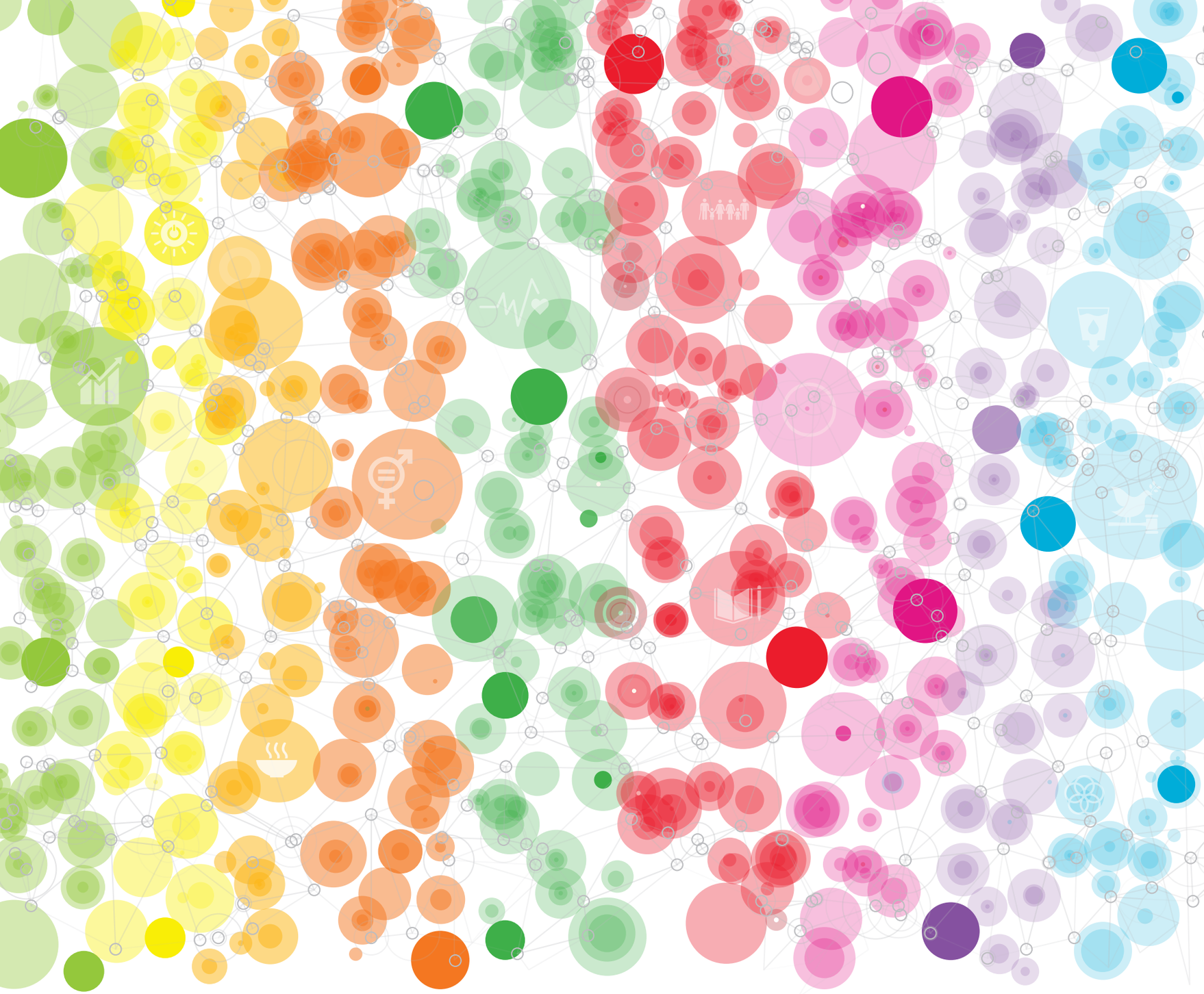


The Arab Gender Gap Report 2020

Gender Equality and the Sustainable Development Goals

UNITED NATIONS
الاسكوا
ESCWA

Shared Prosperity **Dignified Life**

UNITED NATIONS
الاسكوا
ESCWA

Shared Prosperity **Dignified Life**

VISION

ESCWA, an innovative catalyst for a stable, just and flourishing Arab region

MISSION

Committed to the 2030 Agenda, ESCWA's passionate team produces innovative knowledge, fosters regional consensus and delivers transformational policy advice. Together, we work for a sustainable future for all.

E/ESCWA/SD/2019/4

Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia

The Arab Gender Gap Report 2020

Gender Equality and the Sustainable Development Goals

UNITED NATIONS
Beirut

United Nations publication issued by ESCWA, United Nations House,

Riad El Solh Square, P.O. Box: 11-8575, Beirut, Lebanon.

Website: www.unescwa.org.

Photo credits:
Cover: © iStock.com

19-00954

Acknowledgments

This Report is the result of intensive research and data compilation that was undertaken by the Statistics Division at the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA). Under the overall guidance of Juraj Riecan, Director of the Statistics Division, the Report was developed and prepared by Neda Jafar, Head of the Statistical Policies and Coordination Unit, with the assistance of Dana El Soussi, Research Assistant. The Commission is grateful for this unique publication and the in-depth knowledge it provides on issues related to gender equality and women's empowerment.

Forword

In 2015, when 193 countries adopted the most ambitious development agenda in history, they pledged to achieve gender equality and leave no one behind. Gender equality underpins all aspects of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. I am proud to present the first Arab Gender Gap Report, which focuses on gender equality and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The report comes at a critical moment, as discussions on achieving sustainable development for all in the region are intensifying, propelled by the need for more inclusive societies to transform the world. The report provides the Arab region with insight to create a more gender-equitable culture, and identifies challenges and obstacles our societies face. Data has the power to shed light on neglected issues, drive policy change, and increase accountability for the realization of rights. I strongly believe that data can push forward the current debate on gender equality and women's empowerment, and strengthen it with evidence.

The Arab Gender Gap Report explores the status of gender equality across 22 Arab countries, through gender-related indicators linked to issues inherent in the SDGs. The report is unique as it includes regional priority gender-equality indicators – quantitative and qualitative – to help fast track progress on policies and laws at the country level, and to monitor the implementation of the SDGs. The report reveals that critical gender gaps persist in key areas, despite the gains achieved by Arab countries over the years. The report also shows that although several countries have achieved important milestones towards gender equality, a 'last mile' remains to be covered before girls and women enjoy full equality and the realization of their rights.

The report also reveals a gap in the production of many gender-related indicators, resulting from weak household-based data and administrative records. There is an urgent need to strengthen the alliance between national statistical offices and ministries that produce statistical data to ensure the production of quality gender statistics for effective evidenced-based gender policies. When women are excluded from statistical data, it becomes difficult to formulate policies that respond to the needs of both women and men. In the coming years, the Economic and Social Commission of Western Asia (ESCWA) will continue to assist countries in producing more gender and SDG indicators. ESCWA will also explore other data sources, including big data and non-traditional data, to provide a more complete picture on the status of girls and boys, and women and men in the Arab region.

I hope you will find the Arab Gender Gap Report inspiring and useful.

Rola Dashti,
Executive Secretary of ESCWA

Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

Acronyms

+AWG-SS	Arab Washington Group Extended Short Set on Functioning
BPfA	Beijing Platform for Action
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CEOs	Chief Executive Officers
CHE	Current Health Expenditure
EIGE	European Institute for Gender Equality
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
ILO	International Labour Organization
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
NCDs	Non-Communicable Diseases
NEET	Not in Employment, Education or Training
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
TFR	Total Fertility Rate
DESA	Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
WASH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene

Introduction

Why gender statistics are so important for the 2030 Agenda?

"The global development agenda should seek not only to address and monitor the elimination of specific gender gaps, but also to transform the structural factors that underpin the widespread persistence of gender inequalities, gender-based violence, discrimination and unequal development progress between women and men, girls and boys. The empowerment of women and girls and the protection of their rights should be centre-pieces of the post-2015 agenda". UN System Task Team on the Post-2015 UN Development Agenda, Realizing the Future We Want for All, Report to the Secretary-General, New York, June 2012.

To achieve real and sustainable development for all, it is important to expose the gaps, injustice and violence for those people most marginalized and vulnerable to identify where social and economic change needs to be made. Women and girls, who represent half of the world's population, have not only been marginalized, but also exploited and harmed, mostly because they are not empowered to fully share and benefit from developmental efforts. Women's and girls' advancement, equality and empowerment are central to achieve sustainable development for all.

The United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing, China, in 1995 witnessed the adoption of the Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA) which provides a significant and comprehensive mandate for governments to ensure gender equality and women's empowerment and addresses core development concerns. Most importantly, the BPfA identified 12 critical action areas to empower women and achieve gender equality that, ever since, have provided guidance worldwide, including in the Arab States. This platform was also one of the first to provide a clear mandate for the production and use of gender statistics. BPfA Strategic objective H.3 calls upon countries to "generate and disseminate gender disaggregated data and information for planning and evaluation".

The Beijing Platform: **12 critical areas**

Women and poverty
Education and training of women
Women and health
Violence against women
Women and armed conflict
Women and the economy
Women in power and decision-making
Institutional mechanisms
Human rights of women
Women and the media
Women and the environment
The girl child

Arab States have recognized the importance of data in monitoring the progress towards the SDGs, gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls. In May 2008, member countries of the Economic and Social Commission of Western Asia (ESCWA) adopted resolution 286 (XXV) on gender statistics for equality and empowerment of women which calls upon countries to collect, analyse and disseminate gender indicators with detailed information to assist in the formulation of gender-related and gender-sensitive policies and programmes. This is a clear commitment to intensify efforts to strengthen statistical capacities and to disaggregate data.[1] Improving the availability and use of gender statistics to inform policy is crucial for achieving the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Gender analysis that reveals differences and similarities between women and men, girls and boys relies on disaggregated data. Issues can be examined by a range of characteristics – age, geographic location, marital status, education level, employment status and the list goes on. Investing in gender statistics will result in better quality statistics to support informed decisions in all development fields.

This report on Arab Gender Gaps comes at a critical moment as discussion on achieving sustainable development for all in the region intensifies, propelled by the need for more inclusive societies to transform the world. The Report provides critical information through gender-equality indicators to help fast track progress in the Arab world for a more gender-equitable society including those indicators in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). It evaluates women's and girls' status compared to that of men and boys to identify challenges and impediments that our societies face in becoming more inclusive in social, economic and environmental contexts.

The Arab Gender Gap report is divided into nine chapters and includes more than 200 indicators illustrated by more than 200 charts and tables in addition to infographics. The first chapter is an introduction to the Arab States through a gender lens and underscores the importance of gender equality, women's empowerment and leaving no one behind.

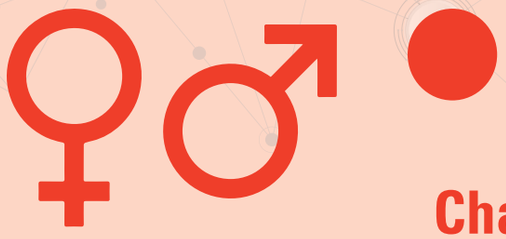
Chapter two sets the scene on population and family life. Chapter three is on health and well-being, reproductive health and health of children and adolescents. Chapter four covers persons with disabilities and the gaps that exist between persons with and without disabilities in old age, education and labour. Chapter five presents gender gaps in all levels of education including literacy and out-of-school children in the Arab States. Chapter six presents information on the gender gap at work and provides information on the enabling environment in countries, labour force participation, work in different sectors, paid and unpaid work and unemployment.

Chapter seven is on power and decision-making and includes information on voting rights, gaps at ministerial and parliamentary levels, in local government and judiciary positions and includes data on women and men as lawyers, managers and board members. Chapter eight presents information on violence against women and girls, particularly on early marriage, female genital mutilation, spousal violence, trafficking and child labour. Finally, chapter nine covers the environment and access to safe water, sanitation and electricity.

The report, where the latest data were available, has used disaggregation by age, wealth and location to provide in-depth information on dimensions of inequality that contribute to the gaps that exist between females and males. Information on youth have been fully utilized as well, wherever data existed, to reveal gaps among adolescent females and males in the Arab States.

The report also draws on various sources of data, national and international, to make the case for the Arab gender gap. The complete set of data are also made available on the Statistics Division Gender Data Portal link: https://data.unescwa.org/

1. ESCWA, Role of official statistics in the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in the Arab region: Proposed Arab regional action plan for sustainable development data, E/ESCWA/SD/2017/IG.1/4 (Part II), (Beirut, 2017).



Chapter 1

The Arab States under a Gender Lens

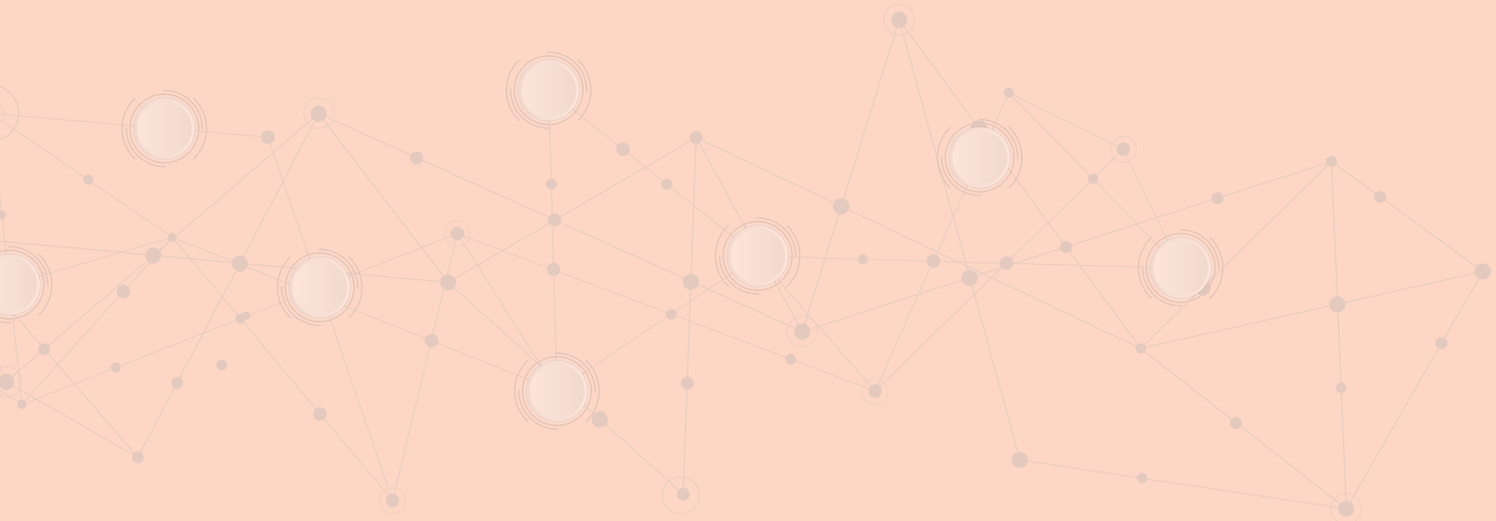
Gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls is a central driver for achieving sustainable development. Women and girls play an essential role in contributing to safeguarding the environment and to social and economic development. Despite progress in some areas, Arab countries face major challenges in achieving gender equality and empowering women and girls.

Violence against women and girls has been identified as the highest priority in the fight for gender equality across the region. Harmful practices, such as early marriage and female genital mutilation (FGM), remain a significant problem in some countries, driving up the fertility rate and maternal mortality, respectively, and impacting the health and education of young women.

Moreover, early marriage and high levels of teenage pregnancy, lower life expectancy, poor health outcomes, and higher poverty are challenges facing several Arab countries.

Another major concern is a lack of women's representation in political and economic spheres. Women's share of seats in national parliaments is among the lowest in the world, and there are major gaps in labour force participation and economic empowerment.

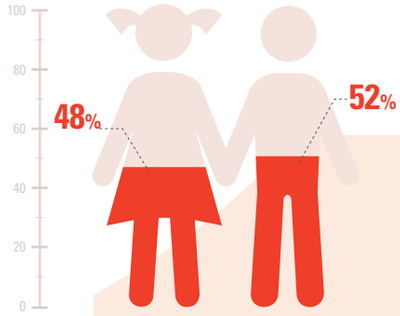
Gender norms - the roles that women and men, girls and boys are expected to play in a society – differ across and between countries, and are typically shaped by long-held customs and beliefs. As new technologies change the way people live, and as people become more educated and information more accessible, gender norms change. Consequently, using official statistics to monitor gender concerns is extremely important.



The Arab States under a Gender Lens

The culturally and geographically diverse Arab region includes 22 Arab countries: Algeria, Bahrain, Comoros, Djibouti, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, Oman, the State of Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Somalia, the Sudan, the Syrian Arab Republic, Tunisia, the United Arab Emirates and Yemen. Arab States have a total population of around 428 million people of which 48 per cent are females and 52 per cent are males.

428 million people across the region



A. Why gender equality and women's empowerment?

Tackling the root causes of gender inequality, by addressing women's condition relative that of men, is essential for achieving equality between women and men, girls and boys in all aspects of life, and in both public and private spheres. The public sphere includes education, health, nutrition, access to economic assets and resources, political opportunity and freedom from coercion and violence. The private sphere encompasses the home and intimate relationships. Women's empowerment, though closely related to gender equality, goes beyond it to include women's power to make choices and decisions and to have the ability to use their rights, access to and control over resources, their own bodies and their destiny.[1]

Gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls is a central driver for achieving sustainable development. Women and girls play an essential role in contributing to safeguarding the environment and to social and economic development.
Despite some progress in a few areas, such as education and health, the Arab States face major challenges in achieving gender equality and empowering women and girls.

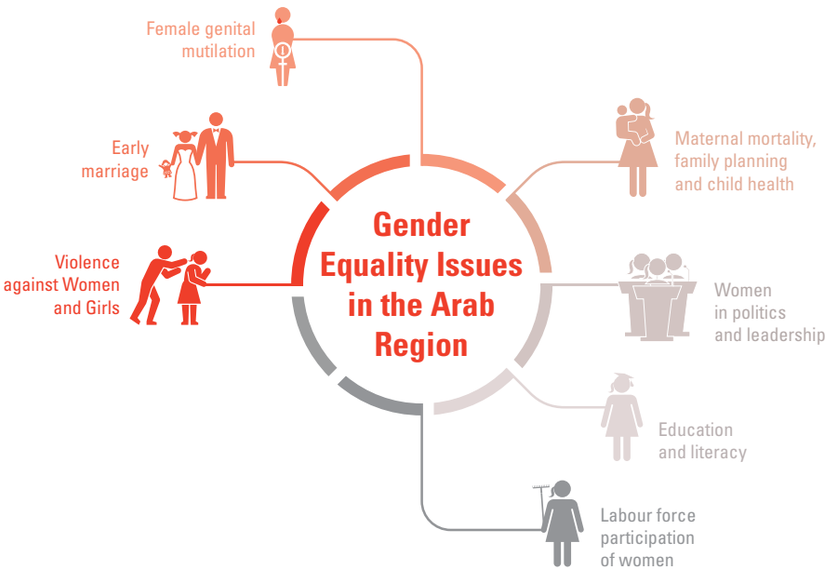
Violence against women and girls has been identified as the highest priority in the fight for gender equality across the region. Harmful practices, such as early marriage and female genital mutilation (FGM), remain a significant problem in some countries, driving up the fertility rate and maternal mortality, respectively, and impacting on the health and education of young women.[2]

High fertility rates remain an issue in several countries, coupled with early marriage and high levels of teenage pregnancy, lower life expectancy, poor health outcomes, and higher poverty.

Another major concern is the lack of women's representation in political and economic spheres. Women's share of seats in national parliaments is among the lowest in the world and there are major gaps in labour force participation and economic empowerment.

Gender norms - the roles that women and men, girls and boys are expected to play in a society – differ across and between countries and are typically shaped by long-held customs and beliefs. As new technologies change the way people live and as people become more educated and information more accessible, social norms change. All the reasons cited above are why using official statistics to monitor gender concerns is so important.

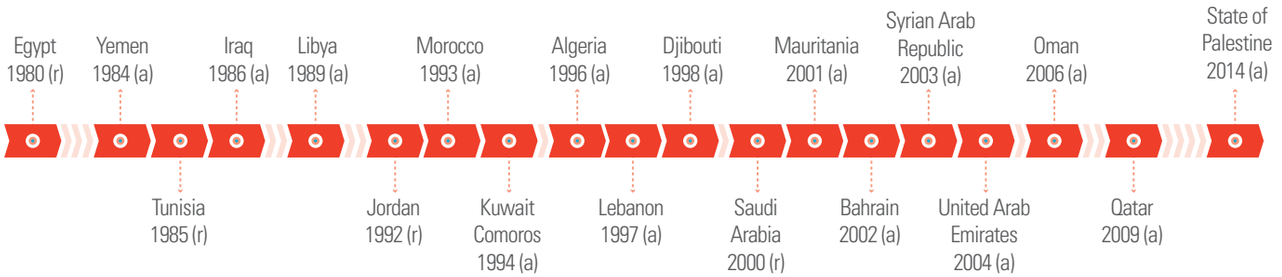
In recognition of the need to empower women and end



discrimination, 20 Arab countries, except the Sudan and Somalia, have ratified or acceded to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW).[3] The Convention affirms the principle of equality in 30 articles covering the political, civil, legal, social, cultural and sexual and reproductive realms. Countries must report on a regular basis (every five years) using statistics and other evidence of progress in areas where gaps still exist. The first country to ratify the Convention was Egypt in 1980 and the most recent was the State of Palestine in 2014 Figure 1.

At the regional level, the Arab Charter on Human Rights (2004) is an important legal document to protect Arab women from all forms of violence. Under the Charter, States parties must respect the principle of de facto equality of women and men in rights and freedoms. Women and men are equal in human dignity, rights and duties within the framework of affirmative action, which is

Figure 1. Timeline of Arab States ratification or accession of CEDAW (as at November 2018)



Source: United Nations Treaty Collection.
Note: Ratification (r), Accession (a)

sanctioned by Islamic law, divine religions, legislation and conventions in force for women and each State undertakes to take all necessary measures to do so.[4]

The Cairo Declaration on Human Rights in Islam aims to protect people from exploitation and oppression and to emphasize the freedom and rights of the human being and a decent life in accordance with Islamic law. It was passed by the Council of Foreign Ministers of the Organization of the Islamic Conference in 1990 and entered into force in 2008. The Declaration contains several principles that prohibit violence against human beings and obligates the State and society to protect fundamental human rights, based on the belief that basic rights and public freedoms in Islam are not to be disrupted, in whole or in part, nor ignored by anyone.[5]

B. The SDGs and leaving no one behind

On 15 September 2015, 193 countries adopted a new set of global goals to end poverty, protect the planet, ensure prosperity for all

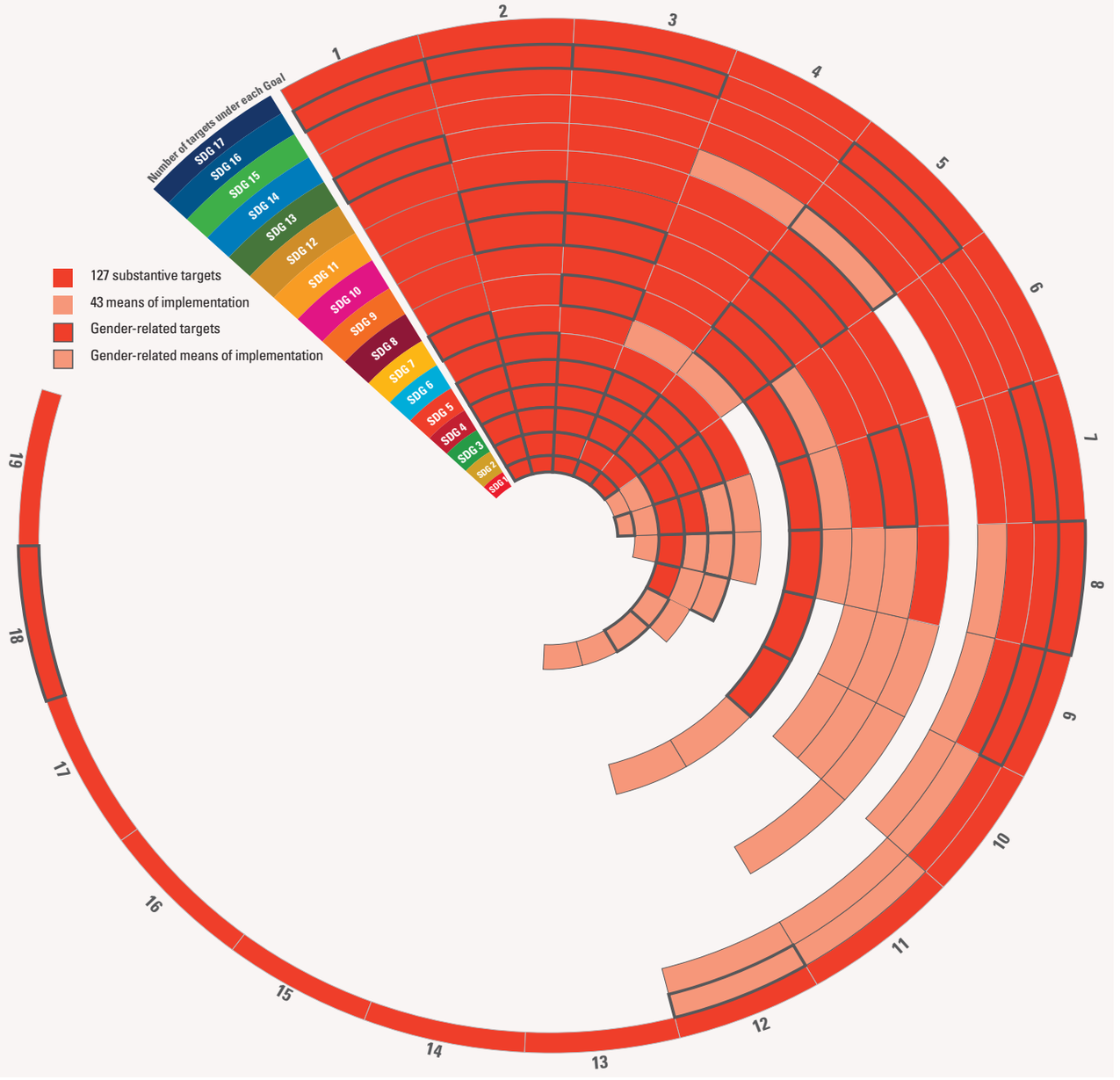
and leave no one behind: the 17 SDGs[6] to be implemented by 2030. The framework for achieving the goals and monitoring progress includes 169 targets and more than 232 indicators. One third, or 80 indicators, explicitly or implicitly address gender equality and specify results related to women and girls Figure 2.[7] Evidence from surveys, censuses and administrative records, including big data, allow policymakers to identify and address inequalities, and track how women and men contribute to and benefit from achieving national, regional and global development goals.

Moreover, SDG 5 which aims specifically to "achieve gender equality and empower women and girls", includes nine targets and 14 indicators on gender equality. SDG 5 focuses on ending discrimination and violence against women and girls, ending early marriage and female genital mutilation, valuing unpaid care and promoting shared responsibilities, ensuring full participation in leadership and decision-making, and universal access to reproductive health care. Importantly, there is also significant emphasis given to the importance of sex-disaggregated and gender-sensitive measures across all 17 SDGs except goals 12, 14 and 15.[8] The SDG has made a big leap by focusing on gender equality and women's empowerment since the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) Table 1.

Table 1. Comparison of Millennium Development Goals to Sustainable Development Goals

MDGs		SDGs
2000-2015	Duration of compact	2015-2030
8 Goals, 18 Targets, 48 Indicators	How many goals, targets and indicators?	17 Goals, 169 Targets, 232 Indicators
International organizations	Who defined the targets and indicators?	Member countries including Arab States
Gender equality in education, employment, parliament	Key concepts to measure	Gender equality in all 17 Goals except 12, 14 and 15
Gender parity	Key equity concept	Gender and various disadvantaged groups
One target under MDG 3	How many gender targets?	Nine targets under Goal 5 on Gender Equality
Four indicators under MDG 3	How many gender indicators?	Fourteen indicators under Goal 5

Figure 2. Gender-related targets under each of the Sustainable Development Goals



Source: ESCWA calculations based on United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD), Inter-agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics (IAEG-GS), Gender-relevant SDG indicators (updated on 14 March 2018).

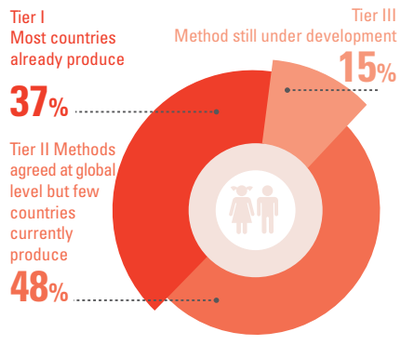
C. SDG gender indicators

The United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD) classifies data availability in the SDG Indicator Framework into three tiers:

- **Tier I** indicators are those for which data are already commonly produced by countries according to established methodologies and standards;
- **Tier II** indicators are those where data availability is scarce, but internationally agreed methodologies and standards are available;
- **Tier III** indicators are those with no available standardized methodologies. Once methodologies are made available for Tier III indicators, they are elevated to Tier II for countries to collect and monitor them.

Out of the 80 SDG gender-related indicators[9], globally, 37 per cent of them are in Tier I, 48 per cent in Tier II, and the remaining 15 per cent are in Tier III Figure 3. As global initiatives resolve the gaps in methodology for measuring Tier III indicators, they graduate to become Tier II. As countries work towards collecting data and producing the Tier II indicators, they graduate to Tier I.

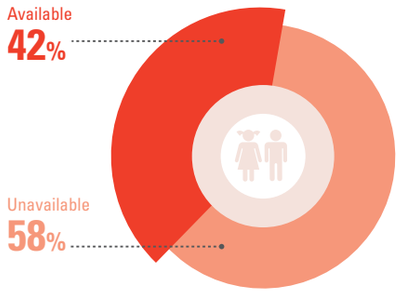
Figure 3. Global gender-related indicators by tier status



Source: Calculated by ESCWA based on the Tier Classification of SDG Indicators framework as of February 2019.

Out of the 37 per cent gender-related indicators in Tier I available globally in the SDG Global Database, Arab States could monitor 42 per cent of those indicators with varying degrees as per country's capacity Figure 4.

Figure 4. Percentage of available gender-related indicators in Tier I



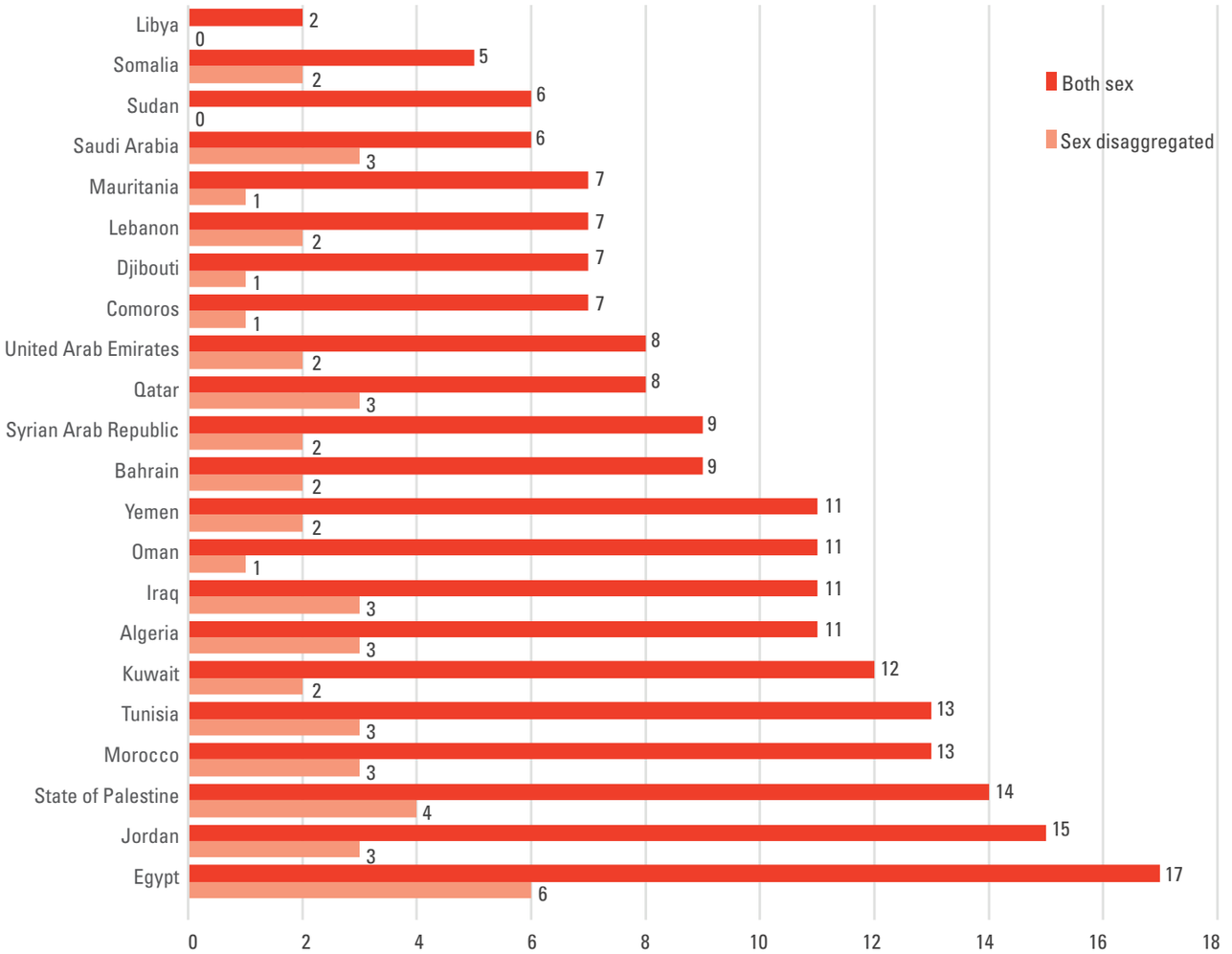
Source: Calculated by ESCWA based on the Tier Classification of SDG Indicators framework as of February 2019.

Analysis of countries' performance in 2019 shows that all countries collected, to a varying degree, some SDG gender-related indicators. However, all countries fell short from disaggregating most of those indicators by sex Figure 5. Yemen, for example, disseminated only 11 per cent of the gender-related indicators in total and provided disaggregation by sex for less than fifth of them (2%). Egypt was the country with the highest gender-related indicators collected (17%) in the SDG Global Database but disseminated only 6 per cent of those by sex. Many countries' dissemination practices still follow conventional methods. Countries avoid producing cross-tabulations by different characteristics including sex.

There are three possible reasons for the unavailability of gender-related and sex-disaggregated country data in the SDG Global Database. Firstly, indicators may have been collected but not computed, compiled or disseminated. Secondly, the metadata for those indicators were not published in a transparent way or published but did not follow international standards. Finally, the indicators were not available because they are not collected or were infrequently collected.

It is important also to note that when comparing available national data officially disseminated by the national statistical office and the SDG datasets available as "country" and "country adjusted" data in the Global SDG Database, further issues were revealed in terms of data availability and discrepancy. There were many gender-related indicators that were available in the SDG Global database, however those indicators were not disseminated or made available by countries. That was also true vice versa, in that many of the available national data were not included in the SDG Global database. When country indicators were available in both sources, national and global, some indicators were found to be discrepant. Moreover, discrepancies were also found at subnational level when two different national sources quoted different values for same indicators at same years.

Figure 5. Comparison between available gender-related indicators disseminated in totals and sex by country (percentage)



Source: Calculated by ESCWA based on the available national data of 2018.

Priority capacity-building efforts should be geared, therefore, to increasing collection and frequency of unavailable indicators by countries in the region especially in neglected areas such as violence against women, time use statistics, etc. In addition, there is an urgent need to enhance the capacity of countries to transparently disseminate accurate indicators along with standard metadata. Countries need to modernize their dissemination methods make them accessible by different users and flexible to produce cross-tabulations much needed for policymaking.

D. Sources of gender statistics

Gender statistics are mainly produced from three data sources: censuses, surveys and administrative records. In most countries in the region there is a reasonable amount of data produced and available for gender analysis.

The Table 2 below lists censuses and household surveys particularly relevant to the production of gender statistics recently conducted in the Arab States.

Table 2. Censuses and household surveys recently conducted in the Arab States

Country	Population and Housing Censuses	Income, Expenditure, and Budget related Surveys	Health related surveys	Violence Against Women Surveys	Labour Force Surveys	Time Use Surveys
Algeria	2008	2011 (HLSS)	2018 (MICS6)		2019	2012
Bahrain	2010	2014 (HIES)	2018 (NHS)		2018	
Comoros	2017	2013 (ENCDM)	2012 (DHS)	2012 (DHS)	2014	
Djibouti	2009	2017 (EDAM)	2012 (PAPFAM)		2015	
Egypt	2017	2019 (HIECS)	2014 (DHS)	2014 (DHS) 2015, 2019	2020	2015
Iraq	1997	2014 (IHSES)	2018 (MICS6)	2011 (IWISH)	2008	2007 2012 (IHSES)
Jordan	2015	2017 (HIES)	2017 (DHS)	2017 (DHS)	2016	
Kuwait	2011	2013 (HIES)	2009 (PAPFAM) 2010 (KWHS)		2015	
Lebanon	1932	2018 (LFHCS)	2009 (MICS3)		2018	
Libya	2006	2012 (HIES)	2014 (PAPFAM)		2013	
Mauritania	2013	2014 (EPCVM)	2015 (MICS5)	2011	2017	
Morocco	2014	2014 (ENCDM)	2018 (PAPFAM)	2018 (DHS) 2019	2019	1997, 2011
Oman	2010	2018 (HIES)	2014 (MICS5)		2016	2007
The State of Palestine	2017	2017 (HIECS)	2019 (MICS6)	2015, 2019	2019	1999, 2012
Qatar	2015	2017 (HIES)	2012 (MICS4)		2020	2012
Saudi Arabia	2010	2018 (HIES)	2018 (HHS)		2020	
The Sudan	2008	2014 (BPS)	2014 (MICS5)		2011	
The Syrian Arab Republic	2004	2009 (HIES)	2017 (HS)		2011	
Somalia	1987	2017 (HFS)	2019 (DHS)	2019 (DHS)	2019	
Tunisia	2014	2015 (HCS)	2018 (MICS6)	2011	2017	2005
The United Arab Emirates	2005	2019 (HIES)	2018 (HHS)		2019	
Yemen	2004	2013 (HBS)	2013 (DHS)		2013	

Sources: Based on data from national statistical offices, macro international for DHS surveys and the UN Women Global Database on Violence against Women.

BPS Budget and Poverty Survey
DHS Demographic Health Survey
EDAM Enquête Djiboutienne Auprès des Ménages pour les Indicateurs Sociaux
ENCDM Enquête National sur la Consommation et les Dépenses des Ménages
EPCVM Enquête Permanente sur les Conditions de Vie des ménages
HBS Household Budget Survey
HCS Household Consumption Survey
HFS High Frequency Survey
HHS Household and Health Survey
HIECS Household Income, Expenditure and Consumption Survey
HIES Household Income and Expenditure Survey
HLCS Household Living Conditions Survey
HLSS Household Living Standard Survey
HS Health Survey
IHSES Iraq Household Socioeconomic Survey
IPMM Iraq Poverty and Maternal Mortality Survey
IWISH Iraq Woman Integrated Social and Health Survey
KWHS Kuwait World Health Survey
LFHCS Labor Force and Household Conditions Survey
MICS Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
NHS National Health Survey
PAPFAM The Pan Arab Project for Family Health

E. List of gender indicators

The list of gender indicators used in this publication draws on diverse data sources and includes gender-related indicators and information on enabling environments to complement the SDGs by filling gaps using a gender lens on the region's priority areas. All data in this publication refers to latest data available from national and international sources. The data are also made available on the ESCWA Statistics Division Data Portal, in time series, on the following link: https://data.unescwa.org/

As new data sources and data come to light, the online Gender Statistics database will be updated on a regular basis.

Table 3. List of Gender Indicators used in the publication

#	Indicator reference	Indicators	BPfA strategic objectives reference
		Population (9)	
1.	SDG 17.19.2	Countries that have conducted at least one population and housing census in the last 10 years	
2.	SDG 17.19.2	Countries with birth registration data that are at least 90 percent complete	
3.	SDG 17.19.2	Countries with death registration data that are at least 75 percent complete	
4.		Population estimates, by sex	
5.		Population sex ratio	
6.		Sex ratio at birth	
7.		Age-sex distribution	
8.		Age dependency ratio (ages 0-14, 15-64, and 65 years and older)	
9.		Gross Domestic Product in Purchasing Power Parity	
		Marriage and families (9)	
10.		Minimum age of marriage with parental consent, by sex	
11.		Mean age at first marriage, by sex	
		Gender gap in mean age at first marriage in years	
12.		Mean age for childbearing	
13.		Average number of residents per household	
14.		Share of female-headed households	
15.		Annual number of divorces, by sex	
16.		Crude divorce rate	
17.		Proportion of age-specific divorced population aged 45-49 years, by sex	
18.		Proportion of age-specific widowed population aged 60-64 years, by sex	
		Health (10)	
19.		Life expectancy at birth, by sex	
		Gender gap in life expectancy at birth	
20.	UN GI 41	Life expectancy at age 60, by sex	C.1, C.2
21.		Current health expenditure as percentage of Gross Domestic Product	

#	Indicator reference	Indicators	BPfA strategic objectives reference
Health (10)			
22.		Current health expenditure per capita in Purchasing Power Parity	
23.	**SDG 3.8.1**	Universal health coverage service coverage index	
24.		Proportion of premature death due to non-communicable diseases, by sex	
25.		Proportion of civil registration coverage of causes of death	
26.		Proportion of ill-defined causes in cause of death registration	
27.	**SDG 3.a.1 UN GI 37**	Age-standardized prevalence of current tobacco use among persons aged 15 years and older, by sex	C.2
28.	**SDG 3.4.2**	Suicide mortality rate, by sex	C.1, C.2
Maternal health (8)			
29.		Total fertility rate	
		Total fertility rate, by wealth	
		Total fertility rate, by education	
		Total fertility rate, by location	
		Total fertility rate, and mean age at first marriage	
30.	**UN GI 32**	Proportion of women, aged 15-49 years, with unmet need for family planning	C.1, C.2
31.		Proportion of married women currently using any method of contraception	
		Proportion of married women currently using any method of contraception, by wealth	
		Proportion of married women currently using any method of contraception, by location	
32.		Prevalence of contraceptive use and fertility rate, by women's education	
33.	**UN GI 35**	Antenatal visits for pregnancy: four or more visits	C.1
		Antenatal visits for pregnancy: four or more visits, by location	
34.		Proportion of live births delivered at a health facility	
		Proportion of live births delivered at a health facility, by wealth	
		Proportion of live births delivered at a health facility, by education of mother	
35.	**SDG 3.1.2 UN GI 36**	Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel	C.1
		Proportion of women who received assistance during delivery from a skilled provider, by wealth	
		Proportion of women who received assistance during delivery from a skilled provider, by location	
36.	**SDG 3.1.1 UN GI 34**	Maternal mortality ratio	C.1

#	Indicator reference	Indicators	BPfA strategic objectives reference
		Child health (6)	
37.	SDG 2.2.1	Proportion of children stunted, by sex	
		Proportion of children stunted, by education of mother	
		Proportion of children stunted, by wealth	
38.	SDG 2.2.2	Proportion of children wasted, by sex	
		Proportion of children wasted, by education of mother	
		Proportion of children wasted, by wealth	
39.	SDG 2.2.2	Proportion of underweight children, by sex	
		Proportion of underweight children, by education of mother	
		Proportion of underweight children, by wealth	
40.		Post-neonatal mortality, by sex	
		Post-neonatal mortality, by education of mother	
41.	SDG 3.2.1(a)	Infant mortality rate, by sex	
42.	SDG 3.2.1(b) UN GI 33	Under-five mortality rate, by sex	
		Under-five mortality rate, by wealth	C.1
		Under-five mortality rate, by location	
		Disability (12)	
43.		Prevalence of disability	
		Prevalence of disability, by location	
44.		Proportion of population aged 65 years and older among persons with and without disabilities, by sex	
45.		Proportion of singlehood among population aged 15 years and older, by sex and disability status	
		Proportion of singlehood among population aged 35-39 years, by sex and disability status	
46.		Proportion of adult population, aged 25 years and older, with no education or some primary education, by sex and disability status	
47.		School attendance of population aged 5-14 years, by sex and disability status	
		School attendance of population aged 15-24 years, by sex and disability status	
48.		Gap in school attendance for persons with and without disabilities	
49.	UN GI 20	Youth illiteracy rate of persons aged 15-24 years, by sex and disability status	B.2, L.4
		Gap in youth illiteracy rate, by disability status	
50.		Employment to population rate, by sex and disability status	
		Disability gap in employment rate between persons within same sex and between two sexes	
51.		Proportion of employed and not employed population aged 15 years and older, by sex and disability status	
52.		Gap in adult employment between persons with and without disabilities	
53.	UN GI 4	Proportion of own-account persons with and without disabilities, by sex	F.2
54.	UN GI 10	Unemployment rate for persons aged 15 years and older, by sex and disability status	F.1
		Gender gap in unemployment rate for persons aged 15 years and older	

#	Indicator reference	Indicators	BPfA strategic objectives reference
Education (26)			
55.		National constitutions that enshrines the right of education for all girls and women	
56.		Share of government expenditure on education	
57.		Net attendance rate in primary education, by sex	
		Net attendance rate in primary education, by wealth	
		Net attendance rate in primary education, by location	
		Net attendance rate in primary education, by compulsory years	
		Net attendance rate in primary education, by free years	
58.	**SDG 4.2.2**	Participation rate in organized learning – early childhood education- (one year before the official primary entry age), by sex	
		Gender gap in early childhood education	
59.	**UN GI 21**	Net enrolment rate in primary education, by sex	B.1, L.4
		Gender gap in net enrolment rate in primary education	
60.		Survival rate of primary education, by sex	
		Gender gap in survival rate of primary education	
61.	**UN GI 28**	Completion rate of primary education of young people aged 15-24 years, by wealth	B.1
		Completion rate of primary education of young people aged 15-24 years, by location	
		Gender gap in completion rate of primary education of young people aged 15-24 years	
		Completion rate of primary education of young people aged 15-24 years, by sex	
62.		Net enrolment rate in secondary education, by sex	
		Gender gap in net enrolment rate in secondary education	
63.	**UN GI 22**	Gross enrolment ratio in lower secondary education, by sex	B.1
		Gender gap in gross enrolment ratio in lower secondary education	
64.		Completion rate of lower secondary education, by sex	
		Completion rate of lower secondary education, by wealth	
		Completion rate of lower secondary education, by location	
		Gender gap in completion rate of lower secondary education	
65.		Completion rate of upper secondary education, by sex	
		Completion rate of upper secondary education, by wealth	
		Completion rate of upper secondary education, by location	
		Gender gap in completion rate in upper secondary education	
66.	**UN GI 31**	Educational attainment rate of population aged 25 years and older who completed upper secondary education or higher, by sex	B.1
		Gender gap in educational attainment rate of population aged 25 years and older who completed upper secondary education or higher	

#	Indicator reference	Indicators	BPfA strategic objectives reference
		Education (26)	
67.	**SDG 4.1.1(c)**	Gender parity index for achievement in mathematics in lower secondary education	
68.	**SDG 4.1.1(c)**	Gender parity index for achievement in reading in lower secondary education	
69.		Share of female students in secondary vocational education	
70.	**UN GI 23**	Gross enrolment ratio in tertiary education, by sex	B.1
		Gender gap in gross enrolment ratio in tertiary education	
71.		Gross attendance ratio for tertiary education, by sex	
		Gross attendance ratio for tertiary education, by wealth	
		Gross attendance ratio for tertiary education, by location	
		Gender gap of the gross attendance ratio in tertiary education	
72.	**UN GI 25**	Share of girls and boys graduates in science and engineering, manufacturing and construction majors	B.3, B.4, L.4
		Gender Parity Index of graduates, by specialization in science and engineering, manufacturing and construction majors	
73.	**UN GI 20**	Youth literacy rate of persons aged 15-24 years, by sex	B.2, L.4
		Gender gap in youth literacy rate	
74.	**UN GI 20**	Adult literacy rate of persons aged 15 years and older, by sex	B.2, L.4
		Gender gap in adult literacy rate	
75.		Proportion of out-of-school children, by school exposure	
76.		Out of school rate for children of primary education, by sex	
		Out of school rate for children of primary education, by wealth	
		Out of school rate for children of primary education, by location	
		Gender gap in out of school rate for children of primary education	
77.		Out of school rate for adolescents of lower secondary education, by sex	
		Out of school rate for adolescents of lower secondary education, by wealth	
		Out of school rate for adolescents of lower secondary education, by location	
		Gender gap in out of school rate for adolescents of lower secondary education	
78.		Proportion of children aged 3-6 years who have never been to school, by sex	
		Proportion of children aged 3-6 years who have never been to school, by wealth	
		Proportion of children aged 3-6 years who have never been to school, by location	
79.	**SDG 17.8.1 UN GI 17**	Proportion of individuals using the Internet	F.3
		Gender gap in using the Internet	
80.	**SDG 4.4.1**	Proportion of youth and adults with information and communications technology skills, by type of skill	
		Gender gap in type of information and communications technology skills	

#	Indicator reference	Indicators	BPfA strategic objectives reference
		Work (20)	
81.		Law mandates equal remuneration for females and males for work of equal value	
82.	SDG 5.1.1	Legal frameworks that promote, enforce and monitor gender equality in employment and economic benefits	
83.		Ratification of gender-related ILO Conventions by Arab States (as at August 2018)	
84.	UN GI 3	Duration of paid maternity leave	F.1, F.6
85.	UN GI 3	Labour force participation rate for persons aged 15-24 and 15 and older, by sex	F.1, H.3
		Gender gap in labour force participation rate	
86.	SDG 1.1.1	Proportion of employed population aged 15 years and older living below international poverty line, by sex	
		Gender gap of employed population living below international poverty line	
87.		Proportion of employed population aged 15 years and older, by sex and educational level	
		Gender gap of employed population aged 15 years and older, by educational level	
88.	UN GI 8	Proportion of employed population, by sex and sector (Sectors: Agriculture, Industry and Services)	F.5, H.3
89.	SDG 8.5.1 UN GI 13	Gender pay gap, by sectors	F.1, F5
90.		Proportion of employed who are employees, by sex	
91.	UN GI 6	Proportion of employed who are employer, by sex	F.1
92.	UN GI 4	Proportion of employed who are own-account workers, by sex	F.2
93.	UN GI 5	Proportion of employed who are contributing family workers, by sex	H.3
94.		Vulnerable employment rate, by sex	
95.	SDG 5.4.1 UN GI 1	Average number of hours spent on unpaid domestic and care work of youth population, by sex	C.2, F.1, H.3
		Average number of hours spent on unpaid domestic and care work of youth population, by location	
		Average number of hours spent on unpaid domestic and care work of adult population, by sex	
		Average number of hours spent on unpaid domestic and care work of adult population, by location	
96.	UN GI 2	Average number of hours spent on total work (paid and unpaid)– total work burden, by sex	F.1, H.3
97.	SDG 8.5.2(a) UN GI 10	Unemployment rate for persons aged 15 years and older, by sex	F.1
98.	SDG 8.5.2(b) UN GI 10	Youth unemployment rate for persons aged 15-24 years, by sex	F.1
99.	SDG 8.6.1	Proportion of youth, aged 15-24 years, not in education, employment or training, by sex	F.1
		Gender gap of youth not in education, employment or training (NEET)	
100.	SDG 5. b.1 UN GI 18	Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex	F.3
		Gender gap of individuals who own a mobile telephone	

#	Indicator reference	Indicators	BPfA strategic objectives reference
Public life and decision-making (11)			
101.		CEDAW signatory status	
102.		Electoral quota for women	
103.		Lag time (in years) between women being granted the right to stand for election and a woman being appointed to parliament	
104.	**UN GI 43**	Share of women in government ministerial positions	G.1
105.	**SDG 5.5.1** **UN GI 44**	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments	G.1
		Proportion of seats held by women in local governments	
106.	**SDG 16.7.1** **UN GI 47**	Share of women judges	I.2
107.		Share of women lawyers	
108.	**SDG 5.5.2** **UN GI 45**	Share of women in managerial positions	F.1, F.5, G.1
109.		Share of women in Chief Executive Officer positions	
110.		Share of women in board membership	
111.	**SDG 8.10.2** **UN GI 11**	Proportion of adults, aged 15 years and older, with an account at a financial institution or mobile-money-service provider, by sex	F.1, F.2
		Gender gap of adult population with an account at a financial institution or mobile-money-service provider	
Human rights of women and girls (10)			
112.		National laws on violence against women	
113.	**SDG 5.3.1** **UN GI 51**	Proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in a union before age 15	L.1, L.2
		Proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in a union before age 18	
114.	**SDG 3.7.2** **UN GI 52**	Adolescent birth rate per 1,000 women	L.1, L.2
		Adolescent birth rate, by education	
		Adolescent birth rate, by wealth	
115.	**SDG 5.3.2** **UN GI 50**	Proportion of girls aged 15-19 years who have undergone female genital mutilation	I.2
		Proportion of women aged 45-49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation	
		Proportion of girls and women aged 15–49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation, by location	
		Proportion of girls and women aged 15–49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation, by wealth	
		Gap between poorest and richest girls undergoing female genital mutilation	
116.		Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in their lifetime, by form of violence and age	
117.	**SDG 5.2.1** **UN GI 48**	Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by form of violence and age	D.1, D.2

#	Indicator reference	Indicators	BPfA strategic objectives reference
Human rights of women and girls (10)			
118.	**SDG 5.2.2 UN GI 49**	Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by age and place of occurrence	D.1, D.2
119.		Shares of detected victims of trafficking in MENA, by age group and sex	
		Share of detected victims of trafficking in MENA, by forms of exploitation	
120.	**SDG 16.2.2**	Number of victims of trafficking in persons detected, by age and sex	
121.	**SDG 8.7.1**	Proportion of children engaged in economic activity, by sex	
		Gender gap of children engaged in economic activity	
Environment (9)			
122.		Proportion of population with access to improved water sources	
123.		Population living in households using an improved water source, by location	
		Population living in households using an improved water source, by wealth	
124.	**SDG 6.1.1**	Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services, by location	
125.	**SDG 6.2.1(a)**	Proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services, by location	
126.		Proportion of population with access to improved sanitation facilities	
127.	**SDG 6.2.1(b)**	Proportion of population with basic hand washing facilities on premises, by location	
128.	**SDG 3.9.2**	Mortality rate attributed to unsafe water, unsafe sanitation and lack of hygiene	
129.	**SDG 7.1.1**	Proportion of population with access to electricity, by location	
		Gap between rural and urban areas with access to electricity	
130.	**SDG 7.1.2**	Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology	

Source: The United Nations Minimum Set of Gender Indicators. Updated on 30 April 2019.

Chapter 2
Population

The Arab region has witnessed a large decrease in the mean age for childbearing, resulting mostly from an increase in early marriages among girls from poor families and with less education, mostly in conflict-affected or post-conflict countries.

The age dependency ratio provides an insight into the burden of unpaid care work, which most often falls on women owing to ascribed gender roles. The age dependency ratio was highest among countries with the lowest GDP in the region. High fertility rates in these countries further contributed to high dependency ratios.

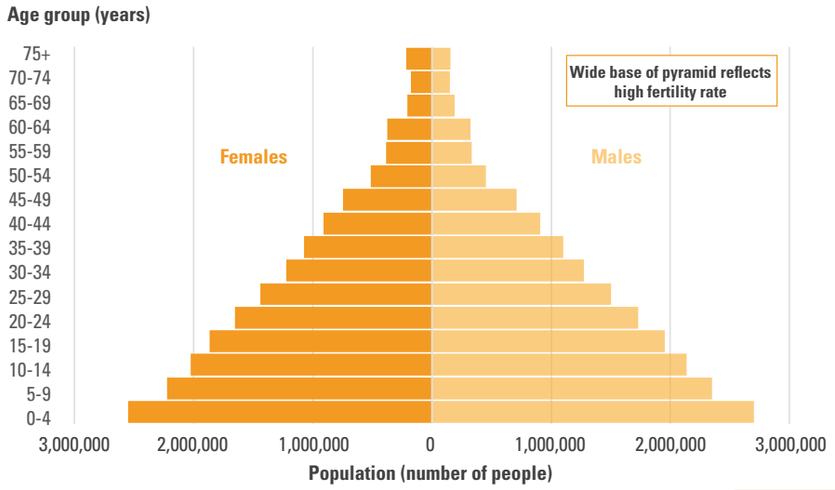
Population

Countries face varying challenges in pursuit of gender equality. Understanding the composition of the population is essential for planning current and future services and anticipating economic, social and environmental issues. Egypt is the most populous country with almost 100 million people while Comoros has the smallest population with almost 851,000 people.

A. Age and sex structure of population

The age and sex structure of the population varies between countries of the region. High fertility rates remain an issue in several countries, which when coupled with early marriage and high levels of teenage pregnancy, perpetuate the problem. Countries with high fertility rates such as Iraq, Mauritania, Comoros, Yemen, the Sudan, the State of Palestine and Somalia – also tend to have higher poverty, lower life expectancy and poor health outcomes. In these countries, the proportion of young people is usually much higher than older persons Table 4. The population pyramid for Iraq, for example, has a wide base representing younger people while the peak of the pyramid is narrow representing older persons Figure 6.

Figure 6. Population pyramid showing the age and sex structure, Iraq 2015



Source: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA), *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019).

Libya, however, has a much lower fertility rate, and, as a result, their population pyramid is much narrower at the base than Iraq's Figure 7.

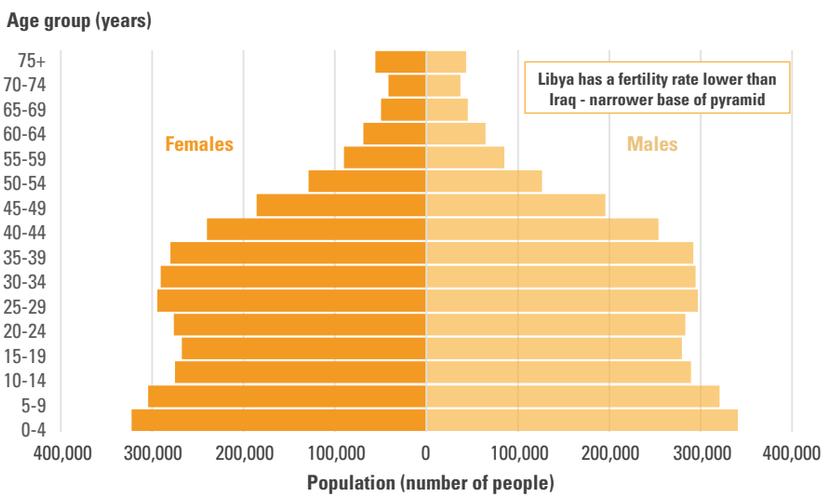
Population structure is not only influenced by birth and death rates; migration also plays an important role. In countries where the economy relies on recruiting a large number of migrant workers – such as Bahrain, Kuwait,

Table 4. Population estimates and sex ratio

Country	Population estimates 2019 (thousands)	Sex ratio	
		In total population 2015	At birth 2015-2020
Egypt	100,388	102	106
Algeria	43,053	102	105
Sudan	42,813	100	104
Iraq	39,310	102	107
Morocco	36,472	98	106
Saudi Arabia	34,269	132	103
Yemen	29,162	102	105
Syrian Arab Republic	17,070	102	105
Somalia	15,443	100	103
Tunisia	11,695	98	106
Jordan	10,102	103	105
United Arab Emirates	9,771	238	105
Lebanon	6,856	101	105
Libya	6,777	102	106
State of Palestine	4,981	103	105
Oman	4,975	187	105
Mauritania	4,526	100	105
Kuwait	4,207	143	105
Qatar	2,832	317	105
Bahrain	1,641	161	104
Djibouti	974	112	104
Comoros	851	102	105

Source: DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019).

Figure 7. Population pyramid showing the age and sex structure, Libya 2015

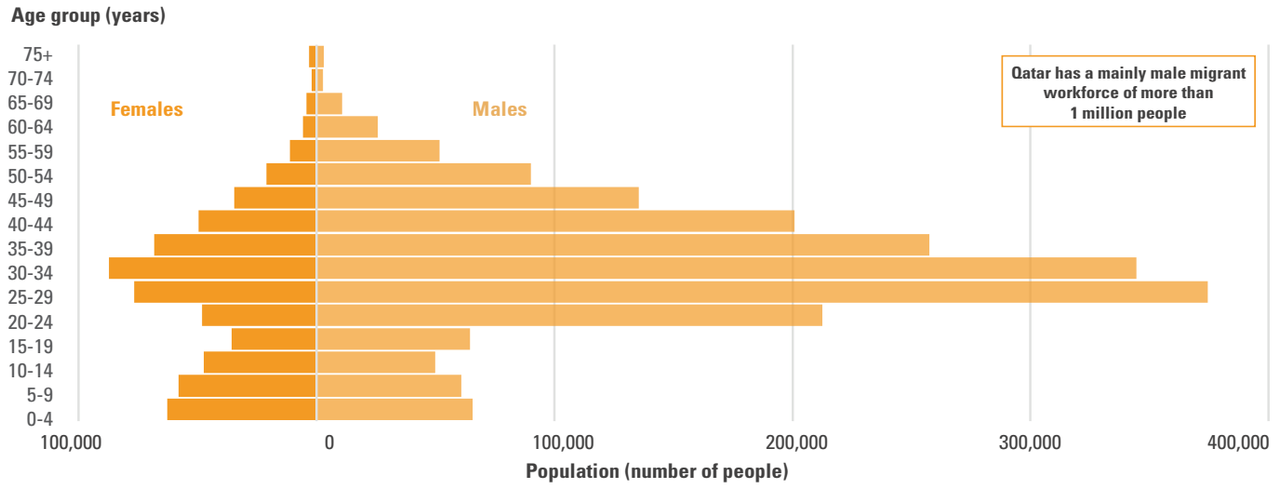


Source: DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019).

Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates – the age and sex structure of the population looks completely different. In these States the large numbers of male migrant workers skew the population toward males, creating an imbalance in the sex ratio.

For example, Qatar's population pyramid shows the population is heavily skewed towards men. In fact, men outnumber women three to one. Such a population can create particular gender issues, with large numbers of men living without their partners, and limited job opportunities for women Figure 8.

Figure 8. Population pyramid showing the age and sex structure, Qatar 2015



Source: DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019).

B. Gender roles by age and sex

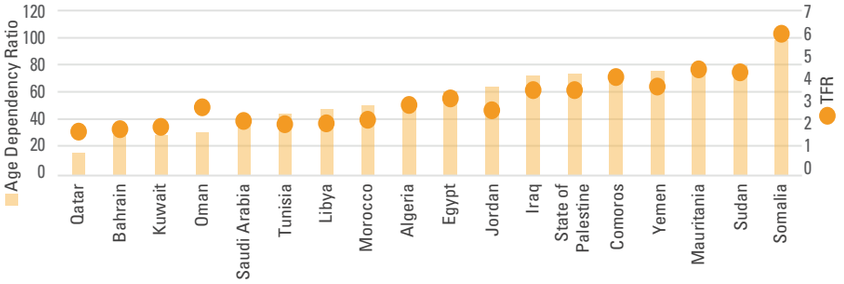
Population pyramids are useful for showing the relative size of the total population by sex and age, but the sex ratio at birth is also an important gender-related indicator to track. It is a universal and naturally occurring phenomena that more boy babies are born than girls – around 105-107 boys for every 100 girls. When the ratio of boys to girls exceeds 107, it is likely a sign of son preference: the tendency for some cultures to favour having boys over girls in the family. For example, in China, where population policies have shaped family size for decades and there is a preference for sons, there are 116 boys born for every 100 girls. That said, son preference does not appear to impact fertility practices in the Arab States. The sex ratio at birth in the Arab States was between 103 and 107 boys for every 100 girls.

The proportion of children and older persons to the working age population provides an insight into the burden of unpaid care work, which most often falls upon women due to gender roles ascribed by most societies in the Arab States. The age dependency ratio is a measure of this, reflecting the number of children (age 0-14) and older persons (age 65 and above) for every 100 people of working age (age 15-64). The higher the ratio, the greater the burden of care and imbalance between those able to contribute directly to the economy and those reliant on support.[1]

Age dependency ratio was highest in Somalia; every working age person had one dependent. There were 100 children and older persons for every 100 people of working age in Somalia. This was followed by the Sudan where there were 82 children and older persons for every 100 people of working

age. Dependency was high in Comoros, Mauritania and Yemen, which also had lowest current Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in purchasing power parity (PPP) among countries in the region. High fertility rates in these countries further contributed to high dependency ratios. Conversely, dependency was low in the Gulf States, where the population was skewed towards working age due to large numbers of migrant workers Figure 9.

Figure 9. Age dependency ratio and total fertility rate (live births per woman), latest available data



Source: DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019).

C. Age of marriage and childbearing

The Convention on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriages came into force in 1964. The Convention has been signed by 16 countries and there are 55 parties to the Convention, of which only five are Arab States: Jordan (1992), Libya (2005), the State of Palestine (2019), Tunisia (1968) and Yemen (1987). The Convention reaffirms the consensual nature of marriages and requires the parties to establish a minimum marriage age by law and to ensure the registration of marriages. Although Yemen signed the agreement in 1968, it did not establish a minimum age by law.[2] It is also worth noting that the rate of child marriages in Yemen was the highest among Arab States.

Globally, most countries have laws that set minimum age of marriage commonly at age 18. Nonetheless, many countries provide exceptions to this minimum age of marriage with parental consent or court authorisation. Other exceptions allow customary or religious laws to set lower minimum ages of marriage to take precedence over national law that is likely to undermine the legal protection.

According to the World Policy Analysis Centre, 93 countries legally allow girls to marry before the age of 18 with parental consent and 54 countries allow for girls to marry between one and three years younger than boys.[3]

There are nine Arab States where the law allows girls to marry before age 18, and in five of those countries boys also can marry before age 18 Table 5. Saudi Arabia and Yemen have no minimum age of marriage for both sexes. In the Sudan, girls are allowed to marry at puberty, whereas boys can marry at age 10. The following countries allowed girls to marry between ages 9-17 years: Lebanon (9 years), Kuwait (15 years), Bahrain, Somalia and Qatar (16 years), and the Syrian Arab Republic (17 years). In addition to Saudi Arabia, the Sudan and Yemen where boys are allowed to marry young, two more countries allow boys to marry between ages 10-17. In Lebanon, boys can marry at 13 years, and in Kuwait at 17 years. Only two countries, Algeria and Libya, set their minimum age of marriage above 18 years. Both girls and boys can marry at age 19 in Algeria and at age 20 in Libya. In the remaining 11 countries, girls and boys are allowed to marry at age 18

Table 5. Minimum age of marriage for women with parental consent

Age < 10 years or no minimum age	Age <18 years	Age =18 years	Age >18 years
Lebanon (9), Saudi Arabia and Yemen (no minimum age)	Sudan, Kuwait (15), Bahrain (16), Somalia (16), Qatar (16) and Syrian Arab Republic (17)	Djibouti, Comoros, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Mauritania, Morocco, Oman, State of Palestine, Tunisia and United Arab Emirates	Algeria (19) and Libya (20)

Source: World Policy Analysis Centre, "Minimum age of marriage with parental consent for boys and girls, 2013". Available at https://www.worldpolicycenter.org/policies/what-is-the-minimum-age-of-marriage-for-boys/what-is-the-minimum-age-of-marriage-for-boys-with-parental-consent (accessed on 06 February 2019).
Data for the State of Palestine from: UNICEF, *Occupied Palestinian Territory: MENA Gender Equality Profile Status of Girls and Women in the Middle East and North Africa* (2011).

years old: Djibouti, Comoros, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Mauritania, Morocco, Oman, the State of Palestine, Tunisia and the United Arab Emirates.

The mean age at first marriage for women and men provides another relevant measure of gender concern. The average age for men at first marriage ranged from around 26 years old in Iraq and Yemen, to around 33 years old in Tunisia and Djibouti. For women, the average age was lowest in Somalia (21 years) and highest in Djibouti (30 years). Mauritania had the highest gender gap in age at first marriage among Arab States. There are almost eight years of difference between the average age for men (30 years) and that for women (22 years). The gender gap was also large in the Sudan by 6 years, where men marry at an average age of 29 years old compared to 23 years old for women. Similarly, in Somalia the gender gap was at 6 years, Egypt was 6 years and Jordan was 5 years Figure 10.

According to United Nations estimates, the mean age for childbearing varies among Arab States. In the Arab States overall, there was a large decrease from 31 years in 1990 to 28.7 years in 2015, which is projected to decrease further to 28.1 years by 2030. The decrease is derived by increase of early marriages, mostly in states in conflict or post conflict. Iraq, for example, recorded the highest decrease

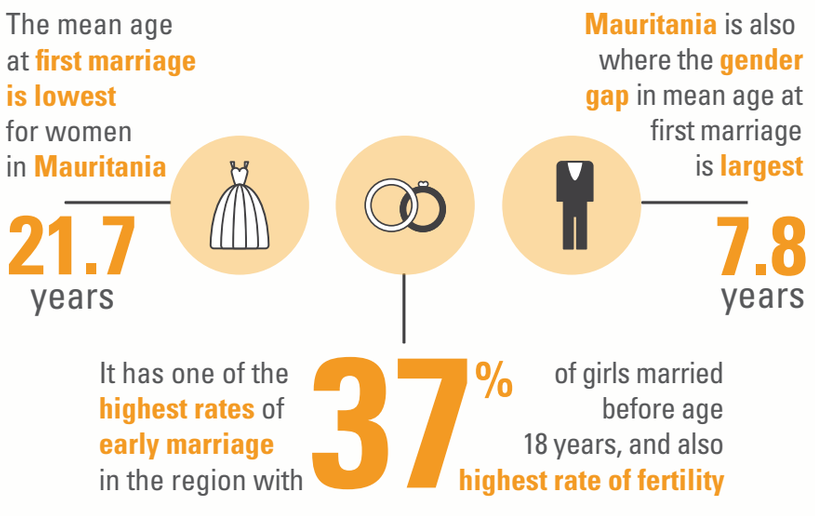
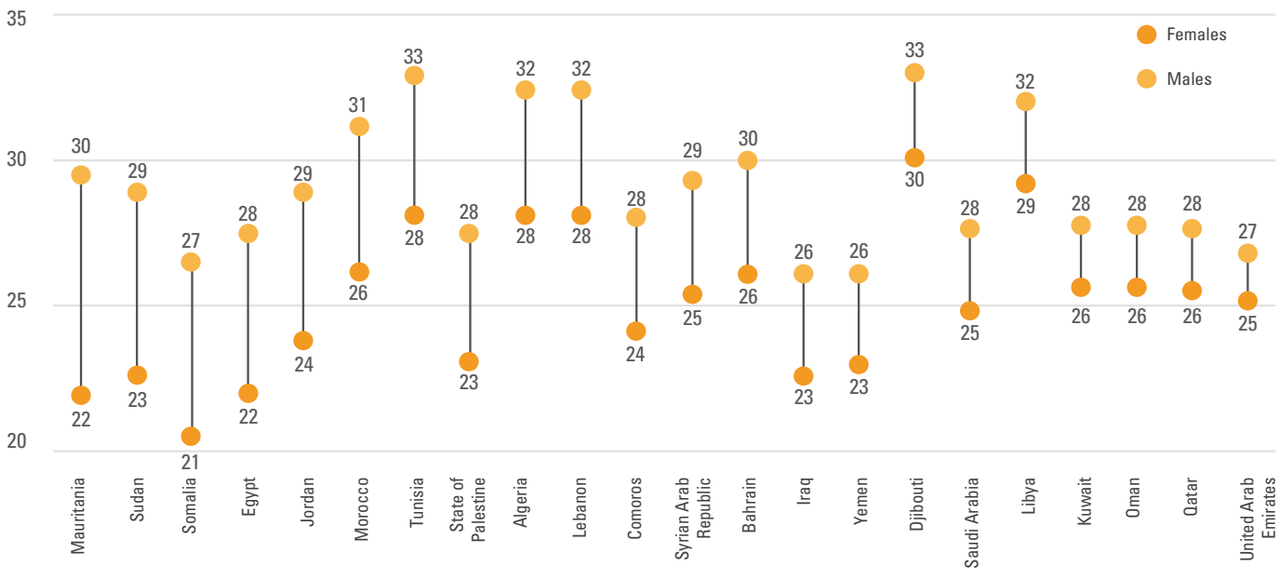


Figure 10. Gender gap in mean age at first marriage, in years, latest year



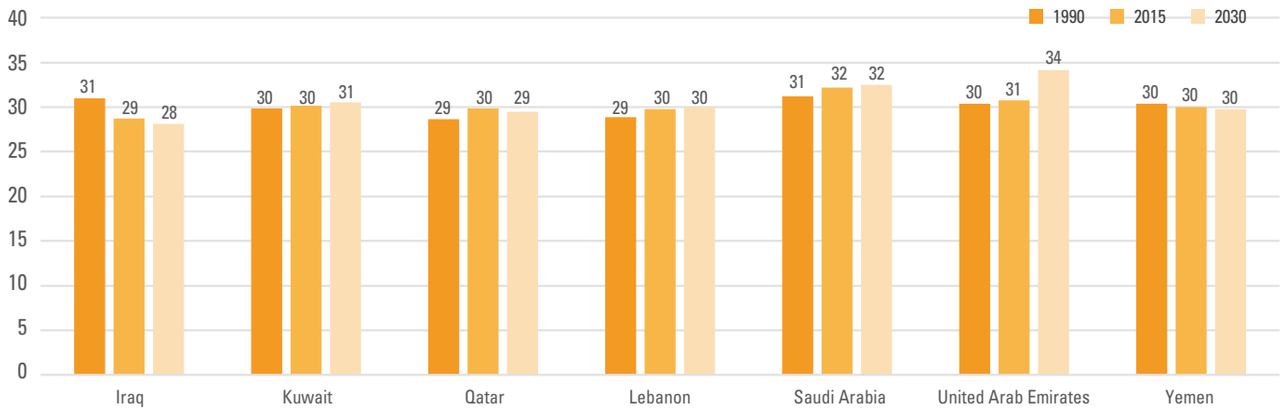
Source: DESA, Population Division, "World Marriage Data 2017".

in women's mean age for childbearing. The rates expected to decrease by nearly 3 years between 1990 and 2030. A similar decrease in the mean age for childbearing in Somalia was estimated from 31.6 in 1990, to 29.7 in 2015, and to 28.9 by 2030.

The highest estimated increase in the mean age for childbearing was by 3.7 years in the United Arab Emirates between 1990 to 2030: the mean age for childbearing increased from 30.4 years in 1990, to 30.7 in 2015 and is projected to be 34.1 years by 2030. In 2030 the United Arab Emirates would record the highest mean age for childbearing among Arab States. Smaller increases in the mean age for childbearing were estimated to occur in Lebanon (1.1 years) and Saudi Arabia (1.3 years).

In the other Arab States, the mean age for childbearing stayed fairly steady over recent decades. Countries like Algeria, Djibouti, Kuwait, Libya, Oman, Qatar, the Sudan and Tunisia are projected to increase by less than 1 year from 1990 to 2030 Figure 11.

Figure 11. Trend in mean age for childbearing in years



Source: DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019).

D. Head and size of households

Young age at first marriage and mean age for childbearing contributes to higher fertility and to larger family size. More than half of countries in the Arab States had five or more persons per household. Those countries were Algeria, Comoros, Djibouti, Iraq, Jordan, Mauritania, Morocco, Oman, Qatar, Somalia, the Syrian Arab Republic, the State of Palestine, the Sudan and Yemen.

Oman and Yemen had the highest rates, with 7 persons per household, followed by Iraq 6 persons per household. Egypt and Tunisia had the smallest size of household, with 4 persons, in the region Figure 12.

In most of the cases, divorce, singlehood or widowhood forces women to become head of their households. Although female-headed households have historically constituted a relatively small proportion of households in the developing world, they are becoming increasingly common.

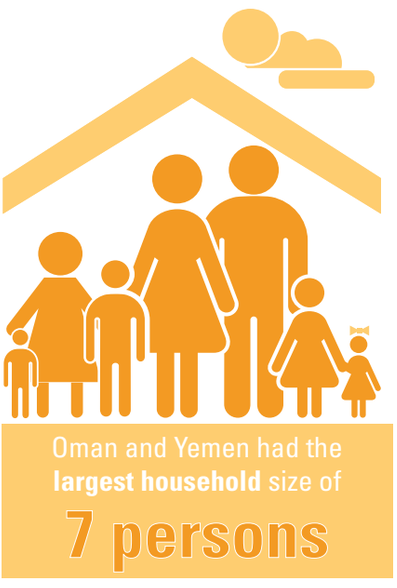
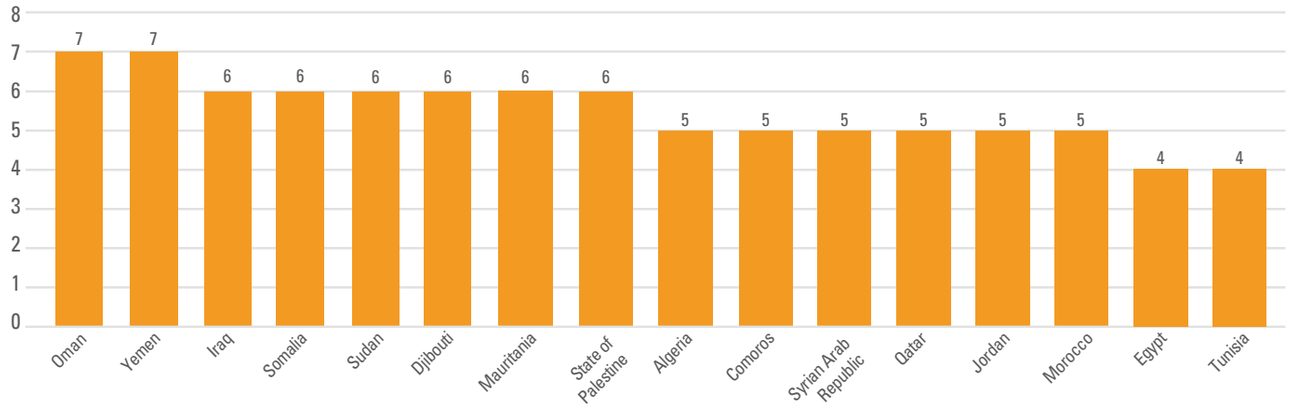


Figure 12. Average number of residents per household, latest available data



Source: Latest DHS and MICS surveys (see Annex- Marriage and Family).

Comoros recorded the highest proportion of female-headed household: **39%**

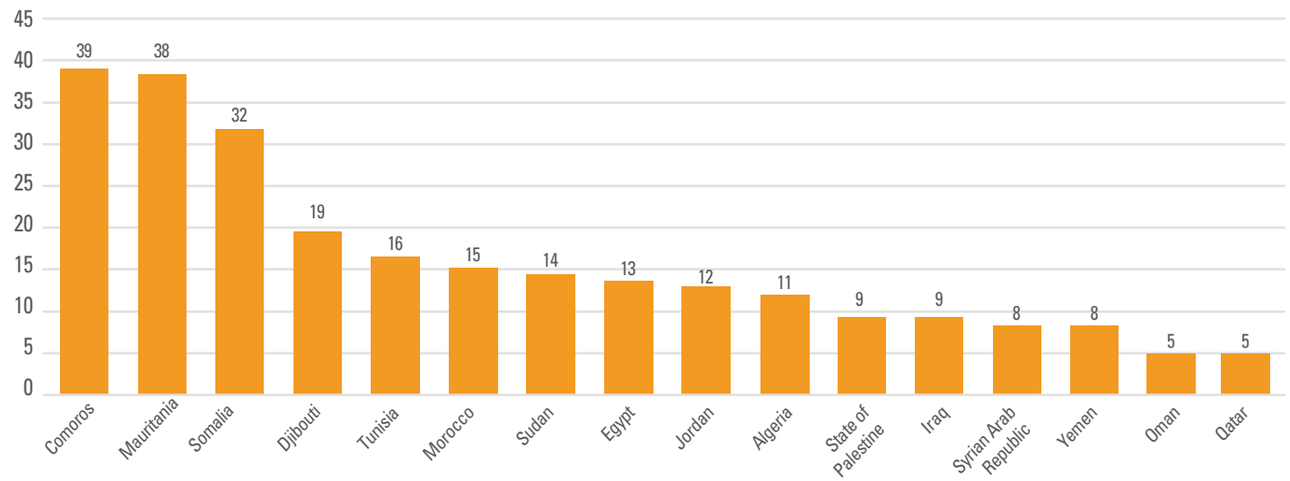
4 out of 10 households
headed by women

Available data show that the proportion of female-headed households, was highest in Comoros; out of 10 households four were headed by women. The next highest share of female-headed households was in Mauritania (38%) and Somalia (32%). Qatar had the least share of female-headed households in the region (5%) Figure 13.

E. Marital dissolution

Longitudinal studies, such as one done in the United States,[4] on the effects of divorce and widowhood indicate that both types of dissolutions result in negative and prolonged consequences for women's economic well-being.

Figure 13. Share of female-headed households, latest available data (percentage)



Source: Latest DHS and MICS surveys (see Annex- Marriage and Family).

Women often bear the negative economic and other consequences of divorce, while marital dissolution for men often leads to an improved economic standard of living.

Divorce

As per available data, divorce rates (number of divorces per 1,000 persons aged 15 years and older) are generally low in the Arab States. Data show a consistent fall in the level in Bahrain, Egypt, Libya and Tunisia over time between the 1970s and mid-2000s.

Trends in divorce rates varies among Arab countries. Divorce rates in both Egypt and the State of Palestine nearly doubled during 2006 to 2017. Divorce rates in Egypt rose from 0.9 to 2.1 per 1,000, and in the State of Palestine from 1.0 to 1.8 per 1,000. In Qatar, however, divorce rates declined from 1.0 to 0.4 per 1,000 in the same period. Divorce rates, however, did not change in Jordan, Libya and the United Arab Emirates during 2006-2017. In 2017 highest divorce rates were recorded in Egypt and Jordan (2.1 per 1,000) and the lowest in Qatar (0.4 per 1,000) Figure 14.

Gender analysis shows a difference between women and men divorce rates by age group. The proportion of divorced females between age 45 to 49 years was higher than divorced male in the same age group. There were seven times or more divorced females than divorced male in Saudi Arabia, Mauritania and Comoros.

In Somalia, the Sudan, Oman and Algeria for every divorced male there were five or more divorced females. While in the Syrian Arab Republic, the State of Palestine, Libya, Tunis and Lebanon there were two divorced females to one or no divorced males in the age group 45-49 years. This could be due to two factors; polygamy is still common in many countries and men remarry more frequently, while divorced women are stigmatized by divorce or are left to care for their children alone Figure 15.

