

**EFFECTIVE POLICIES
FOR INCREASING FEMALE
PARTICIPATION IN EMPLOYMENT
THROUGH VOCATIONAL
EDUCATION AND TRAINING
IN JORDAN**

PRIME



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

© European Training Foundation, 2016
Reproduction is authorised provided the source is acknowledged.

EFFECTIVE POLICIES FOR INCREASING FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN EMPLOYMENT THROUGH VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN JORDAN

IMPACT ASSESSMENT RESULTS – PRIME (PROJECTING REFORM IMPACT IN VET)

Contents

INTRODUCTION	3
1. THE POLICY PROBLEM AND OPTIONS FOR ACTION	4
1.1 Problem description and analysis	4
1.2 Options for action	4
2. OUTLINE OF THE IMPACT ASSESSMENT METHODOLOGY	8
3. IMPACT ASSESSMENT RESULTS	9
3.1 Assessment criteria	9
3.2 Assessment results: Option 1	9
3.3 Assessment results: Option 2	11
3.4 Choice of options for action	15
4. OPERATIONALISATION – COST AND FUNDING OF THE POLICY OPTIONS	16
4.1 Summary of cost and funding analysis	16
4.2 Detailed cost and funding analysis	17
ANNEXES	32
Annex 1. Working group guidance for consultative multi-criteria analysis of anticipated impact	32
Annex 2. Contextualisation of evidence through focus group discussions	36
Annex 3: Overview of the VET system in Jordan and its main challenges	37
Annex 4. List of counterparts consulted in the course of preparation of the costing element in PRIME Phase 3	41
ACRONYMS	42
REFERENCES	43

INTRODUCTION

The objective of PRIME in Jordan was to carry out an ex-ante assessment of options for policies to help increase female participation in the labour market, in particular by improving transition from education and training to employment, and from inactivity to employment, through better, more relevant vocational education and training (VET). Ex-ante impact assessment represents an attempt to provide analysis of the reasoning behind potential policy actions and an assessment of their foreseeable effects before enacting them¹.

PRIME implementation was split into three phases:

- Phase 1: Problem analysis and scenario building – completed in 2014;
- Phase 2: Assessment of impact;
- Phase 3: Operationalisation.

The objective in the first phase was to define the problem, identify the contributory factors and formulate options for policy action to address these factors.

The second phase was devoted to an ex-ante impact assessment of the options to facilitate informed choice by authorities, beneficiaries and stakeholders. This phase was complemented by field visits to interview selected stakeholder groups in order to provide context for the assessment of potential impact and discuss the anticipated impact of policy actions on those who are targeted by them.

The objective of the third and last phase of PRIME was to assess the impact of operationalisation of the policy options defined in the exercise. Following a request from the Jordanian authorities, the focus of the final phase was limited to analysis of the implications of policy action on the funding and financing of VET. The conclusions were validated at the end of the PRIME project in December 2015.

This report features a summarised description of the problem and the options presented to address this in the issues paper from Phase 1. It then outlines the methodology and its application in Phase 2 and 3 of PRIME, presents the assessment criteria and impact analysis, and concludes with an overview of the financial implications of policy action.

¹ For more information see the Impact Assessment Guidelines of the European Commission at http://ec.europa.eu/smart-regulation/impact/commission_guidelines/docs/iag_2009_en.pdf and a briefing of the European Parliament's Directorate for Impact Assessment and European Added Value at [www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/BRIE/2015/528809/EPRS_BRI\(2015\)528809_EN.pdf](http://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/BRIE/2015/528809/EPRS_BRI(2015)528809_EN.pdf)

1. THE POLICY PROBLEM AND OPTIONS FOR ACTION

1.1 Problem description and analysis

According to data from the Jordanian Department of Statistics, between 2005 and 2013 the average rate of participation of women in the labour market oscillated between 12% and 15%. This is almost half the regional average (22%) and less than a third of the average rate of participation in middle-income countries (47%). The marginal level of change to female engagement in the labour market reflects the entrenched challenges, controversy and complexity surrounding the issue.

Despite regular references in national strategic and analytical documents and a multitude of activities, there is a clear and persistent gap between strategies, legislation and policy discourse on the one hand and genuine improvement in the employment situation of women on the other. Women have a weak perception of their own capacities, while society and government policies continue to reinforce their dependence through a patriarchal system (Barcucci and Mryyan, 2014; World Bank, 2013; ETF, 2016).

The analysis in the issues paper for PRIME Jordan suggests that the limited impact of previous policies might be due to a failure to differentiate sufficiently between members of the target groups according to their socio-economic and demographic characteristics (ETF, 2016, p. 12). Both data and workshop discussions suggest that the target women for policy action belong to one of the following groups:

- Target group 1: Young graduates looking for first time employment;
- Target group 2: Women who leave their jobs and become inactive;
- Target group 3: Long-term inactive women.

Policy measures focused on these three target groups will have a better chance of making a difference than has so far been the case, provided they are sensitive to the particular situation of the women in each group. Another precondition for success lies in addressing the key factors that prevent members of these target groups from contributing their share to the national economy, namely:

- skills mismatch – factors related to skills supply through education and training, most notably educational and training choices of women and quality of education and training;
- employment conditions – factors related to employment, in particular working conditions and attitudes of employers toward women;
- attitudes and beliefs – factors related to cultural attitudes toward female employment (ETF, 2016).

All of these limit the prospects of transition to employment for the target groups to a varying extent, thus contributing to the persistence of the problem (ETF, 2016, pp. 13–19).

1.2 Options for action

The objective defined by the authorities² is to increase female participation in the labour market, in particular by improving the transition from education and training to employment.

² Prof. Nidal Katamine, Minister of Labour and Chairman of the E-TVET Council of Jordan.

This objective is qualified by two ‘lower-level’ objectives: (i) the policy options to be assessed should take into account the different profiles and needs of women affected by unemployment; and (ii) the assessment should focus predominantly on the role and potential contribution of education and technical and vocational education and training (TVET) in improving the situation.

The issues paper clearly states that the extent to which women in Jordan can contribute to the national economy at any given point in time is a function of three progress variables:

1. the number of active women of working age;
2. the level and/or relevance of their skills;
3. their rate of employment.

A positive change in any of these three variables (economic activity rate, quality of education and training provision, employability) will be a first sign of success. In the same vein, the variables lend themselves as pillars of a simple but robust framework for the monitoring of progress in solving the participation challenge (ETF, 2016, p. 42).

The options for action outlined below and described in detail in the PRIME issues paper, are designed on the assumption that the best way to influence these variables is to reshape and influence transition:

- stimulate transition from education to work for Target group 1;
- prevent the transition flow from work to inactivity for Target group 2;
- establish a transition pathway from inactivity back to employment for Target group 3.

In sum, women in the three target groups should be equipped for successful transition from education or inactivity to employment, encouraged and guided in making this transition, and empowered and supported to stay in employment.

The PRIME stakeholder group³ defined policy options that share the common, long-term goal: to address major shortcomings in female transition to and from the labour market. The options also share a pragmatic limitation as they are focused primarily on the potential contribution of VET to resolution of the transition challenges. As noted, transition is understood here to infer transition from education and training to employment, from inactivity to employment, and from employment to inactivity.

The peculiarity of the policy options defined in Jordan is that they are highly complementary rather than being mutually exclusive. The complementarity arises from the fact that each option addresses the specific situation of a particular group of women who are experiencing difficulties with transition to and from employment. Thus, the impact assessment was not expected to produce guidance on trade-offs, instead providing important information on the potential for success of each separate option. This peculiarity is due to the choice of theme, which is too broad to be confined to actions benefiting only one stakeholder group.

To narrow down the scope of assessment, the PRIME stakeholder group decided to preselect options for assessment based on current political priorities, and to focus on just two of these rather than on

³ The stakeholder group (including those who participated in the site visits) comprised representatives from line ministries (labour, education), the E-TVET Council, civil society, VET provider institutions from Amman and governorates, regional authorities, VET students and graduates, long-term unemployed women, as well as representatives of the donor community (European Union (EU) delegation, USAID and the United Nations agencies).

all three. The selected options were Policy option 1 (Improving skill supply – Target group 1) and Policy option 3 (Building bridges for transition – Target group 3).

Before running the ex-ante impact assessment, the policy options were diversified with greater detail regarding subordinate objectives, interventions related to each objective and hands-on actions for each intervention. The aim was to increase the precision of impact analysis by outlining the path of implementation for each option.

The first policy option comprises actions for improving the quality of skills provision through VET to young graduates looking for first time employment, and benefits women in Target group 1. The second policy option aims to facilitate transition from inactivity to work and benefits women in Target group 3.

Option 1: Invest in the development and implementation of a package of measures to overhaul skill supply through the network of initial TVET providers in favour of women (Target group 1)

Option 1 evolved from the logical insight that the careers and engagement of women in the labour force are shaped the fields of studies they choose and by the quality of education received. The proposed investment would be used to develop a package of measures to overhaul the skill supply through the network of initial TVET providers, in favour of women. The specific target group for Policy option 1 is identified as young graduates seeking first time employment. This general objective is then divided into specific interventions for the target group, each supported by actions, as presented in

Table 1.1.

TABLE 1.1 SCENARIO MATRIX FOR OPTION 1

Policy option 1: Improving skill supply
Target group 1: Young graduates looking for the first time for employment
I. Objectives <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Diversify the TVET offer and improve relevance to the needs of both female learners and the labour market 2. Improve TVET quality in terms of gender sensitivity and attractiveness 3. Establish a career guidance policy and system, including gender-sensitive measures
II. Interventions <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Widen the selection of new TVET programmes and revise existing ones for women ('choice and flexibility') 2. Improve quality of VET and Support Services for women ('relevance and support') 3. Improve attitudes of female students, families and society toward VET and employability ('culture')
III. Intervention-supporting actions <p><i>Intervention 1</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1 Widen the choice of TVET programmes for women in new sectors/fields e.g. in new technology and supporting women's entrepreneurship 1.2 Integrate quotas for females in male dominated programmes 1.3 Perform a learning needs assessment for women 1.4 Design individual, flexible study programmes 1.5 Ensure gender-sensitive training arrangements 1.6 Build social support systems to ensure attainment and progress to higher education levels, etc. 1.7 Integrate women into the labour market information system and improve the quality of statistics regarding gender <p><i>Intervention 2</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2.1 Enhance the capacity of trainers and ensure a sufficient number of qualified trainers, especially women, and conduct training for women on the job 2.2 Review and modify TVET curricula 2.3 Career days in schools 2.4 Internships/traineeships for women <p><i>Intervention 3</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3.1 Awareness-raising sessions, open discussions to improve attitudes of communities and employers

Option 2: Develop measures to support the reintegration of women into the labour market and to retain them in employment (Target group 2)

The integration or reintegration of vast numbers of inactive women into the labour force, and support to prevent their return to inactivity has the potential to stimulate the Jordanian economy and bring further benefits to families and society. However, long-term inactivity can render education credentials and work-related skills obsolete, while informal employment has a similarly negative influence on skills. Measures to support the skills of women contribute to the overall quality of human capital in the country. The target group for this policy is inactive women (not in employment and not in education).

This is presumed to be a diverse group of women requiring a variety of approaches to match their differing circumstances and family situations. Therefore, Policy Option 2 calls for specific actions, including the mapping of target group needs; the development of tailored training offer according to needs and the recognition of informal learning; the construction of support and guidance systems; and awareness raising for employers and staff. These actions are grouped in two interventions and supporting actions, as presented in **Table 1.2**.

