FILE - VTC
Women's Study

MINISTRY OF LABOUR

VOCATIONAL TRAINING CORPORATION

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SURVEY STUDY

PN-AAT-253
ISN 40291

ON

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TRAINING AND JOB OPPORTUNITIES

FOR WOMEN IN JORDAN

December 1981

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Acknowledgement

This survey study was conducted for the Ministry of Labour and the Vocational Training Corporation under a grant from USAID. It covered two sample surveys which were undertaken in the period May 20-June 30, 1981. This report was written in December 1981.

Thanks are due to a great number of persons whose efforts, co-operation, support and advice were indespensible for the success of this study project. Mention should be particularly made of Dr. Jawad Anani, the Minister of Labour; Dr Tayseer A. Jaber, the under-secretary of the Ministry of Labour; Mr. Munthir Masri, Director General of the Vocational Training Corporation; and Mrs P. Harrell and Dr. Jarir Dajani of USAID staff in Jordan. The help provided by Dr. Ibrahim Kara'n and Mr. A.M. Abu Nuwar who were our system analyst and statistical consultants respectively is duely appreciated.

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SURVEY STUDY ON TRAINING AND JOB OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN IN JORDAN

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STUDY ON TRAINING AND JOB OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN IN JORDAN

INTRODUCTION

Economic development achieved by Jordan during the seventies has wiped out surplus labour, thus bringing the labour market to almost full employment and drawing foreign labour from abroad. In other words, the Jordanian labour market suffered from quantitative bottlenecks which have been reflected in importing Arab and non-Arab labourers and is still suffering from certain qualitative bottlenecks whose severity has not subsided.

Under such conditions, countries like Jordan draw, sooner or later , on their stock of female manpower in an attempt to increase women participation in labour force as means of breaking existing bottlenecks.Simultaneously, they launch on-job-training programmes in a quest aimed at breaking qualitative bottlenecks through upgrading the skills of those labourers who are already at work. The establishment of Vocational Training Corporation (VTC) in 1976 marked the pre-occupation of labour policy in upgrading the competence of labourers already at work-through specially tailored in-service training programmes- and that of new comers to the market, through vocational apprenticeship courses.

It is undoubtedly admitted that raising the participation of women in the labour force can neither be decreed nor achieved overnight. This is a process which is evolutionary in nature , slow thereupon and is accordingly a function of a set of variables which are interwoven into the social fabric. Reference here is particularly made to the social values system and attitudes towards work in general and women's work in particular, in addition to pure economic imperatives (particularly inflation), and individual ambitions and aspirations.

No matter how reasonable and strong the above arguments are and how rigid the social values system is, certain kinds of work are appropriate for women by their very nature and do not conflict with the disciplines of even a rigid value system. It is possible therefore to

raise the participation rate of women in the labor force through encouraging more women to engage in those very sorts of activities which do not impinge upon the prevalent value system. Social values and attitudes are not necessarily the impediments to a woman's outdoor work. Technical factors could be at work in good many cases (lack of transportation, ignorance of available job opportunities, absence of child care facilities, etc.)

As the industrial revolution proceeds, some social values, no matter how deep-seated they are, start to weaken or crumble altogether thus giving way to a wider participation of women in the labour force. Inflation, one might say, is the most conspicuous economic variable which operates to transform the composition of a labour market in any society. By raising the costs of living, inflation compels a greater number of households to send more of their members to the labour market. Some of the new comers to the market happen to be women who so far have opted to stay jobless at home. In consequence, the participation rate moves up. Because Jordan has already entered the era of inflation, one might safely and justifiably conclude that the women participation rate is bound to creep up. The question is one of magnitude rather than of direction.

It is plausible to say that the Jordanian policy makers have become concerned with releasing the labour constraint through increasing participation rate of women in the labour force as an alternative to labour imports. This rate lies somewhere between 10-14% according to various estimates. This new concern and the above-mentioned impacts and implications of inflation strongly suggest that the employment of women will constitute one of the central future issues.

To conceive the potential developments in this sphere, it will be useful to familiarise ourselves, at this stage, with a number of questions including:

1- The attitude of women, their guardians and employers towards women employment.

2- The kind of jobs preferred to women and what motivates them to seek employment.

3- Employment terms and conditions conducive to a higher rate of women participation in the labour force.

4- The kind of vocational training and vocational apprenticeship to be provided for women, which are, at the same time, compatible with the current needs of the Jordanian economy.

5- Performance of women currently employed.

6- The positive and negative aspects of women employment.

7- The factors that impeded or might impede the increase in the rate of women participation in the labour force.

8- The effects on the women's willingness to work of certain variables, namely religion, educational level and environment (rural or urban).

This survey study was conducted to shed light on some of the issues raised above.

Since its establishment in 1976, The VTC has launched a series of vocational training and industrial apprenticeship programmes. The response of male workers and students was resounding. The contrary was true of the response of female workers and students. Thus the eight issues raised above could be integrated into two categories of objectives set for this study:

Direct objectives. These concern VTC and aim at identifying those types of vocational education (vocational apprenticeships) which suit females most, in order to secure adequate recruits for vocational apprenticeship courses.

Indirect objectives. These concern the Ministry of Labour (MOL) and aim at indentifying the attitudes of various parties towards women employment in order to draw appropriate schemes for increasing the rate of women's participation in the labour force.

The study was made up of two sample surveys. The first survey covered the female students in the 3rd preparatory class in the schools of Amman-Zerka area. The second survey covered employers in the same area.

Sequence of Discussion

Chapter One is addressed to methodology employed to conduct both surveys, where the reader is briefed on coverage, frame of the sample, sample design, pretesting details and field work.

The rest of the report was divided into two parts: Part One and Part Two in which the results of the students sample survey and the employers sample survey were reported respectively.

Part One included two chapters. The first was Chapter Two in which the broad characteristic features of the composition of the population were presented (Chapter 2-1) and issues relating to vocational apprenticeship were reviewed (Chapter 2-2). Here the potential demand for vocational education was measured and interest of students in joining vocational apprenticeship programmes was explored. The preference of students for each common trade was quantified and the acceptable trade alternatives were identified. We also inquired about the basic factors determining the choice of alternative trades and the preferred place of work. The effects of religion, environment, type of school and income levels on all these issues were assessed.

The other portion of Part One is Chapter Three which was addressed to issues related to attitudes of various concerned parties towards women employment. These covered the attitudes of students and their guardians towards students' work outside the home, the intention of the students to work outside the home or otherwise, the motives of students for seeking employment , the reasons for guardians'. disapproval of women work outside the home and the effect of marriage on such work. Again, the effects of religion, environment and income levels on these issues were interpreted in due course.

Part One opens up with a 3-page summary and ends up with a 2-page conclusion which touched upon the most important findings of the students sample survey. And so does Part Two.

CHAPTER ONE : METHODOLOGY

1.1- Students Sample Survey

1.1.1- Coverage

The students sample survey was based on statements collected from a sample of 3rd preparatory class female students for the scholastic year 1980/81 in Amman-Zerka area. All female schools were included whether sponsored by the Ministry of Education (MOE), UNRWA, Ministry of Defence (MOD) or private sector. The survey did not include all female schools in Jordan due to time and financial resources limitations. The reason behind picking up the 3rd preparatory class female students was obviously the fact that this is the class after which students have the choice of pursuing either academic or vocational schooling.

1.1.2- Frame

A list comprising all female schools which had 3rd preparatory classes was obtained from the Ministry of Education (MOE). (See Table 1).

Table (1)
All Female Schools in Amman-Zerka
Area with Third Preparatory Classes (1980/81)
by Location and Sponsor

Location	Sponsor	No of Schools	No of 3rd preparatory Class Students
Zerka, City	MOE	22	2276
Zerka, City	UNRWA	2	290
Zerka, City	Private	4	92
Zerka, City	MOD	1	49
Zerka, Villages	MOE	19	573
Zerka, Villages	UNRWA	3	253
Amman, City	MOE	31	3963
Amman, City	UNRWA	18	2391
Amman, City	Private	13	598
Amman, Suburbs	MOE	27	550
Amman, Suburbs	UNRWA	3	170
Amman, Villages	MOE	21	807
		164	12012

1.1.3- Sample design

A multi-stage systematic random sample was used. Statistical tables indicated that the appropriate sample size for this population of students with ±2% error rate and a 95% confidence interval was 1091, i.e., 9% approximately.

The sample was drawn over three stages:

1- Selection of schools. Twenty per cent of the 164 schools were selected at random, that is 33 schools representing, in terms of location and sponsor, the 164 schools.

2- Selection of classes within selected schools. All classes in the 23 schools were included in the sample. (Most schools comprised more than one 3rd preparatory class).

3- Selection of students. Where the number of students of a 3rd preparatory class was less than 20, all students were selected. Where the number exceeded 20, 50% were selected.

The total number of students eventually interviewed reached 1092. The number of schools, however, was cut down to 32 because when field work had begun it was found that one of the 33 schools, comprising 5 students, was actually a male student school despite prior information to the contrary, and was therefore dropped out.

1.1.4- Pretesting

A preliminary coded questionnaire was prepared in co-operation with system analysts in the University of Jordan and pretested in a school (not one of the 33 selected schools) where 140 3rd preparatory class students were interviewed. Important adjustments had been introduced before the questionnaire was put in its final form.

1.1.5- Implementation

The survey was conducted in the period April 20-June 6, 1981 by actual interviews carried out by 11 female researchers who were trained on this work for one week. The number of students whose answers were actually recorded totalled 1092. One student was neither a christian nor a moslem and was therefore dropped from the tables analysed.

1.2-Employers Sample Survey

1.2.1- Coverage and Frame

The employers sample survey covered industrial (manufacturing and mining) and services establishments operating in Amman-Zerka area, which employed 20 or more labourers. An up-to-date list of these establishments was obtained from the Department of Statistics. They were subdivided into eight categories: Manufacturing; mining & quarrying; finance and banking; electricity supply; construction; commerce; transport; other services (restaurants, hotels, schools, institutes, colleges and hospitals).

1.2.2- Sample Design

A purposive quota sample was drawn in order to make sure that the eight categories of establishments were fairly represented. The sample was made up of 160 establishments, that is 50% of the total. However, the responses of only 149 were eventually accepted.

1.2.3- Pretesting

A preliminary coded questionnaire had been drafted in co-operation with system analysts from the University of Jordan and was pretested, over one week, on 18 representative establishments other than the 160 establishments which entered in the sample. Again, pretesting led to introducing some important modifications to the preliminary questionnaire.

1.2.4- Implementation

The employers sample survey was conducted by actual interviews with employers carried out by nine university graduate field researchers (2 females and 7 males) who were trained on this work for four days. The survey was completed over 20 days ending on June 21,1981.

1.2.5- Levels of Qualification

Levels of qualification were classified into five: professional (or specialist), technician, craftsmen or craftswomen, skilled labourer and semi-skilled labourers. By Jordanian standards, these levels could very roughly be defined as follows:

a- Professional labourers must hold university degrees. Example: engineers.

b- Technicians are generally graduates of technical and engineering institutes with few years experience.

c- Craftsmen or craftswomen are those who completed the vocational secondary cycle with few years experience.

d- Skilled labourers are those who completed VTC apprenticeship programmes or Ministry of Education trade training centres with few years experience.

e- Semi-skilled labourers acquire their skills through actual work. All labourers who do not come under the above four levels of qualification are classified as semi-skilled labourers.

