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**DEMOGRAPHICS, LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION
AND UNEMPLOYMENT IN JORDAN**

Nader Mryyan

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Abstract

To better understand the demographic trends in Jordan, it is useful to relate these trends to the historical population displacement in the region and the geostrategic location of Jordan. Jordan's location in the middle of the Arab World influences labor mobility to and from Jordan. On one hand, Jordan is surrounded by Arab countries with large populations like Iraq, Syria and Egypt; the citizens of these countries can enter Jordan without an entry visa, except for Iraq lately. On the other hand, Jordan is close to the rich Gulf countries, which have abundant natural resources and a small population. The availability and quality of jobs and the higher wages in the GCC have pulled hundreds of thousands of Jordanian workers to migrate to those countries and live there for years. This flow of people and workers to and from Jordan characterizes Jordan's labor market giving it some distinctive features that leads to an unstable labor supply model, and complicates its forecast and development. The analysis in this paper will be mainly based on the Jordan Panel Labor Market Survey (JLMPS), which was conducted in 2010.

ملخص

من أجل فهم أفضل للاتجاهات الديموغرافية في الأردن، من المفيد أن نتصل هذه الاتجاهات بالحقائق التاريخية لنزوح السكان في المنطقة والموقع الجغرافي الاستراتيجي للأردن. يؤثر موقع الأردن في وسط العالم العربي على حركة العمالة من وإلى الأردن. من ناحية، تحيط بالأردن بعض الدول العربية ذات الكثافة السكانية العالية مثل العراق وسوريا ومصر، ومواطني هذه الدول يمكن أن تدخل الأردن دون الحصول على تأشيرة دخول، باستثناء العراق في الآونة الأخيرة. من ناحية أخرى، تقع الأردن على مقربة من دول الخليج الغنية، والتي لديها موارد طبيعية وفيرة وعدد صغير من السكان. وأدى توافر فرص العمل ونوعيتها وارتفاع الأجور في دول مجلس التعاون الخليجي إلى هجرة مئات الآلاف من العمال الأردنيين إلى تلك البلدان، والحياة هناك لسنوات عديدة. هذا التدفق من العمال من وإلى الأردن يميز سوق العمل في الأردن ويعطيها بعض الخصائص المميزة التي تؤدي إلى نموذج غير مستقر لعرض العمل، وهذا يؤدي إلى تعقيد توقعاتها وبالتالي تنميتها. وسيتم التحليل في هذه الورقة على أساس المسح التتبعي لسوق العمل في الأردن (JLMPS)، والذي أجري في عام 2010.

1. Introduction

To better understand the demographic trends in Jordan, it is useful to relate these trends to the historical population displacement in the region and the geostrategic location of Jordan. Established in 1921 as “Trans Jordan” the country was made of the East Bank of the Jordan River. The creation of Israel in 1947 and the 1948 war between the Arab states and Israel forced some Palestinians out of Palestine and into Jordan among other Arab countries in the region. The population of Jordan was 1,330,021 in 1952, which includes the East and West Banks of the Jordan River, which were united under the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan. Under the unity of both banks, Palestinian west bankers became part of Jordan’s population. In the 1967 war, Israel occupied the West Bank of Jordan and forced some Palestinians out of their homes; more refugees fled to Jordan and stayed there. Political instability in the region over the last sixty years has forced immigration into Jordan coming from Lebanon, Kuwait and Iraq, in addition to Palestine, which led to the increase of Jordan’s population to 3.9 million in 1995, 5.1 million in 2006 and 5.5 million in 2010. In other words, Jordan’s population increased by more than 4 times in less than 50 years.

Jordan’s location in the middle of the Arab World influences labor mobility to and from Jordan. On one hand, Jordan is surrounded by Arab countries with large populations like Iraq, Syria and Egypt; the citizens of these countries can enter Jordan without an entry visa, except for Iraq lately. Due to differences in the economic structure and management between Jordan and these countries, hundreds of thousands of workers from these countries have made Jordan their final destination; some of them live and work there for a long time, and others commute monthly or bi-monthly, mainly between Jordan and Syria. On the other hand, Jordan is close to the rich Gulf countries, which have abundant natural resources and a small population. The availability and quality of jobs and the higher wages in the GCC have pulled hundreds of thousands of Jordanian workers to migrate to those countries and live there for years.

This flow of people and workers to and from Jordan characterizes Jordan’s labor market giving it some distinctive features. In a way Jordan is a safe haven for many Arab citizens living in troubled countries, which makes immigration to Jordan a key factor contributing to the population growth and structure. Because the mobility for some Arab workers’ between Jordan and their home countries runs without major difficulties or strict control by the Jordanian government, Jordan ends up hosting hundreds of thousands of Arab workers among other nationalities; the total number of foreign workers working legally in Jordan in 2010 reached 300,000; eventually this situation reflects on the labor supply. Another characteristic of the Jordanian labor market is that skilled, highly educated Jordanian workers choose to work in the GCC. Good estimates about their number, qualifications and working conditions are not available; some estimates put their number between 500,000 and 600,000 workers or about one third of Jordan’s total labor force. Due to this continuous brain drain from Jordan, it is hard to predict who of Jordan’s human resources will stay and be available for work in Jordan, and who will go to work and live abroad. This leads to an unstable labor supply model, and complicates its forecast and development.

2. Demographic Analysis

The analysis in the following sections will be mainly based on the Jordan Panel Labor Market Survey (JLMPS), which was conducted in 2010.

JLMPS data confirmed Jordan’s main demographic indicators, which indicate that Jordan is a young society. Table 1 shows that 38% of its population is below the age of 15, the percentage of aging people has increased in recent years and has reached 4% , the young people (15-24) represent 20% of the total population, and the working age population (15-64) represents 58% of the population. The total population has increased from five million in 2006 to 5.5 million in 2010, with an average annual growth rate of 2.5% (Anexx-1). Table 2

shows that the majority of the population is concentrated around the capital city of Amman; 60% of the people live in the Amman governorate and in the three governorates adjacent to it, Jordan is a highly urbanized country, 81% of the population lives in urban centers.

Figures 1 and 2 show the age distribution of the urban and rural population by gender; both distributions were uni modal, and the mode was around the age of 3 for both males and females in the urban areas, and about one year for males and 2 years for females in the rural areas. This suggests that more babies are born every year; the number of children going to the education system and the number of youth joining the labor market will keep rising for at least the coming two decades.

The second important feature of the working age population is the education. School enrollment is almost universal for both males and females— the new entrants to the labor market are not just younger but more educated. Table 1.3 shows that the average number of years in schools for males that were born in 1930 was 6; it jumped to more than 11 for those born in 1960. The number of years spent in the schools for males born between 1960 and 1980 was stagnant at around 11 years, and it started to increase for those born in 1987 to about 13 years of schooling. The progress was faster for females. Their average number of years of schooling jumped from about 5 years for those born in 1930 to about 8 years for those born in 1960 and to more than 13 years for those born in 1987. Figures 3 and 4 indicate that the illiteracy rate is low in Jordan if compared with other countries in the region; about 3% for males and 8% for females; and as expected, the illiteracy rates are higher in the rural areas than in the urban areas, and it was more than double for females. The percentage of the population with tertiary education was 22% for males and 24% for females, which indicates gender equality in the education system. Since basic education is compulsory and most of the young people have already finished that level, people with this level of education made the largest segment of the population cohort.

3. Labor Force Participation

Two definitions of the labor force were used in the following analysis:

The Market Labor Force: it includes all those who are either engaged in an economic activity for purposes of market exchange or seeking such work.

The Extended Labor Force: it includes those engaged in the production and processing of primary products, whether for the market, for barter, or for their own consumption (Assad and Amer 2008).

The distinction between the two definitions becomes important in economies where many women are engaged in animal husbandry and in the processing of dairy products for purposes of household consumption and thus counted as employed in the extended definition of the labor force.

It is expected that the differences between the two measures will not be significant in Jordan, mainly due to the small size of the agricultural sector, which in general employs a large number of the informal workers, mainly females who spend some of their time and effort processing and storing their families' food and other basic commodities. The high dependency of the Jordanian employers on foreign workers, particularly in the agricultural and service sectors, shifted the expectations of the Jordanian job seekers towards the private formal and public sectors, to work for wages. However, using the two definitions of the labor force will deepen the understanding of the unemployment size by politicians and the public, since there is a general feeling among the public that the actual unemployment rates are higher than the official published rates, and on the other hand, using these two definitions of the labor force will allow us to compare the labor market indicators with other Arab countries that have already conducted or expect to conduct the Labor Market Panel Survey.

Figure 5 confirms the above expectations; the size of the labor force under the extended definition exceeded its size under the market definition by just 1.5%, while the difference was 20% for Egypt in 2006 (Assad 2009). The table shows that the labor force in Jordan is greatly urbanized: 88% of the labor force according to the market definition and 79% according to the extended definition work in the urban centers. The figure reveals that while the differences between the extended labor force and the market labor force are negligible in the urban areas, they are significant in the rural areas, indicating that most of the non-market work takes place in the rural areas.

Figures 6 and 7 show the male and female labor participation rates by urban and rural locations respectively. Both figures indicate that Jordan suffers a large intellectual capital loss, as a result of the high enrollment rates in all levels of education for males and females, due to the low labor participation rates for both males and females, which reached about 50% for males and 14% for females. Male participation rates were modest for males below the age of 18, which is expected since most are still attending school. Eighteen is a critical age for Jordanian students; those who successfully complete the secondary education phase can proceed to the tertiary education, and those who do not might enter the labor market. This leads to a gradual increase in the labor participation rate at that age, which exceeded 50% at the age of 20 in both urban and rural areas, until it gets universal at the age of 25 in both urban and rural areas. Male labor force participation rates remain high in urban and rural areas and exceeds 90% for a peak period of 20 years for men between 25 and 44 years, and then starts to decline in urban and rural areas—but more rapidly in the rural areas—down to 50% and more for ages of 57 and above. Given the high life expectancy rate in Jordan which reached 73 years for men in 2009, and that the official retirement age is at 60, it is difficult to understand why Jordanian men pull out of the labor force early.

The female labor force participation rate in Jordan is among the lowest worldwide, even in the region; few young women below the age of 20 join the work force, partially because some of them are still students and thus are not active members of the labor force, but those who drop out of the education system at an early age and acquire only a low level of education find it difficult to join the work force for economic, social and cultural reasons. Between the ages of 22—the university graduation age—and the age of 26—the age at which they get married and start having children—the female labor participation rate reaches its peak and ranges between 28% at the age of 22 and 38% at the age of 26 in urban areas. In rural areas it reaches 40% at the age of 22 and drops down to 33% at the age of 26. Figure 7 shows that female participation rate in rural areas is higher than the rate in urban areas, almost for all ages, indicating that rural women work harder, but also die earlier.

Figure 8 shows male labor participation rates for the different levels of education. Secondary education can be used as a reference point, where people below this level of education are expected to be in the older age groups, some of them probably already at the retirement age and are no longer active members of the labor force, therefore their rate of participation ranged between 45% and 50%. Since we are dealing with people at the working age (15-64), and most of the people finish their basic education at the age of 16, it is therefore expected that the majority of the people with this level of education are already in the labor market, which to some extent explains the big jump in their labor participation rate to 75%. At the other side of the reference point, there are males with post-secondary, university, and post-graduate qualifications, which make them eligible for employment, and therefore their labor participation rates jump to the highest levels. One can say that male labor participation is influenced positively by the level of education.