TABLE 1.2 SCENARIO MATRIX FOR OPTION 2

Policy option 2: Building bridges for transition from inactivity to work, from informal to formal employment and to prevent inactivity

Target group 3: Long-term inactive women

I. Objectives

1. Enhance women's working and learning through special measures in both learning, on-the-job learning and work
2. Adjust TVET to the anticipated needs and expectations of inactive women

II. Interventions

1. Design specific TVET offer for inactive women ('reach out to inactive women')
2. Design active labour market measures and support systems for inactive women ('reintegration support for inactive women')

III. Intervention-supporting actions

Intervention 1

- 1.1 Plan opportunities for home-based learning and working with digital, online means
- 1.2 Design special measures for inactive women, including flexible learning arrangements and work-based learning for employability
- 1.3 Offer incentives for inactive women, for example day care, transportation
- 1.4 Establish learning centres and workshops for upgrading skills
- 1.5 Arrange support systems, including individual study plans, career guidance, study counselling
- 1.6 Raise awareness about special measures for inactive women for all stakeholders including employers and public employment staff

Intervention 2

- 2.1 Provide tailor-made internships/traineeships/apprenticeships including recognition of prior learning in TVET – public-private partnerships
- 2.2 Negotiate agreements with sectors (private and public) for working and learning
- 2.3 Offer incentives for industries to invest in women employment
- 2.4 Revise legislation for working conditions and financial support to inactive women
- 2.5 Integrate women into the labour market information system and improve the quality of statistics regarding inactive females

2. OUTLINE OF THE IMPACT ASSESSMENT METHODOLOGY⁴

PRIME is built upon a consultative multi-criteria analysis (CMCA), a modified version of the multi-criteria analysis approach used in assessments by the European Commission (2009). The content is generated by mobilising the contextual knowledge and professional expertise of PRIME participants who are selected to ensure that representatives reflect a mixture of roles from the VET system, including administrators, teachers and trainers, students, parents and researchers.

The PRIME methodology assumes that the cumulative expertise of a heterogeneous group of VET professionals and beneficiaries is a valuable source of potential solutions, but also that this expertise is likely to be fragmented. The validation meetings are therefore designed to stimulate and structure the group discussions around the main deliverable for each phase – issues, criteria and impact analysis, and operational guidance – in a way that transforms the individual knowledge of PRIME group members into collective analytical potential. PRIME defines as consultative analysis the process of mobilising the analytical potential of the group through a structured discussion.

CMCA techniques can be used to identify a single most preferred option, to rank options, to short-list a limited number of options for subsequent detailed appraisal, or simply to distinguish acceptable from unacceptable possibilities. In Phase 2, the exercise of judgement is based on the background analysis in Phase 1, and the issues paper in particular, the international experience and expertise involved in the project as well as the consultation of key policy actors and stakeholders in Jordan.

The benefit of applying a CMCA in PRIME Jordan is that it builds capacity among the participating institutions and stakeholders for holistic ex-ante impact assessments in the area of TVET, which is important as a long-term contribution to more efficient and effective public policy making. CMCA-assessed proposals for action are likely to be more far-sighted and better planned, have a stronger buy-in from stakeholders, and benefit from more streamlined support from the donor community.

The implementation of the PRIME CMCA impact assessment in Jordan underwent several adjustments to accommodate the shifting priorities and official agendas in the country. The final implementation steps were as follows:

1. identifying the problem (PRIME Phase 1);
2. defining solutions and developing policy options (PRIME Phase 1);
3. defining assessment criteria (PRIME Phase 2);
4. contextualisation and ex-ante impact assessment of options (PRIME Phase 2);
5. operationalisation of options in terms of cost (PRIME Phase 3).

Annex 1 and Annex 2 present an outline of the working group discussions of anticipated impact for the CMCA, and an example of guidance on the contextualisation of evidence through focus groups.

⁴ This section is based on a similar section in the PRIME impact assessment report on Ukraine.

3. IMPACT ASSESSMENT RESULTS

3.1 Assessment criteria

In preparation for the assessment, the PRIME consultations helped define criteria for the impact assessment in terms of effectiveness of action, political acceptance of action, social acceptance of action, and financial and funding implications of action (as presented in Chapter 4).

Effectiveness was broadly defined as the extent to which a policy action will attain its objectives. The lead question for this impact criterion is the anticipated extent to which the proposed policy option will achieve the desired effect. Political acceptance is defined as the likelihood that the policy and intervention under assessment will be accepted and owned by policy makers, national and regional authorities and affiliate institutions. Social acceptance is defined as the likelihood that the intended and unintended effects of the policy option will be accepted by the direct beneficiaries and those in charge of implementing the policy option and sustaining its achievements. The assessment criteria and lead questions are presented in **Table 3.1**.

TABLE 3.1 ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

Assessment criteria	Description
Effectiveness (E)	<i>Definition:</i> The extent to which, all other things being equal, the proposed policy action will achieve the goals. <i>Lead question:</i> If carried out, how will the proposed policy and intervention fare in terms of effectiveness?
Political acceptance (PA)	<i>Definition:</i> The likelihood that the intervention under assessment will be accepted and owned by the government, the national and regional authorities. <i>Lead question:</i> If carried out, how will the proposed policy and intervention fare in terms of political acceptance?
Social acceptance (SA)	<i>Definition:</i> The likelihood that the intervention under assessment will be accepted and owned by VET professionals and beneficiaries (the society). <i>Lead question:</i> If carried out, how will the proposed policy and intervention fare in terms of social acceptance?

3.2 Assessment results: Option 1

Policy option 1 aims at improving the quality and relevance of skills supplied to young graduates looking for a first time employment. The specific objectives are the diversification and widening of TVET offer to improve relevance to the needs of both female learners and the broader labour market; increase TVET quality and gender sensitivity; raise attractiveness; and establish a system of gender-sensitive career guidance.

Table 3.2 presents a full overview of judgements about the impact of actions for each intervention in Policy option 1.

TABLE 3.2 DISAGGREGATED CMCA IMPACT ASSESSMENT JUDGEMENTS, BY INTERVENTION AND ACTION – OPTION 1

Intervention	Action	Description	Effectiveness	Social acceptance	Political acceptance
1. Choice and flexibility	1.1	Widen VET choice	1.0	1.0	1.0
	1.2	Female quotas	0.0	0.0	0.0
	1.3	Needs assessment	1.0	1.0	1.0
	1.4	Individual programmes	1.0	1.0	1.0
	1.5	Gender-sensitive conditions	1.0	1.0	1.0
	1.6	Social support systems	1.0	1.0	1.0
	1.7	Integrate females in the labour market information system	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Average per criterion		0.86	0.86	0.86
	Average per intervention		0.86		
	Consensus index		100%	100%	100%
2. Relevance and support	2.1	Train the trainers	1.0	1.0	1.0
	2.2	Modify VET curricula	1.0	1.0	1.0
	2.3	Career days in schools	1.0	1.0	0.5
	2.4	Traineeships for women	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Average per criterion		1.00	1.00	0.88
	Average per intervention		0.96		
	Consensus index		100%	100%	75%
3. Culture	3.1	Awareness raising	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Average per criterion		1.00	1.00	1.00
	Average per intervention		1.00		
	Consensus index		100%	100%	100%

Intervention 1

Intervention 1 (diversification of VET offer or ‘choice and flexibility’) is expected to fall short of full effectiveness. The focus groups in the governorates of Tafileh and Irbid were sceptical of the capacity and commitment to introduce new courses in their areas, suggesting that young female graduates might gain more benefit from a greater priority on improving current provision, as is partially envisaged in the intervention. This scepticism is also reflected in the assessment of anticipated acceptance on the political level, where authorities cited anticipated capacity limitations as a cause for concern. Perhaps the biggest challenge with this intervention is, however, in the domain of social acceptance. Gender-based prejudice on the suitability of programmes exclusively for boys or girls, might lead to resistance from parents, community members, employers, political leaders and even the students themselves, when opening non-traditional VET programmes. A committed awareness-raising effort will be needed for this intervention to become socially acceptable.

Intervention 2

The PRIME consultation group considered that efforts to improve the quality of VET (Intervention 2 – ‘relevance and support’) in combination with stronger support services for women will be highly effective in motivating higher female enrolment in VET. These support services will provide elements such as career guidance, transportation, and complementary labour market-relevant skills training to run alongside tertiary level qualifications. Measures in this respect will be of direct, visible benefit to young women already in VET meaning that they are therefore likely to be socially acceptable. However, some doubt was expressed as to the readiness and ability of authorities (political acceptance) to introduce support measures and revise existing programmes on a scale large enough to improve the situation for a critical proportion of young women in VET. There would also be

implications relating to increasing the capacity of teachers. Hence, the overall impact score of Intervention 1 is 0.96.

Intervention 3

Finally, the PRIME stakeholder group considered Intervention 3 (improve attitudes and reshape beliefs 'culture') as the most likely to have maximum effect, and to be socially and politically acceptable. While the effectiveness and political acceptance might not come as a big surprise, the outcome of assessment against the criteria of social acceptance was unexpected even for some members of the stakeholder group. Subsequent discussions clarified that the difficult economic and labour market situation in Jordan has started to change attitudes toward female employment, as increasing numbers of families realise they cannot afford to rely on the man as the sole breadwinner anymore. This means that the time may be right for changing traditional attitudes toward female employment.

3.3 Assessment results: Option 2

Policy option 2 is about building bridges for transition from inactivity to work, and from informal to formal employment. The target group are inactive women, who are not in employment or education.

Table 3.3 presents a full overview of judgements about the impact of actions for each intervention.

TABLE 3.3 DISAGGREGATED CMCA IMPACT ASSESSMENT JUDGEMENTS, BY INTERVENTION AND ACTION – OPTION 2

Intervention	Action	Description	Effectiveness	Social acceptance	Political acceptance
1. Reach out to inactive women	1.1	Home-based learning	1.0	1.0	0.8
	1.2	Flexible learning	0.8	1.0	0.8
	1.3	Learning centres for reskilling	1.0	0.8	1.0
	1.4	Incentives for inactive women	1.0	1.0	0.5
	1.5	Support systems including career guidance and benefits	1.0	1.0	0.8
	1.6	Awareness raising	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Average per criterion		0.96	0.96	0.80
	Average per intervention		0.91		
	Consensus index		80%	40%	60%
2. Reintegration support for inactive women	2.1	Tailored internships with help of private sector	0.8	0.5	0.5
	2.2	Agreements with private sector for employment	0.8	1.0	0.8
	2.3	Incentives for employers to invest in women employment	0.8	1.0	0.5
	2.4	Legislation reform for better working conditions	1.0	1.0	1.0
	2.5	Integration in labour market information system	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Average per criterion		0.85	0.90	0.76
	Average per intervention		0.84		
	Consensus index		50%	83%	67%

Interventions 1 and 2: Summary

Overall, both interventions in Option 2 are expected to be effective as they take into account the specific situation of women in their particular target group. However, the PRIME stakeholders were wary of anticipating maximum impact for both interventions because of the challenge posed by disparities in regional development and differences in labour market needs. The remedy for this risk is to complement the action with an informed, focused and needs-sensitive approach that will help assess the supply and demand aspects of this policy option. Success will depend on regular consultations and the facilitation of dialogue on labour market needs in the regions, the needs of inactive women and building guidance and social support systems. Proxies for success will be seen in positive changes in economic activity rate, quality of education and training provision, and better employability for women in the various regions.

In terms of political and social acceptance, the 'outreach' intervention (Intervention 1) of Option 2 is likely to fare better than the others as the actions it calls for that can mostly be taken unilaterally by the responsible ministry or official body. They include opportunities for home-based learning, the opening of centres for reskilling, career guidance and awareness raising, flexible learning opportunities, etc. However, once engaged and perhaps even activated, females will require a differentiated and effective support package if they are to remain in the world of work and feel supported while reintegrating in the labour market (Intervention 2). Some measures in this package were deemed more challenging as they require action viewed as more intrusive on the private sector and that might incur higher costs for the authorities. Such actions include challenging tasks such as the adjustment of employment conditions and enforcement of employment regulations, which site visits suggest are regularly violated to the disadvantage of working women⁵. In other words, reaching the necessary agreements for Intervention 2 to work will require the public sector to reach out with incentives and concessions to the private sector, which is not an easy task. Overall, the conclusion of participants is that both interventions will have a high impact, but that it will be easier to reach out to inactive women, and perhaps even raise their interest in becoming active again, than it will be to keep them employed.