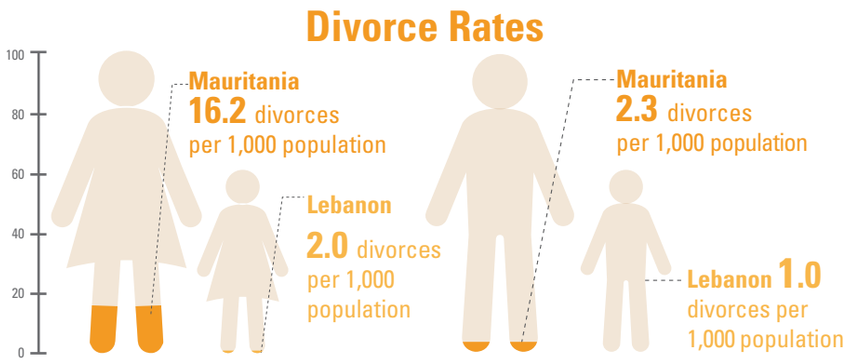
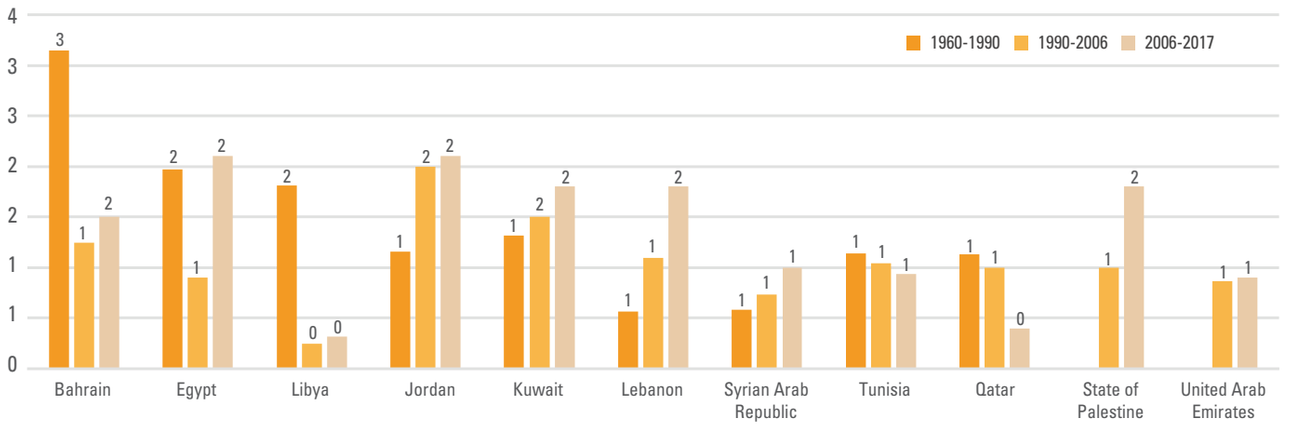
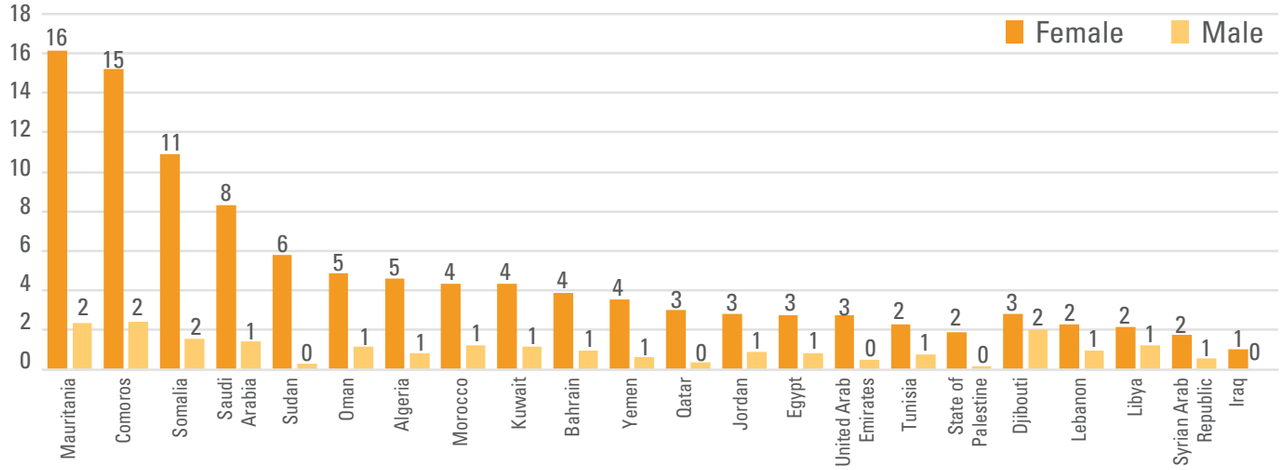


Figure 14. Trend in annual number of divorces per 1,000 population (percentage)



Source: UNSD, Demographic and Social Statistics, Demographic Yearbooks.

Figure 15. Proportion of age-specific divorced population (45-49 years), latest available data (percentage)



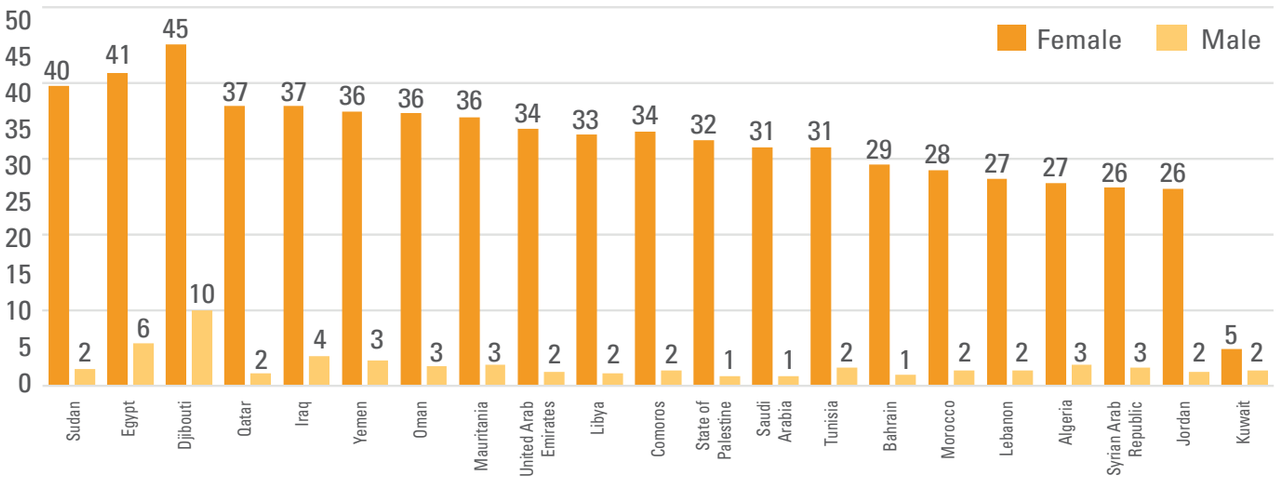
Source: DESA, Population Division, "World Marriage Data 2017".

Widowhood

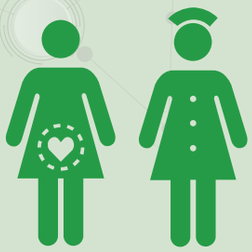
Widows have been historically identified as a disadvantaged group due to the lack of social protection floors, including laws regarding widow's access to pensions in many countries. Widows are particularly discriminated against and destitute.[5] Given the higher average life expectancy of women, it is expected that women would outlive their husbands.

The proportion of widowed females between age 60 to 64 years were higher than widowed males in the same age group. In Saudi Arabia, the State of Palestine, Qatar, Bahrain and Libya there were 20 or more widowed females for each male. While there were five to 13 widowed females for each male in Mauritania, Tunisia, Yemen, the Syrian Arab Republic, Algeria, Iraq, Egypt and Djibouti. Kuwait had the lowest proportion of widowed population with only two widowed females for one widowed male Figure 16.

Figure 16. Proportion of age-specific widowed population (60-64 years), latest available data (percentage)



Source: DESA, Population Division, "World Marriage Data 2017".



Chapter 3
Health and Well-being

Arab women witness various challenges in their life cycles. The female advantage in life expectancy at old age does not necessarily mean that women are healthier than men. Arab women's fertility has declined but remained relatively high above the world average. Fertility rates exceeded three live births per women in countries with unmet needs of more than 20 per cent. Utilization of health facilities for childbirth and access to contraceptives still depend on the level of education and the socioeconomic status of women, with marked variations between urban and rural areas.

Women living in rural areas are also disadvantaged in terms of using any method of contraceptives compared with urban women. High fertility rates occur in parallel with low contraceptive prevalence and high maternal mortality rates.

Health and Well-being

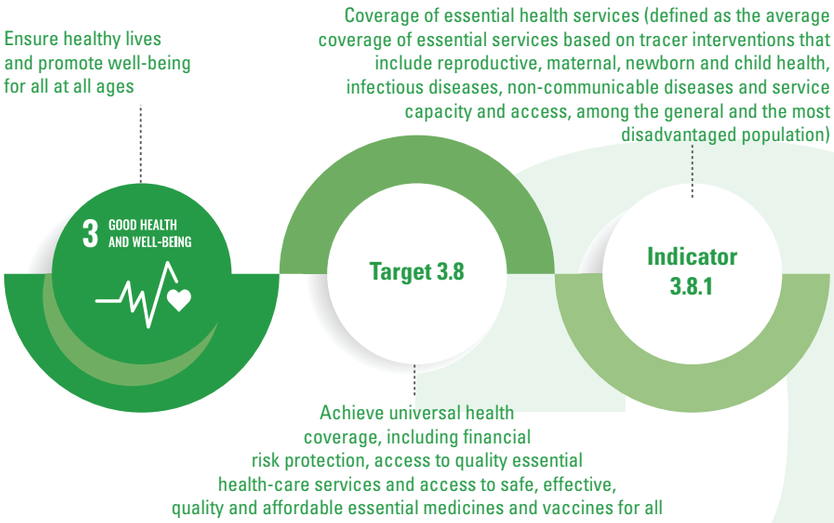
"Our greatest concern must always rest with disadvantaged and vulnerable groups. These groups are often hidden, live in remote rural areas or shantytowns and have little political voice." Dr. Margaret Chan, former Director-General, World Health Organization

A. Enabling environment

Access to care often varies based on race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, age, sex, disability status, sexual orientation, gender identity and location. Women, men, girls and boys all face different risks to health and, as a result, have different health care needs. As the ones who bear children, women need care during pregnancy, childbirth and during the early stages of their baby's life. Babies are vulnerable to disease and male babies are more susceptible than girl babies. Women and men have different health issues and tend to die of different causes. This is due to biological factors as well as the role that gender norms play in taking health risks, such as smoking, alcohol consumption and diet.

With solid economic growth and development across the region, the health systems and health outcomes in the Arab States have improved significantly over the last 20 years. Life expectancy has increased, and non-communicable diseases are now the main causes of death and disability, replacing nutritional disorders and communicable diseases. Major investment in health systems has seen significant gains in child and maternal health, key markers of women's and girls' access to essential health services.[1]

The target of the global annual expenditure on health is 6.3 per cent of GDP. In 2017, the current health



expenditure ranged between lowest at 2.6 per cent of GDP in Qatar to highest at 8.2 per cent in Lebanon. Although expenditure on health care increased in most countries, in some it has reduced over time. In Comoros, for example, expenditure was 12.2 per cent of GDP in 2000 but was reduced to 7.4 per cent in 2017. Lebanon also reduced spending on health from 10.8 per cent of GDP in 2000 to 8.2 per cent in 2017.

The current health expenditure per capita in United States dollar PPP varies greatly among Arab countries. The current health expenditure per capita was lowest in Djibouti ($117) followed by Comoros ($123), Yemen ($139), the Syrian Arab Republic ($160) and Mauritania ($170) and was highest in Kuwait ($3,797) in 2017. In fact, all Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) significantly outspend the rest of the Arab world in health care.

B. Life expectancy at birth

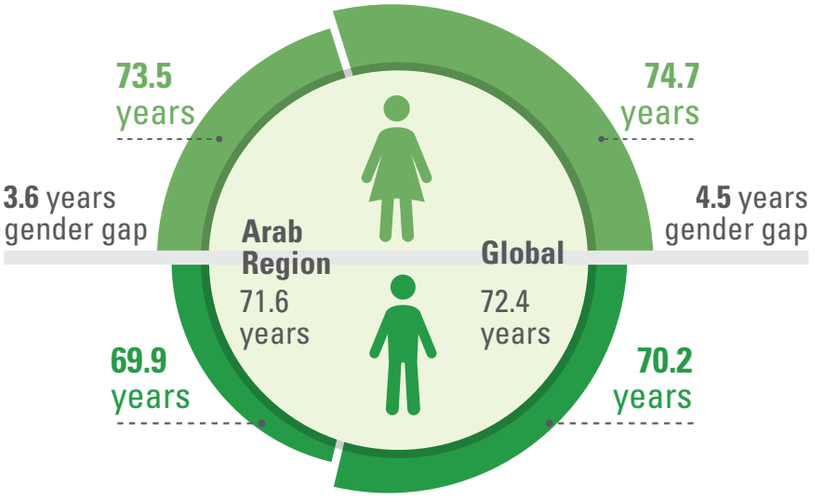
Medical and technological improvements have extended the lives of both women and men. Globally, the average life expectancy at birth was estimated at 72.4 years in 2017. Worldwide, women are expected to outlive men by 4.5 years (74.7 years for women at birth compared with 70.2 years for men).

In 2017, life expectancy at birth in the Arab States was 71.6 years with a gender gap of 3.6 years; (73.5 years for women and 69.9 years for men), slightly lower than the global gender gap by 0.9 years.

Life expectancy at birth for females in the Syrian Arab Republic at 9.5 years longer than that of males is the highest among Arab States by a significant amount. Life expectancy in the Arab countries seems to be not fully shaped by income levels, health expenditure and health coverage. In fact, Arab countries with a high per capita income such as the Gulf countries of Bahrain, Kuwait, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates (but not Oman) or those with high current health expenditure as percentage of GDP such as Comoros, Jordan and Lebanon, had the lowest female life expectancy advantage not exceeding 3 years Table 6.

In contrast, the rest of the Arab countries which not only had lower current GDP per PPP but also had lower health expenditure and coverage, had a gender gap of an acceptable 3 years or more. This includes Saudi Arabia at a high GDP per PPP of $1,857 billion and Comoros at a low of $2 billion. These countries have managed to effectively exploit their relatively limited economic resources in avoiding premature mortality while others lagged behind the potential their income could provide.[2]

Arab Life expectancy below global average, particularly for women



C. Life expectancy at age 60

Life expectancy at age 60 is the average number of years that a person at that age can be expected to live, assuming that age-specific mortality levels remain constant. It is considered a better measure of survival within the adult life course than life expectancy at birth because life expectancy at birth is significantly influenced by high levels of infant mortality and therefore does not provide a complete analysis on the survival of adults.

Table 6. GDP, current health expenditure, universal health coverage services and gender gap in life expectancy, latest year

Country	Current GDP at PPP in 2018 (international $)	Current health expenditure (CHE) as percentage of GDP (%)	Current health expenditure (CHE) per capita in PPP (int $)	Universal Health Coverage (UHC) service coverage in 2015 (SDG 3.8.1)	Gender gap in life expectancy at birth in 2016 (Female-Male)
				Index	
Algeria	$ 659,686,582,357	6	975	76	2.0
Bahrain	$ 74,108,660,121	5	2,265	72	1.0
Comoros	$ 2,353,695,077	7	123	47	3.2
Djibouti	$ 2,342,710,799	3	117	47	3.3
Egypt	$ 1,219,509,677,236	5	614	68	4.8
Iraq	$ 672,978,507,595	4	495	63	4.7
Jordan	$ 93,068,215,795	8	757	70	3.3
Kuwait	$ 304,938,677,378	5	3,797	77	2.1
Lebanon	$ 89,433,526,962	8	1,185	68	2.6
Libya	$ 138,287,328,576	6	627	63	6.0
Mauritania	$ 18,449,706,763	4	170	33	2.6
Morocco	$ 314,241,266,659	5	438	65	2.2
Oman	$ 200,107,925,339	4	1,591	72	4.2
Qatar	$ 352,153,740,968	3	3,354	77	2.6
Saudi Arabia	$ 1,857,538,202,580	5	2,826	68	3.0
Somalia	…	…	…	22	3.6
Sudan	$ 198,945,278,662	6	314	43	3.5
Syrian Arab Republic	…	4	160	60	9.5
Tunisia	$ 144,374,363,231	7	863	65	4.0
United Arab Emirates	$ 721,770,277,976	3	2,469	63	2.2
Yemen	$ 73,258,299,699	4	139	39	2.9

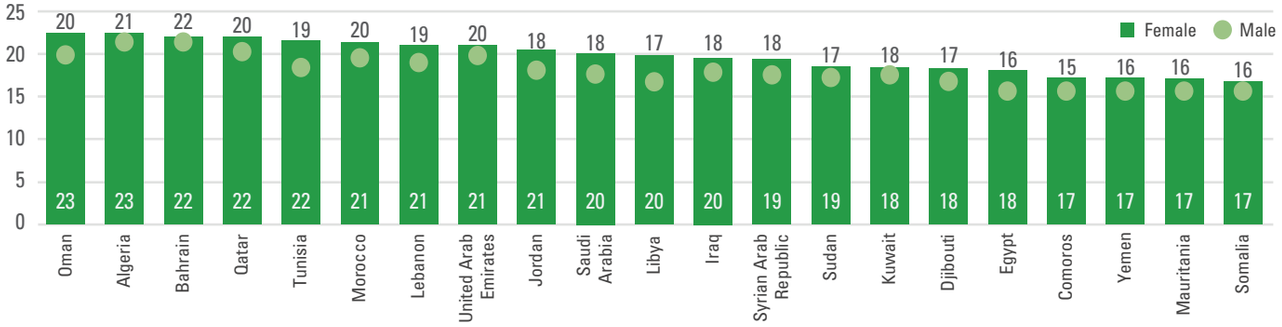
Source: World Bank, "GDP, PPP (current international $), 2018", World Bank Data (Current GDP in PPP); WHO, Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 23 January 2020) (CHE as % of GDP and CHE capita in PPP); UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database (UHC); and WHO, Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 06 April 2018) (Life expectancy at birth).

D. Gender differences in life expectancy among older persons

Worldwide, life expectancy at age 60 has increased steadily during the twentieth century, rising from 18.8 years in 2000 to 20.5 years in 2016. Similarly, life expectancy at age 60 in the Arab States increased in almost all countries. Notable increases of 4 years occurred for both women and men in Bahrain and by 3 years in Algeria, Morocco and Oman during the same period. Life expectancy at age 60, however, decreased by one year for both sexes in Egypt and only for women in the Syrian Arab Republic.

This considerable improvement has been uneven between men and women for the period 2000-2016. As seen in several other countries, women live longer than men and this gender gap in life expectancy has widened over time in 11 Arab States, namely Bahrain, Comoros, Djibouti, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Libya, Morocco, Oman, the United Arab Emirates and Yemen. In Libya the gender gap widened from 1.9 years to 3 years, a significant increase in life expectancy at age 60 for women. Nevertheless, the female advantage in life expectancy does not necessarily mean that women are healthier than men. Elderly women are prone to suffering from a higher prevalence of functional limitations and poor

Figure 17. Life expectancy at age 60, in years, 2016



Source: World Health Organization (WHO), Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 06 April 2018).

health and the additional years may not necessarily be lived in healthy conditions Figure 17.

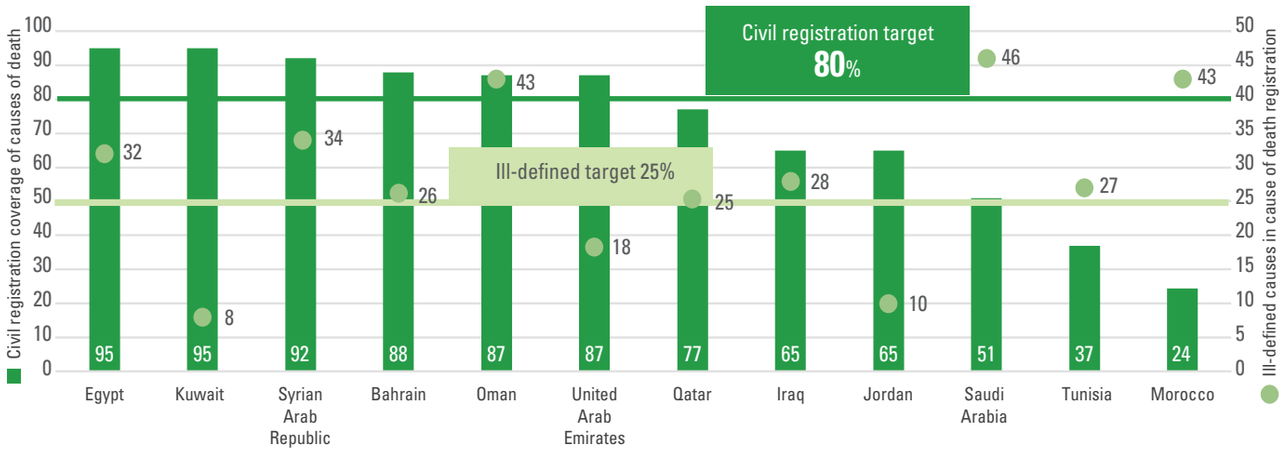
E. Causes of death

Road injuries, conflict and terror are major causes of death for men in the Arab region

Data on the causes of death are crucial for improving health services and reducing preventable deaths. Statistics in this area rely on an effective civil registration system and following standardized practices in identifying, coding and transmitting data about causes of death. With at least 12 of the 17 SDGs reliant on civil registration data[3] and a specific indicator (17.19.2) under Goal 17 on coverage of birth and death registration, civil registration and vital statistics are central to achieving sustainable development.[4]

Where available, data show that civil registration coverage of causes of death remains below the SDG target of 80 per cent in a number of countries. In Morocco, only one of every four deaths was registered. In Saudi Arabia, half of deaths were not registered and in Jordan only two thirds of deaths were registered Figure 18.

Figure 18. Proportion of civil registration coverage of causes of death and ill-defined causes in cause of death registration, latest available data (percentage)



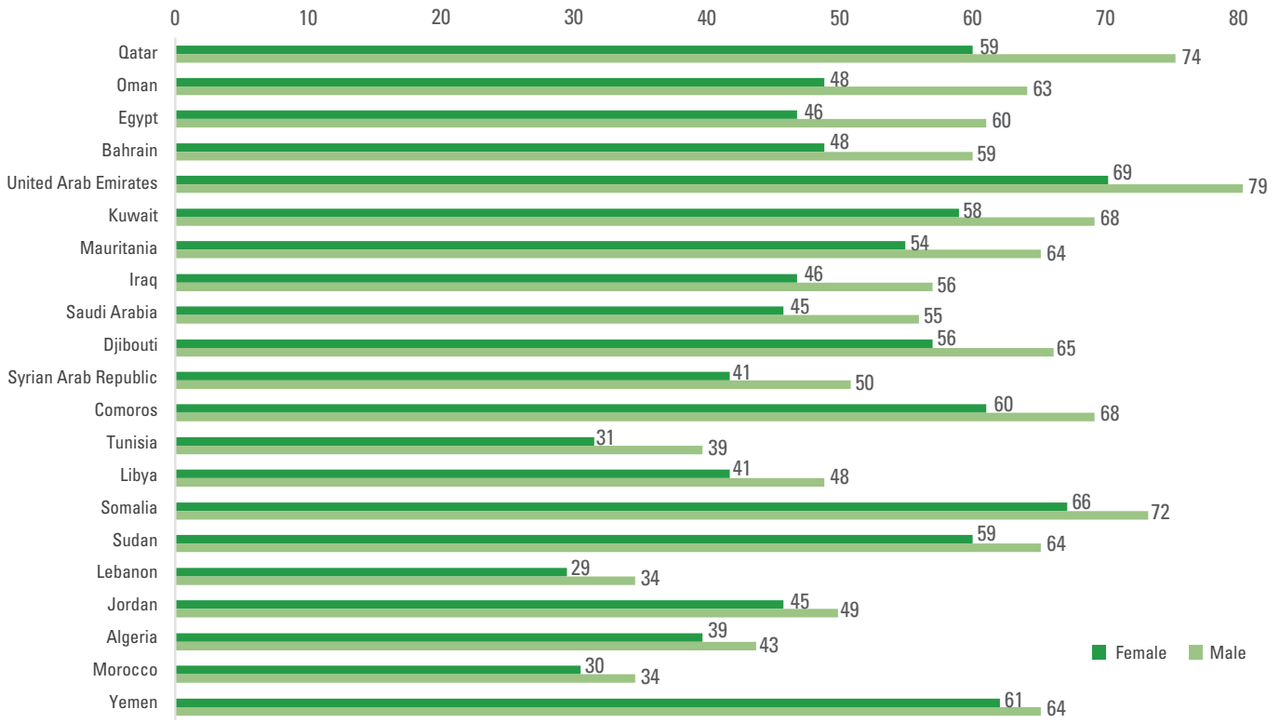
Source: WHO, Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 04 May 2018).

Another measure relevant to monitoring causes of death is the proportion of deaths that are classified as "ill-defined". Ideally, this should be below 25 per cent, so that at least three quarters of deaths have been attributed to a definitive cause. As mentioned earlier, in Morocco, in addition to having the lowest level of coverage, 43 per cent of deaths were classified as ill-defined, indicating there was much to be done to improve the system of civil registration and vital statistics in that country.

Non-communicable diseases (NCDs), including heart disease, stroke, cancer, chronic respiratory diseases and diabetes, are the leading cause of mortality globally and in the Arab region. The number of people, families and communities impacted by premature death from NCDs is increasing. Widespread risk factors are driving the increase in NCDs, including tobacco use, harmful use of alcohol, unhealthy diet, insufficient physical activity, overweight/obesity, elevated blood pressure, raised blood sugar and high cholesterol.[5]

NCDs are the leading cause of death for both women and men. Globally, latest data show that NCDs were responsible for 77 per cent of female deaths and 68 per cent of male deaths.[6] Heart disease is the leading cause of death for both sexes, within the region and globally Table 7. After that, some differences start to emerge. Road injuries are the second most common cause of death for men in Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region illustrating this was a major issue for the region.[7] However, they did not feature in the top ten causes for women and globally, road injuries were the sixth main cause of death for men. Conflict and terror, ranking as the fourth main cause of death for men and the seventh for women, were also a leading killer in the region Figure 19.

Figure 19. Proportion of premature death due to non-communicable diseases, 2016 (percentage)



Source: WHO, Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 25 June 2018).

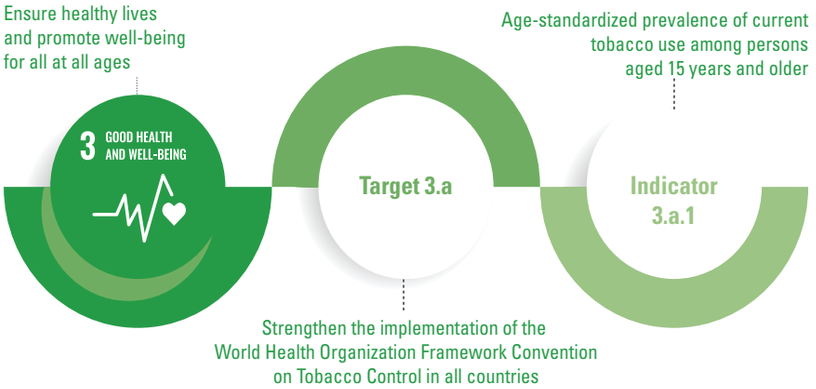
Table 7. Main causes of death in MENA region and the World by sex, 2016

MENA		World	
1. Ischemic heart disease	1. Ischemic heart disease	1. Ischemic heart disease	1. Ischemic heart disease
2. Stroke	2. Road injuries	2. Stroke	2. Stroke
3. Alzheimer disease	3. Stroke	3. Alzheimer disease	3. Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
4. Diabetes	4. Conflict and terror	4. Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	4. Lower respiratory infection
5. Lower respiratory infection	5. Lower respiratory infection	5. Lower respiratory infection	5. Lung Cancer
6. Chronic kidney disease	6. Diabetes	6. Diarrheal diseases	6. Road injuries
7. Conflict and terror	7. Chronic kidney disease	7. Diabetes	7. Alzheimer disease
8. Congenital defects	8. Alzheimer disease	8. Chronic kidney disease	8. Diarrheal diseases
9. Neonatal preterm birth	9. Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	9. Breast Cancer	9. Tuberculosis
10. Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	10. Neonatal preterm birth	10. Lung Cancer	10. Diabetes

Source: Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation, GBD Compare Data Visualization. Seattle, WA: IHME, University of Washington, 2016. Available at http://vizhub.healthdata.org/gbd-compare (accessed on 12 May 2018).

F. Smoking

Lifestyle choices, such as diet, exercise and the use of tobacco and alcohol, are closely linked to good or poor health. Men are more inclined to smoke than women, but women are more likely to be overweight due to poor diet and exercise.



Tobacco use was prevalent in many countries of the region and there was a marked gender gap Figure 20. Women's tobacco use was highest in Lebanon, where more than one quarter (27%) smoke followed by Jordan (12%) and Yemen (8%). In contrast, in Egypt there was not much tobacco use by women. In comparison, the highest level of men's smoking was in Egypt and Tunisia where nearly half of the men smoke. In Lebanon 41 per cent of men smoke. Tobacco use among men is also high in Morocco, Jordan, Bahrain, the United Arab Emirates, Kuwait and Algeria. Tobacco use is lowest in Oman for men (16%) and women (1%).

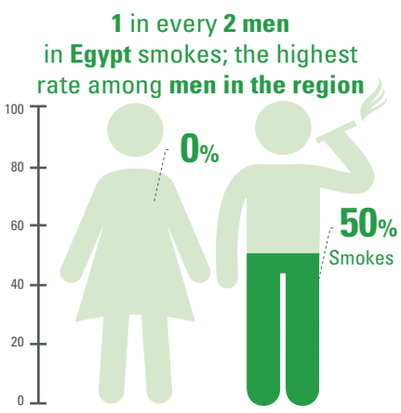
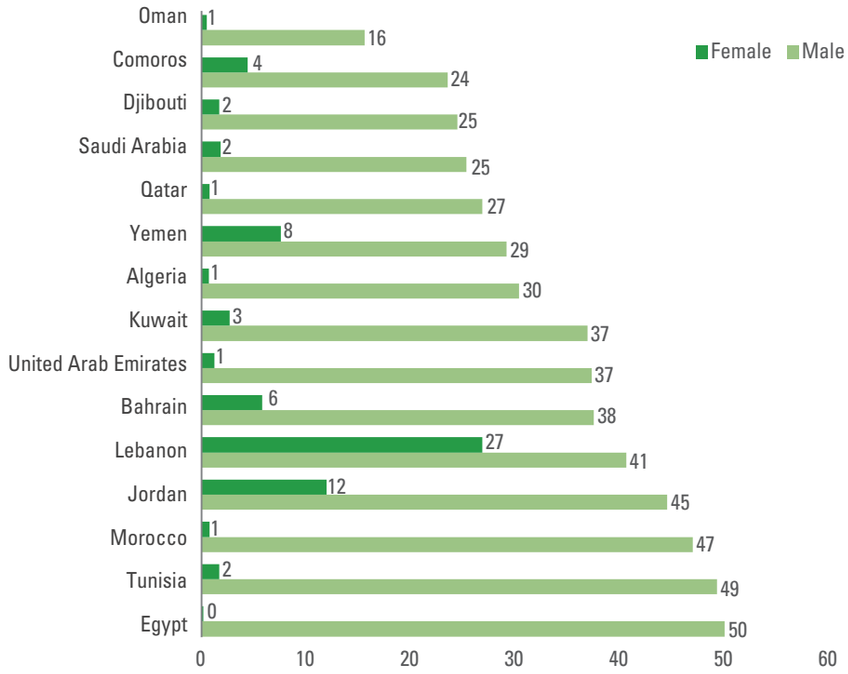


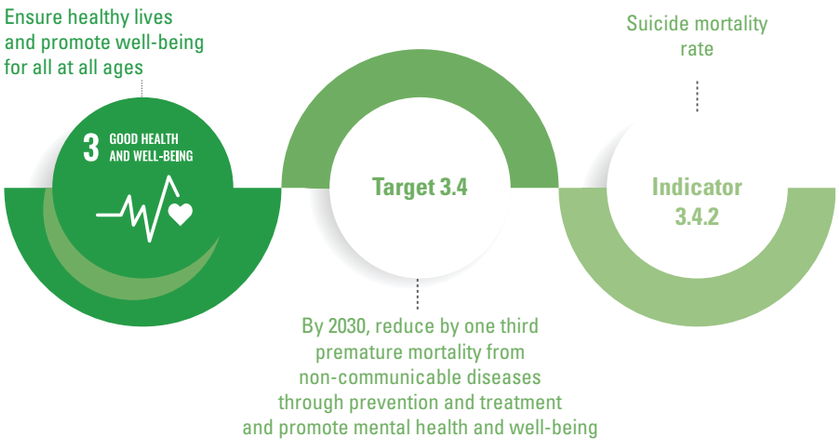
Figure 20. Age-standardized prevalence of current tobacco use among persons aged 15 years and older, 2016 (percentage)



Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database; data for Jordan from: DHS 2017-2018 and for Tunisia from: MICS 2018.

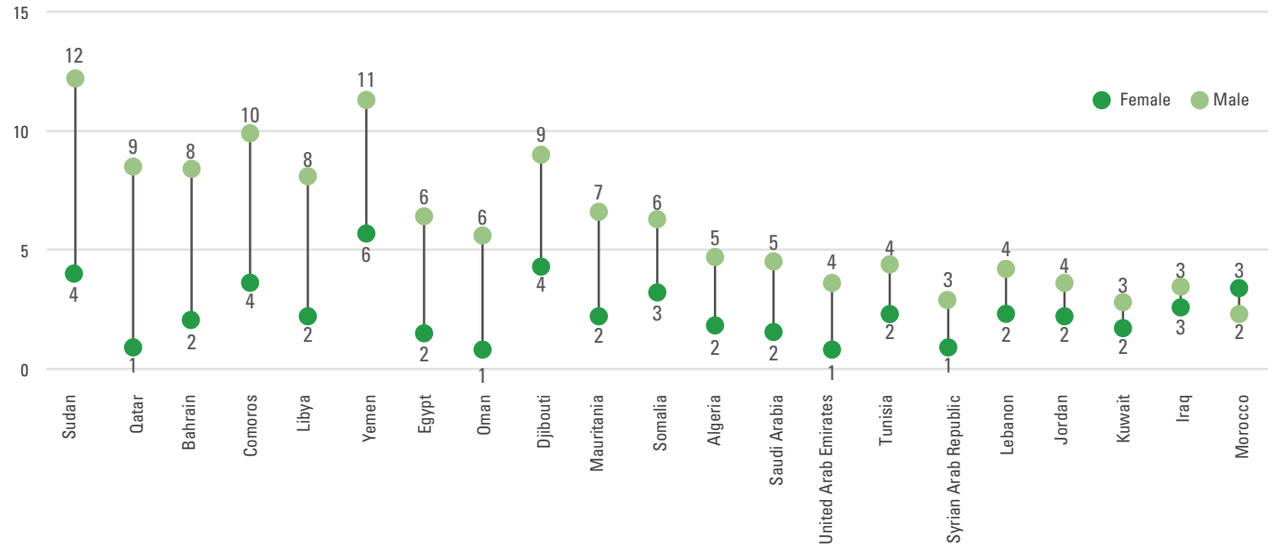
G. Suicide

Close to 800,000 people die due to suicide every year, which is one person every 40 seconds. Suicide is a global phenomenon and occurs throughout the lifespan. Effective and evidence-based interventions can be implemented at population, subpopulation and individual levels to prevent suicide and suicide attempts. There are indications that for each adult who died by suicide as many as 20 others have attempted suicide.[8]



There is a reverse gender gap in the rates of suicide between males and females in the Arab countries. The rates of suicide for males were higher than those for females, except in Morocco (females 3% and males 2%). The highest gaps were observed in the Sudan and Qatar at 8 percentage points, Bahrain at 7 percentage points, Comoros, Libya and Yemen at 6 percentage points. The gap was lowest in Jordan, Kuwait and Iraq at 1 percentage point Figure 21.

Figure 21. Suicide mortality rate, 2016 (percentage)



Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

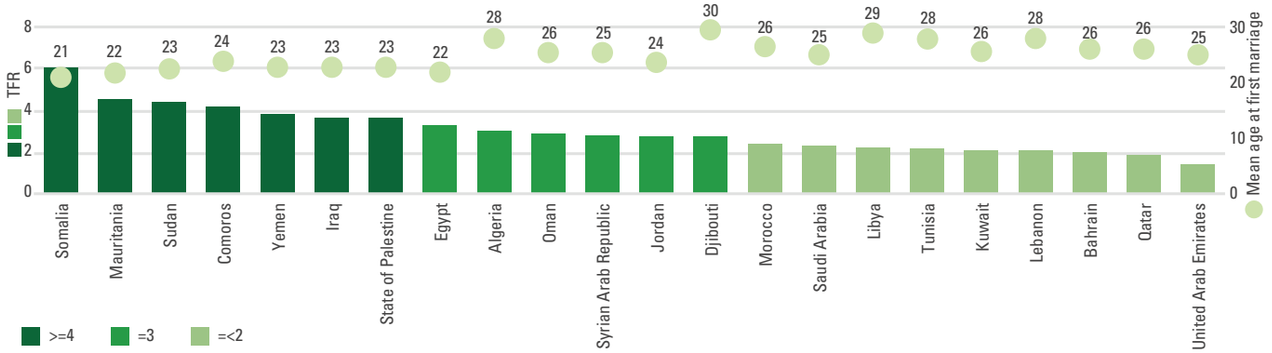
H. Maternal health and fertility

"No woman should die giving life."
- United Nations Population Fund

The Beijing Platform for Action affirms that "the right of all women to control all aspects of their health, in particular their own fertility, is basic to their empowerment".[9] This is closely linked to women's rights to reproductive health services, as well as their autonomy in family planning and their ability to influence decision-making at the household level. Not being able to choose the number, spacing and timing of children impacts women's empowerment, in particular the right to education and their ability to participate in the labour force.

The global fertility rate was just below 2.5 live births per woman currently. Over the last 50 years the global fertility rate has been halved. As societies have modernized, the

Figure 22. Total fertility rate (live births per woman) and mean age at first marriage, in years, latest available data



Source: DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019) (TFR); and DESA, Population Division, "World Marriage Data 2017" (mean age at first marriage).

number of live births per woman has decreased substantially. In the pre-modern era, fertility rates of 4.5 to 7 live births per woman were common. At that time, the very high mortality at a young age kept population growth low. As health improves and the mortality in the population decreases population growth accelerates. This rapid population growth then comes to an end as the fertility rate declines and approaches 2 live births per woman.[10]

Data for the last two decades, 1995-2005 and 2005-2015, indicate a slight decrease in total fertility rates throughout the Arab countries. In 1995-2005, total fertility rates stood at an average regional mean of 4.3 and decreased to an average regional mean of 3.2 in 2005-2015. Though declining, it was still relatively high above the world average of 2.5 in 2015.

The existing high fertility rates in some Arab countries are between 4 to 6 live births per woman. For example, the rates in Somalia (6.1), Mauritania (4.6), the Sudan (4.4), Comoros (4.2) and Yemen (3.8) were propelled by relatively low mean age at first marriage (below 24 years) for females and significantly by marriages below the age of 18 in those countries Figure 22.

As fertility declines and health outcomes improve, countries of the region will transition to a population structure where there are fewer dependents and more people to engage in economic activity, a key driver for sustainable development. Realizing this demographic dividend requires careful planning and policies.[11]

I. Education, wealth and reproductive choices

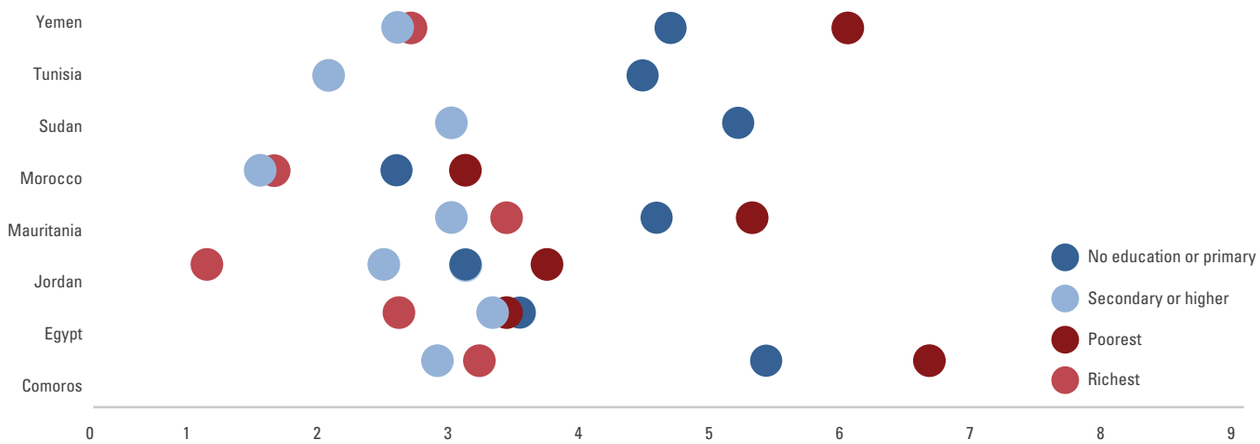
There is a strong association between fertility rates and the educational attainment of women and their wealth. Better educated women tend to have fewer children. Similarly, rich women tend to have lower fertility rates as shown in Figure 23 below. In Yemen, for example, the fertility rate for women with no education was 4.8 live births per woman while, in comparison, the fertility rate of women with education was 2.8 live births per woman. Similarly, Yemen data show the fertility rate of poor women was twice than those who were rich Figure 23.

J. Contraceptive use

Contraceptive use is higher among richest educated women and those living in urban areas.

Fear of overpopulation drove many countries to adopt family planning programmes that focused more on reducing population numbers

Figure 23. Total fertility rate (live births per woman) by education and wealth, latest available data



Source: ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler; and data for Morocco from: Census 2014.

rather than on what women, depending on their specific situation, may have needed or wanted. Many family planning programmes served to reinforce existing gender norms, as the focus was usually on women — married women in particular — and assumed their primary role to be wives and mothers. Little programming was directed towards men, aside from efforts to increase condom use.[12]

In 1994, 179 governments agreed that individuals have the right and should have the means to freely decide whether or when they want to start a family. Yet, an estimated 225 million women in developing countries are unable to exercise that right because they are not using or have no access to contraception. Unmet demand for family planning results in nearly 60 million unintended pregnancies annually in developing countries.[13]

While quality sexual and reproductive health services, including family planning, are increasingly available to affluent, educated and urban individuals, access to services in some countries is limited in poorer and rural communities, and among young people, including adolescents. According to UNFPA, "as unmet needs decline, disparities in use of family planning methods between rural and urban areas, less and more educated women, and the poor and non-poor tend to shrink".[14] In the Arab States 16 per cent of women married or in a union have an unmet need for family planning.[15]

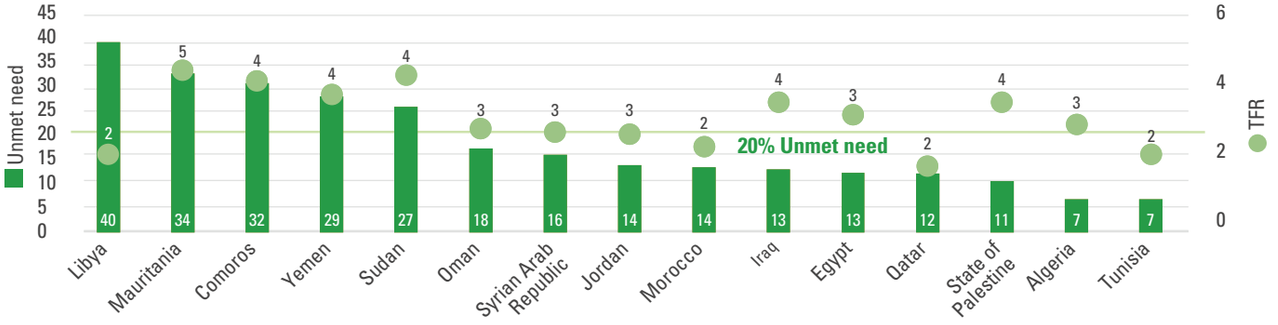
Unmet needs of more than 20 per cent of married women were greatest in five Arab States: it was estimated that 40 per cent of women in Libya, 34 per cent of women in Mauritania, and one third of women in Comoros, Yemen and the Sudan did not have access to family planning in 2019. The fertility rates in these countries also exceeded three live births per woman.

The lowest rates of unmet need for family planning of below 15 per cent were in Jordan, Morocco, Iraq, Egypt, Qatar, the State of Palestine, Algeria and Tunisia Figure 24.

Unwanted or unplanned pregnancies can have a detrimental effect on women's health. Worldwide, roughly 303,000 women (equivalent to 830 women a day)[16] and 3 million newborn babies die each year because of complications related to pregnancy and childbirth. Nearly all of these deaths occur in developing countries, where 10 to 15 per cent of pregnancies end in maternal death due to unsafe abortions.[17]

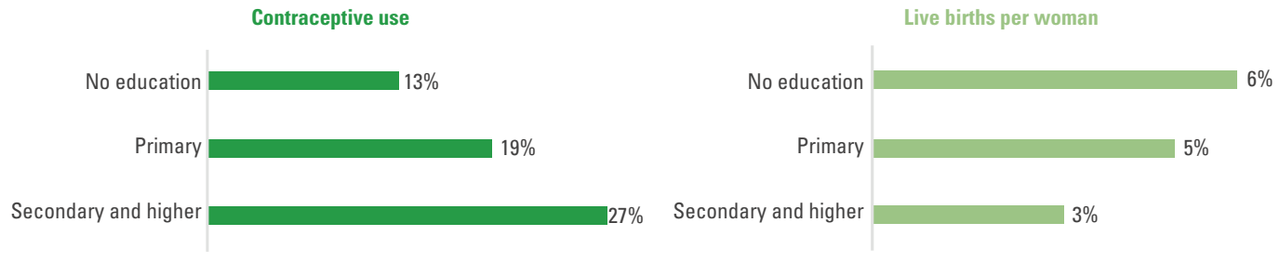
Educated women generally want smaller families and therefore use family planning to achieve their desired family size. Women in with no education Comoros, Jordan Morocco, and Yemen, for example, had more children and used less contraceptives than women with some education Figures 25, 26, 27 and 28.

Figure 24. Proportion of women, aged 15-49 years, with unmet need for family planning (percentage) and total fertility rate (live births per woman), latest available data



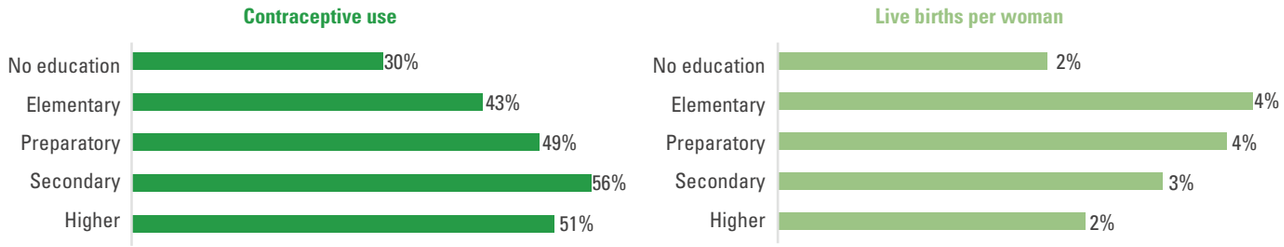
Source: DESA, Population Division, "World Contraceptive Use 2019" (unmet need for family planning); and DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019) (TFR).

Figure 25. Prevalence of contraceptive use and fertility rate by women's education in Comoros, 2012



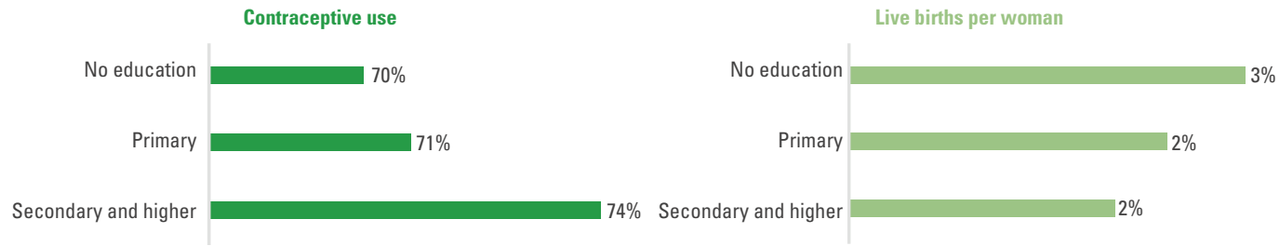
Source: DHS 2012, Comoros.

Figure 26. Prevalence of contraceptive use and fertility rate by women's education in Jordan, 2018



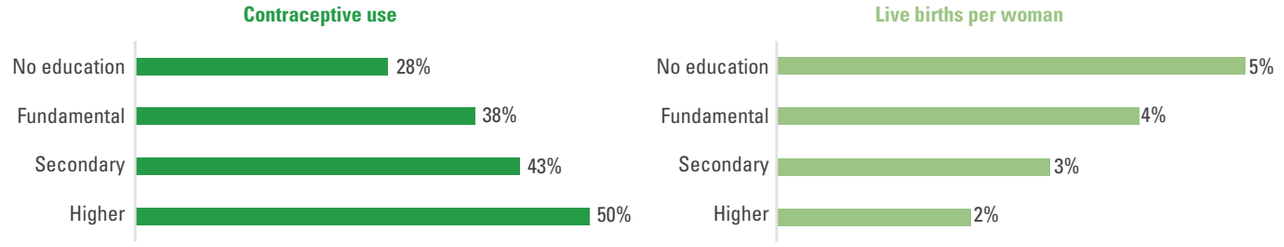
Source: DHS 2017-2018, Jordan.

Figure 27. Prevalence of contraceptive use and fertility rate by women's education in Morocco, 2018



Source: DHS 2018, Morocco.

Figure 28. Prevalence of contraceptive use and fertility rate by women's education in Yemen, 2013

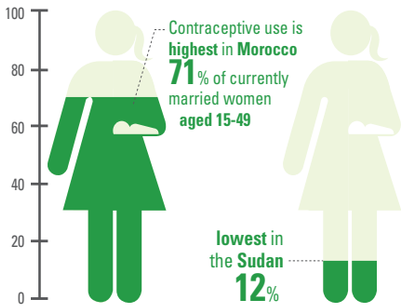


Source: DHS 2013, Yemen.

Modern contraceptive use worldwide has doubled from 36 per cent in 1970 to 64 per cent in 2016. Figure 29 shows the use of contraceptives by married women aged between 15-49 years. The percentage varies significantly across countries, with over two thirds of married women in Morocco using contraceptives compared with less than 10 per cent in the Sudan.

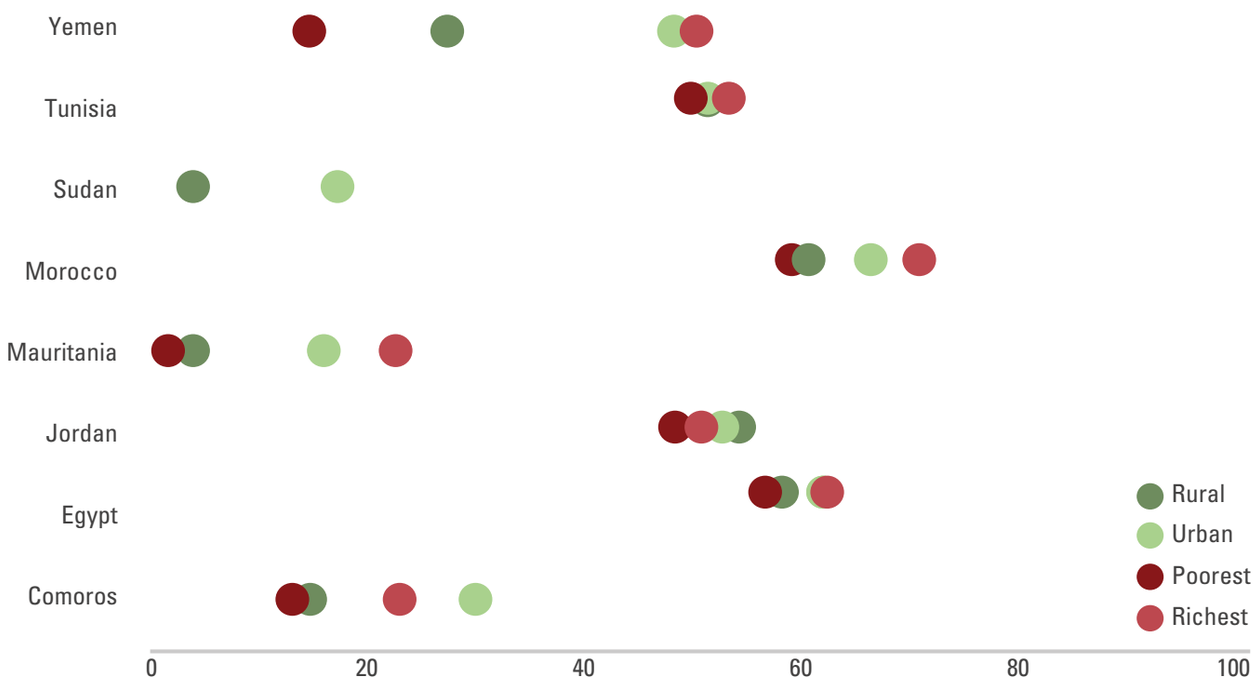
There are huge differences in women's access to contraceptives depending on socioeconomic status. Women from the poorest quintile have limited access to contraceptives. Rich women in Mauritania were almost 14 times as likely to use any method of contraceptives as women in the poorest quintile. In Yemen, women were four times as likely to use any method and in Morocco, they were twice as likely.

Women living in rural areas are also disadvantaged in terms of using any method of contraceptives in comparison to urban women. In Mauritania, for example, urban women were almost seven times as likely to use any method of contraceptives as rural women. The highest gaps between rural and urban were in Tunisia (26 percentage points), Yemen (21 percentage points), Comoros (15 percentage points) and Mauritania and the Sudan (both 13 percentage points) Figure 29.



It is no coincidence that high fertility rates in Somalia, the Sudan, Mauritania, Comoros and Yemen occur in parallel with very low contraceptive prevalence. All these countries also had high maternal mortality rates, in addition to girls' early marriage Figure 30.

Figure 29. Proportion of married women currently using any method of contraception by location and wealth, latest available data (percentage)



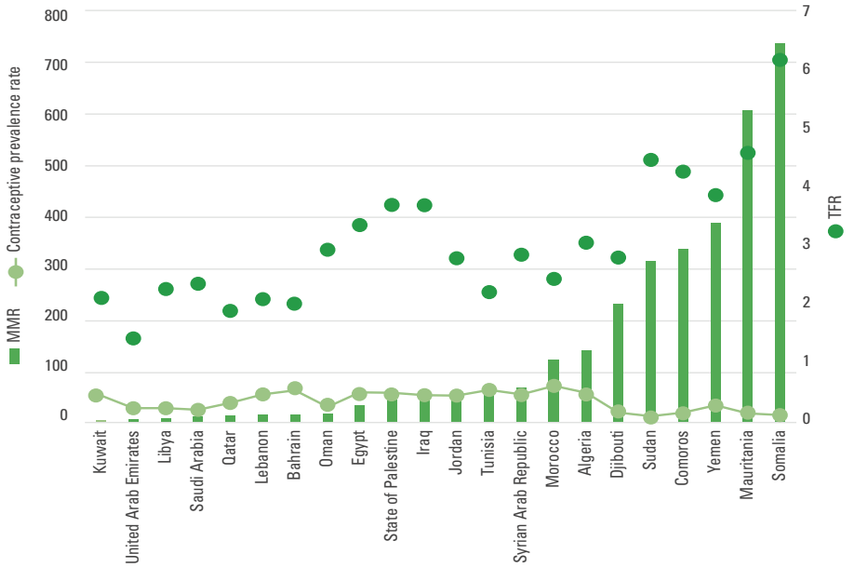
Source: ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler; and data for Tunisia from: MICS 2018.

K. Antenatal care and delivery services

Latest data show that antenatal care prevalence was higher in urban areas than rural, except in Jordan. Antenatal care visits were highest in Jordan both rural and urban 92%, followed by Tunisia (rural 77% and urban 89%), Egypt (rural 81% and urban 88%) and Comoros (rural 49% and urban 50%). Mauritania had the lowest prevalence of antenatal care visits in both rural (11%) and urban (24%) areas Figure 31.

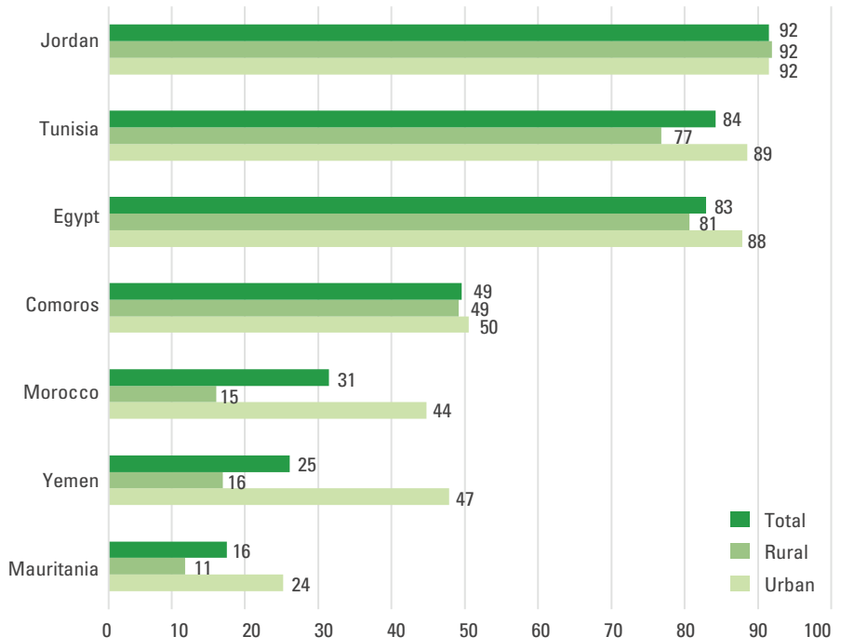
Utilization of health facilities for childbirth in the Arab States is still low for disadvantaged groups with marked variations between urban and rural areas, and the wealth and education of mothers. Educated mothers are more likely to give birth in a health facility than uneducated mothers, as seen clearly in Yemen, Morocco, Mauritania and Comoros. Similarly, poorer women have a lower probability of giving birth in a health facility than richer women. To increase access to health facility delivery, it is important to raise women's awareness on the benefits of delivering in health facility, increase women's decision-making power and address common barriers such as lack of transportation. Data on Jordan, however, showed very small disparity among women from different backgrounds Figure 32.

Figure 30. Prevalence of contraceptive use (any method) among currently married women, aged 15-49 years, TFR (live births per woman) and MMR (deaths per 100,000 live births)



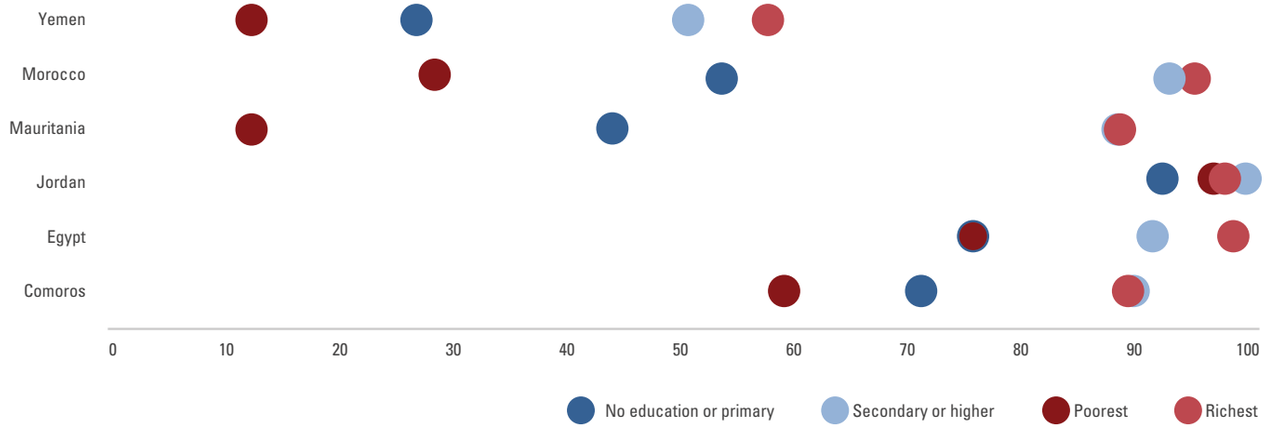
Source: DESA, Population Division, "World Contraceptive Use 2019" (contraceptive use); DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019) (TFR); and WHO, Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 18 October 2019) (MMR).

Figure 31. Antenatal visits for pregnancy: four or more visits by location (percentage)



Source: ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler; and data for Tunisia from: MICS 2018.

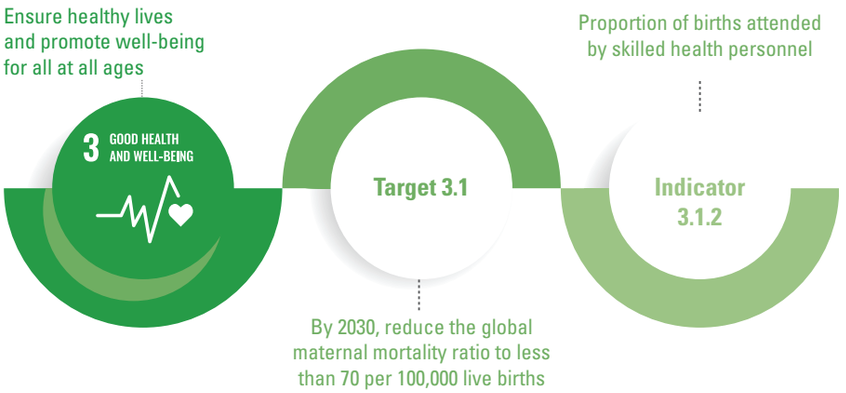
Figure 32. Proportion of live births delivered at a health facility by education of mother and wealth, latest available data (percentage)



Source: ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler.

L. Skilled health personnel

Antenatal care and skilled health personnel attendance at delivery are necessary to ending preventable maternal death. SDG 3 on good health and well-being includes indicator 3.1.2 on the proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel which was also one of the measures used to monitor the MDGs.



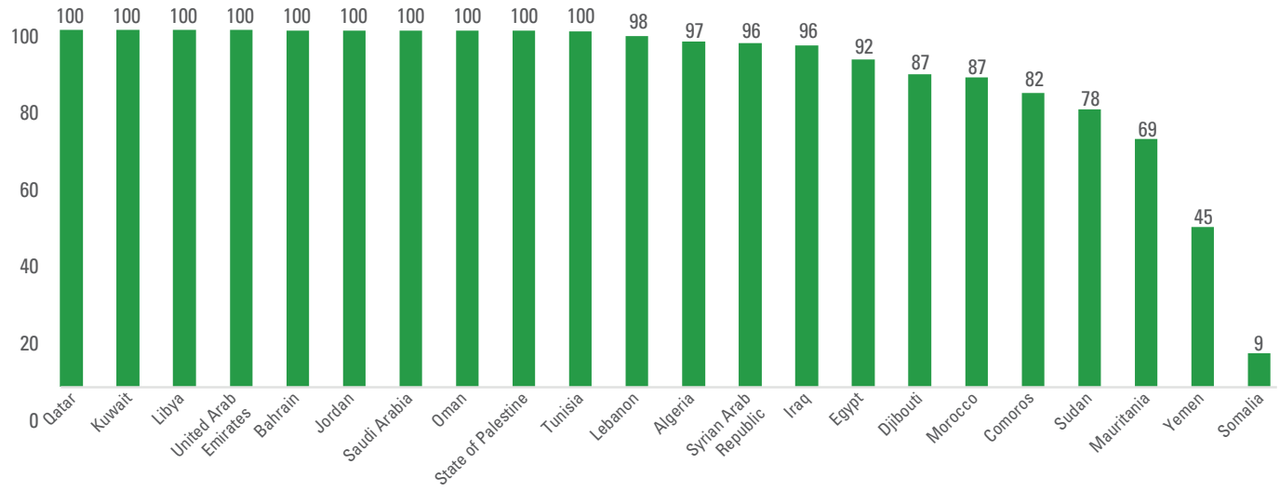
There has been a significant increase in skilled birth personnel attendance in the region, from 61 per cent of births in 2000 to 86 per cent in 2015. In 14 countries, more than 90 per cent of births were attended by skilled health personnel. The lowest attendance rates of skilled birth personnel were in Somalia (9%), Yemen (45%) and Mauritania (69%) Figure 33.

Data from Arab States confirm that women from the poorest quintile were particularly excluded from the benefits of having a skilled attendant at birth. Women in the richest quintile in Mauritania were almost six times as likely to deliver with a skilled health attendant as women in the poorest quintile. Similarly, the richest women in Yemen were nearly four times as likely to deliver with a skilled health attendant as poor women.

Women living in rural areas were also left behind: the absolute gap in skilled birth personnel attendance between urban and rural population decreased by only 7 percentage points in 25 years – from 37 percentage points (around 1990) to 30 percentage points (around 2014).[18] Despite some gains over the years, large gaps still exist between rural and urban areas.

Poor women living in **rural areas** often **lack assistance** during childbirth

Figure 33. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel, latest year (percentage)



Source: UNICEF/WHO joint database, "SDG 3.1.2 skilled attendance at birth"; and data for Tunisia from: MICS 2018.

The largest gaps between rural and urban areas were reported in Mauritania at 57 percentage points, Morocco at 46 percentage points, Yemen at 39 percentage points, Tunisia at 37 percentage points and the Sudan at 27 percentage points Figure 34.

Skilled birth attendance has **increased significantly** across the region

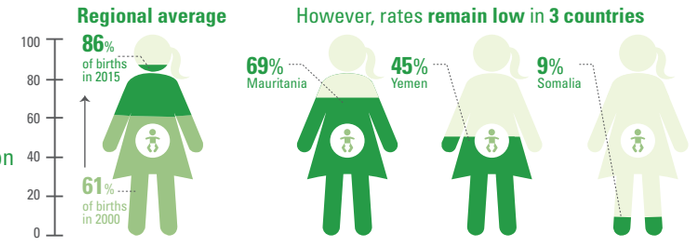
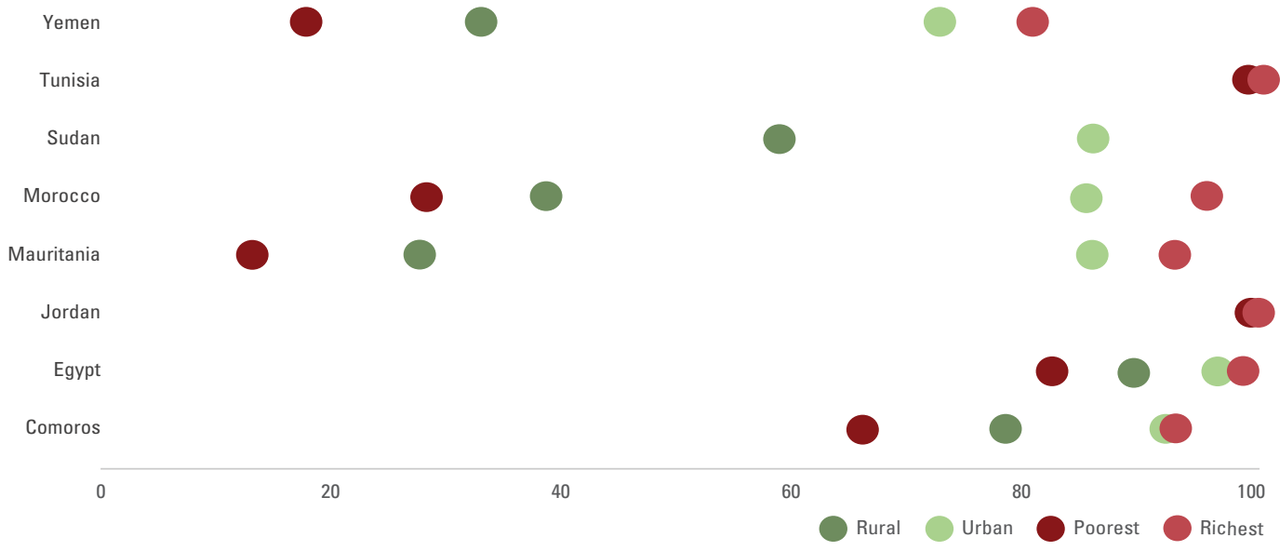


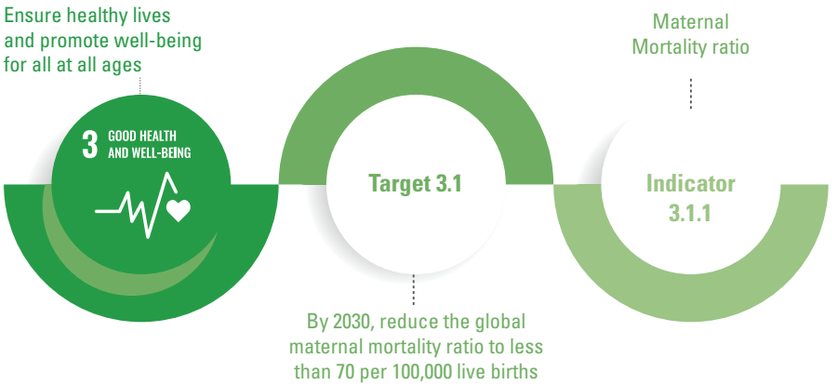
Figure 34. Proportion of women who received assistance during delivery from a skilled provider by location and wealth, latest available data (percentage)



Source: ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler; and data for Tunisia from: MICS 2018.

M. Maternal mortality

Maternal mortality remains high in Somalia, Mauritania, Yemen, Comoros and the Sudan

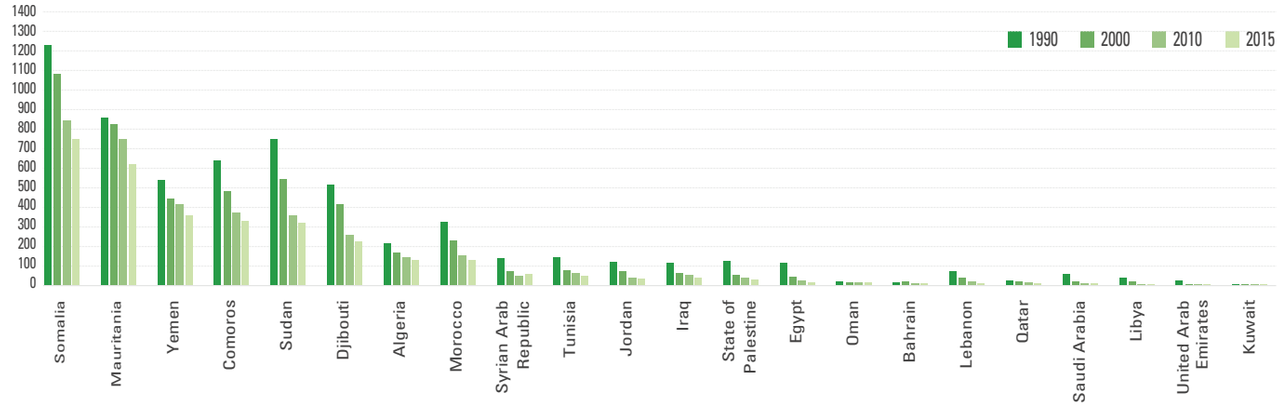


The health and lives of hundreds of thousands of pregnant women are endangered by conflict and natural disasters, and such is the case for many women in the Arab States. Women and adolescent girls bear extraordinary burdens as wars and disasters leave a trail of turmoil and destruction. Without the usual protection of family and community, women and adolescent girls frequently become victims of sexual violence, unwanted pregnancies and sexually transmitted infections. In addition, conflict has caused child marriages to rise.[19]

According to United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), "Providing quality reproductive health services and improving the health and nutrition of mothers-to-be are pivotal not only to reducing maternal morbidity and mortality, but also in addressing many underlying causes of neonatal and child mortality".[20] Maternal mortality has declined significantly over recent decades. Since 2000, the world has seen a 38 per cent decline in the maternal mortality (The number of women and girls who died each year from complications of pregnancy and childbirth fell from 342,000 in 2000 to 211,000 in 2017).

The Arab region has also witnessed a similar decline of around 40 per cent. It is estimated that maternal mortality declined from 250 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births in 2000 to 149 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births in 2017. Globally, some 830 women are estimated to die every day from causes related

Figure 35. Trends in estimates of maternal mortality ratio (deaths per 100,000 live births), 1990-2015



Source: WHO, Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 18 October 2019).

to pregnancy or childbirth. This is about one woman every two minutes[21] Figure 35.

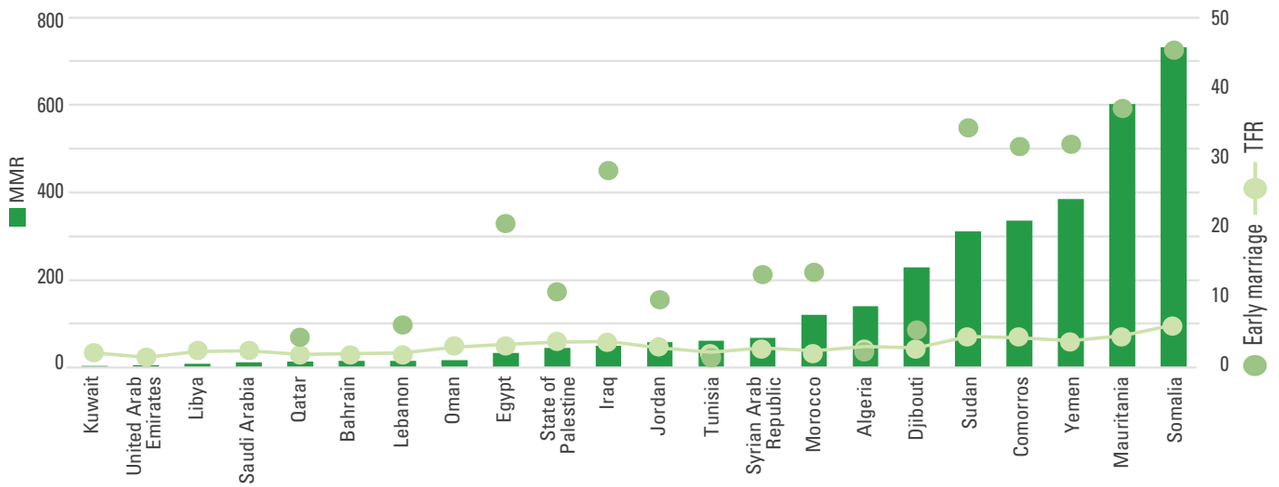
It was also reported that for every woman who dies in childbirth, 20 or 30 sustain injuries, infections or disabilities. Most of these deaths and injuries are entirely preventable.[22] For most of the Arab States maternal mortality ratio is well under 75 deaths per 100,000 live births. However, it is particularly high in Somalia (732 deaths per 100,000 live births), followed by Mauritania (602), Yemen (385), Comoros (335), the Sudan (311), Djibouti (229), Algeria (140) and Morocco (121).

Only two Arab countries, Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates, have managed to reduce maternal mortality ratio to a low level by international standards (not more than 5 per 100,000 live births). The other Gulf countries of Bahrain, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and Oman had moderately low levels (between 10 and 20 per 100,000 live births) but their levels remained relatively higher than countries with comparable levels of economic resources.

Lebanon also falls in the moderate level category similar to the latter Gulf countries, while in Libya maternal mortality ratio was estimated at 9 deaths per 100,000 live births. The remaining countries such as Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, the State of Palestine and Tunisia exhibited between 30 and 60 deaths per 100,000 live births. Given that most maternal deaths were preventable, this means that attention should be focused on those states with high maternal deaths.

Maternal mortality is linked to early marriage and the total fertility rate. As shown in Figure 36, Somalia had the highest rate at 45.3 per cent of women aged 20-24 married before age 18 and also the highest total fertility rate at 6.1 live births per woman.

Figure 36. Maternal mortality ratio (deaths per 100,000 live births) and its relationship to early marriage (percentage) and fertility (live births per woman)

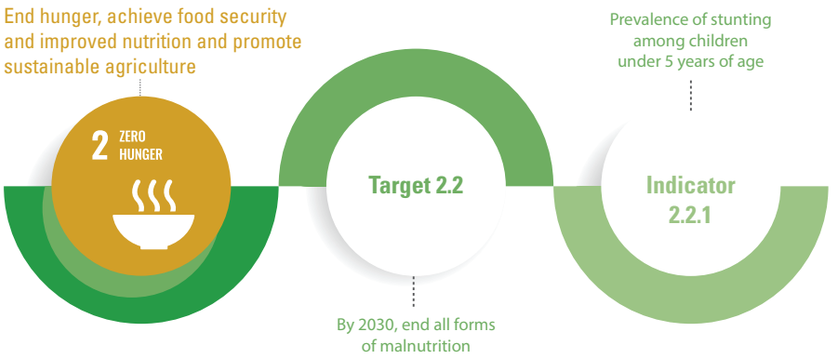


Source: WHO, Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 18 October 2019) (MMR); latest DHS and MICS surveys (see Annex- Maternal Health) (early marriage); and DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019) (TFR).

Child and adolescent health

"We cannot waste our precious children. Not another one, not another day."

Nelson Mandela and Graca Machel



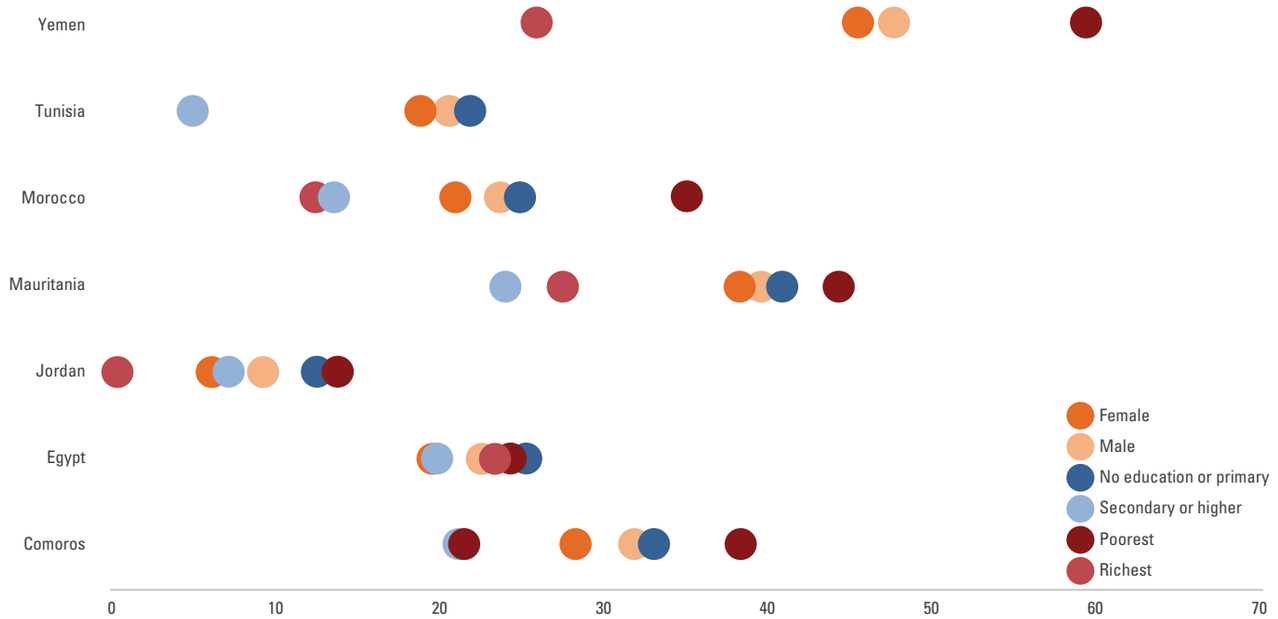
N. Child nutrition

Malnourished children, particularly those with severe acute malnutrition, have a higher risk of death from common childhood illness such as diarrhea, pneumonia and malaria. Nutrition-related factors contribute to about 45 per cent of deaths in children under 5 years of age.[23]

Stunting affected an estimated 21.9 per cent (149 million) of children under age five globally in 2018. While stunting decreased by about 10 percentage points at the global level, it decreased by only 6 percentage points in the region. At least one in every six children under five is stunted in the region (15.1 per cent in Western Asia and 17.2 per cent in Northern Africa) or 9.1 million children in total.[24]

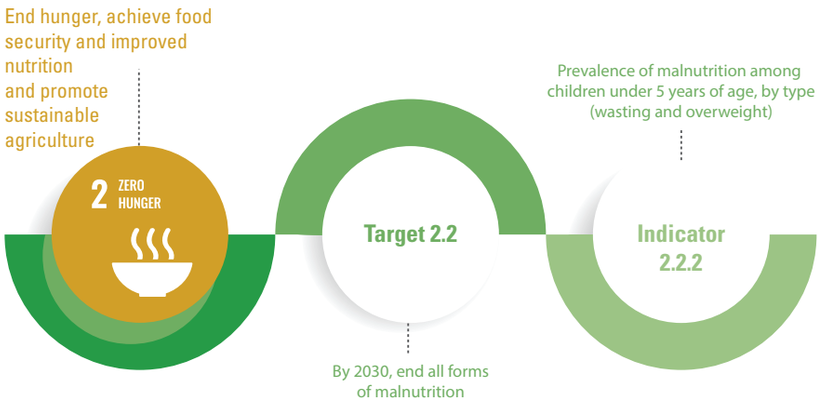
Stunting prevalence decreases with increases in wealth and higher educational attainment of the mother and, to a lesser extent, is less prevalent in urban than rural areas. There are no major gender gaps between female and male children, although latest data on child health differences show that boys had slightly higher rate of stunting than girls in all six Arab countries with available data as shown in Figure 37 below.

Figure 37. Proportion of children stunted by education of mother and wealth, latest available data (percentage)



Source: ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler.