PART ONE

STUDENTS SAMPLE SURVEY

PREFACE

Questionnaire No(1) comprised a host of questions not all of which were addressed exclusively to the objectives of the study and therefore we have not analysed and interpreted all data collected. The conduction of the survey necessitated making a number of arrangements which sufficed to assemble information, without additional effort or costs, and which go beyond the terms of reference of this study but may, however, be consulted for the purpose of other research related to women employment and vocational education.

One such question was related to the number, sex, age, occupation and academic qualification of each of the members of the family of the respondent student. Other questions pertained to the type of respondent's residence; its ownership, rental value, number of rooms and household appliances/conveniences available. Other questions were addressed to the preferred age for marriage and preferred number of children. The sort of activities, leisure and otherwise, practised by the student at home or after school hours, were also investigated. The product was a wealth of information which might be useful or even crucial in the context of other studies on women affairs adopting objectives different from those of the present study.

In the interpretation of the collected data, attention was focused on the effects of four variables believed to be basic with regard to the adopted objectives, namely religion, environment (urban or rural), type of school by sponsor (Ministry of Education, UNRWA, private sector) and educational level. Because it was not easy to represent the "educational level" proper in the questionnaire, the level of family income was chosen as a proxy variable on the basis of the conviction that one is a reflection of the other to a certain extent.

When the effects of these four variables were investigated, the religion variable was most often disregarded whenever the issue at hand related to vocational apprenticeship because it is obviously not possible to design programmes for a specific ethnic group. However, when issues relating to attitudes towards women employment were examined, the effect of the type of school variable was usually dropped because that effect seemed devoid of any practical significance irrespective of what the figures might suggest.

S U M M A R Y

The students sample survey covered 9.1% of the 3rd preparatory class female students in Amman - Zerka area. This amounted to 1091 students, 13.1% of which lived in rural centres and 66.9% in cities. Moslem students accounted for 94.5% and christian students for 5.5%.

Around 61.0% of students interviewed belonged to governmental schools, 32.8%. to UNRWA schools and 6.0% to private schools. Some 86.1% of the students' families had an average monthly income of less than JD 300, 5.5% less than JD 50 and 41.1% had an average monthly income ranging from JD 100 to 199.Variations in income levels were more acute within moslem student families than within christian student families.

Academic aspirations were dominant among students interviewed; around 86.3% of them wished to acquire an academic qualification, while 10.8% would go for vocational education, which was a very low percentage. There was no evidence that religion ,environment or type of school had any effects on educational aspirations, but it seemed that the higher the income, the less was the aspiration for vocational education. However, after the field researchers had explained to the students that vocational apprenticeship programmes would end up with a guaranteed job, the percentage of students who said they were interested in joining vocational apprenticeship programmes jumped up to 75.9% even though a lot of them harboured academic aspirations. It was found that 46.8% of the students were not familiar with vocational apprenticeship programmes organised by Vocational Training Corporation (VTC).

Teaching is the common trade most preferred by students (especially governmental school students) followed by secretarial work (especially by private school students), nursing (especially by private school students as well), beauty culture which was equally preferred by students of various schools and lastly sewing which appealed most to governmental school students.

Regarding trades which were alternatives to common trades, the students picked up, in preference order, child care, paramedical work, operating telex and teleprinter, architectural drafting and lab-techniques. The least preferred trades were trades related to hotel and restaurant work, factory work and electrical work. It was found out that the basic factor which determined the choice of the preferred alternative trades was firstly the student's own decision, then the advice of the family and lastly the television information.

For the students interviewed, the preferred places of work were, in order of preference, the school, the government office, the hospital, commercial & services establishments, the home and nurseries. The "factory" was the least preferred place of work. Accordingly , trades which combined the most preferred places of work (top three after school) with the strongest interest on part of the students were secretarial work, nursing, paramedical work, lab-techniques, and operating of telex and teleprinter.

Around 89.3% of the respondents felt that the increase in the number of women who work outside the home was a good thing for Jordan. The percentage of students who intended to seek a job outside the home reached 81.7% but went up to 90.0% for the christian students against 81.3% for moslem students. The motive for intention to work outside the home was, firstly, avoidance of boredom, secondly supplementing the income of the family, thirdly, increasing the personal income of the student herself and lastly proving female capabilities.Supplementing the family income dominated the UNRWA school students, while increasing personal inoome dominated governmental school students. The other two motives (avoiding boredom and proving female capabilities) were most conspicuous among private school students.

The survey produced some good data on the attitudes of the students' guardians towards their working outside the home. About 62.2% of the students claimed their guardians approved their work unconditionally, 16.8% said their guardians disapproved, 13.8% said their guaradians approved their work under certain conditions and the rest were undecided. The impact of religion was evident; guardians' disapprovals dropped to only 1.7% for christian students, as compared with 17.7% for moslem students. The reasons for disapproval were:the conviction that "a woman's place is at home" (65.2%), the inappropriateness for women to work at close quarters with

men (26.5%) and the going to, and coming back from, work unaccompanied "which was not proper" .

The study showed that marriage adversely affects women's work outside the home because some women decide to leave work, on their own accord, as a result. The evidence? The percentage of students who planned to work after marriage reached 47.6% which was far below the percentage of students who said they intended to work outside the home (81.7%). The other reason why marriage adversely affects women's work is that some (19.2% of them in our survey) let their husbands make the decision. If it is not in the affirmative, they will quit work though their own judgement may be otherwise.

CHAPTER TWO : THE RESULTS

2.1. Broad Indicators

Out of the 1091 respondents, 94.5% were moslem students and 5.5% chrlstians. Rural students and urban students formed 13.1% and 86.9% respectively. Out of the total moslem respondents, 86.3% lived in urban centres and 13.7% in rural areas; the corresponding percentages for christian students were 96.7% and 3.3% respectively, Hereunder is the distribution of the respondents to schools by sponsor:

	Percentages		
	Moslem	Christian	Total
Governmental (MOE)	60.3	0.7	61.0
UNRWA	31.8	1.0	32.8
Private	2.4	3.7	6.1
Total	94.5	5.4	99.9

It could be particularly noted that UNRWA schools comprised one third of students. Moslem students were concentrated in governmental schools (98.9% of them) while christian students were concentrated in private schools (82.2% of them).

Table (2) shows the distribution of the students' families to the various levels of income. Around 86.1% of the respondents came from families whose average monthly income was less than JD 300 . The class JD 200-299 comprised the biggest proportion of families (41.1%). Families with monthly incomes exceeding JD 500 constituted 3.7% of total famllies.

Table (2)

Students' Families by Monthly Income

	Number of families	
	Absolute	%
Less than JD 50	60	5.5
50 - 99	267	24.5
100 - 199	448	41.1
200 - 299	164	15.0
300 - 399	85	7.8
400 - 499	27	2.5
500 - 599	17	1.6
600 - 699	7	0.6
700 - 799	5	0.5
800 - 899	6	0.5
900 - 999	5	0.5
More than 1000	0	0
	1091	100

Table (2) presents data which might be extremely important as they might be the only available data that give an idea - no matter how approximate - about income distribution and income concentration in Jordan.

About 5.7% of the families of moslem students had a monthly income which was less than JD 50, compared with only 1.7% for christian student families. The greatest proportion of moslem families fell in the income bracket of JD 100-199 and constituted 41.9% of them. The same held true of christian families but with a lower percentage amounting to 26.7%.

Generally speaking, the degree of income inequality among moslem families was stronger than christian ones (see Table 3)

Table (3)

Students' Families by Monthly Income

Monthly income	N° of Moslem Families		N° of Christian Families	
	Absolute	%	Absolute	%
less than JD 50	59	5.7	1	1.7
50 - 99	257	24.9	10	16.7
100 - 199	432	41.9	16	26.7
200 - 299	150	14.6	14	23.3
300 - 399	74	7.2	11	18.3
400 - 499	27	2.6	0.0	0.0
500 - 599	14	1.4	3	5.0
600 - 699	6	0.6	1	1.7
700 - 799	4	0.4	1	1.7
800 - 899	4	0.4	2	3.3
900 - 999	4	0.4	1	1.7
More than JD 1000	-	-	-	-
	1031	100	60	100

2.2- Issues Related to Vocational Apprenticeship

Issues deemed relating to vocational apprenticeship included the measurement of potential demand for vocational education, interest in joining apprenticeship programmes, preferred common trades, preferred trades which are alternatives to common trades (alternative trades hereinafter), determinants of preferred trades and preferred places of work.

2.2.1- Potential Demand for Vocational Education

Joining vocational apprenticeship programmes implies abandonment of academic schooling when a student finishes the preparatory school. On the other hand, if she says that she would like to carry on with her studies up to the university, a female student will be abandoning vocational education (apprenticeship and training).

Therefore, we opted to measure potential demand of female students for vocational apprenticeship and training through inquiring about the highest educational level a girl seeks to acquire. To that end, educational levels were classified into the following: preparatory school, trade training centre, vocational secondary cycle, academic secondary cycle, community college, university degree.

The last three levels measure demand for academic schooling while the second and third levels measure demand for vocational schooling. While "vocational secondary cycle" represents direct demand for vocational schooling, "trade training center" represents indirect demand because it will not be difficult, through appropriate orientation, to divert students from the latter to the former. The first level, preparatory school, is a neutral zone. It will not be impossible, through specially designed promotional campaigns , to motivate students whose educational aspiration ends in the preparatory school, to adopt higher vocational (or academic) targets . What is required here is a vocational information campaign aimed at convincing such students that learning a trade which guarantees a job is most essential for a woman's secure life and that the preparatory school is far short of being adequate to enable a woman to live up to the challenges of future. The campaign

should go on to emphasise that the appropriate and easy alternative is naturally joining vocational apprenticeship programmes especially tailored for females by VTC.

2.2.1.1- Students' Inclinations

Table (4) demonstrates the educational aspirations of the students interviewed. It shows that 86.3% of them wished to acquire an academic qualification. The percentages of students who opted for vocational secondary cycle and joining trade training centres were only 5.8% and 5.0% respectively. Thus potential demand for vocational schooling added up to 10.8% of total students. Add to that half of the students whose educational aspiration did not go beyond the preparatory school on the assumption that that many of them are divertable to vocational schooling and the aggregate potential demand for vocational schooling will be 12.2%. It is possible to employ this percentage to arrive, every year, at the potential demand for vocational schooling in absolute figures. These figures will be a yardstick which will help VTC to decide the number and size of its annual and longer term programmes (for five year development plans, for instance) till this demand is more sophisticatedly measured in other studies.

At this point, it seems plausible to derive the following conclusion: One of the reasons of the weak appeal of VTC programmes to female students is the strong appeal of academic schooling to them.

2.2.1.2- Effect of Environment on Educational Aspirations

The results of the survey indicated that the demand for vocational secondary cycle of rural students (9.1%) was twice as strong as that of urban students (5.2%), which suggests that vocational information efforts should be concentrated on female students in rural centres.

