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Labour market transitions of young women and men in Jordan

Valentina Barcucci and Nader Mryyan

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Preface

Youth is a crucial time of life when young people start realizing their aspirations, assuming their economic independence and finding their place in society. The global jobs crisis has exacerbated the vulnerability of young people in terms of: i) higher unemployment, ii) lower quality jobs for those who find work, iii) greater labour market inequalities among different groups of young people, iv) longer and more insecure school-to-work transitions, and v) increased detachment from the labour market.

In June 2012, the International Labour Conference of the ILO resolved to take urgent action to tackle the unprecedented youth employment crisis through a multi-pronged approach geared towards pro-employment growth and decent job creation. The resolution "The youth employment crisis: A call for action" contains a set of conclusions that constitute a blueprint for shaping national strategies for youth employment.[1] It calls for increased coherence of policies and action on youth employment across the multilateral system. In parallel, the UN Secretary-General highlighted youth as one of the five generational imperatives to be addressed through the mobilization of all the human, financial and political resources available to the United Nations (UN). As part of this agenda, the UN has developed a System-wide Action Plan on Youth, with youth employment as one of the main priorities, to strengthen youth programmes across the UN system.

The ILO supports governments and social partners in designing and implementing integrated employment policy responses. As part of this work, the ILO seeks to enhance the capacity of national and local level institutions to undertake evidence-based analysis that feeds social dialogue and the policy-making process. To assist member States in building a knowledge base on youth employment, the ILO has designed the "school-to-work transition survey" (SWTS). The current report, which presents the results of the survey in Jordan, is a product of a partnership between the ILO and The MasterCard Foundation. The "Work4Youth" Project entails collaboration with statistical partners and policy-makers of 28 low- and middle-income countries to undertake the SWTS and assist governments and the social partners in the use of the data for effective policy design and implementation.

It is not an easy time to be a young person in the labour market today. The hope is that with leadership from the UN system, with the commitment of governments, trade unions and employers' organizations and through the active participation of donors such as The MasterCard Foundation, the international community can provide the effective assistance needed to help young women and men make a good start in the world of work. If we can get this right, it will positively affect young people's professional and personal success in all future stages of life.

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Employment Policy Department

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Regional Director
Regional Office for Arab States

[1] The full text of the 2012 resolution "The youth employment crisis: A call for action" can be found on the ILO website at: http://www.ilo.org/ilc/ILCSessions/101stSession/texts-adopted/WCMS_185950/lang--en/index.htm.

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1. Introduction and main findings

1.1 Overview

The population of Jordan is one of the youngest among countries in its income category. The median age was 23.4 years in 2010 (UNDESA, 2012), when young people aged 15–24 constituted 19.8 per cent of the total. The growth rate of the population between 1981 and 2011 was an average of 5.6 per cent per year (ILO, 2013b), much higher than the region's average rate, and well above the world's.

Youth unemployment represents a major issue for Jordan's economy, politics and society as a whole. Unemployment rates in the early stages of life affect the job prospects across the working life span of young people (ILO, 2013a). Moreover, the high level of unemployment among youth presents a source of social and psychological instability. Hence, much political attention has been given to the employment of young people in Jordan. The Government has been active in developing policies to promote youth employment. As the challenges are many and cut across several policy dimensions, measures should focus on both supply and demand, and be curative as well as preventative. Emphasis is placed on education and training, job creation and entrepreneurship, inclusion of youth in the labour market and institutional reform. The World Bank reckons that more than 10 per cent of GDP has been spent in strengthening the country's human resources over the last three decades (World Bank, 2013).

Despite recognition by various employment-related policies of the importance of improving school-to-work transitions, existing labour market information in Jordan cannot adequately answer the questions of whether school-to-work transitions of young people are a long and difficult process and if so, why. Answering these questions would go a long way to improving the existing employment strategies and to better deal with problems youth face as they transition from school to work. Recognizing this information gap, the ILO undertook the school-to-work transition survey (SWTS) in Jordan. The SWTS covers young people aged 15–29 and aims to generate information on the current labour market situation, the history of economic activities and the perceptions and aspirations of youth. In Jordan, the SWTS was commissioned in October 2012 to the Department of Statistics (DOS). Data collection took place in January and February 2013 and targeted 5,405 youth. This report presents the findings from the survey.

1.2 Main findings

Young people in Jordan enjoy good access to education, including higher education.

More than 40 per cent of young people enrolled in school at the time of the survey were in tertiary education. Among those who had already completed their education, almost one-half completed school at the secondary level or higher. The share of youth in Jordan who dropped out of school before completing primary education was very low (3.1 per cent). This percentage is likely to shrink even further in the future.

Most Jordan's young people today are achieving a higher educational attainment than their parents. At the same time, household income levels seem to pose less of a barrier to gaining an education. Young people with no education come from a diversity of household income backgrounds. Tertiary education is no longer an exclusive privilege of high-income families, and is within reach of middle-income households; in the survey, 42.2 per cent of youth with tertiary degrees classified their household income level as average. While these

are remarkable achievements, progress in expanding access to higher education has yet to achieve equitable inclusion of the lowest-income families. According to the survey, youth from poor households still represented a minority of secondary graduates and only a fraction of tertiary graduates.

The rate of participation in the labour force among youth in Jordan is very low. This is partially expected, given that 42.9 per cent of the youth population is in education. However, education alone is not sufficient to explain high inactivity rates.

The survey showed that 60.6 per cent of Jordan's youth were inactive. High levels of youth inactivity in a country with wide access to education are not, per se, surprising. Almost one-half (42.9 per cent) of young people in Jordan at the time of the survey were in school, and their propensity to combine work and study was minimal, given that their financial needs were provided by their families, and part-time work opportunities were limited. However, the enrolment rates can explain only part of the low participation in the labour force, especially as the tendency to inactivity is not an age-specific feature, but rather a gender-specific one. Young women showed a slightly higher tendency to be economically active than the total female working-age population (aged 15 and older), at 19.3 and 13.1 per cent, respectively. Yet, the vast majority of young women (80.7 per cent) remained inactive, and more than one-third were inactive and not in school.

At 24.1 per cent, the youth unemployment rate in Jordan at the time of the survey was almost double the global average.

Youth unemployment in Jordan is pervasive, and often protracted (see Annex I for definitions of labour market statistics). The country's youth unemployment rate was almost twice the global average of 12.4 per cent in 2012 (ILO, 2013a). Yet, it was lower than the regional average youth unemployment rate for the Middle East (28.3 per cent in 2012), and lower compared to other countries of the region where the SWTS was also implemented (Tunisia, 31.8 per cent, and the Occupied Palestinian Territory, 37.0 per cent).[2]

The duration of youth unemployment in the country is a serious concern. The survey showed that long-term unemployment (1 year or more) affected 55.8 per cent of those unemployed at the time. The percentage of unemployed youth who had been looking for work for at least 6 months was 72.4 per cent.

For young men in Jordan, investing in education brings a return in terms of finding employment; male unemployment rates decrease as the level of education of the young person increases. Unfortunately, the same cannot be said for young women, where the unemployment rate remains stubbornly above 40 per cent regardless of the level of education attained.

The survey indicated that the young unemployed in Jordan felt the main barrier to finding employment was the lack of available jobs. This perception was confirmed by the fact that jobseeker's proactive attitude in searching for opportunities through many channels translated into very few actual interview opportunities.

Rural youth do not face greater employment challenges than urban youth during their transitions.

Contrary to what is often expected, rural Jordan's youth do not face any striking disadvantage during their transitions to work. The survey showed the rate of participation

[2] National reports for the two countries will be available on www.ilo.org/w4y from the second quarter of 2014.

in the labour force to be remarkably homogeneous in urban and rural areas, as was the probability to be employed.

Rather, the survey found that urban youth were often relatively worse off than rural youth. The largest number of households living below the national poverty line was actually in urban areas, although rural areas are more often targeted by interventions to reduce poverty. Young people in urban areas were also more likely to be unemployed. At 20.6 per cent, the youth unemployment rate in urban areas was almost 4 percentage points higher than in rural areas. In terms of quality of employment, many more youth in stable employment were based in urban settings than rural ones, but this simply reflected the population distribution across the country's territory. Rural youth enjoyed a relatively higher probability to have a written contract than their counterparts in urban areas, and monthly reservation wages were also higher among rural youth. And, while there was more frequent use of limited-duration contracts in rural than in urban areas, the duration of time-bound contracts tended to be longer in rural areas.

Young women in Jordan are, on average, highly educated, but the majority of them remain inactive after leaving school. Those who do enter the labour market face very high unemployment rates.

The vast majority of young women in Jordan are not employed. The survey showed only 11.2 per cent of the young women were working, compared to 47.2 per cent of young men. The share of unemployed young women in the female population was 8.1 per cent (compared to 10.8 per cent of young men). This mostly reflected young women's low rate of participation in the country's labour force. Eight in ten (80.7 per cent) young women in Jordan are inactive according to the survey, and among the inactive young females, slightly more than four in ten is not in school. Only one-quarter of inactive non-student females maintain an attachment to the labour market, stating their intention to work in the future.

Equality in access to education in the country has improved impressively over the last few generations, and nowadays girls are more likely than boys to reach the highest levels of education. However, improved access to education has not translated into equal opportunities for employment. With a female unemployment rate as high as 41.8 per cent (more than twice the male rate of 18.7 per cent), it is clear that the few young women who do opt to join the labour market do not have an easy time finding work.

Gender-specific preferences are apparent already in the fields of study chosen by students, hinting that young people will end up channelled through different career paths depending on their sex. The survey showed that young women tended to favour fields of study such as health and welfare, and education/teaching (while men's preferences extended to a broader range of specialities). One could suppose that the fields of study reflect the rather limited range of employment options in which young women feel comfortable to apply. Young working women are mainly restricted to education and health and social work. However, another 12.5 per cent of young women are engaged in manufacturing. Young working men are found primarily in public administration and wholesale and retail trade.

Employed youth in Jordan often have stable jobs, based on a written contract and with some benefits.

At the time of the survey, wage and salaried workers (employees) made up most of the employed youth in Jordan (92.8 per cent of employed young men and 98.7 per cent of employed young women). In part, this is because the largest employer in the country is the public sector, which offers contracts of unlimited duration or durations of longer than 1 year. According to the survey, in 85.0 per cent of cases, young employees held contracts of unlimited duration. Employees often had access to social security contributions (in 66.2 per cent of cases), paid annual leave (62.7 per cent), medical insurance coverage (60.3 per

cent) and more. Only 2.1 per cent of employed youth were in involuntary part-time employment and would have liked to extend their working hours.

Although most youth declared being satisfied with their job situation, many remain in the informal economy or have to accept jobs characterized by excessive working hours or qualification mismatches.

The elements discussed so far point to rather positive employment conditions for a large share of employed youth in Jordan. In fact, 84.5 per cent of those surveyed declared themselves satisfied with their current job situation. However, other job-quality indicators showed a more negative picture. Informal employment still involved 53.2 per cent of employed youth. Most of them are engaged as paid employees holding informal jobs in the formal sector. They therefore hold contracts, including contracts of long duration, but such contracts do not give them access to fundamental benefits such as paid sick leave, paid annual leave and pension contributions.

In addition, the majority of working youth received a below-average wage. An analysis of working hours shows that the largest share of employed youth, in relative terms, worked 40–49 hours per week, and 21.9 per cent of young men and 10.8 per cent of young women worked an excessive number of hours – more than 60 hours per week. Also worrisome is the issue of qualifications mismatch. More than 5 in ten young workers (52.4 per cent) were affected by qualifications mismatch, whereby they worked in a job for which they were either overeducated or undereducated. Undereducated youth accounted for 43.0 per cent of the employed, while 9.4 per cent of those working were overeducated for their job held at the time of the survey.

Most transited youth in Jordan are in stable employment, yet the transitions can be long for those who do not move directly from education to stable and/or satisfactory employment.

An analysis of transition stages from the survey shows that youth in Jordan were divided almost evenly between two groups. Slightly over one-half (52.2 per cent) of the total youth population had not yet started their transition; this group consisted of students and female family carers. The remainder (47.8 per cent), mostly male, were youth who had completed their transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment (28.8 per cent), or were still in transition (19.0 per cent).

Given that Jordan's labour demand is dominated by the public sector, transited youth were mainly found in stable employment. According to the survey, the availability of other options – employment in the private sector or self-employment – was limited; therefore, it is not surprising that the majority of those still in transition were unemployed, while only a fraction were in a temporary and non-satisfactory job, or in non-satisfactory self-employment. The distribution of employed youth by occupation was closely aligned with the occupational distribution of youth who had completed their transition. This suggests that, among the occupations of employed youth, none seems to be relatively more likely to lead to stable and/or satisfactory employment than another. The same applies to sectors of employment.

Labour market transitions in Jordan can be extremely long.

The survey showed that those who did not move directly from education to stable and/or satisfactory employment (bearing in mind that the greatest proportion – 33.5 per cent – transited directly) faced, on average, a very long transition of 32.8 months or nearly 3 years. The average length of unemployment and inactivity spells that young people faced during their transitions range from 22.1 months (average unemployment spell among transited males) to 40.5 months (average inactivity spell among transited females).

These findings are in line with the elements discussed above, pointing at a labour market that can offer good jobs, but to an insufficient number of youth. Survey results show that low-skilled males struggled particularly to find employment, along with highly-educated females. The unemployed felt that a lack of jobs available is the major reason for their jobless status. Further limitations, as mentioned above, are imposed by gender issues that channel women towards a very restricted set of suitable employment sectors. The quality of available employment outside the public sector is also a concern, as low pay and inappropriate workplace conditions have emerged as the two most frequent reasons to refuse a job offer among youth in Jordan. The survey therefore found that a combination of supply and demand-side factors is behind the long transitions to the labour market of youth in Jordan. Economic growth is an important prerequisite for job creation, but it is by no means sufficient without a clear policy orientation towards employment creation, and the support of responsive education and labour market policies. Availability of data on the specific challenges that need to be addressed is an essential first step to any policy response.

1.3 Structure of the report

The rest of this report is organized as follows: Section 2 sets out the socio-economic and labour market contexts in Jordan and introduces the objectives and the methodology of the survey process. Section 3 presents the main results of the SWTS with details on the characteristics of youth and their labour market outcomes. Section 4 introduces the classification of stages of labour market transition and investigates the youth characteristics that lead to more successful labour market outcomes. Finally, section 5 outlines the main national policies addressing youth employment.

2. Overview of the labour market and survey methodology

2.1 The socio-economic context

Jordan is an upper-middle-income country with a population of 6.4 million that mostly resides in urban areas (DOS, 2013a). Its official language is Arabic, and more than 99 per cent of Jordanians belong to the Arab ethnic group. The country's territory, covering an area of 89,342 km^2, is almost fully landlocked, with a 26-km access to the Red Sea as the only exception. Arable land is scarce, and the country lacks a rich natural resource base. Jordan's economy relies heavily on services, representing more than 70 per cent of gross domestic product (GDP) and 75 per cent of jobs. Services are also the main contributor to GDP growth.

The country's economy is characterized by significant openness and a high level of regional and global integration. This has strengthened trade flows, boosted foreign direct investment and improved the competitiveness of Jordan's most successful sectors, such as information and communications technology. However, its open economy and high degree of regional integration render the country more vulnerable to being affected by external shocks. The global financial crisis affected Jordan significantly in 2009–10, when the country's GDP growth shrunk from an average 6.7 per cent in the previous decade to 2 to 3 per cent. Nevertheless, a rather resilient domestic demand has been supporting the country's growth recovery. Since the onset of the Syrian crisis in 2011, Jordan's real GDP growth has remained stable at 2.5 per cent in 2011 and 2012 (ILO, 2013b).

Poverty in Jordan has remained relatively stable between 2002 and 2010. During that period, poverty rates decreased from 14.2 per cent in 2002 to 13.0 per cent in 2006, but

increased to 13.3 per cent in 2008. The latest poverty estimates from the DOS found that the national poverty rate in 2010 was 14.4 per cent (UNDP, 2013), but this figure has been produced through a new calculation methodology and therefore cannot be directly compared to the previous rates.

Inequality has increased overall since the economic crisis, and little substantial improvement has been achieved in closing gender gaps. Women still benefit from a fraction of the available economic opportunities, as gender issues continue to limit their participation in the country's economic life. While women's educational attainment has improved over the last three decades, and literacy rates for young females rose from 55 to 99 per cent between 1980 and 2010, the share of working-age women who have completed primary education is still relatively lower than that of men (DOS, 2013b). More importantly, improvements in human development have not translated into proportionally higher economic participation of women. The rate of participation in the labour market of Jordan's women was 15.3 per cent in 2010, almost 3 percentage points lower than the average in the Middle East (ILO, 2011). Due to the very low activity rate of Jordan's women, the country is among the ten in the world with the lowest employment-to-population ratios (among countries with available data).

Jordan's population is one of the youngest among countries in the same income category. The median age of the population in 2010 was 23.4 years (UNDESA, 2012). Young people aged 15–25 constituted 19.8 per cent of the total, an increase of more than 2 percentage points compared to 1950. The population growth rate averaged 5.6 per cent annually between 1981 and 2011 (ILO, 2013b), much higher than the region's average rate and well above the global average. After a slowdown in population growth in the late 1990s, the rate has accelerated again since the early 2000s. Nevertheless, estimates from the United Nations' population division indicate that these trends can be expected to progressively reverse after 2010. The country will likely then enter the third stage of the demographic transition, characterized by shrinking growth rates to an estimated 0.5 per cent in 2050.

The Government of Jordan has been making significant investments to ensure that the potential economic benefits of its young population are fully harnessed. The World Bank (2013) reckons that more than 10 per cent of GDP has been spent to strengthen the country's human resources over the last three decades. Among other initiatives, the Government has implemented structural reform in skills development and education to provide young people with the skills necessary to build a competitive economy. An elaborate apprenticeship programme has been developed, and the state has set up the Centre for Accreditation and Quality Assurance to monitor apprenticeships in both the private and public sectors, under the Employment, Technical and Vocational Education and Training Council secretariat at the Ministry of Labour.

The challenge for the country's economy is now to keep up the transition towards higher levels in the value chain. This will be necessary to ensure adequate returns on investment in education for the large and growing number of young graduates entering the Jordanian labour market each year. Today, job creation in the private sector is still in predominantly low-skilled jobs, which do not match the expectations of Jordan's youth, who mostly strive for government jobs. In 2011/2012, 47,613 youth in Jordan obtained a bachelor's degree, while the Government created around 18,000 net jobs over the same year (DOS, 2012). As a result, over 600,000 Jordanians, a figure one-half the size of the domestic Jordan's labour force, work abroad and mostly in skill-intensive jobs, as the local supply of skills continues to exceed local demand (ILO, 2012).

2.2 The labour market in Jordan

This section examines Jordan's current employment profile, with a focus on key labour market indicators such as participation rates in the labour force, unemployment rates and the distribution of employment by sector. Table 2.1 shows labour force participation and unemployment rates for 2013. Overall, Jordanian labour force participation rate for ages 15 and older was 37.1 per cent, one of the lowest worldwide, due to the extraordinarily low propensity of women to be economically active. Only a mere 13.2 per cent of the female working-age population was in the labour force, compared to 60.4 per cent of working-age males. Such a wide gender gap translates into a missed opportunity to harness the economic and social potential of a potentially productive female population.

