

GENDER GAPS IN ATTITUDES AND HEALTH KNOWLEDGE

AMONG ARAB YOUTH

A Study Based on Household Survey Data

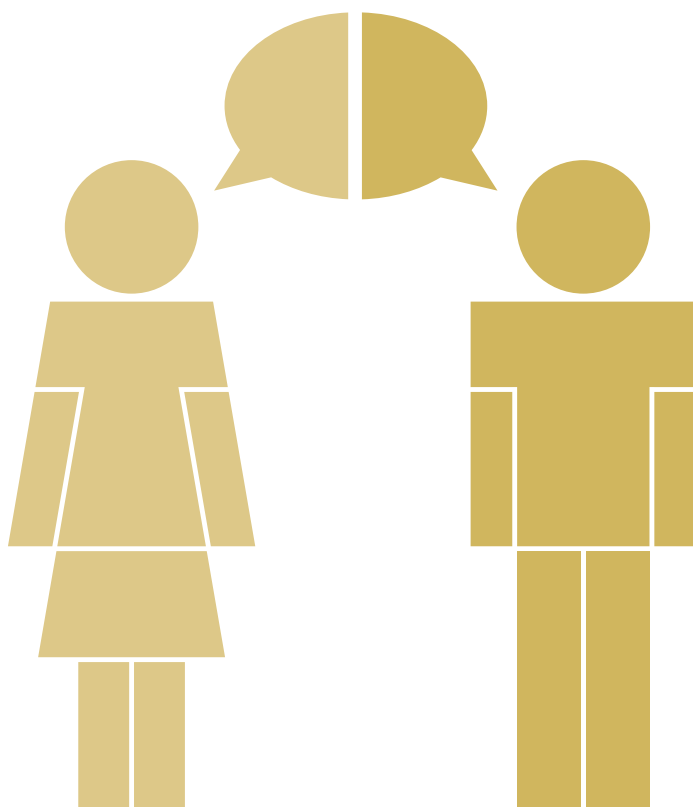


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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Across the Arab region, the 15-24 age group is growing in size more rapidly than any other age group. Although demographers and development practitioners across the Arab region had predicted the burgeoning “youth bulge,” research into this cohort and policy response has been limited. In particular, very little is documented of the differences between knowledge and opinions of young men and young women in the region. To contribute to more comprehensive data analysis of gender disparity among youth in the region, ESCWA with funding from UN Women produced this report to measure the gaps between the attitudes and awareness of male and female youth, using micro-level data from the youth modules of the Pan Arab Family Health Surveys (PAPFAM) from six Arab States (Algeria, Iraq, Morocco, Palestine, Syria, and Tunisia).

This report is divided into three sections. The first section investigates health knowledge among Arab youth, including awareness of STDs and family planning methods. Next, the report analyzes youths’ attitudes about educational attainment and ideal age of marriage for men and women. Finally, the report examines attitudes among youth on decision-making in the household. In each of the three sections, data are disaggregated not only by sex, but also by key socio-economic attributes of the respondents.

The report findings indicate that gender gaps in AIDs awareness exist in Iraq and Morocco, particularly among less educated youth and individuals who reside in rural areas. Rates of family planning awareness are higher among young women than among young men in all countries - most noticeably in Algeria. When asked about ideal education attainment for girls and boys, only a small percentage of respondents answered primary school for either sex in most countries (Morocco was an exception; over 20% of Moroccan male youth believe girls should attain only primary education). Percentages of young women who believe girls should attain a university education were generally high, but percentages of young men who believe girls should attain a university education were consistently lower than those of young women, sometimes by a margin of more than ten percentage points.

The report also finds that, in general, when asked about the ideal age of marriage for men and women, young women reported older ages than those reported by young men. Opinions on ideal age of marriage differed considerably between male and female respondents in Algeria, Morocco, Palestine, and Tunisia. Both young men and young women, however, tended to report an older ideal age of marriage for men than they did for women. Young men and women were also asked who should make decisions in the household - the husband, the wife, or both - on issues ranging from the use of contraception to household expenditure. The report finds that most young men and women support joint decision-making, except on household spending and whether a woman should work outside the home.

While the report does not identify the causes for gender gaps among youth, it provides a descriptive analysis of gender gaps and identifies areas where data are lacking or need improvement. Thus, the report also serves to advocate for greater resources to improve sex-disaggregated youth statistics. Improved data will allow for better monitoring of progress towards gender equality and is in line with the region's commitment to, and recognition of the importance of gender equality for development.

INTRODUCTION

The Arab region is witnessing both unprecedented changes to its demographic composition and challenges to its social structures. Across the region, the 15-24 age group is growing in size more rapidly than any other age group, resulting in “the most rapid youth population growth in the region’s history,” (ESCWA and UNPY, 2011, p. 1). At present, 20% of the Arab region’s population is between 15-24 years old (Ibid.), reaching almost 90 million young adults in 2010 (Roudi, 2011). With more than half of the region’s population under the age of 25 (ESCWA and UNPY, 2011), education and health services are facing new demands, and job markets are thus far proving unresponsive. As of 2010, the Middle East claimed the highest youth unemployment rate in the world (25.5%), and North Africa the second highest (23.8%) (UNDESA, 2011). Female youth employment is even higher, at 39.4 per cent in the Middle East and 34.1 per cent in North Africa (Ibid.).

Although demographers and development practitioners across the Arab region had predicted the burgeoning “youth bulge,” research into this cohort and policy response has been limited. Meanwhile, the age at marriage is also increasing and a greater number of women are remaining unmarried. “Family life in the region is changing... A rapid increase in access to education and exposure to the global media has widened generational gaps between parents and their children and altered the ways in which young people receive information” (DeJong and El-Khoury, 2006, p. 849). Additionally, there is a distinct increase in the articulation of “Arab youth aspiration for participation in the decision-making process” (ESCWA and UNPY, 2011, p. 5). Adolescents and young adults have specific health and education needs and unique economic and enfranchisement aspirations, which are only now being recognized.

Despite improvements in health and the increase in school enrollment (for both boys and girls) these gains have not resulted in increased employment and wages. For many analysts, “youth unemployment and economic hardship are directly linked to the political uprisings that began to sweep the region in late 2010...” (Roudi, 2011, p. 1). A hitherto unacknowledged voice, Arab youth “with their sheer numbers and increasing frustrations... have become the force behind the historical uprisings in the region, demanding change and seeking the affluence and openness enjoyed by their peers in other parts of the world” (Ibid.).

At the same time, knowledge about Arab youth remains insufficient, and even less is known about the many diversities within the rubric of “Arab youth;” young men and women have different understandings and perceptions, very little of which has been documented and explored. Most national statistics in the Arab region do not disaggregate for age, beyond child and adult (below and above 15 years of age). Additionally, despite the progress and improvement of sex-disaggregated statistics in the Arab region, variation in the availability of

data within and among countries still exists. While sex-disaggregated data are generally available at the national level in areas such as educational attainment or participation in labor force, fewer data are available on women's control over resources and access to decision-making, especially at local levels.

IN THIS REPORT

Through an assessment of nationally representative data for six countries – Algeria, Iraq, Morocco, Palestine, Syria and Tunisia – taken from unmarried respondents aged 15-24 years old, this report explores Arab youth's knowledge and perceptions. Gender gaps are identified in health knowledge, attitudes towards issues of gender equality and opinions about decision-making. These indicators were further disaggregated by the respondents' area of residence (rural/urban), educational attainment (primary/university), standard of living (poorest/richest quintile) and parents' educational attainment (primary/university).

As a result, the impact of different socio-economic conditions on a gender gap can be more clearly identified (e.g., does a primary versus university education impact the gap between men and women who have heard of AIDS?). It was found that different socio-economic conditions affect gender gaps differently. Gender gaps remain prevalent in areas of health knowledge and understanding of gender equality. By systematically assessing gender gaps in 14 indicators across five categories of socio-economic conditions, this report aims to not only provide an overview of where Arab youth gender gaps remain, but also to more closely pinpoint where (and what type of) policy initiatives may be most effective in reducing these gender gaps.

METHODOLOGY

DATA SOURCES

PAPFAM survey data were used for Syria (2002), Tunisia (2001), Algeria (2002), Morocco (2003-2004), Palestine (2006) and the National Youth Survey was used to analyze the Iraqi data (2009).

POPULATION AND SAMPLE SIZE

Data exclusively included never married males and females aged between 15 and 24 years. Total number of respondents: Algeria: 3,268, Iraq: 8,226, Morocco: 5,207, Palestine: 5,723, Syria: 8,389 and Tunisia: 3,663.

PRIMARY INDICATORS

The main indicators which the report has analyzed are:

- 1. Knowledge about health: sexually transmitted diseases, contraception, health care provision*
- 2. Attitudes towards issues of gender equality*
- 3. Opinions on decision-making*

Not all indicators and variables were available for all countries. The Iraq data set lacked indicators pertaining to knowledge about contraception, knowledge about STDs, place where health care can be sought, opinion on suitable age for marriage, decision on number of children, decisions about children's education, whether the wife has the right to work and decision on household expenses. These indicators were not available because a different survey was used; while the other countries relied on PAPFAM surveys, the Iraq data set was based on the National Youth Survey.

Other missing indicators from other country surveys are:

- Morocco: Knowledge about STD.
- Tunisia: Decision to use contraception, place where health care can be sought, cigarette smoking status, decision on number of children, decision on education of children and permission for wife to work.

BACKGROUND VARIABLES

Indicators were analyzed across five major background variables: Area (urban/rural), highest educational attainment of the respondent (pri-

mary/university), highest education attainment of father and mother (primary/university) and wealth index divided in quintiles (poorest/richest). These background variables correspond to those used in "A Comparative Analysis of Gender Disparities in Arab Countries."

The wealth index was constructed using a list of 46 services and assets available in the household. Some of the services included were the availability of running water or electricity, whereas assets ranged from items such as a washing machine, cell phone, or a satellite dish. Responses to services/assets were dichotomized into available in the household or unavailable, and the list of items was included in a principal components analysis. The index was then divided into five categories: poorest, second, third, fourth and richest. No wealth index was available for the Iraqi data.

With the exception of the highest educational level of respondent, all background variables for PAPFAM data sets were obtained from the original household roster data set. Background variables were readily available in the Iraqi National Youth Survey.

DATA ANALYSIS

All the indicators were presented through descriptive statistics, systematically across the five main background variables and gender. Sample weights were used to adjust for unequal sampling. Therefore, unweighted frequencies and weighted percentages were used. No formal statistical testing was performed. Statistical analysis and tabular representation of the data was done using Stata's (SE 10.1) `svy` command, while the graphical representation of the data was done using R (v2.15).

PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS (%)

| | ALGERIA | | IRAQ | | MOROCCO | | PALESTINE | | SYRIA | | TUNISIA | |
|--|---------|------|------|------|---------|------|-----------|------|-------|------|---------|------|
| | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| AREA | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Urban | 57.3 | 57.6 | 72.0 | 72.7 | 56.3 | 56.8 | 54.7 | 52.6 | 50.5 | 46.0 | 63.0 | 63.6 |
| Rural | 42.7 | 42.4 | 28.0 | 27.3 | 43.7 | 43.2 | 27.0 | 30.4 | 49.5 | 54.0 | 37.0 | 36.4 |
| HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION ATTAINED | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Primary | 14.9 | 14.7 | 57.0 | 65.5 | 31.3 | 33.2 | 14.4 | 8.5 | 32.7 | 33.9 | 32.1 | 33.5 |
| Intermediate | 51.5 | 36.8 | 37.4 | 27.2 | 40.0 | 30.8 | 53.5 | 52.5 | 30.4 | 27.5 | 6.8 | 4.6 |
| Secondary | 25.3 | 34.6 | 3.2 | 4.0 | 22.2 | 25.6 | 27.3 | 32.6 | 26.4 | 27.1 | 41.2 | 37.9 |
| University | 8.3 | 13.9 | 2.4 | 3.4 | 6.5 | 10.4 | 4.8 | 6.4 | 10.6 | 11.5 | 16.8 | 19.9 |
| HIGHEST EDUCATION LEVEL OF FATHER | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| No education | 65.8 | 63.6 | 25.8 | 29 | 71.0 | 69.6 | 18.4 | 16.1 | 39.8 | 39.9 | 66.9 | 70.2 |
| Primary | 14.8 | 16.7 | 33.2 | 30.5 | 9.0 | 9.5 | 26.4 | 23.6 | 32.5 | 32.7 | 6.9 | 7.0 |
| Intermediate | 13.1 | 13.4 | 26 | 25.2 | 7.1 | 7.2 | 21.7 | 23.0 | 9.8 | 9.3 | 8.7 | 9.4 |
| Secondary | 3.7 | 4.2 | 6.3 | 7.0 | 8.4 | 8.6 | 16.2 | 15.1 | 6.9 | 6.9 | 8.5 | 4.8 |
| University | 2.7 | 2.1 | 8.8 | 8.3 | 4.5 | 5.1 | 17.4 | 22.2 | 11.0 | 11.2 | 9.1 | 8.7 |
| HIGHEST EDUCATION LEVEL OF MOTHER | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| No education | 77.8 | 78.1 | 49.6 | 52.4 | 84.1 | 83.3 | 24.2 | 21.0 | 66.8 | 68.2 | 83.8 | 87.7 |
| Primary | 11.3 | 10.6 | 30.9 | 28.4 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 26.0 | 27.2 | 19.9 | 18.4 | 5.1 | 3.2 |
| Intermediate | 7.8 | 8.3 | 13.7 | 13.2 | 5.6 | 6.0 | 26.7 | 25.5 | 6.3 | 6.8 | 4.8 | 3.1 |
| Secondary | 2.7 | 2.7 | 4.1 | 3.8 | 4.0 | 4.2 | 16.6 | 17.4 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 4.3 | 1.7 |
| University | 0.4 | 0.3 | 1.7 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 6.5 | 8.9 | 4.1 | 3.9 | 2.0 | 4.3 |
| WEALTH INDEX | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Poorest | 13.6 | 13.6 | - | - | 40.9 | 41.4 | 20.7 | 19.6 | 5.7 | 6.4 | 11.8 | 11.4 |
| Second | 21.3 | 21.7 | - | - | 13.4 | 12.5 | 21.1 | 21.9 | 14.9 | 15.1 | 30.9 | 31.5 |
| Middle | 23.8 | 23.2 | - | - | 15.6 | 15.1 | 20.4 | 21.3 | 17.7 | 18.9 | 25.9 | 26.5 |
| Fourth | 22.7 | 21.0 | - | - | 15.7 | 17.3 | 19.0 | 17.7 | 25.7 | 24.7 | 19.9 | 18.6 |
| Richest | 18.6 | 20.6 | - | - | 14.4 | 13.7 | 18.7 | 19.6 | 36.0 | 34.9 | 11.5 | 12.0 |
| EMPLOYED | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 40.2 | 8.9 | 39.6 | 5.88 | 44.8 | 15.9 | 28.3 | 5.5 | 52.6 | 17.5 | 35.8 | 21.8 |



HEALTH KNOWLEDGE

BACKGROUND

In the PAFAM survey, young men and women were asked about their awareness of AIDS and sexually-transmitted diseases (STDs), if they had heard of family planning and if they could name a place of health care provision. Data were not always available for all surveyed countries.

Most regional research on gender gaps and health focuses on issues of mortality and morbidity, and is premised on the assumption that excess female mortality usually occurs in female children. An examination of differences in child mortality and child health was undertaken with national data for 18 Arab countries, and it was determined that 12 countries had higher infant and under-five mortality rates for females (Khawaja et al., 2008). The study suggested that excess mortality among girls may be attributed to the discriminatory behavior of parents. However, other studies have not found significant gender disparities when researching nutrition indicators or immunization rates (Yount, 2001). Moreover, based on Demographic and Household Survey data in Morocco and Tunisia, Obermeyer and Cardenas (1997) also were not able to confirm that preferential treatment is manifested in child health, with no strong disparities in breastfeeding duration, immunization, or treatment of diarrhea. These findings confirmed those by Schoenbaum et al (1995), in their examination of nutritional status and feeding patterns among infants in Gaza, Palestine.

However, gender may play a role in health care access. A study that compared health care treatment between boys and girls in rural Egypt determined that girls were more likely to be provided with informal health care than with a doctor and that, generally, parents invested less on girls' health care than boys' (Yount, 2003). Differences in health care access are also found between adult men and women. According to the Population Reference Bureau, there remain "significant inequities in access to health care services... One of the important factors affecting reproductive health disparities in the MENA region is the socially assigned gender roles endemic there... this circumscribes [women's] 'health-seeking behaviors' – whether and where they look for health services" (Roudi-Fahimi, 2012).

In terms of young women's health in the region, cultural and religious taboos and sensitivity result not only in a lack of knowledge about young women's health (prior to marriage), but also in a lack of information on sexual and reproductive health provided to young women. In the Arab region, "the high social and religious value placed on virginity means that unmarried young women risk stigma and judgmental attitudes from health workers if they try to obtain contraception" (DeJong and El-Khoury, 2006 p. 850). A study in Morocco showed clear gender differences in knowledge and health seeking behavior for the prevention and treatment of Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs), men were demonstrably more knowledgeable about STDs and resources for treatment (Manhart et al., 2000).

AWARENESS OF AIDS

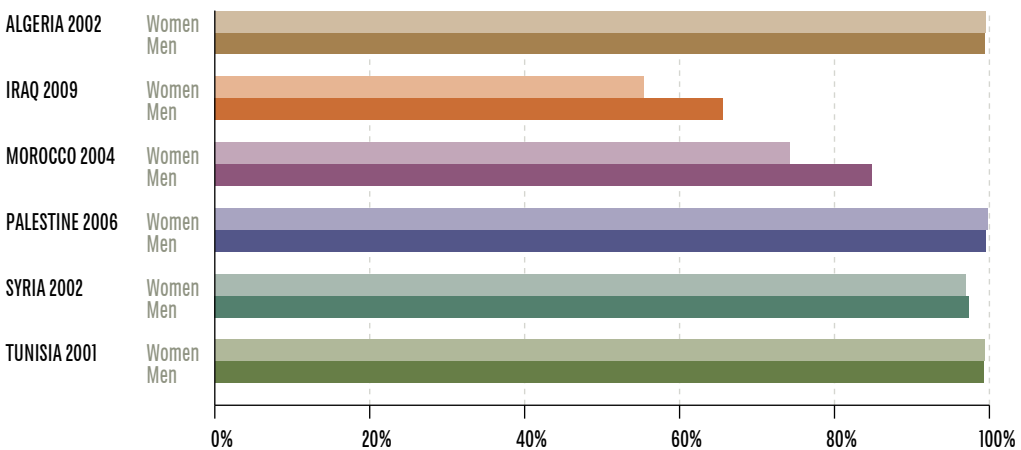


IN IRAQ AND MOROCCO, TEN-PERCENTAGE-POINT GENDER GAPS EXIST IN AIDS AWARENESS

In terms of awareness of AIDS, virtually no gender gap exists for four of the six countries surveyed; the awareness levels of both young men and women in Algeria, Palestine, Syria and Tunisia were above 95%, and thus the gender gaps negligible. Moreover, in Algeria, Palestine and Tunisia, more young women than men had heard of AIDS by a slight percentage.

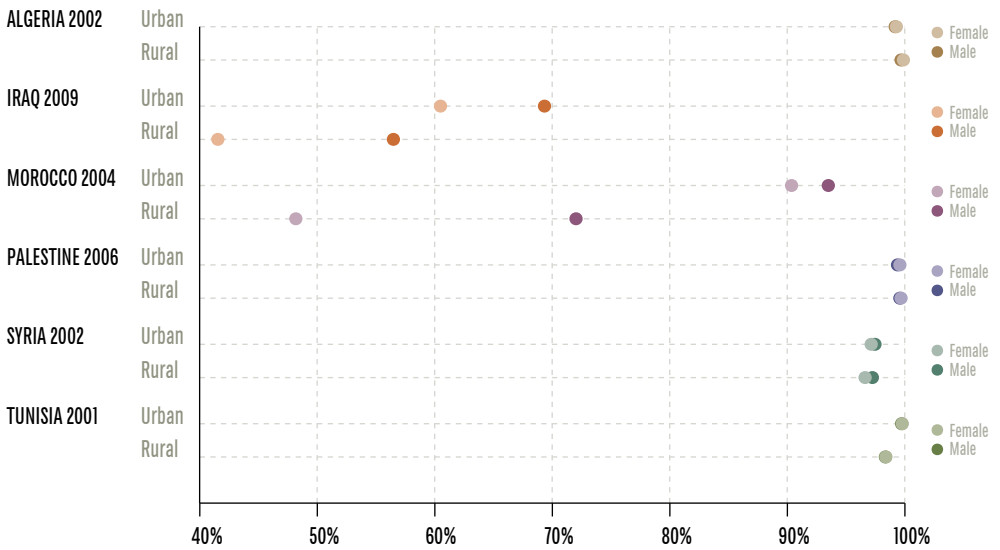
However, in Iraq and Morocco, where awareness of AIDS is already much lower than the other surveyed countries, an overall gender gap of 10 percentage points exists between young men's awareness and young women's awareness. The size of the gender gap changes when AIDS awareness is disaggregated by the respondent's area of residence, education level and wealth.

