

Jordan's Accession to WTO: A Socio- Economic Challenges for Women in the Tourism Sector

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Abstract

The present study explores the implications of WTO membership for women working in tourism sector in Jordan due to accession to the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2000 in terms of challenges that WTO membership present to women's family status, training opportunities, social security, and standing in social and political spheres, and how will WTO affect women's employment, incomes, and participation in decision-making. Accordingly, how can government decision-makers best address these issues? For the objective of the research four sub sectors selected: Hotels, Tourism Restaurants, Travel agencies, and Tourist Shops. The data collecting carries out in all Jordan's governorates. These sites were selected to represent the situation for women in the center, north and south of Jordan. The study used quantitative approach. Quantitative techniques used in the analysis of questionnaires and other secondary data. In addition, meetings have been held with representatives of local authorities and mass organizations, both at the commune as well as provincial level. These meetings assisted the researcher glean an overview of the situation for women, their issues and needs from the perspective of service providers.

The study examines the two periods: before acceding to the WTO 1995 – 2000 and after acceding to the WTO 2000 – 2005.

The researcher tested the hypotheses of the study, to examine the impacts among the variables of current study by using paired samples statistics and one – sample T-test of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences, (SPSS).

The results show that although there is no improvement on creating job opportunities and job positioning for women working in the tourism sector after Jordan's accession to the WTO, accession to the WTO has improved the average income, training aspects, and family decision making for women working in the tourism sector.

Finally, the researcher recommended some recommendations that help women proactively address the challenges brought on by WTO membership.

Keyword: Jordan, Socio- Economic Challenges, WTO, Women, Tourism Sector.

Introduction

Jordan's 2000 accession* to the WTO marked an important event in current Jordan's development. Integration with the global economy will deepen through the liberalization of imports and exports and opening the economy to foreign enterprises. This will undoubtedly have profound socio-economic impacts. In addition, it will bring opportunities and challenges to men and women in tourism sector. But the unfortunate starting point is that women's current social and economic status is already behind that of men. In view of women's current inferior socio-economic status and the increasing involvement of women in the labor force, the implications of these changes for women's status is a key concern that requires greater attention from policymakers. In analyzing

the impact of the WTO on women's employment and economic, family and social status, one cannot automatically assume the benefits exceed the costs. There is a kind of dialectic. On the one hand, WTO membership can bring some women opportunities for development, such as enhanced prospects for employment, higher incomes, and create an environment in which there is greater awareness of legal rights, and improved overall living and health conditions. On the other hand, the same globalization can bring hardship to other groups of women, such as unemployment, falling incomes caused by fiercer competition, and fewer social and economic benefits. Similarly, globalization can assist women to close the gap in their overall position with men but it can also serve to increase the existing gap.

Jordan's accession to the WTO, and the associated increase in competition, may aggravate the double burden of women (in the home and community, on the one hand, and paid employment, on the other) in two ways. First intensified market

* On 11 April 2000 Jordan becomes the 136th member of the WTO. The WTO's General Council concluded negotiations with Jordan and approved the accession package on 17 December 1999.

competition may reduce the time and energy men are able to devote to their domestic responsibilities centered on home and community, and thereby shift this burden to women and girls in the household. Second, fiercer competition may mean that women themselves are under greater pressure to devote more time and energy to their job and job search and to education and training to fulfill their economic and social responsibilities, which will add to women's existing burdens.

Research objectives

This study explores the implications of WTO membership for women working in tourism sector in Jordan, using statistical data, questionnaires. As a starting point, the study examined the economic, family, and social status of Jordan's women working in tourism sectors.

The study addresses the following questions:

1. What challenges will WTO membership present to women's family status, training opportunities, social security, and standing in social spheres?
2. What are the opportunities and impacts of Jordan's WTO commitments for tourism sector?
3. How will WTO affect women's employment, incomes, and participation in decision-making?
4. How specifically will WTO accession challenge women's economic and social status?
5. How can government decision-makers best address these issues?

Research Questions

The areas mentioned above will be examined through specific research questions categorized around women in the tourism labour market; and vulnerability and social protection, as following:

First: Women in the labor market (type and quality of employment)

1. To what extent are women able to take advantage of market opportunities? What new types of jobs or sectors are women moving into?
2. To what extent does this reduce gender inequality in the labor market? Do these reinforce or break down the stereotyped gendered division of labor, both horizontally and vertically?

3. Do intra-household dynamics/division of labor impact women's participation in the labor market?
4. What do women need to be able to take advantage of new employment and market opportunities?
5. If women are accessing new labor markets, is it high quality labor? Are working conditions good? Do women move into the informal sector?
6. What do women need to access good quality employment opportunities?

Second: Vulnerability and social protection

1. How do women respond to and mitigate exogenous shocks? What are the impacts of such shocks on women?
2. What has been the impact of user fees on public and social services on women as care-givers?
3. What are the impacts of the lack of accessible and affordable childcare?
4. Given the burden of unpaid work, what social and public services do women need to enable them to take advantages of new employment and market opportunities?

Research methodology

The methodology of this research is based on (Nguyen Thi Bich Thuy, et. Al 2009) study. Within tourism, four sub sectors selected: Hotels, Tourism Restaurants, Travel agencies, and Tourist Shops.

Sub-sectors selected based on: importance and a strong representation of women in the labor force; and the sensitivity of the industry to WTO membership.

The data collection carries out in all Jordan's governorates. These sites were selected to represent the situation for women in the center, north and south. They also selected on the basis of having experienced socio-economic changes as a result of economic integration, with rapid investment, economic restructuring.

The research focus on four target groups of women working in tourism sector:

- Women entrepreneurs, small and micro business owners, and traders;
- Women who have shifted their employment type, that is, women who have changed from one form of work to another; and

- Poor women who included unemployed women, women in casual work and women living on limited income.

The study used quantitative approach. Quantitative techniques used in the analysis of survey questionnaires and other secondary data.

The brief survey profile used to gather basic background information on the characteristics of the respondents, including education levels, livelihood types, and changes in income, training, household decision making and domestic tasks before and after WTO accession (see Annex A for the complete survey profile tool). Excel software used for profile data entry and processing from 325 respondents.

In addition, meetings have been held with representatives of local authorities and mass organizations, both at the commune as well as provincial level. These meetings assisted the researcher glean an overview of the situation for women, their issues and needs from the perspective of service providers.

Finally, it is important to recognize that this study examine the two periods: before accession to the WTO 1995 – 2000 and after accession to the WTO 2000 – 2005

The methodology of selecting the sample was as follows:

The Jordanian female employed in the main four Tourism sub-sector in different locations were identified as: Hotels (1312); Travel Agencies (434); Tourist Restaurants (4482); and Tourist Shops (283).