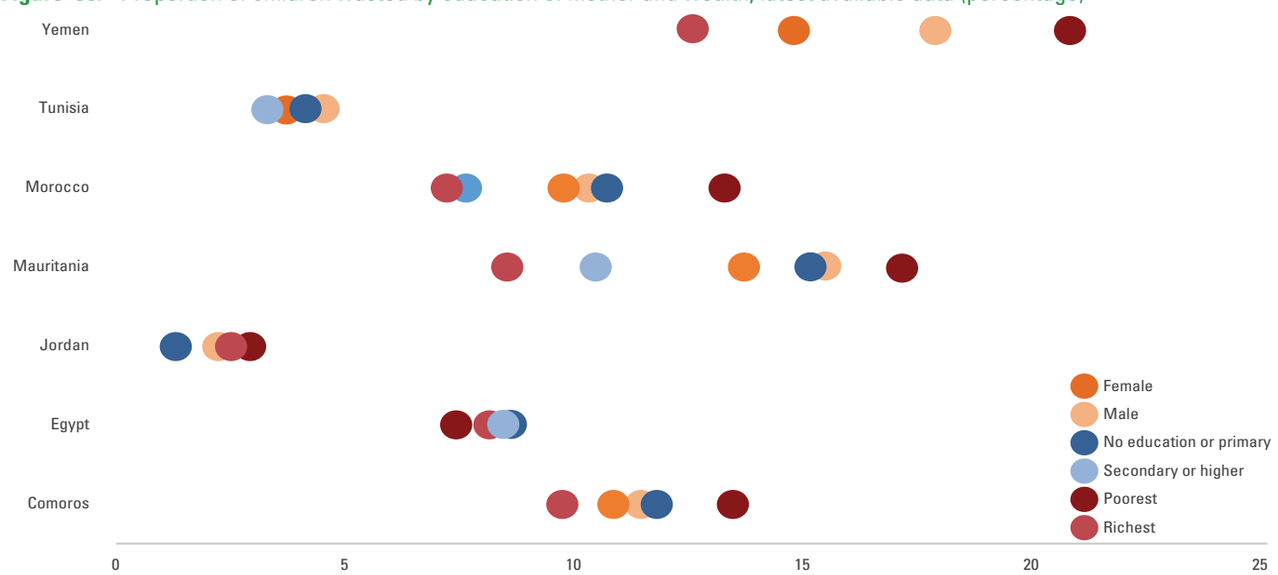
Prevalence of stunting varies among girls and boys in the same country. In 2003, the Palestinian Central Bureau of Statistics showed that prevalence of stunting and underweight children among Palestinian girls was higher than boys. However, the 2010 Palestinian family survey showed that prevalence of underweight children, stunting and wasting among boys under 5 years was higher than in girls.[25]



Wasting continued to threaten the lives of an estimated 7.3 per cent (49 million) children under five globally in 2018. In the same year, Western Asia and Northern Africa had 3.5 million wasted children under five. Although there are no major gender gaps, the gap for wasting between females and males decreases as poverty declines in countries. The gender gap was largest in Yemen followed by Mauritania. In both countries the proportion of wasted males tend to be higher than wasted females, particularly among the poorest families and those with no or minimal education of mothers. As disparity in wealth becomes smaller and there are fewer women with no education, the gender gap in wasting between girls and boys becomes smaller, as witnessed in Morocco and Comoros. The gender gap is nearly nonexistence in Jordan and Tunisia; there was a low percentage of mothers with no education and a small disparity between wealth quintiles Figure 38.

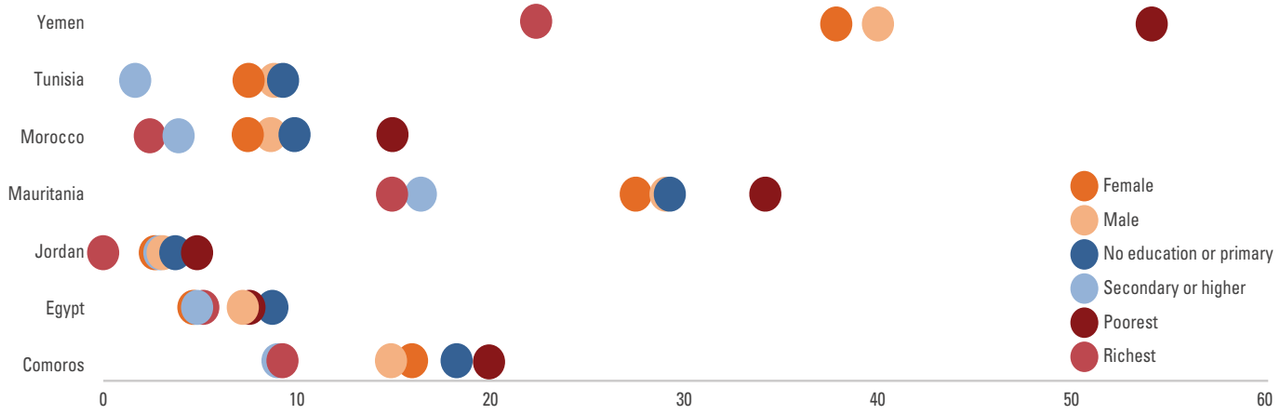
An estimated 5.9 per cent (40 million) children under five around the world were **overweight** in 2018. During the period from 2000 to 2018, Arab States witnessed an increase in the percentage of overweight children under five by around 2 percentage points (Western Asia from 6.7 per cent to 9.0 per cent and Northern Africa from 8.1 per cent to 10.6%). There are around 5.5 million overweight children in the Arab States.[26]

Figure 38. Proportion of children wasted by education of mother and wealth, latest available data (percentage)



Source: ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler.

Figure 39. Proportion of underweight children by education of mother and wealth, latest available data (percentage)



Source: ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler.

The prevalence of **underweight** children under five years of age reflects child growth. According to a technical paper published by the World Health Organization (WHO) in 2010, it was estimated that globally 30 per cent of deaths in children under five years of age are attributed to malnutrition. In the Arab region, the overall proportion of underweight children below five years of age has increased from 14 per cent in 1990 to 17 per cent in 2004.[27]

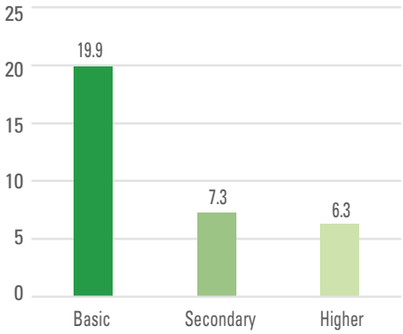
Similar to wasting and stunting there are no major gender gaps, however, underweight children mostly live in rural areas, are among the poorest and their mothers have minimal or no education attainment. The gender gap for underweight children decreases as poverty declines in countries. In almost all the countries (except Comoros), with available data, boys had slightly higher rate of underweight than girls Figure 39.

0. Child mortality

Child mortality – a key indicator for child well-being – reflects a country's social and economic development. It is indicative of children's access to basic health interventions such as vaccinations, medical treatment, and adequate nutrition. Over the last two decades, the world made substantial progress in reducing mortality among children. Since 1990, the global under-five mortality rate has dropped by 58 per cent, from 93 deaths per 1 000 live births in 1990 to 39 in 2017. Still, in 2017 alone, an estimated 6.3 million children and young adolescents died, mostly from preventable causes the majority of deaths (85%) occurred during the first five years of life.[28]

Educational attainment of the mother has an inverse relationship with infant mortality. Data from the State of Palestine Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) in 2014 showed evidence that children of educated mothers had lower mortality rates than those of uneducated mothers. Figure 40 on **post-neonatal mortality** by educational attainment of the mother revealed that mortality rates for children born to mothers with only primary education were higher than those born to mothers with secondary and higher education.

Figure 40. Post-neonatal mortality rate by education of mother in the State of Palestine, 2014 (percentage)



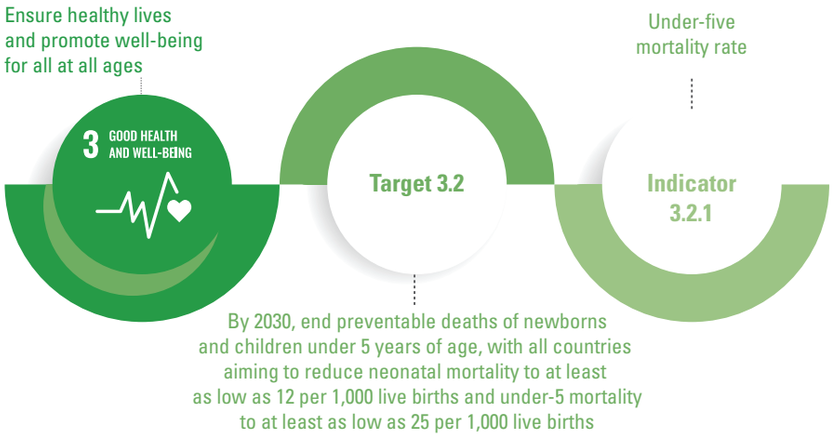
Source: Palestinian MICS 2014.

Under-five mortality: the world made remarkable progress in child survival in the past few decades, and millions of children have better survival chances today than in 1990-1995. One in 26 children died before reaching age five in 2018, compared to one in 11 in 1990.[29] Most children under five die from preventable or treatable causes like complications during birth, pneumonia, diarrhoea, neonatal sepsis and malaria.
On average, under-five mortality rates among children in rural areas are 50 per cent higher than children in urban areas.[30]

The number of countries with gender disparities in child mortality continues to decline. On average boys are expected to have a higher probability of dying before reaching age five than girls. The estimated global under-five mortality rate in 2018 was 41 deaths per 1,000 live births for boys and 36 for girls.

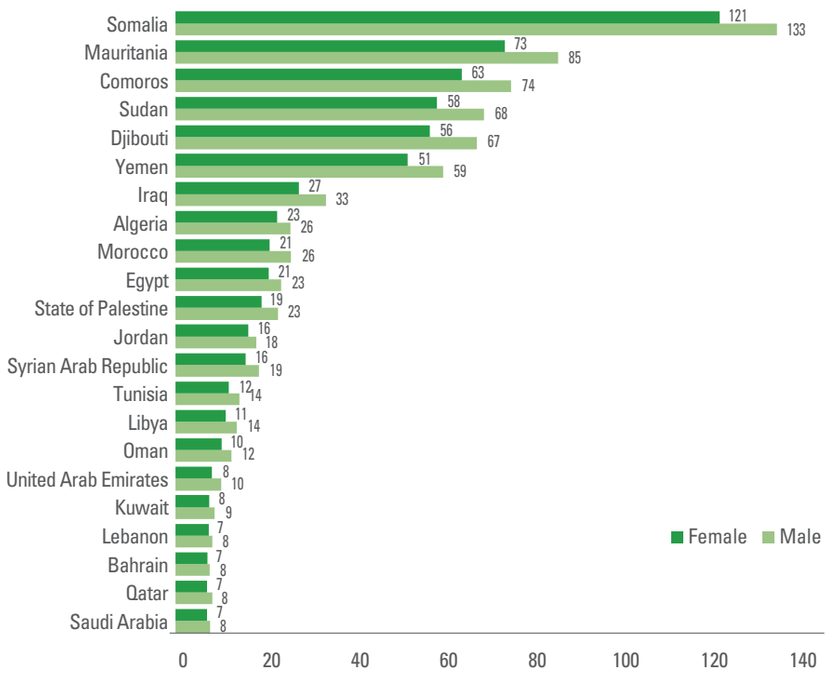
In the Arab region, the under-five mortality rate dropped by more than half during the period (1990-2018). The rates decreased by 56 percentage points for males and by 58 percentage points for females. However, inequities persisted among and within countries.

Latest data available for 118 countries show that under-five mortality rate below the SDG target of at least 25 deaths per 1,000 live births, out of which 15 countries were from the Arab region. Among the remaining countries, namely Somalia, Mauritania, Comoros, the Sudan, Djibouti, Yemen and Iraq, progress needs to be accelerated



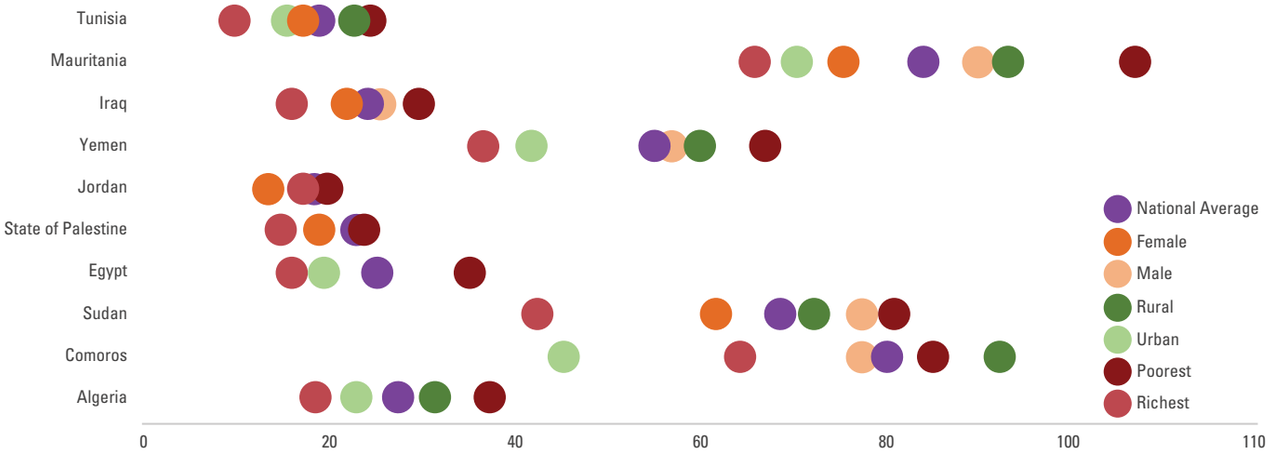
to achieve the SDG target by 2030. In all the Arab countries, boys had higher rates of under-five mortality than girls. This reverse gender gap in under-five mortality rate was the highest in Somalia among all Arab countries, by 13 percentage points Figure 41.

Figure 41. Under-five mortality rate (deaths per 1,000 live births), latest year



Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

Figure 42. Under-five mortality rate (deaths per 1,000 live births) by location and wealth, latest available data

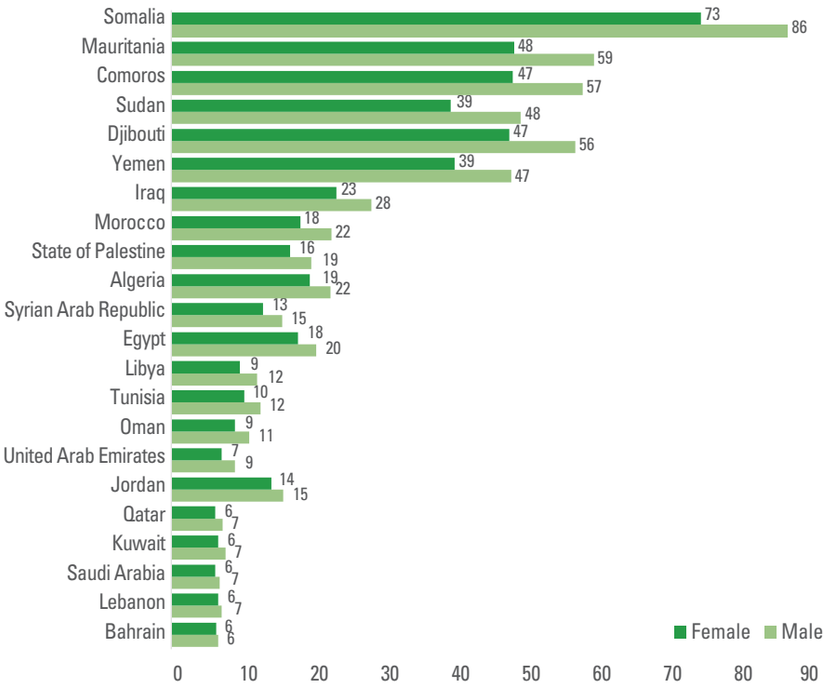


Source: Save the children 2019.

Under-five mortality is highest among the poorest quintile of a population and those living in rural areas, and lowest among the richest and those living in urban areas. Figure 42 shows that in all countries the under-five mortality rate for both sexes increased with the probability of being poor and living in rural areas. The gender gap for under-five mortality rates between females and males, however, decreased as poverty declined in countries.

Infant mortality: similarly, the infant mortality rate among boys is higher than for girls. Data and studies related to the first year of life across the world clearly shows that infant mortality rates are higher in boys than in girls, with biological factors playing an important role in the higher mortality of infant males. In 2018, the global infant morality rate for boys was 31 deaths per 1,000 live births in comparison to 27 for girls. In the Arab States the infant morality rate for boys was 29 deaths per 1,000 live births in comparison to 24 for girls. There were more infant boys dying than girls by around 10 percentage points in Comoros, Djibouti, Mauritania, Somalia and the Sudan Figure 43.

Figure 43. Infant mortality rate (deaths per 1,000 live births), latest year



Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

Chapter 4
Disability

Disadvantaged in both education and work, person with disabilities are more likely to live in poverty. Many children and young people with disabilities remain excluded from education. In all countries, persons with disabilities have lower literacy rates than persons without disabilities. The illiteracy gap among young women with and without disabilities is wider than among young men with and without disabilities.

Women with disabilities are less likely to be part of the labour force given that their levels of inactivity are higher than those of men with disabilities. They are also more likely to be unemployed than men with disabilities. Furthermore, persons with disabilities are more likely to be in vulnerable employment. In almost all countries, persons with disabilities are more likely to be own-account workers than persons without disabilities.

Disability

"Persons with disabilities include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which when interacting with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others."

Article 1 of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD)

In several countries, attitudinal and environmental barriers against disability, not gender, are the major factor driving the disadvantage experienced by women with disabilities. However, in terms of lack of access to employment and sexual violence, environmental barriers and negative attitudes against both sex and disability seem to play a significant role. Women with disabilities are often subjected to double discrimination due to their gender and disability status and continue to be at a disadvantage in most spheres of society and development. Available data suggest that the gap is stark when compared to both men and women without disabilities.[1]

A. Prevalence of disability

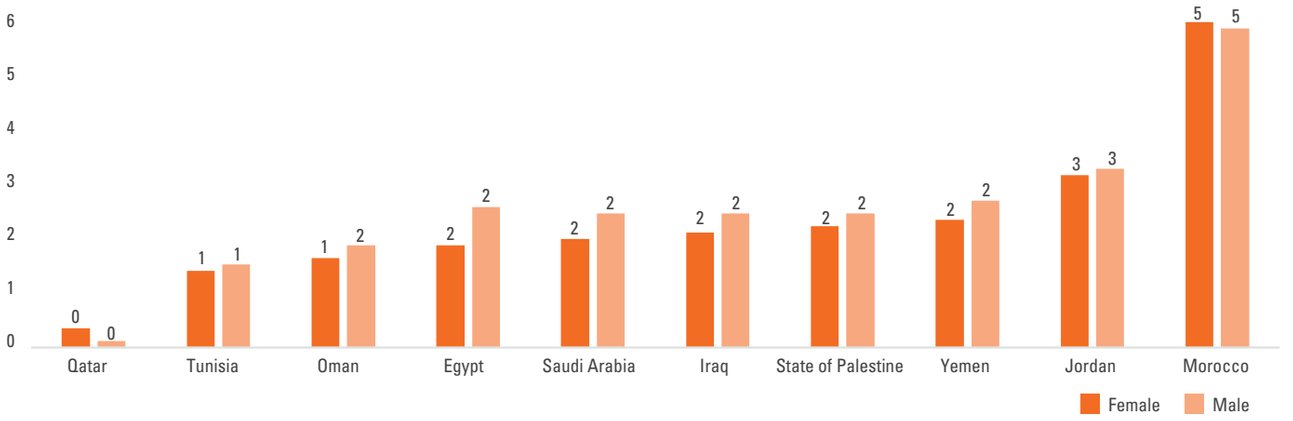
Around 60 million persons with disabilities live in the Arab States

Around six per cent of the world's persons with disabilities[2] live in the Arab States. The number of persons in the region with disabilities is estimated at nearly 60 million persons (based on 15 per cent world average) out of the world's 1 billion.[3]

Persons with disabilities are amongst the most marginalized and disadvantaged in the Arab world. This is not unique to the Arab region; it is a global phenomenon and is one of the reasons gathering data on persons with disabilities is at the core of monitoring the SDGs. Until recently, persons with disabillities have been largely invisible, and their situation not measured in a meaningful way.

The Washington Group on Disability Statistics has developed a methodology to uniformly measure disability in censuses and surveys. They have a short set of questions that aim to measure disability across six functional areas - seeing, hearing, walking, cognition, self-care and communication – at four levels of severity: no difficulty, some difficulty, a lot of difficulty and unable at all. This methodology has been adopted in the majority of Arab countries. Further to that, ESCWA has published a Regional Guidebook to Improve Disability Data Collection and Analysis in the Arab Countries and recommends the Arab Washington Group Extended Short Set on Functioning (AWG-SS+) for better capturing the majority of persons with disabilities.[4]

Figure 44. Prevalence of disability, latest available data (percentage)

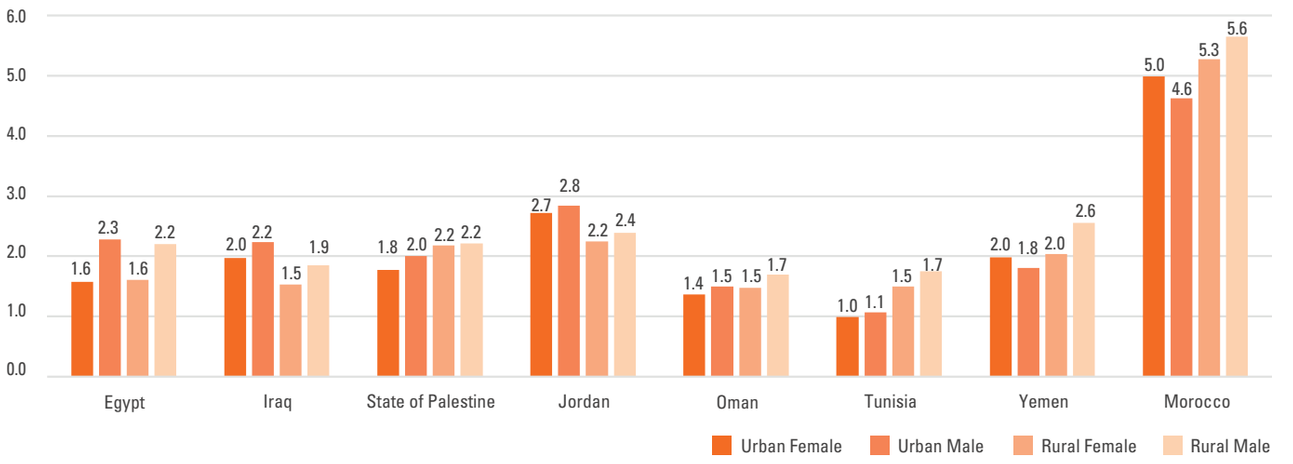


Source: Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices.

A review of data availability in 10 Arab countries that have applied the Washington Group short set of questions showed that the range of disability prevalence was between 0.2 and 5.1 per cent[5] based on data from household surveys[6] and population censuses[7] Figure 44.

Without targeted policies and programmes, persons with disabilities tend to be disadvantaged in work and education. Due to gender norms that limit women's participation in work and decision-making, women with disabilities often face more challenges than men with disabilities. Furthermore, persons with disabilities in rural areas are more disadvantaged than those in urban areas. In Jordan and Iraq, however, the situation is reversed, in that there were more females and males with disabilities in urban areas than in rural areas for both sexes. In all the countries with available data, males with disabilities were greater than females in both urban and rural areas with the exception of Morocco and Yemen; the urban females were more than urban males as shown in Figure 45.

Figure 45. Prevalence of disability by location, latest available data (percentage)



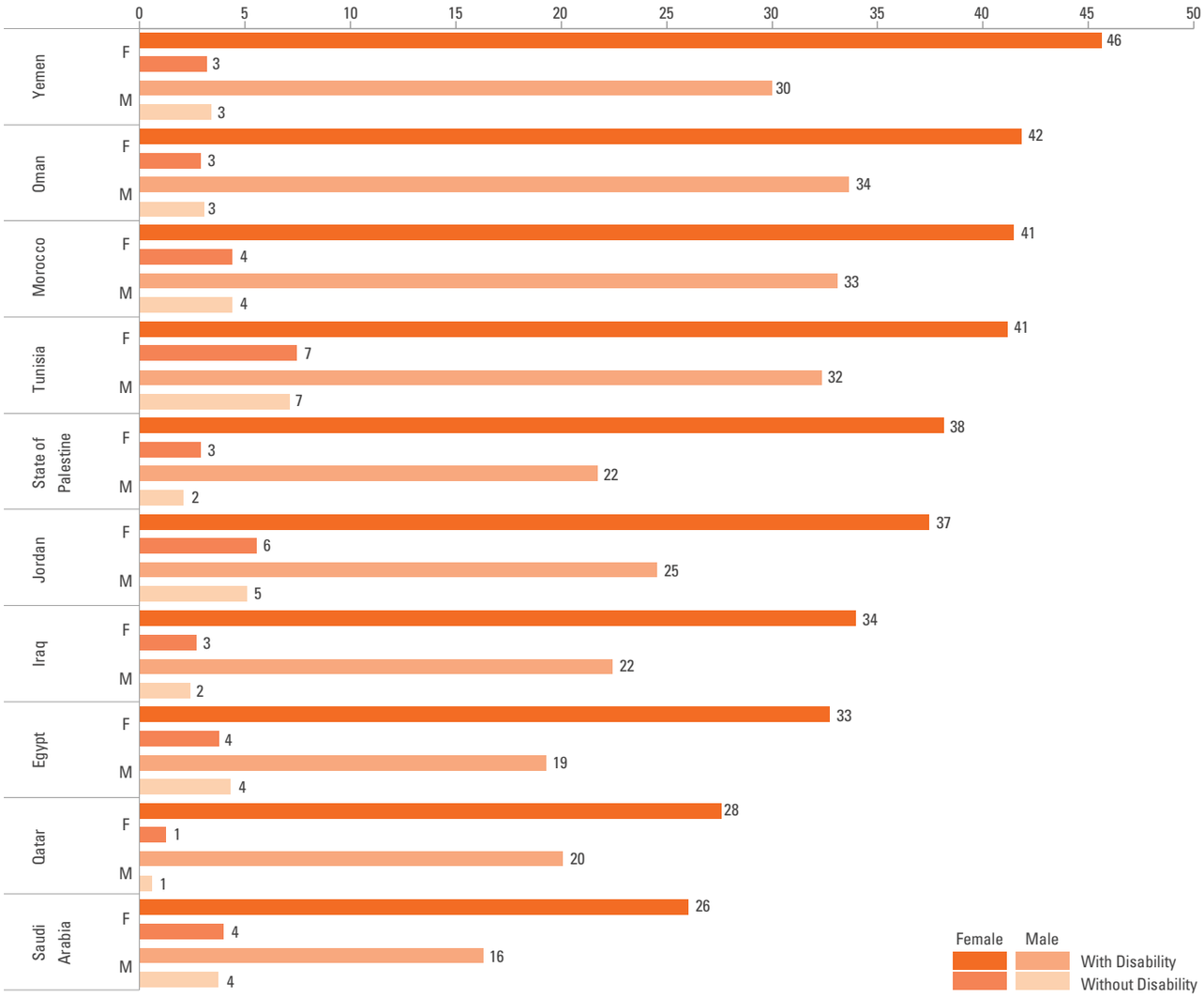
Source: Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices.

B. Disability in old age

As disability increases with age, it is very likely that the rate of disability will increase over time as some countries of the region have a predominantly aging population. In addition, civil unrest and wars that have plagued parts of the region are likely to increase disability levels as people are injured and maimed. For every person killed in a conflict, many more are severely wounded or permanently disabled.

Age is a large factor in determining disability prevalence rates. Morocco, Oman and Yemen had the highest proportion of population over 65 years with a disability (37%). Qatar had at least one in every four people aged 65 years and older with a disability. Saudi Arabia had the lowest proportion of population aged 65 years and older with a disability (20.5%) Figure 46.

Figure 46. Proportion of population aged 65 years and older among persons with and without disabilities, latest available data (percentage)



Source: Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices.

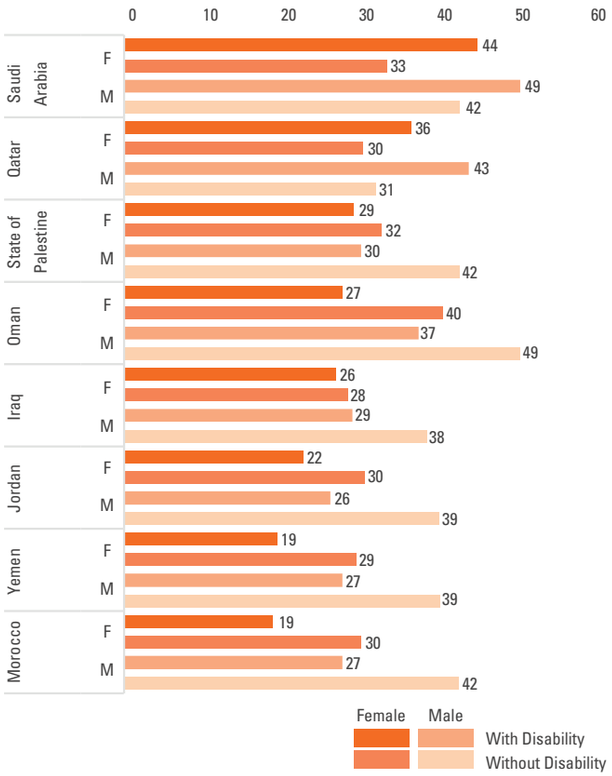
C. Marital status of persons with disabilities

Marital status of persons with disabilities depends on the age group under study. For example, older persons are more likely to have disabilities and also more likely to be married.

With the exception of Saudi Arabia and Qatar, data on the Arab States show that the rate of adult singlehood (15 years and older) was less for persons with disabilities than persons without disabilities. The proportion of single adult males with disabilities was higher than single female with disabilities in all countries which implied the existence of a gender gap. The largest gender gap was reported in Oman at 10 percentage points followed by Morocco at 9 percentage points, Yemen at 8 percentage points and Qatar at 7 percentage points. However, the same gender gap also existed for single persons without disabilities Figure 47.

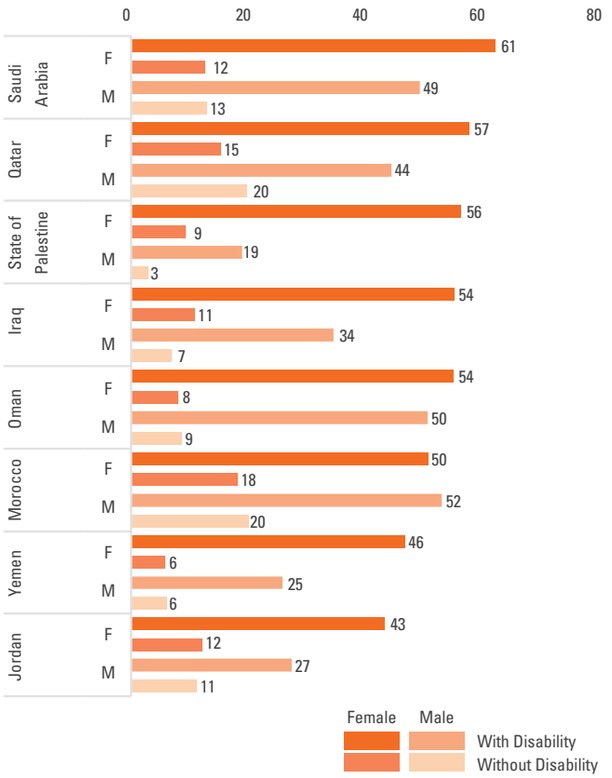
However, when data are specific to age groups a different situation emerges for single persons with disabilities. Persons with disabilities aged 35-39 years, for example, are more likely than persons without disabilities to be single. This was true for both females and males with disabilities in all the Arab States. The singlehood rates for females with disabilities were higher than males. Data in Figure 48 show that the State of Palestine had the widest gender gap in singlehood between females and males with disabilities; there were nearly 37 percentage points more single females than single males with disabilities. The gender gap was minimal among persons without disabilities in all countries.

Figure 47. Proportion of singlehood among population aged 15 years and older by disability status, latest available data (percentage)



Source: Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices.

Figure 48. Proportion of singlehood among population aged 35-39 years by disability status, latest available data (percentage)



Source: Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices.

D. Disability and education

Many children and youth with disabilities remain excluded from education

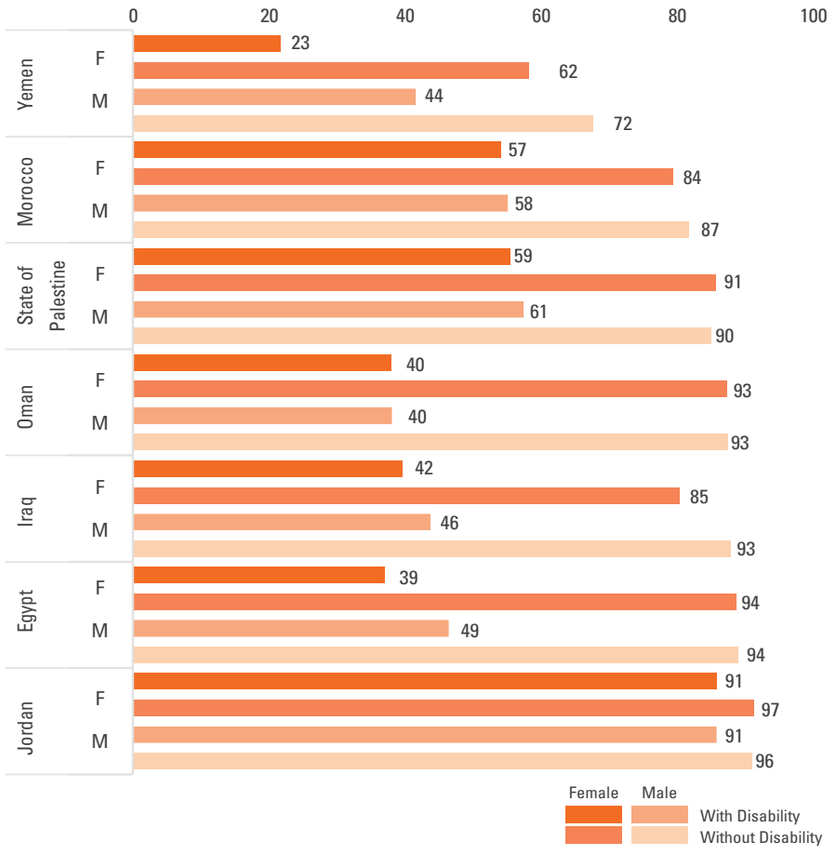
There are significant differences in the education, employment and literacy outcomes for persons with disabilities compared to those without disabilities. The gap in education between persons with and without disabilities was greatest in Oman for both sexes. Omani women and men with disabilities, aged 25 years and older, were more than twice as likely to have no education or some primary education than those without disabilities. Women with disabilities in Oman had a lower level of education (91%) compared to women without disabilities (39%). Similarly, men with disabilities in Oman had a lower level of education (79%) compared to men without disabilities (24%).

Data in Figure 49 show that school attendance for both female and male children with disabilities, aged 5-14 years, is much lower than for those without disabilities. Egypt had the highest gap between females with and without disabilities by 55 percentage point followed by Oman and Iraq (52 and 43 percentage points, respectively). Oman had the highest gap between males with and without disabilities by 52 percentage points followed by Iraq and Egypt (47 and 45 percentage points, respectively).

While the gender gap in school attendance for both females and males aged 5-14 years persist between sexes whether with or without disabilities, it varies among Arab States. Yemen, for example, had the highest gender gap of school attendance between both sexes; there was a gender gap of 21 percentage points between females and males with disabilities compared to a gender gap of only 10 percentage points for those without disabilities.

Omani women and men with disabilities aged 25 + years twice likely to have **no education** than those without disabilities

Figure 49. School attendance of population aged 5-14 years by disability status (percentage)



Source: Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices.

Data in Figure 50 also show that school attendance for both female and male youth, aged 15-24 years, with disabilities are much lower than those without disabilities. Egypt, for example, had a 40 percentage points gap between females with and without disabilities compared to a 39 percentage points gap between males with and without disabilities. Yemen had the highest gender gap of school attendance between both sexes; expressed as 6 percentage points for persons with disabilities compared to 19 percentage points for those without disabilities.

E. Literacy of persons with disabilities

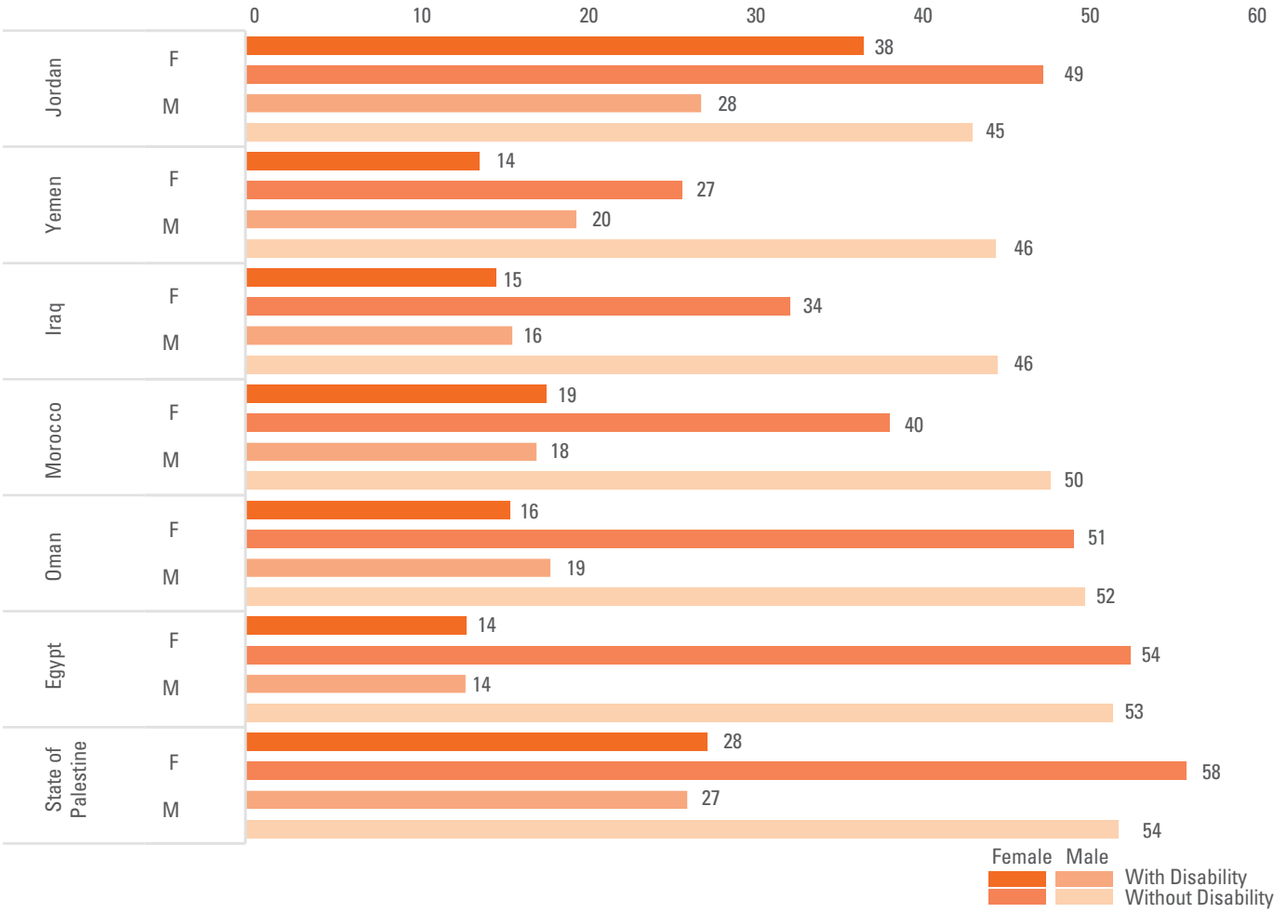
In all countries, persons with disabilities have lower literacy rates than persons without disabilities

One outcome of low levels of education is low literacy. Youth illiteracy rates reveal the specific connection between education outcome and literacy. There is a massive difference in terms of the disadvantage of those with disabilities when comparing youth illiteracy rates between persons with and without disabilities, between females and males with disabilities and between females and males without disabilities.

As shown in Figure 51 illiteracy rates were highest in Iraq: illiteracy among the youth female population with disability was 61 per cent and youth male population 55 per cent, compared to 17 per cent for females and 10 per cent for males among the youth population without disability.

The gender gap in illiteracy between young females and males with

Figure 50. School attendance of population aged 15-24 years by disability status (percentage)



Source: Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices.

disabilities is largest in the State of Palestine by 12 percentage points followed by Jordan at 8 percentage points. Morocco youth illiteracy gender gaps between those with disabilities were almost the same as those between youth without disabilities at around 7 percentage points.

Data also show a bigger gap between illiteracy rates among young females with and without disabilities than between males. In Oman nearly half of the female youth with disabilities were illiterate. For every illiterate young woman without disabilities, there were two young illiterate women with disabilities. Data also show a difference of around 40 percentage points between females with and without disabilities in both Jordan and the State of Palestine.

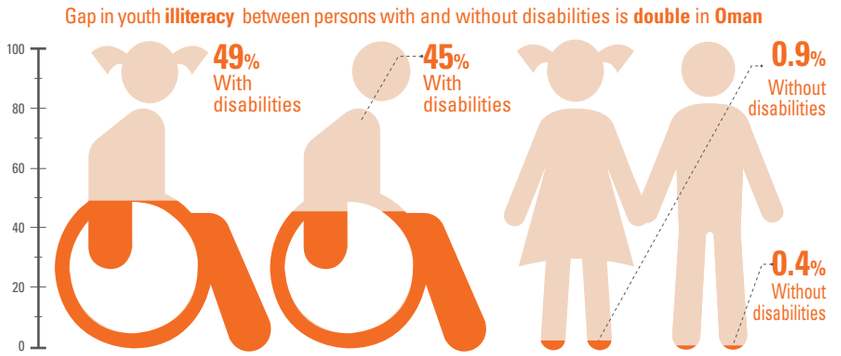
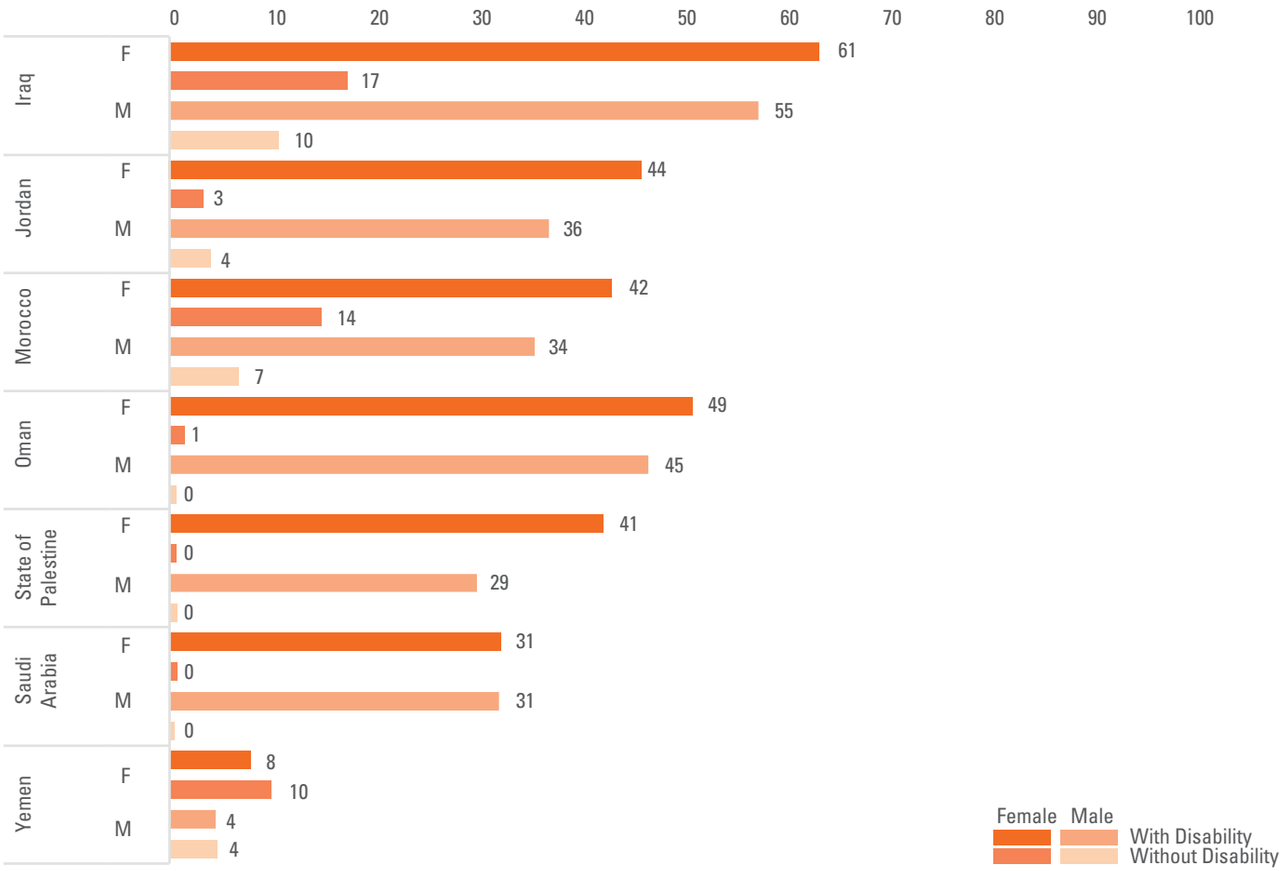


Figure 51. Youth illiteracy rate of persons aged 15-24 years by disability status, latest available data (percentage)



Source: Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices.

F. Employment of persons with disabilities

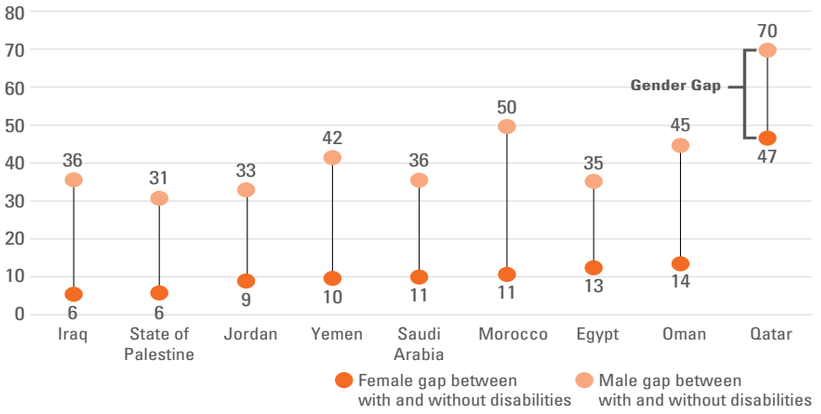
Lower rates of employment have been persistently observed for persons with disabilities.[8] In most countries where data were available, persons with disabilities were less likely to be employed than their non-disabled counterparts.

The employment-to-population ratio is another measure revealing disability and gender gaps. Gender gaps in access to employment show that, in all Arab States, women with disabilities were less likely to be employed than men with disability, and women without disabilities were much less likely to be employed than men without disabilities.

The gap in employment between persons with and without disabilities within the same sex was also significant in all countries, particularly in Qatar where 96 per cent of men without disabilities were employed compared to only 26 per cent of men with disabilities (a gap of almost 70 percentage points) was the highest in the region. The gap in employment for men with disabilities was much greater than for women because men are more often participants in the paid workforce, while women are responsible for unpaid work. Only 4 per cent of women with disabilities in Qatar had employment compared to 51 per cent of women without disabilities (a gap of almost 47 percentage points) and also the highest gap among women in the region Figure 52.

Disadvantaged in both education and work, person with disabilities were more likely to live in poverty. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development will fall short of meeting their aspirations if men and women with disabilities are not included in the process. Significant proactive policies and programmes are needed to ensure that persons with disabilities are not left behind.

Figure 52. Disability gap in employment rate between persons with and without disabilities within same sex and between two sexes, latest available data (percentage)



Source: Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices.

Data in Figure 53 show that Saudi Arabia had the lowest proportion of employed females and males with disabilities in comparison to other Arab States. In Saudi Arabia, there were only a quarter of employed women with disabilities compared to two thirds (67%) of employed women without disabilities. The gap was almost as wide for men: 51 per cent of men with disabilities were employed compared to 89 per cent employed for men without disabilities.

Yemen, on the other hand, had the highest percentage of employed women with disabilities among Arab States. The proportion of Yemeni employed women with disabilities was 94 per cent compared to 87 per cent of employed females without disabilities. In comparison, the highest proportion of employed men with disabilities was in Qatar where 98 per cent were employed compared to 100 per cent of men without disabilities.

Saudi Arabia had the widest gender gap in employment with disabilities of around 26 percentage points with more men employed, followed by Qatar and Jordan, at 25 and 17 percentage points, respectively.

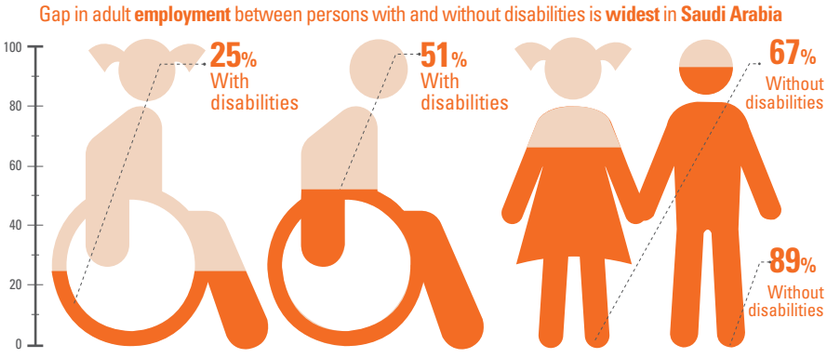
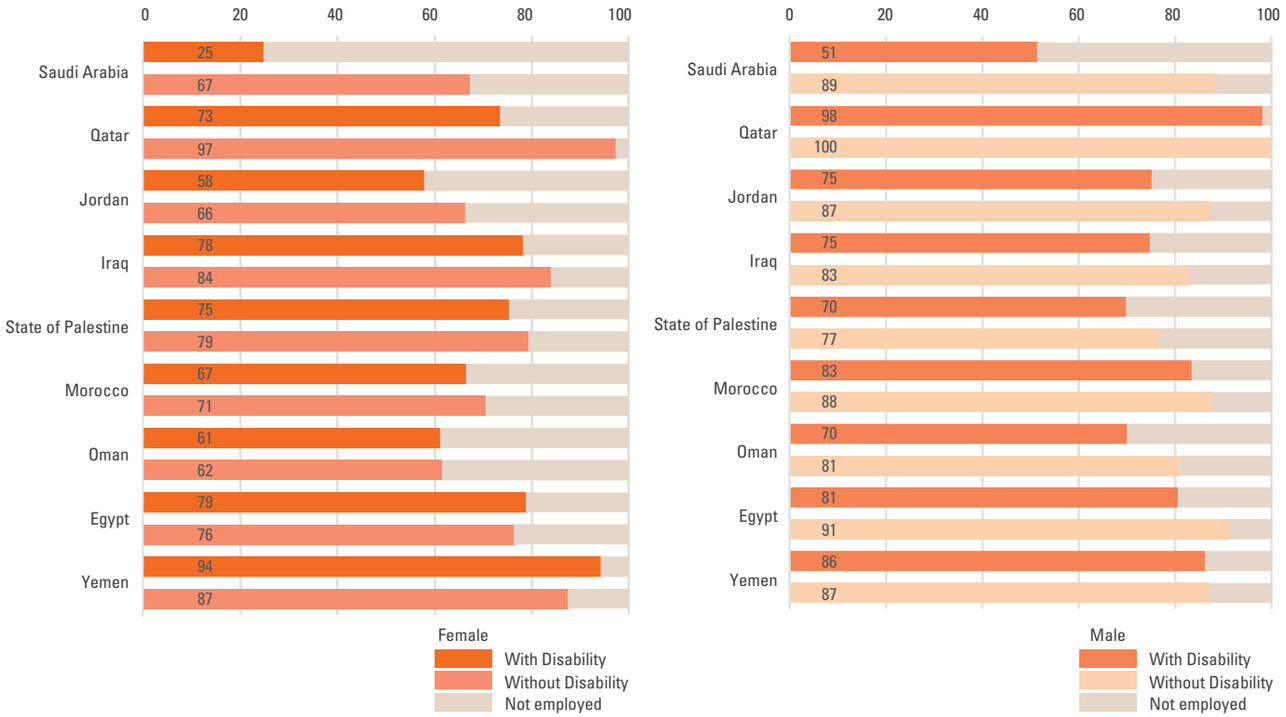


Figure 53. Proportion of employed persons with and without disabilities, latest available data (percentage)



Source: Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices.

G. Vulnerable employment of persons with disabilities

Persons with disabilities are more likely to be in vulnerable employment

Even in countries where persons with disabilities are employed, they may face disproportionately precarious situations in comparison to the general population. Persons with disabilities are also more likely to be own-account workers.[9]

In all Arab States persons with disabilities were more likely to be own-account workers than persons without disabilities except females in Egypt. The proportion of own-account females without disabilities (23%) was larger than females with disabilities (20%). However, rates of own-account male persons with disabilities were larger in all countries reported in Figure 54.

The gaps between own-account female workers with and without disabilities was 13 percentage points between females and 4 percentage points between males in Oman; between 12 percentage points for females and 14 percentage between males points in Morocco; between 10 percentage points for females and between 5 percentage points for males in the State of Palestine; and between 10 percentage points for females and between 2 percentage points for males in Iraq. Similar gaps were reported between own-account male workers with and without disabilities.

In the countries with available data, as shown in Figure 54, rates for own-account female workers with disabilities ranged between 10 to 13 percentage points higher than 2 to 14 percentage points the rates for females without disabilities.

The majority of own-account persons work for their families. In Egypt, for example, 34 per cent of own-account female persons with disabilities and 13 per cent of own-account male persons with disabilities were family workers.

The gender gap of self-employed persons with disabilities in favour of males was highest in Morocco (21 percentage points), Iraq (10 percentage points) and the State of Palestine (4 percentage points). However, the self-employed females with disabilities were more than the males in Egypt and in Oman, by 10 percentage points.

H. Unemployment of persons with disabilities

Unemployment was higher among persons with disabilities in comparison to those without disabilities for both women and men in almost all countries. Saudi Arabia had the widest gender gap in unemployment between women and men with disabilities of around 26 percentage points higher for unemployed women. Moreover, unemployed Saudi women with disabilities (75%) are 2.3 times higher than unemployed women without disabilities (33%). Similarly, the gap between Saudi unemployed men with disabilities (49%) was 4.2 times higher than the rate for Saudi unemployed men without disabilities (12%) Figure 55.

The **widest gender gap** in **unmployment** between women and men with disabilities in **Saudi Arabia**

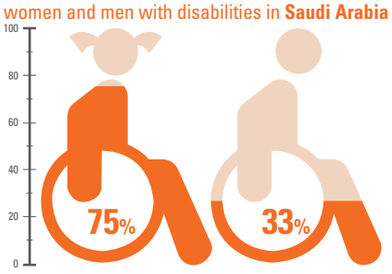
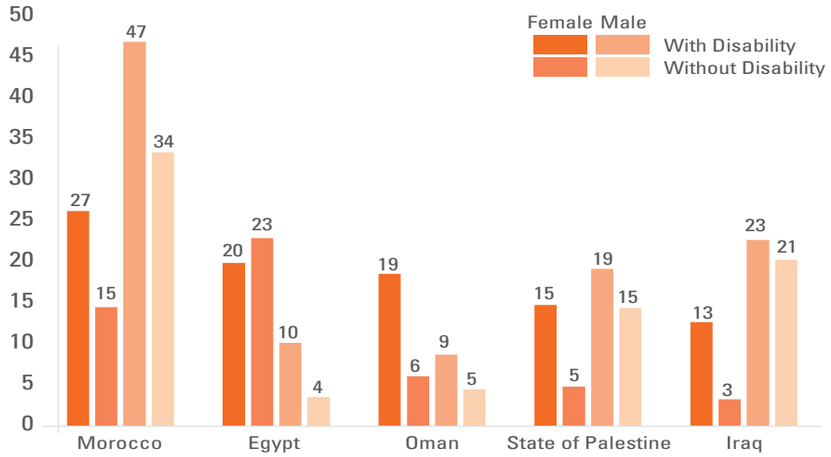
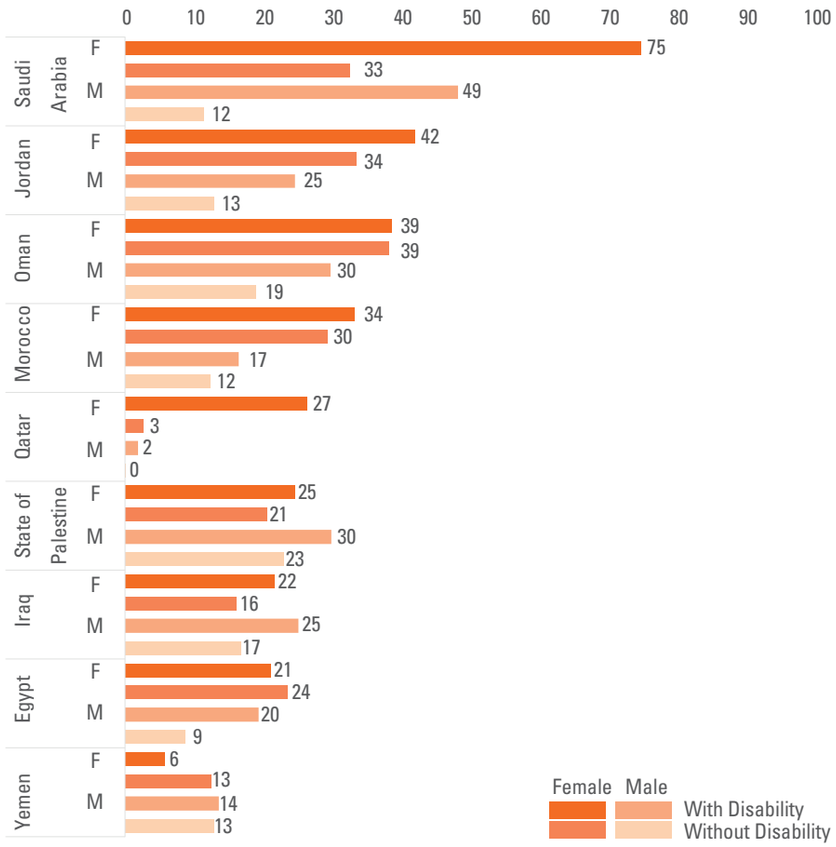


Figure 54. Proportion of own-account persons with and without disabilities, latest available data (percentage)



Source: Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices.

Figure 55. Unemployment rate for persons aged 15 years and older by disability status, latest available data (percentage)

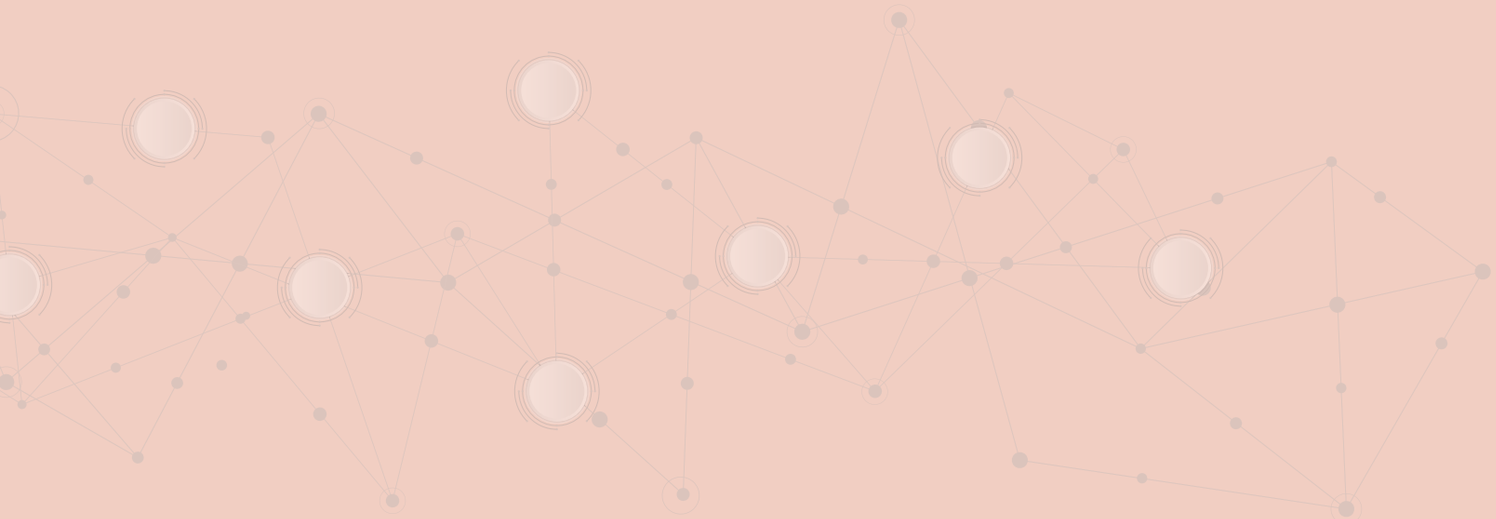


Source: Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices.

Chapter 5
Education

Women are twice as likely to be illiterate as men, making up two thirds of the region's illiterate adults. Gender gaps decreased as more girls were enrolled in primary education; however, gender gaps widened as the level of education rose. Girls in rural areas and from the poorest households have lower attendance rates in primary and secondary school. Those in conflict-affected countries are much more likely to never to go to school than boys.

The type of education and specialization is still highly correlated with a person's gender: women tend to favour science majors over engineering, and a lack ICT and Internet skills continues to be a major barrier keeping women from fully benefitting from the potential of ICT.



Education

"The ability to read, write, and analyse; the confidence to stand up and demand justice and equality; the qualifications and connections to get your foot in that door and take your seat at that table — all of that starts with education."

Former First Lady of the United States, Michelle Obama

Education is not only a basic human right but also a stepping stone to the enjoyment of other rights and a driver for sustainable development. It is through education that people can access broader social, economic, political and cultural benefits and achieve human development.

Despite significant progress in recent decades, the right to education is still far from being a reality for many girls and women. Discriminatory practices hold back girls and women from fully exercising their right to participate in, complete and benefit from education.

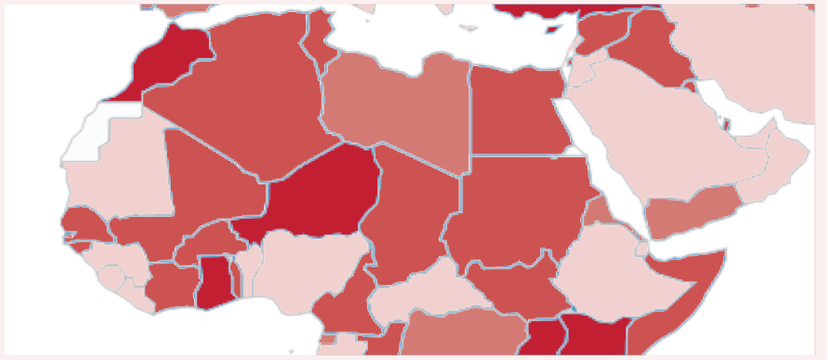
Arab States need to **increase efforts** to address **obstacles** to **schooling** that effect the **most marginalized girls**

A. Enabling environment

Figure 56 shows the status of national legal frameworks related to girls' and women's right to education. Although few Arab States have ratified the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Convention against Discrimination in Education, some countries went a step further to include the right to education based on gender or equality of rights without distinction based on sex in their constitutions. These countries include Algeria, Comoros, Egypt, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Morocco, the State of Palestine, Qatar, Tunisia, the Syrian Arab Republic, Somalia, the Sudan and Yemen. Eight countries, Bahrain, Djibouti, Jordan, Lebanon, Mauritania, Oman, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates, however, neither ratified the Convention against Discrimination in Education nor enshrined the right of education for all girls and women in their constitution nor legislation.[1]

A country's long-term economic growth increases by 3.7 per cent for every year the adult population's average level of schooling rises.[2] In the Arab region, the interaction between the region's economic structure and its conservative culture in which traditional gender roles are strongly ingrained, is largely responsible for lower levels of women's education and labour force participation than other regions with similar income levels.[3]

Figure 56. National constitutions that enshrine the right of education for all girls and women



- Does not enshrine right to education
- Enshrines right to education or provides for a limited protection of this right
- Enshrines right to education without discrimination or contains a provision on equal rights to education
- Enshrines right to education without discrimination based on sex/gender, or equality of rights provision without distinction based on sex…
- Enshrines right to education without discrimination based on sex/gender or equality of rights provision without distinction based on sex/…

Source: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), Atlas of girls' and women's right to education, Map 3/12.

Globally, government education expenditure (in per cent of GDP) was recorded at 4.4 per cent in 2017. The Arab countries invested between 1 - 7 per cent of GDP on education. As per latest available data, the highest government expenditure on education is in Oman (6.7%) and Tunisia (6.6%), followed by both Morocco and the State of Palestine (5.3%), Yemen (5.2%), the Syrian Arab Republic and Saudi Arabia (5.1%), Djibouti (4.5%), Algeria and Comoros (4.3%), Egypt and Kuwait (3.8%), Iraq and Jordan (3.6%), Qatar (2.9%), Mauritania (2.6%), Lebanon (2.5%), Bahrain and Libya (2.3%), the Sudan (2.2%) and the United Arab Emirates (1.1%).

In addition, many Arab countries have committed to at least five years of compulsory primary education and provided some years of free education. Attendance rates at primary level have increased as a result of these measures. Many countries, thanks to their successful policies and programmes, achieved equality; enrolment rates showed no gaps and biases between sexes, rural and urban, and poorest and richest population.

Net attendance rates in primary school were above 90 per cent in countries with compulsory and free primary education, which included Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, the State of Palestine, the Syrian Arab Republic and Tunisia. Similarly, high rates were also observed in Iraq and Morocco, except they were lower for females, in rural areas and among the poorest people, which indicates a shortcoming in the programmes targeting vulnerable population Table 8.

Data show that the higher the level of schooling, the fewer females, rural and the poorest population have access to schooling. This is particularly in countries where there is less coverage of compulsory and free years of education offered by governments at the higher levels. In almost all the countries, the rates at higher secondary schools were very low because mostly they were not compulsory nor free.

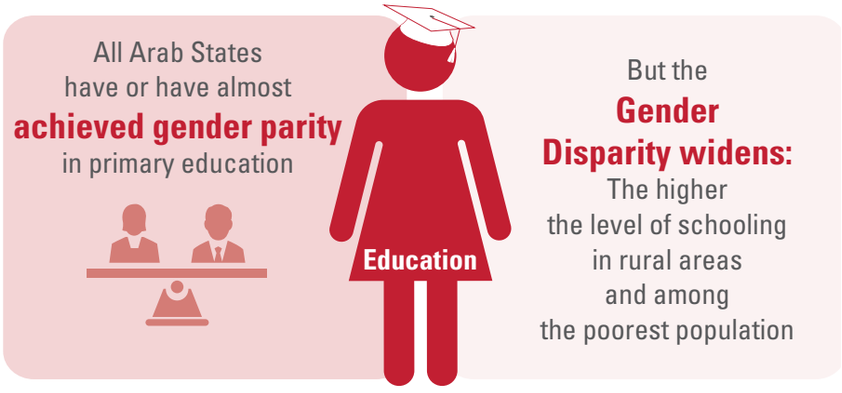


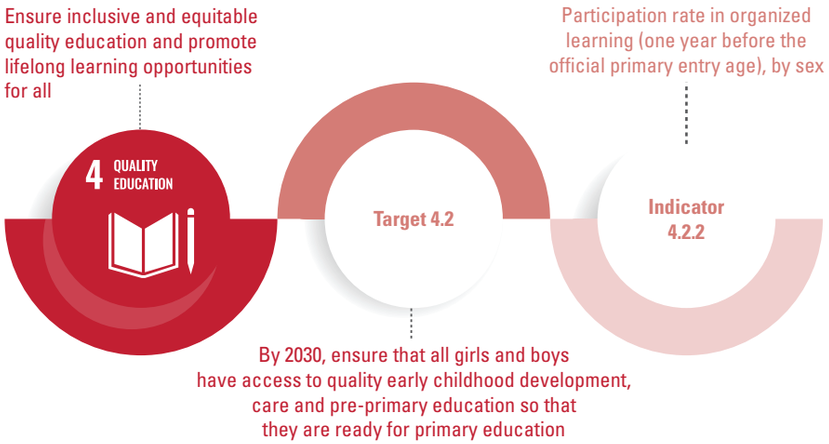
Table 8. Net attendance rate in primary education by location, wealth, compulsory and free years

Country	Total	Female	Male	Rural	Urban	Poorest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Richest	Compulsory years	Free years
Algeria	98	97	98	97	98	96	97	98	98	98	5	5
Comoros	84	84	84	82	90	72	81	89	94	95	6	6
Egypt	97	97	97	97	97	95	96	98	98	98	6	6
Iraq	90	87	93	84	94	79	90	94	96	98	6	6
Jordan	98	98	98	98	98	97	99	97	99	99	6	6
Morocco	89	88	91	83	96	77	87	95	97	97	6	6
State of Palestine	99	99	99	99	99	99	99	99	99	99	4	4
Sudan	68	67	69	61	86	48	54	68	87	94	6	6
Syrian Arab Republic	97	96	97	96	98	92	97	98	98	99	6	6
Tunisia	98	98	98	97	99	96	98	99	99	99	6	6
Yemen	76	72	80	73	85	56	76	82	83	90	6	6

Source: UNICEF Global databases 2017 based on MICS, DHS and other national household surveys (last updated on December 2017) (primary net attendance rate); and UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Number of years of (a) free and (b) compulsory primary education guaranteed in legal frameworks" (compulsory and free years).

B. Early childhood education

Access to good quality pre-primary education has an enormous impact on girls' and boys' primary education outcomes, increasing their chances of enrolling, avoiding dropout and repetition, and achieving strong foundational skills, Berlinski et al., 2009; Myers, 2004.[4] There is also a strong positive association between maternal employment and the access to formal childcare. The demand for childcare services is high among working women, while affordable, accessible childcare is a strong enabler of women's employment. Moreover, women's employment status has been shown to be clearly linked to decisions and choices concerning childcare. Often, women reduce their working hours or withdraw from the labour market altogether, because of childcare responsibilities.[5]



It is worth noting that only a few Arab countries have guarantees in their legal frameworks to provide at least one year of free early childhood education, namely: Algeria (one year), Djibouti (two years), Iraq (two years), Mauritania (three years), the State of Palestine (one year) and the Syrian Arab Republic (three years).

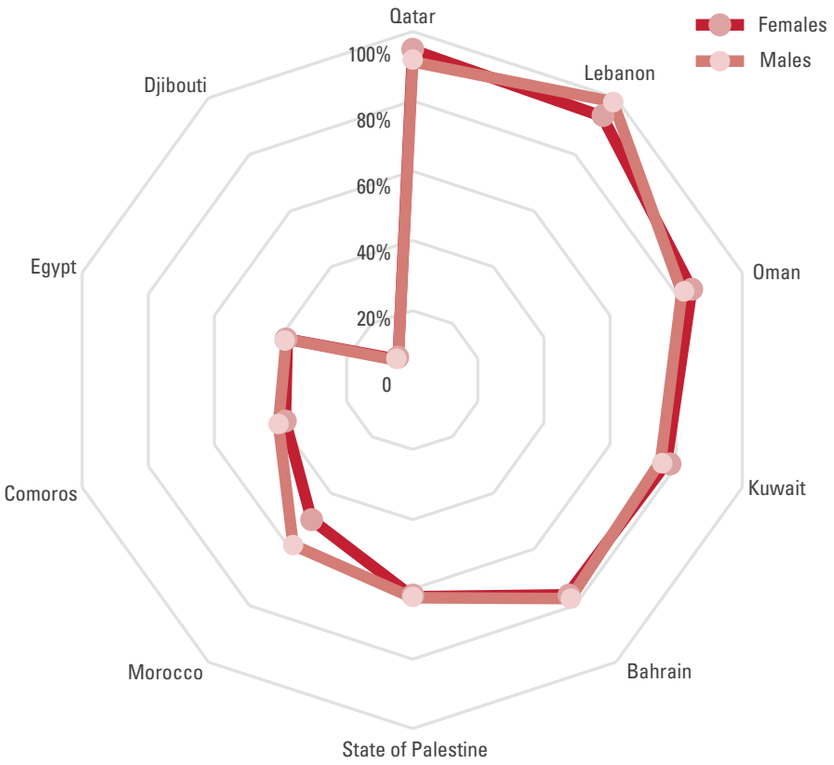
Since 2000, early childhood education services have expanded considerably. The global adjusted net enrolment rate for one year before the official primary entry age increased by 3 percentage points for girls, from 61 per cent in 2012 to 64 per cent in 2018 and increased by 3 percentage points for boys, from 62 per cent in 2012 to 65 per cent in 2018.

A similar increase took place in the Arab States during the same period, however, the gap between regional and global averages remained large at 19 percentage points in 2018. There was an increase of 2 percentage points in net enrollment rates for early childhood education for total average and for females (from 43% to 45%). A similar increase of 2 percentage points was also reported in male rates (from 44% to 46%). In 2018, early childhood education remains low in the Arab region with a gender gap of 1 percentage point in favour of male children.

Few countries had good rates for early childhood learning for both females and males, such as Qatar and Lebanon (over 90%), Oman (over 80%). Countries that need to exert more effort to increase early childhood education are Djibouti, Egypt, Comoros, Morocco and the State of Palestine where less than 65 per cent of children were in early childhood education Figure 57.

Globally there were no gender gaps in early childhood, however, in the Arab countries, female rates on average were more than male rates by 2 percentage points. There were more females than males attending early childhood education in Algeria, Qatar, Oman and Kuwait. However, there was a significant gender gap in favour of males in Morocco by 9 percentage points, followed by Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates at 6 percentage points and Lebanon at 5 percentage points.

Figure 57. Adjusted net enrolment rate, one year before the official primary entry age



Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Adjusted net enrolment rate, one year before the official primary entry age".

C. Primary education

Access to education has improved and there has been a clear trend in reducing gender disparity in primary gross enrolment ratios for a majority of Arab States, often starting from a point of severe disadvantage for girls.

In the Arab States, school Net Enrolment Rate (NER) in primary education for girls was 72 per cent and for boys was 80 per cent in 2000. There has been a significant increase for girls over the years. In 2017, the rate for girls increased significantly to 83 per cent, while the boys had a modest increase to 85 per cent. Between 2000 and 2017 the gender gap decreased by 6 percentage points.

As more **girls** enrolled in **primary education**, the **gender gap decreased**

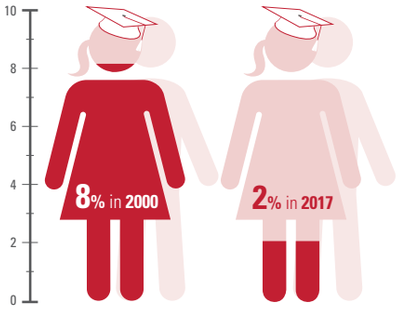
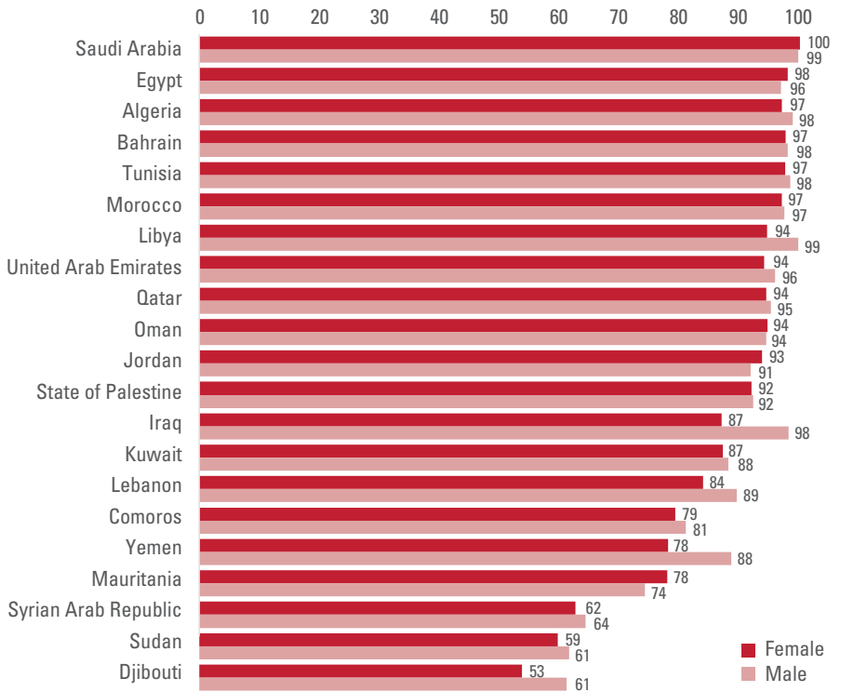


Figure 58. Net enrolment rate in primary education, latest year (percentage)



Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Net enrolment rate, primary".

However, those rates have remained stagnant since 2013, indicating that countries face great difficulty in reaching the last 15 per cent of children currently excluded from the school system. Arab States need to reach the goal of gender parity and with high overall enrolment as well as increase efforts to address obstacles to schooling that affect the most marginalized girls.

Most countries were within reach of or have achieved universal primary education for both sexes. Djibouti remarkably doubled the net enrolment rate for girls and boys between 2000 and 2017. In the same period, Yemen increased enrolment for girls by 37 percentage points and by 18 percentage points for boys. The United Arab Emirates and Morocco increased the female and male enrolment from around 75 per cent to reach universal primary education. There was a significant increase in Morocco's enrolment rates for girls by 28 percentage points during 1999 – 2013 period. The gains were directly attributable to long-term emphasis on school construction in rural areas and gender equity reforms.[6]

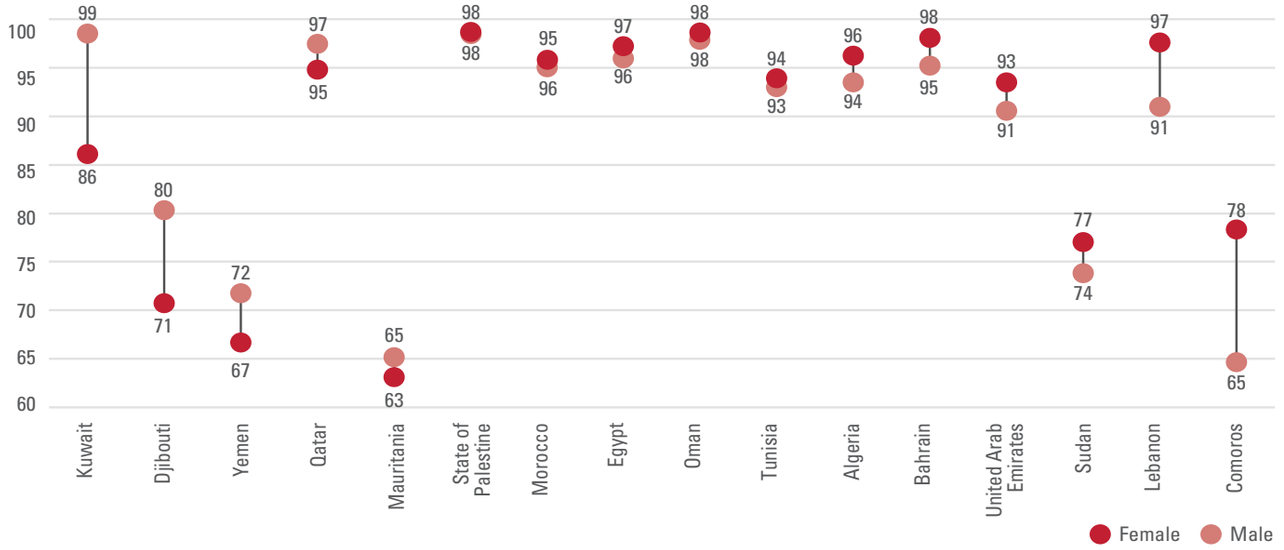
Latest available data in Djibouti, Mauritania, the Sudan and the Syrian Arab Republic showed NER for both sexes of less than 80 per cent. Those countries face the challenge of increasing the number of children in school. In 2016, Yemen had the highest gender gap in education of 10.5 percentage points and faced the dual challenge of increasing the number of children in school and ensuring gender parity Figure 58.

D. Survival rate and completion rate of primary education

Accelerated improvements made a difference in working towards achieving gender parity in primary education in the Arab States. In most countries of the region, almost all children who enrolled in primary education, survived and completed their education. However, in some countries gender gaps remain, especially among the poorest females living in rural areas.

The survival rate for the Arab States was 81 per cent for both females and males in 2016. Nevertheless, many countries have reported rates close to 100 per cent for both girls and boys, namely: Algeria, Bahrain, Egypt, Kuwait, Lebanon, Morocco, Oman, the State of Palestine, Qatar, Tunisia and the United Arab Emirates. The gender gap in survival rates varies among Arab States. The highest gender gaps in favour of boys were in Kuwait (12 percentage points), Djibouti (10 percentage points) and Yemen (5 percentage points). In contrast, just two countries had gender gaps in favour of girls, namely Comoros (13 percentage points) and Lebanon (6 percentage points) Figure 59.

Figure 59. Gender gap in survival rates, latest available data (percentage)

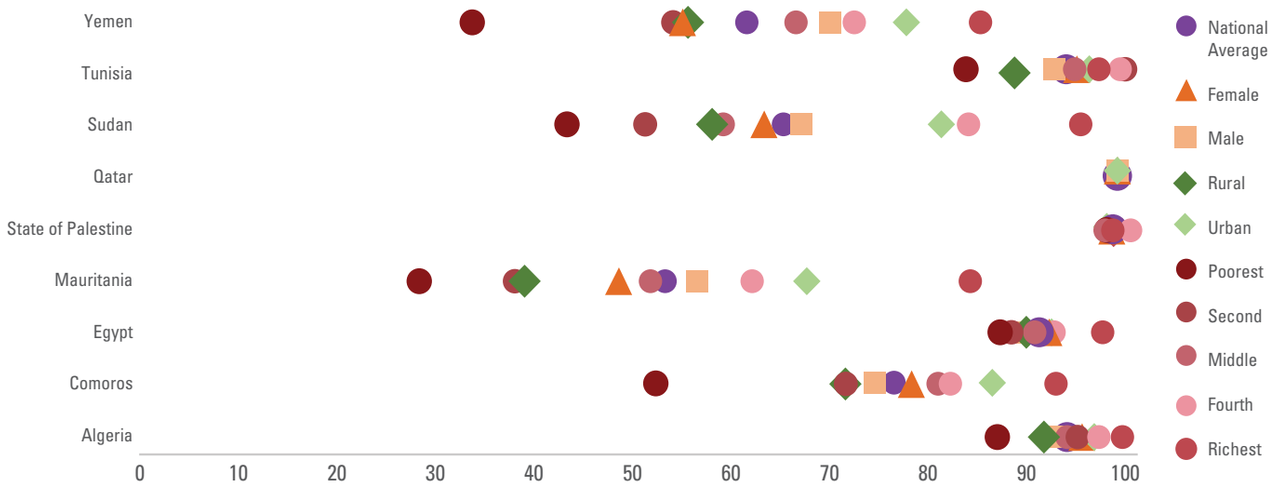


Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Survival rate in primary education".

Completion rates indicate how many persons in a given age group have completed their education, entering school on time and progressing through the education system without excessive delays. Globally, the primary education completion rate reached 84 per cent in 2018, up from 70 per cent in 2000.

Data on the primary education completion rate showed a gender disparity between females and males. Girls were at a higher risk of not completing their primary education than boys. Data on Yemen showed a high gender gap of 15 percentage points (females 55% and males 70%). The poorest girls and those living in rural areas remained the least likely to complete school as clearly shown in Figure 60.

Figure 60. Completion rate of primary education of young people aged 15-24 years by location and wealth, latest available data (percentage)



Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Completion rate, primary education".