FIGURE 1. Awareness of AIDS



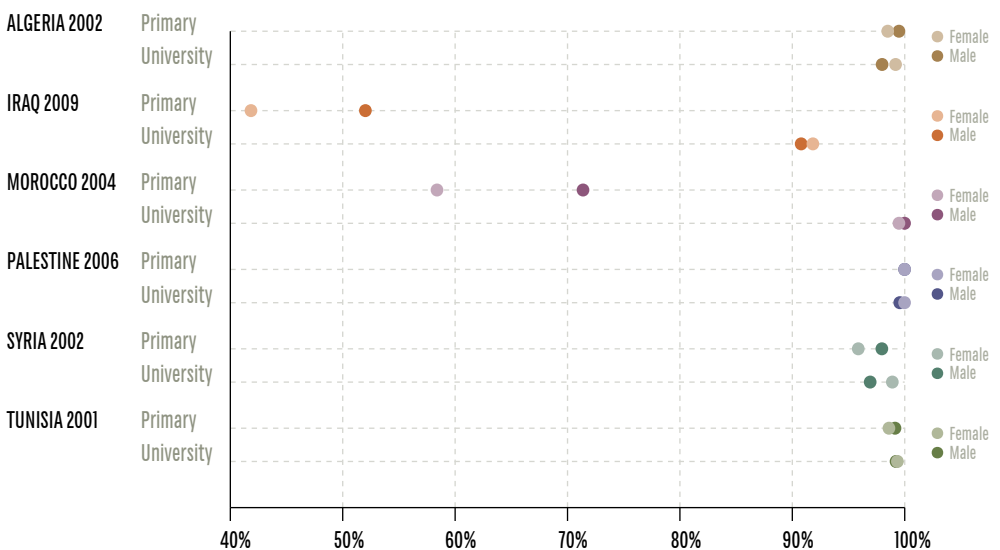
The gender gaps in AIDS awareness increase drastically in rural areas for both countries. In Iraq, the gender gap in rural areas is almost 15 percentage points; 56.5% of young men versus only 41.6% of young women in rural areas have heard of AIDS. In urban areas in Iraq, however, the gender gap is much lower (8.9 percentage points); over 60% of young men and women have heard of AIDS. In Morocco, the gender gap in rural areas is almost 24 percentage points (72% of young men have heard of AIDS, but only 48.2% of young women). The gender gap in urban areas, however, where over 90% of both young men and women have heard of AIDS, is negligible.

FIGURE 2. Awareness of AIDS by location



A similar trend is noticed for both countries with regard to the respondent's level of education. Although the gender gap in AIDS awareness between young persons with a university degree is actually slightly negative in Iraq (90.8% of young men but 91.8% for young women), for respondents with only a primary school education, the gap increases to 10.2 percentage points: 52% of young men had heard of AIDS, but only 41.9% of young women. Likewise, in Morocco, although practi-

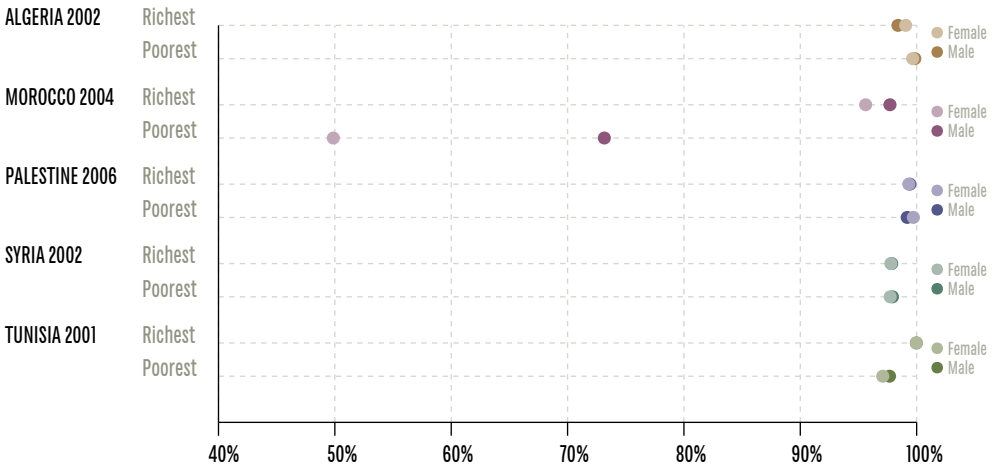
FIGURE 3. Awareness of AIDS by educational attainment



cally 100% of all young respondents with a university degree had heard of AIDS, a gender gap of 13 percentage points separates respondents with a primary school education; 71.4% of young men but only 58.4% of young women have heard of AIDS.

Finally, in Morocco, 73.2% of young men in the poorest wealth quintile have heard of AIDS, versus less than 50% of young women, representing a gender gap of 23.3 percentage points. In the richest quintile, the gender gap is only 2.1 percentage points; over 95% of young men and women have heard of AIDS.

FIGURE 4. Awareness of AIDS by wealth



These findings indicate that AIDS awareness in Iraq and Morocco is characterized by the urban-rural divide and contributing factors of this divide, such as education and wealth. The findings may also indicate that ensuring girls receive more than a primary education will help reduce the gender disparity in AIDS knowledge in rural areas.

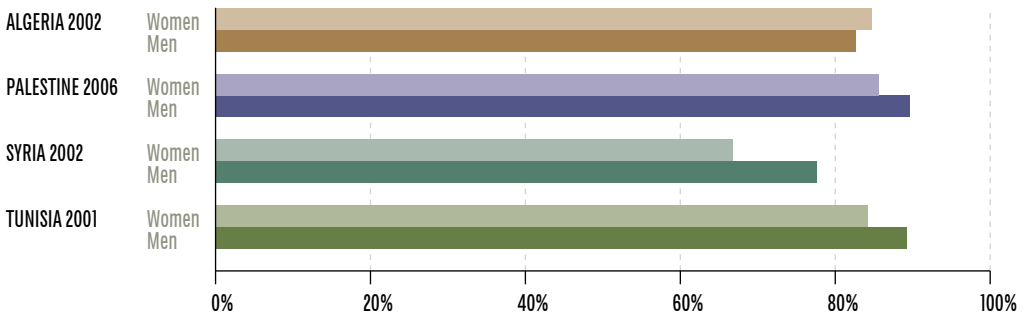
SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED DISEASES (STD) AWARENESS



LARGE GENDER GAPS IN STD AWARENESS AMONG PALESTINIAN AND SYRIAN YOUTH WHO HAVE ONLY A PRIMARY SCHOOL EDUCATION

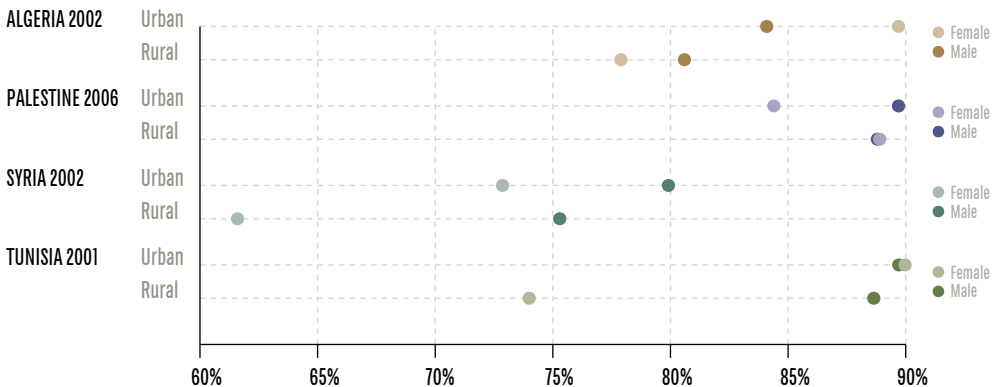
Data were available for only four of the six countries under review, of which gender gaps are discernable in Syria (at 10.8 percentage points) and in Tunisia (5.1 percentage points). The gender gaps in Algeria and Palestine are nominal; interestingly, the gap is actually negative in Algeria, where more young women than young men have heard of STDs (a 2 percentage point difference). Gender gaps were widest in rural areas for both Syria and Tunisia. Disaggregating by education level, wealth and education of the respondent's mother also exposes wider gender gaps.

FIGURE 5. STD awareness



Interestingly, gender gaps in awareness of STDs appear in area disaggregation for all four countries (even when the country's total gender gap is not substantial). A large gender gap of 13.7 percentage points is found in rural Syria, with 75.3% of young men indicating awareness of STDs versus 61.6% of young women. In urban areas, however, the gender gap is only 7.1 percentage points, with 10 percentage points more women having heard of STDs (72.9%). In Tunisia, a larger gender gap of 14.7 percentage points in rural areas contrasts with a gender

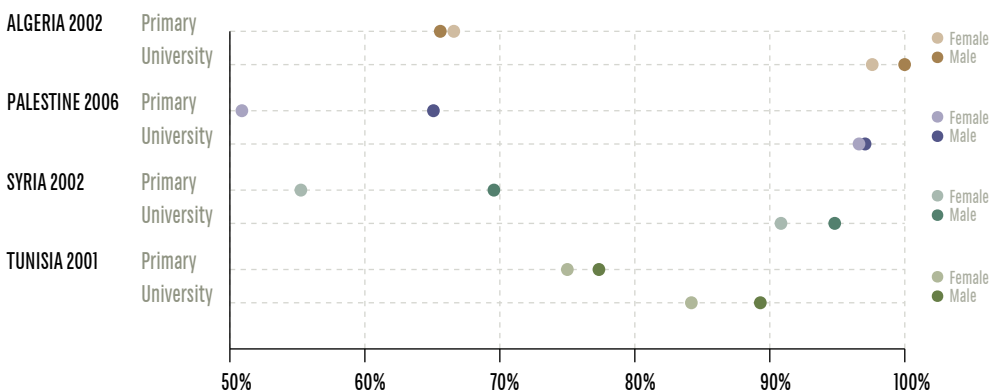
FIGURE 6. STD awareness by area



gap of -0.3 percentage points in urban areas. Whereas young men's awareness of STDs remains virtually the same in rural and urban areas (88.7% and 89.7%), young women's awareness increases from 74% in rural areas to 90% in urban areas.

For respondents with a primary school education, a large gender gap is found in Syria (14.3 percentage points); 69.6% of young men and 55.3% of young women have some knowledge of STDs. Among respondents with a university degree, however, the gender gap is only 4 percentage points, with over 90% of both young men and women having heard of STDs. Although the total gender gap for Palestine is quite small (less than 5 percentage points), a considerable gender gap exists for respondents with only a primary school education (14.2 percentage points). The gender gap is negligible among respondents with a university education; in this group, awareness is above 95% for both young men and women.

FIGURE 7. STD awareness by educational attainment

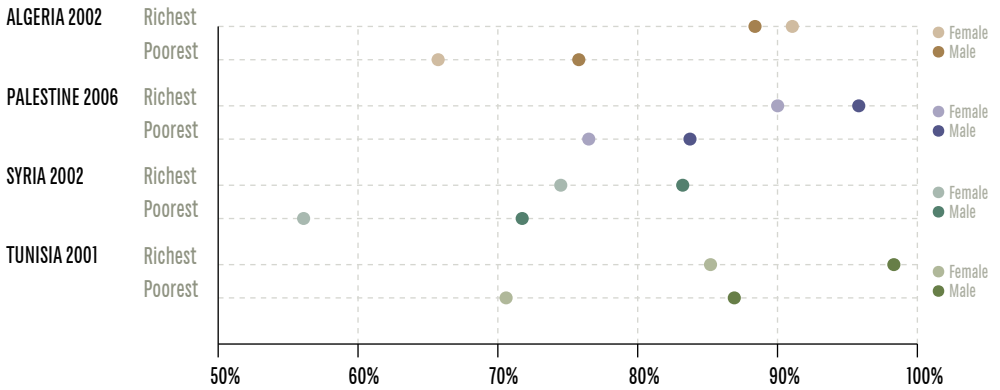


In Algeria and Syria, gender gaps in STD awareness are considerably wider in the poorest wealth quintiles, but in Tunisia and Palestine, the gaps are almost the same width in the poorest and richest quintiles. In Syria, there is a gender gap of 15.6 percentage points in the poorest quintile, with 71.8% of young men having heard of STDs versus only 56.1% of young women. However, in the richest quintile, the gender gap is half of that, 8.7 percentage points: 83.2% of young men are aware of STDs versus 74.5% of young women.

Interestingly, wider gender gaps exist among respondents whose fathers are more educated. In Syria, a 7.3 percentage point gender gap exists when the father has a primary education, versus an 11.5 percentage point gap when the father has a university education. The difference is more extreme in Tunisia, where a negative gender gap in STD awareness of -3.4 percentage points is seen between young men (83.7%) and young women (87.1%) when the father has a primary edu-

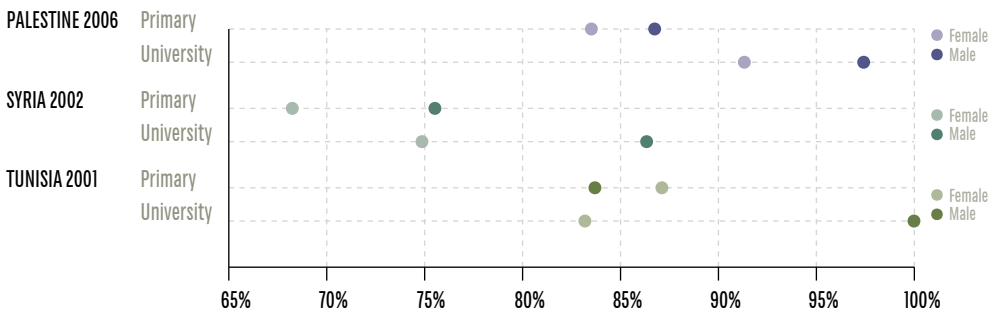
cation. The gender gap is positive, 16.8 percentage points, when the father has a university degree; 100% of young men have heard of STDs versus 83.2% of young women.

FIGURE 8. STD awareness by wealth



The findings seem to indicate that the gender gap in STD awareness is most extreme for less educated women, with income and area also affecting the likelihood of young women having heard of STDs. Area of residence affects women's awareness more than men's, and urban areas are linked to narrower gender gaps. Interestingly, the higher educational level of the respondent's father increases the likelihood of his son - knowing about STDs considerably more than it does for his daughter-

FIGURE 9. STD awareness by education level of the respondent's father



ter; no similar trend appears in disaggregation by education of mother.

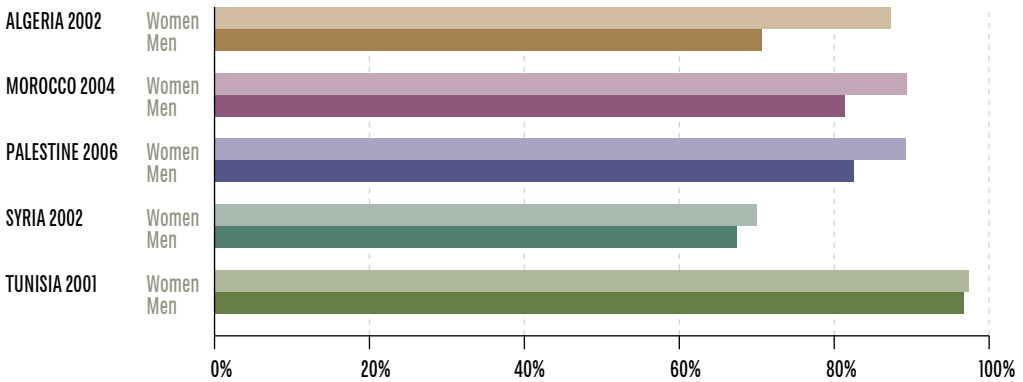
FAMILY PLANNING AWARENESS



MORE WOMEN THAN MEN HEARD OF FAMILY PLANNING

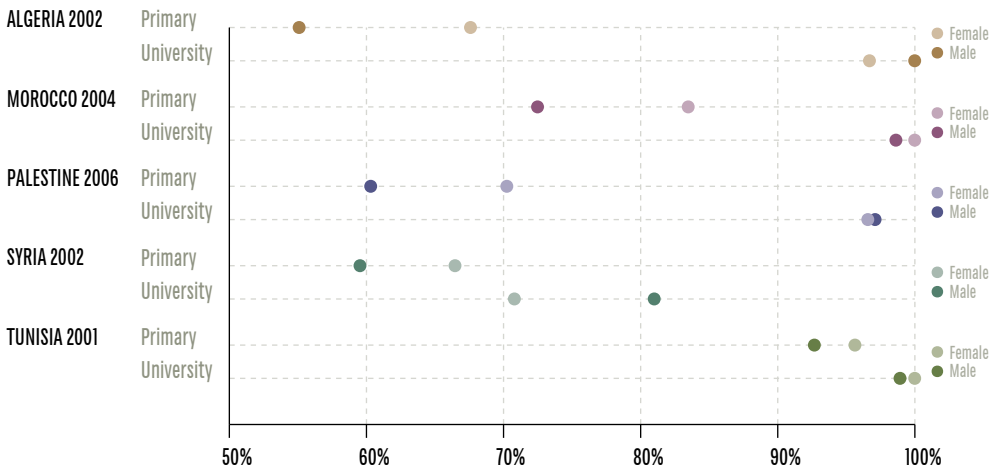
In terms of knowledge of contraception, a negative gender gap – whereby more women than men have heard of family planning – is witnessed in all available countries. (No data were available for Iraq.) The gap is smallest in Syria, where only 68.8% of respondents have heard of family planning, and Tunisia, where over 97% have. For Algeria, Morocco and Palestine, the negative gender gaps (-16.7, -8 and -6.7 percentage points, respectively) are more pronounced in disaggregation by the respondent's education and wealth, and (for Morocco) the educational of the respondent's mother.

FIGURE 10. Knowledge of family planning



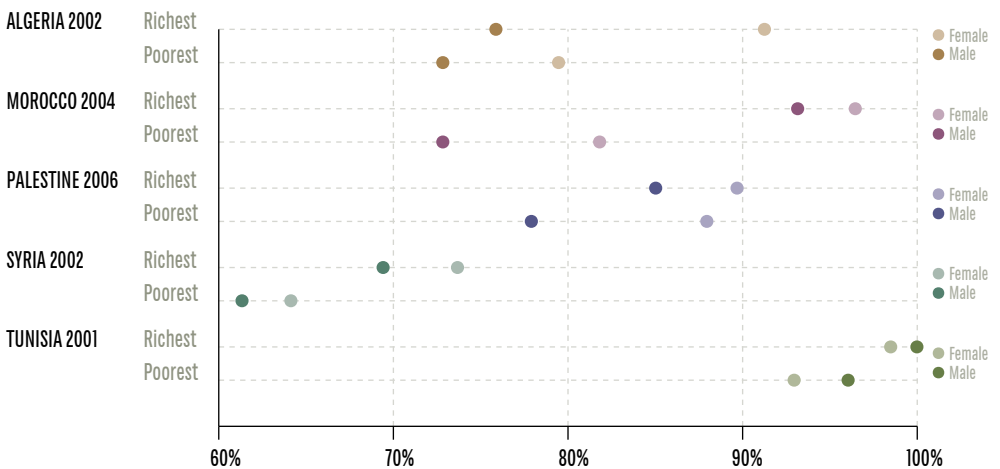
Gender gaps are narrower among respondents with a university education for all three countries. In Algeria, the negative gender gap for respondents with only a primary education is -12.5 percentage points, with 55.1% of young men stating awareness of family planning versus 67.6% of young women. However, this gender gap is positive for respondents with a university education; 100% of men and 96.7% of women know about family planning (a 3.3 percentage point gap). In Morocco, although knowledge of family planning is generally higher, a -11 percentage point gender gap exists between young men (72.5%) and young women (83.5%), with only a primary school education. The gap is a narrower -1.4 percentage points at the university level, with 98.6% of men and 100% of women having heard of family planning. Palestine shows a similar pattern to Algeria, with a negative gender gap of -9.9 percentage points in family planning awareness for young men (60.3%) and women (70.3%) with primary educations. The gender gap is negligible at the university level, however, where about 97% of both genders are aware of contraception.

FIGURE 11. Knowledge of family planning by educational attainment



Both Morocco and Palestine show similar trends of a reduced (if still negative) gender gap with an increase in wealth. Morocco shows a negative gender gap of -9.9 percentage points for the poorest wealth quintile, with 72.8% of young men having heard of family planning versus 81.8% of young women. However, in the richest wealth quintile, the negative gender gap is a narrower -3.3 percentage points, with over 90% of both men and women stating awareness of family planning. Likewise, there is -10.1 percentage point gender gap in Palestine among the poorest quintile, with 77.9% awareness for young men and 88% for young women. The size of the gap is reduced to -4.7 percentage points in the richest quintile, with over 85% of young men and women indicating awareness of family planning. Algeria, however, shows a contrary trend, with a wider negative gender gap for

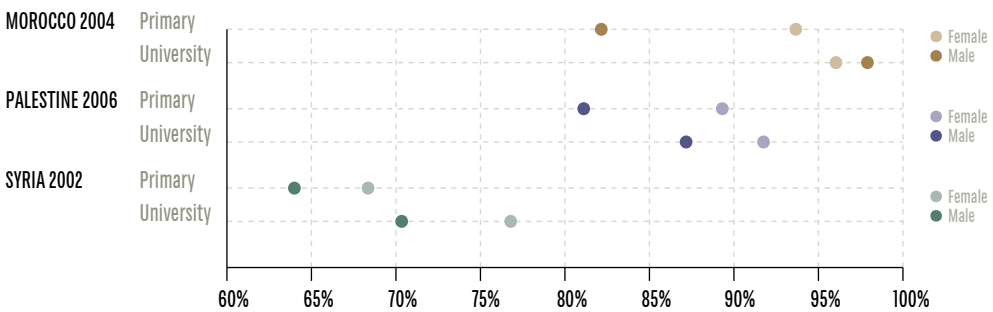
FIGURE 12. Knowledge of family planning by wealth



the richest quintile than for the poorest. A -6.7 percentage point gender gap in the poorest quintile (72.8% of young men versus 79.5% for young women) is half as wide as the -15.4 percentage point gap for the richest quintile. Interestingly, although young men’s awareness is not considerably higher in the richest wealth quintile (75.9%), women’s awareness is markedly higher (91.3%).

Finally, a wide gender gap is seen in Morocco for respondents whose mothers have only a primary school education. Although there is a negative gender gap in family planning knowledge of -11.5 percentage points when the respondent’s mother has only a primary education (82.2% of young men versus 93.7% of young women), the gender gap slightly reverses at the university level to 1.9 percentage points, with over 96% awareness for both young men and young women.

FIGURE 13. Knowledge of family planning by education level of the respondent’s mother



These findings may indicate that young women, even when experiencing disparities in education and wealth, are able to obtain information on family planning that young men in similar circumstances are not.

