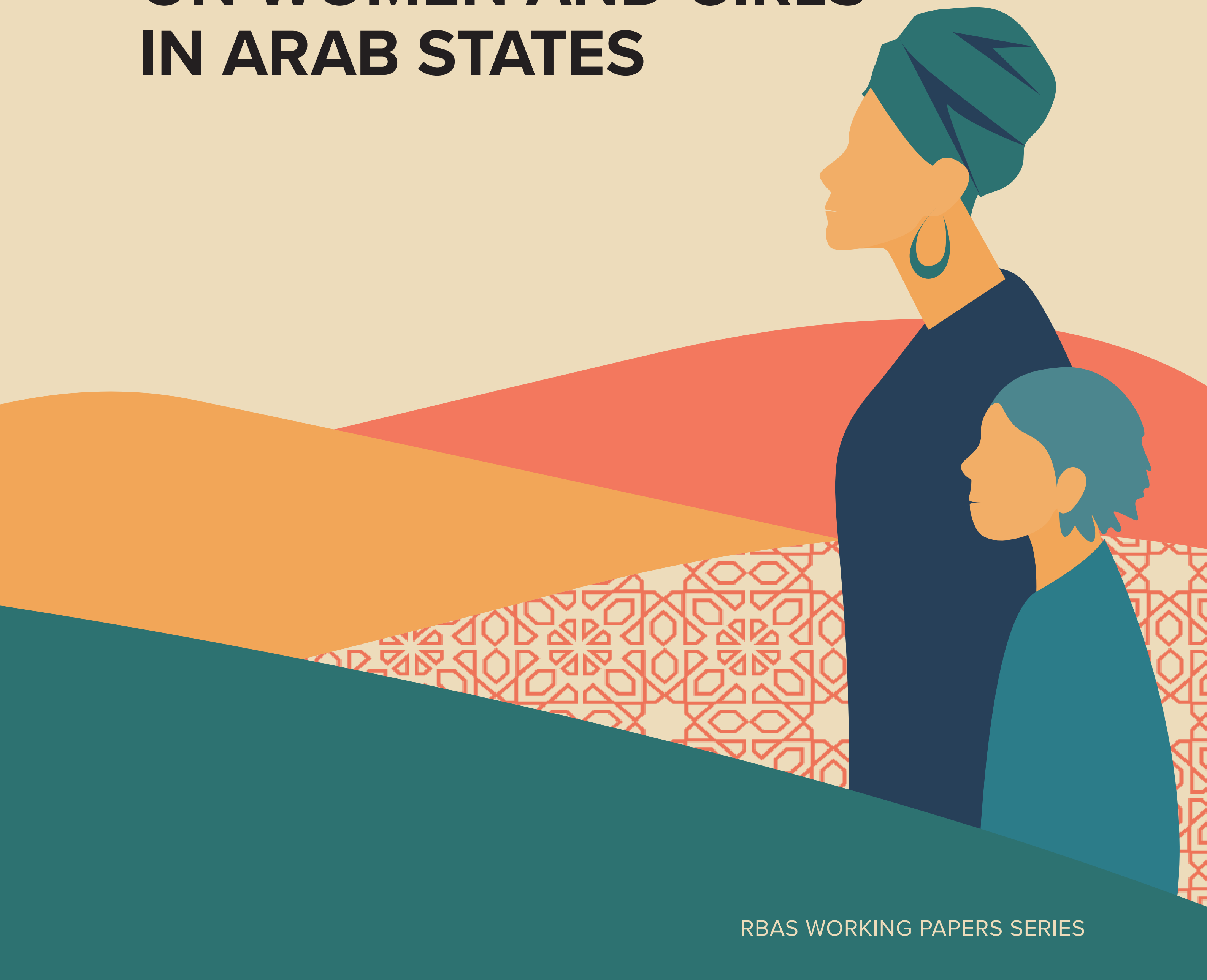
United Nations Development Programme

The socio-economic impact of COVID-19
in the Arab region:

ASSESSING THE POTENTIAL IMPACT OF COVID-19 ON WOMEN AND GIRLS IN ARAB STATES



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1. Introduction

COVID-19, which was declared a pandemic by the World Health Organization (WHO) in March 2020, has unleashed a global health crisis and unprecedented economic disruption. The downturn in the oil and commodities market in Arab States has compounded the effect of the crisis, leading to potentially acute economic and social consequences. In 2020, the Arab region's economies contracted by about 4.2 percent, while that of fragile and crisis countries are estimated to have contracted by about 12.4 percent, compared with -5 percent and 0.8 percent in oil-exporting and oil-importing middle-income countries, respectively (International Monetary Fund [IMF], 2021a; IMF, 2021b).[1] The Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) lost around $150 billion in oil exports in 2020 compared with 2019, and the Arab Monetary Fund's (AMF) composite index—which measures the performance of Arab capital markets—witnessed a significant decline by 19.1 percent during Q1 of 2020, compared with the previous quarter, picking up by 17.9 percent during Q1 of 2021, in line with the relatively improved international financial conditions (IMF, 2020b; AMF, Arab Capital Markets Quarterly Bulletins). While the region's expected economic recovery is estimated to be, on average, around 4.3 percent in 2021 (IMF, 2021b), it is still slower than the average projected growth for the world (6 percent) and emerging market economies (6.7 percent) (IMF, 2021a). This shock is further exacerbating vulnerabilities in fragile and crisis countries and of a significant number of displaced, refugee and migrant populations. The limited resources and poor infrastructure in these countries are curtailing the effectiveness of the COVID-19 response, further deepening pre-existing fragilities.

The COVID-19 pandemic is expected to have a significant impact on the progress of Arab States towards the achievement of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), including SDG 5, which aims to "Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls" (See Box 1; United Nations, 2020d). As countries are

1 According to the classification depicted in Table 1, sub-regional groups' growth rates are calculated based on IMF's April 2021 estimates (World Economic Outlook update of April 2021).

containing the pandemic and addressing its economic repercussions, some groups, including women and girls, are affected disproportionately due to pre-existing inequalities, social norms and unequal power relations (de Paz and others, 2020; Rivera and others, 2020).

Box 1. Sustainable Development Goal 5 – "Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls"

In 2015, the United Nations adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, including 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). SDG 5 aims to "Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls." The United Nations defined 9 targets and 14 indicators for this SDG to provide women with equal access to education, health care, leadership positions and decent work. There are a further 36 targets and 54 indicators concerned with gender equality across the other SDGs.

Available evidence suggests that the COVID-19 pandemic is exacerbating women's disadvantaged position in multiple domains, including health and care, economic participation, gender-based violence (GBV) and access to public services.

The main objective of this study is to understand the impacts of the pandemic on women and girls across the Arab region and provide recommendations to be implemented both in response to the crisis in the medium and long term.

1.1 Methodology and approach

This study is primarily based on an analytical interpretation of secondary data on women and girls in Arab States. A desk review of reports and official documents at both the regional and national levels was conducted to provide a wide interpretation of the topic. Additionally, an analysis of secondary data was conducted based on official statistics from national authorities and publicly available data sets published by international organizations, or national surveys. The data sources used are listed in annex I. The analysis is disaggregated by different variables depending on data availability, by country, and according to the subregional groups of countries where applicable (see Table 1).

Table 1. Subregional groups of countries included in the study

Oil-exporting countries	Developing oil-importing middle-income countries	Fragile and crisis countries
Algeria	Djibouti	Iraq
Bahrain	Egypt	Lebanon
Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA)	Jordan	Libya
Kuwait	Morocco	State of Palestine
Oman	Tunisia	Somalia
Qatar		Sudan
United Arab Emirates		Syria
		Yemen

1.2 Structure of the study

This study consists of five sections. The first is this introductory section. The second section gives a general overview of gender disparities in Arab States. The third section includes a theoretical discussion of potential channels by which the shock is transmitted to identify various ways in which the crisis could have affected women and girls in Arab States. The fourth section assesses the actual and expected effects of the crisis on women and girls and presents some of the responses implemented by governments in the region to alleviate impacts of the pandemic on to women and girls. Finally, the fifth section, summarizes the findings and presents suggested policy recommendations to ensure that women and girls are at the centre of recovery strategies.

2. Overview: Gender disparities in Arab States before the shock

This section discusses the overall status of women in the Arab States prior to the pandemic. It reveals significant pre-existing gender inequalities in the region that make women and girls more vulnerable to the crisis than men. It also highlights specific groups of women who experience multiple vulnerabilities that place them at higher risk.

The Gender Development Index (GDI) constructed by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) reports gender disparities between women and men in the Human Development Index (HDI) according to its three pillars: long and healthy life (measured by life expectancy at birth), knowledge (measured by years of schooling) and decent living standards (measured by gross national income per capita). Men in the Arab region have a slightly lower level of human development compared to men globally (0.743 for men in Arab States compared with 0.757 globally), while women in the region fare worse than women globally (0.636 for women in Arab States compared with 0.714 globally). Women and girls in the region have a lower level of human development than men in most countries, making them more vulnerable when crises strike in terms of their health, education and standard of living. The exceptions are Kuwait and Qatar, where there is higher parity. As expected, women in fragile and crisis countries such as Iraq, Syria and Yemen are hugely disadvantaged compared with men (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Human Development Index (HDI) in Arab States by sex, 2019

Source: United Nations Development Programme (2020c).

Note: HDI ranges from 0 (low human development) to 1 (high human development).

The Global Gender Gap Index from the World Economic Forum measures gender disparities in four main dimensions: economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival, and political empowerment. According to the Global Gender Gap Report 2020, the Arab region[2] ranks last out of all regions of the world. The region's best-performing countries in 2020 were the United Arab Emirates (0.655), Kuwait (0.650) and Tunisia (0.644), whereas the weakest included Syria (0.567), Iraq (0.530) and Yemen (0.494) (World Economic Forum, 2020)[3]

Specific groups of women and girls in the region are further disadvantaged than the average and are thus more vulnerable to the crisis. In the context of the fragility that characterizes the region, especially in fragile and crisis countries and those hosting large numbers of refugees, displaced and refugee women face compounded vulnerabilities. Refugees of Syrian origin are the largest refugee population in the world (more than 6.6 million refugees in 2019, 46 percent of whom are women), with more than 6 million internally displaced people (IDPs) 50 percent of whom are women. In Yemen, 3.6 million people (51 percent of whom are women) have fled their homes due to the conflict, and the country hosts 283,000 refugees from other nationalities. In Sudan, women account for around 5 percent of IDPs and 55 percent of refugees (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees [UNHCR], 2020). Female refugees often suffer from high rates of GBV, including early marriage, due to insecurity and poverty, low access to health services and work opportunities. Syrian refugee women and girls have less access to resources, services and opportunities, as well as higher exposure to violence and exploitation. Studies show that among respondents, roughly a quarter (22 percent) of Syrian refugees in Lebanon have access to violence against women (VAW) support services when needed (UN-Women, 2019) and that 79 percent of them are unable to meet their basic needs. In Iraq, 82 percent report economic insecurity as their primary concern (UN-Women, 2018). Negative coping mechanisms are also widespread, with 29 percent of Syrian refugee girls aged 15-19 in Lebanon being married (UNICEF and others, 2018).

Women and girls in situations of poverty or near poverty are another group that could have been disproportionately affected by the crisis. The poor and especially the extreme poor often rely on their daily earnings for survival and cannot afford to stay home due to lockdowns. Female-headed households in situations of poverty who are single

2 The regional classification used includes the countries covered in this report in addition to Mauritania, Iran, Israel and Turkey and excluding Libya, the State of Palestine and Sudan.

3 Scores range from 0 (disparity) to 1 (parity).

earners could have lost their livelihoods due to lockdowns and the increased burden of unpaid care responsibilities. However, there are not enough data about the incidence of poverty among women in the region. Some pre-COVID-19 studies on monetary poverty by sex of head of household reported mixed results. For instance, Ramadan, Hlasny and Intini (2018) found that total expenditure per capita is higher among female-headed households in Egypt, Jordan and Somalia, while in Iraq, there is no significant difference between female-headed households and male-headed households. In another study focusing on Egypt, AlAzzawi (2018) found that results vary by household composition and marital status, concluding that there is a higher level of poverty (measured by per capita expenditure) among female-headed households in urban areas, especially households with divorced female heads, compared with their male-headed counterparts (AlAzzawi, 2015; AlAzzawi, 2018). However, poverty in the region in general was on the rise before the pandemic, especially due to the conflicts in Syria and Yemen and women in poverty were already at a double disadvantage. It is critical to improve data and analysis on poverty among women and girls and female-headed households, particularly in order to monitor and respond to the impact of COVID-19.

Gender has been identified as an aggravating factor for vulnerability among people with disabilities. According to the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA, 2018), the prevalence of women with disabilities ranges from 1.6 percent in Egypt to 5.1 percent in Morocco, but stigma and under-reporting means that real figures are expected to be higher. People with disabilities were already at a disadvantage prior to the crisis, and have less access to health services, education and employment opportunities, especially women and particularly in rural areas.

Migrant workers are another vulnerable group in the region who have no access to social protection. About one fifth of migrant workers in the region are women and 60.7 percent of them are domestic workers concentrated in Gulf countries, Jordan and Lebanon (ILO, 2015). Domestic work is generally characterized by low pay, bad working conditions, lack of protection and exposure to violence, including sexual and gender-based violence and exploitation. The fact that the workplace is the household makes it more difficult for governments to regulate this work, as it requires inspectors to enter the private space, and more difficult for workers to access recourse or justice, especially in the case of migrants or refugees.

In addition to the above groups, the experiences of women differ across socio-economic groups, age groups and educational levels potentially leading to different outcomes of the crisis.

3. Impact channels: How the shock affects women and girls

The shock of the COVID-19 pandemic is expected to have affected women and girls in Arab States through multiple channels (see Figure 2). This section provides a theoretical discussion of the potential channels by which the shock may have been transmitted. The study covers four main pillars, namely the digital divide and financial exclusion, access to services, GBV and economic participation and livelihoods.

The first pillar focuses on the digital divide and financial exclusion. The gender digital divide adversely affects women and girls' ability to benefit from online opportunities to learn, work, access services or receive financial assistance during the crisis. Furthermore, unequal access to finance affects women's saving and borrowing capacity, potentially reducing their resilience to shocks.

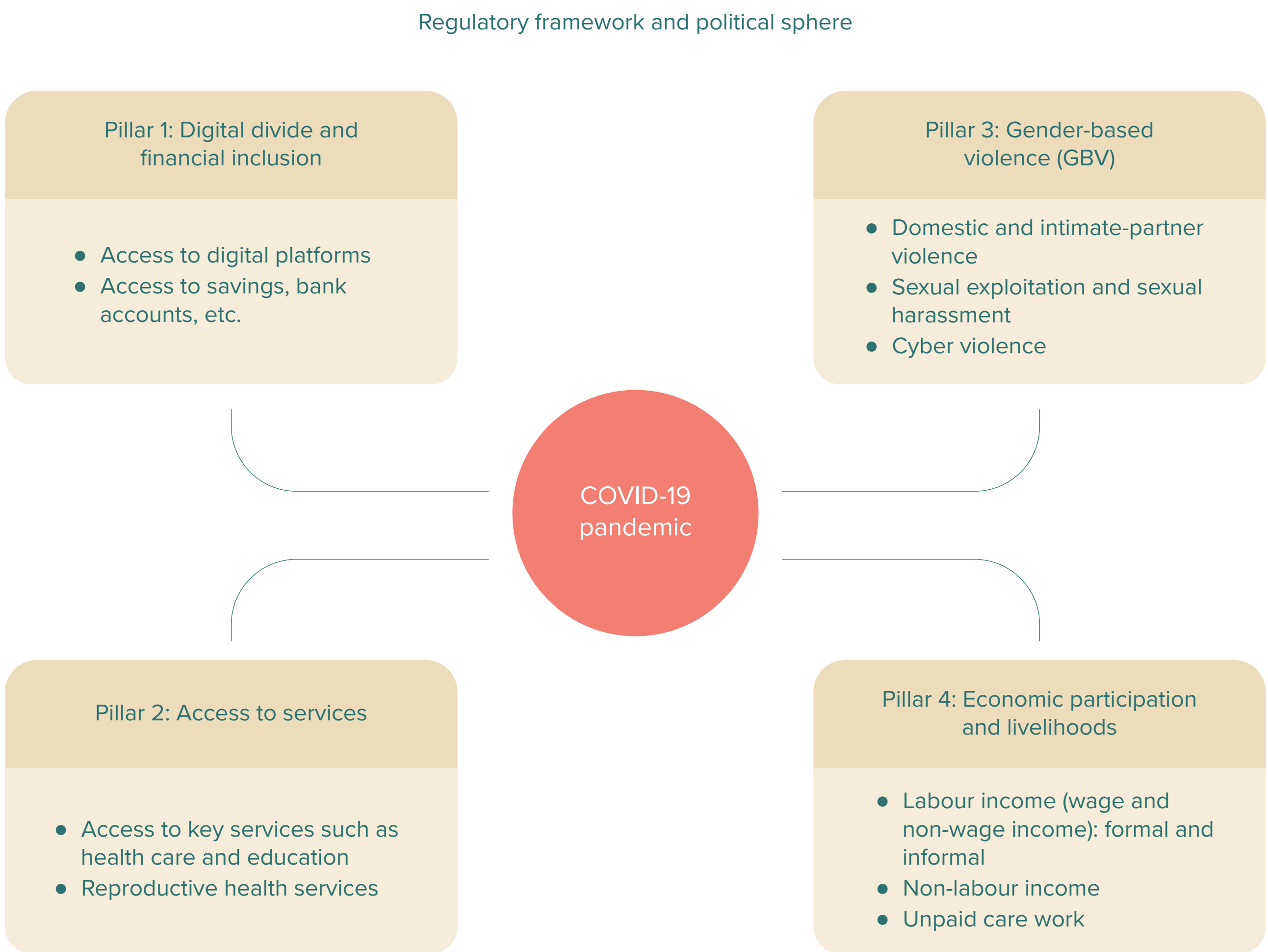
The second pillar discusses access to services, including access to health and education. Reallocation of resources to other pandemic-related areas affects the availability of reproductive and sexual health services for women, and evidence from similar crises indicates that maternal mortality rates increase during times of crisis. In terms of education, girls are more likely than boys to drop out of school permanently due to school closures. This was the case during the Ebola outbreak in 2014–2016, in which many girls left school to assume care responsibilities on behalf of their infected mothers (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2020).