The weight of each sector is estimated to be correlated with the sample weight for each location, for example the hotels sample in Amman will be (40) of the total sample

$$\frac{800}{6511} = 40$$

325

The other segments treated in the same way. The composition of the sample that be drawn and distributed to fill the questionnaire is shown in the table (2) below:

Table (1)
Methodology of choosing the sample size

Location	The Sub- Sector Activities															
	Hotels				Travel Agencies				Tourist Restaurants				Tourist Shops			
	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D
Amman	9165	8001	800	40	386 2	3727	36 5	18	1390 7	8970	3534	17 6	45 6	440	139	7
Aqaba	2583	2254	225	11	201	194	19	1	1664	1073	423	21	77	74	23	1
Petra	1235	1078	108	5	152	147	14	1	37	24	9	1	60	58	18	1
Irbid	68	59	6	0	160	154	15	1	620	400	158	8	19	18	6	0
Dead Sea	1585	1383	128	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	37	35	11	1
Ma'in Spa	226	197	20	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Madaba	56	48	5	0	31	30	3	0	140	90	35	2	18 5	178	56	3
Zarqa	15	13	1	0	118	114	11	1	180	116	46	2	0	0	0	0
Al Azraq	11	10	1	0	0	0	0	0	37	24	9	1	0	0	0	0
Ajlun	19	17	2	0	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	9	3	0
Karak	18	16	2	0	28	24	2	0	62	40	16	1	37	35	11	1
Jarash	15	13	1	0	13	12	1	0	248	160	63	3	51	49	15	1
Wadi Rum & Deesah	90	78	8	0	5	4	0	0	26	17	7	0	0	0	0	0
Ma'an	9	8	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	5	1	0
Tafiela	47	41	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Shobak	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Rwaished	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Balqa	0	0	0	0	13	12	1	0	128	82	32	2	0	0	0	0
Fuhais	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	108	70	28	2	0	0	0	0
Russeifa	0	0	0	0	13	12	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ramtha	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	10	4	0	0	0	0	0
Ma'fraq	0	0	0	0	9	9	1	0	9	6	2	0	0	0	0	0
AlAghwa r	0	0	0	0	10	9	1	0	457	295	116	6	0	0	0	0
Total	1515 0	1322 4	131 2	63	461 9	4452	43 4	22	1763 8	1137 7	4482	22 5	93 7	901	283	15

Source: A, B, and C Ministry of Tourism & Antiquities statistics, 2012. D calculated by the author.

(A) Jordanian and Non- Jordanian.

(B) Jordanian only. Relative weights of Jordanian are as following (87.3%, 96.5%, 64.5%, and 96.5% for Hotels, Travel Agencies, Tourist Restaurants, and Tourist Shops sub- sector respectively).

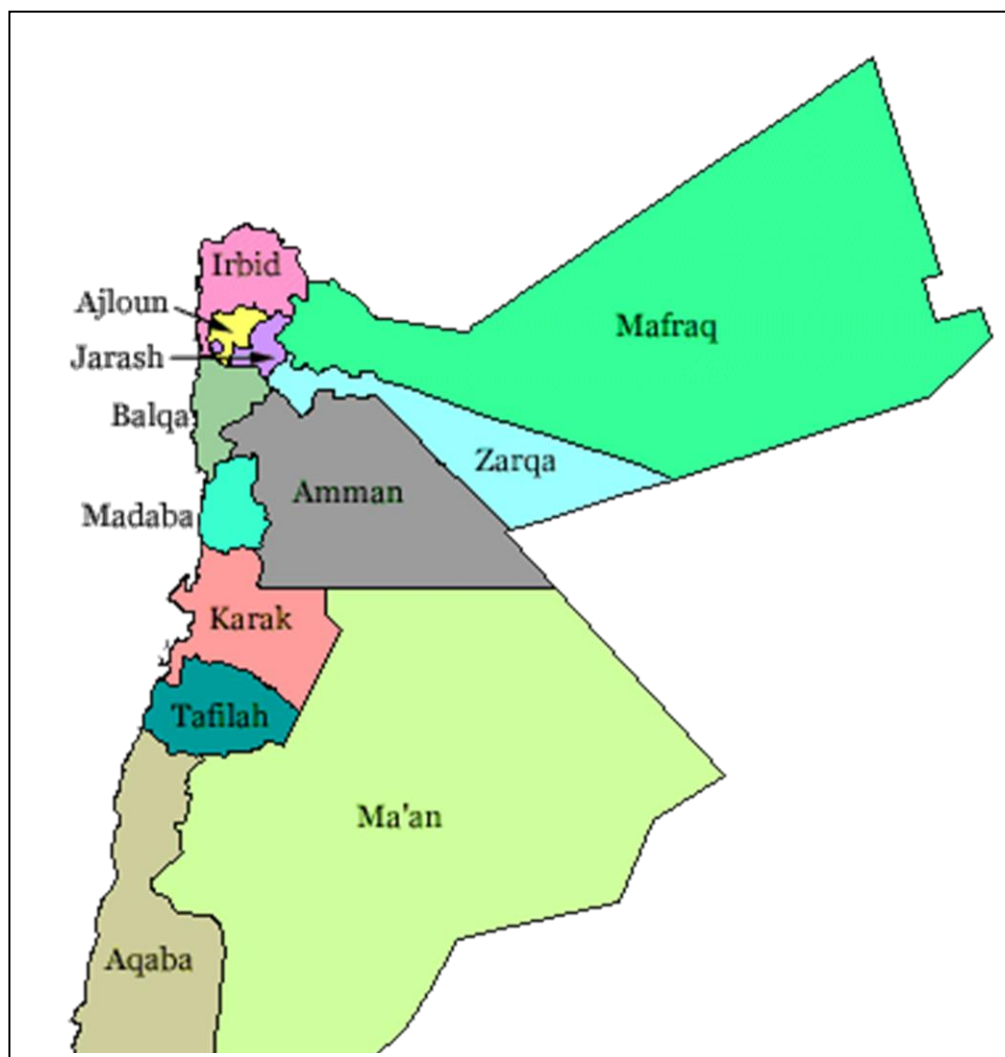
(C) Jordanian Female only. Relative weights of female are as following (10%, 9.8%, 39.4%, and 31.5% for Hotels, Travel Agencies, Tourist Restaurants, and Tourist Shops sub- sector respectively).

(D) Number of Samples Selected from Jordanian Female for the study purpose.

Table (2)
Summary of sample size

Location	The Sub- Sector Activities				Total
	Hotels	Travel Agencies	Tourist Restaurants	Tourist Shops	
Amman	40	18	176	7	241
Aqaba	11	1	21	1	34
Petra	5	1	1	1	8
Irbid	0	1	8	0	9
Dead Sea	6	0	0	1	7
Ma'in Spa	1	0	0	0	1
Madaba	0	0	2	3	5
Zarqa	0	1	2	0	3
Al Azraq	0	0	1	0	1
Ajlun	0	0	0	0	0
Karak	0	0	1	1	2
Jarash	0	0	3	1	4
Wadi Rum& Deesah	0	0	0	0	0
Ma'an	0	0	0	0	0
Tafiela	0	0	0	0	0
Shobak	0	0	0	0	0
Rwaished	0	0	0	0	0
Balqa	0	0	2	0	2
Fuhais	0	0	2	0	2
Russeifa	0	0	0	0	0
Ramtha	0	0	0	0	0
Ma'raq	0	0	0	0	0
AlAghwar	0	0	6	0	6
Total	63	22	225	15	325

Jordanian Governorates map



International Literature Addressing the Impacts of WTO on Women

International studies examine the relationships between globalization, trade liberalization and gender relations, but as yet, none focus on the Jordanian experience.

Existing research suggests that trade liberalization has undoubtedly led to increased employment opportunities and labour market participation for women in many countries. This is especially the case in semi-industrialized economies and in export-oriented manufacturing industries such as electronics, textiles, garments and shoes. In 2000,

for example, women accounted for 80% of the export industries' workforce in South East Asia (Sexton et al 2004).

This increased participation in the labour market and associated increase in income can have positive impacts in terms of strategic gender needs, including on women's own self esteem as well as their control over income and decision-making power within the household. This in turn is likely to have broader implications, with women tending to spend a higher proportion of income on family nutrition, health and education as compared to men, and as such "women's increased control over income is likely to increase the well-being of women and children within households" (Çağatay 2001: 26).