Table 2.1 Labour force participation and unemployment rates by sex, age and area of residence, 2013

Characteristic	Labour force participation rate (%)			Unemployment rate (%)		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Jordan (aged 15+)	37.1	60.4	13.2	12.6	10.6	22.2
Area of residence						
Urban (aged 15+)	37.1	60.6	13.09	12.4	10.4	21.7
Rural (aged 15+)	36.9	54.4	14.0	13.7	11.2	24.2
Age group						
15–19	8.7	16.0	0.5	34.1	34.4	22.8
20–24	40.6	60.1	17.6	30.4	24.1	56.2
25–39	57.7	92.4	24.1	10.7	8.5	19.2
40–54	43.7	76.6	12.0	4.3	4.5	2.7
55–64	18.6	36.5	1.5	1.9	2.0	0.0
65+	4.8	9.1	0.2	0.6	0.6	0.0

Source: DOS, 2013b, tables 2.3 and 2.4.

The overall unemployment rate in 2013 was 12.6 per cent, as indicated in table 2.1. Over the prior ten years, the rate fluctuated by no greater than 3 percentage points. In 2012, the rate reached a decade-long low of 12.2 per cent. The highest value observed was in 2002, at 15.3 per cent (DOS, 2012). Rural Jordan showed a slightly higher unemployment rate (13.7 per cent) than that in urban areas (12.4 per cent). Table 2.1 shows a breakdown of Jordan's unemployment rate by age group and suggests that age is a good predictor of the propensity to unemployment. Youth aged 15–24 faced unemployment rates three times that of the 25–39-year-old population, and more than seven times that of adults aged 40–54. When analysed by sex, the results show women were more than twice as likely to be unemployed than men. The rate for the overall population in 2013 stood at 10.6 per cent for males compared to 22.2 per cent for females. The largest gap was observed in the 20–24 age group, where the female-to-male unemployment ratio was 2.3. Interestingly, in the lower and upper age bands, the female unemployment rates were lower than those of males, largely because the female labour force among both the 15–19 and 55-and-older age groups was extremely small. A scenario of gender-based labour market inequality to the disadvantage of women is clearly taking shape from the figures reviewed so far.

Access to education is characterized by relatively higher gender equality. Table 2.2 shows the educational attainment of the working-age population by sex. At the lower end of the education spectrum men are characterized by relatively higher achievements. Proportionally more working-age women than men had no education (10.1 and 3.7 per cent, respectively), but more men than women finished their education below the

secondary level (56.3 and 48.6 per cent, respectively). Shares of those who finished secondary school were almost equal between the sexes, but slightly more women than men achieved their intermediate diploma, and men edged out women in the share that attained bachelor's-degree level or higher.

Table 2.2 Working-age population (aged 15+) by level of educational attainment and sex, 2013 (%)

Education level	Total	Male	Female
None	6.8	3.7	10.1
Less than secondary	52.5	56.3	48.6
Secondary	17.9	17.9	17.8
Intermediate diploma	7.8	6.3	9.4
Bachelor's & above	15.0	15.8	14.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: DOS (2013b), table 2.5.

If indicators of educational achievement are disaggregated by age group, they reveal how gender imbalances in education, at least from a quantitative viewpoint, have been narrowing over time. The illiteracy rate for women remains significantly higher compared to men among people aged 65 and over – 19.0 per cent of women aged 65 and older remain illiterate compared to only 4.1 per cent of men (DOS, 2013b, table 2.1). Clearly, progress has been made in increasing access to education for young girls and boys. These findings indicate a step in the right direction towards a more gender-balanced society in Jordan. However, it is important to stress that rebalancing quantitative gaps in education does not imply that women and men enjoy the same quality of teaching and curricula. Most importantly, more equality in access to schooling does not automatically translate into equal opportunities for women and men on the labour market.

Recent figures from the DOS (2013b) show that, for equal levels of educational attainment, the earnings of employed Jordan's females tend to be lower than those of employed males. For instance, only 13.9 per cent of employed women with secondary education are found in the highest-earning category (corresponding to more than 300 Jordanian dinars [JOD] per month). The percentage of employed men with secondary education in that category is more than three times as high, namely 47.3 per cent. Even highly skilled women who have reached a bachelor's level of education or above are less likely than men to be in the highest-earning category (75.3 per cent of women versus 88.4 per cent of men). A comparison between male and female earnings in the private versus public sector (ILO, 2010) has found that differences are correlated to educational attainment. The private sector offers higher earnings to male tertiary-level graduates, while no significant difference exists between public and private employment in terms of earnings for female graduates. On the other hand, for individuals with secondary education or less, and regardless of sex, public employment pays on average more than private-sector employment, despite offering better job security and shorter working hours.

Jordan's labour market is characterized by a high incidence of wage and salaried employment, mostly because of the large share of public-sector employment (including the army), accounting for nearly 85 per cent of the employed population. As illustrated in table 2.3, only 9.0 per cent of employed people are own-account workers and 5.6 per cent are reported as self-employed with employees (employers). Contributing family workers account for 0.3 per cent of the employed. These figures mirror a tendency among Jordan's population to favour job security over the risks of self-employment. Yet, 16.6 per cent of working men are in self-employment, either with or without employees, compared to only 3.6 per cent of women. The rest of working women, an overwhelming 95.8 per cent, is found in wage employment.

Table 2.3 Employed population (aged 15+) by employment status and sex, 2013 (%)

Employment status	Total	Male	Female
Wage & salaried workers (employees)	84.9	82.8	95.8
Self-employed with employees (employers)	5.6	6.3	1.6
Self-employed without employees (own-account workers)	9.0	10.3	2.0
Contributing family worker	0.3	0.4	0.2
Other	0.2	0.2	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: DOS (2013b), table 5.7.

The Government is a significant employer in the country. The largest share of male workers in 2013 was in the sector of public administration, defence and compulsory social security (28.4 per cent), followed by 17.5 per cent in wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles, and 10.6 per cent in manufacturing (table 2.4). Female workers were heavily concentrated in three public sectors: education (41.7 per cent), human health and social work activities (14.6 per cent) and public administration and defence and compulsory social security (14.1 per cent). Traditionally, these sectors guarantee job stability, are characterized by shorter working hours and leave room for child care and other family responsibilities. Moreover, jobs such as teaching and nursing are considered more "appropriate" for women because they are an extension of women's perceived caregiving role.

Table 2.4 Employed population (aged 15 and older) by economic activity and sex, 2013 (%)

Sector	Total	Male	Female
Agriculture, forestry & fishing	2.0	2.3	0.6
Manufacturing	9.9	10.6	6.2
Construction	6.4	7.4	0.8
Wholesale & retail trade; repair of motor vehicles & motorcycles	15.7	17.5	5.6
Transportation & storage	7.6	8.7	1.1
Accommodation & food service activities	2.5	2.8	0.9
Financial & insurance activities	1.9	1.7	3.1
Professional, scientific & technical activities	2.3	2.1	3.2
Public administration & defence, compulsory social security	26.2	28.4	14.1
Education	12.1	6.6	41.7
Human health & social work activities	5.0	3.2	14.6
Other service activities	2.2	2.2	2.4

Note: Sectors employing less than 2 per cent of the total are not reported in this table.
Source: DOS (2013b), table 5.4.

Waves of migration have represented a source of semi- and low-skilled labour. According to the ILO, migrant workers account on average for 20.0 per cent of the labour force in Jordan (ILO, 2013b). Refugees from neighbouring conflicts in Lebanon, Iraq and, recently, Syria, have contributed a significant share to immigration flows. According to the UNHCR, 440,491 registered Syrian refugees were in Jordan as of July 2013, and the number of total refugees, both registered and not registered, is believed to be higher. Jordan's migration policy is relatively open to semi-skilled and low-skilled economic immigration, and complements measures encouraging skilled emigration (EUI, 2013). Such policies aim to relieve unemployment and fill supply gaps caused by low levels or low participation in the labour force, particularly of semi- and low-skilled women.

However, the coexistence of high levels of unemployment among nationals and large shares of foreign workers has raised contentions. Besides the potential risk of crowding out low-skilled Jordanians from the labour market, the availability of many low-pay migrant workers may put downward pressure on wages, and increase the incidence of decent work deficits on Jordan's labour market. The precise impact of immigration on the labour market has not yet been fully determined, but it is likely to be important, as economic growth has been mostly concentrated in sectors where migrant workers are dominant, such as construction and manufacturing (ILO, 2013b). These considerations add to a growing concern of Jordan experiencing the phenomenon of brain drain, as its skilled professionals leave the country in search of better opportunities abroad.

2.3 Survey objectives and methodology

The question of why the school-to-work transition of young people in Jordan today is a long and difficult process has yet to be satisfactorily answered, owing to limitations in labour market information. At the same time, the goal of improving the transitions of youth is among the top policy priorities of most countries in the world. In response to this information gap, the ILO has developed the SWTS, a detailed household survey covering 15–29-year-olds (see box 1). It is applied at the national level to generate information on the current labour market situation, the history of economic activities and the perceptions and aspirations of youth. This report discusses the results of the SWTS implemented in Jordan in 2012–13.

Box 1. Definition of youth

While in other contexts, a youth is defined as a person aged between 15 and 24 (United Nations), for the purpose of the SWTS and related reports, the upper age limit is 29 years of age. This recognizes the fact that some young people remain in education beyond the age of 24, and allows the opportunity to capture more information on the post-graduation employment experiences of young people.

Jordan undertook the SWTS to collect and analyse information on the various challenges that impact young men and women as they make the transition to working life. The survey was implemented by the DOS, with fieldwork completed in December 2012 and January 2013. Funding for the survey came from the Work4Youth partnership between the ILO Youth Employment Programme and The MasterCard Foundation (see box 2). The partnership supports the SWTS in 28 target countries, and data from the first round were made available throughout 2013. A second round of the SWTS will take place in each of the 28 countries in 2014–15, including in Jordan.

2.3.1 Questionnaire development

The standard ILO SWTS questionnaire was adapted to the national context based on a consultative process between the ILO and the DOS. The questionnaire was translated and administered in Arabic.

2.3.2 Sample design and fieldwork

The SWTS 2012–13 in Jordan was run as a stand-alone survey. The sample was designed based on the 2004 General Census of Population and Housing survey. The sample's framework was divided into categories according to the governorate, main cities, urban and rural areas. The sample was drawn over two steps. Initially, the primary sampling units (blocks) were selected in a systematic manner, with a proportional probability to the size of the primary sample. This process led to the selection of 296 primary sampling units. Subsequently, a fixed number of households (30) were chosen as final sampling units from each block.

After a pilot test and training sessions for supervisors and enumerators, field data collection was carried out between December 2012 and January 2013. Enumerators reached 2,440 households. All people aged 15–29 within each household were interviewed. Table A.1 (Annex II) shows the sample distribution by governorate. The overall sample size amounted to 5,405 young people.

Box 2. Work4Youth: An ILO project in partnership with The MasterCard Foundation

The Work4Youth (W4Y) Project is a partnership between the ILO Youth Employment Programme and The MasterCard Foundation. The project has a budget of US$14.6 million and will run for 5 years to mid-2016. Its aim is to "promot[e] decent work opportunities for young men and women through knowledge and action". The immediate objective of the partnership is to produce more and better labour market information specific to youth in developing countries, focusing in particular on transition paths to the labour market. The assumption is that governments and social partners in the project's 28 target countries will be better prepared to design effective policy and programme initiatives once armed with detailed information on:

- what young people expect in terms of transition paths and quality of work;
- what employers expect in terms of young applicants;
- what issues prevent the two sides – supply and demand – from matching; and
- what policies and programmes can have a real impact.

Work4Youth target areas and countries:

Asia and the Pacific: Bangladesh, Cambodia, Nepal, Samoa, Viet Nam
Eastern Europe and Central Asia: Armenia, Kyrgyzstan, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the Republic of Moldova, the Russian Federation, Ukraine
Latin America and the Caribbean: Brazil, Colombia, El Salvador, Jamaica, Peru
Middle East and North Africa: Egypt, Jordan, Occupied Palestinian Territory, Tunisia
Sub-Saharan Africa: Benin, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, the United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zambia

3. Characteristics of youth in the SWTS sample

This section presents survey findings on the individual characteristics of Jordan's youth, their educational attainment, current activity status, and aspirations and life goals, as well as the characteristics of unemployed youth, those of youth outside the labour market (inactive youth) and the characteristics of employed youth.

3.1 Individual characteristics of youth in Jordan

Age groups

Table 3.1 shows the age categories of the surveyed youth. The largest proportion (43.3 per cent) of sampled youth was adolescents aged 15–19. Women and men were rather evenly represented in all of the age sub-categories illustrated in the table.

Area of residence

Most youth resided in urban areas. This is not surprising and is in line with the pattern of geographic distribution of Jordan's overall population as discussed earlier. Virtually no difference was observed between the sexes.

Table 3.1 Characteristics of youth in Jordan (%)

Primary characteristic	Total	Male	Female
Age group			
15–19	43.0	42.2	43.9
20–24	33.5	34.9	32.0
25–29	23.5	22.9	24.1
Area of residence			
Urban	81.9	81.6	82.1
Rural	18.1	18.4	17.9
Head of household status			
Not head of household	96.9	94.1	99.8
Head of household	3.1	5.9	0.2
Size of household			
1	0.2	0.4	0.0
2–3	7.6	6.7	8.7
4–6	42.8	42.6	43.0
> 6	49.4	50.3	48.4
Marital status			
Married	15.4	7.0	24.4
Single	84.6	93.0	75.6
Main economic activity status			
Employed	29.9	47.2	11.2
Unemployed	9.5	10.8	8.1
Inactive	60.6	42.0	80.7

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Status of head of household, household size and marital status

Table 3.1 also illustrates that only a small minority of youth (3.1 per cent) were heads of household, and virtually no young women were among them. The vast majority of surveyed males (94.1 per cent) and females (99.8 per cent) were not yet classified as heads of household, as expected from the findings on educational attainment that show significant percentages of young people in Jordan staying in education well into their twenties.

Surveyed youth mostly belonged to a household of more than six members (49.4 per cent) and four to six members (42.8 per cent). Small households of one to three members represented less than 8 per cent of the sample. Households tended to be relatively larger in rural areas (table 3.1), in line with national patterns that show higher fertility rates in rural areas (DOS and ICF International, 2013).

The majority of youth in the sample were single; this does not change when disaggregated by sex. However, while 93.0 per cent of young men were single, the percentage for women was 75.6 per cent. Almost one-quarter of young women were married (24.4 per cent), versus only 7.0 per cent of men, suggesting a difference between sexes in the average age of marriage. The average age at marriage within the survey sample was 19.6 years for females and 23.2 years for males. A woman's age at her first marriage is an important determinant of fertility. If a woman starts bearing children at a

very young age as a consequence of marrying early, she is more likely to have a high number of births by the end of her reproductive years. An expected consequence of this disparity is that women have children at a younger age than men: 87.7 per cent of young married women surveyed already had at least one child, while the percentage for young men was 75.5 per cent.

Mobility

In order to determine the extent of youth's internal and external migration, the SWTS asked respondents whether they had always lived in their current locality. Results reflect that youth in Jordan are not especially mobile. The share of youth who had moved from their original place of residence was 21.6 per cent. Young women were relatively more mobile than men, as 26.6 per cent had moved from their original residence compared to 17.0 per cent of males. This may be explained by the higher tendency of women to move to their husband's or father's work location. This argument is supported by the finding that the majority of youth migrated to accompany their families (table A.2). The percentage was higher for women (94.1 per cent) than for men (87.2 per cent).

A significant share of youth who moved from their original residence migrated from another country (29.5 per cent of young men and 18.1 per cent of young women). Immigration from Asian countries, mostly the Philippines and Sri Lanka, is common among young women who find employment as domestic workers, and young men who work mainly in the export-processing zones (Deshingkar, Sward and Estruch-Puertas, 2012).

Interestingly, the biggest proportion of youth migration originated from large cities and urban areas (49.8 per cent) (table A.2). This was most likely urban-to-urban migration, as only 8.0 per cent of youth had migrated from a rural area.

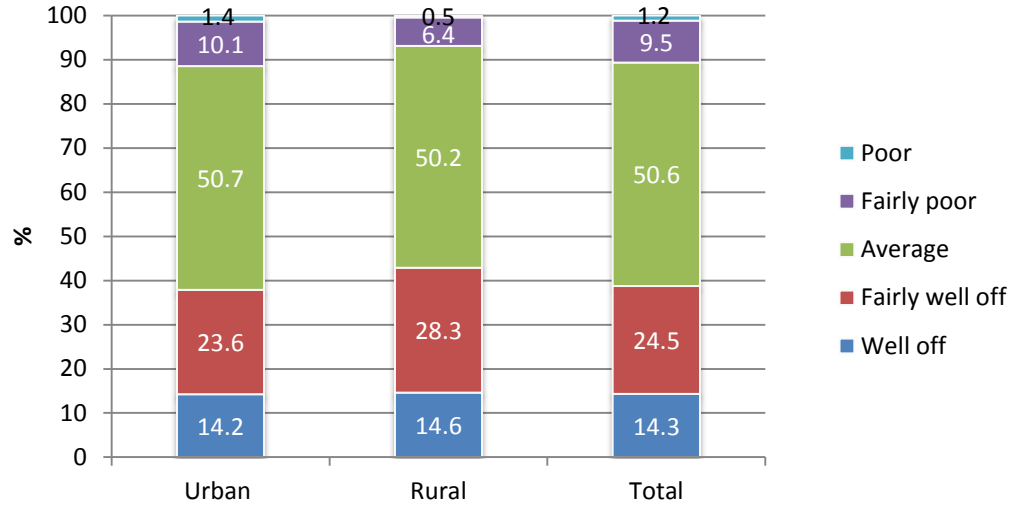
Financial inclusion

The SWTS collected information on the financial services used by young people in Jordan. The findings show that financial inclusion was very limited among youth (table A.3). More than 90 per cent (91.1 per cent of males and 95.3 per cent of females) did not use any financial service, including savings accounts; one reason for this seems to be the lack of a compelling need to cover unexpected expenses. Over one-half of youth (56.7 per cent) said they had no such need, and a likely explanation is a tendency of young people to live in the family home, where parents provide for their children.

Household income level

Figure 3.1 illustrates the youth population by category of declared household income (self-reported) and area of residence. Only a small portion (10.7 per cent) of youth classified their households as either poor or fairly poor (1.2 and 9.5 per cent, respectively). This figure is comparable with Jordan's latest poverty estimates produced by the DOS in 2012, which found that the national poverty rate in 2010 was 14.4 per cent (UNDP, 2013). Although rural areas are more often targeted by poverty-reduction interventions, the largest number of households living below the absolute poverty line (JOD 813.7 per person, per year) was in urban areas (ibid.). The SWTS also showed a relatively higher share of those young people residing in rural areas that considered their household to be fairly well off compared to urban youth (28.3 and 23.6 per cent, respectively). Over six (6.4) per cent of rural youth described their household as fairly poor, compared to 10.1 per cent of young people in urban areas.