E. Secondary education

Without secondary education, women are often excluded from better paying jobs and positions of responsibility. The level of girls' enrolment in secondary education is a good signpost of women's empowerment because it can show whether equality has been achieved at a high level of enrolment or low one. However, when young women enter school in equal numbers with young men, they may "still suffer from harassment or be discouraged from seeking higher education that might open more opportunities for future jobs".[7]

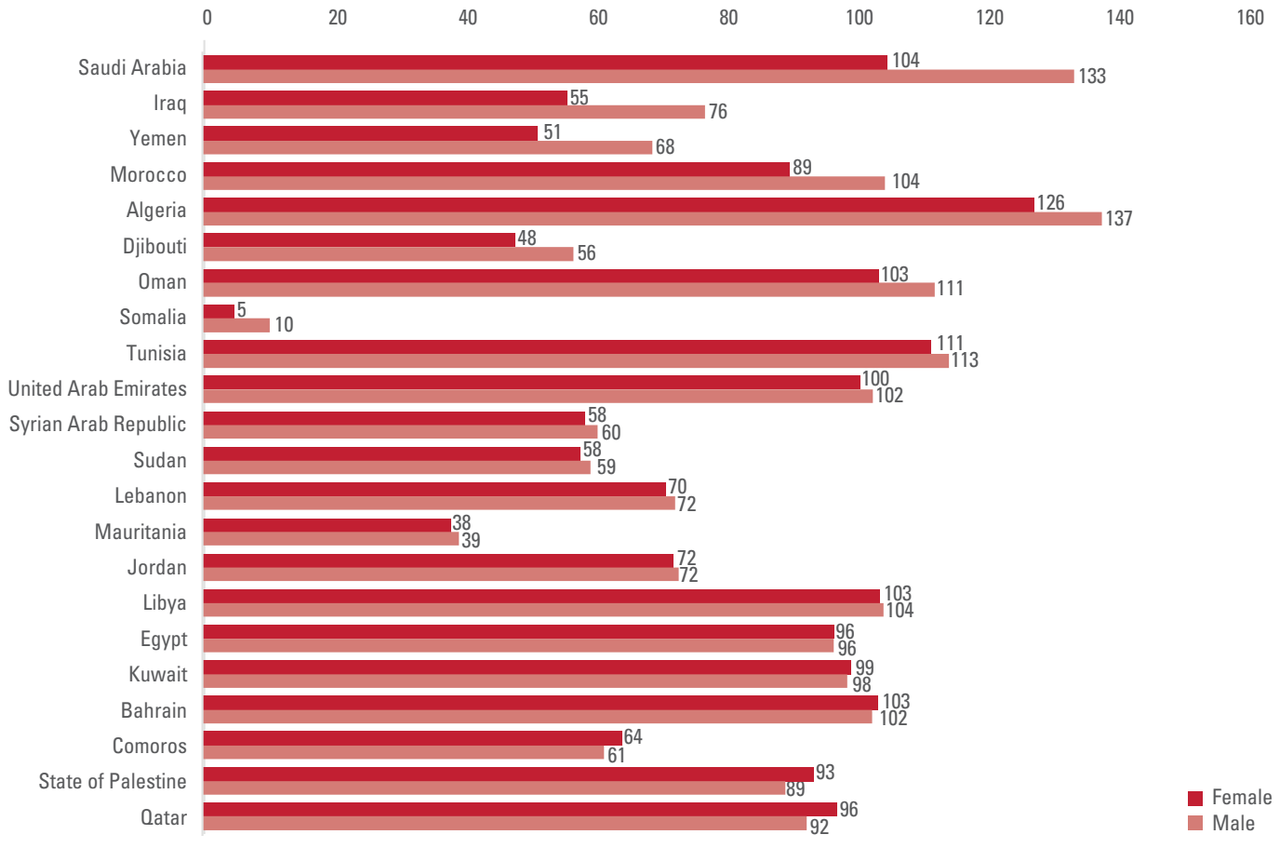
Globally, less than half of children in upper secondary education – 43 per cent of adolescent boys and 45 per cent of adolescent girls– were enrolled in or completed upper secondary education. At the global level, the ratio of girls enrolled in 1999 was 91 for every 100 boys. By 2015, the global average increased to almost 97 girls.

The gross enrolment ratio in lower secondary education at the global level has increased from 72 per cent in 2000 to 85 per cent in 2017. Similarly, in the Arab States the ratio has increased from 75 per cent in 2000 to 89 per cent in 2017.

Despite recent gains in enrolment, there remain 58%, or two thirds, of females who are out-of-school in lower secondary, the highest proportion in the world.[8]

As per the latest data, the gender gap in gross enrolment ratio in lower secondary education was in favour of boys in the Arab States. The gender gap was greatest in Saudi Arabia at 28 percentage points followed by Iraq at 21 percentage points. Jordan, Lebanon, Libya, Mauritania and the Sudan had the lowest gender gaps in gross enrolment ration at 1 percentage point, and no gender gap in Egypt. Figure 61 shows

Figure 61. Gross enrolment ratio in lower secondary education, latest available data (percentage)



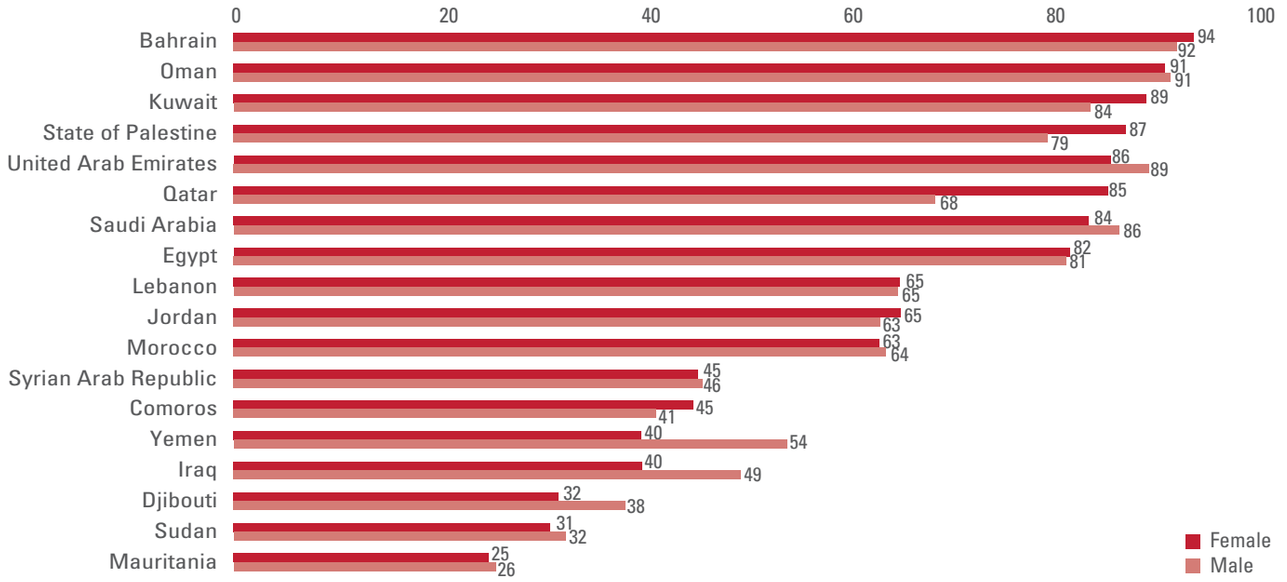
Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Gross enrolment ratio, lower secondary".

the gender gap in gross enrolment ratio in lower secondary education from highest to lowest among Arab States.

However, NER in Comoros, Djibouti, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Mauritania, Morocco, the Sudan, the Syrian Arab Republic and Yemen is still below 80 per cent, primarily due to the interlinked dynamics of poverty and conflict in many of these countries.

In fact, the rates are extremely low for both sexes in Mauritania (girls 25% and boys 26%) and in the Sudan (girls 31% and boys 32%). The gender gap was largest in Yemen (14 percentage points) followed by Iraq (10 percentage points), indicating a severe disadvantage for girls. There was a reverse gender gap – meaning a higher rate for girls than for boys - in other countries such as Bahrain, Comoros, Egypt, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, the State of Palestine and Qatar. Although those countries had higher enrolment rates of girls than boys, girls in those countries were not more empowered than boys. Women were still likely to earn less than men when they enter the job market and spend more time in providing unpaid work to support their families Figure 62.

Figure 62. Net enrolment rate in secondary education, latest year (percentage)



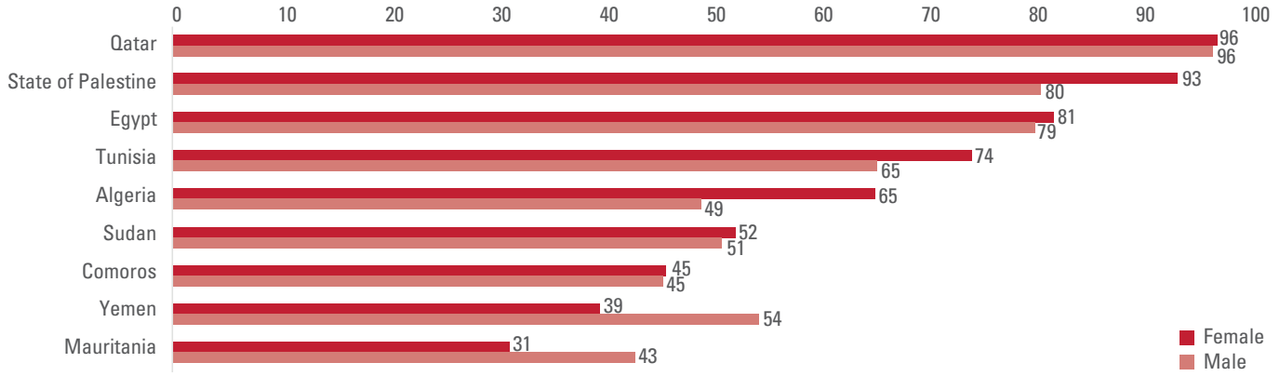
Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Net enrolment rate, secondary".

F. Completion of secondary education

It is important to also monitor completion rate which gives a clearer picture of girls' ability to compete in the job market.[9] Across 148 countries, the lower and upper secondary completion rates stood at 72 per cent and 48 per cent, respectively in 2018. In the Arab countries data on completion rate for lower and upper secondary education show an additional decrease in female and male completion rate as the grade level gets higher, especially in Algeria, Comoros, Egypt, Jordan, the State of Palestine, the Sudan and Tunisia.

Data on lower secondary education completion rates show a gender disparity between girls and boys. The completion rate for girls and boys varies among the countries with available data. The reverse gender gaps, girls more than boys, were largest in Algeria at 16 percentage points (girls 65% and boys 49%); the State of Palestine at 13 percentage points (girls 93% and boys 80%); and in Tunisia at 9 percentage points (girls 74% and boys 65%). The gender gap, boys more than girls, remained highest in Yemen at 15 percentage points (girls 39% and boys 54%) followed by Mauritania at 11 percentage points (girls 31% and boys 43%) Figure 63.

Figure 63. Completion rate of lower secondary education, latest available data (percentage)



Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Completion rate of lower secondary education".

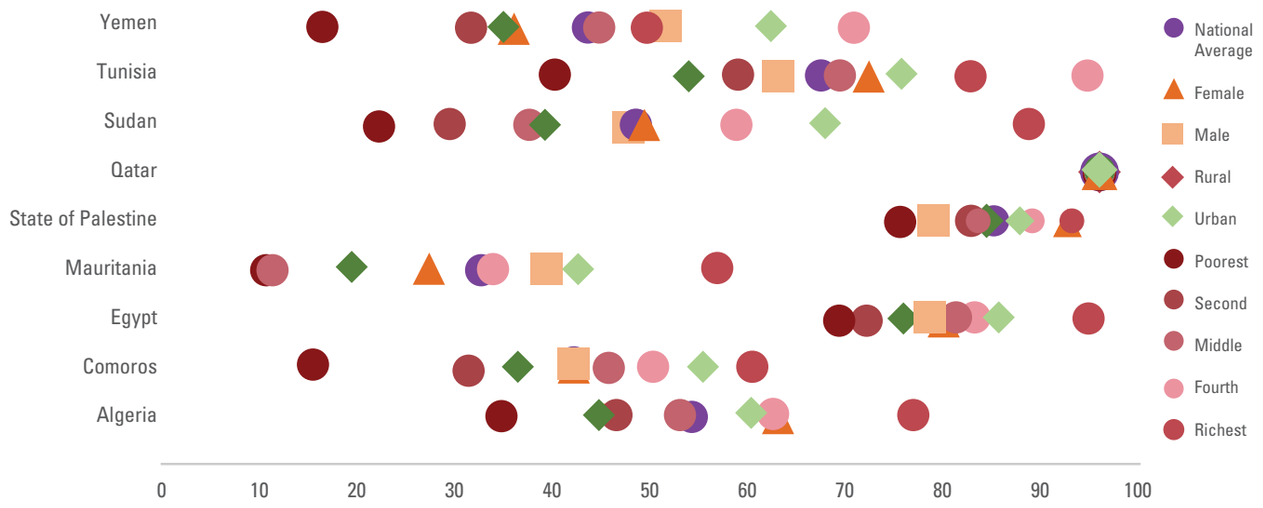
G. Wealth and education

Wealth plays a major role in completing secondary education

The completion rate of lower secondary education was highest among the richest quintile of population and among those living in urban areas. It was lowest among the poorest quintile and those living in rural areas, except in the State of Palestine. The completion rate in rural areas of the State of Palestine was higher than urban areas. The widest gap between rural and urban areas was in the Sudan at 27 percentage points (rural 42% and urban 70%), followed by Yemen, Mauritania and Comoros at 26, 22 and 18 percentage points, respectively. The narrowest gap in the region was in Egypt at 9 percentage points.

Completion rates of lower secondary education among the poorest and richest also varied in the Arab States. The widest gap between poorest and richest population, for example, was in the Sudan at 63 percentage points

Figure 64. Completion rate of lower secondary education by location and wealth quintile, latest available data (percentage)

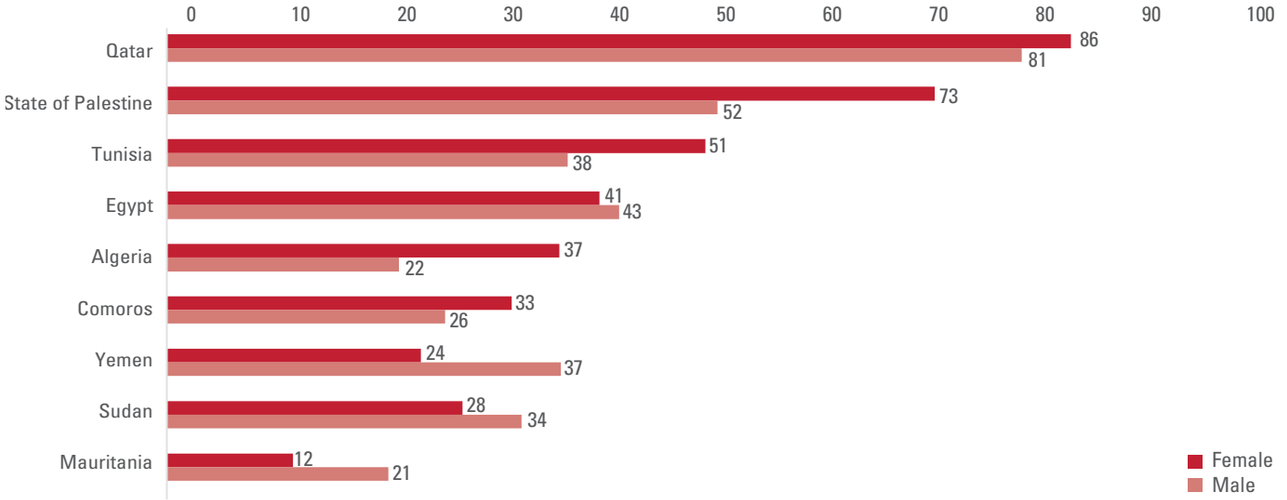


Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Completion rate of lower secondary education".

(poorest 26% and richest 89%). The State of Palestine had the narrowest gap between poor and rich at 16 percentage points (poorest 77% and richest 93%) Figure 64.

Data on upper secondary education completion rates show a gender disparity between girls and boys. The completion rate for girls and boys varies among countries in the region with available data. The highest gender gap was in the State of Palestine at 21 percentage points (girls 73% and boys 52%), in Algeria at 15 percentage points (girls 37% and boys 22%) and in Tunisia at 13 percentage points (girls 51% and boys 38%). In some countries, the situation was reversed. The reverse gender gap, more boys than girls, was highest in Yemen at 13 percentage points (girls 24% and boys 37%) followed by Mauritania at 9 percentage points (girls 12% and boys 21%) Figure 65.

Figure 65. Completion rate of upper secondary education, latest available data (percentage)



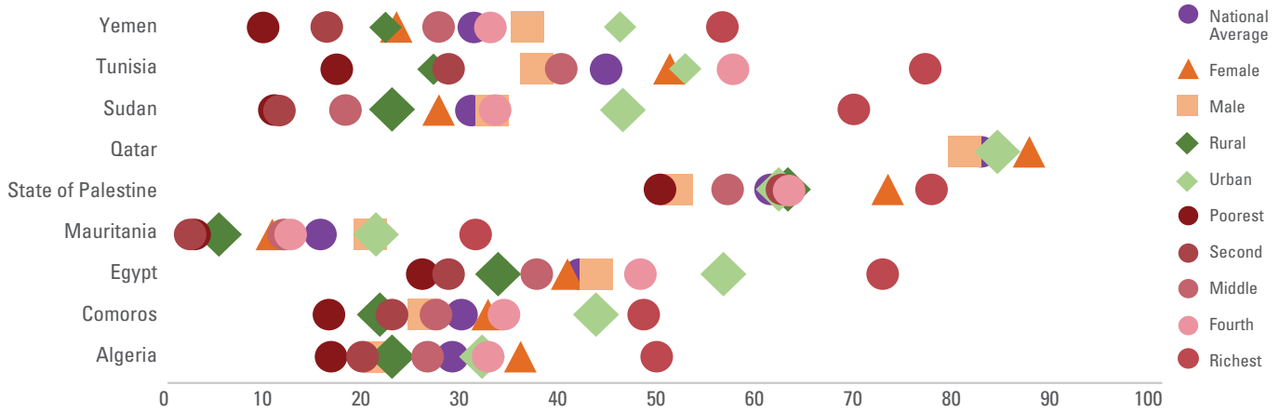
Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Completion rate of upper secondary education".

Latest available data in the Arab States show that the rich and urban population had higher completion rates of upper secondary education in comparison to those who were poor and living in rural areas, except in the State of Palestine. The completion rate of upper secondary education in rural areas was more than urban areas in the State of Palestine. The widest gap between rural and urban areas was in Tunisia at 27 percentage points (rural 26% and urban 53%), followed by the Sudan, Egypt and Yemen 26, 23 and 23 percentage points, respectively. The narrowest gap in completion rates of upper secondary education between rural and urban areas was in Algeria at 11 percentage points.

In addition, to the wide gap between rural and urban, Tunisia had also the widest gap between poorest and richest population at 59 percentage points (poorest 18% and richest 77%). Mauritania had the lowest gap at 27 percentage points (poorest 4% and richest 31%) Figure 66.

While the gender gap in completion rates between lower and upper secondary education may vary, in almost all the countries the completion rates for both sexes lowered significantly as the grade level rose. On the other hand, countries like Algeria, Egypt and the Sudan have witnessed a widening of gender gaps as the level of education increases. The completion rates for both sexes also dropped significantly with the increase in the level of education.

Figure 66. Completion rate of upper secondary education by location and wealth quintile, latest available data (percentage)



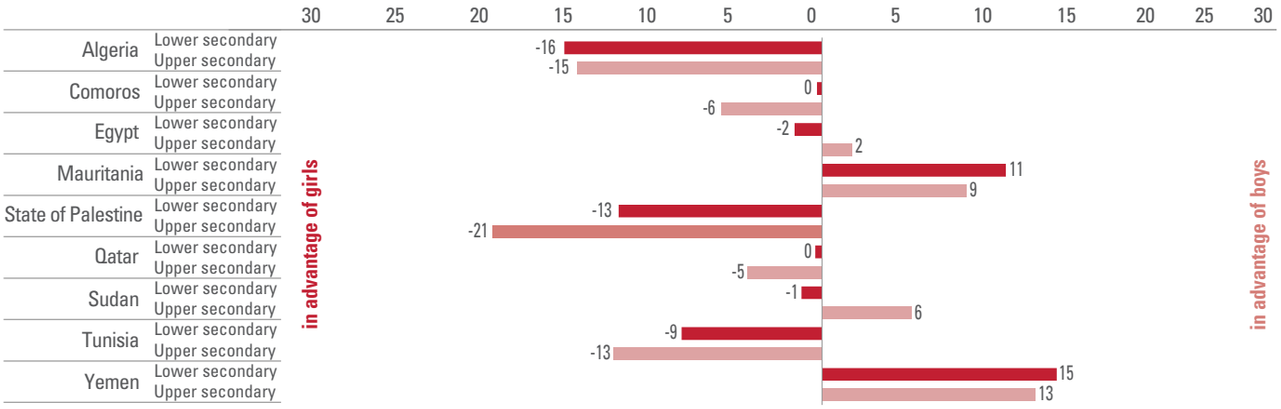
Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Completion rate of upper secondary education".

It is interesting to note, however, there was a larger decrease in completion rates for females than for males. Completion rates of upper secondary education in Egypt, for example, decreased by 40 percentage points for females, while rates for males decreased by 36 percentage points, four points less. In the Sudan, the female completion rate decreased by 24 percentage points while the male rate was less by seven points.

In contrast, as the level of education increased the completion rate for males was higher than rate for females. The gender gap in Mauritania in lower secondary education was 11 percentage points, and in upper secondary education was 9 percentage points. Moreover, the completion rates for both sexes significantly dropped by nearly half (females from 31% to 12% and males from 43% to 21%). Similar decreases occurred in Comoros, Qatar and Yemen.

These countries have witnessed a greater rate of decrease for males from lower secondary to upper secondary than for females. The completion rate for females in Mauritania decreased by 19 percentage points and for males by 22 percentage points; in Yemen female rate decreased by 15 percentage points and for males by 20 percentage points; and in Comoros the rates decreased by 12 percentage points for females and by 19 percentage points for males Figure 67.

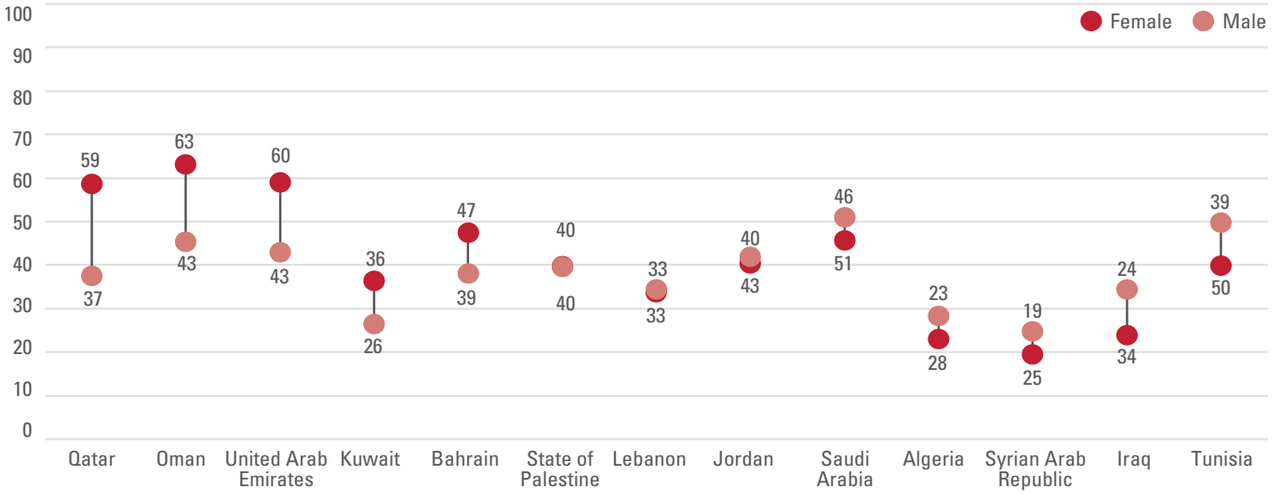
Figure 67. Comparison between gender gaps in completion rates of lower and upper secondary education (percentage)



Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Completion rate of lower and upper secondary education".

Rates in educational attainment for population aged 25 years and older who completed the upper secondary education or higher varies among Arab States, where data are available. Gender gaps for GCC such as Qatar, Oman, the United Arab Emirates, Kuwait and Bahrain were in favour of females. The highest gender gaps in educational attainment for population aged 25 years and older were in Qatar at 22 percentage points (females 59% and males 37%); followed by Oman at 18 percentage points; the United Arab Emirates at 17 percentage points; Kuwait at 10 percentage points; and Bahrain at 7 percentage points. Algeria, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, the Syrian Arab Republic and Tunisia all had a gender gap in favour of men. Only the State of Palestine had no gender gap in educational attainment among population aged 25 years and older Figure 68.

Figure 68. Gender gap in educational attainment rate of population aged 25 years and older who completed upper secondary education or higher, latest available data (percentage)

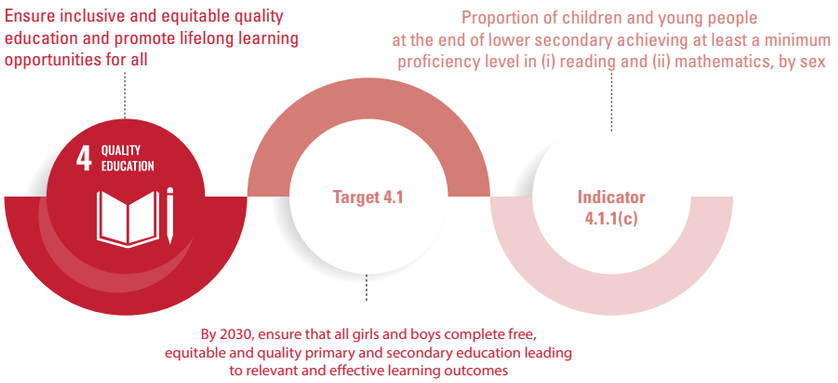


Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Educational attainment rate, completed lower/ upper secondary education or higher, population 25+ years".

H. Quality of education

More than one-half of children and adolescents are not learning worldwide

Gender sensitivity is a key aspect in the quality of education. Curricula, teaching materials and even the media has a powerful role in shaping people's knowledge and opinion and often reinforce traditional roles that may deny women opportunities for full equal principal in society.[10]

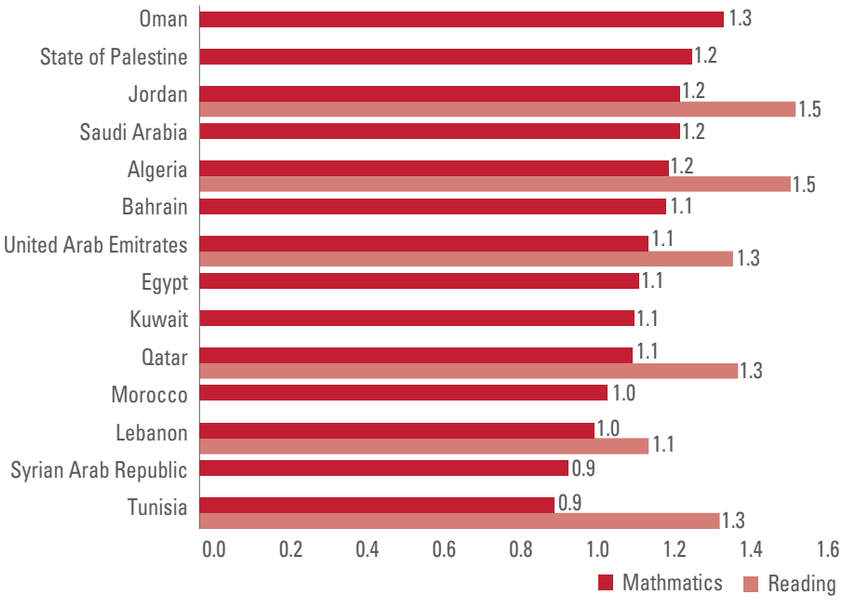


Latest data show that there were more than 617 million children and adolescents globally who were not meeting the minimum proficiency levels in reading and mathematics. This new data is a warning of a tremendous waste of human potential that could threaten progress towards the SDGs.[11]

Globally, six out of ten children and adolescents were not achieving minimum proficiency levels in reading and mathematics[12] Figure 69. Across the region, girls at primary education level faced the greatest disadvantage. More than 70 million girls – or 90 per cent – will not meet minimum proficiency levels in reading by the time they are due to complete their primary education. This is also the case for 85 per cent of boys.[13]

Globally, men usually outperform women in math scores; however, the trend is different in the Arab world.[14] Examining the ten Arab States where women outperformed men in mathematics, the gender parity index was highest in Oman (1.3), slightly less in the State of Palestine, Jordan, Saudi Arabia and Algeria (1.2) followed by Bahrain, the United Arab Emirates, Egypt, Kuwait and Qatar (1.1). Girls and boys performed equally well in Morocco and Lebanon. In the Syrian Arab Republic and Tunisia, boys outperformed girls in mathematics. With regard to reading in lower secondary education in all the countries, girls outperform boys. Jordan and Algeria recorded the highest gender parity index in reading skills at 1.5, followed by Tunisia, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates at 1.3 and then Lebanon at 1.1.

Figure 69. Gender parity index for achievement (a) in mathematics and Gender parity index for achievement (b) in reading in lower secondary education, latest available data (percentage)



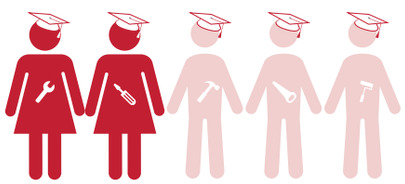
Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

I. Vocational training

"Globally, young women are also less likely than young men to become entrepreneurs, in part due to cultural and societal barriers in some countries, which further limits the employment options for female youth." World Youth Report, 2016

Investing in young women's economic empowerment and skills development is one of the most urgent and effective means to drive progress on gender equality, poverty eradication and inclusive economic growth. Vocational training enables adolescent girls to earn an income and build crucial life skills, however, adolescent girls have been historically overlooked by global development programmes. Girls, more than women or boys, lack access to financial capital and have limited opportunities to gain education, knowledge and skills that can lead to economic advancement. Biased gender norms and inadequate policy frameworks often create barriers to girls' economic advancement. Globally, 600 million adolescent girls struggle with widespread poverty, limited access to education and health services and persistent discrimination and violence.[15]

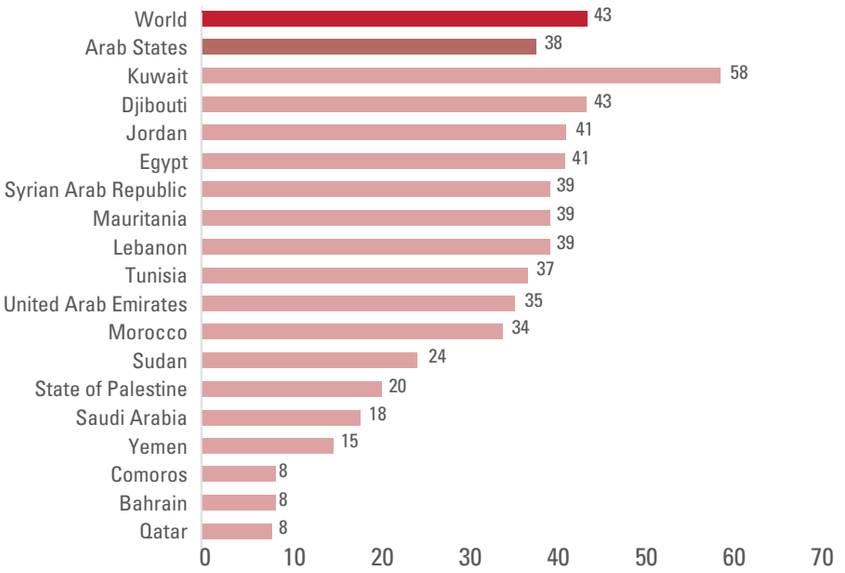
Young women and girls need full and equal access to economic opportunity, as well as the skills, education and resources to start their own businesses. The positive gain of empowering women in work and the economy is exponential. The value of removing the employment participation and wage gap globally is calculated at $17 trillion. Increasing women's earning power grows economies through greater demand and productivity.[16]



2 out of every **5** adolescents in **vocational training** are **girls in the Arab States**

In the Arab States early marriage, poverty and conflict often are barriers to the progress of young girls in education. The stigma associated with vocational learning also has a major role in discouraging young adults from pursuing vocational qualifications. Globally, the female share of secondary vocational educations stands at 43 per cent; 7 percentage points away from gender equality. In the Arab States, the share of females is only 38 per cent Figure 70.

Figure 70. Share of female students in secondary vocational education, latest available data (percentage)



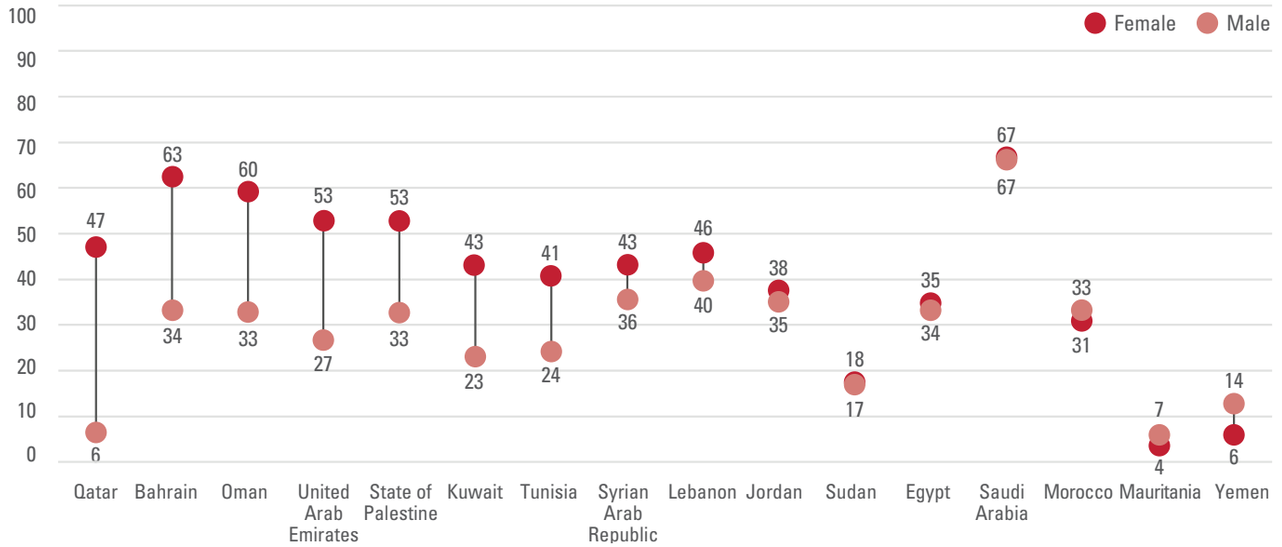
Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Percentage of students in secondary vocational education who are female".

J. Higher education

Most disadvantaged in tertiary education are the poorest boys and those living in rural areas

Tertiary education provides an avenue for females and males to develop a specialization and attain the qualifications needed for their chosen career. The percentage of young people (aged 19-23 years) who are enrolled in tertiary education varies significantly between countries. Globally, the gross

Figure 71. Gender gap in gross enrolment ratio in tertiary education, latest available data (percentage)



Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Gross enrolment ratio, tertiary".

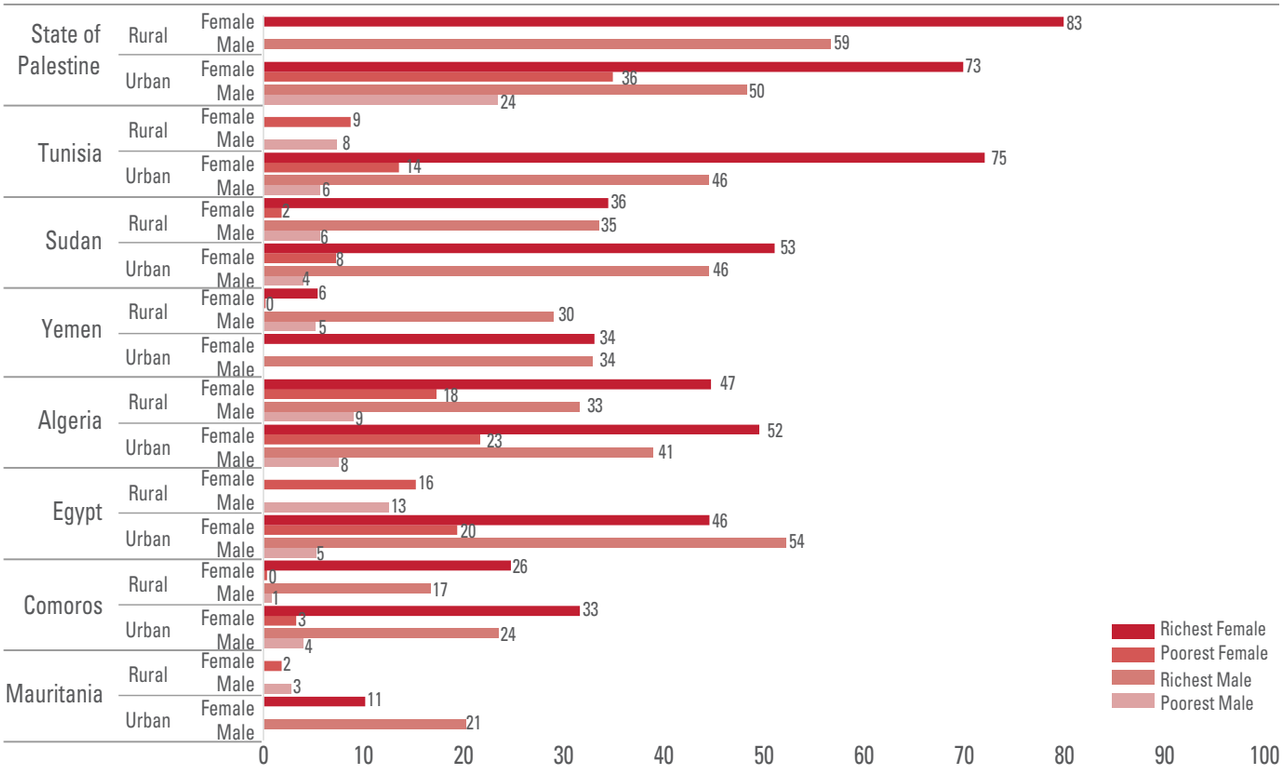
enrolment ratio in tertiary education has increased from 19 per cent in 2000 to 38 per cent in 2017, with the female enrolment ratio exceeding the male ratio by 4 percentage points. The tertiary gross enrolment ratio ranges from 9 per cent in low income countries to 77 per cent in high income countries where, after rapid growth in the 2000s, it reached a plateau in the 2010s.[17]

Lowest gross enrolment ratios were in Mauritania and Yemen for both sexes. In Mauritania, few young people were enrolled in university (females 4% and males 7%). While in Yemen, gross enrolment ratios were 6 per cent for females and 14 per cent for males. Enrolment in tertiary education among Arab States was highest in Saudi Arabia for both females and males (67%).

In the majority of Arab countries, where data were available, the gender gap favours women. The gap was greatest in Qatar, where the percentage of women enrolled in higher education is 47 per cent at standard tertiary age, compared to just over 6 per cent of men. However, this should be seen in the context that Qatar has a significantly small female population which are outnumbered by a high number of male migrants who were there for employment rather than education Figure 71.

However, data on gross attendance ratio for tertiary education by sex show a gender disparity between females and males, where boys are at a higher risk of not attending tertiary education than girls. Data on Tunisia, for example, showed a gender gap of 14 percentage points (females 35% and males 21%). Moreover, the poorest boys and those living in rural areas were the most disadvantaged with regard to tertiary education as clearly shown in Figure 72.

Figure 72. Gross attendance ratio for tertiary education by location and wealth, latest available data (percentage)



Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Gross attendance ratio, tertiary education".

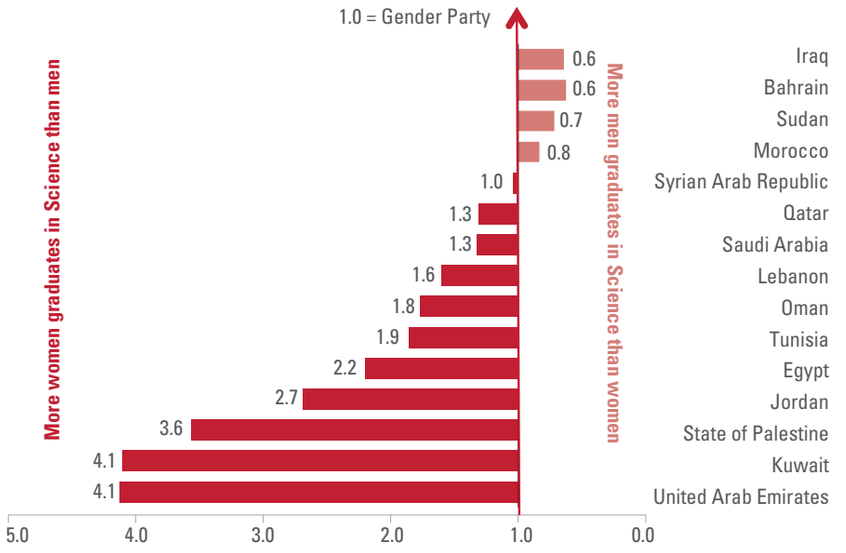
K. Specialization in education

Gender discrimination in education is a phenomenon that is still prevalent around the world and especially in the Arab countries. Nowadays, education opportunities for females and males around the world are almost equal; however, the type of education and the type of specialization is still highly correlated with the person's gender.

For instance, when choosing a specialization, females tend to favour science[18] majors over engineering.[19] This can be easily seen in the Arab States where the number of female graduates in science is higher than that of males. In the United Arab Emirates and Kuwait, for example, there are four times more female graduates than male graduates in science Figure 73.

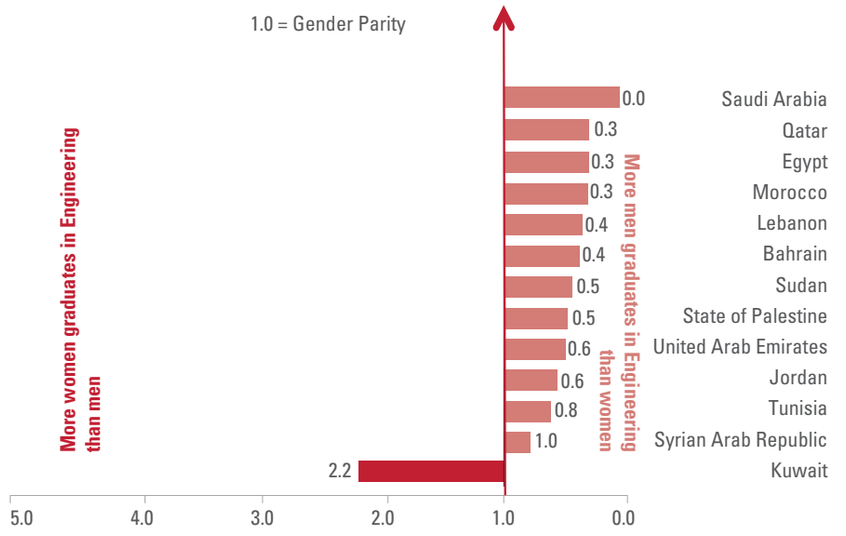
Male graduates in engineering were higher than female graduates in all Arab States, except in Kuwait where there were twice as many female graduates in engineering than male graduates Figure 74.

Figure 73. Gender Parity Index of graduates by specialization in science majors, latest available data



Source: *E/ESCWA/SD/2019/TP.1.*

Figure 74. Gender Parity Index of graduates by specialization in engineering, manufacturing and construction majors, latest available data



Source: *E/ESCWA/SD/2019/TP.1.*

L. Literacy

The literacy rate shows whether schooling has equipped young women and men with of the ability to communicate by reading and writing. The literacy rate is the percentage of people who can both read and write with understanding a short simple statement about their everyday life. This data can predict the quality of future labour force and can be used in ensuring life skills policies for men and women. The literacy rate is in some ways a stronger indicator of young people's empowerment than education, as it parallels a nation's progress in developing its human capital.

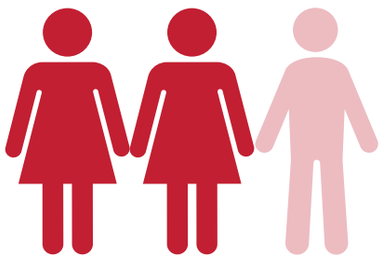
Adult literacy

Globally, 750 million adults (15+ years) lacked basic literacy skills in 2016. There were 92 literate women for every 100 literate men globally, and in low income countries, as few as 77 literate women for every 100 literate men.[20]

Regional data also suggest that there was a greater gender gap in literacy rates than there was in school enrolment. Women (41 million) in the Arab States are twice as likely to be illiterate as men (24 million), and they make up two thirds of the region's illiterate adults (65 million).

However, the progress in improving adult female literacy rates in the Arab States from 2000 to 2016 was double the rate of males' (females 13 percentage points and males 6 percentage points). Female literacy increased substantially in Egypt, Kuwait, Morocco, Oman and Saudi Arabia. Progress was also achieved in male literacy although at a lower rate and mainly in Kuwait and Morocco. In Iraq literacy rates for both females (38%) and males (53%) in 2013 have fallen markedly since the war, and at a higher rate for males than females, by 31 and 26 percentage points respectively, since 2000 Figure 75.

The gender gaps in education varies across countries but are generally wider when literacy and school enrolment rates are lower. In Yemen, for example, the education gender gap was the widest and the literacy rate among men was 73 per cent double that of adult women at 35 per cent Figure 76.



In the Arab States, **women** are **twice** likely to be **illiterates** as men

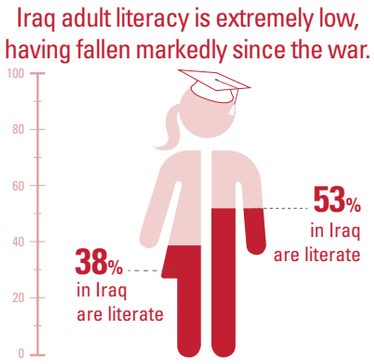
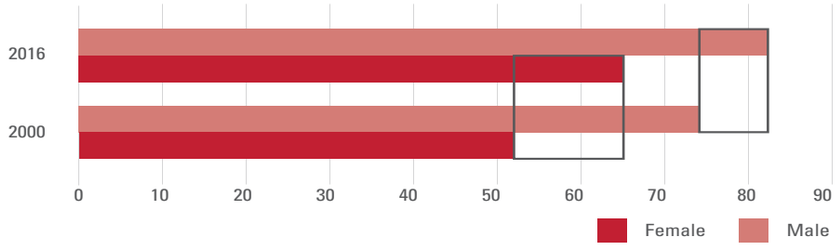
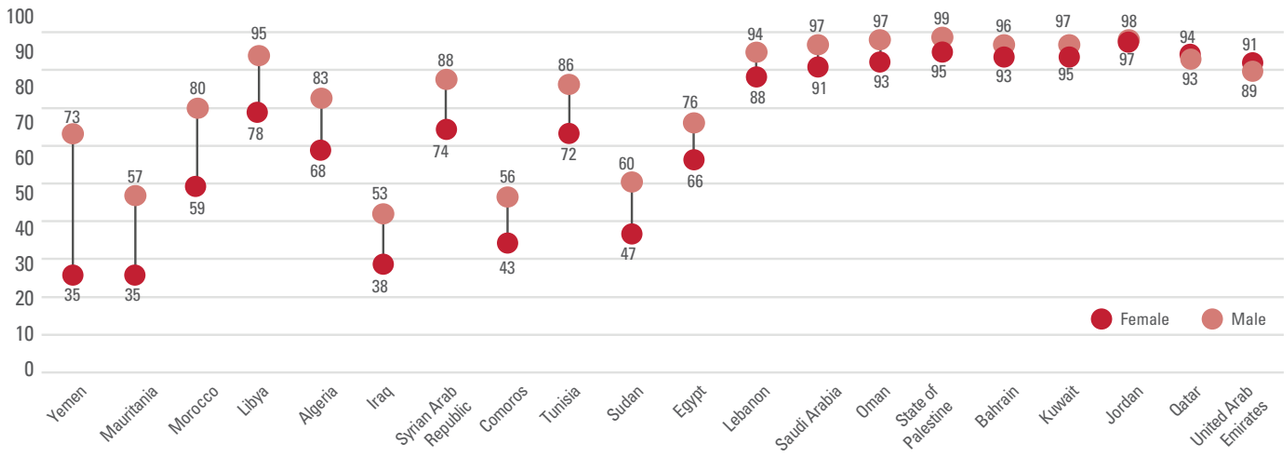


Figure 75. Progress in adult literacy rates from 2000 to 2016 in the Arab States



Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Adult literacy rate, population 15+ years".

Figure 76. Gender gap in adult literacy rates, latest available data (percentage)



Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Adult literacy rate, population 15+ years".

Youth literacy

The youth literacy rate, for ages 15-24, reflects recent progress in education. It measures the accumulated outcomes of primary education over the previous 10 years or so by indicating the proportion of the population who have passed through the primary education system and acquired basic literacy and numeracy skills. Literacy and numeracy are essential if the next generation is to realize their potential and to work to support local and national efforts to improve development outcomes.

Globally, 102 million youth lacked basic literacy skills in 2016.[21] Although the Arab region has quadrupled the average rate of schooling since 1960, literacy among young women continues to lag behind men. In 2016, there were 9 million youth in the Arab States who lacked basic literacy skills, 5 million, were women, in comparison to 4 million men.

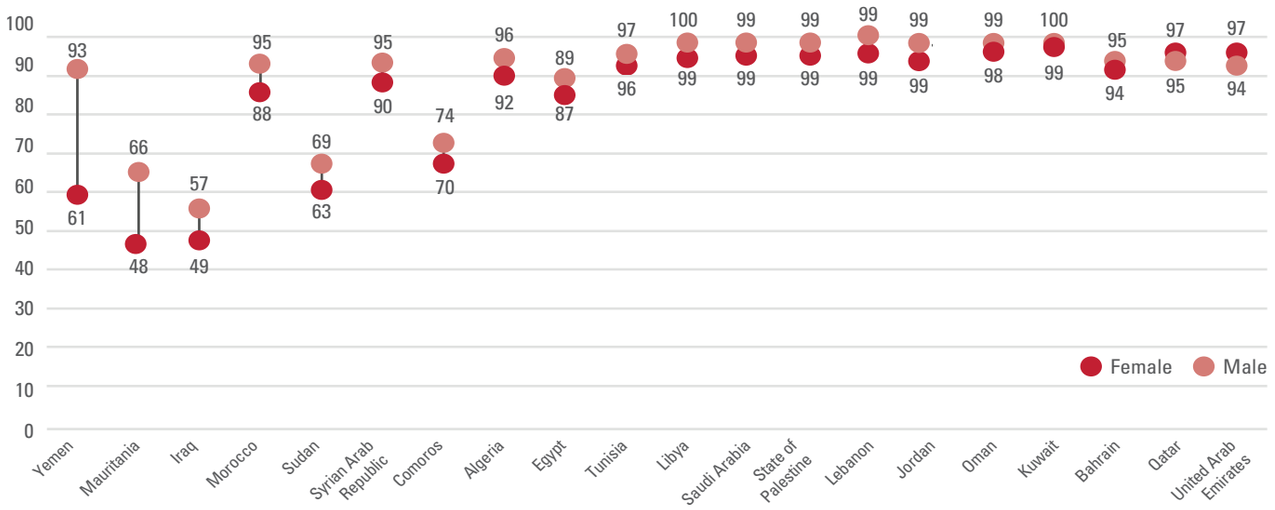
While there was a 2 percentage point increase in youth female literacy rate from 2012 to 2016, the gender gap between females and males in the Arab States remains large even though it decreased from 7 percentage points (females 82% and males 89%) in 2012 to 5 percentage points (females 84% and males 89%) in 2016 Figure 77.

The data show remarkable improvement among youth in terms of reading and writing skills and a steady reduction in gender gaps. From 2000 to 2016 there were gains in the youth literacy rate, especially for females for whom the rate increased by 7 percentage points, while a 1 percentage point increase was recorded for males. Fifty years ago, almost one quarter of youth lacked basic literacy skills compared to less than 10 per cent in 2016.[22] Despite the progress made over the years, there was still a large population from both sexes who lack the knowledge and skills to actively participate in society.

In 2013 gender parity for youth literacy in Iraq, for example, was reported at 0.85, however, the literacy rates for both females and males were very low at 49 per cent and 57 per cent, respectively Figure 78. The Sudan also showed a high gender parity at 0.91 in 2008, but the youth literacy rates for both sexes were low (females 63% and males 69%).

While young women generally have a lower literacy rate than young men, the gap has been narrowing over time. The largest increases in youth literacy over the years took place in Morocco where the female rate nearly

Figure 77. Gender gap in youth literacy rates, latest available data (percentage)



Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Youth literacy rate, population 15-24 years".

doubled between 2004 and 2012, with an increase of 27 percentage points in comparison to only 14 percentage points increase for males. Egypt also recorded an increase of 8 percentage points for females and a decrease of 1 percentage point for males from 2005 to 2017. This narrowing of the literacy gap was likely due to the fact that women are much more likely to be educated now than was the case in the past Figure 78.

In contrast in Iraq, there has been a major decline in youth literacy: during the period 2000-2013 it dropped from 80 per cent to 49 per cent for females, and from 89 per cent to 57 for males. Mauritania and the Sudan have also witnessed a decrease in youth literacy over the years. Conflict and war affect the literacy rates of both females and males. Some countries, such as in the Gulf, did not witness major increases in literacy due to the fact that the baseline data was already high for both female and male literacy rates.

M. Out-of-school children

Three years after the adoption of Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG 4) and the promise to provide universal primary and secondary education, there has been no progress in reducing the global number of out-of-school children, adolescents and youth.

In 2017, 262 million (18%) children, adolescents and youth were out of school worldwide. The total number of children who are not in school includes 64 million children out of primary education, 61 million or 16 per cent of adolescents out of lower secondary education and 138 million or 36 per cent of youth out of upper secondary education.[23]

No progress in reducing the number of children out of school:

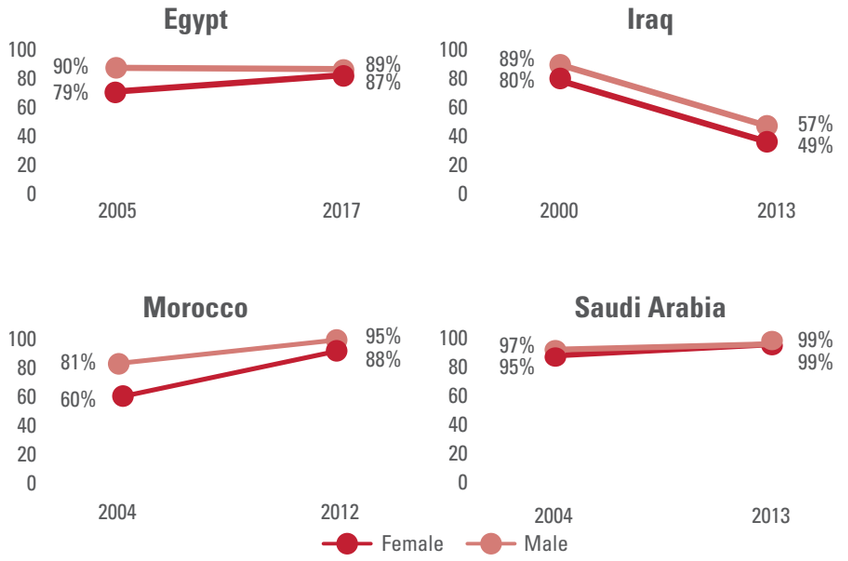
1 in **5** children
adolescents and youth are not in school

In 2017, around 17.4 million children across the Arab States were out of school. This included 5.5 million children not in primary education, 3.8 million adolescents not in lower secondary education and 8 million youth not in upper secondary education.[24]

In 2000, 54 per cent of the 378 million out-of-school children, adolescents and youth were females. By 2016, the female share of the global out-of-school population had fallen to 50 per cent. However, these global averages mask considerable differences at regional and national levels.[25]

The total number of out-of-school children and youth has declined by a little more than 1 million per year since 2012.[26] Some have never been to school (43%), others enrolled but dropped out (19%) and the remainder are expected to enroll late (38%).[27] It is estimated that half of the out-of-school girls will never enroll, compared with just over one quarter of boys in the Arab States.[28]

Figure 78. Trends in youth literacy rates in selected countries



Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Youth literacy rate, population 15-24 years".

As shown in Figure 79, there is a considerable gender gap in the Arab region with girls much more likely never to go to school: 50 per cent compared with 28 per cent of boys, a gap of 22 percentage points. The problem of out-of-school children is becoming increasingly concentrated in conflict-affected countries worldwide, where the proportion of out-of-school children increased from 30 per cent in 1999 to 36 per cent in 2012. This trend is particularly strong in the Arab States where it increased from 63 per cent to 87 per cent over the same time period.[29] Girls are 2.5 times more likely to be out of school in countries with conflict.[30]

Countries with the highest out-of-school rates include the Sudan (44%) and Djibouti (41%). Countries with the highest out-of-school rates also tend to be among the poorest countries in the world.[31]

Globally, the gap between female and male out-of-school children in primary education increased by 1.1 percentage point (females 9.8% and males 8.7%) in 2011 to 1.8 percentage point (females 9.8% and males 8.0%) in 2017.

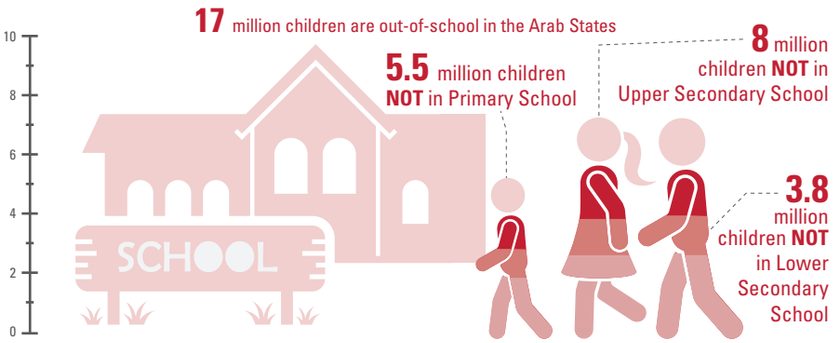
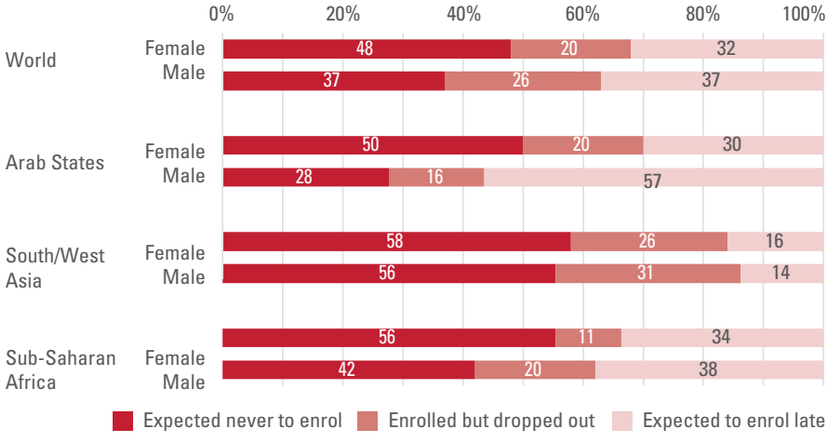
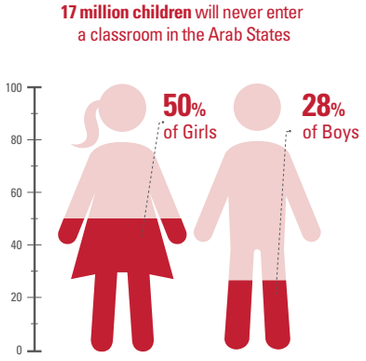


Figure 79. Distribution of out-of-school children by school exposure, World, Arab States, and selected regions, 2012



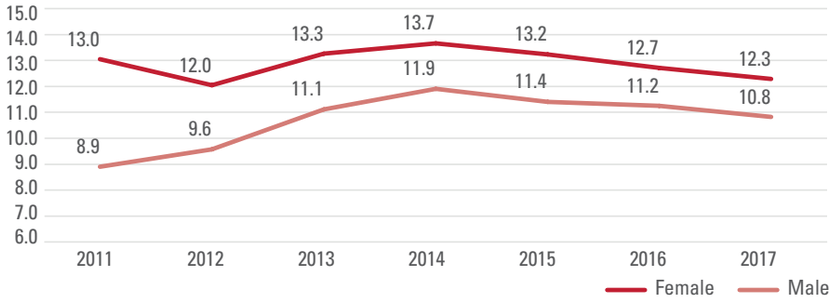
Source: UNESCO, *Education for all 2000-2015: achievements and challenges (2015).*



The Arab region, however, witnessed a decrease in the gap between female and male out-of-school children in primary education from 4.2 percentage points (females 13% and males 8.9%) in 2011 to 1.5 percentage points (females 12.3% and males 10.8%) in 2017 Figure 80.

Marginalization in education is one of the main factors preventing universal access to primary and secondary education and youth literacy in the region. It is a form of acute and persistent disadvantage rooted in underlying diverse social and economic inequalities, which includes poverty, gender ethnicity, location, disability and health. Marginalized children include those children belonging to ethnic and linguistic minorities or nomadic communities, children with disabilities, those living in slums and children who work.

Figure 80. Out-of-school rate for children of primary education in the Arab States, 2011-2017 (percentage)



Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Rate of out-of-school children of primary school age".

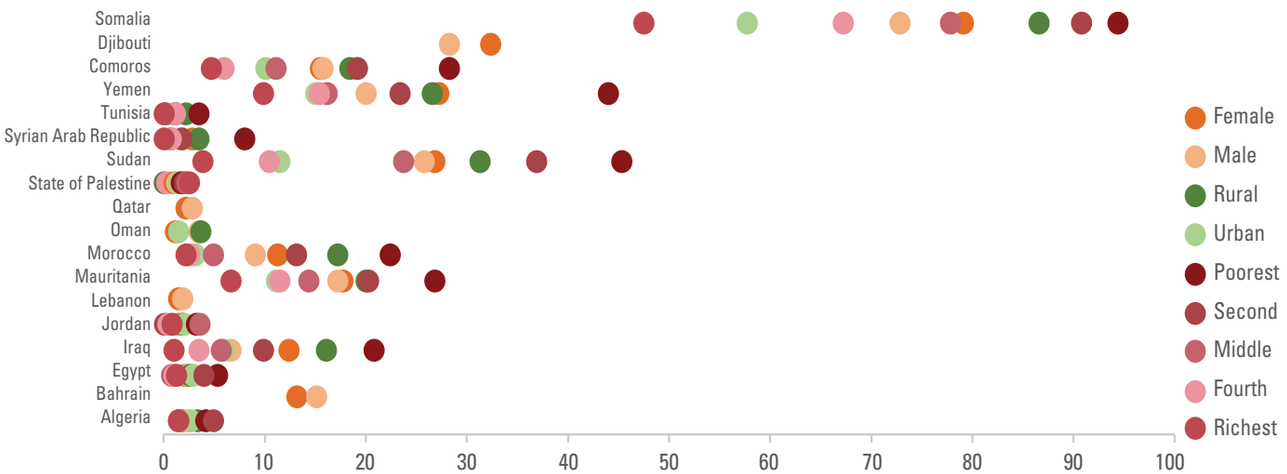
Pre-primary education, for example, tends to reach only more advantaged urban population, as in the case of many Arab States.

Analysis of household surveys shows that there are major inequalities for those who are out of school.[32] Girls are more likely to be out of school during primary and secondary education than boys in all the Arab States Figures 81 and 82. In Iraq, for example, there were twice as many girls as boys out of school in primary education (females 12.6% and males 6.8%) and in secondary education (females 36.4% and males 16.9%).

Rural children are more likely to be out of school than urban children and the gap between urban and rural areas is even wider. In Somalia, for example, there were three times as many children out of school at the primary and secondary education level living in rural areas than in urban areas (the gap between urban and rural areas is 28 percentage points in primary education and 34 percentage points in secondary education).

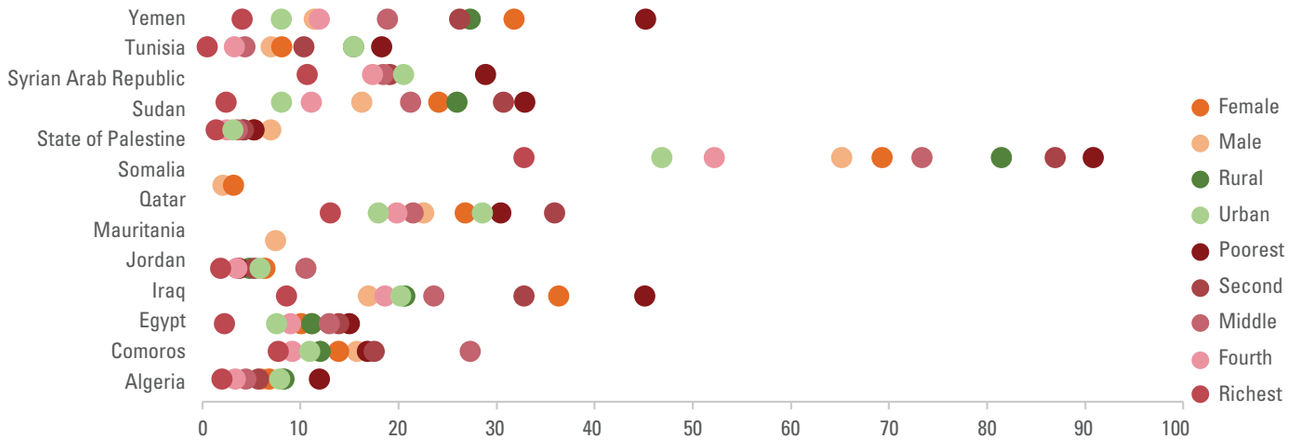
There is also a clear link between household wealth and the probability of being out of school. Compared with children from the richest quintile of households, children from the poorest quintile in the Sudan were three times more likely to be out of primary and secondary school (gap between richest and poorest quintile is 40 percentage points in primary education and 30 percentage points in secondary education). The probability of being out of school decreases steadily with increasing household wealth.

Figure 81. Out-of-school rate for children of primary education by location and wealth quintile, latest available data (percentage)



Source: UNICEF Global databases 2017 based on MICS, DHS and other national household surveys (last updated on December 2017).

Figure 82. Out-of-school rate for adolescents of lower secondary education by location and wealth quintile, latest available data (percentage)

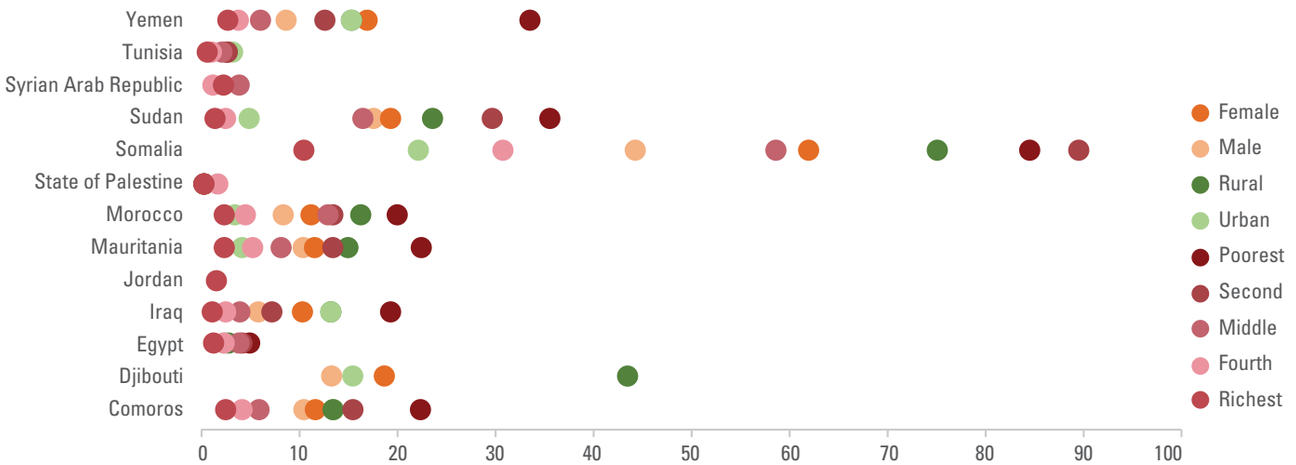


Source: UNICEF Global databases 2017 based on MICS, DHS and other national household surveys (last updated on December 2017).

Poor children, especially girls, are particularly at risk of being out of school. The latest data from Arab countries show that disparity exists at the expense of girls in Djibouti, Iraq, Tunisia, Somalia and Yemen. Both wealth and location play a major role in disadvantaging females in education Figure 83.

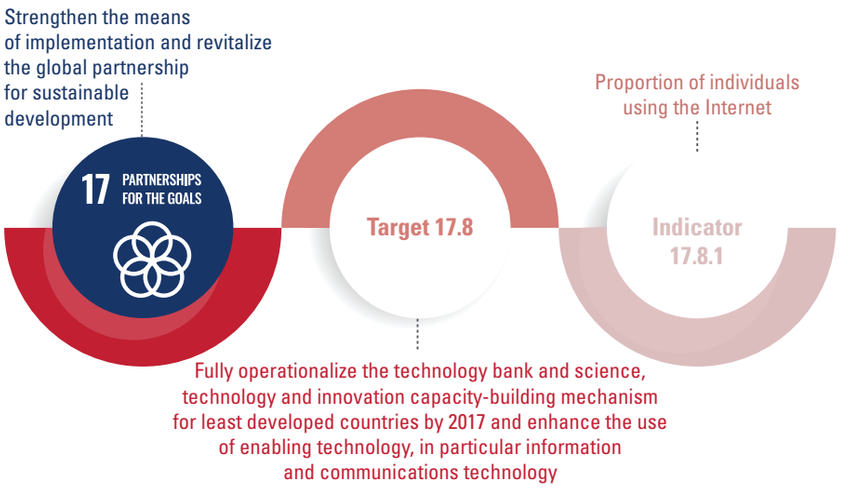
Countries need to invest in positive actions such as abolishing school fees, introducing social cash transfers to help families offset the cost of schooling, increasing attention to ethnic and linguistic minorities (Morocco), increasing education expenditure, introducing more relevant curricula and improving education quality, providing financial support to struggling families and overcoming conflict repercussions by increasing education opportunities, such as scholarships for marginalized groups. Most importantly, the political will to bring about real change in education is required.

Figure 83. Proportion of children, aged 3-6 years, who have never been to school by location and wealth, latest available data (percentage)



Source: World Inequality Database on Education.

N. Use of information and communication technologies

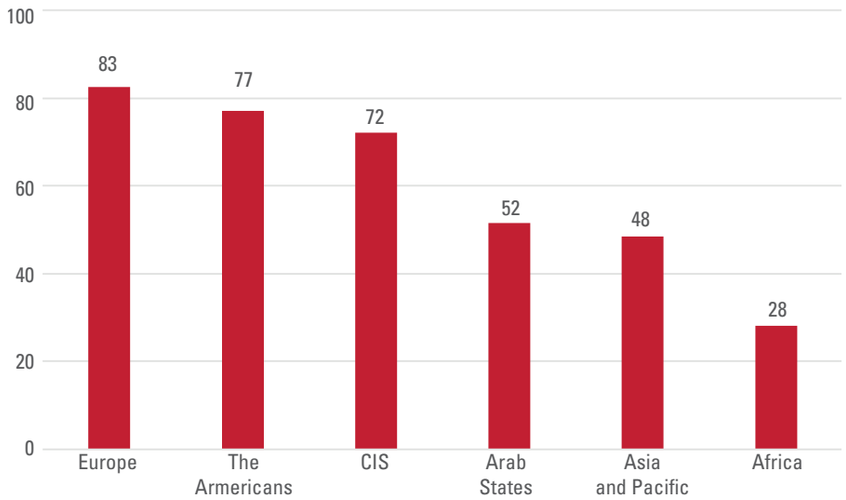


The Internet is a worldwide public computer network. It provides access to a number of communication services including the world wide web, and carries e-mail, news and entertainment and data files, irrespective of the device used. The advances in information and communication technologies (ICTs), meaning the Internet, mobile telephony, social media, blogs, etc., represent a revolution in the way people interact with each other, access services, work and news by acting as a facilitator for easier, faster, wider communication and access to information for all. These developments have a strong potential to contribute to the empowerment of women, as well as for citizens as a whole.[33]

According to International Telecommunication Union (ITU), in developed countries, slow and steady growth increased the percentage of population using the Internet from 53 per cent in 2005 to 87 per cent in 2019. In developing countries, growth has been much steeper, increasing from 8 per cent in 2005 to 47 per cent at the end of 2019. According to ITU, use of Internet increased in the Arab States more than six times from 8 per cent in 2005 to 52 per cent in 2019 Figure 84.

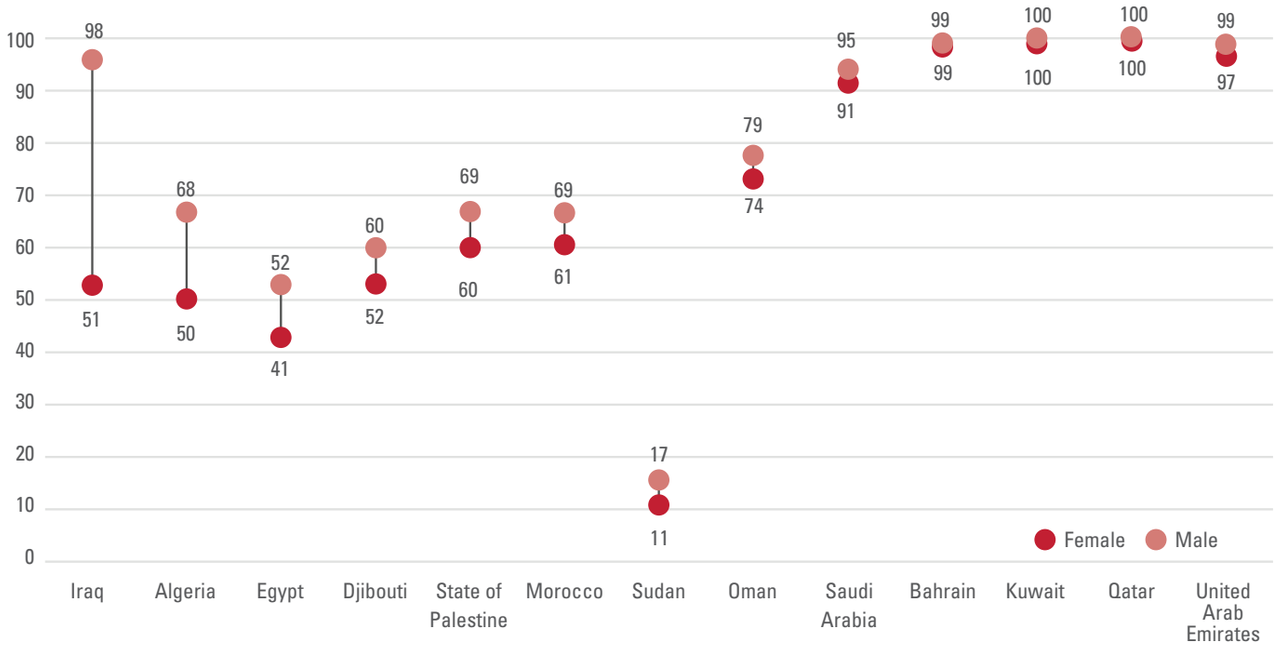
In the majority of Arab countries gender gap in Internet use is in favour of males. Gender gap was greatest in Iraq at 47 percentage points; the number of males using the internet was 98 per cent, compared to only 51 per cent of females. Algeria followed with a gender gap at 18 percentage points (females 50% and males 68%), then Egypt at 11 percentage points (females 41% and males 52%). Saudi Arabia had the lowest gender gap at 4 percentage points (females 91% and males 95%). There was no gender gap in Bahrain, Kuwait and Qatar. In contrast, the United Arab Emirates had a reverse gender gap in favour of females at 2 percentage points (females 99% and males 97%) Figure 85.

Figure 84. Proportion of individuals using the Internet by region, 2019 (percentage)



Source: ITU World Telecommunication, ICT Indicators database.

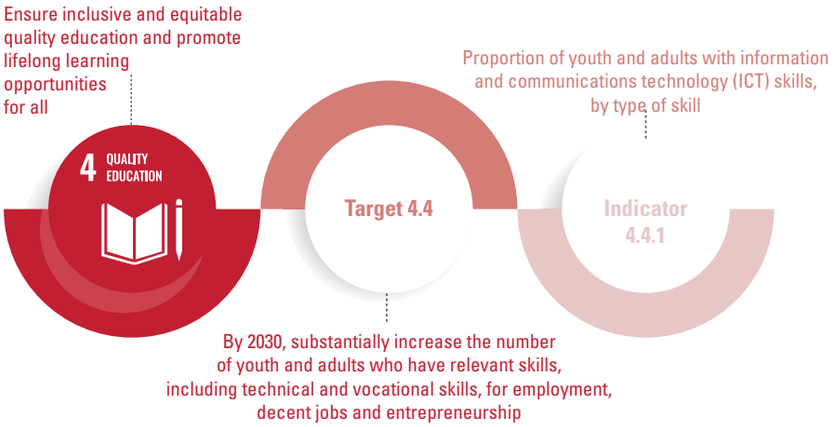
Figure 85. Gender gap in using the Internet, latest available data (percentage)



Source: ITU World Telecommunication, ICT Indicators database.

0. Information and communications skills

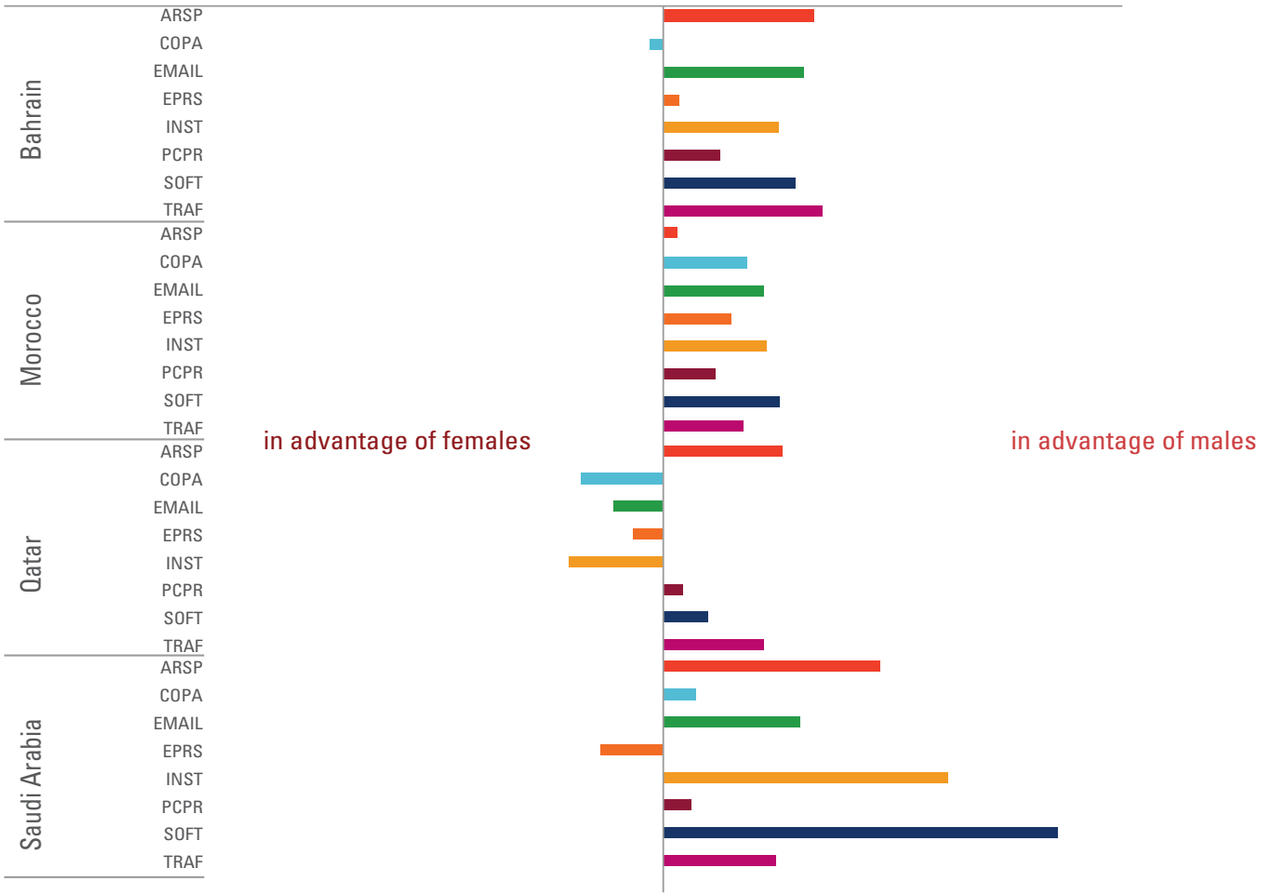
ICT skills determine the effective use of information and communication technology. The lack of such skills continues to be one of the key barriers keeping people, and in particular women, from fully benefitting from the potential of information and communication technologies.[34]



Data for Saudi Arabia show a wide gender gap at 30 percentage points in skills related to finding, downloading, installing and configuring software (SOFT) and 22 percentage points in skills related to connecting and installing new devices (INST). Qatar, on the other hand, reported a reverse gender gap at 7 percentage points in the INST skills in favour of women, and 6 percentage points in using copy and paste tools to duplicate or move information within a document (COPA) Figure 86.

The narrowest gender gaps were in Bahrain at 1 percentage point in skills related to creating electronic presentations with a presentation software (EPRS) and in Morocco at 1 percentage point in skills related to using basic arithmetic formula in a spreadsheet (ARSP) Figure 86.

Figure 86. Proportion of youth and adults with information and communications technology (ICT) skills by type of skill, latest available data



Source: ITU World Telecommunication, ICT Indicators database.

Type of skills	
ARSP	Using basic arithmetic formula in a spreadsheet
COPA	Using copy and paste tools to duplicate or move information within a document
EMAIL	Sending e-mails with attached files
EPRS	Creating electronic presentations with presentation software
INST	Connecting and installing new devices
PCPR	Writing a computer program using a specialized programming language
SOFT	Finding, downloading, installing and configuring software
TRAF	Transferring files between a computer and other devices
LITE	Literacy
NUME	Numeracy

Chapter 6
Work

Women are more likely to be in vulnerable jobs. There are more contributing family workers than men, and more men employers than women. Women's highest labour force participation rate is the lowest rate recorded for men.

Women tend to be employed in lower wage jobs, resulting in gender inequalities in pay despite numerous changes in women's economic behaviour and educational attainment.

Moreover, there are more young women than young men who are potentially disengaged and at risk of disaffection with society, suffering from long-term unemployment and risking forced early marriage.

Work

We know now that without gender equality and a full role for women in society in the economy, in governence, we will not be able to achieve the world we hoped for. - Phunzik Mlambo - Ngcuka / Executive Director, UN Women 2018

The ability and capacity to engage in decent work, earn an income and contribute to the economy through paid as well as unpaid and volunteer work is the foundation for reducing inequalities and achieving sustainable development. The labour markets across the region range from the predominantly agricultural Comoros, Djibouti, Mauritania, Morocco, Somalia, the Sudan and Yemen, to the oil-exporting countries like Qatar and Saudi Arabia, to the more diverse economy of Egypt, Lebanon and Tunisia.