Figure 9 shows female labor force participation rates by the level of education. The figure reveals an interesting female attitude towards female employment, or more frankly a social

attitude towards female employment. To explain this let us take the secondary education as a reference point, and if we ignore the vocational education for the time being—because it is not a separate level of education in Jordan—it is possible to say that the female labor market participation has two distinct segments. The first segment concerns females with education below the secondary level where their labor participation rates reaches a ceiling of 10% in both urban and rural areas. The second segment concerns females with education higher than the secondary level. Their labor force participation rate starts at 37% and 51% for females with post-secondary education in urban and rural areas respectively, and jumps to 84% and 87% for post-graduates. Educated women work more than uneducated women in Jordan, because women in the first group can easily find work in the public sector and in the formal private sector, as well as in economic activities which are preferred by the society for female employment.

Figure 10 examines the trends in labor force participation rates by gender over 10 years between 2000 and 2010, which indicates a decline in the male participation rates from 69% to 67% and a rise in the female participation rates from 13% to about 16% in 2000 and 2010 respectively. As stated earlier, the decline in male participation rate is mainly due to early retirement among Jordanian males, and the increase in female participation rate is mainly due to the increase in the number of female university graduates and the delay in the age of marriage.

Figure 11 reveals an important trend in the labor participation rates in Jordan during the last decade when measured by education level. The table shows that labor participation rates were lower in 2010 than in 2005, and they were lower in 2005 than in 2000 for secondary and above levels of education. The early withdrawal of males from the labor market is partially explained by legislations concerning the labor market, which make the early retirement from the military and the social security system least costly. To mitigate these effects, the government introduced two major changes to pension legislations. First, all military new recruits were listed under the social security pension umbrella. Second, the Social Security Corporation introduced major changes to the social security law, aimed at extending the early retirement age for both males and females, and making the early retirement more expensive. It is still too early for these legislations to make an impact on the labor market, but still, the decline in the male participation rates deserves more attention and a deeper analysis in the near future.

4. The Economic Activity of the Labor Force

The working age population is divided between the active population, which includes those participating in the labor force (employed and unemployed), and the non-active population, which includes groups of people who do not join the labor force, like students, housewives and property owners. The withdrawal of some productive human resources from the production process generates an opportunity loss to the economy; the value of such a loss depends on the quality and the productive life of the inactive resources.

Jordan stands out as a special case in terms of the low rate of the economic activity of its human resources. Figure 12 shows that the total inactivity rate was about 56% in 2010, which means that more than 50% of the working age population is not contributing to the GDP. It gets frustrating to see young females at the ages of 20-25 with such a high inactivity rate; 92% for the age of 20, 86% for the age of 22 and 65% for the age of 25 after graduating from the university. Males between the ages of 26-40 almost have universal activity; their inactivity rates start to rise after the age of 40, but they remain within internationally accepted ranges.

Figure 13 below shows how the inactivity rate changes with the change in education level for both males and females. The figure shows that the inactivity rate for females is high at low

levels of education and declines radically for the university graduates. A similar trend prevails for males but with a lower inactivity rate at all levels of education.

On the other hand, the gap in activity rate between males and females narrows down by the increase in the level of education, and becomes insignificant among university graduates of both sexes. Another important aspect reflected in the figure is that females with lower education levels, secondary and below rarely join the labor force. The reason for this is most probably a combination of social, cultural and work environment factors.

Figure 14 below shows the trends in the inactivity rates for males and females over the last decade, which indicate that the inactivity rates are not only high in general and extremely high for females, but also that they are long term and structural. The drop in the activity rates between 2000 and 2010 is marginal for the total of males and females. But if taken separately, trends for males are intriguing and difficult to explain. The inactivity rates for males have increased over the last 10 years, which means that Jordanian men have been dropping out of the labor force at a faster rate during the last decade. In interpreting this trend other important factors such as labor legislations, labor immigration, and the reliability of statistics for those returning to employment after an early retirement should be examined more carefully. On the other hand, female inactivity rates have declined over the last decade. This was expected due to the increased numbers of female university graduates over the last decade and the rise in marriage age for females, which in turn pushed more of them to join the labor force. While this may sound like good news, the economy's ability to generate sufficient jobs for the new entrants to the labor market remains to be seen.

Figure 15 below shows that the inactivity rates were higher in 2000 than in 2005, and were higher in 2005 than in 2010 for secondary education and higher levels. The structure of the curves does not change over time, indicating the same trends overtime: high inactivity rates at the lower levels of education, and low inactivity rates at the higher levels of education. This is mainly due to the fact that the majority of people under these categories are still students and they are not members of the labor force. This analysis reiterates the previous findings that these high inactivity rates in Jordan are structural and long term, and therefore they generate a huge loss of resources, and should carefully be investigated.

5. Unemployment Evolution

Two definitions of unemployment will be employed in the following section:

Standard definition of unemployment: under this definition, only those individuals who match the following characteristics were counted as unemployed: he/she had not worked at all in the week prior to the interview, was not attached to a job but wanted to work and was available to do so, and had actively searched for work during the three months prior to the survey. These are called active unemployed.

Broad definition for unemployment: the search element in the above definition was loosened to include the discouraged unemployed among the unemployed (Ragui Assad, 2009).

Under the market definition of economic activity, only market work counts as work; thus subsistence workers can be considered unemployed if the rest of the definition applies to them.

Under the extended definition, any subsistence work counts as work and subsistence workers are not considered unemployed even if they are searching for market work, which thus reduces the numerator of the unemployment rate. Moreover, the denominator now includes subsistence workers, most of whom are counted as out of the labor force in the market definition. As a result, the unemployment rate estimates under the extended definition are much lower than those under the scope of the market definition.

Figure 16 introduces the standard unemployment definition and the market labor force definition. Generally speaking, unemployment is always high in Jordan; its rate has been in a double digit figure for decades and it is more concentrated among females and youth. JLMPS data confirmed this fact; as shown in Figure 1.16 the rate of unemployment was 11.5 % in 2010, 9% among males and 20% among females, and it was higher in the rural areas. Male unemployment rates were 9% and 11% in urban and rural areas, respectively. Female rates were higher than male rates, at 17% and 31%, in urban and rural areas respectively.

Figure 17 introduces the extended labor force definition, and as we previously explained the differences between the market and the extended definitions for the labor force are marginal in Jordan; both definitions led almost to the same results. The total unemployment rate according to the extended definition was estimated at 11.2 %, 9.3% for males and 18.3% for females. These results coincide to a great extent with the previous results rendered by using the market definition of the labor force. The situation was different in Egypt, where the difference in unemployment rates between the two definitions of the labor force was more than two percentage points in 2006.

Figures 18 and 19 demonstrate almost the same regional pattern of unemployment by both definitions of unemployment. The middle region, which has the capital city and the highest percentage of the population and of national economic activity, scored the lowest unemployment rate, followed by the northern region where many workers commute daily to work in the middle region in addition to having a reasonable economic base, which leads the region to rank second with more than 3 percentage unemployment points more than the middle region. The southern region with its small population and a higher unemployment rate exceeded the rate of the middle region by more than 10 percentage points. The same differences stand true for males and females in the three regions.

Figure 20 provides estimates for the number of unemployed by using the two definitions of unemployment. The table reveals that there are no major differences between the number of unemployed under the same definition and the different labor force definitions. For instance, under the broad unemployment definition, the number of unemployed differs by only 246 between the market and the extended definitions of the labor force. Almost the same result is reached under the standard definition of unemployment with both definitions of the labor force. But a significant difference in the number of the unemployed is realized by using a different definition of unemployment, where the number of unemployed under the broad definition of unemployment was estimated at 174,097 and at 159,568 under the standard unemployment definition, both under the market labor force definitions. The difference in the number of unemployed between the two definitions came to about 14,500 unemployed, or 9%. The same results were reached under the extended labor force definition with the broad and standard unemployment definitions. The difference between the two measures came to 15,330 unemployed, or 10%. The differences in the number of unemployed in both cases represent the number of discouraged workers.

Unemployment is very high among youth. Figure 21 shows that the male unemployment rate exceeded 30% among the young new entrants to the labor market, with higher rates in rural areas than in urban areas. Unemployment is highly concentrated among youth (between 15 and 24 years); this rate is more than double the national average. High unemployment among youth reflects the presence of some structural problems in the economy, mainly its inability to absorb the new Jordanian comers to the labor market, the existence of a mismatch between education outputs and labor market requirements, in addition to the lack of programs that would facilitate the transition of youth from school to work. Unemployment declines sharply for males above the age of 25, reaching its lowest level for people around the age of 35. Unemployment again starts to rise for the ages of 35 and 45, to settle thereafter.

The picture is gloomier for females. Unemployment among young females (15-24) exceeds 40%, with a big gap between the rural and urban areas, and remains high for females in the age range of 25-35, but drops to nearly zero around the age of 45, the age where Jordanian women decide to leave the labor force altogether.

Socioeconomic and cultural factors, social perceptions, the economic structure, and the employment legislations and regulations affect the decisions of Jordanian females—on whether to join the labor market or not. One may ask what is special about Jordan in this regard because these same factors influence females' employment decision anywhere in the world. The answer might come from the different weight that the different factors have in different countries. In Jordan, and probably to a lesser extent in some Arab countries, the social and cultural factors have more weight than the other economic factors. This has led to a situation where there are young, low educated and poor females, who are not working because their family does not approve their working in a hotel or a factory for example. In another scenario, educated women with a university degree cannot join the labor market because no jobs are available in the public sector or in the education sector, or because the job requires working night shifts or commuting further than the psychologically accepted distance.

University male graduates have the highest unemployment rate among all the unemployed (vocational education is part of the secondary education). This rate was 10% and 15% in urban and rural areas respectively in 2010. This fact coincides with two other facts in the Jordanian economy. The first is that the higher education system has had a large expansion in the last two decades, when more public and private universities were opened, and therefore more university graduates are expected to join the labor market in the coming years. The second is that the demand for labor in Jordan goes largely for a lower level of education: more than 60% of the total Jordanian working force has secondary education or lower, and the new annual jobs created demand similar types of qualifications.

Concerning female employment in Jordan in general, educated females search for jobs after they graduate, for a short period of time, and uneducated females rarely join the labor force. Therefore, the unemployment rate among females with little education is low, while it is high among university graduates where it reached 24% in 2010. Female unemployment in rural areas is higher than in urban areas for all levels of education; this is not just because there are fewer jobs available in the rural areas, but also because there are more restrictions on women's employment.

Figures 25 and 26 show the unemployment trends over the last decade and indicate that a two digit employment rate has prevailed over the period. The unemployment rate among females was double that among males and the unemployment in 2005 was higher than in 2000 and in 2010. The unemployment rate is high and structural, more concentrated among youth and women. The unemployment rate was highest among university graduates, with the exception of the year 2000.