The third pillar presents the transmission channel related to GBV. GBV tends to increase during pandemics, economic and social stresses, lockdowns and restrictions of movement (United Nations, 2020c). Women and girls isolated with their potential abusers are less able to seek help or receive assistance given their limited mobility and the potential disruption of services. Furthermore, many health care facilities prioritize pandemic-related services, thus reducing access to shelters for domestic violence survivors.

The fourth pillar concerns the impact channel of “economic participation and livelihoods”. The effects of the pandemic adversely impact various groups of working women, with those who undertake informal jobs with no basic social protection or employment benefits especially at risk of losing their livelihoods due to containment measures and lockdowns. Women working in highly affected sectors, such as services including hospitality and tourism, are also at risk of job losses due to impacts to the sector. Self-employed women and women-led micro, small and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs) also experience challenges, especially if they have limited access to financial services and technology. Female migrant workers, especially domestic workers, face additional risks such as job losses, longer working hours, employers’ reduction or withholding of wages and GBV, in addition to impairment of their ability to support their families in countries of origin due to travel restrictions. The gender wage gap may lead to lower ability among women to access services or purchase supplies necessary to engage in prevention measures related to the pandemic.

Furthermore, unpaid care responsibilities increased with this crisis due to the following: increased school closures and the shift of the provision of children’s educational support to women; the strain on health services leading to higher care needs for children or elderly persons who are sick, disabled or at higher risk of infection and the decline of supply of previously available care services and social networks. Consequently, the existing disproportionate care responsibilities have fallen even more heavily on women and girls in the region. The resulting increase of the care burden during the crisis has substantially affected women’s participation in the labour force, which was already remarkably low in the region.

Figure 2. Transmission mechanisms of the shock among girls and women



Source: constructed by author.

4. Assessing the potential impact of the shock on women and girls in Arab States

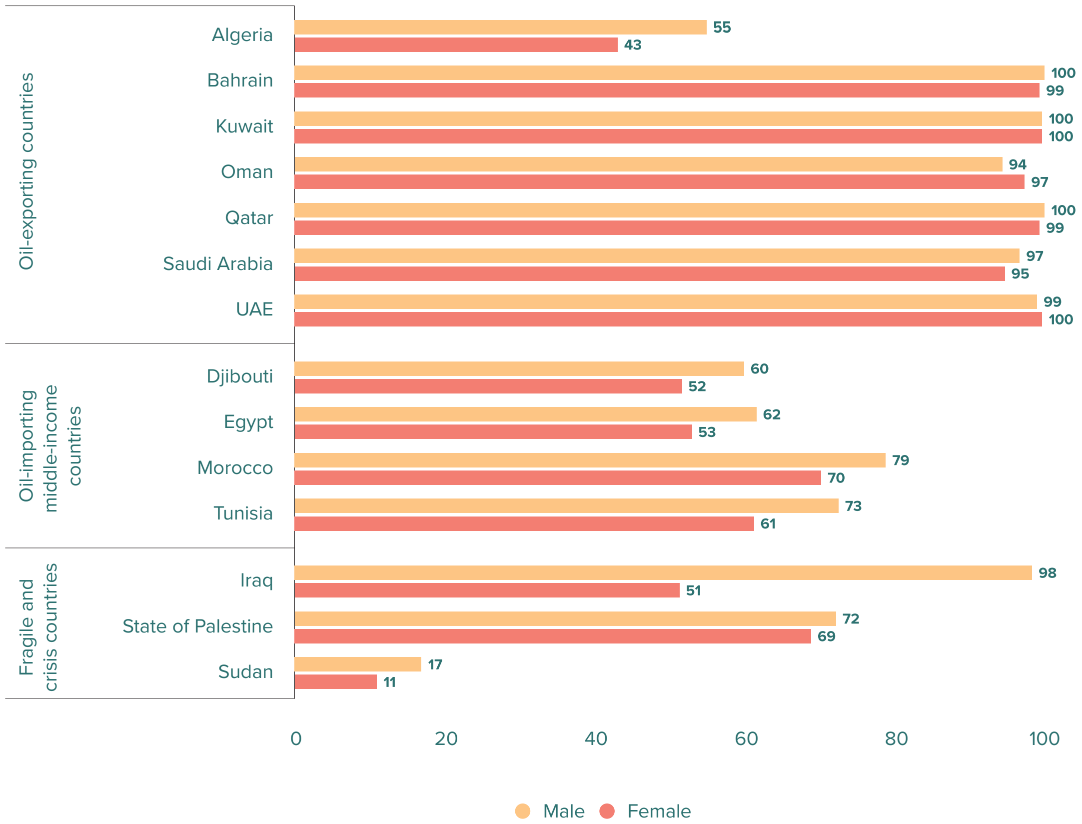
Understanding the potential gender-differentiated impacts of the crisis by analysing timely gender-disaggregated data is fundamental to designing policies that reduce women's vulnerabilities and strengthen their agency. This section presents an analysis of data addressing the pillars set out in the third section. It provides an overview of the gender gap in relation to each pillar and discusses the actual or potential impact that the crisis is expected to have based on data availability. Different indicators are presented based on availability of recent and comparable data.

4.1 Pillar 1: Digital divide and financial exclusion

Individuals and households in the Arab region were using information and communications technologies (ICT) to cope with the shock and the consequences of the lockdowns for purposes such as working from home, accessing education, accessing information on the pandemic and prevention measures, and placing orders online for essential items. In 2018, around 51 to 54 percent of households in the region had computer and Internet access, which exceeds the average in Africa (10 percent and 17 percent, respectively) and Asia (42 percent and 48 percent, respectively). Nevertheless, the regional average of computer ownership and Internet access is below Europe (78 percent and 84 percent, respectively) and the Americas (65 percent and 69 percent, respectively; International Telecommunications Union [ITU], 2020).

A closer look at individual Internet usage reveals a gender gap in the Arab region. There is high Internet penetration in oil-exporting countries, with almost universal usage among males and females, except in Algeria (see Figure 3). Among oil-importing middle-income countries, Egypt has the largest gender gap (52 percent are male users, compared with 41 percent for female users). In fragile and crisis countries, there is a large gender gap in Iraq, where male users reach 98 percent while female users are around 51 percent.

Figure 3. Internet users by sex (%), 2016–2019



Source: ITU World Telecommunication/ICT Indicators Database.

Similar to Internet access, mobile access provides critical information on the pandemic and service provision. Research has found that mobile ownership increases feelings of safety among women, provides access to information and supports them in work and study (Rowntree, 2019). The SDGs pointed to the importance of addressing the mobile gender gap to achieve the goals and ensure that gender inequalities are not exacerbated. In fact, SDG indicator 5.B.1 relates to the proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex.

Despite the importance of closing the gender gap in mobile ownership, progress in the region remains slow. Among oil-importing middle-income countries, Egypt has the biggest gender gap in mobile ownership, followed by Morocco, while the State of Palestine has the biggest gap among fragile and crisis countries (see Figure 4) (Demirgüç-Kunt and others, 2018). However, a high level of parity has been achieved in oil-exporting countries, including oil-exporting fragile and crisis countries. Countries such as Bahrain, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates have achieved universal mobile ownership for men and women, as have Iraq and Libya. However, women in Algeria are eight percentage points less likely than men to own a mobile phone (Rowntree, 2019).

Figure 4. Mobile ownership by sex (aged 15+)

Source: Based on Global Findex Database (2017).

A recent analysis of socio-economic characteristics of male and female mobile owners included education, age and income group (see Table 2 for data on the selected countries). The analysis indicates that the gender gap in mobile ownership declines as educational level increases, highlighting the relationship between education and digital skills. These results are in line with a survey conducted in Algeria in which women mentioned literacy and skills (e.g. not knowing how to use a mobile; reading/writing difficulties) as the top barriers to owning a mobile phone, followed by rejection by family members (Rowntree, 2019).

As expected, there is a negative correlation between mobile ownership and age. As for income groups, the relationship varies across countries. For example, in Algeria, the gender gap in mobile ownership decreases as income level increases, reaching parity among the richest 40 percent. However, although the gender gap also declines as income increases in Egypt, a remarkable gap persists even among the richest 20 percent.

While it is worth noting that a significant proportion of the population in oil-importing middle-income countries and fragile and crisis countries do not use the Internet, women are disadvantaged across the board in these countries. Older, less educated women with lower incomes in particular are most at risk of being excluded from any opportunities and solutions offered by digital technology during the pandemic. Mobile phone ownership in the same countries is better, but a gender gap exists in all countries except for Iraq and Libya. Achieving universal Internet use through mobile phones seems possible assuming that these services are offered affordably and digital literacy gaps are met. Oil-exporting Gulf countries offer an optimistic picture, with most boasting almost universal Internet use and mobile ownership among men and women.

Table 2. Socio-economic characteristics of mobile owners by sex aged 15+ (%)

			Male	Female
Algeria	Education	Completed primary or less	88	79
		Secondary	94	86
		Completed tertiary or more	92	98
	Age group	15 to 24	95	85
		25 to 39	92	83
		40 to 64	86	78
		65+	72	68
	Income group	Poorest 20 percent	90	72
		Second 20 percent	92	81
		Middle 20 percent	93	83
		Fourth 20 percent	89	89
		Richest 20 percent	88	87
Egypt	Education	Completed primary or less	81	61
		Secondary	96	75
		Completed tertiary or more	98	90
	Age group	15 to 24	93	65
		25 to 39	95	78
		40 to 64	90	67
		65+	75	71
	Income group	Poorest 20 percent	91	54
		Second 20 percent	87	68
		Middle 20 percent	90	76
		Fourth 20 percent	94	78
		Richest 20 percent	96	81
Lebanon	Education	Completed primary or less	90	80
		Secondary	95	92
		Completed tertiary or more	100	98
	Age group	15 to 24	93	100
		25 to 39	100	98
		40 to 64	95	89
		65+	61	42
	Income group	Poorest 20 percent	88	89
		Second 20 percent	97	95
		Middle 20 percent	96	89
		Fourth 20 percent	93	87
		Richest 20 percent	94	88

Source: Global Findex Database (2017).

Note: Global Findex data are drawn from nationally representative survey data covering almost 150,000 randomly selected individuals in 144 economies, representing more than 97 percent of the world's population.

With regards to financial inclusion, the report looks at access to formal financial accounts, savings and credit as indicators. While it should be recognized that there are alternative saving and borrowing systems such as microfinance organizations, cooperatives and mutual aid organizations, there is no available representative data.

In terms of access to formal financial accounts, women have lower access than men in all the countries of the study where data is available. Compared to regional averages, women in oil-exporting countries have higher access to formal financial accounts, except for Algeria, which is 10 percentage points below the regional average.

Nevertheless, Morocco (41 percent male owners compared with 17 percent female owners) and Jordan (56 percent male owners compared with 27 percent of female owners) have a noticeable gender gap. Regarding fragile and crisis countries, women in Iraq and the State of Palestine have the lowest percentages of financial account ownership in the region (see Figure 5).

Figure 5. Access to formal financial accounts, by sex

Source: Based on Global Findex Database (2017).

Correlations between the gender gap and education level and wealth were conducted in three countries: Algeria, Egypt and Lebanon. In these three countries, the gender gap in account ownership is negatively correlated with education level, but positively correlated with age in both Algeria and Lebanon. Egypt has a noticeable gap between young men and women aged 15 to 24 years, with 19 percent of young men in this age group owning an account compared with 9 percent of young women. On a positive note, a slightly higher percentage of the poorest 20 percent of women in Egypt own an account at a financial institution (22 percent) compared with 19 percent of the poorest 20 percent of men, which could indicate some progress in financial inclusion of poor women (see Table 3 for data on the selected countries).

Table 3. Socio-economic characteristics of account owners aged 15+, by sex (%)

			Male	Female
Algeria	Education	Completed primary or less	53	27
		Secondary	57	27
		Completed tertiary or more	90	83
	Age group	15 to 24	33	24
		25 to 39	71	34
		40 to 64	63	30
		65+	71	22
	Income group	Poorest 20 percent	45	16
		Second 20 percent	61	23
		Middle 20 percent	62	40
		Fourth 20 percent	49	37
		Richest 20 percent	63	32
Egypt	Education	Completed primary or less	35	29
		Secondary	33	23
		Completed tertiary or more	60	43
	Age group	15 to 24	15	9
		25 to 39	26	25
		40 to 64	55	39
		65+	93	65
	Income group	Poorest 20 percent	19	22
		Second 20 percent	25	15
		Middle 20 percent	40	27
		Fourth 20 percent	46	30
		Richest 20 percent	50	45
Lebanon	Education	Completed primary or less	43	16
		Secondary	59	30
		Completed tertiary or more	94	79
	Age group	15 to 24	33	18
		25 to 39	62	36
		40 to 64	69	41
		65+	44	25
	Income group	Poorest 20 percent	30	15
		Second 20 percent	54	24
		Middle 20 percent	63	27
		Fourth 20 percent	60	46
		Richest 20 percent	74	57

Source: Based on Global Findex Database (2017).

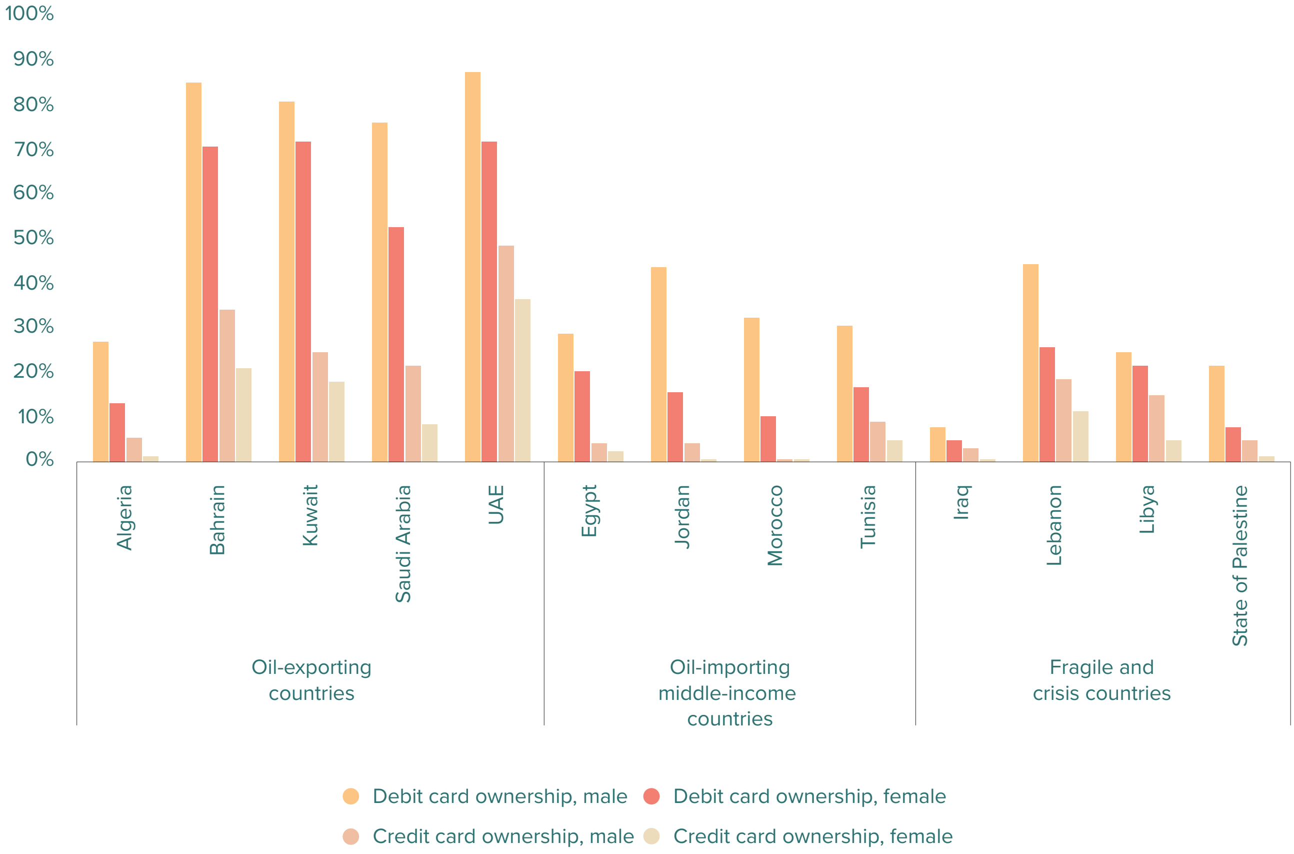
Regarding access to credit and savings, the data show that the percentages of both men and women who borrow are lower than those of men and women who save in all the countries where data is available, with the exception of men and women in Jordan and Iraq, and women in Egypt. Women in all countries save and borrow less than men and the gap in saving is larger than that of borrowing in all countries, except for Bahrain where it is equal, and Saudi Arabia and the State of Palestine where the gap in borrowing is slightly larger (see Figure 6).

Figure 6. Saving and borrowing from financial institutions by sex, aged 15+

Source: Based on Global Findex Database (2017).

The fact that women have less access than men to formal savings and borrowing mechanisms indicates their lower resilience in times of crisis notwithstanding that factors of age, education and income affect levels of access. Debit and credit cards provide account owners with a convenient means of making payments without cash withdrawal or a bank teller, which is safer during a pandemic and easier to access during lockdowns. Their ownership in Arab States is shown in Figure 7, revealing a large gender gap in all countries, as well as greater use of debit cards than credit cards, which is an indicator of diminished access to credit.

