of gaps in adult literacy and educational attainment in Jordan, the Ministry of Education offers free instruction in reading and writing for learners of all ages through 192 literacy centres. Complementary initiatives include home-study schemes, evening classes in correctional institutions, and cultural promotion programmes for school dropouts. Additional efforts are carried out by charities and community-based organisations, which implement smaller-scale literacy courses.

2.2 Strategy and legal framework

General education

General education in Jordan is governed primarily by Education Law No 3 of 1994 (as amended), which establishes the structure of the school system and defines the roles and responsibilities of the Ministry of Education. The law mandates ten years of compulsory basic education, followed by two years of secondary education, and guarantees free access to public schooling at both levels. It also provides the legal basis for a nationally unified curriculum, centralised examinations, and the regulation of public and private schools. These core legal provisions remain in force and continue to shape the organisation and delivery of general education (Government of Jordan, 1994; UNESCO, 2023).

Recent policy developments have been guided by medium-term national strategies rather than new primary legislation. The National Strategy for Human Resource Development (2016–2025) positioned general education as a foundation for human capital formation, calling for improved learning outcomes, greater equity, and stronger links between education stages (Government of Jordan, 2016). These priorities were operationalised through the Education Strategic Plan (ESP) 2018–2022, which focused on school infrastructure expansion, curriculum reform, teacher development, and improved system management. The ESP also addressed access pressures linked to demographic growth and refugee inflows, with the aim of maintaining high enrolment while improving quality (Ministry of Education, 2018).

Policy regarding teachers has been a central element of recent reforms. Teachers in general education are required to hold at least a bachelor's degree, and policy attention has increasingly shifted towards professional standards and accountability. A national teacher professional licensing framework has been introduced, under which all teachers in public, private, military, and UNRWA schools will be required to obtain a licence based on competency standards, with full implementation foreseen from the 2027/28 school year. The reform is intended to institutionalise continuous professional development and improve teaching quality across the system (World Bank, 2023). In parallel, inclusion policies have gained prominence. Law on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities No 20 of 2017 and the National Framework for Inclusion and Diversity in Education, launched in 2025, strengthen obligations on schools to accommodate diverse learning needs and promote equitable access (Government of Jordan, 2017; Ministry of Education, 2025).

Vocational education

VET in Jordan is governed by a separate, more recently reformed legal framework. A major turning point was the adoption of Vocational and Technical Skills Development Law No 9 of 2019, which fundamentally reshaped the governance of TVET in the country. The law established the Technical and Vocational Skills Development Commission (TVSDC) as the central coordinating and regulatory body for vocational education and training across ministries and providers. Its mandate includes provider licensing and accreditation, qualification development, quality assurance, and coordination with labour market stakeholders. This reform aimed to reduce fragmentation between school-based vocational education and labour market-oriented training provision (Government of Jordan, 2019; ETF, 2022).

The 2019 law also strengthened the institutional foundations for quality assurance and qualifications. Accreditation and quality assurance functions were consolidated under the TVSDC, and the commission was tasked with overseeing the implementation of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) for vocational and technical qualifications. The NQF is intended to clarify learning outcomes, support comparability across qualifications, and improve permeability between vocational and academic pathways, including progression to post-secondary and higher education (ETF, 2022; World Bank, 2023). These reforms address long-standing challenges related to the status of vocational pathways and limited progression opportunities for VET graduates.

Strategic direction for the sector is provided through national development frameworks and dedicated TVET strategies. Jordan Vision 2025 and the Economic Modernisation Vision both emphasise vocational skills development as a response to youth unemployment and skills mismatches. Building on earlier reforms, the National TVET Strategy 2023–2027, developed under the leadership of the TVSDC, sets priorities in three areas: governance and coordination, quality and labour market relevance, and attractiveness of vocational pathways. The strategy promotes stronger engagement with employers through Sector Skills Councils, updates occupational standards and curricula, and seeks to align public funding more closely with labour market needs (TVSDC, 2023; Government of Jordan, 2022).

2.3 Main actors and governance

National level

Governance of education and training in Jordan is characterised by a strongly centralised model, with responsibilities allocated across several national institutions according to education level and programme type. General education falls under the authority of the Ministry of Education (MoE), which is responsible for policy formulation, curriculum development, national examinations, teacher recruitment, and the regulation of both public and private schools. The MoE oversees basic education (Grades 1–10) and secondary education (Grades 11–12), including academic and vocational streams offered at the upper secondary level. Implementation is carried out through a network of regional directorates that function as administrative extensions of the central ministry rather than autonomous authorities (Government of Jordan, 1994; UNESCO, 2023).

Provision at the school level involves a mix of public, private, and international actors operating under national regulation. In addition to public schools, a sizeable private school sector delivers general education across all levels under the supervision of the MoE. The United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) operates schools for Palestinian refugees, which enrol a substantial number of learners and follow curricula aligned with national standards. While service delivery is diversified, governance remains unified through central regulation, national curricula, and standardised examinations, including the *Tawjihi* at the end of secondary education (UNESCO, 2023; World Bank, 2023).

The governance of VET is more fragmented but has undergone significant reform since 2019. School-based vocational education at upper secondary level is delivered by the MoE. At the same time, vocational training outside the school system is primarily managed by the Vocational Training Corporation (VTC) under the Ministry of Labour, which operates around 35 training centres nationwide and enrolled approximately 12 000 trainees in 2021 (ETF, 2022; World Bank, 2023). Before its replacement through the Accreditation and Quality Assurance Commission, the TVSDC was responsible for provider licensing, accreditation, quality assurance, and the development of occupational standards through Sector Skills Councils involving employers. These reforms aim to reduce institutional fragmentation and strengthen labour market relevance, although operational responsibilities remain distributed across multiple institutions (Government of Jordan, 2019; ETF, 2022).

Adult education and non-formal learning are led primarily by the MoE through national literacy and adult education programmes. The ministry operates close to 200 adult literacy centres, the work of which has contributed to a reduction of adult illiteracy in Jordan to below 5%. Second-chance education programmes for school dropouts are delivered through non-formal pathways, often in partnership with NGOs and community organisations, but remain under MoE oversight. Other ministries, such as the Ministry of Social Development, play a supporting role in community-based learning initiatives, while employer-led and private training provision is more prominent in continuing vocational training and skills upgrading (UNESCO, 2023; World Bank, 2023).

International level: donors

International donors play a substantial role in supporting education and training in Jordan. Donor engagement is coordinated through sector working groups, while the World Bank plays a central role in policy dialogue and financing. World Bank support has included long-term engagement in education system reform, most recently through education reform support programmes and the preparation of a new large-scale programme focused on modernising service delivery, governance, and learning outcomes (World Bank, 2023).

The European Union has been a key partner through sector budget support and technical assistance, particularly in the areas of inclusive education, system governance, and vocational education and training. EU-funded programmes have supported reforms in VET governance, quality assurance, and alignment with labour market needs, complementing national initiatives led by the TVSDC. These interventions typically combine policy support with targeted institutional capacity building rather than direct service provision (European Commission, 2022; ETF, 2022).

UN agencies remain central actors, particularly in general education and adult learning. UNICEF has focused on access to education, system resilience, and support for vulnerable learners, including refugees, in close cooperation with the MoE. UNESCO has supported policy development, education planning, and system monitoring, including alignment with national strategies and international frameworks. These agencies often work at the intersection of policy support and implementation, especially in areas such as inclusion, non-formal education, and teacher development (UNESCO, 2023; UNICEF, 2022).

Bilateral donors complement multilateral support through targeted programmes. Until its dissolution, USAID was a major contributor to general education reform, in particular through large-scale programmes to improve early grade reading and mathematics and to strengthen school management. Germany, through GIZ and KfW, has focused primarily on vocational education and training,

supporting governance reforms, instructor training, and infrastructure investment in VET centres. These initiatives often operate over multiple years and are closely aligned with national reform agendas, particularly in skills development and employability (USAID, 2023; GIZ, 2022).

2.4 Policies and developments

Overview

Education and training reforms in Jordan in recent years have been shaped by a small number of overarching national strategies that remain active in 2025. The National Strategy for Human Resource Development 2016–2025 continues to provide the main cross-sectoral framework, positioning education, VET, and skills development as core drivers of human capital formation (Government of Jordan, 2016). This agenda has been reinforced by the Economic Modernisation Vision 2022–2033, which places particular emphasis on employability, productivity, and the development of skills aligned with growth sectors, including digital and green industries (Government of Jordan, 2022). In education, the Ministry of Education has continued to operate beyond the formal end of the Education Strategic Plan 2018–2022, aligning ongoing reforms with a longer-term Education Sector Vision to 2033 that prioritises learning quality, inclusion, and system resilience (Ministry of Education, 2018; World Bank, 2023).

The reform momentum in VET has been sustained through the implementation of the National TVET Strategy 2023–2027, developed under the leadership of the TVSDC. The strategy focuses on governance coherence, labour market relevance, and the attractiveness of vocational pathways, while reinforcing employer engagement and system-wide quality assurance (TVSDC, 2023; ETF, 2024).