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Figure 1: Age Distribution of the Urban Jordanian Population by Sex

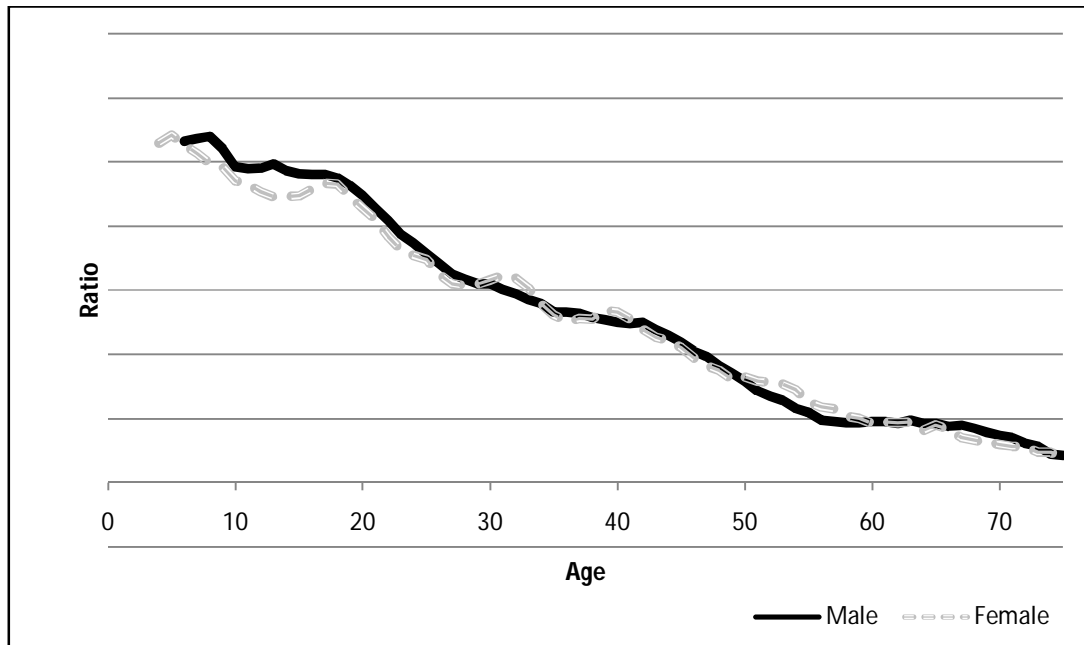


Figure 2: Age Distribution of Rural Jordanian Population by Sex (Age 15-64)

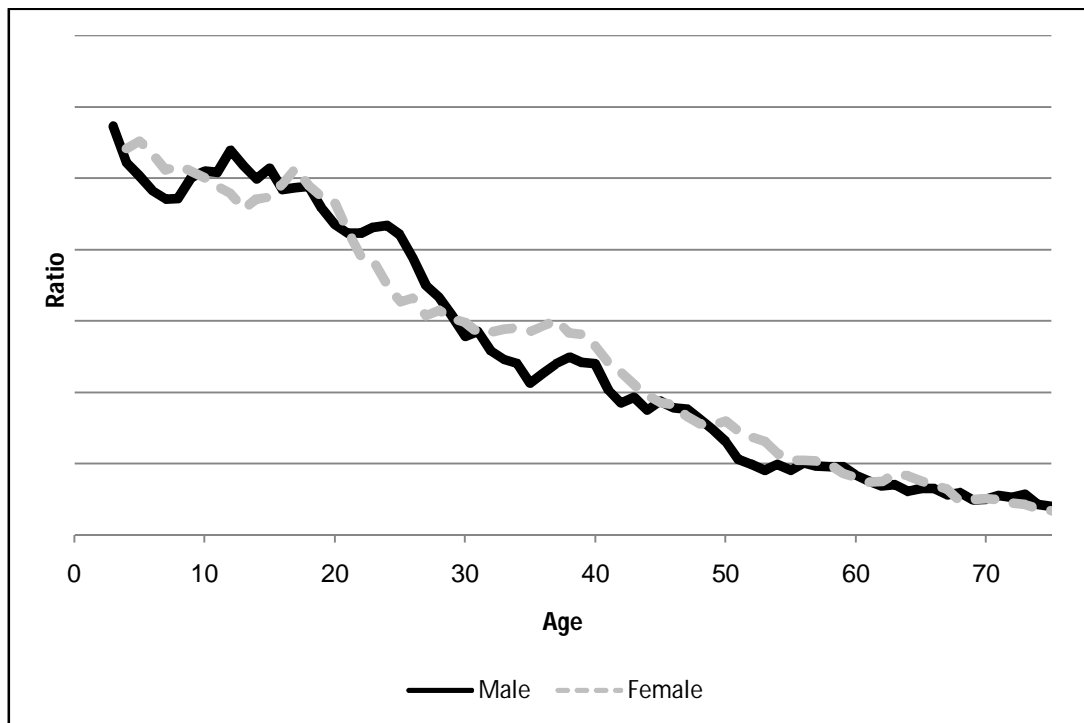


Figure 3: Distribution of the Male Population by Educational Attainment and Urban/Rural (Age 15-64)

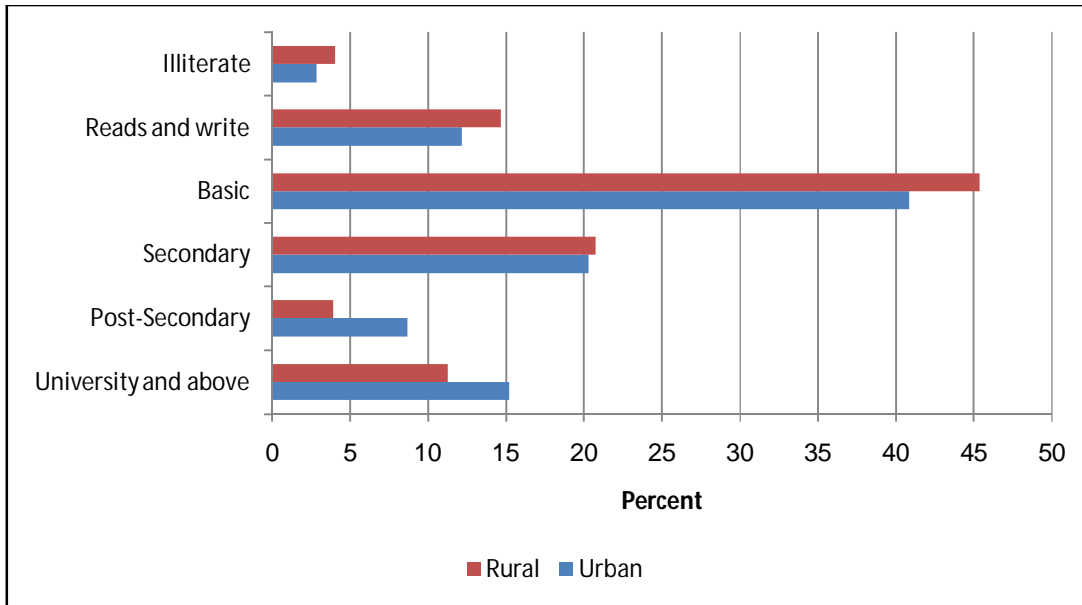


Figure 4: Distribution of the Female Population by Educational Attainment and Urban/Rural (age 15-64)

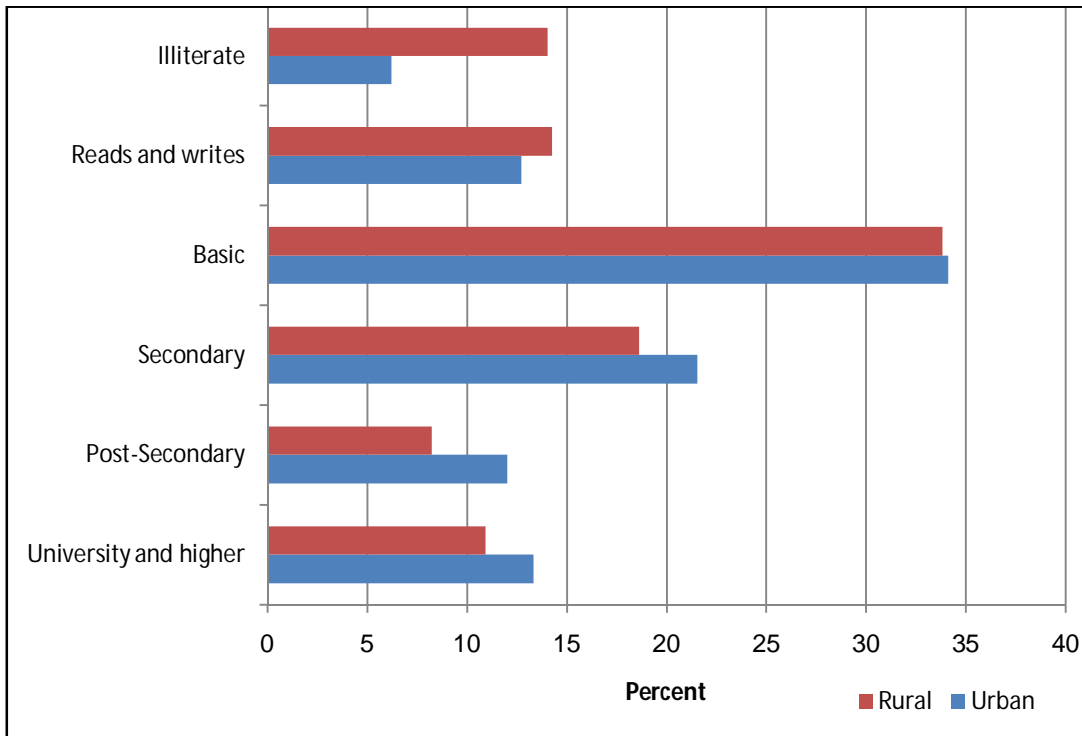


Figure 5: Size of Market and Extended Labor Force by Urban/Rural Location for Jordanians (Thousand)

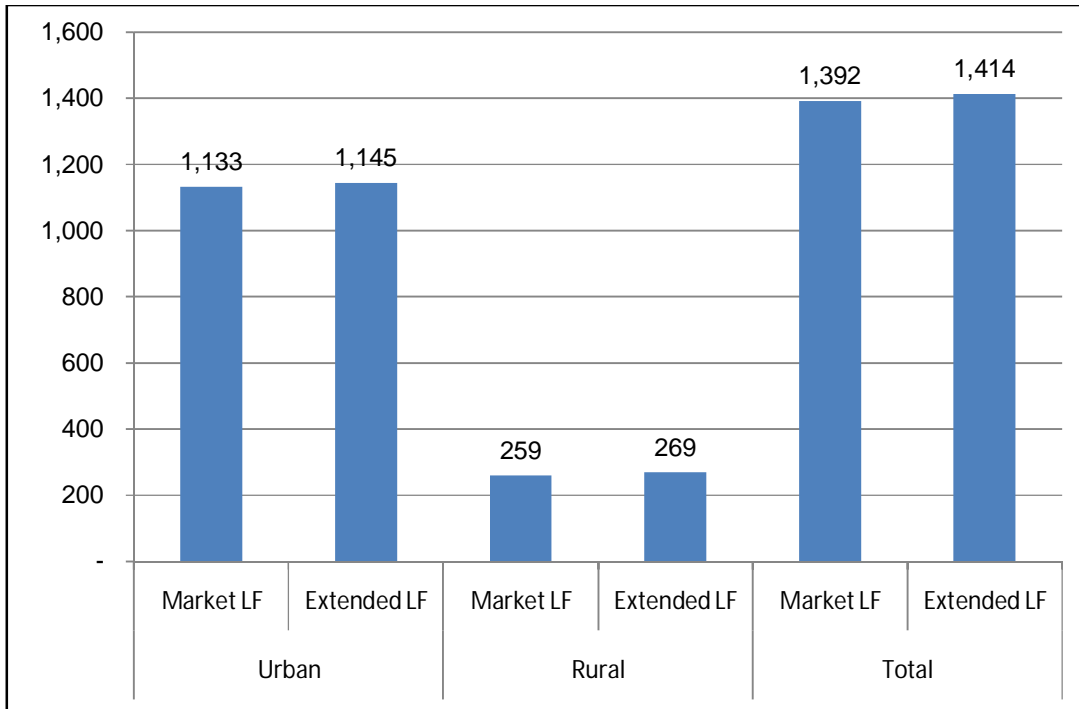


Figure 6: Male Labor Force Participation Rates by Age (15-64), Urban/Rural Location, Extended Labor Force Definition