Interventions 1 and 2: Detailed assessment results

Effectiveness

In general, the most effective actions are expected to be those reaching out to inactive women, in particular in rural areas. Opportunities for home-based learning or the reskilling of inactive women in regional VET centres, combined with the right package of incentives and career guidance, is likely to be highly effective in stimulating the interest of this particular population segment. The expected outcome would be re-engagement and preparation for re-entering the labour market, but there are also some challenges. The participants in the CMCA discussions agreed that effectiveness would be dependent upon the degree of consideration given to specific regional differences by the authorities, through regular consultation and facilitated dialogue. Understanding the needs and limitations of inactive women in their specific socio-economic context and the building of appropriate guidance and social support systems are prerequisites for the success of all actions in this policy option.

Actions in support of the second intervention were expected to be less effective, reflecting a certain disparity in opinions during the CMCA analysis. The doubts that transpired during the discussions were also confirmed through the contextualisation of evidence during the site visits. For instance, the two focus groups conducted with the inactive women in Irbid confirmed the poor quality of the internship and apprenticeship programme organised by the VET centres in coordination with private

⁵ For example opening a day-care centre for the children of working mothers is very costly for employers, so most investors and employers are resistant to the idea. Resistance is particularly strong in remote areas, but cases are even known of in Amman as was confirmed by the Ministry of Labour. The women in Irbid, Amman and Tafleeh explicitly asked the impact assessment team to pass on a message to the authorities, requesting them to ensure that employers comply with the labour law specifically in terms of wages, working hours, social allowance, etc.

companies. Women stated that they are not learning new skills as the employers use them to perform minor tasks. Participants in the CMCA discussions also confirmed that partnerships with the private sector in remote areas are still very limited, despite the fact that some initiatives were taken up by the Ministry of Labour in Tafileh and were successful in providing jobs for women. Independent start-ups in need of a loan also face issues as the financial institutions have complex lending conditions that make women hesitant to apply, and many of them also have religious reservations relating to debt and participating in profit-making with lending money. Discussion with the focus groups in Irbid also revealed that it is almost impossible to find sufficiently flexible training or work opportunities.

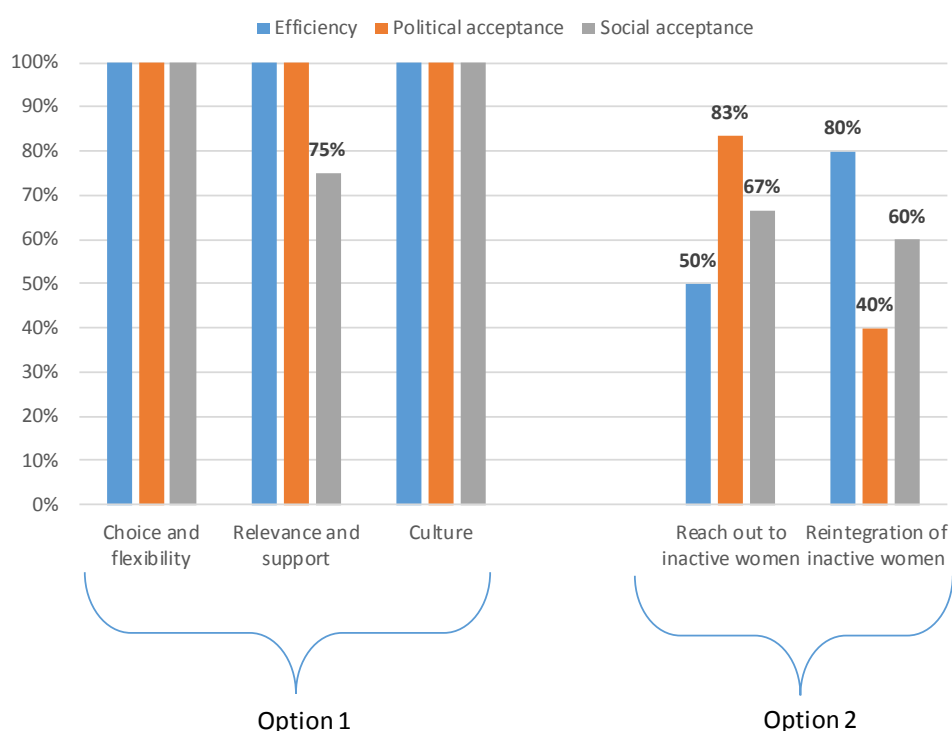
Political acceptance

The judgements of the PRIME CMCA group reveal a certain discrepancy between the anticipated political and social impacts of actions within each intervention, as those that are socially acceptable in both areas of intervention are generally the most problematic for the authorities. For instance, all of the following options are costly: home-based learning; the creation of incentives for inactive women to enter the labour market; the package of benefits to support new entrants; and agreements with employers to invest in the reskilling and incentivising of inactive women. They also require that the authorities bridge traditional divides for a purpose that will not necessarily bring immediate economic benefit; as the aim is ultimately to establish solid partnerships with employers and between levels of governance to comply with the social rationale of fairness in employment opportunity. Considerable effort will be required to make some of these actions a reality, including employer investment in day care facilities for the children of working mothers; participation in the provision of support and incentives in remote areas; and changing the culture of non-compliance with the labour law on wages, working hours, social allowances.

All of these difficulties contribute further to scepticism that the initiatives for inactive women can be followed by equally feasible and acceptable measures to retain them in employment once they have transitioned from inactivity.

The relatively low level of consensus preceding the CMCA impact assessment judgements in group A gives a clear indication of how difficult it will be to achieve consensus on the best course of action under Policy option 2. Option 2 provoked the most heterogeneous discussions and the views were particularly divergent when it came to judgements on the political acceptance of actions to benefit inactive women. **Figure 3.1** shows a particularly low (40%) level of consensus on the political impact of measures to reintegrate inactive women once they have been identified and re-engaged in training and activities to support transition. Rather than reading this as an indication of scepticism about the political feasibility of these actions, however, the result may simply indicate that the authorities need better communication with stakeholders relating to their intentions and preferences in tackling the problem. This outcome compares rather poorly with the impact assessment of actions under Option 1, where there was a solid consensus in almost all instances (Figure 3.1).

FIGURE 3.1 GROUP CONSENSUS IN JUDGING THE ANTICIPATED IMPACT OF POLICY OPTIONS



Note: The results show the share of CMCA discussion participants whose responses coincide for each action under assessment.

Social acceptance

The success of Policy option 2 depends upon a responsibility load shared between the labour market, women and their families, but with the support of relevant education and training.

At present, company perceptions and attitudes toward women are prevailingly negative. This factor needs to be addressed with targeted measures and tailor-made training to match the needs of companies in the various regions. Their perceptions would also improve with government incentives for hiring women, e.g. sharing the costs for training, subsidising first year salaries, supporting awareness-raising programmes, supporting part-time work, and sharing the cost of nurseries and maternity leave.

From the point of view of beneficiaries, both interventions are acceptable as they aim to support women and families in financial need. A higher rate of female participation in employment can increase the income of households, thus reducing poverty and dependency. A key question for women is the appropriateness of the working conditions. Currently, most women prefer to work in medium-sized enterprises in close proximity to their homes. Mobility has proven a challenge because of social restrictions and the lack of good quality, reliable transportation. The policy option and interventions aim to become acceptable by comprehensively addressing the needs of inactive women including the social restrictions.

Participants at the validation workshop confirmed that the actions in the first intervention are more consistent with social acceptance criterion as they focus on the rights of female workers. Specifically, the actions promote agreements with public and private companies and offer incentives for private companies to invest in sectors and works relevant to women's skills and experiences, for example:

day care for children of female workers, safe and regular transportation. In addition, this intervention focuses on reviewing the legislation for working conditions and financial support for inactive women.

The women in the three locations studied confirmed the importance of compliance with labour law in terms of working conditions, wages, working hours and allowances. They directly requested that decision makers seek agreements with private companies offering women opportunities close to home, that they monitor employers' compliance with the labour law and facilitate access to loans for women.

The validation workshop and women's focus groups also considered the second intervention socially acceptable, but as most of the actions in that intervention are directed at regulatory improvements for employers, the women did not feel that the immediate implications of implementation concerned them directly.

3.4 Choice of options for action

The problem under discussion in Jordan calls for comprehensive action on several fronts to address the needs of young graduates and long-term unemployed or inactive women. While these groups are seemingly all experiencing the same difficulties with transition to and from employment, the reasons for their difficulties are specific to their particular group and they therefore call for tailored action.

Unlike a classical impact assessment, which concludes with an overview of trade-offs in support of selecting one option, the PRIME results argue for a complementary approach. This means that partial implementation (the implementation of selected actions from both options) will render better results than selecting one option over the other. Giving preference to only one option means to select one group of females in need of support over another, which is unlikely to bring the desired large-scale change.

Selecting the most feasible interventions in both policy options would be a good starting point. For option one, this would mean investment in raising the standing of VET as a viable pathway to employment through more relevant and gender-sensitive course offers. For option two, this would mean the mobilisation of TVET and associated support systems to reintegrate inactive women into the labour market.

An additional argument for this complementary approach is the fact that they share some common key features as they both:

- consider the wider role of women in families and communities and argue in favour of effective guidance, social and financial support systems to benefit young graduates and the inactive or long-term unemployed;
- depend on the degree to which VET can supply the in-demand skills and on its capacity to encourage job creation among women by fostering entrepreneurial thinking and capacity;
- call for proper mapping of new occupational areas and opportunities for women, e.g. in information and communications technology, agri-business.

Whatever path is eventually chosen, the funding implications for both policy options are a reminder that policy makers have serious decisions to make on the investment front.

The PRIME stakeholder group therefore recommends proposing both policy options to the Ministry of Labour. Implementation will need to account for limited government capability to augment funding allocations, concentrating major effort onto adjustments to the VET financing model.

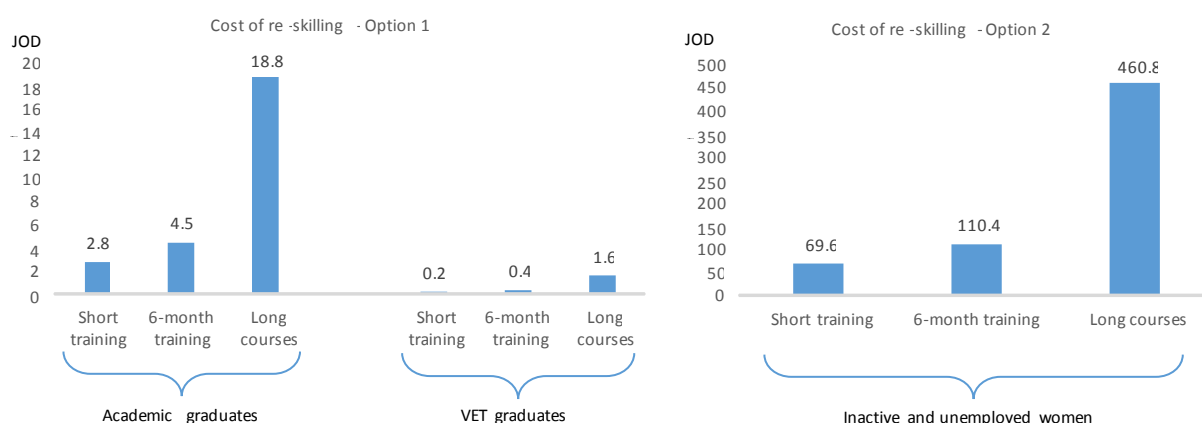
4. OPERATIONALISATION – COST AND FUNDING OF THE POLICY OPTIONS

4.1 Summary of cost and funding analysis

The financial analysis first established the cost per trainee in the VET system and the potential number of females from various target groups able to benefit from reskilling through the implementation of the policy options. **Figure 4.1** presents the results of the simulation. Unsurprisingly, the costliest aspect of reskilling will relate to the group of inactive and unemployed women. Depending on the duration of the courses chosen, their training could require up to JOD 460 million. The maximum cost of retraining academic graduates could be JOD 18.8 million, and of VET graduates JOD 1.6 million⁶.

The simulation is necessarily based on assumptions and simplifications, but Figure 4.1 nevertheless provides an idea of the possible difference in the cost of actions targeting various groups of potential beneficiaries.