A. Enabling environment

There are six International Labour Organization (ILO) Conventions that Arab States can ratify that would indicate commitment to implementing gender-sensitive work legislation. Only two conventions have been ratified by almost all the Arab countries: namely Convention 100 on equal remuneration and Convention 111 on discrimination. The majority of Arab States have not ratified four out of six ILO Conventions on workers with family responsibilities (No. 156), part-time work (No. 175), home work (No. 177) and maternity protection (No. 183).

The technical conventions, which have been ratified by relatively few countries globally, have also not been adopted widely in the region. Yemen is the only Arab State to adopt the convention on workers with family responsibilities (No. 156) and Morocco is one of 34 countries to have ratified the convention on maternity protection offering 14 weeks of maternity leave Table 9.

The ILO Convention No. 183 requires countries to pay a minimum of 14 weeks of maternity leave at a rate of at least two thirds of previous earnings payable by social insurance or public funds.[1] While only Morocco has ratified the convention, most Arab States do provide paid or unpaid maternity leave to women in employment. The maternity leave ranges from a maximum of 27 weeks of leave in Kuwait to a just 4.3 weeks in Tunisia Figure 87.

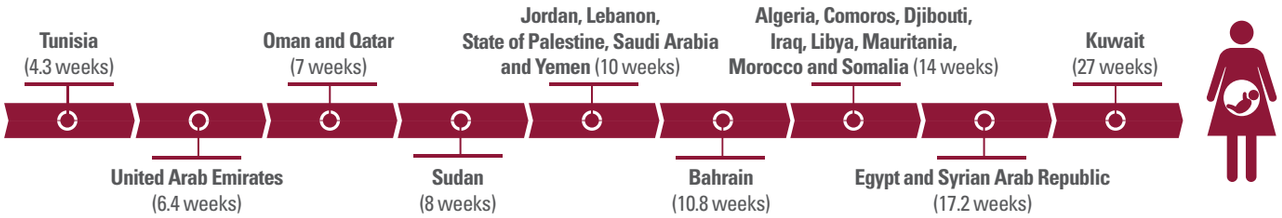
Morocco offers **14 weeks** of maternity leave and is one of **34 countries** globally to have ratified the ILO convention on maternity protection

Table 9. Ratification of gender-related ILO Conventions by Arab States (as at August 2018)

	ILO Conventions					
Country	No. 100 **on equal remuneration** (1951)	No. 111 on **discrimination** (employment and occupation) (1958)	No. 156 on **workers with family responsibilities** (1981)	No. 175 on **part-time work** (1994)	No. 177 on **home work** (1996)	No. 183 on **maternity protection** (2000)
Algeria	19 Oct 1962	12 Jun 1969	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Bahrain	Not ratified	26 Sep 2000	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Comoros	23 Oct 1978	17 Mar 2004	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Djibouti	03 Aug 1978	28 Feb 2005	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Egypt	26 July 1960	10 May 1960	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Iraq	28 Aug 1963	15 Jun 1959	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Jordan	22 Sep 1966	04 Jul 1963	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Kuwait	Not ratified	01 Dec 1966	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Lebanon	01 Jun 1977	01 Jun 1977	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Libya	20 Jun 1962	13 Jun 1961	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Mauritania	03 Dec 2001	08 Nov 1963	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Morocco	11 May 1979	27 Mar 1963	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	13 Apr 2011
Oman	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Qatar	Not ratified	18 Aug 1976	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Saudi Arabia	15 Jun 1978	15 Jun 1978	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Somalia	Not ratified	08 Dec 1961	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Sudan	22 Oct 1970	22 Oct 1970	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Syrian Arab Republic	07 Jun 1957	10 May 1960	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Tunisia	11 Oct 1968	14 Sep 1959	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
United Arab Emirates	24 Feb 1997	28 Jun 2001	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified
Yemen	29 Jul 1976	22 Aug 1969	13 Mar 1989	Not ratified	Not ratified	Not ratified

Source: ILO, NORMLEX Information System on International Labour Standards (2018). Available at https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:1:0::NO:::
Note: The State of Palestine – non-member observer state

Figure 87. Duration of paid maternity leave in the Arab States



Source: International Labour Organization (ILO), *World Social Protection Report 2017-19: Universal Social Protection to Achieve to Sustainable Development Goals* (Geneva, 2017).

B. Labour force participation

Major gender gaps in labour force participation

Women make enormous contributions to economies whether in businesses, on farms, as entrepreneurs or employees, or through unpaid domestic or care work at home. Gender discrimination means women often end up in insecure, low-wage jobs and constitute a small minority of those in senior positions.[2]

The highest levels of female labour force participation in the Arab States were found in Bahrain, Comoros, Djibouti, Kuwait, Libya, Mauritania, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates where women constitute more than 25 per cent of the labour force. However, national rates in the countries of the GCC, were inflated by the large number of foreign labourers in those countries.

The labour force comprises all those people who are either in paid work or seeking paid work (unemployed). In all countries of the region there was a significant gender gap between male and female participation in the labour force. Participation rates were highest for both women and men in Qatar, which had almost 58 per cent of women and 95 per cent of working age men participating in the labour force. The lowest rates were found in Yemen for women at 6 per cent and Comoros for men at 51 per cent Figure 88.

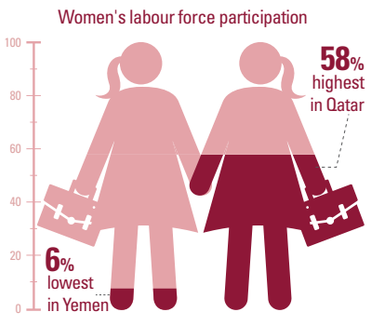
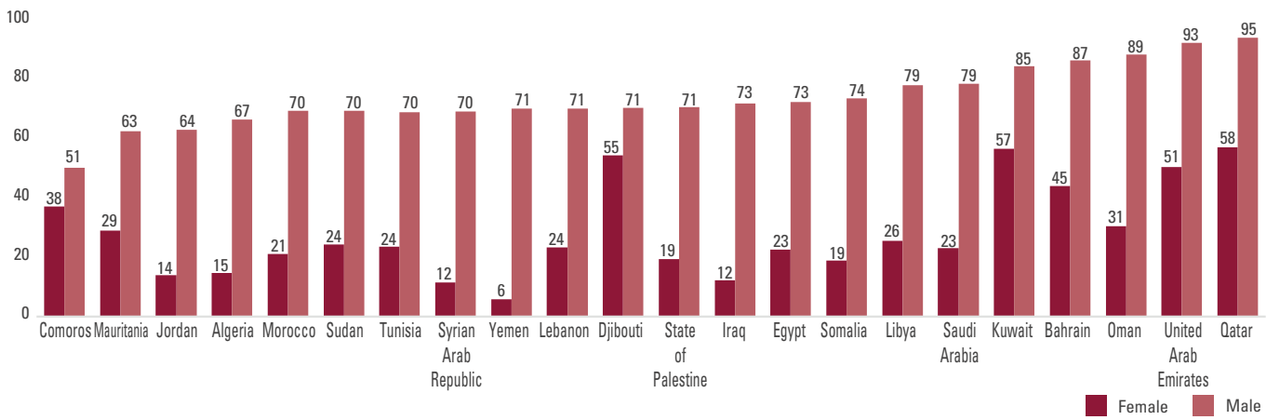


Figure 88. Labour force participation rate for persons aged 15 years and older, 2019 (percentage)



Source: ILOStat database, "modelled estimates, November 2018" (last updated on 11 July 2019).

C. Working poor

The working poor are those working people whose income fall below a given poverty line due to low-income jobs. In many countries, females constitute the majority of those who work and still remain in poverty. According to ILO database 2019, the Arab average of working poor was higher (7.9%) than the World average (7.1%).

The countries among Arab States with the highest levels of employed female population living below international poverty line were Comoros (17%), Yemen (11%), the Sudan (7%) and Mauritania (4%). In Jordan, Tunisia, the Syrian Arab Republic, Iraq, Yemen and the Sudan, however, there were more males than females living below international poverty line Figure 89.

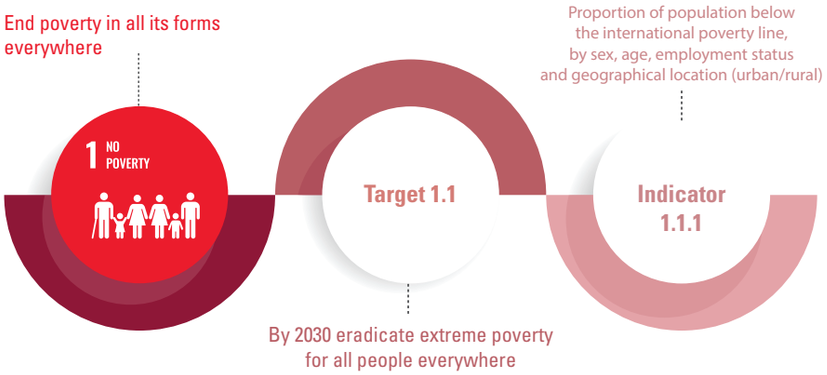
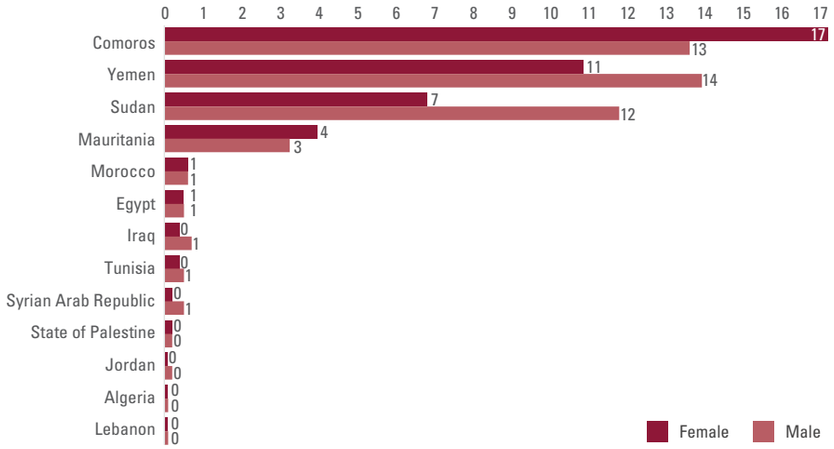


Figure 89. Proportion of employed population aged 15 years and older living below international poverty line, latest available data (percentage)



Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

D. Employment by education

Knowledge and skills are acquired, in general, through formal education and training. People who have only received early childhood education and primary education are considered to be low-qualified. Low levels of qualifications do not provide the knowledge, skills and competencies needed for major occupations. People with lower levels of qualifications are often working in basic and uncomplicated occupations and are mainly females.

ILO estimates for 2019 show that employment among females with less than basic education was higher than males in Algeria, Comoros, Mauritania, Morocco, the State of Palestine, Saudi Arabia, the Sudan, Tunisia, the United Arab Emirates and Yemen. Morocco had the highest reverse gender gap, in favour of females, at 31 percentage points (females 56% and males 25%).

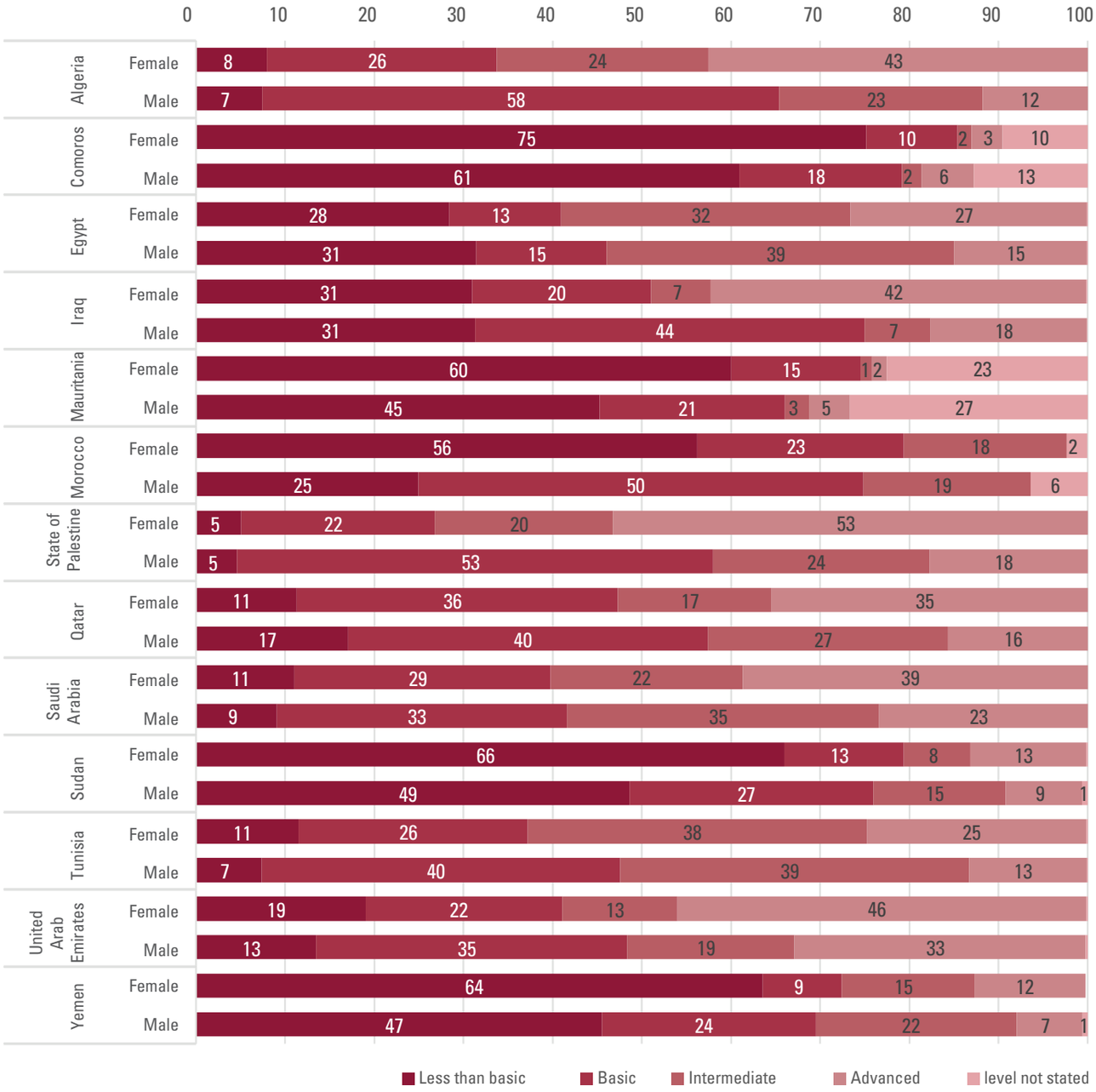
Education is increasingly becoming a necessity for getting better access to the labour market and better jobs. Male employment with basic education was higher than that of females in Algeria and the State of Palestine. Both countries recorded the highest gender gap, (in favour of males), at 32 percentage points. The lowest gender gap was in Egypt at 2 percentage points (females 13% and males 15%).

In intermediate education, the highest gender gap in employment rate of population was in Saudi

Arabia at 13 percentage points (females 22% and males 35%), followed by Qatar, Yemen and the Sudan at 10, 8 and 7 percentage points, respectively. It is interesting to note that there was no gender gap of employed persons with intermediate education in Morocco.

In all the countries with available data, there were more employed women with advanced level of education than men, with the exception of Comoros. The State of Palestine had the highest reverse gender gap at 35 percentage points (females 53% and males 18%) Figure 90.

Figure 90. Proportion of employed population aged 15 years and older by educational level, latest available data (percentage)



Source: ILOStat database (last updated on 26 August 2019).

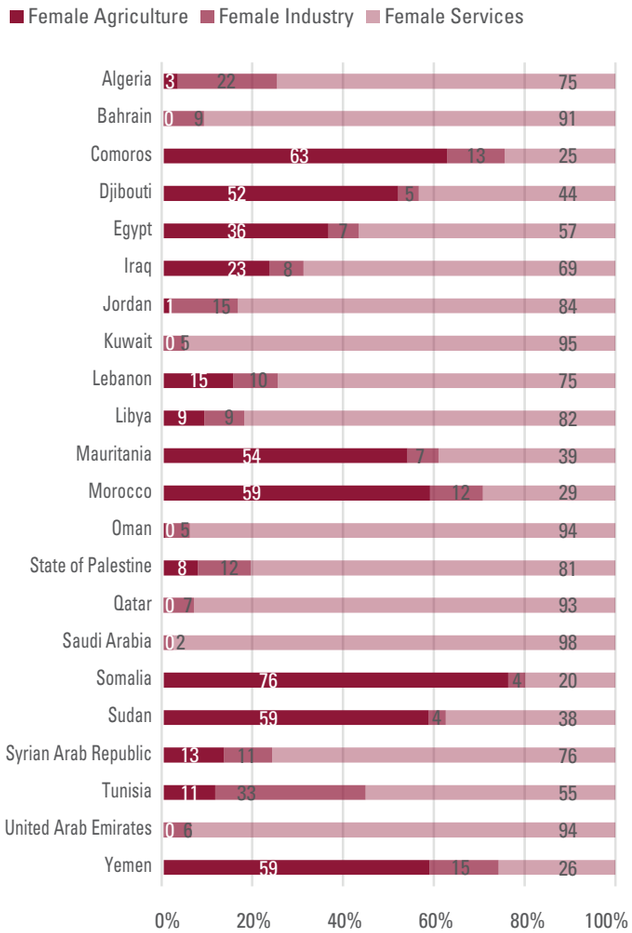
E. Women and men work in different sectors

The structure of the economy varies across the region and, as a result, affects employment of both women and men. The industrial sector is a major employer in the Gulf except in the United Arab Emirates where the service sector provides most jobs. In all countries, men were more likely to be working in the industrial sector than women, who tend to be employed in the services sector Figures 91 and 92.

Where agriculture was the primary means of livelihood, such as in Comoros, Djibouti, Egypt, Iraq, Mauritania, Morocco, Somalia, the Sudan and Yemen, women's share of non-agricultural employment was small. Where non-agricultural wage work plays a greater role in the economy, women's share was higher.

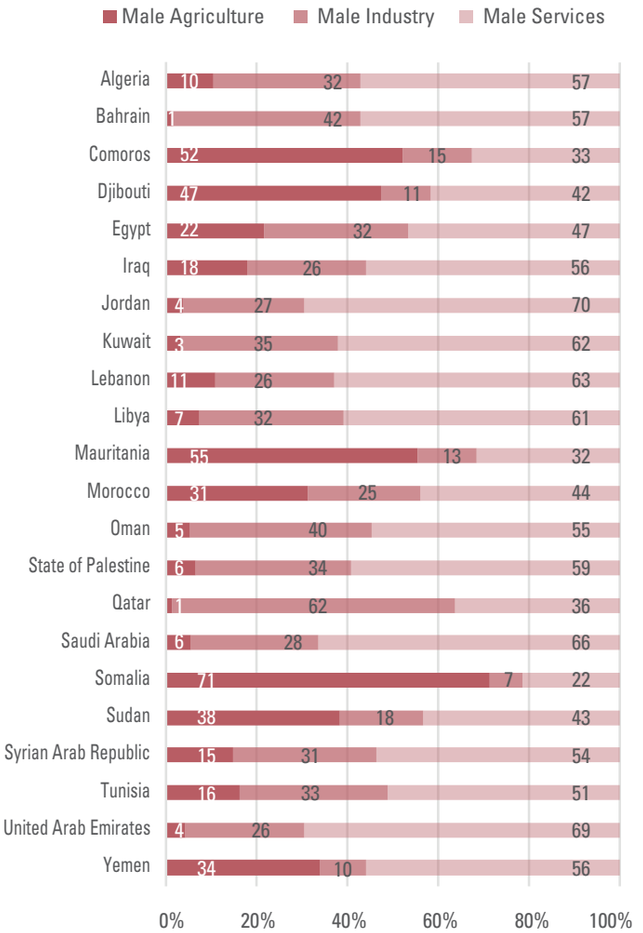
Women who live in countries with a large agriculture sector tend to work mainly in that sector. Women's employment in the agriculture sector in Comoros was 63 per cent compared to 13 per cent in industry and 25 per cent in service. Similarly, in Morocco women's employment in agriculture sector was 59 per cent, while in industry was 12 per cent and services was 29 percent. Some Arab States such as Algeria, Jordan and Tunisia, have been more successful in getting women into non-agricultural occupations.

Figure 91. Proportion of female employment by sector, 2019



Source: ILOStat database, "modelled estimates, November 2018" (last updated on 11 July 2019).

Figure 92. Proportion of male employment by sector, 2019



Source: ILOStat database, "modelled estimates, November 2018" (last updated on 11 July 2019).

F. Women and men get paid differently

Despite numerous changes in women's economic behaviours and educational attainment levels, gender inequalities in pay persist.[3] At least 50 per cent of the world's women are in paid wage and salary employment; an increase from 40 per cent in the 1990s. Women, however earn from 10 to 30 per cent less than men for the same work.[4]

The gender pay gap reveals the different realities that women and men face in their professional lives. Women in general earn on average less than men. In the European Union, women earn an average 16 per cent less per hour than men. The biggest gap in earnings is among couples with children, showing that the financial cost of having a family falls heavily on women's shoulders.

The gender pay gap, meaning the average earnings per month per employee and expressed as the ratio of female wages to male wages, is the result of pay discrimination, occupational segregation and bias against working women. The gender pay gap occurs across almost all occupations and industries. Male-dominated occupations such as industry and construction tend to have higher wages than occupations made up mostly of female workers, such as agriculture.

In 2018, five out of 22 Arab States with law that mandates equal remuneration for females and males for work of equal value. These countries are Algeria, Comoros, Djibouti, Libya and Morocco Figure 93.

The latest data show that in almost all the Arab countries there were significant gaps favouring men in all the sector. Only the United Arab Emirates showed a high pay gap in favour of women in the agriculture sector Figure 94.

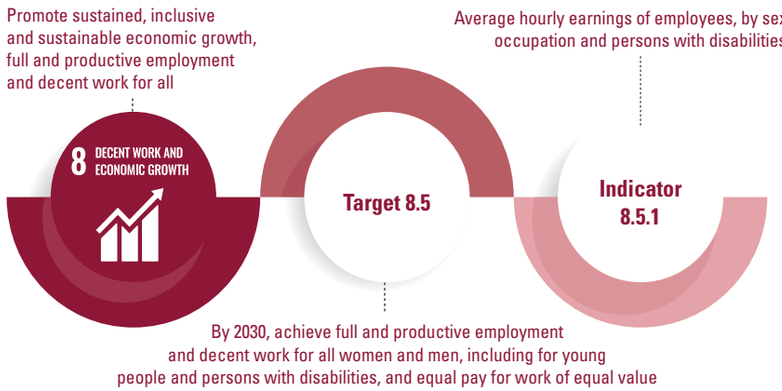
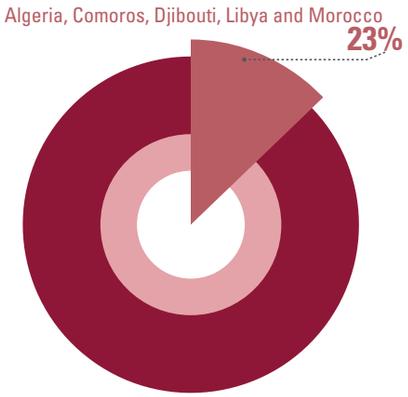
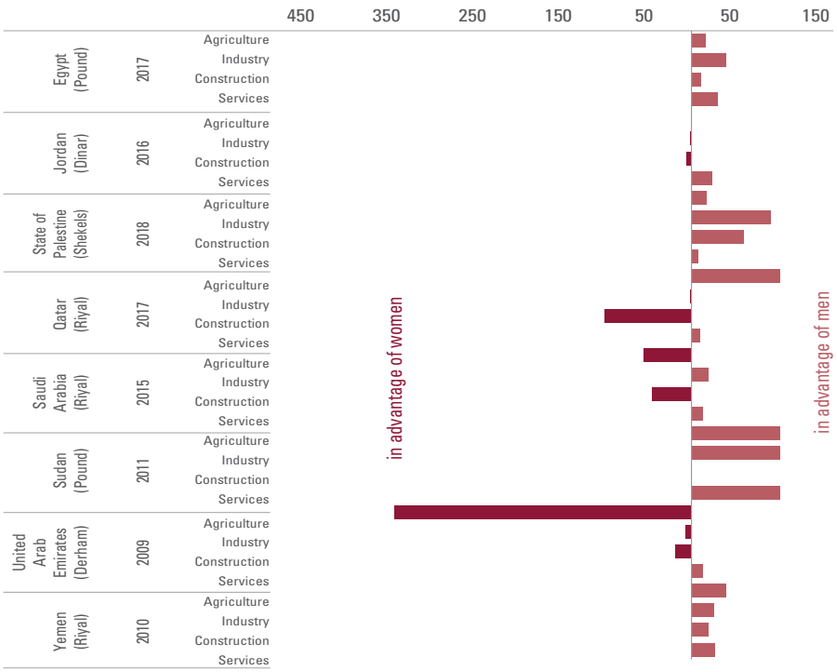


Figure 93. Countries with law mandates equal pay, 2018



Source: World Bank, "Law mandates equal pay, 2018", World Bank Data.

Figure 94. Gender pay gap by sectors in selected countries, latest year (local currency)



Source: Data collected and calculated by ESCWA from ILO, LABORSTA.

G. Legal frameworks in employment

Countries' legal framework that promote, enforce and monitor gender equality in employment and economic benefits is assessed through an achievement score that ranges between a low of 0 to a high of 100. Available data show that Iraq score was 60, the highest percentage of achievement among Arab States, followed by Lebanon (50), the State of Palestine (40) and Jordan (20). The United Arab Emirates had the lowest score of achievement at 10 Figure 95.

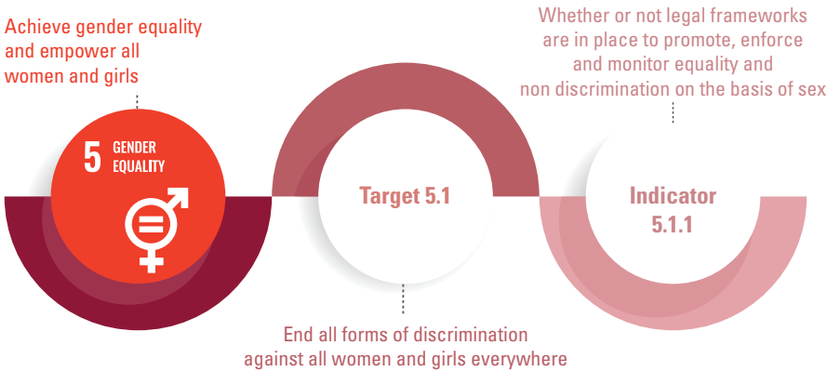
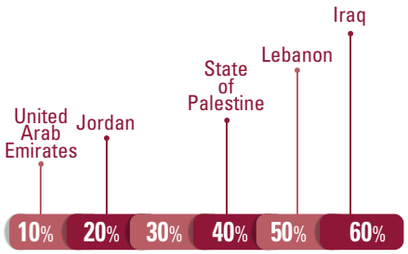


Figure 95. Legal frameworks that promote, enforce and monitor gender equality in employment and economic benefits, 2018



Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

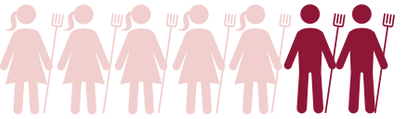
H. Vulnerable employment

Women more likely to be in vulnerable jobs

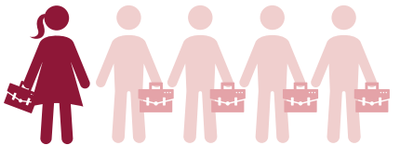
Every type of paid work is characterized by the type of employment and the conditions of that work. Some jobs are more secure than others. Employees typically have salaried positions with access to benefits such as sick leave, annual leave and some even have pension schemes. More vulnerable forms of paid work are own-account workers (self-employed) who work alone in small-scale operations where income can be intermittent and exposed on external factors, such as impacts of weather on farming or seasonal fluctuations in tourism. Contributing family workers – those who work in a family business or farm without pay – are also vulnerable as they earn no income and typically lack benefits as an individual in their own right. Employers, on the other hand – those who employ one or more people on an ongoing basis – are more secure when their business is established enough to take on employees. The ability to act as the main decision-maker in as business is an indication of power.

Globally, the share of employee positions is the same for men and women, however, men are twice as likely to be employers, and women are more often contributing family workers than men Figure 96.

In the **Arab States** for every **5 women** contributing family workers, there are only **2 men**



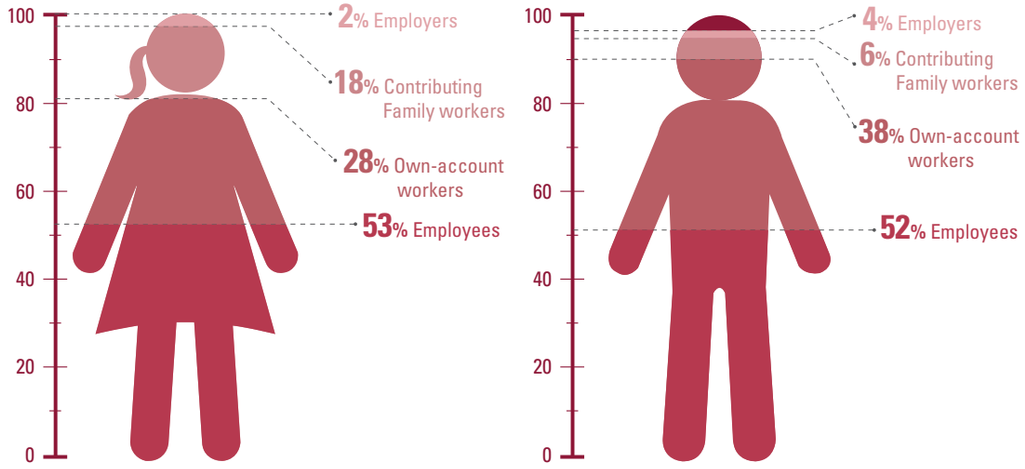
For every **4 men** employers, there is only **1 woman** employer



In the Arab States, the status in employment can be highly gendered. Arab women were more likely to be contributing family workers (5%), and men were more likely to be own-account workers (14%), resulting in a similar level of vulnerable employment for all Figure 97. In countries such as Egypt, Mauritania, Morocco and Yemen, men occupied the vast share of employer and employee positions, and women were more represented in vulnerable work as own-account workers and contributing family workers.

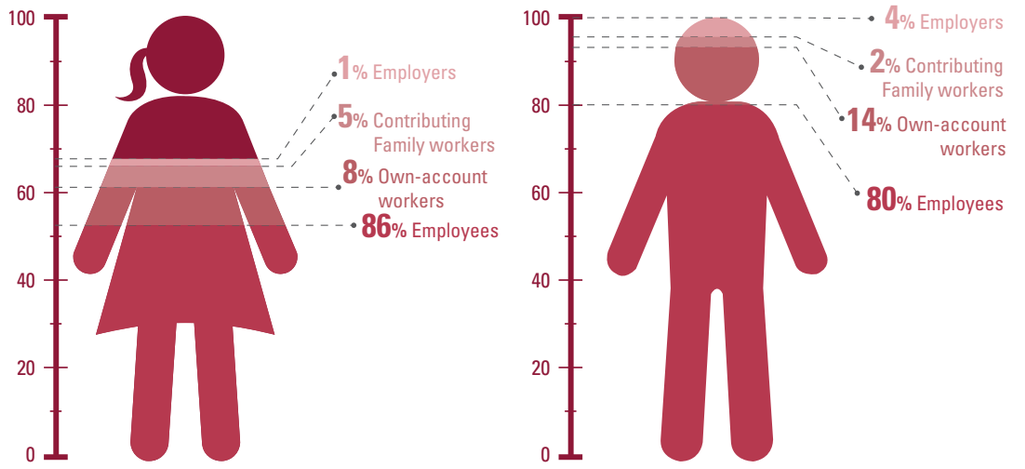
In the world for every **1 male employer** there is a **female employer**, but in the Arab States for every **4 male employers** there is only **1 female employer**

Figure 96. Status in employment, World 2019



Source: ILOStat database, "modelled estimates, November 2018" (last updated on 11 July 2019).

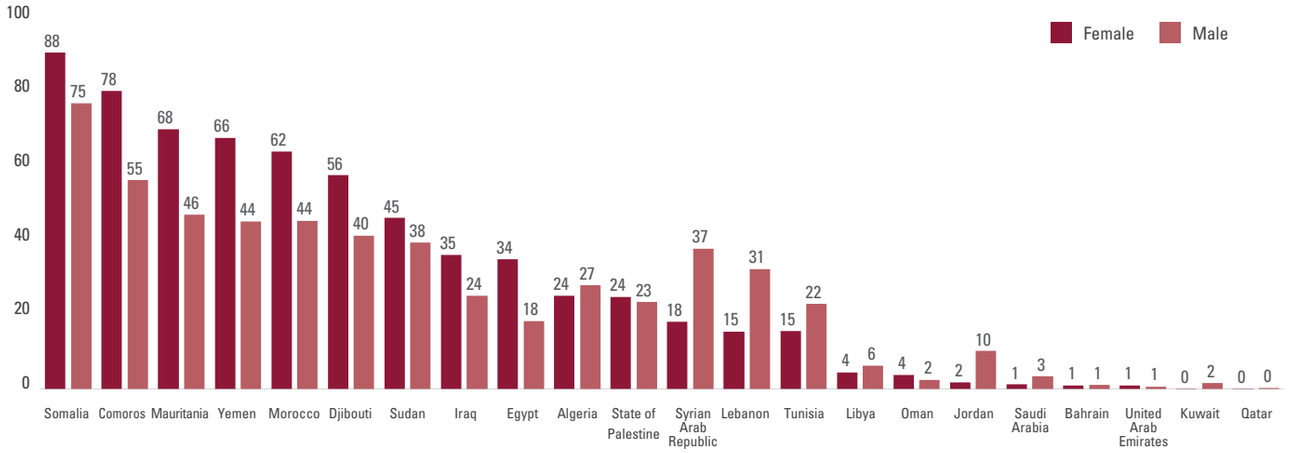
Figure 97. Status in employment, Arab States 2019



Source: ILOStat database, "modelled estimates, November 2018" (last updated on 11 July 2019).

Vulnerable employment was highest in Somalia: 88 per cent of employed women were in vulnerable jobs compared to 75 per cent of men. In countries where vulnerable jobs were a significant proportion of employment, women were more likely to occupy those positions, leaving the reliable salaries and employer positions for men. As overall vulnerable employment declines, in countries like Lebanon, the Syrian Arab Republic and Tunisia, it is men who are more likely to be in less secure jobs Figure 98.

Figure 98. Vulnerable employment rate, 2019 (percentage)



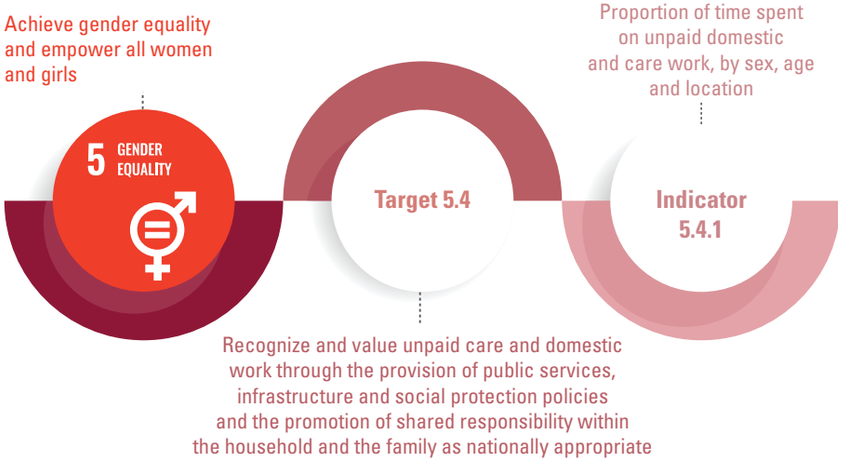
Source: ILOStat database, "modelled estimates, November 2018" (last updated on 11 July 2019).

I. Time spent on paid and unpaid work

Rural women in Iraq work over 3 hours more per day than men

There are many forms of work, including unpaid work done in and around the home such as housework, caring for children and other household members, and maintaining the house and yard. Time use Surveys (TUS) measure the time spent on all activities conducted throughout the day and night, allowing analysts to identify how much time is spent on unpaid house and care work and how this differs between men and women.

In the Arab States region, eight countries have implemented a TUS: Algeria (2012); Egypt (2015); Iraq (2007 and 2012); Morocco (1997 and 2011); Oman (2007); Qatar (2012); the State of Palestine (1999 and 2012); and Tunisia (2005).



Latest data on time use show a great variation of time spent on unpaid chores and care work between Arab countries and a big difference in the time spent on paid versus unpaid work. 2012 survey data showed that Moroccan women, for example, work slightly more minutes per day than men (381 versus 368 minutes per day). However, for women, most time is spent on unpaid work (300 minutes) than on paid work (81 minutes) and for men the opposite is true (54 minutes unpaid work compared to 325 minutes of paid work). Moroccan women spent 21 per cent of their time

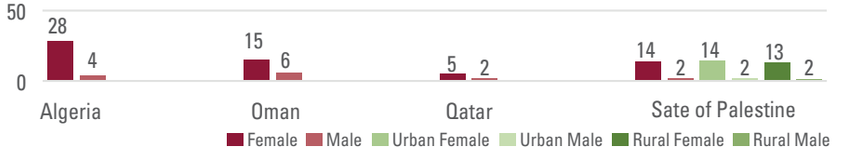
Only **8 countries** in the region have conducted a **Time Use Survey**

on unpaid chores and care work, while men only 3 per cent of their time on similar tasks.

Although women spent little time on chores in Qatar, it was still higher than time spent by men in most of the Arab States. In Algeria, women aged 15-24, spent more than a quarter of their time on chores. Among Arab countries Omani men spent the most amount of time on unpaid chores at 6 per cent for age group 15-24 and 8 per cent for age 15 and older. Similarly, the male population age 15 and older in urban Oman spent 7 per cent of their time on unpaid chores, and in rural Oman they spend 8 per cent Figures 99 and 100.

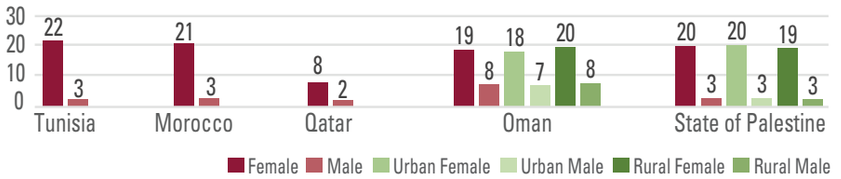
Women in Iraq spent more time in unpaid work than men. Women spent a total of 7 hours a day on unpaid work in urban and rural areas while men in urban and rural areas spent 2 hours a day. Women also spent 6 hours a day on paid work in urban and rural areas. Men, however, spent more hours in paid work than unpaid in comparison to women: 10 hours a day on paid work in urban areas and 7 hours a day in rural areas. In sum, nearly 60 per cent of males' work was paid, while almost 60 per cent of females' work was unpaid Figure 101.

Figure 99. Average number of hours spent on unpaid domestic and care work of youth population (15-24 years) by location, latest available data



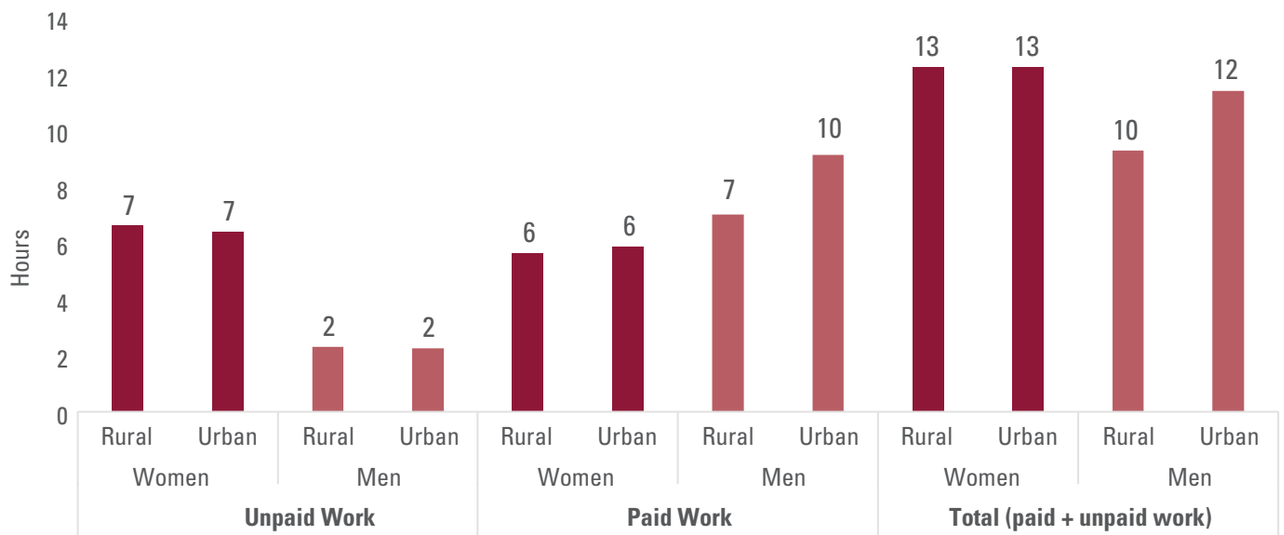
Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

Figure 100. Average number of hours spent on unpaid domestic and care work of adult population (15+ years) by location, latest available data



Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

Figure 101. Average number of hours spent on total work (paid and unpaid) of population aged 10 years and older, Iraq 2007



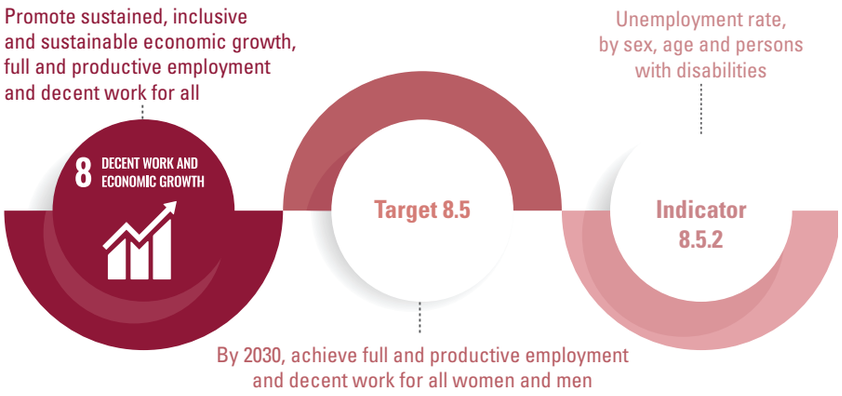
Source: Iraq Time Use Survey 2007.

J. Adult unemployment

Unemployment is highest for women

The adult unemployment rate is the share of the labour force, between the ages 15-64, that is unemployed and actively seeking work. Unemployment rates do not reflect the "discouraged workers" in a country, meaning those that are of legal employment age but are no longer actively seeking employment after long-term unemployment. If it were possible to take into account the number of discouraged workers, the percentage of the unemployed would likely be much higher in the Arab World.

In all Arab countries where data were available, unemployment was higher for women than it was for men. Arab adult unemployment rate (8%) was higher than the World average (5%).[5] The unemployment rate was highest in the State of Palestine where nearly half of the female labour force was unemployed (48%) versus around one fifth of the male labour force (23%). Rates were also extremely high for women and men in Iraq (31% and 10%, respectively) and in Yemen (26% and 12%, respectively). Unemployment was almost non-existent for women and men in Qatar Figure 102.

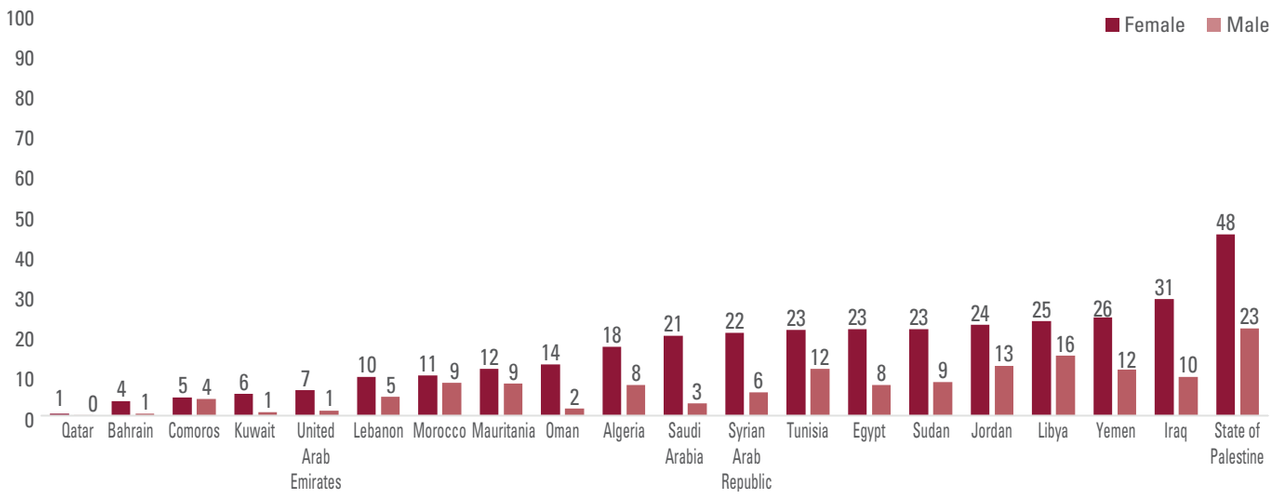


K. Youth unemployment

Youth unemployment is highest for young women

Youth unemployment rate is the share of the labour force, aged 15-24 years, that is unemployed and actively seeking work. Unemployment, particularly youth unemployment, is a major concern for many Arab States and is thought to be a factor behind the uprising of the Arab spring.

Figure 102. Unemployment rate of population aged 15-64 years, latest year (percentage)

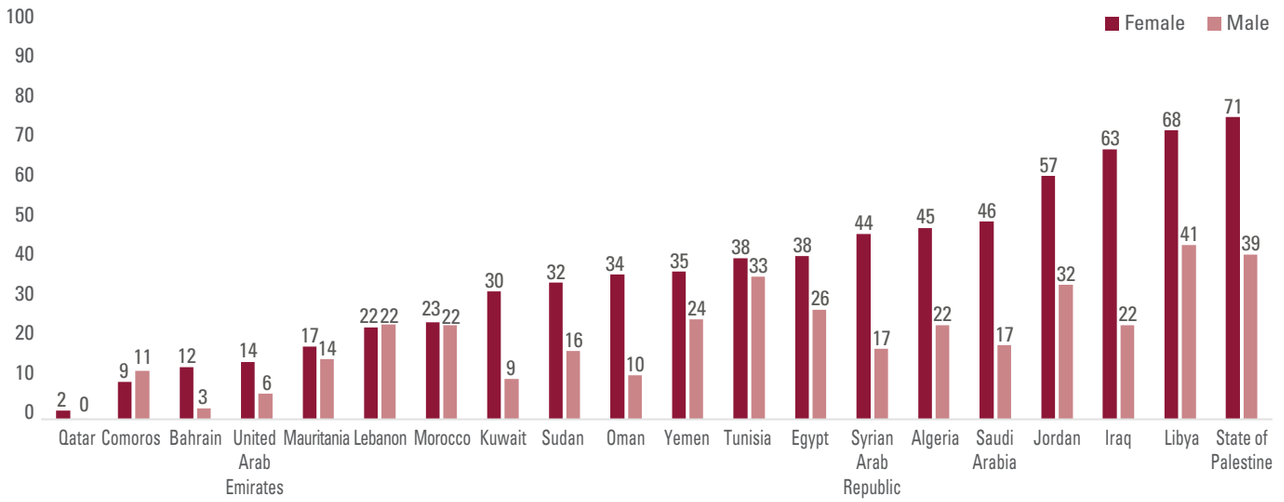


Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

Limited employment opportunities, poor investment and a tightly controlled private sector result in too few jobs for young people, regardless of their education level. Young females have a higher unemployment rate than young males, and with already low participation in the labour market, it is clear that gender norms play a role in female's ability to engage in employment work.[6] The Arab youth unemployment rate (23%) was higher than the World average (14%).[7]

For almost all the countries with available data, female youth unemployment was always higher than male. More than two thirds of the female labour force were unemployed in the State of Palestine (71%) and Libya (68%) in comparison to that of males' in the State of Palestine (39%) and Libya (41%). Qatar, on the other hand, had the highest rates of employment for both females and males, where unemployment was almost zero Figure 103.

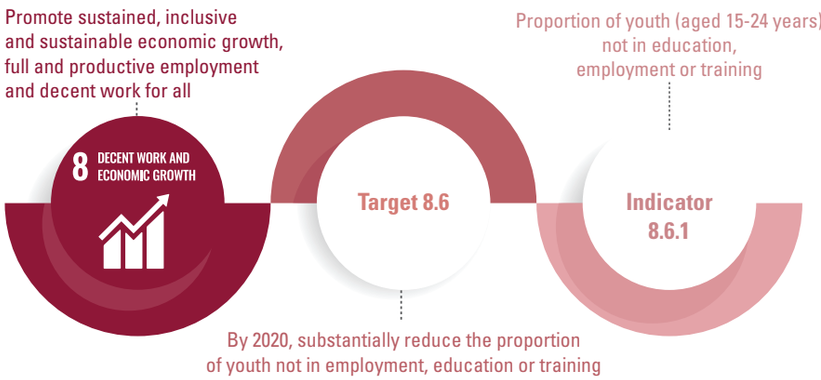
Figure 103. Youth unemployment rate, latest year (percentage)



Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

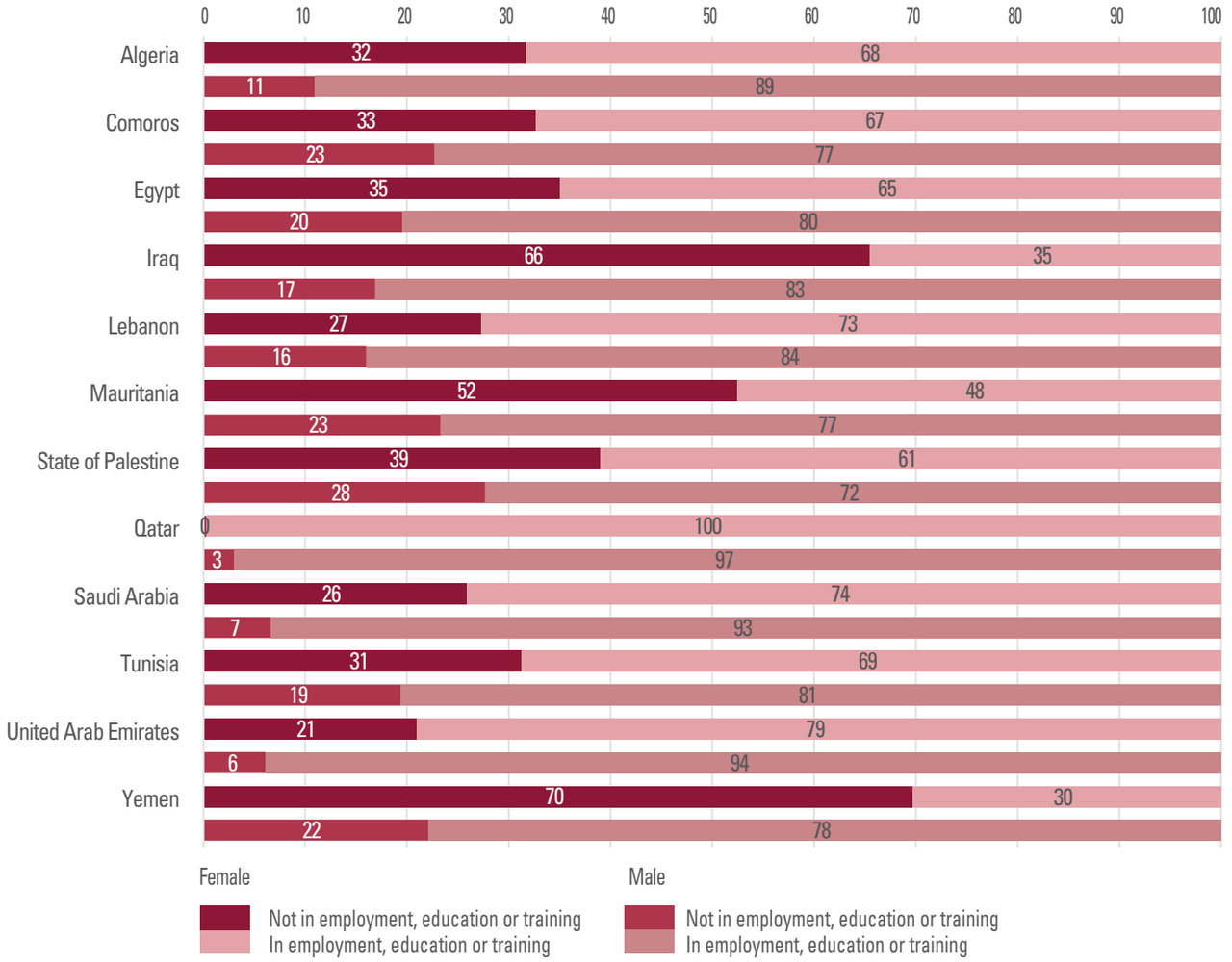
L. Disengaged youth

The proportion of young people (aged 15-24) not in employment, education, or training – known as the NEET rate – is an important development measure and one of the SDG indicators under Goal 8 on decent work (SDG indicator 8.6.1). As a measure of potentially disengaged youth, it provides an indication of risk of disaffection with society, long-term unemployment and forced early marriage.



The NEET rate was highest among young women in Yemen, where 70 per cent were not participating in education, training or employment. By comparison, this was the situation for only 22 per cent of young men in Yemen. The gap was biggest in Iraq, where 66 per cent of young women were not in employment, education or training, compared to 17 per cent of young men Figure 104.

Figure 104. NEET rate for youth aged 15-24 years, latest available data (percentage)

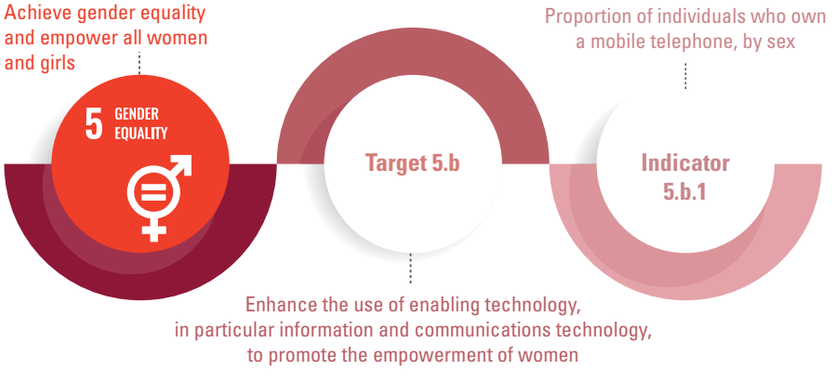


Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

M. Mobile ownership

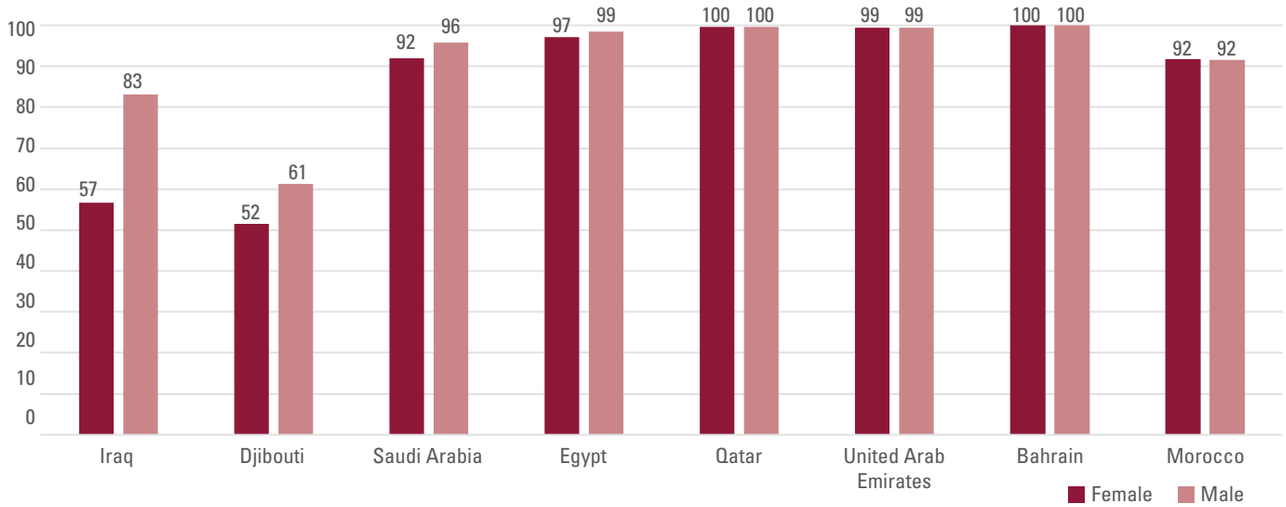
Iraq and Djibouti have the highest gender gap in mobile ownership

There are 1.7 billion females in low- and middle-income countries that do not own mobile phones. In most of the Arab States the proportion of individuals who own a mobile



telephone, for both sexes, as per the latest available data, was over 90 per cent, except in Iraq and Djibouti. In both countries, there was a gender gap. In Iraq, the gender gap was 26 percentage points (females 57% and males 83%) and in Djibouti, it was 9 percentage points (females 52% and males 61%) Figure 105.

Figure 105. Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, latest available data (percentage)



Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

Chapter 7
Public Life and Decision-making

Women's representation in political decision-making continues to rise, but is far from achieving gender equality. Women's share in parliament has more than quadrupled since 2000; however, it is still below 20 per cent in the Arab region. Similarly, the proportion of women ministers does not exceed 20 per cent.

Having a bank account is an important starting point for people to access financial services. Women's economic empowerment is still low given that the Arab region has the highest gender gap in globally in terms of holding a bank account.

Public Life and Decision-making

The empowerment of women requires that women have more say in all the decisions that affect their lives at the local, national and international levels. The constitutions of most Arab countries recognize that women's and men's civil and political rights are equal. Nevertheless, the existence of a constitution does not automatically guarantee the rights of women nor does it necessarily translate into women realizing their full civic, legal and political rights. More than 20 years since the adoption of the CEDAW women's representation is still staggeringly low in decision-making positions.[1] As more women, however, climb into these seats of power, they are paving the way for the success of the women who come after them and laying the foundation for future generations.

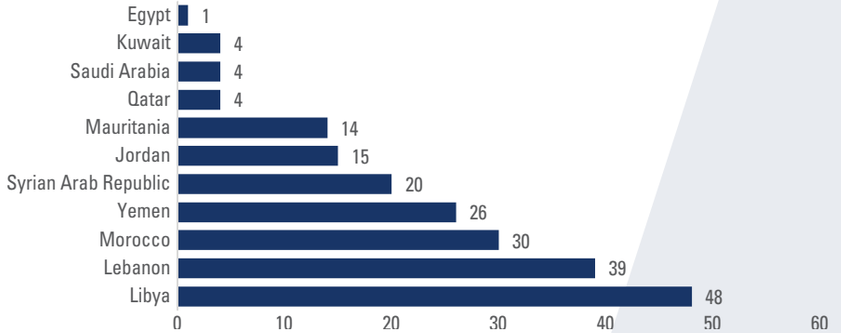
Across the Arab region, there were far more men than women in decision-making positions. This was true across all sectors, both public and private. It included elected officials at all levels, the judiciary, the executive branch of government, private sector Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) and board members, and senior officials and managers.This situation was also common around the world.[2]

A. Voting rights

Eight Arab States had women appointed soon after the year of suffrage, that is to say there was no time lag between granting the right to vote in election and appointment to office, namely: Algeria, Bahrain, Iraq, Oman, the State of Palestine, the Sudan, Tunisia, and the United Arab Emirates. However, there was a lag time between women being granted the right to stand for election and their appointment which exceeded 20 years in some countries, such as in Libya (48 years), Lebanon (39 years), Morocco (30 years) and Yemen (26 years) Figure 106.

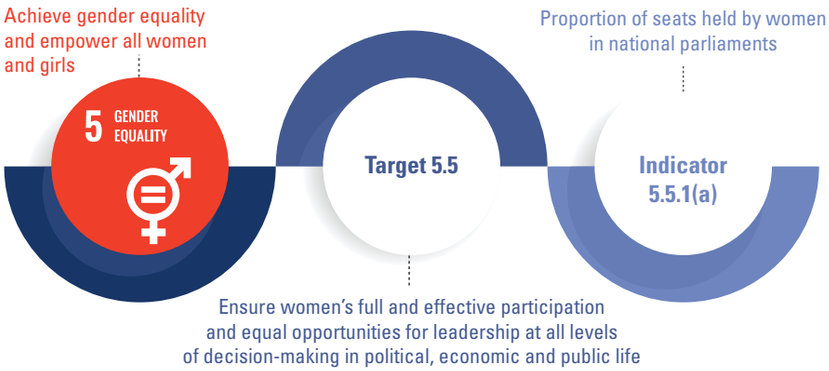
In **Lebanon**, it took **39** years and in Libya **48** years between being granted the right to stand for election and a woman being appointed to parliament

Figure 106. Lag time between women being granted the right to stand for election and a woman being appointed to parliament, in years, latest available data



Source: IPU Parline, "Global data on national parliaments".

B. Women in parliament



Women's share of parliamentary seats is highest in Tunisia, Djibouti and Algeria

The goal of increasing women's representation in parliaments is a long-standing one agreed on by numerous international mandates and frameworks. Women's absence from national parliaments signals that women are not accepted as equal partners in political decision-making for the country. There has been continued progress towards the 30 per cent representation target in a significant number of countries. Globally, the percentage of women in parliament has nearly doubled in the last 20 years, and increased nearly 11 percentage points, growing from 13.9 per cent in 2000 to 24.6 per cent in 2019.

In 2015, 74 countries around the globe had implemented some form of gender quota for the single or lower houses of national parliaments.[3] Reserved seats are used in 20 countries that are all in developing regions.[4] There are currently 10 Arab States that do not have an electoral quota to promote representation of women in parliament: Bahrain, Comoros, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Saudi Arabia, the State of Palestine, the Syrian Arab Republic, the United Arab Emirates and Yemen.

In only 12 Arab States, all members of parliament were directly elected; namely Algeria, Bahrain, Djibouti, Lebanon, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, Oman, the Sudan, the Syrian Arab Republic, Tunisia, and Yemen. Seven of those countries had an electoral quota which boosted women's representation in parliament.

The region's average has more than quadrupled from 3.8 per cent in 2000, the lowest of any region in the world at that time, to 18 per cent in 2019, narrowing the gap of reaching the regional target of 30 per cent. Women's share in the Arab region has increased proportionally more than any other region and is currently almost the same as in Asia and the Pacific regions. Among Arab countries, the most impressive gain in women's representation in lower and single houses of parliament in 2018 occurred in Djibouti (15.4 percentage points increase).[5]

In the majority of Arab States, women's share in parliament is still below 20 per cent, and 18 countries are below the global average; Yemen had the lowest representation of only 0.3 per cent. The latest data show that there were only four countries that had high representation, namely: Tunisia (31%), Djibouti (26%), Algeria (26%) and Iraq (25%) Figure 107.

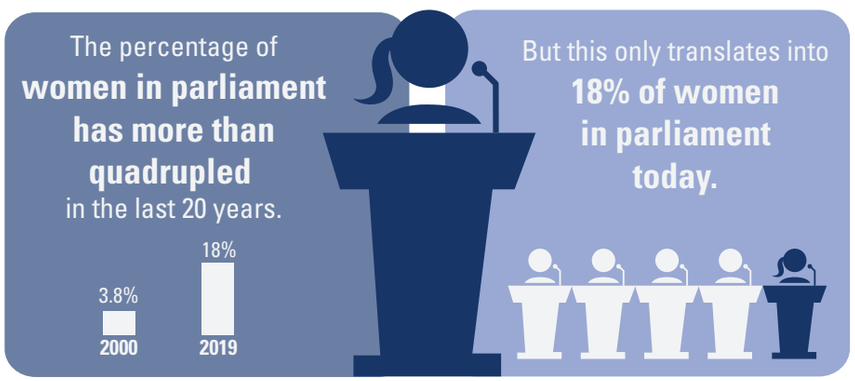
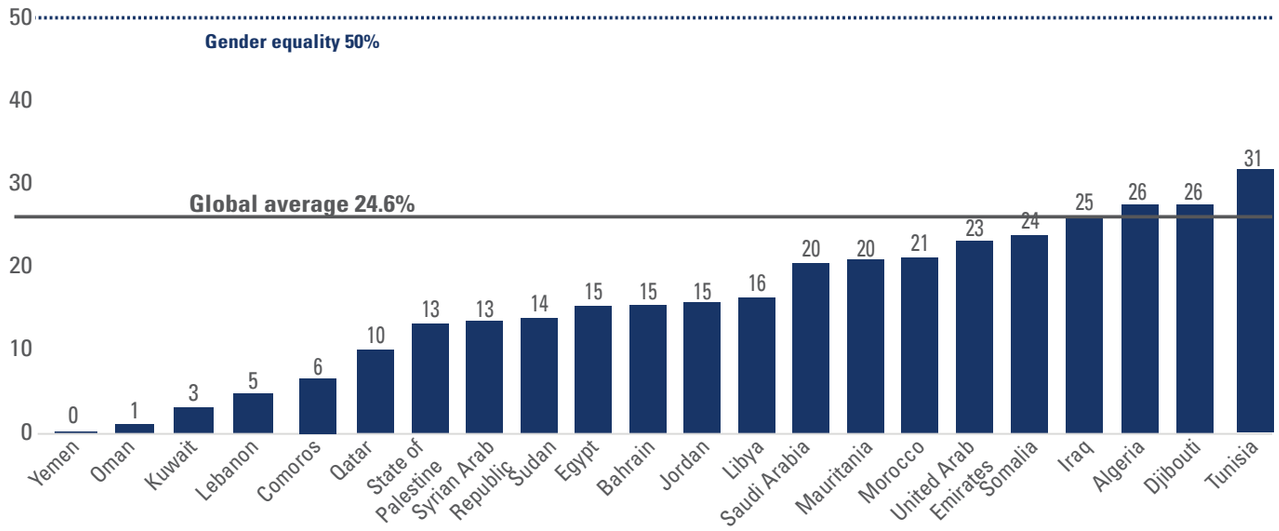


Figure 107. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments, latest year (percentage)



Source: IPU, "Women in National Parliaments" (situation as of 1st January 2019).

Historic gains for Bahraini women and losses for Mauritanians in parliament

Bahrain recorded historic gains for women's share in single house of parliament (lower chamber), doubling its share of women parliamentarians, from 7.5 per cent to 15.0 per cent. The kingdom's first elections in 2002 did not result in the election of any women, and in the 2006 and 2010 elections, only one woman gained a seat. The first breakthrough came in 2014, when three women entered the lower house – making the 2018 elections truly historic, with six women Members of Parliament. A further milestone was achieved in late 2018, when Fouzia Zainal became the first woman to serve as the speaker of a parliamentary chamber in the country and only the third woman in the Arab world to hold this position.

Mauritania, by contrast, saw the biggest setback in the Arab region, as women's representation fell from 25.2 per cent to 20.3 per cent. In 2012, a quota system was introduced whereby 13 seats are reserved for women running on a single nationwide list and constituency lists with more than three seats are required to include equal numbers of women and men, listed in alternating order. While the gender quota ensured women's participation in parliament, high levels of party fragmentation were likely detrimental to women's electoral successes.[6]

The patriarchal structure of political, social, economic and legal realms of life in most Arab countries are largely controlled through informal and personalized networks.

For every **5** parliamentary seats there is only **1 woman representative**

Women's educational advancement over the last decades has not witnessed an equally paced and simultaneous advancement in their political representation in the formal realm of government. It is interesting to point out that, paradoxically, countries where women have achieved highest rates of female educational attainment were among the countries with the poorest representation of women in public life.

In 2016, Qatar's female tertiary gross enrolment ratio was at 47 per cent, 7 times greater than that of men (6%), yet the share of women in parliament seats was only 10 per cent. Qualified Arab women are still being marginalized from the formal political arena because it is hard to break the political and institutional networks that are largely controlled by men.

C. Women head of states and ministers

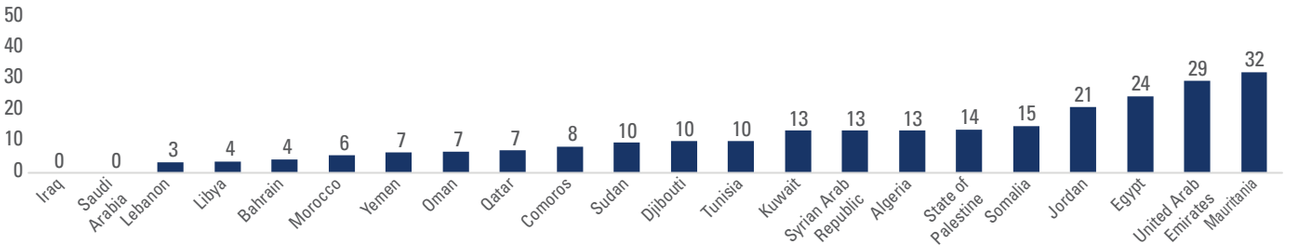
Across the world, countries struggle when it comes to women's representation in governing bodies. At the global level, in October 2017 there were 11 women who occupied the office of Head of State or and 12 who are Head of Government. None of them were in the Arab region.

Women's representation in political decision-making continues to rise slowly, but the proportion of women ministers was highest at 20.7 per cent (812 out of 3922 in 2019), 2.4 percentage points higher compared to 2017.[7]

In 1990, eight Arab countries had at least one, and some of them two, women ministers, namely: Algeria, Comoros, Egypt, Jordan, Mauritania, the Sudan, the Syrian Arab Republic and Tunisia. In 2001, Yemen appointed a women minister to head the Ministry of State for Human Rights and by 2003, Qatar named its first women as Minister of Education and appointed a woman as Executive Secretary of the Higher Council for Family Affairs. Oman also appointed its first women ministers in 2003.[8]

The latest data show that three Arab countries were above global average in women's representation in political decision-making. In 2019, Mauritania had the highest women's representation in political decision-making at 32 per cent, followed by the United Arab Emirates at 29 per cent and Egypt at 24 per cent. The countries with the lowest rates (below 5%) were Bahrain, Libya and Lebanon followed by Saudi Arabia and Iraq with no females. In the past, Iraq had female ministers, but there were none in the present Iraqi Government. It is worth noting that Lebanon raised its representation from 3.4 per cent in 2016 to 13.3 per cent in 2019 by appointing four female ministers in the 30-seat cabinet, among whom was the first woman in the Arab world to hold the position of Minister of Interior Figure 108.

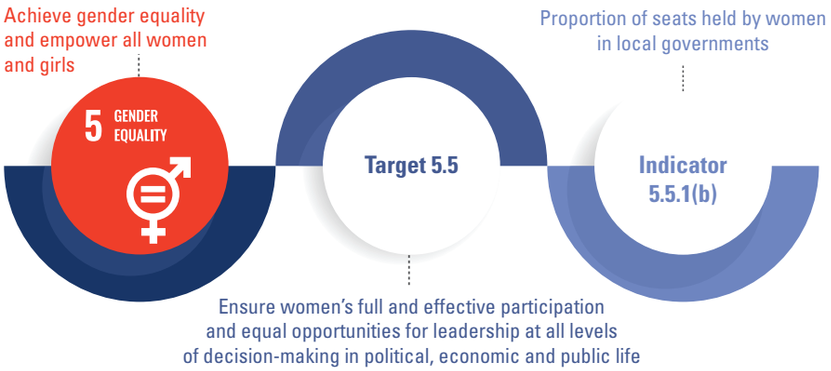
Figure 108. Share of women in government ministerial positions, 2019 (percentage)



Source: IPU, "Women in Politics: 2019" (situation as of 1st January 2019).

D. Women in local government

Women's participation in elected decision-making positions is very important in local government. Not only does local government often provide a feeder group for national government, but at this level, the focus is very much on local policies

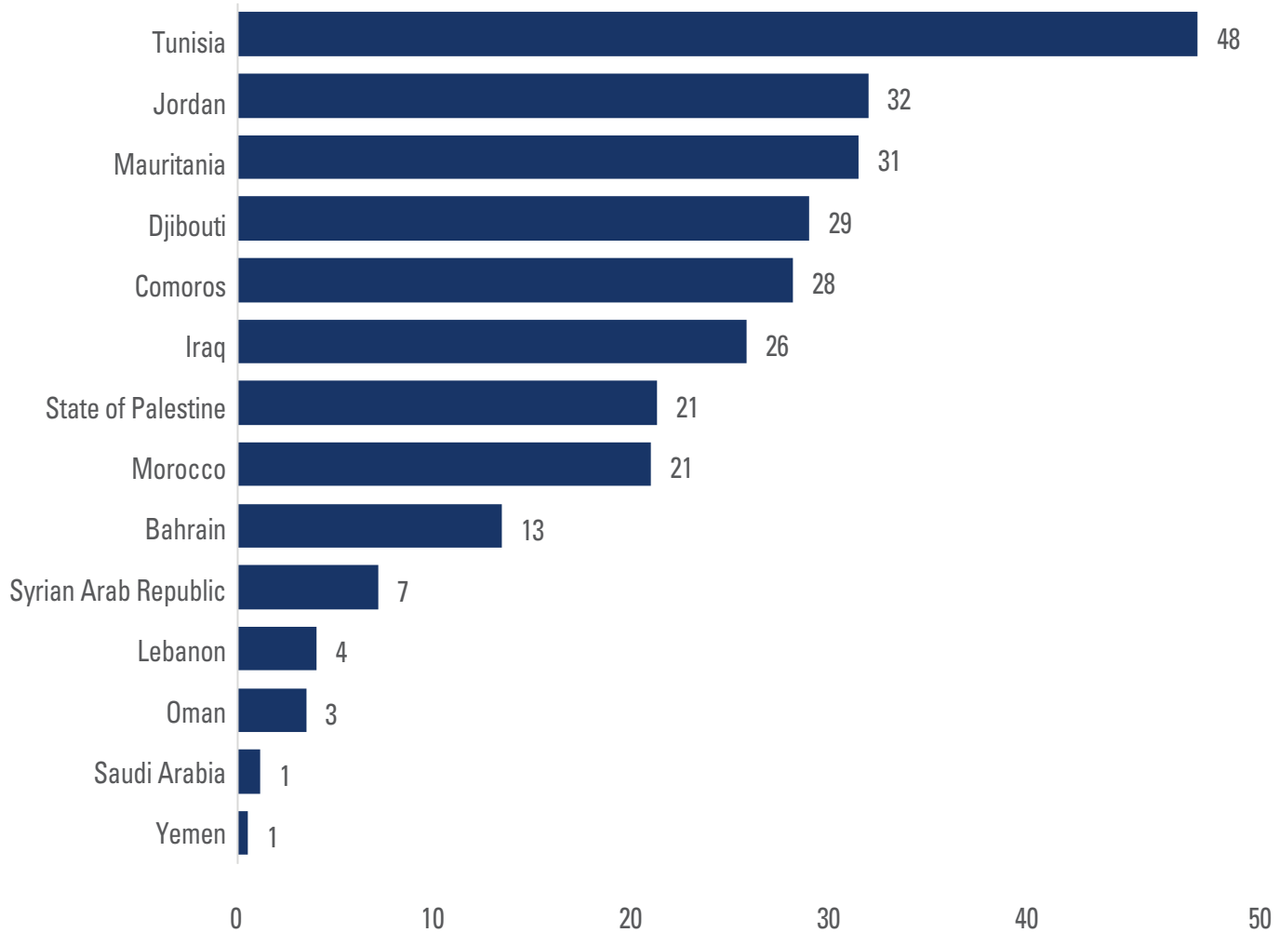


and issues. The work is also closer to the community and local support networks, which can make it easier for elected officials to balance their work and family life. In every country in the world for which data is available, men outnumber women by a significant margin in terms of elected representatives within local government.

There are some success stories emerging in the Arab region. In Tunisia, women make up 48.5 per cent of municipal councillors. Rates were also relatively high in Jordan (32%) and in Mauritania (31%) in 2018. Moreover, Lebanon and Morocco have launched initiatives to increase women's participation in local governance[9] Figure 109.

In **Mauritania** and the **United Arab Emirates,** more than **one third** of local government representatives are **women**

Figure 109. Proportion of seats held by women in local governments, 2018 (percentage)

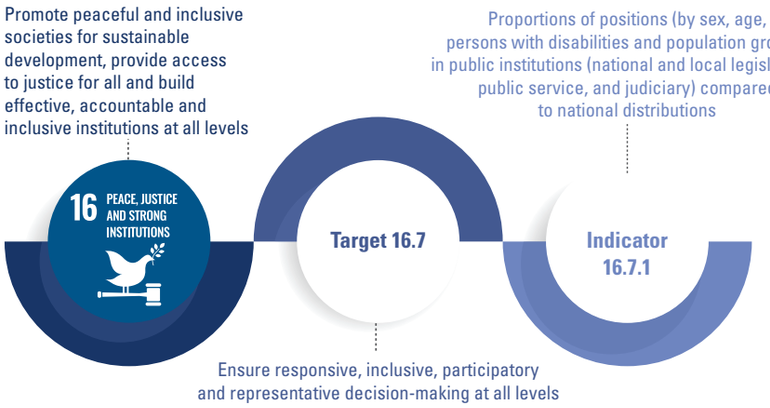


Source: Data are compiled by ESCWA Statistics Division and UN Women; and data for Comoros and Djibouti are compiled by UNECA and UN Women.

E. Women in the judiciary

Progress is being made, albeit slowly, in the share of female judges out of the total number of judges in Arab countries. Tunisia recorded the highest percentage of female judges in 2018 at 46 per cent. In the same year, rates were also relatively high in Morocco at 24 per cent, in Jordan at 22 per cent, in the State of Palestine at 18 per cent and the Sudan at 15 per cent.

Interestingly while there is no law precluding women becoming a judge in Kuwait and Oman, there are no female judge in these countries. In Kuwait, it only became possible for women to become judges in 2013.[10] In contrast, in Egypt the first female judge was appointed in 2003.[11] From 2003-2007, a woman held the position of Vice President of the Supreme Constitutional Court which was the highest court in Egypt. However, female judges in Egypt made up less than 1 per cent (0.7%) of the bench in 2018.[12] Data show that small number of female judges in Bahrain (11%), Yemen (7%), Qatar (6%), Iraq (4%), the United Arab Emirates (3%) and Saudi Arabia (3%) Figure 110.



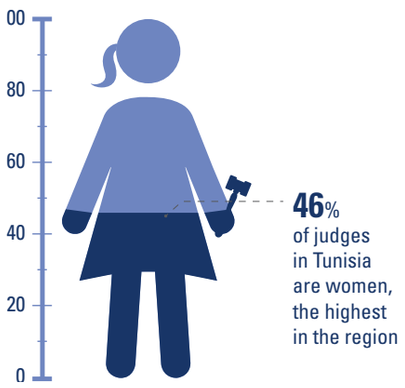
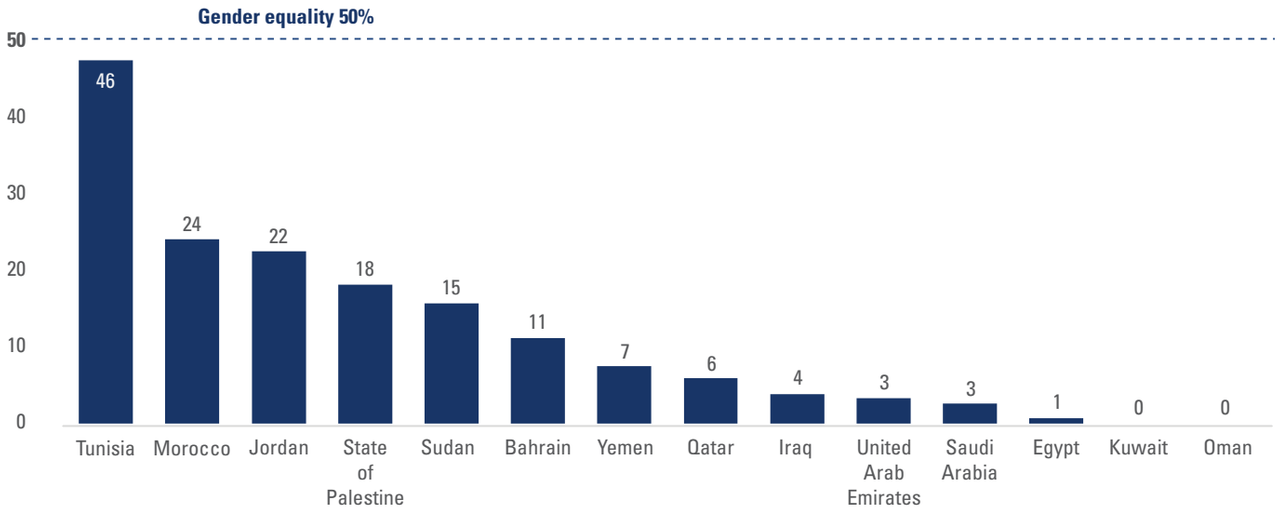


Figure 110. Share of women judges, latest available data (percentage)

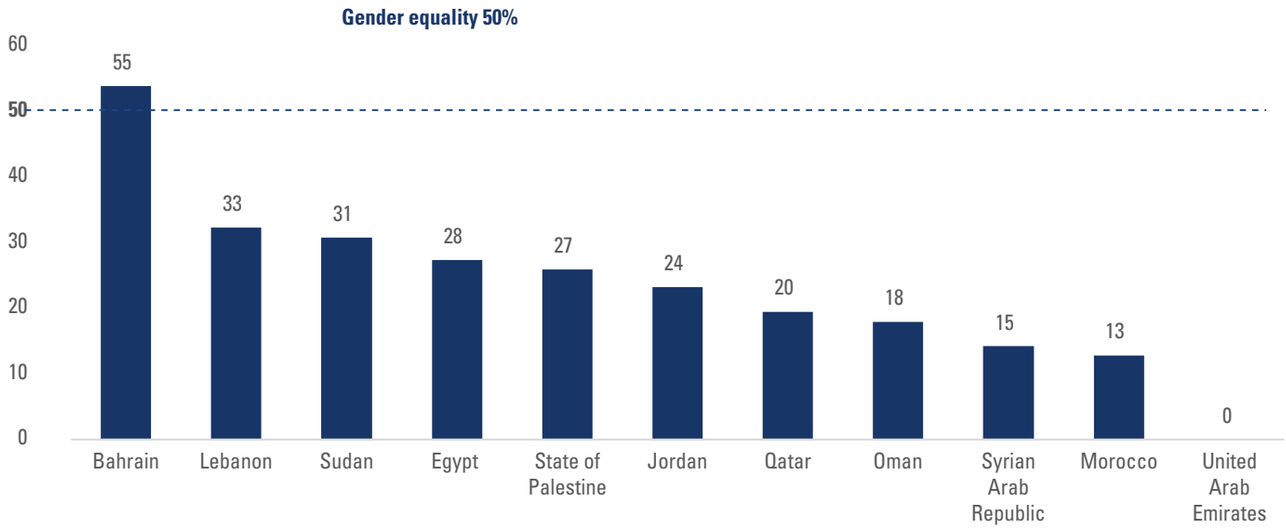


Source: *E/ESCWA/SD/2019/TP.1.*

F. Women lawyers

Although there are not many judges in Bahrain, more than half of the lawyers are women. Female lawyers make up 55 per cent of the profession compared to 45 per cent male lawyers. In Lebanon, the Sudan and Egypt almost one third of the lawyers were women. There is roughly one female lawyer to every four male lawyers in the State of Palestine and Jordan. The numbers were even less in the rest of the Arab countries. For example, in Qatar for every two female lawyers there were ten male lawyers and the number of female lawyers was even less in Oman, the Syrian Arab Republic and Morocco. There were no female lawyers in the United Arab Emirates Figure 111.