Many other features of women's increased employment opportunities, however, do not bode well for improvements in strategic gender needs and the reduction of gender inequalities. The employment opportunities open to women are often poor quality, focused in the informal sector, requiring low skills, and with increasing gender wage gaps and gendered patterns of segregation. Researchers have suggested that in the context of global competition and deregulation, employers have sought a more flexible workforce by substituting lower paid female workers for male workers, and that gendered patterns of employment segmentation and women's relatively lower wages have become important factors pulling women into labour markets (Çağatay 2001: 23). Many of women's employment gains are in export-processing zones exempt from local labour laws, where work is often characterized by long hours, job insecurity, low wages and sexual harassment. Similarly, the competitive pressures created by economic integration see enterprises using more seasonal, piecework and home-based workers; again, women are more likely to work in these types of jobs, and they tend to be characterized by unstable and unsafe working conditions (Coche 2004).

Such poor working conditions, with poor health and safety standards, bring associated health risks for women, especially in the female labour intensive garment and textile manufacturing industries (ILO and Commonwealth Secretariat 2003). Health risks in factories include exposure to machine-related accidents, dust, noise, poor ventilation and toxic chemicals (Sexton et al 2004). Women agricultural workers also face

health risks associated with pesticide exposure, and suffer increased incidence of miscarriages, still births, delayed pregnancy and birth defects (ibid).

Preliminary data also suggests that many of the new employment opportunities available to women as a result of trade liberalization put women at significant increased risk of sexual harassment and abuse. Reports have found that women in Mexican manufacturing factories were subjected to forced pregnancy tests, and pregnant women were then assigned strenuous tasks (Human Rights Watch, in Athreya 2002). In Kenya, the International Labour Rights Fund (ILRF) documented violence against women in the agricultural industries, including rape and withholding women workers' pay to coerce them to submit to sexual abuse (Athreya 2002). Further data collected by the ILRF indicates that similar cases of sexual harassment and abuse are taking place in other countries in Latin American and Asia, suggesting that for women, "submission to sexual abuse may be among the untallied costs of retaining one's job in the global economy" (ibid.). In short, "although trade liberalization seems to advantage women in terms of employment, their 'competitive advantage' as workers lies in their lower pay and poorer working conditions" (Çağatay 2001: 23). Feminist economists have linked this to the role of gender in the perception of women as a 'docile' labour force (Elson and Pearson 1981), and to the gendered division of labour, whereby women's reproductive work such as childcare and household management constrains women in the labour market (Beneria and Floro 2005, Jones 2008), leaving them with less time to train, search for or engage in paid employment.

While women's reproductive work – or the 'care economy' – can hinder women's participation in the labour market, at the same time, the increase in women's paid employment is generally not offset by a reduction in their unpaid labour in the household. The result of women's 'double burden' is that either the provision of care in the home is reduced, or women's leisure time is decreased. In Bangladesh, for example, research has found that the increase in women's labour market participation has been accompanied by a reduction in their time for leisure activities (Fontana and Wood 2000), and the 1999 Human Development Report identified the association between the

intensification of global trade competition and a reduction in the provision of paid and unpaid care (UNDP 1999, in Çağatay 2001). This in turn has significant implications for human development. A reduction in the time available for care giving, and in the absence of affordable childcare options, can have negative impacts on children, especially girls. This is especially the case in rural areas where children's labour may be used to offset household economic shocks, with negative consequences for children's education and leisure time (Jones 2008).

Women's role as upholders of the care economy is also affected by the government reductions in social spending and privatization of social services commonly associated with trade liberalization. While this means that both men and women benefit less from publicly provided services such as health care, clean water and education, it also impacts doubly on women, who have the primary responsibility for care work (Çağatay 2001, Jones 2008). Increases in household expenditure due to price increases for services such as education and health impact on women in particular (Coche 2004). Women either work longer hours in paid employment in order to pay for privatized services, or they allocate more time in providing the services themselves, thus exacerbating women's double work burden and time poverty even further.

As more women and men lose their jobs, remittances decrease, prices increase and public spending is under pressure, women face their roles in looking after the family with less income with which to do so, with possible knock-on effects to health and education. The World Bank has noted that women in 33 countries are highly vulnerable to the effects of the economic crisis, predicting an increase in infant and child mortality, less girls' schooling and reduced earnings (World Bank 2009). In addition, research by the Institute for Development Studies in five countries has identified an increase in conflicts and domestic violence in poor households as a result of the food, fuel and financial crises (IDS 2009).

Jordan's Economy

Jordan is a market oriented economy with an estimated population size in 2011 of 6.2 million and a GDP of JD 17,987.6 million – a per capita GDP of US\$ 3,277. Jordan's economy is among the smallest in the Middle East, with insufficient

supplies of water, oil, and other natural resources, underlying the government's heavy reliance on foreign assistance. Other economic challenges for the government include chronic high rates of poverty, unemployment, inflation, and a large budget deficit. Since assuming the throne in 1999, King ABDALLAH has implemented significant economic reforms, such as opening the trade regime, privatizing state-owned companies, and eliminating some fuel subsidies, which in the last decade spurred economic growth by attracting foreign investment and creating some jobs. The global economic slowdown and regional turmoil, however, have depressed Jordan's GDP growth, impacting export-oriented sectors, construction, and tourism. In 2011 the government approved two economic relief packages and a budgetary supplement, largely to improve the living conditions for the middle and poor classes. In spite of the reforms, there are lingering old challenges such as balance of payments, unemployment and poverty; and new challenges such as rising inflation.

Women's Employment Trends in Jordan

With increased global trade, Jordanian women are benefiting from greater job opportunities than ever before. This is one of the findings of ILO research on the impact of globalization with regard to women workers in the textile and garments industries in Jordan. The study, published in 2002 by ILO, was conducted with the Jordanian Ministry of Labour, General Confederation of Jordanian Trade Unions, Chamber of Industry, Chamber of Commerce, and the Jordanian National Commission for Women. Historically, women's participation in the formal labour economy in Jordan has been low and concentrated in traditional roles such as teachers, nurses or secretaries. However, the study found that over the past four decades the female participation rate rose from approximately 3 % in 1961 to about 15 % in 1999. Recent economic reforms have led to an increase in employment opportunities for women, particularly in the textile and garment-making industries. More women are now able to achieve a degree of economic independence and freedom of mobility, as well as the unprecedented status of breadwinner in their families (ILO, 2011). Accordingly, it is the subject of an important theme in the updated National Strategy

for Women in Jordan, which includes among its objectives: (1) increased economic opportunities for women; (2) enhancement of women's capacities through training and education; (3) greater knowledge of the negative impacts of structural changes in the national economy, which are leaving progressively less scope for the economic empowerment of women, and (4) creation of a legislative climate conducive to greater participation by women in economic activity and ensuring complete gender equality in that area.

Why Women?

Women face major challenges as a result of changes in the world economy arising from rapid globalization, fast-paced technological progress and a growing informalization of work. As a result, as the ILO notes, women's labour market status has greatly altered. Although women's representation in the labour force is increasing all over the world – to at least one-third in all regions except Northern Africa and Western Asia – their participation rates are still lower than men's, and they are disproportionately represented in non-standard and lower-paid forms of work, such as temporary and casual employment, part-time jobs, home-based work, self-employment and work in micro enterprises (ILO, 1998).

World Trade Organization (WTO)

The World Trade Organization or WTO is the third, after the IMF and World Bank, of the big three international institutions which determine the economic, financial and trade policies of our countries.