FIGURE 4.1 COST PROJECTIONS FOR IMPLEMENTATION OF POLICY OPTIONS 1 AND 2 THROUGH RESKILLING IN THE VET SYSTEM (COURSES OF DIFFERENT DURATION)



Notes: (1) Assumed age group for inactive and unemployed women: 25-45. (2) For the sake of comparison, it is assumed that the distribution of enrolment in courses of different duration is the same for all target groups of females: 48% in long courses; 23% in six-month training; 29% in short training. The shares are calculated on the basis of graduation rates from the academic and VET streams in 2014.

Source of data for cost per trainee: Ministry of Education and E-TVET Council.

This financial analysis concludes that the implementation of any of the two options (or parts thereof) will require an overhaul of the financing and funding system. As the financing and funding represent a structural and procedural challenge in both options, it is possible to argue that decisions about implementation can be taken independently of the financial implications. The effort of factoring in these implications is comparable for both options 1 and 2.

The assessment report concludes with potentially relevant proposals for adjustments to the financing and funding system, and for closing the gaps. Indeed, from a financial point of view, all of the actions call for a certain amount of innovation and adjustment. Failure to consider necessary adjustments in the VET financing system may mean that implementation will be hindered by a lack of financial means and capacity to undertake all of the changes proposed in the options for action.

⁶ The actual cost is likely to be considerably higher. The simulation does not factor in additional expenses, such as the cost of adjusting existing or developing new courses.

The first proposal is to establish training facilities on a public-private partnership (PPP) basis, especially in the type of high-tech projects attractive to the private sector. Discussions in the PRIME stakeholder group stressed that the effectiveness of this proposal will depend on the expected rate of returns, before adding that these might not be very high as this is a new field of business for PPP ventures. One advantage, however, is that a PPP unit already exists within the Ministry of Finance and this can study the viability of potential projects.

Secondly, tax exemptions must be granted to encourage private sector participation toward the cost of extending facilities and training in government training institutions. This proposal is likely to arouse private sector interest as it is accompanied by a tax incentive and because involvement of this kind is beneficial to the public reputation of any entity. However, it is possible that the authorities will find it difficult to forego the income from taxes.

More financial autonomy should then be given to the VET institutions (vocational training centres (VTCs) and vocational schools). This would mean providers being released from rigid government bylaws and regulations, especially in hiring and tendering, which could result in more efficient resource management. Greater autonomy should be accompanied by the establishment of efficient internal audit and internal control units as a form of reassurance for the government against abuse of that autonomy by the providers. The VTCs should work to strengthen the internal financial system and the audit unit must endeavour to win the trust of the Audit Bureau. Public support is likely for this proposal but regulators and other official institutions may not be keen on it, as there is generally scepticism towards providers that enjoy financial autonomy.

Finally, the Governorate Development Fund can be tapped as a source of support, especially once the decentralisation draft law has passed by parliament. Decentralisation will bring resource allocation closer to the local communities and will mean better distribution. Once the new decentralisation law is in effect, the VTCs will also be able to decentralise and work in harmony with the process.

Complementary measures could be used to support efficiency in the financial system and to enhance resource use, eventually narrowing and closing the financing gap, via means such as:

1. reforming legislation to strengthen coordination among VET institutions, reviewing employment and TVET (E-TVET) law to assure greater coordination; creating a national umbrella entity would be the answer to the lack of cooperation;
2. minimising wastage by concentrating on improving the quality and attractiveness of training programmes;
3. enhancing monitoring and evaluation systems, along with audit and accountability;
4. running awareness-raising campaigns and supporting civil lobbying groups to attract attention and increase private sector interest in supporting the VET sector, and strengthening the response in terms of corporate social responsibility.

4.2 Detailed cost and funding analysis

4.2.1 Main issues with VET financing and funding

Most Ministry of Education and Vocational Training Corporation (VTC) funding for VET comes from the general government budget for the country. The government contribution to the Ministry of Education budget was 100% (excluding loans and grants) and almost 70% of the VTC budget in 2014. In addition, there are other financing sources for VTCs such as the E-TVET Fund, the sale of products made by the VTCs, and the fees they charge companies for training their employees. Some grants are also offered, but they are usually directed to programmes managed by donors. A final source of

finance lies in the EU TVET sector support budget⁷, where the funds are released into the general budget but these payments are tied to the achievement of certain benchmarks as a means to encourage reforms.

VET expenditure from the general budget is controlled centrally and VET expenditure at Ministry of Education is funded from the ministry budget. There is no budgetary autonomy for school administrations.

The VTC budget forms part of the general government budget through the Ministry of Labour. The VTCs have no autonomy over its finances, although a little less than a third of its revenue comes from sources other than the government budget. The providers also have no autonomy and even the revenue generated from their own production goes back to the central VTC budget. A greater degree of autonomy would allow some flexibility in the administration of these centres.

The private sector contribution to VET is small. A few companies offer their own training, and some others offer training in cooperation with VTCs. There are three private vocational schools.

Most contributions not from the government budget come from E-TVET funding for the Ministry of Labour and VTCs and a number of private sector training projects; the main source of revenue for the E-TVET Fund comes from work permit fees.

Expenditure on education in Jordan is low compared with industrial countries. Public expenditure on education in France and Germany in 2011 stood at 5.7% and 5.0% of GDP respectively⁸ while in Jordan it was estimated at 3.4% in 2015⁹. Expenditure on vocational education is estimated at 2.9% of the total education budget. This level appears low, but actually in other words, vocational education is more expensive than other secondary provision, creating yet another challenge in view of the current government budget deficit.

In interviews with the Budget Division of the Planning Directorate of the Ministry of Education Planning, it was stated that the annual cost of VET student in 2014 was JOD 1 220 compared to JOD 850 for an academic student, but the estimated cost according to this study is much lower. These differences are referred to in data on 'average cost per trainee' further in the text.

Although the goal of increased female participation is important at the national level, it is hardly mentioned in the Ministry of Labour and VTC budgets. It is not stated as strategic goal for either institution and therefore no programmes have been allocated funds to achieve that goal.

The only project to address the issue directly is entitled 'Activate females and people with special needs participation in training' No 007 under a programme entitled 'Training and qualifying' No 8142 under the VTC budget. Allocations for this project amounted to JOD 30 000 out of total capital expenditure of JOD 1 545 000; a mere 2% (General Budget Law 2015, VTC Budget, Chapter 8110)¹⁰.

There is also considerable wastage. Data for 2015 provided by the Budget Division of the Ministry of Education on the occasion of this report suggests that an estimated 20% of VET students drop out before completing the programme to look for a job in semi-skilled or unskilled labour. Many of those dropouts later join VTC programmes to work in skilled labour.

⁷ The EU concluded a TVET sector budget support programme worth EUR 34 million in June 2015. The Financing Agreement between the government of Jordan and the EU for a new TVET Sector Budget Support was signed on 8 November 2015 for EUR 52 million over four years. The programme includes a benchmark of increased female participation in the labour market.

⁸ Eurostat data

⁹ General Budget Law 2015

¹⁰ www.gbd.gov.jo/GBD/en/Budget/Index/general-budget-law

According to interviews with the Directorate for Examinations in the Ministry of Education, a total of 54.2% of all VET students pass the general secondary vocational exam, but only 42% of female vocational students pass. Most of those who fail join VTC training programmes and then look for work. The upgrading of VET quality is essential to a reduction of this wastage and target dropout rates from VTC training programmes were set at 12% for 2015 and 9% for 2017¹¹.

Further wastage results from the lack of coordination among the many parties involved in VET.

Capital expenditure constitutes only a small percentage of total expenditure, with VET capital at the Ministry of Education constituting 5% of total expenditure (General Budget 2015–17, capital expenditure, Ministry of Education – vocational education programme 4405)¹². The expected trend in capital expenditure is downward, although this runs contrary to the requirements outlined in the Ministry of Education plans to double the numbers of VET students in 10 years.

VET efficiency and effectiveness are negatively impacted by slow response in updating training programmes (introducing new courses, eliminating outdated content and improving existing ones) to keep up with changing employment market developments. This is generally due to the lack of funding.

Costing seems unclear and may not include all of the constituent elements. The real cost should be broken down by programme at each of the 44 VTCs to enable better comparison.

The budget for VTCs is not prepared by programme either, listing the items required with no reference to the relevant programmes.

4.2.2 Cost structure prior analysis

The ETF, in cooperation with the EU delegation in Amman, conducted a comprehensive study of the TVET sector in 2006. Part of the study contained a financial assessment of the sector, but data limitations within the constraints of the report restricted the indicators to:

- the proportion of current expenditure in the total budget;
- the sources of financing of TVET institutions;
- the importance of TVET in the Jordanian economy;
- the cost per trainee (ETF, 2006).

The current study faced the same data limitations and, consequently, the above-mentioned indicators will be calculated on the basis of budget figures that show aggregate cost data with limited detail.

¹¹ Ibid.

¹² Ibid.

The importance of the VET sector

The 2006 study covered TVET, while the current study is concerned only with VET as covered by the Ministry of Education and the VTCs. Despite reform efforts, spending on vocational education fell from 22% to 15% of GDP in the 10 years from 2003 to 2013, before reaching a plateau between 2013 and 2015 (**Table 4.1**).

TABLE 4.1 EXPENDITURE ON VET (JOD THOUSAND)

	2003*	2013	2014	2015
Ministry of Education		24 156	24 896	26 125
VTCs		11 127	12 397	13 618
Total		35 283	37 266	39 743
GDP at market prices		23 852 000	25 437 000	27 091 000
Total expenditure as a proportion of GDP (%)	0.22	0.15	0.15	0.15

* The 2003 data is taken from ETF (2006, p. 48) after subtracting technical education.

The proportion of current expenditure in the total budget

The percentage of current expenditure to total expenditure is very high, leaving little for the institutions to invest in new equipment or improved facilities and environment. **Table 4.2** shows the percentage of current expenditure in the Ministry of Education VET programme and in VTCs.

TABLE 4.2 CURRENT EXPENDITURE AS A PROPORTION OF TOTAL EXPENDITURE (%)

	2002	2003	2013	2014	2015
Ministry of Education					
Current expenditure	80	79	96	97	95
Capital expenditure	20	21	4	3	5
VTCs					
Current expenditure	59	49	91	87	87
Capital expenditure	24	51	9	13	13

Source: General Budget Law for the fiscal year 2015. Percentages for 2002 and 2003 are taken from ETF (2006).

Table 4.2 shows that the situation has not improved over time and that the percentage of capital expenditure is generally decreasing. The figure reached a low of 4% at the Ministry of Education in 2013 and it is expected to stay low in the medium term. The data cast doubt on the feasibility of Ministry of Education plans to double the numbers of vocational students, while clearly demonstrating what a challenging task it will be for the Ministry of Education and VET programme officials at the ministry to boost investment for the upcoming plans.

Details of the vocational education budget for 2015 show that salaries and social security contributions consume over 95% of allocations. This compares with 86% for the salaries of teachers of all streams of education in the total Ministry of Education budget. The reason is that salaries are higher for teachers in vocational education than they are for regular teachers, as VET teachers are mainly engineers and technicians. **Table 4.3** shows the distribution of expenditure in its components.

TABLE 4.3 DISTRIBUTION OF MINISTRY OF EDUCATION VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMME EXPENDITURE, 2015 (%)

	Expenditure (JOD thousand)	Percentage of total
Current expenditure, out of which:	24 825	95.0
▪ Salaries including social security contributions	23 767	91.0
▪ Training materials	375	1.4
▪ Other operational items	683	2.6
Capital expenditure, of which:	1 300	5.0
▪ Additions to the facilities	1 000	3.8
▪ Machines and equipment	300	1.2
Total expenditure	26 125	100.0
Total allocations for female vocational students	14 354	54.9

Source: General Budget Law for the fiscal year 2015, Chapter 2501, Ministry of Education, programme 4405 vocational training¹³

The situation at the VTCs is little better. In 2013, capital expenditure constituted 9% of total expenditure compared to 4% at the Ministry of Education. Current expenditure constituted 91% and most of this went on salaries which made up 85% of current expenditure and 78% of total expenditure. In 2002 and 2003, huge capital expenditure was directed to the establishment of new facilities. The ETF 2006 study mentioned that 'the increase in investment expenditure is mainly explained by the construction of 13 new centres belonging to the VTCs during the period 2002–04. These were financed by the SETP project mechanism. It is evident that when the VTCs have resources, they invest in the creation of new centres, instead of in the development of those that already exist' (ETF, 2006, p. 49). Following that investment, capital expenditure fell to just 9% in 2013 with an estimated 13% for 2014 and 2015. VTC officials are currently satisfied that training centres and their geographical distribution are both adequate, so new investments will presumably be directed toward the development of these centres, the updating of training equipment and general modernisation.