On the contrary, demand for trade training centres was stronger among urban students (5.3%, compared with 3.4% for rural students). This was understandable because UNRWA school students-whose demand for trade training centres was comparatively strong- formed a part of urban student population.

Table (4)

Students by Type of School and Highest Educational Qualification Sought

Aspiration / Type of school	Preparatory school	Vocational trade centre	Academic secondary cycle	Vocational secondary cycle	Community college	University degree	Total abslute	%
Governmental	17	24	221	42	94	268	666	61.0
UNRWA	14	31	136	18	44	115	358	32.8
Private	-	-	6	3	1	57	67	6.1
Total	31	55	363	63	139	440	1091	
%	2.8%	5.0%	33.3%	5.8%	12.7%	40.3%	100%	

2.2.1.3- Effect of Type of School on Educational Aspirations

The demand for vocational secondary cycle was only marginally different among the students of the governmental (6.3%), UNRWA (5.0%) and private (4.4%) schools.

Demand for trade training centres reached 8.6% among UNRWA school students compared with 3.6% for governmental school students and zero for private school students.

2.2.1.4- Effect of Religion on Educational Aspirations

Demand of christian students for vocational secondary cycle (8.3%) was noticeably stronger than that of moslem students (5.6%).

The attitudes were reversed when it came to trade training centres. The demand of christian students dropped down to (1.6%) against (5.2%) for moslem students.

The educational aspirations of moslem students in private schools were interesting . All such students said they intended to seek university education. The comparable percentage of christian students in the private schools was 75.6%.

2.2.1.5- Effect of Income on Educational Aspirations

Table (5) demonstrates that the selection of vocational secondary cycle as an ultimate educational goal dwindled as the level of income went up until it hit the zero mark in high income brackets (more than JD 500 a month). The selection of "trade training centre" was not existent in those high income brackets. In lower brackets, it fluctuated in a disorderly way.

In summation, demand for vocational education, be it on the level of vocational secondary cycle or trade training centre, weakened as income rose. This trend was very strong among christian students in particular. The implicit message here is that the future vocational apprenticeship policy should concentrate on female students coming from low income population centres, whether urban or rural.

Other results revealed by the data on the interaction between income levels and educational aspirations indicated that educational targets of all students were concentrated on academic secondary cycle in income brackets below JD 50 a month, with the degree of concentration being 40% (i.e, 40% of all students in those brackets selected academic secondary cycle as their ultimate educational target). In higher income brackets , aspirations switched to university education, with the degree of concentration starting from 37.2% in the income bracket of JD 50-99 and ascending steadily until it climaxed in the highest bracket (JD 900-999) when it hit the 80% mark.

2.2.2- Interest in Joining Vocational Apprenticeship Programmes

The next issue tackled in the survey was the interest of students to join VTC vocational apprenticeship programmes. The interviewers asked the students how much they were interested in joining these programmes after they had explained to them that such programmes do guarantee a job linked to the trades preferred by the students. The answers were most crucial because they would measure the degree of abandonment of educational aspirations discussed earlier or adherence to them under the direct impact of two factors: (a) guaranteed job which is (b) linked to a trade which appeals to the respondent.

The switch in attitudes was enormous. While only 10.8% of the students said that their highest educational target was either the vocational secondary cycle or trade training centre, about 75.9% of the students had, after injecting the guaranteed job into the picture, said that they were interested in joining vocational apprenticeship programmes. However, 20.4% of them stuck to their academic choice and 3.7% said that they had not made a decision yet.

From the VTC viewpoint, these results are extremely encouraging. The interest of students is there; what remains is to offer them the opportunity to be apprentices in a trade which they really like. The other results of the survey revealed that income levels had no noticeable effect on the attitudes (interested, not interested, not decided) taken by the students towards joining job-guaranteed vocational apprenticeship programmes. This obviously meant that the strong correlation between income levels and academic aspirations which was detected in earlier

Table (5)

Students by Family's Average Monthly Income and
Highest Educational Qualification Sought

Aspiration / Monthly Income	Preparatory school		Vocational trade Centre		Academic secondary cycle		Vocational Secondary cycle		Community College		University degree		Total	
													absolute	%
Less than JD 50	4	12.9%	4	7.3%	24	6.6%	4	6.3%	10	7.2%	14	3.2%	60	5.5
50 - 99	10	32.3%	11	20.0%	100	27.5%	17	27.0%	42	30.2%	87	19.8%	267	24.5
100 - 199	12	38.7%	23	41.8%	161	44.4%	26	41.3%	59	42.4%	167	38.0%	448	41.1
200 - 299	3	9.7%	10	18.2%	47	12.9%	9	14.3%	20	14.4%	75	17.0%	164	15.0
300 - 399	2	6.5%	4	7.3%	19	5.2%	5	7.9%	3	2.2%	52	11.8%	85	7.8
400 - 499	-	-	3	5.5%	3	0.8%	1	1.6%	3	2.2%	17	3.9%	27	2.5
500 - 599	-	-	-	-	5	1.4%	-	-	1	0.7%	11	2.5%	17	1.6
600 - 699	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.6%	1	0.7%	5	1.1%	7	0.6
700 - 799	-	-	-	-	1	0.3%	-	-	-	-	4	0.9%	5	0.5
800 - 899	-	-	-	-	2	0.6%	-	-	-	-	4	0.9%	6	0.5
900 - 999	-	-	-	-	1	0.3%	-	-	-	-	4	0.9%	5	0.5
1000 and more	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	31	100	55	100	363	100	63	100	139	100	440	100	1091	100

pages did not deter students to change their minds towards vocational apprenticeship, thanks to the knowledge they had just gained regarding the employment advantages of vocational apprenticeship. Here the vocational policy finds one of its most vital tasks: VTC must market the advantages of vocational apprenticeship as adequately as possible.

The results of the survey indicated no effects for religion on the preparedness of students to join job-guaranteed vocational apprenticeship programmes (see Table 6). However, the environment had some effects. The percentage of rural students interested in joining these programmes was 81.1% against 75.1% for urban students. The percentage of those not interested was 16.8% for the former compared with 21.0% for the latter. (see Table 6)

Table (6)
Attitudes of Students towards Joining
Job-guaranteed Vocational Apprenticeship programmes
by religion and Environment

"Percentages"

	Interested	Not interested	Not decided	Total
Moslem Students	75.9	20.5	3.6	100.0
Christian Students	75.0	20.0	5.0	100.0
Urban Students	75.1	21.0	3.9	100.0
Rural Students	81.1	16.8	2.1	100.0
Total Students	75.9	20.4	3.7	100.0

Again we would like to emphasise the crucial importance of highlighting to the potential apprentices the job-guaranteeing property of vocational apprenticeship programmes. This importance was comfirmed by the answers of the students to another question relating to how much familiar or otherwise they were with the programmes run by VTC. Approximately 46.8% of them said they were unfamiliar. And this is surely an alarming percentage which endorses the idea of concentrating on information campaigns for the promotion

of female vocational apprenticeship. One would not expect female students to join vocational apprenticeship programmes if they do not, to start with, know well about them. If they do, some who would not have joined will probably do. The evidence to that effect was found in the percentages of students interested in joining these programmes, where such percentages were higher among those who were familiar with these programmes (78.9%) than among those who were not (72.0%).

The survey attempted to single out those students who were least informed about VTC programmes in order to help VTC design more rational and effective information campaigns. Rural students were the ones. About 45.6% of them were familiar with VTC programmes as compared with 53.6% for urban students, notwithstanding the fact that both levels of familiarity were inadequate. The percentage for all students should be 100%.

Students by Familiarity with VTC programmes
"percentages"

Type of school	Familiar	Not Familiar
Government	53.3	46.7
UNRWA	52.9	47.1
Private	52.9	74.1
Aggregate	53.2	46.8

The figures above indicate that the levels of familiarity, or unfamiliarity, with VTC were very much the same for students of various schools, which means that the problem of inadequate familiarity is universal. Therefore, the necessary action must be directed to all schools on equal footing. The figures suggest that VTC should at least double its information efforts.

2.2.3- Preferred Trades

The next step was to indentify those trades which were preferred by students who were presented by two categories of trades: Common trades and acceptable trade alternatives (alternative trades hereinafter).

Common trades comprised secretarial work, beauty culture, sewing, teaching and nursing. Alternative trades comprised: Radio-TV repair, food and dairy product processing, paramedical work, office machine repair, retail sales clerk, electrician (general), telex and teleprinter

operator, child care, architectural drafting, factory worker in chemical industry, textile industry or plastic products manufacturing, work in hotel & resturant trades, lab-technician, others.

Every student was asked to point out the common trade she preferred to all other trades and three alternative trades in order of preference. It could be tentatively said that the activities of VTC in the coming few years should preferably be focused on the top three alternative trades derermind by students preferences as a first major step towards promoting female vocational apprenticeships linked to other trades because common trades do not need- for the very reason of their being common-for special promotional efforts. This , of course, by no means implies that common trades be neglected. The suggestion is to emphasise alternative trades in the short run because a high percentage (75.9%) of students expressed interest in entering apprenticeship programmes linked to these trades. (The term "common" in the present context is tantamount to a combination of terms such as "widespread", "attractive" and "appealing").

2.2.3.1 Common Trades: Preferences

Table (7) classifies reponses of students by type of school and preferred common trade. "Teaching" ranked highest (46.9%) and was followed by secretarial work (18.1%), nursing (13.9%), beauty culture (11.9%) and sewing (9.6%).

a- Teaching was the trade most attractive to students of governmental schools. It was preferred by 49.3% of them, as compared with 46.4% and 25.4% for UNRWA school students and private school students respectively. The difference between the degree of preference of rural and urban governmental school students was negligible; being 43.3% in the case of rural students and 47.4% for urban students. The recommendation therefore is that teaching apprenticeship programmes, if they are to be initiated, should be directed to students of all schools indiscriminately.

b- Secretarial Work was mostly preferred by students of private schools. Around 38.9% of them picked it up as the most-liked trade, against 17.3% for students of governmental schools and 16.0% for UNRWA school students.

Table (7)

Respondents by Type of School and Preferred Common Trade

Type of School / Preferred Common Trade	Secretarial / Clerical	Beauty Culture	Sewing	Teaching	Nursing	Total
Governmental	112	75	66	319	75	647
UNRWA	57	43	31	164	60	355
Private	23	8	-	15	13	59
Total	192	126	97	498	148	1061
%	18.1%	11.9%	9 .1%	46.9%	13.9%	100%

Christian students prefer secretarial work much more than moslem students do. Around 50% of the former picked it up against only 16.4% for the latter. However, the group of students whose preference for secretarial work ranked highest were Christian students in UNRWA sc hools (63.6%).

c- Nursing is preferred most by students of private schools (22.0%) followed by UNRWA students (16.6%) and governmental school students (11.5%) . Religion did not seem to count; 14.0% of moslem students opted for nursing against 13.0% for christian students. But environment apparently counted; 22.9% of rural students preferred nursing against 12.6% for urban students. The plausible conclusion therefore is that nursing apprenticeship programmes should be directed to rural students.

d- Beauty culture was equally appealing to various categories of students (private = 13.5% ; UNRWA = 12.1% ; government = 11.5% ; moslem = 11.8% ; christian = 13.0%) except for urban students (12.5%) as compared with rural students (7.8%). It is recommended, therfore, that beauty culture programmes be directed, if they are to be initiated, to urban students.

e- Sewing is the common trade preferred least by students. The degree of preference is comparatively high among governmental school students (10.2%) followed by UNRWA school students (8.7%), but plunges to zero among both private school students and christian students, against 9.6% for moslem students.