Qualifications, validation, and recognition

Jordan has made structural progress in developing a more transparent and outcomes-based qualifications system through the introduction of a National Qualifications Framework (NQF). Adopted by by-law in 2019, Jordan's NQF is a 10-level framework covering general education, vocational education and training, and higher education, structured around learning outcomes in terms of knowledge, skills, and competences (Government of Jordan, 2019; ETF, 2023). Responsibility for implementation is shared between the Accreditation and Quality Assurance Commission for Higher Education Institutions and the TVSDC (later the Accreditation and Quality Assurance Commission), which reflects the cross-sectoral scope of the framework.

Implementation of the NQF has progressed gradually. Governance structures, technical committees, and operational guidelines have been established, and work is ongoing to align qualifications and occupational standards with the framework. However, as of 2025, a comprehensive public register of qualifications fully referenced to the NQF has not yet been completed (ETF, 2024).

The NQF also provides a legal basis for the recognition of prior learning (RPL), defined as the assessment and certification of skills acquired through non-formal and informal learning. While RPL is formally recognised in policy documents, operational procedures and large-scale implementation mechanisms remain under development (ETF, 2023). Parallel to these efforts, Jordan has begun introducing internationally recognised vocational qualifications, including BTEC (Business and Technology Education Council) programmes, to improve transparency, labour market relevance, and international recognition of VET outcomes (ETF, 2024).

Work-based learning

Recent education and training policies in Jordan refer more directly to work-based learning (WBL) as a core element of vocational provision. Practical training elements are already embedded across multiple pathways. In school-based vocational education, students in upper secondary vocational streams are required to complete periods of workplace practice or structured practical training as part of programme completion (World Bank, 2023). In vocational training, the VTC integrates workplace exposure into most of its programmes through partnerships with employers across sectors, while the

National Employment and Training Company combines institutional training with on-the-job experience, particularly in construction, manufacturing, and services (ETF, 2024).

Recent policy efforts have focused on strengthening coherence and quality in WBL provision. Under the National TVET Strategy 2023–2027, Jordan has begun developing a national framework for work-based learning, supported by draft regulations intended to clarify roles, quality standards, and responsibilities for training providers and employers (TVSDC, 2023). These measures aim to move beyond ad hoc arrangements towards more structured apprenticeship and dual training models. Employer participation is supported indirectly through employment and training schemes, including wage subsidies and national employment programmes that incentivise firms to host trainees and new entrants (World Bank, 2023). While implementation remains uneven, the policy direction indicates a gradual shift towards more systematic integration of learning and work.

Career guidance

Career guidance has gained greater policy visibility in recent years, in response to concerns about the quality of transition from education to work, as well as persistent skills mismatches. Jordan has adopted a National Career Guidance Strategy, supported by international partners, which promotes earlier, more structured, and more inclusive guidance services across education and training pathways (ETF, 2024). Schools increasingly integrate career awareness activities, including workplace visits, internships, and counselling sessions, particularly at secondary level.

Recent developments include efforts to modernise guidance services through digital tools and data-driven approaches. Reviews conducted with UNESCO support in 2024–2025 highlighted the need to strengthen counsellor capacity, improve access to labour market information, and address social perceptions of vocational education (UNESCO, 2025). Pilot initiatives linked to ongoing TVET reform projects are testing new service models, including online guidance platforms and targeted support for women, disadvantaged youth, and jobseekers. While coverage remains uneven, career guidance is increasingly framed as a system-level function rather than a marginal support service (ETF, 2024).

Quality assurance

Historically fragmented across multiple ministries and agencies, quality assurance in TVET has been progressively consolidated following the establishment of the TVSDC in 2019, later replaced by the Accreditation and Quality Assurance Commission. Both entities were mandated to license and accredit vocational training providers, approve occupational standards, and oversee quality frameworks across public and private provision (Government of Jordan, 2019; ETF, 2023).

Despite this consolidation, quality assurance practices remain largely input- and process-oriented. They focus on compliance with requirements related to infrastructure, staffing, and curricula rather than on outcomes. External evaluation of provider performance and systematic use of graduate outcomes remain limited (World Bank, 2023). Recent initiatives seek to address these gaps. The TVSDC and later the Accreditation and Quality Assurance Commission are implementing a set of national performance indicators and strengthened data collection across providers, aligning monitoring practices more closely with national reform objectives. In parallel, accreditation bodies in higher and post-secondary education continue to apply programme-level standards, contributing to a differentiated but increasingly coordinated QA landscape (ETF, 2024).

Centres of excellence

Policies promoting centres of excellence in vocational education are emerging but remain at an early stage of development. The National TVET Strategy 2023–2027 calls for the identification and development of high-performing institutions that can serve as models for quality, innovation, and employer engagement (TVSDC, 2023). With technical support from the ETF, Jordan has begun defining criteria for vocational excellence, covering governance, teaching quality, infrastructure, and labour market links (ETF, 2024).

In practice, selected institutions have been upgraded through targeted investments, often supported by international cooperation. Examples include specialised training centres in areas such as automotive technology, renewable energy, and advanced manufacturing. These initiatives aim to pilot new curricula, technologies, and partnership models, with the expectation that successful practices can be scaled across the system. However, a formal national designation framework for centres of excellence has not yet been fully established (ETF, 2024).

Digital education and skills

Digitalisation has become a core component of education reform in Jordan since 2020. The Ministry of Education has implemented a national education technology strategy aligned with broader digital transformation policies, focusing on infrastructure, digital content, and teacher capacity (World Bank, 2023). The rapid deployment of the Darsak platform during the COVID-19 pandemic created a national digital learning infrastructure that continues to support blended learning models across Grades 1–12.

Digital skills have also been strengthened within curricula, particularly at upper basic and secondary levels, through the expansion of ICT, coding, and computer science content. Teacher training programmes include digital pedagogy components, supported by online professional development platforms. In VET, digital tools such as simulations and virtual learning environments are being introduced to complement practical training, although uptake varies by provider (ETF, 2024).

Green transition

The Economic Modernisation Vision 2022–2033 identifies green growth and sustainability as strategic priorities, with implications for skills development and workforce preparation (Government of Jordan, 2022). In response, VET strategies emphasise the integration of green skills into existing programmes and the development of new qualifications aligned with renewable energy, energy efficiency, water management, and sustainable agriculture.

Several vocational institutions have begun offering specialised training in solar energy systems, electric and hybrid vehicle maintenance, and environmental technologies, often with donor support. Environmental awareness and sustainability concepts are also being incorporated into general education curricula and extracurricular activities (ETF, 2024).

Adult learning

Adult learning in Jordan is a combination of long-standing literacy programmes and more recent efforts to support upskilling and reskilling. The provision of adult literacy programmes, led by the Ministry of Education through a network of community-based centres, has contributed to an adult literacy rate exceeding 90% (UNESCO, 2023). Beyond literacy, adult vocational learning is primarily delivered through the VTC, community colleges, and specialised training providers, offering short courses and vocational programmes to unemployed and employed adults.

Recent employment-focused initiatives, including national employment and training schemes, have strengthened links between adult learning and labour market entry, often through subsidised training and workplace experience. However, adult learning remains fragmented, and participation in continuing education beyond vocational training is limited. Recognition of prior learning and flexible learning pathways remain at an early stage of implementation (World Bank, 2023; ETF, 2024).

3. LABOUR MARKET AND EMPLOYMENT: POLICIES AND DEVELOPMENTS

3.1 Strategy and legal framework

Since 2020, employment policy objectives in Jordan have been addressed mainly through broader economic reform strategies and labour market legislation. The most recent comprehensive National Employment Strategy (2011–2020) has expired and has not yet been replaced. In practice, employment policy priorities are now embedded within wider economic reform agendas, most notably the Economic Modernisation Vision 2022–2033, which sets job creation as a central objective and targets the creation of more than one million jobs by 2033, largely through private-sector growth (Government of Jordan, 2022).

Labour market regulation is anchored in Labour Law No 8 of 1996, as amended. Recent amendments have focused on modernising employment relations and improving labour market inclusion. Changes adopted since 2019 introduced an explicit prohibition of gender-based wage discrimination, extended maternity leave to 90 days, introduced paid paternity leave, strengthened protections against workplace harassment, and revised childcare requirements for employers (Ogletree Deakins, 2019; Paul Hastings, 2025). New regulations on flexible and remote work, adopted in 2024, formally recognise non-standard employment arrangements and define rights and obligations for employers and workers, with the aim of increasing labour force participation, particularly among women (Paul Hastings, 2025).

The legal framework is complemented by the Social Security Law, which governs pensions, unemployment insurance, and employment injury benefits. Since the 2010s, coverage has been gradually expanded, including the introduction of unemployment insurance. The National Social Protection Strategy 2019–2025 explicitly links employment and social protection objectives and calls for extending social security coverage to informal and vulnerable workers (UNICEF & Government of Jordan, 2019). Together, these instruments frame labour market policy in Jordan around a combination of regulatory reform, social protection expansion, and employment-led economic growth.