The WTO was formally established on January 1, 1995 although it traces its roots to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade or GATT formed in 1948 which provided the framework for the conduct of international trade. The main objective of GATT, and now the WTO, is to open up (liberalise) trade among its member countries by reducing tariffs (taxes) and quotas (volume or number) on traded products. Since 1994, the WTO has expanded its coverage to include not only traded goods such as agricultural products, textiles and clothing but also trade in services (such as health, education or banking), trade-related aspects of intellectual property rights and trade-related investment measures. This expansion was made possible through various agreements such as

the General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs (1994), Agreement on Agriculture (AoA), Agreement on Textiles and Clothing, Trade Related Investment Measures (TRIMs), Trade Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) and General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)

Overview of Service Sector in Jordan

One easy definition of services is everything that you cannot drop on your foot – retail stores, banking, hotels, insurance, energy, telecommunications, maintenance and repair, construction, toxic waste processing, mining, tourism, food preparation, restaurants, laundry, cleaning, and transport (trains, passenger and cargo airlines, ships trucking). Also included are “essential public services,” such as education, hospitals, social security, libraries, mail delivery, police and prisons, water and sewage systems and more. By imposing international commercial disciplines over services, almost no human activity from birth (health care) to death (funerals) remains outside these rules. Currently, large service sector companies are maneuvering to turn what we think of as essential public services, such as education, social security, water and sewer systems, and public health systems, including public hospitals, and more into new private business opportunities for profit.

The most prominent sector in the Jordanian economy is the service sector, which comprises 67% of the GDP for the last 7 years (CBJ, 2011).

Tourism Contribution in GDP and Balance of Payments

Table (4) below illustrated that the tourism revenues increased in large amounts during the period (1992-1996) from (216) Jordanian Dinar (JD) Millions in a ratio (60.5%) after clear declined (38%) in 1991 result of Gulf War. The tourism revenues shaped the GDP about (7.3%) 1991 increased to (11.1%) in 1997, in spite of increasing in tourism revenues and increasing the number of visitors about (3.5%) but the revenues decreased in the GDP from (11.4%-8.1%) during the period (1997-2003) this reflect from political events in the region, (Central Bank of Jordan 2007). Then, tourism revenues increased from (752.6) Million JD in 2003 to (2088.9) Million JD in 2008. Direct and indirect tourism revenues

increased in the GDP in Jordan from (11.6%) in 2004 to (14.6%) in 2006. The ratio stills the same for years 2006-2008. The tourism expenditures for Jordanian out side (especially education and health expenditures) still nearly fixed, even, it was increasing in light ways because the established of many public and private universities, which limited large amounts of tourism expenditures for Jordanian outside, while the same happened in the fields of medical and treatments. The Jordanian government promoted and encouraged medical tourism, by established state of the art modern hospitals and specialized physicians, therefore the exports of medical tourism increased in high degree; the tourism revenues in 2006 was (660) Million US \$, to increase to one Billion US \$ in 2007. The number of upcoming patients increased to receive more than (250) thousands persons. It was only (130) thousands in 2004. The largest number of patients came from Gulf Area, Iraq and Syria (Central Bank of Jordan, 2007).

To proof the importance of TS economically, we must know the size of the sector participation in the value added, measured the real, productivity average for the sector. (Sossan1996). TS participated in small ratio in the value added for

GDP, compared with industry and services sectors, even the number increased as absolute value, to increase, from (166.8) Million JD in 1990 to (749.4) Million JD in 2008, however, the value added ratio in GDP did not increase significantly and remained at roughly (6.5%), nearly during the period 1990-2008.

In the field of export, TS still doing better than other sectors, the size the exports tourism was (48%) 1990, from the export, while sharp decrease to (28%) 1991, the consciousness' of the Gulf War increased again. In general, about (38%) from the revenues in the Jordan generated from TS exports. While constructions, industries sectors participated in (18.8%), and services sector participated (24.2%) from GDP during the same period (Central Bank of Jordan2004).

This means that the TS has a comparative advantages from contribution to Jordanian government revenues in the high, when compared with other economic sectors that require reliance on high technology, this has encouraged developing countries (including Jordan) to use of international tourism as a source to support its economy and increase GDP.

Table (3)
The participation of Tourism in the Jordanian Economics

Year	GDP	Revenue from Tourism	Tourism Expenditure *	The ratio of tourism from exports	Tourism balance	The ratio of revenues from GDP	Value added in tourism sector **	The ratio of value added
				%		%		Million JD
1990	2760.9	339.8	223.9	0.48	116.0+	12.3	166.8	7.3
1991	2958.4	216.0	191.9	0.28	24.1+	7.3	98.5	4.1
1992	3610.5	314.2	238.4	0.38	76.1+	9.0	130.4	4.7
1993	3884.3	390.2	239.1	0.45	151.1+	10.2	192.8	5.1
1994	4358.3	406.2	275.3	0.41	131.1+	9.5	195.1	5.5
1995	4714.7	462.5	297.8	0.37	164.7+	10.1	234.2	5.1
1996	4912.2	527.2	270.4	0.41	256.8+	11.4	265.2	5.2
1997	5137.5	548.9	282.2	0.42	266.6+	11.1	268.4	4.8
1998	5609.8	548.5	250.4	0.43	298.1+	9.5	274.8	4.9
1999	5767.3	564.0	251.9	0.43	312.1+	9.4	288.2	5.0
2000	5989.1	512.4	274.7	0.38	237.7+	9.7	261.8	4.4
2001	6363.3	496.2	297.9	0.31	198.2+	8.6	252.3	3.9
2002	6778.5	743.2	321.3	3.78	421.9+	8.3	365.5	5.4
2003	7203.6	752.6	320.4	3.43	432.2+	8.1	386.7	5.4
2004	8164.0	943.0	371.4	0.34	571.6+	11.6	494.2	6.1

2005	9118.1	1021.6	414.8	3.35	606.8+	11.2	535.4	5.8
2006	9997.4	1460.8	594.4	0.37	866.2+	14.6	640.3	6.4
2007	11225.3	1638.9	625.5	0.38	1013.4+	14.6	692.6	6.1
2008	11234.3	2088.9	710.3	3.64	1378.6+	14.3	749.4	6.6

Sources:

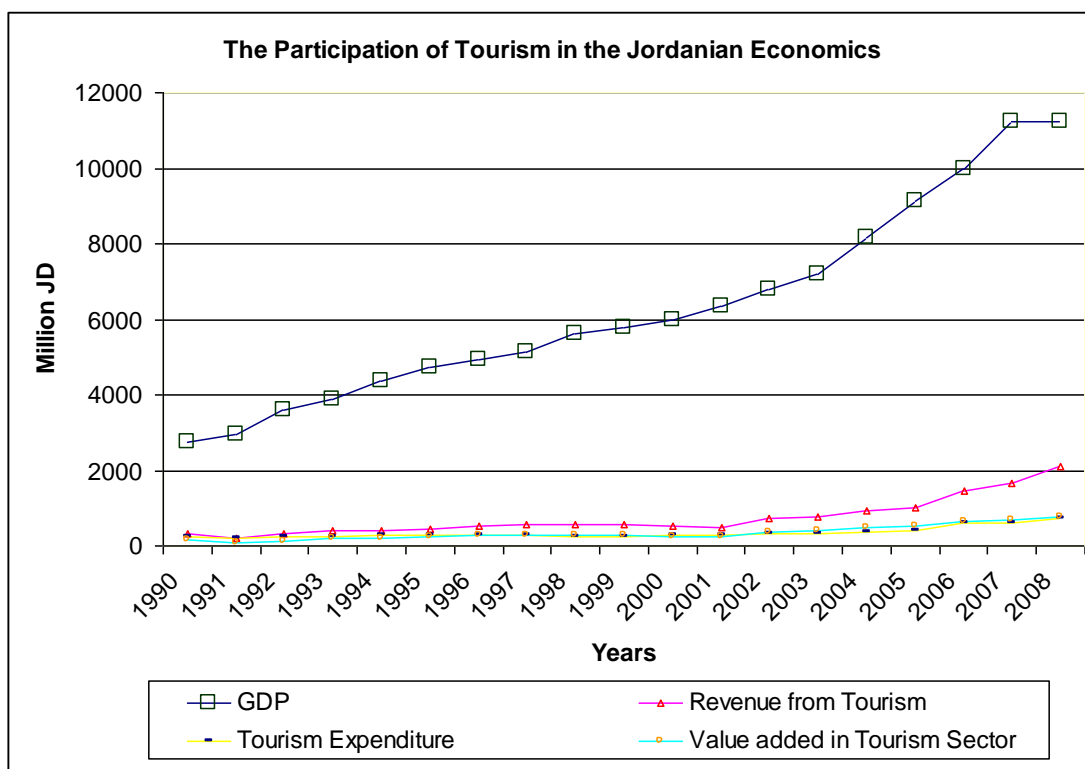
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The Central Bank of Jordan results of survey 2007/2008