VTC officials reported a serious need to upgrade and modernise existing training equipment and to introduce new equipment and materials for new training adapted to changing market demand. There is no estimate available for the investment needed.

Sources of finance

The vocational training budget forms part of the Ministry of Education budget, but the budget only shows allocations from government and not any loans and grants¹⁴ provided through the Ministry of Planning and international cooperation. The depreciation of building, cars, and equipment and furniture do not show at all, as depreciation is a balance sheet concept that is not covered in the budget listing of revenue and expenditure. Estimated costs calculated from the budget figures are therefore missing these components and consequently show a figure that is less than the real cost.

¹³ www.gbd.gov.jo/GBD/en/Budget/Index/general-budget-law

¹⁴ Major donors are the EU, USAID and the World Bank. On 9 November 2015, USAID announced a grant of USD 100 million to build 25 schools over five years to accommodate about 25 000 girls within the 'Together for girl's education' initiative.

VTCs have various sources of funding including the government contribution, its own revenues from sale of products made at institution centres, support from the E-TVET Fund, and loans and grants. **Table 4.4** shows the various financing sources and the amounts received in 2014.

TABLE 4.4 FINANCES OF VTCs, 2014

Source	Amount (JOD thousand)	% of total
Government contribution	10 690	70.3
Current	9 146	
Capital	1 544	
Own revenues	1 170	7.7
Deficit financed from reserves	537	3.5
Total budget	12 397	81.5
E-TVET Fund	2 800*	18.5
Loans and grants	Not available	
Total	15 197	100.0

Sources: General Budget Law 2015, VTC Chapter 81 10¹⁵. (*) The E-TVET Fund figure comes from the E-TVET Fund preliminary estimate.

Issues concerning the cost estimates

Estimates for any training programme will have problems and miscalculations as one cost item or ingredient could be missed or miscalculated. The costs consist of operating costs and capital costs. According to Tsang: 'Operating costs include instructors, training supplies and materials, and administration. The capital costs consist of the annualized expenditure on buildings, equipment, furniture and land.' (Tsang, 1997, p. 66)

The estimate of an average cost for a set of programmes, or an average cost for training as attempted by this study, could be complicated further by a number of factors.

1. The cost of training courses varies according to the nature or mode of the course. For example, IT courses are not as costly as food industry, pharmaceutical industry, and manual and traditional crafts courses. The lack of detailed data would make it impossible to calculate a weighted average that takes the cost differences into consideration.
2. Cost differences arise due to geographical location. For instance, the cost of a training programmes in Tafleh is higher than in Amman.
3. The number of trainees is a factor in determining the cost. In areas or courses where few trainees register, the cost would be higher.
4. The treatment of joint costs: 'Joint costs, especially for training centres, complicate the process of estimating institutional costs. Administrators, supporting staff, laboratories and other items may be jointly used by a wide range of programmes. Because these programmes differ in the degree to which they use these resources, costs cannot be simply divided equally among them. Rather, joint costs should be allocated to the different programmes based on some measure of use. Such measures might include the ratio of instructional time for one programme to that for all the

¹⁵ www.gbd.gov.jo/GBD/en/Budget/Index/general-budget-law

programmes, or the ratio of the laboratory time of a programme to that for all the programmes.’ (Tsang, 1997, p. 65)

Despite the many complications in calculating programme costs and average costs, the average cost key data for policy makers and the average cost per trainee is the most widely used unit in planning vocational training.) Tsang stated that: ‘Average costs of training are important to policy makers in several respects. First, they are used in national training plans for costing purposes. Second, both the costs and benefits of a training programme are needed to estimate the profitability of the training programme; this involves comparing the cost per trainee with the economic benefit per trainee. Third, average costs are needed in comparing the efficiency of investment in alternative training programmes. Fourth, information on average costs is also useful for diagnosing the state of health of a training programme or system. A careful examination of how average costs are distributed over the various input items can provide clues to how to use resources devoted to training more efficiently or how to control training costs.’ (Tsang, 1997, p. 71)

For the purpose of this study, average cost per trainee will be used for the national training plans to estimate the cost of implementing the two policies proposed.

Cost will be estimated by dividing the total expenditure (shown in the relevant institution budget) by the number of trainees at the institution. Due to the availability of data from budgets only, two cost items will be missing: the grants and the depreciation of buildings, equipment, furniture and cars.

TABLE 4.5 COST PER TRAINEE IN THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND VTCs (JOD)

	2003*	2013	2014
Ministry of Education			
Total expenditure	4 437 000	24 156 340	24 868 750
Number of students	34 057	28 383	29 150
Cost per trainee	130	851	853
VTCs			
Total budget expenditure	9 403 447 (2002 figures)	11 127 514	12 396 587
Plus E-TVET contribution		1 684 632	2 800 000
Grand total		12 812 146	15 196 587
Number of trainees	13 245	10 811	12 564
Cost per trainee	710	1 185	1 210

Sources: Budget figures and E-TVET Fund report 2013, p. 32; the figure for 2014 is a preliminary estimate.

(*) ETF, 2006

Ministry of Education sources estimated the cost per student in secondary vocational education at JOD 1 220 per year in 2014, and this figure will be used in calculations for Policy option 1. VTC sources estimated the cost of one-year training courses (initial VET (IVET)) at JOD 1 228 per year in 2012 and JOD 1 114 in 2013, and the latter figure will be used for Policy option 1. Finally, the same VTC sources estimated the cost of short courses (continuing VET (CVET)) at JOD 300 for 300 hours of training and JOD 600 for six months of training, and these figures will be used for Policy option 2.

4.2.3 Finances and costing practices

The government general budget is the source of financing for education and vocational education, but donors also contribute to the development of the education environment. The largest section of support came from USAID for the establishment of new schools and the EU has extended grants to the government budget in support of Iraqi and Syrian students.

There have been sizeable increases in the education budget in the last couple of years, mainly to cover large increments from improvements to the teachers' salaries scale.

The annual cost per vocational student is higher than the cost per academic student and vocational schools cost more than other schools to establish due to the equipment involved. A vocational school will cost JOD 3 million – JOD 2 million for land and structure and another JOD 1 million for equipment – while an academic school will cost only JOD 2 million in total and it will cater for a larger number of students.

In addition to the capital expenditure, recurring expenditure is higher in vocational schools as the instructors or teachers are mostly engineers and technicians who are better paid, thus accounting for a significant part of the total cost.

The Ministry of Education has ambitious plans to establish new vocational schools in every province (or sub governorate) over the next 10 years, which means the establishment of many schools at a cost of JOD tens of millions. At present, there are only 199 vocational schools and units in schools (137 of which are exclusively for girls) out of total number of 3 716 schools. The aim is to increase the percentage of vocational students to total students across all streams from 14% in 2014 to 25% in 2025¹⁶.

4.2.4 Finances and costing practice in the VTCs¹⁷

The VTCs calculate the average cost per trainee on the basis of institutional data on all items and inputs. The calculations include the depreciation of land, buildings, equipment, and furniture according to the regulations stipulated in the financial by-law. In 2013, capital costs represented about 9% of total costs according to VTC officials.

Current or recurring costs are made up of the cost of instructors and salaries of employees which represent about 78% of total costs. The remaining costs are attributed to training supplies and materials, and administration, and VTC officials state that the levels of these vary from one training course to another.

The total training costs (current + capital + grants + depreciation) are then divided by the equivalent number of trainees to get the average cost per trainee. The final figure will depend on the length of the period of training, for example if ten trainees had training for a month, then the equivalent number over the year becomes $10 \times 1/12$.

The difference between the official VTC figure of cost per trainee and that calculated here on the basis of budget figures is elaborated upon below under in the 'Comparison between the official estimates and the study estimates based on budget figures of the cost per trainee' section.

The calculation of cost per trainee is based on the number of trainees in existing training centres. When the number of trainees increases and exceeds the capacity of training centres, then additional

¹⁶ Minister of Education's statement on 4 October 2015

¹⁷ Both current and capital expenditure appear under the vocational programme in the Ministry of Education budget, although grants and depreciation do not. As a result, there is a difference between the Ministry of Education figure for cost per student and the calculation given here on the basis of budget figures.

capacity will be needed. This type of expansion will represent a serious commitment and will require extensive investment in the form of capital expenditure, as the 'step cost' of extending existing facilities is usually high. In fact, VTC officials the findings from site visits to VTCs show that most VTCs are working above capacity by running double-shift training courses. **Table 4.6** shows VTC capacity and the equivalent number of trainees.

TABLE 4.6 CAPACITY AND USE OF CAPACITY

Year	Capacity	Equivalent number of trainees*	Utilisation of capacity (%)
2011		7 873	
2012	6 773	7 333	108
2013	6 693	8 798	131
2014	8 320	N.A.	

(*) *Equivalent number of trainees means the number of trainees provided with training for 12 months.*

Sources: VTC annual reports. Equivalent number of trainees: VTC Planning Directorate.

Table 4.6 clearly shows that the operation of VTCs already exceeds capacity although utilisation could be further extended by expanding double-shift practice to accommodate triple shifts, or by rotating the training units. This approach will offer a time buffer before the existing facilities need extension.

The examples below show just how expensive it can be to extend facilities and cover the cost of some new programmes.

1. *Cost of one excellence centre:* Pharmaceutical Centre of Excellence

The VTCs established the centre in cooperation with Federation of Jordanian Pharmaceutical Producers and the E-TVET Fund, at a cost of USD 2 million or about JOD 1.4 million. The cost of the structure was JOD 700 000 and equipment and furniture cost a further JOD 700 000.

The centre aims to improve student competency, preparing them to enter the pharmaceutical industry. The centre offers spaces to 34 students who are enrolled for two semesters.

Operational cost per trainee is estimated at JOD 3 000.

2. *Cost of a programme supported by a donor:* Training for Water and Energy Efficiency Development (TWEED) programme

This programme is developed by the German entity GIZ in cooperation with the VTCs, the Ministry of Water and Irrigation and Jordanian Construction Contractors to provide professional and entrepreneurial competencies through labour market-oriented vocational training and business development services in the field of water and energy efficiency.

Programme activities (as given in the leaflet):

- implementation of DACUM (Developing a Curriculum), workshops and development of operational standards for the three occupational levels;
- labour market needs analysis;
- capacity building;
- master training course in Germany and Jordan for VTC instructors;
- development of learning and teaching materials in the fields of plumbing, solar heating, and business development;
- accreditation and certification of programmes and modules;
- development of business models;

- development of a virtual platform for job placement as well as the promotion of vocational training and blue collar jobs.

The budget for the programme is EUR 2 million over two years, allocated to training, curriculum development, building business models and developing the platform.

A number of long and short training courses are offered: 1 400, 100 and 60 hours. The cost of running these courses ranges between JOD 10 000 to 30 000 with an average cost per trainee of between JOD 500 to 600 covering materials, payment for instructors and some incentives for the trainees.

3. **Cost of a VTC training course:** a training course of average cost and duration would provides 700 hours of training costs JOD 27 000, with a per trainee cost of JOD 1 170 without capital cost. With capital cost taken into account, the cost per trainee would have been JOD 1 350 for this particular course.

The three examples given above could be used as guidelines for estimates and as an outline of the various models of training that can be offered.

Comparison of official figures and study budget-based figures of cost per trainee

Official figures take into account current expenditure, capital expenditure, the grant element and depreciation. The budget-based figures do not include grants and depreciation. Where figures are available, **Table 4.7** shows a big difference between official figures and the budget-based figures of the Ministry of Education and a small difference between official figures and those of the VTCs. A possible explanation is the depreciation of equipment and infrastructure, the cost of which is not reflected in the budget, but is covered in the actual payments by the Ministry to the VTCs.