However the highest degree of preference was found among rural students (14.2%) against 8.4% for urban students. Sewing apprenticeship programmes, therefore, should be geared to rural students.

2.2.3.2- Common Trades: Income Effect

Table (8) portrays the relationship between income levels and preference to common trades. It shows the following:

Table (8)

Respondents by Family's Average Monthly Income and Preferred Common Trade (Percentages)

Common trade / Monthly Income	Secretarial / clerical	Beauty culture	Sewing	Teaching	Nursing	Total
Less than JD 50	8.6	12.0	12.0	46.5	20.6	100
50 - 99	17.7	9.4	11.6	46.0	15.0	100
100 - 199	17.6	12.1	9.6	49.1	11.4	100
200 - 299	14.5	14.5	5.6	50.0	15.1	100
300 - 399	30.4	13.4	7.3	39.0	9.7	100
400 - 499	36.0	-	8.0	40.0	16.0	100
500 - 599	17.6	17.6	-	35.2	29.4	100
600 - 699	-	16.6	-	33.3	50.0	100
700 - 799	-	25.0	-	75.0	-	100
800 - 899	50.0	25.0	-	25.0	-	100
900 - 999	20.0	20.0	-	40.0	20.0	100
1000 and more	-	-	-	-	-	-

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- Teaching is the preferred common trade at low and high income levels.
- Preference to sewing declined as income rose and vanished when the household monthly income exceeded JD 500. This means that sewing is viewed as a career which serves, first and foremost, to augment income. The message here is that sewing apprenticeship programmes should be geared to those students who wish to supplement their personal income (low income females in villages and densely-populated urban centres).
- The degree of preferring beauty culture rose as income increased and it climaxed in income brackets exceeding JD 700 per month.
- There was no orderly relationship between the change in income levels on the one hand and preference for nursing and secretarial work on the other.

2.2.3.3- Alternative Trades

Table (9) shows the degree of preferring the 13 alternative trades by type of school. The most preferred ones were :

Preferred alternative trade	Degree of preference
Child care	19.3%
Paramedical Work	18.4%
Telex and teleprinter operation	11.7%
Architectural drafting	11.4%
Lab-technique	11.4%

So far we have been talking about being interested in the top three alternative trades. Because the difference among the degree of preference for the above last three careers is very marginal, we will address ourselves to the top five alternative trades from now on.

The message of the results of the survey was reasonably clear: Vocational apprenticeship programmes for females should concentrate on the above-mentioned top five alternative trades, especially as they are compatible with the present needs of the labour market as well as those needs which might surface in the course of the coming few years. The next step, therefore, was to indentify those groups of students who preferred the top five alternative careers.

Table (9)

Alternative Trades Preferred by Students by Type of School (Percentages)

Alternative trade / Type of school	TV and radio repair	Food & dairy product processing	Paramedical work	Office machine repair	retail sales clerk	electrician	telex & teleprinter operation	Child care	Architectural drafting	Factory worker	Hotel & restaurant trades	Lab-technicque	other
Government	4.7	4.2	18.3	2.9	3.5	2.8	11.6	19.7	10.9	2.4	1.6	10.8	6.4
UNRWA	4.0	4.0	18.4	3.1	2.9	3.1	11.6	19.6	12.1	2.9	1.8	12.5	3.0
Private	2.8	1.7	18.8	1.7	2.8	1.7	12.5	13.6	12.5	3.9	0.6	12.5	14.8
Total responses	135	117	536	86	95	84	341	563	334	78	47	334	170
%	4.6	4.0	18.4	2.9	3.3	2.9	11.7	19.3	11.4	2.7	1.6	11.4	5.8

a- Child care was equally preferred by students of government and UNRWA schools; 19.6% of each category's students said they preferred child care as compared with 13.6% for private school students. Rural students' preference was slightly higher than that of urban students. (21.7% against 19.0%). Our conclusion here is that child care is almost universally accepted and, therefore, child care apprenticeship programmes should be directed to all categories of students with the exception of private school students.

b- Paramedical work appealed equally to the students of governmental schools (18.3%), UNRWA schools (18.4%) and private schools (18.8%), as well as urban students (18.2%) and rural students (19.1%). Therefore, paramedical apprenticeship programmes are rightly entitled to be directed to all categories of students.

c- Telex and teleprinter work was also equally liked by students of governmental schools (11.6%), UNRWA schools (11.6%) and private schools (12.5%). The effect of environment was different; 12.0% of urban students preferred telex and teleprinter work against 9.1% for rural students. It is advisable, therefore, to direct the related programmes basically to urban students in all types of schools.

d- Architectural drafting was equally preferred by students of private schools (12.5%) and UNRWA schools (12.1%), but the degree of preference ebbed to 10.9% for students of governmental schools. Besides, the preference of urban students (11.8%) was higher than that of rural students (9.1%). It is therefore advisable to direct the related programmes to urban students in UNRWA and private schools.

e- Lab- Technique, very much the same as architectural drafting, was mostly and equally preferred by students of private schools (12.5%) and UNRWA schools (12.5%), with the percentage dropping to 10.8% for students of governmental schools. The effect of environment was negligible (11.4% for urban students and 11.7% for rural students) It could be seen that the differences were marginal for all categories of students. Therefore, it is recommended that the related apprenticeship programmes be directed to all students indiscriminately.

Table (9) gives also an idea about the alternative trades which attract students least of all. Work in restaurant and hotel trades was preferred by only 1.6% of total students. Next in degree of weakness of preference came factory work in industries (Chemical, textile, plastics) which was preferred by only 2.7% of total students. This was followed by working as electrician which appealed to 2.9%. of total students.

Thus it seems that the task of promoting vocational apprenticeship in the field of manufacturing industries encounters considerable difficulties. To that end, we do not need only intensive promotional efforts, particularly information campaigns, but also a lot of patience until change will have worked itself upon social values and attitudes, and until the impact of pure economic need will have shown up. However, the students' preference for work in food and dairy products was not so weak (4.0%). If female apprenticeship in the field of manufacturing is to be promoted right away, food and dairy products will be the best option available so far.

2.2.3.4- Alternative Trades: Income Effect

Table (10) shows that there was no correlation between income level and students preference to individual alternative trades; preferences fluctuated erraticly irrespective of income trends. In other words, the educational level had nothing to do with attitudes towards various trades. The only observable relationship was generally that students in low income groups tended to prefer child care. As monthly income exceeded JD 300, the strongest preference shifted to paramedical work. When income exceeded JD 700, interest switched to trades not listed among the thirteen alternative trades such as medicine, engineering, tourist guide, air hostess, taxi driver, policewoman, decoration work and interpreters .

2.2.3.5- Basic Factor Determining Choice of Preferred Alternative Trades

The survey went on to explore the basic factor which affected the decision of each student to prefer one alternative trade to another, because the diversion of the preferences to nationally desired trades would be most effective by working

Table (10)

Alternative Trade Preferred by Students by Family's

Average Monthly Income (Percentages)

Alternative trade / Monthly income	TV and radio repair	Food and dairy Product processing	Paramedical Work	Office machine repair	Retail sales Clerk	Electrician	Telex & teleprinter Operation	Child care	Architectural drafting	Factory worker	Hotel & restaurant trades	Lab-technique	Other
Less than 50	6.3	5.7	16.5	5.7	5.0	3.1	8.2	21.6	7.6	2.5	1.9	8.2	7.0
50 - 99	5.2	3.1	19.1	2.7	3.2	2.5	10.8	21.2	11.2	2.8	1.5	10.8	5.2
100- 199	4.8	4.8	19.0	3.0	2.6	2.7	11.6	18.5	11.6	2.7	1.6	11.3	5.1
200- 299	3.5	3.9	17.5	2.2	3.9	3.9	11.7	20.6	10.1	2.8	1.3	11.7	6.2
300- 399	3.3	2.5	17.3	2.5	2.5	2.5	14.4	16.1	14.8	2.5	1.6	13.1	6.3
400- 499	4.0	-	17.5	2.7	5.4	4.0	12.1	17.5	14.8	-	-	17.5	4.0
500- 599	2.5	5.0	17.5	2.5	5.0	-	12.5	12.5	7.5	5.0	7.5	10.0	12.5
600- 699	5.0	10.0	20.0	5.0	5.0	-	15.0	15.0	10.0	-	-	10.0	5.0
700- 799	7.6	-	7.6	-	7.6	7.6	15.3	7.6	15.3	-	-	7.6	23.0
800- 899	-	-	6.6	6.6	-	-	26.6	20.0	20.0	-	-	13.3	6.6
900- 999	-	-	7.6	-	-	-	15.3	15.3	7.6	-	-	23.0	30.7
1000 and More	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

on this very factor. Table (11) shows the most relevant factors and the intensity of each of them derived from interviewees' responses.

Table (11)
Basic Factors Determining Choice of Preferred Alternative Trades

	Factor	Intensity %
1-	My own decision	61.8
2-	Advice of family	18.7
3-	Advice of friends/neighbours	3.6
4-	Advice of teacher/school Counselor	2.6
5-	Television information	8.4
6-	Radio information	3.3
7-	Newspapers reports	1.4
8-	Other	0.3

When interpreting the above data, it is advisable not to attach much weight to "my own decision" factor due to the very possible bias built in it. If we did just that, the paramount importance of the role played by the family in motivating its daughter to prefer a certain trade would become very evident. The effectiveness of media, especially television, was also apparent . Therefore, VTC is advised to give priority to familiarising the students' families, particularly the heads of families, with the advantages and virtues of vocational apprenticeship by all manners of means available (such as special pamphlets). VTC is also invited to give priority to the use of television for promoting vocational apprenticeship in general and to publicise the related programmes it organises every now and then. At a later stage other media could be employed if it is not possible, for technical or financial considerations, to employ them simultaneously with television. At the same time, it is indispensible to address the students immediately and directly through special pamphlets, circulars and lectures. VTC should have a well-staffed section capable of administring effectively the necessary information activities.

2.2.4- Preferred Place of Work

It was necessary to indentify the preferred place of work in order to formulate a recommendation that combines the preferrred trades with the preferred places of work.

Students had been presented with seven possible places of work and each student was asked to indicate the one place she prferred to all others. The results are shown in Table (12)

Table No (12)
Preferred place of work

Place of work	Degree of preference %
School	34.2
Government office	20.7
Hospital	15.8
Commercial and services establishments	14.4
At home	10.9
Nursery	2.6
Factory	1.4
	100

School was the most preferred place of work. This was to be expected because teaching, as we found out earlier, was the most favoured trade. Now let us disregard "school" as the most preferred place of work and "teaching" as the most preferred trade on the grounds that the provision and training of female teachers are the responsibility of other governmental departments and demand for teaching jobs is already very strong and does not accordingly need promotion. If we do , we will find out that the preferred trades that go with the next three preferred places of work, (namely government office, hospital and commercial & services establishments) are secretarial work, nursing, paramedical work, lab-technique and telex and teleprinter operation. This conclusion could be the most important finding produced by this study as far as VTC is concerned. Immediate apprenticeship schemes should be concentrated on these trades.

