# Platform Work in Jordan

## Challenges and opportunities

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# Abbreviations

| | |
|---|---|
| COVID | coronavirus disease |
| DLP | digital labour platform |
| DOS | Department of Statistics |
| FGD | focus group discussion |
| ICT | information and communications technology |
| ILO | International Labour Organization |
| IT | information technology |
| JOD | Jordanian dinar |
| KII | key informant interviews |
| MENA | Middle East and North Africa |
| NGO | non-governmental organization |
| OLI | online labour index |
| RDS | respondent-driven sampling methodology |
| ToS | terms of service |
| UAE | United Arab Emirates |
| USD | United States dollar |

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# Acknowledgements

This study has been produced with the financial assistance of the European Regional Development and Protection Programme for Lebanon, Jordan and Iraq (RDPP II), which is supported by the Czech Republic, Denmark, the European Union, Ireland and Switzerland.

The ILO Partnership with the RDPP II in Jordan aims to support the Government of Jordan (GoJ) and national constituents in responding to the youth employment challenge and supporting dialogue around policies and strategies for improving the livelihoods of young Syrians and Jordanians through evidence-based research and analysis.

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The contribution of David Cann who provided professional editing to the study is acknowledged. Salwa Kanaana, ILO Regional Communication and Public Information Officer, and Tatiana Khattar, ILO consultant, provided support in the publication of the report.

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# Introduction

Jordan has long struggled to overcome the challenges of insufficient job creation, high levels of informality and widespread skills mismatches. These structural deficiencies have compounded, creating significant systemic obstacles to decent work for all, with women and youth disproportionately affected. Despite efforts by the Jordanian government, private-sector actors and the international community, a number of socio-cultural, economic and political factors continue to hinder the economy's ability to support a rapidly growing population. Consequently, poor labour market outcomes remain prevalent, with vulnerable groups facing exaggerated barriers to securing decent employment. This is especially true for the country's younger population, with unemployment reaching 43.9 per cent of the total youth labour force (49.3 per cent among Jordanian youth) in 2021. Unemployment rates are even more concerning for young women and Syrian refugees, who lie at the intersection of multiple forms of vulnerability and inequality. Prolonged unemployment and inactivity can have damaging repercussions for youth, leading to skills erosion, marginalization and social insecurity, excluding them even further from economic participation.

The COVID-19 pandemic exacerbated the situation, as the crisis led to widespread job losses, reduced income and increased job insecurity throughout the country. As borders closed and lockdowns were instated, many businesses were forced to close, reduce working hours or lay off staff. This disproportionately impacted younger people, who required increased support to secure a decent livelihood. In effect, unemployed youth are now part of a larger pool of unemployed people vying for a limited number of jobs, which includes older, more experienced workers, who are better placed to find employment. The situation is especially precarious for youth who completed their education and entered the labour market during the crisis.

In the post-pandemic context, with worldwide inflation and persistent economic uncertainty, Jordan is facing a significant challenge in terms of re-activating its economy and promoting job-rich growth.[1] Vulnerable groups, including youth, women, informal workers and refugees, are at increased risk of being left behind, with evidence from around the world showing that these groups benefitted the least from pandemic assistance. This pattern could spoil the recovery as more experienced workers are likely to benefit first from any increase in labour demand. Addressing this issue will require innovative approaches to promoting better livelihoods for youth – ones that prepare them for formal decent employment while helping them retain connections to the labour market, generate income, develop skills and improve their employability.

Digital labour platforms (DLPs) offer an alternative approach and are gaining traction around the world. This novel form of employment has developed significantly in recent years, boosted by the COVID-19 lockdown measures. Specifically, online web-based labour platforms, such as Fiverr and Upwork, which allow workers to complete short-term tasks remotely, offered income to many workers during the lockdowns and transformed the nature of work.[2] However, many questions remain about how compatible this type of work is with international labour standards during "normal" (i.e. non-lockdown) times, especially for those segments of the labour market (e.g. women, youth and refugees) for whom access to the "traditional" formal labour market has always been ridden with obstacles.

Given the fact that these engagements are short-term and results-based, young workers are especially attracted to them as they allow them to gain new skills and experience while they do not yet possess sufficient skills to secure formal employment, or where the labour market does not offer enough formal employment to absorb them all. The decreased need for mobility or work at fixed hours helps workers overcome significant challenges related to commuting, as well as care and household responsibilities.

[1] World Bank, "Global Turbulence Dampens Recovery and Job Creation", *Jordan Economic Monitor*, Spring 2022.

[2] LaBerge, Laura, Clayton O'Toole, Jeremy Schneider and Kate Smaje, "How COVID-19 Has Pushed Companies Over the Technology Tipping Point – And Transformed Business Forever", *McKinsey & Company,* 5 (2020).

Thus, DLPs offer real potential in helping to ease unemployment and economic inactivity for vulnerable groups. However, in Jordan, remote work poses a number of risks. First and foremost, these new arrangements are almost invariably informal – a worker engaged by an online labour platform does not typically benefit from social protection or any other employment benefits offered to “traditional” workers, leaving them at increased risk of working poverty, exploitation and unhealthy working conditions. Moreover, the rise of such platforms has been accompanied by additional risks unique to the platform economy, including privacy risks, cybersecurity risks and excessive algorithmic control mechanisms.

The present paper explores these new remote work arrangements by focusing on two of the most popular fields of work on DLPs: (1) translation and writing; and (2) creative and multimedia activities. Using surveys, focus group discussions and key informant interviews, the research examines the main differences in working conditions between the platform model and more traditional work arrangements, and highlights the main drivers of the shift towards DLPs and the role they could play in addressing labour market challenges.

# Digital labour platforms worldwide

DLPs can be split into two major categories: (1) location-based platforms, where tasks are performed at a specific physical location by individuals; and (2) online web-based labour platforms, where tasks are performed online and remotely by workers. Examples of the first type of platform include taxi/ride-hailing applications (e.g. Uber, Careem) and delivery applications (e.g. Talabat). The second type includes:

- freelancing platforms (e.g. Mostaql),[3] which enable “freelancers” or “independent contractors” to connect with clients for specific tasks ranging from translation to graphic design;
- microtask platforms (e.g. Kader), which outsource “low-end” clerical tasks, such as data entry and collection; and
- competitive programming platforms (e.g. CodeForces), through which individuals solve complex programming or data analytics problems within a designated time.

According to the Crunchbase database, there were at least 777 active DLPs in January of 2021, of which 283 (36 per cent) were online web-based platforms.[4] According to International Labour Organization (ILO) estimates, the majority (64 per cent) of these online web-based platforms are aimed at freelancers, followed by microtask platforms (16 per cent), contest-based platforms (13 per cent) and competitive programming platforms (7 per cent).[5]

**Figure 1. Share of female workers by occupation**

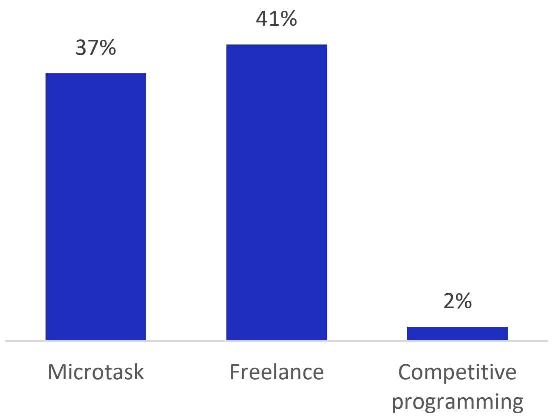
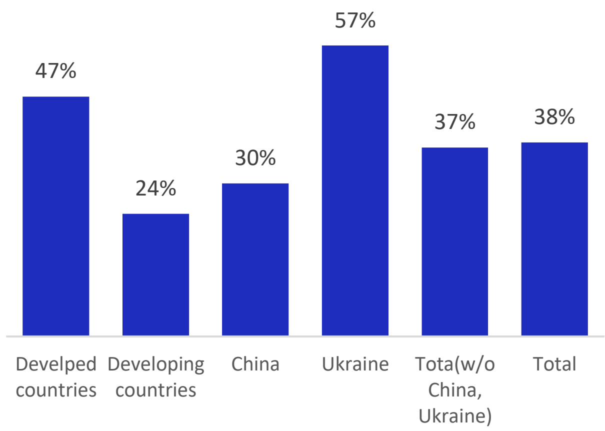



**Figure 2 Share of female workers by country**




**Source**: ILO, World Employment and Social Outlook: The role of digital labour platforms in transforming the world of work, 2021

Globally, DLP workers tend to be young,[6] with an average age of 31 years (35 years in developed countries and 30 years for developing countries). Globally, almost 40 per cent of online workers are women, although in certain

[3] See annex for a full list of DLPs identified by the mapping exercise.

[4] Crunchbase is an online database containing information about private and public companies and startups from 98 countries worldwide. It relies heavily on self-reporting which could lead to platforms from developing countries like Jordan being omitted from the data.

[5] ILO, World Employment and Social Outlook*: The Role of Digital Labour Platforms in Transforming the World of Work* (Geneva, 2021).

[6] The figures in this paragraph are all extracted from a number of surveys conducted by the ILO between 2017 and 2020, as listed in ILO, *World Employment and Social Outlook: The Role of Digital Labour Platforms in Transforming the World of Work* (Geneva, 2021).

developing countries this figure is closer to 20 per cent. Digital platform workers tend to be highly educated – particularly in developing countries. Less than 2 per cent of competitive programming workers are female, reflecting a similar gender gap in the information and communication technology (ICT) sector more broadly. Expectedly, just 16 per cent of digital platform workers are located in rural areas, even less in developing countries.[7]

A number of factors draw workers to online work, including job flexibility, the opportunity to work from home and the possibility to earn supplementary income. Earnings through online web-based platforms are influenced by time spent on unpaid tasks (e.g. search costs). Globally, workers earn an average of $US3.40 per hour, with half of workers earning less than $2.10 per hour over an average of 27 hours per week (including both paid and unpaid work). Data suggest that workers in developing countries earn, on average, less than their counterparts in developed countries. [8] Other factors that influence earnings on these platforms include competition, non-payment for tasks completed and high commission charges. The revenue models adopted by platform operators usually rely on commission charges or subscription plan fees from workers, and these can become a financial burden. Charges can be volatile and substantially reduce total earnings.

Digital platform workers face other considerable disadvantages. Although these workers are often classified as "independent contractors", they do not always have the freedom or autonomy to organize their work. Additionally, most platform workers have limited or no social protection – a situation exacerbated since the onset of COVID-19. There are further challenges related to excess labour supply, which deters workers from seeking out jobs or projects, as well as market access issues faced by workers from developing countries, who are sometimes prohibited from accessing specific platforms, as well as prohibitive subscription fees and obsolete ICT infrastructure.

[7] ILO, 2021.

[8] ILO, 2021.