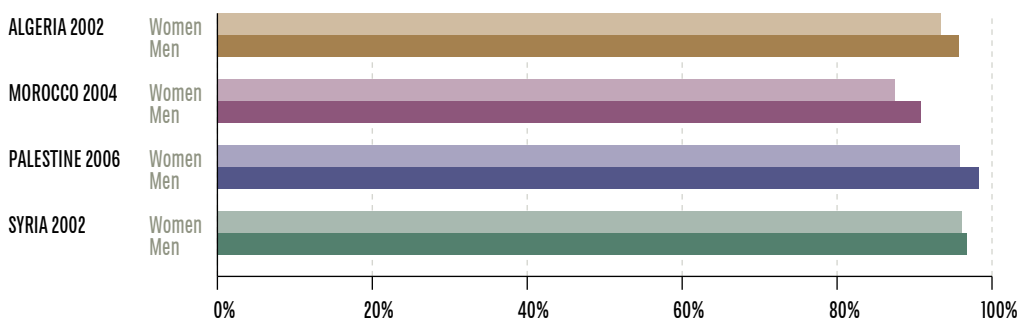
KNOWLEDGE OF HEALTH CARE PROVISION



IN ALGERIA AND MOROCCO, WIDE GENDER GAPS IN KNOWLEDGE OF A HEALTH CARE FACILITY IN THE POOREST WEALTH QUINTILES

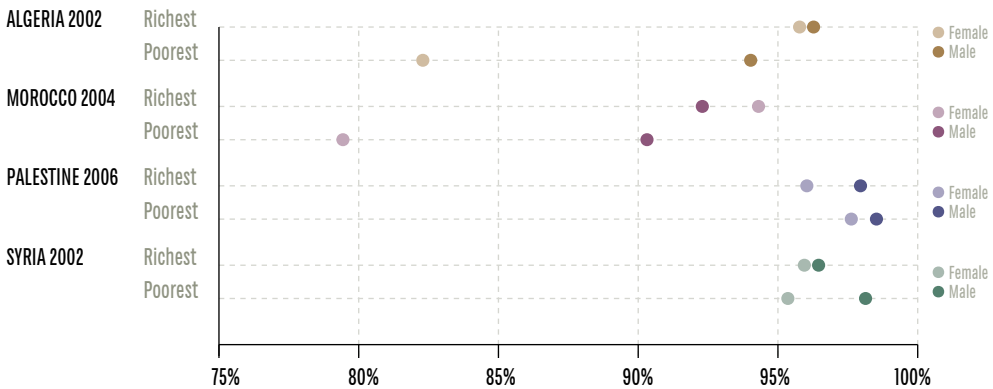
For the four countries with available data – Algeria, Morocco, Palestine and Syria – no substantial gender gaps were found between young men and young women’s knowledge of at least one health care facility. However, in Morocco, gender gaps remain in rural areas and among less educated respondents, as well as in the poorest wealth quintile for both Algeria and Morocco. A gender gap of 9.7 percentage points between young men and women is present in rural areas of Morocco, with 90.5% of young men knowing of at least one health care facility, but only 80.8% of young women. However, in urban areas, the gender gap is -1.1 percentage points, with slightly more women than men able to cite a health care facility (and both over 90%). An even more extreme reversal of gender gaps is witnessed when analyzing in terms of the respondent’s level of education. Among youth with only a primary education, 89.6% of young men and 81.1% of young women can identify health care provision – a gender gap of 8.5 percentage points. However, at the university level, the gender gap is drastically different (-6.2 percentage points), with 89% of young men and 95.2% of young women able to identify a health care facility.

FIGURE 14. Health care provision awareness



Both Algeria and Morocco witness considerable gender gaps in the ability to identify a health care facility among the poorest respondents. In Algeria, a gender gap of 11.7 percentage points is found in the poorest quintile, with 94% of young men able to cite a health care facility, but only 82.3% of women. For the richest quintile, however, the gender gap reduces to 0.5 percentage points, and over 95% of both young men and women answered that they knew of a facility. Similarly, the gender gap for Morocco’s poorest quintile is 10.9 percentage points, with 90.3% of young men but only 79.4 of young women able to identify a health care facility. The gender gap is -2.0 percentage points for the richest quintile, however, with slightly more young women than men able to identify health care provision (and both over 90%). These findings indicate that, although overall there is a negligible

FIGURE 15. Health care provision awareness by wealth



gender gap in health care provision awareness, pockets of inequity remain, with poor, less educated young women in rural Morocco less likely to be able to identify at least one place of health care.

Conclusions: health knowledge

Worrisome gender gaps in basic health knowledge are noticed for some countries, particularly with regard to young women's lack of AIDS awareness in Iraq and Morocco, and young men's lack of contraception knowledge in Algeria and Morocco.

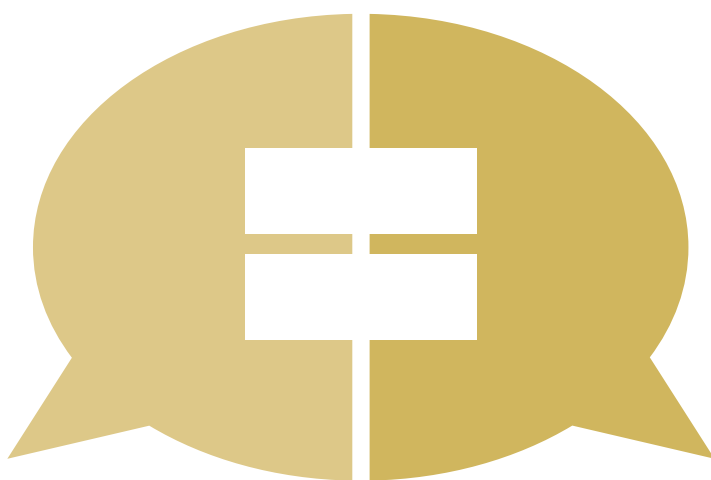
AIDS awareness for Iraq and Morocco countries is low overall, but young women's knowledge of AIDS is even lower, and indicates that the urban-rural divide (and the contributing factors to this divide, like education and wealth) discriminates more sharply against women. Particularly given the link between increased AIDS awareness and increased education for young women, ensuring that girls receive more than a primary education may help reduce the gender disparity in AIDS knowledge in rural areas.

Although all countries surveyed showed more young women than men are aware of contraception, the negative gender gap was most extreme in Algeria and Morocco, with universally low rates in Syria. Further investigated is needed to better identify how and why young women, even when experiencing disparities in education and wealth, are able to obtain information on family planning that young men in similar circumstances are not.

Gender gaps remain in Syria and Tunisia for STD awareness, and Syria's overall low rates of awareness are particularly noted. Lower education, rural residence and poverty seem to discriminate more against young women than men in terms of their STD awareness. Urban residence was shown to have a more positive impact on young

women than men, but the education of the respondent's father seemed to benefit young men most in terms of STD awareness.

Measured according to the respondent's ability to cite one location of health care provision, the overall high rates and small gender gaps are encouraging. However, in Morocco, pockets of inequity remain, with poor, less educated young women in rural areas still less likely than young men to be able to identify at least one place of health care.



ATTITUDES ON GENDER EQUALITY

BACKGROUND

In the PAFAM survey, unmarried respondents aged 15-24 were asked about their opinions on the highest level of education a boy and a girl should attain and the most suitable age at marriage for a man and a woman. Data were available for all countries surveyed except Iraq.

Across the region, girls are still more likely than boys to be deprived of education, though this likelihood varies; girls are three times more likely to be undereducated in Western Asia than in North Africa (ESCWA and UNPY, 2011). At present, primary education is nearly universal across the region, excepting for areas in Yemen, Morocco, Iraq and Egypt – which is also where the majority of illiterate youth are located (Roudi, 2011). Moreover, in terms of secondary school enrolment, there is almost no gap between boys' and girls' enrolment, and more women than men are attending universities (Ibid.). According to UNICEF's assessment of adolescent health and development in 2012, most Arab countries showed small differences in literacy rates of boys and girls aged 15-19, likelihood of transitioning from primary to secondary school and net enrollment in secondary school.

The UNDP Arab Human Development Report (2009) suggests that part of the remaining gender gap can be explained by social factors, as the enrolment of boys was historically preferred to that of girls. An analysis of data for five Arab countries examined the factors that affect drop-out in education, and it was determined that the parent's level of education, area of residence (urban/rural) and household wealth impacted children's participation in education – with significant gender disparities (Smits, 2007). Using data from the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) in Egypt, an examination of secondary school completion and enrolment in higher education was undertaken in terms of gender and wealth (Cupito, E. and R. Langsten, 2011). The authors found that while women have narrowed the transition gap, they are only 70 per cent as likely as males to enroll in higher education, and that poor women increased their representation in higher education compared to poor men over time.

With respect to age at marriage, the Population Reference Bureau states that: "Women throughout the Arab region once typically married in their teens or early 20s. In recent decades, however, early marriage has declined sharply in parts of the region... For the region as a whole, women are marrying later (some in their late 20s or early 30s), and some women are not marrying at all" (Rashad et al, 2005, p. 2). Nevertheless, "the marriage-age gap (the worldwide phenomenon of women commonly marrying older men) is [still] particularly pronounced in Arab societies" (Ibid. p. 3).

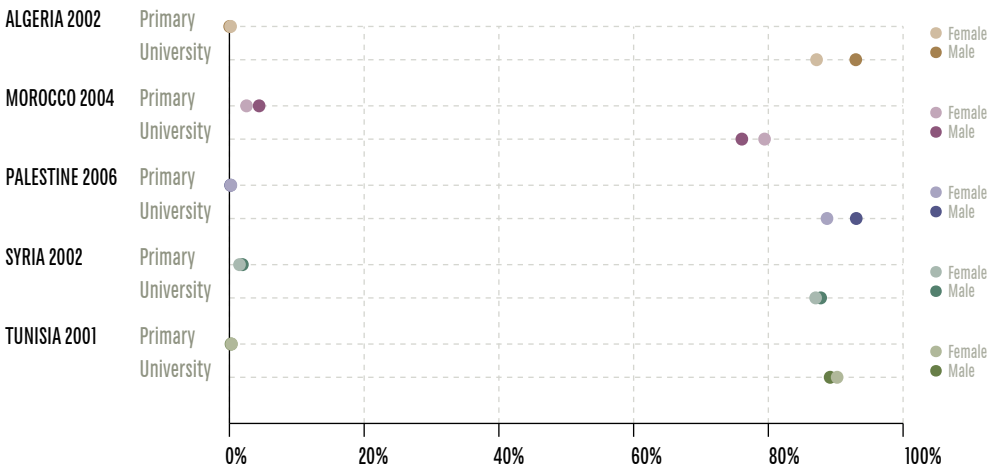
HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION A BOY SHOULD ATTAIN



MAJORITY OF RESPONDENTS AGREE THAT BOYS SHOULD OBTAIN A UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

In this report, no large gender gaps (over 10 percentage points) are identified in terms of whether respondents think boys should obtain a primary or a university education. Virtually no young man or woman thought the highest level of education a boy should obtain is a primary education, with all measures under 5%. In terms of a university education, slight gender gaps (the largest in Algeria, at 5.8%) are present between young men and women, with over 75% of both young men and women in all countries stating that a boy should obtain a university degree.

FIGURE 16. Highest education boys should obtain



HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION A GIRL SHOULD ATTAIN



OVER 20% OF YOUNG MEN IN MOROCCO BELIEVE A GIRL SHOULD ONLY OBTAIN A PRIMARY SCHOOL EDUCATION

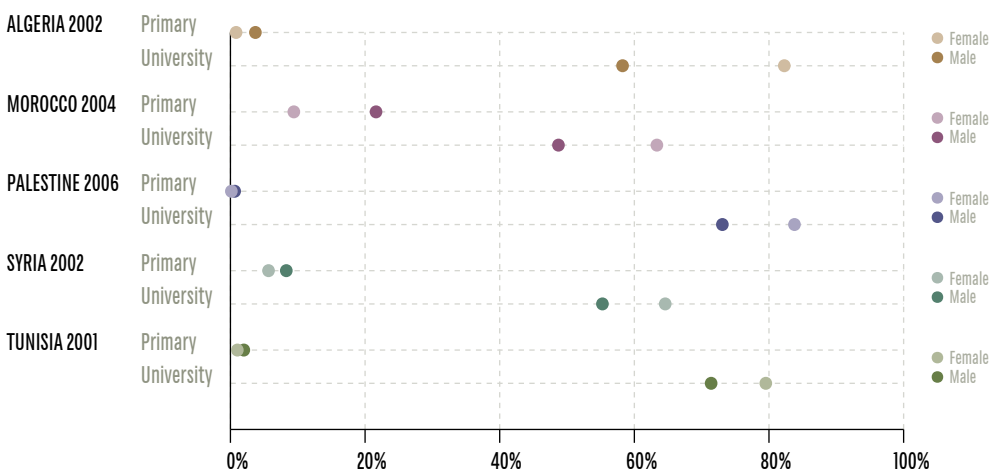
It is of interest, however, to note that considerable gender gaps (over 10 percentage points) between male and female respondents are witnessed for Algeria, Morocco, Palestine and Syria in terms of whether a girl should attain a primary or university education, with consistently more women than men answering that a girl should obtain a university degree.

While very few young Algerians think a girl should only get a primary education, there is a negative gender gap of -24 percentage points between the 58.3% of young men and 82.3% of young women who think a girl should obtain a university degree.

In Morocco, significant gender gaps are witnessed both for those who think a girl should only have a primary education and for those who think she should attain a university education. A 12.2 percentage point gender gap separates the 21.7% of young men and 9.4% of young women who think that a girl should have a primary education. However, a negative gender gap of -14.6 percentage points separates the 48.8% of young men and the 63.4% of young women who think that a girl should have a university education.

The gender gaps in Palestine follow the same trend as in Algeria, but to a lesser extent. Although a considerable majority of respondents think that girls should have a university degree, a negative gender gap of -10.7 percentage points separates the 73.1% of young men from the 83.8% of young women who support university education for girls.

FIGURE 17. Highest education girls should obtain



Syria more closely follows the patterns of gender gaps in Morocco, but to a lesser degree. A gender gap of 2.6 percentage points is witnessed between the 8.3% of young men and the 5.7% of young women who think that girls should obtain a primary education. The gender gap for university education is instead negative, -9.3 percentage points, with 55.3% of young men and 64.6% of young women supporting girls obtaining a university degree.

When these gender gaps are disaggregated by socio-economic indicators, a variety of factors are found to exacerbate the gender gaps among respondents who think girls should have a primary education and those who think girls should attain a university degree. Educational attainment of the respondent is shown to affect the gender gap in Morocco, poverty/wealth levels affect Morocco and Syria, the education level of the respondent’s father also affects Morocco, and the education level of the respondent’s mother affects the gender gaps in Palestine. Area of residence is the only factor that does not have a substantial effect on gender gaps.

In Morocco, among respondents whose own highest education attainment was primary school, a gender gap of 17.9 percentage points exists (33.8% of young men and 15.9% of young women), when asked if they think girls should only attain a primary education. This gender gap drops to 2.2 percentage points when respondents have a university education.

FIGURE 18. Highest education girls should obtain is Primary by educational attainment

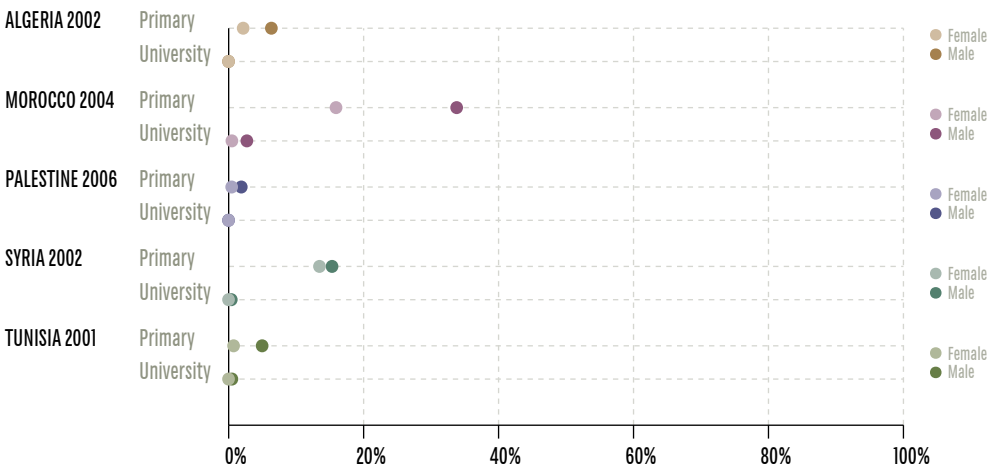
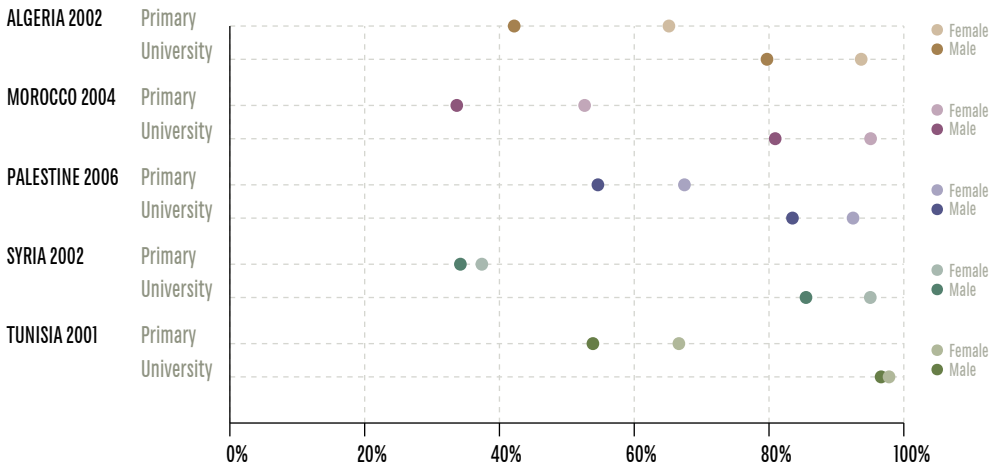


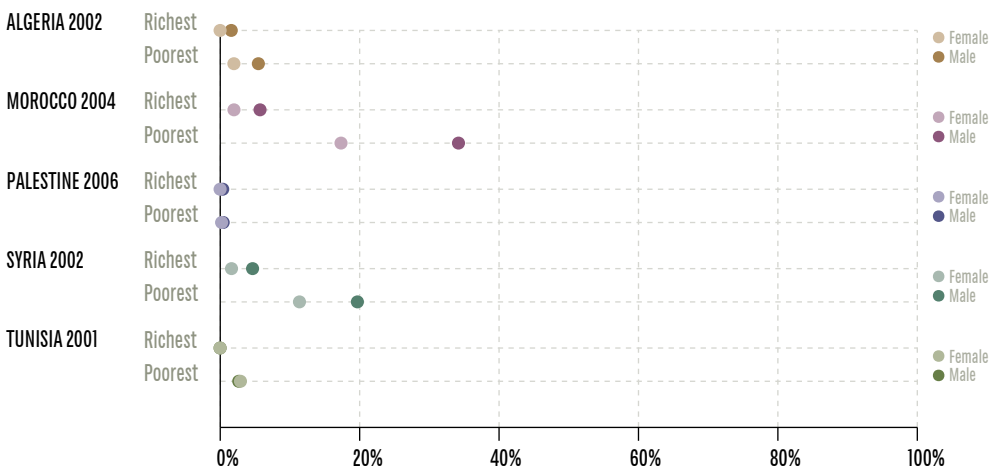
FIGURE 19. Highest education girls should obtain is University by educational attainment



Although increased wealth is not as strongly associated with supporting a university education for girls as the respondents themselves holding a university degree, differences in gender gaps are still found. In Morocco, 34.2% of young men and 17.4% of young women in the poorest quintile think girls should obtain a primary education (a 16.9 percentage point gap). In the richest quintile, however, the gender gap is only 3.7 percentage points, with 5.7% of young men and 2% of young women thinking that girls should attain primary education.

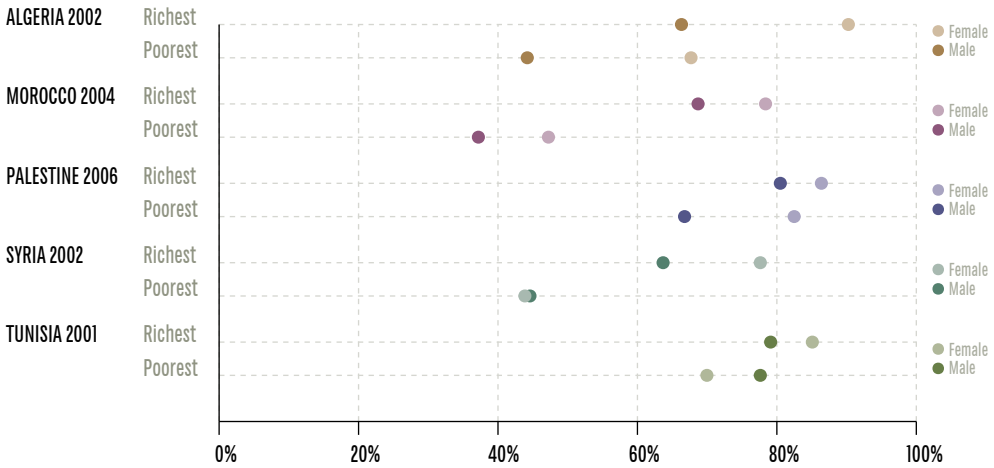
In Syria, among respondents who think the highest education a girl should obtain is a university degree, the larger gender gap appears in the richest quintile. Practically an equal percentage of young men (44.6%) and young women (43.9%) from the poorest quintile think

FIGURE 20. Highest education girls should obtain is Primary by wealth



that girls should attain a university education. The gender gap is much wider, -14 percentage points, in the richest quintile, with 63.7% of young men and 77.7% of young women supporting a university education for girls.

FIGURE 21. Highest education girls should obtain is University by wealth



In Syria, a gender gap of 12.7 percentage points separates the 18.5% of young men and the 5.8% of young women whose fathers have a primary education and who think girls should only obtain a primary education. This gap is narrower when the respondent's father has a university education, with 4.3% of young men but 7.4% of young women thinking girls should attain a primary education.