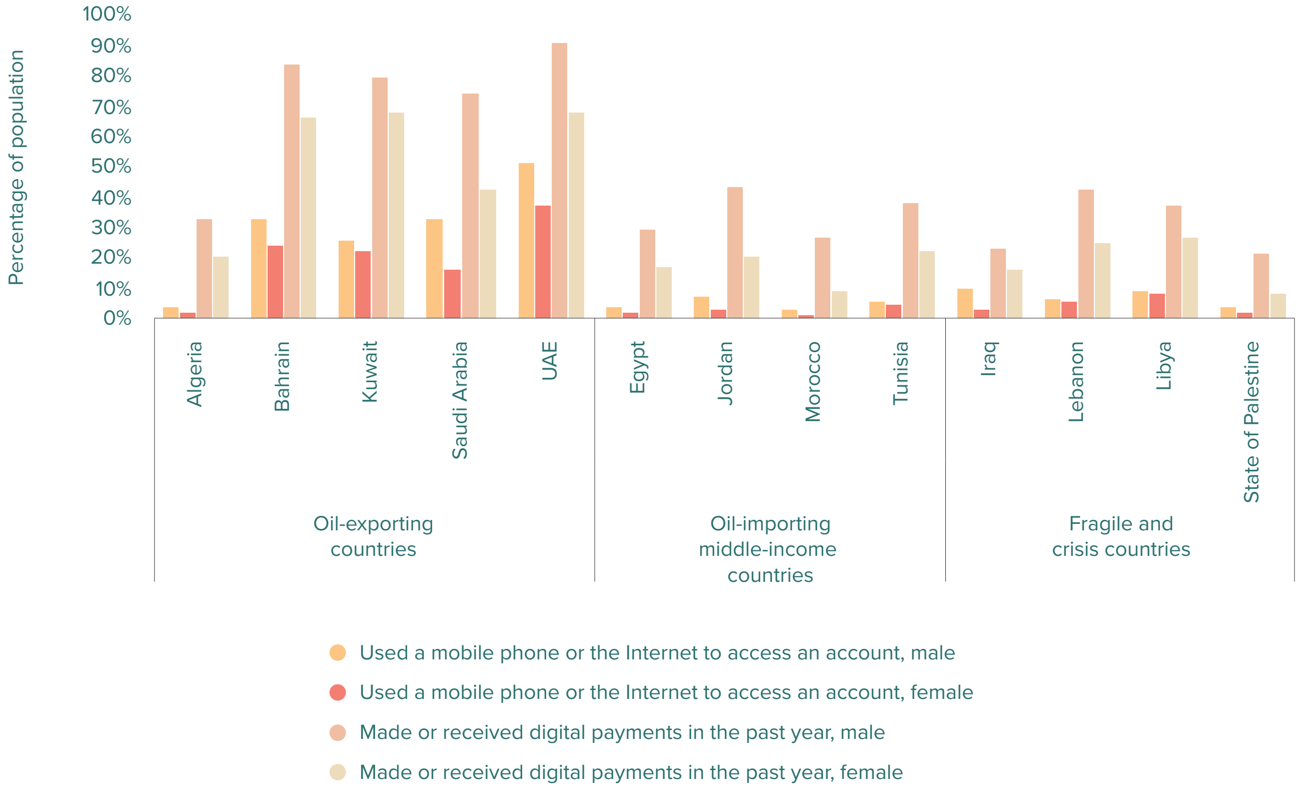
Figure 7. Debit and credit card ownership by sex, aged 15+



Source: Based on Global Findex Database (2017).

Mobile phones or the Internet offer an alternative to debit and credit cards for accessing an account. However, as expected, the highest percentages for using this method are found in oil-exporting Gulf countries but all are below 50 percent with a gender gap (see Figure 8). Access and the gender gap are minimal in all other countries. Higher percentages are noted concerning digital payments across all countries, with oil-exporting Gulf countries leading. The gender gap is universally significant, ranging from 8 to 33 percentage points.

Figure 8. Digital access to accounts and payments by sex, aged 15+



Source: Based on Global Findex Database (2017).

The COVID-19 response has underscored the significance of access to digital technology, mobile phones and digital finance for the poor and those vulnerable during the crisis so that they can access any assistance offered through these means. Several countries are leveraging digital payments and mobile money platforms to deliver emergency cash assistance safely and efficiently. Egypt introduced a payment scheme for informal workers who were affected by the dual shock, with the government giving accepted beneficiaries via SMS a time and location to collect their issued ATM cards (Gentilini and others, 2020b; OECD, 2020). Similarly, Tunisia, Morocco and Jordan (including Syrian refugee camps) used online platforms and mobile applications during lockdowns to register and enrol informal workers and new applicants to their social assistance programmes (Gentilini and others, 2020b; OECD, 2020). The gender gap in access to digital technology means that fewer women than men in these groups can directly benefit from such assistance. Unless intentional action is taken to ensure that these populations have access, assistance intended for them risks not reaching them, especially women.

Besides social assistance, digital technology was a main source of both formal school and university learning and information about the pandemic, and lack of access means that these groups are deprived. Data on household Internet access and use is more useful than individual data for assessing the impact on children's access to education. A recent rapid assessment in Jordan conducted during the crisis indicated that 23 percent of respondents did not have Internet access at home. However, this figure increased to 35 percent among female-headed households. Additionally, only 41 percent of female-headed households reported that their children had access to online learning, compared with 56 percent of male-headed households (OECD, 2020). Similar data is needed to assess all countries, but given the overall gender gap in Internet use, children of female-headed households are expected to be at higher risk of exclusion from education. In terms of access to information about the pandemic, in Libya, the most popular source for news about the pandemic was social media, with a rapid assessment revealing that more than 57 percent of women received information from Facebook (UN-Women, 2020a). However, given access figures in Libya, many women were excluded from the assessment.

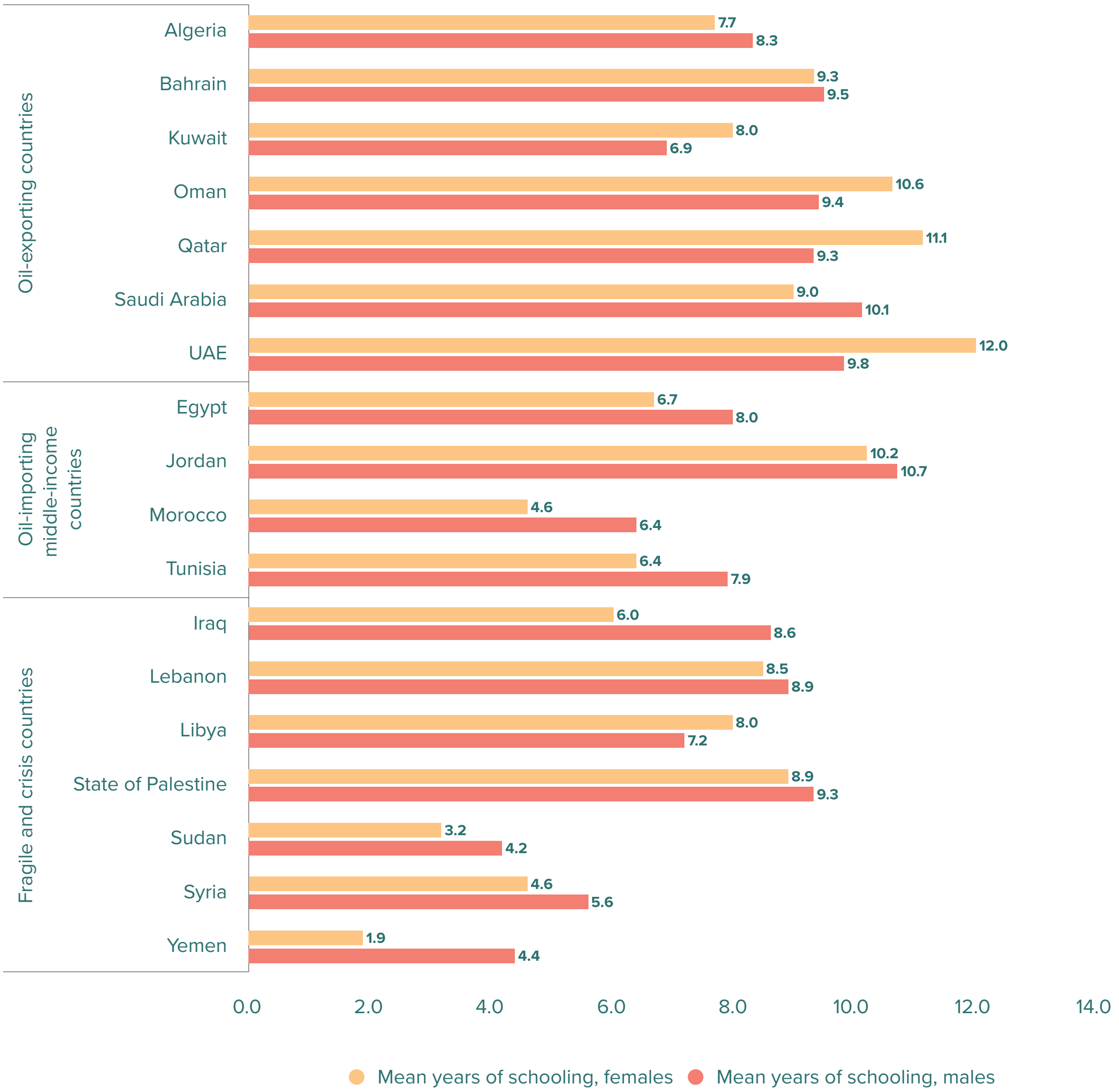
Furthermore, access to digital services has become critical for migrants and refugees, including women, for sending remittances to their home countries during lockdowns. The Central Bank in Jordan activated online remittance services for the first time during March 2020 so that migrants and refugees (even those without a bank account) could send money to their home countries (Win and Barkawi, 2020). While there is no specific data about women migrant workers' access to digital technology, it can be deduced that those without access could not benefit from this service.

4.2 Pillar 2: Access to services

The COVID-19 crisis forced governments in Arab States to close educational institutions to reduce public risk of infection. According to enrolment figures compiled by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Institute for Statistics, the education of around 39 million girls and 41 million boys in the region has been disrupted by school and university closures. Consequently, it is highly likely that regional progress towards SDG 4 on education will be hindered. Girls, who achieve lower years of schooling than boys, are more likely to be affected, particularly in fragile and crisis countries that were already disadvantaged prior to the crisis, and particularly among refugees. The mean years of schooling among girls in Arab States is around 6.5 years, compared with a global average of 8.1 years (UNDP, 2020c). There is clear variation among countries in terms of girls' and boys' schooling (see Figure 9). For instance, the average for girls' schooling in Bahrain, Jordan, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates is 10 years or more, which is comparable to, or higher than, the average among boys. However, the mean years of schooling is lower for girls than boys in oil-importing middle-income countries such as Morocco (4.6 years for girls compared with 6.4 years for boys) and fragile and crisis countries such as Syria (4.6 years for girls compared with 5.6 years for boys), Sudan (3.2 years for girls compared with 4.2 years for boys) and Yemen (1.9 years for girls compared with 4.4 years for boys).

The COVID-19 crisis is expected to exacerbate pre-existing inequalities in average years of schooling. Additionally, school closures could result in more girls dropping out than boys and taking on care responsibilities or being at risk of early marriage. Anecdotal evidence in Lebanon suggests that parents are forcing their girls to drop out of school due to a perception that online learning is useless, and that early marriages among them are increasing (Save the Children, 2021). These risks are particularly high for girls living in rural or poor areas who are deprived of the tools for online learning, and girls in fragile and crisis countries. As such, the crisis might have a disproportionate impact on girls' access to education in the long run, undoing decades of progress.

Figure 9. Mean years of schooling received by people aged 25+, by sex, 2018



Source: Based on Rivera and others (2020).

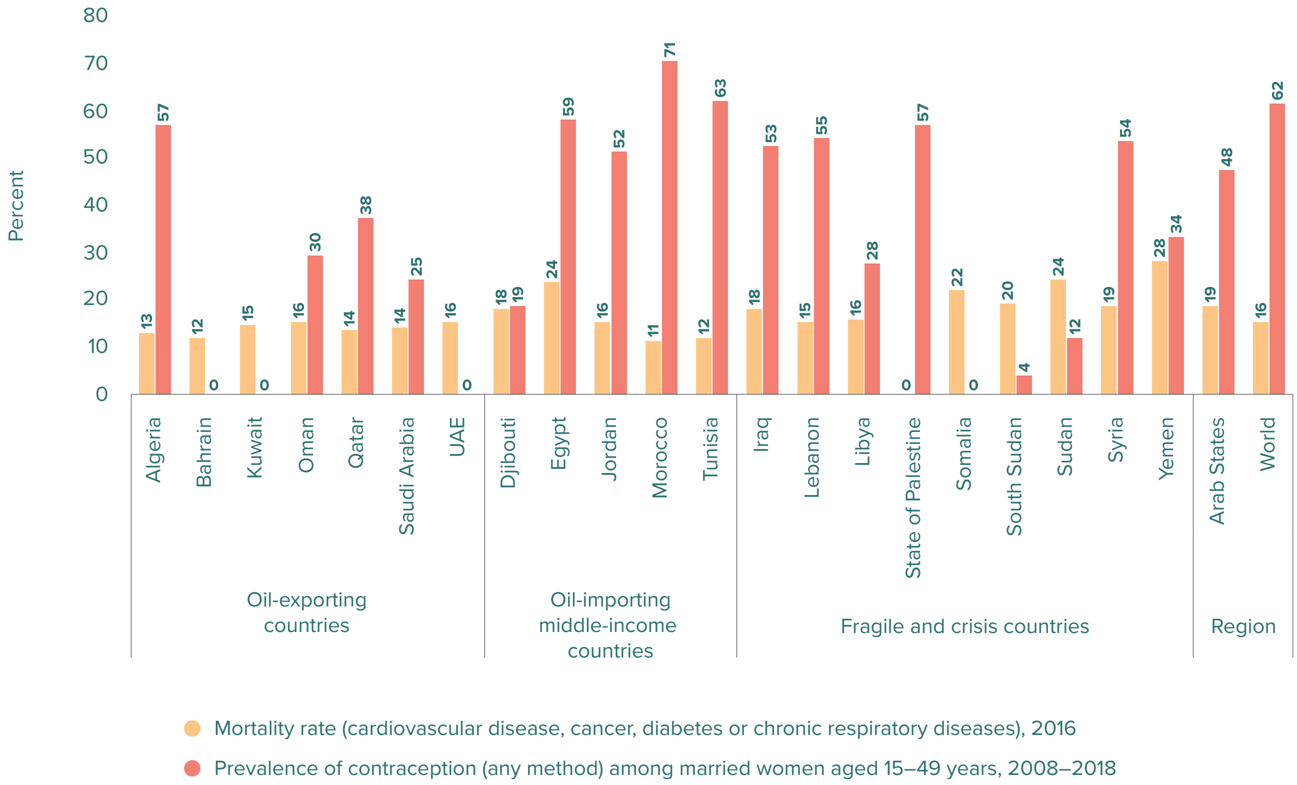
Regarding health services, given the burden taken on by health systems in the region during the crisis, resources have been diverted towards emergency response. This poses an indirect health risk due to service disruptions and limited access to quality health services.

