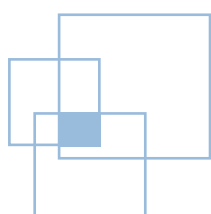




International
Labour
Organization

Jordan Decent Work Country Diagnostic



Regional Office for Arab States

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International Labour Organization

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ILO Regional Office for Arab States

P.O.Box 11-4088 Riad El Solh 1107-2150

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Foreword

Jordan has made significant progress in its promotion of decent work, boasting numerous success stories during the implementation of its last Decent Work Country Programme (2012–2015):

- In the area of social dialogue, a sector-wide collective bargaining agreement (CBA) was extended to the garment sector, of which 80 per cent of all workers are migrant workers. The first CBA was signed in 2013 and renewed again in 2015.
- In the area of social protection, Jordan introduced a new social security law in 2014. For the first time, this includes self-employed workers in the pension system and introduces unemployment insurance benefits and maternity insurance. Through this new law, Jordan has become the first country in the Middle East to boast a maternity insurance scheme that provides cash benefits. Jordan also ratified the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102), in 2014, also becoming the first country in the Middle East to have ratified this Convention.
- In the area of child labour, the Government has extended the National Framework to Combat Child Labour (NFCL) 2011–2016 to all 12 governorates and passed a new Juvenile Law in 2014. For the first time, this new law legally identifies child labourers as children who need special protection. Jordan also ratified the Maritime Labour Convention, 2006, becoming the first Arab country to do so.

Building on these achievements, the proposed country programme over the coming two years will continue to focus on the three main pillars of activity that characterized the previous DWCP, namely (a) enhancing access to decent work, (b) extending social protection, and (c) improving working conditions in line with international labour standards.

However, for the next biennium (2016–2017), we will also take into account the changes that have taken place in the Jordanian labour market over the past few years. In line with the Jordan Response Plan and the Jordan Compact, the proposed objective in the coming period will be to enhance access to decent work for all in Jordan, working with Jordanian host communities affected by the Syrian refugee crisis, alongside refugees, to promote decent work.

The London donor conference demonstrated a commitment from the international community, including Jordan, to transition from providing humanitarian assistance to a development-based approach that focuses on job creation and enhancing livelihood opportunities. To this end, the ILO will support the Government and social partners to identify industries that will contribute not just to economic growth, but to job creation as well.

In addition to building on strengths, the ILO will focus on areas in which there has been less progress over the past DWCP. Freedom from discrimination, including gender discrimination, is essential if work is to contribute to human development in Jordan. Human development cannot take place without women actively taking part in the workforce and receiving equal pay for work of equal value.

Formulating fair migration policies in line with international labour standards is also a key prerequisite to achieving the Sustainable Development Goals, to which Jordan is committed. I am a firm believer that labour migration, if successfully managed, can contribute to development in countries of origin, as well in Jordan itself.

Key to promoting entrepreneurship, education and self-employment among Jordanian youth will be their ability to demonstrate skills and employability. This will be difficult without also improving testing, certification systems and quality assurance more generally. In the area of social protection, the social protection floor has already been officially adopted by the tripartite partners and offers the only guarantee for minimum social protection for all. Moreover, without social dialogue and the active participation of inclusive and representative workers' and employers' organizations, it will be difficult to promote and sustain fundamental principles and rights in the workplace.

To conclude, I would like to reiterate that in Jordan, we do not work in isolation. We provide support to the Government and social partners in line with their own national priorities and objectives. In this sense, our achievements are also the reflection of our partners' commitment to the Decent Work Agenda. In Jordan, we have made significant steps during the past DWCP, and I hope to continue this successful collaboration for Decent Work in the next two years to achieve a greater number of better jobs for all.

Ruba Jaradat

ILO Assistant Director-General and Regional Director for Arab States

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List of acronyms

ALMP	Active labour market policies
BWJ	Better Work Jordan
CEACR	Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations
CBA	Collective bargaining agreement
CL	Child labour
CTA	Chief Technical Advisor
DOS	Department of Statistics
DWCD	Decent Work Country Diagnostic
DWCP	Decent Work Country Programme
E-TVET	Employment, technical vocational education and training
FPRW	Fundamental principles and rights at work
GFJTU	General Federation of Jordanian Trade Unions
GNI	Gross national income (GNI)
HDI	Human Development Index
ILS	International labour standards
ISCO	International Standard Classification of Occupations
JCI	Jordan Chamber of Industry
JOD	Jordanian Dinar
JRP	Jordan Response Plan
KILM	Key Indicators of the Labour Market
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MoE	Ministry of Education
MOL	Ministry of Labour
MOSD	Ministry of Social Development
MOPIC	Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation
NAF	National Aid Fund
NES	National Employment Strategy
NFCL	National Framework to Combat Child Labour
OSH	Occupational safety and health
ROAS	Regional Office for Arab States (ROAS)
TU	Trade union
SPF	Social protection floor
SSC	Social Security Corporation
SSL	Social security law
UNRWA	United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East
VET	Vocational education and training
VTC	Vocational Training Corporation
WAP	Working-age population (WAP)

Introduction

The objective of this report is to provide a short and comprehensive diagnosis of the work situation in Jordan, with respect to growth, productive employment, and decent work. Issues of inclusion and equal opportunities are given special attention as they are expected to feature prominently in the Decent Work Country Programme (DWCP) extension framework (2016–2017). The diagnostic also focuses on the Syrian refugee crisis response, in line with the Jordan Response Plan (2016–2018) and those decisions taken at the London conference that culminated in the Jordan Compact.

Section I provides the overall setting and key national development policies and frameworks that shape discussions around decent work in Jordan.

Section II delves into the dynamics of the economy and the labour market, surveying the key challenges facing Jordan in the labour market. These include job-poor growth and weak policy coherence, low labour force participation rates (especially among women), poor skills utilization, informality, and multi-level labour market segmentation. Addressing these structural challenges that predate the Syrian refugee crisis has become all the more urgent given the aim to turn refugee presence into a “development opportunity,” as per the Jordan Compact, whilst ensuring labour market governance and protection for all, in line with international labour standards (ILS).

Section III reviews the implementation of ILS, specifically Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, such as the rights of freedom of association and collective bargaining, and the issues of forced labour, child labour and non-discrimination (including equal remuneration for work of equal value).

Section IV examines tripartite social dialogue mechanisms in Jordan, including workers’ and employers’ representation and issues of collective bargaining.

Section V surveys the main achievements Jordan has already made in the area of social protection, and identifies remaining gaps for establishing the social protection floor.

Building on this analysis, section VI presents key recommendations and concerns to inform tripartite discussions in establishing the priorities for the DWCP in the next biennium (2016–2017).

An external ILO consultant (Ghia Osseiran) led the drafting of this report in close consultation with the ILO Decent Work team and other ILO specialists. It is based on an analysis of ILO reports and other secondary resources, key statistics from the Jordanian Department of Statistics, the ILO and other international databases, as well as 18 semi-structured interviews with ILO specialists and officers based either in the Regional Office for Arab States (ROAS) or in Geneva (see Appendix III).

Section I: The overall setting

Jordan's population has increased more than sevenfold in less than five decades, from just over 1.3 million in 1952 (Mryyan, 2014) to some 9.6 million in 2016 (including refugees). The population can be described as youthful, with more than half of Jordanians (52.2 per cent) under the age of 25 and youth (15–24 year-olds) comprising some 16 per cent of the working-age population (WAP) in 2015 (DOS, 2015). The majority of Jordanians live in urban areas, with 60 per cent living in Amman and the three governorates adjacent to it.

At present Jordan is considered an upper-middle income country according to World Bank groupings of economies based on gross national income (GNI) per capita. It is classified among the “high human development” countries on the human development index (HDI), and was ranked 80th out of 188 countries in 2014. Life expectancy was 74 years in 2014 and the mean amount of schooling was 9.9 years – above average for high-HDI countries. However, as illustrated in table 1, gender parity, which has a significant impact on human development, remains low. As a result, even though Jordan ranked relatively well in the HDI, it ranked 102nd out of 155 countries in the gender inequality index (GII), achieving a score of 0.473 (UNDP, 2015).

In terms of business, Jordan ranked 113th out of 189 countries globally, and tenth among Arab states, in the Doing Business 2016 rankings. Even though Jordan ranked 88th globally in terms of starting a business, it lagged behind with respect to credit availability (183rd), protecting minority investors (163rd), resolving insolvency (146th), and enforcing contracts (126th).¹ Jordan was also ranked the 75th most innovative nation according to the Global Innovation Index (2015), though it was singled out in the northern Africa and western Asia regions for outperforming on the innovation front² relative to other countries at the same level of economic development.³

¹ <http://www.doingbusiness.org/data/exploreeconomies/jordan/>

² Alongside Armenia, Israel and Morocco.

³ <https://www.globalinnovationindex.org/content/page/press-release/>

Table (1): Human Development Index (2014)

	HDI value		Life expectancy at birth		Expected years of schooling		Mean years of schooling		GNI per capita (PPP US\$)		GDI (F:M HDI ratio)
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Jordan	0.748		74		13.5		9.9		11 365		0.86
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
	0.784	0.674	72.4	75.8	13.3	13.7	10.5	9.3	18 831	3 587	
Arab countries	0.686		70.6		12		6.4		15 722		0.849
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
	0.719	0.611	68.8	72.7	12.3	11.6	6.9	4.9	24 985	5 687	
High HDI countries	0.744		75.1		13.6		8.2		13 961		0.954
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
	0.758	0.724	72.8	77.4	13.4	13.8	8.5	7.7	17 443		

Source: UNDP (2015).

Table (2): Development vision and employment-related strategies: Key features

Service sub-sector	Permitted percentage for foreign labour
Jordan 2025	Jordan 2025 provides the Kingdom's socioeconomic vision. This vision outlines two scenarios, one in which Jordan adopts some but not all reform measures, referred to as the baseline scenario. The second scenario, referred to as the targeted scenario, is one in which Jordan would introduce a number of key sectoral reforms that are expected to result in high growth rates, unemployment and poverty reduction, as well as stronger economic participation.
National Employment Strategy (NES) (2011–2020)	The NES has set out a series of objectives. In the short term (2014), the objective is to start to absorb the unemployed; in the medium term (2017) to enhance skill-matching and micro-enterprise/SME growth. In the long term, the objective is to increase productivity through human capital and economic restructuring. The ILO conducted in 2015 an evaluation of the NES, in light of the Syrian crisis, which serves as a basis for redefining the medium-term implementation phase of the NES.
Jordan Response Plan (JRP) for the Syria Crisis (Jordan Responsive Platform for the Syria Crisis) 2016–2018	Following JRP 2015, the plan emphasized the shift from short-term humanitarian assistance for Syrian refugees to longer-term development responses. The plan works on a two-pronged approach enhancing resilience of host communities and national service providers on the one hand, whilst also providing humanitarian assistance to refugees. As per the Jordan Response Plan (2016–2018), the Government's focus is to: (i) develop additional national capacities at local, regional and central levels to lead the development response instead of creating parallel delivery systems for refugees; (ii) strengthen resilience of national systems and institutions including the crisis-affected host communities; (iii) meet the humanitarian needs of both host communities and refugees; and (iv) foster employment and livelihood alternatives for Jordanians affected by the crisis.
The Jordan National E-TVET Strategy (2014–2020)	Integrating women, youth and the disabled is a key objective of labour market strategies, including the E-TVET Strategy. The Strategy aims to create a cohesive demand-driven E-TVET system that harmonizes T-VET policies and strategies and effectively manages the coordination of the E-TVET system as a whole.
Jordan Compact (4 February 2016)	Through attracting new investment and trade opportunities with the EU, new opportunities for both Jordanians and Syrian refugees will be created as part of the Jordan Compact. An estimated 200,000 Syrians will be integrated into the Jordanian labour market as part of the Compact.