* Expenditures, the payments, by: the settlers in Jordan from outside Jordan for education, tourism and medical purposes.

** Value added, the differences between tourism revenues and the imports in the TS



Tourism Contribution in Employment

TS play important role in creating job opportunities wither in direct or indirect ways direct by generating opportunities inside the TS itself, (travel and transportation, tourists guide, and tourism security). Indirect by participating in creating job opportunities in other sectors that supplies the TS with basic requirements from goods and services, (agricultural, foods and health care services).

According to studies of the International Labor Office, the average of creating direct jobs in hotels sector was between (0.5 -1) job opportunities for every room in the hotels' rooms. This average

increased in low incomes countries was about (1.5) or more (International labor Office, 2005).

The Jordanian government seeks to develop the employment in the TS by setting development plans and international cooperation with the International Funds (IF) and international organizations to invest in the TS, specifically in the tourism locations like Aqaba, and Dead Sea. In these places, the investors can enjoy in wide free taxes, the capability to exchange their whole capitals, and the foreign ownership one hundred percent in the TS.

The ratio of costs for creating these jobs in TS compared to other economic activities, there is no

detailed data about them in Arab World, but the studies on the global level was different in evaluating ratio costs. Some studies were assured that the cost of creating job in TS, was less than other traditional sectors in (20) times.

The study (International Bank, 2004) pointed out that the cost of creating job opportunity in TS is between (20-40) thousand dollars. Therefore, the considered cost is less than the costs of creating jobs opportunity in some other heavy industries, like the industry of iron and steel, and industry of chemical products.

But, it creates jobs opportunity in small industries, because of the increased number in the visitors and the nights sleeping in the last few years. The TS affected positively on the labor market wither in direct or indirect ways in the sectors related to TS, and benefited from its growth.

Table (4) below illustrated that during the period 1990-1996, the size of employment in TS increased from (8000) to (15.000), the ratio was (84%). The period witnessed high increasing in direct job opportunities that available from the TS

in Jordan to reach (22110) job opportunities in 2003.

Indirect employment reached 41996 opportunities in 2003, Compared with (24696) opportunities in 1990. The completely direct and indirect size of employment reached (64106) opportunity in 2003 compared to (32648) opportunities in 1990, (Central Bank of Jordan: 2004).

The numbers increased in high tendency during the next period it reached (38.224) opportunity in 2008, in direct shape while indirect employment reached (60.423) opportunities in 2008. The most size of Jordanian employment in TS focused in classified hotels, these hotels has the ratio (45%) from the size of labor in the TS followed in travel and tourism agencies.

TS participation is low rate in the size of labor. After it was (0.9%) in 1990, it Increased in 1996 to (14.1%), from the whole size of labor, after, reached to (2.5%) in 2008. It is the smallest participation compared with other economic sectors. This low ratio related to overlapping of TS with other economic sectors.

Table (4)
Number of employees in different tourism activities 2004-2011

Year	Number of Workers				Sub Total
	Direct			Indirect	
	Male	Female	Total		
2004	21,430	2,114	23,544	46,916	70,460
2005	26,715	2,669	29,384	53,815	83,199
2006	28,256	2,807	31,063	55,620	86,683
2007	30,964	3,441	34,405	56,760	91,165
2008	34,041	3,925	37,966	60,423	98,389
2009	36,131	3,961	40,092	62,512	102,604
2010	37,593	4,307	41,900	63,611	105,511
2011	37,488	4,391	41,879	65,014	106,893

Source: - The department of Statistics (DOS) (2008)
- Ministry of Tourism & Antiquities