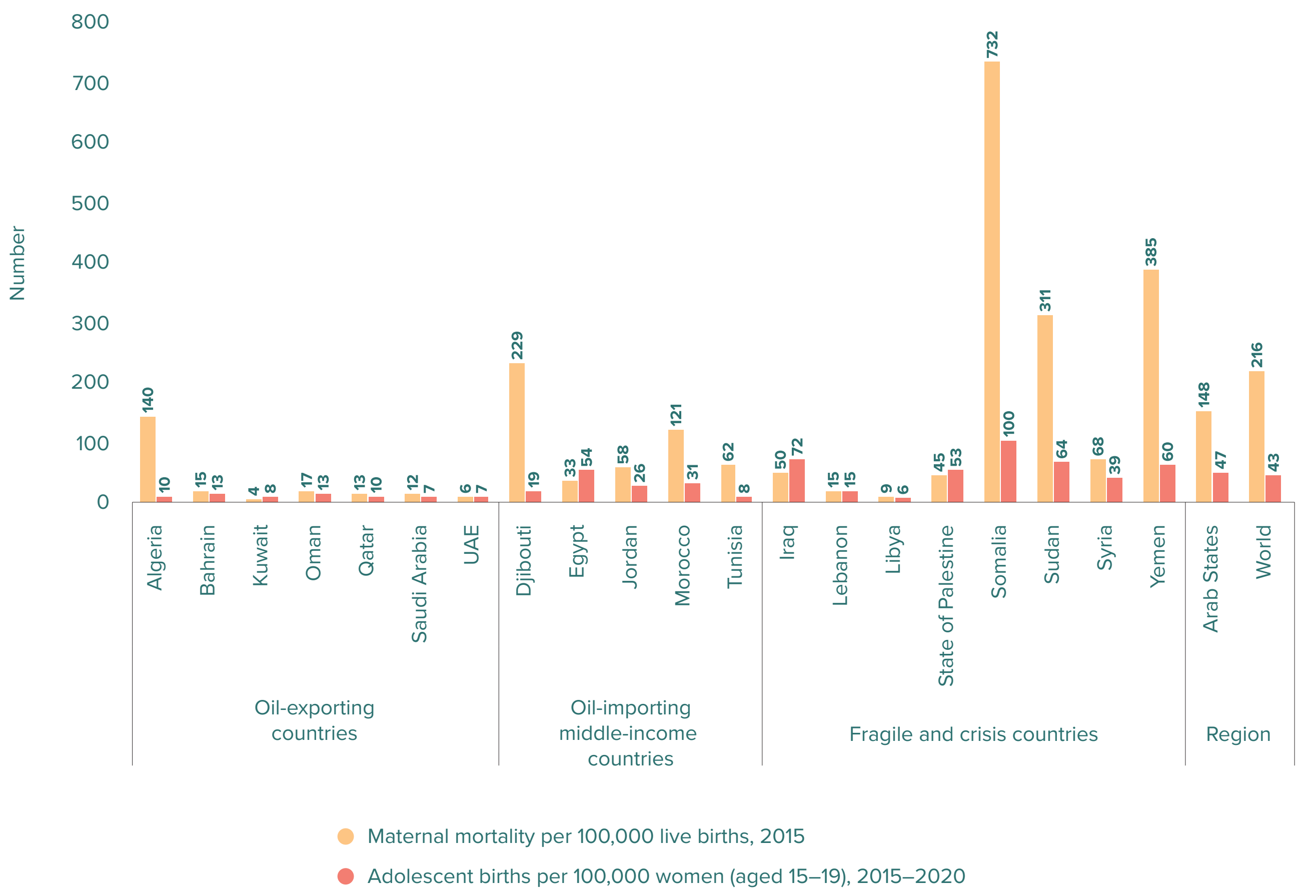
Accordingly, and due to lockdowns and movement restrictions, sexual and reproductive health services were particularly disrupted—especially in the early months of the pandemic. According to the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), on average there are around 8 million pregnant women in the region and 15.5 million women of reproductive age for whom pre-existing risks will be heightened by COVID-19 (OECD, 2020). Furthermore, the supply chain of family planning and reproductive health commodities has been affected by the crisis, and disruptions have limited the availability of contraception in many countries (UNFPA, 2020a and 2020b). Contraception use among married women of reproductive age in Arab States was already below the global average (48 percent compared with 62 percent globally) and was especially low in fragile and crisis countries such as Djibouti, Libya, Sudan and Yemen, and oil-exporting countries such as Oman, Qatar and Saudi Arabia. This may have worsened, risking an increased number of unintended pregnancies given the continuation and reimposition of lockdowns in several countries. In addition to supply chain disruptions, lockdowns further limit women's autonomy in accessing these services. Pre-COVID-19 indicators show that many girls and women in the region did not have the autonomy to make decisions about their own health, including sexual and reproductive health. For example, while only

25 percent of women in Jordan indicated that they were the main decision maker when it came to their health, this drops to 15 percent in Egypt and 9 percent in Yemen. In Jordan and Egypt, 92 percent and 83 percent of women participate in such decisions, respectively (see Table 4), while more than half of Yemeni women do not even participate. Looking at the social characteristics behind these figures, in Egypt, Jordan and Yemen, older women who are employed or working for cash, living in urban areas and with a higher level of education are most likely to participate in key decisions related to their own health (Demographic and Health Survey [DHS], 2018). It is therefore likely that during lockdown, women's autonomy over their health—especially younger women who have a lower level of education, are not economically active and live in rural areas—has decreased, increasing their health risks as a result, since they may conceal specific sexual and reproductive health concerns. In a rapid assessment in Libya, 70 percent of the women surveyed confirmed that during the crisis, they could not attend clinics or hospitals alone and had to be accompanied by a male family member—brothers, fathers or husbands (UN-Women, 2020a).

Furthermore, risks associated with poor access to health care and sanitation services are particularly high in fragile and crisis countries and those hosting refugees and IDPs, especially in camps and settlements. Lack of access to such services combined with insufficient hygiene practices in these settings is expected to have increased the risk of COVID-19 infection, particularly among women, who are often responsible for household hygiene. Furthermore, refugees are often stigmatized and are less likely to disclose symptoms or seek treatment (UN-Women and others, 2020).

Figure 10. Selected health indicators for women in Arab States





Source: Based on Rivera and others, 2020.

Table 4. Currently married women aged 15–49 who usually make health decisions either by themselves or jointly with their husband (%)

		Jordan (2018)	Egypt (2014)	Yemen (2013)
Age group	15–19	85.4	73.0	48.0
	20–24	90.6	81.5	50.9
	25–29	90.1	82.2	54.5
	30–34	92.7	83.4	54.8
	35–39	92.9	85.0	57.3
	40–44	93.9	83.4	56.4
	45–49	93.1	83.7	60.5
Residence	Urban	92.2	88.3	64.4
	Rural	92.0	79.8	50.0
Employment status	Not employed	91.6	81.5	54.0
	Employed	95.6	-	-
	Working for cash	-	91.9	74.7
	Not working for cash	-	76.2	44.5
Education level	None	73	74.0	49.0
	Elementary/Primary	86.5	79.4	57.5
	Secondary	92.6	79.6	66.4
	Higher	94.9	88.0	76.2
Wealth quintile	Lowest	87.8	71.9	40.6
	Second	92.0	77.3	47.6
	Middle	93.6	83.5	54.3
	Fourth	93.7	87.4	59.8
	Highest	93.5	92.1	68.1
Total		92.1	82.7	54.6

Source: Based on the Demographic and Health Survey (latest year available).

In terms of reproductive health, Egypt, Lebanon, Syria and Yemen are among the first countries that implemented measures related to women's reproductive health to monitor pregnant women, nursing women and mothers of children with disabilities, to ensure that access to these resources during the pandemic was not curtailed. More action is needed in the medium and long term to address enable autonomous access to health services, especially sexual and reproductive health services through complementary initiatives that support women, and in particular younger women in rural areas with access to fewer education and work opportunities.

4.3 Pillar 3: Gender-based violence

Despite the lack of timely data and low incidence in reporting, it can be confidently stated that GBV is prevalent in the Arab region. Before COVID-19, it was estimated that 35 percent of ever-partnered women in some countries of Arab States have experienced violence from their partner, which is slightly higher than the global average (ESCWA, 2020d; OECD, 2020). Several reports have shown that domestic violence has significantly increased during lockdowns. In Jordan, the Family Protection Department announced a 33 percent increase in reported domestic violence cases during the first month of the lockdown following the pandemic. In Tunisia, thousands of additional cases of verbal, physical and sexual violence have been reported through the national domestic violence hotline (OECD, 2020).

Domestic violence is not the only form of violence that has become more prevalent during COVID-19 times. A rapid assessment conducted in nine countries in the region (Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, the State of Palestine, Tunisia and Yemen) showed that online harassment was the most commonly reported type of violence against girls and women in all countries (UN-Women, 2020b). The highest percentage of respondents that reported being exposed to or knowing of online harassment of women was in Egypt (42 percent), while the lowest percentage of respondents was in Lebanon (24 percent).

Despite this increase, the existing GBV prevention, protection and response services have decreased across the board. Health services have been disrupted, as mentioned in the previous section, as has access to shelters, police and courts. In addition to this, lockdowns have reduced physical access to social networks. According to a study by UN-Women, police and the justice system ranked first in terms of places to seek support, while family and friends ranked first in the State of Palestine and Yemen and second in Egypt and Lebanon, both of which were inaccessible during lockdowns.

To understand the characteristics of women who may be more exposed to GBV, data on exposure to physical, sexual or emotional violence were analysed from two countries—Egypt and Jordan—based on the DHS (see Table 5). On looking at age, residence, employment, education and number of children, in Egypt, the proportion of women experiencing violence does not correlate with age, suggesting that older and younger women are equally vulnerable, while there is a positive correlation with higher age groups in Jordan. In both countries, exposure to violence tends to increase with number of children, while spousal violence is remarkably lower among highly educated women than among those who are illiterate or with a basic education. Regarding regional differences, in Jordan, women in urban areas reported higher exposure to violence, but there was no noticeable difference in Egypt.

Table 5. Ever-married women aged 15–49 years who have experienced physical, sexual or emotional violence by their husband (%)

		Jordan (2018)	Egypt (2014)
Age group	15–19	22.8	25.7
	20–24	22	31.7
	25–29	25.7	31.3
	30–39	26.1	30.7
	40–49	27.3	28.9
Residence	Urban	26.3	29.5
	Rural	22.5	30.8
Employment status	Not employed	25.9	-
	Employed	25.6	-
	Working for cash	-	30.3
	Not working for cash	-	30.6
Education level	None	28.5	36.2
	Elementary	35.7	39.5
	Preparatory	31.2	-
	Secondary	27.4	35.2
	Higher	19.5	25
No. of living children	0	20.4	21.4
	1 to 2	26.9	30.6
	3 to 4	25.5	30.6
	5+	28.2	35.3

Source: Based on the Demographic and Health Survey (latest year available).

While more data is needed to better understand GBV incidence and occurrence across various socio-economic groups, those of the two countries suggest that women who are already educationally disadvantaged and who have greater burdens of care are more subjected to GBV and could be worse hit during COVID-19, creating a need for targeted multisectoral support. It is also worth noting that women with a lower level of education are less likely to access digital services, which have augmented GBV services during the COVID-19 pandemic. This means that those who need these services most are less likely to benefit from them.

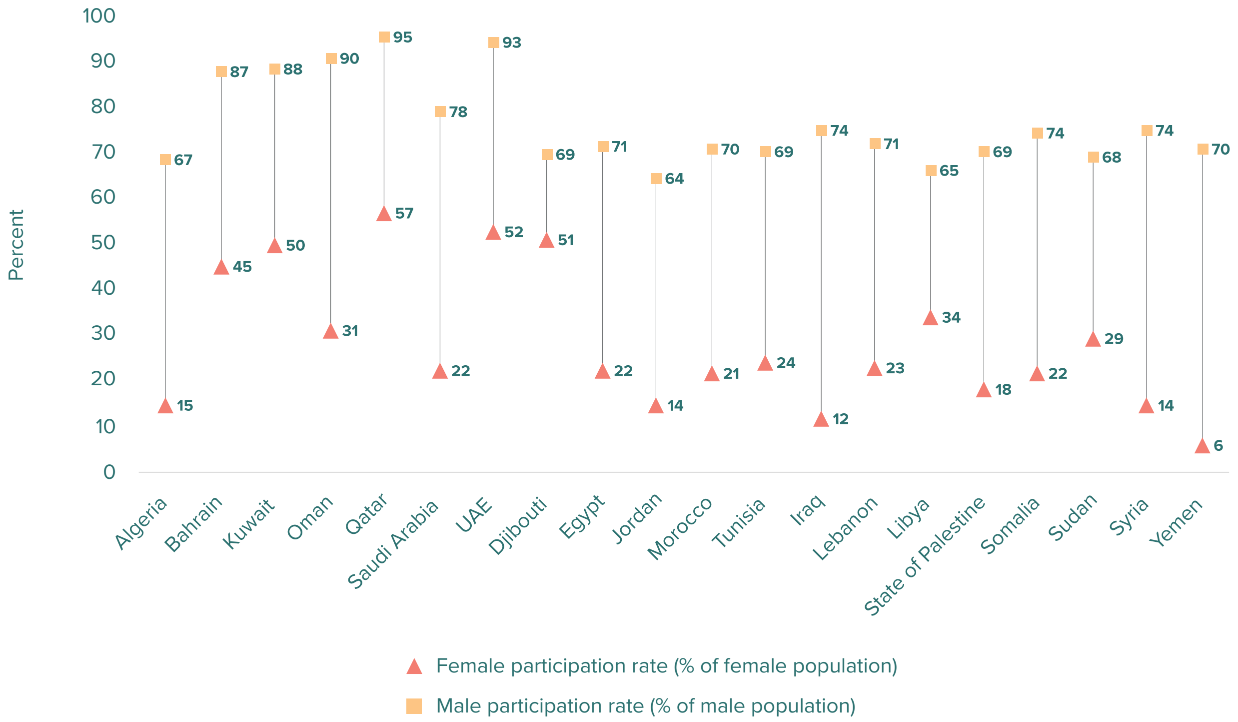
Refugee and displaced women are one group that has been disproportionately affected by the effects of the pandemic on GBV. The incidence of intimate partner violence (IPV) and other forms of GBV has surged among Syrian refugee women (Plan International, 2020b). Lockdown measures limited access to information and increased psychological distress amongst Palestinian women (United Nations Relief and Works Agency [UNRWA], 2020). In Lebanon, 54 percent of surveyed women, most of them refugees, reported a surge in violence against women and girls and 44 percent declared they feel less safe at home (CARE and others, 2020). In Jordan, one out of two camp residents reported that they are concerned about the safety of women and girls since the onset of the pandemic (CARE, 2020). Cases have also been reported of migrant domestic workers subjected to dismissal, deportation, reduced salaries and GBV during lockdowns, in addition to risks of exploitation and trafficking following dismissals, especially of undocumented workers (IASC, 2020).[4] Country responses in the region included strengthening services, including hotlines; collecting and using data; integrating GBV into COVID-19 response plans and awareness-raising campaigns (UNDP and UN-Women, 2020). Countries such as Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, the State of Palestine and Tunisia undertook different measures including providing additional shelter facilities, extending helpline operating hours and providing victims of violence with free psychological support services. Some countries also launched awareness campaigns and digital messaging initiatives on violence against women in the context of COVID-19 measures. For example, in Morocco, the National Union of Moroccan Women (UNFM) launched a smartphone application and online platforms to file complaints (OECD, 2020). In Lebanon, the National Commission for Lebanese Women (NCLW), in cooperation with the Internal Security Forces (ISF), set up a new domestic violence hotline linked to their operations room to facilitate a fast response to cases of domestic violence. In Jordan, an emergency response team primarily made up of female police officers was formed and trained to respond to the crisis, conducting home visits to safely refer survivors of violence to essential services. Finally, in Tunisia, the Ministry of Women, Family, Children and Seniors opened a new centre with self-quarantining facilities for GBV survivors (UNDP and UN-Women, 2020).

4.4 Pillar 4: Economic participation and livelihoods

The COVID-19 crisis led to job losses among women around the world. In the Arab region, prior to the shock, women's participation in the labour force was already low and their unemployment high in Arab States (OECD, 2017). Despite the progress made in girls' school and university enrolment, women's economic participation is still the lowest in the world at 20 percent in 2018, compared with 73 percent for men and a global average of 48 percent. Twenty percent of women in the region are unemployed, which is around 2.5 times that of men; around 62 percent of women who do work (including those in the agricultural sector) are in informal employment without protection (ILO, 2019). In fragile and crisis countries such as Iraq and Yemen, only 6 percent and 12 percent of women older than 15 years participate in the labour force, respectively, compared with 70 percent and 74 percent of men. Similarly, female unemployment rates exceed 20 percent in all countries except most of the oil-exporters (Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman and the United Arab Emirates) and Djibouti, Lebanon, Morocco and Somalia (see Figure 11 and Figure 12).

4 http://apmigration.ilo.org/resources/covid-19-impact-on-female-migrant-domestic-workers-in-the-middle-east/.

Figure 11. Labour force participation rate by sex aged 15+, 2019 (International Labour Organization modelled estimate)



Source: Based on World Development Indicators.

Figure 12. Unemployment rate by sex aged 15+, 2019 (modelled International Labour Organization estimate)

Source: Based on World Development Indicators.

The crisis has negatively affected the number of available jobs, leading to more unemployment and underemployment, and the quality of work in terms of wages and working conditions. Around 24 percent of working women[5] in the region are working in sectors most at risk of decline in economic activity, with the International Labour Organization (ILO) estimating that about 1.1 million women lost their jobs in 2020 as a result of the pandemic. Female unemployment rates are expected to rise by more than 2 percentage points, and an estimated 600,000 women are expected to have left the labour force altogether in 2020 due to the economic slowdown (ILO, 2021). Naturally, the impact varied over time and across countries, depending on the stringency of lockdowns and workplace closures.[6] The crisis has had a disproportionate impact, particularly on vulnerable workers (ILO, 2020a; ILO, 2020b; ILO, 2020c; ILO, 2020d) and sectors as discussed below.

Lockdowns and the decline in economic activities have strongly affected manufacturing and some service sectors (ILO, 2020a; ILO, 2020b; ILO, 2020c; ILO, 2020d). Women in Arab States are over-represented in the service sector compared with other sectors, making them susceptible to job loss. In most countries, prior to the pandemic, the share of working women employed in the service sector exceeded 50 percent, except in Morocco, Sudan and Yemen where it amounted to 34, 41 and 43 percent, respectively. In oil-exporting countries, the share of women in the service sector ranged from 73 percent of employed women in Algeria to 97 percent in Kuwait (see Figure 13). Women's presence in industry was generally lower: it was below 15 percent in all countries except Tunisia and Algeria, where the sector employed 33 percent and 25 percent of women, respectively. Regarding manufacturing, data for four countries (Algeria, Bahrain, Egypt and the State of Palestine) across the three country subgroups also revealed a significantly low proportion of women in manufacturing, with the exception of Algeria where 20 percent of women were employed in this sector.