TABLE 4.7 COST PER TRAINEE ACCORDING TO OFFICIAL ESTIMATES AND THE STUDY BUDGET-BASED ESTIMATES

	Ministry of Education		VTCs	
	Budget figures	Official figures	Budget figures	Official figures
2013	851		1 185	1 114
2014	853	1 220	1 210	N.A.

4.2.5 Cost of implementing the two PRIME policy options (2014 as a base year)

With the cost per trainee established, analysis should move on to identifying the potential number of women to be trained and their distribution according to length of training to be provided. The cost of each type of training course and the total cost of training could then be estimated.

TABLE 4.8 FEMALE DISTRIBUTION PATTERN ACCORDING TO THE TYPE AND LENGTH OF TRAINING PROGRAMME

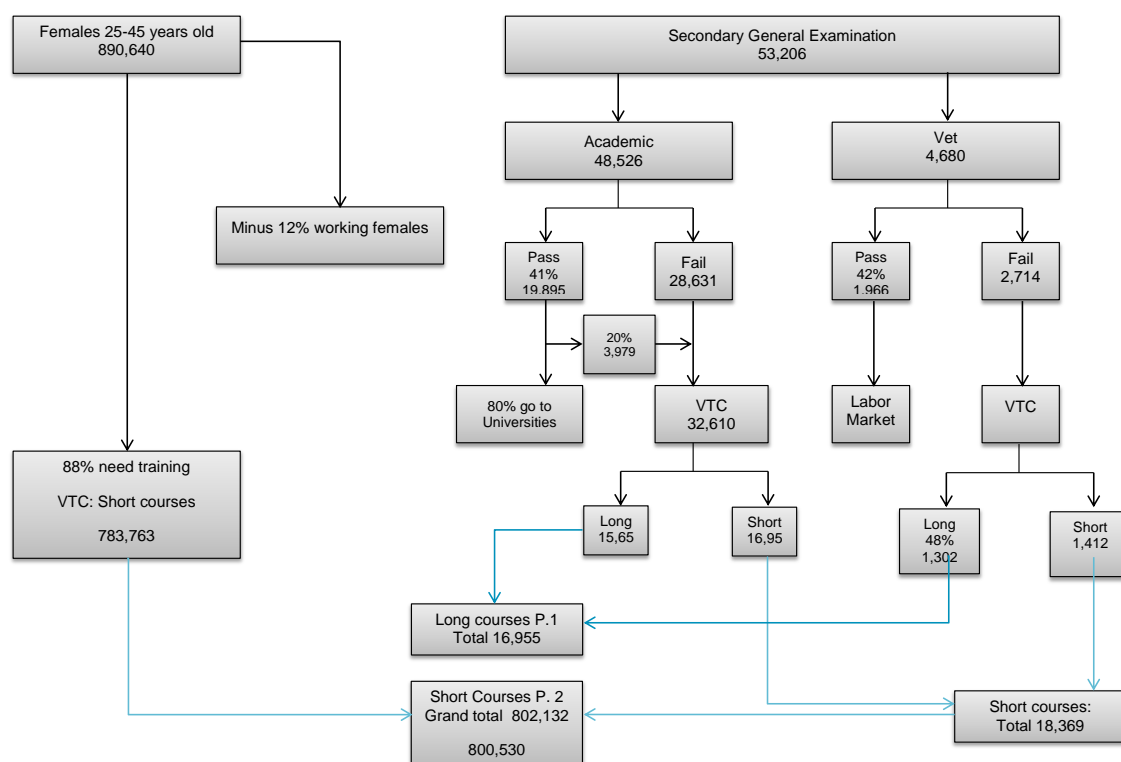
Course duration	Number of female trainees	Percentage of total (%)	Cost of course (JOD)
Long courses	2 779	48.0	1 210
▪ Craftsman	421	7.3	
▪ Skilled	2 354	40.7	
▪ Diploma	4		
Short courses	3 016	52.0	
▪ Semi-skilled	1 352	23.3	605
▪ Short courses	1 664	28.7	302
Total	5 795	100.0	

Long courses cover a period of a whole year at a cost of JOD 1 200, while semi-skilled courses last for six months at an estimated cost of JOD 600. Short courses vary in length but they usually average 300 hours – or almost a quarter of the full-year training – costing an average of JOD 300 ($1\,200 \times 1/4$).

Young females seeking a first job are currently mostly enrolled in long courses (48%), followed by semi-skilled provision (23%) and short courses (29%). Unemployed females mostly seek short-term training.

Figure 4.2 shows the number of females looking for a first job and the number of unemployed women needing preparatory training to enter the job market.

FIGURE 4.2 POTENTIAL NUMBER OF WOMEN ABLE TO BENEFIT FROM TRAINING TO ENHANCE THEIR CHANCES OF GETTING A JOB



4.2.6 Cost projection for implementation of the PRIME scenario

Cost of Policy option 1

A. VET cost at the Ministry of Education

The 2015 budget for vocational education at the Ministry of Education was estimated at JOD 26.1 million, with allocations for female students at an estimated 14.3 million (Budget Law 2015). Female students make up 36% of all vocational students but have a 55% allocation due to diseconomies of scale.

The Ministry of Education's plans aim to increase the percentage of vocational students to 25% of all secondary students in 2025, meaning an increase to approximately 75 000 individual students compared to just 29 000 in 2015. This calculation assumes that 80% of the current 187 200 first grade students will enter grade 10 in ten years' time (based on an estimated dropout rate of 20%) and that 25% of these students will opt for vocational classes. This calculation ($187.2 \times 0.8 \times 0.25$) would mean that there will be 37 000 VET students in first year secondary, giving a total of 74 000 students over the 2 years of secondary vocational classes; a number almost 2.5 times the current total.

By 2025, allocations for the vocational stream should rise from JOD 26.1 million to more than JOD 60 million (26.1×2.5). Allocations for females are estimated to reach at least JOD 33 million. This total excludes new capital expenditure of between JOD 5 million and JOD 10 million per year depending on the need for a vocational school in each province.

On 20 November 2015, the Prime Minister declared that Jordan needs 500 new schools. If we suppose these will be built over 10 years and that 15% will be vocational and 35% for females, at a cost of approximately JOD 3 million per school; then the annual cost can be estimated at around JOD 8 million. All these estimates are in 2015 prices excluding inflation.

B. Long training or IVET offered by the VTCs to prepare young women for initial entry to the labour market

Figure 4.2 shows estimates of the number of females who need IVET calculated on the basis of the number of female students graduating from high school. In 2014 these totalled 53 206 students. Of these, 48 526 were B-1 graduates of the academic stream and 41% were successful in the general *tawjehi* exam¹⁸. Approximately 80% (around 16 000), are expected to go on to universities and colleges, while the remaining 20% (3 979), along with those who failed (28 631 students) will go on to the VTCs (a total of 32 610 students). **Table 4.8** clearly shows that of these:

- 48% take long courses: $15\,653 \times 1\,200 = \text{JOD } 18.8 \text{ million}$
- 23% take training for six months: $7\,500 \times 600 = \text{JOD } 4.5 \text{ million}$ (short course costs)
- 29% receive short training ($9\,457 \times 300 = \text{JOD } 2.8 \text{ million}$ (short course costs).

A further 4 680 were B-2 graduates of the secondary vocational education stream. Of these, 42% passed the general exam (1 966) and entered the labour market, while those who failed (2 714) went on to VTCs with the following distribution and cost:

- 48% take long training: $1\,302 \times 1\,200 = \text{JOD } 1.6 \text{ million}$
- 23% take training for six months: $624 \times 600 = \text{JOD } 0.4 \text{ million}$ (short training costs)

¹⁸ Deputy Prime Minister of Education in a press conference on 29 July 2015.

- 29% receive short-term training: $787 \times 300 = \text{JOD } 0.2 \text{ million}$ (short training costs).

The cost of long courses from B-1 and B-2 together (18.4 million + 1.6 million) add up to JOD 20 million at 2014 prices, making the total cost of all long course training from both the Ministry of Education and the VTCs (14.3 million + 20 million) around JOD 34 million. This calculated cost does not include the cost of new facilities, but the existing capacity is insufficient for all the potential new trainees in the short or even medium term.

Education reform to increase the quality of provision and rates of success in the general exam would reduce this cost considerably. Every 1% increase in the success rate of the general secondary exam would save around JOD 0.4 million in training costs later.

Cost of Policy option 2

Figure 4.2 clearly illustrates the path of women for Policy option 2.

Assumptions

- The women targeted are aged between 25 and 45 as younger women are expected to either be in colleges or looking for work. It is unlikely that women aged more than 45 years will want to go return work or start working if they have previously been inactive, in view of the early retirement age for women in Jordan. At the close of 2014, there were 890 640¹⁹ women in this group.
- There are 784 000 non-working women (the number of all women minus working women: 890 000 - 106 000). As around 16 000 young women are already taking short courses, that the final total number of women on short training courses would be about 800 000. Training all of these women on short courses would cost around JOD 300 per head ($800\,000 \times 300$), meaning a total cost of JOD 235 million.
- Finally, some women will not want to work because of family circumstances and other reasons. A study on Jordanian women withdrawing from the labour market supervised by the Higher Population Council concluded that 44% of the women who left received 'very low' wages (less than JOD 200 a month), which could very well be a reason for quitting work. The survey also showed that 34% of the women who left their jobs attributed their decision to 'family circumstances', while 11% mentioned the 'burden/responsibility of having children'. Moreover, 9% said they left the job when they got married, 7% were 'fired by the employer', 6% blamed 'bad treatment at work', 6% 'low wages' and a final 6% cited 'emigration' (Higher Population Council, 2014).
- We assume that half of Jordanian women have experiences similar to the ones described under the previous point, and that half would not need training. If this is the case, then the cost would be much lower or almost half.
- The cited amount excludes the cost of the new facilities that would be needed to accommodate this large number of women, along with the replacement of outdated training equipment for some courses.

Implementation of Policy option 2 would cost JOD 235 million

There is neither the financial means nor the capacity to train the remaining large number of inactive females either at present or in the medium term and the logical suggestion would be to train them over a 10-year period. The average annual cost at constant prices would be around JOD 23 million. To that, one must add inactive females who might opt for doing the long courses training which would

¹⁹ Department of Statistics, Table of population distribution according to the age group.

cost another JOD 20 million, making a total annual cost of JOD 43 million. As around JOD 4 million is allocated to women under the VTCs (a third of trainees), the shortfall is therefore JOD 39 million per year, excluding the cost of extensions for additional capacity.

However, this is the worst case scenario for funding. If, as we calculated earlier, half of all inactive women would never seek training, then the gap would be a mere JOD 27 million a year in constant prices. This excludes the estimated costs of extending existing facilities, as insufficient detailed data is available to propose an accurate estimate.

4.2.7 Financing model which supports the implementation of the policy options

The great need for finance and capacity in training and the limited government capability to augment VET allocations lead to the following proposals for closing the financing gap to achieve the expected impact.

1. Establish training facilities on a PPP basis, especially in high-tech projects that would attract the private sector.

Viable in terms of effectiveness: 0.5 – dependent upon the expected rate of returns. This may not be very high and this is a new field of business for PPP ventures.

Political acceptance: 1 – as there is a PPP unit at the Ministry of Finance ready to study the viability of potential projects.

Social acceptance: 0.0 – people are usually not in favour of the PPP approach in general.

2. Grant government tax exemptions to encourage private sector participation toward the cost of extending facilities and training at government training institutions.

Viable in terms of effectiveness: 1.0 – the private sector is encouraged to contribute toward new facilities in return for an agreed benefit such as tax deductions and a good reputation. These facilities may be better managed and administered on a private sector business-management basis.

Political acceptance: 0.5 – there are some officials who are unwilling to offer any type of exemptions but others accept that such an approach may encourage the private sector to shoulder some of the costs for the benefit of society.

Social acceptance: 1.0.

3. Grant greater financial autonomy to the VET institutions (VTCs and vocational schools).

Viable in terms of effectiveness: 1.0 – the VTCs might be released from rigid government bylaws and regulations, especially in hiring and tendering, which could result in more efficient resource management.

Political acceptance: 0.5 – greater autonomy should be accompanied by the creation of efficient internal audit and internal control units in order to guarantee government willingness to extend autonomy to these institutions. The VTCs should work to strengthen the internal financial system and audit unit to win the trust of the Audit Bureau.