Figure 3.1 Household income levels



Note: Income level is based on young respondents' perception.
Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

3.2 Educational attainment

More than 99 per cent of youth in the sample were either enrolled in education or were enrolled at some point in the past (this includes early school leavers). The share of young people who were never enrolled was very small, at 0.5 per cent. Overall, youth in education at the time of the survey represented 42.9 per cent of the sample, more than one-half of which (50.7 per cent) were females. These are encouraging figures and reflect a significant increase in female education in the country in recent years. However, it is important to point out that parity in educational performance between girls and boys is far from translating into equal access to economic opportunity for both sexes.

Table 3.2 Youth by educational attainment and sex (%)

Education level	Total	Male	Female
Out-of-school youth by highest level completed			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than primary (including no school)	3.1	3.5	2.5
Primary	50.2	53.6	46.3
Secondary	14.4	12.8	16.2
Secondary vocational	4.0	6.3	1.3
Bachelor's & above	28.4	23.7	34.0
Currently attending school			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
At primary level	18.2	17.0	19.3
At secondary level	31.0	29.9	32.1
At secondary vocational level	3.6	4.8	2.5
At tertiary level	40.5	40.9	40.1
Learning in other forms of training	6.7	7.4	5.9

Note: The Bachelor's & above total includes post-secondary vocational (6.7 per cent), university and postgraduate studies (21.7 per cent).
Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Among youth who completed their education, more than one-half (53.3 per cent) finished their schooling below the secondary level (table 3.2). Young men showed a higher propensity than females to finish below this level (57.1 per cent of young men and 48.8 per cent of young women). Young women were more likely than young men to gain a tertiary-level education (bachelor's degree and above) in Jordan; 34.0 per cent of young women completed tertiary level compared to 23.7 per cent of young men. Young men, on the other hand, were more likely to follow vocational training.

Regarding current students surveyed, the distribution was heavier towards the higher education levels. Fewer than 20 per cent of those who were still enrolled were at the primary level. The largest share of current students aged 15–29 was in tertiary education (40.5 per cent), followed by secondary education (31.0 per cent).

Vocational education attracted 4.0 per cent of the surveyed population with completed education, while 3.6 per cent were enrolled in a vocational institution and 6.7 per cent were learning in an apprenticeship or internship arrangement (proportionally more men than women in both cases). Participation in vocational training shows a weakness in Jordan's technical and vocational education system, as the level is below the average for the Middle East, already low at 8.1 per cent (UNESCO, 2013), and less than one-half of the aggregate for upper-middle-income countries (15.9 per cent, based on the same source). The nearly 7.0 per cent share of Jordan's youth engaged in apprenticeships and internships, however, is encouraging, and is the highest share among the 28 countries that ran the SWTS in 2012–13.[3]

Education of youth and their parents

Table 3.3 compares the education levels of youth and their parents, and on average shows a positive trend characterized by higher educational attainment across generations. Among youth who were no longer enrolled in education, only 3.1 per cent dropped out before the end of primary school, or had never started it. Among their parents, on the other hand, the likelihood of having less than primary education was more than four times as high among fathers, and almost seven times among mothers. The most obvious sign of progress is observable in young women's access to basic education compared to their mothers.

Table 3.3 Level of completed education of youth and their parents (%)

Education level	Youth	Father	Mother
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than primary (including no school)	3.1	13.5	20.9
Primary	50.2	43.1	42.9
Secondary	14.4	15.2	14.8
Secondary vocational	4.0	2.5	1.5
Bachelor's & above	28.4	25.8	20.0

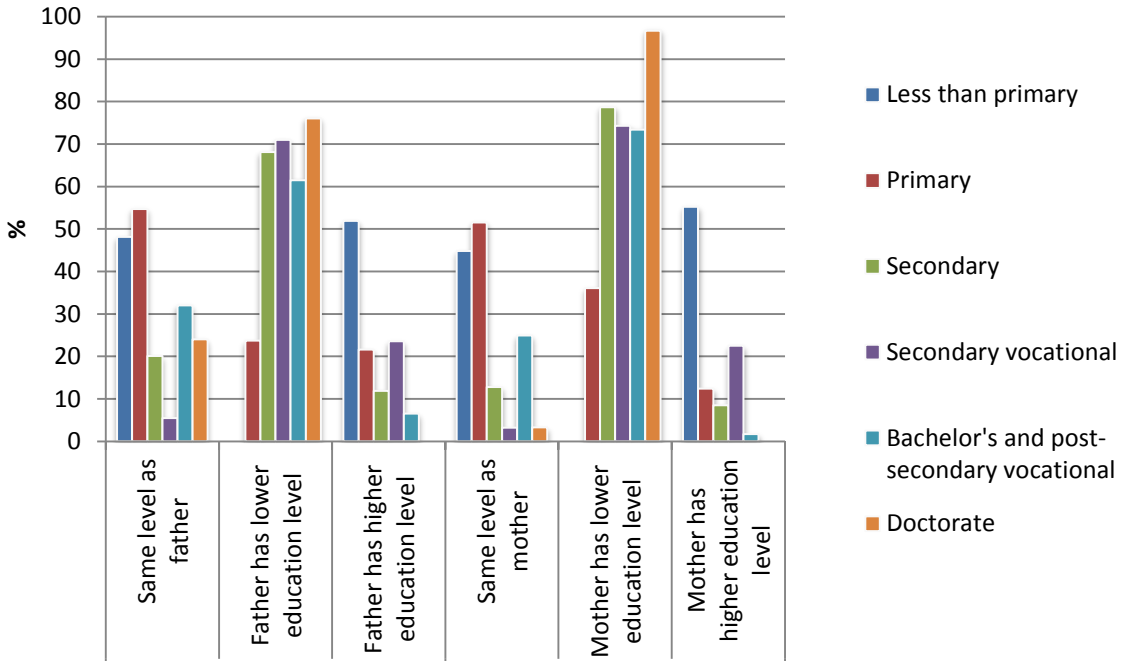
Note: Bachelor's & above includes post-secondary vocational, university and postgraduate studies.
Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Figure 3.2 shows the intergenerational comparison of education levels clearly. The majority of youth who had completed secondary school or higher, including post-secondary vocational, attained a higher level of education than their parents. Young people

[3] The list of countries is available in box 2. The micro-data files for all countries are available at www.ilo.org/w4y.

with less than primary education, by and large, were nearly equally likely to have parents with the same level of education (less than primary) as they were to have parents with higher levels of education. Youth with a primary-level education, however, had a much higher tendency to have a mother and father with the same or lower level of education than a parent with a higher than primary-education level.

Figure 3.2 Comparison of the level of completed education of youth and their parents



Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Early school leaving

Table 3.4 shows the reasons why youth stopped attending school before completion. The two most frequently given explanation for dropping out were lack of interest in further education (35.8 per cent) and a failed examination (33.0 per cent). The latter likely refers to the secondary school exam in Jordan that determines whether students can continue on to university. The data show that young men, as opposed to young women, were more prone to lose their interest in schooling. While a desire to start working was the third most frequently mentioned reason by young males, it accounted for a minor share of female drop-outs. Conversely, while almost one-fifth (19.4 per cent) of young women dropped out because they wanted to get married, the percentage for this reason was nil among young men. This is probably due to a combination of factors, one of which is the tendency for women to marry earlier than men. Economic reasons were referred to by only 6.7 per cent of respondents, and by a relatively larger share of males than females (8.3 per cent versus 4.6 per cent). This is not surprising, given that the immediate opportunity cost of the education of young men (who could otherwise contribute to the household's income) is likely to be perceived as relatively higher than that of young women.

Table 3.4 Youth by reason for leaving school and sex (%)

Reason	Total	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Not interested	35.8	39.1	31.4
To start working	9.3	15.2	1.2
To get married	8.2	0.0	19.4
Parents did not want me to continue	2.4	1.0	4.2
Economic reasons	6.7	8.3	4.6
No school nearby	0.7	0.3	1.4
Failed examination	33.0	32.8	33.3
Other	3.4	3.3	4.5

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Youth education and activity status

Table 3.5 illustrates the education level completed by youth who were no longer enrolled in education, in relation to their current economic activity status. In all categories of economic activity (employed, unemployed and inactive), the greatest proportion of youth had completed primary education, but the share was by far the largest among inactive youth (61.2 per cent). Youth with the highest level of educational attainment had a much greater tendency to be economically active, reflecting a desire to make use of their investment in education. Over one-third (34.4 per cent) of employed youth attained a tertiary degree, while 42.3 per cent of unemployed youth held a tertiary degree that they were attempting to put to good use.

Table 3.5 Youth by level of completed education and main economic activity status (%)

Education level	Employed	Unemployed	Inactive
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than primary (including no school)	2.8	0.9	4.3
Primary	44.7	43.1	61.2
Secondary	12.1	11.2	18.9
Secondary vocational	6.1	2.5	1.8
Bachelor's & above	34.4	42.3	13.7

Note: Bachelor's & above includes post-secondary vocational, university and postgraduate studies.
Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Household financial situation and the education of youth

Figure 3.3 illustrates household income level as a determinant of educational attainment for youth. As can be expected in an upper-middle-income country like Jordan, young people from average and fairly well-off households are significantly represented across all education levels. While tertiary education is not a sole privilege of higher-income families, the figure shows that the fairly well-off or well-off households have a clear advantage in supporting their children through the many years required to achieve higher levels of education. Nearly one-half (42.8 per cent) of surveyed youth who attained a doctorate came from a household classified as well off; the percentage of youth in the survey sample holding a PhD degree and coming from poor or fairly poor households is negligible. At the same time, young people from a fairly poor background were more

likely to have no education. Once disaggregated by sex, the data on household income and youth educational attainment show similar findings for males and females.

Figure 3.3 Youth by household income level and level of completed education

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Work-study combination

Combining work and study is not a common practice among Jordan's youth. Among those no longer in education, 94.0 per cent said they never combined work with their studies (table A.4). The remainder (virtually all men) mostly worked outside the school term, during the summer or weekends. Asked for their motivations, respondents most frequently said they combined work and study to earn money (69.0 per cent), help their family (28.8 per cent) and gain professional experience (17.6 per cent).

3.3 Current activity status of youth

The traditional classification of current activity status has three categories: employed, unemployed or inactive. The employed and unemployed are added together to form the total labour force. The key labour market indicators of youth, based on the traditional distribution and abiding by international standard concepts, are presented for Jordan in table 3.6. The survey results show that 29.9 per cent of youth were employed, and 9.5 per cent were unemployed for a total youth labour force participation rate of 39.4 per cent. The percentage of young females employed and unemployed was 11.2 per cent and 8.1 per cent, respectively. The female rate of participation in the labour force was therefore very low at 19.3 per cent. The percentage of males employed and unemployed was 47.2 per cent and 10.8 per cent, respectively. While very little difference existed in the labour force participation rates of youth in rural and urban areas, the youth unemployment rate in urban areas was higher at 20.6 per cent compared to 16.3 per cent in rural areas.

Table 3.6 Key youth labour market indicators – traditional distribution by sex and area of residence (%)

Sex & area of residence	Distribution of youth population			Labour force participation rate	Youth unemployment rate
	Employed	Unemployed	Inactive		
Total	29.9	9.5	60.6	39.4	24.1
Male	47.2	10.8	42.0	58.0	18.7
Female	11.2	8.1	80.7	19.3	41.8
Rural	30.4	7.9	61.8	38.2	16.3
Urban	29.8	9.9	60.3	39.7	20.6

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Within the framework of the SWTS analyses, the ILO proposes a more detailed classification of youth employment to reflect areas of underutilization and the quality of employment.[4] In figure 3.4, the youth population of Jordan is classified into four main categories (with a further subdivision of inactive youth) as follows:

a. *regularly employed*, defined as wage and salaried workers (employees) holding a contract of greater than 12 months' duration, plus self-employed youth with employees (employers); this category can be considered as the ideal employment arrangement, although having a "regular" job is not a guarantee of good quality employment;

b. *irregularly employed*, defined as wage and salaried workers (employees) holding a contract of limited duration, i.e. set to terminate prior to 12 months, self-employed youth with no employees (own-account workers) and contributing family workers; young people in this category almost certainly fall outside of the framework of standard employment relationships;

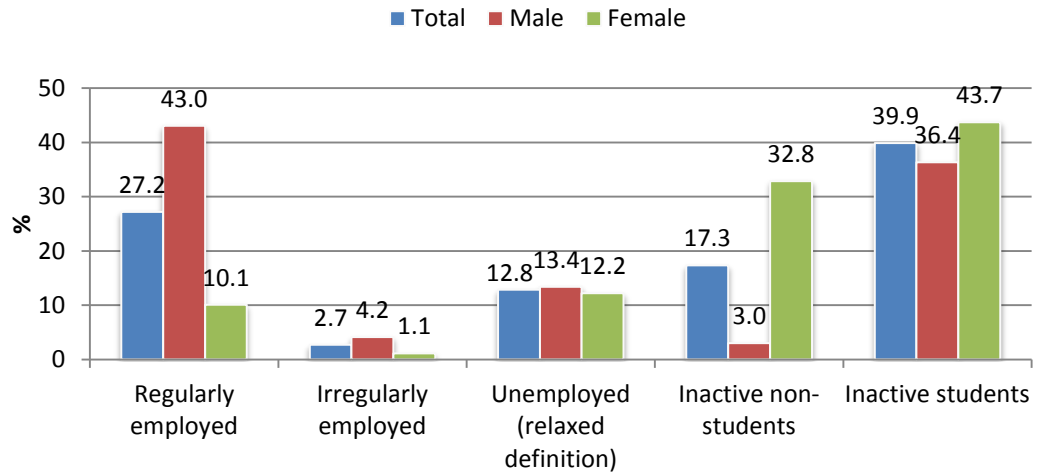
c. *unemployed (relaxed definition)*, defined as persons currently without work and available to take up work in the week prior to the reference period;

d. *inactive youth*, which is further divided into two sub-categories: those who are inactive and in school ("inactive students") and those who are inactive and not in school ("inactive non-students"). The inactive students are considered to be investing in their education to emerge better equipped for their future labour market experience. Hence, this can tentatively be judged as a "positive" category (notwithstanding issues of skills mismatch). The inactive non-students have chosen to be outside of the labour market for reasons other than schooling (to engage in household duties or care for children, for example) and they may or may not have the intention to (re)enter the labour market in the future (although further SWTS data analyses show that a majority of inactive non-students do state an intention to join the labour market in the future in most countries). Those who say they intend to work in the future have some degree of labour market attachment and should thus be considered in the classification of labour (under)utilization.

[4] The SWTS analytical framework was designed with an eye on the current efforts to adapt the international framework of statistics on the economically active population. The International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS), held in Geneva in October 2013, adopted the "Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization". The Resolution provides guidelines on a wider set of measures than previously defined internationally, aiming specifically to enable better statistical measurement of participation of all persons in all forms of work and in all sectors of the economy while also enabling measurement of areas of labour underutilization. See ICLS (2013).

Overall, employment among youth in Jordan is "regular" (figure 3.4) – 27.2 per cent of youth surveyed were in regular employment, while only 2.7 per cent were in irregular employment (with higher shares for men than women in both cases). Young men were more likely to be active than not, while for young women, inactivity was the dominant category. Among inactive youth, both young men and women were more likely to be inactive students than non-students, but for young women, the latter category was by no means negligible, at 32.8 per cent of the female youth population.

Figure 3.4 Youth according to SWTS framework by sex



Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Unemployment measured according to the relaxed definition[5] yields higher numbers than when the strict definition is applied in both the share of the youth population and the share of the labour force (i.e. the unemployment rate; table 3.7). Unemployment (relaxed definition) concerns 12.8 per cent of youth, a significant share in absolute terms, but relatively limited if compared to other countries in the Middle East, such as Tunisia or the Occupied Palestinian Territory.[6] The youth unemployment rate (relaxed definition) is 30.0 per cent (22.1 per cent for young men and as high as 52.1 per cent for young women).

Table 3.7 shows the share of youth who were neither employed nor in education or training (NEET). Based on the SWTS, the NEET group made up an estimated 29.0 per cent of youth in Jordan. Nearly three-quarters (73.2 per cent) of youth classified as NEET were young women. In addition, while young men in the NEET group mostly belonged to the category of unemployed non-students (67.3 per cent) and were therefore counted among the economically active (labour force), young women classified as NEET were

[5] Young people in developing economies with widespread informal sectors are frequently without work and available to work but are not actively engaging in a job search, for example by registering at an employment centre or applying for advertised vacancies. They may not actively be seeking work because there are no formal outlets for doing so – there are no public employment services near them and few enterprises officially advertise vacancies – and/or they know their local markets and know no jobs are currently available. Under these circumstances, the person without work is more likely to wait for word-of-mouth informal connections that lead to occasional work than to engage in an active job search. Relaxing the active job search criterion from the unemployment definition can have a significant impact on results in low-income economies and is therefore the preferred measure in the SWTS analyses (ILO, 2013a).

[6] The unemployed (relaxed definition) shares in the youth population were 18.7 per cent in Tunisia and 23.5 per cent in the Occupied Palestinian Territory. Data are from the SWTSs of Tunisia and the Occupied Palestinian Territory, both implemented in 2013. National reports are currently being produced.

predominantly inactive non-students (82.5 per cent). By way of comparison, ILO reporting on youth NEET rates (ILO, 2013a) in countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development showed the lowest share of 7.1 per cent in Luxembourg and 36.6 per cent in Turkey in 2010.

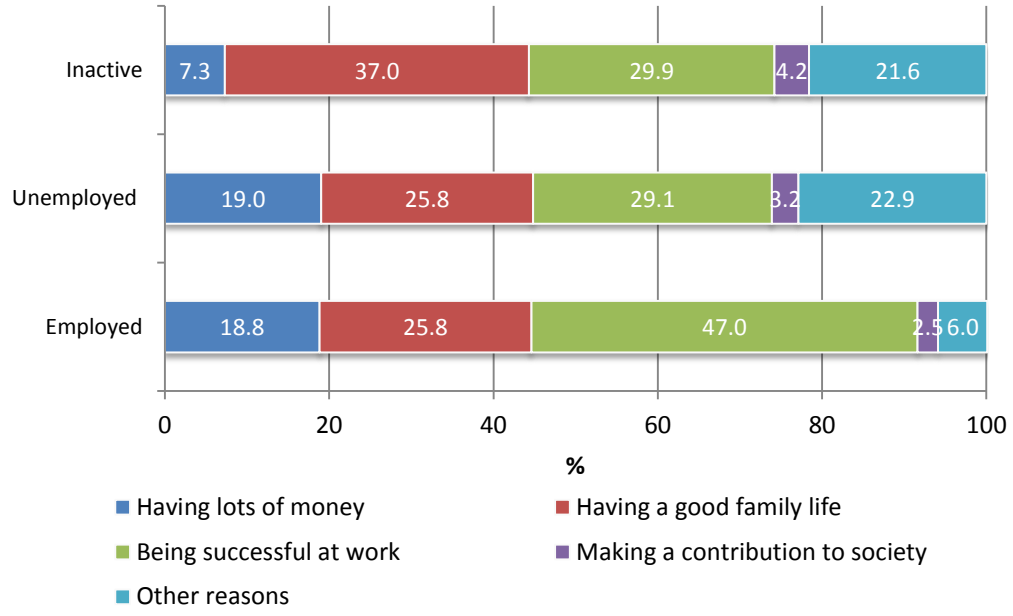
Table 3.7 Youth unemployment (relaxed definition), labour underutilization and NEET rates by sex (%)

Rate/share	Total	Male	Female
Unemployment rate (relaxed definition)	30.0	22.1	52.1
Labour underutilization rate	32.9	20.6	46.2
NEET rate	29.0	14.9	44.2
NEET by sub-category			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Unemployed non-students	30.8	67.3	17.5
Inactive non-students	69.2	32.7	82.5

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

The youth labour underutilization rate is a measure that aims to capture all elements of the youth population whose economic potential is not being fully realized, either because they work in non-standard employment arrangements or are classified as neither in the labour force nor in school. Combining the shares of youth irregularly employed and unemployed (relaxed definition) with inactive non-students, as a percentage of the youth population, the youth labour underutilization rate in Jordan stands at 32.9 per cent (table 3.7). The disadvantages experienced by young women show up strongly in the labour underutilization rate, with the female–male gap among Jordan's youth exceeding 20 percentage points.