FIGURE 22. Highest education girls should obtain is Primary by education level of respondent's father

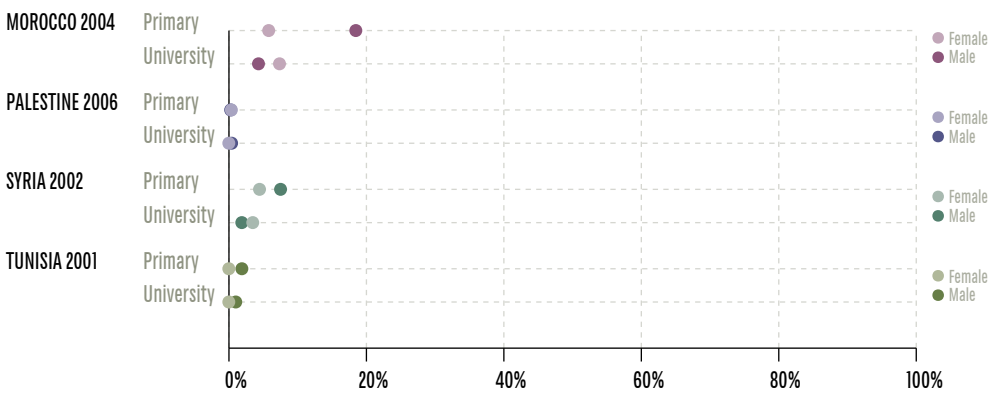
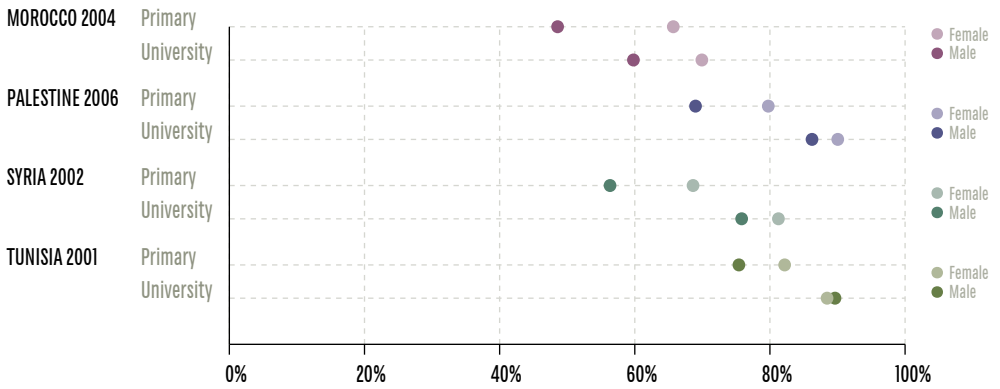


FIGURE 23. Highest education girls should obtain is University by education level of respondent's father



In Palestine, the educational attainment of the respondent's mother affects the gender gap. With gender gaps less than 1% and all measures under 1.1%, very few people in Palestine think that the highest education a girl should obtain is the primary level. However, despite relatively high percentages of young people supporting university educations for girls, gender gaps remain. A sizeable gender gap of -14 percentage points separates the 68.8% of young men and 82.8% of young women whose mothers have a primary education, who think girls should obtain a university degree. When the respondent's mother has a university education, however, the gender gap essentially disappears: 89.9% of young men and 90.7% of young women supporting university educations for girls.

FIGURE 24. Highest education girls should obtain is Primary by education level of respondent's mother

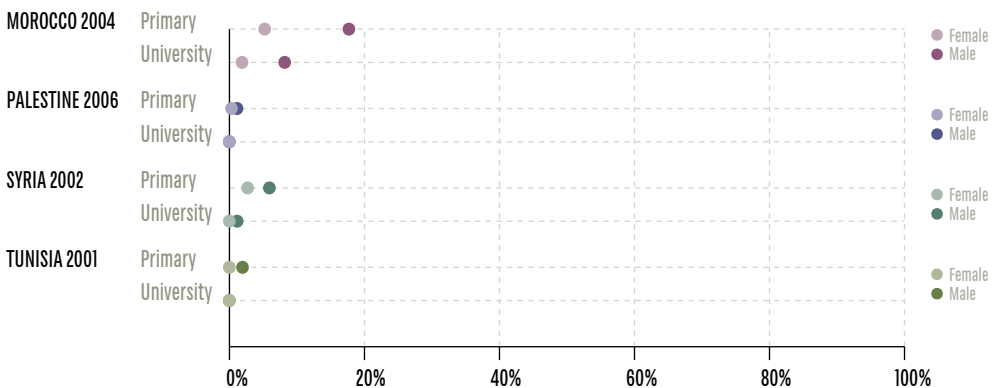
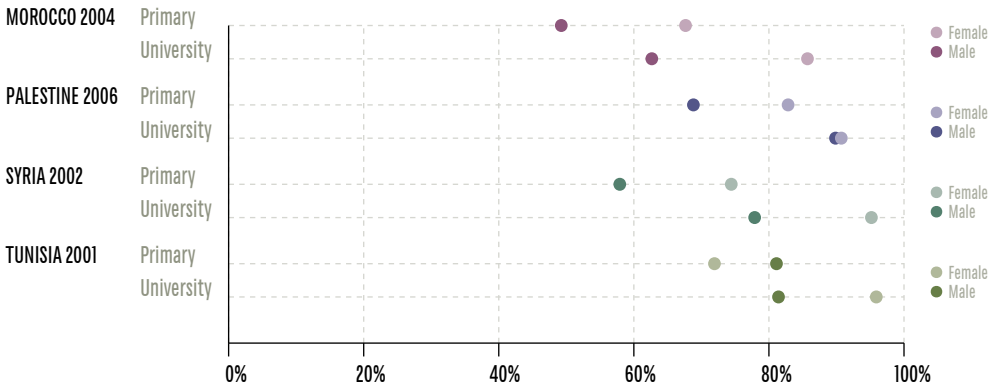


FIGURE 25. Highest education girls should obtain is University by education level of respondent's mother



Conclusions: highest level of education a boy or girl should attain

It is not particularly surprising that high educational attainment of the respondent generally leads to the respondent supporting higher education for hypothetical progeny, as well as a more equal perception of educational attainment between boys and girls. It is, however, concerning that while no gender gaps are shown in terms of the near-universal support for boys to attain a university education, no such unanimity is shown for girls to achieve a university degree, with more women than men (with both primary and university educations) supporting higher education for girls.

In Morocco, a university education for male respondents does not necessarily increase the likelihood of these men supporting university educations for girls, whereas there is a clear association between a female respondent having a university education and her support for girls to receive university education.

Increased wealth reduces the gender gap in supporting university educations for girls. However, even at the richest quintile, less than 70% of young men surveyed in Morocco and Syria think that women should have university degrees.

In Syria, the gender gap is smaller when the respondent's father has a university education, with an increased likelihood of men supporting higher education for girls. Palestine shows a similar trend when the respondent's mother has a university education; young men are much more likely to support higher education for girls if their mothers also have a university degree.

IDEAL AGE OF MARRIAGE FOR MEN



SIGNIFICANT GENDER GAPS FOUND IN ALGERIA, MOROCCO, PALESTINE AND TUNISIA

Respondents were asked if they thought men should get married between 20-24 years, 25-29 or 30 and above. Although a plurality of respondents prefer the 25-29 age group, significant gender gaps are found in Algeria, Morocco, Palestine and Tunisia. It should be noted that per cents for Syria do not add to 100 because of a high percent of “other/don’t know” responses.

In Algeria, a gender gap of 6.4 percentage points is witnessed between respondents who think the 20-24 age group is the most suitable age for a man to marry, with 12.5% of young men and 6.1% of young women. The gender gap increases to 11 percentage points between respondents who prefer the 25-29 age group, with 45.7% of young men and 34.7% of young women. However, the gender gap is wider for respondents who prefer men to marry at the eldest age category, with a gender gap of -15.7 percentage points; 18.5% of young men and 34.2% of young women prefer 30 and above.

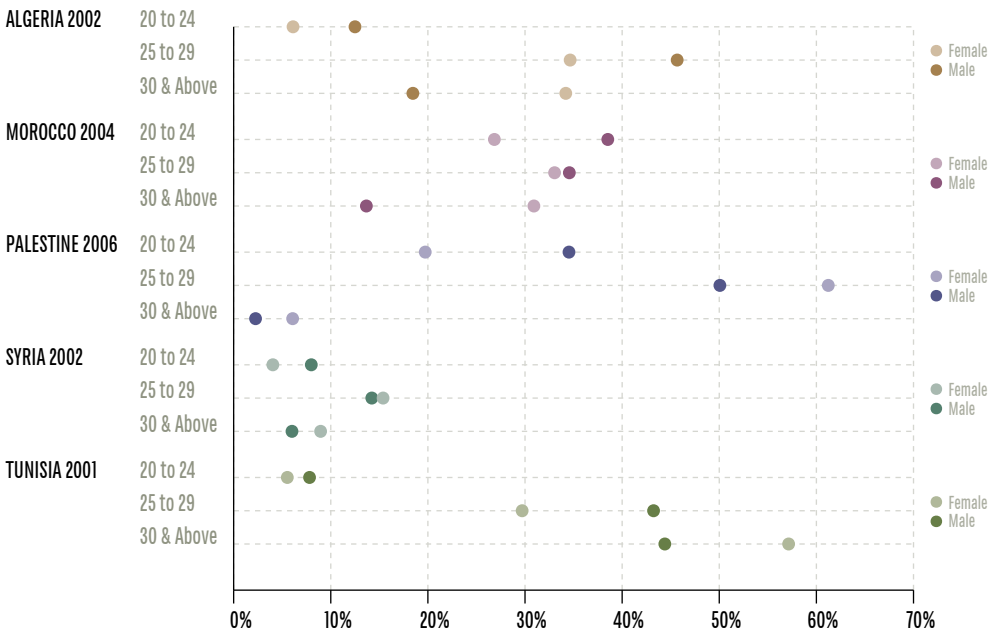
In Morocco, there is a greater tendency to prefer men marrying at a younger age than in Algeria, with 38.5% of young men and 26.9% of young women – for a gender gap of 11.7 percentage points – thinking the most suitable age for men to marry is 20-24 years. There is almost no difference between the 34.6% of young men and the 33.1% of young women who think the 25-29 age range is the preferred age for men to marry. However, a considerable gender gap, -17.3 percentage points, separates the 13.7% of young men from the 30.9% of young women who prefer 30 and above for men.

Palestine presents a more extreme version of the pattern shown in Morocco, with almost no one preferring men to marry in the highest age category. A 14.8 percentage point gender gap separates the 34.5% of young men from the 19.7% of young women who think men should get married between 20-24 years of age. Although a majority of young Palestinians think men should marry in the 25-29 year category, there is still a substantial gender gap of -11.2 percentage points, with 50.1% of young men and 61.2% of young women preferring men to marry in their mid to late 20s. Only 2.4% of young men and 6.1% of young women think men should marry over the age of 30.

Tunisia presents a very different trend from the other countries, with only 7.8% of young men and 5.5% of young women thinking men should marry in the 20-24 age bracket (a gender gap of 2.3 percentage points). A considerable gender gap of 13.5 percentage points, however, separates the 43.3% of young men and the 29.7% of young women who prefer men to marry in the 25-59 age group. In the oldest age category, the gender gap is instead -12.8 percentage

points, with a similar percentage of young men (44.4%) but a much larger percentage of young women (57.2%) thinking men should marry over the age of 30.

FIGURE 26. Age boys should get married



When gender gaps were disaggregated by area of residence (rural-urban), educational attainment and wealth, only the respondent's level of education is associated with changes in the gender gaps.

In Algeria, 41.6% of young men and 37.7% of young women with a primary education think men should marry between the ages of 25-29, representing only a 3.9 percentage point gender gap. When respondents have a university degree, the per cent of young men who express this view is similar (43.7%), but only 22% of young women agree, a gender gap of 21.7 percentage points. More young women (24.9%) than young men (15.9%) with primary education think men should marry over the age of 30 (a gap of -9 percentage points). An even wider gender gap (-20.2 percentage points) separates the 25.3% of young men and 45.5% of young women with university education who think the most suitable age for men to marry is over 30 years of age.

In Morocco, a gender gap of -15.5 percentage points separates the 7.2% of young men and 22.7% of young women with primary education who think men should marry over 30 years of age. The gap is even larger (-26.8 percentage points) between the 29.4% of young men and

the 56.2% of young women with university degrees who think 30 and above is the most suitable age for men to marry.

In Palestine, 39.7% of young men and 33.6% of young women with a primary education think that men should marry in their early 20s, a gender gap of 6 percentage points. A 17.3 percentage point gender gap separates respondents with a university education, with 25.6% of young men and 8.4% of young women preferring men to marry between the ages of 20-24.

In Tunisia, almost 50% of young men and 35.2% of young women with a primary education think men should marry at 25-29, a 14.4 percentage point gender gap. In contrast, with a gender gap of just 3.9 percentage points, 27% of young men and 23.1% of young women with university educations think men should marry in the 25-29 age bracket. Most women believe the appropriate age for men to marry is 30 and above. Among respondents with a primary education, a gender gap of -19 percentage points is witnessed between the 31.5% of young men and 50.5% of young women who prefer men to marry in the 30-plus age group. Among youth with a university education, a negligible gender gap is found between the 66% of young men and the 65.1% of women who think the most suitable age for men to marry is 30 years of age and above.

FIGURE 27. Boys should get married age 20-24 by educational attainment

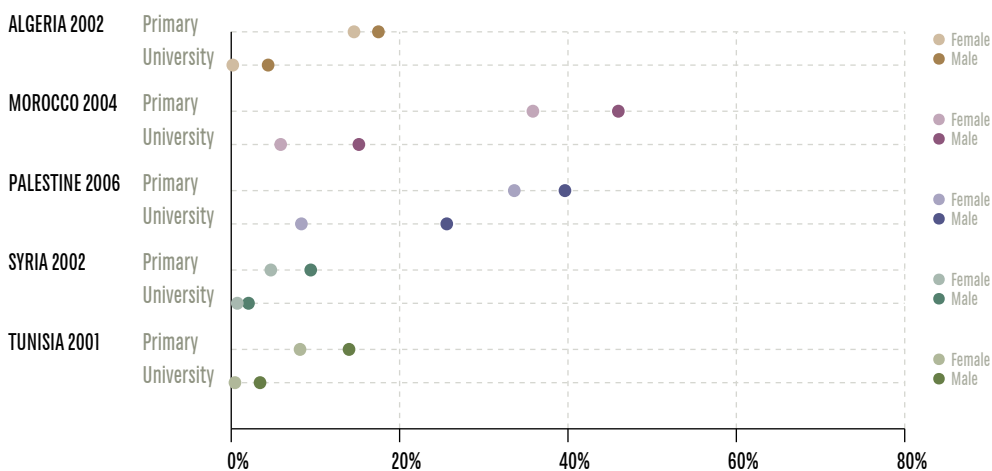


FIGURE 28. Boys should get married age 25-29 by educational attainment

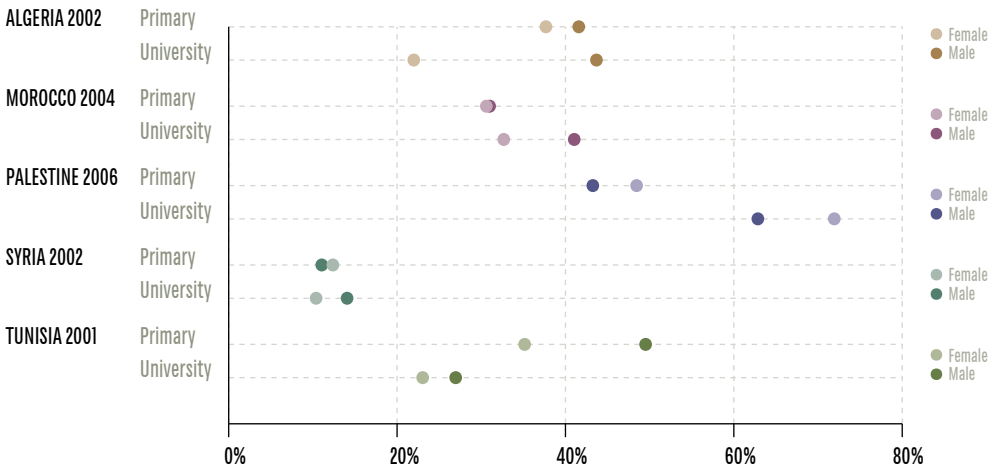
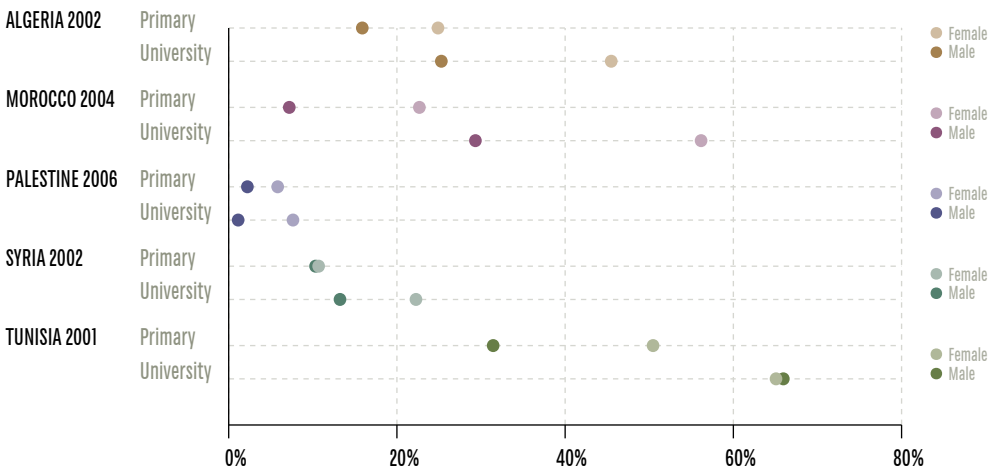


FIGURE 29. Age boys should get married age 30 and above by educational attainment



Conclusions: ideal age of marriage for men

Although exact percentages vary, more women than men prefer men to marry at 30 years of age or above, whereas more men than women generally prefer men to marry in the 25-29 age group. Although increased education is shown to affect gender gaps in preferred age at marriage for men, results differ for each country.

In Algeria and Morocco, when young women have a university education, there is an increased likelihood that they will think men should marry in the highest age category; a similar pattern is not witnessed when male respondents have university degrees. Male respondents

with a university degree were instead more likely to prefer that men marry in the 24-29 age group.

In Palestine, most respondents want men to marry in the 24-29 age group. However, although a university education for women drastically reduces the likelihood of her support for men marrying in the youngest age group, the same cannot be said for men with university degrees.

In Tunisia, the likelihood of men preferring that men marry when 30 years of age or above is higher when they have university degrees, whereas both women with a primary or a university education preferred marry in the latest age category.

IDEAL AGE OF MARRIAGE FOR WOMEN



NEARLY HALF OF YOUNG MEN IN MOROCCO BELIEVE WOMEN SHOULD GET MARRIED AT 15-19 YEARS

Respondents were asked if they thought women should get married between 15-19 years, 20-24 years, or 25-29 years. Although a plurality of both men and women respondents prefer the 20-24 age group, significant gender gaps are found in Algeria, Morocco, Palestine and Tunisia. Again, per cents for Syria do not add to 100 because of a high percent of "other/don't know" responses.

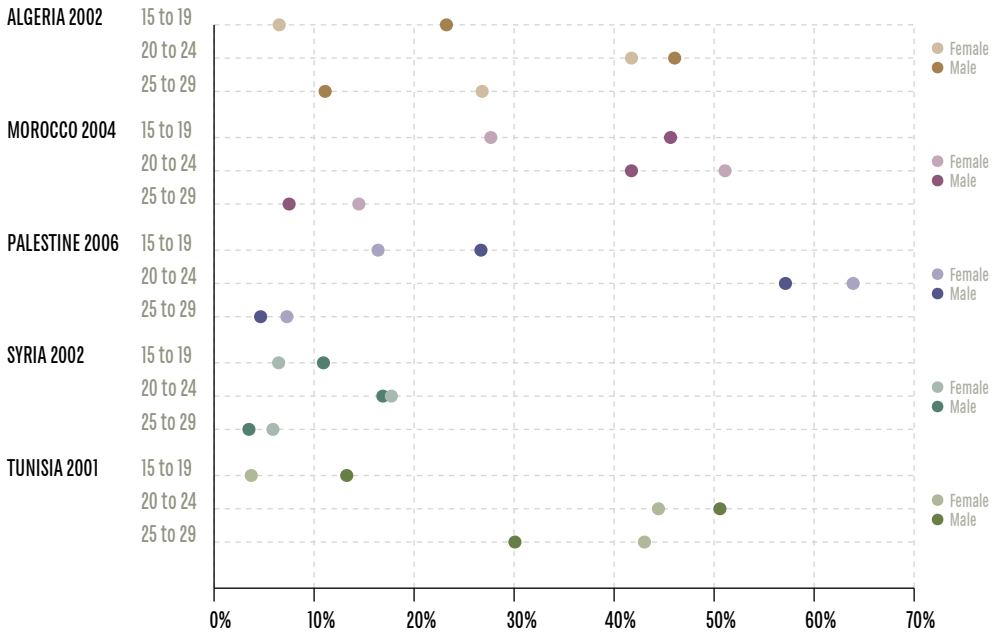
In Algeria, although a plurality of respondents prefer women to marry between the ages of 20-24 years, significant gender gaps are witnessed for the other two age brackets. A 16.7 percentage point gender gap separates the 23.3% of young men and 6.5% of young women who think the 15-19 age bracket is the most suitable age for a woman to marry. A sizable gender gap of -15.7 percentage points separates the 11.1% of young men and 26.8% of young women who think women should marry in their mid to late 20s.

Morocco shows a somewhat different pattern from that of Algeria, with a gender gap of 18 percentage points between the 45.7% of young men and the 27.7% of young women who think women should marry in the 15-19 age bracket. A gap of -9.4 percentage points separates the 41.8% of young men and 51.1% of young women who prefer women to marry between the ages of 20-24 years. And a somewhat narrower gender gap of -7 percentage points separates the much smaller 7.5% of young men and 14.5% of young women who think women should marry in the 25-29 age group.

In Palestine, the trend is similar to that of Morocco, but with a greater percentage of respondents preferring women to marry in the 20-24 age bracket. A 10.3 percentage point gender gap separates the 26.7% of young men and the 16.4% of young women who think the 15-19 age group is the most suitable age for women to marry. A gap of -6.8 percentage points is witnessed between the 57.2% of young men and the 63.9% of young women who think women should marry in the 20-24 age range. Very few young Palestinians think women should marry in the 25-29 age range (only 4.7% of young men and 7.3% of young women, for a gender gap of 4.7 percentage points).