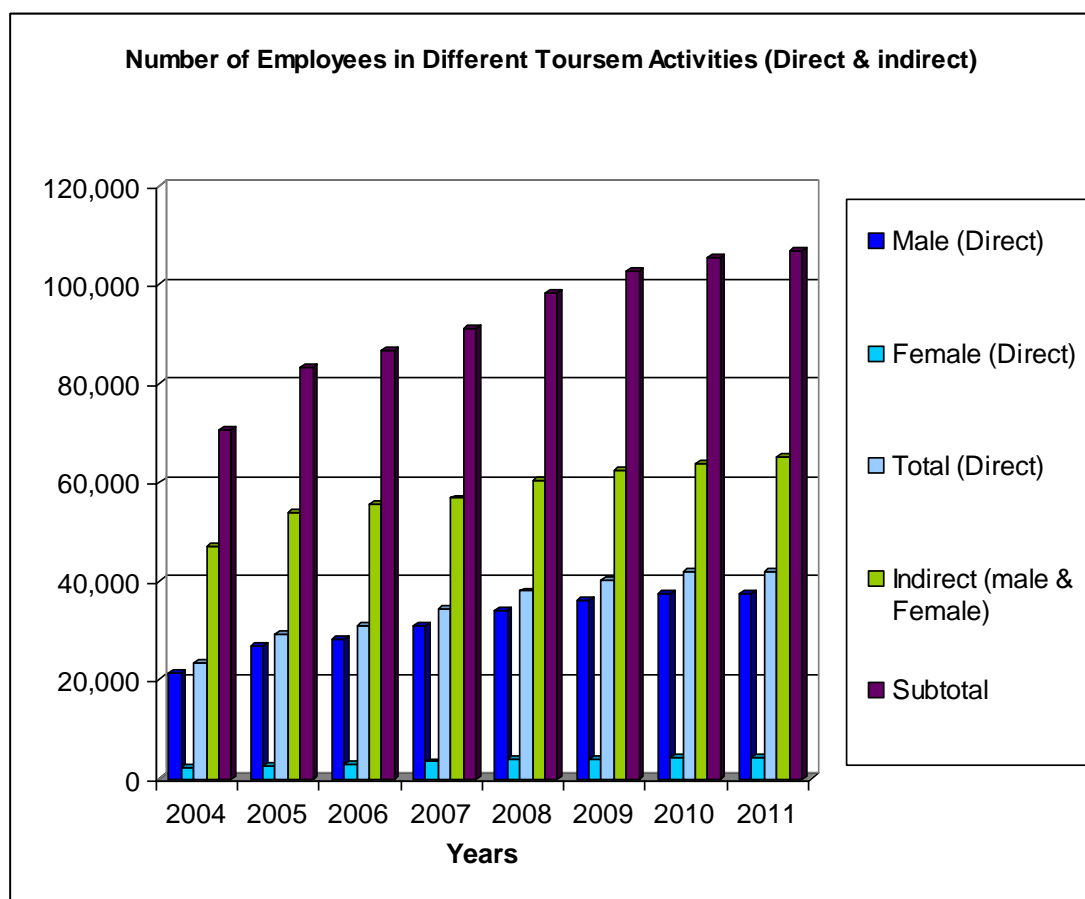
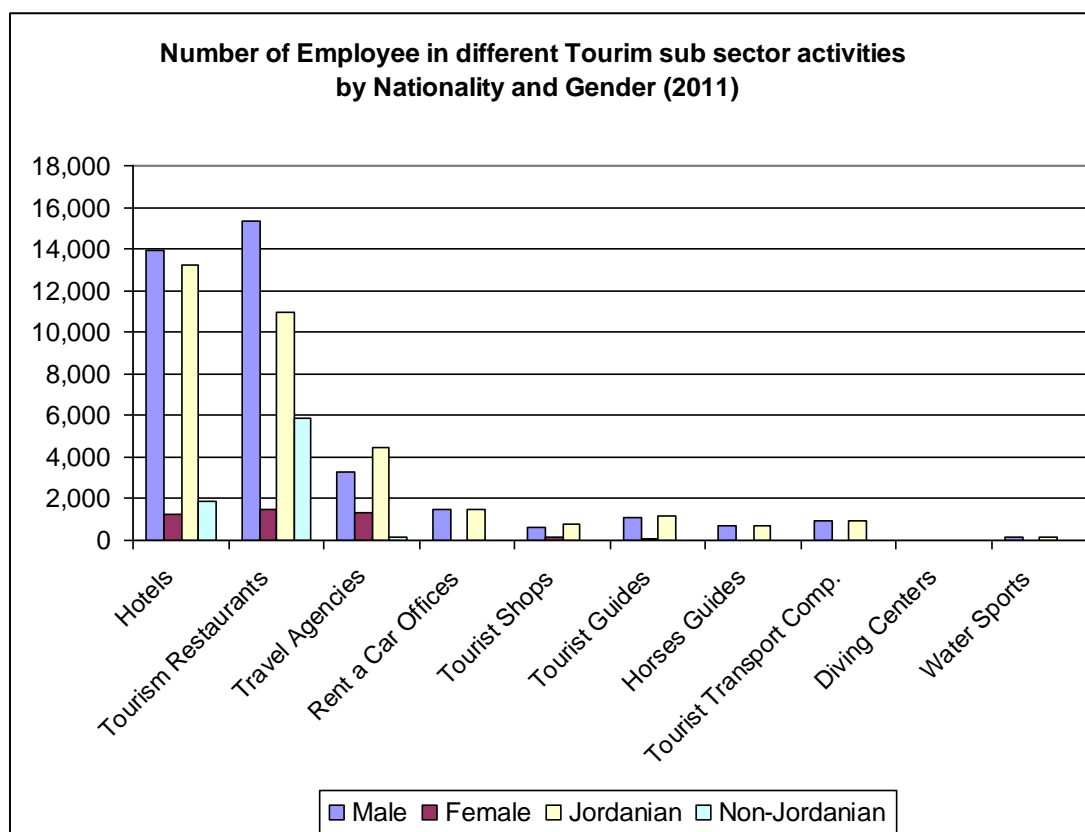


Table (5)

Number of Employees in different Tourism sub- sector Activity by Nationality & Gender 2011

sub- sector	Gender			Nationality		
	Male	Female	Total	Jordanian	Non Jordanian	Total
Hotels	13,909	1,265	15,174	13,259	1,915	15,174
Tourism Restaurants	15,342	1,513	16,855	10,985	5,870	16,855
Travel Agencies	3,286	1,296	4,582	4,434	148	4,582
Rent a Car Offices	1,460	29	1,489	1,473	16	1,489
Tourist Shops	619	195	814	778	36	814
Tourist Guides	1,080	60	1,140	1,140	0	1,140
Horses Guides	713	0	713	713	0	713
Tourist Transport Comp.	917	22	939	906	33	939
Diving Centers	39	9	48	34	14	48
Water Sports	123	2	125	119	6	125

Source: Ministry of Tourism & Antiquities



Findings and Discussion

This part summarizes the research findings. First, demographic data about the respondents are reported. Then, results of the testing of each of the 6 hypotheses are presented. The raw data collected are presented in appendix (B).

Demographic Data

Table (6) presents a summary of the distribution of the total number of cases in the samples collected in terms of age, marital status, no. of children, and education. As shown in the table.

**Table (6)
Demographic Description of the study sample population**

	Demographic	Categories	Frequency	%	Ranking
1	Age	30-25	228	%70.4	1
		35-30	79	%24.4	2
		40-35	8	%2.5	3
		45-40	5	%1.5	4
		45 and more	4	%1.2	5
		Total	324	100%	-
2	Marital Status	Single	194	59.9%	1
		Married	120	37.0%	2
		Divorced	6	1.9%	3

		Separated	4	1.2%	4
		Total	324	100%	-
3	No. of children	no child	197	%60.8	1
		1	30	%9.3	4
		2	46	%14.2	2
		3	36	%11.1	3
		4	12	%3.7	5
		More than 4	3	%0.9	6
		Total	324	100%	-
4	Education	Primary not completed	81	%25.0	1
		Primary school	38	%11.7	5
		Secondary school	54	%15.7	4
		High school	64	%19.8	2
		Elementary short training	20	%6.2	7
		Vocational training	28	%2.5	6
		College and Higher	62	%19.1	3
		Total	324	100%	-

Results contained in the table (6) clearly show the following:

1. In terms of age variable, the age group (25-30) ranked first counted for (70.4%) of study population, while the age group (45- and above) was in the fifth and last counted for (1.2%). (24%) of the sample is (30 – 35), (2.5%) is between (35 – 40) years, and (1.5%) of the sample is between (40-45) years.
2. In terms of marital status variable, unmarried (single) ranked first. Counted for (59.9%) of study population, while (37%) was married, (1.9%) of the population was divorced, and (1.2%) was separated.
3. In terms of number of children, (60.8%) of the sample population do not have children (9.3%) have one child, (14.25) have two children, (11.1%) have three children, (3.7%) have four children and only (0.9%) have more than four children.
4. In terms of education, (25%) of the sample population do not completed primary school, (11.7%) completed primary school, (15.7%) completed secondary school, (19.8%) completed high school, (6.2%) completed elementary school short training, (2.5%) vocational training, and (19.1%) completed college and higher education.

Hypotheses Tests

In this part, the researcher tested the hypotheses of the study, to examine the relations and impacts among the variables of current study by using paired samples statistics and one – sample T-test from the Statistical Package for Social Sciences, (SPSS) as follow:

H₀₁: There is no statistical significant difference to create jobs for women working in tourism sector before and after Jordan's accession to the WTO.

To check the validity of this hypothesis, a paired samples test used. The following table shows the mentioned test results.

Table (7)
Paired samples test results related to H₁

	N	Mean	t - test	df.	Sig.
Occupation Before Accession	323	2.37	15.366	322	0.000
Occupation After Accession	323	1.01			

Result from table (7) indicate the presence of statistically significant differences to create job opportunities for women working in tourism sector before and after Jordan's accession to the WTO in favor of before accession, supported by calculated (t) value (15.366) and the value of the statistical significant of (0.000) which is less than the significance level (0.05), which means that the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted which states that there is statistical significant differences to create jobs for women working in tourism sector before and after Jordan's accession to WTO. This means that there is no improvement on creating job opportunities for women working in the tourism sector after Jordan's accession to the WTO.

H₀₂: There are no statistical significant differences to job position improvement for women working in tourism sector before and after Jordan's accession to the WTO.

To check the validity of this hypothesis, a paired samples test used. The following table shows the mentioned test results.