CHAPTER THREE: ISSUES RELATED TO ATTITUDES TOWARDS WOMEN EMPLOYMENT

In this Chapter, we will explore the attitudes of students towards the work of women outside the home , afterwhich they will be asked whether they themselves intend to seek employment outside the home and what motivates them to do so. Later on, we will enquire about the approval or disapproval of their guardians to their working outside the home and the reasons behind disapproval. We will end up with investigating the effects of marriage on the women's work outside the home.

3.1- Attitude of Students towards Women Work outside the Home

The students were asked whether they felt that it was a good thing for Jordan if an increasing number of women worked outside the home. Around 89.3% said that they felt that was a good thing, 7.1% said it was not and 3.7% expressed no opinion.

These were important results because they defined the attitude of the coming generation of mothers towards a socio-economic central issue: women's work outside the home . The overwhelming majority of the coming generation of mothers are taking a stance which will not be only reflected on their working outside the home but also on their daughters' work as well. Right now and on the basis of that majority (89.3%), we are entitled to make the tentative conclusion that the increase in the number of women who work outside the home is the trend of the future not only for economic considerations but also on the grounds of women's social perception of women's work outside the home.

3.2.- Intention to Work outside the Home

It was interesting to compare the answers to the question raised above (attitude towards work outside the home) with the answers of the students to the question of whether or not they themselves intended to work outside the home in order to find out whether there was, or there was not, a gap between an attitude (theory) and action (real life). Simultaneously, the answers to the second question would help, up to this point, to form an idea, albiet hazy, about the prospects

of the increase in the rate of women participation in the labour force.

About 81.7% of respondents said they intended to work outside the home, 13.3% said they did not and 4.9% said they were undecided.

The first percentage (81.7%) surely showed that the abovementioned gap did exist (compared of course, with the percentage of those who said that the increase in the number of women who work outside the home was a good thing) . But surely it was a very narrow gap which one would only be delighted to ignore and to confidently decide that the patterns of answers to both questions were in satisfactory harmony. Now, two conclusions should be derived: i) There is a positive correlation between the attitude of the student towards work outside the home and her intention to seek a job, and

ii) The rate of women participation in the labour force will most probably increase.

2.2.1- Effect of Religion on Intention to Work.

The answers of the respondents indicated that religion did have an effect on the intention to work outside the home. The percentage of christian students who said they intended to work outside the home reached 90% and of those who said they did not 6.7%. The corresponding percentages for moslem students were 81.3% and 13.7%.

3.2.2- Effect of Environment

Environment seemed to have no effect. About 81.8% of urban students said they intended to work outside the home compared with exactly the same percentage for rural students. Urban students who said they did not intend to work reached 13.6% against 11.3% for rural students. The discrepancy between the last two percentages might be attributable to various reasons. For example, the lower level of rural incomes may depress the incentive to keep away from work . The commitment of a woman to her home duties is probably stronger in the urban centres and the volume of these

duties may still be greater . Later on when motives for seeking employment outside home are considered, we will have an opportunity to examine further the above-assumed income effect.

3.2- Motives for Working outside the Home

Each student who said she intended to work outside the home was asked what her motive to that was. The answers showed that the dominant motive was interest (otherwise bored), followed by the motive of supplementing the income of the family. However, the difference between the strength of these two motives, measured by the percentages of students who mentioned each, was comparatively marginal which justified putting them on equal footing (see Table 13).

Table (13)

Motives for Working outside the Home

Motive	Strength
Supplementing family income	27.9%
Increasing personal income	21.1%
Interest (Avoidance of boredom)	31.3%
Proving female capabilities	19.0%
Other	0.6%

Equality in strength was applicable also to the economic motives (supplementing family income+increasing personal income) and the personal motives (interest + proving female capabilities). The strength of economic motives is what we draw on to say that inflation and the concomitant rise in the costs of living will exert a direct positive effect on the rate of the women participation in the labour force. Although it ranked fourth, the motive of proving female capabilities was still strong and merited attention. If this motive is studied within the context of the same question (motives for working outside the home) some 3-5 years from now, the results will provide a yardstick to measure changes which the personality of the working woman undergoes and her philosophy regarding work at large.

3.3.1- Effect of Religion

The motive of interest (avoidance of boredom) was stronger among christian students (36.6%) than among moslem students (31.0%) . The contrary held true of the strength of the motive to supplement family income (28.5% for moslem students and 18.8% for christian students). And this was certainly understandable because the income levels of christian students' families were higher than those of moslem families (see Chapter 2.1) The motive of proving female capabilities was stronger among christian students (23.8% against 18.7%). The strength of the motive to prove female capabilities was exactly the same for the two categories of students (20.8%).

3.3.2- Effect of Environment

The motive to prove the female capabilities was understandably far stronger among urban students, but the other three motives were dominant among rural students (see Table 14).

Table (14)
Effect of Environment on Strength
of Work Motives
" percentages"

Motive	Strength	
	Urban Students	Rural Students
Supplementing family income	27.3	31.5
Increasing personal income	20.8	23.0
Interest (Avoidance of boredom)	30.9	35.0
Proving female capabilities	20.3	10.5
Other	0.7	0.0
	100	100

The strength of the motive of supplementing the family income among rural students (31.5%) could lend credence to the assumption made earlier with respect to the role of income in explaining the gap between the percentage of rural students who said they did not intend to work outside the home (11.3%) and the corresponding percentage for urban students (13.6%).

3.3.3- Effect of the Type of School

In studying the effect of the type of school we did not of course assume that there was a causal relationship between the type of school of a student and the student's motive to work outside the home. The purpose was rather to see how the motives are concentrated among the students of each type of schools in order to arrive at a specific recommendation relating to apprenticeship programmes.

Table (15)

Strength of Work Motives by Type of School

"percentages"

Motive	Governmental	UNRWA	Private
Supplementing family income	27.0	32.3	14.3
Increasing personal income	21.8	20.5	17.3
Avoidance of boredom	32.5	27.7	38.8
Proving female capabilities	18.2	18.9	28.6
Other	0.6	0.6	1.0

The figures above indicate that the motive of supplementing the family income was dominant among UNRWA school students and that the motive of increasing personal income was dominant among students of governmental schools. The motive to prove female capabilities and avoid boredom dominated private school students. This pattern could imply that it is preferable to direct apprenticeship programmes linked to trades capable of generating steady- and if possible higher-income to UNRWA school students. When it comes to "tough" or "difficult" trades that require capabilities famous of being shown best by men, the related programmes may be directed to private school students in the first place.

3.4- Attitudes of Guardians towards Students' Work outside the Home

The answers of students to the questions relating to their intention to work outside the home and to their feeling towards the increase in the number of women who work outside the home justify the drawing of the conclusion that the rate of the women participation in the labour force will take an upward trend. However, the attitudes and opinions of students represent only one side of the equation.

The other side is the attitudes of the students' guardians . In some, if not most, cases, the willingness of a female is not a sufficient condition for being employed outside the home . The approval of her guardian might be often the decisive factor. If we find out that the percentage of students' guardians who allow them to work outside the home is as high as the percentage of students who said they intended to work outside home, we will be in a position to rest assured that our above-mentioned conclusion regarding the increase in the rate of the participation of women in the labour force is sound and adequately justified. To cover this crucial aspect, the students were asked whether their guardians approve of their working outside the home. The results appear in Table (16). About 62.2% of respondents said their guardians unconditionally approved their working outside the home . This is less than the percentage of students who said they intended to work outside the home

Table (16)

Attitudes of Students' Guardians to Women Work outside the Home

Attitude	Students' Answers (%)
1- Unconditional approval	62.2
2- Conditional approval	13.8
3- Disapproval	16.8
4- Undecided	7.1

(81.7%) . Add to the(62.2%) the percentage of conditional approval (13.8%) and the product (76.0%) would be still below the(81.7%) mark. But, it is only natural to find a gap between the attitudes of two generations towards a central social issue such as the issue of women's work outside the home. Furthermore, the gap is fortunately narrow and the percentage of approval, whether unconditional alone or conditional and unconditional, stood high on its own. Our final conclusion is, therefore, that the rate of participation of women in the labour force will shift up considerably, especially if VTC succeeds in conducting apprenticeship programmes linked with trades preferred to female students.

3.4.1- Effect of Income

The effects of the educational level, measured by income levels, on the attitudes of guardians appear in Table (17) . The percentage of disapprovals ranged from 18.7-19.9% when monthly income was less than JD 100 and declined gradually as income crept up until it hit the zero mark when income exceeded JD 600. These figures are significant

Table (17)

Attitudes of Student's Guardians Towards Work

Outside the Home by FamilY's Average Monthly Income

Attitude of Guardian / Monthly Income	Conditional approval		Unconditional approval		disapproval		undecided		total	
	absolute	%	absolute	%	absolute	%	absolute	%	absolute	%
Less than 50	10	15.6	37	57.8	12	18.7	5	7.8	64	100
50 - 99	39	14.6	154	57.8	53	19.9	20	7.5	266	100
100 - 199	69	15.4	282	63.0	72	16.1	24	5.3	447	100
200 - 299	14	8.5	110	67.4	28	17.1	11	6.7	163	100
300 - 399	6	7.1	54	64.2	13	15.4	11	13.0	84	100
400 - 499	2	7.4	19	70.3	3	11.1	3	11.1	27	100
500 - 599	2	11.7	10	58.8	2	11.7	3	17.6	17	100
600 - 699	3	42.8	4	57.1	-	-	-	-	7	100
700 - 799	3	60.0	1	20.0	-	-	1	20.0	5	100
800 - 899	3	50.0	3	50.0	-	-	-	-	6	100
900 - 999	-	-	5	100.0	-	-	-	-	5	100
1000 and more	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
total	151		679		183		78		1091	
%	13.8		62.2		16.8		7.1		100	

because they imply that as economic development proceeds the rate of women participation in the labour force is liable to climb up, (provided income levels rise as economic development proceeds).

Table (17) shows also that the highest percentages of unconditional approval went with income brackets of JD 100-500. However, when this percentage dropped in certain higher income brackets (700-899), the drop was attributable to the rise in conditional approvals not in disapprovals.

3.4.2-Effect of Religion

The effect of religion was abundantly clear. The percentage of unconditional approvals of christian students' guardians reached 91.7% against 60.5% for moslem guardians. Disapprovals dropped to 1.7% among christian guardians against 17.7% for moslem ones. About 6.7% of christian students' guardians expressed conditional approval which ultimately meant that 98.4% of christian students were liable to join the labour force.