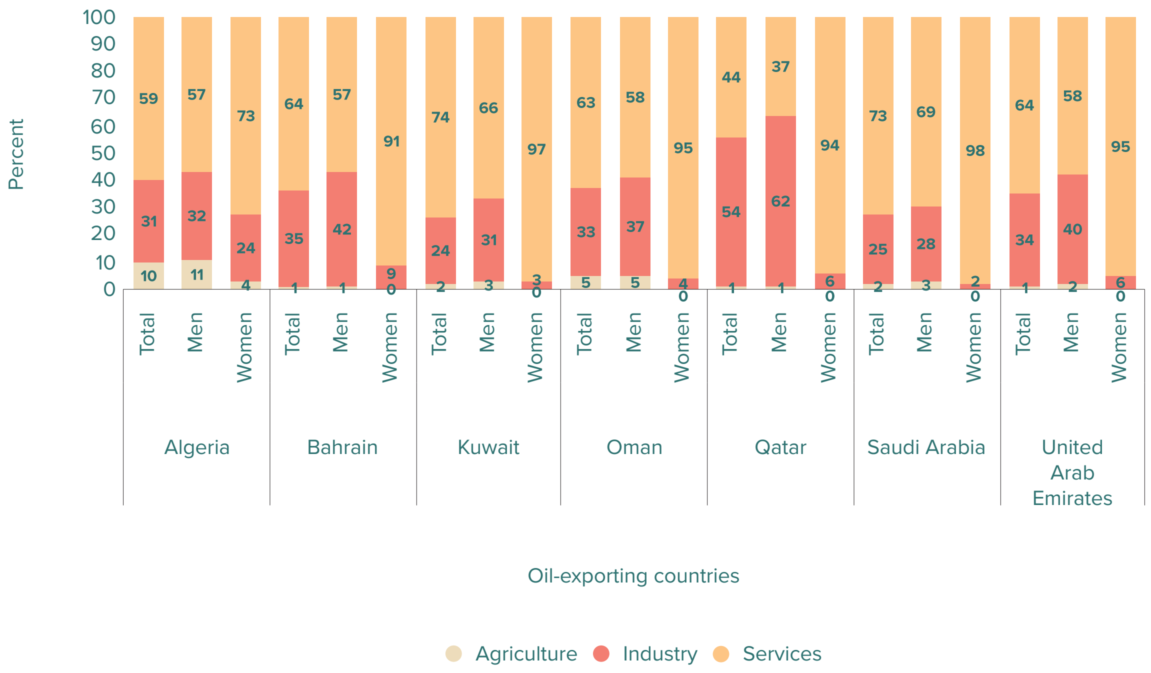
A more detailed ILO assessment of the expected impact of the crisis classified economic activities into low, low-medium, medium, medium-high and high-risk activities (see Table 6). The percentage of working women in medium-high or high-risk activities was 36 percent in Algeria (compared to 39 percent for men) with the highest concentration in manufacturing at 20 percent; 70 percent in Bahrain (compared to 53 percent for men) with 44 percent concentrated in "other services"; 27 percent in Egypt (compared to 48 percent for men) and 34 percent in the State of Palestine (compared to 39 percent for men), most of whom were in retail trade, manufacturing and "other services". Meanwhile, the percentage of women working in low and medium-low risk activities was 60 percent in Algeria, 22 percent in Bahrain, 72 percent in Egypt and 62 percent in the State of Palestine. Women's higher concentration in low and medium-low risk activities in the three countries (Bahrain is an exception) can be attributed to the gender segregation of roles which leads a significant proportion of women to work in education, health and social activities. Should the picture above be representative of other Arab countries, the analysis shows that women are at lower risk of losing their jobs than men in the region as a consequence of the COVID-19 lockdowns when assessing the issue from the point of view of economic activity risks alone. Nevertheless, the fact remains that given the low pre-crisis levels of economic participation among women, the societal cost of, for example, one third of women dropping out of the labour market remains high. More importantly, though, other factors such as gender norms, employer sexism and the precarity of women's jobs may mean that the risk of job loss among women is higher compared with men in the same industry or economic activity.

5 Calculations based on ILO modelled estimates, November 2020.

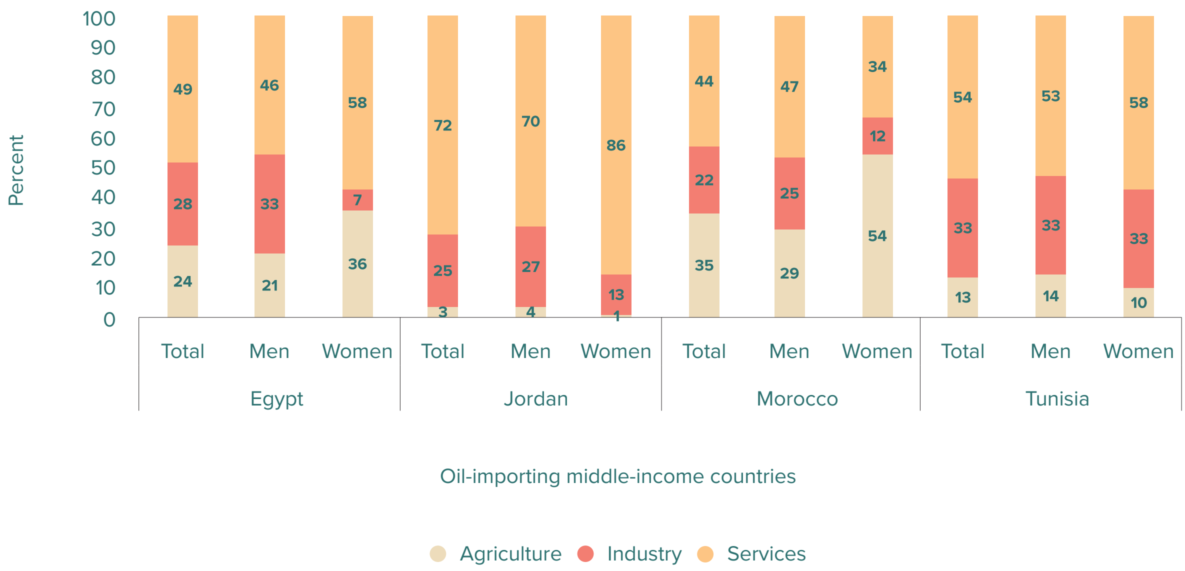
6 Relative to the last quarter of 2019, the ILO estimates that Arab States lost 3.3 percent of working hours in the first quarter of 2020, 18.8 percent in the second quarter, 9.4 percent in the third quarter, and 4.7 percent in the fourth quarter, while North Africa lost 2.5 percent of working hours in the first quarter of 2020, 23.3 percent in the second quarter, 9.4 percent in the third quarter (ILOSTAT, 2021). In the second quarter of 2020, the ILO estimated a 10.3 percent drop in aggregate working hours of employed people in Arab States from the pre-crisis baseline. Over the whole year of 2020, the ILO estimates that Arab States lost 9 percent of working hours, equivalent to 4.6 million full-time jobs, while North Africa lost 10.4 percent of working hours, equivalent to 6.3 million full-time jobs. The ILO also estimates that Arab States could lose 4.4 percent of their working hours in 2021, equivalent to approximately 2.3 million full-time jobs, while North Africa could lose 4.7 percent of working hours in 2021, equivalent to 2.9 million full-time jobs (ILO, 2021).

Figure 13. Share of employment by sector and sex, 2019

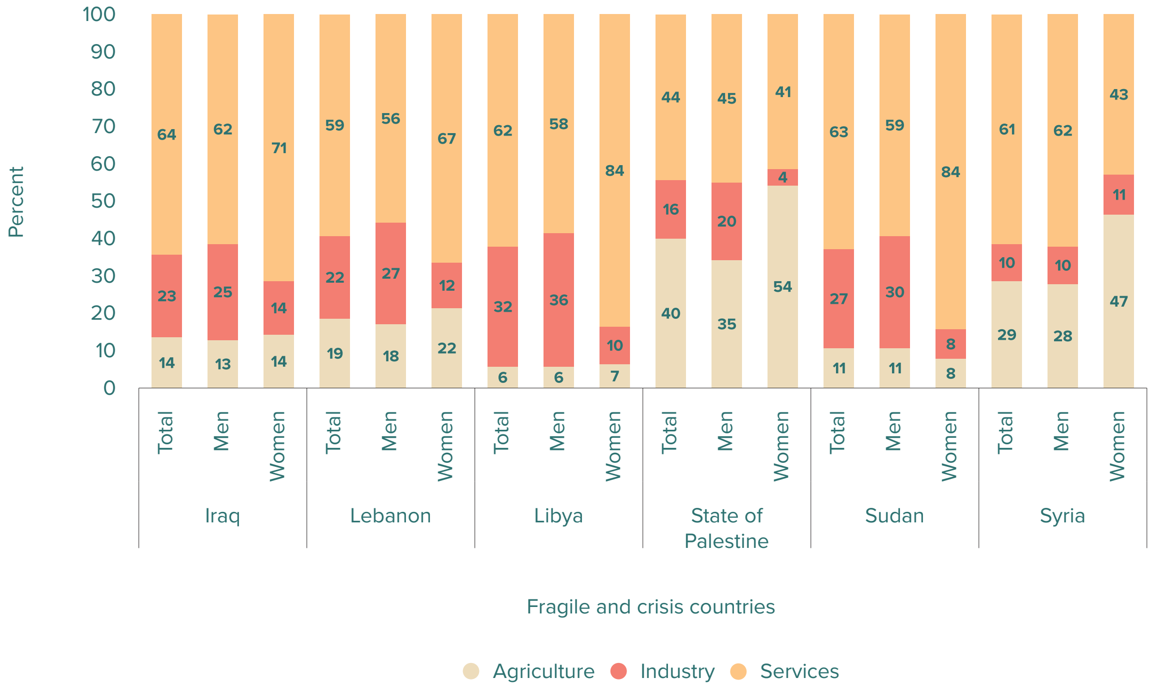
(a) Oil-exporting countries



(b) Oil-importing middle-income countries



(c) Fragile and crisis countries



Source: Based on Department of Statistics, International Labour Organization (2020)–ILOSTAT.

Table 6. Employment distribution by activity and sex, 2020 (%)

Country	Economic activity	Impact of crisis	Male	Female
Algeria	Education	Low	6	31
	Human health and social work activities	Low	2	11
	Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	Low	16	14
	Utilities	Low	2	1
	Agriculture; forestry and fishing	Low-medium	11	3
	Construction	Medium	20	2
	Financial and insurance activities	Medium	1	1
	Mining and quarrying	Medium	2	1
	Other services	Medium-high	2	6
	Transport; storage and communication	Medium-high	7	2
	Accommodation and food service activities	High	3	0
	Real estate; business and administrative activities	High	1	3
	Manufacturing	High	8	20
	Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	High	18	5

Country	Economic activity	Impact of crisis	Male	Female
Bahrain	Education	Low	2	10
	Human health and social work activities	Low	0.3	1
	Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	Low	13	11
	Utilities	Low	0.2	0.04
	Agriculture; forestry and fishing	Low-medium	1	0.04
	Construction	Medium	28	4
	Financial and insurance activities	Medium	2	3
	Mining and quarrying	Medium	0.3	0.0
	Other services	Medium-high	7	44
	Transport; storage and communication	Medium-high	4	3
	Accommodation and food service activities	High	5	5
	Real estate; business and administrative activities	High	7	5
	Manufacturing	High	13	4
	Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	High	17	9
Egypt	Education	Low	4	21
	Human health and social work activities	Low	1	9
	Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	Low	6	7
	Utilities	Low	2	0
	Agriculture; forestry and fishing	Low-medium	20	35
	Construction	Medium	17	0
	Financial and insurance activities	Medium	1	1
	Mining and quarrying	Medium	0	0
	Other services	Medium-high	4	6
	Transport; storage and communication	Medium-high	11	1
	Accommodation and food service activities	High	3	1
	Real estate; business and administrative activities	High	3	2
	Manufacturing	High	14	6
	Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	High	13	11

Country	Economic activity	Impact of crisis	Male	Female
State of Palestine	Education	Low	5	37
	Human health and social work activities	Low	3	11
	Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	Low	14	8
	Utilities	Low	1	0
	Agriculture; forestry and fishing	Low-medium	6	6
	Construction	Medium	22	0
	Financial and insurance activities	Medium	1	2
	Mining and quarrying	Medium	1	0
	Other services	Medium-high	3	9
	Transport; storage and communication	Medium-high	7	2
	Accommodation and food service activities	High	4	1
	Real estate; business and administrative activities	High	2	3
	Manufacturing	High	13	9
	Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	High	20	10

Source: Based on Department of Statistics, International Labour Organization (2020)–ILOSTAT database.

Note: The expected impact of crisis on economic activity is classified into low, low-medium, medium-high and high based on ILO assessment. Economic activities refer to the main activity of the establishment in which a person worked during the reference period and they are classified based on International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (ISIC) Rev. 4.

Analysis of the ILO's risk assessment and individual-level data from five countries shows some of the characteristics of working women who are more likely to have been affected by the shock due to their employment affiliation, i.e. where the industry in which they worked has a risk assessment that is either high or medium-high. This analysis was possible for five countries: Algeria as an oil-exporting country, Egypt, Jordan and Tunisia as oil-importing middle-income countries and the State of Palestine as a fragile and crisis country (AlAzzawi, 2021).[7] Accordingly, there are some similarities across all countries regardless of country sub-grouping, but also some important differences, as pointed out below.

Overall, the analysis shows that between 12 percent and 34 percent of women in these five countries were in high or medium-high risk industries, which are likely to have been severely affected by the pandemic. Algeria had the highest overall share of women in the highest-risk industries, followed closely by the State of Palestine, then Tunisia and Jordan, while Egypt had the lowest overall share.[8] While women made up less than one quarter of the workforce in all these countries, they were only slightly less likely to be in COVID-19-vulnerable industries[9] than their male counterparts in Algeria and Tunisia, and much less likely than their male counterparts in Egypt, Jordan and the State of Palestine. In terms of individual characteristics, young women (15–29 years old, in Jordan, the State of Palestine and Tunisia), urban[10] women, and those with an education level lower than a university degree[11] were more likely to be in high or medium-high risk industries.

In terms of job characteristics, across all countries, women who were highly vulnerable to the COVID-19-induced economic shock were more likely to be in blue-collar occupations, in particular crafts and related trades, services and sales, and plant and machine operations and assembly.[12] Women who were employed in the private

7 The analysis in this section was performed by AlAzzawi (2021) as part of a forthcoming broader UNDP study on the impact of the shock on Arab labour markets. The complete results upon which this section and the results discussed in it are based, are in the annex.

8 66 percent of working women in Egypt are in agriculture, which is classified by the ILO as an industry with low-medium risk to economic activity as a result of COVID-19.

9 We use this term to refer to industries that are at high or medium-high risk to the impacts of the pandemic and are likely to be severely affected in terms of both economic output and employment, based on the ILO classification.

10 The region of residence data is missing from the data set for Algeria.

11 Except in Egypt, where most of the less educated women are concentrated in agriculture, a low- medium risk industry.

12 Plant and machine operators and assemblers are a very small percentage working women in all countries.

sector, who were in informal[13] employment, and who were self-employed or employers[14] were also among the most COVID-19-vulnerable according to this classification. Tunisia appears to be an exception in terms of formality: women in formal jobs tended to be in industries affected more severely by the pandemic, but once split into formal private and formal public, it becomes clear that only women in formal private employment were more likely to be in the highest-risk industries.

In terms of family status, the risk profile varied by country. In Algeria, industry risk level did not vary much by marital status. In Egypt and the State of Palestine, divorced and widowed women were the most likely to be in the highest-risk industries, while in Jordan and Tunisia married women were the most likely to be in the highest-risk industries. Women with no children[15] in Egypt, Jordan and Tunisia were more likely to be in the highest-risk industries, while the opposite is true in Algeria. Women from female-headed households were more likely to be in COVID-19-vulnerable industries in Egypt, Jordan and the State of Palestine, but not in Algeria and Tunisia. Industry risk level does not vary much by household wealth quintile[16] in Egypt, but in Jordan, women from households in the lowest quintile were in the most COVID-19-vulnerable industries, while in Tunisia, women from the third and fourth quintiles were in these highest-risk industries.

The impact of job loss on workers is exacerbated if work is precarious. As mentioned earlier, about two thirds of working women in the region were in informal employment and were generally more likely to have been affected by the crisis. Informal work is unprotected, and workers who lose their work and income have no access to health insurance, pensions or unemployment benefits, making them more likely to fall into a cycle of vulnerability. The share of women in this category (as percent of total employment) varied across the region and according to some figures,[17] it was over 75 percent in Morocco, Sudan and Yemen; over 60 percent in Bahrain, Lebanon and the State of Palestine; close to 50 percent in Algeria and Iraq, and above 30 percent in Egypt, but lower in Jordan and Tunisia[18] (Aita, 2017). Furthermore, a significant category of informal worker specific to women is contributing family workers, which constituted 33 percent of their total informal employment and is generally unpaid work (Bonnet, Vanek and Chen, 2019). Part-time workers are another group that is less likely to have access to social insurance yet may have faced high risks of job loss or wage cuts. This is more common among women than men in many Arab countries, with almost half of employed women in Morocco and the State of Palestine holding part-time jobs (see Figure 14).

13 Informal jobs are those lacking social security and a contract.

14 In all countries, a very small percentage of working women are employers.

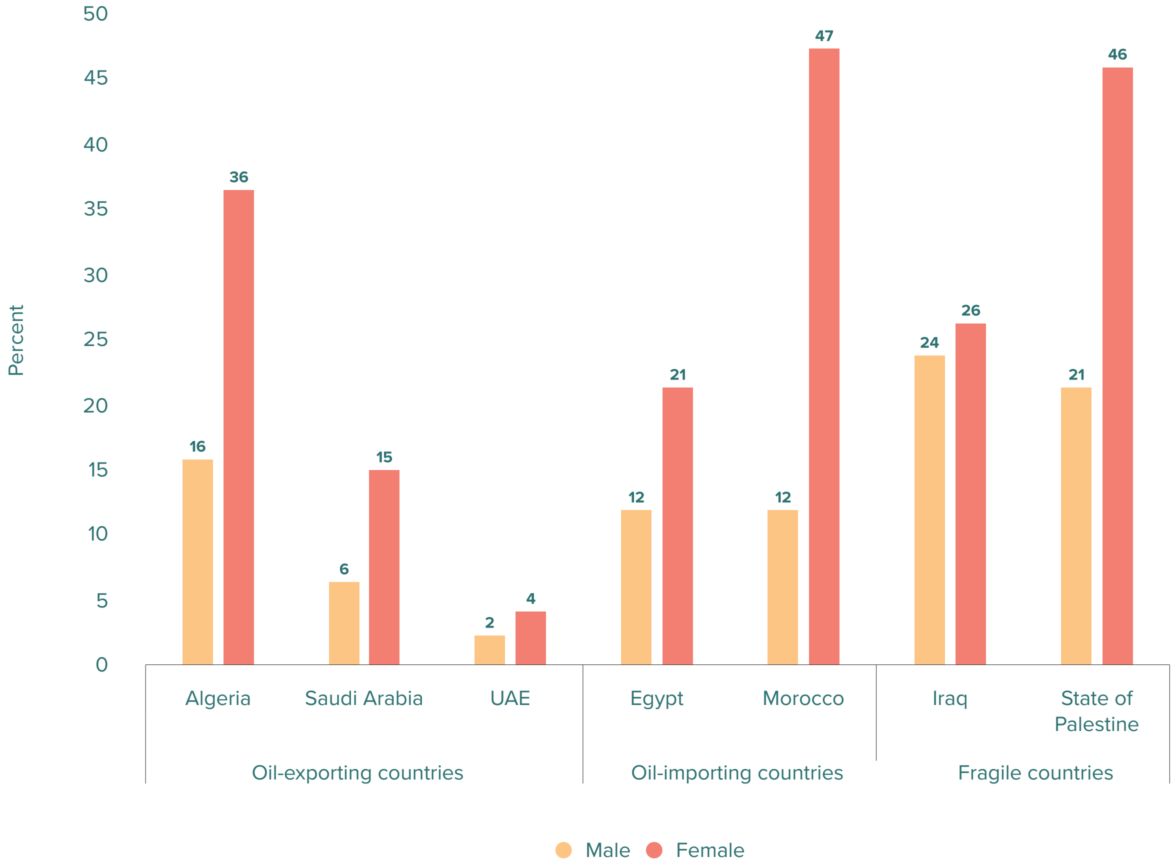
15 No data on children was available for the State of Palestine.