3.2 Main actors and governance

National level

At national level, responsibility for employment policy and labour market regulation lies primarily with the Ministry of Labour (MoL). The MoL is responsible for labour legislation, labour inspection, employment policy design, and the delivery of public employment services (PES). Employment services are provided through the Employment Directorate of the MoL, which operates labour offices in all governorates and manages the National Electronic Employment System (NEES) for job matching and registration (Ministry of Labour, 2019).

Several semi-autonomous bodies contribute to policy implementation, and other institutions play complementary roles. The Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation (MOPIC) coordinates employment-related donor programmes, while the Social Security Corporation (SSC) administers unemployment insurance and employment injury schemes. The Civil Service Bureau regulates recruitment to public sector employment, which remains significant in Jordan. Despite this institutional landscape, coordination across employment policies, ALMPs, and social protection remains fragmented, and no single body has an explicit mandate to coordinate employment promotion across government (ETF, 2022b).

International level: donors

International partners play an important role in Jordan's employment policies, largely through supporting programmes aligned with national priorities. The World Bank has been a key actor, providing financing for large-scale employment initiatives, including support for the National Employment Programme (Tashgheel) through a loan approved in 2021 (World Bank, 2021). The International Labour Organization (ILO) provides technical assistance on labour regulation, labour inspection, and employment-intensive investment programmes.

The European Union has supported employment and labour market reforms through budget support and through the EU–Jordan Compact, which linked trade concessions to job creation for Jordanians and Syrian refugees. Bilateral donors, including Germany (GIZ and KfW), USAID, and Canada, support skills development, employment promotion, and private-sector job creation. Donor interventions are generally coordinated through national frameworks, particularly in the context of the refugee response and economic recovery (ETF, 2022b; World Bank, 2023). The Union for the Mediterranean (UfM)[4] supports Jordan by fostering regional cooperation, offering political dialogue, and promoting policy alignment with Mediterranean priorities. It also strengthens national capacities through peer-learning, technical assistance, and regional projects that enhance governance, social development, and human capital.

3.3 Policies and developments

Overview

Labour market policies in recent years in Jordan have focused on stimulating private-sector job creation, increasing labour force participation, and improving labour market inclusion. Unemployment remains high, at around 23% in recent years, while labour force participation is low, particularly among women (World Bank, 2023). The Economic Modernisation Vision 2022–2033 represents the main policy response, combining investment promotion, sectoral development, and labour market reforms. In 2024, Jordan reportedly added around 96 000 jobs, mainly in the private sector, reflecting post-pandemic recovery and reform efforts (Jordan Economic Forum, 2025).

Inclusion policies target youth, women, persons with disabilities, and other vulnerable groups. Female labour force participation remains among the lowest globally (around 14–15%), and female unemployment is substantially higher than male unemployment. Legal reforms on childcare provision, flexible work, and equal pay are intended to address structural barriers to women's employment, alongside targeted wage subsidies and transport support under employment programmes (World Bank, 2021; Paul Hastings, 2025). Youth unemployment remains particularly high[5]; in 2024 it exceeded 40% for young people aged 15–24. Policy responses emphasise skills development, vocational training, and subsidised employment rather than a formal Youth Guarantee, which Jordan has not implemented.

Labour market inclusion for refugees

The presence of a large refugee population, particularly Syrians, has had a significant impact on Jordan's labour market. Since the launch of the EU–Jordan Compact in 2016, policies have facilitated access to work permits for Syrian refugees in selected sectors, including agriculture, construction, and manufacturing. Administrative simplifications and fee waivers led to the formalisation of many previously informal jobs. By 2023, more than 250 000 work permits had been issued cumulatively to Syrian refugees (World Bank, 2016). Refugee labour market inclusion has been supported by international financing and has focused on formalisation rather than large-scale job creation.

[4] https://ufmsecretariat.org/
[5] Jordan Youth Unemployment Rate | Historical Chart & Data

Informal employment

Informal employment remains widespread and has increased in recent years. By 2022, around 53% of employed persons were working in informal jobs, up from about 45% in 2017 (Development Pathways, 2025). Informality is particularly prevalent among low-skilled workers, migrants, and refugees. Policy responses focus on extending social security coverage, simplifying registration procedures, and strengthening labour inspection. The National Social Protection Strategy 2019–2025 explicitly aims to reduce informality by expanding access to social insurance and encouraging voluntary enrolment for self-employed and informal workers (UNICEF & Government of Jordan, 2019).

3.4 Active labour market programmes (ALMPs)

Overview of ALMPs

Jordan implements a broad range of ALMPs which include training, wage subsidies, employment incentives, public works, and entrepreneurship support. The flagship programme is the National Employment Programme (Tashgeel), launched in 2022. It provides wage subsidies and covers social security contributions for newly hired Jordanians for up to 6–12 months, targeting around 60 000 job opportunities, with quotas for women and youth (World Bank, 2021). The programme is financed through a combination of national resources and World Bank support.

Other ALMPs include the Productive Branches Initiative, which incentivises firms to locate in high-unemployment areas, and the Khedmat Watan programme, which provides vocational training and work readiness for young people aged 18–27. Public works and cash-for-work programmes, often implemented with ILO support, have provided temporary employment for Jordanians and refugees, particularly in infrastructure and municipal services (ILO, 2021). Beneficiary data indicate a strong focus on youth and, to a lesser extent, women, although sustained employment outcomes remain uneven (ETF, 2022).

Public employment services (PES)

Public employment services are delivered by the Ministry of Labour through a relatively small network of labour offices. As of 2020, around 88 staff members have been dedicated to employment services nationwide, serving tens of thousands of registered jobseekers. This translates into very high caseloads per counsellor, limiting the scope for personalised support (Ministry of Labour, 2019; ETF, 2022b). Placement outcomes remain modest, with around 10 000–18 000 placements per year through PES intermediation.

Recent efforts have focused on digitalisation and modernisation, including the expansion of the National Electronic Employment System and increased use of online registration and vacancy matching. Donor-supported projects aim to strengthen employer outreach, data integration, and monitoring of ALMP outcomes. However, capacity constraints, limited specialisation of staff, and fragmented coordination with training providers limits the effectiveness of PES (ETF, 2022b).

4. KEY INDICATORS: EDUCATION, SKILLS, EMPLOYMENT

4.1 Headline indicators

Education and VET

Monitoring a complex education and training system typically starts with three straightforward questions: who takes part, what do they achieve, and what supports the process?

The first question explores the extent to which learners engage in education or training. It is addressed by indicators grouped under Participation and access in Table 4.1: net enrolment rates at lower and upper secondary levels, the share of students in upper secondary VET, the gross enrolment ratio in tertiary education, and adult participation rates in lifelong learning. The second question – what learners achieve – examines key education outcomes, such as learner progression and the skills or qualifications they obtain. These are reflected in the indicators under Attainment, completion and outcomes: the share of adults with tertiary qualifications, the rate of early leavers from education and training, and the percentage of 15-year-olds underachieving in mathematics. The third question considers the financial, physical, and informational resources that sustain the education process, reflected by the indicators under Resources and data: public expenditure on education as a share of GDP, the adequacy of infrastructure, and the availability of internationally comparable data.

Table 4.1 Headline indicators: education and VET (Jordan, EU average) (2022–2024)

Participation and access	2022	2023	2024	EU (1)	Source
Total net enrolment rate (in %, lower secondary)	94.5	95.4	M.D.	98.1	UIS UNESCO
Total net enrolment rate (in %, upper secondary)	80.0	82.6	M.D.	93.6	UIS UNESCO
Students in VET as a % of total upper secondary students	10.2	10.7	M.D.	48.8	UIS UNESCO
Gross enrolment ratio (tertiary)	32.5	33.1	M.D.	79.7	UIS UNESCO
Participation in training/lifelong learning in the previous 4 weeks (% aged 25–64)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	13.3	LFS
Attainment, completion and outcomes	**2022**	**2023**	**2024**	**EU (1)**	**Source**
Educational attainment of total population: % with ISCED 5–8	18.6	19.2	19.9	30.2	LFS
Early leavers from education and training (% aged 18–24)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	9.3	LFS
Underachievers in maths (% aged 15)	82.8	N/A	N/A	31.1	PISA OECD
Resources and data	**2022**	**2023**	**2024**	**EU (1)**	**Source**
Public expenditure on education (as % of GDP)	3.2	M.D.	M.D.	4.7	UIS UNESCO
Inadequate or poor-quality physical infrastructure (2)	53.5	N/A	N/A	27.9	PISA OECD
Availability of data on education (%)	N/A	47.4	51.9	N/A	TRP (3)

Notes: 1. EU average, latest available year. PISA data: OECD average. 2. Percentage of students in schools whose principal reported that the school's capacity to provide instruction is hindered at least to some extent by inadequate or poor-quality physical infrastructure. 3. ETF Torino Process (TRP). Share of internationally comparable indicators available out of those foreseen for the 2025 monitoring round.
Source: ETF KIESE database.