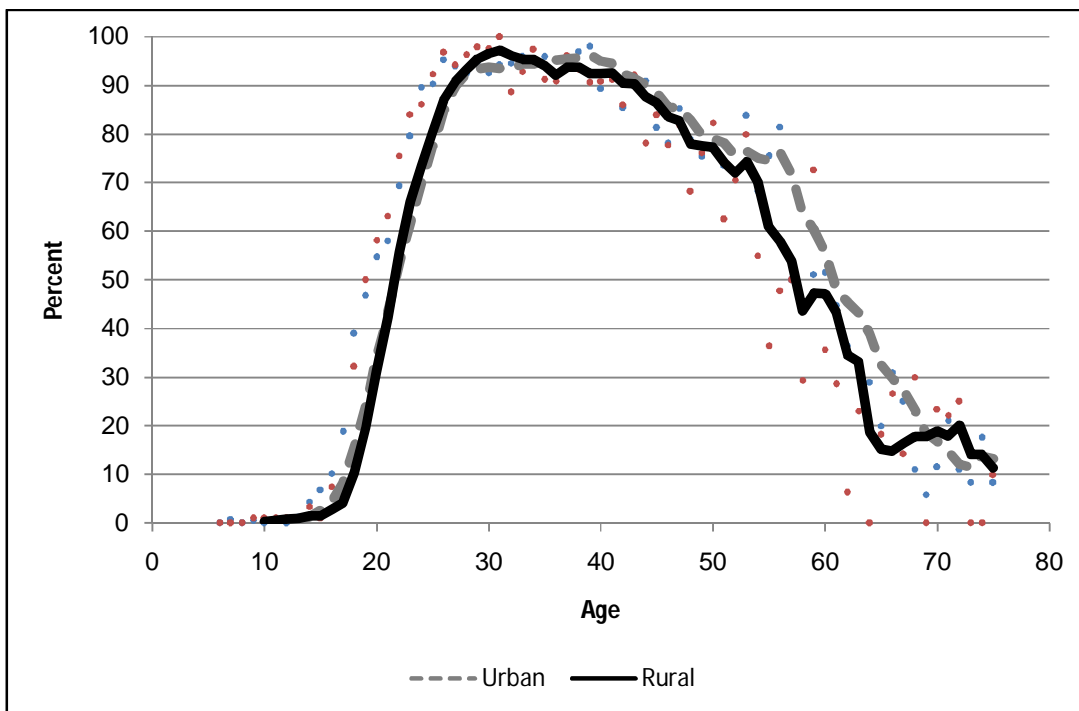


Figure 7: Female Labor Force Participation Rates by Age (15-64), Urban/Rural Location, Extended Labor Force Definition

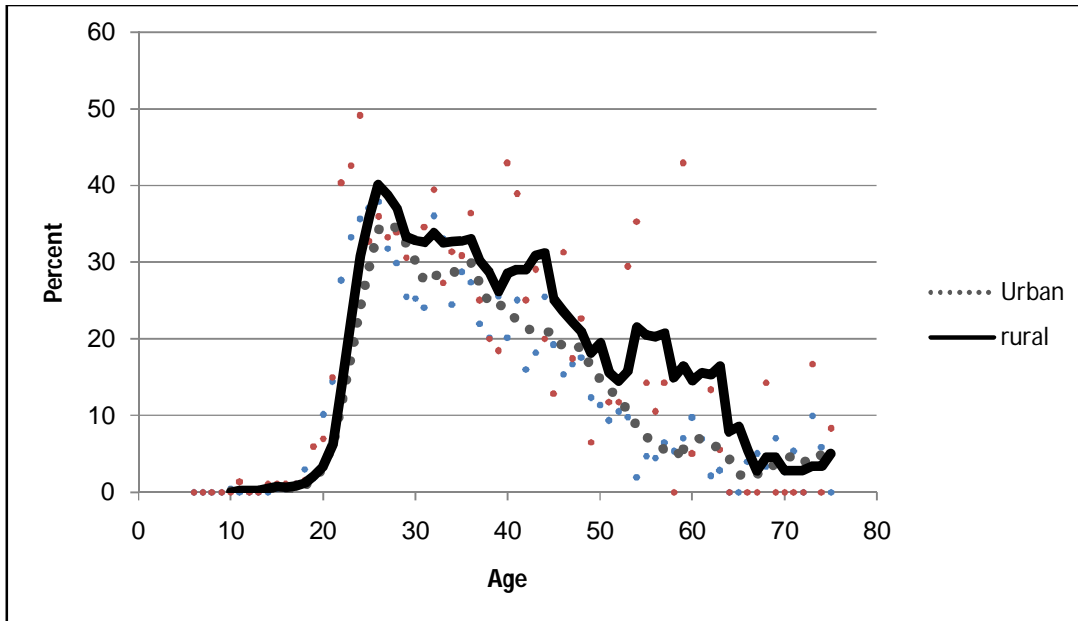


Figure 8: Male Labor Force Participation Rates by Educational Attainment, Urban/Rural Location, Age (15-64), Extended Labor Force Definition

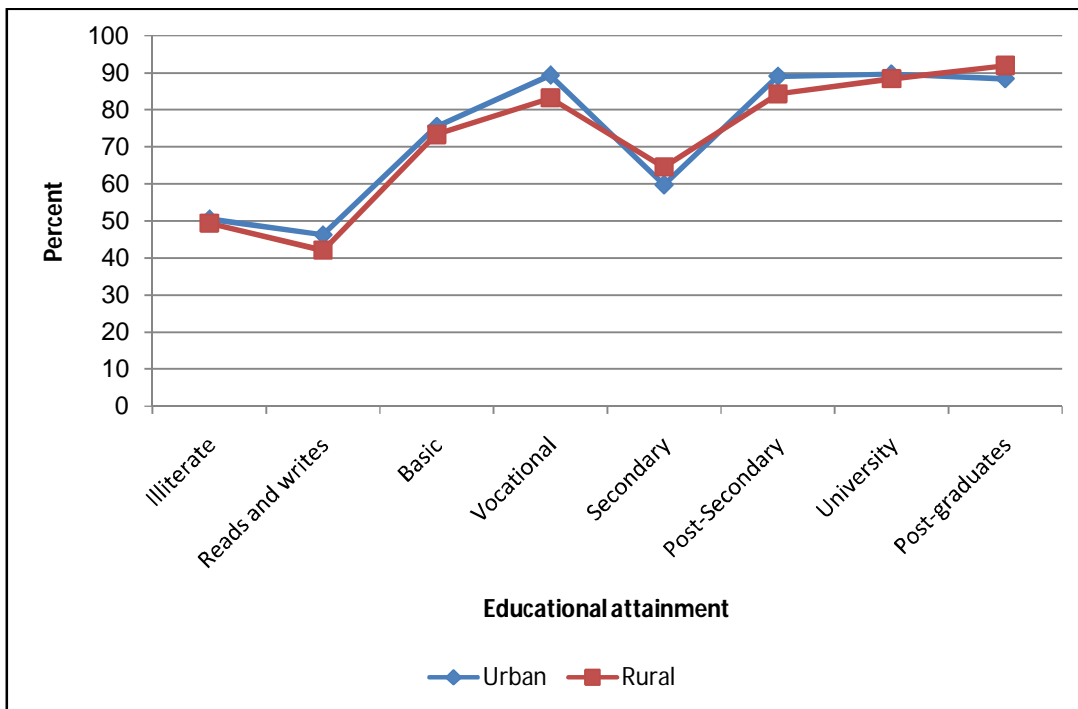


Figure 9: Female Labor Force Participation Rates by Educational Attainment, Urban/Rural Location, Age (15-64), Extended Labor Force Definition