Figure 111. Share of women lawyers, latest available data (percentage)



Source: *E/ESCWA/SD/2019/TP.1.*

G. Women as managers

Women's share in management positions was highest in Iraq in 2012 (22%), although it is still considered low in comparison to men. Rates were also relatively high in the State of Palestine (15% in 2012) and Qatar (11% in 2010). Where data were available it suggests the region was lagging well behind developed and other developing regions with less than 20 per cent of women in management level positions and the lowest share of women in employment at around 30 percent or lower[13] Figure 112.

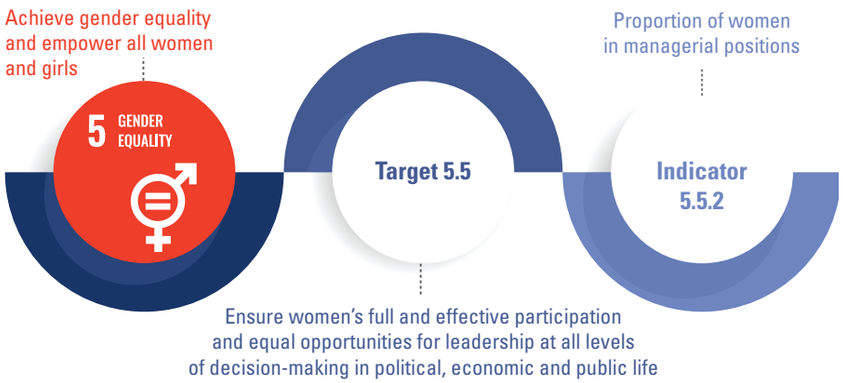
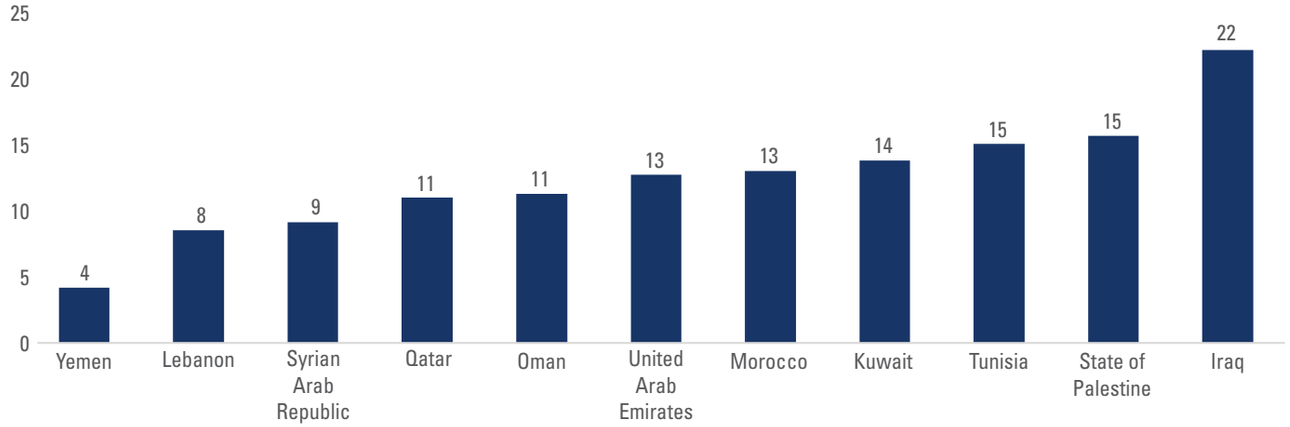


Figure 112. Share of women in managerial positions, latest available data (percentage)



Source: ILOStat database.

H. Women as CEOs and board members

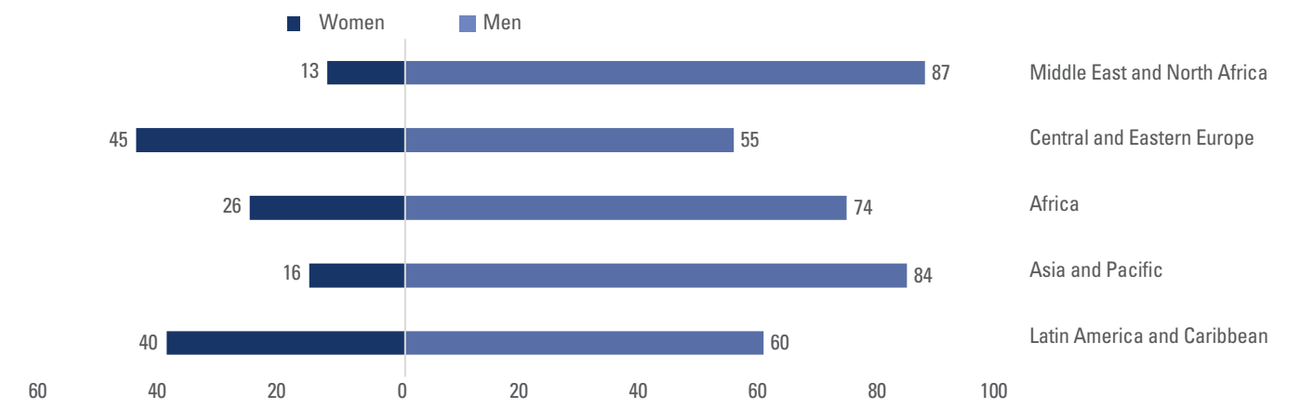
Globally, women make up about one quarter of all Chief Executive Officers (CEOs). The MENA region rate had the fewest women at these levels with only 13 per cent of women CEOs. In Central and Eastern Europe, the rates were the highest in the world at 45 per cent Figure 113.

The glass ceiling appears to be most impenetrable in the world's largest corporations with less than 4 per cent of CEOs women and the gender composition of executive boards of private companies far from parity.[14] Research conducted by the Pearl Initiative indicates that 32 per cent of family-owned companies in the Gulf region had women on their boards and a similar percentage had women with executive roles. In the United Arab

"While women have been progressing and positioning themselves into leadership roles in the MENA region, the percentage of women in these roles remains unacceptably low in abstract terms as well as in comparison to other countries and regions; and far from our aspirations."

Omar Fahoum, CEO, Deloitte Middle East

Figure 113. Share of women in Chief Executive Officer positions, world and by region, latest available data (percentage)

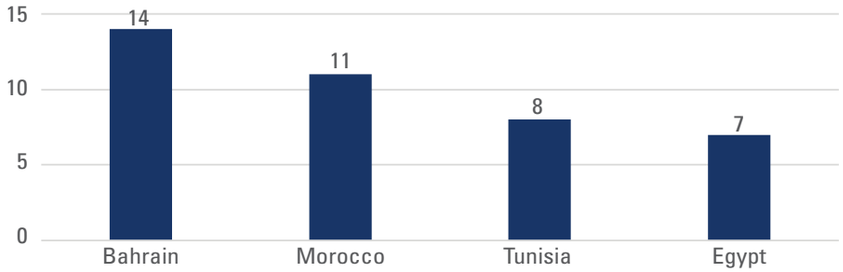


Source: ILO, *Women in Business and Management: gaining momentum in the Middle East and North Africa.*

Emirates, a law was passed in 2012 that made it mandatory to have female board members in all government agencies and companies.[15]

Women's Share of Board Membership positions was highest in Bahrain at only 14 per cent in 2014, followed by Morocco (11%) in 2013 and Tunisia (8%) in 2013. Egypt had the lowest rate at 7 per cent in 2011 Figure 114.

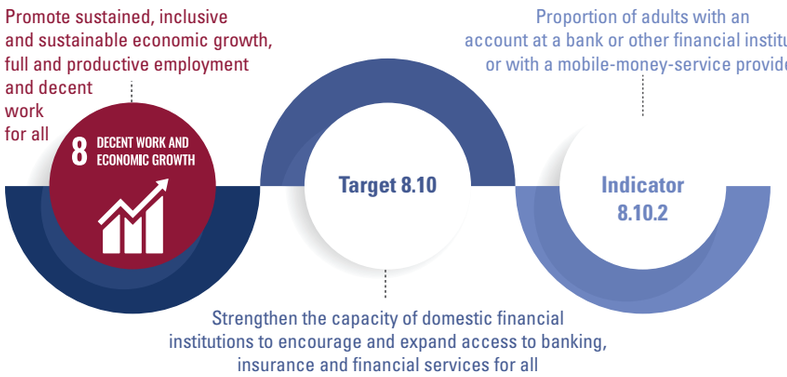
Figure 114. Share of women in board membership, latest available data (percentage)



Source: ILOStat database.

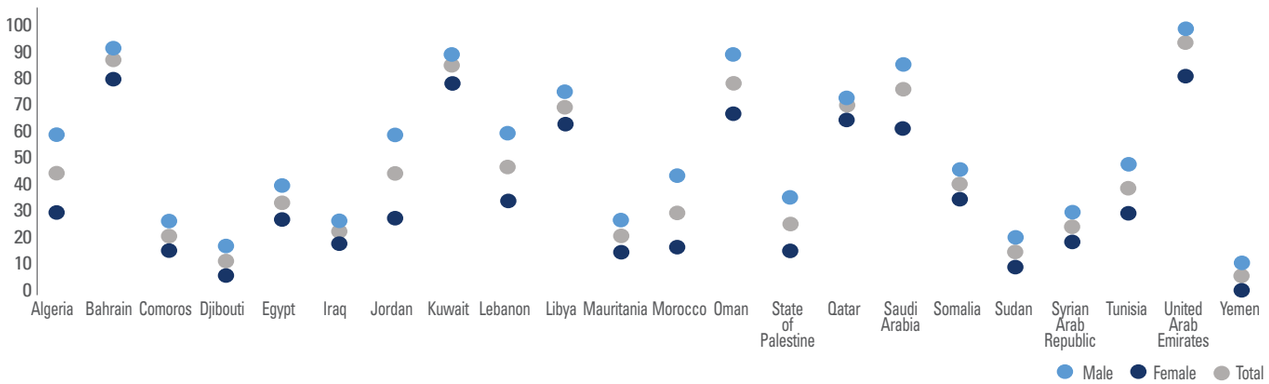
I. Women and economic power

Access to formal financial services such as savings, insurance, payments, credit and remittances is essential to the ability of people—regardless of income level, gender, age, education or where they live—to manage their lives, build their futures and grow their businesses. Having access to an account is an important starting point for people to access arrangements of financial services. The proportion of women with an account at a formal financial institution was lower than the proportion of men in all regions of the world.[16]



The gender gap was highest in the Arab region in comparison to other regions. In the Arab region, 26 per cent of women and 48 per cent of men had an account (a gap of 23 percentage points) in 2017. Among countries in the Arab region, the gender gap was 20 percentage points or higher in Jordan (30%), Algeria (27%), Morocco (25%), Saudi Arabia (22%), Lebanon (24%) and Oman (20%) Figure 115.

Figure 115. Proportion of adults, aged 15 years and older, with an account at a financial institution or mobile-money-service provider (percentage)



Source: World Bank, "Global Financial Inclusion Database".

Chapter 8
Human Rights of Women and Girls

Violence against women and girls continues to be an issue, and child marriage remains a widely ignored form of violence. Pregnancy and childbirth complications are the leading cause of death among 15 to 19 year-old girls. In all countries, adolescent birth rates were higher among uneducated and poorest girls.

The harmful practice of FGM impacts women and girls' health and wellbeing, and can result in death. FGM remains a significant problem in some countries, with the poorest girls and those living in rural areas at higher risk.

Human Rights of Women and Girls

Violence against women and girls (VAW/G) is a major human rights and gender issue with significant costs. Research suggests that it has risen since 2011 because of protracted conflict, wars, precarious security condition, and the economic downturn affecting some countries in the region. The impact of violence on the physical and mental health of women and girls can range from broken bones to pregnancy-related complications, unwanted pregnancies, sexually transmitted infections, mental problems, low birth weight babies and impaired social functioning.

Violence against women includes domestic violence, honour killings, child marriage, forced prostitution and trafficking (sexual slavery), sexual harassment and rape. Female genital mutilation remains a serious problem in some Arab countries, particularly Egypt, Mauritania, Somalia and the Sudan. Child marriage exists in all Arab countries, but its prevalence was highest in the poorest countries and in conflict areas.

A. Enabling environment

A new awakening swept the Arab region after 2010 as seven countries enacted long-awaited laws to end violence against women and girls. Jordan rid itself of its infamous "rape law," where a rapist could avoid punishment by marrying his victim. Lebanon quickly followed suit, abolishing a similar statute. Tunisia and Morocco passed their first comprehensive national laws to combat violence against women.[1]

Table 10 lists the laws issued by some countries criminalizing violence against

Table 10. National laws on violence against women

Country	Population and Housing Census
2011 Kurdistan, Iraq	Law on domestic violence (2011/8)
2014 Lebanon	Law on protection of women and family members against domestic violence (2014/293)
2015 Algeria	Law on domestic violence (2015/15-19)
2015 Bahrain	Law on protection from domestic violence (2015/17)
2017 Jordan	Law on protection from domestic violence (2017/15)
2017 Tunisia	Law on elimination of violence against women (2017/58)
2018 Morocco	Law on violence against women (2018/103-13)

women/domestic violence. Algeria, Egypt, Iraq, Mauritania, the State of Palestine and Yemen are also in the process of drafting or have submitted a draft law.

Women and girls also bear the consequences of conflict in many countries of the region. In 2014, the Algerian authorities published a decree to provide financial compensation for women victims of sexual violence by armed groups during the 1990s internal conflict that engulfed the country, a long overdue step to address sexual and gender-based violence.

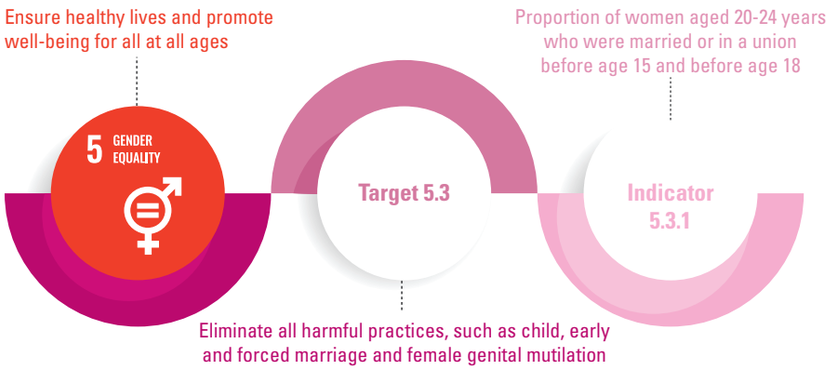
B. Child marriage

Child marriage a major concern for some parts of the region

SDG 5 includes the elimination of harmful practices against women and girls, such as early marriage. Child marriage, meaning before the age of 18 years, has significant impacts on girls' lives. Often encouraged as a way to alleviate poverty, early marriage puts young women at risk of health complications from teenage pregnancy and typically puts an end to their education, limiting their opportunities for the future.[2]

Only five Arab States have signed the Convention on consent to marriage, the minimum age for marriage and registration of marriages, namely Jordan (1992), Libya (2005), the State of Palestine (2019), Tunisia (1968) and Yemen (1987).

Child marriage has significant impact on girls' lives: it puts young women at risk of health complications and puts an end to their education. Only four Arab States have signed the Convention on consent to marriage, the minimum age for marriage and registration of marriages, and 9 countries still allow girls to marry before the age of 18.



Most countries around the world have laws that set a minimum age of marriage, usually at age 18. However, many countries provide exceptions to the minimum age upon parental consent or authorization of the court. Other exceptions allow customary or religious laws that set lower minimum ages of marriage to take precedence over national law. Such exceptions undermine the efficacy of legal protections against child marriage.

According to latest data from Arab States on the minimum age of marriage laws, nine countries, namely Bahrain, Kuwait, Lebanon, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Somalia, the Sudan, the Syrian Arab Republic and Yemen, legally allowed girls to marry before the age of 18 with parental consent. Legal frameworks can reinforce, rather than challenge, gender inequalities.

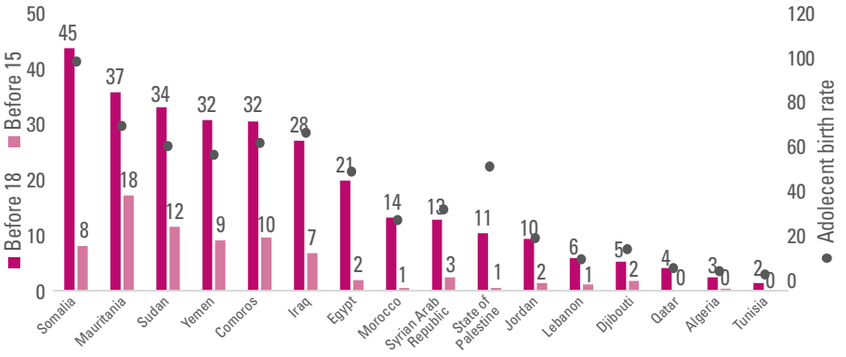
Five countries that allow girls to marry between one and three years younger than boys are Kuwait, Qatar, Bahrain, the Syrian Arab Republic, and Somalia.

The SDG framework includes a measure on early marriage – the proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18 (SDG indicator 5.3.1).[3] Among the countries of the region that

have data available in the Global SDG Database, it is clear that child marriage remains an issue in Somalia, Mauritania, the Sudan Yemen and Comoros, where more than third of girls were married before age 18 and around one in ten before age 15. Rates were also alarmingly high in Iraq Figure 116.

There is a clear association between early marriage and adolescent birth rate. Early marriage before age 18 and teenage motherhood were the highest in Somalia. In 2015-2020, the rate in Somalia was estimated at 100 births per 1,000 women aged 15-19 where 45 per cent of girls married before age 18. Tunisia had the lowest rate for early marriage before age 18 at 2 per cent; it also had the lowest adolescent birth rate in the region at 8 births per 1,000 women aged 15-19. In some refugee, camps in the Middle East girls and young women have been "married off" without their consent and subjected to sexual exploitation in neighbouring countries.[4]

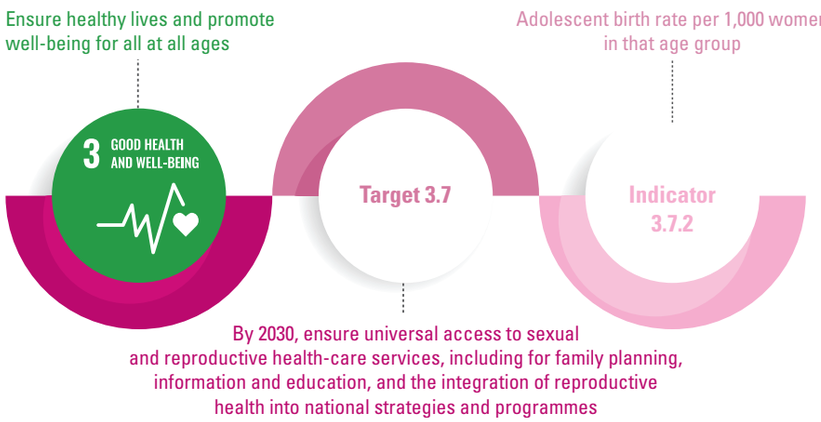
Figure 116. Proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in union before age 15 and before age 18 (percentage) and adolescent birth rate (birth per 1,000 women aged 15-19), latest available data



Source: Latest DHS and MICS surveys (see Annex- Marriage and Family) (early marriage); and DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019) (adolescent birth rate).

C. Adolescent pregnancies

Adolescent pregnancies are a global problem which occur in high, middle, and low-income countries. Around the world, adolescent pregnancies are more likely to occur in marginalized communities, commonly driven by poverty and lack of education and employment opportunities. Every year, an estimated 21 million girls aged 15 - 19 years and 2 million girls aged under 15 years become pregnant in developing regions. Approximately 16 million girls aged 15 - 19 years and 2.5 million girls under age 16 years give birth in developing regions.[5] The global adolescent birth rate has declined from 65 births per 1,000 women in 1990 to 43 births per 1,000 women in 2015.



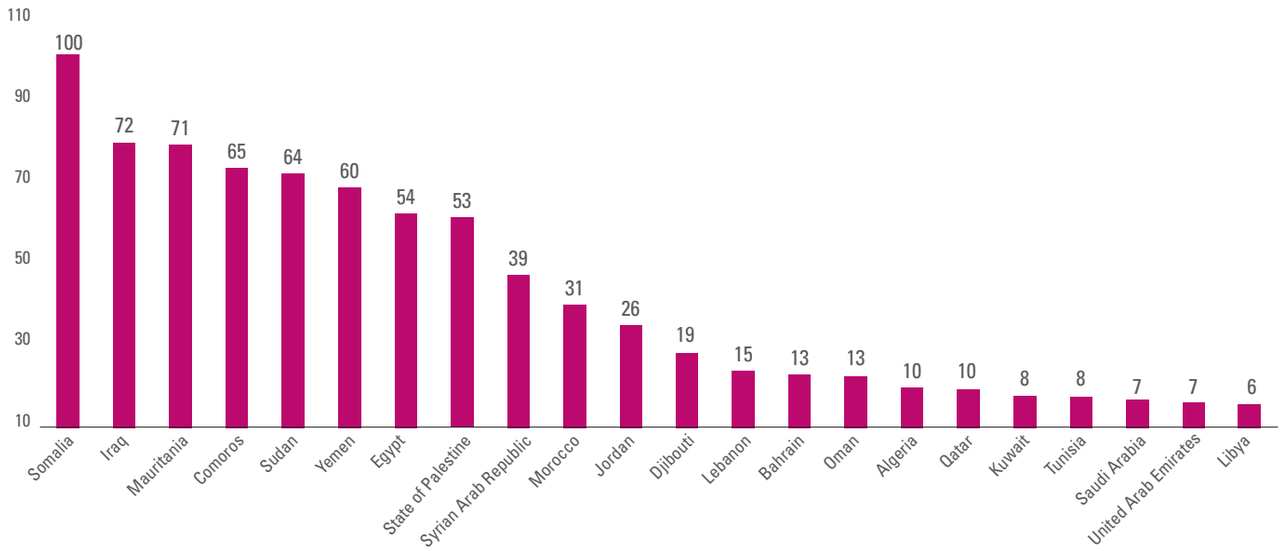
Adolescent pregnancy has negative social and economic effects on girls, their families and communities. Moreover, adolescent pregnancy remains a major contributor to maternal and child mortality, and to intergenerational cycles of ill-health and poverty. Pregnancy and childbirth complications are the leading cause of death among 15 to 19-year-old girls globally, with low- and middle-income countries accounting for 99 per cent of global maternal deaths of women ages 15 to 49 years.[6]

In the Arab region, teenage motherhood was highest in Somalia at a rate of 100 births per 1,000 women aged 15-19, followed by Iraq at a rate of 72 births per 1,000 women aged 15-19. Adolescent birth rates were also high in Mauritania, Comoros, the Sudan and Yemen. Libya had the lowest adolescent birth rate in the region followed by the United Arab Emirates, Saudi Arabia and Tunisia Figure 117.

There is a clear association between the educational attainment of the mother and wealth and adolescent birth rate.

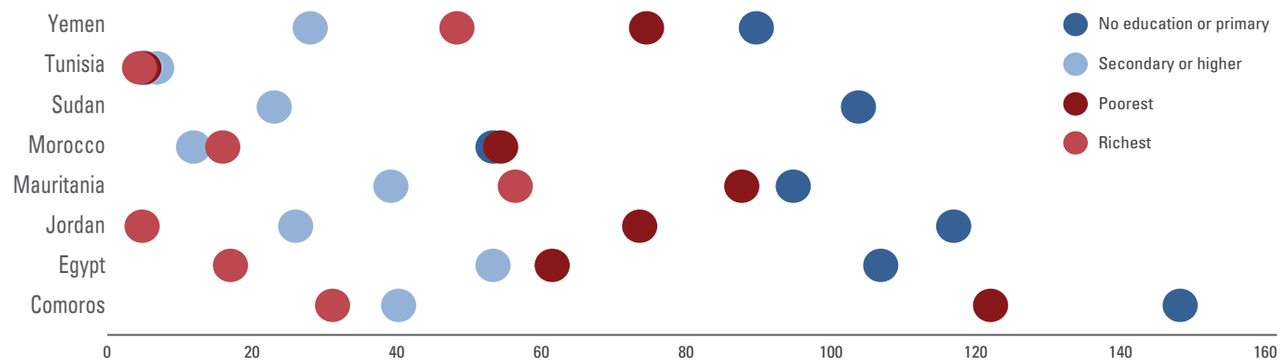
Early birth by young women, as a result of early marriage, increases in poor families and is higher among girls with less educational attainment, as shown in Figure 118. In all the countries with available data, adolescent birth rates were higher among uneducated and poorest girls Figure 118.

Figure 117. Adolescent birth rate (births per 1,000 women), 2015-2020



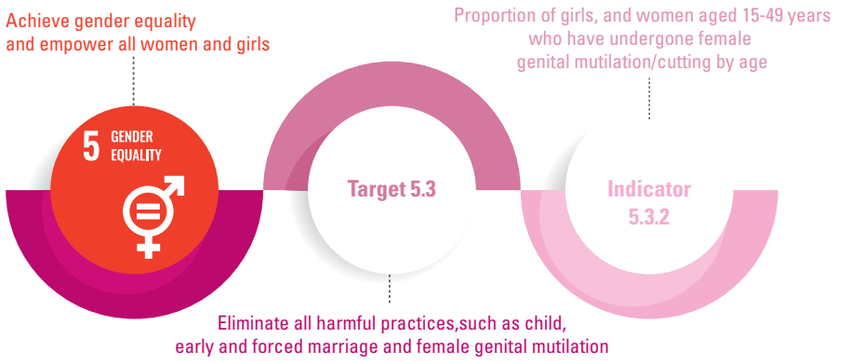
Source: DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019).

Figure 118. Adolescent birth rate (births per 1,000 women) by education and wealth, latest available data



Source: ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler.

D. Female genital mutilation



All women and girls have the right to the highest attainable standard of health. Those who are subjected to FGM have this fundamental right denied them, along with the range of other human rights that FGM violates.[7] Countries where FGM is a common practice have demographic characteristics in common, including relatively young population, high fertility, high mortality and lower urbanization.[8] FGM impact women and girls' well-being in many ways, including severe emotional and physical trauma, potential health risks, including reproductive and sexual health complications, and possible death through loss of blood or sepsis.

Statistics on FGM are typically based on data gathered through the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) or other health-related household surveys. Few of the Arab States countries have produced statistics on this issue with data currently only available for Djibouti, Egypt, Iraq, Mauritania, Somalia, the Sudan and Yemen.

In the 29 countries in the MENA region where of FGM is most common, 133 million girls and women who have undergone the harmful practice. FGM rates in the Arab region run as high as 97.9 per cent in Somalia (2006), 93.1 per cent in Djibouti (2006), 87.2 per cent in Egypt (2015), 86.6 per cent in the Sudan (2014). In Mauritania two thirds of women have underwent FGM in 2015.

Data by age show the practice is in decline, albeit slowly Figure 119. In Egypt, where average rates were among the highest in the region, almost all women aged 45-49 reported having undergone mutilation, whereas the proportion of adolescent girls (age 15-19) was lower at 70 per cent. The age at which cutting occurs varies across the region but is usually between 4 to 12 years old.[9]

In all countries the practice of FGM is more prevalent in rural areas than urban. Data from Iraq show the importance of subnational disaggregation on such issues. While the national average was 5 per cent of adolescent girls and 10 per cent of women aged 45-49 years, rates were much higher in the Erbil region where FGM/C was most prevalent. The practice is apparently based more on tradition than religion and it thought to be for safeguarding a girls' chastity. It is, however, a brutal infringement of human rights and, in recognition of this, is now outlawed in Djibouti, Egypt, Iraq, Mauritania, Somalia, the Sudan, and Yemen, although enforcing these laws remains a challenge[10] Figure 120.

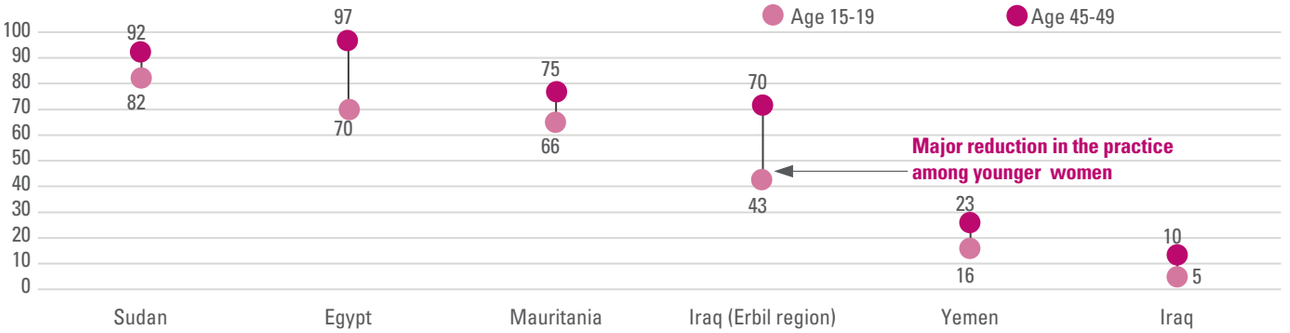
Data on FGM by wealth quintile show a further disparity between poorest and richest population in all the Arab States with available data; poorest girls are at a higher risk of undergoing FGM than richer girls. In Mauritania, for example, there was a gap of 55 percentage points between the richest and poorest girls (poorest 92% and richest 37%). In Egypt the gap between richest and poorest girls undergoing FGM was at 25 percentage points (poorest 94% and richest 70%) Figure 121.

Female Gentile Mutilation
133 million girls and women have experienced **female genital** mutilation in the **29 countries** in **Africa** and the **Middle East** where the harmful practice is most common

Impact

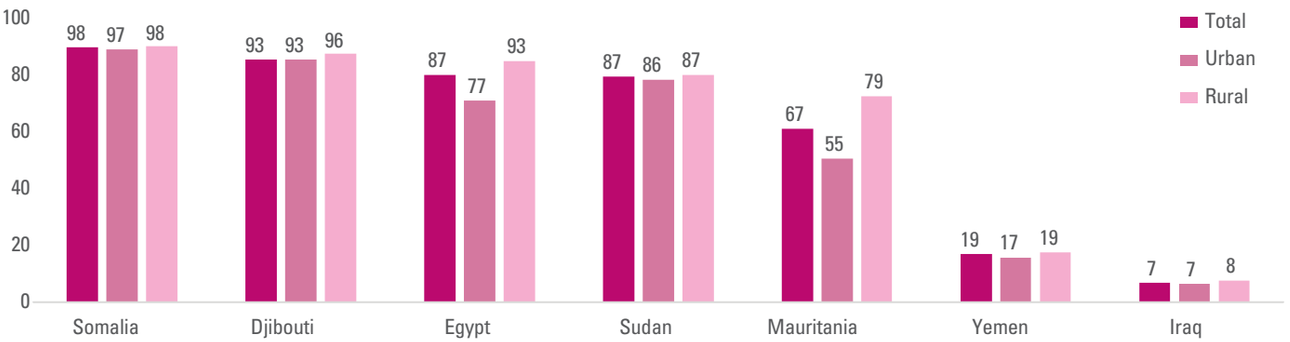
Severe emotional and physical trauma, potential health risks, including reproductive and sexual health complications, and possible death through loss of blood or sepsis.

Figure 119. Proportion of girls aged 15-19 years and women aged 45-49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/ cutting, latest available data (percentage)



Source: UNICEF, "Female Genital Mutilation Country Profiles".

Figure 120. Proportion of women and girls who have undergone female genital mutilation by location, latest available data (percentage)

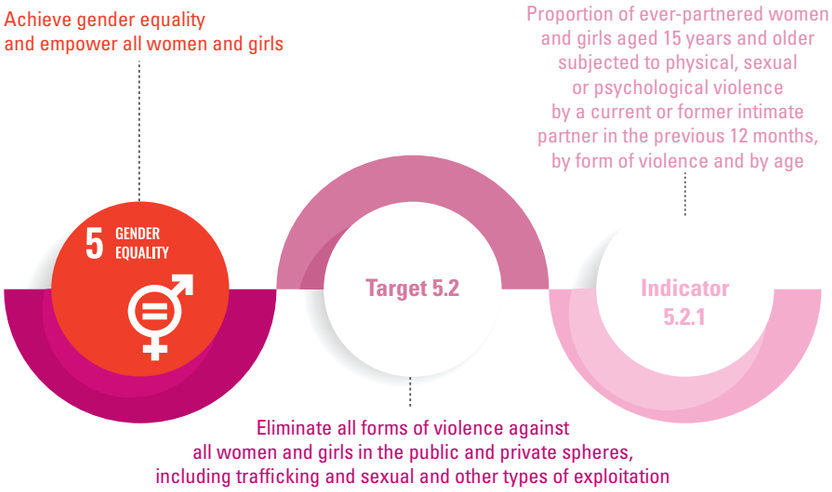


Source: UNICEF global databases 2018, based on DHS, MICS and other nationally representative surveys (last updated on October 2018).

Figure 121. Proportion of women and girls who have undergone female genital mutilation by wealth quintile, latest available data (percentage)

Source: UNICEF global databases 2018, based on DHS, MICS and other nationally representative surveys (last updated on October 2018).

E. Spousal violence



Spousal or intimate partner violence is one of the most widespread forms of violence against women. Globally, it is estimated that one in every three women have been physically and/or sexually assaulted by a current or former husband or boyfriend at some point in their lives. For many women, such violence occurs regularly and, as it occurs behind closed doors, they may be coping with it alone.

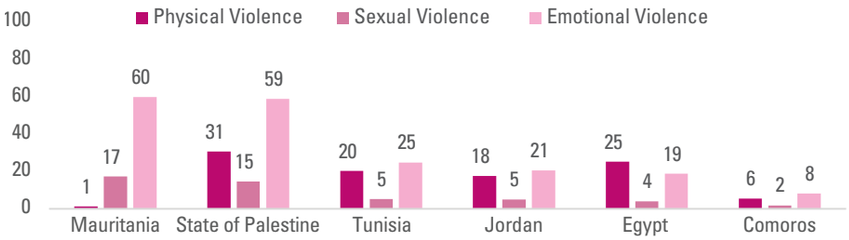
Nine Arab states have conducted stand-alone household surveys on violence against women or have included a module in a health survey like the DHS and MICS. The latest VAW or DHS or other health surveys that included VAW were implemented in: Comoros (DHS 2012), Egypt (VAW survey 2015 and 2019, DHS 2014), Iraq (IWISH 2011), Jordan (DHS 2017), Mauritania (VAW survey 2011), Morocco (VAW survey 2019, DHS 2018), the State of Palestine (VAW survey 2015 and 2019), Somalia (DHS 2019) and Tunisia (VAW survey 2011).

Data on women who have experienced spousal or intimate partner violence during their lifetime are displayed below in Figure 122. In the State of Palestine, 31 per cent of women reported being subject to physical violence, followed by Egypt (25%), Tunisia (20%), Jordan (18%), Comoros (6%) and Mauritania (1%). Even though women in all six countries except Mauritania experienced less sexual violence than physical violence, data from the State of Palestine showed a high rate of women reported experiencing sexual violence at 14.6 per cent, followed by Tunisia (5%), Jordan (5%), Egypt (4%) and Comoros (2%).

Out of the three forms of violence, emotional violence was the highest in all countries except Egypt. Mauritania reported highest emotional violence (60%) in the region, followed by the State of Palestine (59%), Tunisia (25%) and Jordan (21%). In Egypt, however, emotional violence was the second most common form of violence that women experienced at 19 per cent. One can observe a pattern in the countries that when sexual violence was reported in high rates so was emotional violence Figure 122.

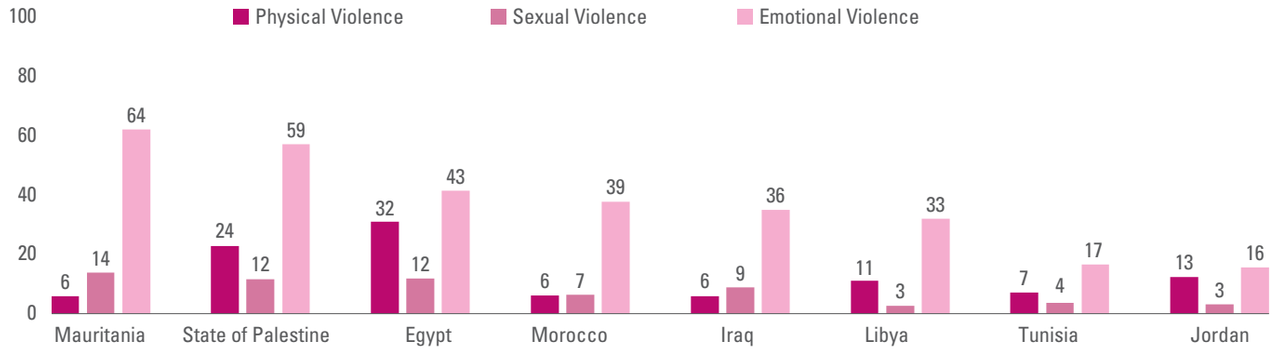
Figure 123 shows the proportion of women who have experienced spousal violence in the last 12 months. Physical violence was highest in Egypt at 32 per cent, followed by the State of Palestine (24%), Jordan (13%), Libya (11%), Tunisia (7%), Iraq, Morocco and Mauritania (6%). Sexual violence was most prevalent in Mauritania (14%) then Egypt and the State of Palestine (12%), Iraq (9%), Morocco (7%), Tunisia (4%) and Libya and Jordan (3%). Although physical violence was lowest in Mauritania, emotional violence was the highest at 64 per cent, followed by the State of Palestine (59%), Egypt (43%), Morocco (39%), Iraq (36%), Libya (33%), Tunisia (17%) and Jordan (16%).

Figure 122. Proportion of ever-partnered women who have experienced spousal violence during their lifetime, by country and type of violence, latest available data (percentage)



Source: Latest DHS and VAW surveys.

Figure 123. Proportion of ever-partnered women who have experienced spousal violence in the last 12 months, by country and type of violence, latest available data (percentage)



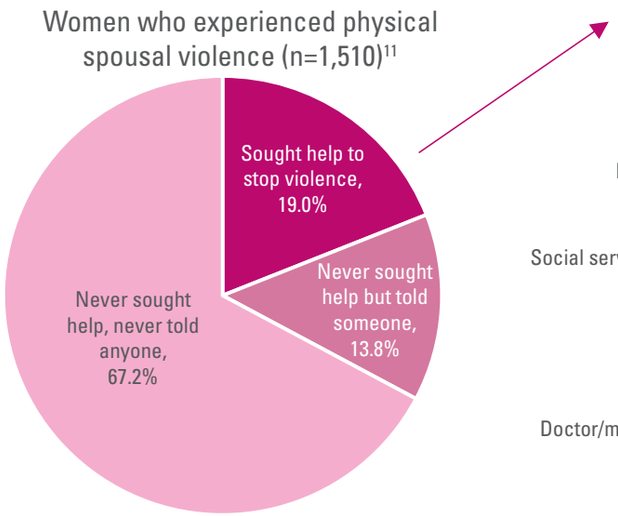
Source: Latest DHS and VAW surveys.

How women cope with spousal violence?

Women who experience spousal violence are unlikely to seek help from anyone or from authorities unless the violence has become intolerable. A study on domestic violence in Jordan showed that 67 per cent of the women who had experienced physical spousal violence never told anyone and never sought help, compared to 19 per cent of women who did seek help Figure 124. Almost all of these women turned to family (77%), friends or neighbours for help. Only 2 per cent of women who sought help went to the police and around 3 per cent turned to a social service organization Figure 125.

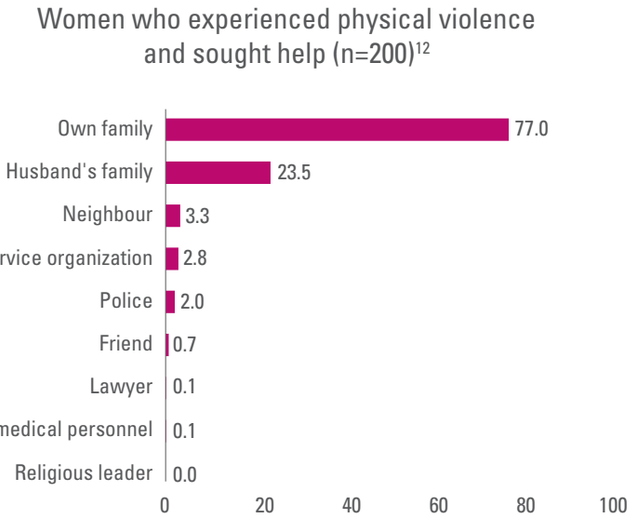
Violence against women and girls is a major human rights and a gender issue with significant costs. Only seven countries enacted laws to end violence against women and girls in the Arab States. Women who experience spousal violence are unlikely to seek help from anyone or from authorities.

Figure 124. Help seeking to stop violence, Jordan, 2017-2018



Sources: Jordan DHS 2017-2018.

Figure 125. Source of help to stop violence, Jordan, 2017-2018

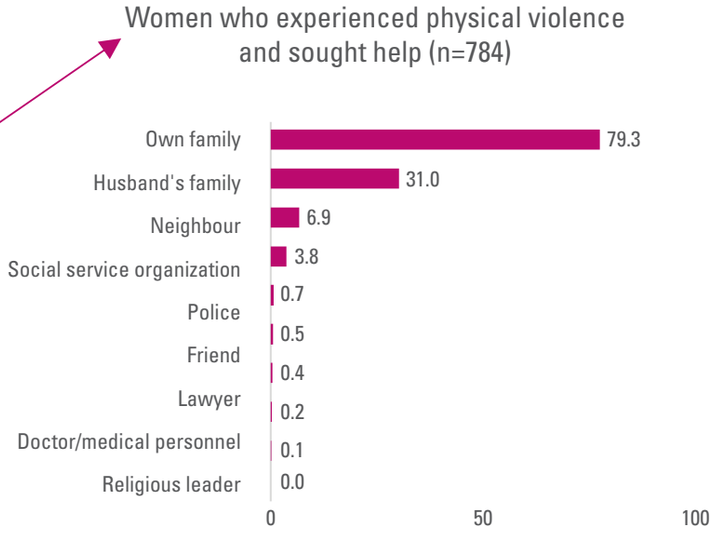


Sources: Jordan DHS 2017-2018.

Figure 126. Help seeking to stop violence, Egypt, 2014

Source: Egypt DHS 2014.

Figure 127. Source of help to stop violence, Egypt, 2014

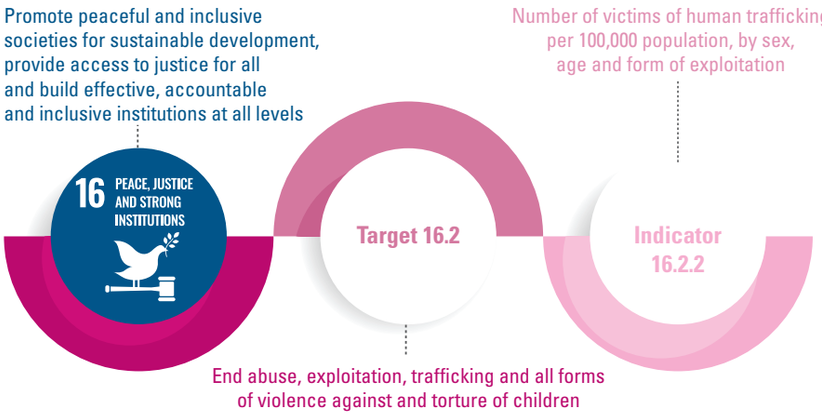


Source: Egypt DHS 2014.

The Egypt 2014 Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) shows similar results to Jordan. Almost half of the women (49%) who had experienced physical spousal violence never told anyone and never sought help, compared to 33 per cent of women who sought help Figure 126. The main sources for help were own family (79%) and less than 1 per cent resorted to the police, a lawyer or a religious leader. None resorted to social service organizations Figure 127.

F. Trafficking

The Middle East record sizable shares of adult forced labour as the main form of victims trafficked from other regions



According to the definition given in the United Nations protocol, trafficking in persons has three constituent elements: the act (recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons), the means (threat or use of force, coercion, abduction, fraud, deception, abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability, or giving payments or benefits to a person in control over another person), and the purpose (at minimum exploiting the prostitution of others, sexual exploitation, forced labour, slavery or similar practices and the removal of organs).[13]

The definition implies that the exploitation does not need to be in place, as the intention by traffickers to exploit the victim is sufficient to define a trafficking offence. Furthermore, the list of exploitative forms is not limited, which means that other forms of exploitation may emerge, and they could be considered as additional forms of trafficking offences.

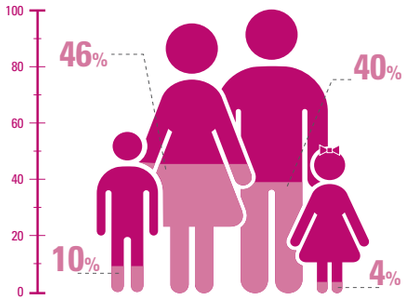
In terms of shares of detected victims of trafficking persons globally in 2016, nearly half were women (49%) and one fifth were men (21%), and there were more girls than boys at 23 per cent and 7 per cent, respectively.

In the MENA region,[14] however, the vast majority of the detected victims with slightly more women (46%) than men (40%). Relatively few child victims were detected contrary to many other regions, boys (10%) more than girls (4%) Figure 128.

Trafficking for the purpose of forced labour was more than half (55%) of the detected victims in the MENA region. Trafficking for sexual exploitation constituted 36 per cent for sexual exploitation, and some 9 per cent for 'other' forms of exploitation, during the reporting period of 2014-2016 Figure 129.

Abduction of women and girls for sexual slavery had also been reported in conflict areas and trafficked women and girls are forced to marry in the Middle East. Recruitment of children for use as armed combatants is widely documented in many of the conflict areas including the Middle East.[15]

Figure 128. Shares of detected victims of trafficking in MENA, by age group and sex, 2016



Source: United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons 2018* (New York, 2018).

Figure 129. Share of detected victims of trafficking in MENA, by forms of exploitation, 2016

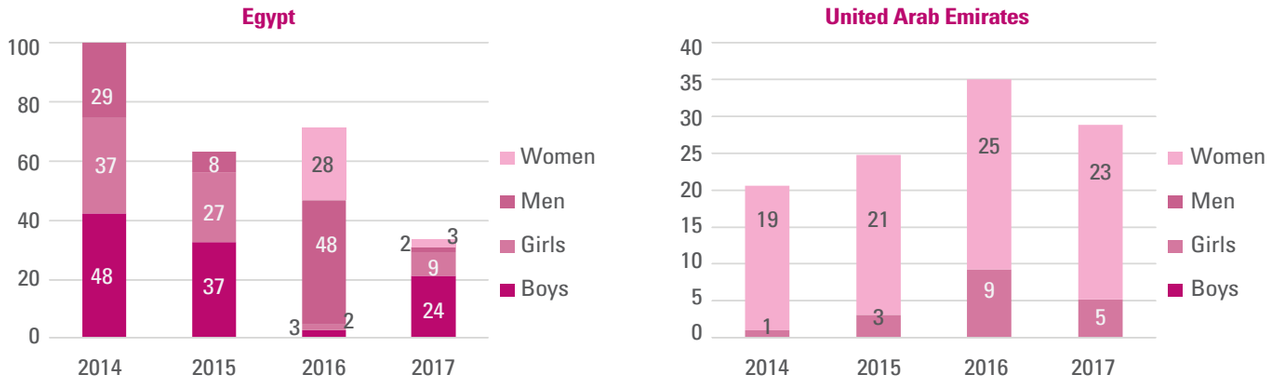
Source: UNODC, *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons 2018* (New York, 2018).

Enhanced country-level anti-trafficking measures have not only led to increasing numbers of detected victims Figure 130, but also to more trafficking convictions. MENA countries went from no convictions to a handful of convictions per year in recent years. While these countries register an increasing trend, the total numbers remain very low. MENA shares of traffickers convicted in their country of citizenship is 10 per cent, the lowest recorded rates among other regions.[16] The share of females convicted of trafficking in persons are estimated at 22 per cent in comparison to males.[17]

Rapid improvements took place in the last few years as a number of countries amended their criminal codes to introduce a trafficking offence in line with the United Nations Trafficking in Persons Protocol definition. In the MENA region, only a couple of countries have not yet introduced specific trafficking legislation.[18]

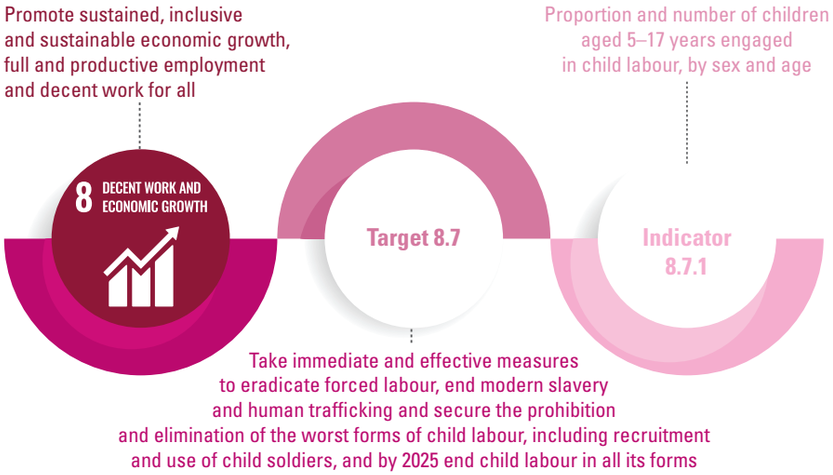
Abduction of women and girls for sexual slavery and recruitment of children for use as armed combatants is widely documented in many of the conflict areas.

Figure 130. Number of victims of trafficking in persons detected, by age and sex, 2014 – 2017, in Egypt and the United Arab Emirates (percentage)



Source: UNODC, *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons 2018* (New York, 2018).

G. Child labour

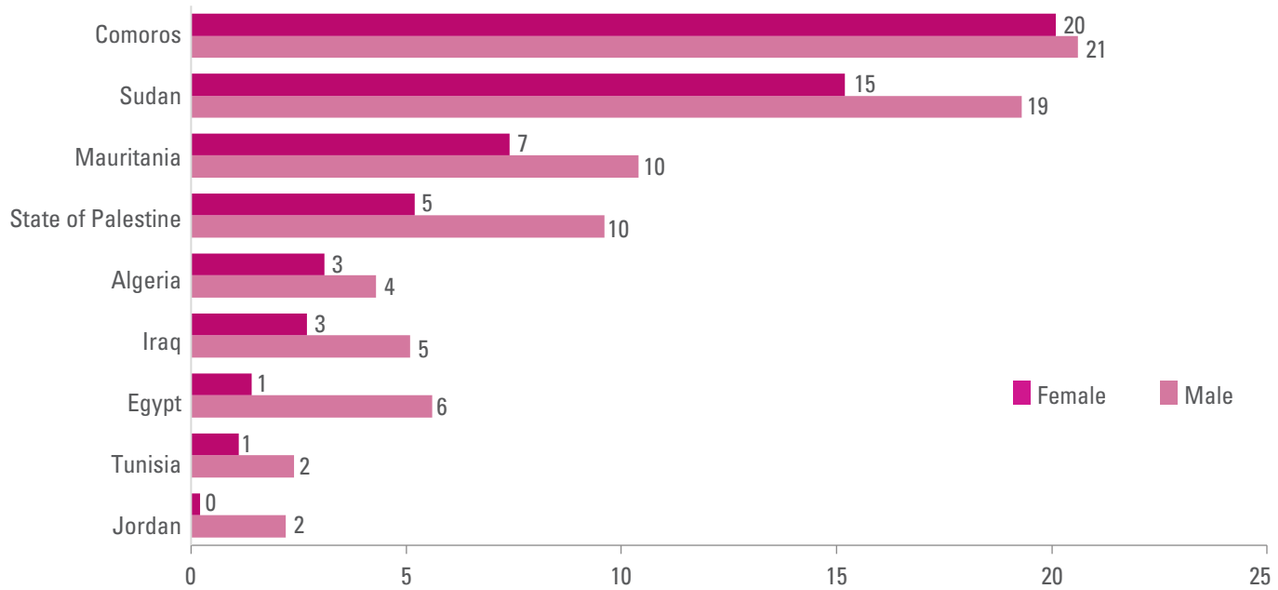


Far too many children in the world remain trapped in child labour, compromising their individual futures. According to the latest ILO global estimates, about 168 million children worldwide are child labourers, accounting for almost 11 per cent of the child population. These stark figures underscore the need for accelerated progress against child labour in the lead up to the 2025 target date to end child labour in all its forms, and the accompanying need for child labour statistics to monitor and guide efforts in this regard.[19]

Figure 131 below shows that male children were more likely to engage in economic activity than female children in the Arab region. One fifth of the children aged 5 to 14 years old in Comoros were engaged in economic activity. The Sudan also employed high numbers of children in economic activity. There was around one in every seven female children engaged in economic activity in comparison to two in every 10 male children in the Sudan.

The largest gender gaps were in favour of males were witnessed in Egypt, the State of Palestine and the Sudan around 4 percentage points, followed by Mauritania at 3 percentage points. In the remaining countries, namely Algeria, Comoros, Iraq, Jordan, and Tunisia, the gender gap was less than 2 percentage points.

Figure 131. Proportion of children engaged in economic activity (percentage)



Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

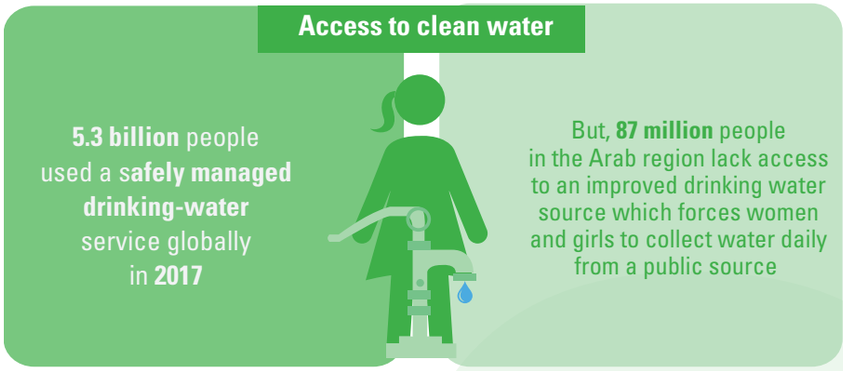
Chapter 9
Environment

Lack of access to basic and improved water and sanitation services remains a challenge in many Arab countries, especially for poor households and those living in rural areas. Women and girls' death attributed to unsafe water, unsafe sanitation and lack of hygiene is higher than men's.

Many still do not have full access to clean fuels and technology, and only a handful of countries have full access to electricity. The burden of not having access to those services falls more on women, because they are mostly responsible for cooking and domestic chores.

Environment

Women and men interact differently with the environment and its natural resources and these gender dynamics were one of the issues identified in the Beijing Platform for Action.[1] Access to clean water and management of energy sources, such as cooking fuel, is mostly undertaken by women. The burden of not having access to electricity falls more on women because they are mostly responsible for cooking and domestic chores.



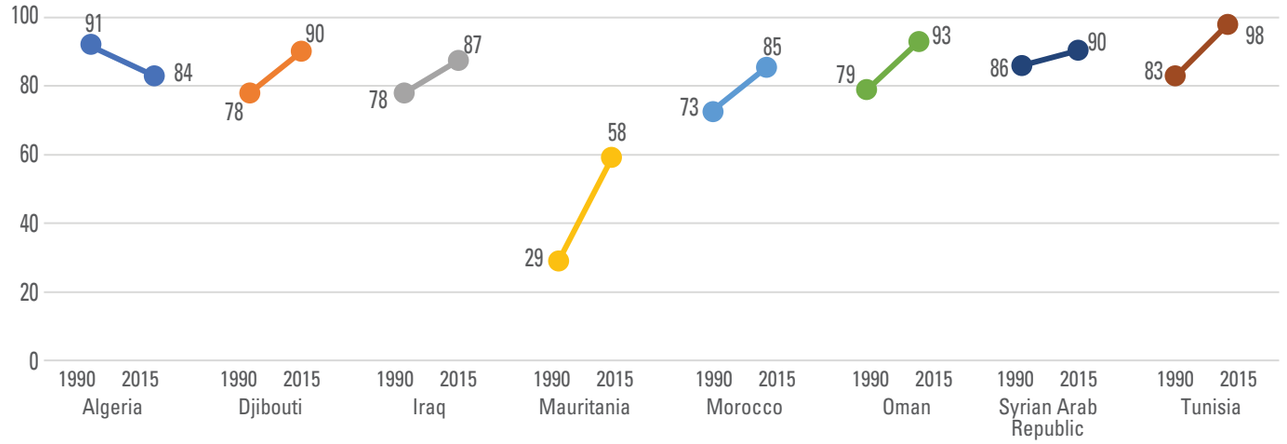
A. Drinking water sources

The right to safe, clean drinking water is a human right.[2] Access to improved drinking water sources is virtually universal in developed regions and has been improving in developing regions. Sub-Saharan Africa accounts for half of the world's population that does not have access to improved drinking water sources.[3] About 87 million people in the region lack access to an improved drinking water source in their homes which force them to collect water daily from a public source which is mostly undertaken by women and girls.

Encouragingly, between 1990 and 2015, the majority of countries increased access to improved drinking water sources, in Tunisia by 15 percentage points, Oman by 14 percentage points, Djibouti and Morocco by 12 percentage points, Iraq by 9 percentage points and in the case of Mauritania the proportion doubled (from 29% to 58%). However, access to improved drinking water sources decreased in Algeria from 91% in 1990 to 84% in 2015. During the same period Comoros, Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates maintained their rates at 90%, 99% and 100%, respectively Figure 132.

Data on population living in households using an improved water source by location and wealth show the poorest households and those with significant proportion of their population living in rural areas remain the least likely to have access to improved water sources. In Mauritania, for example,

Figure 132. Trend in population with access to improved drinking water sources in selected countries, 1990 and 2015 (percentage)

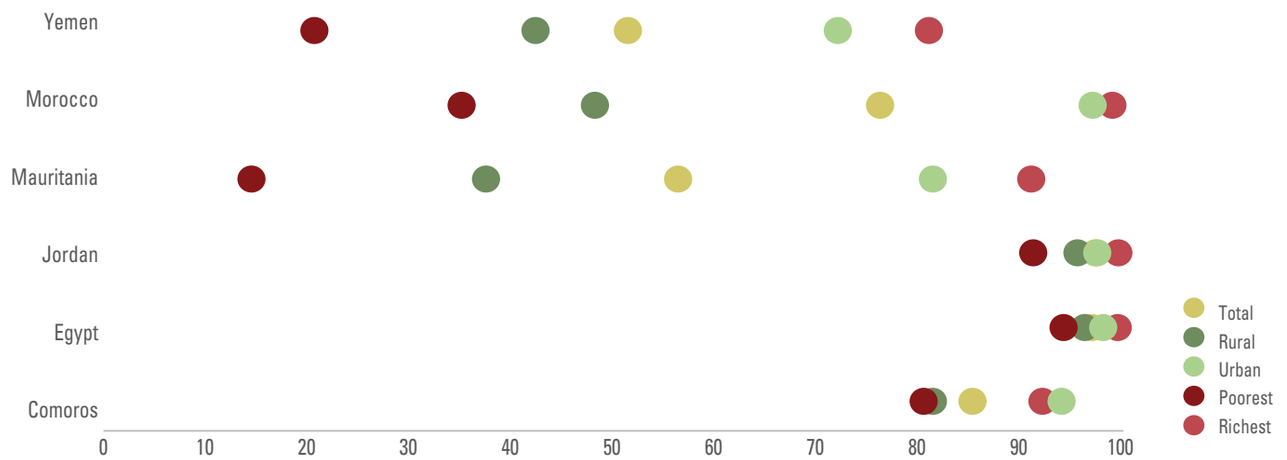


Source: UNICEF and WHO, *Progress on Sanitation and Drinking Water: 2015 Update and MDG Assessment* (Geneva, 2015).

only 46 per cent of rural population and only 24 per cent of the poorest people live in households using an improved water source in comparison to 84 per cent urban people and 93 per cent of wealthiest. Similarly, in Yemen 50 per cent of rural population and 31 per cent of the poorest population live in households using improved water source, while 76 per cent of urban and 84 per cent of wealthiest Figure 133.

In fact, Yemen has been struggling for decades with acute water shortages and lack of access to safe water, causing serious health problems, particularly in children. In December 2017, WHO, the World Food Programme (WFP) and UNICEF put out a statement declaring the country was in a water crisis and that "safe water is now completely unaffordable for more than two thirds of Yemenis living in extreme poverty."[4] The cost of diesel fuel had skyrocketed and most of the water for cities was pumped or delivered by trucks to rural areas.

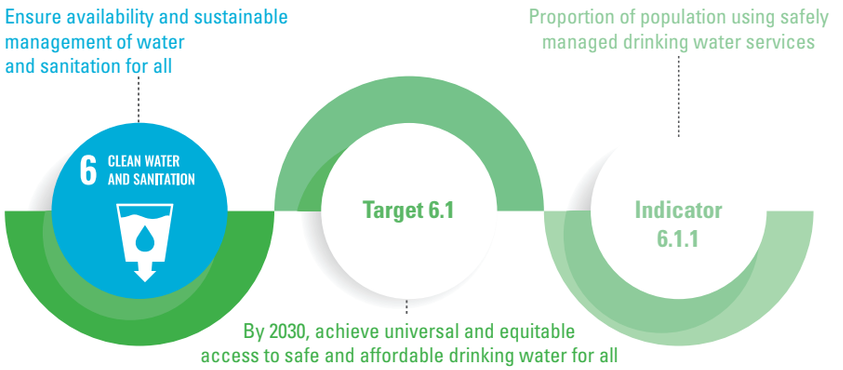
Figure 133. Population living in households using an improved water source by location and wealth, latest year (percentage)



Source: ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler.

B. Water services

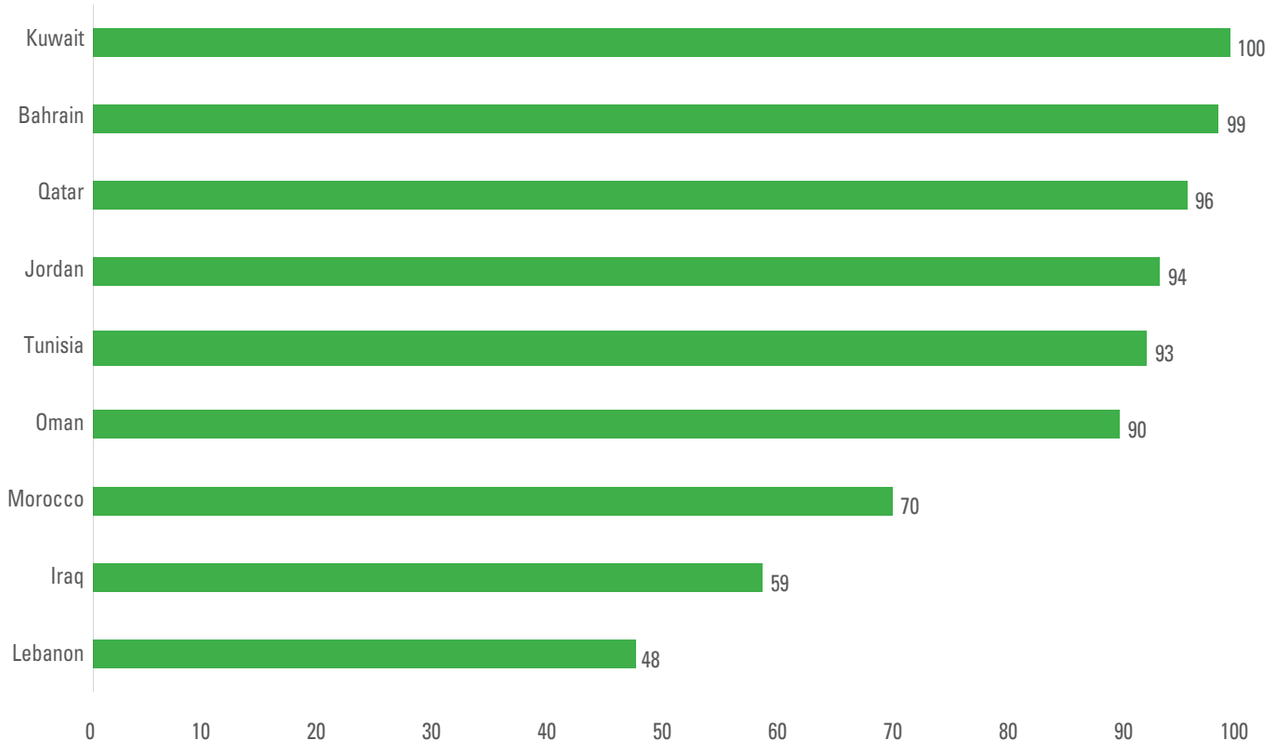
In 2017, 5.3 billion people used safely managed drinking water services.[5] In the Arab region, 89 per cent of the population were using safely managed drinking water services. The majority of population in GCC used safely managed drinking water services (over 90%).



However, the rates were still lagging in Iraq (59%) where less than half of rural population could not use safely managed drinking water services. Similarly, in Morocco, while the overall average was 70 per cent, only 1 in 4 people in rural areas could use safely managed drinking water services. As per available data, Lebanon reported the lowest rate at 48 per cent of population in the country that had access to use safely managed drinking water services Figure 134.

In **Lebanon**
nearly half of the population were not using
safely managed drinking water services

Figure 134. Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services, 2017 (percentage)

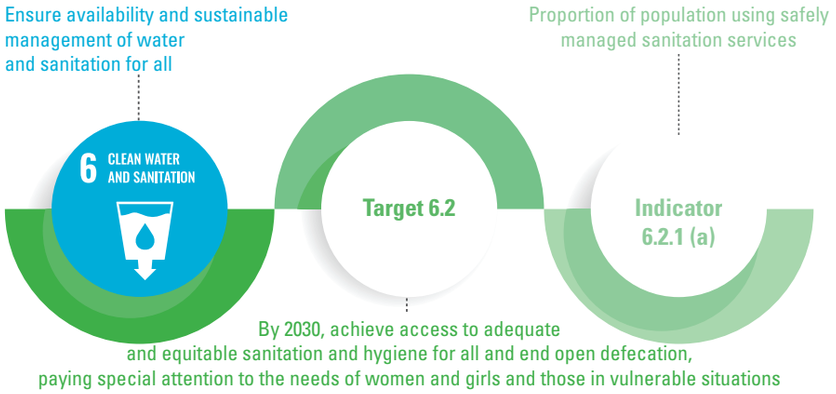


Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

C. Sanitation services

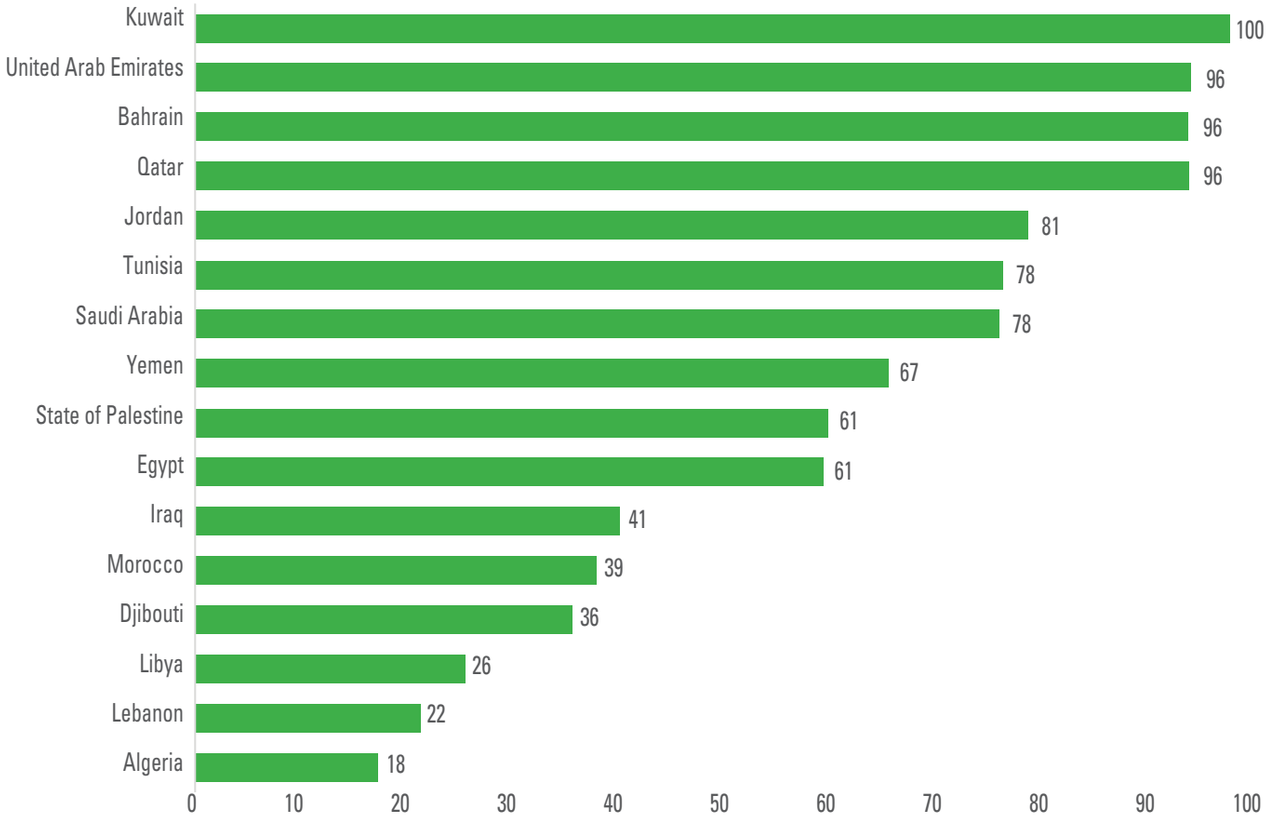
Population using a safely managed sanitation services are defined by those population not shared with other households and where excreta are safely disposed in situ or transported to a designated place for safe disposal or treatment.[6] In 2017, 3.4 billion people used safely managed sanitation services.[7]

In 2017, only third of the population (31%) used safely managed sanitation services in the Arab States.



The use of safely managed sanitation services varies among Arab countries widely. Kuwait, for example, recorded highest proportion of population using safely managed sanitation at a 100 per cent followed by the United Arab Emirates (96%), Bahrain (96%), Qatar (96%) and Jordan (81%) Figure 135.

Figure 135. Proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services, 2017 (percentage)



Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

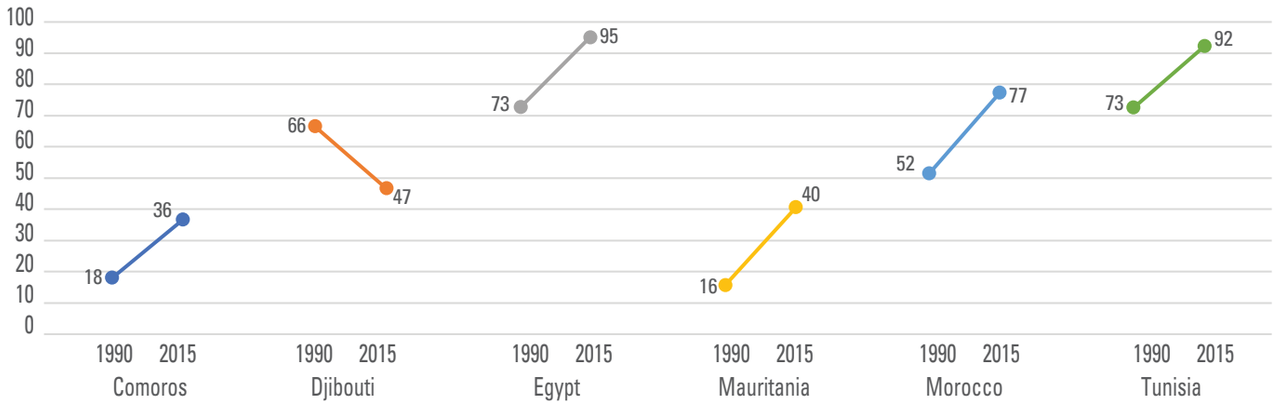
D. Sanitation facilities

Use of improved sanitation facilities had improved in the 25 years between 1990 and 2015 in almost all the countries, with available estimates.

Significant progress was made in Egypt by 22 percentage points, Mauritania by 24 percentage points and Morocco by 25 percentage points during the 25 years. Djibouti, however, have regressed by 19 percentage points and Qatar by 2 percentage points Figure 136.

Despite progress achieved, less than half the population in Djibouti (47%), Mauritania (40%), Comoros (36%), Libya (26%), Lebanon (22%) and Algeria (18%) had access to improved sanitation facilities, as per latest data.

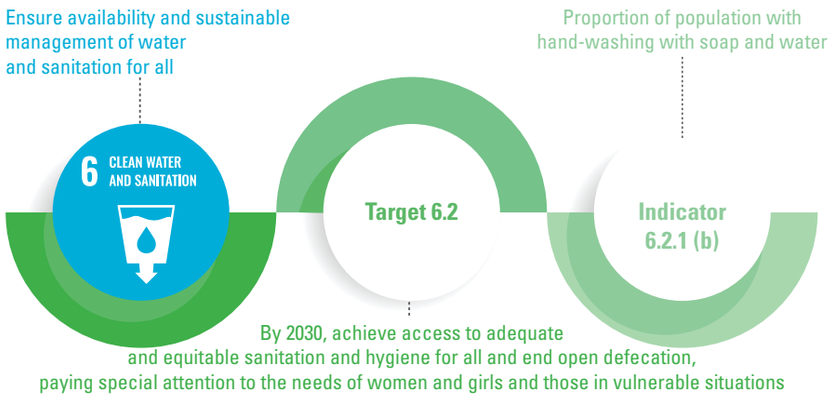
Figure 136. Trend in population with access to improved sanitation in selected countries, 1990 and 2015 (percentage)



Source: UNICEF and WHO, *Progress on Sanitation and Drinking Water: 2015 Update and MDG Assessment* (Geneva, 2015).

E. Hand-washing facilities

Hygiene is multifaceted and can comprise many behaviours, including hand washing, menstrual hygiene and food hygiene. International consultations identified hand washing with soap and water as a top priority in all settings, and also as a suitable indicator for national and global monitoring. In 2017, only 60 per cent of the global population had basic handwashing facilities with soap and water available at home.[8] In the Arab region around 74 million people lacked access to a basic handwashing facility.

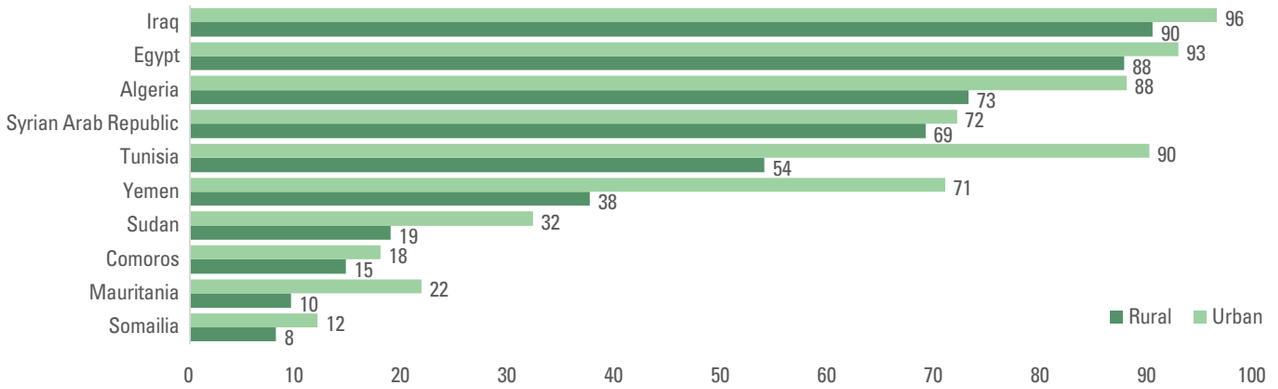


In the Arab States, the presence of hand washing facilities with soap and water on premises vary among urban and rural areas. In all the countries, the proportion of population with basic hand

Less than **35%** of population in **Somalia, Mauritania, Comoros and Sudan** with access to **hand washing facility** with soap and water

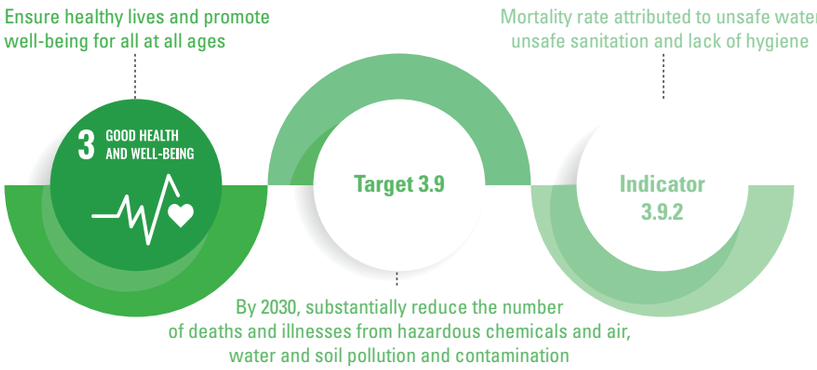
washing facilities on premises is higher in urban areas compared to rural areas as per 2017 estimates. Tunisia, for example, recorded a proportion of urban population with basic hand washing facilities at 90 per cent, while the rural area in Tunisia was at 54 per cent only. Iraq recorded the highest percentage in both rural and urban areas (90% and 96%, respectively), while Somalia recorded the lowest proportion (8% and 12%, respectively) Figure 137.

Figure 137. Proportion of population with basic hand washing facilities on premises by location, 2017 (percentage)



Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

F. Mortality due to unsafe water and sanitation

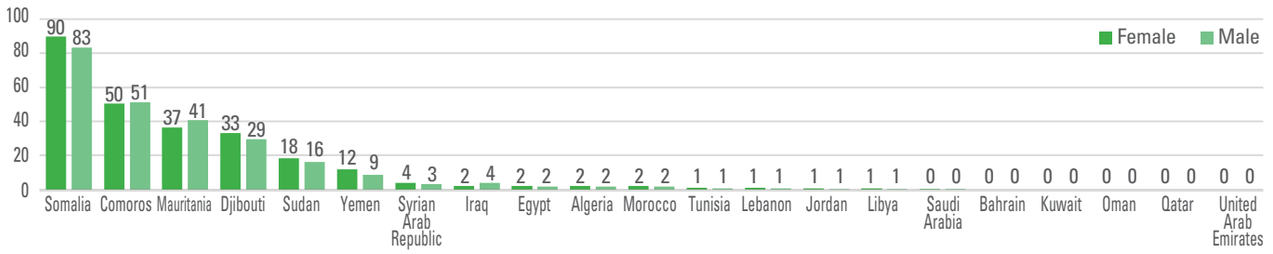


WHO and UNICEF estimate that 1 in 3 people do not have access to safe drinking water. Some 2.2 billion people around the world do not have safely managed drinking water services, 4.2 billion people do not have safely managed sanitation services, and 3 billion lack basic handwashing facilities.[9] In the Arab region, despite increase in population using at least basic sanitation services (83%), only 31 per cent of population had access to safely managed sanitation services in 2017.

Unsafe hygiene practices are widespread, compounding the negative effects on people's health. The impact on child mortality rates is devastating, with more than 297,000 children under five who die annually from diarrhoeal diseases due to poor sanitation, poor hygiene or unsafe drinking water. The benefits of having access to an improved drinking water source can only be fully realized when there is also access to improved sanitation and adherence to good hygiene practices. Beyond the immediate and obvious advantages of people being hydrated and healthier, access to water, sanitation and hygiene – known collectively as WASH – has profound wider socioeconomic impacts, particularly for women and girls.

In 2016, the Arab region had 7.4 deaths per 100,000 population due to WASH, with high mortality rates among women and girls. Somalia had the highest rates among Arab countries with a mortality rate of 90 per cent of women and girls and 83 per cent of men and boys attributed to unsafe water, unsafe sanitation and lack of hygiene. In Comoros, nearly half of the death rates for both females and males were attributed to unsafe water, unsafe sanitation and lack of hygiene, followed by Mauritania at 37 per cent for women and girls and 41 per cent for men and boys. Countries like the Syrian Arab Republic, Iraq, Egypt, Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia, Lebanon, Jordan and Libya had less than 5 per cent of deaths attributed to unsafe water, unsafe sanitation and lack of hygiene. The Gulf countries - Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates - had no cases of death reported Figure 138.

Figure 138. Mortality rate attributed to unsafe water, unsafe sanitation and lack of hygiene, 2016 (percentage)

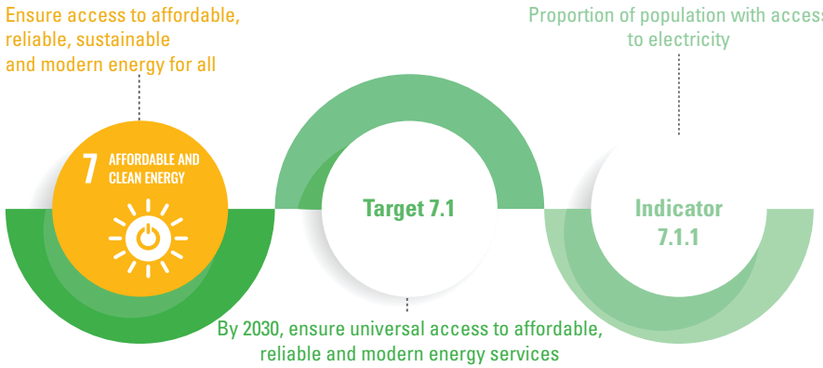


Source: WHO, Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 07 February 2019).

G. Access to electricity

Access to electricity is important for several reasons. Where people do not have access to sources of electricity, potential pollution, work, safety and health issues develop. The burden of not having access to electricity falls more on women because they are mostly responsible for cooking and domestic chores. If heating for cooking relies on firewood women bear the effort required to gather firewood.