Participation in education in Jordan is close to universal at lower secondary level (95.4% in 2023), but many learners do not continue into upper secondary, which is the first non-compulsory stage (see Section 2.1). Net enrolment in upper secondary education is at 82.6% (Table 4.1), which is more than 10 percentage points below the average for EU countries. Only around 11% of upper secondary students are enrolled in VET, compared to nearly half in the EU. Gross enrolment in higher education

is at only 33.1%, less than half of the EU benchmark of 79.7%. Data on adult participation in learning is missing.

The share of the population with tertiary qualifications increased from 18.6% in 2022 to 19.9% in 2024, though this is still well below the EU reference of 30.2%. Part of the problem is the sizeable gap in foundational skills among 15-year-olds, which likely has long-term implications for their prospects of progressing to higher levels of education. 8 out of every 10 students (82.8%) were underachievers in mathematics, more than double the EU average of 31.1% (Table 4.1). At the same time, there are no data on early school leaving, which makes it difficult to assess how many learners exit education without qualifications.

The indicators selected for the monitoring of resources in education and training in Table 4.1 show that the level of investment in education is relatively low, and that the material conditions for learning may not be optimal. Public expenditure on education amounted to 3.2% of GDP in 2022, below the EU average of 4.7%. Over half of students reported inadequate or poor-quality physical infrastructure in schools (53.5% compared to 27.9% in the EU). At the same time, the share of internationally comparable indicators available for monitoring rose to 51.9% in 2024, though significant gaps remain, as can be seen in Table 4.1.

Employment and demand for skills

The set of labour market indicators follows the same question-and-answer logic applied to education and training, but from the perspective of employment. The indicators are organised into two complementary groups. The first group, Employment and labour market outcomes (Table 4.2), addresses how effectively the labour market absorbs people. It consists of the overall employment rate (aged 15+), youth employment rate (aged 15–24), employment rate of recent graduates (aged 20–34, ISCED 3–8), unemployment rate of the overall population (aged 15+), youth unemployment rate (aged 15–24), and the NEET rate (aged 15–29). The second group, Demand for skills (Table 4.2), looks at the types of jobs and skills that the economy generates. It consists of employment by broad economic sector (agriculture, industry, services), the incidence of vulnerable employment, and educational mismatch.

Table 4.2 Headline indicators: employment (Jordan, EU average) (2022–2024)

Employment and labour market outcomes	2022	2023	2024	EU (1)	Source
Employment rate (% aged 15+ or similar age group)	25.8	25.9	26.8	54.7	LFS
Employment rate (% aged 15–24 or similar age group)	11.8	12.1	11.5	35.0	LFS
Employment rate (%) of recent graduates aged 20–34 (ISCED 3–8)	M.D.	M.D.	M.D.	82.4	LFS
Unemployment rate (% aged 15+ or similar age group)	22.8	22.0	21.4	5.9	LFS
Unemployment rate (% aged 15–24 or similar age group)	47.0	46.0	46.6	14.9	LFS
NEET rate (% aged 15–29 or similar age group)	31.5	30.2	M.D.	11.0	LFS (ILOSTAT)
Demand for skills	**2022**	**2023**	**2024**	**EU (1)**	**Source**
Employment by broad economic sectors (%): agriculture	1.8	1.6	1.8	3.3	LFS
Employment by broad economic sectors (%): industry	16.8	16.7	16.4	24.1	LFS
Employment by broad economic sectors (%): service	81.4	81.7	81.8	72.1	LFS
Incidence of vulnerable employment (%)	9.2	10.1	10.4	10.0	LFS
Employment by ‘educational mismatch’: % matched	43.4	45.0	M.D.	M.D.	ILOSTAT

Notes: 1. Data refer to 2019.
Source: ETF KIESE database.

The share of people in employment in Jordan remains low and unemployment high in comparison to international standards (EU). In 2024, 26.8% (of those aged 15+ were in employment, one percentage

point higher than in 2022, while the unemployment rate fell to 21.4%, a decrease of 1.4 percentage points over the same period.

Young people of working age (15–24) are much less likely to be employed than adults, and their situation has not improved in the reference period. Only 11.5% of 15–24-year-olds were in employment in 2024, about one third of the EU level (35.0%), slightly below the 2022 level and lower than in 2023. Youth unemployment stood at 46.6% in 2024, compared with 14.9% in the EU. The NEET rate for 15–29-year-olds was at 30.2% in 2023, almost three times higher than in the EU, but lower than in 2022. From a learner's perspective, transition from education into employment therefore remains difficult and often delayed.

Table 4.2 shows that employment in Jordan is concentrated in services, while industry accounts for a comparatively small share. In 2024, services made up 81.8% of employment, industry 16.4%, and agriculture 1.8%. In comparison with EU countries, Jordan relies more on services and less on industry, on average.

At the same time, the prevalence of informal and otherwise vulnerable employment in Jordan is no higher than in EU countries (around 10% for both). However, in 2023, well over half of those employed were in jobs that did not match their qualifications (Table 4.2). For learners and jobseekers, these patterns mean that securing employment that makes good use of one's qualifications is still far from guaranteed.

4.2 System performance indicators

As noted in the introduction to this paper, 'performance' in the context of ETF monitoring describes the extent to which VET systems deliver on their commitments to learners and stakeholders in support of lifelong learning. These commitments typically cover three key areas: ensuring broad and equitable access to opportunities for education and training; delivering high-quality and relevant education; and maintaining effective and efficient organisation and management of the education system, including adequate resourcing.

To measure performance systematically, the ETF uses System Performance Indices (SPIs), which summarise the extent to which education and training systems fulfil each of their commitments. Each SPI is presented on a scale from 0 to 100, with higher scores indicating stronger performance.

Both the headline indicators in Section 4.1 and the SPIs presented in this section are guided by the same core questions: Who takes part? What do they achieve? How do education and training systems support them? The main difference between these two sets of data lies in how these questions are answered. Headline indicators answer the questions with single, stand-alone measures drawn directly from international data sources. The SPIs, on the other hand, are evaluative, composite measures. They are designed explicitly to assess how well VET systems fulfil broader policy commitments that cannot be adequately captured through individual statistics.

Access and participation

This section presents system performance in VET and adult learning against two specific policy outcomes: support for equitable access and participation for young people and adults, and support for young people in initial VET (IVET) to successfully complete their programmes.

The scope of SPIs tracking access differs according to the target group of learners. For youth, the SPI assesses access specifically to IVET, while for adults it captures access to continuing VET (CVET) and other adult learning opportunities, such as those provided through active labour market programmes (ALMPs). A separate SPI measures how effectively young learners in IVET are supported in progressing through their programmes and reaching graduation.

In both cases, performance depends on the policies and measures the country is implementing. They provide the opportunities, incentives, and guidance needed to encourage participation and successful

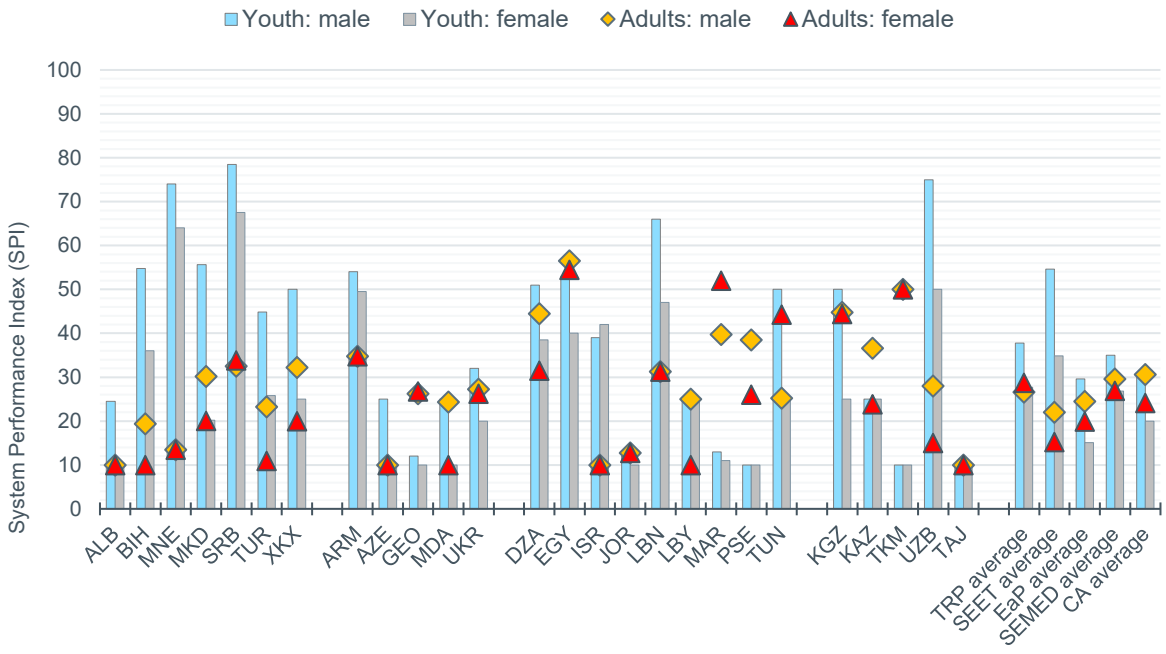
completion. The SPI results therefore reflect how effectively these policies deliver on their intended objectives.