16 The household wealth quintile was calculated based on an index of physical asset ownership by household. These data were not available for Algeria and the State of Palestine.

17 These figures include agricultural work.

18 Other sources report the proportion of women in informal employment to be 27 percent in Algeria, 52.1 percent in Egypt, 16.4 percent in Jordan and 60 percent in the State of Palestine (Alazzawi, 2020).

Figure 14. Incidence of part-time employment by sex, 2012–2019



Source: Based on Department of Statistics, International Labour Organization (2020)–ILOSTAT.

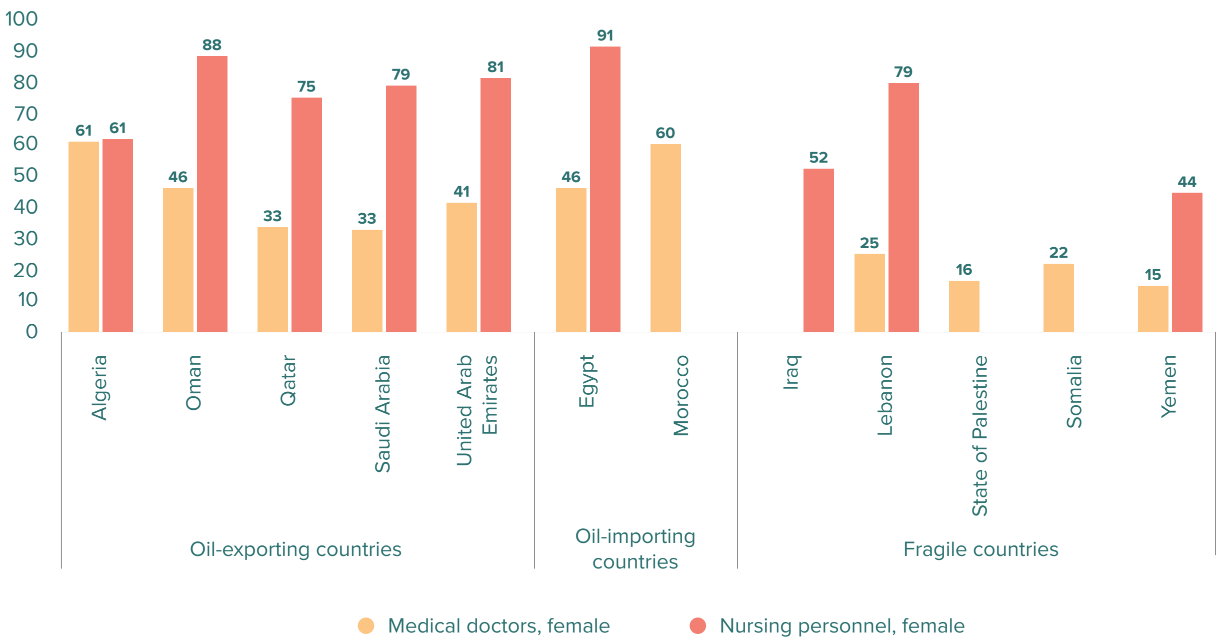
Note: Part-time employment is based on the common definition of fewer than 35 actual hours worked weekly.

The COVID-19 pandemic has highlighted how essential care work is for human well-being and the functioning of society; nevertheless, care workers have been negatively impacted by the crisis in several ways, and women are heavily involved in paid and unpaid care work in the Arab region.

In terms of paid care work, data for West Asia Arab States show that 52.8 percent of all employed women were employed in care work,[19] as opposed to 10.2 percent of men (ILO, 2018b). As such, women formed a considerable proportion of essential frontline workers in the fight against COVID-19 as nurses and medical doctors (see Figure 15). The figures show that women account for at least 75 percent of all nursing staff at the national level in most countries except for Algeria (61 percent), Iraq (52 percent), Jordan (60 percent) and Yemen (44 percent). Additionally, women make up three fifths of medical doctors in Algeria and Morocco, while in Egypt, Oman and the United Arab Emirates, they make up over 40 percent, and in Qatar and Saudi Arabia only one third. The working conditions of health workers are expected to have deteriorated during the crisis due to long working hours, insufficient protection and higher risks of infection and transmission.

19 The care sector consists of health and social work, education and domestic work. Care employment includes care workers in care sectors, care workers in non-care sectors, non-care workers in care sectors and domestic workers (ILO, 2018b).

Figure 15. Percentage of women medical doctors and nursing staff by country, 2013–2018



Source: Based on data provided by Rivera and others, 2020.

Furthermore, based on available data, the West Asia Arab States[20] have the highest percentage of domestic employment in the world, which stood at 5.8 percent as of 2018. Nearly half of female care workers in the region (which is the equivalent of 21.2 percent of all female workers) are domestic workers,[21] as opposed to 3.2 percent of men (ILO, 2018b). Domestic jobs are generally characterized by low pay, lack of social and legal protection, and exposure to violence including sexual and GBV and exploitation. The fact that the workplace is the household makes it more difficult to access recourse or justice. The COVID-19 pandemic has further worsened domestic working conditions, with anecdotal evidence of risks of dismissal, refusal to pay, longer hours and increased violence. Domestic work not only has a high percentage of women, but also refugees and migrants: in 2015, 73 percent of all domestic workers in the region were migrants (ILO, 2015) and 1.6 million female migrant workers in the region were working as domestic workers in GCC countries, Jordan and Lebanon.

Unpaid care workers have also been affected by the COVID-19 crisis due to increased health care, child and elderly care responsibilities, the shift to online education and domestic chores. Prior to the pandemic, the share of unpaid care work in women's work was already high, reaching 92 percent in Iraq, 91 percent in Algeria, 89 percent in the State of Palestine, 82 percent in Oman, 79 percent in Morocco, 74 percent in Tunisia and 62 percent in Qatar (Charmes, 2019). Compared to the pre-crisis situation, evidence shows that girls and women in the region spend on average 4.7 times more hours in unpaid care work than men. The proportion of married women who reported that the time they spent on household chores increased after the crisis ranged from 62 percent in Tunisia to 24 percent in Yemen (UN-Women, 2020b). In Jordan, a higher share of women than men (74 percent compared with 59 percent) reported increased child-care duties (Kebede, Stave and Kattaa, 2020). Similarly, in Bahrain, more young women than men reported an increase in time allocated to childcare (Abdulla and others, 2020). Meanwhile, in Lebanon, 45 percent of women strongly agreed with the statement, "My household duties have increased during the COVID-19 pandemic," compared with 21 percent of men (Kebede, Stave and Kattaa, 2020). These figures indicate that the vast majority of women have been impacted by increased burden of care, with implications for their ability to maintain employment, reducing their time and overall well-bring.

The previous sections focused on women who are likely to have been impacted by the crisis. Regarding the actual impact, this has been studied to various degrees and shows that many women working in the private sector have already lost jobs and businesses or have suffered a reduction in their remuneration. For example, a rapid

20 Based on data from Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates and Yemen.

21 Defined as workers employed in the household.

impact assessment of Jordanians and Syrian refugees in Jordan[22] revealed that almost half of the respondents who were employed prior to the crisis were not working in April 2020.[23] Results showed that more men than women have lost their jobs in both categories: 38 percent of Syrian men have lost their jobs permanently compared with 28 percent of Syrian women, while 19 percent of Jordanian men have lost their jobs permanently compared with 15 percent of Jordanian women (Kebede, Stave and Kattaa, 2020). However, these results are merely indicative and cannot be generalized. In Egypt, a nationally representative survey in May 2020 revealed that 55.7 percent of people who were employed before the crisis were working fewer hours/ days and 26 percent were no longer employed. While 25 percent of men became unemployed, the figures were higher among females (30 percent), especially in urban areas (Government of Egypt, Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics [CAPMAS], 2020). In Libya, more than half of employed women reported that their work had been affected by the shock, while in the State of Palestine, according to one study, 27 percent of women-owned MSMEs closed as a result of the outbreak (UN-Women, 2020d). The risks of regress in women's economic participation in the long term are therefore high.

To address the immediate economic impacts of the shock, several countries in the region have taken targeted action towards addressing the specific needs of women and girls, although some consecrate the status quo of gender inequality. In Egypt and the State of Palestine, for example, exceptional leave for pregnant and/or working mothers was offered. Flexible work arrangements and teleworking were also offered in most countries including Egypt, Morocco, Oman and Tunisia. An economic stimulus packages was announced in several countries such as Egypt, Oman and Saudi Arabia, which assisted sectors or subsectors (e.g. the garment industry) with a large female workforce, mostly through tax reliefs (OECD, 2020). Egypt also provided financial and technical support to women-led businesses, including consultancy services and online platforms for e-marketing. Meanwhile, Morocco, the State of Palestine and Tunisia launched online training programmes targeted at women entrepreneurs to strengthen their resilience and prepare for the post-crisis (OECD, 2020). A rapid assessment in Jordan shed light on the importance of offering financial assistance and e-commerce market support to micro- and small businesses, especially home-based businesses owned by women (UNDP, 2020b). Most countries in the region including Bahrain, Egypt, Jordan, Morocco, the State of Palestine, Saudi Arabia and Tunisia provided additional safety net programmes and/or higher benefits to low-income families, including informal workers and refugees, with some targeting women in particular. Social insurance measures including extended paid leave, health insurance coverage and unemployment benefits were also undertaken (Gentilini and others, 2020a). However, on tracking the gender sensitivity of social protection and labour market response measures to the pandemic, it appears that only 24 percent were gender sensitive (UNDP and UN-Women, 2020).

Based on this analysis, we can conclude that the effect on women's work varied by country due to the nature of their employment and their industrial and occupational distribution in each country. Where women were mostly employed in the public sector, or in jobs that had social protection, the impact on them was less severe, compared with women in private jobs, informal jobs or those who were self-employed. However, the negative impact was across the board concerning both paid and unpaid care work, which constitute the largest share of women's economic activity in the region, with unpaid care work having repercussions on women's ability to maintain their jobs as a consequence of this crisis.

22 Based on a phone survey with 1,580 respondents.

23 The sample was selected from existing databases maintained by ILO which limit representativeness on a larger scale.

5. Summary and recommendations

5.1 Summary

From the above analysis, one can conclude the following in terms of the impact of the pandemic on women and girls in the region. Even prior to the pandemic, women are at far lower position in terms of social and economic condition when compared with their male counterparts. Women and girls in the region have lower levels of human development status than men in most countries, making them more vulnerable in terms of their health, education and standard of living when crises, such as COVID-19 strike. The region ranks last out of all regions of the world in terms of gender disparities manifested in terms of economic participation and opportunity, and political empowerment. The fragility that characterizes the region is another factor that further disadvantages women in the Arab region.

- The existing ***digital divide and gap in financial inclusion*** between men and women, and between countries in the region is likely to aggravate the impact of COVID-19 on the existing gender inequality within and across countries. In terms of access to formal financial accounts, women have lower access than men in all the countries of the study where data is available, and there is a large gender gap in the ownership of credit and debit cards. The COVID-19 response has underscored the significance of access to digital technology, mobile phones and digital finance for the poor and those vulnerable during the crisis, so that they can access any assistance offered through these means. Presence of the gender-divide in access to technologies imply that women are more likely than men to miss out on the benefits of technology-based pandemic-related responses. The gender digital divide thus adversely affects the capacity of women and girls to cope with the pandemic and as such they are less likely to utilize opportunities to work, access services or receive financial assistance during the crisis. Female-headed households are less likely to have access to the Internet than male-headed households, as evidence from Jordan has shown. Given the overall gender gap in Internet use, children of female-headed households are expected to be at higher risk of exclusion from education. This also limits access to information about the pandemic.

- In terms of ***access to services***, existing disparities in access to social services (mainly education and health) are likely to have been aggravated by COVID-19. Evidence has shown that, on average, girls in the region have lower levels of educational attainment than boys measured by years of schooling, which is likely to be further impacted with the shift to online schooling. The COVID-19 crisis could result in more girls dropping out than boys and taking on care responsibilities or being at risk of early marriage. This is further aggravated by the digital divide, which risks deepening gender disparity in educational achievement. These risks are particularly high for girls living in rural or poor areas who are deprived of the tools for online learning, and girls in fragile and crisis countries. Furthermore, women and girls experienced reduced access to the already limited sexual and reproductive health services, with lockdown measures, supply chain disruptions and the shift of limited health spending to tackle the pandemic. Use of contraceptives among married women of reproductive age in Arab States was already below the global average and was especially low in fragile and crisis countries. The supply chain of reproductive health commodities was adversely affected by the crisis limiting the availability of contraception in many countries, the long-term health effects of which are yet to be seen.

- Evidence has shown that the incidence of ***GBV*** has increased during the pandemic, especially during periods of lockdown. Several reports have shown that domestic violence has significantly increased during lockdowns. Online harassment of girls and women have also increased in all countries. The challenge has been further worsened due to the decrease in GBV prevention, protection and response services in the countries. Health services and access to shelters of those who experience violence have been disrupted, as too has access to police and courts. Evidence from Egypt and Jordan suggests that women who are already educationally disadvantaged and who have greater burdens of care are more subjected to GBV and could be worse hit during COVID-19, creating a need for targeted multisectoral support. It is also worth noting that women with a lower level of education are less likely to access digital services, including online GBV services that were provided during the COVID-19 pandemic.

- In terms of ***economic participation and livelihoods***, the evidence has shown that prior to the COVID-19 shock, women's participation in the labour force in Arab States was already low and their unemployment high. Women's economic participation in the region is lower than that of men and is lower than the global average. Around 62 percent of women who do work are in informal employment and are likely to have been affected by the crisis, as the informal sector has suffered the most. Furthermore, women in the Arab States are over-represented in the service sector compared with other sectors, making them susceptible to job loss. While the analysis has shown that women in the region are more represented in economic activities with low and low-medium risk, other factors such as gender norms and the precarity of women's jobs may mean that the risk of job loss among women is higher compared with men in the same industry or economic activity.

- Although the pandemic's impact on women and girls has been aggravated by the existing gender disparities, the magnitude of impacts has not been identical in all countries nor across socio-economic groups. Disadvantaged groups of women experience varied levels of digital access, access to basic social services, economic participation and livelihoods or GBV. This is mainly due to differences in the initial (existing) conditions before the pandemic struck. Gender gaps exist within and between countries in terms of access to and use of such technologies. Employment structures and sectoral engagements differ. Access to basic social and GBV services also differ, and availability of services varies from country to country, from one geographic location to another and for citizens versus migrants or refugees. However, it is apparent that fragile and crisis countries are at a serious disadvantage when compared with oil-exporting countries and oil-importing middle-income countries.

The crisis highlighted the urgent need to pave the way for solid gender analysis and gender mainstreaming in social and economic policies across the region. Beyond undertaking measures to integrate a gender perspective in immediate responses, it is essential to 'build forward better' by including it in medium- and long-term recovery plans. The following section presents some suggestions in this regard.

5.2 Recommendations

Investments should be made in infrastructure that provides affordable digital solutions, and in digital education in oil-importing middle-income countries and fragile and crisis countries, to achieve digital inclusion in the long run. Achieving universal Internet use through mobile phones seems possible in oil-importing middle-income countries and fragile and crisis countries in the medium term; tax incentives can be granted to mobile operators and users to minimize costs and increase affordability. In the short and medium term, targeted programmes for digital access should be developed that prioritize lower-income, less educated, older women, coupled with digital literacy programmes.

To increase women's economic resilience to crises and saving and borrowing capacity among lower-income populations, it is recommended to identify existing local cooperatives and mutual aid associations and support the establishment of more. In the medium and long term, coupled with efforts to bridge the digital divide, girls and women could be offered access to digital financial services and private, secure digital payments. Exploring the success requirements for government-to-person (G2P) payments could contribute to women's financial inclusion while also enabling delivery and upscaling of their social protection.

In the short-term, it is recommended that workers in medium-high and high-risk industries, especially those where there are large numbers of women suffering from multiple challenges as discussed in this study, be prioritized in plans for expansion of social protection. As per this study, workers who are crafts and related trade workers, plant and machine operators and assemblers, and service and sales workers are those in the highest-risk occupations. Furthermore, women employers, those self-employed, those working in an informal job and those with less than a university degree should be identified as direct beneficiaries of social assistance programmes in response to the crisis. Addressing these groups' needs should be within the wider discussion of expansion of the fiscal space to fund social protection in a sustainable manner.