Figure 3.5 Youth by primary life goal and main economic activity status



Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

3.4 Aspirations and life goals

Figure 3.5 indicates the primary life goal of young respondents. The data reveal that the employed and unemployed had fairly similar views about being successful at work and having a good family life. Having lots of money ranked third for the employed and fourth for the unemployed. Not surprisingly, inactive youth were more likely to place a high value on having a good family life, although being successful at work still represented the second most frequent answer. This may suggest that a portion of inactive young people intend to engage in the labour market in the future. It could also mean that for a significant part of the inactive youth population, inactivity is not a choice but an involuntary condition in which they find themselves, when they would rather be following their life aspirations in the labour market.

3.5 Characteristics of employed youth

3.5.1 General characteristics

This section looks at the characteristics of the 29.9 per cent of surveyed youth who were employed at the time of the survey. The results in table 3.8 reveal that the likelihood of being employed increased with age. More than one-half, or 52.8 per cent, of those aged 25–29 were employed, versus 39.5 per cent of the 20–24 age cohort. Only 10.0 per cent of youth aged 15–19 were employed. These results are in line with the educational attainment of surveyed youth, based on which it is expected that most teenagers in Jordan were in school. The probability of being employed was remarkably similar in urban and rural areas, as was the distribution of employment across household income levels.

Table 3.8 Youth employment-to-population ratio by age group, area of residence and household income level

Characteristic	%
Age group	
15–19	10.0
20–24	39.5
25–29	52.8
Area of residence	
Rural	29.8
Urban	30.4
Household income level	
Well off	29.4
Fairly well off	28.7
Average	31.2
Fairly poor	27.2
Poor	29.1

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

3.5.2 Status in employment

The categorization of status in employment is important because different groups of workers face different economic risks. Wage and salaried workers, or employees, are attached to an institution and generally receive a regular wage. They face relatively low economic risks compared to the self-employed and to unpaid family workers. In general, a country with a high proportion of wage and salaried workers is likely to have a strong formal economy with effective labour market institutions. The self-employed, whether own-account workers or employers, face relatively higher economic risks since their remuneration is dependent on the number of units sold or services rendered. Their incomes are subject to fluctuations, and they do not have access to the entitlements made available to some wage and salaried workers. In most developing economies, most self-employed workers operate in the informal sector (Shehu and Nilsson, 2014).

Table 3.9 shows that the majority of employed Jordan's youth at the time of the survey were wage and salaried workers. This category accounted for 93.8 per cent of employed youth, in line with the distribution of employment status in the overall labour market. However, the propensity of young people to be in wage and salaried employment was even greater than that of the overall population. The self-employed, with or without employees, represented only a minor share of employed youth, and when the data are disaggregated by sex it becomes clear that the category comprised mostly males. Employed young women were virtually all employees (98.7 per cent), with a small percentage in own-account work. Young men, on the other hand, were in self-employment as employers, although as a limited share (2.1 per cent), and own-account workers (3.1 per cent). Unpaid family work was also a male prerogative due to the nature of the work which is usually agricultural and concentrated in the harvest season.

Table 3.9 Employed youth by status in employment and sex (%)

Economic status	Total	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wage & salaried worker (employee)	93.8	92.8	98.7
Self-employed with employees (employer)	1.7	2.1	0.0
Self-employed without employees (own-account worker)	2.8	3.1	1.3
Contributing family worker	1.7	2.1	0.0

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Table 3.10 shows the relationship between educational attainment and wage and salaried employment versus self-employment. It is important to highlight that 93.8 per cent of employed youth surveyed were employees. Therefore, it is not surprising to see that the educational accomplishments of wage and salaried workers reflected closely those of the whole employed population shown in table 3.5. Regarding the self-employed, who constituted 4.5 per cent of young workers, the majority had completed primary education only and they were much less likely to have completed higher education levels than wage and salaried workers. Tertiary graduates represented more than one-third (35.4 per cent) of employees, compared to 17.9 per cent of the self-employed. The young self-employed labour force in the sample had therefore reached a lower educational attainment level on average than the young wage and salaried workers.

Table 3.10 Wage and salaried workers and the self-employed by level of completed educational attainment (%)

Education level	Wage & salaried workers (employees)	Self-employed
Total	100.0	100.0
Less than primary (including no school)	2.6	7.0
Primary	43.7	54.7
Secondary	5.7	15.4
Secondary vocational	12.6	5.0
Bachelor's & above	35.4	17.9

Note: Self-employed includes employers, own-account workers and contributing family workers.
Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Wage and salaried workers (employees)

As discussed, Jordan's youth in wage and salaried employment accounted for more than 90 per cent of both the female and male youth population surveyed, and were mostly residing in urban areas (81.4 per cent). While being in paid employment generally implies greater security than self-employed work, SWTS results show that even young employees were not always secure in terms of their contract situations. One-third (34.0 per cent) of employees did not have a written contract, and relied on oral agreements (table 3.11). The majority of young employees had unlimited contracts in terms of duration, but 15.0 per cent of young employees (more for women than men, and more in rural areas than urban areas) were on contracts of limited duration. Approximately one-third (32.5 per cent) of youth with limited duration contracts were covered for less than 1 year (temporary employment). Oddly enough, while limited duration contracts were more frequent in rural than urban areas, the duration of time-bound contracts tended to be longer in rural areas.

Table 3.11 Young wage and salaried workers by type of contract and duration (%)

Sex & area of residence	Type of contract		Type of contract (by duration)		Length of contract (for contracts of limited duration)		
	Written	Oral	Unlimited	Limited	Less than 1 year	1 year to less than 3 years	3 years or more
Total	66.0	34.0	85.0	15.0	32.5	35.2	32.2
Male	63.4	36.6	86.8	13.2	29.8	31.1	39.1
Female	77.0	23.0	77.1	22.9	39.2	45.3	15.5
Rural	86.4	13.6	80.4	19.6	22.6	25.0	52.4
Urban	61.3	38.7	86.0	14.0	35.7	38.5	25.8

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Some sectors of employment offer better contractual arrangements than others. Table A.8 shows that 95.4 per cent of young employees in the public administration and defence and compulsory social security sector had written contracts, as opposed to 19.1 per cent of youth in the construction sector. However, an analysis of the duration of contracts shows a rather positive situation across sectors. The majority of employed youth in all sectors had unlimited contracts. The highest percentage was in professional, scientific and technical activities (92.4 per cent), while the lowest was in education (70.1 per cent).

Table 3.12 summarizes the entitlements provided to young employees by their employers. Access to certain benefits can ensure decent employment conditions and provide some security in times of need. The results point at a relatively high provision of

benefits. The survey showed the majority of young employees were entitled to social security contributions (66.2 per cent), paid sick leave (64.8 per cent), paid annual leave (62.7 per cent) and medical insurance (60.3 per cent). Training was also a quite frequent benefit, mentioned by 44.6 per cent of employees; male and female employees benefited almost evenly from training opportunities made available by their employers, with men showing only a limited advantage. The provision of other entitlements, however, appears to have skewed towards one of the two sexes, depending on the specific benefit.

Table 3.12 Young wage and salaried workers by access to employment benefits/entitlements and sex (%)

Benefit/entitlement	Total	Male	Female
Transport or transport allowance	35.9	37.1	30.8
Meal allowance	41.9	46.7	21.2
Paid annual leave	62.7	60.7	71.4
Paid sick leave	64.8	62.3	75.6
Pension	16.0	14.9	20.8
Severance/end-of-service payment	38.9	40.5	32.1
Overtime pay	23.2	22.1	27.8
Medical insurance coverage	60.3	60.2	61.0
Bonus	40.2	41.2	35.9
Social security contributions	66.2	63.3	78.7
Training	44.6	45.1	42.8
Occupational safety	39.0	43.1	21.6
Childcare facilities	10.5	5.6	31.4
Maternity/paternity leave	16.6	7.9	53.5

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Women were more likely to receive paid annual leave, sick leave, social security contributions, pension contributions and overtime pay. More than one-half (53.5 per cent) of young female employees could benefit from maternity leave, and nearly one-third (31.4 per cent) had access to childcare facilities, while the share of men with such benefits was minor. Men, on the other hand, were more often entitled to severance payments and bonuses. Occupational safety equipment and meal allowance were also benefits going primarily to men. This is mostly because of gender-based differences in type of occupation and sectors of employment, with women usually employed in sectors characterized by lower health and safety risks, and limited working hours.

Table 3.13 indicates the average wages of young people in Jordan by sex and education level. Only findings on wage and salaried workers are shown, as data on own-account workers and employers were not reliable due to a limited number of observations. Overall, the mean monthly wages of men and women were quite homogeneous. Young men earned on average JOD 266.54 per month, with young women very close at JOD 260.52. Another important finding was the wage premium that comes with increased education.[7] For example, the average wage of a young employee with a university

[7] The UN operational exchange rate on 1 November 2012 (immediately prior to the start of the survey fieldwork) was 0.708 Jordanian dinars to the US dollar. The average wage of a young employee in Jordan was therefore the equivalent of US$ 374.87 per month. The university graduate working in paid employment earned the equivalent of US$ 445.68 per month.

(tertiary-level) education was one-and-a-half times greater than that of a young employee with less than primary education.

Table 3.13 Average monthly wages of young wage and salaried workers by sex and level of completed education

Characteristic		Average monthly wage in JOD	S.D.
Total		265.41	130.21
Sex	Male	266.54	129.34
	Female	260.52	133.76
Completed education level	Less than primary (including no school)	200.23	71.60
	Primary	233.33	92.85
	Secondary	264.67	82.22
	Secondary vocational	237.71	99.83
	Tertiary	315.54	163.52
	Doctorate	450.35	193.86

S.D. = Standard deviation.
Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Self-employed workers

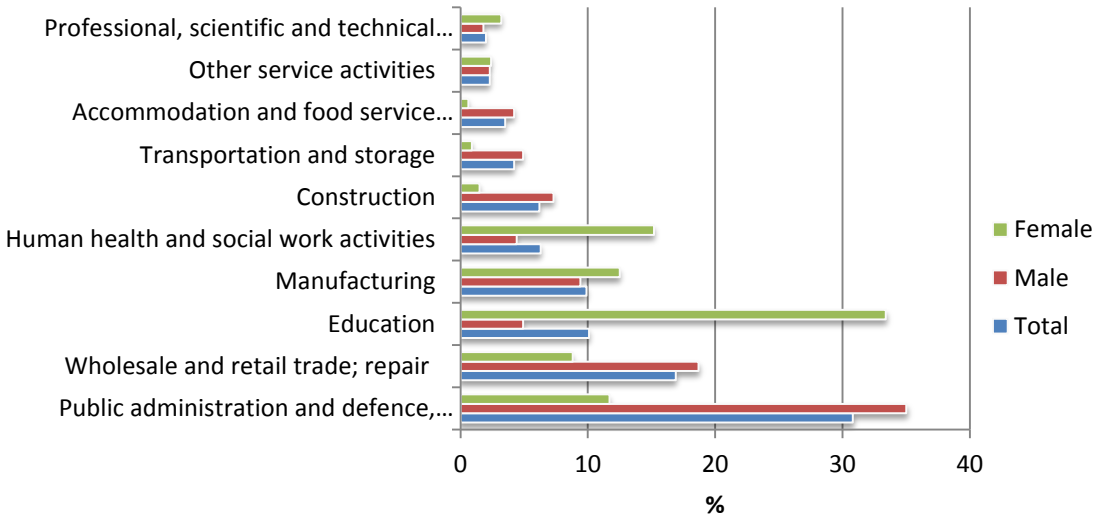
According to the survey, employers and own-account workers, mostly males, represented less than 5 per cent of employed youth in the sample (table 3.9). It is nevertheless interesting to examine their characteristics and motivations. The majority of self-employed youth (89.1 per cent) were in urban areas, while rural self-employment was limited to 10.9 per cent. The survey asked the self-employed to indicate what motivated them to choose self-employment (table A.6). The majority of respondents pursued self-employment because of the greater independence offered (65.9 per cent). The second most frequent reason provided, on the other hand, was the lack of better options (could not find paid employment: 33.3 per cent). Only a minor portion of youth was in self-employment because it was required by their family. It is important to note that, in Jordan, the choice of entrepreneurship as a conscious career decision is mostly an urban phenomenon. In rural areas, self-employed youth are more likely to have turned to self-employment because no other jobs were available.

3.5.3 Employment by sector and occupation

Figure 3.6 illustrates youth employment by sector and sex. In line with the sectoral distribution of the overall employed population, the employed youth surveyed from both sexes mostly worked in services. Male youth were employed predominantly in two sectors: public administration and defence (35.0 per cent) and wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles (18.7 per cent). Combined, these sectors represented more than one-half of male youth employment in Jordan, and manufacturing added another 9.4 per cent. On the other hand, the largest share of working young women was employed in the education sector (33.4 per cent), followed by human health and social work activities (15.2 per cent). Manufacturing was the third largest employment sector for young women (12.5 per cent). These results reinforce the evidence discussed earlier in this report that the employment choices of Jordan's youth are highly influenced by the country's traditional values. Public-sector employment is deemed acceptable for young women, and often serves as the only option open to females looking for employment.

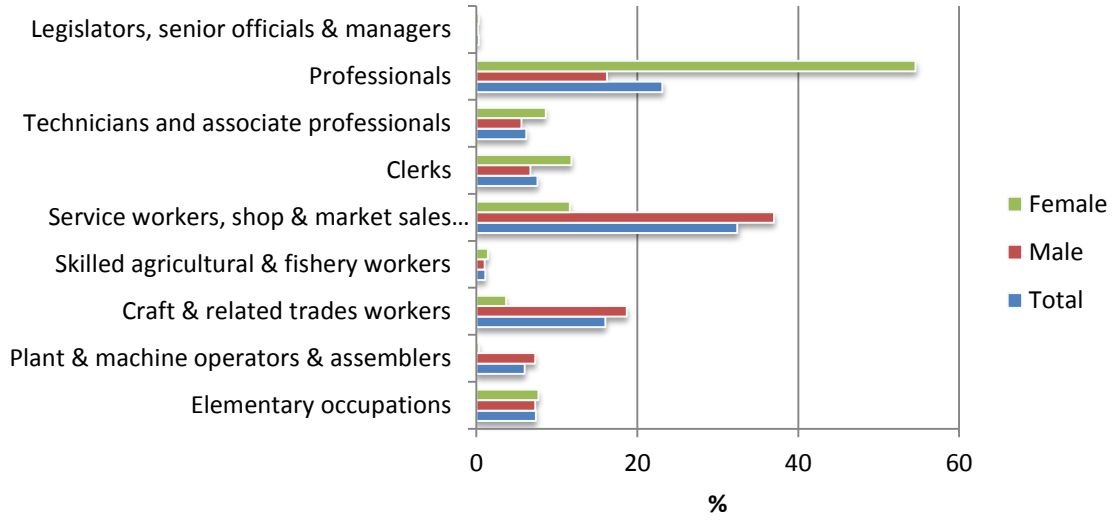
Youth employment in Jordan can also be categorized by type of occupation, according to the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) (figure 3.7). Most young workers surveyed were in the service and professionals groups, which together amounted to 55.5 per cent of employed youth. Young men were more often service workers, shop and market sales workers (37.0 per cent), and craft and related trades workers (18.7 per cent), whereas the greatest proportion of young women was in the professionals group (54.5 per cent). The first three major occupational groups (legislators, senior officials and managers; professionals; and technicians and associate professionals), typically the higher-skilled occupations, accounted for 63.5 per cent of working women, but only 22.0 per cent of working men.

Figure 3.6 Youth employment by sector according to 1-digit ISCO categorization and sex



Note: Only sectors with shares of total youth employment equal to or greater than 2 per cent are shown.
Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Figure 3.7 Youth employment by ISCO categorization and sex

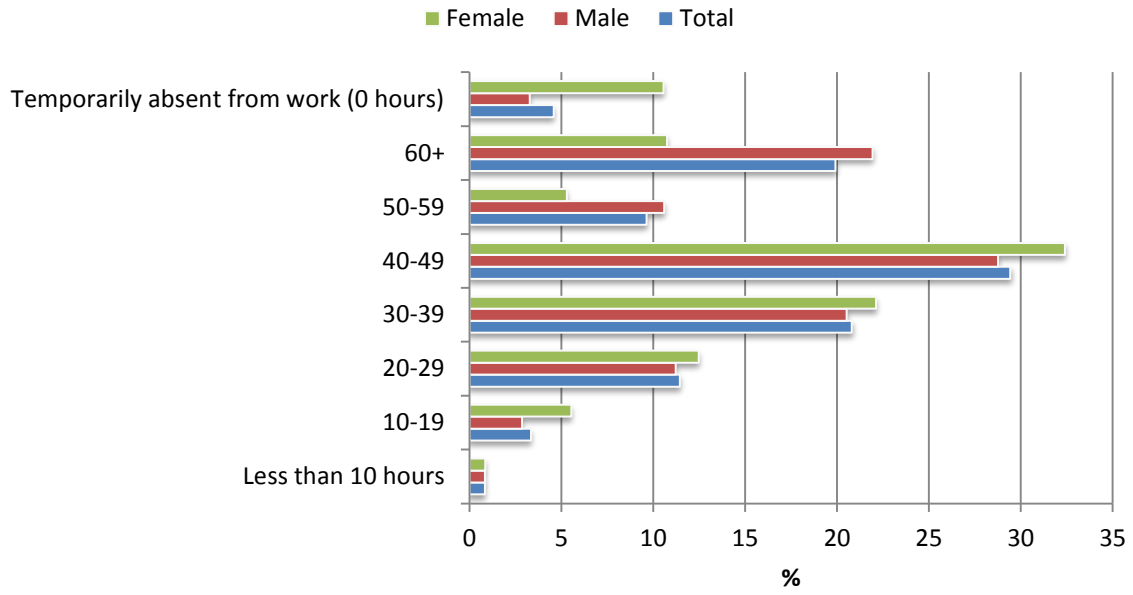


Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

3.5.4 Hours of work

The SWTS collects data on the working hours of youth in Jordan. From the survey, the average actual hours worked by youth during the week preceding the interviews were 44.2 for men and 35.7 for women. Figure 3.8 shows the distribution of weekly hours worked, in bands of hours. The greatest proportion of employed youth, both males and females, worked between 40 and 49 hours per week (28.8 per cent of young men and 32.4 per cent of young women), and one-fifth (20.5 per cent of young men and 22.1 per cent of young women) worked slightly less, at 30–39 hours per week. Most disturbing is that 21.9 per cent of young men and 10.8 per cent of young women worked an excessive number of hours – 60 or more per week. Also problematic is that 10.6 per cent of young women were temporarily absent from work during the week.