Access by age and gender

Access to IVET in Jordan is broadly available through a network of public and private providers, yet limited attractiveness and high costs hold back enrolment. System performance in support of access to VET in Jordan is far below the average for the Torino Process monitoring sample, and also below the SEMED regional average (Figure 4.1). The monitoring survey notes that the VET offer of private providers is often expensive and out of reach for many prospective learners. Public providers such as the Ministry of Education and the Vocational Training Corporation (VTC) offer cheaper alternatives, yet even these fees can represent a significant burden when set against the national minimum wage of JOD 290.

In addition to cost, IVET in Jordan has an image problem as it is perceived as a pathway mainly for disadvantaged or low-performing students, a last-resort solution despite recent efforts to improve its profile. This discourages many young people from enrolling. Between 2014 and 2017, enrolment in secondary VET declined by 5.9%, and at the time of monitoring, it stood at 9.7% for girls and 11.8% for boys as the share of all upper secondary enrolment (KIESE SPI Indicator 4).

Figure 4.1 Access to learning opportunities by country, age and gender of learners – system performance index, ETF partner countries and international average (2025)



Note: Theoretical index range: min/low performance=0, max/high performance=100[6].
Source: ETF KIESE and Torino Process databases.

Despite the decline, the share of girls in VET remained stable at 41%. Female participation, however, is concentrated in a narrow set of fields: in 2017, 20% of female students in VET were in agriculture, 8% in hospitality, and only 2% in industry, while most pursued home economics or other traditional specialisations. Since then, the share of women in post-secondary VTC programmes has increased, from 37% of graduates in 2014 to 44% in 2020, reaching 60.7% in 2022. This recent rise also reflects a shift in demand, as some university and diploma graduates have turned to vocational training. However, social norms and family restrictions still limit the access of young women to non-traditional

[6] The Torino Process makes a distinction between theoretical (full) index range and index range used for reporting purposes. For reporting purposes, rare instances of extreme values on the low end (SPI < 10) and on the high end (SPI > 90) of the index scale are truncated at the upper (10) and lower (90) decile end. This means that the reporting does not discriminate SPI values below 10 and above 90. The international average, on the other hand, is calculated using the full range of the index.

occupations, especially in conservative regions, and many still prefer academic education as a pathway to secure public-sector employment.

Adults in Jordan have a wide range of opportunities for learning, and CVET is an attractive option among them. As discussed in Section 2.1, CVET is offered by public and private institutions, community-based organisations, professional associations, and civil society organisations. The latter account for some 43% of the adult learning offer.

According to the monitoring survey, participation has increased in recent years, especially among women: in 2022, women made up 49% of CVET graduates (3 556 women), many of whom were motivated by unemployment and poverty to develop skills for micro-businesses and home-based enterprises. Despite this, overall adult participation in vocational and technical training remains low: only 12% of adult learners are enrolled in such programmes, which also hold back the system performance results of Jordan in this domain of monitoring. Figure 4.1 shows that they too are lower than the regional and monitoring sample averages. Barriers include costs, limited geographic coverage, and entry requirements such as completion of secondary education. Refugees face additional restrictions, as enrolment requires special security clearance.

Adult learning is also delivered through active labour market programmes (ALMPs), most of them supported by international partners. The Torino Process monitoring survey describes training and retraining schemes, job search assistance, and measures to support micro-enterprises. It also takes the flagship National Employment Programme (Tashgheel) into account. Launched with World Bank support, it has facilitated more than 46 000 employment contracts, half of them for women, but has faced difficulties with retention, as only 56% of participants remained employed after six months compared with a target of 75%. Additional opportunities for adult learning are provided through concessional loans for young entrepreneurs via the Development and Employment Fund, and through the national employment platform Sajjil, which connects jobseekers with employers. The survey notes that such programmes broaden access, but also that they remain fragmented and not yet fully integrated into Jordan's framework of qualifications.

Other measures in support of adult learning which the monitoring survey describes include the establishment of the Technical Vocational Skills Development Commission (later replaced by the Accreditation and Quality Assurance Commission), the creation of sector skills councils led by industry, and the adoption of the Economic Modernisation Vision 2023–2033 as a longer-term framework for skills and employment policies. Investments in 30 vocational training institutes across the country (including eight for women), the introduction of recognition of prior learning, and the development of demand-driven programmes in sectors such as tourism, ICT, and renewable energy have also aimed to expand provision. Despite these initiatives, adult learners from disadvantaged groups, including women, refugees, and those with low educational attainment, face barriers, and participation in VET remains below the level suggested by demand and policy ambition.

Retention and programme completion

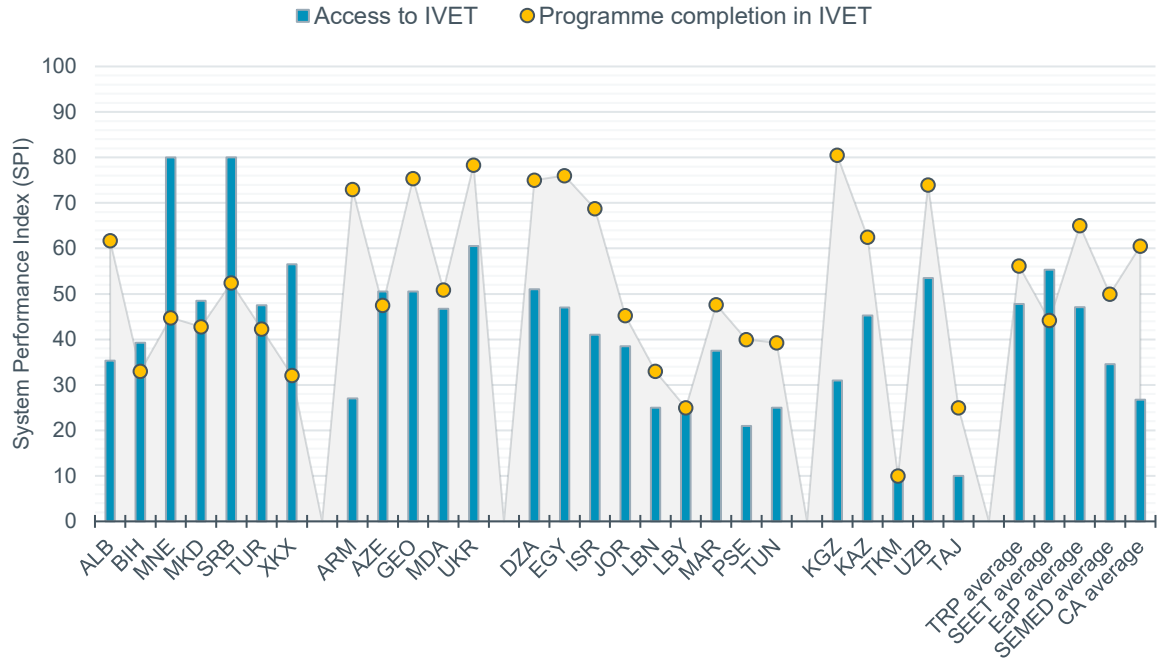
The monitoring results show that students in IVET in Jordan may be facing some difficulties in progressing through and completing their programmes. System performance in this area is below average on the SPI scale (SPI of 45) and also falls short of both the SEMED regional average (SPI of 50) and the overall Torino Process country average (SPI of 56) (Figure 4.2). According to the monitoring survey, some 10 712 students were enrolled in VTC programmes in 2022, yet only 7 292 completed them, which corresponds to a dropout rate of 32%.

This is part of a broader problem at upper secondary level, where only 72.5% of students completed their studies in 2022 (KIESE SPI Indicator 23). However, since enrolment rates in IVET in Jordan are low to start with compared to other education pathways, the high dropout rate has a proportionally greater impact in IVET than in upper secondary education as a whole.

The monitoring survey notes that in Jordan, career counselling services, which could mitigate dropout and guide learners towards more sustainable pathways, are still under development. Where counselling is provided, it is fragmented and insufficiently aligned with labour market needs. The most recent TVET strategy explicitly recognises this gap and identifies career guidance as a priority, placing

it under its third pillar and linking it to the Labour Market Information System to better support learners in progressing through and completing their programmes.

Figure 4.2 Access and programme completion in IVET – system performance index, ETF partner countries and international average



Note: Theoretical index range: min/low performance=0, max/high performance=100.
Source: ETF KIESE and Torino Process databases.

Female learners in Jordan face specific barriers to completing IVET, including transport difficulties, social stigma and limited financial resources. Despite these challenges, completion rates for girls are higher than for boys, both at upper secondary level overall (72.5% compared to 56.9%, KIESE SPI Indicator 23) and within IVET itself. In 2022, 3 161 women were enrolled in IVET, of whom 2 151 graduated, corresponding to a completion rate of 68%, compared to 60% for male learners (2 151 graduates). To support girls in IVET even further, the government has introduced targeted measures such as the Vocational Training Programme for Children of Beneficiary Families under the National Aid Fund (NAF).