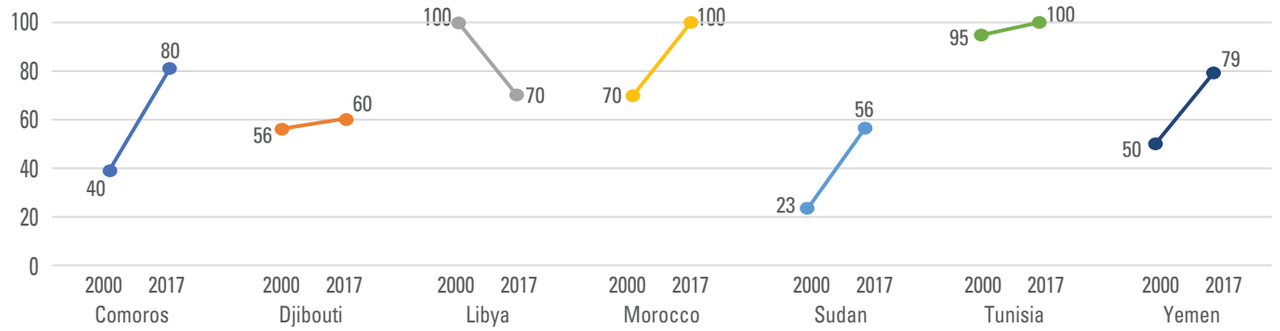
In 2000, 78 per cent of the world's population had access to electricity. By 2017 that proportion has risen to 89 per cent. Since 2000 only four countries, namely: Kuwait, the State of Palestine, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates, had 100 per cent of their population with access to electricity.



Access to electricity has improved significantly in four countries; in Djibouti and the Sudan to 56 per cent, and in Comoros and Yemen to 80 per cent.

Comoros had the highest increase by 40 percentage points so now 80 per cent of its population have access to electricity. Morocco, the Sudan and Yemen progressed by 30 percentage points and Tunisia improved by 5 percentage points. Djibouti improved only by 4 percentage points and 40 per cent of its population remain

Figure 139. Trend in population with access to electricity in selected countries, 2000 and 2017 (percntage)



Source: World Bank, "Access to electricity (% of population), 2000 and 2017", World Bank Data.

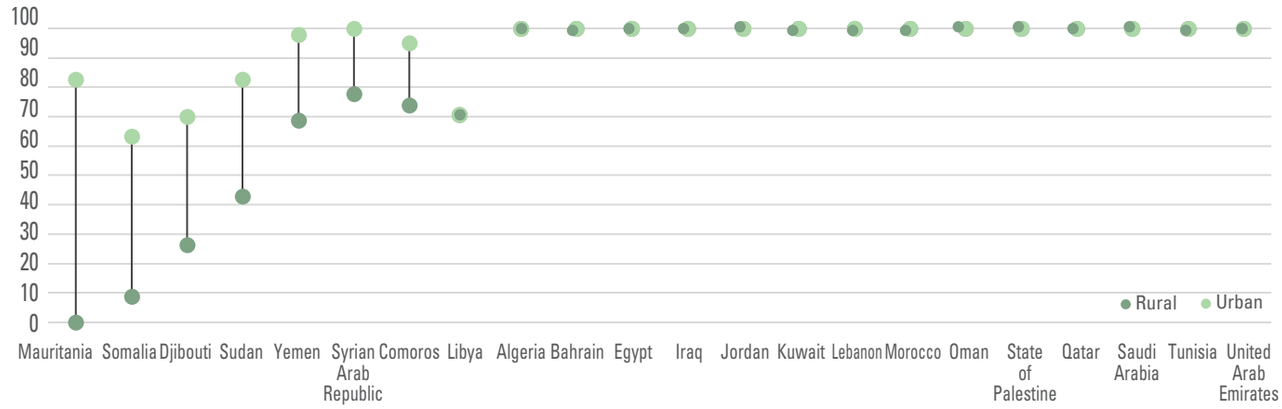
with no access to electricity in 2017. In Libya access to electricity has been regressing over the years with a drop of 30 percentage points from a full coverage in 2000 to 70 per cent in 2017 Figure 139.

only **56%** of population in the **Sudan** have access to **Electricity** in 2017

In the Arab States the access to electricity varies among rural and urban areas. In Mauritania, Somalia, Djibouti, the Sudan, Yemen, Syrian Arab Republic and Comoros the proportion of access to electricity is higher in urban areas compared to rural areas as per 2017 estimates. However, in the remaining countries there is full coverage of access to electricity in both urban and rural areas. In Libya, urban and rural areas had the same access at 70 per cent.

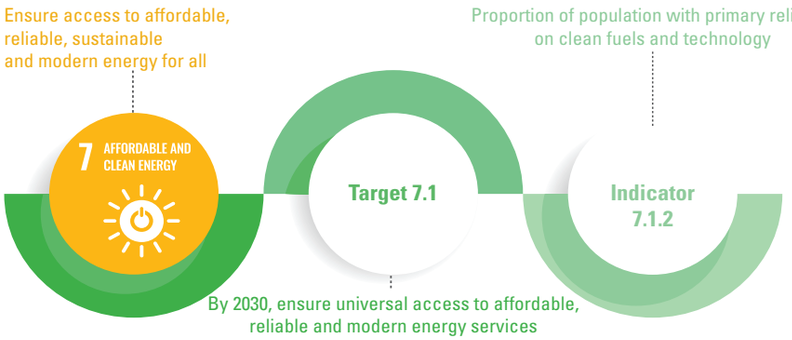
The highest gap between rural and urban areas was in Mauritania. Population in rural areas had no access to electricity while urban population access was at 83 per cent. Mauritania had the highest gap among at 83 percentage points, while Somalia had a gap of 54 percentage points (rural 9% and urban 63%). Comoros, on the other hand, recorded the lowest gap between rural and urban areas at 21 percentage points (rural 74% and urban 95%). There was no gap between rural and urban areas in access to electricity in the rest of the countries Figure 140.

Figure 140. Gap between rural and urban areas of population with access to electricity, 2017 (percentage)



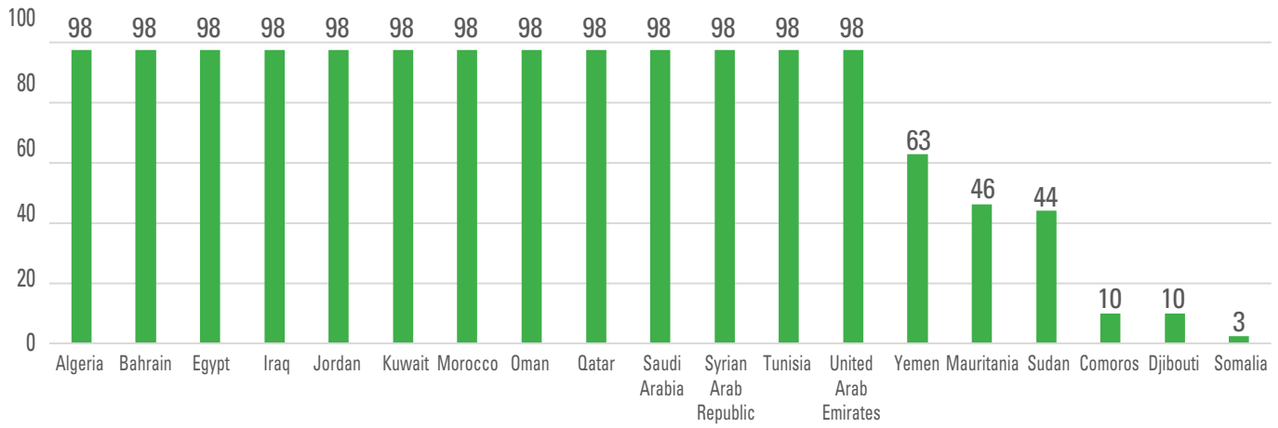
Source: World Bank, "Access to electricity (% of population), 2017", World Bank Data.

H. Clean fuels and technology



In 2017, in almost all the countries with available data, the population had access to clean fuels and technology, with rates exceeding 95 per cent. However, the coverage was not as successful in six other countries. The proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology in Yemen was only 63 per cent, Mauritania 46 per cent, the Sudan 44 per cent. Moreover, the remaining three countries had 10 per cent or less of their population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology, namely Comoros and Djibouti (10%), and Somalia (3%) Figure 141.

Figure 141. Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology, latest available data (percentage)



Source: UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.

Endnotes

Endnotes

CHAPTER 1: The Arab States under a Gender Lens

1. Gender and Development Network, *Achieving Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment in the Post-2015 Framework* (London, January 2013).
2. ESCWA, *Against Wind and Tides: A Review of the Status of Women and Gender Equality in the Arab Region, 20 Years after the Adoption of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action,* E/ESCWA/ECW/2015/3 (New York, 2016).
3. CEDAW was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1979.
4. Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), Arab Charter on Human Rights, Tunis, May 2004 (Excerpts). Available at https://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/RuleOfLaw/CompilationDemocracy/Pages/ArabCharter.aspx
5. United Nations, *Cairo Declaration on Human Rights in Islam* (05 August 1990).
6. United Nations, About the Sustainable Development Goals. Available at https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/
7. United Nations Statistics Division, Inter-agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics (IAEG-GS), *Gender-relevant SDG Indicators (80 indicators)* (updated on 14 March 2018).
8. Ibid.
9. Ibid.

CHAPTER 2: Population

1. DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019).
2. United Nations, Treaty series, vol. 521 (Retrieved 15 March 2019). Available at https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=TREATY&mtdsg_no=XVI-3&chapter=16&lang=en
3. World Policy Analysis Centre, *Changing Children's Chances: New Findings on Child Policy Worldwide by Jody Heyman and Kristin McNeill* (Los Angeles, 2013).
4. Annual Review of Sociology, The Economic Costs of Marital Dissolution: Why Do Women Bear a Disproportionate Cost? by Karen C. Holden and Pamela J. Smock, vol. 17 (1991), pp. 51-78. Available at https://www.annualreviews.org/doi/abs/10.1146/annurev.so.17.080191.000411
5. World Bank, *Divorce, Widowhood and Women's Welfare in Africa* (November 2017).

CHAPTER 3: Health and Well-being

1. *E/ESCWA/ECW/2015/3.*
2. UNIFEM, *Progress of Arab Women 2004* (New York, 19 March 2007).
3. UNSD, *Handbook on civil registration, vital statistics and identity management systems: Communication for development, (Draft)* (New York, August 2019).
4. Pacific Community, *Civil Registration and Vital Statistics and the Sustainable Development Goals* (Noumea, New Caledonia, 2016).
5. WHO, Global Health Observatory data, Noncommunicable diseases, Available at https://www.who.int/gho/ncd/en/ (accessed on 12 May 2018).
6. Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME), "GBD Compare Data Visualization". Available at http://vizhub.healthdata.org/gbd-compare (accessed on 14 May 2018).
7. The MENA region includes Afghanistan, Algeria, Bahrain, Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, the State of Palestine, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, the Sudan, the Syrian Arab Republic, Tunisia, Turkey, the United Arab Emirates, and Yemen.
8. WHO, Mental Health, "Suicide data". Available at https://www.who.int/mental_health/prevention/suicide/suicideprevent/en/
9. United Nations, *Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action*, Paras. 17 & 92 (Beijing, 4-15 September 1995).
10. Our World in Data, "Fertility Rate" by Max Roser (Published on 2 December 2017). Available at https://ourworldindata.org/fertility-rate
11. ESCWA, *Demographic Profile of the Arab Region: Realizing*

the Demographic Dividend, E/ESCWA/SDD/2016/Technical Paper.3 (Beirut 2016).
12. UNFPA, *State of World Population 2019: Unfinished Business- the pursuit of rights and choices for all* (New York, 2019).
13. UNFPA, *Annual report 2016: Millions of lives transformed* (New York, 2016).
14. UNFPA, *Outlook 25th Anniversary Issue*, vol. 25, No. 1 (November 2008).
15. UNFPA, *Annual Report 2016*.
16. Ibid.
17. UNFPA, *State of World Population 2019*.
18. UNICEF, *Progress for Children, Beyond averages: learning from the MDGs* (New York, 2015).
19. UNFPA, *Annual Report 2016*.
20. UNICEF, *Progress for Children, Beyond averages: learning from the MDGs* (New York, 2015).
21. UNFPA, *Annual Report 2016*.
22. Ibid.
23. WHO, "Children: reducing mortality" (19 September 2019). Available at https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/children-reducing-mortality
24. UNICEF / WHO / World Bank Group, *Joint Child Malnutrition Estimates, Levels and trends in child malnutrition* (Washington DC., March 2019).
25. WHO, "Eastern Mediterranean Health Journal", Growth patterns of Palestinian children from birth to 24 months. Available at http://www.emro.who.int/emhj-volume-24-2018/volume-24-issue-3/growth-patterns-of-palestinian-children-from-birth-to-24-months.html
26. UNICEF / WHO / World Bank Group, Joint Child Malnutrition Estimates, *Levels and trends in child malnutrition* (Washington DC., March 2019).
27. WHO, *Regional strategy on nutrition 2010-2019*, Technical paper, EM/RC57/4 (September 2010).
28. UNICEF, *Levels and Trends in Child Mortality Report 2018* (New York, September 2018).
29. UNICEF, "Under-five mortality" (September 2019). Available at https://data.unicef.org/topic/child-survival/under-five-mortality/
30. UNICEF, *Levels and Trends in Child Mortality Report 2018* (New York, September 2018).

CHAPTER 4: Disability

1. DESA, *Disability and Development Report: Realizing the Sustainable Development Goals by, for and with persons with disabilities, 2018* (New York, 2019).
2. Persons with disabilities are defined as per the Washington Group as with "a lot of difficulty" or "cannot do at all", and persons without disabilities are those with "some difficulty" or with "no difficulty".
3. DESA, *Disability and Development Report: Realizing the Sustainable Development Goals by, for and with persons with disabilities, 2018* (New York, 2019).
4. ESCWA, *Regional Guidebook to Improve Disability Data Collection and Analysis in the Arab Countries*, E/ESCWA/SD/2018/MANUAL.1 (Beirut, 2018).
5. Data calculated by ESCWA based on the e-publication *Arab Disability Statistics in Numbers 2017*, E/ESCWA/SD/2017/TECHNICAL PAPER.1 (Beirut, 2017).
6. Household surveys with disability module: labour force surveys: Egypt (2016), demographic surveys: Saudi Arabia (2016), household budget surveys: Yemen (2014), poverty and maternal mortality survey: Iraq (2013).
7. Population censuses with disability module: the State of Palestine (2007), Oman and Qatar (2010), Tunisia and Morocco (2014), and Jordan (2015).
8. DESA, *Disability and Development Report: Realizing the Sustainable Development Goals by, for and with persons with disabilities, 2018* (New York, 2019).
9. Ibid.

CHAPTER 5: Education

1. UNESCO, Atlas of girls' and women's right to education, Map 3/12. Available at https://en.unesco.org/education/girls-women-rights
2. UNESCO, *Financing Education – Investments and Returns, Analysis of the World Education Indicators, 2002 Edition, Executive Summary.*
3. World Bank, *World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development* (Washington, 2012).
4. UNESCO, *Global Monitoring Report 2015, Education for all 2000-2015: Achievements and Challenges,* p. 9 (Paris, 2015).
5. UNICEF, *Women's Economic Empowerment and Early Childhood Care and Development - Analysis of Secondary Data from Central and Eastern Europe.*
6. UNESCO, *Global Monitoring Report 2015, Education for all 2000-2015: Achievements and Challenges*, p. 9 (Paris, 2015).
7. UNIFEM, *Progress of the World's Women 2002, Gender Equality and the Millennium Development Goals, vol. 2* (New York, UN Women, 2002).

8. UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, *More Than One-Half of Children and Adolescents Are Not Learning Worldwide*, Fact Sheet No. 46, UIS/FS/2017/ED/46 (Paris, September 2017).
9. UNIFEM, *Progress of the World's Women 2002, Gender Equality and the Millennium Development Goals, vol. 2* (New York, UN Women, 2002).
10. World Bank, *World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development* (Washington, 2012).
11. UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, *More than One-Half of Children and Adolescents Are Not Learning Worldwide*, Fact Sheet No. 46, UIS/FS/2017/ED/46 (Paris, September 2017).
12. Ibid.
13. Ibid.
14. World Bank Blogs, "Despite high education levels, Arab women still don't have jobs" by Maha El-Swais (09 March 2016). Available at https://blogs.worldbank.org/arabvoices/despite-high-education-levels-arab-women-still-don-t-have-jobs
15. Adolescent Girls' Advocacy and Leadership Initiative, *Economic Empowerment Strategies for Adolescent Girls, by Sarah Fewer, and others* (2013). Available at https://youtheconomicopportunities.org/sites/default/files/uploads/resource/AGALI-Economic-Empowerment-Report-2013-.pdf
16. UN Women, speech, "Establishment of this global coalition of young women's entrepreneurship is a LEAP in the right direction" by Lakshmi Puri (15 July 2016). Available at https://www.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2016/7/lakshmi-puri-speech-on-young-womens-entrepreneurship
17. UNESCO, *Meeting Commitments: Are Countries on Track to Achieve SDG 4?*
18. According to *the International Standard of Classification of Education 2011* (ISCED), science includes life sciences, physical sciences, mathematics and statistics, and computing.
19. According to *ISCED 2011*, engineering, manufacturing and construction includes engineering and engineering trades, manufacturing and processing, and architecture and building.
20. UNESCO, *Meeting Commitments: Are Countries on Track to Achieve SDG 4?*
21. UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, *Literacy Rates Continue to Rise from One Generation to the Next*, Fact Sheet No. 45, FS/2017/LIT/45 (Paris, September 2017).
22. Ibid.
23. UNESCO, *Meeting Commitments: Are Countries on Track to Achieve SDG 4?*
24. UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Number of out-of-school children of primary school age". Available at http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 19 June 2019).
25. UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, *One in Five Children, Adolescents and Youth is Out of School*, Fact Sheet No. 48, UIS/FS/2018/ED/48 (Paris, February 2018).
26. Ibid.
27. UNESCO, *Global Monitoring Report 2015, Education for all 2000-2015: Achievements and Challenges*, p. 7 (Paris, 2015).
28. Ibid, p. 13.
29. Ibid, p. 8.
30. Overseas Development Institute, *Education Cannot Wait: Proposing a Fund for Education in Emergencies* (London, May 2016).
31. UNESCO, *One in Five Children, Adolescents and Youth is Out of School*.
32. UNESCO, *Global Monitoring Report 2015, Education for all 2000-2015: Achievements and Challenges*, p. 8 (Paris, 2015).
33. European Parliament, *Empowering women on the internet* (Brussels, 2015).
34. UNSD, "SDG Indicators", SDG Indicators Metadata repository. Available at https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/.

CHAPTER 6: Work

1. ILO, *Maternity and paternity at work: Law and practice across the world* (Geneva, 2014).
2. UN Women, "12 critical areas", Women and the economy. Available at https://www.unwomen.org/en/news/in-focus/csw59/feature-stories
3. European Institute for Gender Equality, *Tackling the gender pay gap: not without a better work-life balance*, Research note, (Vilnius, 29 May 2019).
4. UN Women, "12 critical areas", Women and the economy.
5. ILOStat Database 2019. Available at https://www.ilo.org/ilostat (accessed on 10 December 2019).
6. ILO, "Youth unemployment in the Arab world is a major cause for rebellion" (05 April 2011). Available at http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/newsroom/features/WCMS_154078/lang--en/index.htm
7. ILOStat Database 2019. Available at https://www.ilo.org/ilostat (accessed on 10 December 2019).

CHAPTER 7: Public Life and Decision-making

1. United Nations Office of the High Commissioner on Human Rights, "Commitments for women's rights: time to turn empty promises into concrete changes for women", n.d. Available at https://www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=13097&LangID=E

2. DESA, *The World's Women 2015: Trends and Statistics* (New York, 2015).
3. Ibid.
4. Ibid.
5. IPU, *Women in parliament in 2018: The year in review* (Geneva, 2018).
6. Ibid.
7. IPU/UN Women, *One in five ministers is a woman, according to a new IPU-UN Women map, Press release* (Geneva, New York, 12 March 2019).
8. ESCWA, *Arab Women: Trends and Statistics 1990-2000*, E/ESCWA/SDD/2003/28 (New York, 2004).
9. E/ESCWA/ECW/2015/3.
10. Gulf News Newsletter, "Kuwaiti women can now become judges" by Habib Toumi, 14 January 2013. Available at https://gulfnews.com/world/gulf/kuwait/kuwaiti-women-can-now-become-judges-1.1132117
11. The National Council for Women, Arab Republic of Egypt, *National Report on Beijing +20* (2010).
12. Ibid.
13. DESA, *The World's Women 2015: Trends and Statistics* (New York, 2015).
14. Ibid.
15. The Pearl Initiative was created in cooperation with the United Nations Office for Partnerships and was launched in September 2010 at the United Nations Headquarters in New York. It promotes business across the gulf region.
16. DESA, The *World's Women 2015: Trends and Statistics* (New York, 2015).

CHAPTER 8: Human Rights of Women and Girls

1. UN Women, *Annual Report 2017-2018* (New York, 2018).
2. UNFPA, *Marrying Too Young: End Child Marriage* (New York, 2012).
3. UNSD, IAEG-GS, *Gender-relevant SDG Indicators (80 indicators)* (updated on 14 March 2018).
4. UNODC, *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons, 2018* (Vienna, 2018).
5. UNFPA, *Girlhood, not motherhood: Preventing Adolescent Pregnancy* (New York, 2015).
6. WHO, "Global Health Estimates 2015: Deaths by Cause, Age, Sex, by Country and by Region, 2000-2015" (Geneva, Switzerland, December 2016).
7. UNFPA, "5 ways female genital mutilation undermines the health of women and girls", News, 20 May 2019. Available at https://www.unfpa.org/news/5-ways-female-genital-mutilation-undermines-health-women-and-girls
8. UNFPA, *Demographic Perspectives on Female Genital Mutilation* (New York, 2015).
9. WHO, "Prevalence of female genital cutting among Egyptian girls" by Mohammed Tag-Eldin and others, vol. 86, No. 4 (April 2008). Available at https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2647417/#:~:text=Findings,FGC%20(P%20%3C%200.001)
10. E/ESCWA/ECW/2015/3.
11. n= 1,510 is the number of women who experienced physical spousal violence.
12. n= 200 is the number of women who experienced physical violence and sought help.
13. UNODC, *United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime and the Protocols Thereto* (New York, 2004).
14. For UNODC, MENA countries include North Africa (Algeria, Egypt, Morocco, the Sudan and Tunisia) and the countries in the Middle East (Bahrain, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, the Syrian Arab Republic, and the United Arab Emirates).
15. UNODC, *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons, 2018*, p.12 (Vienna, 2018).
16. Ibid., p. 38.
17. Ibid., p. 36.
18. Ibid., p. 45.
19. ESCWA, E-Handbook on SDG Framework and Metadata. Available at https://www.unescwa.org/ehandbook-sdg-framework-metadata

CHAPTER 9: Environment

1. United Nations, *Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action* (Beijing, 4-15 September 1995).
2. United Nations, *The human rights to safe drinking water and sanitation, Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 17 December 2015*, A/RES/70/169 (New York, 22 February 2016).
3. UNICEF and WHO, *Progress on Sanitation and Drinking Water: 2015 Update and MDG Assessment* (Geneva, 2015).
4. WHO, WFP and UNICEF, "Yemen's families cannot withstand another day of war, let alone another 1,000", Joint statement (New York, 29 December 2017). Available at https://www.unicef.org/press-releases/who-wfp-and-unicef-yemen-families-cannot-withstand-another-day-war-let-alone
5. UNICEF and WHO, *Progress on household drinking water, sanitation and hygiene 2000-2017: Special focus on inequalities* (Geneva, 2019).
6. Ibid.
7. Ibid.
8. Ibid.
9. Ibid.

Annex

Statistical tables

Population

Country	Population estimates *(in thousands)*			Sex ratio		Age dependency ratio	Current GDP at PPP *(int$)*
	2019			2015	2015-2020	2015	2018
	Total	Female	Male	Total population	At birth		
Algeria	43053	21303	21750	102	105	53	$659,686,582,357
Bahrain	1641	586	1055	161	104	30	$74,108,660,121
Comoros	851	422	429	102	105	76	$2,353,695,077
Djibouti	974	462	512	112	104	54	$2,342,710,799
Egypt	100388	49665	50723	102	106	62	$1,219,509,677,236
Iraq	39310	19418	19892	102	107	74	$672,978,507,595
Jordan	10102	4988	5113	103	105	66	$93,068,215,795
Kuwait	4207	1644	2563	143	105	30	$304,938,677,378
Lebanon	6856	3406	3449	101	105	51	$89,433,526,962
Libya	6777	3355	3423	102	106	49	$138,287,328,576
Mauritania	4526	2254	2272	100	105	77	$18,449,706,763
Morocco	36472	18379	18093	98	106	52	$314,241,266,659
Oman	4975	1691	3284	187	105	32	$200,107,925,339
Qatar	2832	699	2134	317	105	17	$352,153,740,968
Saudi Arabia	34269	14485	19784	132	103	41	$1,857,538,202,580
Somalia	15443	7743	7700	100	103	100	…
State of Palestine	4981	2455	2526	103	105	75	$23,523,821,387
Sudan	42813	21425	21388	100	104	82	$198,945,278,662
Syrian Arab Republic	17070	8516	8555	102	105	59	…
Tunisia	11695	5897	5798	98	106	46	$144,374,363,231
United Arab Emirates	9771	3004	6767	238	105	18	$721,770,277,976
Yemen	29162	14470	14692	102	105	77	$73,258,299,699
Total Arab region	**428166**	**206266**	**221901**				
Arab regional average		**48.2**	**51.8**	…	…	…	**$7,370,604,523,099**
Total World	**7713468**	**3824434**	**3889035**				
World average		**49.6**	**50.4**	**102**	**107**	**52**	**$136,477,176,797,269**

Sources:

Population estimates
United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA), *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019), for the year 2019.
https://population.un.org/wpp/Download/Standard/Population/ (accessed on 11 July 2019).

Population sex ratio
DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019), for the year 2015.
https://population.un.org/wpp/Download/Standard/Population/ (accessed on 11 July 2019).

Sex ratio at birth
DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019), for the year 2015-2020.
https://population.un.org/wpp/Download/Standard/Fertility/ (accessed on 11 July 2019).

Age dependency ratio
DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019), for the year 2015.
https://population.un.org/wpp/Download/Standard/Population/ (accessed on 11 July 2019).

Current GDP at PPP
World Bank, "GDP, PPP (current international $), 2018", World Bank Data.
https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.PP.CD (accessed on 04 December 2019).

Latest data for Djibouti is 2011.

Definitions:

Sex ratio (DESA)
The number of males per 100 females in the population.

Age dependency ratio (DESA)
The ratio of population aged 0-14 and 65+ per 100 population 15-64.

Current GDP at PPP (WB)
This indicator provides values for gross domestic product (GDP) expressed in current international dollars, converted by purchasing power parity (PPP) conversion factor. GDP is the sum of gross value added by all resident producers in the country plus any product taxes and minus any subsidies not included in the value of the products. PPP conversion factor is a spatial price deflator and currency converter that eliminates the effects of the differences in price levels between countries.

Note:

… = Data not available

Marriage and Family

Country	Minimum age of marriage with parental consent			Mean age at first marriage						Mean age of childbearing			
	2013												
	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Year	Female	Year	1990	2015	2030	Progress
Algeria	19	19	0	28.3	32.4	4.1	2012	…	…	31.4	31.7	31.6	-0.3
Bahrain	16	18	2	26.3	30.0	3.7	2001	26.9	2010	30.4	29.7	29.7	0.7
Comoros	18	18	0	24.2	28.1	3.9	2012	…	…	30.6	30.0	29.8	0.9
Djibouti	18	18	0	29.9	33.0	3.1	2012	…	…	31.6	32.2	32.2	-0.6
Egypt	18	18	0	22.1	27.5	5.4	2014	…	…	28.2	27.6	27.5	0.7
Iraq	18	18	0	22.7	26.2	3.5	2012	…	…	31.0	28.7	28.1	2.9
Jordan	18	18	0	23.9	28.9	5.0	2015	…	…	30.0	29.7	29.7	0.3
Kuwait	15	17	2	25.7	27.8	2.1	2011	…	…	29.8	30.2	30.5	-0.7
Lebanon	9	13	4	28.3	32.3	4.0	2007	…	…	28.9	29.8	30.0	-1.1
Libya	20	20	0	29.2	32.0	2.8	1995	…	…	32.4	32.8	32.7	-0.3
Mauritania	18	18	0	21.7	29.5	7.8	2011	…	…	30.8	30.5	30.5	0.3
Morocco	18	18	0	26.3	31.2	4.9	2011	…	…	31.1	30.3	30.3	0.8
Oman	18	18	0	25.6	27.7	2.1	2010	…	…	30.7	31.1	31.6	-0.9
Qatar	16	18	2	25.8	27.6	1.8	2004	…	…	28.6	29.9	29.4	-0.8
Saudi Arabia	NM	NM	0	24.8	27.7	2.9	2010	…	…	31.2	32.2	32.5	-1.3
Somalia	16	18	2	20.6	26.5	5.9	1982	20.4	2006	31.6	29.7	28.9	2.7
State of Palestine	18	18	0	23.2	27.5	4.3	2010	22.5	2014	29.1	28.9	28.9	0.2
Sudan	P	10		22.7	28.9	6.2	2010	21.9	2014	30.2	30.0	31.0	-0.8
Syrian Arab Republic	17	18	1	25.4	29.3	3.9	2001	25.4	2006	30.2	29.4	29.4	0.7
Tunisia	18	18	0	28.2	32.9	4.7	2014	…	…	30.5	31.0	31.0	-0.5
United Arab Emirates	18	18	0	25.3	26.8	1.5	2005	…	…	30.4	30.7	34.1	-3.7
Yemen	NM	NM	0	23.0	26.1	3.1	2013	…	…	30.4	30.0	29.8	0.6
Arab region										**31.0**	**28.7**	**28.1**	**2.3**

Sources:

Minimum age of marriage with parental consent
World Policy Analysis Centre, "Minimum age of marriage with parental consent for boys and girls, 2013".
https://www.worldpolicycenter.org/policies/what-is-the-minimum-age-of-marriage-for-boys/what-is-the-minimum-age-of-marriage-for-boys-with-parental-consent (accessed on 06 February 2019).

Data for the State of Palestine from: UNICEF, *Occupied Palestinian Territory: MENA Gender Equality Profile Status of Girls and Women in the Middle East and North Africa (2011).*

Mean age at first marriage
DESA, Population Division, "World Marriage Data 2017".
https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/theme/marriage-unions/WMD2017.asp (accessed on 30 May 2019).

Mean age for childbearing
DESA, *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019), for the years 1990-1995, 2015-2020 and 2030-2035.
https://population.un.org/wpp/Download/Standard/Fertility/ (accessed on 11 July 2019).

Definitions:

Minimum age of marriage with parental consent
The age at which children can legally be married when parental consent exceptions that lower the minimum age are considered.

Mean age at first marriage (DESA)
The average length of single life expressed in years among those who marry before age 50.

Mean age of childbearing (DESA)
The average age of mothers at the birth of their children if women were subject throughout their lives to the age-specific fertility rates observed in a given year. It is expressed as years.

Notes:

… = Data not available

NM= No Minimum

P= Puberty

Marriage and Family

Country	Crude divorce rate						Age-specific divorced population (45-49) *(percent)*		Age-specific widowed population (60-64) *(percent)*		Household size	Female-headed households	
							2017						
		Year		Year		Year	Female	Male	Female	Male	Number	Percent	Year
Algeria	0.4	1963	…	…	…	…	4.6	0.8	26.8	2.7	5.4	10.5	MICS 2012-2013
Bahrain	3.2	1979	1.3	1999	1.5	2006	3.9	0.9	29.3	1.4	…	…	…
Comoros	1.2	1964	…	…	…	…	15.2	2.4	33.5	2.1	5.4	39.3	DHS 2012
Djibouti	6.9	1970	…	…	…	…	2.8	2.0	45.1	10.0	5.9	19.0	MICS 2006
Egypt	2.0	1977	0.9	2006	2.1	2017	2.7	0.8	41.4	5.7	4.1	12.9	DHS 2014
Iraq	0.8	1977	1.5	1995			1.0	0.0	37.0	4.0	6.3	9.0	MICS 2018
Jordan	1.2	1979	2.0	2006	2.1	2017	2.8	0.9	26.0	1.8	4.7	12.0	DHS 2017-2018
Kuwait	1.3	1979	1.5	2006	1.8	2017	4.3	1.1	4.9	2.0	…	…	…
Lebanon	0.6	1973	1.1	2006	1.8	2011	2.3	0.9	27.3	2.0	…	…	…
Libya	1.8	1978	0.3	1996	0.3	2002	2.1	1.2	33.2	1.7	…	…	…
Mauritania	…	…	…	…	…	…	16.2	2.3	35.5	2.7	5.8	37.7	MICS 2015
Morocco	…	…	…	…	…	…	4.3	1.2	28.4	2.0	4.5	15.4	DHS 2018
Oman	…	…	…	…	…	…	4.9	1.2	36.1	2.7	6.7	5.0	MICS 2014
Qatar	1.1	1988	1.0	2006	0.4	2017	3.0	0.3	37.0	1.7	4.7	4.8	MICS 2012
Saudi Arabia	…	…	0.8	1999	1.1	2006	8.3	1.4	31.5	1.2	…	…	…
Somalia	…	…		…	…	…	10.9	1.5	…	…	6.2	32.1	SHDS 2020
State of Palestine	…	…	1.0	2006	1.8	2016	1.8	0.1	32.4	1.3	5.5	9.2	MICS 2014
Sudan	…	…		…	…	…	5.8	0.3	39.6	2.2	5.9	14.2	MICS 2014
Syrian Arab Republic	0.6	1979	0.7	2000	1.0	2006	1.7	0.5	26.3	2.5	5.4	8.3	MICS 2006
Tunisia	1.1	1979	1.0	1997	0.9	1999	2.28	0.7	31.4	2.3	3.9	15.5	MICS 2018
United Arab Emirates	…	…	0.9	1996	0.9	2004	2.7	0.5	33.9	1.8	…	…	…
Yemen	…	…		…	0.0	2003	3.5	0.6	36.2	3.4	6.7	7.8	DHS 2013
Arab region													

Sources:

Crude divorce rate
United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD), Demographic and Social Statistics, *Demographic Yearbooks*.
https://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic-social/products/dyb/#statistics (accessed on 09 December 2019).

Divorced and Widowed
United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA), Population Division, "World Marriage Data 2017".
https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/theme/marriage-unions/WMD2017.asp (accessed on 30 May 2019).

HH size & Female headed HH
Latest DHS and MICS surveys.

Definitions:

Crude divorce rate (DESA)
The annual number of divorces per 1,000 population.

Divorced (DESA)
A final legal dissolution of a marriage, that is, that separation of husband and wife which confers on the parties the right to remarriage under civil, religious and/or other provisions, according to the laws of each country.

Widowed
A woman who has lost her spouse by death and has not remarried.

Household size
The average number of residents per household.

Female-headed households
Household in which an adult female is the sole or main income producer and decision-maker.

Note:

… = Data not available

Life Expectancy

Country	Life expectancy at birth											Life expectancy at age 60 years										
	2000				2016				Progress (2016-2000)			2000				2016				Progress (2016-2000)		
	Total	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Total	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Total	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Total	Female	Male
Algeria	70.8	72.2	69.4	2.8	76.4	77.4	75.4	2.0	5.6	5.2	6.0	18.9	19.7	18.2	1.5	21.9	22.5	21.4	1.1	3.0	2.8	3.2
Bahrain	73.2	74.1	72.5	1.6	79.1	79.6	78.6	1.0	5.9	5.5	6.1	17.4	17.6	17.2	0.4	21.7	22.0	21.5	0.5	4.3	4.4	4.3
Comoros	59.5	61.0	58.0	3.0	63.9	65.5	62.3	3.2	4.4	4.5	4.3	15.7	16.5	14.8	1.7	16.3	17.2	15.4	1.8	0.6	0.7	0.6
Djibouti	57.4	59.1	55.8	3.3	63.8	65.5	62.2	3.3	6.4	6.4	6.4	16.7	17.3	16.1	1.2	17.6	18.3	16.9	1.4	0.9	1.0	0.8
Egypt	69.2	71.7	66.8	4.9	70.5	73.0	68.2	4.8	1.3	1.3	1.4	17.7	19.2	16.1	3.1	16.9	18.1	15.5	2.6	-0.8	-1.1	-0.6
Iraq	69.4	71.4	67.6	3.8	69.8	72.2	67.5	4.7	0.4	0.8	-0.1	17.7	18.3	17.1	1.2	18.8	19.6	17.9	1.7	1.1	1.3	0.8
Jordan	71.7	73.2	70.4	2.8	74.3	76.0	72.7	3.3	2.6	2.8	2.3	18.0	19.1	17.1	2.0	19.3	20.5	18.1	2.4	1.3	1.4	1.0
Kuwait	73.3	74.4	72.6	1.8	74.8	76.0	73.9	2.1	1.5	1.6	1.3	17.0	17.3	16.8	0.5	17.9	18.4	17.6	0.8	0.9	1.1	0.8
Lebanon	73.6	75.2	72.2	3.0	76.3	77.7	75.1	2.6	2.7	2.5	2.9	18.8	20.0	17.7	2.3	19.8	21.0	18.8	2.2	1.0	1.0	1.1
Libya	70.8	72.6	69.2	3.4	71.9	75.0	69.0	6.0	1.1	2.4	-0.2	17.6	18.6	16.7	1.9	18.3	19.8	16.8	3.0	0.7	1.2	0.1
Mauritania	60.2	61.6	58.7	2.9	63.9	65.2	62.6	2.6	3.7	3.6	3.9	16.0	16.6	15.3	1.3	16.5	17.1	15.8	1.3	0.5	0.5	0.5
Morocco	68.5	70.0	67.0	3.0	76.0	77.0	74.8	2.2	7.5	7.0	7.8	17.5	18.3	16.6	1.7	20.5	21.4	19.6	1.8	3.0	3.1	3.0
Oman	72.7	74.9	70.9	4.0	77.0	79.5	75.3	4.2	4.3	4.6	4.4	18.5	19.6	17.4	2.2	21.2	22.6	19.9	2.7	2.7	3.0	2.5
Qatar	76.2	77.7	75.3	2.4	78.1	79.9	77.3	2.6	1.9	2.2	2.0	19.8	20.8	19.2	1.6	20.9	22.0	20.4	1.6	1.1	1.2	1.2
Saudi Arabia	72.7	74.5	71.1	3.4	74.8	76.5	73.5	3.0	2.1	2.0	2.4	18.1	19.4	16.9	2.5	18.7	20.1	17.7	2.4	0.6	0.7	0.8
Somalia	51.1	52.5	49.7	2.8	55.4	57.3	53.7	3.6	4.3	4.8	4.0	15.6	16.1	15.0	1.1	16.3	16.8	15.7	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.7
State of Palestine	…	…	…	…	…	75.0	72.7	2.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Sudan	58.8	60.7	56.9	3.8	65.1	66.9	63.4	3.5	6.3	6.2	6.5	16.8	17.4	16.2	1.2	17.9	18.5	17.3	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1
Syrian Arab Republic	73.0	75.2	71.0	4.2	63.8	68.9	59.4	9.5	-9.2	-6.3	-11.6	18.9	20.0	17.7	2.3	18.5	19.4	17.5	1.9	-0.4	-0.6	-0.2
Tunisia	72.8	75.4	70.6	4.8	76.0	78.1	74.1	4.0	3.2	2.7	3.5	19.0	20.8	17.4	3.4	20.1	21.6	18.5	3.1	1.1	0.8	1.1
United Arab Emirates	74.3	75.7	73.5	2.2	77.2	78.7	76.5	2.2	2.9	3.0	3.0	18.5	19.1	18.1	1.0	20.2	21.0	19.8	1.2	1.7	1.9	1.7
Yemen	60.7	62.0	59.5	2.5	65.3	66.8	63.9	2.9	4.6	4.8	4.4	15.9	16.7	15.1	1.6	16.4	17.2	15.5	1.7	0.5	0.5	0.4
Arab region					71.6	73.5	69.9	3.6														
World					72.4	74.7	70.2	4.5														

Sources:

Life expectancy at birth
World Health Organization (WHO), Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 06 April 2018).
https://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.imr.
WHOSIS_000001?lang=en (accessed on 24 May 2019).

Data for the State of Palestine from: PCBS, 2017.

Arab regional and World averages: World Bank, "Life expectancy at birth (years), 2016", World Bank Data.
https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.LE00.IN
(accessed on 24 May 2019).

Life expectancy at age 60 years
WHO, Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 06 April 2018).
https://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.imr.
WHOSIS_000015?lang=en (accessed on 24 May 2019).

Definitions:

Life expectancy at birth (WHO)
The average number of years that a newborn could expect to live, if he or she were to pass through life exposed to the sex- and age-specific death rates prevailing at the time of his or her birth, for a specific year, in a given country, territory, or geographic area.

Life expectancy at age 60 years (WHO)
The average number of years that a person of 60 years old could expect to live, if he or she were to pass through life exposed to the sex- and age-specific death rates prevailing at the time of his or her 60 years, for a specific year, in a given country, territory, or geographic area.

Note:

… = Data not available

Health

Country	Current Health Expenditure (CHE)		Universal Health Coverage (UHC) (SDG 3.8.1)	Civil registration coverage of cause-of-death	Ill-defined causes in cause-of-death registration
	2020		2015	2018	
	% GDP	per capita in PPP *(int$)*	Percent	Percent	Percent
Algeria	6.4	975	76	…	…
Bahrain	4.7	2265	72	88.0	26.0
Comoros	7.4	123	47	…	…
Djibouti	3.3	117	47	…	…
Egypt	5.3	614	68	95.0	32.0
Iraq	4.2	495	63	65.0	28.0
Jordan	8.1	757	70	65.0	10.0
Kuwait	5.3	3797	77	95.0	8.0
Lebanon	8.2	1185	68	…	…
Libya	6.1	627	63	…	…
Mauritania	4.4	170	33	…	…
Morocco	5.2	438	65	24.3	43.0
Oman	3.8	1591	72	87.0	43.0
Qatar	2.6	3354	77	77.0	25.0
Saudi Arabia	5.2	2826	68	51.0	46.0
Somalia	…	…	22	…	…
State of Palestine	…	…	…	…	…
Sudan	6.3	314	43	…	…
Syrian Arab Republic	3.6	160	60	92.0	34.0
Tunisia	7.2	863	65	37.0	27.0
United Arab Emirates	3.3	2469	63	87.0	18.0
Yemen	4.2	139	39	…	…
Arab region	…	…	**63**		
World	**6.3**	**1291**	**66**		

Sources:

CHE as % of GDP
World Health Organization (WHO), Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 23 January 2020).
https://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.imr.GHED_CHEGDP_SHA2011?lang=en (accessed on 14 July 2020).

CHE per capita in PPP
WHO, Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 23 January 2020).
https://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.imr.GHED_CHE_pc_PPP_SHA2011?lang=en (accessed on 14 July 2020).

UHC
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.
https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/
(accessed on 31 July 2019).

Arab regional and World averages: World Bank, "UHC service coverage index, 2017", World Bank Data.
https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.UHC.SRVS.CV.XD
(accessed on 31 July 2019).

Civil registration coverage of cause-of-death
WHO, Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 04 May 2018).
http://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.imr.WHS10_8?lang=en
(accessed on 31 July 2019).

Ill-defined causes in cause-of-death registration
WHO, Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 04 May 2018).
http://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.imr.WHS10_9?lang=en
(accessed on 31 July 2019).

Death due to NCDs under age 70 years
WHO, Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 25 June 2018).
http://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.imr.SDG_SH_DTH_RNCOM?lang=en (accessed on 24 May 2019).

Current tobacco use among persons aged 15+ years
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.
https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/
(accessed on 31 July 2019).

Data for Jordan from: DHS 2017-2018.

Data for Tunisia from: MICS 2018.

Suicide mortality rate
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.
https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/
(accessed on 31 July 2019).

Arab regional and World averages: World Bank, "Suicide mortality rate (per 100,000 population), 2016", World Bank Data.
https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.STA.SUIC.P5
(accessed on 31 July 2019).

Death due to Non-Communicable Diseases (NCDs) under age 70 years *(percent)*		Current tobacco use among persons aged 15+ years *(percent)* (SDG 3.a.1)			Suicide mortality rate *(per 100,000 individuals)* (SDG 3.4.2)		
2016		2016			2016		
Female	Male	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap
39	43	0.7	30.4	29.7	1.7	4.7	3.0
48	59	5.8	37.6	31.8	1.9	8.4	6.5
60	68	4.4	23.6	19.2	3.6	9.9	6.3
56	65	1.7	24.5	22.8	4.3	9.0	4.7
46	60	0.2	50.1	49.9	1.5	6.4	4.9
46	56	…	…	…	2.6	3.4	0.8
45	49	12.0	44.6	32.6	2.2	3.6	1.4
58	68	2.7	37.0	34.3	1.7	2.8	1.1
29	34	26.9	40.7	13.8	2.4	4.2	1.8
41	48	…	…	…	2.2	8.1	5.9
54	64	…	…	…	2.2	6.6	4.4
30	34	0.8	47.1	46.3	3.4	2.3	-1.1
48	63	0.5	15.6	15.1	0.8	5.6	4.8
59	74	0.8	26.9	26.1	0.9	8.5	7.6
45	55	1.8	25.4	23.6	1.5	4.5	3
66	72	…	…	…	3.1	6.3	3.2
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
59	64	…	…	…	4.0	12.2	8.2
41	50	…	…	…	0.9	2.9	2
31	39	1.7	49.4	47.7	2.3	4.4	2.1
69	79	1.2	37.4	36.2	0.7	3.6	2.9
61	64	7.6	29.2	21.6	5.6	11.3	5.7
…	…				2.4	6.0	
77	68				7.7	13.5	

Definitions:

CHE as % of GDP (WHO)
Level of Current Health Expenditure expressed as a percentage of GDP.

CHE per capita in PPP (WHO)
Per capita current expenditures on health expressed in respective currency - international PPP dolar.

UHC (SDG Metadata)
The average coverage of essential services based on tracer interventions that include reproductive, maternal, newborn and child health, infectious diseases, non-communicable diseases and service capacity and access, among the general and the most disadvantaged population. The indicator is an index reported on a unitless scale of 0 to 100, which is computed as the geometric mean of 14 tracer indicators of health service coverage.

Civil registration coverage of cause-of-death (WHO)
Estimated level of coverage of deaths that are registered with cause-of-death information.

Ill-defined causes in cause-of-death registration (WHO)
The percentage of total deaths that has been assigned to ill-defined causes as reported to WHO.
Ill-defined causes of death for Syrian Arab Republic includes only data coded to the ICD chapter on symptoms, signs and abnormal clinical and laboratory findings not elsewhere classified.

Death due to NCDs under age 70 years (WHO)
Deaths due to NCDs among people aged below 70 years, as a percentage of NCD deaths among all ages.

Current tobacco use among persons aged 15+ years (SDG Metadata)
The percentage of the population aged 15 years and over who currently use any tobacco product (smoked and/or smokeless tobacco) on a daily or non-daily basis.

Suicide mortality rate (SDG Metadata)
The number of suicide deaths in a year, divided by the population, and multiplied by 100,000.

Note:

… = Data not available

Maternal Health

Country	Total Fertility Rate (TFR) *(live births per woman)*										
	2015-2020	Rural	Urban	No education or primary	Secondary or Higher education	Poorest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Richest	Year
Algeria	3.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bahrain	2.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Comoros	4.2	4.8	3.5	5.5	3.1	6.7	4.6	4.2	3.5	3.4	DHS 2012
Djibouti	2.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Egypt	3.3	3.8	2.9	3.7	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.9	3.5	2.8	DHS 2014
Iraq	3.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Jordan	2.8	3.1	2.7	3.3	2.7	3.9	3.2	2.9	2.3	1.4	DHS 2017-18
Kuwait	2.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Lebanon	2.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Libya	2.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Mauritania	4.6	4.8	4.1	4.7	3.2	5.4	4.8	4.9	4.1	3.6	DHS 2000-01
Morocco	2.4	2.5	2.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Census 2014
Oman	2.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Qatar	1.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Saudi Arabia	2.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Somalia	6.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
State of Palestine	3.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Sudan	4.4	5.3	3.9	5.3	3.2	…	…	…	…	…	DHS 1989-90
Syrian Arab Republic	2.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tunisia	2.2	5.6	3.3	4.6	2.3	…	…	…	…	…	DHS 1988
United Arab Emirates	1.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Yemen	3.8	5.1	3.2	4.8	2.8	6.1	5.3	4.5	3.8	2.9	DHS 2013

Sources:

TFR
United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA), *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019), for the year 2015-2020.
https://population.un.org/wpp/Download/Standard/Fertility/ (accessed on 11 July 2019).

TFR by location, education and wealth
ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler.
http://www.statcompiler.com (accessed on 18 July 2019).
Data for Morocco from: Census 2014.

Contraceptive prevalence rate (any method)
DESA, Population Division, "World Contraceptive Use 2019".
https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/publications/dataset/contraception/wcu2019.asp (accessed on 30 May 2019).

Contraceptive prevalence rate (any method) by location and wealth
ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler.
http://www.statcompiler.com (accessed on 06 June 2019).
Data for Tunisia from: MICS 2018.

Unmet need for family planning
DESA, Population Division, "World Contraceptive Use 2019".
https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/publications/dataset/contraception/wcu2019.asp (accessed on 30 May 2019).

Antenatal visits 4+
ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler.
http://www.statcompiler.com (accessed on 06 June 2019).
Data for Tunisia from: MICS 2018.

Contraceptive prevalence rate *(any method, percent)*							Unmet need for family planning *(percent)*	Antenatal visits 4+ *(percent)*			
							2019				
2019	Rural	Urban	Urban-Rural	Poorest	Richest	Year	Percent	Total	Rural	Urban	Year
57.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	7.0	…	…	…	…
61.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
19.4	14.4	29.6	15.2	12.9	22.7	DHS 2012	31.6	48.9	48.5	49.9	DHS 2012
19.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
58.5	57.0	61.3	4.3	55.9	61.4	DHS 2014	12.6	82.8	80.5	87.8	DHS 2014
52.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	13.3	…	…	…	…
51.8	53.1	51.7	-1.4	47.7	50.1	DHS 2017-18	14.2	91.5	91.9	91.5	DHS 2017-18
52.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
54.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
27.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	40.2	…	…	…	…
17.8	2.6	15.8	13.2	1.6	22.3	DHS 2000-01	33.6	16.4	10.6	24.2	DHS 2000-01
70.8	59.7	65.5	5.8	58.3	69.9	DHS 2003-04	13.8	30.5	14.9	44.0	DHS 2003-04
29.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	17.8	…	…	…	…
37.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	12.4	…	…	…	…
24.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
14.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
57.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	10.9	…	…	…	…
12.2	3.9	17.0	13.1			DHS 1989-90	26.6	…	…	…	…
53.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	16.4	…	…	…	…
62.5	50.5	50.9	0.4	49.3	52.4	MICS 2018	7.0	84.1	76.6	88.5	MICS 2018
27.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
33.5	27.0	47.5	20.5	14.5	49.7	DHS 2013	28.7	25.1	15.8	47.2	DHS 2013

Definitions:

TFR (DESA)
The average number of live births a hypothetical cohort of women would have at the end of their reproductive period if they were subject during their whole lives to the fertility rates of a given period and if they were not subject to mortality. It is expressed as live births per woman.

Contraceptive prevalence rate (DESA)
The proportion of women who are currently using, or whose sexual partner is currently using, at least one method of contraception, regardless of the method being used.

Unmet need for family planning (DESA)
The proportion of women who want to stop or delay 3 childbearing but are not using any method of contraception.

Antenatal visits 4+ (WHO)
The percentage of women aged 15-49 with a live birth in a given time period that received antenatal care four or more times. Due to data limitations, it is not possible to determine the type of provider for each visit.

Note:

… = Data not available

Maternal Health

Country	Births delivered in a health facility *(percent)*					Births attended by skilled health personnel *(percent)* (SDG 3.1.2)			
						2020			
	No education or primary	Secondary or higher	Poorest	Richest	Year	Percent	Rural	Urban	Urban-Rural
Algeria	…	…	…	…	…	96.6	…	…	…
Bahrain	…	…	…	…	…	99.7	…	…	…
Comoros	70.9	89.0	58.6	88.6	DHS 2012	82.2	78.5	92.2	13.7
Djibouti	…	…	…	…	…	87.4	…	…	…
Egypt	75.4	90.7	75.1	97.7	DHS 2014	91.5	89.3	96.5	7.2
Iraq	…	…	…	…	…	95.6	…	…	…
Jordan	91.6	98.7	96.0	97.0	DHS 2017-18	99.7	99.9	99.7	-0.2
Kuwait	…	…	…	…	…	99.9	…	…	…
Lebanon	…	…	…	…	…	98.2	…	…	…
Libya	…	…	…	…	…	99.9	…	…	…
Mauritania	44.1	87.7	10.6	87.9	DHS 2000-01	69.3	28.9	85.8	56.9
Morocco	53.3	92.2	28.4	93.8	DHS 2003-04	86.6	39.5	85.3	45.8
Oman	…	…	…	…	…	99.7	…	…	…
Qatar	…	…	…	…	…	100.0	…	…	…
Saudi Arabia	…	…	…	…	…	99.7	…	…	…
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	9.4	…	…	…
State of Palestine	…	…	…	…	…	99.6	…	…	…
Sudan	…	…	…	…	…	77.7	59.4	85.9	26.5
Syrian Arab Republic	…	…	…	…	…	96.2	…	…	…
Tunisia	…	…	…	…	…	99.5	99.1	99.7	0.6
United Arab Emirates	…	…	…	…	…	99.9	…	…	…
Yemen	26.8	50.3	12.5	57.1	DHS 2013	44.7	34.1	73.0	38.9
Arab region						61 86			
World						62 81			

Sources:

Births delivered in a health facility by education of mother and wealth
ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler. http://www.statcompiler.com (accessed on 05 June 2019).

Births attended by skilled health personnel
UNICEF/WHO joint database, "SDG 3.1.2 skilled attendance at birth". https://data.unicef.org/topic/maternal-health/delivery-care/ (accessed on 29 November 2019).

Data for Tunisia from: MICS 2018.

World average: UNICEF/WHO Joint database, data for the years 2000-2005 and 2013-2018.

Arab regional average: UNICEF/WHO joint database, data for the years 2000 and 2015.

Births attended by skilled health personnel by location and wealth
ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler. http://www.statcompiler.com (accessed on 06 June 2019).

Data for Tunisia from: MICS 2018.

MMR
WHO, Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 18 October 2019). http://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.imr.MDG_0000000026?lang=en (accessed on 08 July 2019).

Arab regional and World averages: World Bank, "Maternal mortality ratio (modeled estimate, per 100,000 live births), 2000 and 2017", World Bank Data. https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/sh.sta.mmrt (accessed on 08 July 2019).

Births attended by skilled health personnel *(percent)* (SDG 3.1.2)			Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR) *(per 100,000 live birth)* (SDG 3.1.1)			
Poorest	Richest	Year	1990	2000	2010	2015
…	…	…	216	170	147	140
…	…	…	26	21	16	15
66.3	92.7	DHS 2012	635	499	388	335
…	…	…	517	401	275	229
82.4	99.0	DHS 2014	106	63	40	33
…	…	…	107	63	51	50
99.5	99.9	DHS 2017-18	110	77	59	58
…	…	…	7	7	5	4
…	…	…	74	42	19	15
…	…	…	39	17	9	9
14.7	92.8	DHS 2000-01	859	813	723	602
29.4	95.4	DHS 2003-04	317	221	153	121
…	…	…	30	20	18	17
…	…	…	29	24	16	13
…	…	…	46	23	14	12
…	…	…	1210	1080	820	732
…	…	…	118	72	54	45
…	…	DHS 1989-90	744	544	349	311
…	…	…	123	73	49	68
98.9	100.0	MICS 2018	131	84	67	62
…	…	…	17	8	6	6
19.1	80.8	DHS 2013	547	440	416	385
				250		**149**
				342		**211**

Definitions:

Births delivered in a health facility (WHO)
Refers to women who had a live birth in a recent time period, generally two years for MICS and five years for DHS.

Births attended by skilled health personnel (SDG Metadata)
The percentage of births attended by skilled health personnel (generally doctors, nurses or midwives) is the percentage of childbirths attended by professional health personnel.

MMR (SDG Metadata)
The number of maternal deaths during a given time period per 100,000 live births during the same time period. It depicts the risk of maternal death relative to the number of live births and essentially captures the risk of death in a single pregnancy or a single live birth.

Maternal deaths: The annual number of female deaths from any cause related to or aggravated by pregnancy or its management (excluding accidental or incidental causes) during pregnancy and childbirth or within 42 days of termination of pregnancy, irrespective of the duration and site of the pregnancy, expressed per 100,000 live births, for a specified time period.

Note:

… = Data not available

Maternal Health

Country	Child marriage *(percent)* (SDG 5.3.1)			Adolescent birth rate *(per 1,000 women aged 15-19 years)* (SDG 3.7.2)					
	Married before 15 years	Married before 18 years	Year	2015-2020	No education or primary	Secondary or higher	Poorest	Richest	Year
Algeria	0.4	2.5	MICS 2012-13	10.1	…	…	…	…	…
Bahrain	…	…	…	13.4	…	…	…	…	…
Comoros	10.0	31.6	DHS 2012	65.4	144.0	37.0	118.0	28.0	DHS 2012
Djibouti	1.8	5.4	MICS 2006	18.8	…	…	…	…	…
Egypt	2.0	20.6	ECGBVS 2015	53.8	103.0	50.0	58.0	14.0	DHS 2014
Iraq	7.0	28	MICS 2018	71.7	…	…	…	…	…
Jordan	1.5	9.7	DHS 2017-18	25.9	113.0	23.0	70.0	2.0	DHS 2017-18
Kuwait	…	…	…	8.2	…	…	…	…	…
Lebanon	1.2	6.1	MICS 2009	14.5	…	…	…	…	…
Libya	…	…	…	5.8	…	…	…	…	…
Mauritania	17.8	37	MICS 2015	71.0	91.0	36.0	84.0	53.0	DHS 2000-01
Morocco	0.5	13.7	DHS 2018	31.0	50.0	9.0	51.0	13.0	DHS 2003-04
Oman	…	…	…	13.1	…	…	…	…	…
Qatar	0.0	4.2	MICS 2012	9.9	…	…	…	…	…
Saudi Arabia	…	…	…	7.3	…	…	…	…	…
Somalia	8.4	45.3	MICS 2006	100.1	…	…	…	…	…
State of Palestine	0.5	10.8	Census 2017	52.8	…	…	…	…	…
Sudan	11.9	34.2	MICS 2014	64.0	100.0	20.0	…	…	DHS 1989-90
Syrian Arab Republic	2.5	13.3	MICS 2006	38.6	…	…	…	…	…
Tunisia	0.0	1.5	MICS 2018	7.8	2.3	4.0	2.2	1.6	MICS 2018
United Arab Emirates	…	…	…	6.5	…	…	…	…	…
Yemen	9.4	31.9	DHS 2013	60.4	86.0	25.0	71.0	45.0	DHS 2013
Arab region									
World				**65** **43**					**1990** **2015**

Sources:

Child marriage
Latest DHS and MICS surveys.

Adolescent birth rate
United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA), *World Population Prospects 2019* (New York, 2019), for the year 2015-2020.
https://population.un.org/wpp/Download/Standard/Population/ (accessed on 11 July 2019).

Adolescent birth rate by education and wealth
ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler. http://www.statcompiler.com (accessed on 05 June 2019).

Regional averages: DESA, *World Population Prospects* 2019 (New York, 2019), for the year 1990 and 2015.
https://population.un.org/wpp/Download/Standard/Population/ (accessed on 11 July 2019).

FGM (15-49 years) by location and wealth
UNICEF global databases 2018, based on DHS, MICS and other nationally representative surveys (last updated on October 2018).
https://data.unicef.org/topic/child-protection/female-genital-mutilation/ (accessed on 15 June 2019).

Female Genital Mutilation (FGM)
(percent)
(SDG 5.3.2)

15-49 years									15-19 years	45-49 years	Year
Total	Rural	Urban	Poorest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Richest	Richest- Poorest			
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
93.1	95.5	93.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2006 MICS
87.2	92.6	77.4	94.4	92.6	92.2	87.2	69.8	-25	70	97	DHS 2015
7.4	8.3	7	1.4				21.7	20	3	9	MICS 2018
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
66.6	79	55.2	91.8	85.9	70.1	60.1	36.6	-55	63	73	MICS 2015
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
97.9	98.4	97.1	98.4	99.1	98.4	97.5	96.2	-2	…	…	2006 MICS
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
86.6	87.2	85.5	88	81.7	80.7	90	91.6	4	82	92	MICS 2014
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
18.5	19.2	17.1	26.5	21	13.3	19.5	14	-13	16	23	DHS 2013

FGM (15-19 years) and (45-49 years)
UNICEF, "Female Genital Mutilation Country Profiles". https://data.unicef.org/resources/fgm-country-profiles/ (accessed on 15 June 2019).

Definitions:

Child marriage (SDG Metadata)
The proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18

Adolescent birth rate (SDG Metadata)
The annual number of births to females aged 15-19 years per 1,000 females in the respective age group.

FGM (SDG Metadata)
The proportion of girls and women aged 15-49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting is currently being measured by the proportion of girls aged 15-19 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting

Note:

… = Data not available

Child Health

Country	Children stunted *(percent)* (SDG 2.2.1)							Children wasted *(percent)* (SDG 2.2.2)		
	Total	Female	Male	No education or primary	Secondary or higher	Poorest	Richest	Total	Female	Male
Algeria	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bahrain	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Comoros	30.1	28.3	32.0	33.1	21.6	38.2	21.9	11.1	10.8	11.4
Djibouti	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Egypt	21.4	19.9	22.8	25.3	20.1	24.1	23.4	8.4	8.5	8.4
Iraq	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Jordan	7.7	6.1	9.2	12.3	7.3	13.8	1.8	2.4	2.5	2.4
Kuwait	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Lebanon	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Libya	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Mauritania	38.9	38.2	39.6	40.7	24.0	44.2	27.5	14.5	13.6	15.4
Morocco	22.4	21.0	23.9	24.9	13.5	35.0	12.5	10.0	9.7	10.3
Oman	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Qatar	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Saudi Arabia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
State of Palestine	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Sudan	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Syrian Arab Republic	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tunisia	20.0	19.3	20.7	21.5	5.0	…	…	4.0	3.7	4.4
United Arab Emirates	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Yemen	46.5	45.4	47.6	…	…	59.2	25.9	16.3	14.7	17.8
Arab region	**23.0**							**10.0**		
World	**22.0**							**7.0**		

Sources:

Percentage of children stunted by sex, education and wealth
ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler. http://www.statcompiler.com (accessed on 05 June 2019).

World average: UNICEF, data for the year 2018.

Arab regional average: Calculated by ESCWA, data for the year 2018.

Percentage of children wasted by sex, education and wealth
ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler. http://www.statcompiler.com (accessed on 05 June 2019).

World average: UNICEF, data for the year 2018.

Arab regional average: Calculated by ESCWA, data for the year 2018.

Proportion of underweight children by sex, education and wealth
ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler. http://www.statcompiler.com (accessed on 05 June 2019).

World average: UNICEF, data for the year 2018.

Arab regional average: Calculated by ESCWA, data for the year 2018.

Children wasted *(percent)* (SDG 2.2.2)				Underweight children *(percent)* (SDG 2.2.2)							Year
No education or primary	Secondary or higher	Poorest	Richest	Total	Female	Male	No education or primary	Secondary or higher	Poorest	Richest	
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
11.7	9.7	13.4	9.7	15.3	15.9	14.8	18.4	8.8	19.8	9.3	DHS 2012
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
8.6	8.4	7.4	8.2	5.5	5.1	5.9	6.7	5.1	5.9	5.0	DHS 2014
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
1.3	2.5	3.0	2.5	3.0	2.7	3.3	3.5	2.9	5.2	0.4	DHS 2012
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
15.0	10.4	17.1	8.5	27.8	27.0	28.7	29.1	17.0	34.1	14.6	DHS 2000-01
10.7	7.6	13.2	7.1	8.6	8.2	9.0	9.5	4.9	15.0	3.2	DHS 2003-04
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
4.1	3.3	…	…	8.2	7.8	8.6	8.8	1.7	…	…	DHS 1988
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	20.7	12.5	39.0	38.2	39.9	…	…	54.0	22.1	DHS 2013
				10.0							
				6.0							

Definitions:

Stunting (UNICEF)
Refers to a child who is too short for his or her age. These children can suffer severe irreversible physical and cognitive damage that accompanies stunted growth.
The devastating effects of stunting can last a lifetime and even affect the next generation

Wasting (UNICEF)
Refers to a child who is too thin for his or her height. Wasting is the result of recent rapid weight loss or the failure to gain weight.
A child who is moderately or severely wasted has an increased risk of death, but treatment is possible.

Overweight (UNICEF)
Refers to a child who is too heavy for his or her height. This form of malnutrition results from energy intakes from food and beverages that exceed children's energy requirements.
Overweight increases the risk of diet-related non-communicable diseases later in life.

Note:

… = Data not available

Mortality

Country	Post-neonatal mortality rate *(per 1,000 live births)*					Under-five mortality rate *(percent)* (SDG 3.2.1b)		
						2017		
	Female	Male	Basic	Secondary	Higher	Female	Male	Gender Gap
Algeria	…	…	…	…	…	22.5	25.5	3.0
Bahrain	…	…	…	…	…	7.1	7.6	0.5
Comoros	…	…	…	…	…	63.4	74.3	10.9
Djibouti	…	…	…	…	…	56.3	66.7	10.4
Egypt	…	…	…	…	…	20.7	23.4	2.7
Iraq	…	…	…	…	…	27.3	33.3	6.0
Jordan	…	…	…	…	…	16.1	17.9	1.8
Kuwait	…	…	…	…	…	7.5	8.7	1.2
Lebanon	…	…	…	…	…	7.4	8.2	0.8
Libya	…	…	…	…	…	11.1	13.6	2.5
Mauritania	…	…	…	…	…	72.9	84.7	11.8
Morocco	5.8	3.2	…	…	…	20.9	25.6	4.7
Oman	…	…	…	…	…	10.2	12.4	2.2
Qatar	…	…	…	…	…	7.0	8.2	1.2
Saudi Arabia	…	…	…	…	…	7.0	7.7	0.7
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	120.5	133.2	12.7
State of Palestine	6.4	7.7	19.9	7.3	6.3	19.1	22.7	3.6
Sudan	…	…	…	…	…	57.9	68.3	10.4
Syrian Arab Republic	…	…	…	…	…	15.5	18.5	3.0
Tunisia	4	6	…	…	…	11.8	14.2	2.4
United Arab Emirates	…	…	…	…	…	8.1	10.1	2.0
Yemen	…	…	…	…	…	51.4	59.3	7.9
Arab region						**77.2** **32.4**	**84.3** **37.4**	
World						**90.5** **36.4**	**95.7** **40.7**	

Sources:

Post-neonatal mortality rate by child sex
Data for Morocco from: DHS 2018.

Data for the State of Palestine from: MICS 2014.

Data for Tunisia from: MICS 2018.

Post-neonatal mortality by education of mother
Data for the State of Palestine from: MICS 2014.

Under-five mortality rate by sex
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed on 01 August 2019).

Arab regional and World averages: World Bank, "Mortality rate, under-5 (per 1,000 live births), 1990 and 2018", World Bank Data. https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SH.DYN.MORT (accessed on 01 August 2019).

Under-five mortality rate by location and wealth
Save the children 2019. https://campaigns.savethechildren.net/grid (accessed on 01 August 2019).

Infant mortality rate
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed on 01 August 2019).

Under-five mortality rate *(percent)* (SDG 3.2.1b)								Infant mortality rate *(per 1,000 live births)* (SDG 3.2.1a)		
								2017		
National Average	Female	Male	Rural	Urban	Poorest	Richest	Year	Female	Male	Gender Gap
26.0	…	…	31.0	23.0	36.0	19.0	MICS 2012-2013	19.1	22.0	2.9
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.1	6.4	0.3
80.0	…	77.0	93.0	45.0	84.0	64.0	DHS 2012	47.3	57.0	9.7
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	46.8	56.0	9.2
25.0	…	…	…	19.0	35.0	16.0	DHS 2014	17.5	20.0	2.5
25.0	22.0	27.0	…	…	29.0	16.0	MICS 2018	22.8	27.7	4.9
17.0	14.0	…	…	…	19.0	16.0	DHS 2017	13.8	15.4	1.6
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.4	7.4	1.0
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.4	6.9	0.5
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	9.4	11.8	2.4
84.0	76.0	90.0	94.0	70.0	108.0	64.0	MICS 2015	47.5	58.6	11.1
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	17.8	22.1	4.3
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	8.7	10.7	2.0
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.0	7.0	1.0
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.0	6.6	0.6
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	73.4	85.5	12.1
22.0	19.0	…	…	…	24.0	15.0	MICS 2014	16.4	19.3	2.9
69.0	61.0	77.0	72.0	…	81.0	43.0	MICS 2014	38.7	48.4	9.7
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	12.6	15.3	2.7
16.0	15.0	…	22.0	13.0	23.0	11.0	MICS 2012	10.0	12.3	2.3
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.9	8.7	1.8
55.0	…	56.0	60.0	42.0	66.0	36.0	DHS 2013	39.2	47.1	7.9
								24.1	**28.8**	
								26.7	**31.0**	

Arab regional and World averages: World Bank, "Mortality rate, infant (per 1,000 live births), 2018", World Bank Data. https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.IMRT.IN (accessed on 01 August 2019).

Definitions:

Neonatal mortality rate (UNICEF)
Probability of dying during the first 28 days of life, expressed per 1,000 live births.

Under-five mortality rate (UNICEF)
Probability of dying between birth and exactly 5 years of age, expressed per 1,000 live births.

Infant mortality rate (UNICEF)
Probability of dying between birth and exactly 1 year of age, expressed per 1,000 live births.

Note:

… = Data not available

Disability - Population

Country	Prevalence of disability *(percent)*									Population aged 65+ years *(percent)*		
	All area			Rural			Urban			PWD		
	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap
Egypt	1.6	2.2	0.6	1.6	2.2	0.6	1.6	2.3	0.7	32.7	19.3	-13.4
Iraq	1.8	2.1	0.3	1.5	1.9	0.3	2.0	2.2	0.3	34.0	22.4	-11.5
Jordan	2.7	2.8	0.1	2.2	2.4	0.1	2.7	2.8	0.1	37.5	24.5	-12.9
Morocco	5.1	5.0	-0.1	5.3	5.6	0.4	5.0	4.6	-0.4	41.5	33.1	-8.4
Oman	1.4	1.6	0.2	1.5	1.7	0.2	1.4	1.5	0.1	41.8	33.7	-8.2
Qatar	0.3	0.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	27.6	20.1	-7.5
Saudi Arabia	1.7	2.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	26.0	16.3	-9.7
State of Palestine	1.9	2.1	0.2	2.2	2.2	0.0	1.8	2.0	0.2	38.1	21.7	-16.4
Tunisia	1.2	1.3	0.1	1.5	1.7	0.2	1.0	1.1	0.1	41.2	32.4	-8.8
Yemen	2.0	2.3	0.3	2.0	2.6	0.5	2.0	1.8	-0.2	45.6	30.0	-15.7

Sources:

Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices as per the following surveys:

Egypt: Labor Force Survey (LFS) 2016

Iraq: Iraq Poverty and Maternal Mortality (IPMM) 2013

Jordan: Census 2015

Morocco: Census 2014

Oman: Census 2010

Qatar: Census 2010

Saudi Arabia: Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) 2016

State of Palestine: Census 2007

Tunisia: Census 2014

Yemen: Household Budget Survey (HBS) 2014

Definitions:

Prevalence of disability
The percentage of population with one or more forms of disability.

Persons with disabilities (PWD) and without disabilities (PWtD)
The WG defines persons with disabilities as those who are at greater risk than the general population of experiencing restrictions in completing specific tasks or activities due to limitations in their basic

Population aged 65+ years *(percent)*			Single population aged 15+ years *(percent)*						Single population aged 35-39 years *(percent)*					
PWtD			PWD			PWtD			PWD			PWtD		
Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap
3.8	4.3	0.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
2.7	2.4	-0.3	26.4	28.5	2.1	27.9	37.8	9.9	54.5	34.1	-20.4	10.8	6.8	-4.0
5.6	5.1	-0.5	22.4	25.7	3.4	30.1	39.3	9.2	42.7	27.1	-15.6	12.1	11.1	-0.9
4.4	4.4	0.0	18.6	27.3	8.7	29.6	41.8	12.2	50.1	52.3	2.2	17.9	19.8	1.8
2.9	3.1	0.1	27.2	36.8	9.6	39.8	49.5	9.7	54.3	50.0	-4.3	7.9	8.5	0.6
1.3	0.6	-0.7	35.8	43.1	7.2	29.8	31.4	1.6	56.9	43.9	-13.0	15.1	19.6	4.5
4.0	3.7	-0.3	44.1	49.4	5.3	32.8	41.9	9.1	61.3	48.6	-12.7	12.5	12.7	0.3
2.9	2.1	-0.8	28.6	29.6	1.0	32.1	41.9	9.8	55.5	18.8	-36.8	9.2	2.9	-6.3
7.5	7.1	-0.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
3.2	3.4	0.2	19.1	27.3	8.1	29.0	39.4	10.5	46.1	25.5	-20.6	5.7	6.0	0.3

functioning, such as walking, seeing, hearing– even if such limitations are ameliorated by the use of assistive devices, a supportive environment or plentiful resources. Such persons may not experience limitations in performing activities such as working or going shopping, because the necessary adaptations have been made at the person or environmental levels. These persons would still, however, be considered to be at greater risk of facing restrictions in undertaking activities and/or participating in society than the general population because of the presence of limitations in their basic functioning, and the absence of the necessary accommodation to them. PWD+ PWtD= Total population

Single population (DESA)
Population distribution by marital status is the percentage distribution of the population in a given age group by the different marital status categories. Marital status is the personal status of each individual in relation to the marriage laws or customs of a country. The categories of marital status are: (1) single (never married); (2) married; (3) widowed and not remarried; (4) divorced and not remarried; and (5) married but separated.

Notes:

… = Data not available

Prevalence of disability
Egypt: Population aged 6+
Iraq: All ages
Jordan: Population aged 5+
Morocco: All ages
Oman: All ages /Only nationals
Qatar: All ages
Saudi Arabia: All ages /Only nationals
State of Palestine: All ages /Only nationals, Camps was added to urban area
Tunisia: All ages
Yemen: All ages

Disability - Education

Country	School attendance of population aged 5-14 years *(percent)*							
	PWD			PWtD			Female WtD- Female WD	Male WtD- Male WD
	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap		
Egypt	39.2	49.2	10.0	94.0	94.3	0.3	54.8	45.1
Iraq	41.9	46.3	4.4	85.1	93.1	8.0	43.2	46.8
Jordan	91.0	91.0	-0.0	96.8	96.5	-0.3	5.8	5.5
Morocco	57.3	58.4	1.1	84.2	86.7	2.4	26.9	28.2
Oman	40.2	40.4	0.2	92.6	92.8	0.2	52.4	52.4
Saudi Arabia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
State of Palestine	58.7	60.9	2.1	90.8	90.1	-0.7	32.1	29.2
Yemen	23.0	44.1	21.1	61.7	71.6	9.9	38.7	27.5

Sources:

Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices as per the following surveys:

Egypt: LFS 2016

Iraq: IPMM 2013

Jordan: Census 2015

Morocco: Census 2014

Oman: Census 2010

Saudi Arabia: DHS 2016

State of Palestine: Census 2007

Yemen: HBS 2014

Definition:

School attendance (Table (P8.4-A) as recommended by the Population and Housing Census Recommendations, Rev2.)
The regular attendance at any educational institution or programme, public or private, for organized learning at regular accredited any level of education at the time of the census or, if the census is taken during the vacation period, at the end of the school year or during the last school year. According to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), education is taken to comprise all deliberate and systematic activities designed to meet learning needs. Instruction in particular skills which is not part of the recognized educational structure of the country (for example, in-service training courses in factories) is not normally considered "school attendance" for census purposes. School attendance patterns for persons with disability

School attendance of population aged 15-24 years *(percent)*							
PWD			PWtD			Female WtD- Female WD	Male WtD- Male WD
Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap		
13.6	13.5	-0.1	54.5	53.4	-1.0	40.9	39.9
15.4	16.4	1.0	33.5	46.3	12.8	18.1	29.9
38.0	28.0	-10.0	49.1	44.8	-4.3	11.0	16.7
18.5	17.9	-0.6	39.6	49.6	9.9	21.1	31.7
16.3	18.8	2.6	51.0	51.7	0.7	34.7	32.8
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
28.4	27.2	-1.3	57.9	53.8	-4.2	29.5	26.6
14.4	20.4	6.0	26.9	46.2	19.3	12.5	25.8

are used to compare the current pattern of participation and non-participation in education for people with and without disability. The percentage of people with disability of the school-age population who attend school can also be compared among the different types of disability.

Notes:

… = Data not available

School attendance
Egypt and Iraq: Data for population 6-14 instead of 5-14.

Disability - Education

Country	Youth literacy and illiteracy rate *(percent)* (KILM 14d)							
	PWD			PWtD			Female WtD- Female WD	Male WtD- Male WD
	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap		
Egypt	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Iraq	61.2	55.4	-5.8	16.8	10.2	-6.6	-44.4	-45.2
Jordan	43.9	35.7	-8.2	3.2	3.9	0.7	-40.7	-31.8
Morocco	41.7	34.4	-7.3	14.3	6.5	-7.8	-27.4	-27.9
Oman	49.2	45.1	-4.1	0.9	0.4	-0.5	-48.3	-44.7
Saudi Arabia	31.2	31.0	-0.2	0.5	0.3	-0.2	-30.7	-30.7
State of Palestine	40.8	28.9	-11.9	0.4	0.5	0.1	-40.4	-28.4
Yemen	7.7	4.4	-3.3	9.6	4.5	-5.1	1.9	0.1

Sources:

Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices as per the following surveys:

Egypt: LFS 2016

Iraq: IPMM 2013

Jordan: Census 2015

Morocco: Census 2014

Oman: Census 2010

Saudi Arabia: DHS 2016

State of Palestine: Census 2007

Yemen: HBS 2014

Definitions:.

Literacy and illiteracy rate (UNESCO)
The total number of literate persons in a given age group, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group. The adult literacy rate measures literacy among persons aged 15 years and a bove, and the youth literacy rate measures literacy among persons aged 15 to 24 years. Literacy rate+ Illiteracy rate= 100%.

No education or some primary education (UNESCO, ISCED 2011)
For classifying educational attainment, level 0 (less than primary education) is used for individuals who: never attended an education programme; attended some early childhood education (ISCED 0); or attended some primary education but have not successfully completed ISCED level 1 (with or without having attended ISCED 0).

Note:

… = Data not available

No education or some primary education of population aged 25+ years *(percent)*							
PWD			PWtD			Female WtD- Female WD	Male WtD- Male WD
Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap		
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
83.5	57.2	-26.3	48.0	27.3	-20.7	-35.5	-29.9
63.7	37.6	-26.1	25.7	19.7	-6.0	-38.0	-17.9
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
91.4	79.0	-12.4	39.2	23.5	-15.7	-52.2	-55.5
64.1	33.3	-30.8	45.2	25.3	-19.9	-18.9	-8.0
77.7	49.1	-28.6	23.6	13.2	-10.4	-54.1	-35.9
92.1	72.0	-20.1	67.4	28.9	-38.5	-24.7	-43.1

Disability - Employment

Country	Employment rate *(percent)* (KILM 2)							
	PWD			PWtD			Female WtD- Female WD	Male WtD- Male WD
	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap		
Egypt	5.0	28.9	23.9	17.7	64.3	46.6	12.7	35.4
Iraq	2.2	25.1	22.8	8.1	60.9	52.7	5.9	35.8
Jordan	3.2	25.2	21.9	12.6	58.4	45.8	9.4	33.2
Morocco	4.1	19.5	15.4	15.1	69.3	54.2	11.0	49.8
Oman	2.0	10.9	9.0	15.8	55.7	39.9	13.8	44.8
Qatar	4.3	26.2	21.9	51.0	95.9	45.0	46.7	69.7
Saudi Arabia	1.8	21.3	19.5	12.4	57.0	44.6	10.5	35.7
State of Palestine	2.7	22.5	19.8	8.9	53.5	44.5	6.2	31.0
Yemen	8.8	20.9	12.1	18.9	62.5	43.6	10.0	41.6

Sources:

Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices as per the following surveys:

Egypt: LFS 2016

Iraq: IPMM 2013

Jordan: Census 2015

Morocco: Census 2014

Oman: Census 2010

Qatar: Census 2010

Saudi Arabia: DHS 2016

State of Palestine: Census 2007

Yemen: HBS 2014

Definition:

Employment to population rate (employment rate) (ILO) The proportion of a country's working-age population that is employed. Employment comprises all persons of working age who during a specified brief period, such as one week or one day, were in the following categories: a) paid employment (whether at work or with a job but not at work); or b) self-employment (whether at work or with an enterprise but not at work).

Note:

... = Data not available

Employed percentage *(percent)*							
PWD			PWtD			Female WtD- Female WD	Male WtD- Male WD
Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap		
78.8	80.5	1.7	76.3	91.3	15.0	-2.5	10.8
78.2	74.7	-3.5	83.8	83.1	-0.7	5.6	8.4
57.7	75.2	17.5	66.3	87.1	20.8	8.6	11.9
66.5	83.4	16.9	70.5	87.6	17.1	4.0	4.2
61.1	70.0	8.9	61.5	80.9	19.4	0.4	10.9
73.4	98.1	24.7	97.3	99.9	2.6	23.9	1.8
24.7	51.4	26.7	67.2	88.5	21.3	42.5	37.1
75.2	69.9	-5.3	79.3	76.9	-2.4	4.1	7.0
94.2	86.3	-7.9	87.4	87.1	-0.3	-6.8	0.8

Disability - Employment

Country	Unemployment rate *(percent)* (SDG 8.5.2 and KILM 9)							
	PWD			PWtD			Female WtD- Female WD	Male WtD- Male WD
	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap		
Egypt	21.2	19.5	-1.7	23.7	8.7	-15.0	2.5	-10.8
Iraq	21.8	25.3	3.5	16.2	16.9	0.7	-5.6	-8.4
Jordan	42.3	24.8	-17.5	33.7	12.9	-20.8	-8.6	-11.9
Morocco	33.5	16.6	-16.9	29.5	12.4	-17.1	-4.0	-4.2
Oman	38.9	30.0	-8.9	38.5	19.1	-19.4	-0.4	-10.9
Qatar	26.6	1.9	-24.7	2.7	0.1	-2.6	-23.9	-1.8
Saudi Arabia	75.3	48.6	-26.7	32.8	11.5	-21.3	-42.5	-37.1
State of Palestine	24.8	30.1	5.3	20.7	23.1	2.4	-4.1	-7.0
Yemen	5.8	13.7	7.9	12.6	12.9	0.3	6.8	-0.8

Sources:

Calculated by ESCWA from national statistical offices as per the following surveys:

Egypt: LFS 2016

Iraq: IPMM 2013

Jordan: Census 2015

Morocco: Census 2014

Oman: Census 2010

Qatar: Census 2010

Saudi Arabia: DHS 2016

State of Palestine: Census 2007

Yemen: HBS 2014

Definitions:

Unemployed percentage (unemployment rate) (ILO)
It is calculated by expressing the number of unemployed persons as a percentage of the total number of persons in the labour force. The labour force (formerly known as the economically active population) is the sum of the number of persons employed and the number of persons unemployed.
Employed (%) + Unemployed (%)= 100%

Vulnerable employment (ILO)
Is the sum of "Own account workers" and "Contributing family workers".