Section II: Dynamics of the economy and the labour market

This section surveys the dynamics of the economy and the labour market. It will show that the primary challenge for Jordan is to create decent jobs in the numbers and of the quality necessary to retain high-level skills, and increase labour force participation rates, already described as a “top priority” in the National Employment Strategy (NES). For Jordan to reach this objective, all of its economic and social policies must be geared towards employment creation. This requires strong political will at the highest levels in order to ensure coherence among the different policies and frameworks, and create an improved business environment. With the influx of Syrian refugees and as more Jordanians, particularly young people, are increasingly pushed into the informal economy it has become all the more urgent for Jordan to enhance its labour market governance (including social protection) if it is to promote growth and decent work for all.

Labour market supply

Jordan has made remarkable achievements in terms of increasing educational attainment levels among its working-age population, particularly among women since 2000. The share of graduates among the WAP has increased from 8.4 per cent in 2000 to 15.1 per cent in 2015, whilst the share of female graduates among the WAP has almost tripled. As a result, the share of Jordanian women graduates among the younger generation (ages 20–39) has surpassed that of their male counterparts (DOS, 2015).

Table (3): Employment status by education level, age 15+ (percentages)

Education level	Employed			Unemployed			Inactive		
	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F
Illiterate	4.8	15.1	1.1	0.4	1.4	0.0	94.9	83.6	98.9
Below secondary	30.4	53.6	2.9	3.8	6.8	0.3	65.8	39.6	96.8
Secondary	21.3	38.9	4.1	1.9	3.2	0.6	76.8	57.9	95.4
Intermediate diploma	41.0	68.6	22.5	5.9	6.6	5.5	53.1	24.9	72.0
Bachelor & above	55.8	70.4	40.6	12.7	10.4	15.2	31.4	19.3	44.2
Total	31.9	53.4	10.3	4.8	6.6	3.0	63.3	40.0	86.7

Source: DOS (2015).

Expansion in the supply of educated workers, however, has not been met with a commensurate expansion in labour market demand. It is evident that gender parity in educational levels among youth has not led to better labour market outcomes for women as structural unemployment and weak labour market governance in Jordan predate the refugee crisis. As acknowledged in the NES, even in times of strong economic growth, such growth has not culminated in the creation of quality jobs. Illustrating this trend, the economy in 2013 generated 48,571 net new jobs,⁴ the majority (61.1 per cent) of which were not high-skilled jobs but medium- and low-skill jobs, requiring a secondary degree or below (MOL, 2014).

⁴ These jobs were in wholesale trade and retail (20.4 per cent), the public sector (14.7 per cent), transformative industries (12.3 per cent) and education (11.4 per cent).

As a result, growth in labour market supply has continued to outpace that of net employment.⁵ Job-poor growth has been further compounded by strong segmentation in the labour market between the private and public sectors, men and women, nationals and migrants, as well as the formal and informal economy. The Syrian refugee crisis has merely accentuated this multi-layered segmentation, bringing to the fore the urgent need for job creation and improved labour market governance in Jordan.

Working-age population, labour force participation rates and inactivity

Jordan has experienced a 3.4 percentage point decrease in labour force participation rates (figure 1), down from 40.1 per cent in 2009 to 36.7 per cent in 2015 (DOS, 2015; World Bank, 2014). This overall labour force participation rate, albeit low, is also characterised by a significant gender gap of 46.7 per cent, with female participation rates at just over 13 per cent in 2015 (figure 3).

Female participation rates

Female participation rates in Jordan have been consistently low and not shown any significant change over the past decade, both relative to other Arab countries⁶ and more globally⁷ (KILM, 2015). That said, there are significant differences across educational levels, with university graduates recording the lowest levels of inactivity among women (see table 3).

As per Vision 2025, the Government is seeking to increase female participation in the workforce from 15 to 27 per cent over the coming decade, in line with the MENA average (JO 2025). To successfully achieve this target, policies have to address the cultural, legal, and institutional practices of discrimination that underlie the record low female participation rates in the labour market (ILO, 2014; Mryyan, 2014). These include wage discrimination, which continues to be a challenge, with men earning an estimated 13.2 per cent more than women (ILO, 2014).

Cultural discrimination further discourages lower-skilled women from taking jobs at hotels, factories, in locations that are geographically distant or at night. Commuting difficulties, including expensive and unreliable public transportation, as well as limited services to residential areas, further exacerbate the issue. These challenges are particularly acute in areas outside of Amman, including Mafrqa, Ruseifeh, South Shouneh and Sahab, where half of employers surveyed in 2014 confirmed that transportation difficulties are a factor for youth, including female youth, quitting their jobs (IYF, 2014).

⁵ According to the ILO (2015), 45,000 jobs have been created since 2010 but the labour force has increased by 75,000 during that same period in Jordan.

⁶ Female participation rates (ages 15+) in 2015 were 23.5 per cent in Lebanon, 22.8 per cent in Egypt, and just over 25 per cent in Morocco and Tunisia (KILM, 2015).

⁷ Female participation rates (ages 15+) in 2015 were 54.5 per cent in Germany, 56 per cent in the US, and 56.9 per cent in the UK (KILM, 2015).

Research has clearly demonstrated that the need to care for young children negatively affects a woman’s chances of employment (Said, 2014). Yet despite the provision for compulsory day-care in the workplace under Article 72 of the Labour Law, day-care is still not widely available. Jordanian women thus continue to be deprived of the social support services necessary for their participation in the workplace.

Figure 1. Economic activity status (percentage), 2009–2015

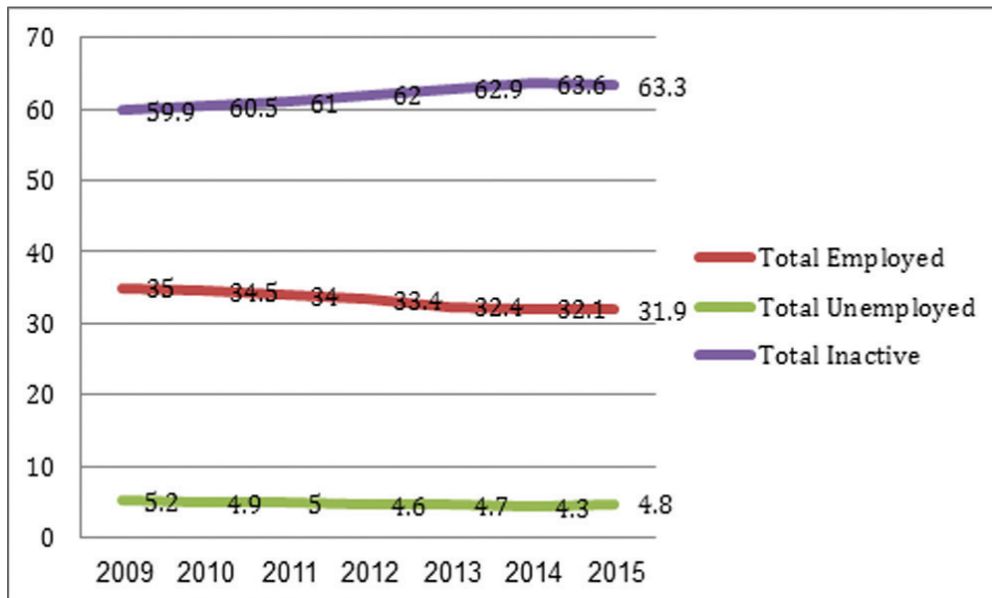
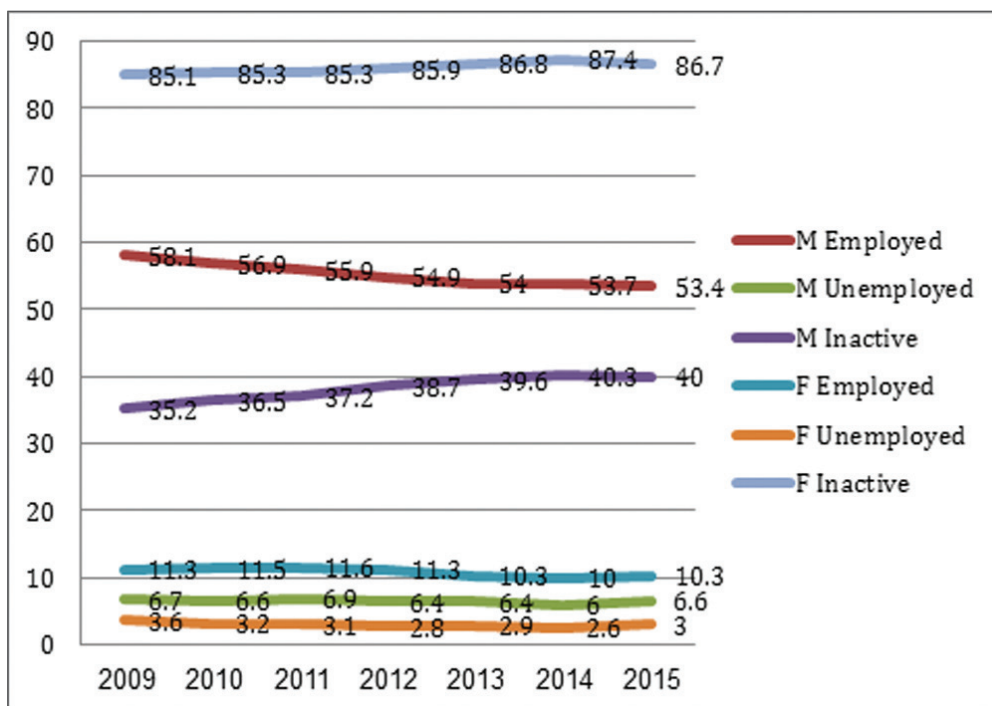


Figure 2. Economic activity status by sex (percentage), 2009–2015



Cultural, legal and institutional gender discrimination has led to women with post-secondary education being concentrated predominantly in public sector jobs, or in formal private sector jobs deemed more culturally befitting of women (Mryyan, 2014). Consequently, almost 75 per cent of women employed in the labour market in 2015 were employed in high-skill jobs, with the majority of those (60 per cent) in professional occupations (table 8). This concentration of women in specific sectors, particularly education, health and social work, has also shaped the educational choices of female youth, who continue to opt for the same university courses (Barcucci and Mryyan, 2014).

Unemployment

Total unemployment rates have hovered around 12–13 per cent since 2009, with rates for females consistently around double that of males (see table 4).

Table (4): Unemployment rates by sex, 2009–2015

Year	Total	M	F
2009	12.9	10.3	24.1
2010	12.5	10.4	21.7
2011	12.9	11.0	21.2
2012	12.2	10.4	19.9
2013	12.6	10.6	22.2
2014	11.9	10.1	20.7
2015	13.0	11.0	22.5

Source: DOS (2015).

Almost one third of Jordanian youth between the ages of 25 and 29 had a bachelor’s degree or above in 2015, with the proportion of women (35.2 per cent) exceeding men (28.2 per cent). Notwithstanding unprecedented completion rates, in 2015 almost half (48.3 per cent) of those unemployed among the WAP in Jordan were aged 15–24 and another 41.1 per cent were aged 25–39 (DOS, 2015).

The transition period to decent employment for Jordanian youth, defined as “stable” or “satisfactory”, was approximately three years on average. The majority of unemployed youth ascribed their unemployment to a lack of suitable jobs – somewhat disconcerting given the potential for the “scarring effects” of youth unemployment, which may negatively impact on future job prospects (Barcucci and Mryyan, 2014).

As illustrated in table 3, Jordanian graduates had the highest share of unemployment by educational group. The increase in the number of university graduates among the unemployed suggests weak labour market demand for high skills, and a failing to absorb graduates into the economy (Said, 2012).