Quality and relevance of learning outcomes

In this section, the SPIs capture the quality of the provision of basic skills and key competences to learners in IVET, as well as the degree to which adults possess foundational skills. These results are complemented by selected KIESE indicators, which track the relevance of learning outcomes by examining employment rates of individuals aged 15 and older, disaggregated by educational attainment in ETF partner countries.

ETF monitoring keeps quality and relevance separate because although they often reinforce each other, they do not always coincide. Learners with strong foundational skills may still struggle to find suitable employment, while individuals might secure jobs without acquiring a comprehensive skillset. By tracking these aspects separately, the reporting hopes to identify both the intrinsic benefits of education and how effectively it aligns with the needs of the labour market.

Quality of learning by age and gender

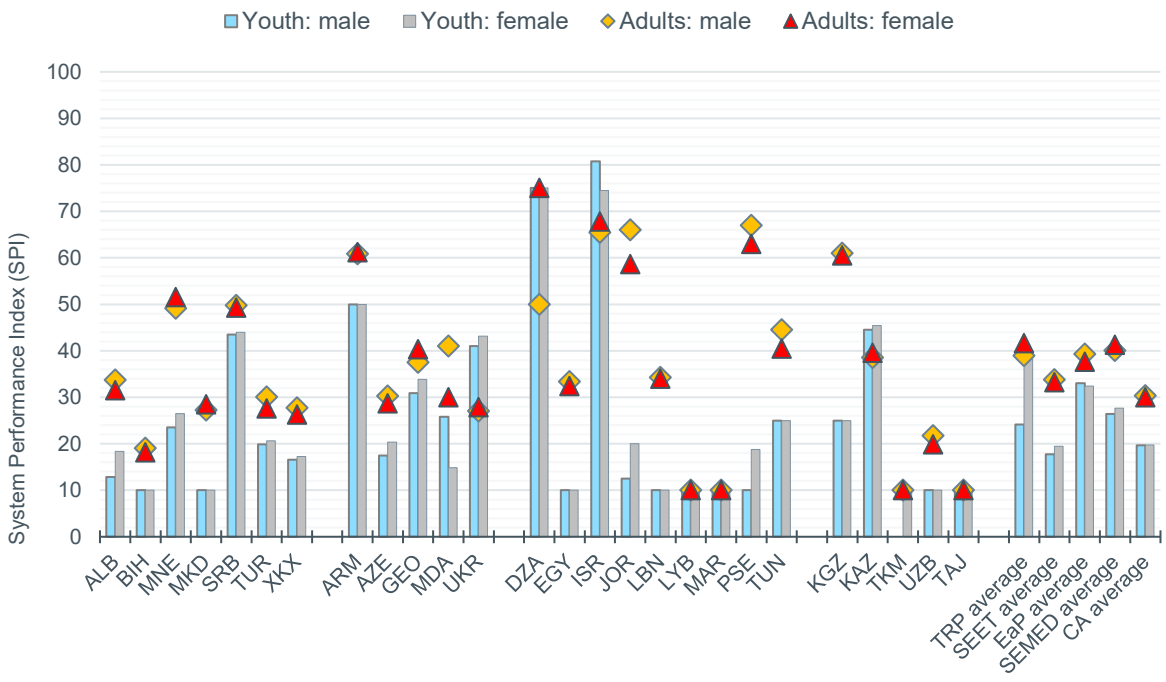
In Jordan, IVET programmes are designed with the declared aim of following a competency-based training approach. The monitoring survey describes them as structured around knowledge, skills and attitudes, and aligned with the Jordan National Qualifications Framework (JNQF). All providers are

bound to integrate technical, ICT, soft, and practical skills as key pillars of VET delivery and a condition for programme accreditation.

In practice, however, system performance in providing youth with quality skills and competences remains relatively weak. Figure 4.2 shows that, like in many other countries in the Torino Process monitoring sample, VET in Jordan struggles to deliver quality. With an SPI of only 13 for boys and 20 for girls, the results are below the regional and Torino Process averages and suggest that boys are particularly disadvantaged.

The KIESE indicators used for the calculation of these composite results show that the share of underachievers in foundational subjects among the 15-year-olds in Jordan is high: 79.6% in reading (KIESE SPI Indicator 24, sourced from OECD's PISA), 82.8% in mathematics (Indicator 25), and 68.9% in science (Indicator 26). Boys are much more likely to struggle academically than girls. At the same time, Jordan has virtually no top-performing students in the domains tested in PISA (Indicators 27–29). Without implying causality, the monitoring survey points to rigid curricula, outdated equipment, and weak professional competences among teachers as factors contributing to the quality challenge in IVET.

Figure 4.3 Quality of skills and competences by country, age and gender of learners – system performance index, ETF partner countries and international average (2025)



Note: Theoretical index range: min/low performance=0, max/high performance=100.
Source: ETF KIESE and Torino Process databases.

Adults of working age also face serious deficits in foundational skills and competences. The monitoring survey notes that employers and business associations consistently report poor technical and soft skills among Jordanian workers, a weakness that fuels reliance on expatriate labour in key industries. At the same time, the SPI results for adults appear comparatively high, with a score of 66 for men and 59 for women, well above the monitoring sample averages of 39 and 42, respectively (Figure 4.3). These values reflect the available evidence base for Jordan in this domain, which is limited to a small set of indicators and strongly influenced by the country's high adult literacy rate of 95% (KIESE SPI Indicator 59).

Although the SPI scores for adult competences are high, they do not fully reflect the broader deficits in technical and transversal skills that employers identify. Other KIESE indicators included in the calculation point to more structural weaknesses. Only 19.9% of the adult population have attained

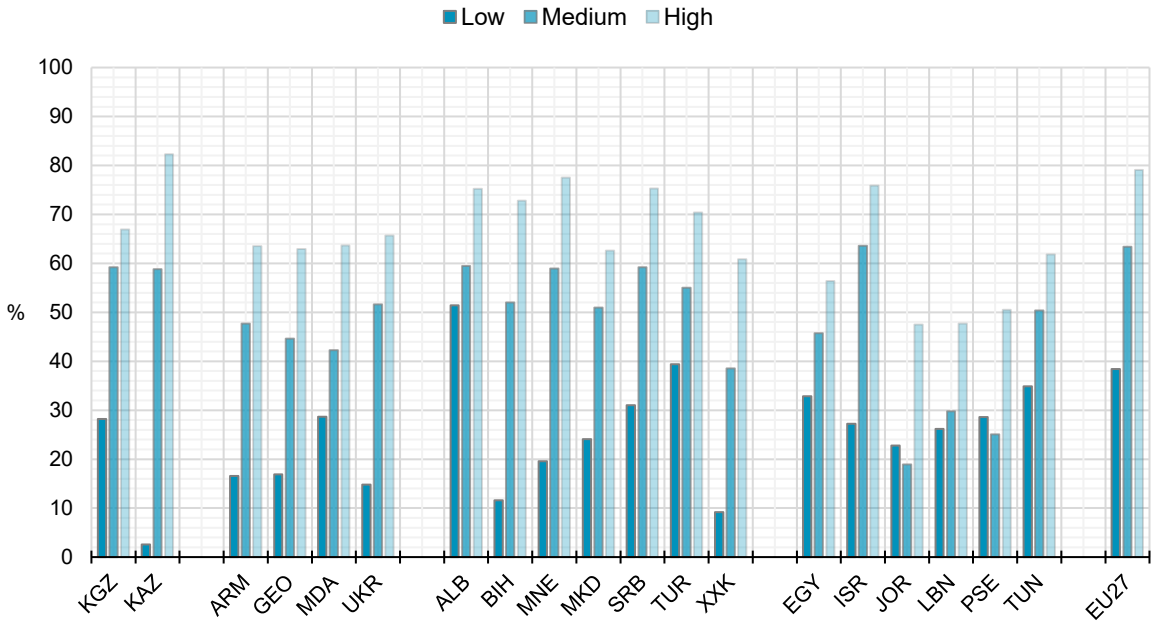
higher education (Indicator 35), and unemployment among this group remains high at 25.8% (Indicator 36). Women are particularly affected, with unemployment among female higher-education graduates reaching 35.5% compared to 18.4% for men.

Relevance and labour market outcomes

This section uses employment data to gauge how effectively education in Jordan meets labour market needs. Specifically, it compares employment rates by the highest education level adults have reached with EU27 averages.

In Jordan, fewer people aged 15 or older have jobs compared to the EU, no matter whether they have little education, a medium level of education, or higher education. Among those with low educational attainment, 22.8% are employed, compared to 38.4% in the EU (Figure 4.4). For individuals with higher education, the employment rate is at 47.5% in Jordan and 79.1% in the EU. The largest difference to the EU average is among those who have medium-level qualifications: in Jordan, 18.9% are employed, compared to 63.4% in the EU.

Figure 4.4 Employment rate (age 15+) by educational attainment, ETF partner countries (2024)



Source: ETF KIESE database.

Jordan also differs from the EU in the way that education levels and employment rates are linked. In the EU, more education usually goes hand in hand with better chances of having a job. In Jordan, that pattern is different. People with medium education are actually less likely to be employed than those with only low education (18.9% compared to 22.8%). Employment among tertiary graduates is higher, but still fewer than one in two are in work.