Gender-disaggregated data are scarce in the Arab region and not systematically available, nor is gender analysis, which hinders an evidence-based, gender-sensitive, policy response. Shortage of data constrains understanding not only of the impact of COVID-19 on women and girls but also of the progress made in addressing gender equality in general through various policies and strategies. In the short- to medium-term, it is recommended to continue carrying out needs and impact assessments on a regular basis, as well as undertaking representative surveys and qualitative studies on specific areas of concern from a gender perspective, including time-use surveys wherever possible. In addition, there is a need to provide specific quantitative and qualitative intersectional analysis of groups of women who suffer multiple vulnerabilities, identify the risks they face and prioritize these groups in the crisis response. In the long term, it is essential to build national statistical capacity for collection and analysis of disaggregated data, including sex-disaggregated data and gender analysis.

In the medium and long term, introducing gender-responsive budgeting is recommended to direct government budgets towards closing gender gaps in access to health and education, especially in remote areas with limited public services, and invest more in sexual and reproductive health services, GBV services and care services.

Furthermore, in the medium term, governments should ensure that labour laws include informal and part-time workers in practice, where women workers are concentrated, and that alternative, affordable and flexible options and schemes for social insurance are provided to them. They should also review their social protection strategies to ensure universal coverage, through social insurance or assistance, and provide options that match the reality of women's work in the region.

Unpaid care work falls heavily on women. As such, response measures should include a combination of child-care service provision, support for the formation of child-care cooperatives, which generate employment opportunities, and inclusion of child-care businesses in economic stimulus packages. Governments should adopt care and family-friendly policies, such as flexible working arrangements, and reform labour laws to expand access to paid sick leave and parental leave for both male and female care providers.

It is also recommended to reform discriminatory laws that threaten women's economic security and career growth, building on reforms such as those in Saudi Arabia, namely women's freedom of movement and marriage, criminalization of sexual harassment in public and private sector employment, and prohibition of employers' dismissal of pregnant women or those on maternity leave; in Jordan, reduction of legal restrictions on women's ability to work at night, and in Bahrain, Djibouti, Morocco and Tunisia, the passing of legislation addressing domestic violence and sexual harassment in employment (World Bank, 2020b).

Finally, while some countries in the region included women in COVID-19 national response committees

(OECD, 2020), achieving 30 percent women in committees and policymaking and decision-making positions more generally would be a minimum target to ensure a more gender-sensitive response. Equal representation of girls and women in response-planning and decision-making will help ensure that the response addresses the specific needs of women and girls.

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Annexes

Annex I: Data sources

Database	Brief description	Period (data coverage)
World Development Indicators	Cross-country data over time covering topics such as poverty and inequality, population dynamics, education, labour, health and gender.	Latest available (2015–2020)
Human Development Indicators – Data and Dashboards	Country data on indicators related to the Human Development Index, Gender Development Index, Global Gender Gap Index and women's empowerment.	Latest available (2013–2019)
International Telecommunications Union (ITU) World Telecommunication/ICT Indicators Database	Annual data on telecommunication/ICT statistics by households and individuals.	Latest available (2015–2020)
Global Findex Database	A comprehensive data set on how adults save, borrow, make payments and manage risk. The database has been published every three years since 2011.	2017
Demographic and Health Survey (DHS)	Nationally representative household survey that provide data for a wide range of indicators in the areas of population, health and nutrition.	Latest available (2013–2020)
Multiple Indicators Cluster Survey (MICS)	Household surveys implemented by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) to provide internationally comparable data on the situation of children and women.	Latest available (2015–2020)
Arab Barometer	Public opinion surveys covering social, political and economic attitudes and values of citizens across the Arab world.	Wave V: 2018–2019
ILOSTAT Database	Labour statistics for countries covering topics related to labour market indicators.	Latest available (2015–2020)
Gender Statistics	Data on key gender topics including demographics, education, health, labour force and political participation.	Latest available (2015–2020)

Annex II: COVID-19 impact on economic output by worker characteristics and country group

Table 1. Oil-exporting country: Algeria

ALGERIA												
Impact of crisis on economic output	Females						Males					
	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Age group												
Youth: 15 to 29	62.6	2.1	4.7	7.9	22.7	35.1	26.8	13.6	25.7	7.1	26.8	32
Age 30 to 59	54.6	5.9	4.1	6	29.5	64.9	26.6	12.7	24	10.1	26.5	68
Total	57.4	4.6	4.3	6.7	27.1	100	26.7	13	24.6	9.2	26.6	100
Educational attainment												
Intermediate or less	29.7	4.7	4.3	9.7	51.5	27.2	17.9	14.4	28.5	9.7	29.4	64.8
Above intermediate	59.4	1.6	4.9	8	26	26.6	41.6	5.9	17.1	9.4	26.1	23.4
University and above	80	0.5	4.2	4.8	10.5	46.2	56.5	1.9	13.3	7.1	21.1	11.8
Total	60.9	1.9	4.4	7	25.8	100	28	10.9	24.1	9.3	27.7	100
Occup. of prim. job												
Managers	44.3	0	19	17.7	19	1.6	26.1	3.1	25.4	7.6	37.8	2.9
Professionals	87.6	0.4	2.7	3.7	5.6	29.9	69.7	0.9	10.4	6	13	5.8
Technicians and associate professionals	74.6	0.3	6.1	5.1	13.9	7.6	44.6	1	21.4	15.6	17.3	3.1
Clerical support workers	76.6	0.5	6	7.6	9.4	22.4	60.4	0.2	10.9	12.6	15.9	3.7
Service and sales workers	37.3	0	0.7	23.8	38.2	8.8	43.5	0.4	3.4	6.1	46.7	28.7
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers	0.7	98.5	0	0	0.7	2.8	0.7	98.9	0	0	0.3	9
Craft and related trades workers	0.8	0.2	3.2	1.3	94.5	17.6	4	0.4	61.4	1.4	32.9	18.8
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	10.8	0	0	32.4	56.8	0.7	10.3	2.2	16.6	53.3	17.7	9.2
Elementary occupations	49.7	18.3	8.8	7.3	15.8	8.2	21.2	19.2	43.1	4.3	12.2	18.8
Total	57.4	4.6	4.3	6.7	27.1	100	26.7	13	24.6	9.2	26.6	100
Sector of employment												
Public	87.9	0.4	3.5	4.7	3.6	61.4	78.8	0.7	8.4	6.1	6	32.9
Private	9	11.1	5.6	9.8	64.5	38.6	1.1	19.1	32.5	10.7	36.7	67.1
Total	57.4	4.6	4.3	6.7	27.1	100	26.7	13	24.6	9.2	26.6	100
Formality of prim. job												
Informal	3.3	15	3.4	8.4	69.9	27.2	0.3	23.2	36.5	9.2	30.9	47.9
Formal	77.7	0.7	4.6	6	11.1	72.8	50.9	3.6	13.6	9.1	22.6	52.1

ALGERIA												
Impact of crisis on economic output	Females						Males					
	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Total	57.4	4.6	4.3	6.7	27.1	100	26.7	13	24.6	9.2	26.6	100
Work status												
Self-employed	1.9	10.8	1.5	8.4	77.4	19.8	0.6	22	21.6	16	39.8	24.7
Unpaid family worker	0	77.1	0.9	2.8	19.3	2.3	0	65.9	5.8	1.6	26.7	2
Irregular wage worker	67.4	0.9	4.3	7.8	19.5	36.5	13.5	12.9	41	7.9	24.7	36.1
Informal private	10.5	7.9	0	10.5	71.1	0.8	0	19	16	7.3	57.6	1.6
Formal private	21.1	1.1	15.4	8	54.3	3.7	4.3	3.5	24.7	9.3	58.1	4.4
Formal public	87.9	0.4	4.9	3.4	3.5	35.6	80.9	0.7	7.4	5.4	5.6	26.4
Employer	26.9	6	6	31.3	29.9	1.4	3	20.6	19.8	7.3	49.3	4.8
Total	57.5	4.5	4.3	6.6	27.1	100	26.7	13	24.5	9.1	26.6	100
Household type												
Male-headed household	57.1	4.6	4.1	6.4	27.8	83.7	26.8	13.3	24.5	9.1	26.2	93.2
Female-headed household	59.2	4.4	5.1	8.2	23.2	16.3	24.6	9.3	25	9.5	31.7	6.8
Total	57.4	4.6	4.3	6.7	27.1	100	26.7	13	24.6	9.2	26.6	100
Marital status												
Single	59.8	1.9	5.5	7.5	25.3	52.8	27	12.7	25.3	7.4	27.6	40.6
Married	54.7	7.5	2.7	5.4	29.7	39.9	26.5	13.2	24.1	10.4	25.8	58.7
Divorced	59.9	3.3	4.2	9	23.6	4.4	21.6	8.6	22.4	10.3	37.1	0.5
Widowed(er)	46	13.7	4.3	5.8	30.2	2.9	37	23.9	19.6	4.3	15.2	0.2
Total	57.4	4.6	4.3	6.7	27.1	100	26.7	13	24.6	9.2	26.6	100
Children under 6 years												
No	59.1	4	4.8	6.5	25.6	79.6	26.8	13.1	24.3	8.9	26.9	68.3
Yes	50.9	6.7	2.1	7.2	33	20.4	26.4	12.7	25.2	9.7	25.9	31.7
Total	57.4	4.6	4.3	6.7	27.1	100	26.7	13	24.6	9.2	26.6	100
Children 6 to 14												
No	59.1	4	4.8	6.5	25.6	86.8	26.8	13.1	24.3	8.9	26.9	77
Yes	42.5	10	2.2	6.4	38.9	13.2	27.2	13.6	25.1	9.2	25	23
Total	56.9	4.8	4.5	6.5	27.3	100	26.9	13.2	24.5	8.9	26.5	100

Source: AlAzzawi (2021) based on the Algeria Labour Force Survey, 2014.

Table 2. Oil-importing middle-income countries: Egypt, Jordan and Tunisia

EGYPT												
	Females						Males					
Impact of crisis on economic output	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Age group												
Youth: 15 to 29	11.9	75.5	1.7	1	9.9	27.8	5.1	24.6	23.2	12.4	34.7	29.2
Age 30 to 59	23.5	62.9	1.5	1.3	10.8	72.2	18.2	22.5	15.8	13.7	29.7	70.8
Total	20.2	66.4	1.5	1.2	10.6	100	14.4	23.1	17.9	13.4	31.2	100
Region of residence												
Rural	11.4	78.9	0.7	0.5	8.5	73.7	13.1	32	18.3	11.5	25.1	64.3
Urban	44.9	31.5	4	3.3	16.3	26.3	16.7	7.1	17.2	16.7	42.2	35.7
Total	20.2	66.4	1.5	1.2	10.6	100	14.4	23.1	17.9	13.4	31.2	100
Educational attainment												
Intermediate or less	9.1	78.2	0.8	0.9	11.1	81.3	9.2	27.3	18.3	14.1	31.1	80.9
Above intermediate	63.2	22.4	3.9	2	8.6	2.4	32.1	6.2	13.3	11.4	37	2.8
University and above	69.8	13.9	5.1	2.7	8.4	16.2	37	5.1	17.1	10.3	30.6	16.3
Total	20.2	66.4	1.5	1.2	10.6	100	14.4	23.1	17.9	13.4	31.2	100
Occup. of crr. job												
Managers	59.8	0	5.6	4.7	29.9	1.7	21.2	0.9	5.6	41	31.4	4.9
Professionals	89.3	0.4	4.8	1.6	3.9	12.6	56.8	1.4	19.6	10.6	11.6	9.4
Technicians and associate professionals	86.2	0	4.6	2.9	6.3	2.8	29.4	3.7	14.7	17.9	34.2	4.5
Clerical support workers	73.9	1.7	7.3	6.2	11	5.7	52.9	2	10.7	13.3	21.2	4.7
Service and sales workers	13.5	0.8	0.6	4.9	80.3	8.2	16	0.4	2	7.7	74	19.1
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers	0	99.8	0	0	0.1	66.2	0.1	98.4	0.4	0.2	0.9	22.7
Craft and related trades workers	0	0	16.5	3.8	79.7	1.3	1.8	0.4	60.2	3.6	34.1	21.8
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	3.3	0	1.7	1.7	93.3	1	4.5	0.9	5.3	62.4	26.9	9.4
Elementary occupations	33.3	23.8	2.4	4.8	35.7	0.7	9.1	4	15.7	21.4	49.9	3.5
Total	20.2	66.4	1.5	1.2	10.6	100	14.4	23.1	17.9	13.4	31.2	100
Sector of employment												
Public	88.3	0.9	3.4	2.5	4.8	18.9	64.9	2.1	9.2	12.1	11.6	19.2
Private	4.3	81.7	1.1	0.9	11.9	81.1	2.4	28.1	20	13.7	35.9	80.8
Total	20.2	66.4	1.5	1.2	10.6	100	14.4	23.1	17.9	13.4	31.2	100
Formality of prim. job												
Informal	11.7	45.2	2.6	2.6	37.8	52.1	2.1	29.9	21.5	12.6	33.9	68.6
Formal	83.2	1	4.4	3	8.5	47.9	42.7	2.6	11.6	16.2	26.9	31.4
Total	45.9	24	3.5	2.8	23.8	100	14.8	21.4	18.4	13.7	31.7	100
Work status												
Self-employed	1.5	17.2	0.9	5.2	75.2	5.2	1.2	20.1	7.3	24.9	46.5	11.1
Unpaid family worker	0	97	0	0	2.9	64.9	0.1	82.7	1	1.9	14.3	6.1
Irregular wage worker	12.3	56.6	3.8	0.9	26.4	1.7	0.7	33	40.5	10.8	15	19.7

EGYPT												
Impact of crisis on economic output	Females						Males					
	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Informal private	32	13	8.5	4.7	41.8	5	2.7	17.3	19.5	14.9	45.5	25.5
Formal private	53.2	1.2	11.1	7	27.5	2.7	9.2	2.2	16.9	18.6	53.2	9.2
Formal public	88.3	0.9	3.4	2.5	4.8	19	64.9	2.1	9.2	12.1	11.6	19.3
Employer	8.5	53.2	1.1	0	37.2	1.5	1	47.6	9	5.6	36.7	9.1
Total	20.2	66.5	1.5	1.2	10.6	100	14.4	23.1	18	13.4	31.1	100
Household type												
Male-headed household	20.4	67.1	1.3	1.1	10.1	83.8	14.6	22.8	17.8	13.5	31.3	97.6
Female-headed household	19.5	63.1	2.5	1.7	13.1	16.2	4.7	33.8	23.8	8.8	29.1	2.4
Total	20.2	66.4	1.5	1.2	10.6	100	14.4	23.1	17.9	13.4	31.2	100
Quintiles of household wealth												
1	3.8	84.5	0.4	0.6	10.6	25.1	7	39.8	19.1	11.5	22.7	21.6
2	9.1	78.6	0.6	0.6	11.1	22.5	10.7	29.4	19.4	13	27.5	23
3	16.7	71.2	1.7	0.7	9.7	19.6	15.4	21.7	17.8	14.6	30.4	20.1
4	33	52.3	2	1.5	11.2	17	18.6	13.6	15.7	14.8	37.3	18.6
5	53.1	29.3	4	3.4	10.1	15.7	23.2	5.1	17	13.2	41.5	16.6
Total	20.2	66.4	1.5	1.2	10.6	100	14.4	23.1	17.9	13.4	31.2	100
Marital status												
Single	19.8	56.4	4.5	2.4	17	11.8	5.6	23.9	23.3	11.7	35.5	20.9
Married	20.6	68.6	1	1.1	8.7	77.4	17.1	21.7	16.9	14	30.3	77.5
Divorced	31.6	38.7	6.5	1.9	21.3	2.6	18.2	12.7	21.8	16.4	30.9	0.9
Widowed(er)	22.4	56.9	2	0.8	17.9	8.2	10.2	34.7	10.2	18.4	26.5	0.8
Total	20.9	65.4	1.6	1.3	10.8	100	14.7	22.2	18.2	13.6	31.3	100
Children under 6 years												
No	20.9	63.5	1.9	1.5	12.1	63.5	14	25.8	17.3	12.8	30.1	57.5
Yes	19	71.5	1	0.7	7.8	36.5	14.9	19.4	18.8	14.2	32.7	42.5
Total	20.2	66.4	1.5	1.2	10.6	100	14.4	23.1	17.9	13.4	31.2	100
Children 6 to 14												
No	20.9	63.5	1.9	1.5	12.1	72.6	14	25.8	17.3	12.8	30.1	71.2
Yes	16.9	72.1	1.1	0.7	9.2	27.4	17.4	20.9	17.2	13.5	31	28.8
Total	19.8	65.8	1.7	1.3	11.3	100	15	24.4	17.3	13	30.4	100