3.4.3- Effect of Environment

Environment did not seem to affect the attitudes of guardians towards women's work outside the home as the percentages of unconditional approvals in the cases of rural and urban students were the same (62.2%), but a marginal difference was observed between the percentages of disapprovals which were 17.0% and 15.4% for urban and rural guardians respectively. However, this difference should be treated as insignificant because the percentage of guardians who were undecided was substantially higher in rural cases (11.2%) than in urban ones (6.5%). A similar marginality was observed between rural conditional approvals (11.2%) and urban ones (14.2%). However, we believe that the percentages that really matter are those of unconditional approval, which were identical.

3.5- Reasons for Guardians' disapproval of Women's Work outside the Home

The students who said their guardians disapproved of their working outside the home were asked why they had taken that attitude. About 65.2% of these students said that their guardians' rationale was that "a woman's place is at home", 26.5% said the rationale was that "it is inappropriate for women to work at close

quarters with men", and 2.2% said that the reason for disapproval was that " it is necessary for a woman to go to and back from work unaccompanied and this is not proper ". The remainder (6.1%) mentioned a host of other reasons which did not merit attention (other reasons included: I have not asked him; no need for work as everything is available; it is the tradition; religious fanaticism).

It is obvious that the reasons of disapproval mentioned above are, with the exception of going to work unaccompanied, interlinked and interlocked with a-matter-of-principle attitudes which are deeply rooted in the soil of social values. Such attitudes will neither change nor be changed until the social values themselves change through evolution and pressure of economic need.

The reason pertaining to unaccompaniment could be tackled through provision of transportation, but the overall impact will be negligible because it will add only 0.4% to the labour force. This represents the percentage of students who mentioned this reason to total students interviewed (i.e. 4 to 1091). However, in marginal cases where the attitude of the female or her guardian towards work outside the home is not firmly tilted either way, the provision of transportation has a chance of tipping the scales.

3.6- Effect of Marriage on Work of Women outside the Home

The results of the survey showed that marriage adversely effects the participation rate of women in the labour force. This is partly due to a decision made by the wife. The evidence is derivable from the percentage of students who said they would work after marriage, and which reached only 47.6%. This percentage is well below both the percentage of students who said they intended to seek employment outside the home and the percentage of students who said their guardians approved unconditionally of their working outside the home.

The other evidence is discernible from the percentage of students who said they did not intend to seek employment after marriage, which reached 33.2%, while the percentage of students who said, it could be recalled, that they did not intend to work outside

the home was only 13.3%. This shift undoubtedly reflects the attitude of the women towards their motherhood duties. And it is an important shift which should be given the attention of those who are interested in questions relating to women employment at large. Some sort of survey study should be conducted to identify the reasons that motivate the female to quit work after marriage as a prelude to providing facilities that eliminate these reasons.

The other factor that contributes to adverse effect of marriage on women's work is the attitude of the husband. Around 19.2% of the students said that their working after marriage depended on their husbands' wishes. If the husband objected to that, which is a possibility, the wife would quit work or not seek it.

CONCLUSION

The students sample survey revealed some very simple, but basic, facts. We will not make here a list of recommendations-because we elected to state them in the text- but rather emphasise a number of points which seemed particularly important.

1- About half of the 3rd preparatory class female students, the population from which VTC recruits participants in its programmes, are ignorant of these programmes. Such students must not only be very well informed about such programmes but also about their advantages and virtues.

2- Those advantages and virtues are not known to the students to the minimum satisfactory degree. The evidence to that was the enormous rise in the proportion of students who said they were interested in joining apprenticeship programmes after one of these advantages-guaranteed job- had been explained.

3- To generate an increase in the demand for joining VTC programmes, these programmes and the advantages of vocational apprenticeship must be well conceived by the family of the student, particularly her guardian, and by the school, particularly the guidance counselor, because the decision to join a vocational apprenticeship programme is a function not only of the willingness of the student but also of the advice of her family and teachers.

4- A foresighted vocational policy would not confine information campaigns and promotional activities to the 3rd preparatory class students but direct them to the students of the other preparatory classes as well. In this way, the time for the student to make a decision regarding joining the apprenticeship programme will come when she is fully prepared for this turn in her life, and fully aware of what lies ahead for her. A simple form distributed annually to the students of 1st and 2nd preparatory classes in which they are asked to point out whether they will be interested to join vocational apprenticeship programmes and the trade they prefer will enable the VTC to project demand for its programmes and for various trades.

5- It is imperative for VTC to have a special body of information and publicity experts who design and execute the necessary apprenticeship promotional campaigns. The survey indicated the effectiveness of various channels of information.

6- At this stage, industrial trades do not seem to appeal to female students. There is no point, therefore, to force them down their throats right now. Apprenticeship programmes in the present stage must be linked to trades preferred by students. After such non-industrial trade apprenticeship programmes will have progressed, the climate will become more conducive to vocational apprenticeship. Then industrial trade apprenticeship programmes will be injected at the right time and priority will be shifted gradually to them.

7- The results of the Survey strongly suggests that the rate of women participation in the labour force will increase appreciably. This increase will be enhanced if VTC undertook vocational apprenticeship programmes linked with the trades shown to be preferred by female students (secretarial work, nursing, paramedical work, lab-technicians, telex and teleprinter operating, architectural drafting) and directed to the categories of students prescribed in this study. The increase will also be enhanced if the Ministry of Labour conducts a study on the reasons that motivate a good proportion of women to quit their jobs after marriage in order to introduce measures and provide facilities and services which help eliminate these reasons.

PART TWO

EMPLOYERS SAMPLE SURVEY

P R E F A C E

The questionnaire used for the employers sample survey comprised 17 questions, some of which were sub-divided into two or three parts. The answers to all questions were analysed and interpreted.

The 17 questions come under three sets. The first set of questions had related to general issues and was, therefore, put to all establishments surveyed. The second set of questions was put to establishments which employed women when the survey was being conducted. The term "female employers" will be used throughout this report to denote this category of establishments. The third set of questions was put to establishments which did not employ women when the survey was underway. The term "female non-employers" will refer to this category of establishments.

S U M M A R Y

The employers sample survey covered 150 establishments, of which only 115 employed women totalling 2090, i.e., 9.7% of the total labour force of the 150 establishments. Jordanian female employees formed 91.2% of aggregate female employees and 22.4% of them were married.

The greatest percentage (40.6%) of Jordanian female workers were classified as craftswomen but most of non-Jordanian female workers (46.2%) were classified as technicians.

Around 38.0% of Jordanian female workers were employed by the manufacturing sector, 30.8% of them by the finance & banking sector* and 23.2% by the services sector. Marriage does affect this pattern. The greatest proportion of 39.0% Jordanian married female workers were employed by the services sector, 36.6% by the finance & banking sector and 13.6% by the manufacturing sector.

The highest percentage of female employees (35.3%) held secretarial and clerical jobs, 26.5% of them worked in production and 23.1% took on sales & services jobs. The minimum educational requirements for jobs held by these female employees ranged from "less than the preparatory school" to university degrees.

Female employees almost enjoyed the same wage scale and training and promotion opportunities as men . However, equality was not observed with respect to other employment conditions as, for example, only single women were employed in some establishments. Other conditions which are indispensible for a healthy female employment environment were not adequately available in good many establishments. Generally speaking, the availability of all such conditions was estimated at 51.3%.

Some 92.2% of female employers said they were satisfied with the overall performance of female employees. Those which expressed dissatisfaction attributed it, firstly, to the costly special facilities which female employment requires, secondly, to high turnover

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* Insurance companies are included

among female employees and, thirdly, to great absenteeism . As seen by female employers, female workers' performance was better than male workers' performance. Female employees were, those employers said, more accurate, disciplined and dedicated than male employees but less demanding in financial and industrial relations terms.

Most establishments said they were not familiar with the various training activities and programmes administered by VTC. Their interest in hiring female apprentices in training under VTC programmes was weak. Some were not interested at all; their main reasons for that were that their work was not apprenticeable, turnover among female employees was high and because, they believed, apprenticeship programmes were costly (to them).

About 43% of female non-employers said they would not be willing, to hire women in the future. In order of importance, the main reasons for that were their belief that women do not have the requisite skills to fill available jobs, women were not expected to perform as well as men and greater absenteeism and turnover for female employees.

Female non-employers that would consider hiring women in the future indicated that the jobs to be assigned to them were secretarial & clerical jobs (45.5%) , production jobs (21.2%), technical positions (18.2%), sales & services jobs (12.1%) and upper level managerial posts (3.0%). Only 17.6% of non-employers said they were interested in training and hiring women under VTC apprenticeship programmes. Around 58.8% said they were not, mainly because their activities were not apprenticeable , the nature of work was not compatible with female capabilities and/or turnover among female employees was high.

CHAPTER FOUR : RESULTS OF EMPLOYERS SAMPLE SURVEY

In Chapter Four, we will look into the broad indicators derived from the results of the employers sample survey, assess the availability of those terms and conditions normally attached to women employment and the attitudes of female employers and female non-employers.

4.1- Broad Indicators

The 150 establishments covered by the survey employed 21,638 labourers, that is 144 per establishment. Jordanian labourers totalled 19,110 (88.3%) and non-Jordanians 2528 (11.7%).

The number of female employees was 2090 or 9.7% of aggregate labour force. Jordanian female employees totalled 1906, or 91.2% of aggregate female employees and 8.8% of aggregate employees. The balances were, of course, accounted for by non-Jordanian female employees. Out of total Jordanian female employees, 22.4% were married. Female non-employers accounted for 23.3% of aggregate establishments.

4.1.1- Employees by Level of Qualification

In Table (18) , aggregate employees are classified by the level of qualification. The figures show the following:

Table (18)
Employees by Level of Qualification

"percentages"

Level of Qualification	Aggregate Employees		Jordanians		Non-Jordanians	
	Absolute	%	Males	Females	Males	Females
1- Professional	1651	7.6	8.0	8.2	4.4	12.0
2-Technician	1988	9.2	9.0	9.1	7.8	46.2
3-Craftsmen	3938	18.2	17.1	40.6	8.5	11.4
4-Skilled	5057	23.4	25.1	16.4	18.3	3.8
5-Semi-skilled	9004	41.6	40.8	25.7	61.0	26.6
Total	21,638	100	100	100	100	100

1- The highest proportion of Jordanian female employees (40.6%) were craftswomen. The above percentage is higher than the corresponding ... percentages of male employees and non-Jordanian female employees.

2- The combined percentage of Jordanian female employees who were professionals and technicians reached 17.3% which was marginally higher than that of Jordanian male employees (17.0%)

3- Semi-skilled employees formed 41.6% of aggregate employees. This percentage is slightly higher than that of Jordanian male employees (40.8%) and considerably higher than that of Jordanian female employees (25.7%) but far lower than that of non-Jordanian male employees, which reached 61.0%, which means that imported male labourers are mainly semi-skilled.

4- Non-Jordanian female employees who worked as technicians formed a relatively high percentage (46.2%) of aggregate non-Jordanian female employees . Most probably, the majority of these female technicians held medical jobs in the light of the shortage of qualified Jordanians in this field.

4.1.2- Female Employees by Economic Activity

In Table (19), female employees are classified by economic activity . The figures show the following:

1- Around 90.4% of female employees were employed by only three sectors, namely, manufacturing (36.2%), finance & banking (28.7%) and services (25.5%). Unmarried female employees were employed almost similarly: 40.8% by the manufacturing sector, 27.1% by the finance & banking sector and 22.7% by the services sector.