These findings show that in Jordan, having more education does not improve the chances of a person finding a job as much as it does in the EU. The very low employment rate among medium-educated individuals indicates that secondary qualifications – which are often covered by VET programmes – open only limited opportunities in the labour market. Higher education improves employment chances, but the advantage it provides is still smaller than in the EU, on average.

System management and organisation

In the final section on policy and system performance, the focus shifts to the organisation and management of the education and training system, with particular attention paid to VET.

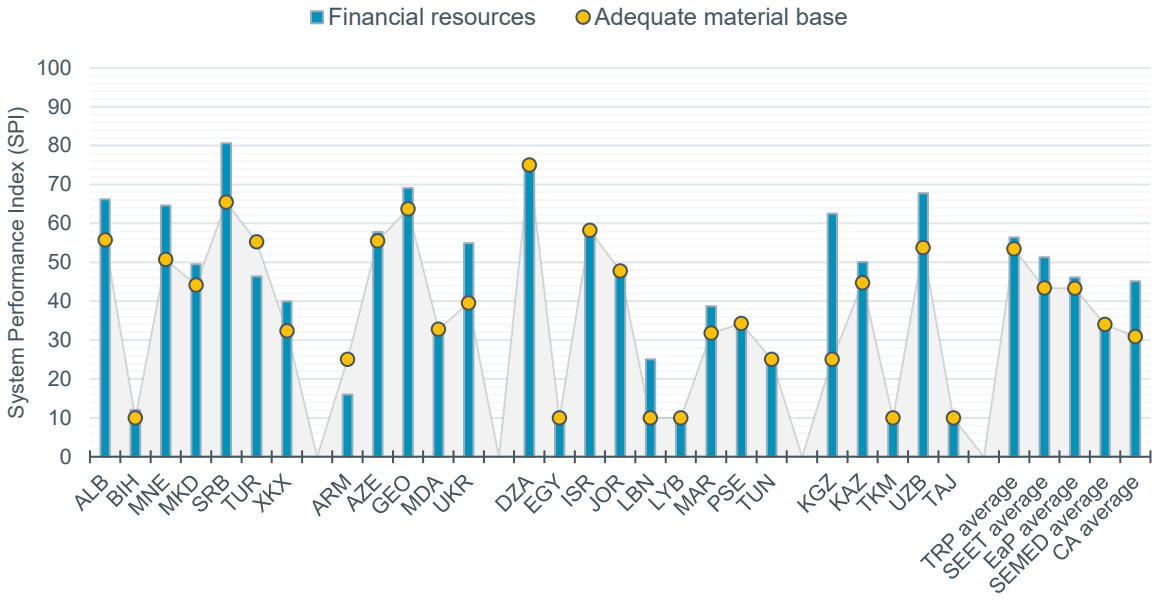
The analysis presents data on system performance in the form of SPIs in three areas: effective allocation and use of financial resources in VET; allocation, use, and professional capacity of human resources, including leadership skills and professional competence of school management and staff; and system steering and management, which includes data, quality assurance, school leadership, and the internationalisation of VET.

Financial resources in VET and lifelong learning

This section examines the availability of funding for VET in Jordan and discusses how effectively this funding translates into tangible resources, such as well-equipped teaching facilities, workshops, and appropriate instructional materials.

Financing for VET in Jordan is limited, which affects the adequacy of funding and the material base for teaching and learning (Figure 4.5). Public expenditure on education stood at 3.2% of GDP (Table 4.1), leaving the VET sector with unaddressed needs in terms of resources, as noted by the Torino Process monitoring survey. The system performance result in this domain of monitoring is moderate (SPI of 48), higher than the regional average, but below the average for the Torino Process sample (Figure 4.5).

Figure 4.5 Allocation and use of financial resources in education and training – index of system performance, ETF partner countries and international average (2024)



Note: Theoretical index range: min/low performance=0, max/high performance=100.
Source: ETF KIESE and Torino Process databases.

The KIESE indicators used in calculating the SPI, together with information from the monitoring survey, help explain some of the factors behind this result and shed light on their impact on the material base for teaching and learning. Government expenditure on secondary education amounted to only 1.4% of GDP (KIESE SPI Indicator 105). Schools depend mostly on the public budget for their resources (two thirds of school funding comes from the government – Indicator 96), but the annual allocations to VET, including pre- and in-service teacher training, are described as limited, and only a small number of vocational schools under the Ministry of Education are equipped with modern facilities. The monitoring survey notes that many VTC workshops remain outdated and misaligned with recent curriculum reforms, signalling a structural investment gap.

Although the government budget covers the majority of VTC operations, the system relies heavily on donor-funded projects and international partnerships for programme design, equipment, and delivery; as noted in the monitoring survey, partners such as the EU, GIZ, the World Bank, and bilateral donors have contributed significantly to training materials and workshops. These initiatives have helped

modernise certain aspects of VET, but dependence on external support raises questions about sustainability.

Industry contributions to the TVET Fund, introduced under the Technical and Vocational Skills Development Commission law, represent an attempt to strengthen demand-driven financing. There are also steps towards greater efficiency through private-sector engagement and digitalisation. Sector skills councils are involved in developing teaching and learning materials, and the VTC has begun digitising programmes and training systems in collaboration with the Ministry of Digital Economy and Entrepreneurship. However, evidence of broad impact remains limited. The KIESE indices based on PISA evidence show that instruction is often hindered by shortages of materials and infrastructure. Principals report that this affects about half of students, either because of a lack of resources (48.6%, Indicator 97; 55.0%, Indicator 99) or because of poor quality (52.4%, Indicator 98; 53.5%, Indicator 100).

Human resources: allocation, use, professional capacity

Human resources in VET face persistent challenges. According to the monitoring survey, instructors across the system often lack access to hands-on, practice-oriented training, which is essential for delivering technical skills and is usually obtainable only through industry partnerships or international exchanges. Opportunities for training are fragmented: the Public Administration Institute provides general courses that are not technically focused, and national training of trainers at the VTC Institute does not address the need for practical experience.

The monitoring data show that these challenges are widespread. System performance in this domain is below average (SPI of 47) and more than half of students are in schools where principals report that teaching is hindered by a lack of staff (57.5%, KIESE SPI Indicator 101) or by inadequately qualified teachers (50.3%, Indicator 102). Shortages also extend to assisting staff (48.8% and 45.0%, Indicators 103–104), signalling that human resource capacity problems affect the broader instructional environment.

The monitoring survey describes policy and donor initiatives that seek to address some of these gaps. The Jordan National TVET Strategy lists instructor development as a priority (pillar 2, programme 2.3), and the Technical Assistance for Transforming TVET in Jordan Project, funded by Global Affairs Canada and implemented by UNESCO Jordan, aims to strengthen institutional frameworks, improve teacher and leadership capacities, and foster partnerships with the private sector to expand work-based learning. However, implementation has so far been limited mainly to employees of the Technical and Vocational Skills Development Commission, while other national initiatives remain ad hoc and largely dependent on external funding.

System steering and management

This section summarises the system performance results in the domains of data availability and capacity for informed decision-making, quality assurance, school leadership, and internationalisation in VET in Jordan.

Jordan has developed a monitoring and evaluation system for VET which is anchored in the Jordan National Qualifications Framework and involves the Ministry of Education as well as other providers. The system is designed to set the basis for data collection, unified indicators, and digitalisation of VET in line with the latest VET sector strategy.

The Torino Process monitoring survey notes that these arrangements are not yet fully operational, however. The labour market information system requires further strengthening, the frequency of data production remains inconsistent, and the agencies involved need additional capacity to collect and report information according to international standards.