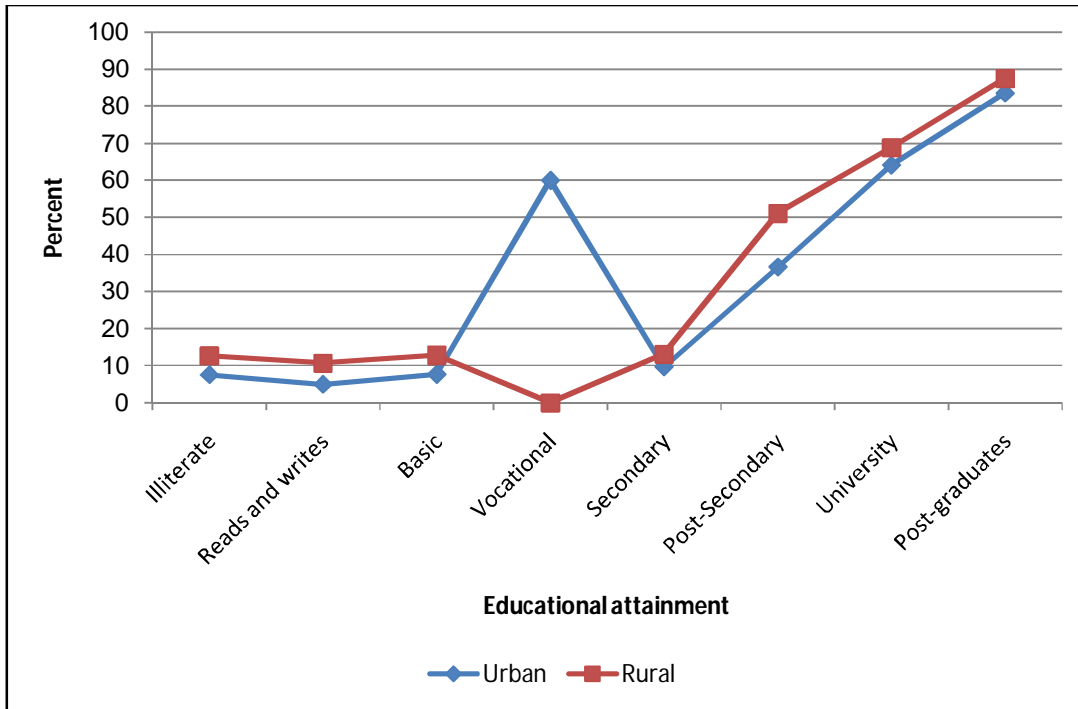
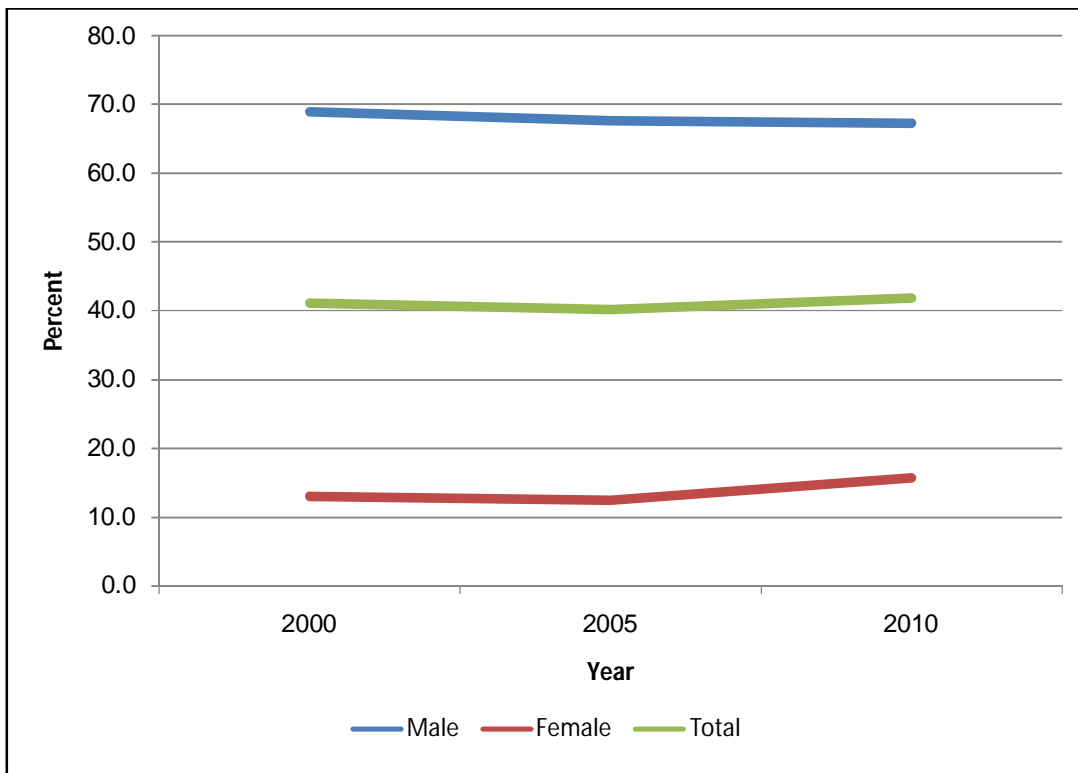
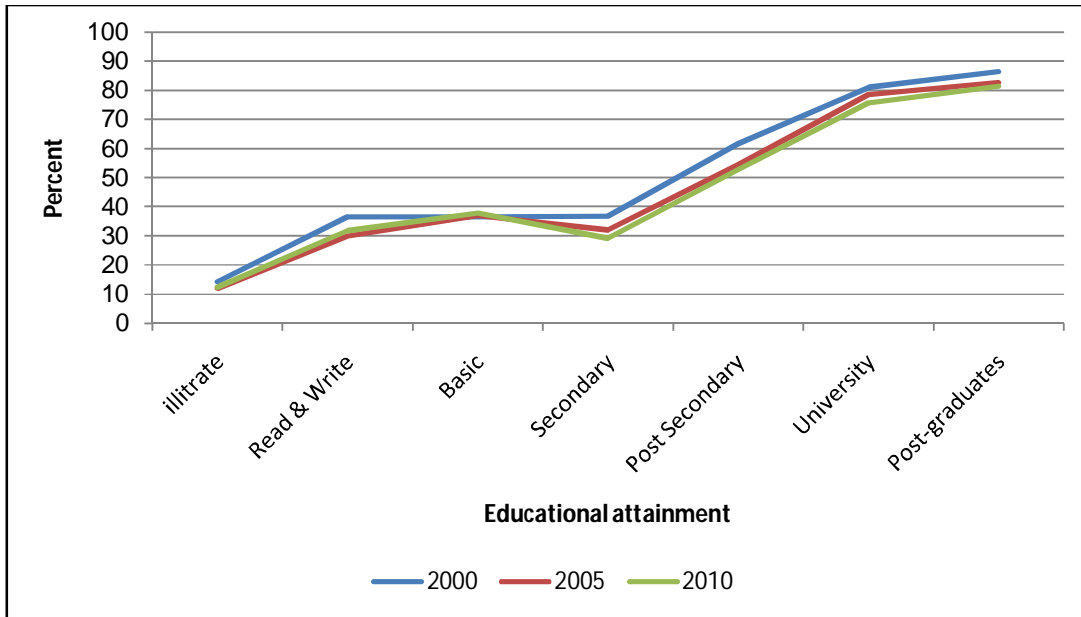


Figure 10: Labor Force Participation Rate by Sex (15-64), 2000-2010



Source: EUS, 2000, 2005 and 2010. Department of Statistics, Jordan.

Figure 11: Labor Force Participation Rate by Educational Attainment (15-64), 2000-2010



Source: EUS, 2000, 2005 and 2010. Department of Statistics, Jordan.

Figure 12: Inactivity Rate by Gender and Age (15-64)

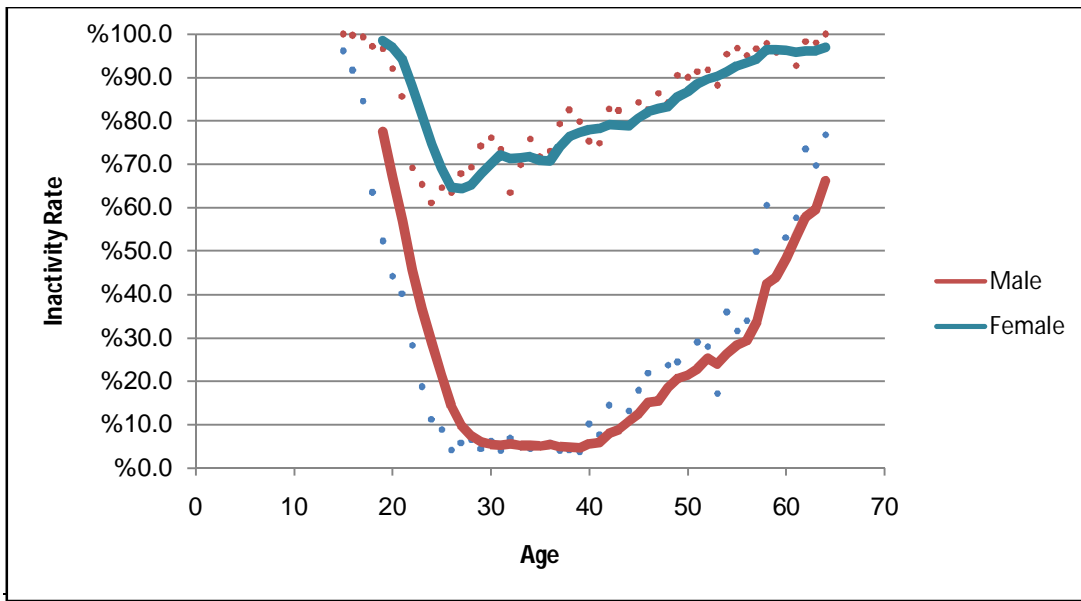


Figure 13: Distribution of Inactive Participation by Education and Gender (Age 15-64)

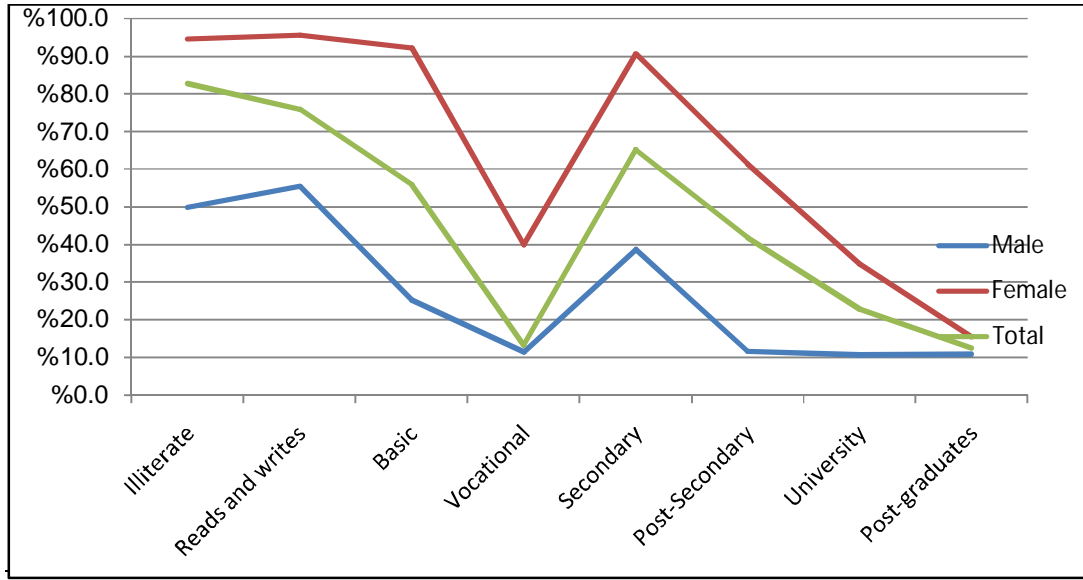
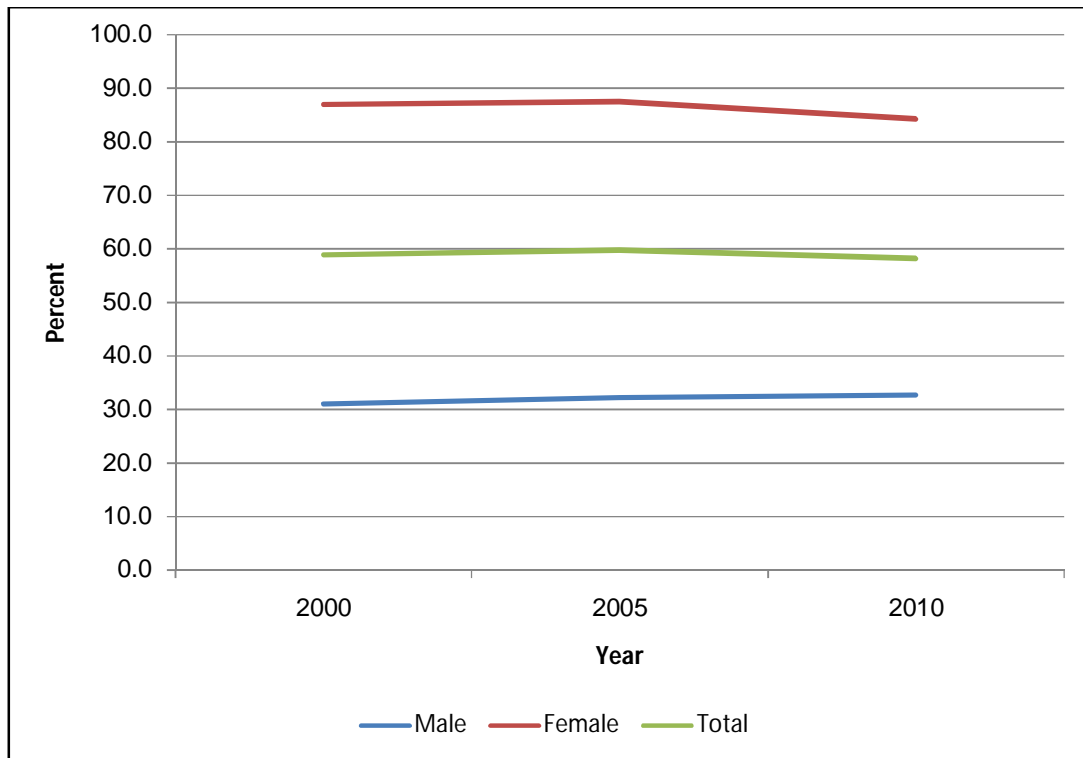
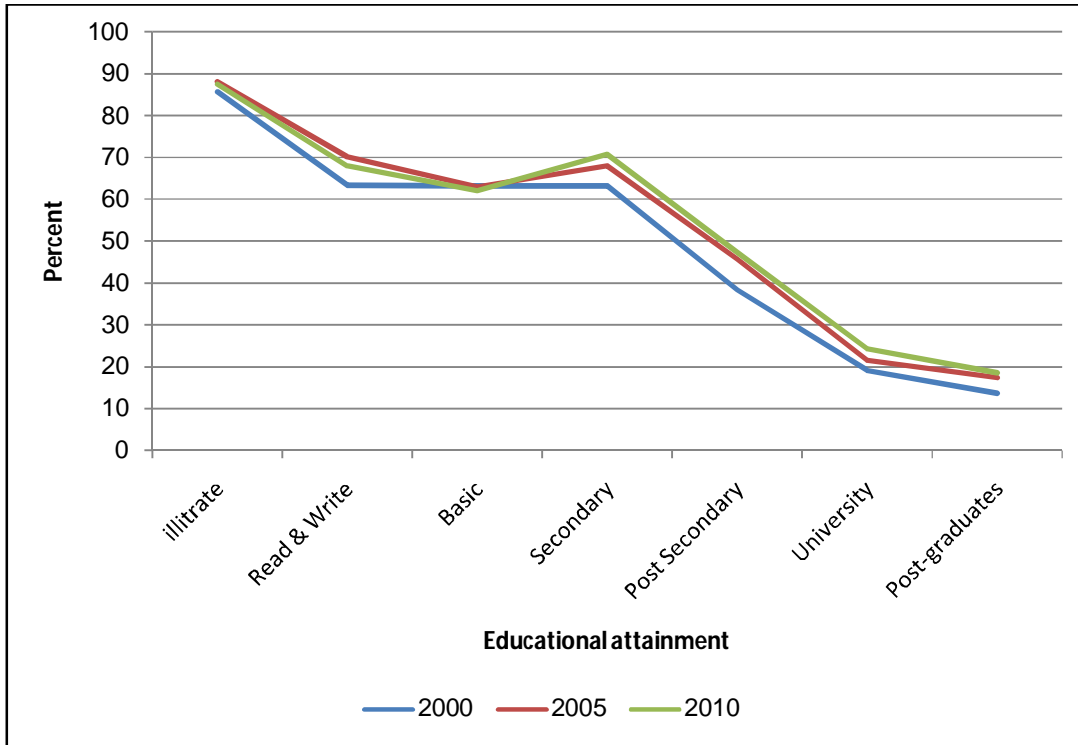