This is confirmed not only by relatively high graduate unemployment rates but also by the share of highly skilled Jordanians who opt to leave Jordan altogether to work in knowledge economies, where their skills are utilized. Subsequently, as many as 500,000–600,000 highly skilled Jordanians are estimated to be employed in the Gulf States (Mryyan, 2014), the majority of whom are in Saudi Arabia (32 per cent) and the UAE (24 per cent) (Wahba, 2014).⁸

This weak demand for high skills is also illustrated in wage trends, where jobs that have experienced the highest wage increases have not been among the managerial and professional occupations. Instead, they were those of technicians and associate professionals, plant and machine operators and assemblers, service workers, shop and market sales and clerical occupations. This trend confirms the concentration of labour market demand in medium-skill and technical work, rather than in professional and managerial work (ILO, 2015 b).

The fact that less than 10 per cent of Jordanian firms perceive the “inadequately educated workforce as a major constraint,” in comparison with 20.4 per cent in the MENA region and 22 per cent globally (World Bank, 2013), suggests that the problem may be one of demand rather than supply. Even though there may well be a problem of quality assurance in education and skill provision, this might not actually be the main impediment to graduate skill utilization in the workplace from an employer’s point of view.

Labour market demand

Even in periods of high economic growth (2006–2008), the economy has failed to generate jobs in the numbers and of the quality necessary to tackle unemployment. As per the Ministry of Labour’s (MOL) own analysis, skills mismatch, changing demographics and weak labour market information systems have all contributed to structural unemployment (MOL, 2014).

The private sector appears unable to create the amounts and types of jobs necessary, where the majority of enterprises in Jordan are private micro-enterprises with less than 10 employees. Large firms with 100 or more employees, on the other hand, constitute less than 1 per cent of all firms, even though they account for 75 per cent of all revenue and 25 per cent of private-wage employment (Assaad, 2014). This has led to a situation in which Jordan exports highly skilled labour while integrating foreign low-skilled low-paid labour into its own labour force. As a result, low-skill private sector jobs with little benefits comprise the majority of jobs being created, employing foreign workers, whereas graduate unemployment and emigration rates among Jordanian graduates remain high.

⁸ Although this “brain drain” is a loss to the economy, it has also made Jordan one of the highest remittance-recipient countries globally at US\$3.8 billion in 2015 (World Bank, 2016).

Table (5): Share of unemployed by education level

	2015			2005			Percentage point change		
	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F
Illiterate	0.5	0.7	0.0	1.3	1.6	0.4	-0.8	-0.9	-0.4
Below secondary	43.4	60.8	4.7	51.0	64.9	12.7	-7.6	-4.1	-8.0
Secondary	6.5	8.1	3.2	11.2	11.9	9.1	-4.7	-3.8	-5.9
Intermediate diploma	9.3	6.0	16.6	11.9	6.3	27.5	-2.6	-0.3	-10.9
Bachelor & above	40.3	24.4	75.5	24.6	15.3	50.4	15.7	9.1	25.1
Totals	100	100	100	100	100	100	0.0	0.0	0.0

Source: DOS (2005; 2015).

According to the ILO (2015), the Jordanian economy will need to create approximately 57,000 new jobs every year for the next seven years to successfully absorb new Jordanian entrants into the labour market. This would in turn require a sustained annual growth rate of 6.1 per cent (ILO, 2015), when real GDP growth was 3.1 per cent in 2014, and is estimated at 2.5 per cent for 2015 (World Bank, 2015). According to its own 2025 Vision, Jordan is aiming at a real growth rate of 7.5 per cent by 2025. To achieve this target, Jordan has prioritized specific clusters that it has identified will spur growth and employment. These include construction, engineering and housing, transportation and logistics, tourism, healthcare and health tourism, energy and renewable energy, information technology and innovation, agriculture, education and financial services.

Inactivity

One of the consequences of this “job-poor” growth has been the high rate of inactivity. Well over half the WAP in Jordan (64.5 per cent) were not economically active in 2015, with the female inactivity rate (87.6 per cent) more than double the male rate (41.5 per cent). As illustrated in table 3, male and female inactivity rates were significantly lower among tertiary education graduates than among other educational levels (DOS, 2015).

When the inactive were surveyed as to why they were not seeking work, more than half believed no work was available or reported being tired of seeking work. One-fifth reported not being able to find suitable employment (DOS, 2015), confirming the perception that the economy is not generating enough decent and productive employment opportunities that match the aspirations of Jordanian jobseekers. For tertiary-educated unemployed Jordanian youth specifically, some studies (e.g. Groh et al., 2015) suggest “reservation prestige” as a reason for their unemployment in that such young people, in fact, choose unemployment over working in “lower prestige jobs.”

Employment by industry, sector and economic activity

Jordan is predominantly a service-dominated economy, with services constituting 66.4 per cent of GDP, compared with industry⁹ at 29.8 per cent in 2014. Over the past decade, employment has

⁹ Industry comprises mining, manufacturing, construction, electricity, water, and gas. Services include wholesale and retail trade (including hotels and restaurants), transport, and government, financial, professional, and personal services such as education, healthcare, and real estate services.

decreased in both agriculture (–2.3 percentage points between 2004 and 2014) and industry (-7.2 percentage points), whereas the share of employment in the services sector has increased by 9.9 percentage points (KILM, 2013).

When looking more closely at sectors, those that experienced the largest increase in employment during the same period were public administration, defence and social security (+0.7 percentage points), transportation and storage (+0.7), construction (+0.6), and manufacturing (+0.5) (see table 6).

The greatest increase in share of female employment between 2010 and 2014 was in public administration, defence and social security (+1.6 percentage points), in which 13 per cent of all women were employed in 2014 and in human health and social work activities (+1.0), where 15.3 per cent of females were employed. The education sector, in which 41.0 per cent of women were employed, witnessed no change in employment during that period.

Among men, the largest increase in employment was in transportation and storage (+0.7 percentage points), where 9.2 per cent of men were already employed in 2014 and in construction (+0.7) where 7.7 per cent of men were employed. In public administration defence and social security, where 28.4 per cent of employed males worked in 2014, the increase was still positive (+0.2), though much lower than the increase among women. Manufacturing, where 10.9 per cent of working men were employed, also witnessed a 0.5 percentage point increase between 2010 and 2014.

In 2015, the majority of working Jordanians were employed in public administration, defence and social security (26.3 per cent), wholesale and retail trade (15.3 per cent), education (12.4 per cent) and manufacturing (10 per cent). Women were mostly working in education (42.4 per cent), human health and social work activities (14.9 per cent), and public administration, defence, and social security (12.5 per cent). Another 6.6 per cent were employed in manufacturing. The largest sectors for men were public administration (28.9 per cent), wholesale and retail trade (17.2 per cent) and manufacturing (10.6 per cent) (see table 7).

Industrial and occupational projections that do not take into account changes in policies and the effects of the Jordan Compact show that Jordan will have created 408,000 jobs between 2013 and 2020, with most net employment growth continuing to be concentrated in the service sectors. Around 37 per cent of those will be professional jobs, and just over 20 per cent in services and sales. Another 11 per cent will be in extraction and building trades, and 8.6 per cent will require technicians and associate professionals.

A recent ILO study (2016) further identified the renewable energy and pharmaceuticals sectors as growing sectors that will also open work opportunities, for both Jordanians and, potentially, Syrian refugees (pending the Government opening up participation in the pharmaceutical sector to non-Jordanians).

Table (6): Employment share by sector, 2010–2014

International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities, Rev.4	2014			2010		
	Total	M	F	Total	M	F
A. Agriculture, forestry and fishing	1.8	2.1	0.5	2.0	2.3	1.0
B. Mining and Quarrying	0.8	1.0	0.1	0.8	1.0	0.1
C. Manufacturing	10.2	10.9	6.2	9.7	10.4	6.4
D. Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	0.7	0.8	0.1	0.8	0.8	0.4
E. Water supply, sewerage, waste management and remediation activities	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.1
F. Construction	6.6	7.7	0.9	6.0	7.0	0.7
G. Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	15.3	17.1	5.4	15.5	17.5	5.5
H. Transportation and storage	7.9	9.2	0.7	7.2	8.5	1.0
I. Accommodation and food service activities	2.5	2.8	0.6	2.4	2.8	0.4
J. Information and communication	1.7	1.6	2.2	1.9	1.9	1.9
K. Financial and insurance activities	2.1	1.9	3.3	2.0	1.7	3.2
L. Real estate activities	0.6	0.6	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.1
M. Professional, scientific and technical activities	2.1	2.0	2.9	2.5	2.4	3.0
N. Administrative and support service activities	1.4	1.5	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.8
O. Public administration and defence; social security	26.2	28.4	13.7	25.5	28.2	12.1
P. Education	11.9	6.5	41.8	12.6	6.7	41.8
Q. Human health and social work activities	4.9	3.0	15.3	5.1	3.3	14.3
R. Arts, entertainment and recreation	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
S. Other service activities	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.6	2.6	2.8
T. Activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods- and services-producing activities of households for own use	0.4	0.1	1.6	0.6	0.2	2.5
U. Activities of extraterritorial organizations and bodies	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.3	0.2	0.5
	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: ILO, KILM.