Figure 3.8 Employed youth by actual hours worked per week and sex



Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

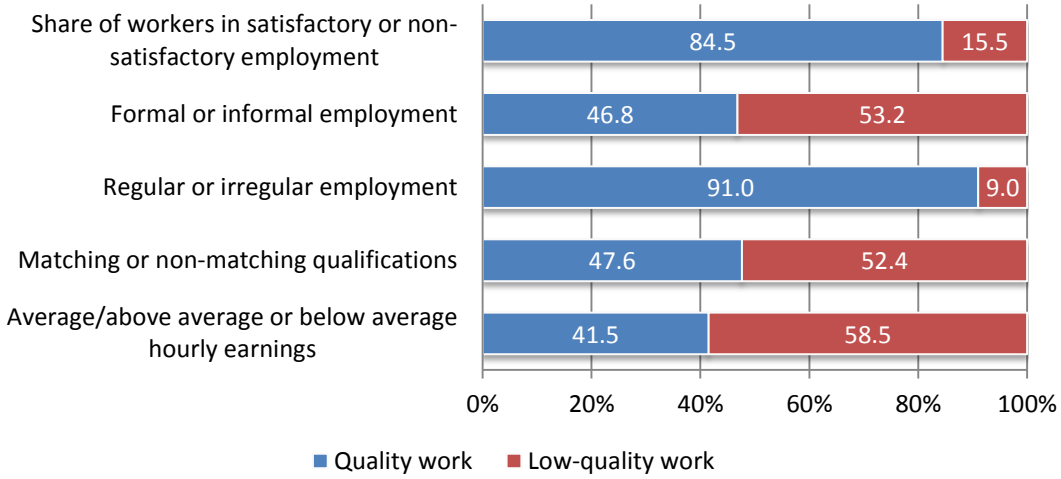
Working short hours – less than 30 hours per week – does not occur frequently among working youth in Jordan. Opening up the part-time labour market to young people could offer potential for them to gain working experience while studying, and thus possibly ease their labour market transition in the future. However, it is clear that working while studying is not yet an acceptable practice in Jordan.

3.5.5 Other job-quality indicators

The SWTS data enable the measurement of the quality of jobs to which young people have access. Figure 3.9 summarizes the indicators of quality. It shows five quality indicators:

- the share of own-account workers and paid employees with below-average weekly wages or income[8] (poorly paid);
- the share of overeducated or undereducated workers[9] (qualifications mismatch);
- the share of workers with a contract duration of less than 12 months, own-account workers and contributing family workers (irregular employment);
- the share of workers in informal employment[10] (informal employment); and
- the share of workers that claim dissatisfaction with their current job (non-satisfactory employment).

Figure 3.9 Employed youth by indicators measuring quality of employment



Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

The blue bars in the figure represent the shares of better-quality employment based on above-average wages, qualifications, stability, formality (security) and satisfaction. The dominance of blue over red in the figure indicates a prevalence of "good-quality" over "bad-quality" work. In general, young people in Jordan were quite satisfied with their employment situation. An overwhelming majority (84.5 per cent) indicated they were either "highly satisfied" or "mostly satisfied" with their job. Such a high satisfactory rate is likely to be related in part to the availability of "regular" employment options, which were widespread (covering 91.0 per cent of working youth). More than one-half (58.9 per cent)

[8] Monthly wages of employees and daily, monthly or other time-specific earnings of own-account workers were converted into weekly rates for comparability. Contributing (unpaid) family workers were excluded from the calculation.

[9] The methodology applied is that of the normative ISCO-based approach described later in this section. Table 3.14 provides the norms across ISCO and International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) educational codes.

[10] Informal employment is measured according to the guidelines recommended by the 17th International Conference of Labour Statisticians. It includes the following sub-categories of workers: (a) paid employees in "informal jobs", i.e. jobs without a social security entitlement, paid annual leave or paid sick leave; (b) paid employees in an unregistered enterprise with size classification below five employees; (c) own-account workers in an unregistered enterprise with size classification below five employees; (d) employers in an unregistered enterprise with size classification below five employees; and (e) contributing family workers.

of employed youth earned a weekly wage below the average of all working youth; the indicator was 60.4 per cent for males and 52.7 per cent for females, with the lagging female result possibly due to wages for women being lower in absolute terms.

Informal employment, which impacted more than one-half (53.2 per cent) of young workers, is made up of two sub-categories: workers in the informal (unregistered) sector and paid employees holding informal jobs in the formal sector. In Jordan, the latter category prevails. While employees in this category earn a salary, they do not receive certain benefits, such as social security contributions, or paid annual or sick leave, that would normally be associated with a formal job. While 53.2 per cent of young people in Jordan were categorized in informal employment, it could be noted that the rate falls well below that of the other countries running the SWTS in the Middle East and North Africa region.[11]

Another job-quality measure is qualification matching. Notably, 52.4 per cent of surveyed youth felt that their qualifications did not match their employment – that they were either over- or underqualified for their job (figure 3.10). At the subjective level, this result implies that a skills mismatch problem exists in Jordan. Objectively, the skills mismatch between the job that a person does and their level of educational qualification is measured by applying the normative measure of occupational skills categories from the ISCO (ILO, 2013a, p. 44). ISCO-08 includes the categorization of major occupational groups (1-digit ISCO levels) by level of education in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED). Table 3.14 summarizes the ISCO-based educational classification.

Table 3.14 ISCO major groups and education levels

ISCO major group	Broad occupation group	Education level
Managers		
Professionals	High-skilled non-manual	Tertiary (ISCED 5–6)
Technicians & associate professionals		
Clerical support workers	Low-skilled non-manual	
Service & sales workers		
Skilled agricultural & fishery workers		Secondary (ISCED 3–4)
Craft & related trades workers	Skilled manual	
Plant & machine operators & assemblers		
Elementary occupations	Unskilled	Primary (ISCED 1–2)

Source: ILO, 2013a, table 3.

Workers in a particular group who have the assigned level of education are considered well-matched. Those who have a higher (lower) level of education are considered over- (under-) educated. For example, a university graduate working as a clerk (a low-skilled non-manual occupation) is overeducated, while someone whose highest education level is secondary school but who is working as an engineer (a high-skilled non-manual occupation) is undereducated. Both types of mismatch can have a negative impact on workers' productivity and satisfaction. Undereducated workers are likely to be less productive and, in that sense, bring lower added value to their employers and, more personally, they are more prone to suffering from a sense of insecurity and inadequacy. In the same job, overeducated workers earn more than those with a lower (i.e. appropriate)

[11] Informal employment rates among youth (calculated from the SWTSs) come to 91.1 per cent in Egypt, 94.1 per cent in the Occupied Palestinian Territory and 86.1 per cent in Tunisia.

level of qualifications, but less than workers at their same education level and in a job that matches it well. Using the ISCO-based method and looking at those with completed education, 52.4 per cent of youth were employed in a job that did not match their qualifications well; 9.4 per cent were overeducated and 43.0 per cent were undereducated.

Table 3.15 provides details on the extent of the qualifications mismatch among youth in Jordan. As is expected in a country with the educational profile of Jordan, the tendency towards undereducation in the higher-skilled occupational categories is small. Enough university graduates are produced every year with the right amount of qualifications to fill professional and managerial vacancies. Youth working as service workers, shop and market sales workers, or craft and related trades workers, are those most likely to be undereducated for their jobs (47.5 and 26.7 per cent, respectively).

Regarding overqualification, more than one-fifth of youth in elementary occupations (22.5 per cent) or working as clerks (27.8 per cent) are overeducated for their job, and an even greater share of young service workers, shop and market sales workers (35.9 per cent) hold a higher degree than required to do their work. These numbers suggest that some educated youth must settle for jobs for which they are overqualified. One consequence of overeducation is that those affected will likely earn less than they could otherwise, thus not making the most of their productive potential. Another consequence is the crowding out of youth at the bottom of the educational pyramid. The less-educated youth find themselves at the back of the queue even for those jobs for which they are best qualified.

Table 3.15 Overeducated and undereducated young workers by major occupational category (ISCO-08, %)

Major occupational category (ISCO-08)	Overeducated	Undereducated
1. Legislators, senior officials & managers	0.0	0.1
2. Professionals	0.0	0.6
3. Technicians & associate professionals	0.0	4.6
4. Clerks	27.8	7.1
5. Service workers, shop & market sales workers	35.9	47.5
6. Skilled agricultural & fishery workers	0.0	2.3
7. Craft & related trades workers	11.4	26.7
8. Plant & machine operators & assemblers	2.5	10.5
9. Elementary occupations	22.5	0.6
Total	9.4	43.0

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

3.5.6 Security and satisfaction

Figure 3.10 shows that 84.5 per cent of employed youth were satisfied with their jobs. The SWTS results show that job satisfaction does not necessarily depend on the nature of employment. Of Jordan's youth claiming satisfaction with their job, 40.1 per cent were in informal employment and 51.7 per cent were paid less than the average wage. Relative job satisfaction among youth in the country was somewhat contradicted by the more than one-quarter (28.8 per cent) of young workers expressing a desire to change their jobs (table A.5). Among satisfied youth, the most cited reason for wanting to change jobs was to improve working conditions (26.8 per cent), followed closely by the desire to have a higher pay per hour (26.2 per cent) and to move out of temporary employment (23.7 per cent). Nine (9.0) per cent of young workers wanted to change their job to make better use of their qualifications.

As to the impact of trade unions, unionization among youth in Jordan is quite low. While the survey results indicate that only 12.4 per cent of employed youth were members of a union, the chief reason cited by the greatest proportion of employed youth for not joining a union was lack of awareness (79.8 per cent) (table 3.16).

Table 3.16 Employed youth by reasons for not joining a trade union and sex (%)

Reason	Total	Male	Female
Have negative view of unions	0.8	0.7	1.4
Not aware of any union	79.8	81.4	70.2
Discouraged by employer	1.0	0.7	3.0
Not sure of what unions can do to help me	0.9	0.7	1.9
Never been approached	1.0	1.0	1.1
Never considered joining one	9.5	9.0	12.5
Do not have time	5.1	5.2	6.7
Not interested in public affairs	10.7	10.5	11.5
Very expensive	0.1	0.0	0.5
Other	1.1	1.1	1.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

The results therefore imply a clear opportunity for labour unions in the country to strengthen their outreach to potential young members. The second predominant reason was limited interest in public affairs, mentioned by 10.7 per cent of employed youth, while 9.5 per cent simply never considered joining one. No gender difference in the reasons cited emerged from the findings.

3.6 Characteristics of unemployed youth

Jordan's youth unemployment rate of 24.1 per cent was nearly 12 percentage points higher than the global average (12.4 per cent) in 2012 (ILO, 2013a). Yet it is lower than the average for the Middle East (28.3 per cent in 2012) and lower compared to other countries of the region where the SWTS was also implemented (Tunisia, 31.8 per cent, and the Occupied Palestinian Territory, 37.0 per cent). High youth unemployment rates are a common characteristic of labour markets in the Middle East, despite the population's generally low rate of participation in the labour force.

As would be expected, the relaxed definition of unemployment, which also takes into consideration people available to work but not actively engaged in a job search, generates higher unemployment rates for Jordan's youth (table 3.7), although the difference of 6 percentage points compared to the strict definition is not large. As mentioned earlier, the gender difference in youth unemployment rates is sizeable, with a strong disadvantage for the female jobseeker. The female–male gap in rates is as high as 23.2 and 30.0 percentage points, measured according to the strict (table 3.6) and relaxed (table 3.7) definition, respectively.

The majority of unemployed youth (55.8 per cent), as shown in table 3.17, had been searching for work for 1 year or longer. Those who had been unemployed for at least 6 months totalled 72.4 per cent. More than one-third (35.8 per cent) had been looking for work for 2 years or more. Such protracted periods of unemployment can lead to consequences that go well beyond forgone earnings and the missed opportunity to gain valuable work experience. Long-term unemployment may lead to the erosion of

occupational skills; it raises the probability of being unemployed in later years and produces a wage penalty (Mroz and Savage, 2006; Gregg and Tominey, 2005). Young women in Jordan were slightly less likely than young men to experience unemployment for 2 or more years, possibly because they were more prone to becoming inactive after years spent job searching.

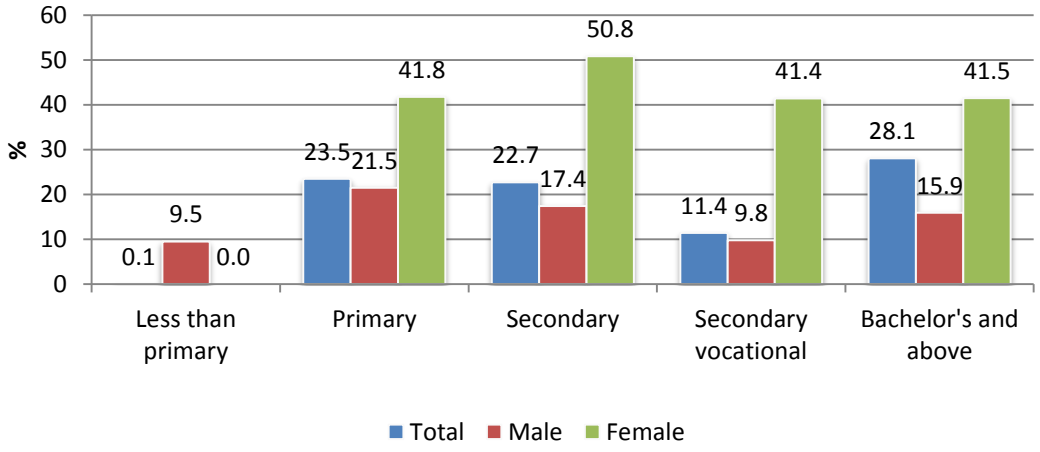
Table 3.17 Unemployed youth by duration of unemployment and sex (%)

Period of job search	Total	Male	Female
Less than 1 year	44.3	44.4	43.9
1 year to less than 2 years	20.0	18.3	22.5
2 years or longer	35.8	37.4	33.6

Note: Unemployed persons excluding those who have already found a job starting at a later date or those who have undertaken all necessary steps to start a business at a later date.
Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

An analysis of unemployment rates by level of educational attainment among surveyed youth, as illustrated in figure 3.10, confirms that the disadvantage faced by young women in finding work extended across all levels of educational attainment. In fact, unemployment rates for young women across the various levels of educational attainment were nearly the same, with an increase only among females with secondary-level education (unemployment rate of 50.8 per cent), compared to females with higher or lower levels. This result could be quite discouraging to young women, as it carries the assumption that investing in one's education even at the highest level does not guarantee an easier time finding work. Still, work opportunities for young women are limited to what is considered appropriate "female" occupations (mainly in the public sector), and these tend to require higher education. Female early school leavers are not likely to be found among the unemployed, but rather among the inactive, as families would not approve of them working in low-skilled, mixed occupations (Mryyan, 2012).

Figure 3.10 Youth unemployment rate by completed education level and sex



Note: Bachelor's & above includes post-secondary vocational, university and postgraduate studies.
Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

For young men, unemployment rates were lowest for those who had no education at all (less than primary level) and who completed secondary-level vocational training (9.5 and 9.8 per cent, respectively). Staying in school carried a clearer pay-off for young men, as the unemployment rate remained highest for those completing only primary-level school.

Table 3.18 illustrates job-search methods used by Jordan's employed and unemployed youth. The most common method among employed youth was asking friends, relatives and

acquaintances; 45.3 per cent of employed youth used this approach to find their current job. Among unemployed youth, a large share (42.2 per cent) sought work through their network of family and friends, but an even more common method was to inquire directly with potential employers (72.2 per cent). The fact that half as many (37.8 per cent) youth in employment reportedly attained their job using this method implies it often proves ineffective. Further, over one-third of unemployed youth responded to job advertisements (35.0 per cent) or registered at an employment centre (34.1 per cent).

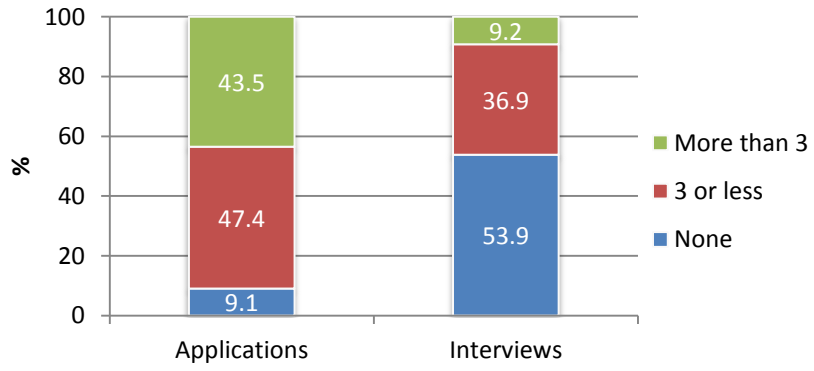
Table 3.18 Employed and unemployed youth by job search methods used (%)

Method	Employed	Unemployed
Registered at employment centre	13.8	34.1
Placed or answered job advertisements	15.6	35.0
Inquired directly at factories, farms, markets, shops or other workplaces	37.8	72.2
Took a test or interview	11.1	5.2
Asked friends, relatives, acquaintances	45.3	42.2
Waited on the street to be recruited for casual work	1.8	4.9
Sought financial assistance to look for work or start a business	1.3	0.6
Looked for land, building, equipment, machinery to start own business or farm	0.1	0.0
Applied for permit or licence to start a business	0.9	0.4
Other	4.6	0.0

Note: Multiple responses were allowed.
Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Among unemployed youth in the survey sample who submitted applications in response to job advertisements, more than 90 per cent said they had completed at least one job application over the previous 12 months, and 43.5 per cent had submitted more than three applications (figure 3.11). Despite this effort, 53.9 per cent did not obtain any interview requests in the year prior to the survey and only 9.2 per cent were interviewed more than three times.