Own-account workers (ILO)
Are those workers who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, hold the type of jobs defined as a "self-employment jobs", and have not engaged on a continuous basis any employees to work for them.

Note:

... = Data not available

Vulnerable employment *(percent)*				Own-account workers *(percent)* (KILM 3)							
PWD		PWtD		PWD			PWtD			Female WtD- Female WD	Male WtD- Male WD
Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap		
34.4	13.3	31.6	16.6	20.1	10.3	-9.8	23.2	3.6	-19.6	3.1	-6.7
26.0	24.4	15.0	22.4	12.9	23.0	10.1	3.3	20.5	17.2	-9.6	-2.5
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
35.2	51.1	25.3	39.4	26.5	47.4	20.9	14.7	33.8	19.1	-11.8	-13.6
21.8	9.3	7.0	4.7	18.8	8.9	-9.9	6.2	4.6	-1.6	-12.6	-4.3
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
0.0	8.8	1.1	3.7	0.0	7.4	7.4	0.3	3.0	2.7	0.3	-4.4
20.7	20.9	7.9	16.1	15.0	19.5	4.5	4.9	14.6	9.7	-10.1	-4.9
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…

Early Childhood Education

Country	Constitutions to right of education	Government expenditure on education *(% GDP)*		Participation rate in organized learning *(percent)* (SDG 4.2.2)			
	Score	Percent	Year	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Year
Algeria	4	4.3	2008	85.4	84.4	-1.0	2011
Bahrain	1	2.3	2017	76.2	77.5	1.3	2017
Comoros	4	4.3	2015	38.3	40.5	2.2	2017
Djibouti	1	4.5	2010	9.1	9.2	0.1	2018
Egypt	4	3.8	2008	37.9	38.2	0.4	2017
Iraq	4	3.6	1989	17.1	18.2	1.1	2007
Jordan	1	3.6	2017	49.8	51.6	1.8	2012
Kuwait	3	3.8	2006	76.9	75.4	-1.6	2017
Lebanon	1	2.5	2013	93.3	98.6	5.2	2017
Libya	3	2.3	1999	…	…	…	…
Mauritania	1	2.6	2016	…	…	…	…
Morocco	5	5.3	2009	49.5	58.5	9.0	2017
Oman	1	6.7	2017	84.7	81.7	-3.0	2017
Qatar	4	2.9	2017	94.5	91.3	-3.2	2017
Saudi Arabia	1	5.1	2008	46.9	53.2	6.3	2016
Somalia	4	…	…	…	…	…	…
State of Palestine	4	5.3	2017	62.2	62.3	0.1	2017
Sudan	4	2.2	2009	…	…	…	…
Syrian Arab Republic	4	5.1	2009	38.0	39.1	1.1	2013
Tunisia	4	6.6	2015	41.9	42.4	0.6	2002
United Arab Emirates	1	1.1	1997	76.0	81.8	5.8	2014
Yemen	3	5.2	2008	4.0	4.6	0.6	2013
Arab region				**43**	**44**	**0.8**	**2012**
				45	**46**	**0.5**	**2018**
World				**61**	**62**	**0.5**	**2012**
				64	**65**	**0.4**	**2018**

Sources:

Constitutions to right of education for all girls and women
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), Atlas of girls' and women's right to education, Map 3/12.
https://en.unesco.org/education/girls-women-rights (accessed on 15 July 2019).

Government expenditure on education
UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Government expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP".
http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 10 June 2019).

Participation rate in organized learning
UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Adjusted net enrolment rate, one year before the official primary entry age".
http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 22 May 2019).

Data for Algeria and Saudi Arabia from: WHO

Primary net attendance rate
UNICEF Global databases 2017 based on MICS, DHS and other national household surveys (last updated on December 2017).
https://data.unicef.org/ (accessed on 24 May 2019).

Compulsory and free years
UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Number of years of (a) free and (b) compulsory primary education guaranteed in legal frameworks".
http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 24 May 2019).

Primary Education

Primary net attendance rate *(percent)*											
2017											
Total	Female	Male	Rural	Urban	Poorest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Richest	Compulsory years	Free years
98.0	97.0	98.0	97.0	98.0	96.0	97.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	5.0	5.0
86.4	86.6	86.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.0	6.0
84.0	84.0	84.0	82.0	90.0	72.0	81.0	89.0	94.0	95.0	6.0	6.0
69.5	67.9	70.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	5.0	5.0
97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	95.0	96.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	6.0	6.0
90.0	87.0	93.0	84.0	94.0	79.0	90.0	94.0	96.0	98.0	6.0	6.0
98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	98.0	97.0	99.0	97.0	99.0	99.0	6.0	6.0
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	5.0	5.0
98.3	98.4	98.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.0	6.0
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.0	6.0
59.6	62.0	58.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.0	6.0
89.0	88.0	91.0	83.0	96.0	77.0	87.0	95.0	97.0	97.0	6.0	6.0
97.5	98.0	97.1	97.3	97.7	…	…	…	…	…	..	6.0
96.5	96.7	96.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.0	6.0
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.0	6.0
21.3	19.0	23.5	11.2	38.6	3.8	6.2	17.9	31.3	50.3	..	..
99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	4.0	4.0
68.0	67.0	69.0	61.0	86.0	48.0	54.0	68.0	87.0	94.0	6.0	6.0
97.0	96.0	97.0	96.0	98.0	92.0	97.0	98.0	98.0	99.0	6.0	6.0
98.0	98.0	98.0	97.0	99.0	96.0	98.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	6.0	6.0
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	5.0	5.0
76.0	72.0	80.0	73.0	85.0	56.0	76.0	82.0	83.0	90.0	6.0	6.0

Definitions:

Government expenditure on education (UNESCO)
The total general (local, regional and central) government expenditure on education (current, capital, and transfers), expressed as a percentage of total general government expenditure on all sectors (including health, education, social services, etc.). It includes expenditure funded by transfers from international sources to government.

Participation rate in organized learning (SDG Metadata)
The percentage of children in the given age range who participate in one or more organized learning programme, including programmes which offer a combination of education and care. Participation in early childhood and in primary education are both included. The age range will vary by country depending on the official age for entry to primary education.

Net attendance rate in primary education (UNICEF)
The number of children attending primary or secondary school who are of primary school age, expressed as a percentage of the total number of children of primary school age. Because of the inclusion of primary-school-aged children attending secondary school, this indicator can also be referred to as a primary adjusted net attendance ratio. Calculation follows International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED).

Compulsory education (UNESCO)
The number of years or age span during which children are legally obliged to attend school.

Note:

… = Data not available

Primary Education

Country	Primary Net Enrolment Rate (NER) *(percent)*				Primary survival rate *(percent)*			
	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Year	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Year
Algeria	96.6	98.4	1.8	2016	96.0	93.8	-2.2	2016
Bahrain	97.3	97.6	0.3	2017	97.8	95.4	-2.3	2016
Comoros	78.9	80.7	1.8	2017	78.0	64.6	-13.4	2013
Djibouti	53.5	60.9	7.4	2018	70.8	80.3	9.6	2012
Egypt	97.6	96.5	-1.1	2017	97.0	95.8	-1.2	2016
Iraq	86.6	97.7	11.1	2007	…	…	…	…
Jordan	93.3	91.4	-1.9	2004	…	…	…	…
Kuwait	86.8	87.7	0.9	2017	86.1	98.5	12.4	2016
Lebanon	83.5	89.1	5.6	2017	97.3	90.9	-6.4	2016
Libya	94.1	99.3	5.2	1981	…	…	…	…
Mauritania	77.6	73.9	-3.7	2017	63.4	64.9	1.6	2012
Morocco	96.6	97.0	0.4	2017	95.4	94.7	-0.7	2016
Oman	94.2	94.0	-0.2	2017	98.5	97.8	-0.6	2016
Qatar	94.0	94.8	0.8	2017	95.3	97.1	1.7	2016
Saudi Arabia	99.6	99.3	-0.3	2012	…	…	…	…
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
State of Palestine	91.6	91.9	0.3	2017	98.3	98.3	-0.0	2015
Sudan	59.5	61.4	1.9	2017	76.8	73.8	-3.0	2016
Syrian Arab Republic	62.4	64.0	1.6	2013	…	…	…	…
Tunisia	97.2	98.0	0.8	2009	93.7	92.7	-1.0	2014
United Arab Emirates	93.6	95.5	1.9	2016	93.2	90.8	-2.4	2012
Yemen	77.7	88.2	10.5	2016	66.7	71.8	5.1	2012
Arab region	**72** **83**	**80** **85**	**8.0** **2.0**	**2000** **2017**	**81**	**81**	**0**	**2016**
World					**82**	**80**	**-2**	**2016**

Sources:

Primary NER
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), Institute for Statistics, "Net enrolment rate, primary".
http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 06 July 2019).

Primary survival rate
UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Survival rate in primary education".
http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 11 May 2019).

Primary completion rate
UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Completion rate, primary education".
http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 22 May 2019).

Definitions:

NER (UNESCO)
The total number of students in the theoretical age group for a given level of education enrolled in that level, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group.

Survival rate (UNESCO)
The percentage of a cohort of students enrolled in the first grade of a given level or cycle of education in a given school year who are expected to reach a given grade, regardless of repetition.

Completion rate (UNESCO)
The percentage of a cohort of children or young people aged 3-5 years above the intended age for the last grade of each level of education who have completed that grade. The intended age for the last grade of each level of education is the age at which pupils would

Primary completion rate *(percent)*													
National Average	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Rural	Urban	Urban-Rural	Poorest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Richest	Richest- Poorest	Year
94.2	94.8	93.7	-1.1	91.8	95.7	3.8	86.7	95.4	94.3	96.4	99.2	12.5	2013
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
76.6	77.8	75.5	-2.3	71.6	86.9	15.3	53.1	71.9	80.7	82.4	91.8	38.7	2012
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
90.9	91.5	90.2	-1.3	89.9	92.6	2.7	87.0	88.5	91.4	92.2	97.3	10.4	2014
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
53.0	49.3	57.5	8.2	39.3	67.3	28.0	26.8	38.3	52.0	62.2	83.7	56.9	2015
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
99.0	98.5	99.4	0.9		99.0	99.0						0.0	2012
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
99.1	99.5	98.8	-0.7	99.2	99.1	-0.1	98.8	98.7	98.8	99.7	99.4	0.6	2014
65.4	64.4	66.5	2.0	58.1	81.4	23.4	42.7	50.5	59.0	83.8	94.4	51.7	2014
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
94.0	95.0	93.1	-2.0	89.0	96.9	7.9	82.6	94.9	97.1	99.0	98.9	16.3	2012
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
62.3	54.6	69.8	15.1	56.1	77.4	21.4	33.6	54.0	66.3	73.1	85.2	51.6	2013
70													**2000**
84													**2018**

enter the grade if they had started school at the official primary entrance age, had studied full-time and had progressed without repeating or skipping a grade.

Note:

… = Data not available

Secondary Education

Country	Lower secondary Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) *(percent)*				Secondary Net Enrolment Rate (NER) *(percent)*			
	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Year	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Year
Algeria	126.5	136.8	10.4	2011	…	…	…	…
Bahrain	102.7	101.8	-0.9	2017	93.8	92.1	-1.6	2017
Comoros	63.7	61.0	-2.7	2017	44.8	41.2	-3.6	2017
Djibouti	47.6	56.5	8.9	2018	31.7	38.3	6.6	2015
Egypt	96.1	96.0	-0.1	2017	81.6	81.3	-0.3	2017
Iraq	55.5	76.4	20.9	2007	39.9	49.5	9.6	2007
Jordan	71.7	72.4	0.8	2017	65.1	63.2	-1.9	2017
Kuwait	98.6	98.1	-0.5	2012	89.1	83.7	-5.5	2015
Lebanon	70.5	71.9	1.4	2017	65.0	64.8	-0.2	2012
Libya	103.0	103.6	0.6	2006	…	…	…	…
Mauritania	37.8	39.0	1.2	2017	24.9	25.5	0.6	2017
Morocco	89.3	103.8	14.5	2017	63.0	63.6	0.6	2017
Oman	103.0	111.4	8.5	2017	90.9	91.5	0.6	2017
Qatar	96.5	91.9	-4.6	2017	85.4	68.5	-16.9	2017
Saudi Arabia	104.1	132.5	28.5	2014	83.5	86.4	2.9	2013
Somalia	4.8	10.2	5.5	2007	…	…	…	…
State of Palestine	93.0	88.7	-4.3	2017	87.1	79.5	-7.6	2017
Sudan	57.5	59.0	1.5	2017	30.8	32.3	1.5	2011
Syrian Arab Republic	58.2	60.1	1.9	2013	45.3	45.8	0.5	2013
Tunisia	110.8	113.5	2.7	2016	…	…	…	…
United Arab Emirates	100.0	101.9	1.9	2016	85.6	89.4	3.9	2016
Yemen	51.0	68.5	17.4	2016	39.8	54.1	14.3	2016
Arab region	**82.7**	**91.1**	**8.4**	**2017**	**61.3**	**66.0**	**4.7**	**2018**
World	**84.7**	**85.4**	**0.7**	**2017**	**66.3**	**66.0**	**-0.3**	**2018**

Sources:

Lower secondary GER
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), Institute for Statistics, "Gross enrolment ratio, lower secondary". http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 29 August 2019).

Secondary NER
UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Net enrolment rate, secondary". http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 03 July 2019).

Arab regional and World averages: World Bank, "School enrollment, secondary (% net), 2018", World Bank Data. https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.SEC.NENR (accessed on 03 July 2019).

Lower and upper secondary or higher completion rate
UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Completion rate of lower and upper secondary education". http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 17 June 2019).

Lower secondary completion rate *(percent)*													
National Average	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Rural	Urban	Urban-Rural	Poorest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Richest	Richest-Poorest	Year
56.5	64.7	48.6	-16.0	47.0	62.3	15.3	38.0	48.7	55.3	64.4	78.0	39.9	2013
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
45.3	45.5	45.1	-0.3	39.9	57.7	17.7	20.0	35.1	48.7	52.7	62.2	42.2	2012
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
80.2	81.1	79.4	-1.7	76.9	86.3	9.4	70.6	73.4	82.2	83.8	94.9	24.3	2014
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
36.1	31.1	42.5	11.4	23.7	45.7	22.0	15.3	16.1	37.4	37.3	59.0	43.7	2015
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
96.0	96.2	95.8	-0.4	…	96.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2012
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
85.9	92.6	79.9	-12.7	88.1	85.5	-2.6	76.6	86.0	84.3	89.4	92.9	16.3	2014
51.2	51.8	50.6	-1.3	42.2	69.6	27.4	26.4	33.2	40.8	60.9	89.2	62.9	2014
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
69.2	73.6	64.8	-8.7	56.3	76.8	20.5	43.5	61.0	70.8	83.7	94.9	51.4	2012
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
46.5	39.4	54.0	14.6	38.4	64.2	25.8	20.6	35.2	47.5	52.2	72.2	51.6	2013

Definitions:

GER (UNESCO)
The number of students enrolled in a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education. For the tertiary level, the population used is the 5-year age group starting from the official secondary school graduation age.

NER (UNESCO)
The total number of students in the theoretical age group for a given level of education enrolled in that level, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group.

Completion rate (UNESCO)
The percentage of a cohort of children or young people aged 3-5 years above the intended age for the last grade of each level of education who have completed that grade. The intended age for the last grade of each level of education is the age at which pupils would enter the grade if they had started school at the official primary entrance age, had studied full-time and had progressed without repeating or skipping a grade.

Note:

… = Data not available

Secondary Education

Country	Upper secondary or higher completion rate *(percent)*													
	National Average	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Rural	Urban	Urban-Rural	Poorest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Richest	Richest-Poorest	Year
Algeria	29.4	37.2	21.9	-15.2	22.8	33.3	10.5	16.7	19.6	27.4	33.3	50.1	33.4	2013
Bahrain	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Comoros	29.8	32.6	26.3	-6.3	22.0	43.5	21.5	7.6	22.6	28.0	33.6	49.3	41.7	2012
Djibouti	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Egypt	41.9	40.9	42.8	1.9	33.9	56.6	22.7	26.9	28.9	35.7	46.5	72.5	45.6	2014
Iraq	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Jordan	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Kuwait	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Lebanon	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Libya	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Mauritania	15.7	11.9	20.9	9.0	7.2	20.8	13.5	4.0	4.3	12.3	13.0	30.6	26.6	2015
Morocco	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Oman	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Qatar	83.5	85.6	80.9	-4.7	…	83.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2012
Saudi Arabia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
State of Palestine	62.2	72.7	52.1	-20.6	64.1	61.7	-2.4	49.7	62.2	57.2	62.9	79.1	29.4	2014
Sudan	30.7	28.0	33.6	5.6	21.5	47.4	25.9	11.3	11.2	19.2	33.3	69.5	58.2	2014
Syrian Arab Republic	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tunisia	44.2	51.0	38.0	-13.0	25.9	53.3	27.3	17.7	28.9	39.7	57.9	77.0	59.3	2012
United Arab Emirates	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Yemen	30.6	24.0	37.3	13.3	23.1	46.0	22.9	10.2	17.5	28.0	33.0	56.8	46.6	2013

Sources:

Lower and upper secondary or higher completion rate
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), Institute for Statistics, "Completion rate of lower and upper secondary education".
http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 17 June 2019).

Secondary vocational education for females
UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Percentage of students in secondary vocational education who are female".
http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 24 May 2019).

Educational attainment rate, 25+ years
UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Educational attainment rate, completed lower/ upper secondary education or higher, population 25+ years".
http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 02 September 2019).

Quality of education
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.
https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed on 20 August 2019).

Data for the State of Palestine and the Syrian Arab Republic for the year 2011.

Definitions:

Completion rate (UNESCO)
The percentage of a cohort of children or young people aged 3-5 years above the intended age for the last grade of each level of education who have completed that grade. The intended age for the last grade of each level of education is the age at which pupils would enter the grade if they had started school at the official primary entrance age, had studied full-time and had progressed without repeating or skipping a grade.

Educational attainment and Quality

Secondary vocational education for female *(percent)*		Country	Educational attainment (25+ years) *(percent)*				Quality of education *(ratio)* (SDG 4.1.1c) 2015	
Percent	Year		Female	Male	Gender Gap	Year	(a) mathematics	(b) reading
…	…	**Algeria**	22.7	28.1	5.3	2008	1.2	1.5
8.3	2017	**Bahrain**	46.8	39.3	-7.5	2016	1.1	…
8.3	2017	**Comoros**	…	…	…	…	…	…
43.4	2018	**Djibouti**	…	…	…	…	…	…
41.0	2017	**Egypt**	…	…	…	…	1.1	…
…	…	**Iraq**	23.9	34.4	10.4	2013	…	…
41.1	2017	**Jordan**	40.1	42.5	2.5	2010	1.2	1.5
58.4	2015	**Kuwait**	36.3	26.4	-9.9	2015	1.1	…
39.2	2017	**Lebanon**	32.5	33.4	0.9	2007	1.0	1.1
…	…	**Libya**	…	…	…	…	…	…
39.2	2017	**Mauritania**	…	…	…	…	…	…
33.9	2017	**Morocco**	…	…	…	…	1.0	…
…	…	**Oman**	63.2	45.3	-17.9	2015	1.3	…
7.9	2017	**Qatar**	58.7	36.9	-21.8	2016	1.1	1.3
17.9	2014	**Saudi Arabia**	45.7	50.9	5.3	2013	1.2	…
…	…	**Somalia**	…	…	…	…	…	…
20.3	2017	**State of Palestine**	39.6	39.7	0.1	2016	1.2	…
24.3	2017	**Sudan**	…	…	…	…	…	…
39.3	2013	**Syrian Arab Republic**	18.9	24.8	5.9	2009	0.9	…
36.7	2016	**Tunisia**	39.3	50.1	10.7	2016	0.9	1.3
35.3	2016	**United Arab Emirates**	59.9	43.0	-16.9	2005	1.1	1.3
14.9	2016	**Yemen**	…	…	…	…	…	…

Vocational education (UNESCO)
The education that is designed for learners to acquire the knowledge, skills and competencies specific to a particular occupation or trade or class of occupations or trades. Vocational education may have work-based components (e.g. apprenticeships). Successful completion of such programmes leads to labour-market relevant vocational qualifications acknowledged as occupationally-oriented by the relevant national authorities and/or the labour market.

Educational attainment, 25+ years (UNESCO)
The percentage distribution of population aged 25 years and above according to the highest level of education attained or completed with reference to ISCED.

Quality of education (SDG Metadata)
The percentage of children and young people in the end of lower secondary education achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (a) reading and (b) mathematics. The minimum proficiency level will be measured relative to new common reading and mathematics scales currently in development.
GPI= represent the ratio of the indicator value for one group to that of the other. Typically, the likely more disadvantaged group is placed in the numerator. A value of exactly 1 indicates parity between the two groups.

Note:

… = Data not available

Higher Education

Country	Tertiary Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) *(percent)*				Tertiary gross attendance ratio *(percent)*								
					Total			Rural			Urban		
	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Year	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap
Algeria	…	…	…	…	32.1	19.7	-12.4	24.2	14.1	-10.1	36.9	23.1	-13.8
Bahrain	63.0	33.7	-29.30	2016	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Comoros	…	…	…	…	14.2	11.4	-2.8	10.7	9.2	-1.4	22.0	15.0	-7.0
Djibouti	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Egypt	34.8	34.0	-0.80	2016	24.5	27.1	2.6	17.4	20.1	2.7	37.6	38.4	0.8
Iraq	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Jordan	37.5	35.0	-2.50	2016	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Kuwait	42.7	23.0	-19.70	2013	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Lebanon	45.8	39.6	-6.20	2016	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Libya	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Mauritania	3.5	6.9	3.40	2016	5.9	10.9	5.0	3.5	5.7	2.1	8.0	14.3	6.3
Morocco	30.7	33.2	2.50	2016	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Oman	59.7	32.8	-26.90	2016	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Qatar	47.1	6.4	-40.70	2016	48.2	45.5	-2.6	…	…	…	48.2	45.5	-2.6
Saudi Arabia	66.7	66.5	-0.20	2016	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
State of Palestine	52.8	33.1	-19.70	2016	50.9	36.8	-14.1	57.3	40.8	-16.5	49.6	35.9	-13.7
Sudan	17.5	16.5	-1.00	2014	15.6	17.2	1.6	7.5	10.6	3.1	32.3	29.2	-3.1
Syrian Arab Republic	42.7	36	-6.70	2016	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tunisia	41.2	24.1	-17.10	2016	35.0	20.7	-14.3	17.0	10.4	-6.6	44.0	26.0	-18.0
United Arab Emirates	53.2	26.7	-26.50	2016	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Yemen	6.1	13.7	7.60	2011	9.2	16.9	7.8	2.3	13.0	10.7	24.1	24.1	0.0

Sources:

Tertiary GER
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), Institute for Statistics, "Gross enrolment ratio, tertiary". http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 22 May 2019).

Tertiary gross attendance ratio
UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Gross attendance ratio, tertiary education". http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 22 May 2019).

Graduates by specialization
Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia, *Arab Gender Lens 2019 Pocketbook: A Statistical Portrait of the Western Asia Region*, E/ESCWA/SD/2019/TP.1 (Beirut, 2019).

Definitions:

GER (UNESCO)
The number of students enrolled in a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education. For the tertiary level, the population used is the 5-year age group starting from the official secondary school graduation age.

Gross attendance ratio (DHS-UNICEF)
The total number of students in a level, expressed as a percentage of the official school -age population. If there are significant numbers of overage and underage students at a given level of schooling, the GAR can exceed 100.0.

Graduates by specialization
Graduates in engineering, manufacturing and construction: Engineering, manufacturing and construction includes Engineering and engineering trades, Manufacturing and production process, Architecture and Building according to ISCED 5A

Tertiary gross attendance ratio *(percent)*									Graduates by specialization *(number)*					
Poorest				Richest					2019					
Rural		Urban		Rural		Urban			Graduates in Science			Graduates in Engineering, manufacturing and construction		
Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Year	Female	Male	GPI	Female	Male	GPI
18.0	9.4	22.6	7.8	46.7	32.9	51.7	40.5	2013	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	84	134	0.6	196	457	0.4
0.4	0.8	3.4	4.1	25.8	17.4	33.0	24.4	2012	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
15.9	13.1	20.2	5.5	…	…	46.5	54.4	2014	7919	3703	2.2	2340	8104	0.3
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	3499	5441	0.6	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	1674	623	2.7	3348	5470	0.6
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	78	19	4.1	192	87	2.2
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2300	1439	1.6	1128	3073	0.4
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
1.9	2.9	…	…	…	…	10.6	21.1	2015	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	7746	9300	0.8	2419	6974	0.3
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	1964	1112	1.8	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2012	115	88	1.3	172	594	0.3
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	14980	11283	1.3	539	13168	0.0
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	36.4	24.4	83.3	59.1	72.9	50.3	2014	1029	289	3.6	1348	2767	0.5
1.9	5.9	7.6	4.2	35.9	35.0	53.2	46.4	2014	5166	7187	0.7	2512	5379	0.5
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2255	2175	1.0	2185	2185	1.0
9.1	7.6	14.2	5.9	…	…	75.1	46.4	2012	7649	4114	1.9	4885	6253	0.8
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2184	529	4.1	1378	2484	0.6
0.2	5.4	…	…	5.6	30.2	34.5	34.3	2013	…	…	…	…	…	…

<http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Documents/isced-2011-en.pdf>.
Graduates in Science: Science includes Life Sciences, Physical Sciences, Mathematics and statistics according to ISCED 5B <http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Documents/isced-2011-en.pdf>.

GPI in education
Reflects females' level of access to education compared to that of males. This is calculated for each school phase. ESCWA calculate GPI as the ratio of Girls to Boys.

Notes:

… = Data not available
GPI= Gender Parity Index

Literacy

Country	Adult literacy rate *(percent)*					Youth literacy rate *(percent)*							
	Female	Male	GPI	Gender Gap	Year	Female	Male	Year	Female	Male	GPI	Gender Gap	Year
Algeria	67.5	82.6	0.8	15.1	2008	86.1	94.1	2002	91.7	95.7	1.0	4.0	2008
Bahrain	93.0	95.9	1.0	2.9	2016	97.3	96.8	2001	94.9	93.6	1.0	-1.4	2016
Comoros	42.6	56.5	0.8	13.8	2012	77.6	84.0	2000	69.6	73.8	0.9	4.2	2012
Djibouti	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Egypt	65.5	76.5	0.9	11.0	2017	78.9	90.1	2005	86.8	89.5	1.0	2.7	2017
Iraq	38.0	53.0	0.7	15.1	2013	80.5	88.9	2000	48.6	57.0	0.9	8.4	2013
Jordan	97.4	98.4	1.0	1.1	2012	98.9	99.3	2003	99.2	99.0	1.0	-0.2	2012
Kuwait	94.9	96.7	1.0	1.8	2018	99.8	99.7	2005	99.5	98.8	1.0	-0.7	2018
Lebanon	88.1	94.3	0.9	6.2	2009	99.1	98.4	2007	99.3	99.2	1.0	-0.2	2009
Libya	77.8	93.9	0.8	16.1	2004	99.4	99.9	2004	99.4	99.9	1.0	0.4	2004
Mauritania	35.3	57.4	0.6	22.1	2007	55.5	67.7	2000	47.7	66.4	0.7	18.7	2007
Morocco	59.1	80.4	0.7	21.3	2012	60.5	80.8	2004	87.8	94.6	0.9	6.8	2012
Oman	93.2	97.4	1.0	4.2	2017	96.7	97.9	2003	99.0	98.5	1.0	-0.5	2017
Qatar	94.2	92.9	1.0	-1.3	2016	97.5	94.9	2004	97.3	94.8	1.0	-2.5	2016
Saudi Arabia	91.4	96.5	0.9	5.2	2013	94.7	97.0	2004	99.1	99.3	1.0	0.2	2013
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
State of Palestine	95.2	98.6	1.0	3.4	2016	98.9	99.0	2004	99.3	99.5	1.0	0.1	2016
Sudan	46.7	59.8	0.8	13.1	2008	72.3	85.7	2000	62.7	68.7	0.9	6.0	2008
Syrian Arab Republic	73.6	87.8	0.8	14.1	2004	93.0	97.1	2002	90.2	94.6	1.0	4.4	2004
Tunisia	72.2	86.1	0.8	13.8	2014	92.2	96.4	2004	95.8	96.6	1.0	0.8	2014
United Arab Emirates	91.5	89.5	1.0	-2.0	2005	97.0	93.6	2005	97.0	93.6	1.0	-3.4	2005
Yemen	35.0	73.2	0.5	38.2	2004	60.6	92.9	2004	60.6	92.9	0.7	32.2	2004
Arab region	**53.7**	**75.9**	**0.7**	**22.2**	**2000**	**76.1**	**87.5**	**2000**	**84.2**	**89.2**	**0.9**	**5.0**	**2016**
	67.2	**82.6**	**0.8**	**15.4**	**2016**								
World	**76.4**	**86.6**	**0.9**	**10.2**	**2000**								
	82.7	**89.8**	**0.9**	**7.2**	**2016**	**83.3**	**89.9**	**2000**	**89.9**	**92.8**	**1.0**		

Sources:

Adult literacy rate
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), Institute for Statistics, "Adult literacy rate, population 15+ years". http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 20 June 2019).

Youth literacy rate
UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, "Youth literacy rate, population 15-24 years". http://data.uis.unesco.org/ (accessed on 20 June 2019).

Never been to school
World Inequality Database on Education. https://www.education-inequalities.org/ (accessed on 25 June 2019).

Definitions:

Adult literacy rate (UNESCO)
The percentage of population aged 15 years and over who can both read and write with understanding a short simple statement on his/her everyday life. Generally, 'literacy' also encompasses 'numeracy', the ability to make simple arithmetic calculations. Adult illiteracy is defined as the percentage of the population aged 15 years and over who cannot both read and write with understanding a short simple statement on his/her everyday life.

Youth literacy rate (UNESCO)
The percentage of people aged 15 to 24 years who can both read and write with understanding a short simple statement on their everyday life. Generally, 'literacy' also

Never been to school *(percent)*									
Female	Male	Rural	Urban	Poorest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Richest	Year
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
12	10	13	5	22	15	5	4	2	DHS 2012
18	13	43	15	…	…	…	…	…	MICS 2006
3	1	2	2	4	3	1	2	1	DHS 2014
10	5	13	4	19	7	4	2	1	MICS 2011
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	DHS 2012
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
11	10	14	4	22	13	8	5	2	MICS 2011
11	8	16	3	20	13	4	2	2	DHS 2003
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	MICS 2014
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
61	44	74	22	89	84	58	30	10	…
0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	MICS 2006
19	17	23	4	35	29	16	3	1	MICS 2014
2	1	2	1	3	1	1	1	2	MICS 2006
1	0	2	0	2	1	1	0	0	MICS 2012
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
16	8	15	4	33	12	6	4	2	DHS 2013

encompasses 'numeracy', the ability to make simple arithmetic calculations.

Never been to school (UNESCO)
The percentage of children aged 3-6 years above primary school entrance age who have never been to school.

Notes:

… = Data not available
GPI= Gender Parity Index

Out-of-school

Country	Out-of-school rate for children *(percent)*												
	2017												
	Total	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Rural	Urban	Urban-Rural	Poorest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Richest	Richest-Poorest
Algeria	2.2	2.2	2.2	0.0	2.6	1.9	-0.7	3.4	2.6	1.7	1.7	1.4	-2.0
Bahrain	13.6	13.4	13.8	0.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Comoros	15.5	15.5	15.5	-0.0	17.8	9.9	-7.9	28.5	18.9	11.1	5.9	4.9	-23.6
Djibouti	30.5	32.1	29.2	-2.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Egypt	3.2	3.4	3.0	-0.4	3.2	3.2	-0.1	5.3	4.1	1.8	2.4	1.9	-3.4
Iraq	9.6	12.6	6.8	-5.8	16.2	6.2	-9.9	21.2	9.9	6.4	3.9	2.4	-18.9
Jordan	1.9	1.9	2.0	0.1	1.7	1.9	0.2	3.4	1.3	2.7	1.1	0.6	-2.8
Kuwait	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Lebanon	1.7	1.6	1.7	0.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Libya	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Mauritania	17.3	17.8	16.7	-1.2	20.0	12.3	-7.7	26.9	20.3	15.0	11.7	6.5	-20.4
Morocco	10.6	12.0	9.3	-2.7	17.3	4.0	-13.3	22.8	13.5	4.7	2.6	2.9	-19.9
Oman	2.5	2.0	2.9	0.9	2.7	2.4	-0.3	…	…	…	…	…	…
Qatar	3.5	3.3	3.7	0.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Saudi Arabia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Somalia	75.9	78.6	73.4	-5.2	86.3	58.1	-28.2	93.9	91.9	77.6	65.6	47.4	-46.6
State of Palestine	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.3	0.7	0.4	0.5	1.1	0.7	0.1	0.6	0.0
Sudan	26.7	27.4	26.0	-1.4	32.4	12.0	-20.4	45.2	38.3	23.9	10.9	5.2	-40.0
Syrian Arab Republic	3.4	3.6	3.3	-0.3	4.4	2.5	-1.9	7.8	3.2	2.2	1.9	1.1	-6.7
Tunisia	1.7	1.9	1.5	-0.4	3.3	0.7	-2.5	3.8	2.1	1.2	0.7	0.3	-3.4
United Arab Emirates	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Yemen	23.6	27.6	19.7	-7.9	27.0	14.6	-12.3	43.6	23.8	18.4	16.5	10.2	-33.4
Arab region	**14.0**	**16.0**	**13.0**										
World	**8.0**	**9.0**	**7.0**										

Sources:

Out-of-school rate for children by sex, location and wealth
UNICEF Global databases 2017 based on MICS, DHS and other national household surveys (last updated on December 2017).
https://data.unicef.org/ (accessed on 15 June 2019).

Arab regional and World averages: World Bank, "Children out of school (% of primary school age), 2018", World Bank Data.
https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.PRM.UNER.ZS (accessed on 15 June 2019).

Out-of-school rate for adolescents by sex, location and wealth
UNICEF Global databases 2017 based on MICS, DHS and other national household surveys (last updated on December 2017).
https://data.unicef.org/ (accessed on 15 June 2019).

Definitions:

Out-of-school rate for children (UNICEF)
The number of children of primary school age who are not enrolled in primary or secondary school, expressed as a percentage of the population of primary school age. Children enrolled in pre-primary education are excluded and considered out of school. Calculation follows the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED).

Out-of-school rate for adolescents *(percent)*												
2017												
Total	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Rural	Urban	Urban-Rural	Poorest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Richest	Richest-Poorest
5.5	6.3	4.7	-1.6	8.3	3.9	-4.4	11.7	5.8	4.9	2.9	1.8	-9.9
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
14.4	14.1	14.7	0.5	16.1	11.0	-5.1	27.4	15.8	12.6	9.1	8.1	-19.3
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
9.9	10.3	9.5	-0.8	11.1	7.9	-3.2	14.7	12.8	8.6	9.2	2.3	-12.4
26.4	36.4	16.9	-19.4	39.2	20.2	-19.0	45.3	32.9	23.3	19.0	8.9	-36.4
5.4	4.6	6.1	1.5	2.8	5.9	3.1	10.5	7.3	3.6	2.4	2.0	-8.5
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
24.4	27.0	21.7	-5.3	28.5	18.2	-10.4	35.9	30.7	21.3	19.8	13.4	-22.5
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
3.0	3.2	2.6	-0.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
67.3	69.5	65.0	-4.4	81.0	46.9	-34.1	90.7	86.9	73.3	52.3	32.8	-57.9
4.1	1.6	6.5	4.9	4.7	4.0	-0.7	5.6	4.5	5.7	3.3	1.5	-4.1
20.8	24.5	16.2	-8.3	26.2	8.3	-17.9	32.7	30.9	21.8	11.0	2.5	-30.2
19.3	19.8	18.7	-1.1	20.4	18.2	-2.2	29.1	18.7	19.8	17.4	10.7	-18.4
7.9	8.4	7.3	-1.1	15.5	3.6	-11.9	18.1	10.2	4.3	3.5	0.6	-17.5
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
21.6	31.7	12.0	-19.7	27.2	8.1	-19.0	45.1	26.7	18.8	12.2	4.1	-41.0

Out-of-school rate for adolescents (UNICEF)
The number of adolescents of lower secondary school age who are not enrolled in primary or secondary school, expressed as a percentage of the population of lower secondary school age. Calculation follows International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED).

Note:

… = Data not available

Internet

Country	Proportion of individuals using the Internet *(per 100 inhabitants)* (SDG 17.8.1)			
	2019			
	Total	Female	Male	Gender Gap
Algeria	59.6	50.3	68.1	18
Bahrain	98.6	98.5	98.7	0
Djibouti	55.7	51.6	59.9	8
Egypt	46.9	41.3	52.4	11
Iraq	75.0	51.2	98.3	47
Kuwait	99.6	99.8	99.5	-0
Morocco	64.8	61.1	68.5	7
Oman	76.8	74.0	79.4	5
Qatar	99.7	99.8	99.5	-0
Saudi Arabia	93.3	91.4	94.6	3
Sudan	14.1	11.0	16.9	6
State of Palestine	64.4	60.2	68.5	8
Tunisia	64.2	...	...	...
United Arab Emirates	98.5	98.8	97.1	-2
Arab region	8.3			2005
	51.6			2019
World	16.8			2005
	53.6			2019

Source:

ITU World Telecommunication, ICT Indicators database.
https://www.itu.int/en/ITU-D/Statistics/Pages/stat/default.aspx (accessed on 10 December 2019).

Definition:

Proportion of individuals using the Internet (SDG Metadata)
It is defined as the proportion of individuals who used the Internet from any location in the last three months.

Note:

... = Data not available

Information and Communications Technology (ICT)

Country	Youth and adults with ICT skills *(percent)* (SDG 4.4.1) 2019																							
	ARSP			COPA			EMAIL			EPRS			INST			PCPR			SOFT			TRAF		
	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap
Bahrain	36.6	48.1	11.5	62.5	61.5	-1.0	72.3	83.0	10.7	40.6	41.8	1.2	39.5	48.3	8.8	17.5	21.8	4.3	43.0	53.1	10.1	63.2	75.3	12.1
Morocco	18.9	20.0	1.1	42.7	49.1	6.4	28.0	35.7	7.7	16.3	21.5	5.2	30.0	37.9	7.9	4.9	8.9	4.0	30.3	39.2	8.9	21.3	27.4	6.1
Qatar	22.4	31.5	9.1	44.6	38.3	-6.3	59.6	55.8	-3.8	24.5	22.2	-2.3	37.5	30.3	-7.2	4.6	6.1	1.5	35.6	39.0	3.4	30.9	38.6	7.7
Saudi Arabia	45.3	61.8	16.5	70.0	72.5	2.5	63.9	74.3	10.4	37.8	33.0	-4.8	40.2	61.9	21.7	8.5	10.6	2.1	32.3	62.4	30.1	29.5	38.1	8.6

Source:

ITU World Telecommunication, ICT Indicators database.
https://www.itu.int/en/ITU-D/Statistics/Pages/stat/default.aspx (accessed on 10 December 2019).

Definitions:

Proportion of youth and adults with ICT skills (SDG Metadata)
The percentage of individuals that have undertaken certain -ICT-related activities in the last 3 months. The indicator is expressed as a percentage.

ICT skills are:

ARSP
Using basic arithmetic formula in a spreadsheet

COPA
Using copy and paste tools to duplicate or move information within a document

EMAIL
Sending e-mails with attached files

EPRS
Creating electronic presentations with presentation software

INST
Connecting and installing new devices

PCPR
Writing a computer program using a specialized programming language

SOFT
Finding, downloading, installing and configuring software

TRAF
Transferring files between a computer and other devices

LITE
Literacy

NUME
Numeracy

Mobile Telephone

Country	Individuals who own a mobile telephone *(percent)* (SDG 5.b.1)				
	Total	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Year
Algeria	87.9	83.1	92.6	9.6	2018
Bahrain	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	2018
Djibouti	56.3	51.6	61.3	9.8	2017
Egypt	97.8	97.1	98.6	1.4	2017
Iraq	70.1	56.7	83.1	26.4	2017
Kuwait	93.0	…	…	…	2017
Morocco	91.7	91.7	91.6	-0.1	2017
Oman	90.6	86.5	94.2	7.7	2016
Qatar	99.6	99.6	99.7	0.1	2018
Saudi Arabia	94.3	92.0	95.9	3.9	2017
State of Palestine	88.6	83.2	93.9	10.6	2018
Sudan	62.8	54.2	70.3	16.1	2016
Tunisia	88.3	…	…	…	2018
United Arab Emirates	99.4	99.4	99.4	0.0	2017

Source:

Mobile telephone
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed on 10 December 2019).

Note:

… = Data not available

Employment

Country	Legal frameworks in employment *(percent)* (SDG 5.1.1)	Law mandates equal pay *(1=yes; 0=no)*	Length of maternity leave	Labour force participation rate *(percent)* 2019			Working poverty rate *(percent)* (SDG 1.1.1)		
	2018	2018	Weeks	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Year
Algeria	…	1	14	14.9	67.2	52.3	0.1	0.1	2011
Bahrain	…	0	11	44.6	87.5	42.8	…	…	…
Comoros	…	1	14	37.6	50.8	13.1	16.9	13.4	2014
Djibouti	…	1	14	54.9	71.1	16.2	…	…	…
Egypt	…	0	17	22.9	73.2	50.3	0.5	0.5	2015
Iraq	60.0	0	14	12.5	72.6	60.2	0.4	0.7	2012
Jordan	20.0	0	10	14.2	63.8	49.6	0.1	0.2	2010
Kuwait	…	0	27	57.3	85.3	27.9	…	…	…
Lebanon	50.0	0	10	23.5	71.0	47.5	0.1	0.1	2012
Libya	…	1	14	25.7	79.0	53.2	…	…	…
Mauritania	…	0	14	29.2	63.2	34.0	3.9	3.2	2014
Morocco	…	1	14	21.3	70.2	48.8	0.6	0.6	2014
Oman	…	0	7	30.9	89.4	58.5	…	…	…
Qatar	…	0	7	57.7	95.0	37.3	…	…	…
Saudi Arabia	…	0	10	23.5	79.5	56.0	…	…	…
Somalia	…	…	14	19.2	74.4	55.2	…	…	…
State of Palestine	40.0	0	10	19.5	71.5	52.0	0.2	0.2	2017
Sudan	…	0	8	24.5	70.2	45.8	6.7	11.6	2009
Syrian Arab Republic	…	0	17	11.8	69.8	58.1	0.2	0.5	2004
Tunisia	…	0	4	23.9	69.7	45.7	0.4	0.5	2010
United Arab Emirates	10.0	0	6	51.1	93.4	42.3	…	…	…
Yemen	…	…	10	5.8	70.9	65.0	10.7	13.7	2014
Arab region							**4.7**	**8.5**	
World							**7.5**	**6.9**	

Sources:

Legal frameworks in employment
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed on 15 July 2019).

Law mandates equal pay
World Bank, "Law mandates equal pay, 2018", World Bank Data. https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SG.LAW.EQRM.WK (accessed on 15 July 2019).

Length of maternity leave
International Labour Organization (ILO), *World Social Protection Report 2017-19: Universal Social Protection to Achieve to Sustainable Development Goals* (Geneva, 2017).

Labour force participation rate
ILOStat database, "modelled estimates, November 2018" (last updated on 11 July 2019). https://www.ilo.org/ilostat (accessed on 15 July 2019).

Working poverty rate (15+ years)
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed on 15 July 2019).

Definitions:

Legal frameworks in employment (SDG Metadata)
Measures government efforts to put in place legal frameworks that promote, enforce and monitor gender equality.

Law mandates equal pay (World bank)
Law mandates equal remuneration for females and males for work of equal value is whether there is a law that obligates employers to pay equal remuneration to male and female employees who do work of equal value. "Remuneration" refers to the ordinary, basic or minimum wage or salary and any additional emoluments payable directly or indirectly, whether in cash or in kind, by the employer to the worker and arising out of the worker's employment. "Work of equal value" refers not only to the same or similar jobs but also to different jobs of the same value.

Labour force participation rate (ILO)
The number of persons in the labour force as a percentage of the working-age population. The labour force is the sum of the number of persons employed and the number of persons unemployed. Thus, the measurement of the labour force participation rate requires the measurement of both employment and unemployment.

Employment comprises all persons of working age who during a specified brief period, such as one week or one day, were in the following categories: a) paid employment (whether at work or with a job but not at work); or b) self-employment (whether at work or with an enterprise but not at work).

The unemployed comprise all persons of working age who were: a) without work during the reference period, i.e. were not in paid employment or self-employment; b) currently available for work, i.e. were available for paid employment or self-employment during the reference period; and c) seeking work, i.e. had taken specific steps in a specified recent period to seek paid employment or self-employment.

The working-age population is the population above the legal working age, but for statistical purposes it comprises all persons above a specified minimum age threshold for which an inquiry on economic activity is made. To promote international comparability, the working-age population is often defined as all persons aged 15 and older, but this may vary from country to country based on national laws and practices (some countries also apply an upper age limit).

Working poverty rate (SDG Metadata)
The proportion of the employed population below the international poverty line of US$1.90 per day, also referred to as the working poverty rate, is defined as the share of employed persons living in households with per-capita consumption or income that is below the international poverty line of US$1.90.

Note:

… = Data not available

Employment

Country	Employment by education *(percent)*											
	Less than basic			Basic			Intermediate			Advanced		
	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Female	Male	Gender Gap
Algeria	8.0	7.4	-0.6	25.7	58.0	32.3	23.8	22.8	-1.0	42.6	11.8	-30.8
Bahrain	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Comoros	75.2	60.9	-14.3	10.2	18.3	8.0	1.6	2.3	0.7	3.5	5.8	2.3
Djibouti	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Egypt	28.4	31.4	3.0	12.6	14.7	2.1	32.5	39.0	6.5	26.5	14.8	-11.7
Iraq	30.9	31.3	0.4	20.1	43.7	23.5	6.7	7.4	0.7	42.1	17.5	-24.6
Jordan	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Kuwait	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Lebanon	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Libya	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Mauritania	60.0	45.3	-14.7	14.5	20.8	6.2	1.3	2.8	1.5	1.6	4.6	2.9
Morocco	56.2	24.9	-31.3	23.1	49.9	26.8	18.3	18.8	0.5	…	…	…
Oman	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Qatar	11.3	17.1	5.8	36.1	40.3	4.3	17.2	27.0	9.8	35.5	15.6	-19.8
Saudi Arabia	11.1	9.0	-2.0	28.7	32.6	3.8	21.6	35.0	13.5	38.7	23.4	-15.3
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
State of Palestine	5.1	4.6	-0.5	21.7	53.4	31.7	20.0	24.2	4.2	53.2	17.8	-35.5
Sudan	66.0	48.6	-17.4	13.4	27.4	14.0	7.5	14.9	7.4	12.9	8.6	-4.4
Syrian Arab Republic	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tunisia	11.5	7.4	-4.1	25.7	40.2	14.5	38.1	39.1	1.1	24.6	13.2	-11.4
United Arab Emirates	19.0	13.5	-5.6	22.0	34.9	12.9	12.9	18.8	5.9	45.9	32.7	-13.2
Yemen	63.6	45.5	-18.1	8.9	24.0	15.2	14.9	22.5	7.6	12.4	7.4	-5.0

Sources:

Employment by education
ILOStat database (last updated on 26 August 2019). https://www.ilo.org/ilostat (accessed on 26 August 2019).

Employment by sector
ILOStat database, "modelled estimates, November 2018" (last updated on 11 July 2019). https://www.ilo.org/ilostat (accessed on 15 July 2019).

Definitions:

Employment by education (ILO)
The educational attainment are presented according to ISCED aggregate categories (Less than basic, Basic, Intermediate, Advanced, Level not stated).

Employment by sector (ILO)
The sectors are presented according to ISIC aggregate categories (Agriculture, Industry and Services).

Note:

… = Data not available

Employment by education *(percent)*				Employment by sector *(percent)*					
				2019					
Level not stated			Year	Female			Male		
Female	Male	Gender Gap		Agriculture	Industry	Services	Agriculture	Industry	Services
…	…	…	LFS 2017	3.1	22.0	75.0	10.4	32.4	57.2
…	…	…	…	0.1	8.9	91.1	1.3	41.7	57.1
9.6	12.8	3.2	Other HHS 2004	62.7	12.7	24.6	52.2	15.2	32.7
…	…	…	…	51.9	4.5	43.5	47.4	10.9	41.7
0.1	0.1	0.1	LFS 2017	36.4	6.8	56.8	21.6	31.7	46.6
0.1	0.1	-0.0	HIES 2012	23.3	7.6	69.0	17.9	26.1	56.0
…	…	…	…	1.1	15.3	83.6	3.9	26.5	69.6
…	…	…	…	0.0	4.6	95.4	3.2	34.7	62.1
…	…	…	…	15.5	9.8	74.8	10.9	26.2	62.9
…	…	…	…	9.0	8.8	82.2	7.4	31.7	60.9
22.6	26.7	4.1	LFS 2012	54.0	6.8	39.2	55.4	13.1	31.5
2.3	6.4	4.1	LFS 2012	59.0	11.7	29.3	31.3	24.7	44.0
…	…	…	…	0.4	5.4	94.2	5.2	40.1	54.7
…	…	…	LFS 2018	0.0	6.6	93.4	1.4	62.3	36.3
…	…	…	LFS 2013	0.1	2.0	97.9	5.6	28.0	66.4
…	…	…	LFS 2016	76.3	3.7	20.0	71.4	7.2	21.5
…	…	…	…	7.6	11.7	80.7	6.5	34.4	59.1
0.2	0.6	0.4	LFS 2011	58.7	3.7	37.6	38.3	18.4	43.3
…	…	…	…	13.4	10.6	76.0	14.8	31.4	53.7
0.2	0.1	-0.1	LFS 2013	11.4	33.3	55.3	16.2	32.6	51.2
0.2	0.2	0.1	LFS 2017	0.1	6.0	93.9	4.3	26.3	69.5
…	0.6	…	LFS 2014	58.9	15.3	25.9	33.9	10.2	55.9

Employment

Country	Wage pay gap (month) *(local currency)*				Employment status *(percent)* 2019					
					Employees		Employers		Own-account workers	
	Agriculture	Industry	Construction	Services	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Algeria	…	…	…	…	73.7	68.2	1.9	4.6	21.7	25.4
Bahrain	…	…	…	…	96.8	97.3	2.2	1.6	0.3	0.7
Comoros	…	…	…	…	17.2	40.1	4.8	5.3	60.2	44.9
Djibouti	…	…	…	…	42.5	57.0	1.5	2.8	47.5	37.2
Egypt	16.0	39.4	10.6	29.1	63.9	69.5	2.1	12.7	8.8	13.9
Iraq	…	…	…	…	61.6	72.3	3.3	3.3	24.2	21.6
Jordan	…	-1.9	-5.9	23.8	96.7	83.4	1.6	6.7	1.4	9.5
Kuwait	…	…	…	…	99.4	97.8	0.6	0.7	0.0	1.5
Lebanon	…	…	…	…	83.2	56.9	1.8	11.7	10.0	28.0
Libya	…	…	…	…	95.3	92.9	0.4	1.1	3.1	5.5
Mauritania	…	…	…	…	31.2	50.8	0.9	3.5	54.3	39.4
Morocco	…	…	…	…	37.0	52.8	0.8	3.2	15.6	31.9
Oman	…	…	…	…	95.6	96.3	0.8	1.3	3.5	2.3
Qatar	100.0	-1.2	-98.4	9.6	99.6	99.6	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.2
Saudi Arabia	-54.3	18.7	-44.4	13.1	98.7	94.6	0.2	2.1	1.1	3.2
Somalia	…	…	…	…	11.2	23.1	0.8	2.0	53.0	54.2
State of Palestine	17.5	89.2	58.6	7.5	74.0	69.9	1.9	7.4	14.2	19.2
Sudan	100.0	100.0	…	100.0	53.8	54.3	1.4	7.3	15.8	29.2
Syrian Arab Republic	…	…	…	…	81.4	58.1	1.1	5.2	8.0	33.8
Tunisia	…	…	…	…	81.6	69.4	3.2	8.4	9.3	19.5
United Arab Emirates	-335.0	-7.0	-19.0	12.8	97.6	96.4	1.4	2.9	0.9	0.6
Yemen	38.8	25.5	19.3	26.4	31.9	48.4	2.3	7.7	27.7	33.6
Arab region					**85.84**	**80.39**	**1.36**	**3.82**	**7.67**	**13.57**
World					**52.64**	**51.89**	**1.69**	**3.76**	**27.91**	**38.16**

Sources:

Wage pay gap by sector (month)
Data collected and calculated by ESCWA from ILO, LABORSTA.
https://www.ilo.org/ilostat/ (accessed in 15 May 2019).

Employment status
ILOStat database, "modelled estimates, November 2018" (last updated on 11 July 2019).
https://www.ilo.org/ilostat (accessed on 15 July 2019).

Vulnerable employment rate
ILOStat database, "modelled estimates, November 2018" (last updated on 11 July 2019).
https://www.ilo.org/ilostat (accessed on 15 July 2019).

Child labour
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.
https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed on 15 July 2019).

Definitions:

Wage pay gap (month) (ILO)
The difference between median earnings of men and women relative to median earnings of men. Data refer to full-time employees on the one hand and to self-employed on the other.

Employees (ILO)
Are all those workers who hold the type of jobs defined as "paid employment jobs", where the incumbents hold explicit (written or oral) or implicit employment contracts that give them a basic remuneration that is not directly dependent upon the revenue of the unit for which they work.

Employers (ILO)
Are those workers who, working on their own account or with one or a few partners, hold the type of jobs defined as a "self- employment jobs" (i.e. jobs where the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profits derived from the goods and services produced), and, in this capacity, have engaged, on a continuous basis, one or more persons to work for them as employee(s).

Employment status *(percent)*		Vulnerable employment rate *(percent)*		Child labour *(percent)* (SDG 8.7.1)				
2019		2019						
Contributing family workers								
Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Year	Age group
2.7	1.8	24.3	27.2	3.1	4.3	1.2	2012	5-14
0.7	0.4	1.0	1.1	…	…	…	…	…
17.9	9.8	78.0	54.7	20.1	20.6	0.5	2012	5-14
8.5	2.9	56.0	40.2	…	…	…	…	…
25.2	3.9	34.0	17.8	1.4	5.6	4.2	2014	5-17
10.9	2.8	35.1	24.4	2.7	5.1	2.4	2011	5-14
0.4	0.5	1.7	9.9	0.2	2.2	2.0	2016	5-17
0.0	0.0	0.0	1.5	…	…	…	…	…
5.1	3.3	15.1	31.4	…	…	…	…	…
1.2	0.6	4.3	6.1	…	…	…	…	…
13.6	6.2	68.0	45.6	7.4	10.4	3.0	2011	5-14
46.7	12.1	62.2	44.0	…	…	…	…	…
0.2	0.2	3.7	2.4	…	…	…	…	…
0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	…	…	…	…	…
0.0	0.0	1.2	3.3	…	…	…	…	…
35.0	20.6	88.0	74.9	…	…	…	…	…
10.0	3.6	24.1	22.7	5.2	9.6	4.4	2010	5-14
28.9	9.3	44.8	38.4	15.2	19.3	4.1	2014	5-17
9.5	3.0	17.6	36.7	…	…	…	…	…
5.9	2.7	15.2	22.2	1.1	2.4	1.3	2011	5-14
0.1	0.1	1.0	0.7	…	…	…	…	…
38.2	10.3	65.8	43.9	…	…	…	…	…
5.12	**2.22**							
17.76	**6.2**							

Own-account workers (ILO)
Are those workers who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, hold the type of jobs defined as a "self-employment jobs", and have not engaged on a continuous basis any employees to work for them. Members of producers' cooperatives are workers who hold "self-employment jobs" in a cooperative producing goods and services.

Contributing family workers (ILO)
Are those workers who hold "self- employment jobs" as own-account workers in a market- oriented establishment operated by a related person living in the same household.

Vulnerable employment (ILO)
Is the sum of "Own account workers" and "Contributing family workers".

Child labour (SDG Metadata)
The number of children engaged in child labour corresponds to the number of children reported to be in child labour during the reference period (usually the week prior to the survey). The proportion of children in child labour is calculated as the number of children in child labour divided by the total number of children in the population. For the purposes of this indicator, children include all persons aged 5 to 17.

Note:

… = Data not available

Time Spent on Paid and Unpaid Work

Country	Time spent on unpaid domestic and care work *(hours)* (SDG 5.4.1)												Year
	15-24						15+						
	Total		Rural		Urban		Total		Rural		Urban		
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	
Algeria	28	4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2012
Morocco	…	…	…	…	…	…	21	3	…	…	…	…	2012
Oman	15	6	…	…	…	…	19	8	20	8	18	7	2008
Qatar	5	2	…	…	…	…	8	2	…	…	…	…	2013
State of Palestine	14	2	13	2	14	2	20	3	19	3	20	3	2013
Tunisia	…	…	…	…	…	…	22	3	…	…	…	…	2006

Source:

Time spent on unpaid domestic and care work
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.
https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed on 15 July 2019).

Definition:

Time spent on unpaid domestic and care work (SDG Metadata)
The proportion of time spent in a day on unpaid domestic and care work by men and women. Unpaid domestic and care work refers to activities related to the provision of services for own final use by household members, or by family members living in other households. These activities are listed in ICATUS 2016 under the major divisions "3. Unpaid domestic services for household and family members" and "4. Unpaid caregiving services for household and family members".

Note:

… = Data not available

Unemployment

Country	Adult unemployment rate *(percent)* (SDG 8.5.2a)			Youth unemployment rate *(percent)* (SDG 8.5.2b)			Youth Not in Education, Employment or Training (NEET) *(percent)* (SDG 8.6.1)			
	Female	Male	Year	Female	Male	Year	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Year
Algeria	18.3	8.2	2016	44.9	22.1	2016	31.7	10.9	-20.8	2017
Bahrain	3.9	0.5	2012	12.2	2.6	2012	…	…	…	…
Comoros	4.9	4.4	2004	8.7	11.4	2004	32.6	22.7	-9.9	2004
Djibouti	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Egypt	23.0	8.2	2017	38.3	25.7	2017	35.0	19.6	-15.4	2017
Iraq	31.0	10.3	2017	63.3	22.0	2017	65.5	16.9	-48.6	2012
Jordan	24.1	13.3	2016	57.0	31.5	2016	…	…	…	…
Kuwait	5.8	0.9	2016	30.0	9.4	2016	…	…	…	…
Lebanon	10.4	5.0	2009	21.6	22.3	2007	27.3	16.0	-11.3	2007
Libya	25.1	15.9	2012	67.8	40.8	2012	…	…		…
Mauritania	12.4	8.5	2012	17.0	14.1	2012	52.4	23.3	-29.1	2012
Morocco	10.7	8.8	2016	22.8	22.1	2016	…	…	…	…
Oman	13.7	1.8	2016	33.9	10.3	2016	…	…	…	…
Qatar	0.6	0.1	2017	2.0	0.2	2017	0.3	3.0	2.7	2017
Saudi Arabia	21.3	3.2	2017	46.3	17.4	2016	25.9	6.6	-19.3	2015
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
State of Palestine	48.2	23.2	2017	70.8	38.7	2017	39.0	27.7	-11.3	2017
Sudan	23.0	9.0	2009	32.0	16.0	2009	…	…	…	…
Syrian Arab Republic	22.0	6.2	2010	43.5	16.5	2011	…	…	…	…
Tunisia	22.8	12.4	2017	37.7	33.4	2013	31.2	19.4	-11.8	2010
United Arab Emirates	6.8	1.4	2017	13.5	6.0	2017	20.9	6.1	-14.8	2017
Yemen	26.1	12.3	2014	34.6	23.5	2014	69.7	22.1	-47.6	2014
Arab region	**18.5**	**6.1**	**2019**	**42.2**	**19.7**	**2019**	**44.9**	**14.7**		**2019**
World	**5.6**	**5.3**	**2019**	**13.1**	**14.0**	**2019**	**30.4**	**12.7**		**2019**

Sources:

Adult and youth unemployment rate
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.
https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/
(accessed on 15 July 2019).

NEET rates
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database.
https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/
(accessed on 15 July 2019).

Definitions:

Unemployment rate (ILO)
The unemployment rate is calculated by expressing the number of unemployed persons as a percentage of the total number of persons in the labour force. The labour force (formerly known as the economically active population) is the sum of the number of persons employed and the number of persons unemployed.

NEET (SDG Database)
This indicator conveys the proportion of youth (aged 15-24 years) not in education, employment or training (also known as "the youth NEET rate").

Note:

… = Data not available

Public Life and Decision Making

Country	Year of suffrage (the right to stand for election)	Year the first woman was elected or appointed to office	Lag time between women and men being granted the right to stand for election and a woman being appointed to parliament	Principal mode of designation of members	Electoral quota for women	CEDAW signatory status
						Date and status
Algeria	1962	1962	0	Directly elected	Yes	1996 (a)
Bahrain	2002	2002	0	Directly elected	No	2002 (a)
Comoros	1956	1993	37	Directly elected 24; indirectly elected 9	No	1994 (a)
Djibouti	1986	2003	17	Directly elected	Yes	1998 (a)
Egypt	1956	1957	1	Directly elected 568; Appointed 28	Yes	1980 (r)
Iraq	1980	1980	0	Directly elected 320; other members 9	Yes	1986 (a)
Jordan	1974	1989	15	Directly elected 115; other members 15	Yes	1992 (r)
Kuwait	2005	2009	4	Directly elected 50; other members 15	No	1994 (a)
Lebanon	1952	1991	39	Directly elected	No	1997 (a)
Libya	1964	2012	48	Directly elected	Yes	1989 (a)
Mauritania	1961	1975	14	Directly elected	Yes	2001 (a)
Morocco	1963	1993	30	Directly elected	Yes	1993 (a)
Oman	1994	1994	0	Directly elected	No	2006 (a)
Qatar	1996	1996	0	..	Yes	2014 (a)
Saudi Arabia	1999	2003	4	Appointed	No	2009 (a)
Somalia	2011	2015	4	Appointed	Yes	2000 (r)
State of Palestine	1956	..	..	Indirectly elected	No	…
Sudan	1964	1964	0	Directly elected	Yes	…
Syrian Arab Republic	1953	1973	20	Directly elected	No	2003 (a)
Tunisia	1959	1959	0	Directly elected	Yes	1985 (r)
United Arab Emirates	2006	2006	0	Indirectly elected 20; 20 appointed	No	2004 (a)
Yemen	1967	1993	26	Directly elected	No	1984 (a)
Arab region						
World						

Sources:

Year of suffrage
Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), "Women in politics". http://archive.ipu.org/wmn-e/suffrage.htm (accessed on 20 July 2019).

Principal mode of designation of members
IPU, "Parliaments at a glance: Mode of designation of members". http://archive.ipu.org/parline-e/ModeOfDesignation.asp?REGION=All&typesearch=1&LANG=ENG (accessed on 16 July 2019).

Electoral quota for women
International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA), "Gender Quotas database". https://www.idea.int/data-tools/data/gender-quotas (accessed on 20 July 2019).

CEDAW signatory status
United Nations Treaty Collection. https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=TREATY&mtdsg_no=IV-8&chapter=4&lang=en (accessed on 25 July 2019).

Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament (lower or single house)
IPU, "Women in National Parliaments" (situation as of 1st January 2019). http://archive.ipu.org/wmn-e/arc/classif010119.htm (accessed on 20 July 2019).

Arab regional and World averages: World Bank, "Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%), 2000 and 2019", World Bank Data. https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SG.GEN.PARL.ZS (accessed on 20 July 2019).

Women's share of ministerial positions
IPU, "Women in Politics: 2019" (situation as of 1st January 2019). https://www.ipu.org/news/press-releases/2019-03/one-in-five-ministers-woman-according-new-ipuun-women-map (accessed on 10 August 2019).

Proportion of seats held by women in local governments
Data are compiled by ESCWA Statistics Division and UN Women.
Data for Comoros and Djibouti: compiled by UNECA and UN Women.

Women's share of judges
Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia, *Arab Gender Lens 2019 Pocketbook: A Statistical Portrait of the Western Asia Region*, E/ESCWA/SD/2019/TP.1 (Beirut, 2019).

Women's share of lawyers
E/ESCWA/SD/2019/TP.1

Women's share of managerial positions
ILOStat database. https://www.ilo.org/ilostat (accessed on 05 August 2019).

Women's share of board membership
ILOStat database. https://www.ilo.org/ilostat (accessed on 05 August 2019).

Proportion of adults (15+ years) with an account at a bank or other financial institution or with a mobile-money-service provider
World Bank, "Global Financial Inclusion Database". https://databank.worldbank.org/source/global-financial-inclusion (accessed on 20 August 2019).

Seats held by women in national parliaments *(percent)* (SDG 5.5.1a) 1st January 2019	Women's share of ministerial positions *(percent)* 1st January 2019	Seats held by women in local governments *(percent)* (SDG 5.5.1b) 2018	Women's share of judges *(percent)* (SDG 16.7.1)		Women's share of lawyers *(percent)*		Women's share of managerial positions *(percent)* (SDG 5.5.2)		Women's share of board membership *(percent)*		Adults with an account at a financial institution or mobile-money-service provider *(percent)* (SDG 8.10.2)				
			Percent	Year	Percent	Year	Percent	Year	Percent	Year	Total	Female	Male	Gender Gap	Year
25.8	13.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	42.8	29.3	56.3	27.0	2017
15.0	4.3	13.3	11.0	2018	55.0	2016	…	…	14.0	2014	82.6	75.4	86.3	10.9	2017
6.1	8.3	28.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	21.7	17.9	25.7	7.8	2011
26.2	10.0	28.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	12.3	8.8	16.6	7.9	2011
14.9	24.2	…	0.7	2018	27.9	2014	…	…	7.0	2011	32.8	27.0	38.7	11.7	2017
25.2	0.0	25.7	3.8	2017	…	…	21.8	2012	…	…	22.7	19.5	25.8	6.3	2017
15.4	20.8	31.8	22.0	2018	23.7	2015	…	…	…	…	42.5	26.6	56.3	29.7	2017
3.1	13.3	…	0.0	2018	…	…	13.6	2016	…	…	79.8	73.5	83.3	9.9	2017
4.7	3.4	4.0	…	…	33.0	2011	8.4	2007	…	…	44.8	32.9	56.7	23.8	2017
16.0	3.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	65.7	59.6	70.7	11.1	2017
20.3	31.8	31.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	20.9	15.5	26.3	10.8	2017
20.5	5.6	20.9	23.5	2018	13.1	2014	12.8	2008	11.0	2013	28.6	16.8	41.5	24.7	2017
1.2	6.7	3.5	0.0	2018	18.3	2018	11.1	2016	…	…	73.6	63.5	83.8	20.2	2011
9.8	7.1	…	5.8	2018	19.9	2015	10.8	2010	…	…	65.9	61.6	68.6	7.0	2011
19.9	0.0	1.1	2.5	2018	…	…	…	…	…	…	71.7	58.2	80.5	22.4	2017
24.4	14.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	38.7	33.7	43.6	9.9	2014
12.9	13.6	21.2	17.8	2018	26.5	2017	15.4	2012	…	…	25.0	15.9	34.4	18.5	2017
13.5	9.5	…	15.4	2017	31.4	2017	…	…	…	…	15.3	10.0	20.2	10.2	2014
13.2	13.3	7.1	…	…	14.5	2010	9.0	2010	…	…	23.3	19.6	26.8	7.2	2011
31.3	10.0	48.5	46.5	2018	…	…	14.8	2012	8.0	2013	36.9	28.4	45.7	17.4	2017
22.5	29.0	…	3.3	2019	0.0	2009	12.5	2017	…	…	88.2	76.4	92.7	16.3	2017
0.3	6.5	0.5	7.3	2019	…	…	4.1	2014	…	…	6.5	1.7	11.4	9.7	2014
3.8							**9.9**	**2000**							
18.0							**11.1**	**2018**			**37.2**	**25.6**	**48.3**	**22.7**	**2017**
13.9							**25.1**	**2000**							
24.6							**27.2**	**2018**			**68.5**	**64.9**	**72.3**	**7.5**	**2017**

Definitions:

Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (SDG Metadata)
The proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments, currently as at 1 January of reporting year, is currently measured as the number of seats held by women members in single or lower chambers of national parliaments, expressed as a percentage of all occupied seats. National parliaments can be bicameral or unicameral. This indicator covers the single chamber in unicameral parliaments and the lower chamber in bicameral parliaments.
It does not cover the upper chamber of bicameral parliaments. Seats are usually won by members in general parliamentary elections. Seats may also be filled by nomination, appointment, indirect election, rotation of members and by election. Seats refer to the number of parliamentary mandates, or the number of members of parliament.

Women's share of ministerial positions
The data represent the percentage of appointed women ministers as of 1 January of reporting year. Data show women as a share of total ministers, including deputy prime ministers and ministers. Prime ministers/heads of government were also included when they held ministerial portfolios. vice-presidents and heads of governmental or public agencies have not been included in the total.

Proportion of seats held by women in local governments (SDG Metadata)
It measures the proportion of positions held by women in local government. It is expressed as a percentage of elected positions held by women in legislative/ deliberative bodies of local government.

Women's share of judges (SDG Metadata)
It measures representation in the judiciary with respect to the sex, age, disability and population group status, and assesses how these correspond to the proportion of these groups in society as a whole. More specifically, this indicator measures the proportional representation of various demographic groups (women, youth, persons with disability, and nationally relevant population groups) across two key decision-making positions in the judiciary (judges and registrars) as well as across three 'levels' of courts, namely 'supreme/constitutional courts,' 'higher-level courts' and 'lower-level courts'.

Women's share of lawyers (Gender lens 2019)
The percentage of woman working as lawyers.

Women's share of managerial positions (SDG Metadata)
Refers to the proportion of females in the total number of persons employed in managerial positions. It is recommended to use two different measures jointly for this indicator: the share of females in (total) management and the share of females in senior and middle management (thus excluding junior management). The joint calculation of these two measures provides information on whether women are more represented in junior management than in senior and middle management, thus pointing to an eventual ceiling for women to access higher-level management positions. In these cases, calculating only the share of women in (total) management would be misleading, in that it would suggest that women hold positions with more decision-making power and responsibilities than they actually do.

Proportion of adults (15+ years) with an account at a bank or other financial institution or with a mobile-money-service provider (SDG Metadata)
The percentage of adults (ages 15+) who report having an account (by themselves or together with someone else) at a bank or another type of financial institution or personally using a mobile money service in the past 12 months.

Notes:

… = Data not available

CEDAW signatory status
(a) accession
(r) ratification

Elected members represent 67% of the total members of municipal councils in Saudi Arabia
Palestine has 20% quota for women

Violence Against Women

Country	VAW of ever-partnered females by intimate partner, current or former *(percent)*									
	Experienced in lifetime					Experienced in last 12 months (SDG 5.2.1)				
	Physical Violence	Sexual Violence	Physical and/or Sexual Violence	Emotional Violence	Year	Physical Violence	Sexual Violence	Emotional Violence	Year	Age group
Algeria	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bahrain	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Comoros	5.6	1.8	6.4	8.1	2012	…	…	…	…	…
Djibouti	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Egypt	25.2	4.1	25.6	18.8	2014	31.8	12.3	42.5	2015	18-64
Iraq	…	…	…	…	…	6	9	36	2011	15-54
Jordan	17.5	5.1	18.9	20.6	2017-2018	12.7	3.3	16.1	2017-2018	15-49
Kuwait	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Lebanon	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Libya	…	…	…	…	…	11.4	2.6	32.8	2014	15-49
Mauritania	1.2	17.3	…	59.9	2011	6.1	14.3	63.9	2011	
Morocco	…	…	…	…	…	6.4	6.6	38.8	2009	18-64
Oman	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Qatar	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Saudi Arabia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
State of Palestine	30.6	14.6	…	58.8	2011	23.5	11.8	58.6	2011	18-64
Sudan	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Syrian Arab Republic	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tunisia	20.3	5.2	…	24.8	2010	7.2	3.8	17	2010	18-64
United Arab Emirates	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Yemen	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…

Sources:

VAW, Experienced in Lifetime

Comoros: DHS 2012

Egypt: DHS 2014

Jordan: DHS 2017-2018

Mauritania:
Enquête Nationale sur la Violence à l'Egard des Femmes en Mauritanie (ENVEF) 2011

State of Palestine:
Violence Survey in the Palestinian Society 2011

Tunisia:
National Inquiry on VAW 2010

VAW, Experienced in last 12 months

Egypt:
The Egypt economic cost of gender-based violence survey (ECGBVS) 2015

Iraq:
Iraq Woman Integrated Social and Health Survey (I-WISH) 2011

Jordan: DHS 2017-2018

Libya:
Pan Arab Project for Family Health (PAPFAM) 2014

Mauritania: ENVEF 2011

Morocco:
National VAW Prevalence Survey 2009

State of Palestine:
Violence Survey in the Palestinian Society 2011

Tunisia:
National Inquiry on VAW 2010

Definition:

VAW, Experienced in last 12 months (SDG Metadata)
It measures the percentage of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older who have experienced physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner, in the previous 12 months. Definition of violence against women and girls and of the forms of violence specified under this indicator are presented in the next section (Concepts).

Notes:

… = Data not available

Definition of each form of violence may differ between countries.

State of Palestine: Emotional Violence by intimate is Psychological Violence.

Water

Country	Improved drinking water sources *(percent)*			Population living in households using an improved water source *(percent)*									Safely managed drinking water services *(percent)* (SDG 6.1.1)		
	1990	2015	Progress										2017		
	percent	percent		Total	Rural	Urban	Poorest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Richest	Year	Total	Rural	Urban
Algeria	91.0	84.0	-7.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bahrain	95.0	100.0	5.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	99.0	…	…
Comoros	90.0	90.0	0.0	87.5	84.1	95.1	83.3	84.2	87.7	89.0	93.5	DHS 2012	…	…	…
Djibouti	78.0	90.0	12.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Egypt	93.0	99.0	6.0	97.7	97.1	98.7	95.3	96.9	97.7	98.7	99.9	DHS 2014	…	…	…
Iraq	78.0	87.0	9.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	58.8	46.5	64.1
Jordan	96.0	97.0	1.0	98.0	96.5	98.2	92.7	98.6	99.3	99.6	100.0	DHS 2017-18	93.8	…	…
Kuwait	99.0	99.0	0.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	100.0	…	…
Lebanon	…	99.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	47.7	…	…
Libya	71.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Mauritania	29.0	58.0	29.0	62.3	45.9	84.1	24.4	51.3	64.3	79.0	92.5	DHS 2000-01	…	…	…
Morocco	73.0	85.0	12.0	79.6	55.2	97.8	43.8	63.8	91.8	99.0	99.5	DHS 2003-04	70.3	39.9	88.9
Oman	79.0	93.0	14.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	90.3	…	…
Qatar	…	100.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	96.2	…	…
Saudi Arabia	92.0	97.0	5.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
State of Palestine	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Sudan	67.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Syrian Arab Republic	86.0	90.0	4.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tunisia	83.0	98.0	15.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	92.7	…	…
United Arab Emirates	100.0	100.0	0.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Yemen	66.0	…	…	58.0	50.1	76.0	31.2	47.5	61.2	66.5	83.8	DHS 2013	…	…	…

Sources:

Improved drinking water sources
UNICEF and WHO, *Progress on Sanitation and Drinking Water: 2015 Update and MDG Assessment* (Geneva, 2015).

Population living in households using an improved water source
ICF 2015, The DHS Program STATcompiler. http://www.statcompiler.com (accessed on 24 July 2019).

Safely managed drinking water services
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed on 16 July 2019).

Definition:

Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services (SDG Metadata)
It is currently being measured by the proportion of population using an improved basic drinking water source which is located on premises, available when needed and free of faecal (and priority chemical) contamination. 'Improved' drinking water sources include: piped water into dwelling, yard or plot; public taps or standpipes; boreholes or tube wells; protected dug wells; protected springs; packaged water; delivered water and rainwater.

Note:

… = Data not available.

Sanitation

Country	Improved sanitation facilities *(percent)*			Safely managed sanitation services *(percent)* (SDG 6.2.1a)			Basic handwashing facilities *(percent)* (SDG 6.2.1b)		Mortality rate due to WASH *(per 100,000 population)* (SDG 3.9.2)	
	1990	2015	Progress	2017			2017			
	percent	percent		Total	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Female	Male
Algeria	80.0	88.0	8.0	17.7	20.8	16.5	73.1	87.9	2.0	1.7
Bahrain	99.0	99.0	0.0	96.0	…	…	…	…	0.0	0.0
Comoros	18.0	36.0	18.0	…	…	…	14.7	17.9	50.3	51.1
Djibouti	66.0	47.0	-19.0	36.4	18.9	41.5	…	…	33.2	29.4
Egypt	73.0	95.0	22.0	60.7	…	70.7	87.7	92.7	2.2	1.8
Iraq	…	86.0	…	41.1	45.0	39.4	90.3	96.4	2.3	3.8
Jordan	97.0	99.0	2.0	80.6	…	83.2	…	…	0.8	0.5
Kuwait	100.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	…	…	…	…	0.0	0.0
Lebanon	…	81.0	…	21.8	…	…	…	…	0.9	0.7
Libya	97.0	97.0	0.0	26.1	…	…	…	…	0.7	0.5
Mauritania	16.0	40.0	24.0	…	…	…	9.5	21.7	36.5	40.7
Morocco	52.0	77.0	25.0	38.8	…	40.2	…	…	2.0	1.8
Oman	82.0	97.0	15.0	…	…	…	…	…	0.0	0.0
Qatar	100.0	98.0	-2.0	96.0	…	…	…	…	0.0	0.0
Saudi Arabia	92.0	100.0	8.0	77.8	…	…	…	…	0.1	0.1
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	…	8.1	12.0	89.7	83.4
State of Palestine	…	…	…	61.2	…	64.7	…	…	…	…
Sudan	27.0	…	…	…	…	…	18.9	32.2	18.3	16.3
Syrian Arab Republic	85.0	96.0	11.0	…	…	…	69.0	72.0	4.1	3.2
Tunisia	73.0	92.0	19.0	78.1	…	…	53.9	90.0	1.2	0.8
United Arab Emirates	97.0	98.0	1.0	96.3	…	…	…	…	0.0	0.0
Yemen	24.0	…	…	67.0	…	…	37.5	70.9	11.8	8.7
Arab region										
World										

Sources:

Improved sanitation facilities
UNICEF and WHO, *Progress on Sanitation and Drinking Water: 2015 Update and MDG Assessment* (Geneva, 2015).

Safely managed sanitation services
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed on 17 July 2019).

Basic handwashing facilities
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed on 16 July 2019).

Mortality rate due to WASH
WHO, Global Health Observatory data repository (last updated on 07 February 2019).
http://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.imr.MDG_0000000026?lang=en (accessed on 08 July 2019).

Access to electricity
World Bank, "Access to electricity (% of population), 2000 and 2017", World Bank Data.
http://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.imr.MDG_0000000026?lang=en (accessed on 17 July 2019).

Access to clean fuels and technology
UNSD, "SDG indicators", Global SDG Indicators database. https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/ (accessed on 17 July 2019).

Definitions:

Proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services, including a handwashing facility with soap and water (SDG Metadata)
It is currently being measured by the proportion of the population using a basic sanitation facility which is not shared with other households and where excreta is safely disposed in situ or treated off-site. 'Improved' sanitation facilities include: flush or pour flush toilets to sewer systems, septic tanks or pit latrines, ventilated improved pit latrines, pit latrines with a slab, and composting toilets. Population with a basic handwashing facility: a device to contain, transport or regulate the flow of water to facilitate handwashing with soap and water in the household.

Mortality rate attributed to unsafe water, unsafe sanitation and lack of hygiene (exposure to unsafe Water, Sanitation and Hygiene for All (WASH) services) (SDG Metadata)
It is the number of deaths from unsafe water, unsafe sanitation and lack of hygiene (exposure to unsafe WASH services) in a year, divided by the population, and multiplied by 100,000.

Proportion of population with access to electricity (SDG Metadata)
It is the percentage of population with access to electricity. SDG7 ensures access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all. Specifically, Indicator 7.1.1 refers to the proportion of population with access to electricity. This is expressed in percentage figures and is disaggregated by total, urban and rural access rates per country, as well as by UN regional and global classifications.

Energy

Access to electricity *(percent)* (SDG 7.1.1)									Access to clean fuels and technology *(percent)* (SDG 7.1.2)
2000				2017				Total 2017- Total 2000	2017
Total	Rural	Urban	Urban - Rural	Total	Rural	Urban	Urban - Rural		Percent
…	…	…		100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	…	97.5
…	…	…		100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	…	97.5
39.7	30.1	64.2	34.1	79.9	73.8	95.1	21.3	40.2	10.0
56.4	56.1	56.5	0.4	60.2	26.3	70.0	43.7	3.8	10.0
97.7	96.4	99.5	3.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	2.3	97.5
…	…	…		100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	…	97.5
98.7	95.1	99.7	4.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	1.3	97.5
100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	97.5
…	…	…	…	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	…	…
99.8	99.8	99.8	0.0	70.1	70.1	70.1	0.0	-29.7	…
…	…	…	…	42.9	0.0	82.6	82.6	…	46.0
69.8	37.0	98.5	61.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	30.2	97.5
…	…	…	…	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	…	97.5
100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	97.5
…	…	…	…	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	…	97.5
…	…	…	…	32.9	8.7	63.3	54.6	…	2.5
99.7	99.2	99.9	0.7	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	0.3	…
23.0	2.2	66.2	64.0	56.5	42.8	82.5	39.7	33.5	44.0
…	…	…	…	89.6	77.7	100.0	22.3	…	97.5
94.8	86.8	99.4	12.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	5.2	97.5
100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	97.5
50.0	35.1	91.9	56.8	79.2	68.7	97.8	29.1	29.2	63.0
…				90					
78				89					

Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology (SDG Metadata)
It is calculated as the number of people using clean fuels and technologies for cooking, heating and lighting divided by total population reporting that any cooking, heating or lighting, expressed as percentage. "Clean" is defined by the emission rate targets and specific fuel recommendations (i.e. against unprocessed coal and kerosene) included in the normative guidance WHO guidelines for indoor air quality: household fuel combustion.

Notes:

… = Data not available

Access to clean fuels and technology
The values below 5 in the original database was replaced by 2.5. The values above 95 in the original database was replaced by 97.5.

Mortality rate due to WASH
The values below 0.1 was replaced by 0 for the following countries Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar and The United Arab Emirates.

The Arab Gender Gap Report 2020, first edition, provides the latest statistics and analysis on the status of women and men, girls and boys at the country and regional levels. The statistics and analysis of over 200 regional priority gender-equality indicators help fast track progress and explores the state of gender equality across 22 Arab countries. The Arab Gender Gap Report comes at a critical moment as discussion on achieving sustainable development for all in the region is intensifying, propelled by the need for more inclusive societies to transform the world. The report provides the Arab world insight to create a more gender-equitable culture and identifies challenges and impediments our societies face.

The analysis in *The Arab Gender Gap Report 2020* reveals that critical gender gaps persist in many of the main areas despite the many gains achieved by the countries over the years. The report shows that although many countries have achieved important milestones towards gender equality in education, health and access to basic services, the "last mile" remains to be covered before girls and women enjoy full equality and the realization of their rights. The analysis also reveals a gap in the production of many gender-related indicators that comes not only from household-based data, but also from administrative records. There is an urgent need to strengthen the alliance between national statistical offices and the ministries that produce statistical data to ensure the production of quality of gender statistics and quality of gender policies.

19-00954