Figure 3. Value added by sector (percentage of GDP), 1990–2014

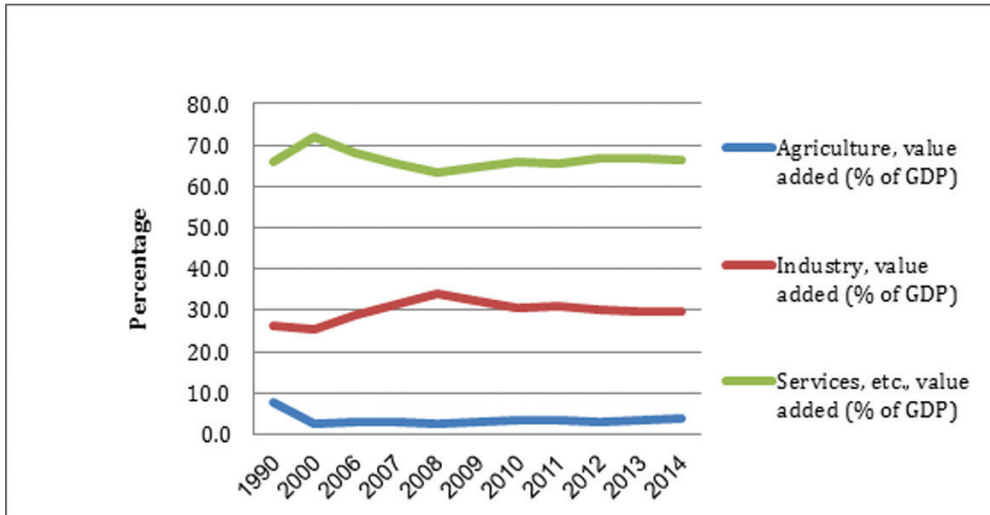


Figure 3. Value added by economic activity (percentage share), 2014

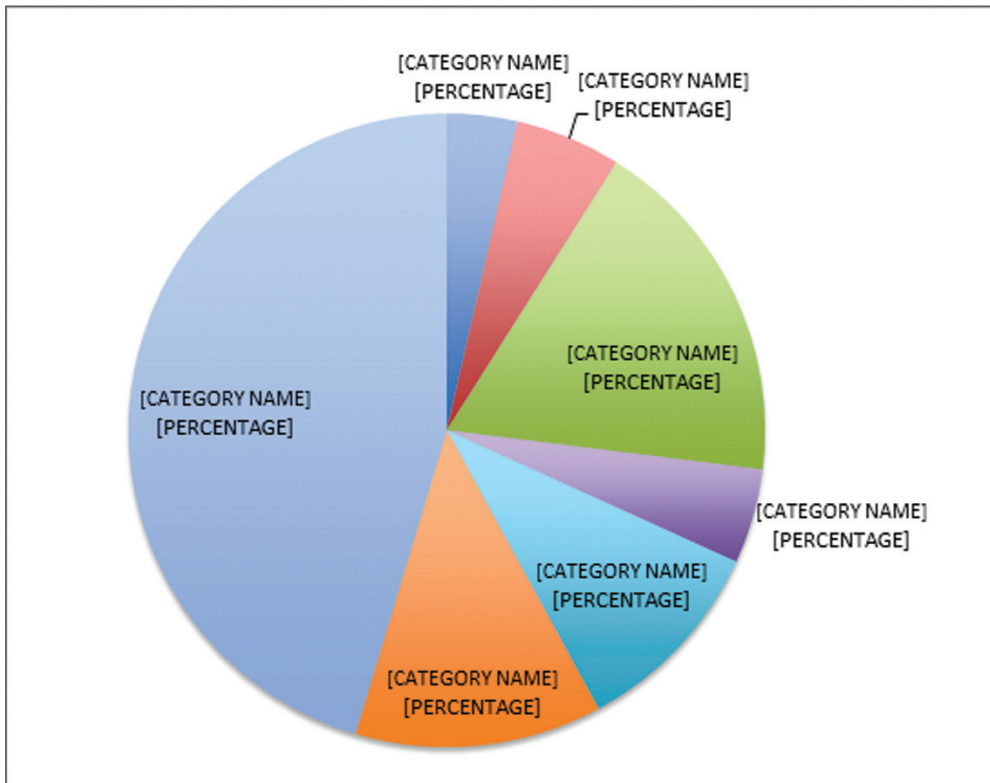


Table (7): Employment of Jordanians (15+) by gender and economic activity

	2015	2005		2015	2005		2015	2005	
Economic activity	Total	Total	Change	M	M	Change	F	F	Change
Agriculture, forestry & fishing	1.7	3.4	-1.7	1.9	3.6	-1.7	0.8	2	-1.2
Mining & quarrying	0.8	1.1	-0.3	0.9	1.2	-0.3	0.2	0.2	0
Manufacturing	10	11.6	-1.6	10.6	12	-1.4	6.6	9.4	-2.8
Electricity, gas, steam & air conditioning supply	0.7	1.7	-1	0.8	1.9	-1.1	0.1	0.6	-0.5
Water supply, sewerage, waste management & remediation activities	0.3		0.3	0.3		0.3	0.0		0.0
Construction	6	6.3	-0.3	7	7.1	-0.1	0.4	1.1	-0.7
Wholesale & retail trade, repair of motor vehicles & motorcycles	15.3	17.9	-2.6	17.2	19.7	-2.5	5.2	6.4	-1.2
Transportation & storage	7.7	9.8	-2.1	9	11	-2	0.9	2.1	-1.2
Accommodation & food service activities	2.5	2.4	0.1	2.9	2.7	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.1
Information & communication	1.6		1.6	1.5		1.5	2.2		2.2
Financial & insurance activities	1.7	1.7	0	1.5	1.5	0	2.8	3	-0.2
Real estate activities	0.6	3.6	-3	0.7	3.4	-2.7	0.2	5.4	-5.2
Professional, scientific & technical activities	2.5		2.5	2.4		2.4	3.2		3.2
Administration & support services	1.2		1.2	1.3		1.3	1.2		1.2
Public administration & defence, compulsory social security	26.3	18.1	8.2	28.9	19.8	9.1	12.5	6.6	5.9
Education	12.4	11.3	1.1	6.7	6.8	-0.1	42.4	41.2	1.2
Human health & social work activities	5	4.9	0.1	3.1	3.4	-0.3	14.9	14.7	0.2
Arts, entertainment & recreation	0.3		0.3	0.4		0.4	0.3		0.3
Other service activities	2.3	5.6	-3.3	2.3	5.7	-3.4	2.2	5.2	-3.0
Activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods & services	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	2.5	1.3	1.2
Activities of extraterritorial organizations & bodies	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.1	1.3	0.6	0.7
Total	100	100		100	100		100	100	

Source: DOS (2005; 2015).

In terms of occupations, Jordanian men work mostly as service and sales workers (35 per cent), professionals (16.9 per cent), and craft and related trades workers (16.1 per cent). The majority of women, on the other hand, are professionals (60.2 per cent), and technicians and associate professionals (13.4 per cent). Only 7.5 per cent of women perform clerical work, whereas less than 4 per cent of employed women work in craft and related trades work (table 8). In contrast, very few Syrian refugees are employed in high-skill jobs, with the majority concentrated in craft and related trades work, services, and sales. In light of the changing demographics in Jordan, considering the different skill profiles of Jordanian, migrant, and refugee populations (explored in further detail in subsequent sections), is crucial to informing labour market management and governance decisions.

Table (8): Distribution of the employed (15+) across major ISCO groups (percentages)

ISCO major groups	Total	Male	Female	Non-camp Syrian refugees
Legislators, senior officials and managers	0.3	0.2	1.1	0
Professionals	23.8	16.9	60.2	4
Technicians and associate professionals	7.1	5.9	13.4	1
Clerical support workers	5.4	5.3	5.9	2
Service and sales workers	30.5	35.0	7.5	24
Skilled agricultural, forestry & fishery workers	1.6	1.7	0.7	1
Craft & related trades workers	14.0	16.1	3.3	53
Plant & machine operations & assemblers	11.1	13.1	0.2	4
Elementary occupations	6.2	5.9	7.7	12
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: DOS (2015) for Jordanian figures, ILO (2015) for Syrian refugee estimates.

Public versus private sector

Jordan's public sector accounts for around 20 per cent of GDP and 27 per cent of annual government expenditure, one of the largest shares in the world. It also serves as the single largest employer of Jordanian workers, and has marked the largest expansion in share of employment over the past decade, up 8.2 percentage points to reach 26.3 per cent in 2015. The public sector wage premium,¹⁰ the prevalence of permanent contracts (among 97 per cent of all government workers), and more generous social protection provisions have further reinforced labour market segmentation between public and private sector employees. The declining participation of females in the private informal economy from 1.4 per cent in 2005 to 0.7 per cent in 2015 can be taken as a sign of deteriorating employment contract terms that no longer appeal to Jordanian families.

Table (9): Distribution of employed Jordanians (15+) by gender and employment status, 2005–2015

	Total			Males			Females		
	2015	2005	Change	2015	2005	Change	2015	2005	Change
Employee total	87.5	82.7	4.8	86.0	80.9	5.1	96.3	94.3	2.0
Government	38.8	36.1	2.7	36.7	34.3	2.4	50.5	48.1	2.4
Private (formal)	43.8	45.9	-2.1	43.9	46.1	-2.2	43.4	44.8	-1.4
Private (informal)	4.2	0.7	3.5	4.9	0.6	4.3	0.7	1.4	-0.7
Other	0.7	7.1	-6.4	0.5	7.9	-7.4	1.7	1.6	0.1
Employer	4.5	9.5	-5	5.1	10.5	-5.4	1.5	2.5	-1.0
Self-employed	7.8	0.6	7.2	8.9	0.5	8.4	1.9	0.8	1.1
Unpaid worker	0.1	0.2	-0.1	0	0.1	-0.1	0	0.7	-0.7

Source: DOS.

The public sector in Jordan has continued to play the role of “employer of last resort” with the share of public sector employment in overall employment continuing to increase over the past decade (table 9). The concentration of female employment in the public sector has even been described as “engage[ment] in positive discrimination,” serving as a “model employer” (Said, 2012). In contrast, the share of formal private sector employment in overall employment has decreased by 2.1 percentage points during the same period. About 43 per cent of total employment was in the formal private sector in 2015, whereas the share of the informal private sector increased by 3.5 percentage points over the past decade (table 9).

A recent study (Said, 2014) indicated that being employed in the public sector is much more advantageous to women than to men. In 2010, for example, women employed in the public sector boasted a public sector wage premium of 17 per cent in comparison with their counterparts in the private sector. In contrast, men in the public sector faced a salary discount of 8 per cent.

¹⁰ Even though employees in the public sector earn higher wages, on average, than those in the private sector, it is interesting to note that the premium is higher for lower-skilled public sector employees but lower for their higher-skilled counterparts, with implications for talent retention (ILO, 2015).

Wages, the minimum wage, and the working poor

Jordan witnessed a total of 474 labour protests in 2014, with wages remaining chief among protestors' demands (Jordan Labour Watch, 2015). The MOL has raised the minimum wage from 150 Jordanian dinars (JOD) per month to 190 JOD per month in 2011 for all Jordanian workers.¹¹ However, the minimum wage still does not apply to certain segments of the labour force, including all migrant workers, whose minimum wage was 150 JOD as of January 2009. It also does not include migrant workers in the Qualified Industrial Zones (QIZ), where the minimum wage remains at 110 JOD plus 40 JOD in in-kind wages (food and accommodation) as of January 2009. Through the collective bargaining agreement (CBA), the in-kind wage will increase to 80 JOD so that non-Jordanians working in the garment sector receive 190 JOD by 2017.¹²

The working poor in Jordan are particularly vulnerable to sliding into poverty, partly due to the downward pressure on wages caused by the influx of Syrian refugees, particularly in the informal labour market (ILO, 2014). Almost one-third (32.8 per cent) of those employed in 2010 were classified as extremely, moderately or near poor (ILO KILM). Further, DOS figures indicate that just over 35 per cent of all Jordanian workers, but over half of youth (15–24 years), earned between the minimum wage and 300 JOD per month in 2015. Some 10.8 per cent of workers earned more than 500 JOD per month.

Non-Jordanian workers

In 2015 the highest share of legally registered non-Jordanians were employed in agriculture (33 per cent), manufacturing (23 per cent), private non-profit services to households (20 per cent), wholesale and retail trade (7 per cent), construction (6 per cent) and food and accommodation (4.8 per cent). The majority of workers employed in the QIZs were also non-nationals (47,155 compared with 20,000 nationals) (MOL, 2015). It is estimated that migrants have filled over half of lower-skill jobs created since 2007 (ILO, 2015).

As of June 2016, the total number of legally registered foreign workers was 300,691, the majority (58.5 per cent) of whom were Egyptians. Another 5.8 per cent were Arab nationals (5.5 per cent of which were Syrians). Of the remainder, the highest concentration of migrants were from Bangladesh (16.0 per cent), Sri Lanka (4.2 per cent), Philippines (5.4 per cent) and India (3.9 per cent) (MOL, 2016).

Foreign nationals do not have equal access to the Jordanian labour market. As per Article 12 of the Labour Law, they are only able to participate in employment if they have qualifications that are not readily available in the Jordanian labour market, or if they are occupying jobs for which there is surplus demand. Once they secure their work permits, if foreign nationals change employers or perform a different kind of job than that described in the permit, it becomes invalid. Furthermore, all applications for a work permit must be accompanied by a copy of the work contract, valid passport, and the associated employer's vocational license and social security registration (ILO & FAFO, 2015).

¹¹ Excluding Jordanians working in the garment sector.

¹² The in-kind wage is not included in the calculation of overtime and social security.

As mentioned above, when the minimum wage increased to 190 JOD for Jordanian workers in 2013, foreign nationals were not entitled to it. Consequently, the wage gap between migrants and nationals prevails, with the median monthly income of migrant workers (200 JOD) being 80 JOD less than that of Jordanian nationals (280 JOD). Graduate migrants earned 260 JOD compared with 350 JOD for graduate Jordanians (Wahba, 2014).

Informal economy

The ILO estimated that 50 per cent of Jordanians and 99 per cent of Syrians are working in the informal economy (ILO & FAFO, 2015). Foreign workers in the informal economy are predominantly employed in the retail, construction, and agriculture sectors, the latter two sectors identified by Jordan 2025 as among the fastest growing sectors in the Jordanian economy. Working conditions and occupational safety and health is weakly administered in these occupations due to the lack of outreach by social partners, social dialogue and the Government's capacity to enforce labour standards. In 2016, the MOL had only 256 labour inspectors in 35 labour directorates to monitor labour standards across the nation.