# ▶ Overview of online labour in Jordan

Data on the size and composition of Jordan's platform economy are scarce. One source of such data is the Oxford Labour Observatory's Online Labour Index (OLI). The OLI tracks and measures – in real time – the supply and demand of online freelance labour[9] across countries and occupations by monitoring the number of projects and tasks on offer and commissioned across platforms. The index uses data from the five largest English-language DLPs (representing at least 70 per cent of the online labour market by traffic), in addition to six non-English DLPs (three Spanish and three Russian). The recent growth of DLPs in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region means that the data provided through the OLI most likely underestimates the actual number of online workers in Jordan. Nonetheless, and given the scarcity of data on such work arrangements in Jordan, it provides a much-needed yardstick with which to assess the relative size of the platform economy. Tracking changes in labour supply across six labour categories (software development and technology, writing and translation, creative and multimedia, clerical and data entry, sales and marketing support, and professional services), the OLI reports the most popular labour supply categories for each country in a given year.

OLI data show that online work in Jordan represents approximately 0.08 per cent of all global online labour, amounting to approximately 11,000 workers over the period 2017–2022. Within the MENA region, labour supply from Jordan represents 2.2 per cent of the total. The Arab countries with the highest share of online labour within MENA include Egypt (45 per cent), Morocco (11 per cent) and the UAE (10 per cent). Table 1 shows the top online occupational categories for Jordan between 2017 and 2022.

**▶ Table 1. Top online occupation categories by year (2017–2022)**

| Year | Top occupational category | Share (%)[1] | No. of workers |
|---|---|---|---|
| 2017 | Writing and translation | 66 | 7 500 |
| 2018 | Creative and multimedia | 64 | 7 300 |
| 2019 | Creative and multimedia | 34 | 3 900 |
| 2020 | Software development and technology | 51 | 5 800 |
| 2021 | Software development and technology | 71 | 8 100 |
| 2022 | Creative and multimedia | 56 | 6 400 |

Note 1: Share of workers who offered services in the top category.
Source: OLI data, 2017–2022.

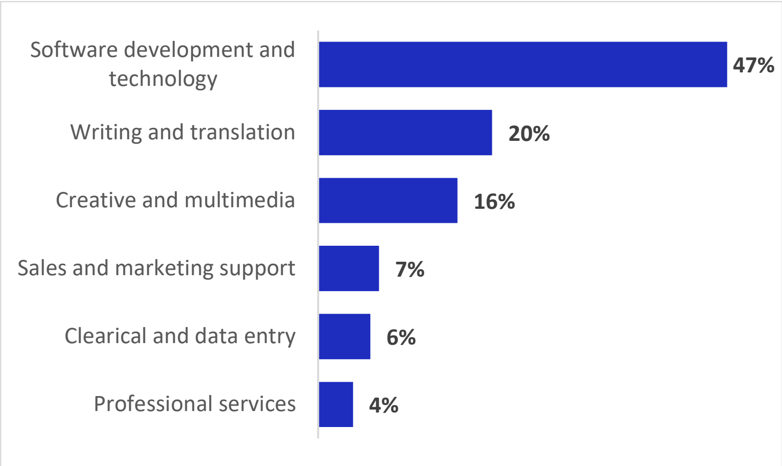
Within DLPs, most labour has been distributed across just three sectors over the past 6 years – software development and technology, creative and multimedia services, and writing and translation. While this suggests that many freelancers based in Jordan are able to work in English, Spanish and Russian, this data says little about active participation in Arabic as the OLI does not track Arabic platforms.

These findings are in line with global trends in that regard. According to the Oxford Labour Observatory, software development and technology has been the most popular occupational group of the six categories.[10] Over the last 5 years, the share of technology projects has grown even further, constituting 43 per cent of all demand in 2021.

[9] The term "online labour" used by the OLI is synonymous with "online web-based platform worker", as defined in ILO, 2021.

[10] Stephany, F., Kässi, O., Rani, U. and Lehdonvirta, V., "Online Labour Index 2020: New Ways to Measure the World's Remote Freelancing Market", *Big Data & Society, 8*(2) (2021), https://doi.org/10.1177/20539517211043240.

### ▶ Figure 3. Online labour demand by occupational category (2017–2020)




Source: Independent analysis of OLI data, 2017–2020.

Unfortunately, the OLI on Jordan does not disaggregate data by sex, age or refugee status. However, it may be inferred that, given the predominance of software development and technology, it is likely that most workers are young (35 years or less) and highly educated. They are also more likely to be male, given that the proportion of women working in the ICT/IT services sector, according to data from the Department of Statistics (DOS), reached only 25 per cent in 2021.[11] It is also unlikely that many of these workers are Syrian refugees given the various challenges relating to accessibility.[12,13]

The popularity of DLPs with youth is one of the major drivers for exploring the working conditions associated with these platforms and their role in the labour market. As youth often resort to informal gig work during education or while seeking more suitable employment, the efficiency and wider reach of platforms help youth access work experience and earn an income. Given that platforms allow workers to circumvent certain legal and logistic obstacles faced when seeking traditional employment, discussions are already taking place around the possibilities these DLPs offer for vulnerable groups around the world,[1415] notwithstanding the risks related to working conditions and protections for platform workers and the need to ensure decent work through these more flexible employment arrangements.

The Government of Jordan has taken positive steps towards adapting to the global digital economy through establishing the Ministry of Digital Economy and Entrepreneurship and adopting legislation that regulates remote work in traditional settings across both the private sector and public sector. However, there is currently no specific law that addresses the rights or regulatory environment governing platform workers in Jordan. Instead, these workers are typically hired under independent contractor arrangements, as in many parts of the world. These workers are legally considered "self-employed" and are generally responsible for managing their own legal affairs,

[11] Department of Statistics, "Data from Employment Surveys", interactive database, accessed 12 October 2022, http://dosweb.dos.gov.jo/.

[12] Hunt, A., Samman, E. and Mansour-Ille, D., "Syrian Women Refugees in Jordan: Opportunity in the Gig Economy?", 2017, https://cdn.odi.org/media/documents/11742.pdf.

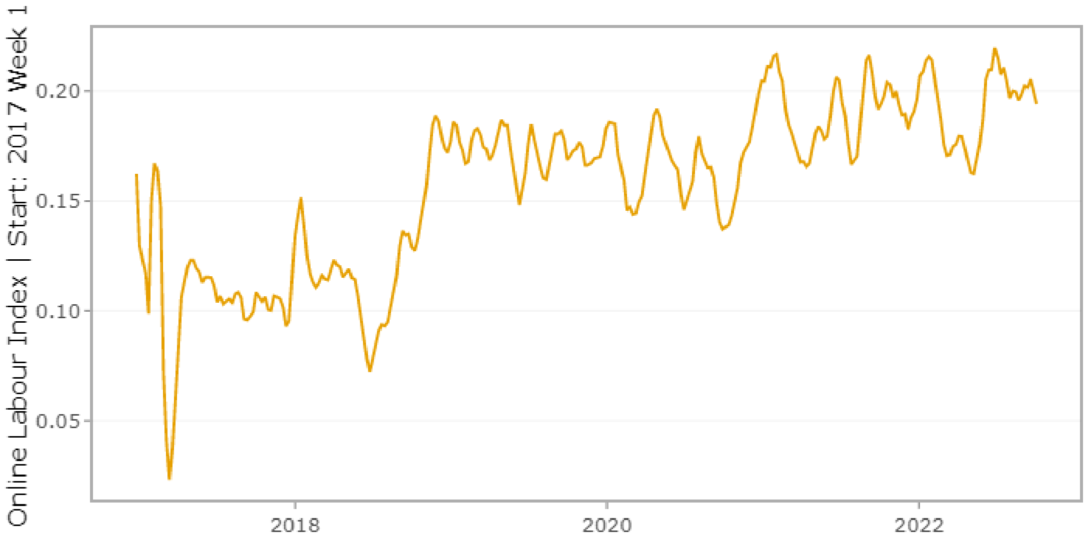
[13] Tiltnes, Å. A., Zhang, H., and Pedersen, J., "The Living Conditions of Syrian Refugees in Jordan: Results from the 2017–2018 Survey of Syrian Refugees Inside and Outside Camps", 2017.

[14] Hackl, A., and Gardiner, D.,,. "Towards decent work for young refugees and host communities in the digital platform economy in Africa: Kenya, Uganda, Egypt." Geneva: ILO (2021).

[15] Kattaa, M, and Byrne, M., "Digital work and the refugee gig economy." Digital refugee livelihoods and decent work, 2021.

including work permits, registration with authorities (as a "self-employed entity") and income taxes.[16] Because these workers do not fall under traditional work regulations, some observers note the lack of laws and regulations regarding the wages of online platform workers and their relationship with their "clients".[17] As a direct consequence of this lax regulatory environment, some digital platform workers in Jordan reportedly experience significant violations, such as working extended hours without overtime pay.

**▶ Figure 4. Online labour demand index by year, Jordan**




Source: Trend analysis from the OLI interactive dashboard.

### ▶ Notes on terminology

Given the recent rise of the new work modality, a multitude of terms have been used to describe it. For the purposes of this paper, we have adopted the terminologies used in the ILO World Economic and Social Outlook, 2021. Specifically, **digital labour platform** is used to describe either a platform that connects workers with businesses and clients, or which directly engages workers to provide services for the platform. DLPs could be further categorized into:

- **Online web-based platforms** (OWPs), where tasks are performed online and remotely by workers. These are the main focus of the present research paper. Global examples include Upwork, Mechanical Turk and Fiverr.
- **Location-based platforms** where "tasks are performed at a specific physical location by an individual". The most popular examples include taxis, delivery services and care services. These are not the main target of this study.

**Platform workers** refers to those workers engaging in work on those platforms. Furthermore, "**traditional form(s) of work"** refers to all other work arrangements not involving OWPs.

Note: For more details, see ILO, *World Employment and Social Outlook: The Role of Digital Labour Platforms in Transforming the World of Work*

[16] Hunt et al.

[17] Tamkeen for Legal Aid and Human Rights, "A Prospective Study on Online Work: Loss of Rights & Lack of Guarantees", https://dashboard.tamkeen-jo.org/wp-content/uploads/2022/02/on_line_work-__EN_.pdf.

# ▶ Methodology

Initially, a comprehensive desk review of available data and literature was undertaken to establish global and local trends in the digital economy, including DLPs. A platform mapping exercise (see annex) found two sectors with high potential for employing women and youth in Jordan: (1) writing and translation; and (2) creative and multimedia.[18]

Further to this secondary desk-based research, primary data were gathered using a variety of methods. These included quantitative surveys, focus group discussions (FGDs) and key informant interviews (KIIs). By comparing platform work with traditional forms of employment, as well as an analysis of intergroup divergences, the growth dynamics of DLPs in Jordan were examined, including the space they occupy in the overall employment landscape and the opportunities (if any) they offer to vulnerable populations.

Two quantitative surveys were conducted on a total sample of 323 workers who offered either writing and translation services or creative and multimedia services (Table 2). Given the absence of official or credible data on the characteristics of platform workers, sampling followed a respondent-driven sampling (RDS) methodology. Specifically, around ten individuals ("seeds") from within each of the four sampling clusters were initially identified and purposefully selected (with heterogeneous profiles covering the various disaggregation variables). These seeds were asked to provide as many referrals as possible from within their own social networks that met the sampling criteria. The sampling process was continued until the target sample size for each cluster was achieved.