Social acceptance: 0.5 – support for this proposal would be good but scepticism might be expressed as there is a widespread negative view of autonomous government units because of a perceived lack of government supervision.

4. Provide support from the Governorate Development Fund (this will become more viable when the decentralisation draft law has been passed by parliament).

Viable in terms of effectiveness: 1.0 – decentralisation brings resource allocation closer to the local communities and allows for better distribution.

Political acceptance: 1.0 – when the new decentralisation law comes into effect, it will be more reasonable for the VTCs to also decentralise in line with the process.

Social acceptance: 1.0.

A further group of measures could also be proposed to support financial system efficiency and to enhance resource use in order to narrow and eventually close the financing gap (the impact of which has not been taken into account here):

- legislative reform to strengthen coordination among VET institutions, reviewing E-TVET law to assure greater coordination; creating a national umbrella entity to address the lack of cooperation;
- minimised wastage through by improving the quality and attractiveness of training programmes;
- enhanced monitoring and evaluation systems, greater audit and accountability;
- awareness-raising campaigns and civil lobbying groups to draw attention and increase private sector interest in supporting the VET sector, strengthening corporate social responsibility response.

ANNEXES

Annex 1. Working group guidance for consultative multi-criteria analysis of anticipated impact

8 October 2015, Amman

Purpose of the meeting

The meeting has two aims. The first aim of the validation meeting is to present and validate a number of actions in each of the policy options identified in Phase 1 of PRIME. The intention is to make the options operational. The second aim of the Validation Meeting is to assess the likely impact of those actions with the help of consultations among the participants in the meeting. In preparation of the impact assessment, the meeting will also feature a capacity-building session.

The outcome of the meeting is an impact assessment report for each policy option, prepared with the help of a template presented below. These results will be taken by the PRIME core expert team and integrated in a final impact assessment report. The report will be discussed in the final PRIME meeting at the end of the project and used to guide the assessment of the financing implications of policy action in PRIME Phase 3.

Flow of the meeting

The impact assessment process will take place in working groups in the second session of the meeting. Each working group will focus on assessing the likely impact of one policy option. Each working group will nominate a rapporteur who will be responsible for summarising the results and presenting them to the plenary.

The first session of the meeting will take place in a plenary format with a presentation and validation of the options and the proposed actions. The validation comprises double-check of suggested interventions and actions in each policy option and the formulation of proposals for changes, if need be.

The second session will focus on a discussion of the likely impact of interventions and actions in each policy option. Participants are invited to draw extensively on their professional competence in making statements about the likely impact, and are obliged to keep the discussion structured around the assessment criteria and judgement options presented below.

Detailed instructions for the plenary session: validation of policy options and suggested actions

In preparing your comments and questions to the presenter, it is suggested to use as a guidance the following questions.

For the proposed 'interventions' and 'actions' in each policy option:

- Do you agree with the proposed actions for each intervention? If no, please:
 - Justify why not
 - Be ready to suggest a change
- Do you think the actions for each intervention are sufficient? If no, please
 - Propose additional actions
 - Be ready to justify how they will serve the interventions

Detailed instructions for the working group session: assessment of the likely impact of policy actions

The workshop participants are expected to formulate judgement/statements about the likely impact of actions proposed for each policy option. To make such statements, workshop participants:

- will be guided by simple assessment criteria;
- should rely on their professional (formal and informal) experience;
- should use one of three judgement options.

Impact assessment criteria

Each assessment criteria responds to a set of simple questions, which should guide the formulation of statements about the likely impact. The criteria and their questions are as follows.

1. *Effectiveness* (E): Criterion to judge about the extent to which the proposed policy action will serve its interventions and achieve the overarching goals of the policy option. The guiding question is - will the proposed action lead to the desired results?
2. *Political acceptance* (PA): Criterion to judge about the likelihood that the proposed action will be accepted and owned by the national and regional authorities. The guiding question is -will the proposed action be politically acceptable?
3. *Social acceptance* (SA): Criterion to judge about the likelihood that the proposed action will be accepted and owned by those who are concerned by it (girls and women, their families, VET providers, the society, etc.) The main question is - will the proposed action be socially acceptable?

Judgement options

The judgement options for each action and criteria are three: Yes (Y), No (N), Problematic (P). Here is an example of how the criteria and judgement options can be used.

Policy option	Description	Criteria		
		Effectiveness	Political acceptance	Social acceptance
Option 1: Better skills through VET				
Intervention 1	Action 1	Yes	No	Yes
	Action 2	Problematic	Yes	Yes
	Action 3	No	No	No

The working groups are expected to justify their judgements when reporting to the plenary. Two ready-to-use templates are provided below.

Policy option 1: improving skill supply				
Intervention	Actions	Criteria		
		E	PA	SA
Intervention 1: Widening the selection of new TVET Programs and revision of existing ones for women	1.1 Widen the choice of TVET programs in new sectors/fields for females e.g. in new technology and supporting women's entrepreneurship			
	1.2 Integrate female quotas in male dominated programmes			
	1.3 Make learning need assessment for women			
	1.4 Design individual, flexible study programmes			
	1.5 Ensure gender-sensitive training arrangements			
	1.6 Build social support systems to ensure attainment and progress to higher education levels etc.			
	1.7. Integrate women in labour market information system and improve the quality of statistics regarding gender			
Intervention 2: Improving Quality of VET and Support Services for women	2.1 Enhance the capacity of trainers and ensure sufficient number of qualified trainers, especially women and conduct training in actual setting for women			
	2.2 Review and modify TVET curriculums			
	2.3 Career days in schools			
	2.4 Internships/traineeships for women			
Intervention 3: Improve attitudes of female students, families and society towards vocational education and training and employability	3.1 Awareness sessions, open discussions to improve attitudes of communities and employers			

Policy option 2: building bridges for transition				
Intervention	Actions	Criteria		
		E	PA	SA
Intervention 1: Enhance women's working and learning through special measures in both learning, on-the-job learning and work	1.1 Design special measures for inactive women, including flexible learning arrangements and work-based learning for employability			
	1.2. Reach for agreements with sectors (private and public) for working and learning			
	1.3. Incentives for industries to invest in women employment			
	1.4. Incentives for inactive women, for example day care, transportation etc.			
	1.5 Revision of legislation for working conditions and financial support to inactive women			
	1.6. Integration of women in labour market information system and improve the quality of statistics regarding inactive females			
Intervention 2: Design specific TVET offer and support systems for inactive women	2.1 Plan opportunities for home-based learning and working with digital, on-line means			
	2.2 Tailor-made internships/traineeships /apprenticeship including recognition of prior learning in TVET – public/private partnerships			
	2.3 Establish learning centres and workshops for upgrading the skills			
	2.4 Arrange support systems including, individual study plans, career guidance, study counselling, social benefits			
	2.5 Awareness raising about special measures for inactive women for all stakeholders including employers and public employment staff			

Annex 2. Contextualisation of evidence through focus group discussions

27 September–8 October 2015

The PRIME project in Jordan works on identifying effective policies to increase female participation in the labour market, in particular by improving the transition from education and training to employment. The key finding is that this task is a shared responsibility between education and VET, the labour market, and the families of women in working age who could have employment, but don't. The solutions formulated in the course of this project are based on analysis of evidence, on workshop discussions, and on assessment of work already done by other national and international initiatives to tackle the problem.

In order to verify the analytical findings and the suggestions for policy action, PRIME envisages interviews with institutions and groups of individuals who are directly affected by the non-participation of females in the labour market, and those who have a responsibility to change things for the better. Those groups of institutions and individuals are:

1. unemployed women,
2. employers,
3. providers of vocational education and training,
4. regional authorities.

The purpose of the site visits is to gather these groups in each region to be visited by the PRIME team, discuss with them their situation, and check how the PRIME suggestions fit this situation. The best and fastest format to do so is to organise focus groups, as described in the next section:

- young graduates looking for a first time employment;
- (mostly) married women who leave their jobs to become economically inactive;
- economically non-active women.

Focus groups parameters

- Who is in the focus groups?

In terms of composition, there are five types of focus groups²⁰:

- Type 1: Unemployed women – young graduates looking for a first time employment,
- Type 2: Unemployed women – young mothers or recently married women,
- Type 3: Unemployed women – economically non-active women,
- Type 4: Employers,
- Type 5: VET providers.

Ideally, we will have five distinct focus groups in each of the two regions and Amman. If it proves difficult to keep Types 1–3 apart, they could be merged. If they are merged, it is very important to have at least one representative of each profile.

- How many participants are in each focus group?

Each focus group should count not less than 6 and not more than 12 participants.

²⁰ The regional authorities will be met in bilateral meetings.

- What is the duration of a focus group session?
Between 1.5 and 2 hours.
- Who is in charge of the focus group sessions?
The PRIME team will be in charge of leading the discussions.
- What is the timing of site visits?
The PRIME team will commence with its work in Amman and then move to Irbid, to Tafleeh, and finish again in Amman with a validation meeting on 8 October. Part of the time in Amman and each region will be devoted to bilateral visits to the regional authorities.

Region	Dates	Duration
Amman	27–29 September	3 days
Irbid	30 September–1 October	2 days
Tafleeh	4–5 October	2 days

Annex 3: Overview of the VET system in Jordan and its main challenges

Background

Jordan is in the upper middle-income countries with high growth of population as a result of normal population growth (2.2%) and influx of Iraqi and Syrian refugees.

The country is suffering from the effects from instability of the region and slow global growth. GDP registered a rate of growth around 3.0% during the period 2009–14. The main problems that face Jordan are poverty, unemployment and the budget deficit. These problems, along with the high percentage of young people in the population (more than 58% of population are under 30²¹), create challenges for the education system including VET. Meanwhile, VET importance increases as a result of these characteristics of society: ‘VET, among other things, enhances profitability and economic growth; helps in reduction of unemployment and inequality resulting from more people attaining a VET qualification, improves quality of life for individuals and effects on personal development.’ (Cedefop, 2011, p. 8)

Before presenting the financing issues, it is important to summarise the current status of VET in Jordan particularly in terms of VET for women. The Ministry of Education offers VET to students in high school and the Vocational Training Corporation offers long and short training programmes.

1. Vocational education provided by the Ministry of Education

This is offered to students for the duration of two years in comprehensive upper secondary schools. In 2014, the total number of vocational education students reached 29 000 in the 11th and 12th grades at government schools or around 14% of the total of 207 809 students in these grades²².

The number of female students in VET reached 10 687 in 2014/15 constituting only 36.3% of the total number of VET students with a concentration in home economics (beauty care, fashion, childcare)²³.

Most of these female students look for first-time employment after graduation and passing the general exam. They would benefit, costing wise, from Policy option 1 (Improving the skills supply).

²¹ Jordan-EuroMed Platform website

²² Ministry of Education, Information System Management Division, Directorate of Planning

²³ Ministry of Education, Directorate of Vocational Education

Those who fail mostly try to get further training at a VTC. They would be classified under Policy option 1 and Policy option 2 (Building bridges for transition from inactivity to work) depending on the enrolment distribution of VTC female trainees.

2. Vocational Training Corporation

The Vocational Training Corporation is described as ‘a semi-autonomous agency under the Ministry of Labour. It runs a network of 10 specialised institutes and 34 training institutes and offers vocational training and apprenticeship programmes at semi-skilled, skilled and craftsman levels in electronics, vehicle and machinery maintenance, air-conditioning and plumbing, agriculture, personal services, chemical industries and traditional crafts. Around 10 000 students a year enrol in VTC institutes. The training has two components: theoretical, at the level of the institute; and practical, delivered in the workplace through internships and training by employers. Most of the programmes attract students by offering financial incentives such as transport and meals. The VTC also organises some upgrading programmes for in-service workers based on specific needs identified by employers’ (ETF, 2015).

VET at the Ministry of Education and the long programmes at VTCs are directed mostly to young females looking for a first-time employment (Policy option 1). The short training programmes at the VTCs are directed mostly to married women who leave their jobs to become inactive or inactive women in general. These will fall under Policy option 2.

In 2014, female trainees accounted for only 27% of VTC total trainees²⁴. **Table A3.1** shows a more detailed breakdown of female participation in VTC training in 2014.