Figure 14: Inactivity Rate (15-64) by Gender, 2000-2010



Source: EUS, 2000, 2005 and 2010. Department of Statistics, Jordan.

Figure 15: Inactivity Rate (15-64) by Educational Attainment



Source: EUS, 2000, 2005 and 2010. Department of Statistics, Jordan.

Figure 16: Unemployment Rate by Gender and Urban/Rural Location, Age (15-64), Standard Unemployment Definition and Market Labor Force Definition

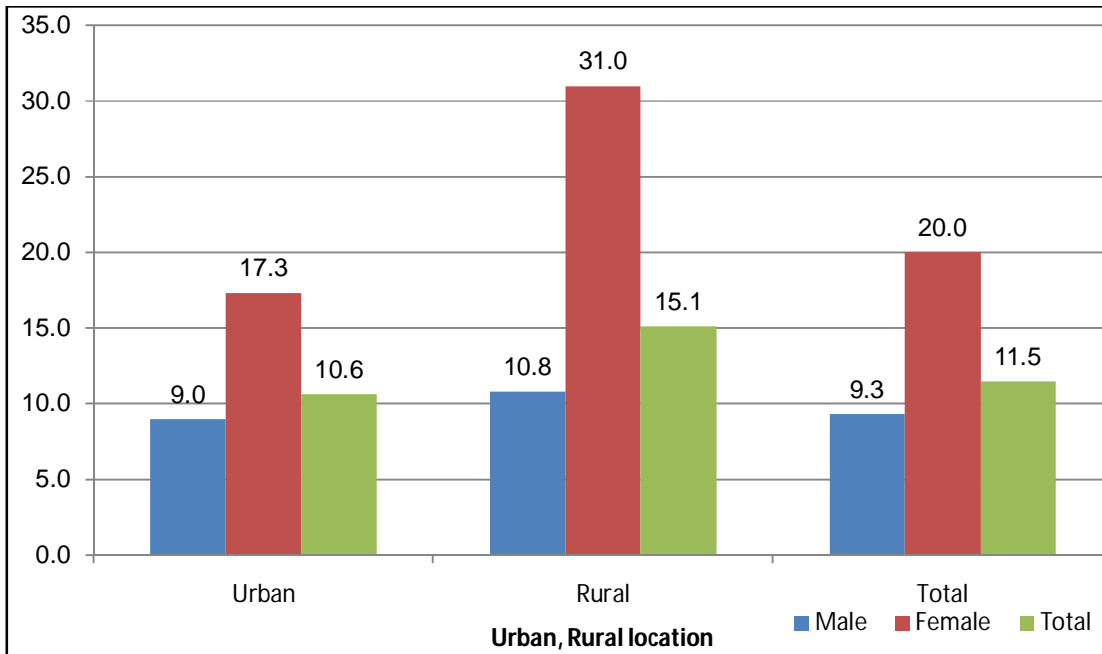


Figure 17: Unemployment Rate by Gender and Urban/Rural Location, Age (15-64), Standard Unemployment Definition and Extended Labor Force Definition

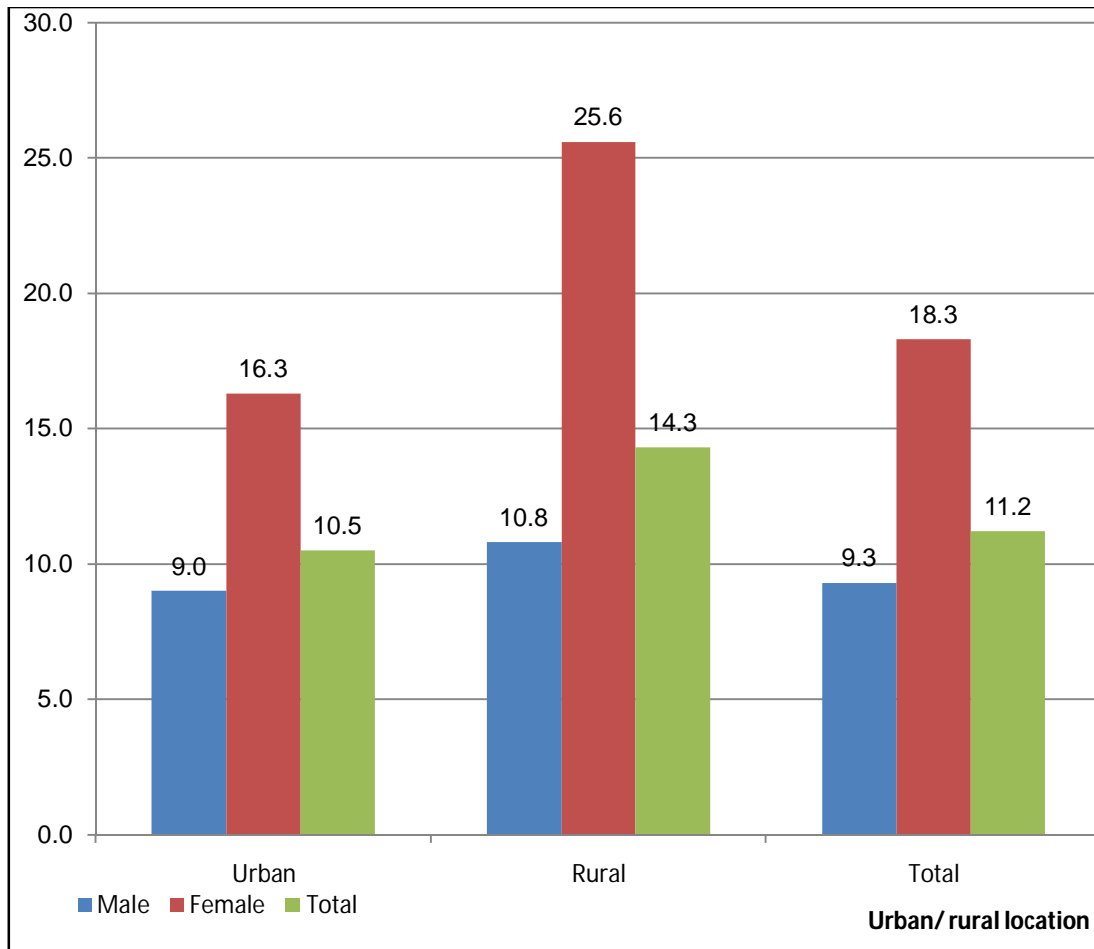


Figure 18: Unemployment Rate by Region and Gender, Age (15-64), Standard Unemployment Definition and Market Labor Force Definition

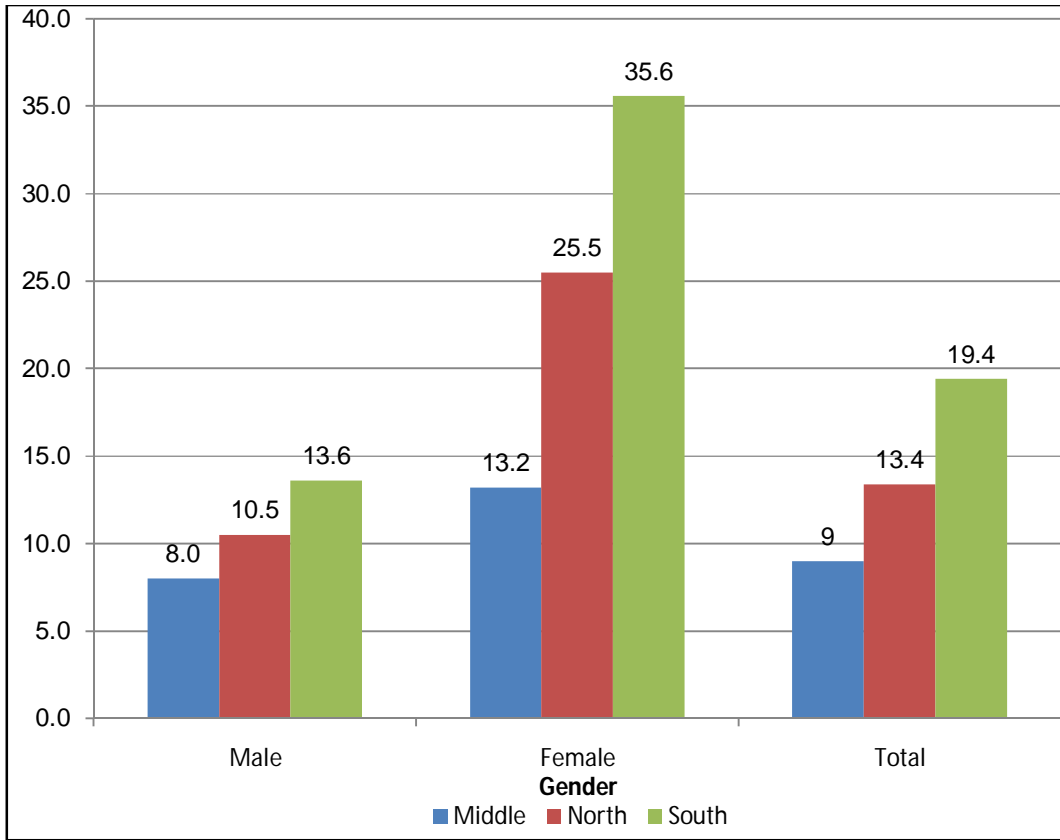


Figure 19: Unemployment Rate by Region and Gender, Age (15-64), Standard Unemployment Definition and Extended Labor Force Definition