The two questionnaires – one for platform workers and the other for traditional workers – were aimed at capturing the socio-demographic profile of respondents, their work history, working conditions and social protection coverage status, among other variables.

**▶ Table 2. Survey sample composition**

| Categories | Target sample size | Actual sample size | Disaggregation variables |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Platform workers** | | | ▶ Sex<br>▶ Education<br>▶ Age<br>▶ Service type<br>▶ Geographical location<br>▶ Household size<br>▶ Nationality (Jordanian or Syrian) |
| Workers offering writing and translation services | 75 | 75 | |
| Workers offering creative and multimedia services | 75 | 76 | |
| **Traditional workers** | | | |
| Workers offering writing and translation services | 75 | 86 | |
| Workers offering creative and multimedia services | 75 | 86 | |
| **Total** | **300** | **323** | |

The survey data were complemented by two FGDs with platform workers engaged in either of the two selected sectors. Similar to the RDS seeds, the FGDs included participants with different profiles, but still covering the key disaggregation variables relevant to the research objectives. Furthermore, 16 KIIs were conducted to shed light on key qualitative macro-level issues relevant to the two selected sectors. Interviewees included five representatives of innovators and platform developers, five representatives of government institutions and six representatives of international implementing agencies, research centres and think tanks.

[18] Other occupations, including taxi drivers and delivery workers, were covered by a separate ILO study. The present report was aimed at sectors with potential to appeal to women and youth.

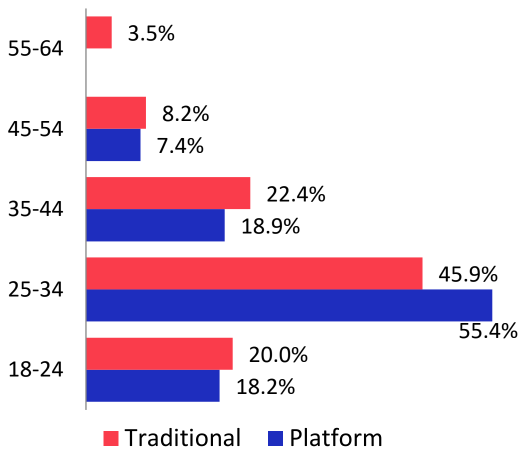
# ▶ Survey findings: Individual and employment characteristics

## Individual characteristics

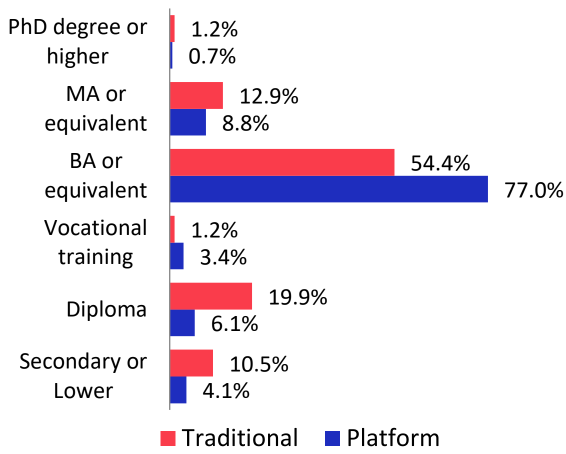
In general, platform workers tend to be younger than their counterparts in traditional forms of employment. In this sample, 73.6 per cent of platform workers were younger than 35 years. The average age was 31 years, and more than half of the sample fell between the ages of 25 and 34 years. Of the traditional workers, 65.9 per cent were younger than 35 years, with an average age of 33 years. There was greater variability in age among traditional workers (Figure 5).

Platform workers were, on average, more educated than traditional workers. Some 86.7 per cent of platform workers had obtained a bachelor's degree or higher, compared with 68.5 per cent of traditional workers (Figure 6). When prompted about their current educational status, 79.5 per cent of traditional workers and 77.7 per cent of platform workers were not currently enrolled. Of those who reported being enrolled, platform workers and traditional workers were equally likely to be enrolled in tertiary-level education.

**▶ Figure 5. Age distribution by worker type**



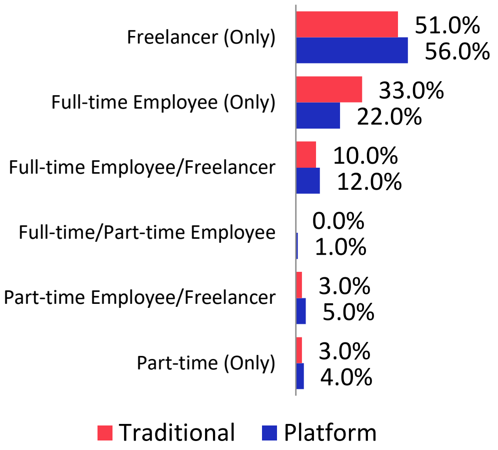

**▶ Figure 6. Educational attainment by worker type**



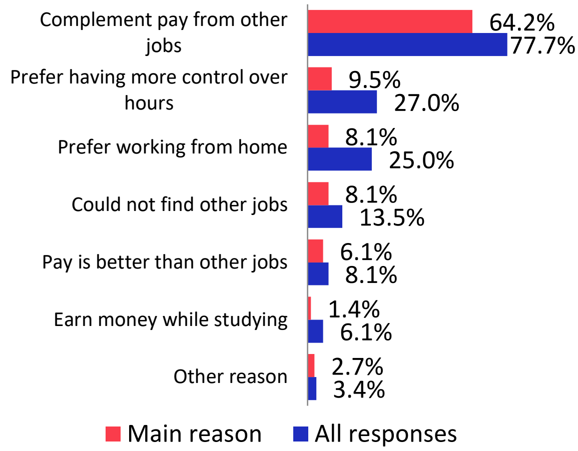

## Employment profiles

Most respondents (71.6 per cent of platform workers and 63.9 per cent of traditional workers) were freelancers working on a project-by-project basis. Some 35.1 per cent of platform workers and 43.2 per cent of traditional workers reported being full-time employees. In most cases, workers were exclusively either freelancers or employees in full-time employment. In fact, more than half were working exclusively as freelancers, with platform workers more likely than traditional workers to work exclusively on a project basis (56 per cent compared with 51.0 per cent).

▶ **Figure 7. Employment status by worker type**



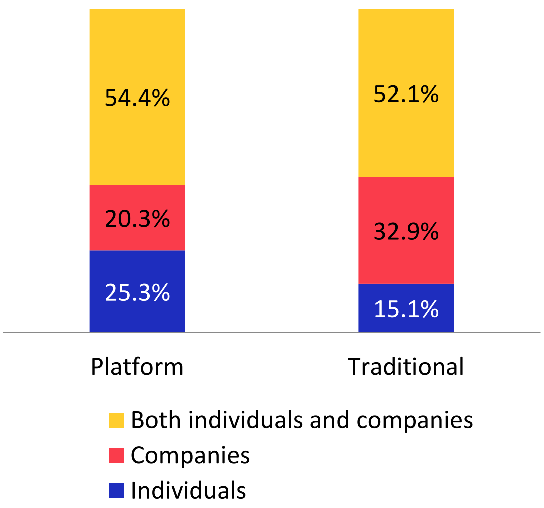

▶ **Figure 8. Reasons for using DLP**



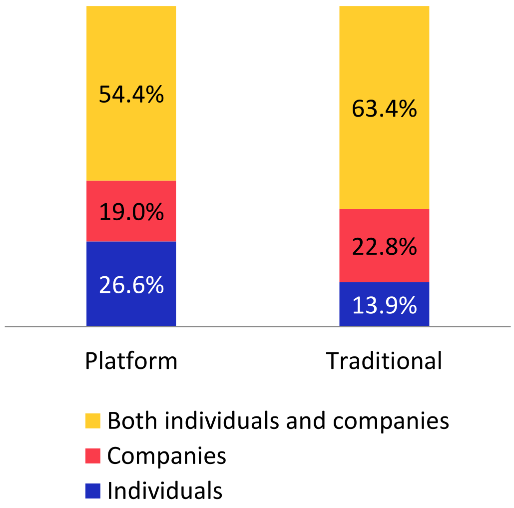

When asked about the reasons behind their choice of using platforms as a means to get jobs, 77.7 per cent of platform workers reported the need to complement pay from other jobs as a motivation. Other reasons included control over hours (27.0 per cent), preference for working from home (25.0 per cent), and their inability to find other jobs (13.5 per cent). As for the main single reason behind their choice to subscribe to a DLP, 64.2 per cent selected complementing pay from other jobs.

Traditional workers across the two sectors (writing and translation, and creative and multimedia) were more likely than platform workers to have worked only for companies over the previous 12 months (32.9 per cent vs 20.3 per cent in the case of the writing and translation, and 22.8 per cent vs 19.0 per cent in the case of creative and multimedia, respectively). The opposite was observed for platform workers, who were more likely to report working for individual clients, rather than companies, in both sectors (Figure 9 andFigure 10). This may be attributed to the nature of the interaction between workers and clients – because of their higher likelihood of being in full-time employment, traditional workers are more likely to interact with companies, rather than individual clients. Another reason could be related to the nature of the projects being commissioned on platforms, which tend to be smaller or discreet, requiring less effort at a smaller value than those commissioned through traditional means and, therefore, more likely to be commissioned by individuals than by companies (which tend to commission larger projects/tasks).

▶ **Figure 9. Worker type by client type (writing and translation)**




▶ **Figure 10. Worker type by client type (creative and multimedia)**

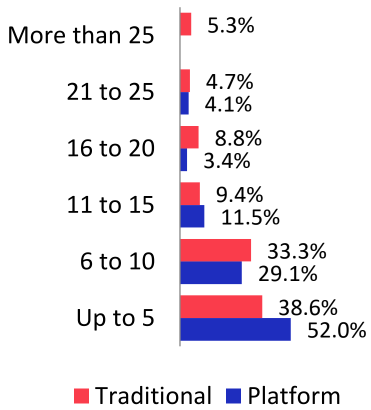



## Skills and experience

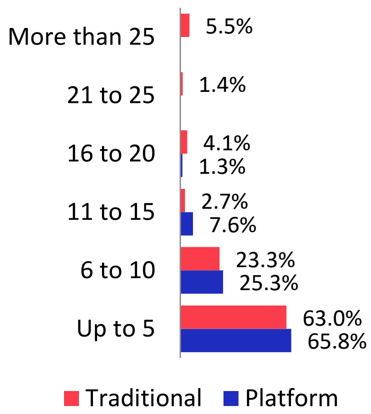
Some 52.0 per cent of platform workers reported having up to 5 years of experience in their current sector, compared with only 38.6 per cent of traditional workers. One third of traditional workers reported having between 6 and 10 years of experience, and around 28.1 per cent reported having more than 10 years of experience (Figure 11). Additionally, the average number of years of experience for traditional workers was 9.5 compared with 7.0 years for platform workers. This points to a difference in the working profiles of respondents between each group.