Figure 3.11 Unemployed youth by number of jobs applied for and job interviews attended



Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Discouraged workers are those not working but available to work; they do not seek employment because they feel that undertaking a job search would be futile. The survey showed that only 1.8 per cent of the overall Jordan's youth population belonged to this category (1.5 per cent of males and 2.0 per cent of females). Table 3.19 presents the reasons given by young discouraged workers for not seeking work. The lack of job

opportunities in the region or province was the most common reason for giving up the job search for both young women (41.1 per cent) and young men (47.2 per cent). Lack of success with the previous job search was the second most frequently mentioned reason by both sexes (32.9 per cent for young men and 22.4 per cent for young women). More females (15.7 per cent) than males (10.1 per cent) were not able to find a job that suited their qualifications, which is not surprising given that young women show a relatively higher propensity to complete secondary- or tertiary-level education.

Table 3.19 Discouraged youth by sex and reasons for not looking for a job opportunity (%)

Reason	Total	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Lack of knowledge of how & where to look for work	12.1	8.1	15.1
Not being able to find a suitable job per qualifications & skills	13.2	10.1	15.7
Previously searched for a job with no success	26.9	32.9	22.4
Too young to work	4.0	1.8	5.7
Lack of job opportunities in the region/province	43.8	47.2	41.1

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

When asked to indicate how they used their time (table A.7), 73.3 per cent of discouraged youth answered that they watched TV, and 41.8 per cent played on a computer. Other activities included helping with household chores (40.9 per cent) and going out with friends (37.6 per cent). Most discouraged youth (90.0 per cent) said their main financial resource was their own family, while 8.0 per cent, all females, relied on their spouses.

The SWTS attempts to gauge the relative urgency of the job search among unemployed youth by determining if they tend to reject job offers. The survey showed that 16.8 per cent had refused a job offer. Among them, 40.7 per cent did so because the pay was too low (table 3.20). Job refusal based on financial concerns was twice as common among men as women. Inappropriate workplace conditions was the second most cited reason for job refusal among unemployed youth (19.8 per cent), or, disaggregated by sex, 27.9 per cent of females and 10.8 per cent of males, suggesting that appropriateness of working conditions is related to gender concerns and to the characteristics of environments considered suitable for women. Not surprisingly, the third most frequently mentioned reason by unemployed young women for rejecting a job offer was the family not approving of the offer (16.3 per cent). No young men indicated having refused a job for this reason.

Table 3.20 Unemployed youth who rejected a job offer by reason and sex (%)

Reason	Total	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Low pay	40.7	57.5	25.8
Work is not exciting	6.4	13.6	0.0
Inappropriate workplace conditions	19.8	10.8	27.9
Job does not meet the academic qualification	2.4	0.0	4.6
Long working hours	5.4	2.4	8.1
Family does not approve of the offer	8.6	0.0	16.3
Waiting for a better opportunity	10.1	9.3	10.8
Other	6.5	6.4	6.6

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

The SWTS also collects information about whether youth in Jordan have unrealistic wage expectations. The survey collects monthly "reservation wages", or those wages below which a person would not accept a job. The results (table 3.21) show that the average reservation wage for the total unemployed youth population was JOD 279.77. This suggests quite realistic expectations of young jobseekers, given that the actual average wage of young employees in the sample was JOD 265.41 (table 3.13). The average reservation wage is higher for unemployed young men than young women, but the difference is small (JOD 283.15 compared to JOD 275.11, respectively). Interestingly, wage expectations of the young unemployed in rural areas are slightly higher than those of their urban peers. A possible explanation could be that rural youth demand a wage premium for staying in their area instead of moving to urban environments.

Table 3.21 Monthly reservation wages of unemployed youth (Jordanian dinars) by sex and area of residence (in JOD)

Unemployed youth	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Total	279.77	103.70	90	900
Male	283.15	111.10	100	900
Female	275.11	92.35	90	800
Rural	290.15	109.80	90	900
Urban	277.97	102.49	100	800

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Table 3.22 indicates the occupations unemployed youth seek most. The figures largely reflect the distribution of the overall employed youth population (as shown in figure 3.7) across occupations. However, unemployed youth show a slightly more pronounced preference for more highly skilled occupations, which likely reflects the higher educational attainment of the youth labour force compared to the overall employed population.

Table 3.22 Unemployed youth by preferred occupation and sex (%)

Occupation sought	Total	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Legislator, senior official & manager	0.2	0.0	0.3
Professional	33.4	16.8	53.0
Technician & associate professional	7.9	6.0	10.1
Clerk	11.2	6.0	17.3
Service worker, shop & market sales worker	26.9	39.8	11.5
Skilled agricultural & fishery worker	0.8	0.9	0.6
Craft & related trades worker	8.2	13.3	2.1
Plant & machinery operator & assembler	4.2	7.8	0.0
Elementary occupations	7.4	9.3	5.0

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

The young unemployed in the sample were asked to identify what they considered as the main obstacle to finding work (table 3.23). The most frequently mentioned impediment was the lack of available jobs (41.4 per cent). Insufficient work experience to fulfil the job requirements (15.3 per cent) and an insufficient education/training level (14.2 per cent) were the second and third most common reasons given, respectively. Interestingly, only

0.5 per cent of respondents indicated that being male or female represented an obstacle. Given the high labour market segregation based on gender, jobseekers do not venture out of the traditional occupational boundaries and pre-select suitable job opportunities before trying to pursue them.

Table 3.23 Unemployed youth by main obstacles to finding work

Obstacle	%
Total	100.0
Requirements for job were higher than education/training received	14.2
Not enough work experience	15.3
Not enough jobs available	41.4
Considered too young	2.9
Being male/female	0.5
Discriminatory prejudices	5.0
Low wages in available jobs	8.6
Poor working conditions in available jobs	6.2
Did not know how or where to seek work	0.4
Other	5.6

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

3.7 Characteristics of youth outside the labour market (inactive youth)

As indicated in table 3.6, 60.6 per cent of the surveyed youth in Jordan were inactive. This percentage becomes more meaningful when disaggregated by sex, revealing that 64.0 per cent of youth outside the labour market were female and 36.0 per cent were male. According to the results shown in table 3.24, the dominant reason for inactivity was participation in education and training (69.6 per cent), accounting for almost the totality (92.1 per cent) of young men and more than one-half (57.0 per cent) of young women outside the labour force. The second most frequently mentioned reason was family and household responsibilities although, unlike education, this was an almost exclusively female reason. It was responsible for inactivity among women in nearly one-third of cases (32.1 per cent), but was negligible as a reason among men (0.3 per cent).

Table 3.24 Economically inactive youth by reasons for remaining out of the workforce and sex (%)

Reason	Total	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Education & training	69.6	92.1	57.0
Family & household responsibilities	20.7	0.3	32.1
Pregnancy	0.2	0.0	0.3
Illness, injury or handicap	1.3	2.2	0.8
Below working age	0.1	0.1	0.1
Lack of desire to work	4.3	1.0	6.1
Other	3.9	4.2	3.6

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Current students and preferred fields of study

At the time of the survey, students constituted 42.9 per cent of Jordan's youth population. Among students, 92.5 per cent were determined to complete higher education (67.7 per cent tertiary and 24.8 per cent other tertiary), and 4.0 per cent expected to complete secondary education.

Table 3.25 Current students by preferred field of study and sex (%)

Field of study	Total	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
General programmes	5.7	7.4	3.9
Education & teaching	12.2	6.0	18.2
Humanities & arts	7.7	4.5	10.9
Social science	24.1	25.8	22.6
Science	12.0	13.0	11.2
Engineering, manufacturing	20.7	28.7	12.8
Agriculture	0.9	1.1	0.8
Health & welfare	11.9	7.0	16.7
Services	3.5	5.0	2.0
Other	1.2	1.5	0.9

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

The survey asked current students to identify their preferred field of study. The most frequently mentioned field (by 24.1 per cent) was social science (table 3.25). Results for males and females for this field were rather close, and likely reflected similar aspirations of finding a government job. For all other educational fields, preferences tended to differ between the sexes. Engineering and manufacturing was the most preferred field of male respondents (28.7 per cent). Interestingly, it is the field of choice for 12.8 per cent of young women, a positive sign for overcoming traditional, gender-based stereotypes on "appropriate" sectors of Jordanian employment. Young women tended to prefer engineering and manufacturing more than science, humanities and arts, general programmes, services and agriculture. Not surprisingly, education and teaching ranked high among female preferences as the second most mentioned (accounting for 18.2 per cent of respondents), followed by health and welfare at 16.7 per cent. In contrast, only 6.0 per cent of young men considered education and teaching as their preferred field of study, and only 7.0 per cent of them mentioned health and welfare.

4. Stages of transition

In the preceding sections, the situation of Jordan's youth, whether employed, unemployed or inactive, was analysed, and their characteristics in each of these categories were examined. This section looks at another means of classifying youth, based on where they stand in their transition to the labour market. The labour market transition of young people concerns not only the length of time between their exit from education (either upon graduation or early exit without completion) and their first job, but also qualitative elements, such as whether the job is stable (measured by contract type). Specifically, this section covers the concepts and definitions of labour market transition; the stages of transition by sex, education level, age group and area of residence; youth who have not yet started the transition or are in transition and the characteristics of a completed transition; and transition paths and lengths.

4.1 Concepts and definitions[12]

Labour market transition is defined as the passage of a young person from the end of schooling (or entry to first economic activity) to the first stable or satisfactory job. Stable employment is defined in terms of the employment contract (written or oral) and the contract duration (greater than 12 months). Introducing the issue of a contract automatically excludes the employment status of self-employed, where the employment relationship is not defined by a contract. The opposite of stable employment is temporary employment, or wage and salaried employment of limited duration. Satisfactory employment is a subjective concept, based on the self-assessment of the jobholder. It implies that the respondent considers the job to be a good "fit" with their desired employment path at that moment in time. The contrary is termed non-satisfactory employment, implying a sense of dissatisfaction with the job. Based on this definition of labour market transition, the stages of transition are classified as follows:

Transited – A young person who has "transited" is one who is currently employed in:

- a stable job, whether satisfactory or non-satisfactory; or
- a satisfactory but temporary job; or
- satisfactory self-employment.

In transition – A young person still "in transition" is one who is currently:

- unemployed (relaxed definition); or
- employed in a temporary and non-satisfactory job; or
- in non-satisfactory self-employment; or
- inactive and not in school, with an aim to look for work later.

Transition not yet started – A young person whose "transition has not yet started" is one who is currently:

- still in school and inactive (inactive student); or
- inactive and not in school (inactive non-student), with no intention of looking for work.

Two elements of this classification are noteworthy. First, the stages of transition span across the boundaries of economic activity as defined in the standard labour force framework.[13] The "transited" category includes a sub-set of youth classified as employed; the remaining employed fall within the category of "in transition", which includes those who fall under the strict definition of unemployed and portions of the inactive (namely, those without work, available for work but not actively seeking work[14] and inactive non-students who have stated an intention to join the labour force at a later stage). The "transition not yet started" category is the residual of the inactive population.

Second, the stages of transition are not intended to be a normative framework. Because of the inclusion of youth in satisfactory self-employment and satisfactory

[12] This section is adapted from ILO (2013a), Chapter 5.

[13] The international guidelines for measuring statistics on the economically active population, set out by the 13th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) in 1982, provide the framework for measuring who is counted as employed and as unemployed according to the economic production boundaries set out by the System of National Accounts.

[14] This is the portion added to the "strictly" unemployed category to make up the unemployed (relaxed definition).

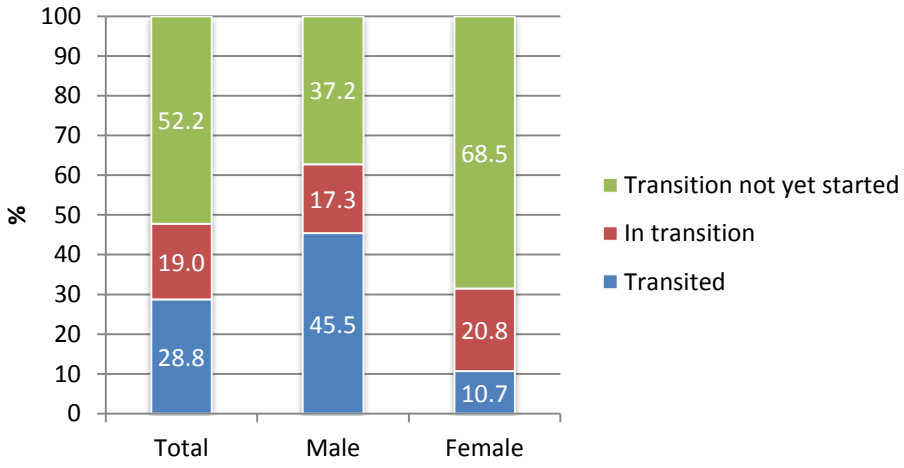
temporary employment, one cannot say that all young people in the transited category have transited to a "good" job. In fact, a majority of young people in self-employment – the own-account workers and unpaid family workers – are among the poorly paid workers in the informal economy and thus are included in the "low-quality" work segment shown in figure 3.9. Yet they have expressed a degree of satisfaction with their job, and they are likely to have finished their transition in the sense that they will remain in the self-employed classification for the remainder of their working lives.

4.2 Stages of transition by sex, age group and area of residence

Given the strong tendency toward inactivity among youth in Jordan, either because they are studying or are (female) family carers, it is not surprising that a majority of youth (52.2 per cent) fall into the category of transition not yet started (figure 4.1). On the other hand, the remaining 47.8 per cent of youth consist of those who completed their transition to stable and/or satisfactory employment (28.8 per cent) or are still in transition (19.0 per cent).

Figure 4.1 shows stages of transition by sex and confirms that young males were much more likely to have completed their transition than their female peers. Only 10.7 per cent of young women achieved stable and/or satisfactory employment, versus almost one-half of young men (45.5 per cent). Sadly, the female disadvantage in the transition to work is far from being exclusive to Jordan. A benchmark calculated from a sample of ten countries[15] indicates that young men are on average 1.4 times more likely than women to have transited. However, Jordan's gender gap is particularly wide, as males are more than four times as likely as their female peers to have completed the transition. Conversely, a greater proportion of young females than males had not yet started the transition (68.5 per cent versus 37.2 per cent, respectively). A combination of two factors is seen as the cause; namely, that women tend to stay longer in education and they marry earlier and are expected to take up full-time family responsibilities.

Figure 4.1 Youth population by stages of transition and sex



Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

[15] Data from the SWTS of Armenia, Cambodia, Egypt, Jordan, Liberia, Malawi, Peru, the Russian Federation, The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Togo, as reported in ILO (2013a), Chapter 5.

Not surprisingly, of the transited youth surveyed, 86.2 per cent belonged to the upper-age groups (table 4.1). On the other hand, the majority (63.9 per cent) of youth who had not yet started the transition were aged 15–19, the typical school age for those who attain secondary education. This age group was also significantly represented among youth in transition (29.9 per cent) and accounted for a minor share of those transited (13.8 per cent). Transited youth were predominantly male (82.1 per cent), while young women accounted for a large share (63.0 per cent) of youth whose transition had not yet started. Those in transition were quite evenly divided between the sexes. With regard to urban or rural area of residence, the distribution of youth was consistent across the three transition categories and matched the distribution of the country's overall population.

Table 4.1 Youth population by stage of transition and selected characteristics (%)

Characteristic	Stage of transition		
	Transited	In transition	Transition not yet started
Age group	100.0	100.0	100.0
15–19	13.8	29.9	63.9
20–24	44.4	42.4	24.3
25–29	41.8	27.7	11.8
Sex	100.0	100.0	100.0
Male	82.1	47.5	37.0
Female	17.9	52.5	63.0
Area of residence	100.0	100.0	100.0
Urban	81.8	81.0	82.2
Rural	18.2	19.0	17.8

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

4.2.1 Youth who have not yet started the transition

The results of the SWTS show that most of the youth population (76.2 per cent) that had not yet started the transition was in education (inactive students), while the remaining youth (23.8 per cent) were inactive non-students with no intention of looking for work. The students were quite evenly split between males and females (47.4 per cent and 52.6 per cent, respectively). Conversely, the inactive non-students with no intention to work were virtually all female (96.4 per cent). This is because of the traditional roles of Jordan's women, who are expected to give priority to their family responsibilities despite the fact that they may have completed their education and been potentially ready for the labour market.

4.2.2 Youth in transition

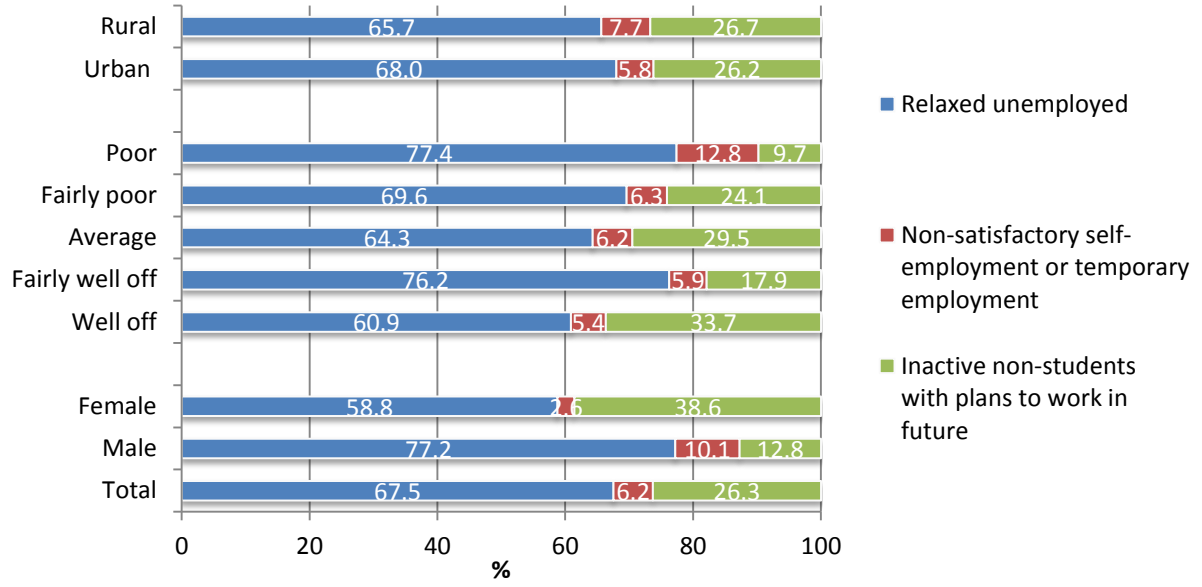
A young person is classified as in transition if they are either unemployed (relaxed definition), engaged in self-employment or in a paid temporary job that they have expressed dissatisfaction with, or are an inactive non-student with an attachment to the labour market, indicated by their desire to work in the future. Interestingly, figure 4.2 shows that the largest share (67.5 per cent) of surveyed youth in transition was classified as such because they were unemployed. A further 26.3 per cent were inactive non-students with an attachment to the labour market, and only a limited proportion (6.2 per cent) was in non-satisfactory temporary employment or in self-employment. These results point at the low tendency of young people in Jordan to quickly accept sub-optimal work opportunities. The data reviewed so far suggest that youth are likely to place a high value

on stable employment and, until the possibility to achieve it presents itself, they would rather keep searching or wait for future opportunities to arise.