Tunisia shows a pattern different from the other surveyed countries, with more respondents preferring a later age of marriage for women. A 9.6 percentage point gender gap separates the 13.3% of young men and 3.7% of young women who think women should marry between 15-19 years of age. Many young Tunisians think women should marry in the 20-24 age group; a 6.2 percentage point gender gap separates the 50.6% of young men and the 44.5% of young women who support women marrying in their early 20s. A gap of -13 percentage points separates the 30.1% of young men and 43.1% of young women who think women should marry at 25-29.

FIGURE 30. Age girls should get married



Disaggregation by the respondent's level of education and economic class (poorest-wealthiest quintile) affects gender gaps the most dramatically.

In Algeria, a 22.8 percentage point gender gap separates the 31.5% of young men and the 8.7% of young women with a primary education who think that women should marry in the 15-19 age bracket. At the university level, however, a smaller gender gap of 12.3 percentage points separates the 14% of young men and 1.7% of young women who think women should get married at 15-19. A gender gap of -11.7 percentage points is witnessed between the 48.4% of young men and 60.1% of young women with a primary education who think women should marry in the 20-24 age group. The gap is wider for respondents who have a university degree; a 20.7 percentage point gender gap exists between the 38.6% of young men and 17.9% of young women who think women should marry in their early 20s. A gap of -7.7 percentage points separates the 5.9% of young men and the 13.6% of young women with a primary education who think the most suitable age for a woman to marry is between 25-29 years. The widest gap is between young men and women who are university-educated and believe women should marry in the 25-29 age bracket, a -21.8 percentage point difference between the 22.2% of young men and the 44% of young women who share this view.

In Morocco, at the primary level, there is a 16.4 percentage point gender gap between the 56.4% of young men and the 40% of young

women who think women should marry in the 15-19 age group. A similar gender gap of 14.1 percentage points separates respondents with a university degree, with 17.1% of young men and just 3% of women holding the opinion that women should marry between the ages of 15-19. Among respondents who have a primary education, there is a gender gap of -13.7 percentage points between the 35.1% of young men and 48.8% of young women who think women should get married between the ages of 20-24. The gender gap is 10.6 percentage points for respondents have a university degree; 56.9% of young men and 46.3% of young women think women should marry in their early 20s. Very few young Moroccans with primary educations think women should marry at 25-29. However, a respectable 43.1% of young women with university educations think women should get married between the ages of 25-29, 26.8 percentage points more than the 16.4% of university-educated young men who hold this opinion.

In Palestine, a gender gap of -19.9 percentage points separates the 48.4% of young men and the 59.4% of young women with primary educations who think women should marry between the ages of 20-24. This compares to a 3.1 percentage point gap when respondents have a university education, with 69.2% of young men and 66.1% of young women preferring women to marry in the early 20s. Not many young Palestinian men and women with primary school education think a woman should marry between the ages of 25-29. Among those with a university education, however, 5.4% of young men and 14.5% of young women prefer a woman marrying in the 25-29 age bracket, a gender gap of -9.1 percentage points.

With a gender gap of 12.6 percentage points, 19.2% of young men and 6.6% of young women in Tunisia with a primary education think women should marry under the age of 20. However, when respondents have a university degree, only 4.3% of young men and 1.1% of young women support women marrying between 15-19 years of age. The majority of young Tunisian men and women (53% and 55%, respectively) who received only primary education think women should marry between the ages of 20-24. A much larger gender gap, 16.8 percentage points, separates the 42.6% of young men and the 25.7% of young women with university degrees who think women should marry in the 20-24 age group. While only 23.1% of young men and 30.6% of young women with primary educations think women should marry in the 25-29 age group (a -7.5 percentage point difference), the percentages are almost double for university-education youth. Almost half of young men, 47.4%, and over half of young women, 59.3%, of young women with university educations think women should marry at age 25-29.

Similar trends are witnessed in Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia in terms of the effect of poverty or wealth on the gender gaps in preferred age of marriage for women.

In Algeria, a gender gap of 18.7 percentage points separates the 32.9% of young men and 14.1% of young women in the poorest quintile who think that women should marry under the age of 20. Among the richest respondents, a narrower gender gap of 12.4 percentage points is witnessed between the 16% of young men and the 3.7% of young women who think a woman should marry between the ages of 15-19. A large percentage of Algerian youth in the poorest wealth quintile responded that the ideal age of marriage for women is 20-24 (40.2% of young men and 47.3% of young women in this quintile). A somewhat smaller per cent of young women in the richest quintile stated that women should get married at 20-24 (35.2%, compared to 44.7% for young men in this quintile).

FIGURE 31. Girls should get married age 15-19 by educational attainment

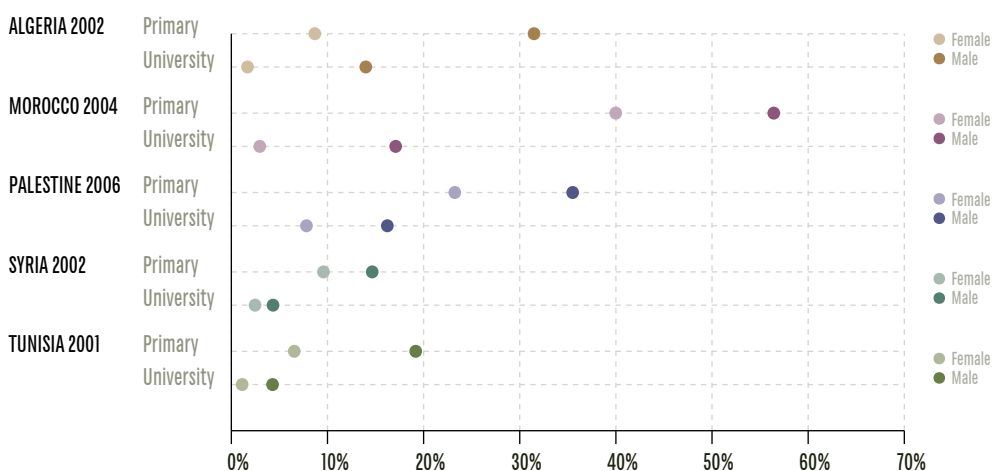


FIGURE 32. Girls should get married age 20-24 by educational attainment

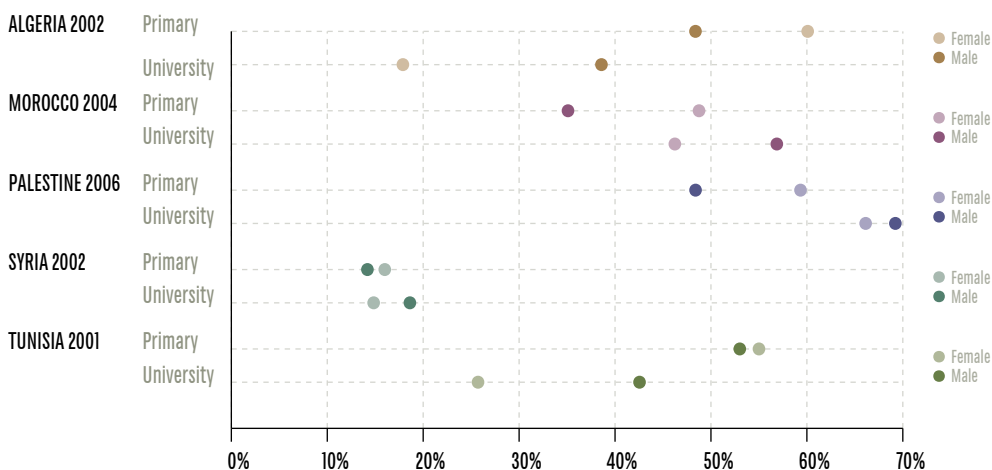
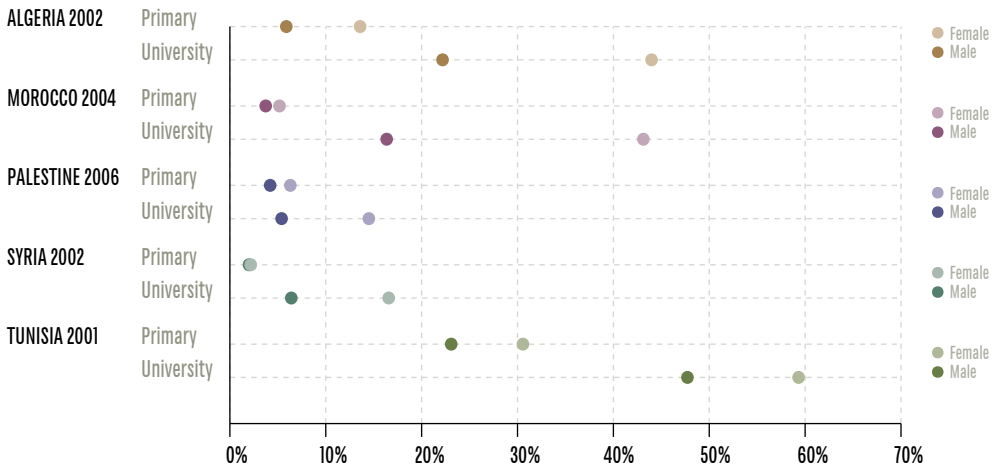


FIGURE 33. Girls should get married age 25-29 by educational attainment



In Morocco, a 19.9 percentage point gender gap separates the 63.1% of young men and the 43.2% of young women from the poorest quintile who think women should marry in the 15-19 age bracket. When respondents are from the richest quintile, the gender gap is a slightly more modest 12.1 percentage points, with only 21.5% of young men and 9.4% of young women answering that a woman should marry under the age of 20. For respondents from the poorest quintile, a gender gap of -14.5 percentage points separates the 30.6% of young men and the 45.1% of young women who think a woman should marry in the 20-24 age group. This contrasts with a gender gap of only -2.9 percentage points in the richest quintile, with 52.9% of young men and 55.8% of young women supporting a woman marrying in her early 20s.

In Tunisia, considerable differences in gender gaps are shown in the older age categories. Among respondents in the poorest quintile, 29.4% of young men and 26.9% of young women think women should marry in the 24-29 age group (a gender gap of 2.5%). A much wider gender gap of -17.6 percentage points is found for respondents in the richest quintile, with 41.4% of young men and 58.9% of young women supporting women marrying at age 25-29.

Conclusions: ideal age of marriage for women

It is of interest that the preferred age at marriage does not reflect the growing trend of Arab men and women marrying at increasingly older ages (except in Palestine).

Although plurality of both men and women respondents prefer the 20-24 age group, consistently more men than women think women should marry under the age of 20, and more women than men think women

should marry in their late 20s. While increased education or wealth does seem to encourage respondents to support marriage at later ages, the impact is not uniform across the genders or in all countries.

In Algeria and Palestine, increased education appears to be associated with fewer men preferring women to marry under the age of 20, and also with more women stating that women should marry in their late 20s (to a lesser extent in Palestine than Algeria). Interestingly, increased education for men does not necessarily increase the per cent who think women should marry in their late 20s.

In Palestine, it is mostly women with university degrees (and not that many of them) who think women should marry in their late 20s. Similarly, in Morocco, increased education increases the proportion of women who think women should marry in their late 20s, but does not necessarily have the same affect on men.

In Algeria and Morocco, disaggregation by wealth also shows a similar pattern - that increased wealth reduces the per cent of men who prefer women to marry under the age of 20, and also increases the proportion of women who think women should marry in their late 20s.

In Tunisia, increased education and increased wealth reduces the proportion of men who prefer women to marry under the age of 20, and also increases the proportion of both men and women who think women should marry in their late 20s.



ATTITUDES ON DECISION-MAKING

BACKGROUND

The PAPPAM survey asked unmarried young persons aged 15-24 questions about who in a married couple - the husband, the wife, or both - should decide on issues ranging from contraception and the number of children to have, to educating the children, to deciding if the wife should work outside the home, to allocating household expenses. Data are available for four countries (no data are available for Tunisia, and only data for women are available for Iraq).

The Arab region, despite great diversity, “is characterised by patriarchal social systems and family structures that give prominence to the role of men in both public and private spheres” (DeJong and El-Khoury, 2006, p. 849). As a result, in its gender review of the MDGs in the region, ESCWA wrote, “Cultural and traditional norms and practices also limit the advancement of women in the region, as they affect matters such as consent to marriage, fertility choices, household power structure and decision-making, private ownership of assets, freedom of movement outside the home, and the incidence and severity of violence against women” (2011, p. vi). In particular, adolescent girls “face many challenges. They are discriminated against as females, and consequently face diminished opportunities and choices. They are often poorly educated, subject to serious health risks, and threatened by violence. Their views and concerns are often unheard” (UNPY, 2011, p.2).

According to UNDP in its Arab Human Development Report “Towards the Rise of Women in the Arab World”, the Arab region has the lowest percentage of women in the workforce. “Since most women work without pay for their families, their contributions are not recognised as economic activity. This historical prejudice is reflected in the undervaluing of women’s contributions to different types of human activity in general, and to economic activity in particular” (2006, p. 29). According to the World Economic Forum’s Global Gender Gap Report, the Middle East and North Africa region occupies last place when compared with the five other regions, and “lags behind the other regions on the economic participation and opportunity and the political empowerment subindexes” (2011, p. 25). Moreover, MENA countries have had only “varying degrees of success at integrating women into the economy” (Ibid.). Arab women’s lack of economic equality is, according to ESCWA, “primarily attributable to the existence of discriminatory laws, [and] the failure to implement the non-discriminatory legislation that does exist... The impact of such legal considerations, however, is often superseded by that of the patriarchal society and its cultural norms and traditions” (2009, p. v).

DECISION TO USE CONTRACEPTION



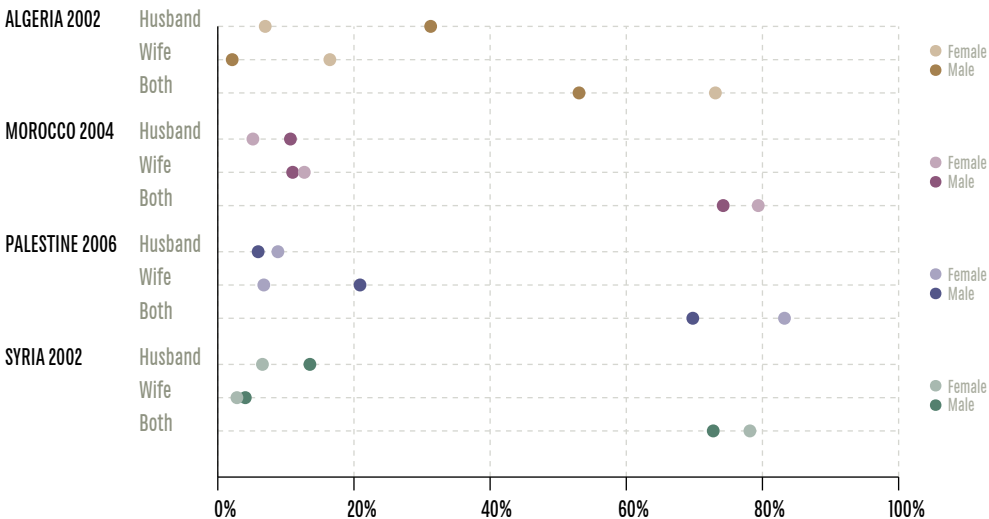
NEARLY A THIRD OF YOUNG MEN IN ALGERIA BELIEVE THE HUSBAND ALONE SHOULD DECIDE ABOUT CONTRACEPTIVE USE

Unmarried youth aged 15-24 were asked who in a married couple they thought should have the “final say” on using contraception. Of the surveyed countries, Algeria and Palestine show total gender gaps of over 10 percentage points.

In particular, a much larger per cent of young men than young women believe the husband should have the final say on contraceptive use in Algeria (31.3% and 7%, respectively, a gender gap of 24.3 percentage points). Similarly, fewer young men (only 2.1%) than young women (16.5%) think that the wife should have final say. A majority of both young men and women state that both the husband and wife should have the final say on contraception, albeit a smaller per cent of men (53.1%) than women (73.1%).

In Palestine, more young men (20.9%) than women (6.8%) think that the wife should have the final say on contraception. As in Algeria, however, a majority of young men and women state that both the husband and the wife should determine the final say, with 69.8% of young men and 83.3% of young women saying so.

FIGURE 34. Decision to use contraception



Although there are no sizeable gender gaps between rural and urban residents, wealth quintiles or the education level of the respondent’s mother or father, gaps exist in terms of the respondent’s level of education.

In Algeria, among youth who have only been to primary school, a gender gap of -25.3 percentage points exists between the per cents of young men and women who believe that both the husband and the wife should make decisions about contraception together (41.3% and 66.6%, respectively). There is only a -1.7 percentage point gender gap at the university level; 76.9% of university-educated young men answered that both spouses should decide, as did 78.6% of university-educated young women.

In Palestine, there is a gender gap of 18.1 percentage points at the primary level, with 29.2% of young men and 11.1% of women stating the husband should have the final say about contraception. This gender gap reduces to 7.3 percentage points at the university level, with 12.1% of young men and only 4.8% of young women stating that the husband should have the final say in contraception. For the response that both husband and wife should decide together, there is a gender gap of -15.2 percentage points at the primary level (58.4% of young men and 73.6% of young women with primary educations gave this response). However, this gender gap reduces to -4 percentage points at the university level, with over 80% of both young men and women stating that both the husband and the wife should decide together.

Although all countries surveyed show a clear preference for joint decision-making on whether to use contraception, gender gaps remain nevertheless, with a significant proportion of young men answering that the husband ought to have the final say, and a larger number of young women than men supporting joint decision-making. In Algeria and Morocco, the gender gap is reduced through the clear association between young men’s university education and the increased likelihood of them supporting joint decision-making.

FIGURE 35. Husband decides to use contraception by educational attainment

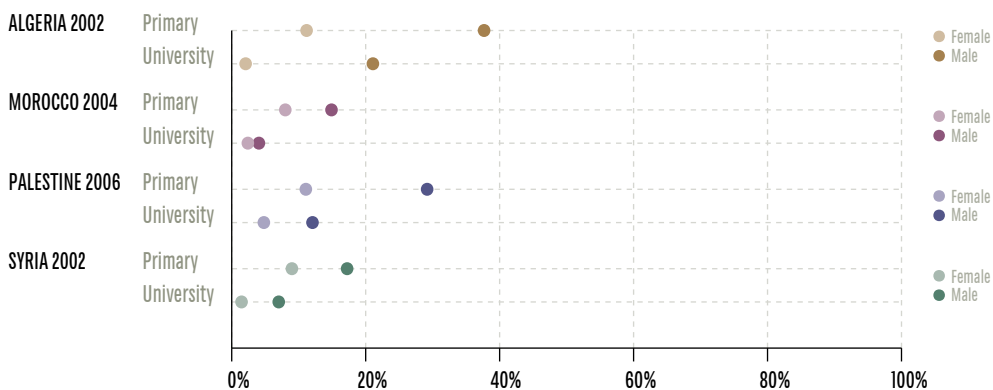


FIGURE 36. Wife decides to use contraception by educational attainment

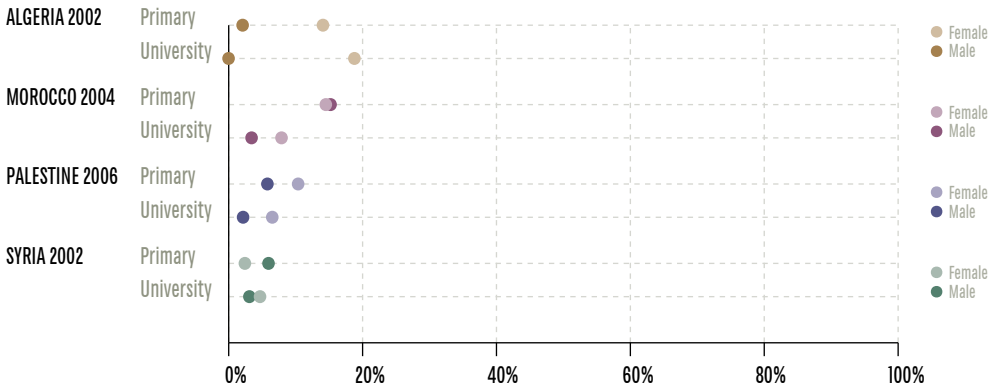
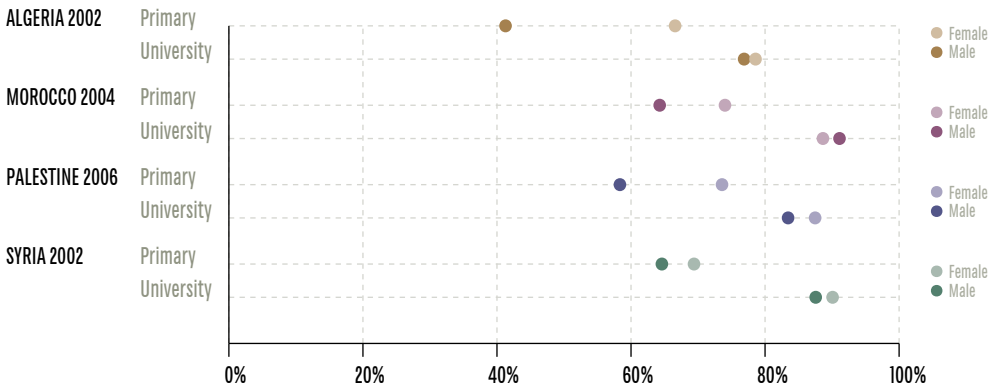


FIGURE 37. Husband and wife decide to use contraception by educational attainment



DECISION ON HOW MANY CHILDREN TO HAVE



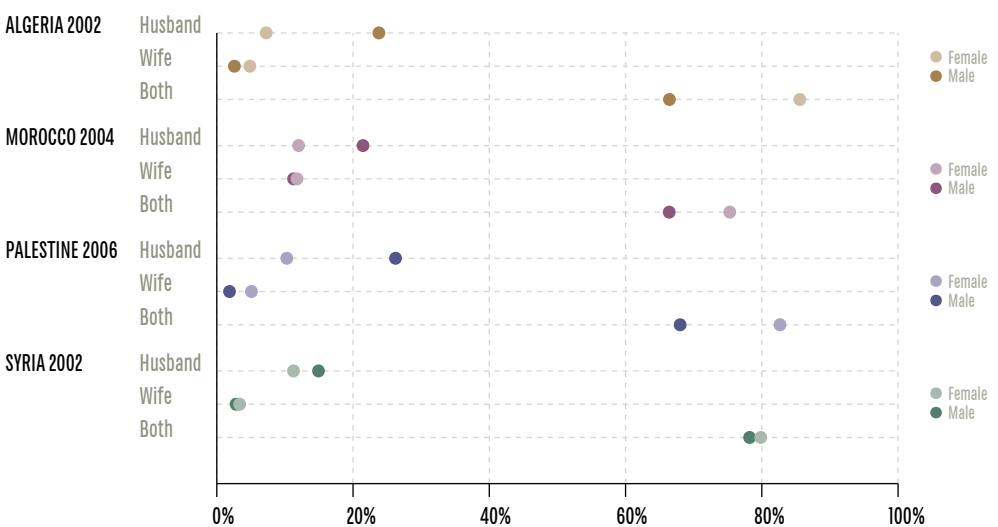
OVER 20% OF YOUNG MEN BELIEVE THE HUSBAND ALONE SHOULD DECIDE HOW MANY CHILDREN TO HAVE IN ALGERIA, MOROCCO AND PALESTINE

Unmarried young persons aged 15-24 were also asked who in a married couple they thought ought to decide how many children the couple should have. Total gender gaps are again found in Algeria and Palestine, which show a very similar distribution between the husband, the wife and both.