While differences in the writing and translation sector were slight (Figure 12), they were more pronounced for those working in the creative and multimedia sector, with 71.8 per cent of platform workers reporting having up to 5 years of experience, compared with 40.6 per cent of traditional workers (Figure 13).

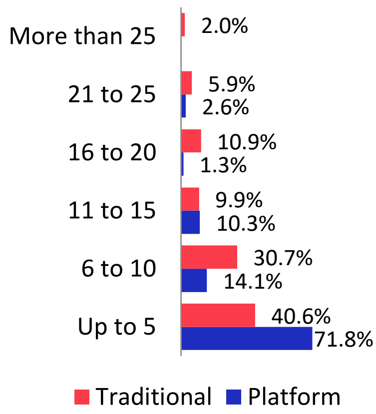
▶ **Figure 11. Years of experience (total)**




▶ **Figure 12. Years of experience (writing and translation)**




▶ **Figure 13. Years of experience (creative and multimedia)**

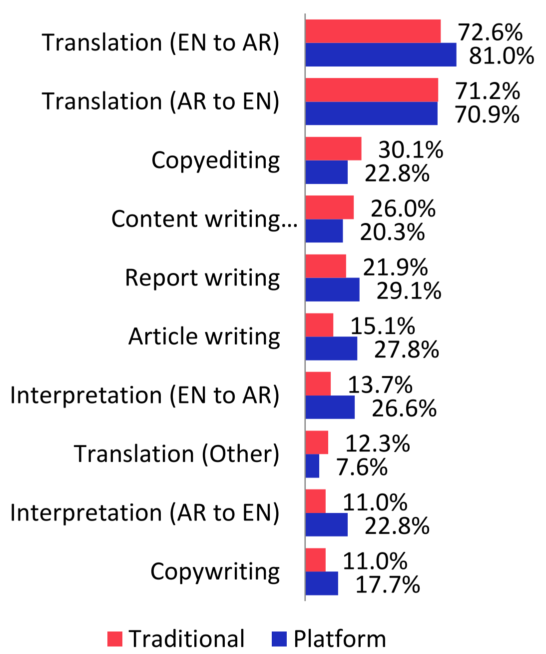


The most common activity of both traditional (46.5 per cent) and platform (45.6 per cent) workers in creative and multimedia was graphic design (Figure 15). However, platform workers were more likely than traditional workers to have experience in drone video (19.0 per cent vs 5.0 per cent), audio recording (17.7 per cent vs 8.9 per cent) and TV/film production (19.0 per cent vs 12.9 per cent). In all other areas within the sector, traditional workers had more experience than platform workers, which was unsurprising given that they tend to be generally more experienced.

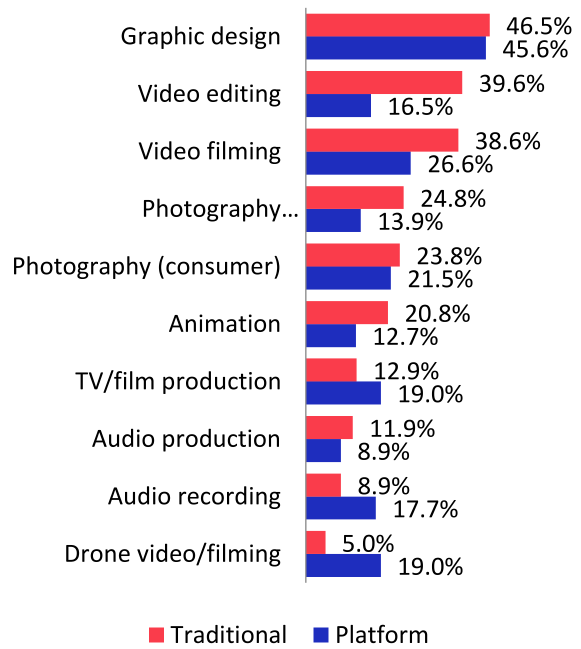
For workers in writing and translation (Figure 14), the overwhelming majority reported experience in translating English to Arabic and vice versa – regardless of working arrangement. However, platform workers were more likely to translate from English to Arabic (81.0 per cent) than from Arabic to English (70.9 per cent). Similarly, platform workers in the writing and translation sector were more likely to have experience in all other areas (except copyediting and general content writing), compared with traditional workers.

The diversity among platform workers with respect to their skill profiles paints a peculiar picture of these workers as not only less experienced (in terms of years), but more versatile and proficient in modern technologies.

**▶ Figure 14. Area of experience (writing and translation)**




**▶ Figure 15. Area of experience (creative and multimedia)**

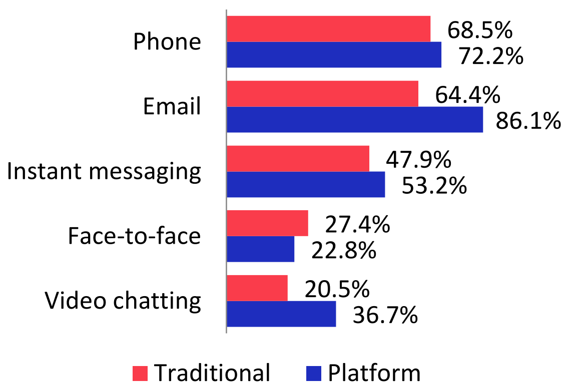



These results suggest that there is significant potential to target skills development at platform work. On one hand, experience is concentrated within a range of specific activities (e.g. translation, graphic design and video editing), indicating higher demand for these services in both work traditional and platform work. This suggests that developing skills in these areas would lead to a higher return on investment with lower risks. On the other hand, the higher demand for specific skills (e.g. drone video, audio recording and English-to-Arabic simultaneous interpretation) on platforms signals an important entry point for skills development programmes that could target vulnerable workers who possess these skills but who have been unable to use platforms because of obstacles related to digital literacy, costs or lack of mobility, among others.

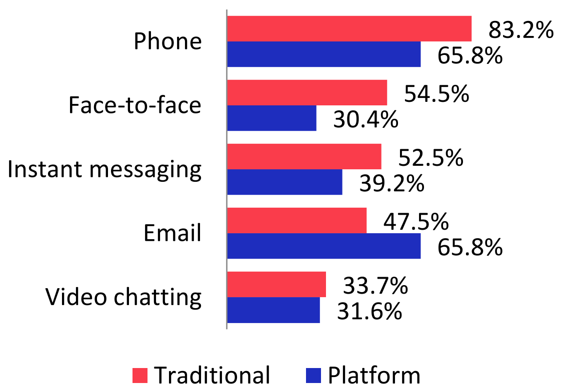
Perhaps because of factors relating to age, and the nature of interacting through digital platforms, Figure 16 shows that platform workers were more likely to use email to communicate with clients (86.1 per cent of platform workers in writing and translation and 65.8 per cent in creative and multimedia use emails compared with 64.4 per cent and 47.5 per cent of traditional workers, respectively). In both sectors, phone communication was the most common means of interacting with clients for traditional workers. In the creative and multimedia sector, platform workers were equally likely to report using email and phone (Figure 17). Face-to-face meetings and video chatting were the least common methods of communication across traditional workers in the writing and translation sector and platform workers in the creative and multimedia sector.

The heavy reliance on digital communications is a testament to the importance of accessibility in promoting inclusive participation in the platform economy. Two specific elements stand out: (1) the importance of skills, including digital literacy and proficiency in the use of electronic communications, knowledge of foreign languages (not least to interface with the platforms) and soft skills such as those related to negotiation or communication with the client; and (2) the crucial role played by accessible IT infrastructure. National communication networks must allow easy, cheap and reliable internet access. This is often not the case in rural areas, which stand to gain from the reduced need for physical mobility offered by platform work. Moreover, personal devices of a certain quality are required to complete tasks, especially graphic-heavy, high-tech tasks such as video editing, animation and photography, which may leave workers from vulnerable communities unable to participate because of the substantial upfront costs of updating equipment.

▶ **Figure 16. Method of communication with clients (writing and translation)**




▶ **Figure 17. Method of communication with clients (creative and multimedia)**

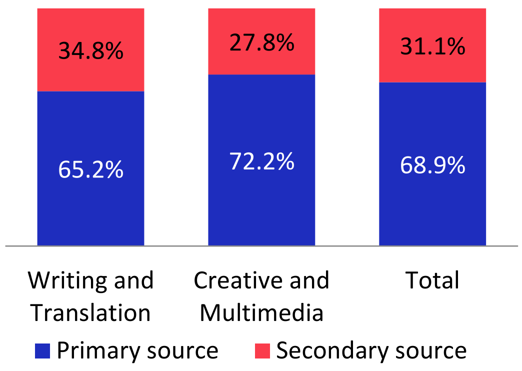



## Earnings and income

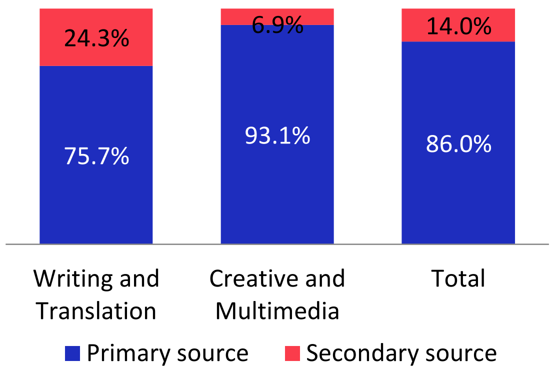
Most respondents working in writing and translation and creative and multimedia reported that such work was their primary source of income – regardless of their working arrangement (Figure 18 and Figure 19). However, traditional workers (93.1 per cent) were more likely than platform workers (72.2 per cent) to rely on this work for their primary source of income. The difference between platform and traditional workers in the writing and translation sector was less pronounced, but still 75.7 per cent of traditional workers relied on such work as their primary source of income, compared with 65.2 per cent of platform workers.

On average, traditional workers in both sectors earned more than their counterparts working on platforms. The mean monthly earnings for traditional workers in the writing and translation sector reached 528 Jordanian dinars (JOD) compared with 472 dinars for platform workers. Meanwhile, mean monthly earnings for platform workers in the creative and multimedia sector reached 516 dinars, almost 240 dinars less than those in traditional work environments (Figure 20).

▶ **Figure 18. Significance of income by sector (platform workers)**




▶ **Figure 19. Significance of income by sector (traditional workers)**

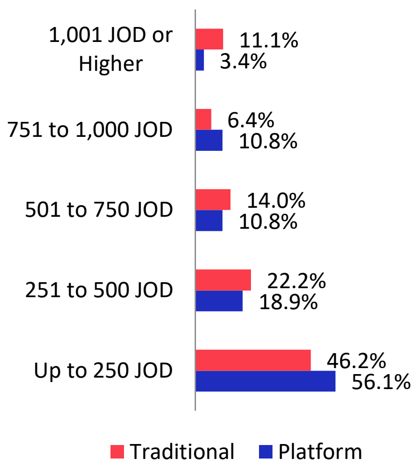



The difference in earnings could be partly due to the higher skills profile of traditional workers in the sample, as described above. However, the fact that platform work remains a secondary or supplementary source of income for most current workers could also be leading to a misrepresentation of its impact. Put differently, even if the differences in income could be solely explained by differences in skill profiles, they still indicate that the main type of work available on platforms is not the type of high-productivity high-value work that workers can build a career around.