That said, Jordan has taken important steps to reduce labour market segmentation between the informal and formal sectors and between nationals and migrants. The percentage of Jordanians registered with the Social Security Corporation (SSC), for example, increased from 61 per cent in 2009 to 73 per cent in 2013, and that of non-Jordanians from 29 per cent in 2009 to 44 per cent in 2013. In the garment sector, the second sectoral collective bargaining agreement, which will be explored in further detail in subsequent sections, was also signed in 2015. This confirms increased protection as well as the structural integration of non-Jordanians in the formal labour market (ILO, 2015).

As per the ILO evaluation of the National Employment Strategy, one of the priority challenges in this next phase for Jordan will be to improve labour market governance in terms of compliance with labour laws and ILS, with emphasis on transitioning from the informal to the formal economy. This will require stronger leadership by the MOL during the implementation of the National Framework on Transition to Formality.

Syrian refugees

Tackling the informal economy in Jordan has become all the more urgent with the large influx of Syrian refugees. Approximately 642,868 UNHCR-registered refugees (as of 19 April 2016) reside in Jordan. According to the UNHCR, about one fifth of registered refugees (122,245) live in camps. The majority (76 per cent) of them are in Amman, Irbid and Mafraq. In Amman, Syrians constitute approximately 7 per cent of the population, in Irbid 12 per cent, and in Mafraq 52 per cent (ILO & FAFO, 2015).

Educational attainment levels among the Syrian refugee population in Jordan are lower than for Jordanians. According to the ILO-FAFO study (2015), only 15 per cent of the Syrian population (15+) have completed secondary education in comparison to 42 per cent of Jordanians. The majority of Syrians (60 per cent) have not completed basic education.

As of May 2016, out of a total of 275,018 work permits to non-Jordanians, only 6,478 (2.35 per cent) of them were granted to Syrians (MOL, 2016). Less than 2 per cent of these (115 permits) were obtained by Syrian women refugees. Of the Syrians who did receive permits, the majority were employed in accommodation and food services, manufacturing, and retail and sales (MOL Annual Report, 2014). In the informal economy, several studies (ILO-FAFO 2015; WANA, 2015) have indicated some crowding out of Jordanians, most notably in construction and wholesale/retail trade sectors. In these sectors, the influx of Syrian workers has increased competition for lower-skilled jobs, thereby exerting a downward pressure on wages.

Syrian workers in the informal economy receive lower wages, work longer hours, and often work without a contract or any social protection. The ILO (2015) estimated that unskilled refugees are paid 4–6 JOD per day and skilled refugees are paid 7–10 JOD per day, effectively half of what their Jordanian counterparts are paid. Most Syrians work without a written contract. Of those who have contracts, 96 per cent outside the Zaatari camp, and 88 per cent inside, have no social insurance specified in their contract or agreement, compared with 52 per cent among Jordanians. Informal non-camp Syrian workers also do not receive the same information or equipment to protect against work-related hazards, and are not part of a trade union or a professional association through which they might negotiate better working conditions (ILO & FAFO, 2015).

This large influx of Syrian refugees has strained Jordan's resources, rendering host communities vulnerable to competition for access to infrastructure, jobs and other public services. Due to the protracted nature of the crisis Jordan, with assistance from the international community, has adopted a resilience-based development approach, as expressed most recently in the Jordan Compact and in the Jordan Response Plan 2016–2018. Growth, resilience and economic stability are at the heart of the Jordan Compact, through which the country has pledged to integrate 200,000 Syrian refugees into the labour market in return for preferential access to European markets and grants to support the plan. The plan marks a transition from a pure humanitarian response to the refugee crisis to a comprehensive resilience approach that takes into account long-term development goals. It addresses the socioeconomic impact of the crisis through promoting the resilience of national systems and institutions, whilst striving to maintain social and economic stability and meet the basic humanitarian needs of both the crisis-affected host communities and refugees.

In April 2016, the MOL gave Syrian workers without permits a three-month amnesty as a step towards legalizing their employment status. This included issuing work permits free of charge in specific sectors open to non-Jordanians. The ILO is working closely with the Government to improve access for Syrian refugees (as well as host communities) to Jordan's formal labour market. The ILO has advocated for a change of work permit requirements, such that work permits may be linked to the Ministry of Interior's identity cards (instead of Syrian passports), in addition to delinking work permit applications from specific employers. It also includes easing the administration process by disseminating clear instructions to labour directorates and providing specific guidelines within refugee communities on how to apply.

Despite their exemption from paying the fee during this grace period, only 16,000 Syrians had applied for a permit as of 30 June. Many Syrians who were excluded from the labour market in past years – and sometimes returned forcefully to camp if found working illegally – find it difficult to trust the freer access they now have to the labour market.

To obtain a work permit Syrians, like other foreign workers, must have already registered with the SSC and have identified an employer, who is in turn required to pay a fee of 170–370 JOD for the work permit. Even though these restrictions apply to migrants and Syrians alike, they may prove particularly cumbersome to Syrian refugees, the majority of whom (68 per cent) are living below the Jordanian poverty line (68 JOD per month), according to the Vulnerability Assessment Framework (2015).

Meeting the requirements of the quota system has also hampered the formalization of Syrian employment, particularly in sectors not lucrative to Jordanians. Subsequently, employers in such sectors are sometimes registering fictitious Jordanian workers just to meet quota requirements, with Syrians obliged, in some reported incidents, to pay both fees. In specific sectors, such as agriculture and construction, Syrian workers are simply not linked to specific employers. The search for one in order to facilitate obtaining a work permit is obliging refugees in some instances to resort to a kafeel [sponsor] in order to meet the requirements for a work permit.

In addition to the aforementioned, some occupations are not open to foreign nationals at all. This complete closure of specific sectors presents a particular challenge to refugees with tertiary qualifications, including in the food services and retail sectors, which both remain closed to non-Jordanians.

Section III: International labour standards

Overall, Jordan has ratified 26 out of 189 ILO conventions (see Appendices I and II). As a member State of the ILO, Jordan is also committed to the application of the 1998 ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (FPRW). The Declaration emphasizes the fundamental principle and universal rights to: (a) freedom of association and collective bargaining; (b) freedom from forced labour; (c) freedom from child labour; and (d) freedom from discrimination (see Appendix I). Because these FPRWs are universal rights, they are applicable to all people – irrespective of whether ILO member States have signed the relevant ILO core Conventions.

Freedom of association and collective bargaining in Jordan

Seven of the eight ILO fundamental Conventions have been ratified by Jordan, with the notable exception of the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87). A number of restrictions on freedom of association are contained in the national legislation. The law prescribes a trade union structure allowing for only a single trade union in any given sector, with the General Federation of Jordanian Trade Unions (GFJTU) being the sole recognized federation. The GFJTU is responsible for establishing by-laws for trade unions. Furthermore, even though Temporary Law No. 26 (2010) amending the Labour Code allows migrant workers to join trade unions, restrictions remain in place for migrant workers to become founding members or leaders of trade unions or employers' associations. Where migrant workers are part of the trade union, for example in the garment sector, they remain non-voting members. With respect to the minimum age for trade union membership, the law does not ensure the right to organize for minors who have reached the legal age of employment, either as workers or trainees.

Further, the Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations (CEACR) has noted, on several occasions, that the Jordanian Labour Law does not provide any protection against acts of interference against unions to ensure the application of Article 2 of the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98).

Collective bargaining, therefore, remains weak and largely restricted to the enterprise level. It is still not permitted in the public sector. That said, for the first time in Jordan's history, a sector-wide collective bargaining agreement (CBA) was signed in the garment sector, in which 80 per cent of all workers are migrants. The first CBA was signed in 2013 and was extended again in 2015. According to a recent ILO–IFC Better Work Jordan compliance report, only four factories were identified as non-compliant with ILS in 2015 (one of which was shut down by the MOL as a result). Notwithstanding generally high compliance rates, only 58 per cent of factories assessed were compliant with the agreement, with approximately 42 per cent of factories currently still non-compliant (BWJ, 2015).

¹³ According to BWJ Report, the General Trade Union of Workers in Textile, Garment & Clothing Industries completed its elections for officers for the 2016–2021 period without inviting any migrant workers to vote.

¹⁴ Those forming a trade union must now be 21 years of age (reduced from 25) while those joining a trade union must be 18 years of age.

Forced labour

Jordan ratified the Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29) in 1966 and the Abolition of Forced Labour, 1957 (No. 105) in 1958.¹⁵ Forced labour is prohibited under Article 13 of the Jordanian Constitution. Jordan also enacted the Anti-Human Trafficking Law in 2009. This law prohibits all forms of trafficking and prescribes penalties of up to ten years of imprisonment for forced prostitution and trafficking, including child trafficking. Despite a strong legal framework, Jordan's labour administration capacity and enforcement mechanisms remain weak, particularly in the informal and agriculture sectors. The employer-driven Kafala sponsorship system also remains a major impediment to securing migrant workers' rights, as the terms and conditions of residence and work, to a large extent, continue to be determined by the sponsor. Domestic workers are included under the Labour Law, but are left with insufficient access to dispute resolution mechanisms and legal protection.

Fair migration

Box 1. Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) on fair migration and decent work for all

SDG 8: Promote inclusive and sustainable economic growth, employment and decent work for all

8.7 Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms

8.8 Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment

SDG 10: Reduce inequality within and among countries

10.7 Facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies”

Source: <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdgs>

As a follow-up to the Jordan Compact (2016), Jordan will be signing a new trade agreement with the EU lifting the rules of origin requirement, beginning with companies within 11 development zones, which are expected to create jobs for both Jordanian workers and Syrian refugees. Replicating the garment sector's good practice in these development zones and in other sectors with high shares of migrant workers, particularly agriculture and construction, present key entry points for preventing forced labour and improving overall compliance with ILS in the coming period.

In line with ILS, and under the rubric of the Fair Migration Agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals (in particular targets 8.7 and 8.8), Jordan has committed to improving its own labour market

¹⁵ But no other relevant FPRW conventions and protocols, including the Forced Labour Protocol P029, Conventions 97, 143, 181, 189 and their related Recommendations.

administration capacity and regulatory frameworks, including the recruitment, placement and protection of migrant workers. Jordan has also prioritized improving its database on migration to better inform policy. To this end, the Labour Force Survey in 2016 (third quarter) will include, for the first time, migrant workers and refugees, with specific attention paid to working conditions, including in the informal economy.

Child labour

In 2000, Jordan ratified the Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138), and in 1998 it ratified the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182). Jordan has also ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child.

The Government has extended the National Framework to Combat Child Labour (NFCL) 2011–16 to all 12 governorates. It has also developed the capacity of the MOL's Child Labour Unit whose personnel are well trained. In addition, it has developed a Child Labour Monitoring System that brings together the Ministries of Labour, Social Development and Education onto one platform through a web-based child labour database. The Ministry of Social Development has also established a Child Labour Unit in order to give dedicated attention to the issue. However, the ministries responsible have allocated insufficient funding for the complete implementation of the NFCL, especially for the services to children and their families. Without a government budget¹⁶ and clear accountability and oversight mechanisms, effective implementation will remain a challenge.

The minimum age for children to be employed in Jordan is 16 years and 18 years for hazardous work, in line with Convention Nos. 138 and 182, respectively. Jordan amended and expanded the list of hazardous, tiring or health-jeopardizing tasks for young persons in 2012. However, there remains weak enforcement of the articles that deal with illegal employment of children and hazardous work for children between the ages of 16 to 18. For this age group, some tasks identified in the list remain too broad and require further specification.

Jordan has also passed a new Juvenile Law in 2014, which identifies child labourers as children who need special protection. This new law, however, does not specify penalties for child labour. Enhancing labour inspection in agriculture and construction, including for both Jordanian and Syrian child labourers, will therefore be a major challenge for Jordan in the next period, particularly in light of evidence that some Syrian families are increasingly resorting to negative coping mechanisms, including allowing their children to work in an effort to meet basic household needs (JRP 2016–2018). The ILO-FAFO study shows that 8 per cent of Syrian boys between the ages of 9 and 15 were economically active.