In Algeria, a gender gap of 16.5 percentage points is witnessed between the 23.8% of young men who think the husband should decide how many children to have, compared to the 7.3% of young women who think so. The majority of young men and women think that the decision on how many children to have should be taken jointly; however, with 66.5% of young men and 85.6% of young women opting for a joint decision, a gender gap of -19.1 percentage points remains between young men and women.

Similarly, in Palestine, a gender gap of 16 percentage points is seen between the 26.3% of young men and the 10.3% of young women who think the husband should decide the number of children to have. Although the majorities of both young men and women think the decision should be made jointly, a significant gender gap of -14.7 percentage points still remains: 68% of young men support a joint decision, but 82.7% of young women think the decision should be made by both.

FIGURE 38. Decision on number of children to have



Although no substantial gender gaps are witnessed between rural and urban residents or the education level of the respondent's mother or father, gaps are present in terms of the respondent's level of education and wealth quintiles.

In Algeria, at the primary level, 35.6% of young men but only 11.9% of young women think the husband should decide, for a gender gap of 23.7 percentage points. However, at the university level, the gender gap is reduced to 2.4 percentage points, with less than 5% of young men or women thinking the husband should decide. A majority of young men and women at both the primary and university level support joint-decision making. At the primary level, 52% of young men and 78.9% of young women think both the husband and the wife should decide, for a gender gap of -26.9 percentage points. At the university level, 88.2% of young men and 96.2% of young women think the decision should be made jointly.

In Palestine, for the category the husband should decide how many children to have, gender gaps are similar at the primary and university levels. Although a majority of young men and women support joint decision-making at both levels of education, the size of the gender gaps vary. A gender gap of -17.3 percentage points is witnessed between the 52.2% of young men and the 69.5% of young women who think both the husband and the wife should decide. A smaller gender gap of -6 percentage points is found between the 79% of young men with university degrees and the 85% of young women with university degrees who think the number of children should be decided jointly.

FIGURE 39. Husband decides on number of children to have by educational attainment

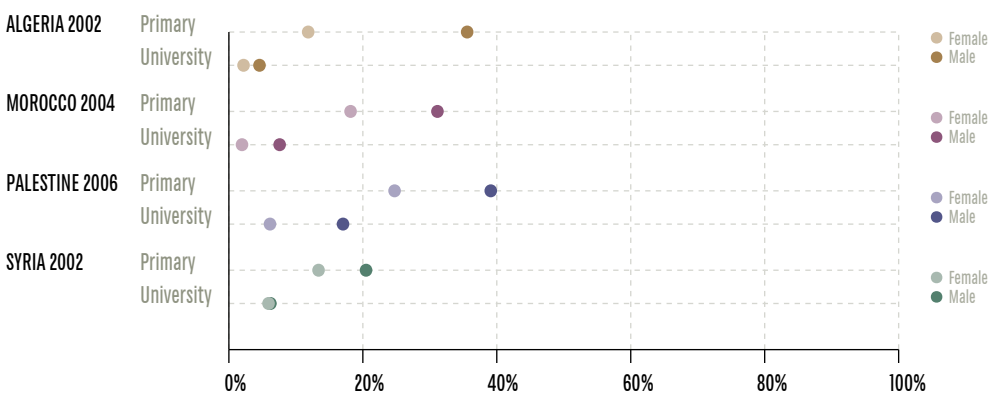


FIGURE 40. Wife decides on number of children to have by educational attainment

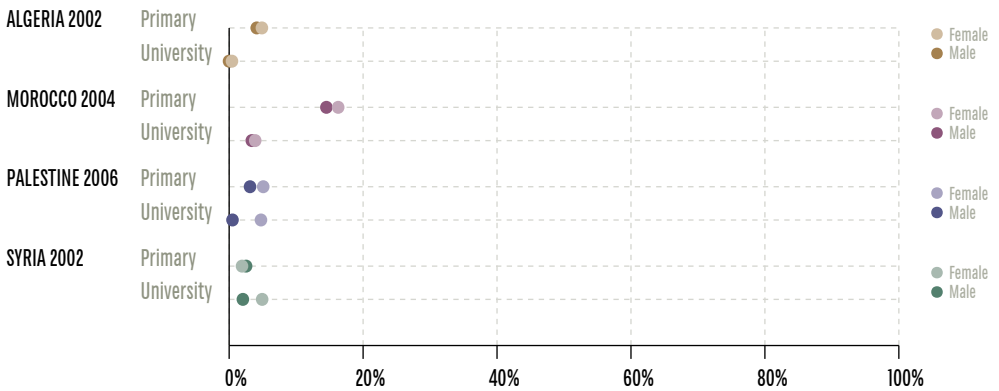
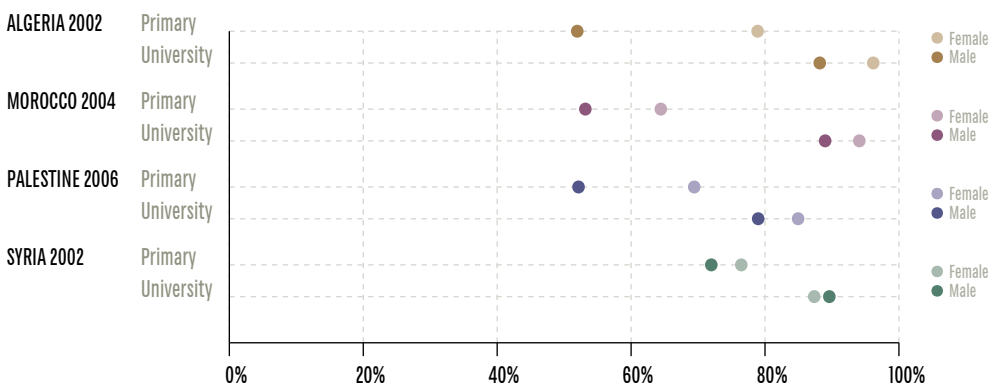


FIGURE 41. Husband and wife decide on number of children to have by educational attainment



In terms of wealth quintiles, only Algeria shows substantial gender gaps. Although a gender gap of 18.4 percentage points is witnessed between the 27.5% of young men and the 9.1% of young women at the poorest quintile who think the husband should decide, only a 6.4 percentage point gender gap is seen between the 12.8% of young men and the 6.4% of young women at the richest quintile. Yet again, although a majority of both young men and women support joint decision-making, a gender gap is witnessed in the poorest quintile. In the poorest quintile, only 58.1% of young men and 80.7% of young women think the decision should be made jointly, a gender gap of -22.6 percentage points. At the richest quintile, however, the inverse gender gap is reduced to -6.4 percentage points, with over 80% of young men and women supporting joint decision-making.

Similar to the decision on using contraception, all countries surveyed show a clear preference for joint decision-making on how many children to have, although gender gaps are still present. A sizable proportion of young men believe that only the husband should decide, and a larger number of young women than men support joint decision-making. In Algeria and Palestine, the gender gap is reduced through the clear association

between young men’s university education and the increased likelihood of them supporting joint decision-making. Additionally, in Algeria, higher rates of poverty reduce the likelihood of men thinking that the husband and the wife should decide jointly on how many children to have.

FIGURE 42. Husband decides on number of children to have by wealth

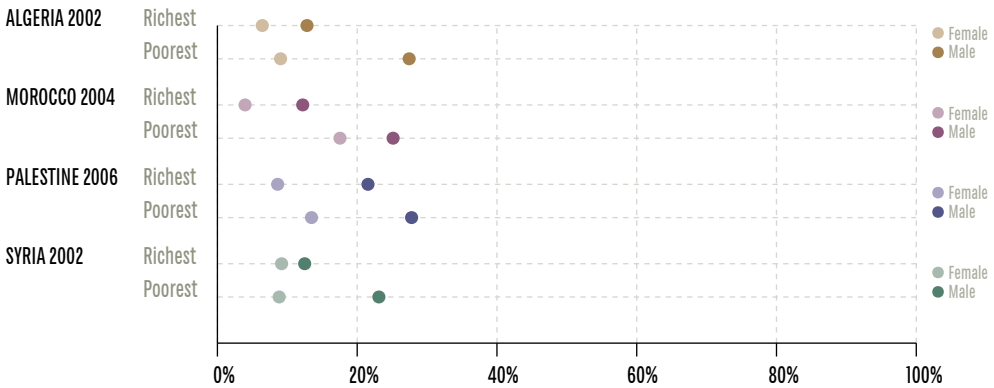


FIGURE 43. Wife decides on number of children to have by wealth

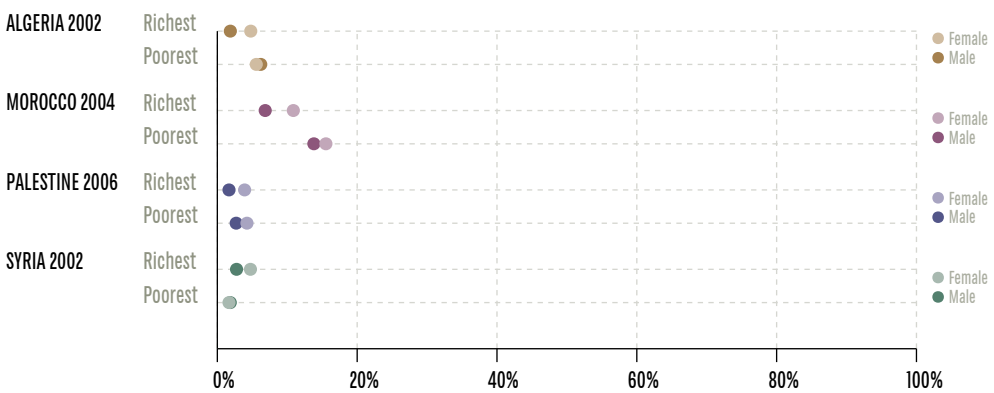
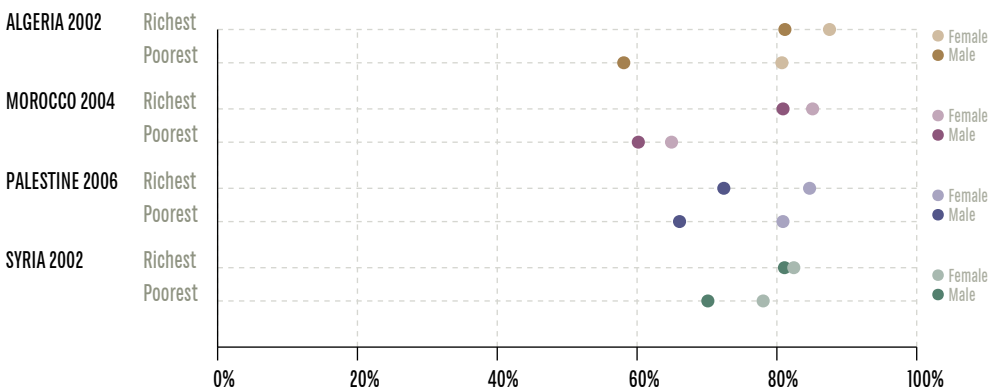


FIGURE 44. Husband and wife decide on number of children to have by wealth



DECISION ON EDUCATING BOYS



UNIVERSITY-EDUCATED YOUNG MEN AND WOMEN HAVE SIMILAR VIEWS ON WHO SHOULD DECIDE ON SONS' EDUCATION

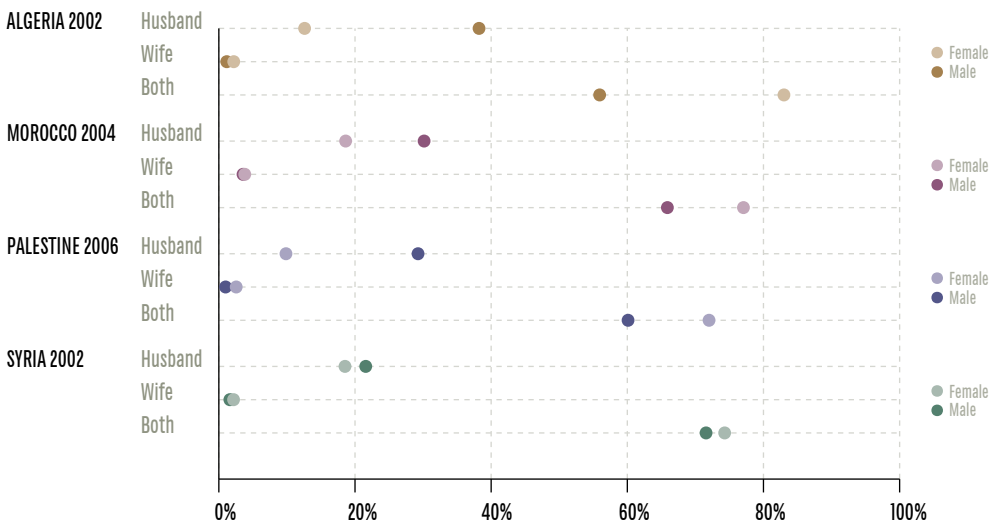
Unmarried young persons aged 15-24 were asked who in a married couple they thought ought to decide how much education is given to boys. Of the surveyed countries, Algeria, Morocco and Palestine show total gender gaps of over 10 percentage points, with similar trends in young men and women's perceptions.

Algeria witnesses the largest gender gaps. With 38.2% of young men but only 12.6% of young women, there is a gender gap of 25.6 percentage points between respondents who think the husband should decide on the sons' education. Very few young persons in Algeria think the wife should decide how much education to give her sons, with a gender gap of -1 percentage point and all measures well under 5%. However, the largest gender gap, at -27.1 percentage points, is found between respondents who think the decision should be taken jointly. Although a majority of youth support joint decision-making, only 56% of young men and 83% of young women think that both the husband and the wife should decide.

The gender gaps are considerably smaller in Morocco. An 11.5 percentage point gender gap is seen between the 30.2% of young men and the 18.7% of young women thinking the husband should decide how much education is given to his sons. Again, very few young persons in Morocco think the wife should decide how much education her sons should have, with a gender gap of -0.3 percentage points and all measures well under 5%. Although the majority of respondents support a joint decision, a gender gap of -11.2 percentage points remains, with 65.9% of young men and 77.1% of young women thinking that the decision should be taken jointly.

Gender gaps are larger in Palestine, although not as large as those in Algeria. A gender gap of 19.4 percentage points separates the 29.3% of young men and the 9.9% of young women who think the husband should decide on how much education to give his sons. As above, very few young people in Palestine think the wife should decide how much education her sons obtain, with a gender gap of -1.6 percentage points and all measures well under 5%. Finally, despite the fact that a majority of youth think the decision should be made jointly, a gender gap of -11.9 percentage points remains, with 60.1% of young men and 72% of young women thinking that both the husband and the wife should decide.

FIGURE 45. Decision about education for boys



Although disaggregation by rural-urban location and wealth does not yield considerable gender gaps, indicators related to the respondent's level of education do show gaps.

In Algeria, with 50.5% of young men but only 25.3% of young women thinking the father should determine his sons' education, there is a gender gap of 25.1 percentage points for respondents with a primary education. At the university level, however, the gender gap reduces to 9 percentage points, with only 11% of young men and 2% of young women who think the husband ought to decide how much education to give his sons. The gender gaps are most extreme between respondents who think the decision on the sons' education should be taken jointly. There is a gender gap of -29.4 percentage points between the 42.2% of young men and the 71.8% of young women with primary educations who support joint decision-making. This gender gap reduces to -9.3 percentage points at the university level, however, with an increase to 86% of young men and 95.3% of young women thinking both the husband and wife should decide on their sons' education.

In Palestine, 40.1% of young men and 19.4% of young women with a primary school education think the husband should decide on his sons' education, a gender gap of 20.7 percentage points. This gap reduces to 7.1 percentage points at the university level, with 16.3% of young men and 9.2% of young women thinking that boys' education should be decided by the husband.

A majority of respondents supported joint-decision making when determining a boy's level of educational attainment; very few respondents think the wife should decide alone, more men than women think the husband alone should decide, and more women than men

think the decision should be mutual. In Palestine and Algeria, increased education both reduces the likelihood that a man will think the decision should be taken by the husband, and increases the likelihood that he will support a joint decision.

FIGURE 46. Husband decides about education for boys by educational attainment

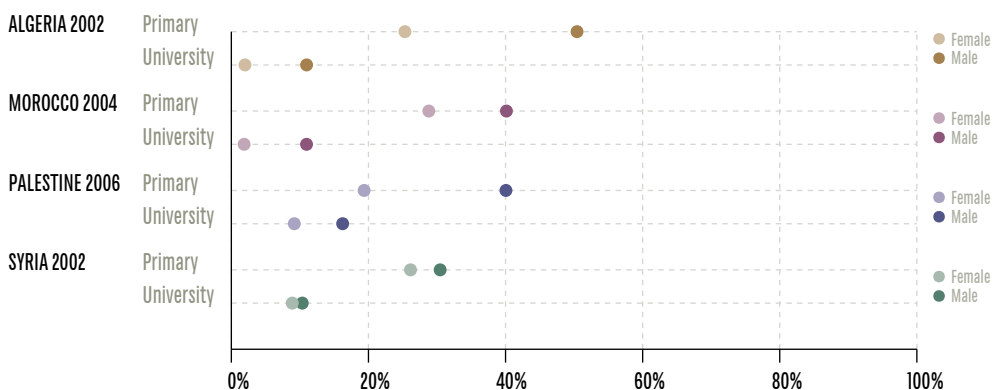


FIGURE 47. Wife decides about education for boys by educational attainment

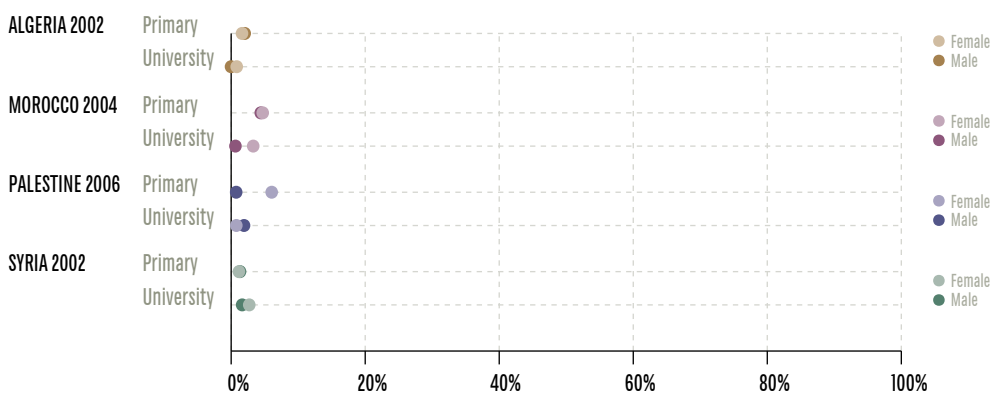
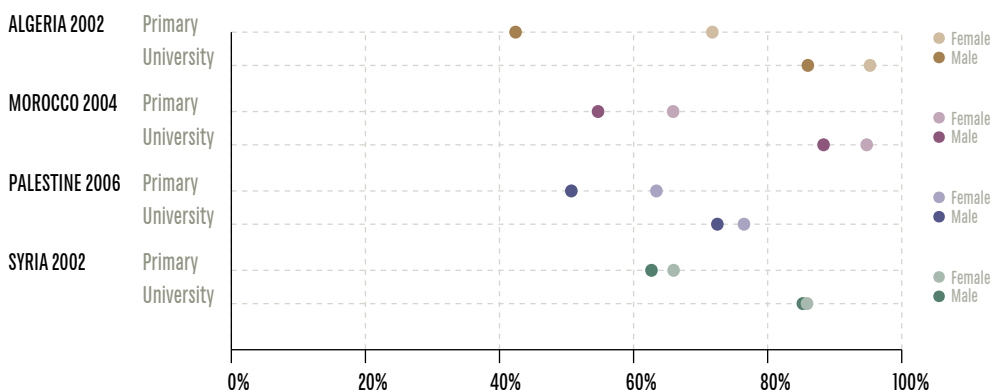


FIGURE 48. Husband and wife decide about education for boys by educational attainment



DECISION ON EDUCATION FOR GIRLS



OVER 80% OF UNIVERSITY-EDUCATED YOUTH IN ALGERIA, MOROCCO AND SYRIA BELIEVE BOTH PARENTS SHOULD DECIDE ON DAUGHTERS' EDUCATION

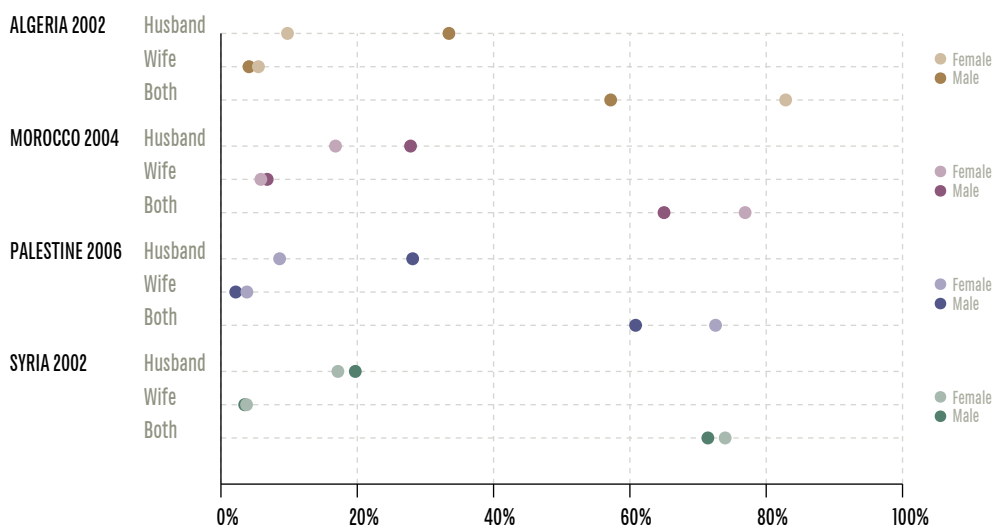
Unmarried youth aged 15-24 were asked who in a married couple they thought ought to decide how much education is given to girls. Similar to the question on education for boys, of the surveyed countries, Algeria, Morocco and Palestine show total gender gaps of over 10 percentage points, with similar trends in the perceptions of young men and women.