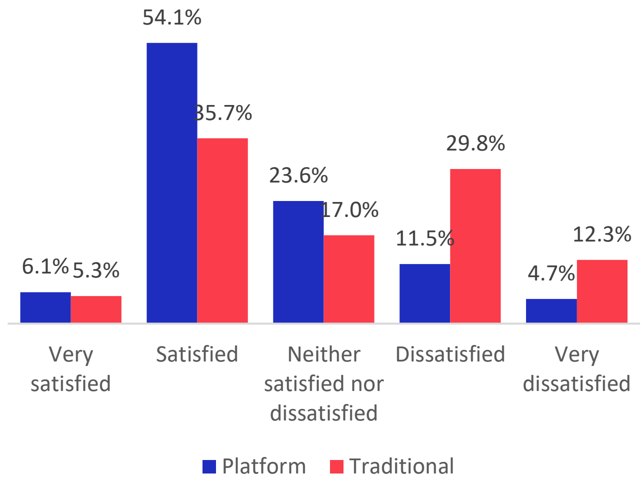
This pattern is often overlooked in discussions around the attractiveness of platform work and satisfaction with the incomes it provides: If one assumes that a typical platform worker engages with platforms only with the expectations of additional income in their free time, it seems entirely understandable that so many would be attracted to the new work arrangement, especially among vulnerable populations. However, that also means that discussions around regulating a Future of Work where platform-enabled work is the sole source of income of workers must factor in those benefits that workers now earn from the 'non-platform' economy, or rather their absence in a theoretical fully-uberised future of work. Otherwise, the expansion of the platform economy could translate into a slow dismantlement of existing worker protections with no alternative, leaving workers across the country worse off.

The issue of earnings also raises the issue of productivity, and the intangible factors that determine it. More specifically, the perceived reachability of the service provider and client, the impact of trust and return business, as well as output quality, which often develops within a direct long-term relationship between client and supplier. These elements, among others, should be monitored as the reach of platforms, in terms of clientele, develops.

▶ **Figure 20. Net monthly earnings by worker type**




▶ **Figure 21. Income satisfaction by worker type**

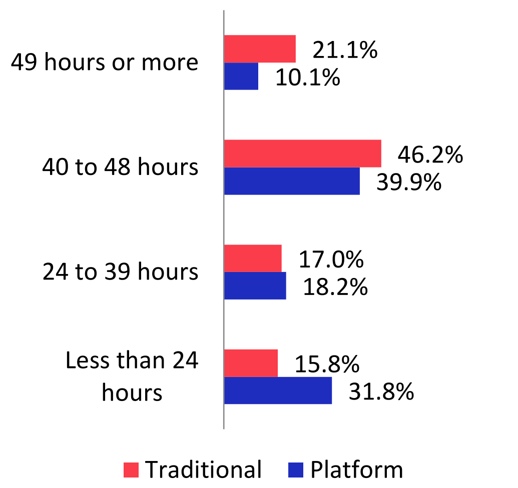



Despite their lower income levels, it was notable that platform workers were more satisfied with their income than traditional workers. This is in line with other findings, such as platform workers join platforms to “complement other income”. Their perceptions of the work and financial expectations seem to differ from those of traditional workers. The widely held perception among workers that platform work is a short-term solution, rather than a long-term shift in their career, is important in discussions around balancing the role of platforms as providers of work and their potential risks as drivers of the commodification and deregulation of labour.

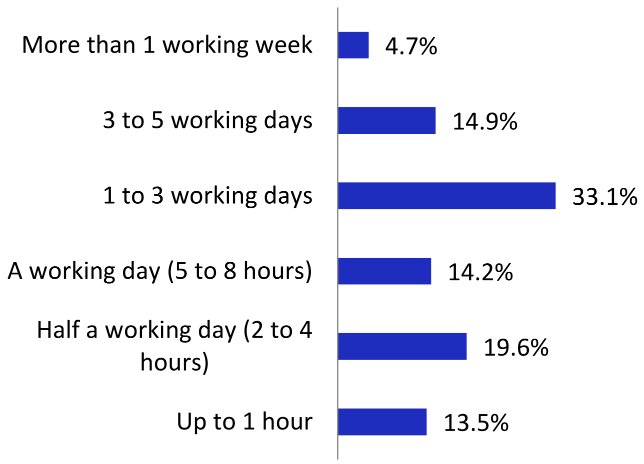
## Working hours

With respect to working hours, platform workers reported fewer hours on average than traditional workers (Figure 22). Specifically, 31.8 per cent of platform workers reported working less than 24 hours per week compared with 15.8 per cent of traditional workers. In contrast, 67.3 per cent of traditional workers worked 40 hours or more in a typical week, compared with 50.0 per cent of platform workers.

▶ **Figure 22. Hours spent working in a typical week by worker type**



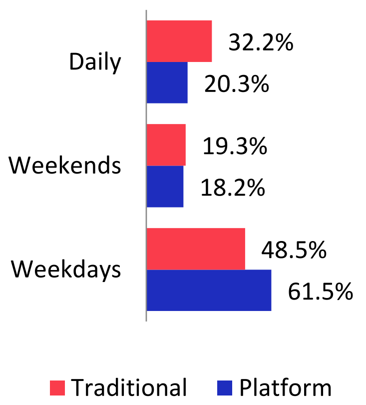

▶ **Figure 23. Average working hours in a typical week during the past 6 months (platform workers)**[19]




Some 52.7 per cent of platform workers noted that, in the past 6 months, they worked the equivalent of more than one working day in a typical week on all projects commissioned through platforms – most reported working the equivalent of three working days or less. Additionally, around 5 per cent of platform workers noted that they worked the equivalent of more than 5 days in a typical week (Figure 23).

Notably, almost half of all platform workers worked the equivalent of 1 day per week or less on projects assigned through platforms. Moreover, only 20.3 per cent of platform workers reported working every day, compared with 32.2 per cent of traditional workers. These figures seem to reinforce the image of platform work in these two sectors as being composed of scattered "gigs", allowing a relatively young population of workers with the required skillset to generate income during periods of idleness, but still far from a stable income.

▶ **Figure 24. Usual work days by worker type**




[19] Based on a 48 working-hour week.

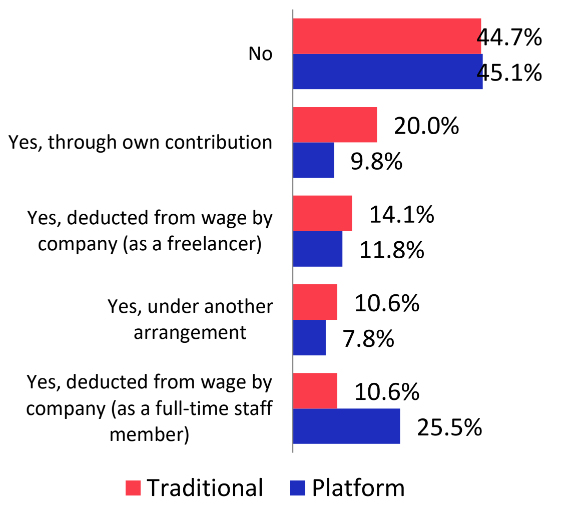
One of the main benefits of remote work is workers' ability to manage their time by logging in and out of the platform at their discretion. While some tasks (e.g. data entry) are monitored using special digital surveillance software – creating a whole set of privacy concerns – most tasks are not compatible with such monitoring. Thus, the worker is left to manage their own working time. It is easy to see how, in a highly competitive global labour market, where supply of labour consistently exceeds demand, this could devolve into a race to the bottom as workers underbid one another at the expense of reasonable working hours and work–life balance. However, our data indicate that, in these two sectors, because low demand for labour (i.e. tasks advertised) is usually combined with tasks of low-complexity (i.e. the skillsets needed to complete them), this is not yet a significant risk.

Nevertheless, the difficulty of enforcing working-time limits is a systemic weakness and risks undermining the quality of work offered on platforms as they adapt to more complex tasks, and services become more widespread. In fact, 47.3 per cent of surveyed platform workers said they want more work and a further 40.5 per cent said they were "somewhat interested" in getting more work. These patterns were seen in both sectors. In other words, even if demand for platform work does not yet reach the level of excessive working hours in these sectors, the appeal for workers is clearly there, despite the low levels of remuneration per task and lack of regulatory safeguards.

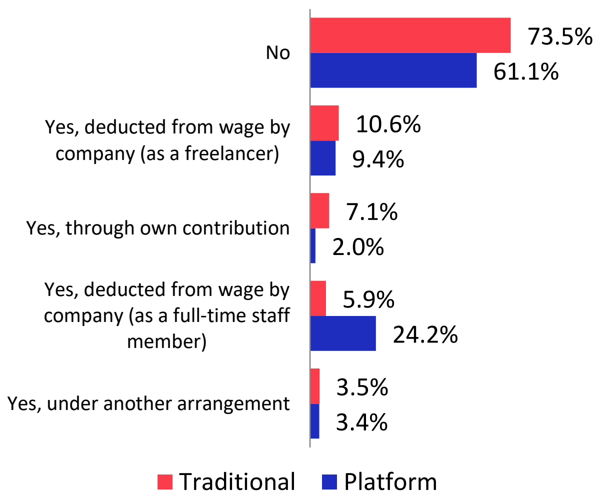
## Social protection

The survey revealed very diverse levels of social protection, without a clear pattern related to either sector or type of work arrangement. On one hand, relatively similar coverage rates were observed for both platform and traditional workers with respect to health insurance (Figure 25) and insurance against work-related injuries (Figure 26), with a significant share of both types of workers not receiving any kind of coverage. Specifically, 45 per cent of respondents had some health insurance coverage but around 65 per cent were not covered against work-related injuries. Many respondents were contributing to their own health insurance.