2- The distribution shown above held true of Jordanian female workers: 92.0% of them were employed by the sectors of manufacturing (38.0%), finance & banking (30.8%) and services (23.2%) . But when Jordanian female workers had been split into married and unmarried employees, a drastic change was observed. Married employees preferred the services sector (39.0% of them against 19.7% for unmarried) and finance & banking sector (36.6% of them against 29.5 for unmarried), but they shied away from the manufacturing sector (13.6% of them against 43.4% for the unmarried).

Table (19)

Female Employees by Economic Activity
"percentages"

Sector	Aggregate Employees	Jordanians	married Jordanian	unmarried Jordanians	aggregate unmarried employees	unmarried non-Jordanian**
Manufacturing	36.2	38.0	13.6	43.4	40.8	13.6
Mining	1.1	1.2	1.9	1.0	0.9	-
Transport	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.0	0.5
Finance & banking	28.7	30.8	36.6	29.5	27.1	1.1
Electricity*	1.4	1.5	2.1	1.4	1.2	-
Construction	1.7	1.6	2.1	1.5	1.6	2.7
Commerce	4.4	2.7	3.5	2.5	4.7	27.2
Services	25.5	23.2	39.0	19.7	22.7	54.9

3- The sectors of manufacturing, finance & banking and services employed 92.6% of Jordanian unmarried female workers and 89.2% Jordanian married female workers. This implies that marriage redistributes the Jordanian unmarried female employees among these three sectors: In favour of the services sector and away from the manufacturing sector. In the process , some of them leak into the other sectors. If all Jordanian unmarried female employees get married, most probably 3.4% of them will shift to the other sectors which get varying shares of the transferred labour as shown by the increase in the relative shares of the other sectors of Jordanian married female employees. (see Table 19, col. 4 and 5).

4- Jordanian unmarried female workers seemed to prefer work in the manufacturing sector, then in finance & banking and then in the services sector . This sequence is reversed after marriage.

* Refers to distribution not generation of electricity.

** All non-Jordanian female employees covered by the survey were unmarried.

4.1.3- Female Employees by Kind of Job Held

The range of possible jobs available in the establishments covered by the survey were classified into six categories. The overall distribution of female employees to these jobs is shown below:

Kind of job	percentage of female employees
Secretarial/ clerical	35.3
Production	26.5
Sales/ cervices	23.1
Technical positions	8.1
Upper level managerial posts	5.9
Other	1.1

Obviously, secretarial and clerical jobs dominated the jobs held by female employees in the industrial and services establishments.

In Part One of this study, we found out that female students preferred secretarial and clerical trades and that the preferred places of work to these students were those which went with such trades. In other words, secretarial and clerical jobs are sought by female students ; employers' demand for women to fill such jobs is adequate. VTC is therefore invited to take part in making these two ends meet as satisfactorily as possible through initiating female apprenticeship schemes linked to these trades in co-ordination with the interested establishments.

Production jobs, of which female employees filled around 26.5%, refer to factory work directly connected with the production process. Most often, this is a repetitive work which does not require special prolonged training or full-fledged course education. The students' sample survey indicated that there was no interest on the part of students to join apprenticeship programmes linked with factory-oriented trades. Therefore, VTC may find it more appropriate, at this stage, to concentrate on skills upgrading programmes for females employed in production work. The same may be also said about the female employees holding technical positions.

4.1.4- Minimum Educational Requirements

Educational levels were classified into the following: Less than the elementary school, elementary school, preparatory school, secondary school, more than the secondary school but less than the university degree, uni-

educational level they require to hire females for each category of jobs mentioned earlier.

The answers showed that the greatest proportion of respondents (52.5%) required the completion of the secondary school for secretarial & clerical jobs. As for production jobs, the greatest proportion of them (57.8%) required "less than the elementary school".

For sales & services jobs, most respondents (47.0%) required the completion of the secondary school. For technical positions, the majority (39.0%) required "more than the secondary school but less than the university degree". The university degree was indispensible for filling upper level managerial posts from the viewpoint of 76.6% of the respondents.

4.1.5- Average Working Hours

Female-employers were asked about the daily average number of hours their female employees work. The everage was less than 6 hours, 6-8 hours and more than 8 hours in 7.0%, 92.1% and 0.9% of the respondents respectively. The 8-hour working day is what the effective labour law provides for. However, we did not inquire whether or not additional working hours were paid for.

4.2- Female Employment Terms and Conditions

Nine conditions believed to have an impact on female employment-particularly with respect to the elimination of discrimination between a male worker and a female worker- were singled out. Female-employers were asked to point out which of these conditions were being met by them . Female non-employers were asked which of these conditions would be met by them if they hired females. Thus this question was put to all establishments. The results are shown below.

Terms and conditions	No of "yes" responses	Availability (%)*
1- Same wage scale as for men	136	91.3
2- Same promotion and training opportunities as for men	140	94.0
3- Only single women are employed	37	24.8
4- Both single and married women are employed	112	57.2
5- Pregnancy leave provided	104	69.8
6- Transportation for women provided	60	40.3
7- Nursery provided	3	2.0
8- Separate lunch room for women provided	50	39.6
9- Uniformed work clothes	44	29.5

* This is the proportion of "yes" responses to number of respondents (149)

The data above suggest the following:

1- The conditions relating to equality in wage scales and training and promotion opportunities were satisfactorily met. However, there is still some room for improvement.

2- Pregnancy leave must be provided under the law. Therefore, its availability must be raised up to 100% by direct measures, that is by a decree from the concerned official body.

3- Nurseries are grossly inadequate. A plan to found them in as many establishments as possible should be adopted by the Ministry of Labour (MOL) . The presence of a nursery in establishments meeting certain requirements (to be specified by MOL after study) should be compulsory under law.

4- The availability of transportation and separate lunch rooms was not satisfactory. Necessary measures should be taken to improve it.

5- The practice of employing only single women is a violation of the Labour Law and should be tackled one way or another as it was observed in one out of four establishments.

Now, the responses to the question relating to the availability of the above employment conditions may be turned into one ratio which gauges the availability of female employment conditions combined. This goes on as shown below.

As far as the first condition (same wage scale) is concerned, we say: In the ideal situation, the number of "yes" responses is 149* but there were only 136 of them.

As for the second condition, we say: In the ideal situation, the number of "yes" responses should be 149, but there were only 140 of them. And so on and so forth, except for the third condition where we say: In an ideal situation, the number of "yes" responses should be zero but there were 37 of them. We give the 37 a negative sign, add up "yes" responses in the ideal situation (=1192), add up algebraically the actual "yes" responses (=612) and divide the latter by the former to come out with a product of 51.3%. We take this percentage as a measure of the overall availability of employment conditions which are

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* This is the number of respondents

conducive to the growth of female employment. And this is not a satisfactory percentage.

There were 49 female employers that said they would consider hiring more women. They were asked if they would consider providing those facilities which had not been provided by them (transportation, pregnancy leave, nursery, separate lunch rooms and uniformed work clothes) as means of recruiting the appropriate females. Twenty one establishments (42.9%) said they would provide transportation, five (10.2%) said they would grant pregnancy leave and seven were willing to open nurseries. None of these establishments was prepared to provide separate lunch rooms or uniformed work clothes. However, the responses demonstrated that there were employers who were ready to provide more services and facilities to female employees. This implied offer should be accepted and followed up diligently. The preparedness to provide nurseries is particularly interesting and deserves special attention. Nurseries might contribute considerably to the mitigation of the adverse effects of marriage on female employment and, in turn, to the desired increase - or undesired decrease - in the rate of women participation in the labour force.

4.3- Employers' Attitudes towards Female Employment

A number of questions were put to those establishments which were employing women when the survey was conducted (female employers) and others were put to those establishments which did not employ women at the time (female non-employers).

4.3.1- Attitudes of Female Employers

Questions put to female employers related to satisfaction with females' performance, reasons for dissatisfaction, females' performance compared with that of males, willingness to hire more women or otherwise and reasons behind that, familiarity with VTC programmes, interest in training and hiring females on an apprenticeship basis, and services and facilities available for female employees.

4.3.1.1- Satisfaction with Females' Performance

Around 92.2% of female employers said they were satisfied with the overall performance of female employees, 4.3% said they were not and 3.5% said they were undecided. Obviously, satisfaction ran very high, implying that women were doing a good job.

Employers which said they were not satisfied were asked to state the reasons. Hereunder are the results:

Reason for dissatisfaction	Percentage of respondents
1- Greater number of absences than men	20%
2- Education/training background inadequate for job	-
3- Women make more demands than men	10%
4- Women require special facilities which are costly to provide	30%
5- Turnover is high	30%
6- Other	10%

These results are particularly important because they are real reasons based on the experience of establishments who employed men and women side by side. The importance of the great number of women who quit work (high turnover) is very obvious. This phenomenon is not without reasons. In the first place, a woman quits work because she starts with a job that she does not like. This could be partly avoided by introducing apprenticeship

programmes linked with trades preferred by women (and partly by putting the right woman in the right place). In the second place, a woman may quit work because she gets married. Mention in this report has been made once and again of the adverse effects of marriage on female employment. It is imperative to counteract this trend through the provision of the relevant services and facilities (particularly nurseries). In the third place, a woman quits work because she finds a more preferred job. There is nothing that can be done in such cases. Generally speaking, a better insight into the reasons that contribute to a high turnover among female employees may be gained by inspecting more closely the terms and conditions relating to female workers, whose availability turned out to be low (see Chapter 4.2) and tailoring out relevant remedial action.

Most probably, high absenteeism is mainly attributable to the pregnancy leave. Our society should learn - or be taught- to accept the pregnancy leave as an unquestionable fact of life on grounds of the vital positive effects it has on the mother and her baby, which constituted a very strong rationale to provide for it in the legislations of various nations. However, absenteeism may have other reasons. If these reasons do not relate exclusively to legitimate leaves (sick leave, pregnancy leave, annual leave and what have you), it will be the duty of the management to cut down on absenteeism by various possible measures. In other words, the problem is then one of management not of female employment as such.

Another important reason was the special costly facilities required by women workers. Employers should come to conceive the respective expenses as investment in human capital which eventually and inevitably improves the performance of female employees. Thus these facilities are only ostensibly costly. In the longer run , they have a return which does justify them.

4.3.1.2- Women's Performance Compared with Men's Performance

In the light of their present or past experience, female employers were asked to compare women's performance with men's performance in tasks of the same complexity . Around 27.8% of them said that women's performance was better, 59.2% said their performance was as good as men's performance and 13.0% said men's performance was better. These percentages were in favour of women. If it was not as good as men's performance, women's performance would be better.

4.3.1.3- Willingness to Hire more Women

About 84.3% of female employers said they were willing to hire more women &15.7% said they were not.

The reasons for the willingness to hire more women were the following:

Reason of willingness	Percentage of responses
1- Women are more accurate than men	24.1
2- Women make less industrial demands	19.8
3- Women are more disciplined	19.5
4- Women are less demanding in financial terms	14.5
5- Women are more dedicated	14.1
6- Other	8.0

Reasons for unwillingness to hire more women were the reversal of the above reasons themselves, as shown below.