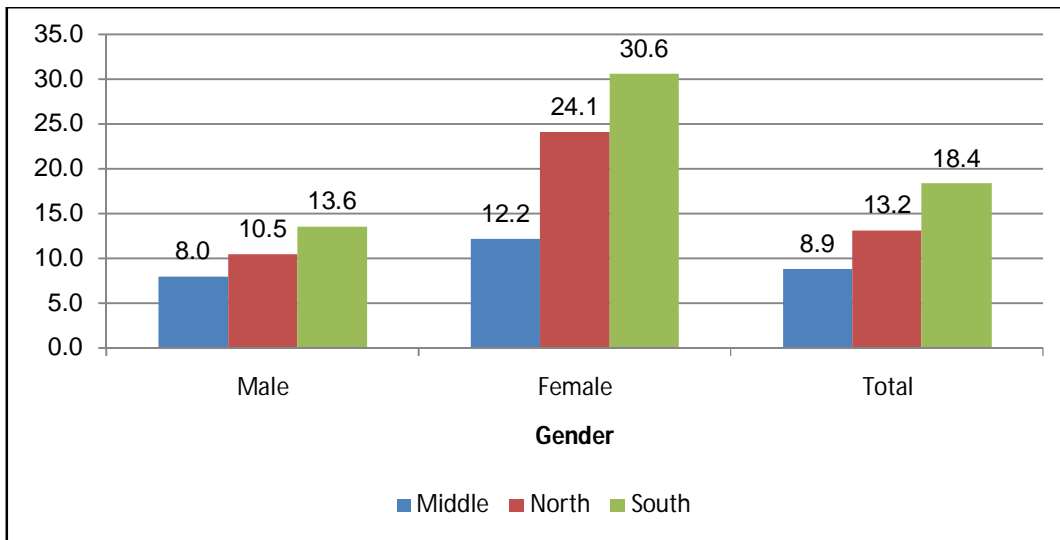


Figure 20: Number of Unemployed under Various Definitions

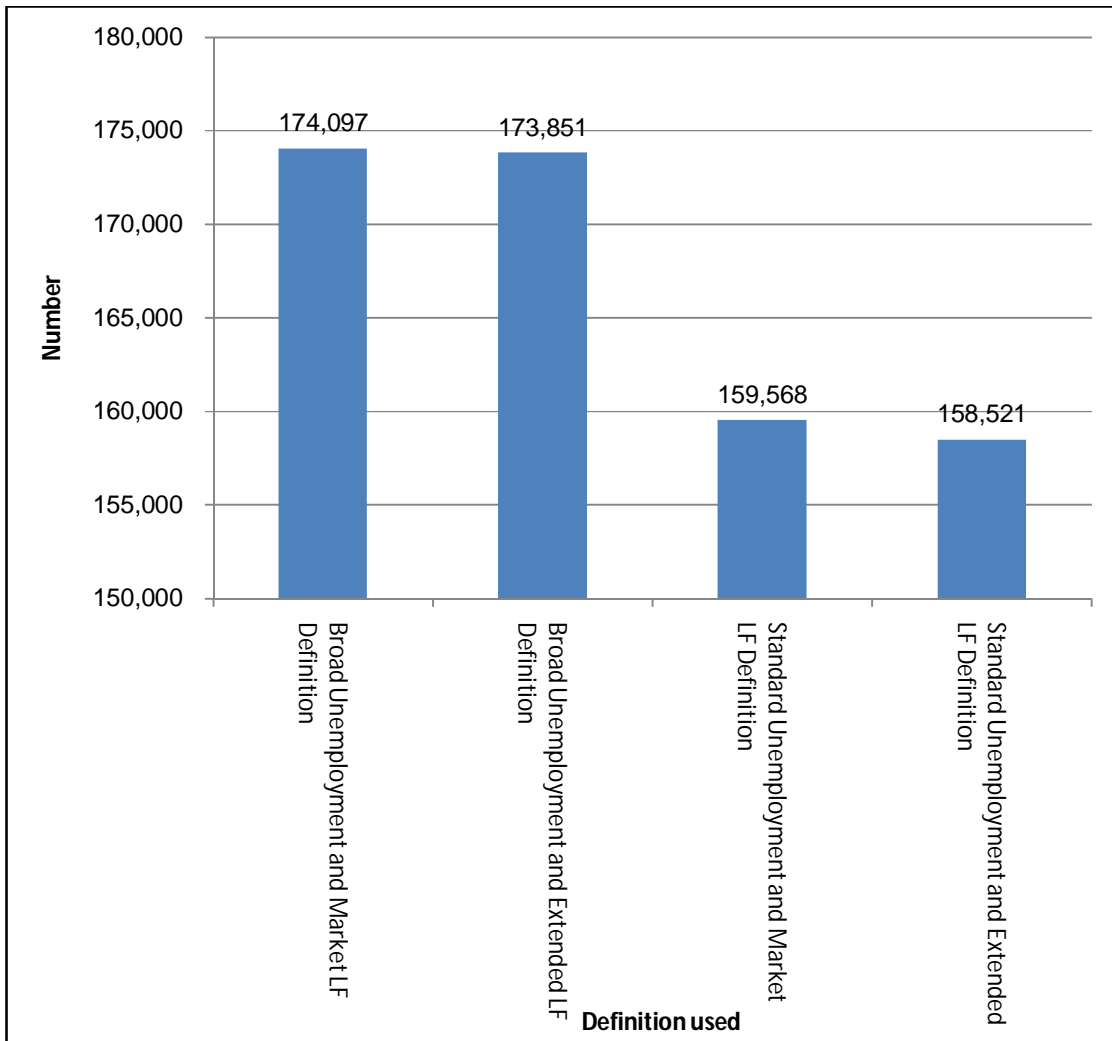


Figure 21: Male Unemployment Rates by Age and Urban/Rural Location: Standard Unemployment Definition and Market Labor Force Definition

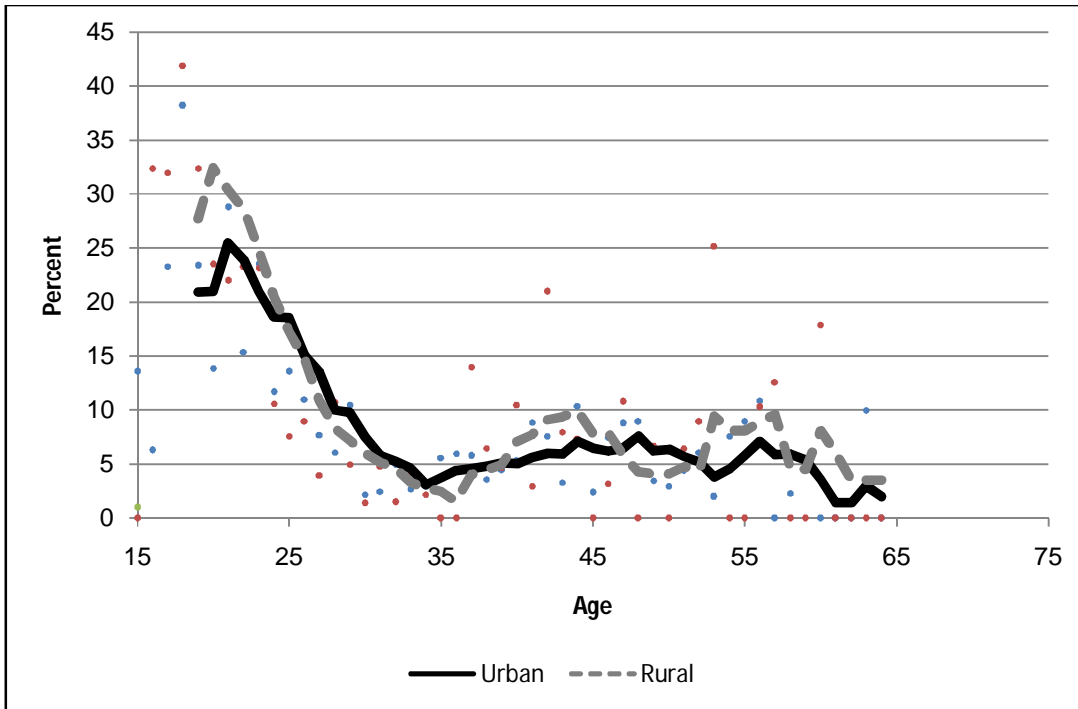


Figure 22: Female Unemployment Rates by Age and Urban/Rural Location. Standard Unemployment Definition and Market Labor Force Definition

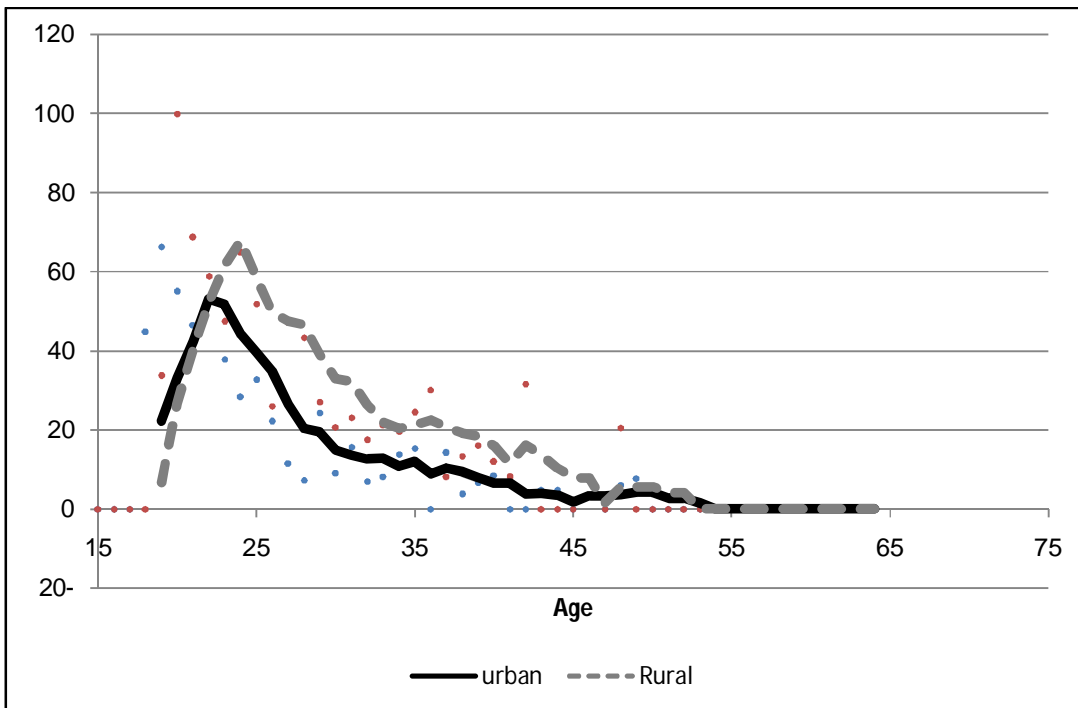


Figure 23: Male Unemployment Rates by Educational Attainment, Urban/Rural Location, Ages (15-64), Standard Unemployment Definition and Market Labor Force Definition