Young men were relatively more likely to be in transition due to unemployment (77.2 per cent of those in transition) than young women (58.8 per cent). It is not surprising to find that a much larger share of women than men (38.6 per cent versus 12.8 per cent, respectively) were in the category of inactive non-students with an aim to look for work in the future. It can be argued that women in this group had recently taken up family caring duties and had taken a break from their economic activity, hoping to enter the labour market later on. Interestingly, 10.1 per cent of young males in transition were in the sub-category of non-satisfactory self-employment or temporary employment. This is quite a low result and confirms the findings discussed earlier in this report about the high rates of regular employment and low self-employment among Jordan's youth. The percentage of women in this category was only 2.6 per cent.

Figure 4.2 also provides a disaggregation of survey results by area of residence and level of household income. No discernible difference was seen in the distribution of youth across transition stages in urban versus rural areas. The disaggregation of results by income level reveals that youth from poor households had a much lower propensity to be inactive non-students and a much higher tendency to accept non-satisfactory employment than well-off youth. The proportion of inactive youth among those transitioning in higher-income ("well-off") households was more than three times greater than the proportion in poor households. However, youth in transition in well-off households were only half as likely to have accepted a non-satisfactory job as their poorer peers. The results for all income levels, except for the fairly well-off category, seem to confirm that the tendency towards inactivity increases with income, while readiness to accept sub-optimal employment diminishes as household income grows.

Figure 4.2 Youth in transition by sub-category and area of residence, household income level and sex



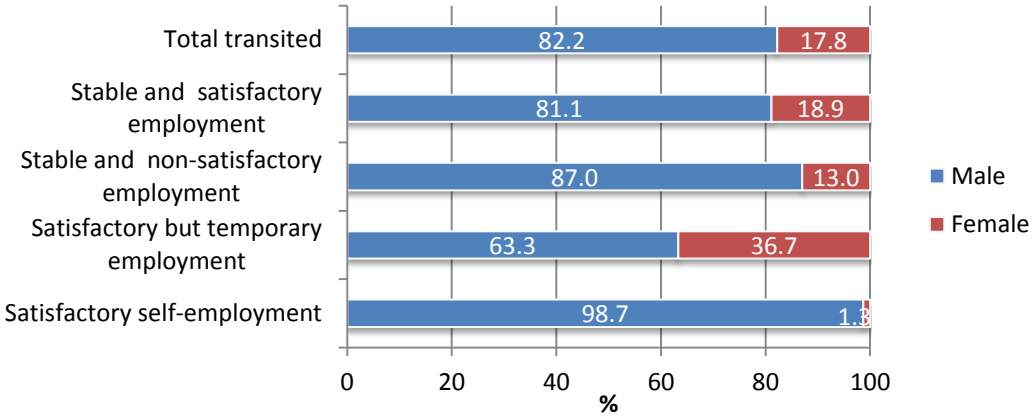
Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

4.3 Characteristics of a completed transition

Figure 4.3 shows, as would be expected, that by far the largest share of transited youth surveyed consisted of males. While young men accounted for 82.2 per cent, young women represented only 17.8 per cent of those transited. Women were underrepresented in each sub-category of transited youth, and particularly among those that included the

achievement of a stable job. These results reflect the overall underrepresentation of women in the economically active population.

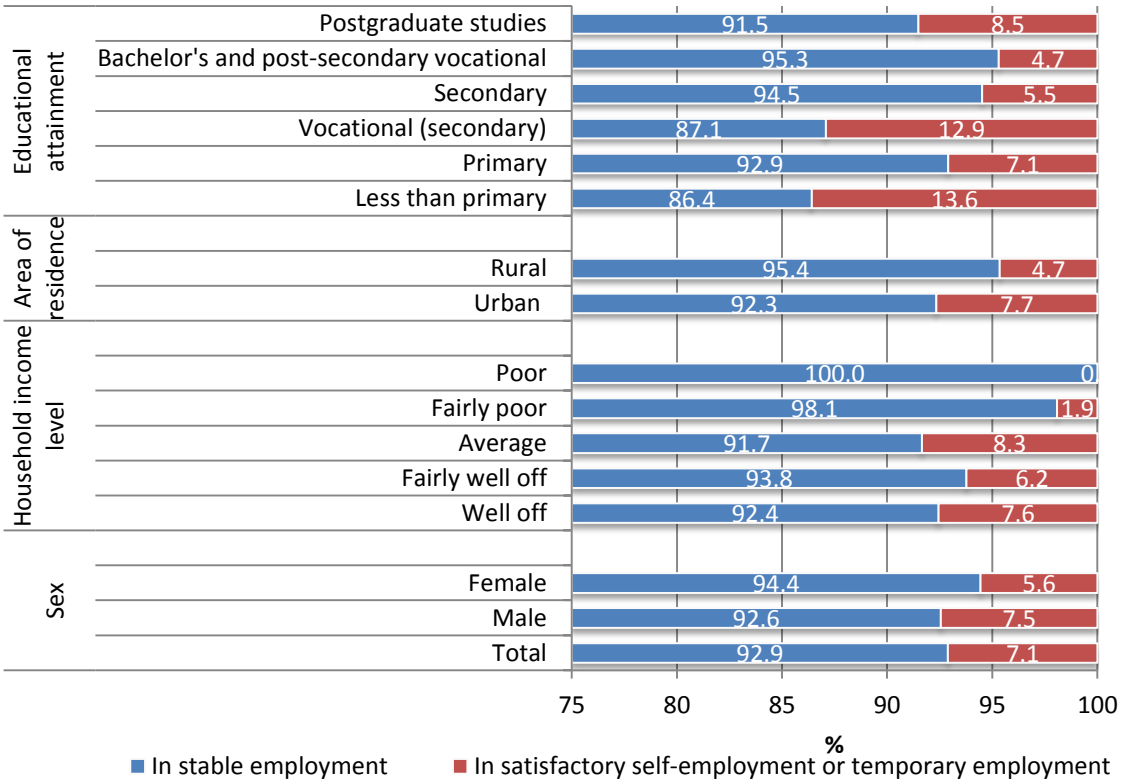
Figure 4.3 Transited youth by sub-category and sex



Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Figure 4.4 shows that, overall, the transited youth surveyed were mostly in stable and satisfactory employment (92.9 per cent). The disaggregation by sex reveals that a transited young woman in Jordan was slightly more likely to be in satisfied and stable employment than a transited young man. However, it is important to point out that the proportion of transited young women was limited to 10.7 per cent of all young women surveyed (figure 4.1). The educational attainment of the transited women was mostly tertiary-level (72.3 per cent). These elements suggest that young women who complete their transitions to satisfactory and/or stable employment belong to a highly educated elite that has access to the few best-quality jobs available.

Figure 4.4 Transited youth by sub-category and level of completed education, area of residence, household income level and sex



Note: Statistics on level of completed education exclude current students.
Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Transited young men, on the other hand, made up 45.5 per cent of the surveyed young males (figure 4.1). Over one-half of young men who had transited (53.2 per cent) achieved primary-education level or less. This suggests that lower-skilled occupations, suitable for men but not for women in Jordan's society, may offer a larger scope of employment opportunities than those which are open to young women.

The proportion of transited rural youth in stable employment was slightly higher than that of their counterparts in urban areas. This is likely explained by the fact that, in rural settings, there are few alternatives to public employment, which offers stable contracts. In cities, on the other hand, there may be a relatively higher availability of short-term jobs with private employers or in self-employment.

A breakdown of transited youth by educational attainment shows mixed results. The survey findings suggest that higher educational achievement is frequently associated with an increased likelihood of attaining stable employment. Besides those with less than primary education, young people with secondary-level vocational education made up the highest share of those in self- or temporary employment (12.9 per cent). The disaggregation of findings by household income shows that, interestingly, young people from poor and fairly poor families had the largest proportion in stable employment (100.0 per cent and 98.1 per cent, respectively) compared to other income levels. In fact, the lowest income group had no youth in self- or temporary employment, and only 1.9 per cent of the second-lowest income level were in this sub-category. The likelihood was higher among the other income groups, ranging from 6.2 per cent among the fairly well-off youth and 8.3 per cent among the youth from average income households.

Table 4.2 shows the distribution of the transited youth surveyed across sectors of employment. As expected, transited youth were primarily in the public administration and defence and compulsory social security sector, where almost one-third (31.9 per cent) were employed. The second largest share of transited youth was employed in the wholesale and retail sector (16.4 per cent), and the third largest in manufacturing (10.2 per cent).

Table 4.2 Transited youth by employment sector according to 1-digit ISCO categorization

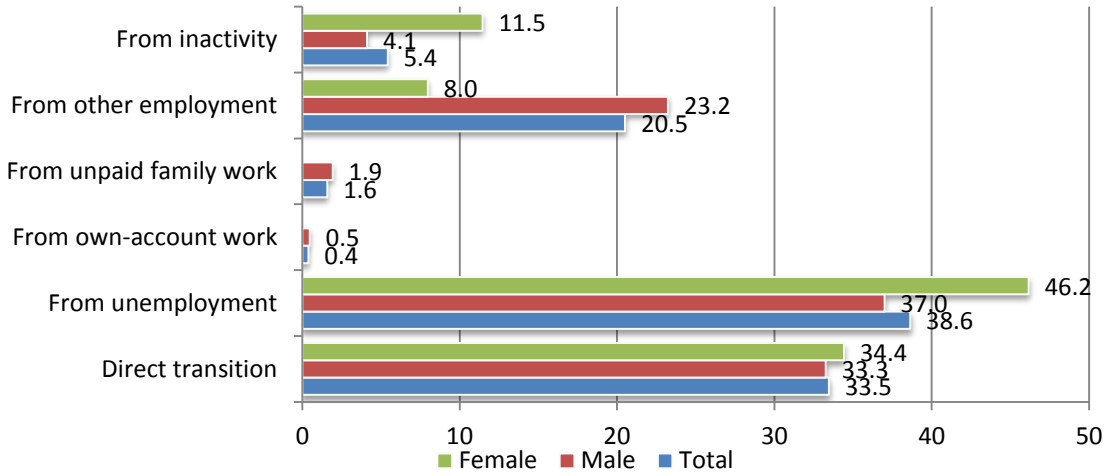
Sector of employment	%
Agriculture, forestry & fishing	1.0
Manufacturing	10.2
Construction	5.8
Wholesale & retail trade; repair of motor vehicles & motorcycles	16.4
Transportation & storage	4.1
Accommodation & food service activities	3.6
Professional, scientific & technical activities	2.1
Public administration & defence, compulsory social security	31.9
Education	9.8
Human health & social work activities	6.5
Other service activities	2.3

Note: Sectors employing less than 2 per cent of the total are not reported in this table.
Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

4.4 Transition paths and lengths

Another means of examining the transition is through flows and identifying the labour market category held by youth prior to their transiting to stable and/or satisfactory employment. Figure 4.5 shows that young people tended to move to stable and/or satisfactory employment from either unemployment (38.6 per cent) or directly from education (33.5 per cent). A smaller percentage (20.5 per cent) experienced other, non-satisfactory and/or temporary positions before completing the transition. Only 5.4 per cent transited from inactivity. This finding is not surprising, and has implications for the large percentage of inactive young women in the population. A disaggregation of the results by sex shows that similar proportions of males and females moved directly from education to stable and/or satisfactory employment. Women, on the other hand, experienced unemployment more often during their transition. This is likely related to the limited opportunities suitable for female employment. Young men, on the other hand, had a wider set of options: 23.2 per cent from the sample transited from other employment, versus only 8.0 per cent of young women.

Figure 4.5 Youth flows from transited category to stable and/or satisfactory employment by sex



Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Table 4.3 provides additional indicators on the transition paths of Jordan's youth. Those who did not move directly from education to stable and/or satisfactory employment faced a very long transition of 32.8 months (2.7 years) on average. Interestingly, young women tended to complete their transition slightly faster than their male peers (31.2 months versus 33.2 months on average, respectively). However, as shown in figure 4.5, young men were more likely to work and earn money during their transition, whereas the majority of women were found in unemployment or inactivity before they achieved stable and/or satisfactory employment.

The survey found that Jordan's youth experienced on average 1.1 spells of unemployment during their transition paths, but those spells were long ones, averaging 22.1 months for young men and 23.1 months for young women. Surveyed youth faced on average 1.1 spells of labour market activity (or inactivity) during their transition processes. As far as employment is concerned, transited youth experienced an average of 1.3 spells of temporary employment, with an average duration per spell of 20.6 months. Young males faced both a relatively higher number and longer duration of temporary employment spells than their female peers. Self-employment, as already observed earlier in this report, was found predominantly among males. The survey findings show that transited men underwent on average 1.0 periods of self-employment of significant duration (46.1

months). Spells of inactivity in the transition path were much longer for young women than young men, at 40.5 and 26.3 months, respectively.

Table 4.3 Indicators on the transition paths of transited youth by sex

Indicator	Average		
	Total	Male	Female
Length of transition (months) – excluding direct transition	32.8	33.2	31.2
Length of transition (months) – including direct transition	17.0	16.6	19.0
Length of transition to stable employment (months) – including direct transition	17.0	16.7	18.4
Length of transition to satisfactory self- or temporary employment (months) – including direct transition	17.9	15.9	29.6
Number of unemployment spells	1.1	1.0	1.1
Number of inactivity spells	1.1	1.1	1.0
Length of inactivity spells (months)	30.9	26.3	40.5
Length of unemployment spells (months)	22.3	22.1	23.1
Number of temporary employment spells	1.3	1.4	1.0
Length of temporary employment spells (months)	20.2	20.6	18.8
Number of spells of self-employment	1.0	1.0	*
Length of self-employment spells (months)	46.1	46.1	*

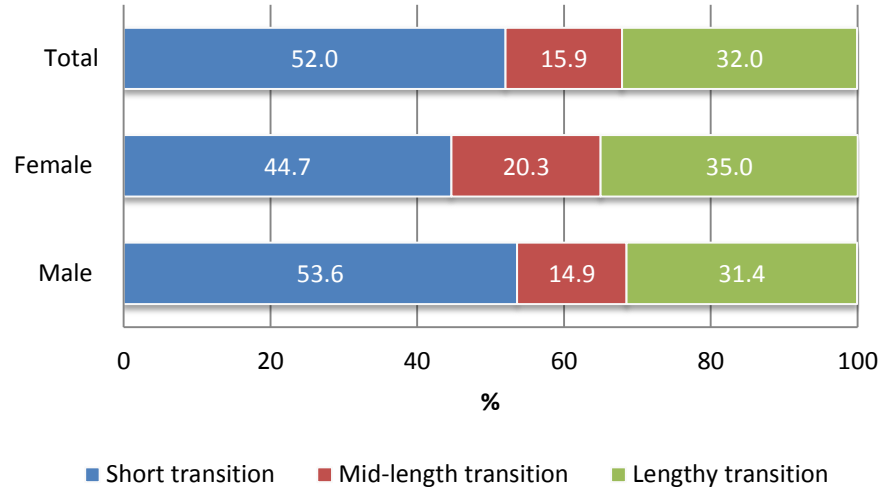
* Response rate was insufficient to produce reliable numbers.

Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

The ILO has also developed a classification system for the length of transition period of youth who have attained stable and/or satisfactory employment.[16] Figure 4.6 shows the results based on the survey. Overall, 52.0 per cent of the transitions of youth in stable and/or satisfactory employment at the time of the survey can be classified as short, while 32.0 per cent faced a lengthy transition. The coexistence of these extremes reflects two facts. On the one hand, a significant percentage of the youth population experienced a direct transition (33.5 per cent, figure 4.5). On the other hand, those who did not transit directly found themselves stuck in either unemployment, short-term jobs or inactivity for a long period of time (32.8 months on average, table 4.3). Transited youth who experienced a mid-length transition period represented 15.9 per cent of the sample.

[16] A **short transition** is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent: (1) a direct transition; or (2) a spell (or cumulative spells) of stable or satisfactory employment with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or (3) a spell (or cumulative spells) of employment of less than or equal to 1 year with no spell of unemployment or inactivity where the job(s) held is(are) classified as non-satisfactory self- or temporary employment; or (4) a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of less than or equal to 3 months; or (5) a spell of inactivity of less than or equal to 1 year. A **mid-length transition** is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent: (1) a spell (or cumulative spells) of non-satisfactory self- or temporary employment of between 1 and 2 years with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or (2) a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of between 3 months and 1 year; or (3) a spell of inactivity longer than 1 year. A **lengthy transition** is classified as one in which, before obtaining the current satisfactory/stable job, the young person underwent: (1) a spell (or cumulative spells) of non-satisfactory self- or temporary employment of 2 years or over with no spell of unemployment or inactivity; or (2) a spell of unemployment with or without spells of employment or inactivity of 1 year or over.

Figure 4.6 Transited youth by length of transition and sex



Note: Transited youth= those in stable and/or satisfactory employment
Source: SWTS-Jordan, 2012–13.

Young males were more likely than females to have achieved their current stable and/or satisfactory employment after a short transition (53.6 per cent versus 44.7 per cent, respectively). On the other hand, proportionally more young women than men had a mid-length transition (20.3 per cent versus 14.9 per cent of transited men) or a lengthy one (35.0 per cent versus 31.4 per cent of men). This is in line with the results in table 4.3 showing that females tended to experience longer spells of unemployment and inactivity.

The survey data revealed that youth remaining in transition spent, on average, 52.4 months within this stage (meaning they were unemployed, in non-satisfactory self- or temporary employment, or inactive non-students with plans to work, or any combination of the three). The length of time that young women had already spent in transition up to the time of the survey was 52.1 months, versus 52.6 for young men.

5. Relevant policy frameworks and policy implications

5.1 Policy frameworks

This section briefly reviews Jordan's existing policies relevant to youth employment issues. The Government has been active in ensuring that the policy-making process responds to the current challenges faced by young people in securing a smooth transition to the labour market. The policy effort includes overarching development strategies such as the Jordan Poverty Reduction Strategy and the Jordanian National Agenda, and employment-oriented measures like Jordan's National Employment Strategy. The high priority placed by the Government on human resources development is demonstrated by the Employment-Technical Vocational Education and Training Strategy. The country's recognition of the social and economic opportunities lost to gender inequality is behind the National Strategy for Women in Jordan.

Jordan Poverty Reduction Strategy 2013 and action plan

The new Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRS) was approved in 2013 to contain and reduce poverty, vulnerability and inequality in Jordan's socio-economic environment through 2013 by adopting a holistic and results-oriented approach, which targets poor and below-middle-class households.

The specific goals that the Government of Jordan aims to achieve through the strategy are to:

1. better harmonize all public, private and civil society poverty-reduction programming;
2. deliver expanded, increasingly aligned and better-targeted social protection measures to members of poor and vulnerable households;
3. provide more gainful employment to Jordanians, especially youth, women and people with disabilities;
4. work towards the elimination of child labour;
5. provide micro- and small-business incentives and more effective microfinance to male and female members of poor and vulnerable households;
6. supply more accessible and affordable basic health services to male and female members of poor and vulnerable households, the elderly and people with disabilities;
7. supply more accessible basic education services and more effective vocational training to male and female members of poor and vulnerable households, the elderly and people with disabilities;
8. alleviate the impacts of climate change and environmental degradation upon the members of poor and vulnerable households; and
9. provide improved transport, housing and utilities to members of poor and vulnerable households.