Reasons of unwillingness	Percentage of responses
1- Women are less accurate than men	11.4
2- Women make more industrial demands	17.1
3- Women are less disciplined	22.9
4- Women are more demanding in financial terms	2.9
5- Women are less dedicated	17.1
6- Other	28.6

Obviously, female employers hold contradictory opinions in relation tothe same reasons. This conflict of opinion is probably due to the difference in the tasks under consideration, in management's efficiency, in incentives provided or not provided and in efficiency of recruitment methods.

Otherwise, one would not understand why a certain woman is disciplined and accurate when she works for "Y" establishment while another working for "X" establishment is not.

4.3.1.4- Familiarity with VTC Programmes and Interest in Participating In Them

The answers showed that female employers were not adequately familiar with VTC programmes. About half of them knew nothing about these programmes which meant that there was no causal relationship between familiarity with VTC programmes and hiring women.

It also meant that unfamiliarity with programmes was a universal problem, a point which was also confirmed by the students sample survey results. Here under are the answers of the female employers regarding their familiarity with VTC programmes.

Degree of familiarity	Percentage of establishments
1- Complete	11.3
2- Reasonable	20.8
3- Negligible	18.3
4- Not familiar at all	49.6

Female employers were asked whether they were interested in introducing skills upgrading programmes for their female employees. 50.5% of them said they were interested and 49.5% said they were not.

The last percentage (49.5%) was high and interesting. If upgrading programmes improve the performance, and hence productivity, of female labourers, why should 49.5% of the female employers reject them? The plausible explanation could be that they were unaware of the impact of such programmes on the performance of their female employees. The fact that only 11.3% of the female employers were fully familiar with VTC programmes might lend credence to that explanation. The improvement in productivity and performance of labourers is the outstanding advantage of VTC skills up grading and apprenticeship programmes from the viewpoint of employers as was the guaranteed job the advantage of apprenticeship programmes from the viewpoint of students. The employers should be well acquainted with that advantage. This again stresses the vast informational tasks which VTC will have to shoulder if its programmes are to find their way through.

The female employers were asked whether they would consider hiring female apprentices in training under VTC programmes. About 42.6% of them said they would consider that, 41.7% said they would not and 15.7% said they were undecided. The percentage of those who said no was also high (41.7%) and peculiar especially if we remembered that the overwhelming majority (84.3%) of female employers said they were willing to hire more women. If this was the case, why did not these establishments consider recruiting needed female employees from those who completed vocational apprenticeship programmes linked with trades firmly connected to the activities of the concerned establishment?

The first thing that crossed the mind was that those establishments were ignorant of VTC programmes and their advantages. To formulate a reliable answer, the female employers who said no were asked to present their reasons which appear below.

Reason	Percentage of female employers that mentioned it
1- Our work is not apprenticeable	79.6
2- VTC programmes are costly	2.0
3- Turnover among women is high	6.1
4- Other	12.3
	100

Obviously, the decisive reason was the unapprenticeability of work. Probably, VTC is the best judge to decide whether this reason is sensible . In other words, does it sound reasonable to say that all kinds of work performed in some of our industrial and services establishments are invariably unapprenticeable, given the wide spectrum of possible works performed by establishments whose average employees totalled 144 per establishments? Is it true as well that vocational apprenticeship programmes are costly in as far as these establishments are concerned? To the best of our knowlege, they are not. If they really are not costly, VTC should spare not efforts or time to clarify this point to employers. The high turnover reason is not convincing as well . On the contrary, high turnover may constitute a good reason to consider hiring female apprentices in training under VTC programmes because such programmes make available employees who will take over jobs which they like and which they were trained to handle efficiently. Consequently, respective female employees will, most probably, stick to their jobs and turnover rate will be cut down. This is another aspect worthy of being clarified to employers.

4.3.2- Attitudes of Female Non-employers

Issues to be considered here pertain to willingness to hire women and related reasons, jobs to be assigned to female employees and under what terms and conditions, familiarity with VTC programmes and interest in training and hiring females under vocational apprenticeship programmes.

4.3.2.1- Willingness to Employ Women

The 35 female non-employers were asked whether they intended to employ women. Around 42.9% said they did not, 429% said they would and 14.2% were undecided.

4.3.2.2- Reasons for Unwillingness to Hire Women

The female non-employers that had said they would not hire women were asked about the reasons. Hereunder are the results. (Some respondents mentioned more than one reason).

Reason	Percentage of responses
1- Greater number of absences than men	6.9
2- Education/ training background inadequate for job	34.5
3- Women require special facilities which are costly to provide	3.4
4- Turnover is high	6.9
5- Women do not perform as good as men	17.2
6- Other	31.1

Thus the main reason was the suspected inadequacy of education and /or training necessary for the job. This did not sound reasonable because these employers undoubtedly had some, albiet a few, jobs which go with the skills of women. The belief that women do not perform as good as men is also groundless. The evidence could be found in the experience of female employers, which proved that women's performance was either as good as or better than men's performance (see Chapter 4.3.1.2) . This meant that unemploying women was responsible for that belief.

The reason relating to high turnover among female employees could not be taken seriously and what was said of it earlier might be said here as well (see Chapter 4.3.1.4). The reason relating to the costly additional facilities was also mentioned by some female employers . We have already made the point that the related additional costs should be viewed as part of overhead investments justified by lagged returns. (see Chapter 4.3.1.1).

To sum up, the reasons mentioned above are not serious enough and do not constitute real impediments to the increase in the rate of women participation in the labour force. Concerted official efforts will be capable of tackling them in the medium rather than the long run, especially if VTC steps in to inform female non-employers that vocational apprenticeship and skills upgrading programmes are capable of providing them with efficient female employees.

It was deemed appropriate to inspect the contents of Item 6 above: "other" which comprised nine responses. It was found that six of these responses should come under Item "2" whose percentage would consequently be pushed up to 55.2% . The other three responses (= 10.3% of aggregate responses) were:

i) Disbelief in mixing among men and women.
ii) Remote location of work and the consequential transportation difficulties.
iii) Day and night shifts are necessary and women can not work at night.

Admittedly, the last point (night shifts) is very relevant and could have prolonged adverse effects on female employment, particularly in factories.

4.3.2.3- Jobs Assignable to Women

Female non-employers that said they would consider hiring women (there were 15 of them) were asked what kind of jobs would be assigned to potential female employees. Hereunder are the results:

Kind of Job	Percentage
1- Secretarial/ clerical	45.5
2- Production	21.2
3- Sales/ services	12.1
4- Technical positions	18.2
5- Upper level managerial posts	3.0
6- Other	-

Apparently, secretarial and clerical jobs were dominant; VTC is invited to take notice of that. But the percentage of jobs related to production was particularly encouraging because it referred to work in factories. This could herald brighter prospects for female industrial apprenticeship.

4.3.2.4- Preparedness to provide appropriate Terms and Conditions for Female Employees

The 35 female non-employers were asked about employment conditions which they would provide if they were to hire women. About 51.4% of them said they would adopt a unified wage/ benefit package for men and women, 60% said they would hire women only on a full time basis and only 5.7% said they would hire women on a part time basis. Non of them was prepared to provide pregnancy leave, day care facilities for married women's children or transport facilities. Besides, they did not commit themselves to hiring both married and unmarried women or to hiring only unmarried women. The attitudes of female non-employers in this regard were negativistic in general.

4.3.2.5- Familiarity with VTC Programmes

The results of the survey indicated that female non-employers were not satisfactorily familiar with VTC Programmes, a situation which has been repeatedly detected throughout this study. Here the implications are necessarily the same ones highlighted earlier. And we are not entitled to jump to the conclusion that this unfamiliarity was responsible for not hiring women because female employers were equally unfamiliar with VTC programmes.

The number of respondents to the question relating to familiarity with VTC programmes was 33. The responses are shown below.

Degree of familiarity	Percentage
1- Complete	9.1
2- Reasonable	18.1
3- Negligible	15.2
4- Not familiar at all	57.6

4.2.3.6- Interest in Training and Hiring Women under Apprenticeship Programmes

Female non-employers were asked whether they would consider hiring female apprentices in training under VTC programmes. Out of 34 respondents, 58.8% said they would not consider that, 17.6%said they would and 23.5% were undecided. Note that the percentage of female non-employers that said they would not (58.8%) was almost identical with the percentage of those who said they were not familiar at all with VTC programmes (57.6%).

Female non-employers that said they would not consider hiring female apprentices (there were 20 of them) were asked about the reasons. Twenty five responses were recorded and distributed as follows:

Reason	Percentage
1- Our work is not apprenticeable	52.0
2- VTC programmes are costly	-
3- Turnover among women is high	4.0
4- Other	44.0

We have commented on these reasons more than once and will not, therefore, add further comments. But it was interesting to expose the individual reasons which made up the 44.0% shown above. "other" comprised eleven responses distributed as shown below.

Reason	No of responses
1- We do not know so far whether VTC administers typing courses	1
2- Nature of work does not permit hiring women or is difficult fo them to handle	7
3- Our past experience with female employees does not encourage a repetition	1
4- Disbelief in mixing among men and women	1
5- We do not intend to hire women	1

The first reason is surely interesting from VTC viewpoint and stresses again the bad need for information campaigns.

The second reason should be accepted but with a certain degree of qualification (for reasons which have already been touched upon- Chapter 4.3.1.4.)

C O N C L U S I O N

The employers sample survey produced a number of results with varying degrees of importance, most notably the following:

1- Employers were adequately satisfied with the performance of female employees even when compared with that of men.

2- The overwhelming majority of establishments including those that had not employed women intended to employ women or more women in the future.

3- Reasons which made some establishments refrain from hiring women and made others unwilling to employ them in the future obtain from purely economic considerations not from deep-rooted social attitudes and values except in very rare cases. This means that these reasons can be tackled in the short and medium terms without having to wait for changes in the social values system.

4- Women held jobs that run across the whole spectrum of various levels of qualification; there were no jobs which were the exclusive domain of men.

5- What might constitute a stumbling block in the way of the expansion of female employment is not generally the attitudes of employers, but other reasons such as the belief of employers that the nature of the work of their establishments defies the capabilities of women. Other reasons are related to the absence of those employment terms and conditions which are necessary to attract women and motivate them to stick to their jobs, particularly married female employees. However, some establishments expressed preparedness to provide some of the lacking facilities and services, which constitutes a positive attitude that should be followed up diligently by the Ministry of Labour.

6- Marriage has an adverse effect on female employment as it either makes some female employees quit work or look for other jobs. This contributed to the rise of a phenomenon which was strongly resented by employers: high turnover among

female employees. This phenomenon should be studied and thereafter properly tackled.

7- Most of non-Jordanian female employees are technicians. If these are to be substituted by female Jordanians, VTC apprenticeship programmes should be geared towards qualifying the latter as technicians. Where establishments said they were not satisfied with women's performance, skills upgrading programmes for female employees should be introduced.

8- It is highly desirable to hold a seminar to discuss thoroughly the various implications of the results of the employers sample survey.