Algeria witnesses the largest gender gaps of the three countries. With 33.5% of young men and only 9.8% of young women, there is a gender gap of 23.7 percentage points between male and female respondents who think that the husband should decide on his daughters' education. Small percentages of young men and women think the wife should decide her daughters' education, with a gender gap of -1.4 percentage points (4.1% of young men and 5.5% of young women). These percentages, however, are larger than those found above for young Algerians who think the wife should decide on her sons' education. A majority of young men and women think that the decision girls' education should be taken jointly. Nevertheless, a large gender gap, -25.7 percentage points, still separates the 57.2% of young men and the 82.9% of young women who support joint decision-making.

Smaller gender gaps are found in Morocco, with an 11 percentage point gender gap between the 27.8% of young men and the 16.8% of young women who think that the husband should decide on his daughters' education. Almost no gender gap exists between the 6.8% of young men and the 5.9% of young women who think that the wife should decide her daughters' decision; although low, these percentages are higher than those for young Moroccans who think the wife should decide on her sons' education (shown above). Although a majority of both young men and women support joint decision-taking on educating girls, a gender gap (-11.9 percentage points) is still witnessed between the 65% of young men and the 76.9% of young women who think both the husband and the wife should decide.

The gender gaps in Palestine are larger than those found in Morocco, but less than in Algeria. With 28.2% of young men but only 8.6% of young women, there is a gender gap of 19.5 percentage points between respondents who think that the husband should decide his daughters' education. With a small gender gap of -1.6 percentage points, very few young people in Morocco think that the wife should decide on her daughters' education (with all measures well under 5%). Despite the majority of young men and women who think the decision should be taken jointly, there is still a gender gap of -11.7 percentage points between the 60.9% of young men and the 72.6% of young women who support a joint decision on girls' education.

FIGURE 49. Decision about education for girls



When the gender gaps are disaggregated by educational attainment of the respondent, both Algeria and Palestine show significant differences between the gender gaps at the primary and university levels. Although Syria did not show significant total gender gaps, when disaggregated by wealth Syria does show a significant difference between the gender gaps between the poorest and richest quintiles. Neither location (rural-urban), nor the education levels of the respondent's mother or father, seemed to affect the gender gaps. Moreover, although Morocco shows significant total gender gaps, when disaggregated by socio-economic conditions, no significant differences were found between the gender gaps.

In Algeria, with 46.3% of young men with a primary education but only 14% of young women, there is a gender gap of 32.3 percentage points between respondents who think the husband should decide. The gender gap at the university level, however, is only 6.2 percentage points, with 7.4% of young men and 1.2% of young women thinking the husband should determine his daughters' education. With only 40.8% of young men but 75.3% of young women at the primary level, there is a gender gap of -34.5 percentage points between respondents who support joint decision-making on girls' education. However, the gender gaps reduces to -9.4 percentage points at the university level; 85.3% of young men and 94.7% of young women think the husband and wife should decide on girls' education.

The differences between gender gaps are less extreme in Palestine. A gender gap of 21.1 percentage points is witnessed at the primary level, as 40.3% of young men but only 19.2% of young women think the decision should be taken by the husband. At the university level, however,

the gender gap reduces to 6.8 percentage points, with only 16.3% of young men and 9.5% of young women who think the husband should decide his daughters' education.

FIGURE 50. Husband decides about education for girls by educational attainment

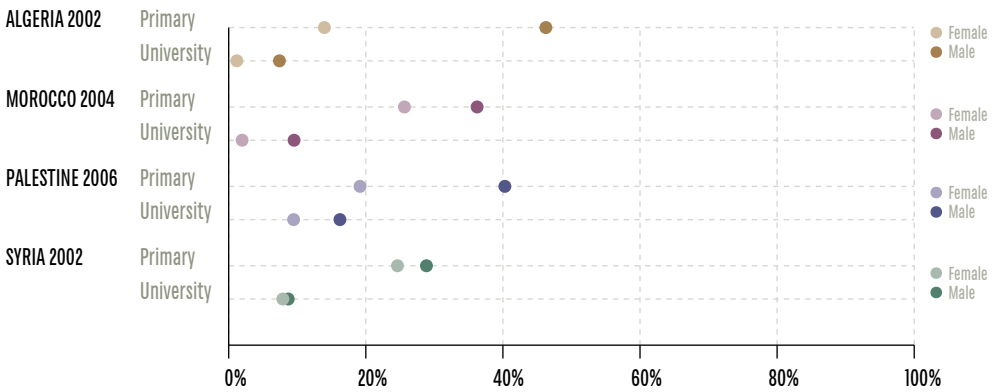


FIGURE 51. Wife decides about education for girls by educational attainment

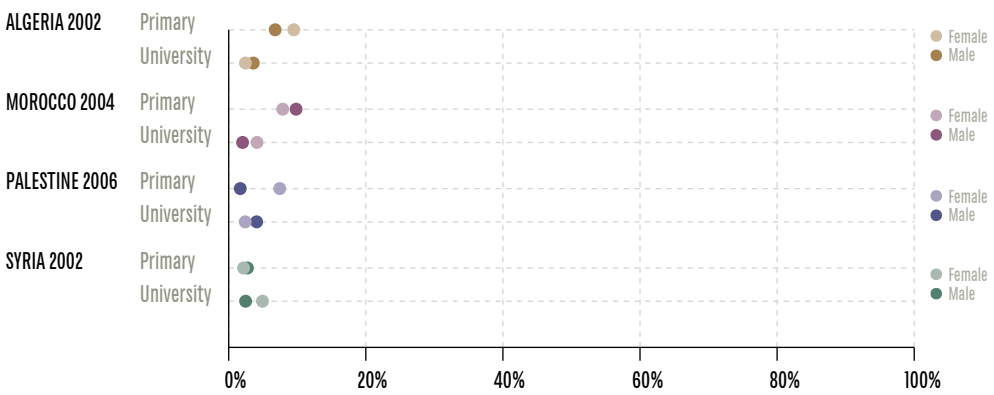
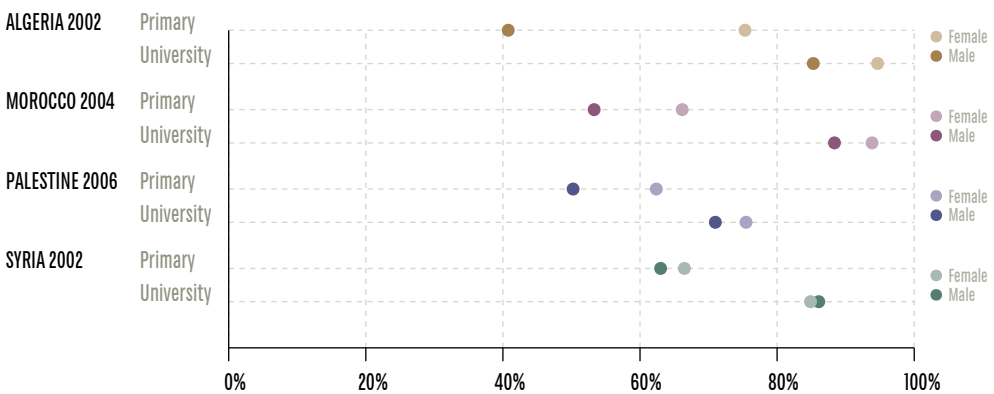


FIGURE 52. Husband and wife decide about education for girls by educational attainment



In Syria, relatively small gender gaps are found between the poorest and richest respondents who think the husband and wife should both decide their daughters' education. In the poorest quintile, there is a gender gap of -15.4 percentage points between the 62.7% of young men and the 78.1% of young women who support joint decision-making on girls' education. This gender gap reduces to -2.9 percentage points for the richest quintile, with 74.8% of young men and 77.7% of young women thinking both the husband and the wife should decide.

Overall, a similar pattern is witnessed in who should decide on the education of girls and with the education of boys: a majority of both male and female respondents think the decision should be taken jointly, with more men than women supporting the husband's decision and more women than men supporting a mutual decision. Slightly increased percentages (but none above 10%) of both men and women think that the wife should decide on her daughters' education.

FIGURE 53. Husband decides about education for girls by wealth

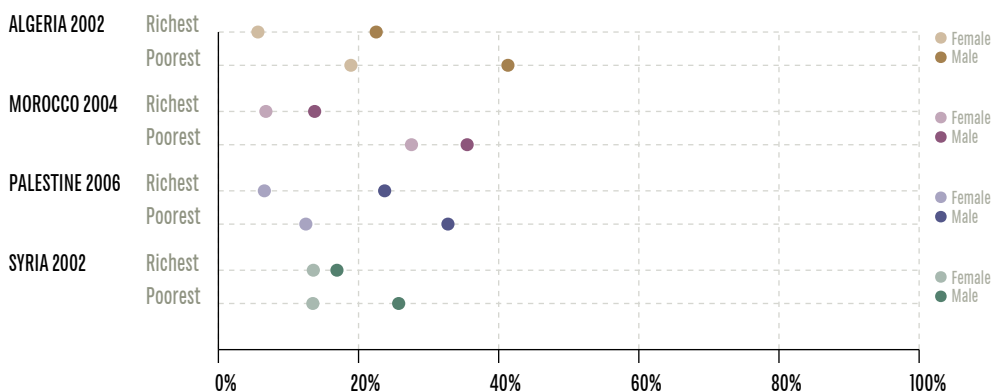


FIGURE 54. Wife decides about education for girls by wealth

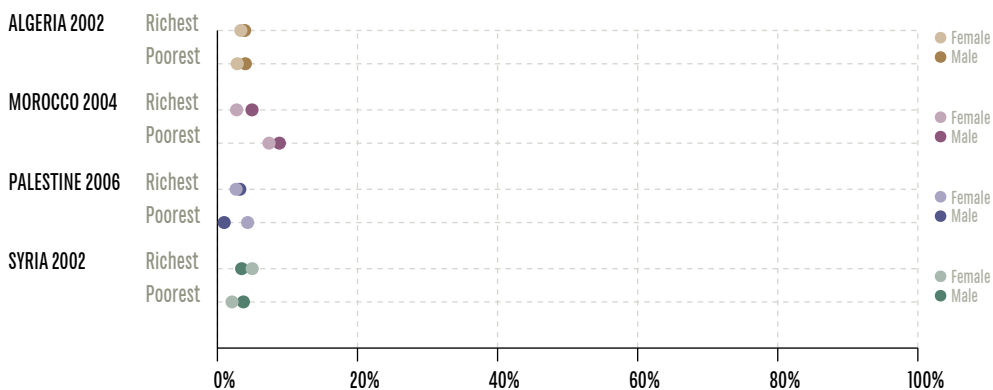
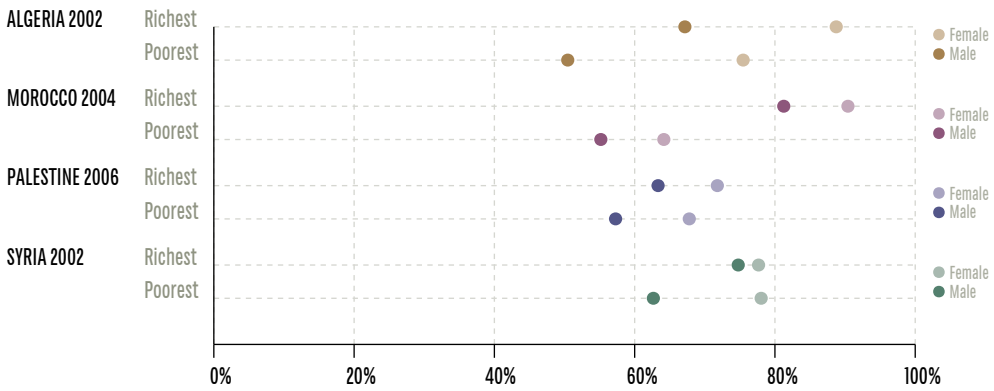


FIGURE 55. Husband and wife decide about education for girls by wealth



In Algeria and Palestine, increased education decreases the likelihood that a male respondent will think the husband should decide on the education of his daughter (to a greater extent in Palestine than Algeria), and increases the likelihood that a man will support a mutual decision. In Syria, increased wealth is associated with a reduced gender gap for joint decision-making. Although gender gaps are witnessed in Morocco, no impact is witnessed when the gender gaps are disaggregated; this may indicate that in Morocco opinions about girls' education are still very firmly rooted in traditional gender perceptions.

DECISION ON IF A WIFE WORKS OUTSIDE OF THE HOME



OPINIONS ON WHO SHOULD DECIDE IF A WIFE WORKS ARE CONSIDERABLY DIFFERENT BETWEEN YOUNG MEN AND WOMEN IN ALGERIA AND PALESTINE

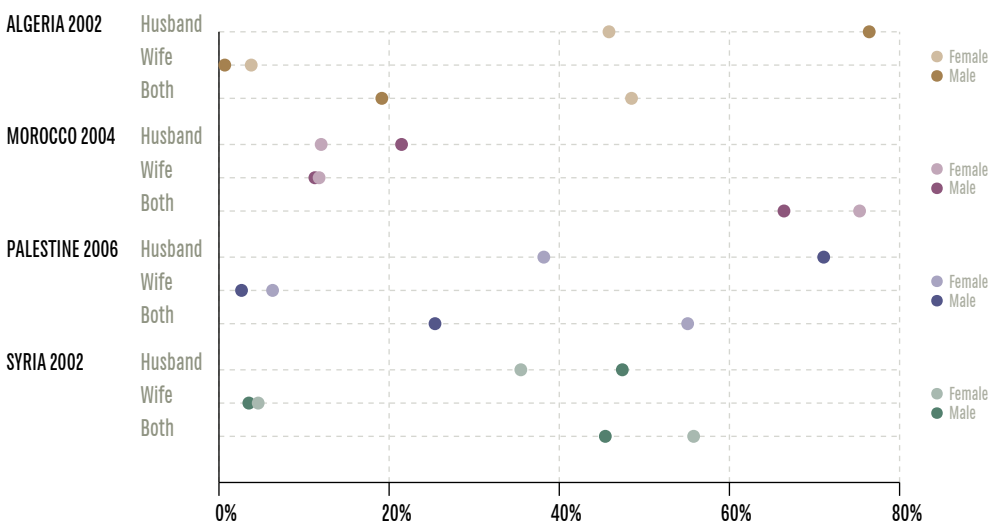
Unmarried young persons aged 15-24 were asked who in a married couple they thought should decide if a wife works outside of the home. Of the surveyed countries, Algeria, Palestine and Syria show total gender gaps of over 10 percentage points. Algeria and Palestine show similar percentages and trends in gender gaps, with Syria showing a similar but less extreme trend.

In Algeria, a sizeable gender gap of 30.6 percentage points is witnessed between the 76.5% of young men and only 45.9% of young women who think the husband should decide if his wife works outside of the home. A large gender gap (-29.4 percentage points) is also seen between the 19.2% of young men and the 48.5% of young women who think the decision should be taken jointly.

Similarly, in Palestine, a much larger percentage of young men (71.1%) than young women (38.2%) think the husband should decide if his wife works outside the home, for a gender gap of 32.9 percentage points. The gender gap is -29.7 percentage points between the 25.4% of young men and 55.1% of young women who think the decision for the wife to work outside the home should be taken jointly.

The gender gaps in Syria are similarly located, but much smaller. An 11.9 percentage point gender gap is found between the 47.4% of young men and the 35.5% of young women who think the husband should decide if his wife works outside of the home. The gender gap is somewhat narrower, -10.4 percentage points, between the 45.4% of young men

FIGURE 56. Decision for wife to work



and the 55.8% of young women who think that the decision on the wife working outside the home should be taken jointly.

When these gender gaps are disaggregated by area of residence, education and wealth levels, Palestine shows a difference in the gender gap between education levels and Algeria and Syria show differences in gender gaps between the poorest and the richest quintiles.

In Palestine, at the primary level, a gender gap of 23.7 percentage points is witnessed between the 77.9% of young men but the 54.2% of young women who think the husband should decide. The gender gap increases to 34.3 percentage points, with 62% of young men but only 27.7% of young women with a university degree thinking the husband should decide if his wife works outside the home. A gender gap of -21.3 percentage points, with 18.1% of young men and 39.4% of women supporting a joint decision, is witnessed at the primary level. This gap increases to -31.3 percentage points at the university level, with 34.8% of young men and 66.1% of young women stating that the decision should be taken by both the husband and the wife.

FIGURE 57. Husband takes decision for wife to work by education

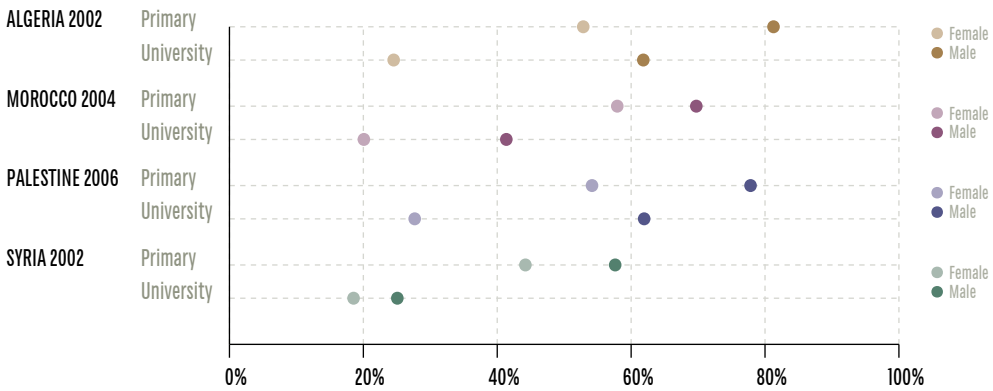


FIGURE 58. Wife takes decision to work by education

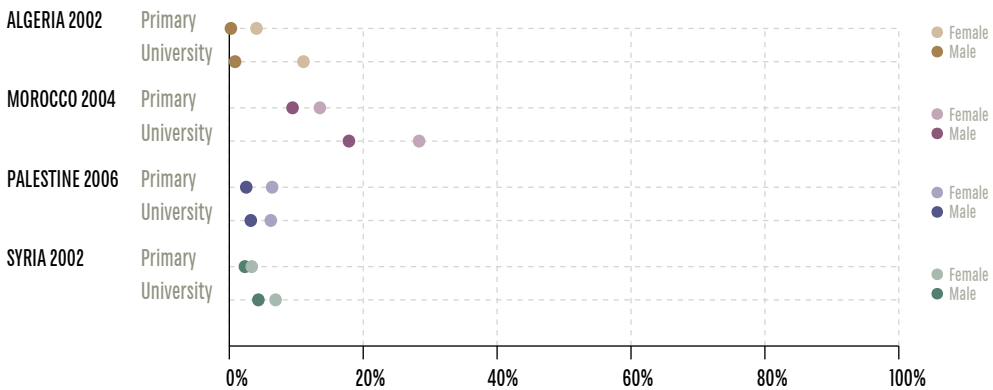
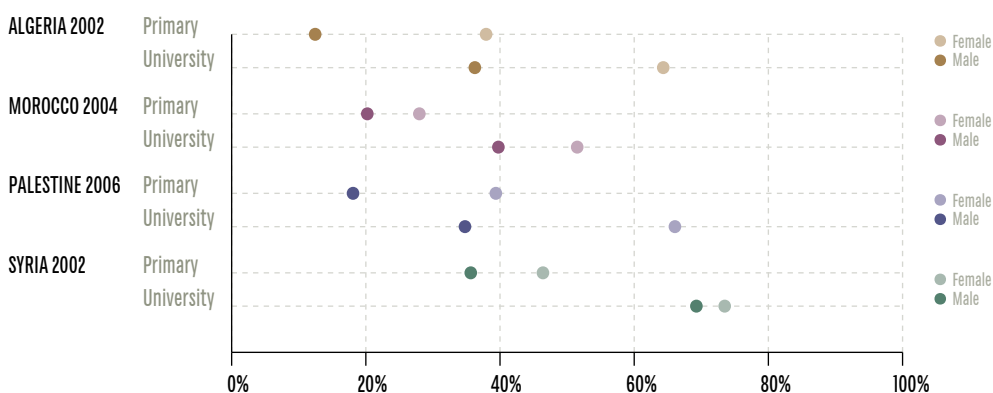


FIGURE 59. Husband and wife take decision for wife to work by education



In Algeria, a gender gap of 21.4 percentage points is found between the 78.3% of young men and the 56.9% of young women in the poorest quintile who think the husband should decide. This gap increases to 31.7 percentage points for the richest quintile, with 65.2% of young men but only 33.5% of young women thinking the husband should decide if his wife works outside of the home. Considerable differences in support for a joint decision are also witnessed. With 14.5% of young men and 34.2% of young women in the poorest quintile supporting a joint decision, there is a gender gap of -19.7 percentage points. There is also a gender gap of 31.8 percentage points in the richest quintile, with 31.2% of young men and 63% of young women thinking the decision should be taken jointly.