The strategy requires resource mobilization for its implementation across a range of ministries and public agencies, as well as the establishment of new institutional arrangements. For instance, the strategy establishes a "PRS Unit", with the responsibility to work closely with the DOS to ensure that the necessary data and technical supports are in place to enable development, monitoring and evaluation of the strategy. The Unit also has the role of coordinating with public agencies to ensure availability of necessary data, facilitating improved measurement of policy outcomes, and developing synergies. Within the strategy, the Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation is responsible for providing the Unit with detailed training on monitoring and evaluation, and will generally support the Ministry of Social Development in implementing the PRS. Given the cross-cutting nature of both poverty and the necessary policy responses, the strategy envisages the creation of a PRS implementation group consisting of senior public servants from the key public agencies involved in the strategy's implementation. The group is chaired by the Prime Minister, and includes representatives from several ministries.

Following the official approval of the PRS, a detailed action plan will be developed. The plan is expected to set out, in detail, the specific actions to be taken, to identify the agency (or agencies) responsible for implementation of different actions, and to identify resource requirements. The action plan should also include a detailed monitoring and evaluation framework, identifying key performance indicators against which implementation will be assessed, as well as poverty reduction indicators monitoring the achievement of the PRS outcomes and relevant Millennium Development Goals.

Jordanian National Agenda (2006–2015)

Under King Abdullah II, Jordan has embarked upon an extensive socio-economic reform strategy, the National Agenda, to address key economic and social development issues over a decade. The Agenda's aim is to achieve consistent policies and ensure they will not be subject to Government changes, while taking into account the need to regularly develop and update the policies. To monitor and report on its implementation by means of key performance indicators, the Agenda established a Ministry of Government Performance within the Prime Ministry.

The National Agenda foresees three phases of socio-economic development for Jordan. The first phase spans a period of 5 years, and focuses on creating employment opportunities by promoting export-oriented, labour-intensive industries, education, infrastructure and legislation regulating political life. The second phase focuses on gradually upgrading and strengthening the industrial base, and the third phase prepares the ground for the development of high-value-added sectors in the knowledge economy.

The National Agenda introduced, for the first time in Jordan, a clear mechanism to measure implementation of the initiatives and evaluate the impact of reforms. It also set clear targets for each initiative, which have to be met over a period of 10 years, with priorities reflected in the budget, supported by performance indicators to measure and assess the degree of success of implementation.

Specifically regarding employment issues, the National Agenda includes reducing the high rate of unemployment and addressing the mismatch between labour supply and demand. It also advocates for the reinforcement of links between employment and training to facilitate Jordanians' inclusion in the labour market. In addition, the policy sets quantitative overall targets, such as the number of new jobs to be created for both men and women. Youth are a specific concern of the National Agenda, particularly in the sections addressing issues of quality and relevance of education and training.

Jordan's National Employment Strategy 2011–2020 and action plan

The National Employment Strategy (NES) is based on a comprehensive document including analytical considerations on the main issues and priorities in the labour market, and suggested ways forward under different scenarios.

The NES was prepared by a technical team that selected 69 different actions for implementation. The criteria for selecting the actions, which were chosen from a total of more than 160 considered, included a demonstration of a clear link of the action to either reaching an outcome or reducing/eliminating a challenge; a significant impact on employment; realism and feasibility; and complexity of implementation. Activities requiring substantial coordination across sectors and ministries, as well as input from stakeholders, were also included.

The strategy document is complemented by an action plan, which was approved by the Council of Ministers in May 2011. The final action plan was then further elaborated into an implementation plan, which outlined for each action the main public agency responsible for oversight and delivery of the action, the other implementation partners, the resources required and a timetable.

The strategy sets specific objectives for the demand and supply sides of the labour market. On the demand side, the strategic goals are to enable the private sector to move up the value chain and increase value added, to improve its productivity and to expand its ability to export products and services. On the supply side, the goal is to graduate a skilled and motivated labour force armed with employable skills and technical know-how as demanded by the labour market. In addition, the strategy has institutional framework goals;

they address the ability of the Government to carry out strategic planning for policy implementation, monitoring and evaluation, and to establish a social protection floor and access to health insurance, independent of whether workers are in the public or private sector, and regardless of the size of the enterprise.

Regarding youth, the strategy targets the main employment challenges faced by young Jordanians. They include the transition from school to work, ensuring reliable and updated labour market information, the relevance and quality of technical and/or vocational skills and of general education, and the matching of labour demand and supply.

Employment-Technical Vocational Education and Training Strategy

The Employment-Technical Vocational Education and Training (E-TVET) Strategy was introduced in 2006. While its main focus is human resources development (HRD), and technical and vocational education and training in particular, the strategy also includes employment objectives such as reducing the unemployment rate, especially among young people. The strategy complements the more comprehensive HRD strategy approved by the Cabinet in 1998.

A major feature of the strategy is its establishment of an E-TVET Council, which has responsibility over planning, policy-making and coordination for employment and TVET at the national level. In addition, the strategy aims to develop the role and involvement of the current Employment and Training Fund in financing the various E-TVET systems, programmes and services.

National Strategy for Women in Jordan 2012–2015

Over the last generation, Jordan has achieved significant progress in addressing some gender challenges within Jordanian society. Mostly, such progress is noticeable in education. Young women in the country show higher enrolment rates than young men, and their performance tends to be higher. These results are a critical step in addressing the gender gaps that characterize so many aspects of the social and economic life in Jordan. However, the way towards equality of opportunity for both sexes is still long.

The National Strategy for Women in Jordan 2012–2015 aims to build on the progress made and to further advance women's empowerment both economically and politically. It includes several "strategy axes", or areas for intervention, such as women and education, women and health, and violence against women. The strategy sets targets on women's inclusion, including quantitative targets (e.g. unemployment rates of females versus males, the number of self-employed women, the share of women in policy-making positions).

The Jordanian National Commission for Women is responsible for studying challenges in the execution of the strategy and finding solutions through cooperation with concerned institutions. The commission is also responsible for activating coordination with institutions and organizations concerned with women's affairs, including governmental institutions, civil community organizations, the private sector and international donor organizations.

5.2 Policy implications

While the policy efforts reviewed in the section above are impressive, the findings of this report show that more needs to be done in addressing unemployment, issues of skills mismatch and decent work deficits in the country. The survey results point to a labour market that can offer good jobs, but to an insufficient number of youth. For those who do not transit directly from higher education to a stable job, transitions are long and difficult.

The survey found that a combination of supply and demand-side factors is behind the difficulties young people in Jordan face in entering the labour market. In formulating policy responses, policy-makers need to take into account the multi-faceted nature of the challenge. Areas of possible action include:

- **Job creation needs to be boosted**. Most unemployed youth attribute their difficulty finding work to the insufficient number of jobs available. The number of new jobs produced by the public sector every year amounts to a fraction of the labour market entrants. This means that the private sector needs to contribute more prominently to the job creation capacity of the economy of Jordan. To this end, the country should improve its capability to support the expansion of the private sector. More needs to be done to offer an enabling environment for businesses to establish themselves and thrive, including facilitating access to credit and to basic services (such as access to electricity).

- **Access to education can be further expanded**. Young people in Jordan enjoy good access to education, including higher education. However, youth from poor households still represent a minority of secondary graduates and only a minor percentage of tertiary graduates. Ensuring that youth from lower-income families can choose to access higher education will enable the country to take better advantage of its talent pool, and will raise productivity. Most importantly, the wage premium that comes with higher education will have a positive impact in tackling Jordan's poverty rate. The survey found that the average wage of young employees increases consistently with educational attainment. The potential of education should therefore be exploited fully, to break poverty traps and set virtuous cycles of increased educational attainment and better quality employment.

- **Gender-based disparities in the labour market must be reduced.** The survey found that the vast majority of young women (80.7 per cent) were inactive, and more than one-third of them were inactive and not in school. Young women were also more likely to attain higher education than young men. These facts show that forgoing women's potential contribution to the Jordanian labour force represents not only a social, but also an economic loss, since the investment made in female education will not reap its economic fruit. Addressing gender gaps in the labour market should start with a detailed collection of data on the multiplicity of obstacles facing young women in their attempts to enter the labour market, or in their daily work life. The nature of such barriers changes widely from urban to rural areas and from city to city. More clarity is required on this subject in order for policy-makers to design a pragmatic response. The National Strategy for Women in Jordan is a step in the right direction to promote women's inclusion and monitor it against quantitative targets. However implementation has been patchy, whereas it would require to be sustained by action and advocacy at all levels of society and government institutions.

- **The potential of vocational education needs to be harnessed.** Skills mismatch at the time of the survey affected more than one-half of employed youth. Most of these youth were found to be undereducated for the job they were performing. This seems to confirm that the educational system in Jordan is not prepared to equip young people with the skills required by medium-skilled occupations. Mostly, education caters for the requirements of public sector employment, which absorbs highly-educated jobseekers. The very small share of youth attending or completing vocational education is an additional sign of missing skills within the youth labour force. Attracting more young people to vocational education should remain a priority for the Government of Jordan. A high-quality vocational education, which leads to good jobs, will gain popularity among young people and their families, as they see that graduates move smoothly into employment. In order to ensure female

participation, vocational education must be equally organized in sectors of interest to young women.

- **Youth need to be introduced to business concepts.** Only 2.8 per cent of young workers in the survey were classified as own-account workers and another 1.7 per cent as employers. More than half of the self-employed youth have completed only primary education. While low numbers of enterprises run by youth is not surprising in a middle-income country where paid job opportunities are frequently available, age alone cannot explain such low figures. Entrepreneurship is not significantly higher among adults in the country. In order to succeed in expanding its private sector, the country should make efforts to nurture the entrepreneurial culture among youth in school. The "business acumen" required to become an entrepreneur can be instilled in students so that they might consider starting up a business as a viable option later in life. In addition, an adequate range of highly professional business support services can be set up, including incubators that combine mentorship, access to finance, and even provision of office space. Furthermore, in a context like Jordan, raising the attractiveness of entrepreneurship among young people themselves as well as their families must play a critical role. Experience in other countries has shown that promotional campaigns around stories of successful entrepreneurs can inspire youth toward this career option. Needless to say, these efforts can only be successful if accompanied by reform to improve the business enabling environment, as discussed earlier.

- **Access to basic rights at work needs to be extended to all youth**. More than one-half of youth is in informal employment according to the survey results. Most of the informally employed worked for a formally registered employer, but did not have access to a basic set of benefits. The response to this problem is two-fold. First, policy-makers need to strengthen the provision of rights at work through legislation and set up an adequate system of incentives for employers to hire young people in decent jobs. Second, the enforcement of legislation needs to be monitored effectively through mechanisms of labour inspection.

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Annex I. Definitions of labour market statistics

1. The following units are defined according to the standards of the International Conference of Labour Statisticians:

a. The **employed** include all persons of 15 years of age or more who during a week of reference:
   - worked for wage or profit (in cash or in kind) for at least one hour;
   - were temporarily absent from work (because of illness, leave, studies, a break of the activity of the firm, etc.), but had a formal attachment to their job;
   - performed some work without pay for family gain.

b. The **unemployed** (strictly defined) include all persons of 15 years of age or more who meet the following three conditions during the week of reference:
   - They did not work (according to the abovementioned definition);
   - They were actively searching for a job or took concrete action to start their own business;
   - They were available to start work within the two weeks following the reference week.

c. Persons neither included in the employed nor in the unemployed category are classified as **not in the labour force (also known as inactive)**.

2. The International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE) categorizes the employed population on the basis of their explicit or implicit contract of employment, as follows:

a. **Employees** (also wage and salaried workers) are all those workers who hold the type of jobs defined as "paid employment jobs", where the incumbents hold explicit (written or oral) or implicit employment contracts that give them a basic remuneration that is not directly dependent upon the revenue of the unit for which they work.

b. **Employers** are those workers who, working on their own account or with one or a few partners, hold the type of jobs defined as "self-employment jobs" (i.e. jobs where the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profits derived from the goods and services produced) and, in this capacity, have engaged, on a continuous basis, one or more persons to work for them as employee(s).

c. **Own-account workers** are those who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, hold the type of jobs defined as "self-employment jobs" and have not engaged, on a continuous basis, any employees to work for them.

d. **Contributing (unpaid) family workers** are those who hold "self-employment jobs" as own-account workers in a market-oriented establishment operated by a related person living in the same household.

3. The employed are also classified by their main occupation, in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-08).

4. A **household** is every family or other community of persons living together and jointly spending their income to satisfy the basic necessities of life. The concept of household includes members present in the place where the household resides, as well as individuals who are temporarily absent and living elsewhere, including abroad, for business, education or other, as long as their residence in the foreign country does not exceed 1 year. A person living alone can also qualify as a household ("single household") if s/he does not already belong to another unit. The single household can reside in a separate or shared apartment,

considered as an independent unit as long as the household's income is not shared with other residents. Collective households, such as prisons and institutions, and their members, are not observed in a traditional Labour Force Survey.

5. **The reporting period**, to which the questions for the economic activity are related, is the week before the week of interview (52 reporting weeks throughout the year).

6. The following units are also defined within the SWTS analysis but are outside the scope of those defined within the international framework of labour market statistics mentioned in item I1 above:

   a. **Relaxed unemployment** – a person without work and available to work (relaxing the jobseeking criteria of item I1b above).

   b. **Labour underutilization rate** – the sum of shares of youth in irregular employment, unemployed (relaxed definition) and youth neither in the labour force nor in education/training (inactive non-students) as a percentage of the youth population.

   c. **Regular employment** – the sum of employees with a contract (oral or written) of 12 months or more in duration and employers; the indicators are therefore a mix of information on status in employment and contract situations.

   d. **Satisfactory employment** – based on self-assessment of the jobholder; implies a job that the respondent considers to "fit" to their desired employment path at that moment in time.

   e. **Stable employment** – employees with a contract (oral or written) of 12 months or more in duration.

   f. **Temporary employment** – employees with a contract (oral or written) of less than 12 months in duration.

Annex II. Additional statistical tables

The source for all tables is the school-to-work transition survey in Jordan, 2012–13.

Table A.1 Number of primary and secondary sampling units by governorate

Governorate	Primary sampling units (blocks)	Secondary sampling units (families)	Families (completed)	Youth (aged 15–29)	Youth (aged 15–29) (completed)
Amman	118	3 540	2 740	2 132	1 785
Balqa	20	600	437	456	377
Zarqa	46	1380	1067	995	878
Madaba	6	180	153	161	141
Irbid	53	1 590	1 224	1 206	1 044
Mafraq	12	360	263	357	340
Jerash	8	240	204	217	190
Ajloun	7	210	169	161	144
Karak	11	330	269	235	224
Tafila	4	120	102	92	86
Ma'an	5	150	100	106	102
Aqaba	6	180	120	111	94
Total	296	8 880	6 848	6 229	5 405

Table A.2 Migrating youth by original area of residence, reason for migration and sex (%)

Original area of residence & reason for migration	Total	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Large city	15.5	12.2	17.7
Urban area	34.3	34.3	34.3
Rural area	8.0	6.8	8.9
Refugee camp	1.6	1.7	1.6
Within the area	17.8	15.5	19.4
Another country	22.7	29.5	18.1
Reason for migration			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Studying/training	1.9	3.6	0.8
Employment	4.2	7.5	2.0
Accompanying family	91.3	87.2	94.1
Other	2.6	1.7	3.1

Table A.3 Financial inclusion of youth

Financial service used	%
None	93.5
Business loans	1.6
Emergency loans	1.7
Consumptions loans	2.1
Other services	1.4

Table A.4 Young students combining work and study by sex (%)

	Total	Male	Female
Working during the school term	1.8	2.6	1.0
Working outside the school term	3.1	5.6	0.4
Working during and outside the school term	1.1	1.8	0.4
Did not work	94.0	90.1	98.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table A.5 Young workers who want to change their job by reason and sex (%)

Reason	Total	Male	Female
Working youth stating a desire to change job	28.8	27.9	32.5
Reason			
Present job is temporary	23.7	21.7	31.6
Fear of losing present job	7.2	6.3	10.4
To work more hours paid at the current rate	1.3	1.3	1.6
To have a higher pay per hour	26.2	27.4	21.3
To work less hours with a reduction in pay	1.7	1.5	2.2
To better use qualifications/skills	9.0	8.6	10.7
More convenient working time, shorter commuting time	3.1	3.6	1.2
To improve working conditions	26.8	28.6	19.8
Other	1.1	1.0	1.2

Table A.6 Self-employed youth by reason for choosing self-employment

Reason	%
Could not find a wage or salaried job	33.3
Greater independence	65.9
More flexible working hours	16.6
Higher income level	15.5
Required by the family	6.7

Table A.7 Discouraged youth by how they spend their time

Way to spend time	%
Meet friends, go dancing, go out to drink/eat	37.6
Help with household chores	40.9
Play on computer	41.8
Watch TV	73.3
Other	22.6

Table A.8 Young wage and salaried workers by type of contract, contract duration and 1-digit ISCO categorization (%)

Sector of employment	Type of contract		Type of contract (by duration)		Length of contract (for contracts of limited duration)		
	Written	Oral	Unlimited	Limited	Less than 1 year	1 year to less than 3 years	3 years or more
Manufacturing	41.0	59.0	86.9	13.1	16.9	61.0	22.1
Construction	19.1	80.9	74.0	26.0	58.9	15.8	25.2
Wholesale & retail trade; repair of motor vehicles & motorcycles	25.1	74.9	88.1	11.9	59.0	28.8	12.2
Transportation & storage	45.4	54.6	81.4	18.6	16.9	61.5	21.6
Accommodation & food service activities	55.4	44.6	87.0	13.0	24.7	62.2	13.1
Professional, scientific & technical activities	51.8	48.2	92.4	7.6	48.7	51.3	0.0
Public administration & defence, compulsory social security	95.4	4.7	90.6	9.4	6.5	18.1	75.4
Education	87.3	12.7	70.1	29.9	36.6	44.3	19.1
Human health & social work activities	91.4	8.6	83.7	16.4	40.8	29.1	30.1
Other service activities	34.4	65.6	91.0	9.1	37.9	0.0	62.1

Note: Sectors employing less than 2 per cent of the total are not reported in this table.

This report presents the highlights of the 2012 School-to-work Transition Survey (SWTS) run together with the Jordanian Department of Statistics within the framework of the ILO Work4Youth Project. This Project is a five-year partnership between the ILO and The MasterCard Foundation that aims to promote decent work opportunities for young men and women through knowledge and action. The W4Y Publication Series is designed to disseminate data and analyses from the SWTS administered by the ILO in 28 countries covering five regions of the world. The SWTS is a unique survey instrument that generates relevant labour market information on young people aged 15 to 29 years. The survey captures longitudinal information on transitions within the labour market, thus providing evidence of the increasingly tentative and indirect paths to decent and productive employment that today's young men and women face.

The W4Y Publications Series covers national reports, with main survey findings and details on current national policy interventions in the area of youth employment, and regional synthesis reports that highlight regional patterns in youth labour market transitions and distinctions in national policy frameworks.

Work4Youth

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