¹⁶ The NFCL has predominantly relied on donor funding. The Ministry of Education and Social Development have no identifiable budget allocations for addressing child labour.

With the worst forms of child labour among Syrian refugees and Jordanian children on the rise, evidence of forced labour is also emerging. At present, Syrian refugee children are still largely unreported in the national NFCL database. Promoting linkages between humanitarian and national efforts to combat child labour is the key to strengthening institutional capacities and improving direct services. However, concerted efforts are needed to apply the NFCL to all children in Jordan and enhance monitoring at the governorate levels.

Non-discrimination and equal remuneration

Jordan ratified the Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100), in 1966 and the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111), in 1963. However, there is no provision in the Labour Code that prohibits discrimination. As a result, many workers, including women, non-citizens and workers in the informal economy, still face discrimination. Jordan's female unemployment rate (22.5 per cent) was more than double the male unemployment rate (11 per cent) in 2015. The unemployment differential between men and women has, in fact, consistently exceeded 10 per cent since 2013. For those women who are employed, Jordanian labour law still does not explicitly state the principle of equal remuneration for men and women for work of equal value, nor does it provide information on any measures taken or envisaged to promote objective job evaluation methods in the public and private sectors. Furthermore, the family allowance provisions in Civil Service Regulations (No. 30 of 2007) fail to ensure that women and men are entitled to allowances, including family allowance, on an equal basis.

Evidence confirms continued discrimination in the workplace. Recent statistics reveal a continuing gender pay gap, ranging from 24.5 per cent in education to 41.3 per cent in the manufacturing sector. The average gender pay gap in the private sector is 29 per cent in comparison with 21 per cent in the public sector. Globally, the average pay gap is 22.9 per cent (ILO, 2013).

The National Committee for Pay Equity (NCPE) has been leading tripartite efforts to close the gender pay gap since its establishment in 2011. The Steering Committee completed a review of the national legislation in 2013, and highlighted inconsistencies vis-à-vis ILS, particularly the Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100), and the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111).

In light of the above, a complete review and tripartite dialogue for a new or amended labour code,¹⁷ including the issues of freedom of association and non-discrimination, will be key to advancing a fairer and more inclusive labour market in the next biennium.

¹⁷ The Parliament has been considering 39 amendments of the Code rather than a complete revision.

Section IV: Tripartite mechanisms for social dialogue

Article 23 (f) of the Constitution states that free trade unions may be formed within the limits of the law, and the Jordanian Labour Code protects the right to form and join a trade union. Collective bargaining is permitted, although not in the public sector. However, as mentioned in the previous section, Jordanian law still includes restrictions on freedom of association and social dialogue, and Jordan has still not ratified Convention No. 87 on freedom of association and protection of the right to organize. However, it has ratified Conventions No. 98 on the right to organize and collective bargaining, No. 135 on workers' representatives, and No. 144 on tripartite consultation.

In recent years, the Government has successfully established a series of tripartite bodies¹⁸ that are mandated to lead on social dialogue in specific areas of work. Despite the participation of the social partners in these tripartite platforms, their influence on policy remains weak, where they are unable to set the agenda or lead the pace of reform. The DWCP Committee, for example, has not met more than twice a year, according to the DWCP Progress Report (2014), failing to provide the necessary feedback mechanism required to effectively steer the DWCP. Neither has it coordinated with the National Tripartite Labour Committee, which is equally concerned with labour issues. Similarly, the committees for occupational health and Safety (OSH) have not initiated any social dialogue on OSH since their inception.

The DWCP evaluation (2014) subsequently described social dialogue, and workers' and employers' representation as "an area in which progress has been most lacking." Social dialogue has remained a government-led process, with little initiative from either of the social partners to conduct bipartite social dialogue on issues of common concern. Instead, the social partners continue to depend on the Government for tripartite social dialogue. The focus of social dialogue has also been limited to the formal economy, with scant attention paid to the informal economy and migrant workers or, more recently, the Syrian refugee crisis.

Workers and employers' organizations

The General Federation of Jordanian Unions and workers' representation

On the union side, the GFJTU is the only formally recognized trade union federation. The DWCP evaluation (2014) described the industrial relations system in Jordan as rigid and top down, "where 17 designated economic sectors are represented by 17 sectoral unions under the umbrella of the

¹⁸ These include the Economic and Social Council, which is a consultative tripartite plus institution, which facilitates dialogue on economic and social policies, the National Social Security Board, the High Council for Human Resource Development, and the E-TVET Council that oversees the implementation of training activities for semi-skilled, skilled and technical level occupations. The 2010 Labour Code amendments also introduced several tripartite bodies, including the Tripartite Labour Committee, which has authority to fix the minimum wage and address issues related to labour legislation. In addition to the Tripartite Labour Committee, the Labour Code also established a Commission for the Extension of Collective Agreements, committees for occupational health and safety (applicable to enterprises with 50 workers or more), a committee for national dispute settlement, which addresses collective disputes at the central level, as well as a DWCP Tripartite National Committee, mandated to monitor and steer the DWCP.

GFJTU, all of which are given a monopoly right for representation of workers". In this way, the GFJTU has remained the sole representative of workers' rights and the only workers' representative involved in social dialogue. Several non-registered organizations of workers have been established at the sector level but there is limited collaboration with the GFJTU. A group of workers also tried to break this monopoly in workers' representation, establishing the Federation of Independent Trade Unions of Jordan in 2013, which signed a Protocol of Cooperation with the General Federation that same year. However, since its inception the Federation of Independent Trade Unions has split and the Protocol of Cooperation has ceased to be operational.

The trade union movement, therefore, continues to be centralized and unrepresentative of various segments of workers who remain excluded from its umbrella framework. Non-Jordanians, domestic and agricultural workers do not have the legal right to establish a trade union, and public civil servants are prohibited from engaging in union work. This forms a serious impediment to social dialogue and representation of workers' rights as workers are not fully represented by the GFJTU.

This lack of effective representation was exemplified by the fact that the majority of labour protests in 2014 were led by unrepresented segments of workers. Public sector workers led about 38 per cent of the 474 labour protests that took place that year. Unemployed individuals demanding employment led another 17 per cent of these protests, whereas trade unions were at the forefront of less than 15 per cent (Jordan Labour Watch, 2015). The ratification of Convention No. 87 and its effective implementation would establish channels for workers to voice their concerns and negotiate for their rights and interests, and help reduce social unrest.

The Jordan Chamber of Industry and employers' representation

The JCI represents the industrial sector, which employs around 240,000 workers, the majority of whom are Jordanian workers in the formal economy registered with the SSC – some 60 per cent of the total private sector workforce, excluding the agricultural sector. The Chamber is also an umbrella organization that represents the interests of the local chambers of industry, including the Amman, Zarqa and Irbid Chambers of Industry.

The ten subsectors of the industrial sector are all represented on the board of the JCI. However, small and micro-enterprises (representing 92 per cent of total industrial establishments) have only one board representative, who is not elected but appointed by 18 elected members of the board.¹⁹ In an effort to enhance employers' representation, the Director General of the JCI established an SME technical unit in 2013. This unit provides SME support to its members in the form of access to finance, markets and other advisory services.

¹⁹ This represents 8 per cent of industrial establishments.

Collective bargaining

In 2015, the General Trade Union of Workers in Textile Garment and Clothing Industries, and the sector employers' federations formally entered a new two-year collective bargaining agreement for the garment sector. The first CBA for the garment sector was signed in 2013, making the garment sector effectively one of only two sectors²⁰ where a CBA was in place at the sectoral level. The importance of the CBA is that it has promoted equal treatment for migrant workers in the garment sector, which employs approximately 40,000 workers, the majority of whom are from Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and India. Subsequent to the effective implementation of the CBA, garment workers are expected to receive the national minimum wage for textile sector workers, from which they had been excluded in 2011 when the minimum wage was raised. The CBA also stipulates working hours, OSH, and trade union representation, and establishes dispute settlement procedures at the factory and sector levels. However, migrant workers in the garment sector continue to be deprived of their right to organize and form unions and their wages remain less than the minimum wage for their Jordanian peers.

Outside the garment sector, however, collective bargaining remains void in the absence of mechanisms of implementation and enforcement. It is decentralized to the enterprise level and limited in scope, occurring largely without the active participation of social partners. The majority of enterprise-level collective bargaining occurs in large firms in the formal private sector. In this way, CB is used mostly as a mechanism for ad-hoc dispute resolution, rather than as a tool to address sectoral deficits in decent work or to establish minimum standards across the board for all enterprises in a given sector.²¹ The role of the Jordan Chamber of Industry in collective bargaining at the enterprise level is very limited, since enterprises are not direct members of the JCI but members of their respective regional chambers.

Even though collective bargaining has been limited, advancements in the garment sector have shed light on the importance of CBAs at the sectoral level and their potential application in other sectors of the economy. The Government and its social partners have successfully identified agro-foods, pharmaceuticals and construction as three sectors that could potentially benefit from CBAs at the sectoral level. In addition, the Jordan Compact (2016) presents a further opportunity to introduce best practices from the garment sector²² to the development zones.

²⁰ The other one is the restaurant sector.

²¹ A recent scoping study done by ILO 2015–2016 designed to provide basic information on the economic situation, labour markets, wages and working conditions and industrial relations arrangements of the Food Processing and Beverage Sector confirms CB activities at the enterprise level in this sector.

²² Work in the garment sector was inspired by the conclusion of a Free Trade Agreement between the US and Jordan, which stipulated decent work practices for preferential access of Jordanian garment and textile products on the US market.

Section V: Social protection

Achievements in meeting the social protection needs of the population

In 2014, Jordan introduced a new social security law, which included notable milestones in the area of social protection. The pension system expanded to include the self-employed and unemployment insurance benefits and maternity insurance were introduced, making Jordan the first country in the Middle East to boast a maternity insurance scheme with cash benefits. Even though these provisions had previously been introduced via the Social Security Law (SSL) of 2010, that law was only temporary, so the 2014 SSL was the first to formally include these provisions and is in line with ILO labour standards. Jordan has also ratified the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102), making it the first country in the Middle East to have ratified this ILO flagship social security Convention.

Existing schemes and main gaps in social protection

Health care

Jordan is faced with the dual challenge of meeting the humanitarian health needs of refugees amidst continuous demographic changes, whilst also strengthening its own health insurance benefits package to achieve universal health coverage for all Jordanians. Subsequent to the Syrian refugee influx, health care coverage, which in 2011 amounted to 79 per cent²³ of the population, has decreased considerably.

Jordan has not yet developed a standardized poverty and vulnerability system nor does it conduct standardized means testing. A significant proportion of workers in the informal economy remains outside healthcare coverage, resulting in high out-of-pocket payments. Out-of-pocket health expenditure amounted to 25 per cent of total health expenditure between 2007 and 2011. These payments increase the risk that individuals and households fall deeper into poverty. Improving means testing and extending health insurance so as to ensure it reaches all means-tested poor, including the working poor, is, therefore, necessary to enhance access to essential health care.

Syrian refugees stopped receiving free access to health care in November 2014, due to funding constraints. As a result, the percentage of Syrians suffering from non-communicable diseases who were unable to access medication or health services rose from 24 per cent in 2014 to 58 per cent in 2015 due to an inability to pay,²⁴ according to the JRP (2016–2018).

²³ The Civil Health insurance/Ministry of Health and the Civil Health Insurance/Royal Medical Services provided health coverage to 69 per cent of the total population in 2011. Private insurance companies extended health care to an additional 9 per cent of the population, and universities another 1 per cent.

²⁴ According to the JRP, 86 per cent of refugees live below the Jordanian poverty line.