**▶ Figure 25. Health insurance coverage by worker type**




**▶ Figure 26. Insurance against work-related injury by worker type**

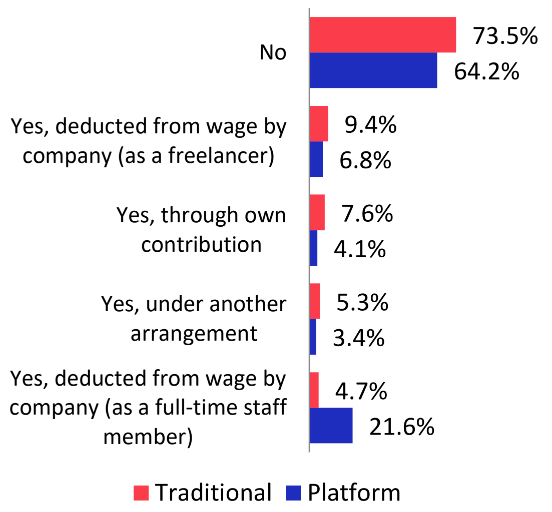



Of those that had health insurance, the majority were covered by virtue of their full-time employment with a company. In fact, this share remained relatively unchanged for the different types of social security coverage such as disability, work-related injuries and old age. This pattern has been noted in other countries, and is an important element in assessing the decent work elements of the platform economy and ways in which they may evolve as this type of work grows in popularity and expands into new sectors.[20]

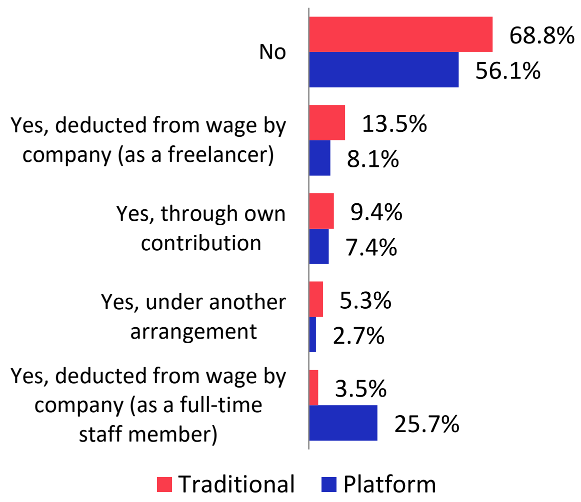
Yet, the platform economy does not exist in a separate bubble where labour demand and supply are determined only by platform work variables. Instead, as many traditional workers use this new work arrangement to supplement their income, social security benefits they receive from the "traditional economy" (through their own full-time employment, or that of a family member) remain important elements in determining the profitability of platform-enabled work. In other words, without the benefits afforded to them by traditional forms of social protection – and by extension traditional forms of employment and social security contributions – working conditions in the platform economy and its appeal could change dramatically.

In the same vein, our results show that a notable share of freelancers receive some form of insurance as part of their contractual agreements with their clients, while others pay for coverage themselves, indicating that social protection is still a valuable benefit to workers and that any sort of emerging equilibrium in the platform labour market is, in a way, subsidized by the benefits offered in the traditional labour market.

**▶ Figure 27. Insurance against disability by worker type**




**▶ Figure 28. Old-age benefit by worker type**




## Unionization and collective action

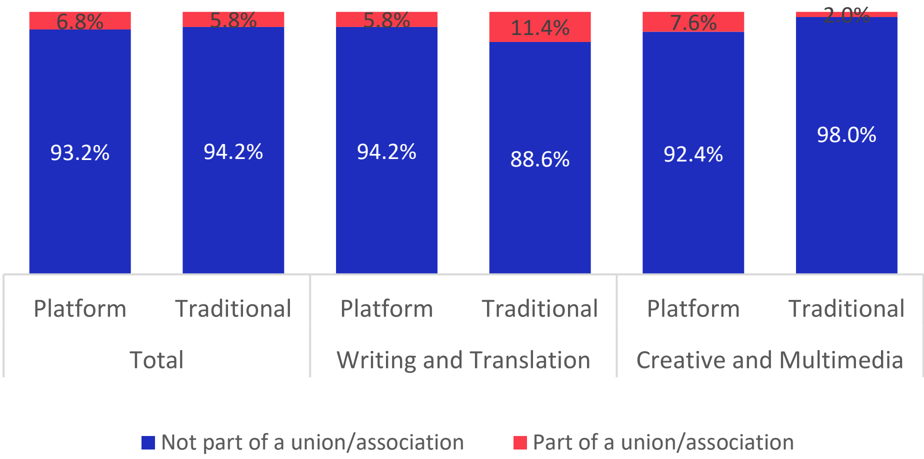
Despite the presence of an association for translators and interpreters in Jordan, little is known about the number of translators, their specializations, remuneration or modality of work, since many Jordanian translators are reportedly reluctant to join such associations.[21] This is corroborated by our finding that only 6 per cent of platform workers were part of a union for writers/translators. Although traditional workers in our sample were, overwhelmingly, still not unionized, their share of unionized workers (11 per cent) was almost double that of platform workers (Figure 29).

[20] Yassin, J. and Rani, U., "Ride-Hailing Versus Traditional Taxi Services: The Experiences of Taxi Drivers in Lebanon", ILO Working Paper 85 (Geneva: ILO, 2022).

[21] Olimat, Sameer Naser and Dana Mahadin, "The Jordanian Translator in the Era of COVID-19 Pandemic: Challenges and Perspectives", *Translation & Interpreting 14*, No. 1 (2022): 142–159.

Our research did not identify any specific worker union or association in the creative and multimedia sector. Nonetheless, 7.6 per cent of platform workers in the creative and multimedia sector reported being part of a union or association, compared with 2.0 per cent of traditional workers. Such respondents are likely to have joined a union or association indirectly related to their current line of work (e.g. the Jordanian Engineers Association). It may be inferred from these figures that platform workers in this sector are professionals in a wide array of alternative fields, as evidenced by the diverse range of skills and experience in the sample.

**▶ Figure 29. Union/association membership by sector and worker type**



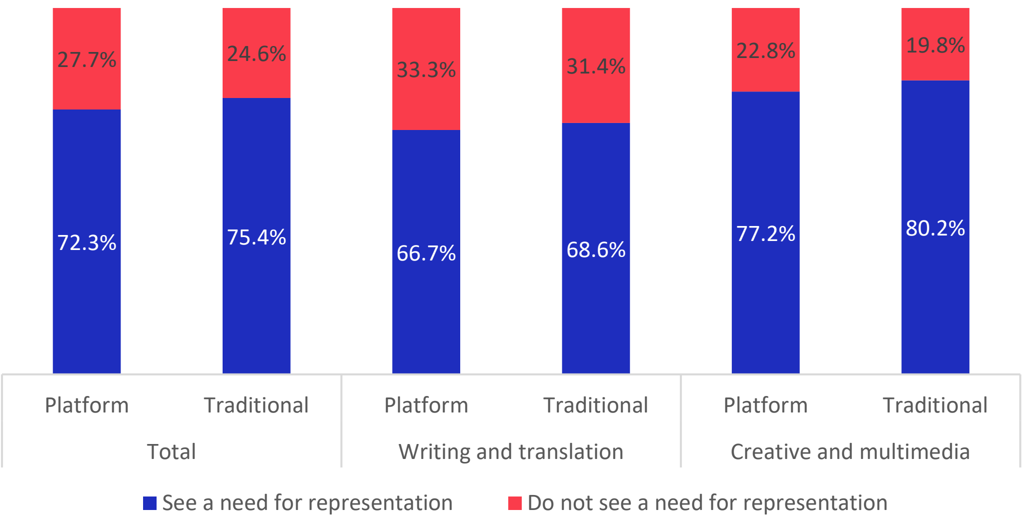

More than half of all workers said the reason they were not members of a union or association was because they believed there were none specific to their activity. This sentiment was more strongly expressed by workers in the creative and multimedia field than those in writing and translation, which does have a translators' association (although these results indicate a clear weakness in their outreach efforts). A portion of non-unionized respondents in both samples (between 10 and 20 per cent across both sectors) did not believe that unions had any impact on their work.

Globally, platform workers increasingly use social media to pool together workers in similar fields, often members of the same country or region, to share knowledge and experiences.[22] Our data point to a similar trend in Jordan. Platform workers were more likely (57.2 per cent) to report being part of such a group on social media compared with traditional workers (43.9 per cent). There was no substantial difference with respect to sector or line of work.

Despite the negative perceptions of unions among these workers, these elements show that, rather than functioning within a relatively atomized work arrangement (i.e. one lone worker in isolation), there remain significant social elements involved. These workers require crowdsourced information and mutual support in an increasingly competitive global labour market. It is not clear whether these groups could coalesce into collective action. However, when asked whether they would like to see more collective representation for professionals in their line of work, an overwhelming majority responded positively, regardless of sector or working arrangement (Figure 30).

[22] ILO, 2021.

**▶ Figure 30. Perceived need for collective representation by sector and worker type**




Combined, these results highlighted important aspects about unionization among workers in the two sectors in question. On one hand, it is clear that current representative organizations have failed to cater to these workers, with platform workers even less inclined to join existing unions or associations, despite their view that collective representation is important. On the other hand, the prominence of social media groups indicates that worker expectations are changing. Social media fulfil certain needs, such as the need to share ideas, solicit feedback and, when possible, collaborate with other "freelance" workers. These would also need to be reflected in any professional bodies representing workers.

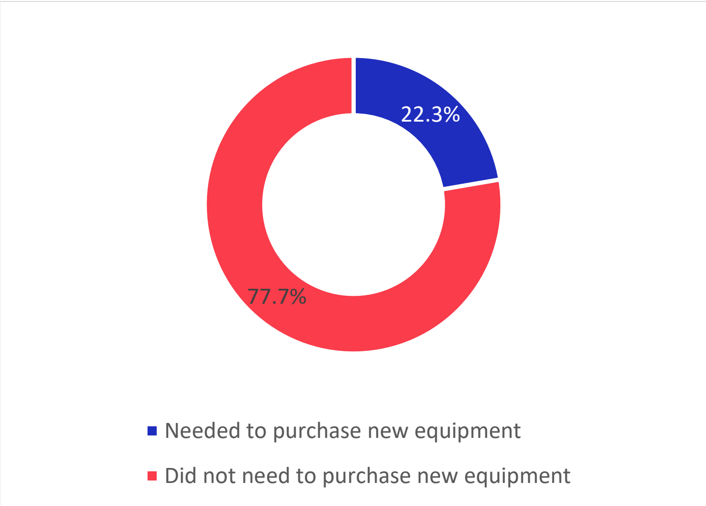
# ▶ Moving forward: Prospects and risks of platform work

## Barriers to entry

One significant aspect of the platform economy is the theoretical ease with which one can obtain work. Registering with these platforms often requires little more than an email address, making it especially relevant for those who cannot find jobs otherwise, or who do not have the necessary documentation to be formally employed. However, the absence of explicit barriers does not mean that platforms are accessible for everyone. Engaging in platform work requires a certain level of ICT proficiency, which may be a significant deterrent for certain groups, especially older workers. Effective participation in the platform economy also requires a decent, affordable internet connection, and tasks often require modern equipment and software, all of which may be unaffordable for workers from vulnerable communities. As English is generally recognized as the lingua franca of the internet, English speakers can access a larger number of platforms and tasks, disadvantaging non-English speakers.

Because many of these barriers are associated with the lower economic status of certain jobseekers, platform work could become inaccessible to those who need it most, ultimately reinforcing the dynamics of inequality and exclusion rife in the traditional labour market.