Table (8)
Paired samples test results related to H₂

	N	Mean	t - test	df.	Sig.
Position Before Accession	149	2.24	7.654	148	0.000
Position After Accession	149	1.89			

Result from table (8) indicate the presence of statistically significant differences to job position improvement for women working in tourism sector before and after Jordan's accession to the WTO in favor of before accession, supported by calculated (t) value (7.654) and the value of the statistical significant of (0.000) which is less than the significance level (0.05), which means that the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted which states that there is statistical significant differences to job position improvement for women working in tourism sector before and after Jordan's accession to WTO. This means that there is no improvement on job position for women working in the tourism sector after Jordan's accession to the WTO.

H₀₃: There is no statistical significant differences to average income improvement for women working in tourism sector before and after Jordan's accession to the WTO.

To check the validity of this hypothesis, a paired samples test used. The following table shows the mentioned test results.

Table (9)
Paired samples test results related to H₃

	N	Mean	t - test	df.	Sig.
Average Income Before	148	1.73			

Accession			- 11.801	147	0.000
Average Income After Accession	148	2.70			

Result from table (9) indicate the presence of statistically significant differences to average income improvement for women working in tourism sector before and after Jordan's accession to the WTO in favor of before accession, supported by calculated (t) value (-11.801) and the value of the statistical significant of (0.000) which is less than the significance level (0.05), which means that the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted which states that there is statistical significant differences to average income improvement for women working in tourism sector before and after Jordan's accession to WTO. This means that there is improvement on average income for women working in the tourism sector after Jordan's accession to the WTO.

H₀₄: Jordan's accession to the WTO do not contributes in training aspects for women working in tourism sector

To check the validity of this hypothesis, the researcher used One-Sample Test. The following table shows the mentioned test results.

**Table (10)
One-Sample Test results related to H₄**

Categories	N	Mean	t - test	df.	Sig.
Have been Trained	321	1.27	50.266	320	0.000
NO. of Training	233	1.79	31.980	232	0.000
Topics of Training	232	1.16	47.794	231	0.000
Form of Training	232	2.95	79.677	231	0.000

Result from table (10) indicate that Jordan's accession to the WTO contributed in training aspects improvement, supported by all calculated (t) values and the values of the statistical significant which is less than the significance level (0.05), which means that the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted which states that Jordan's accession to WTO contributes in training aspects for women working in tourism sector. This means that there is improvement on training aspects for women working in the tourism sector after Jordan's accession to the WTO.

H₀₅: Jordan's accession to the WTO do not contributes in improving family decision making for women working in tourism sector

To check the validity of this hypothesis, the researcher used One-Sample Test. The following table shows the mentioned test results.

**Table (11)
One-Sample Test results related to H₅**

Categories	N	Mean	t - test	df.	Sig.
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family decision making	128	2.51	30.766	127	0.000
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Result from table (11) indicate that Jordan's accession to the WTO contributed in improving family decision making for women working in tourism sector, supported by all calculated (t) value (30.766) and the value of the statistical significant of (0.000) which is less than the significance level (0.05), which means that the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted which states that Jordan's accession to WTO contributes in improving family decision making for women working in tourism sector. This means that there is improvement on family decision making for women working in the tourism sector after Jordan's accession to the WTO.

H₀₆: Jordan's accession to the WTO do not contributes in reducing time spent for housework for women working in tourism sector

To check the validity of this hypothesis, the researcher used One-Sample Test. The following table shows the mentioned test results.

Table (12)
One-Sample Test results related to H₆

Categories	N	Mean	t - test	df.	Sig.
Time spent for housework	125	2.34	43.891	124	0.000

Result from table (12) indicate that Jordan's accession to the WTO contributed in reducing time spent for housework for women working in tourism sector, supported by all calculated (t) value (43.891) and the value of the statistical significant of (0.000) which is less than the significance level (0.05), which means that the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted which states that Jordan's accession to WTO contributes in reducing time spent for housework for women working in tourism sector. This means that the social burden has been increase for women working in the tourism sector after Jordan's accession to the WTO.

Conclusions & Recommendations

Based on the analysis of present research, the following are the main findings and conclusions:

- Jordan's accession to the WTO does not create job opportunities for women working in the tourism sector. This results contrary to the argument that the WTO will accelerate the employment of women. In labor-intensive industries with more female workers and capital-intensive and knowledge-intensive industries with a moderate number of female workers, the employment of women will increase.
- Jordan's accession to the WTO does not improvement job positioning for women working in the tourism sector.
- Jordan's accession to the WTO has improved the average income for women working in the tourism sector.
- There is improvement on training aspects for women working in the tourism sector after Jordan's accession to the WTO.
- There is improvement on family decision making for women working in the tourism sector after Jordan's accession to the WTO.
- The social burden has been increased for women working in the tourism sector after Jordan's accession to the WTO.
- The general picture suggests that the tourism sector seems to be a particularly important sector for women.
- Women are well represented in service and clerical level jobs but poorly represented at professional levels.

9. The situation in the tourism sector resembles the one in the labour markets in general: As in many other sectors, there is a significant horizontal and vertical gender segregation of the labour market in tourism. Horizontally, women and men are placed in different occupations - women are being employed as waitresses, chambermaids, cleaners, travel agencies sales persons, flight attendants, etc., whereas men are being employed as barmen, gardeners, construction workers, drivers, pilots, etc. Vertically, the typical "gender pyramid" is prevalent in the tourism sector - lower levels and occupations with few career development opportunities being dominated by women and key managerial positions being dominated by men.
10. On average, the level of women's education has risen to some degree, and the gender gap in education has narrowed, and women have more opportunity for continuing education.
11. The impact of WTO membership on the amount and direction of changes to women's income in different tourism sectors will depend on whether the sector has comparative advantage.
12. Within families, decision-making is largely controlled by men, but many women start playing a stronger role in decision making within the household as a consequence of their increased role in economic production. Women have a greater sense of gender equality due to increased economic independence. They also participate more in community activities.
13. The traditional idea of "outside for men, inside for women" still affects the exercise of family rights.
14. Kind of credit is often the main barrier for women to find jobs by themselves or start their own businesses
15. Younger women have more new job opportunities than middle aged women, although middle-aged women are able to take advantage of increasing opportunities in small-scale trade and services.
16. Women workers in Amman have benefited more from WTO accession than women in

other governorates because they have more and better employment opportunities in the service sector.

17. The decisive determinants of women's family status are: geographic location, women's income, number of children, and women's educational level.

WTO will affect women's employment, income, education, and social security in different sectors. With women's low economic and social status, net job opportunities for women may decline, the income gap with men will increase, their employment will become still more marginalized, family and educational status will drop, and the current lack of social security will worsen. These are serious problems. Therefore, this research suggests that government should eliminate the root causes of these problems in the tourism sector and help women proactively address the challenges brought on by WTO membership. We suggest the following:

1. The government should pay more attention to public awareness through allocating more resources to support women working in the tourism sector, and increase awareness of the important economic role that women play in the tourism industry.
2. Develop employment support services and technical training suitable for women and provide conditions for enhancing women's marketable skills. First, training aimed at adult women must take into consideration the constraints imposed by the dual role of household responsibilities and the work undertaken by women in terms of time, location and modes of education. Second, technical training of women should not be the same as the traditional male-dominated one. Especially in those tourism sectors where women take the lead, dissemination of technology and of production and management methods fit for women should be chosen. Employment training in tourism areas should be tailored to the needs of different categories of women. Besides on-the-job training, higher-level employment knowledge and skills training should be offered to enable women to

move to more responsible and better-paid jobs. Third, employment training legislation needs improvement: a multilevel and multiform training method should be adopted. The government should enact specialized education for women, improve women's skills at different levels, and enhance the competitiveness of women as a whole. Fourth, strengthen the startup training for women launching small businesses. The government should organize and implement start-up training programs for women, popularize relevant knowledge, help women extend start-up channels, and make preparations for self-employment or for starting small businesses.