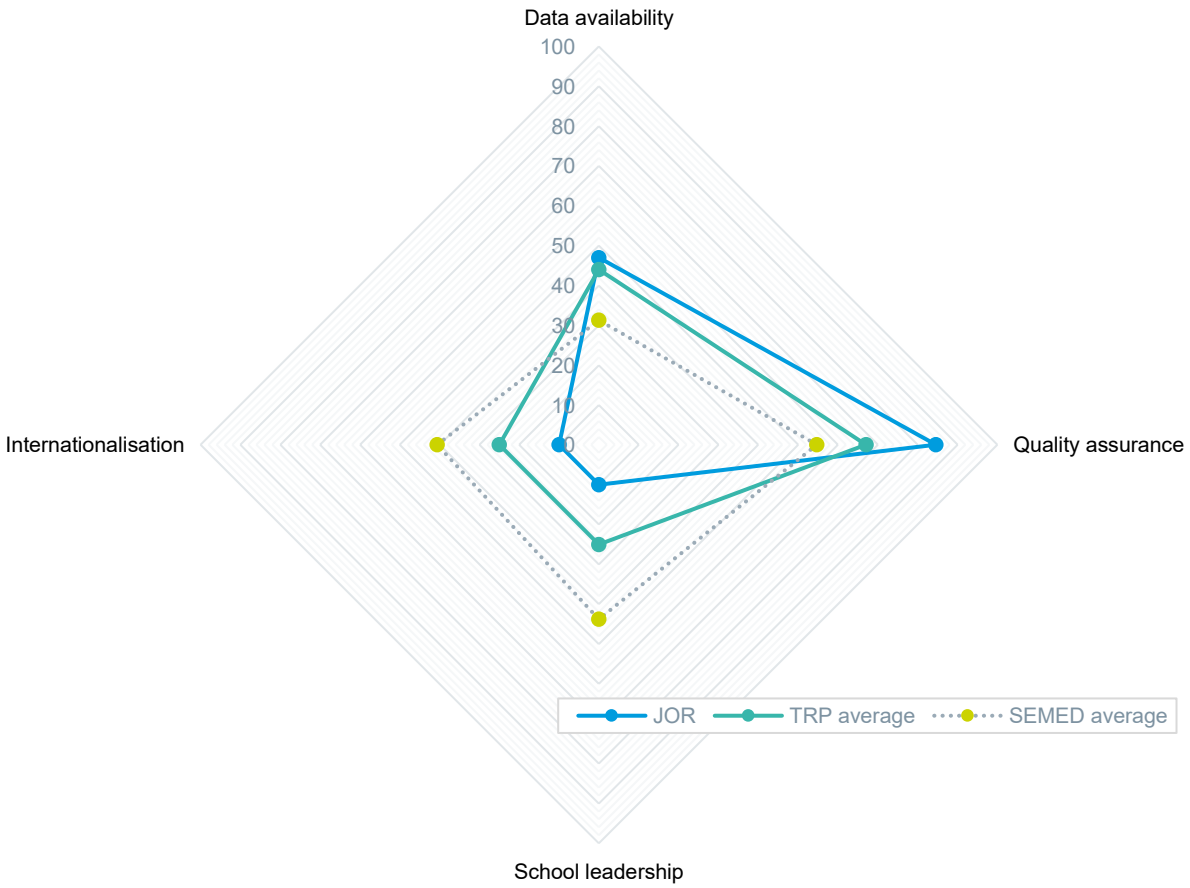
At the same time, the data framework in Jordan also has some strengths. A well-documented example is its capacity to generate internationally comparable evidence through participation in initiatives like OECD's PISA, IEA's TIMSS and others. The system performance results in this domain of monitoring suggest that close to half of the internationally comparable indicators foreseen in the monitoring

framework (47%) were available for Jordan in 2024 (KIESE SPI Indicator 80, SPI of 47), a share that is above both the regional SEMED average and the overall monitoring sample.

The monitoring evidence suggests that quality assurance in Jordan is strongest in its internal procedures and monitoring functions, which are widely applied across schools. This also helps to explain Jordan's high system performance result in this area of monitoring (SPI of 85, Figure 4.6). Areas that require further development are those that depend on participation and external accountability, where practices are less consistent.

Important steps have been taken with the creation of the TVSDC in 2019 and its replacement by the new Accreditation and Quality Assurance Commission, which is now responsible for accreditation, certification, and quality oversight under the JNQF. This institutional framework represents progress, as quality assurance measures have been developed for all education participants: learners, teachers, and training providers. However, the Torino Process monitoring survey underlines that more effort is needed to operationalise the system. Governance and quality assurance arrangements are in place but not yet fully functioning, and the framework has yet to translate into consistent practice across the sector.

Figure 4.6 System steering and management – index of system performance, selected dimensions, ETF partner countries and Torino Process average (2024)



Note: Theoretical index range: min/low performance=0, max/high performance=100.
Source: ETF KIESE and Torino Process databases.

The KIESE SPI indicators used for the calculation of the composite result above confirm the mixed message. On the one hand, the vast majority of general and VET school principals report that a broad set of quality assurance procedures are implemented at school level, such as internal self-evaluation

(98.5%, KIESE SPI Indicator 84), external evaluation (87.7%, Indicator 85), written specifications of curricular goals (95.4%, Indicator 86) and performance standards (94.6%, Indicator 87), as well as systematic recording of student results and graduation rates (99.6%, Indicator 89). On the other hand, fewer schools engage in feedback and consultation processes, such as written student feedback (88.5%, Indicator 90) or regular consultation with experts (80.4%, Indicators 92 and 94). Accountability mechanisms aimed at parents and the public are much less developed, with only 19.6% of principals reporting that achievement data are made publicly available (Indicator 81). This may also reflect policy preferences, as some education systems deliberately limit public dissemination of performance data for various context-specific reasons, such as to avoid unhealthy competition between schools.

The quality of school leadership in Jordan has been shaped by the centralised and fragmented governance of the VET and secondary education sectors. Earlier assessments observed that responsibilities were spread across several ministries and agencies, limiting the scope for coordinated action and reducing the autonomy of school leaders (ETF, 2016). More recent evidence confirms that the high degree of centralisation constrains the potential of principals and VET directors, who cannot easily take initiative or adapt to local needs without higher-level approval (ETF, 2021). This institutional context has historically limited the ability of school leaders to act as empowered agents of change.

Gaps remain in terms of qualifications and experience. National survey data indicate that principals often do not hold degrees in education and tend to have fewer years of teaching experience before assuming leadership roles than their OECD counterparts (Queen Rania Foundation, 2018). Until recently, there was also no licensing framework to ensure that school leaders meet common professional standards, which may have contributed to uneven quality across schools (Ministry of Education, 2018).

The challenges facing Jordanian school leaders also relate to their working conditions. Heavy workloads and job insecurity were reported by a large share of principals. In the national survey quoted above, over 70% noted that administrative burdens limit their effectiveness and more than 30% pointed to instability in their position (Queen Rania Foundation, 2018). Shortages of qualified teachers and resource constraints further complicate the task of maintaining instructional quality (Queen Rania Foundation, 2018). These factors suggest that, even where leadership capacity is present, the conditions in which leaders operate hinder the consistent exercise of high-quality leadership.

These factors help explain Jordan's lower monitoring result in this domain (Figure 4.6, school leadership). However, policy reforms in the past decade have aimed to professionalise and empower school leaders. The Ministry of Education introduced leadership standards in 2014, accompanied by a framework for continuing professional development (Ministry of Education, 2018). Programmes such as the School and Directorate Development Programme (SDDP) have sought to redefine principals as instructional leaders rather than administrators, emphasising their role in guiding teachers, students, and communities in school improvement (Ministry of Education, 2018). International support has also contributed to tailored training programmes in areas such as inclusive education (European Union, 2018).

As to internationalisation, the efforts to open the VET sector to international engagement are still nascent and the monitoring results are correspondingly low. According to the monitoring survey, VTC programmes are open to international students and align formally with international standards, but at the time of monitoring, the practices in this area were not yet systematic and regular. Opportunities for student exchange and participation in international conferences exist in principle but remain ad hoc as well.

Among the few more structured examples is the PAM project. Implemented by the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) and Jordan's Vocational Training Corporation (VTC), the Partnerships for Development Oriented Vocational Training and Labour Migration (PAM) project prepares Jordanian youth (aged 18–34 with a secondary school certificate) for 3.5-year vocational training in the skilled crafts sector of Germany. The initiative is modelled on the dual apprenticeship system. A five-month preparatory phase in Jordan provides German language training up to level B1, career guidance, and business orientation. In Germany, participants train at accredited

centres and with companies, receiving a monthly allowance of at least EUR 934, health insurance, and annual salary increases during their programme. However, beyond such donor-funded initiatives, the internationalisation of VET in Jordan remains underdeveloped and not yet embedded in a national framework or strategy.

ABBREVIATIONS

ALMPs	Active Labour Market Programmes
BTEC	Business and Technology Education Council
CVET	Continuing Vocational Education and Training
COVID-19	Coronavirus disease 2019
DOS	Department of Statistics
Enabel	Belgian Development Agency
ESP	Education Strategic Plan
EU	European Union
EU27	European Union (27 Member States)
EUR	Euro
FT	Financial Times
GDP	Gross domestic product
GIZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit GmbH
HDI	Human Development Index
HPC	Higher Population Council
IAF	Islamic Action Front
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ILO	International Labour Organization
ILOSTAT	International Labour Organization statistical database
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
IVET	Initial Vocational Education and Training

JNQF	Jordan National Qualifications Framework
JOD	Jordan Dinar
KIESE	Knowledge, Innovation, Education, Skills and Employment
LFS	Labour Force Survey
LMIS	Labour market information system
M.D.	Missing data
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoL	Ministry of Labour
MOPIC	Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation
NEES	National Electronic Employment System
NEET	Not in employment, education or training
NETC	National Employment and Training Company
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PAM	Partnerships for Development Oriented Vocational Training and Labour Migration
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
PSE	The State of Palestine
QA	Quality assurance
RPL	Recognition of Prior Learning
SDDP	School and Directorate Development Programme
SEMED	Southern and Eastern Mediterranean region
SPI	System Performance Index

SSC	Social Security Corporation
TRP	Torino Process
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TVET	Technical vocational education and training
UfM	Union for the Mediterranean
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UN DESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNRWA	United Nations Relief and Works Agency
USD	United States dollar
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VTC	Vocational Training Corporation
WBL	Work-based learning

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