TABLE A3.1 TRAINEES BY TRAINING AND GENDER²⁵

Training	Basic work level						Diploma		Short courses	
	Craftsman		Skilled		Semi-skilled					
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Number	401	421	10 606	2 354	2 868	1 352	489	4	1 345	1 664
%	48.8	51.2	81.8	18.2	68.0	32.0	99.2	0.8	44.7	55.3
Total	822		12 960		4 220		493		3 009	
Total	18 002						493		3 009	
Total	21 504									

Problems and challenges facing the sector

- The Ministry of Education spends considerable amounts of money on new facilities but still the need for new schools is exploding: in addition to the very high numbers of school-age Jordanian children there are also more than 200 000²⁶ non-Jordanian students, most of whom are Syrian refugees attending Jordanian schools and a further large number who have no school place.
- The Government of Jordan has repeatedly declared that the aid received from the international community in support for Syrian refugees covers only 35%²⁷ of refugee needs, especially in health care and education.

²⁴ VTC annual report 2014, p. 20

²⁵ Ibid., p. 21

²⁶ Source: Interview of the Minister of Education with the UNESCO Director in Paris on 11 November 2015.

²⁷ Source: Euronews interview with H.M. King Abdullah of Jordan on 11 November 2015.

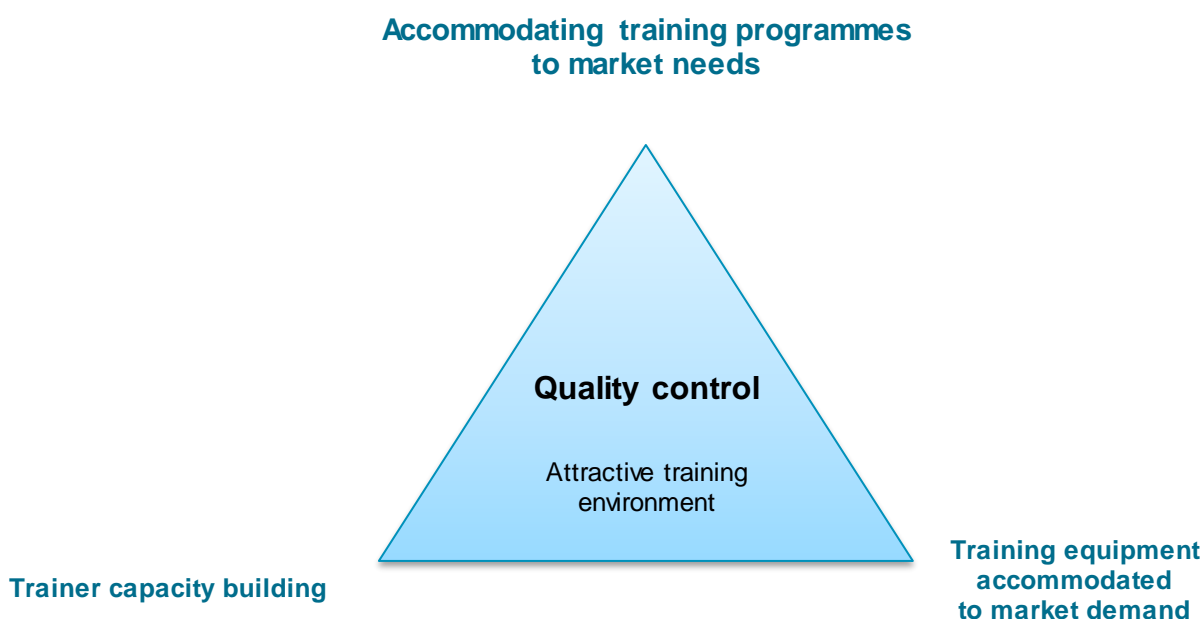
- Old and outdated training equipment and high attrition rates exist in labs and classrooms, along with limitations on the introduction of new equipment in fields such as renewable energy, water treatment, and radio and TV.
- Existing facilities are in need of extension in ways such as establishing new labs at vocational schools and training units at VTCs. The problem here is both organisational - resulting from the need for a decision on which specialisation should be introduced and the lack of market surveys to decide on priorities, and financial – due to the lack of allocations for capital expenditure.
- There is an urgent need for technical assistance in conducting market studies and surveys, especially for information on females. Support is also needed for designing programmes for females, curriculum development and the training of trainers.
- Need for qualified staff and staff retention. The rigidity of the employment system does not allow the Ministry of Education and VTCs to hire the staff they need and low wages form another obstacle to hiring highly-qualified staff.
- Development of more effective cooperation with the private sector.
- Need for greater government commitment toward VET reform, both financial and institutional.
- The VTCs are interested in training for employment. The difficult circumstances surrounding the region make employment opportunities for graduating trainees more scarce.
- Cost-related reform challenges.

All officials have complained about the lack of sources of funding. Greater efforts are needed to enhance efficiency and rationalise costs, especially in the absence of monitoring and evaluation. The funding shortfall constrains the development of an efficient vocational training system characterised by responsiveness, relevance, cost-effectiveness, efficiency, accountability and sustainability, and including internal quality control and quality assurance, according to the VTC 2015–24 strategic plan. While many schools and VTC centres are working double shifts, which is undoubtedly a better use of resources, the detailed cost information is not readily available. Also there is a need for more effective results-oriented budgeting in order to measure programme efficiency and make comparisons.

Big plans are in place but little consensus has been reached. At the same time, execution is urgently needed for the reform process to advance.

There are no special plans for women's education, but there is apparent government interest expressed through the allocation of more resources for females in vocational schools. While women and girls currently only constitute a third of all vocational education students, many of the VTC centres are becoming coeducational.

FIGURE A3.1 ELEMENTS OF GOOD VOCATIONAL TRAINING



Reforming VET

The government has recently given far more attention to VET. A conference was held on the development of education involving all VET stakeholders. Agreement was reached to create an umbrella entity over TVET to achieve better cooperation and make efforts by the different parties complementary to avoid fragmentation and waste.

The Ministry of Education is working in cooperation with other stakeholders to prepare a unified executive plan for developing and reforming VET (to be released soon). The most important elements of the plan are:

- Restructure VET to adapt more closely to labour market needs: VET will be realigned into two paths, one preparing and leading students to higher education and the other to the labour market.
- Establish a plan to establish a vocational school in every province (sub governorate) without one, with an allocated budget for this purpose.
- Support the Ministry of Education's coordination with the VTCs to help vocational students get practical training at VTC centres.
- Create an incentive system for vocational teachers and instructors to attract competent members of staff who are mainly engineers and specialised technicians, and for staff retention.
- Reform legislation to adapt admissions rules: work in coordination with universities to accommodate graduates from vocational schools on the path that leads to university; and work with community colleges to accept vocational students prepared for the labour market, allowing them to be admitted and trained in skilled labour after graduation from college. The Ministry of Education will concentrate on fields of specialisation that lead to university and will transfer other craft specialisations to the VTCs.
- Encourage private sector partnerships to establish private vocational schools in a step to create a dual vocational system. Negotiations are underway with the Amman Chamber of Industry to establish an industrial vocational school.

Annex 4. List of counterparts consulted in the course of preparation of the costing element in PRIME Phase 3

Name	Position
European Training Foundation	
Mr Mihaylo Milovanovitch	Senior Specialist in VET Policies and Systems , Operations Department
Mr Mounir Al Baati	Specialist in VET Policies and Systems , Country Desk Jordan and Libya, Operations Department
European Union Delegation in Amman	
Mr Abdelaziz Lyamouri	Programme Manager TVET, Social Inclusion and Youth Development and Regional Cooperation
E-TVET Council	
Mr Tareq Al Rashdan	Secretariat Chief Officer
Mr Sayel Al Hadeed	Technical Division Head
Ms Tamam Al Halahleh	Council Secretariat Officer
Vocational Training Corporation	
Eng. Yahya Saoud	Director General Assistant for Training Affairs
Eng. Ibrahim Al Tarawneh	Director General Assistant for Technical Affairs
Ms Aida Naji Silme	Training Project Manager Females/Gender
Ms Asmaa Al Mallah	Director, Ein Albasha Institute, Female
Dr Judy Saleh	Manager, Pharmaceutical Centre of Excellence
Mr Numan Rshedat	Budget Division Head
Mr Ashraf Al Kadash	Studies Division Head, Directorate of Planning
Mr Ali Al Omari	Training Coordinator, Training Directorate
Mr Omar Qtaishat	Director General Assistant for Administrative and Financial Affairs
Mr Emad Al Aqrabawi	Training Coordinator
Ministry of Education	
Eng. Nawaf Al Doghmi	General Director of Vocational Education
Dr Mohammad Abu Ghazleh	Managing Director of Planning and Educational Research
Eng. Ahmad Farhan Olaimat	Financial Directorate, Vocational Education
Mr Hisham Abu Khashabeh	Budget Division Chief
Mr Shaban Al Qassas	Information System Administration Division Chief
General Budget Department	
Mr Majdi Al Shuraiqi	Deputy Director General
Mr Naser Ibrahim	Budget Analyst
E-TVET Fund	
Dr Ghassan E. Abuyaghi	General Manager
Projects supported by donors	
Ms Eman Qara'een	Training for Water and Energy Efficiency Development (TWEED), Technical Advisor

ACRONYMS

CMCA	Consultative multi-criteria analysis
ETF	European Training Foundation
E-TVET	Employment-technical and vocational education and training
EU	European Union
EUR	Euro
GDP	Gross domestic product
IVET	Initial vocational education and training
JOD	Jordanian dinar (currency)
PPP	Public-private partnership
PRIME	Projecting Reform Impact in Vocational Education and Training
TVET	Technical and vocational education and training
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VET	Vocational education and training
VTC	Vocational Training Corporation
VTCs	Vocational training centres

REFERENCES

Cedefop (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training), 'The benefits of vocational education and training', *Research Paper*, No 10, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, 2011.

ETF (European Training Foundation), *Technical and vocational education and training in Jordan*, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, Luxembourg, 2006. Last accessed 23 August 2016 at:

[www.etf.europa.eu/pub/mgmt.nsf/\(getAttachment\)/ACE62B7AC28F6695C1257218005884B3/\\$File/NO TE6V4LW5.pdf](http://www.etf.europa.eu/pub/mgmt.nsf/(getAttachment)/ACE62B7AC28F6695C1257218005884B3/$File/NO TE6V4LW5.pdf)

ETF (European Training Foundation), *Torino Process 2014: Jordan*, ETF, Turin, 2015.

ETF (European Training Foundation), *PRIME issues paper: Increasing female participation in employment through vocational education and training in Jordan*, ETF, Turin, 2016. Last accessed 9 September 2016 at: www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/PRIME_issues_paper_Jordan

European Commission, *Impact assessment guidelines*, SEC(2009) 92, European Commission, Brussels, 2009. Last accessed 20 July 2016 at: http://ec.europa.eu/smart-regulation/impact/commission_guidelines/docs/iag_2009_en.pdf

Higher Population Council, *Map of Jordanian women empowerment*, Higher Population Council, Amman, 2014.

Barcucci, V. and Mryyan, N., *Labour market transitions of young women and men in Jordan*, International Labour Office, Youth Employment Programme, Employment Policy Department, ILO, Geneva, 2014.

Tsang, M.C., 'The cost of vocational training', *International Journal of Manpower*, 18(1/2), 1997, pp. 63–89.

World Bank, *Jordan Economic Monitor*, World Bank, Washington DC, 2013.

Additional documents consulted

ETF (European Training Foundation), Dorléans, M., VET financing: Policy issues in ETF partner countries, DEVCO training, Brussels, 27 November 2014.

E-TVET Fund, Annual reports

'Ex-ante impact assessment in Jordan', 1st version of a final draft, by Nadia Saad and Eila Heikkilä, August 2015.

'Restructuring secondary vocational education', by Dr Fayez Al Khasawneh for the Ministry of Education, 2015.

VTC, Annual reports

Further information on ETF activities can be found on the website:

www.etf.europa.eu

For additional information please contact:

European Training Foundation

Villa Gualino

Viale Settimio Severo 65

I - 10133 Torino

info@etf.europa.eu