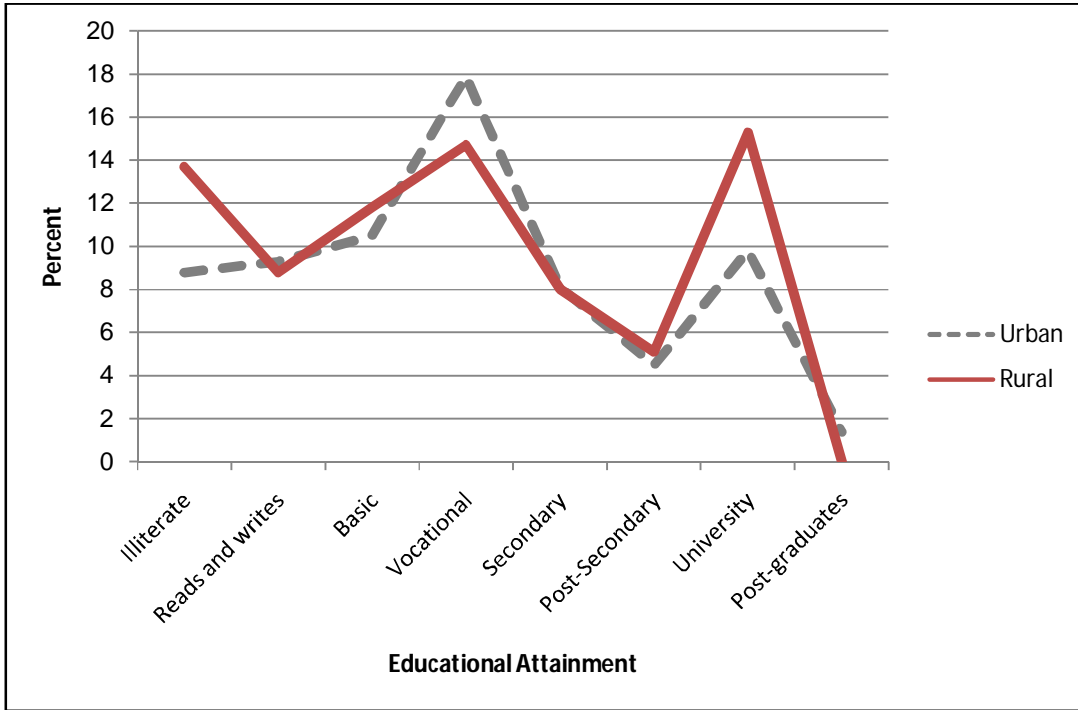


Figure 24: Female Unemployment Rates by Educational Attainment, Urban/Rural Location, Ages (15-64), Standard Unemployment Definition And Market Labor Force Definition

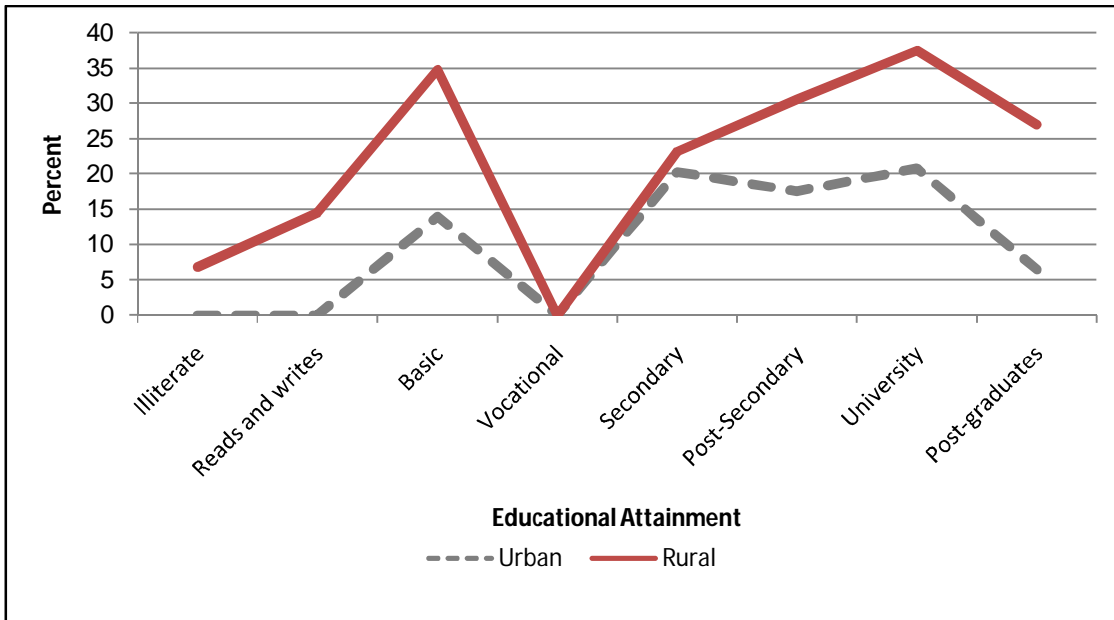
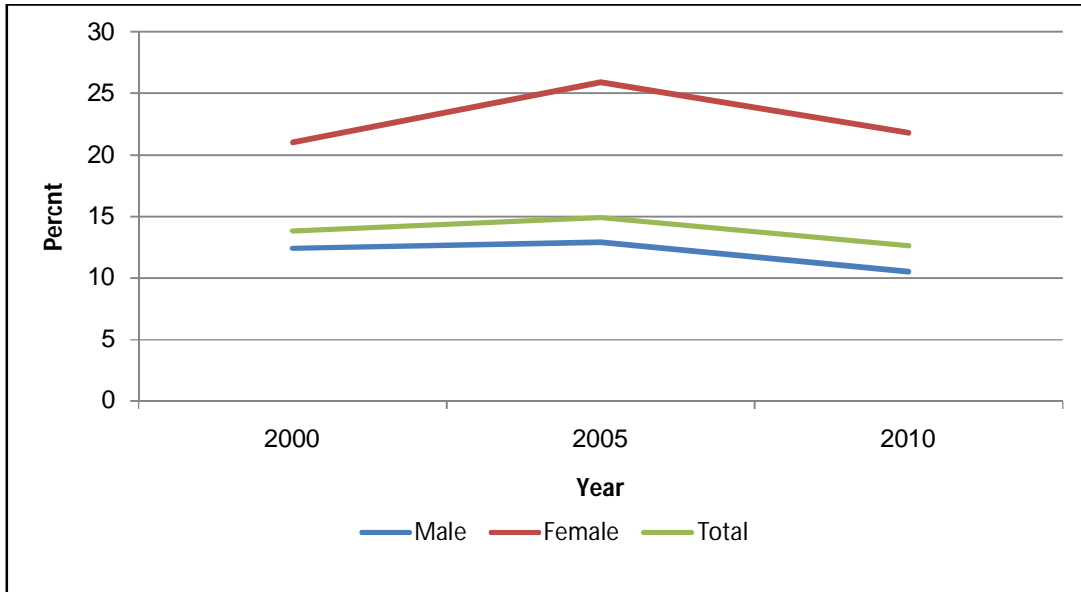
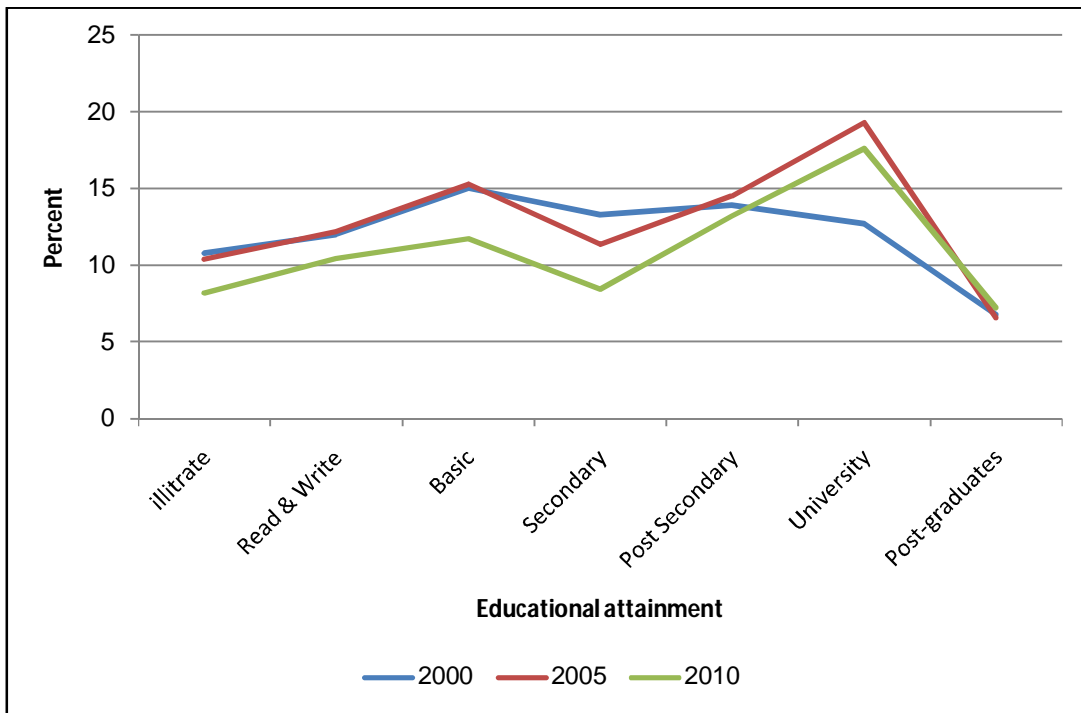


Figure 25: Unemployment rate by sex (15-64), 2000, 2005 and 2010



Source: EUS, 2000, 2005 and 2010. Department of Statistics, Jordan.

Figure 26: Unemployment Rate (15-64) by Educational Attainment, 2000, 2005, 2010



Source: EUS, 2000, 2005 and 2010. Department of Statistics, Jordan.

Table 1: Distribution of the Population by Urban/Rural Location and Selected Age Groups

	Population below 15	Working Age Population (15-64)	Youth Population (15-24)	Population over 65
Urban	37%	58%	20%	4%
Rural	38%	58%	20%	4%
Total	38%	58%	20%	4%

Table 2: Distribution of the Jordanian Population by Governorate

Governorate	2010		Total
	Male	Female	
Amman	36.7	37.3	37.0
Balqa	7.2	7.0	7.1
Zarqa	13.6	14.0	13.8
Madaba	2.5	2.3	2.4
Irbid	19.6	18.8	19.2
Mafraq	4.8	5.0	4.9
Jarash	2.9	3.0	2.9
Ajloun	2.5	2.5	2.5
Karak	4.4	4.3	4.4
Tafileh	1.7	1.7	1.7
Ma'an	1.8	1.9	1.9
Aqaba	2.3	2.0	2.2
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

Table 3: Average Years of Education by Birth Cohort and Gender

Year of Birth	Male	Female
1930	6.30	4.50
1960	11.20	7.74
1970	11.25	10.66
1980	11.40	12.01
1987	12.60	13.13

Annex 1: Distribution of the Jordanian Population by Age Group 2006-2010

Age group	2006			2010		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
0-4	518176	73231	591407	604342	143798	748140
5-9	539570	79600	619170	560066	132297	692363
10-14	566588	81803	648391	527409	129700	657109
15-19	532086	76425	608511	499543	125285	624828
20-24	460299	65066	525365	395911	101826	497737
25-29	348125	49295	397420	347244	82812	430056
30-34	290201	38217	328418	310013	70224	380237
35-39	268013	31817	299830	290821	68364	359185
40-44	229316	27475	256791	252583	50688	303271
45-49	168149	20633	188782	178348	40844	219192
50-54	125156	16908	142064	139171	27894	167065
55-59	111911	12349	124260	108422	23282	131704
60-64	109002	11339	120341	96410	19686	116096
65	181115	23380	204495	192108	40409	232517
Total	4447707	607538	5055245	4502391	1057109	5559500