JORDAN												
Impact of crisis on economic output	Females						Males					
	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Age group												
Youth: 15 to 29	56.6	5	10	5.7	22.6	30	49.9	3.8	10.2	6.2	29.9	36.3
Age 30 to 59	64.3	13.5	4.5	2.9	14.8	70	40.2	6.6	12.2	11	29.9	63.7
Total	62	11	6.1	3.8	17.1	100	43.8	5.6	11.5	9.3	29.9	100
Region of residence												
Rural	60.5	21.5	3.5	0.4	14	24.5	61.2	11.5	6.9	5.6	14.8	21
Urban	62.5	7.6	7	4.9	18.1	75.5	39.1	4	12.7	10.2	33.9	79
Total	62	11	6.1	3.8	17.1	100	43.8	5.6	11.5	9.3	29.9	100
Educational attainment												
Intermediate or less	33.6	29.6	1.3	5.2	30.3	33	39.6	7	11	10.2	32.2	75
Above intermediate	67.3	5.2	5.2	2	20.3	16.5	45.9	2.4	10.5	9	32.1	7.4
University and above	78.9	0.6	9.6	3.4	7.5	50.5	60.6	1	13.8	5.5	19.1	17.5
Total	62	11	6.1	3.8	17.1	100	43.8	5.6	11.5	9.3	29.9	100
Occup. of crr. job												
Managers	87.5	0	6.2	0	6.2	1.7	38.1	0	19	0	42.9	0.5
Professionals	81.6	0	9.3	3	6.1	50.8	66.2	0.6	13.8	5.3	14.1	14.8
Technicians and associate professionals	68.3	0	7.3	2.4	22	8.8	42.7	0.8	9.3	19.4	27.8	5.5
Clerical support workers	77.6	0	6.9	1.7	13.8	6.2	60.7	1.1	8.4	6.5	23.3	5.9
Service and sales workers	37.7	0	0	20.8	41.6	8.3	59.5	0.5	0.6	3.3	36.1	32.3
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers	1.9	98.1	0	0	0	11.1	4.1	95	0.5	0	0.5	4.9
Craft and related trades workers	9.8	0	0	4.9	85.4	4.4	12.1	0.1	37.8	2.3	47.7	17.2
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	16.7	0	0	0	83.3	0.6	31.1	1.4	7.4	40.3	19.8	11.4
Elementary occupations	54.1	1.4	2.7	0	41.9	8	37.5	5.3	10.3	12.6	34.3	7.6
Total	62	11	6.1	3.8	17.1	100	43.8	5.6	11.5	9.3	29.9	100
Sector of employment												
Public	90.6	0	1.6	1.3	6.5	48.3	87.5	0.5	3.4	3.7	5	44.7
Private	35.2	21.2	10.4	6	27.1	51.7	8.4	9.8	18	13.7	50	55.3
Total	62	11	6.1	3.8	17.1	100	43.8	5.6	11.5	9.3	29.9	100
Formality of prim. job												
Informal	36	12.9	7.9	9.4	33.8	16.4	11.2	10.5	16.5	15.5	46.3	38.7
Formal	74.5	0	6.5	3.1	15.9	83.6	65.2	0.8	8.5	5.5	20.1	61.3
Total	68.2	2.1	6.7	4.1	18.8	100	44.3	4.6	11.6	9.4	30.2	100
Employment status in prim job												
Waged employee	70.3	1.7	6.8	3.6	17.6	87	51.8	3.7	10.9	7.6	25.9	83.1
Employer	30	0	0	40	30	1.1	2.7	11	15.5	7.3	63.5	4.9
Self-employed	17.6	11.8	0	11.8	58.8	1.8	4.4	8.4	15.2	23.6	48.4	10.7
Unpaid family worker	2.1	91.5	2.1	0	4.3	10.1	5.1	81.4	1.7	1.7	10.2	1.3

JORDAN												
Impact of crisis on economic output	Females						Males					
	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Total	62	11	6.1	3.8	17.1	100	43.7	5.6	11.5	9.3	29.9	100
Work status												
Self-employed	17.6	11.8	0	11.8	58.8	1.8	4.4	8.4	15.3	23.6	48.3	10.7
Unpaid family worker	2.1	91.5	2.1	0	4.3	10.1	5.1	81.4	1.7	1.7	10.2	1.3
Irregular wage worker	16	40	4	4	36	2.7	2.9	13.8	33	18.6	31.8	7.8
Informal private	37.5	6.2	12.5	12.5	31.2	6.9	7.6	11.3	11.9	13.5	55.8	12.4
Formal private	49.3	0	14.4	5.2	31.1	29.1	15.5	2.1	19.2	8.6	54.5	18.1
Formal public	90.6	0	1.6	1.3	6.5	48.3	87.5	0.5	3.4	3.7	5	44.7
Employer	30	0	0	40	30	1.1	2.7	11	15.5	7.3	63.5	4.9
Total	62	11	6.1	3.8	17.1	100	43.8	5.6	11.5	9.3	29.9	100
Household type												
Male-headed household	63.1	10.6	6.1	3.8	16.3	93	43.7	5.6	11.5	9.3	29.9	99.7
Female-headed household	47.7	15.4	6.2	3.1	27.7	7	53.3	0	13.3	0	33.3	0.3
Total	62	11	6.1	3.8	17.1	100	43.8	5.6	11.5	9.3	29.9	100
Quintiles of household wealth												
1	40.3	33.3	1.4	1.4	23.6	7.8	27.5	18.7	12.4	8.4	33	14.6
2	58.6	19.8	4.3	2.6	14.7	12.6	41.2	5.2	11.8	10.9	30.9	15.6
3	65.2	7.9	4.5	1.7	20.8	19.3	47.7	2.8	12.6	10	26.9	22.7
4	59.6	10.4	6.5	2.6	20.9	24.9	50	3.1	10	8.5	28.3	25.2
5	68.2	4.3	8.6	6.7	12.2	35.4	45.1	3.1	11.1	8.7	32	21.9
Total	62.1	10.7	6.2	3.8	17.2	100	43.8	5.6	11.5	9.2	29.9	100
Marital status												
Single	69	13.8	3.1	3.1	10.9	90	42.1	5.9	11.8	10.3	29.9	98.7
Married	46.7	13.3	5	6.7	28.3	9.8	35.9	2.6	7.7	12.8	41	1.2
Divorced	100	0	0	0	0	0.2	0	0	0	100	0	0
Total	66.9	13.8	3.3	3.4	12.6	100	42	5.8	11.8	10.4	30	100
Children under 6 years												
No	56.3	11.6	7.9	4.2	20.1	64.3	39.6	6.1	12.1	9.1	33.1	55.1
Yes	72.3	9.9	3	3	11.7	35.7	48.8	5	10.7	9.4	26	44.9
Total	62	11	6.1	3.8	17.1	100	43.8	5.6	11.5	9.3	29.9	100
Children 6 to 14												
No	56.3	11.6	7.9	4.2	20.1	76.1	39.6	6.1	12.1	9.1	33.1	70.5
Yes	71.1	13.9	3.2	2.1	9.6	23.9	43	6.9	12.6	10.2	27.4	29.5
Total	59.8	12.1	6.8	3.7	17.6	100	40.6	6.3	12.2	9.4	31.4	100

TUNISIA												
Impact of crisis on economic output	Females						Males					
	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Age group												
Youth: 15 to 29	11.3	41.1	2.9	5.5	39.3	23.7	9.5	30.4	21.5	9.5	29.1	19.5
Age 30 to 59	13.5	68	0.6	2.5	15.4	76.3	16.2	30.5	23.6	7.2	22.5	80.5
Total	13	61.6	1.1	3.2	21.1	100	14.9	30.5	23.2	7.7	23.8	100
Region of residence												
Rural	5.1	80.1	0.5	1.1	13.2	71	11.9	42.5	24.3	5.9	15.4	62.6
Urban	32.3	16.3	2.7	8.3	40.4	29	19.8	10.4	21.4	10.6	37.7	37.4
Total	13	61.6	1.1	3.2	21.1	100	14.9	30.5	23.2	7.7	23.8	100
Educational attainment												
Intermediate or less	6.9	67.7	1	2.8	21.6	90.7	12.3	32.2	23.6	7.9	24	93.6
Above intermediate	61.4	11.4	4.5	9.1	13.6	3.9	46.2	11.2	10	3.8	28.7	3.5
University and above	77.4	1.6	1.6	6.5	12.9	5.4	61.2	3	14.9	9	11.9	2.9
Total	12.8	62	1.1	3.3	20.8	100	14.9	30.6	22.9	7.8	23.8	100
Occup. of crr. job												
Managers	60	0	0	40	0	0.4	36.8	2.6	28.9	7.9	23.7	1.6
Professionals	90	0	0	6.2	3.8	6.9	82.7	0	6.1	4.1	7.1	4.2
Technicians and associate professionals	65.6	0	3.1	6.2	25	2.8	36.2	5.2	19	6.9	32.8	2.5
Clerical support workers	56.8	2.7	13.5	10.8	16.2	3.2	48.8	2.4	17.1	7.3	24.4	1.7
Service and sales workers	10.7	0	0	25.3	64	6.5	28.2	3.9	1.6	6.7	59.6	18.5
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers	0	98.4	0	0	1.6	53.8	0.8	97.7	0.2	0	1.2	20.4
Craft and related trades workers	1.4	1.4	4.1	0	93.2	6.4	1.2	2.6	75.3	1.2	19.7	25.8
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	0	0	0	0	100	3.3	8.2	7.6	12	59.2	13	7.8
Elementary occupations	12.8	50.5	2	2.6	32.1	16.9	15.9	47.4	6	5.3	25.5	17.6
Total	13	61.6	1.1	3.2	21.1	100	14.9	30.5	23.2	7.7	23.8	100
Sector of employment												
Public	82.6	4.7	2.7	4.7	5.4	12.8	72.4	10.5	5.1	6	6	19.8
Private	2.8	70	0.9	3	23.4	87.2	0.7	35.4	27.7	8.1	28.1	80.2
Total	13	61.6	1.1	3.2	21.1	100	14.9	30.5	23.2	7.7	23.8	100
Formality of prim. job												
Informal	3.8	63.2	1.9	4.6	26.5	54.6	2.7	37.7	31.3	7.1	21.2	52.8
Formal	43.2	2.9	1.9	6.5	45.5	45.4	29.7	17.4	15.8	9.1	28	47.2
Total	21.7	35.8	1.9	5.5	35.1	100	15.4	28.1	24	8	24.4	100
Work status												
Self-employed	0	64.3	0	7	28.7	10	0.6	54.6	3.3	11	30.5	23.3
Unpaid family worker	0	97	0.3	0	2.7	52.7	0	86.2	1.2	1.9	10.6	6.9

TUNISIA												
Impact of crisis on economic output	Females						Males					
	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Irregular wage worker	2.2	75.6	2.2	4.4	15.6	3.9	0	27.6	64	2.9	5.5	16.5
Informal private	5.6	16.7	5.6	13.9	58.3	6.3	0.6	12.9	42.3	11	33.2	13.4
Formal private	10.1	0.7	0.7	3.4	85.2	13	0.3	10.8	30.6	7.3	51	13.6
Formal public	82.6	4.7	2.7	4.7	5.4	13	72.4	10.5	5.1	6	6	20.2
Employer	25	8.3	0	41.7	25	1	2.1	35	14.7	14.7	33.6	6.2
Total	12.8	62.4	1	3.2	20.6	100	15	30.7	23.2	7.7	23.4	100
Household type												
Male-headed household	12.4	60.5	1.1	3.3	22.8	87.3	15	30.3	23.2	7.7	23.8	98.9
Female-headed household	17	69.4	1.4	2.7	9.5	12.7	4	52	28	0	16	1.1
Total	13	61.6	1.1	3.2	21.1	100	14.9	30.5	23.2	7.7	23.8	100
Quintiles of household wealth												
1	2.5	85.3	0.5	2.2	9.6	35.1	9.9	50.4	26.4	2.9	10.4	26.1
2	6.9	71	1.4	0.7	20	25	9	35.6	29.4	5.7	20.2	24.5
3	15	46	1.5	3.5	34	17.2	15.9	22.7	21.1	11	29.3	19.2
4	21.5	33.3	1.4	7.6	36.1	12.4	19.2	16.9	18.8	10.2	35	18.3
5	50	18.3	1.7	6.7	23.3	10.3	29.6	9.6	13.6	12.9	34.3	11.9
Total	13	61.6	1.1	3.2	21.1	100	14.9	30.5	23.2	7.7	23.8	100
Marital status												
Single	12.3	70.8	0.8	2.8	13.4	91	16.2	30.2	24	7.2	22.3	98.9
Married	22.2	54.2	1.4	2.8	19.4	9	21.1	31.6	15.8	0	31.6	1.1
Total	13.2	69.3	0.9	2.8	13.9	100	16.3	30.2	23.9	7.1	22.5	100
Children under 6 years												
No	11.5	61.9	1.2	3.1	22.4	78.7	13.7	33.1	22.5	7	23.7	71.3
Yes	18.6	60.7	0.8	3.6	16.2	21.3	17.7	24.1	25	9.3	23.9	28.7
Total	13	61.6	1.1	3.2	21.1	100	14.9	30.5	23.2	7.7	23.8	100
Children 6 to 14												
No	11.5	61.9	1.2	3.1	22.4	86.2	13.7	33.1	22.5	7	23.7	81.3
Yes	14.4	67.1	0	2.7	15.8	13.8	18.3	28.9	24.5	7.8	20.4	18.7
Total	11.9	62.6	1	3	21.5	100	14.6	32.3	22.9	7.1	23.1	100

Source: AlAzzawi (2021) based on the Egypt Labour Market Panel Survey (2018), Jordan Labour Market Panel Survey (2016) and Tunisia Labour Market Panel Survey (2014).

Table 3. Fragile and crisis country: State of Palestine

STATE OF PALESTINE												
Impact of crisis on economic output	Females						Males					
	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Age group												
Youth: 15 to 29	52.6	3.7	7.9	12.2	23.7	28.3	10.3	8.8	25.9	8.8	46.1	37.1
Age 30 to 59	60.5	9.7	2.6	9.1	18.1	71.7	29.9	7.4	22.9	10.3	29.5	62.9
Total	58.3	8	4.1	10	19.7	100	22.6	8	24	9.8	35.7	100
Region of residence												
Urban	60.5	5.2	4.4	10.5	19.4	67.3	23.2	6.5	21.9	10.4	38	67.5
Rural	47.7	19.7	4.2	5.7	22.7	19.3	15.1	14.5	32.6	6.5	31.4	20.4
Camp	62.6	4.7	2.9	13.3	16.6	13.4	32	5	21.4	11.4	30.1	12
Total	58.3	8	4.1	10	19.7	100	22.6	8	24	9.8	35.7	100
Educational attainment												
Intermediate or less	21.8	23.8	1.7	13.5	39.1	26.7	12.6	10.6	28.4	9.5	38.9	58.4
Above intermediate	57.5	5.2	2.9	12.4	22	20.1	23.5	5.7	20.4	11.5	38.9	24
University and above	76.9	1	5.8	7.3	9	53.2	54.3	2.3	14.5	8.3	20.6	17.6
Total	58.3	8	4.1	10	19.7	100	22.6	8	24	9.8	35.7	100
Occup. of prim. job												
Managers	80.2	3.6	5.2	8.9	2.1	3.7	68.9	1.5	9.3	4.2	16.1	5.7
Professionals	86.3	0.2	4.1	5	4.4	47.6	73.3	1	10.6	6.5	8.7	12
Technicians and associate professionals	65.6	0.4	11.6	14.4	7.9	8.7	65.7	0.5	8.9	14.4	10.5	4.5
Clerical support workers	61.4	0	14.5	14.9	9.2	4.4	48.4	0	11.8	19.7	20.1	1.2
Service and sales workers	14.1	0.1	0.1	26.6	59.1	14.7	15.8	0.3	0.5	6.4	77.1	18.4
Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers	0	100	0	0	0	5.1	0.5	98.7	0.1	0.4	0.4	3.3
Craft and related trades workers	1	18.3	3.8	9.7	67.2	5.5	2.3	0.2	55.2	2.8	39.6	22.5
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	1.5	0	0.8	10	87.7	2.5	7	1.2	7.1	50	34.6	9.6
Elementary occupations	46.8	20.6	0.7	8.6	23.3	7.8	9.8	18.7	37.3	5.4	28.8	22.8
Total	58.3	8	4.1	10	19.7	100	22.6	8	24	9.8	35.7	100
Sector of employment												
Public/ Int'l org.	94.6	0.2	0.3	4.9	0.1	43.3	92.9	0.2	0.4	6	0.5	22
Private	31.3	14.1	7.5	12.4	34.7	56.7	3.9	10.2	27.3	11.1	47.5	78
Total	58.7	8.1	4.4	9.2	19.7	100	23.5	8	21.4	9.9	37.2	100

STATE OF PALESTINE												
Impact of crisis on economic output	Females						Males					
	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share	Low	Low-medium	Medium	Medium-High	High	Emp. Share
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Formality of prim. job												
Informal	39.2	13.1	3.9	13.5	30.3	60	7.1	10.7	27	11.2	44	72.3
Formal	86.9	0.3	4.5	4.6	3.7	40	63	0.9	16.2	6.1	13.9	27.7
Total	58.3	8	4.1	10	19.7	100	22.6	8	24	9.8	35.7	100
Work status												
Self-employed	12.8	10.2	5.8	25.2	46.1	12.9	2.4	12.9	14.4	22.2	48.1	20.1
Unpaid family worker	0.5	60	1.2	0.7	37.6	10.2	0.6	29.8	8.7	2.2	58.7	3.7
Informal private	42.6	2.3	5.5	11.3	38.2	18.9	2.3	10	30	8	49.7	35
Formal private	57.9	0.6	17.8	8.5	15.2	12.3	12.6	2.2	41.9	7.9	35.5	12.7
Formal public/Int'l org.	96.1	0.2	0.3	3.4	0	38.4	94.3	0.1	0.3	4.9	0.4	20.4
Informal Public/Int'l org.	81.9	0.5	0.5	16.6	0.5	4.8	75.1	1.2	2.4	19.6	1.8	1.6
Employer	36.9	1.9	6.8	21.4	33	2.5	2.2	7.5	35.4	4	50.9	6.5
Total	58.7	8.1	4.4	9.2	19.7	100	23.5	8	21.4	9.9	37.2	100
Household type												
Male-headed household	59.2	8.3	4.1	10	18.4	95.8	23.1	7.9	24	9.7	35.2	99
Female-headed household	52.4	5.8	5.2	11	25.7	4.2	9.4	9.4	24.5	9.8	46.9	1
Total	58.9	8.2	4.1	10	18.7	100	23	7.9	24	9.7	35.4	100
Marital status												
Never married	51.7	4.7	6.4	12.2	24.9	30.4	9.9	9.8	24.6	7.8	48	30
Married	62.1	9.6	3	9.1	16.1	62.3	28.1	7.1	23.9	10.7	30.2	69.4
Other	53.8	6.6	4	8.2	27.3	7.2	32.2	4.6	24.3	7.9	30.9	0.6
Total	58.4	7.9	4.1	10	19.6	100	22.7	7.9	24.1	9.8	35.6	100

Source: AlAzzawi (2021) based on the Palestine Labour Force Survey, 2019.

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