3. Establish a women's start-up fund to offer necessary financial services to help women start their own businesses. Such a program could help female entrepreneurs obtain startup funds and also encourage more women to start their own businesses.
4. Non-governmental professional unions should be encouraged. The government can provide places and office facilities, offer ration subsidies to assist with the start-up, promote the establishment and development of these non-governmental unions, organize relevant production and technical training, promulgate corresponding knowledge from the WTO, and thereby mobilize more women to take part in social activities, help women solve practical difficulties with their production and management, and give women effective social support.
5. Review mechanism for requirements of ensuring access to childcare in places with large numbers of female workers, and incentives for enterprises to create good conditions for female workers with small children as stipulated in the Labor Law.
6. Strengthen legal protection for women in tourism employment; such protections include minimum wage regulations and equal pay laws. Improve maternity leave requirements, flexible hours, work-from-home options, and arrangements for childcare.
7. Support women's tourism leadership at all levels: public sector, private sector, and

community management by establishing leadership programs at the national level and in large and small-scale tourism enterprises.

8. Employers should set up programmes and schemes encouraging women to move into non-traditional occupations, invest in women's training, appoint them in managerial positions, and re-appoint them after years of less involvement due to family responsibilities.
9. Employers should set targets for the percentage of women in key management positions. Tourism associations should promote this.

Limitations and further research

Clearly, this study is not representing all economic activities. Nevertheless, the implications from the findings of this study do provide important inputs for policy formulation, as well as for the development of further research on this topic. Furthermore, as an explicitly qualitative study replying on respondents' perceptions, the research is not able to establish measurable causality with regards to the impacts of WTO accession; for example, some changes may have begun before WTO accession, and WTO accession may only accelerate them. Despite this, WTO accession is a compelling lens through which to study recent social change in Jordan, and it is reasonable to assume that WTO accession has had various degrees of direct and indirect impacts on all aspects of social life in the country.

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Annex A: Survey Profile Tool

1	Age	25-30	30-35	35- 40	40- 45	Above 45
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2	Marital status	single	Married	divorced	separated
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3	No. of children	1	2	3	4	Above 4
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4	Highest education level (grade)	Primary not completed	Primary school	Secondary school	High school	Elementary, short term training	Vocational training	College and higher:
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Major economic activity before April, 2000						
5	Occupation	Working	Not working, can't find a job	Not able to work (elderly, sick, disability, retirement)	Housework	Schooling
6	Work sub- sector	Hotels	Tourism Restaurants	Travel Agencies	Tourist Shops	
7	Position at work	Business owners	Waged employee	Self employed		
8	Average income	100-200	200-300	300-400	400-500	Above 500

9	Key changes in employment	No change compared to 2000	Change compared to 2000
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Major economic activity after April, 2000 till 2005						
10	Occupation	Working	Not working, can't find a job	Not able to work (elderly, sick, disability, retirement)	Housework	Schooling
11	Work sub- sector	Hotels	Tourism Restaurants	Travel Agencies	Tourist Shops	
12	Position at work	Business owners	Waged employee	Self employed		
13	Average income	100-200	200-300	300-400	400-500	Above 500

14	Have you been trained during 2000-2005?	yes	no			
15	Number of training courses	1	2	3	4	Above 4
16	Topics of training	Professional	nonprofessional			
17	Form of training	Intensive training outside living areas	Concentrated training on-site	On the job	Other	

18	Decision maker in the family	Husband	Wife	Both	Other
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19	Total time spent for housework (family care) in 2000-2005 compared to 1995- 2005	Increased	Reduced	No change
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Annex B: Statistical Package for Social Sciences, (SPSS) Results

Frequency Table

AGE

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	25-30	228	70.4	70.4	70.4
	30-35	79	24.4	24.4	94.8
	35-40	8	2.5	2.5	97.2
	40-45	5	1.5	1.5	98.8
	above45	4	1.2	1.2	100.0
	Total	324	100.0	100.0	

MARRTIAL

Cumulative Percent	Valid Percent	Percent	Frequency	
59.9	59.9	59.9	194	single Valid
96.9	37.0	37.0	120	married
98.8	1.9	1.9	6	divorced
100.0	1.2	1.2	4	separated
	100.0	100.0	324	Total

CHILDREN

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	30	9.3	23.6	23.6
	2	46	14.2	36.2	59.8
	3	36	11.1	28.3	88.2
	4	12	3.7	9.4	97.6
	above 4	3	.9	2.4	100.0
	Total	127	39.2	100.0	
Missing	System	197	60.8		
Total		324	100.0		

EDUCATIO

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	primary not completed	81	25.0	25.0	25.0
	primary school	38	11.7	11.7	36.7
	secondary school	51	15.7	15.7	52.5
	high school	64	19.8	19.8	72.2
	elementary short training	20	6.2	6.2	78.4
	vocational training	8	2.5	2.5	80.9
	college and higer	62	19.1	19.1	100.0
	Total	324	100.0	100.0	

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	OCCB	2.3746	323	1.58768	.08834
	OCCA	1.0093	323	.09607	.00535
Pair 2	WORKB	2.0068	148	.67508	.05549
	WORKA	1.9865	148	.66992	.05507
Pair 3	POSITOB	2.2416	149	.44496	.03645
	POSITOA	1.8926	149	.42140	.03452
Pair 4	AINCOMB	1.7297	148	.59011	.04851
	AINCOME	2.7027	148	.99972	.08218

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	OCCB & OCCA	323	-.064	.254
Pair 2	WORKB & WORKA	148	.933	.000
Pair 3	POSITOB & POSITOA	149	.175	.032
Pair 4	AINCOMB & AINCOME	148	.290	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower				Upper
Pair 1	OCCB - OCCA	1.3653	1.59667	.08884	1.1905	1.5401	15.368	322	.000
Pair 2	WORKB - WORKA	.0203	.24660	.02027	-.0198	.0603	1.000	147	.319
Pair 3	POSITOB - POSITOA	.3490	.55661	.04560	.2589	.4391	7.654	148	.000
Pair 4	AINCOMB - AINCOME	-.9730	1.00303	.08245	-1.1359	-.8100	-11.801	147	.000

T-Test

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
TRAINED	321	1.2773	.45526	.02541
NUMBT	233	1.7940	.85629	.05610
TOPICS	232	1.1638	.37089	.02435
FORMS	232	2.9483	.56361	.03700

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
TRAINED	50.266	320	.000	1.2773	1.2273	1.3273
NUMBT	31.980	232	.000	1.7940	1.6835	1.9045
TOPICS	47.794	231	.000	1.1638	1.1158	1.2118
FORMS	79.677	231	.000	2.9483	2.8754	3.0212

T-Test

One-Sample Statistics

Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	
.08151	.92213	2.5078	128	DECISION

One-Sample Test

Test Value = 0						DECISION
95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Mean Difference	Sig. (2-tailed)	df	t	
Upper	Lower					
2.6691	2.3465	2.5078	.000	127	30.768	

T-Test

One-Sample Statistics

Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	
.05341	.59709	2.3440	125	CARE

One-Sample Test

Test Value = 0						CARE
95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Mean Difference	Sig. (2-tailed)	df	t	
Upper	Lower					
2.4497	2.2383	2.3440	.000	124	43.891	