**▶ Figure 31. Share of platform workers required to purchase new equipment**

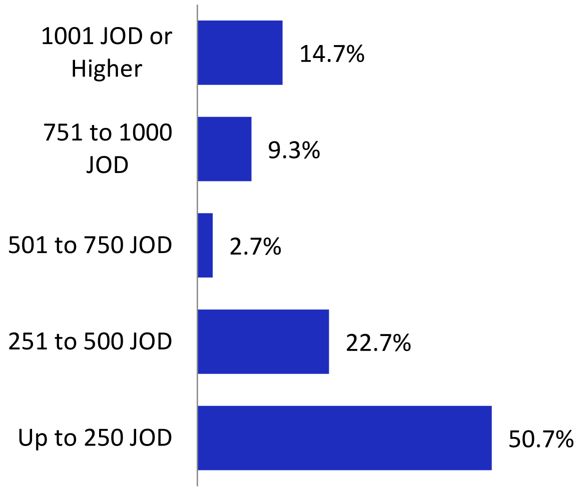



These barriers, however, are not impossible to overcome. Sustained and concentrated efforts to improve the skills of workers and promote digital literacy among vulnerable communities could be extremely effective in opening up the platform economy to them. Costs related to the ownership and maintenance of IT equipment could be met through subsidized loans, community centres and “hot-desk” setups that allow communities to pool resources. The latter offers room for collaboration with platforms as they have a vested interest in increasing their reach and making work more widely available.

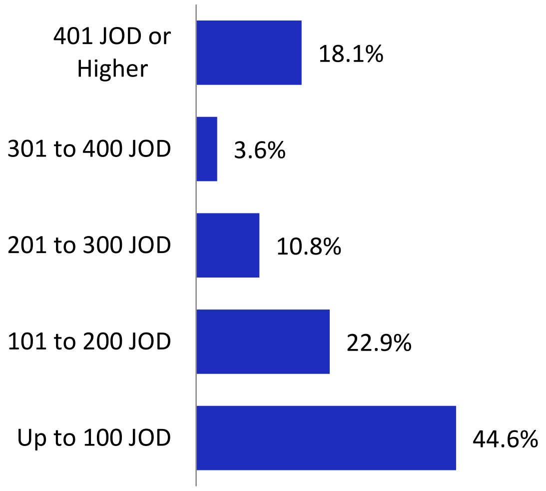
## Platform work for livelihood support

Whether gig work has real potential to provide decent jobs on a more sustainable basis remains to be seen. However, our research shows that it could play an important role in providing short-term income for idle workers and young workers trying to gain experience. Platform workers overwhelmingly saw their work as providing a complementary income, as tasks were generally short-term, earning 44.6 per cent of workers less than 100 dinars.

▶ **Figure 32. Total earnings from platform projects in previous 6 months**




▶ **Figure 33. Average earnings per platform project**




Even when earnings are aggregated over longer periods of time, they clearly fall short of providing workers with a decent life. More than half of platform workers surveyed earned less than a total of 250 dinars over the previous 6 months. This is significantly lower than the current minimum wage in Jordan (260 dinars per month). These figures show that, in its current state, remote work in these two sectors is, at best, a source of supplementary income.

Discussions over how a hypothetical completely "uberized" world of work could function are crucial, including how to adapt national legislation. Nevertheless, pushing platform work as a short-term opportunity for vulnerable communities could still be relevant. This could prove a powerful tool to alleviate poverty, but also ease frictional unemployment and provide youth with opportunities to gain experience and improve their employability. As for refugee communities, platform work bypasses many of the obstacles they face in accessing other income-generating opportunities. The flexibility that platform work offers, both in terms of time and geographical location is key.

Regulators should consider framing gig work as an easy way for people to receive payments for short-term tasks. Separating that discussion from the longer-term strategic discussion about systemic shifts in the work paradigm could simplify action in the short-to-medium term and re-orient the focus towards workers and their needs. However, this approach must extend beyond the current laissez faire stance towards workers and DLPs to one that actively fosters growth within an overall strategy of promoting job creation.

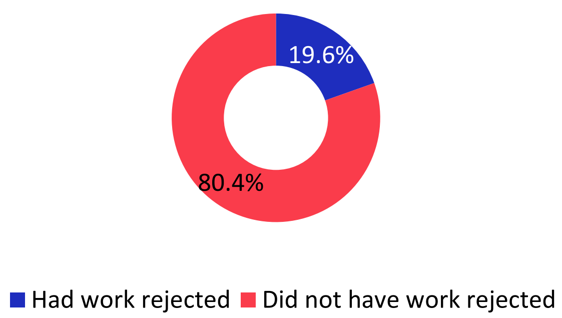
## Legal risks

Our data indicate that despite the fact that most of the work undertaken by workers in our sample was for customers in Jordan, a significant portion of the work being conducted through platforms in these two sectors is done for the benefit of individuals or businesses outside of Jordan. Three quarters of platform workers reported working on jobs for clients based outside of Jordan in the previous 6 months, including 84.8 per cent of respondents in the creative and multimedia sector and 63.8 per cent of those in writing and translation. This is in line with patterns seen in the developing world.[23] While foreign income from platform work can mitigate, to a degree, the

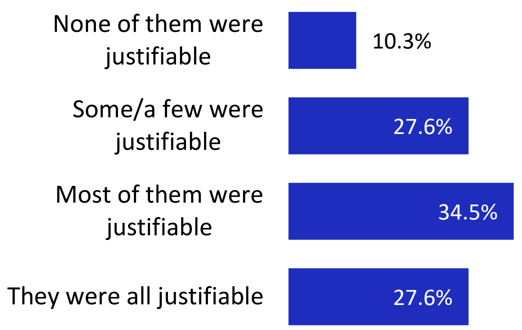
[23] ILO, 2021.

country's economic tumult, cross-border task outsourcing is mired with legal complexities. Not only are local legal frameworks often inept with respect to platform work agreements, but the lack of alignment between jurisdictions renders legal actions complex and expensive, and their outcomes uncertain. This leaves workers highly susceptible to exploitation, wage theft and scams. In the case of refugees, these risks are exacerbated, given that their residence status is not always clear and any contact with law enforcement is rife with risks. Desperate circumstances and a lack of alternatives may make these workers especially susceptible to online exploitation.

**▶ Figure 34. Platform work rejected by clients**




**▶ Figure 35. Workers' perceived justifications for rejection**




Globally, the legal complexities of platform work remain to be clarified. It is very likely that Member States will avoid the issue in the short term. As a temporary workaround, and until legislation catches up, an important intervention vector involves local and, to a lesser extent, regional platforms. In effect, platforms' terms of service (ToS) are, for better or worse, the most transparent and comprehensive way of regulating transactions at the heart of remote labour. Thus, regulators should collaborate with platforms to improve their ToS, address loopholes and align the overall structure of work agreements for the benefit of all involved. This can be achieved only by including workers in such discussions. In the absence of a labour union, innovative methods will need to be deployed to gather feedback and input from workers. Platform operators could reach specific groups of workers, based on sector, nationality, social status and so on.

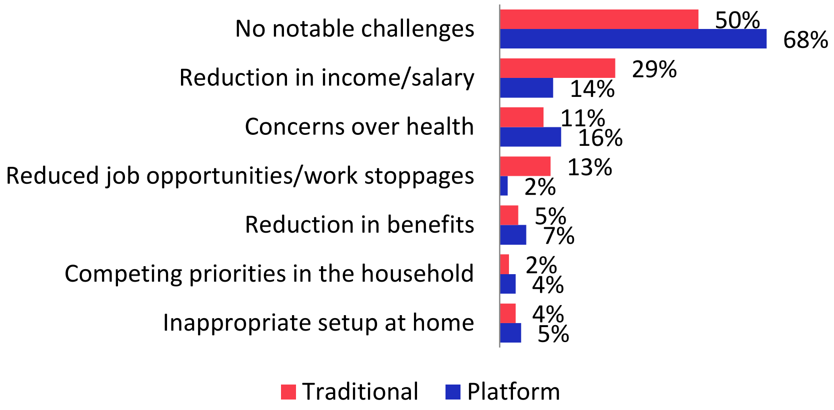
## Anti-cyclical nature of platform work

Because of its high reliance on foreign platform tasks in the two sectors, the platform economy is less dependent on domestic economic performance, as DLPs operate within a global market.[24] This is important for vulnerable populations, such as informal workers and refugees, who are often among the first to suffer from declines in domestic labour demand. Our data indicate that platform workers (68 per cent) were more likely than traditional workers (50 per cent) to report no challenges in their employment or reductions in income during the COVID-19 lockdowns (Figure 36). Notwithstanding the peculiarity of the pandemic and its global nature, it is highly probably that such impacts will be even more pronounced in any future economic crisis in Jordan.

Youth have much to gain from these platforms, as they often struggle in their transition from school to work because they lack experience, especially in a competitive labour market during periods of high unemployment. Platform tasks offer fresh graduates the opportunity to gain work experience and build up their skillset.

[24] Lehdonvirta, V., Kässi, O., Hjorth, I., Barnard, H. and Graham, M., "The Global Platform Economy: A New Offshoring Institution Enabling Emerging-Economy Microproviders. Journal of Management", 45(2) (2019), 567–599, https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/epub/10.1177/0149206318786781.

▶ **Figure 36. Employment challenges faced during COVID-19 lockdowns**




Even if the work on offer falls short of decent work provisions, platform work can provide a crucial lifeline for the most vulnerable populations, but this is contingent on digital literacy, financial inclusion and specific technical skills. Equally important is the provision of legal protection for these workers. Without such protection, the anti-cyclical nature of platforms could blow back as economic downturns force desperate workers to accept lower wages, further deepening their vulnerability. In other words, if the right safeguards are in place, platforms can allow workers to supply their labour globally when local demand for it is deficient or inacceptable. However, without those safeguards, those same dynamics could see platforms turn into a global marketplace of desperate workers who would, sooner or later, be forced to accept lower wages and worse conditions to compete with other equally desperate workers from another crisis-ridden countries around the world.

It is important to note that this anti-cyclical effect can only materialize in the case of local/regional downturns. However, even remote labour remains sensitive to large-scale economic shocks, as demonstrated by the impacts of COVID-19. Thus, a social security net should be available for platform workers in case of such an eventuality.

## The inclusionary potential of the platform economy

Control over one's working hours and amount of effort are major advantages for DLP workers. Ideally, workers are free of the rigidities of full-time employment, allowing them to optimize their time. Even those whose other activities do not allow them to commit to a "standard" working week can still generate an income, making platform work relevant for students and full-time workers seeking additional income.

Certain vulnerable groups may also benefit from flexible work arrangements. For example, women are often responsible for a wide array of household chores and childcare, limiting their ability to work fixed hours – generally a requirement for standard full-time employment. Women in Jordan are especially positioned to benefit from platform work as, despite their high educational attainment levels, they have very low labour force participation rates. Social customs related to household work are certainly partly responsible for this, as well as the insufficient number of high-quality full-time jobs. Platform work can help women who have, for one reason or another, decided to leave the labour market to retain some connection to it, maintain or grow their skills and generate an income.

Similarly, refugees are often burdened with care work or trapped in poorly paid informal work. DLPs could allow them to supplement their income and gain experience in new fields, without quitting their current employment or education, or moving to a new location. By splitting work into smaller chunks, the platform economy allows vulnerable workers to participate, with varying degrees of time commitment, depending on their circumstances. In so far as certain groups face discrimination in the labour market, the algorithmic non-human nature of platforms can help them overcome these obstacles through selecting workers on the basis of experience. This still falls short of providing decent work with social protection, but platform work may help alleviate the financial burden of discrimination. However, recent experiments show that significant obstacles remain in galvanizing interest in digital labour.[25]

[25] International Finance Corporation, *Lessons Learned on the Inclusion of Women in the Digital Economy in Jordan and Lebanon: Recommendations for Increasing Women's Participation*, 2022.