Table (10): Existing social protection schemes in Jordan

Health insurance schemes	Children income security schemes	Income security for working age	Income security for the elderly, disabled and survivors
<p>Civil health insurance/ Ministry of Health (MoH)</p> <p>Target: Employees of the public sector, dependents, retired public employees, pregnant women, elderly (over 60), handicapped, blood donors, children under 5, selected NAF beneficiaries; voluntary members.</p> <p>Agency: Ministry of Health; Civil Health Insurance Fund; Higher Health Council.</p>	<p>SSC dependent allowance of pensioner</p> <p>Target: Dependents of SSC pensioners below 18 years.</p> <p>Agency: SSC.</p>	<p>Government employees: Paid sick leave; paid maternity leave; work injury.</p> <p>Target: Public sector employees of ministries, government departments, official and public institutions, including the Jordanian Armed Forces, and Security Corps.</p> <p>Agency: SSC, the Central Medical Committee and Appeal Medical Committee.</p>	<p>Public sector insurance: Old age, disability and death insurance</p> <p>Target: Government employees and survivors of insured.</p> <p>Agency: SSC, private insurances.</p>
<p>Health insurance NAF beneficiaries</p> <p>Target: The poorest Jordanian citizens and residents of remote areas.</p> <p>Agency: National Aid Fund.</p>	<p>SSC child as survivor beneficiary</p> <p>Target: Dependents of deceased SSC insured persons, aged 0–23 years.</p> <p>Agency: SSC.</p>	<p>Workers in the formal sector: Work injury and occupational diseases insurance</p> <p>Target: All labourers subject to the provisions of the labour law in force. Workers who are not subject to the old-age pension under the provisions of civil or military retirement laws. Jordanians employed by regional and international missions, etc. Self-employed, employers and general partners working in their own firms, provided that the executive instructions determine their coverage-related provisions including working hours, leave, break hours, inspection and wages.</p> <p>Agency: SSC.</p>	

Health insurance schemes	Children income security schemes	Income security for working age	Income security for the elderly, disabled and survivors
<p>Civil Health Insurance/ Royal Medical Services (RMS)</p> <p>Target: Military, public security and civil defence personnel and their dependents, including some non-military (e.g. aviation and mining companies).</p> <p>Agency: RMS.</p>	<p>General educational system (without school nutrition programme)</p> <p>Target group: 4–18 years.</p> <p>Agency: MoE</p>	<p>Workers in the Formal Sector: Unemployment insurance</p> <p>Target: All labourers subject to the provisions of the labour law in force. Workers who are not subject to the old-age pension under the provisions of civil or military retirement laws. Jordanians employed by regional and international missions, etc. Self-employed, employers and general partners working in their own firms, provided that the executive instructions determine their coverage-related provisions including working hours, leave, break hours, inspection and wages.</p> <p>Agency: SSC.</p>	<p>Formal private sector: Old age pension, disability pension and death pension</p> <p>Target: All labourers subject to the provisions of the labour law in force. Workers who are not subject to the old-age pension under the provisions of civil or military retirement laws. Jordanians employed by regional and international missions, etc. Self-employed, employers and general partners working in their own firms, provided that the executive instructions determine their coverage-related provisions including working hours, leave, break hours, inspection and wages. Voluntarily insured.</p> <p>Agency: SSC.</p>
<p>SSC Work Injuries and occupational Diseases Insurance</p> <p>Target group: Compulsory for SSC insured.</p> <p>Agency: SSC</p>	<p>Pre-school (early child development)</p> <p>Target group: 4–6 years age groups.</p> <p>Agency: MoE.</p>	<p>Workers in the Formal Sector: Maternity insurance</p> <p>Target: All female labourers subject to the provisions of the labour law in force. Female workers who are not subject to the provisions applying to public sector employees. Jordanians employed by regional and international missions, etc. Female self-employed, female employers and general partners working in their own firms, provided that the executive instructions determine their coverage-related provisions including working hours, leave, break hours, inspection and wages.</p> <p>Agency: SSC</p>	
<p>University Staff and students; 1% of population covered.</p> <p>Agency: University hospitals, public and private providers.</p>	<p>Primary education</p> <p>Target group: 6–16 years age groups.</p> <p>Agency: MoE.</p>		

Health insurance schemes	Children income security schemes	Income security for working age	Income security for the elderly, disabled and survivors
	<p>Secondary education (with 3 branches)</p> <p>Target: 16–18 years age groups.</p> <p>Agency: MoE.</p>	<p>Social Protection for poor of working age: Ministry of Social Development</p> <p>Target: Disabled; abused children, battered women, juvenile offenders.</p> <p>Agency: MoSD.</p>	
<p>Private insurance companies</p> <p>Target: Employees of private companies, certain professions. 9% of the population covered.</p> <p>Agency: Public and private service providers</p>	<p>School Nutrition Programme</p> <p>Target: Poor students in grades 1–6.</p> <p>Agency: MoE.</p>	<p>Social Protection for poor of working age: National Aid Fund</p> <p>Target Group of cash assistance program: Persons without income. Any income received by one of the family members decreases the benefit received by 25% of the income amount up to the level when it is eliminated.</p> <p>Agency: NAF</p>	
	<p>Orphans care</p> <p>Target: 36,000 orphans age groups 0–18.</p> <p>Agency: MoSD, NAF, Zakat Fund.</p>		
	<p>Disabled children</p> <p>Target: 0–18 years age groups with disabilities.</p> <p>Agency: MoSD, NAF, Zakat Fund.</p>		
	<p>Child Labour Program</p> <p>Target: 32,676 working children below 16 years.</p> <p>Agency: MOL.</p>	<p>Social protection for poor of working age: National Zakat Fund</p> <p>Target: Extremely poor households which include orphans, persons with severe disabilities, and older people.</p> <p>Agency: Zakat Fund.</p>	
	<p>Social Assistance Programs</p> <p>Target: Children.</p> <p>Agency: MoSD.</p>		

Health insurance schemes	Children income security schemes	Income security for working age	Income security for the elderly, disabled and survivors
<p>UNRWA</p> <p>Target: Palestine refugees living in Jordan.</p> <p>Agency: UNRWA, Ministry of Health secondary care.</p>	<p>Social Assistance Programs</p> <p>Target: Children.</p> <p>Agency: NAF.</p>	<p>Active Labour Market Programs</p> <p>Target: Young involuntarily and voluntarily unemployed, poor households (mostly self-targeted).</p> <p>Agencies: VTC, NTWP, MOL, DEF, MoSD/NAF, MoPIC, MoI, MoE, MoAIA/ NZF, E-TVET Fund.</p>	<p>Lump sum compensation</p> <p>Target: Single insured women after reaching 45 years.</p> <p>Agency: SSC.</p>
<p>University Staff and students; 1% of population covered.</p> <p>Agency: University hospitals, public and private providers.</p>	<p>Social Assistance Programs</p> <p>Target: Children.</p> <p>Agency: Zakat Fund.</p>		<p>Social cash transfer programmes</p> <p>Target: Extremely poor households, including persons with older people.</p> <p>Agency: NAF.</p>

Source: Based on data from ILO SPF Costing Study (2014).

Income security for children

According to the 2008 Household Income and Expenditure Survey, around 17 per cent of all children in Jordan were classified as poor. As illustrated in table 10, social assistance programmes for children are very fragmented, with much of early support to poor students and school-age children still not statutory but administered on an ad-hoc basis. Children with disabilities and orphans suffer social exclusion due to a lack of access to education facilities, as well as fragmented or weak social protection coverage. In a step toward a rights-based approach to child protection, Jordan passed the Juvenile Justice Law number 32 in 2014. Institutionalizing and broadening national child protection systems to address the expanding demographics and specific needs of vulnerable host communities and refugee children should be considered a priority.

Income security for persons of active age who are unable to earn sufficient income, in particular in cases of sickness, unemployment and maternity

As mentioned previously, Jordan has expanded the pension system to include the self-employed, and has introduced maternity benefits²⁵ and an unemployment insurance scheme. The unemployment insurance scheme, however, still needs to be reformed to provide greater income security to unemployed persons. Furthermore, the Government is aware that a large swathe of the working population is still not covered by any social protection scheme. According to SSC figures, some

²⁵ The Social Security Fund now covers maternity cash benefits; previously the onus was on employers.

27–36 per cent of Jordanian workers hold contracts without any form of social insurance specified.²⁶ Thus, the Government faces the dual challenge of expanding the scope and reach of its income security programmes for persons of active age, whilst also providing basic needs assistance to Syrian refugees and host communities affected by the crisis.

Income security for elderly and disabled persons

In 2012, approximately 29 per cent of men and 91.7 per cent of women in (statutory) old age were not covered by any pension scheme. This low coverage may be explained by the low female labour market participation and the fact that until 2009, only enterprises with five or more workers were covered by the national pension scheme, administered by the SSC. In addition, non-contributory allowance for all people in statutory old age (women 55 years and older, men 60 years and older) and the disabled (men 15–59 years, women 15–54 years) is still not available. Introducing a non-contributory allowance for uninsured older people and disabled people as part of the SSC system (at least as a percentage of the national poverty line) is therefore key to enhancing income security for elderly persons.

Main social protection priorities identified by national constituents

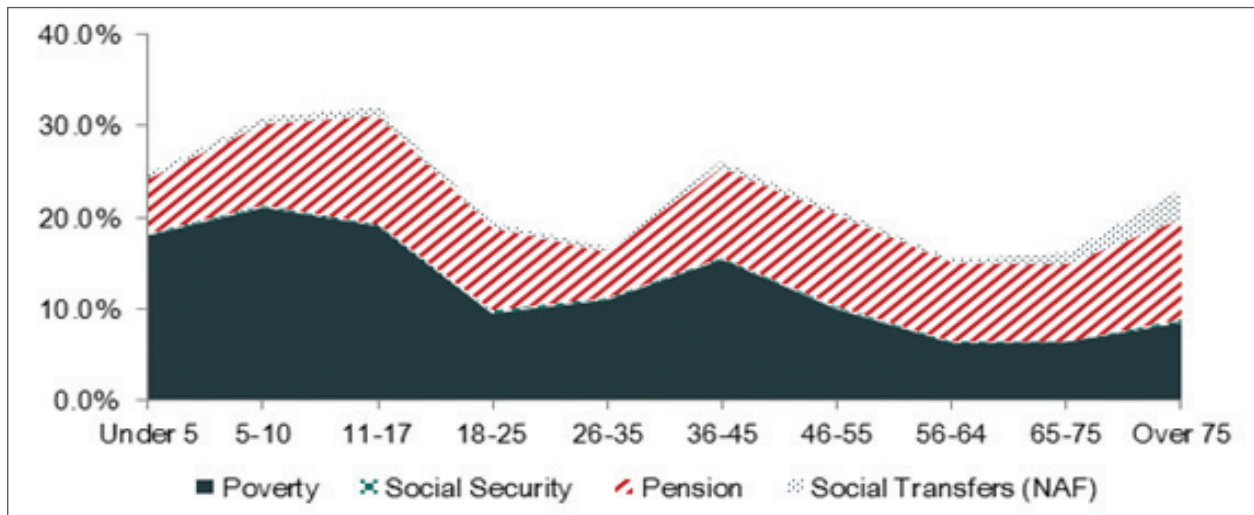
The Government of Jordan's main priority in the area of social protection is to increase social security coverage, as part of national efforts to establish a national social protection floor. The floor provides a set of basic social security guarantees, such as a minimum level of essential health care, including maternity care, and basic income security to all in Jordan.

At the International Labour Conference in June 2012, ILO member States, including Jordan, endorsed the ILO Recommendation concerning national floors of social protection (No. 202). The social protection floor (SPF) is in line with Jordan's national priorities as reflected in the National Plan, Vision 2025, and the SDGs.

Since then, Jordan has set up an SPF Advisory Board (in October 2012) and developed a first draft of the roadmap for implementing a national SPF. In addition to providing basic social guarantees to its own population, the Government, as per the Jordan Response Plan (2016–2018), will also seek to address the social protection needs of vulnerable groups affected by the Syrian crisis to ensure improved access to social protection. Figure 5 demonstrates the impact of existing social insurance and social protection schemes on poverty over the life course in Jordan.