# Conclusion

Our results have shown that traditional workers in both the creative/multimedia and writing/translation sectors earn more than their platform-based counterparts. They are also older and more experienced. Platform workers, on the other hand, are more satisfied with their incomes, possess a wider array of skills and work fewer hours. However, platform workers in Jordan earn very low incomes, often less than one sixth of the minimum wage. Despite the lack of decent income, the high levels of satisfaction expressed by platform workers suggests that these workers do not expect platform work to provide them with financial stability.

Platform-based gig work in these sectors is usually short-term, requiring low-to-medium skills, and clients are mostly private-sector entities or NGOs located in Jordan, the United States, the United Arab Emirates or Saudi Arabia. Platform work often requires very specific skills, such as English-to-Arabic translation, drone operating with video, graphic design and so on.

In terms of labour policies concerning platform work, we believe our research highlights a major deficiency in the discussions around it. Public discourse often focuses on the potential of platform work as a primary vocation of participants. Our results show that this is not necessarily the motivation of workers. This is not to say that the "uberization" of work is not proliferating in a way that could completely replace traditional forms of work. Indeed, the efficiencies allowed by platform work, together with its lower labour costs, signal a significant shift taking place, which is likely to raise frictions between platform and more traditional forms of work as competition between workers grows. But as far as the workers themselves are concerned, their own expectations and motivations are different. Platform work is still largely confined to a small range of low-paying tasks that attract mainly young workers seeking additional income and professional experience. This is certainly the case in the two sectors studied here, but is likely the case for other sectors as well.

With this in mind, if legislative reforms are held back until equilibrium between traditional and platform-based work emerges, there is a real risk of missing the opportunities that platform work may offer during difficult economic periods. It will likely become more difficult to address structural issues if policymakers wait until platform work becomes embedded in the labour market. Instead, we suggest a two-pronged approach for policymakers and relevant stakeholders:

(1) Remain focused on tracking how the new paradigm is changing the forms and functions of labour market institutions, with a view of maintaining international labour standards and rights at work.

(2) Acknowledge that the expansion of platform work is a major driver in today's economy, and may offer short-term benefits without necessarily undermining the post-industrial employment relationship. Opportunities to put idle time (and idle assets) to use, gain experience and generate income are often lacking in developing economies, especially since the COVID-19 pandemic. Government or donor-funded cash-for-work programmes are widely used, but their financing does not match the actual needs of local populations. Platform work could help alleviate poverty, providing that deficiencies in accessibility are addressed.

For migrants, refugees and youth, the easy entry and exit from the platform economy could prove vital where pro-employment policies have consistently failed to provide sufficient decent work and training opportunities, and where legal obstacles and discrimination prevent even-handed competition between workers.

If policymakers are to acknowledge the potential of platform work, they must first address issues related to digital literacy, infrastructure and cybersecurity. They must actively engage with workers and local platform operators to address such shortcomings as those related to accessibility and dispute resolution.

In terms of data on platform work, we found that public sources were insufficient. Regardless of the shape and content of policy discussions, it is crucial that data on these new forms of work be collected in a systematic manner (e.g. through labour force surveys) to develop a clearer picture of the evolution of digital work and how policymakers, workers and employers should position themselves vis-à-vis the transformation to come.

# Annex: Mapping of digital labour platforms

A comprehensive mapping exercise identified all relevant DLPs operating in the Jordanian labour market, including local, regional and global platforms. A number of key parameters were used to guide the mapping exercise. The exercise covered both web-based platforms and location-based applications. Platforms included those within the translation and domestic/care service sectors, as well as all other relevant sectors, providing they allowed access to the Jordanian labour force. A total of 44 applications and platforms were identified.

Figure 37 andFigure 38 summarize the key characteristics of the mapped applications and platforms. A detailed list is contained in Table 3.

**Figure 37. No. of mapped platforms per sector**

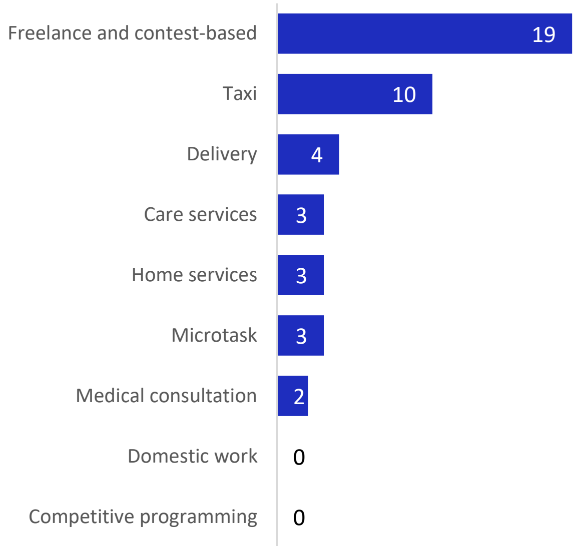
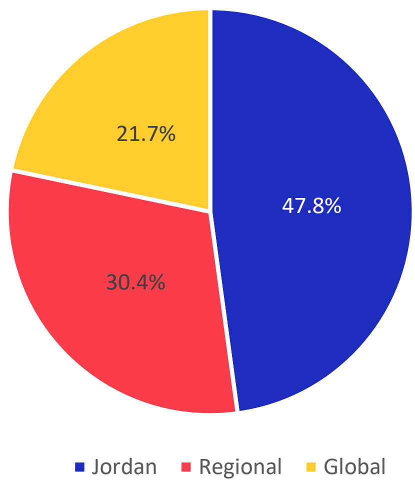



**Figure 38. Platforms by geographical location**



### ▶ Table 3. List of platforms identified

| Number | Platform name | Type | Sector | Description | Platform location | Mobile app | Web access | Notes |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | AlTibbi | Online web-based platform | Medical Consultation | Platform for teleconsultations | Jordan | Yes | Yes | |
| 2 | Attention Jordan | Online web-based platform | Microtask | Online marketing agency | Jordan | No | No | |
| 3 | B8ak | Location-based platform | Home services | House maintenance services | Regional | Yes | Yes | Services are coming soon to Jordan |
| 4 | Baeed | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Platform to hire expert remote workers | Regional | No | Yes | |
| 5 | Basket.JO | Location-based platform | Delivery | Platform to order groceries from local markets and have them delivered to user | Jordan | Yes | No | |
| 6 | Careem | Location-based platform | Taxi | Ridesharing platform | Regional | Yes | Yes | |
| 7 | Carers | Location-based platform | Care services | A family care marketplace dedicated to connecting households and caregivers based on their needs through the power of curating a wide range of caregivers, such as registered nurses, physiotherapists and childcare specialists/babysitters | Jordan | Yes | Yes | Last updated in June 2021 |
| 8 | Fiverr | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Freelance platform | Global | Yes | Yes | |
| 9 | Forlanso | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Freelance platform | Regional | No | Yes | |
| 10 | Freelancer | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Freelance platform | Global | Yes | Yes | |
| 11 | Guru | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Freelance platform | Global | Yes | Yes | |
| 12 | iKhedmah | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Freelance platform that includes a range of services from translation to web design and digital marketing | Regional | No | Yes | |
| 13 | Jeeny | Location-based platform | Taxi | Ridesharing platform | Jordan | Yes | Yes | |
| 14 | Kader | Online web-based platform | Microtask | Microtask platform for workers in the hospitality, retail and service sectors | Jordan | Yes | Yes | |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15 | Khadamat | Location-based platform | Home services | Platform that links users with technicians and service providers in technical services, mechanics, education, health | Jordan | Yes | Yes | |
| 16 | Khamsat | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Freelance platform | Regional | No | Yes | |
| 17 | Kwork | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Freelance platform | Global | Yes | Yes | |
| 18 | Mostaql (Jo) | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Large Arab world freelancing platform | Regional | No | Yes | |
| 19 | NAS ناس | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | App that provides jobs in the services sector by connecting registered companies with daily workers | Jordan | Yes | Yes | |
| 20 | Ostazii | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | App that connects school students to qualified teachers in their areas | Jordan | Yes | Yes | |
| 21 | PeoplePerHour | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Freelance platform | Global | Yes | Yes | |
| 22 | PetraRide | Location-based platform | Taxi | Ridesharing platform | Jordan | Yes | No | |
| 23 | Project Tarjim | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Translation website | Jordan | No | Yes | |
| 24 | Queen Car | Location-based platform | Taxi | Ridesharing platform | Jordan | Yes | Yes | |
| 25 | Rayyan Road | Location-based platform | Taxi | Ridesharing platform | Jordan | Yes | Yes | Last updated in Oct. 2021 |
| 26 | sabag | Location-based platform | Delivery | Food ordering and delivery app that hires drivers and partners with restaurants | Jordan | Yes | Yes | |
| 27 | Sawaaid | Location-based platform | Care services | App that connects healthcare seekers with providers | Jordan | Yes | Yes | |
| 28 | Swvl | Location-based platform | Taxi | Ridesharing platform | Global | Yes | Yes | |
| 29 | TadreesJo | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Website where university students or ex-students teach the subjects they excel at to other students | Jordan | No | Yes | |
| 30 | Tadressapp | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Website where university students or ex-students teach the subjects they excel at to other students | Regional | Yes | Yes | |
| 31 | Talabat | Location-based platform | Delivery | Food and grocery delivery app | Regional | Yes | Yes | |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 32 | Tarjama | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Translation platform | Regional | No | Yes | |
| 33 | TasmeemME | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Online network dedicated to promoting and empowering Arab creative talent by listing creative work | Regional | No | Yes | |
| 34 | TaxiF | Location-based platform | Taxi | Global ridesharing platform | Global | Yes | Yes | |
| 35 | TebCan | Online web-based platform | Medical Consultation | Teleconsultation platform | Regional | Yes | Yes | |
| 36 | Uber | Location-based platform | Taxi | Worldwide taxi services app | Global | Yes | Yes | |
| 37 | Upwork | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | Global platform for freelance work | Global | Yes | Yes | |
| 38 | Ureed | Online web-based platform | Freelance and contest-based | MENA platform connecting businesses to professional freelancers | Regional | Yes | Yes | |
| 39 | Utrac | Location-based platform | Delivery | Jordanian delivery services platform | Jordan | Yes | Yes | |
| 40 | WeCare | Location-based platform | Care services | Platform that connects healthcare seekers with providers | Jordan | Yes | Yes | Last updated in Jan. 2021 |
| 41 | WNGO | Location-based platform | Taxi | Ridesharing platform | Jordan | Yes | No | Last updated in Nov. 2021 |
| 42 | Zain Car | Location-based platform | Taxi | Ridesharing platform | Jordan | Yes | Yes | |
| 43 | المؤثر | Online web-based platform | Microtask | A platform that connects social media influencers with marketing campaigns | Regional | Yes | Yes | |
| 44 | هاوس كبير | Location-based platform | Home services | Microtask platform for housekeeping services | Jordan | Yes | No | |

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