²⁶ According to the JRP, 52 per cent of Jordanian workers hold contracts without any form of social insurance specified, whereas another 40 per cent of the workforce is in informal employment. Of those receiving social insurance, 40 per cent are eligible for insurance against work injuries, 19 per cent for old age, disability and death insurance, and just 5 per cent have insurance against unemployment. Some 55 per cent of working women receive maternity insurance. Furthermore, the working poor who, in fact, constitute more than half (55.2 per cent) of the WAP living below the poverty line, are ineligible for support from the National Aid Fund. For the unemployed, Jordan still lacks any employment schemes that would guarantee employment for a certain number of days at the minimum wage.

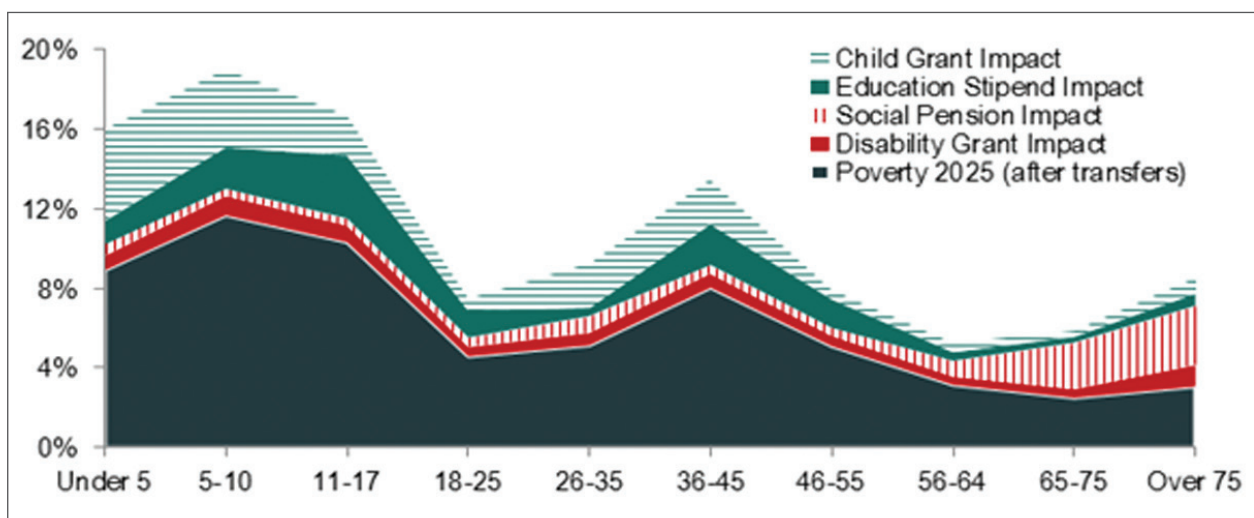
Figure 5. Impact of social insurance/protection schemes on poverty over the life course



Source: ILO calculations based on HIES 2010 data.

The following graph (figure 6) demonstrates the impact of a suggested national social protection floor on poverty over the life course in Jordan.

Figure 6. Impact of suggested SPF programmes on poverty over the life course



Source: ILO calculations based on HIES 2010 data.

Section VI: Conclusions and way forward

This section presents a few broad recommendations based on the analysis presented in this diagnostic report. These recommendations, alongside the DWCP Results Framework (2016–2017), are meant to provide the basis for further discussions among tripartite partners, informing the selection of key outcomes and objectives for the DWCP extension.

The National Employment Strategy (2011–2020) and action plan outline Jordan’s vision for inclusive and productive growth and its national priorities. The NES has clearly identified the key challenges to inclusive growth and productive employment, including job-poor growth, high structural unemployment, including youth unemployment, and a labour market highly segmented by gender, immigrant status, and the public/private division. Tackling the Syrian refugee crisis in the midst of the aforementioned poses a significant challenge.

The following are 10 important directions that the ILO would like to support in the coming years:

- (i) **Promote policy coherence to ensure that all social and economic policies positively contribute to the key challenge of creating decent jobs for all in Jordan.** Policy coherence can be strengthened as part of implementing the NES and the Jordan Compact, and in defining employment outcomes for all infrastructure work in the country.
- (ii) **Broaden representation of workers’ and employers’ organizations and introduce collective bargaining in various sectors of the economy (beyond the garment sector).** Effective tripartite dialogue is contingent on more representative and inclusive workers’ and employers’ organizations, which are able to lead dialogue on key issues of concern to their respective constituencies. This necessarily entails wider representation for SMEs in employers’ organizations, and the inclusion of the voice of various segments of currently unrepresented workers.
- (iii) **Promote tripartite dialogue for a new or amended labour code and related regulations.** Such dialogue should focus on issues related to freedom of association and non-discrimination, women’s employment, occupational safety and health, and apprenticeships.
- (iv) **Strengthen labour inspection.** There is a need to strengthen labour inspection and enhance its effectiveness, taking into account lessons learnt from the Better Work programme on efficient compliance practices. Special focus should be on those in the informal economy, adopting a prevention-oriented approach, based on adequate consultation and coordination with workers and employers’ organizations.
- (v) **Promote a “Women at Work” national agenda.** There is a need to remove structural and legal barriers that limit women’s participation in the labour market, and work on social and cultural biases that penalize workers. In particular, there is a need to ensure that the principles of

gender equality and non-discrimination are an integral part of the national legal and regulatory framework. In this way, barriers that limit the capacities of women to enter and remain in the labour market as well as start and grow their own businesses will be eliminated. At a macro level, there is a need to design policies that are based on an accurate understanding of structural inequalities and the range of labour market failures stemming from the exclusion of women.

- (vi) Enhance the governance of mixed migration flows.** In line with ILS and under the rubric of the Fair Migration Agenda and the SDGs (in particular targets 8.7 and 8.8), the Government of Jordan and its social partners will need to explore policies to better manage the governance of mixed migration flows, and address the potentially conflicting policy priorities of “Jordanization”, fair treatment of migrant workers, and decent work for refugees and displaced people within Jordan.
- (vii) Design and implement a clear policy with regard to Syrian refugee access to livelihoods and employment.** Efforts should focus on (a) strengthening the capacity of private sector companies’ capacities and workers’ competencies to make the most of the Jordan-EU trade agreement; (b) reinforcing the existing labour governance system, with a special focus on compliance programmes and on capacity-building of the labour inspection system; and (c) providing immediate opportunities for job creation through employment-intensive programmes.
- (viii) Expand the National Framework on Child Labour (NFCL) to be applied to all children in Jordan.** Linkages between humanitarian and national efforts to combat child labour should be promoted as a priority, as well as setting up specific annual targets for identifying, withdrawing and rehabilitating working children, and for the National Framework on Child Labour to deliver on its promises.
- (ix) Strengthen the social protection floor.** There is a need to ensure that the social security system is financially sustainable in the long run, to enhance the coherence of its pension system, and better harmonize public and private social security pension schemes in order to minimize inefficiencies, prevent people from falling into poverty, and guarantee the portability of benefits across schemes. An SPF coordination mechanism needs to be established to ensure that there is no overlapping or collision of benefits and that no one who is eligible to a benefit is neglected.
- (x) Ensure the right competencies and services are available to companies through a marked advance of skills-development programmes.** There is a need to shift from an automatic continuation of courses to an evidence-based prioritization of those that are more likely to result in employment of graduates. This shift needs to be supported by greater involvement of social partners in the TVET system, and a functioning monitoring and evaluation system. Provision of affordable and needs-based business development services should be strengthened and complemented by easing access to financial support and markets.

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Appendix I: Jordan's ratification of core ILO Conventions

Fundamental principles and rights at work	No.	Convention	Ratified	Year
The right to freedom of association and collective bargaining	87	Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise	No	
	98	Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining	✓	1968
Forced labour	29	Forced Labour	✓	1966
	105	Abolition of Forced Labour	✓	1958
Child labour	138	Minimum Age	✓	1998
	182	Worst Forms of Child Labour	✓	2000
Discrimination	100	Equal Remuneration	✓	1966
	111	Discrimination (Employment and Occupation)	✓	1963

Appendix II: Jordan's ratification of all International Labour Organization Conventions

No.	Title	Ratification date
29	Forced Labour Convention, 1930	6 June 1966
81	Labour Inspection Convention, 1947	27 March 1969
98	Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention	12 December 1968
100	Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951	22 September 1966
102	Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952	12 February 2014
105	Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957	31 March 1958
106	Weekly Rest (Commerce and Offices) Convention, 1957	23 July 1963
111	Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1968	4 July 1963
116	Final Articles Revision, 1961	4 July 1963
117	Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards) Convention, 1962	7 March 1963
118	Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962	7 March 1963
119	Guarding of Machinery Convention, 1963	4 May 1964
120	Hygiene (Commerce and Offices) Convention, 1964	11 March 1965
122	Employment Policy Convention, 1964	10 March 1966
124	Medical Examination of Young Persons (Underground Work	6 June 1966
135	Workers' Representatives Convention, 1971	23 July 1979

No.	Title	Ratification date
138	Minimum Age Convention, 1973	23 March 1998
142	Human Resources Development Convention, 1975	23 July 1979
144	Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards) Convention	5 August 2003
147	Merchant Shipping (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1976	1 April 2004
150	Labour Administration Convention, 1978	10 July 2003
159	Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (Disabled Persons) Convention, 1983	13 May 2003
182	Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999	20 April 2000
185	Seafarers' Identity Documents Convention (Revised), 2003	9 August 2004
123	Minimum Age (Underground Work) Convention, 1965	6 June 1966 denounced due to ratification of C. 138
	Maritime Labour Convention, 2006 (MLC, 2006)	27 April 2016

Appendix III: List of interviewees

One or more interviews were held with each of the ILO specialists and Programme Officers listed below in 2016. These were semi-structured interviews of about 30 minutes each, inquiring about the main achievements from the past DWCP, priorities for the extension of the DWCP, as well as key DW deficits impeding the realization of DW, within their respective areas of expertise.

No.	Name	Position	Date
1	Patrick Daru	Regional Skills and Employability Specialist	14 Mar
2	Yasser Ali	Consultant (Skills)	16 Mar
3	Suha Labadi	Project Coordinator (WIF/FAIR projects)	17 Mar
4	Maha Kattaa	Crisis Response Coordinator	17 Mar
5	Tariq Haq	Employment Specialist (HQ)	16 Mar
6	Chris Donnges	Economist working for the Employment-Intensive Investment Programme (EIIP) in DEV/INVEST	17 Mar
7	Hans van de Glind	Regional Migration Specialist	22 Mar
8	Phil Fishman	Senior Technical Advisor (FPRW)	17 Mar
9	Insaf Nizam	CTA (Child Labour)	16 Mar
10	Tareq Abuqaoud	CTA (BWJ)	16 Mar
11	Ursula Kulke	Regional Social Security Specialist	22 Mar
12	Torsten Schackel	Regional ILS and Labour Law Specialist	24 Mar
13	Mustapha Said	Regional Workers' Specialist	16 Mar
14	Rania Bikhazi	Regional Enterprise Development Specialist	18 Mar
15	Emanuela Pozzan	Regional Gender Specialist	17 Mar
16	Lama Oueijan	Regional Employers' Specialist	23 Mar
17	Shaza Al Jundi	Jordan Programme Officer	18 Mar
18	Natalie Bavitch	Regional M&E Officer	18 Mar





International Labour Organization

For more information, contact:

International Labour Organization

Regional Office for the Arab States

Aresco Center, Justinien Street, Kantari

P.O.Box 114088- Riad El Solh 1107 - 2150

Beirut – Lebanon

Tel: +961 - 1 - 752400

Fax: +961 - 1 - 752405

Email: beirut@ilo.org

Website: www.ilo.org/arabstates

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