Syria witnesses similar but smaller gender gaps across the wealth quintiles. With 58.2% of young men and 35.4% of young women, there is a gender gap of 22.8 percentage points in the poorest quintile when respondent think the husband should decide. This gender gap reduces to 11.9 percentage points for the richest quintile, with 41.9% of young men and 30.1% of young women thinking the husband should decide. A gender gap of -21.7 percentage points is also found between the 34% of young men and 55.7% of young women in the poorest quintile who support joint decision-making. This gender gap reduces to -9.8 percentage points at the richest quintile, with 55.5% of young men and 61.4% of young women thinking the decision on the wife working outside the home should be taken jointly.

Unlike other decision questions, a greater percentage of young men think the husband alone should decide if his wife should work outside the house than those who think the decision should be taken jointly. In Algeria and Syria reduced poverty has a direct link with an increased likelihood of young men thinking the decision should be taken jointly, whereas in Palestine increased education increases young men's support of joint decision-making.

FIGURE 60. Husband takes decision for wife to work by wealth

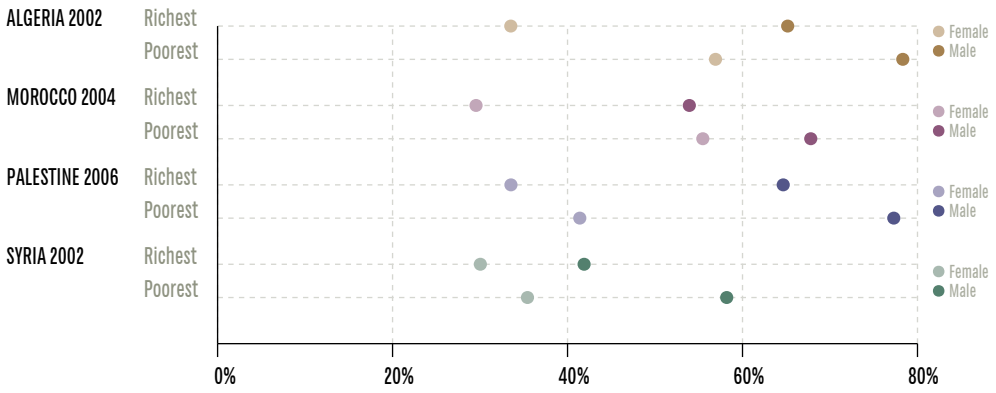


FIGURE 61. Wife takes decision to work by wealth

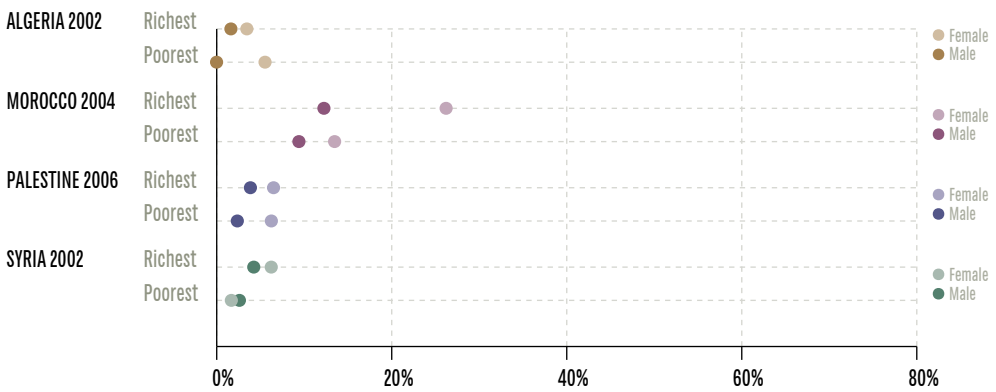
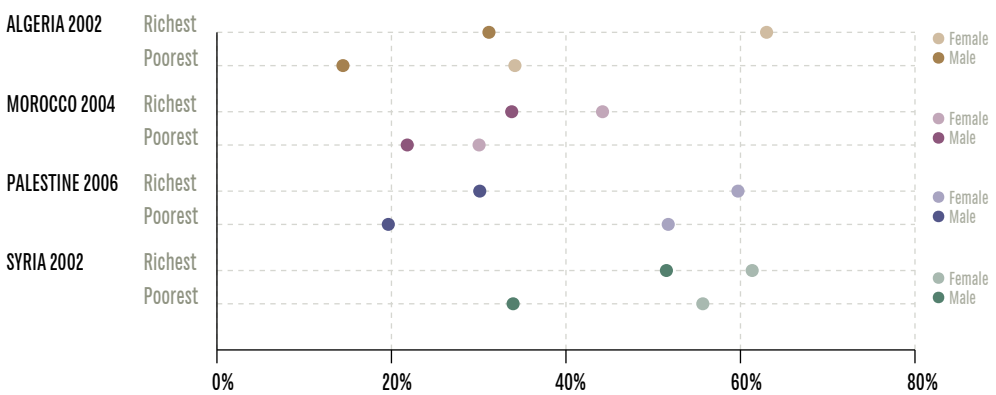


FIGURE 62. Husband and wife take decision for wife to work by wealth



DECISION ON HOW TO SPEND FAMILY INCOME



ALGERIA, MOROCCO AND PALESTINE SHOW TOTAL GENDER GAPS OF OVER 10 PERCENTAGE POINTS

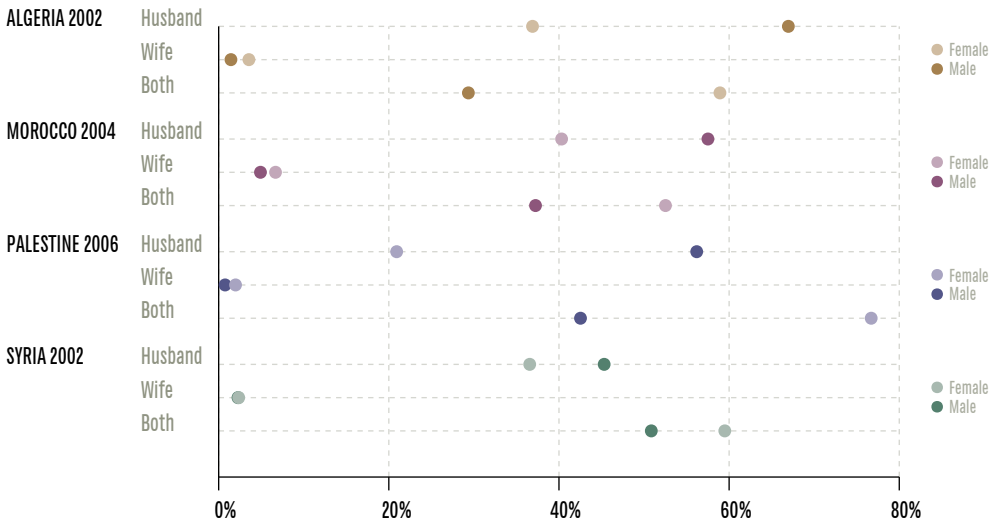
Unmarried young persons aged 15-24 were asked who in a married couple they thought ought to decide how to spend the family income. Of the surveyed countries, Algeria, Morocco and Palestine show total gender gaps of over 10 percentage points, with similar trends in young men and women's perceptions.

A sizeable gender gap of 30.1 percentage points is witnessed in Algeria, despite generally high percentages, between the 67% of young men and the 36.9% of young women who think the husband should decide how to spend family income. The gender gap reduces to -2.1 percentage points, however, between the 1.5% of young men and 3.6% of young women who think the wife should decide how to spend the family income. The gender gap then increases, however, in the category of both the husband and the wife deciding on family income, to a gap of -29.6 percentage points, with only 29.4% of young men but 58.9% of young women supporting joint decision-making.

Morocco presents a similar but less extreme pattern than Algeria's, with gender gaps in terms of those who think the husband should decide how to spend family income and those who think the decision should be taken jointly. Despite relatively high percentages, a 17.2 percentage point gender gap is witnessed between the 57.5% of young men and the 40.3% of young women who think the husband alone should decide on family income. This gap reduces to -1.8 percentage points in terms of the 4.9% of young men and the 6.7% of young women who think that the wife should decide on family income. The gender gap increases again for joint decision-making, with 37.3% of young men but 52.5% of young women supporting a joint decision, a gender gap of -15.3 percentage points.

The largest gender gaps are found in Palestine, which has the largest percentage of women supporting joint decision-making. A sizeable gender gap of 35.3 percentage points is shown in terms of the husband deciding on family income, with 56.2% of young men and only 20.9% of young women answering that the husband should decide. Very few respondents answered that the wife should decide on family income, with a gender gap of -1.2 percentage points and less than 2% of young men or women supporting the decision-making by the wife alone. However, a sizeable gender gap of -34.2 percentage points exists between the 42.6% of young men and the 76.7% of young women who think the decision on family income should be taken jointly.

FIGURE 63. Decision about household expenditure



Disaggregation by area of residence shows a significant gender gap for Morocco; Palestine witnesses a significant gender gap by the level of educational attainment; and disaggregation between the poorest and wealthiest quintiles shows significant gender gaps for Algeria and Morocco.

In Morocco, gender gaps are similarly sized between rural and urban residents in terms of respondents who believe that either the husband or the wife alone should decide on family income. However, in rural areas, a gender gap of -8.4 percentage points is witnessed between the 29.2% of young men and the 37.6% of young women who think that the decision should be taken by both the husband and wife. Interestingly, the gender gap widens in urban areas, to -19 percentage points, with 44.3% of young men and 63.3% of young women supporting joint decision-making.

FIGURE 64. Husband decides about household expenditure by area

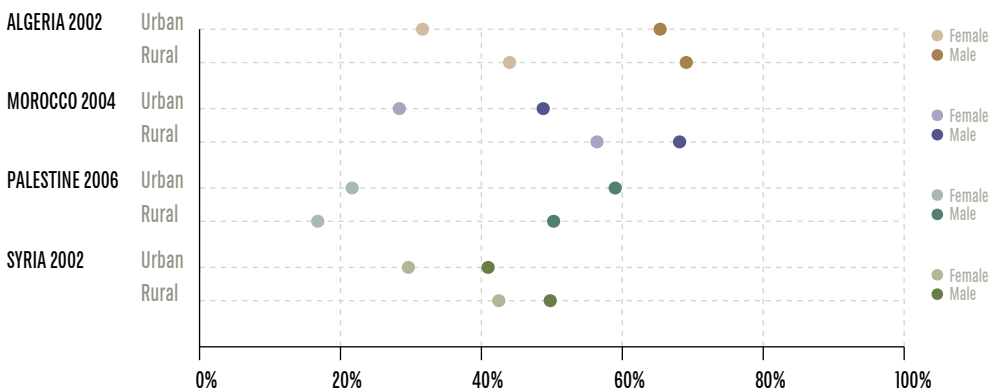


FIGURE 65. Wife decides about household expenditure by area

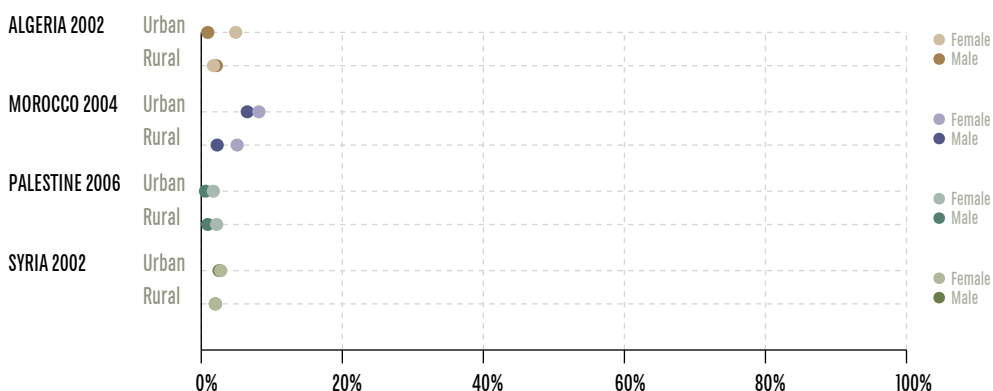
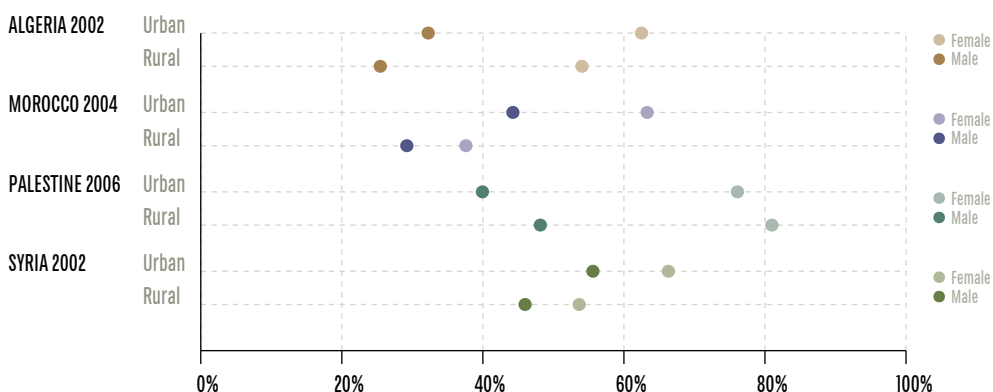


FIGURE 66. Husband and wife decide about household expenditure by area



In Palestine, a gender gap of 23.7 percentage points is witnessed between the 77.9% of young men with a primary education and the 54.2% of young women who think the husband should decide family income. Interestingly, the gender gap increases at the university level, to 34.3 percentage points, with 62% of young men but only 27.7% of young women thinking the husband should decide. There is a gender gap of -21.3 percentage points between the 18.1% of young men and 39.4% of young women who support joint decision-making and have a primary school education. A wider -31.3 percentage point gender gap is seen at the university level, with 34.8% of young men and 66.1% of young women thinking the decision should be taken jointly.

FIGURE 67. Husband decides about household expenditure by educational attainment

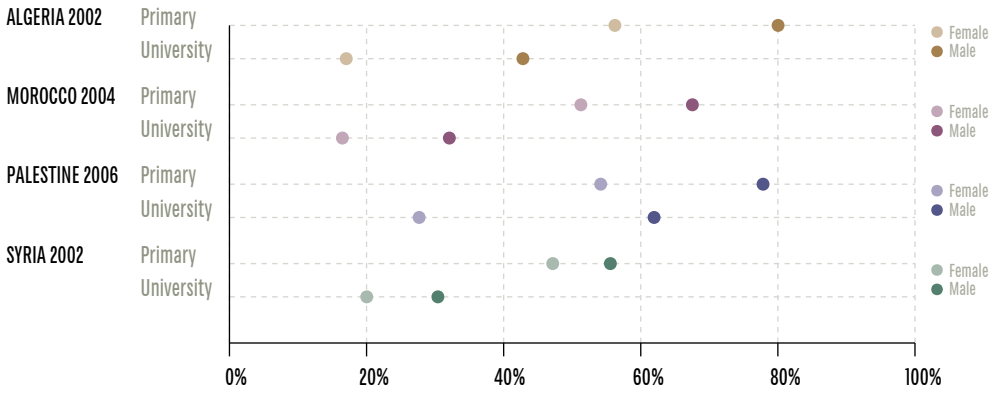


FIGURE 68. Wife decides about household expenditure by educational attainment

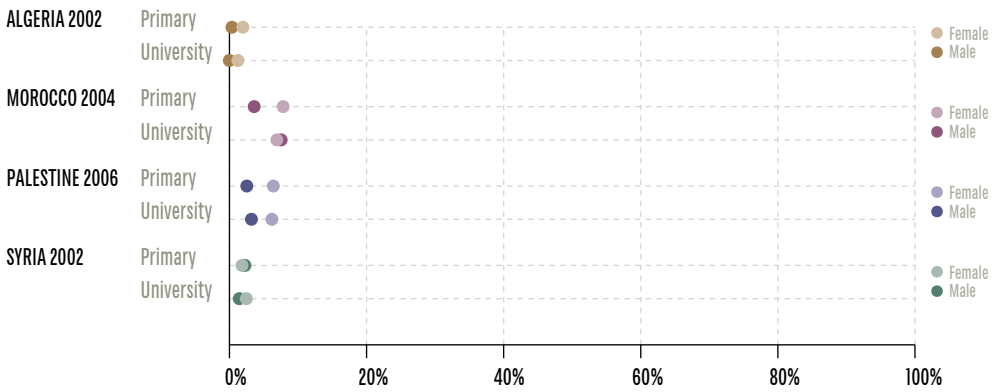
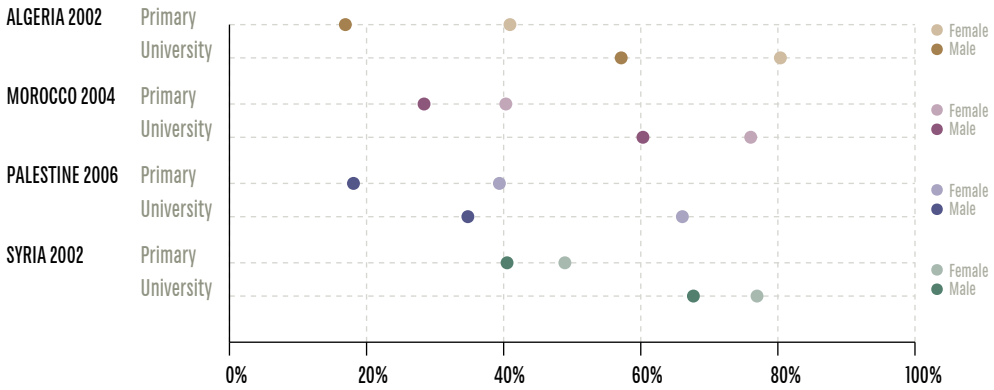


FIGURE 69. Husband and wife decide about household expenditure by educational attainment



Algeria and Morocco share a similar pattern in their differences in gender gaps for the poorest and richest wealth quintiles. In Algeria, a gender gap of 15.3 percentage points is seen at the poorest quintile, with 76.3% of young men and 61% of young women stating the husband should decide. In the richest quintile, however, the gender gap increases to 29.4 percentage points, with 54.5% of young men and only 25.1% of young women stating the husband should decide on family income. A gender gap of -14.6 percentage points is witnessed between the 21.7% of young men and the 36.3% of young women in the poorest wealth quintile who think the decision should be taken jointly. However, at the richest wealth quintile, a gap of 26.6 percentage points exists between the 43.5% of young men and 70.1% of young women who support joint decision-making on family income.

Similarly, in Morocco, with a gender gap of 8.9 percentage points, 65.6% of young men and 56.8% of young women from the poorest quintile think the husband should decide on family income. This gender gap increases to 18.9 percentage points at the richest quintile, with 42.4% of young men but only 23.5% of young women supporting the husband deciding alone. A small gender gap of -5.3 percentage points is witnessed between the 31.8% of young men and the 37.2% of young women from the poorest quintile who think the decision should be made jointly. However, when respondents are from the richest quintile, the gender gap increases to -19.2 percentage points, with 50.7% of young men but 69.8% of young women responding that the decision on family income should be made jointly.

More young men think the decision on how to spend family income should be decided by the husband, and more women support joint decision-making. When disaggregated by socio-economic indicators, increasingly large percentages of both men and women think the husband should make the sole decision. Gender gaps are witnessed in Morocco between rural and urban residency, with urban residency increasing the likelihood that a woman will think the decision should be made jointly. In Palestine, increased education for women decreases the likelihood that they will think the husband should decide, and increased the likelihood that women will support a joint decision. A similar result in Algeria and Morocco is witnessed when women are from the richest quintile.

FIGURE 70. Husband decides about household expenditure by wealth

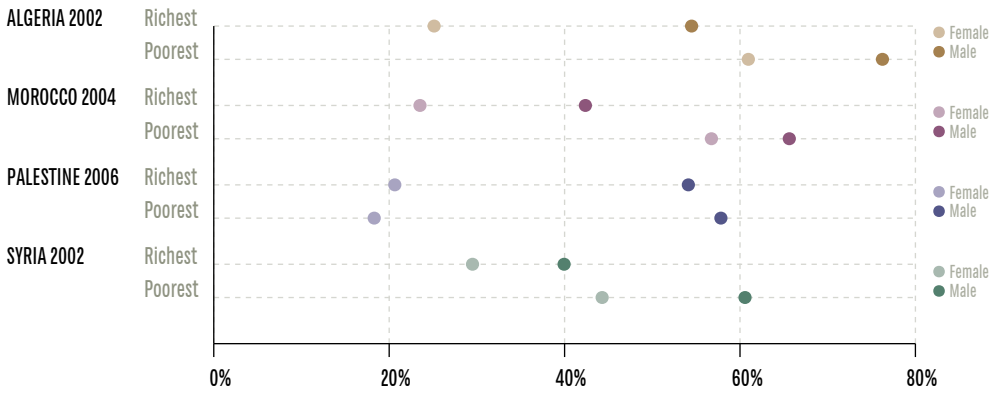


FIGURE 71. Wife decides about household expenditure by wealth

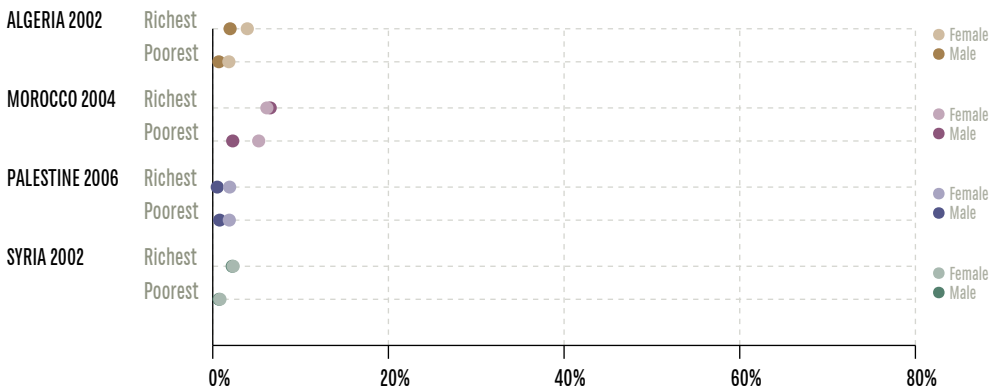
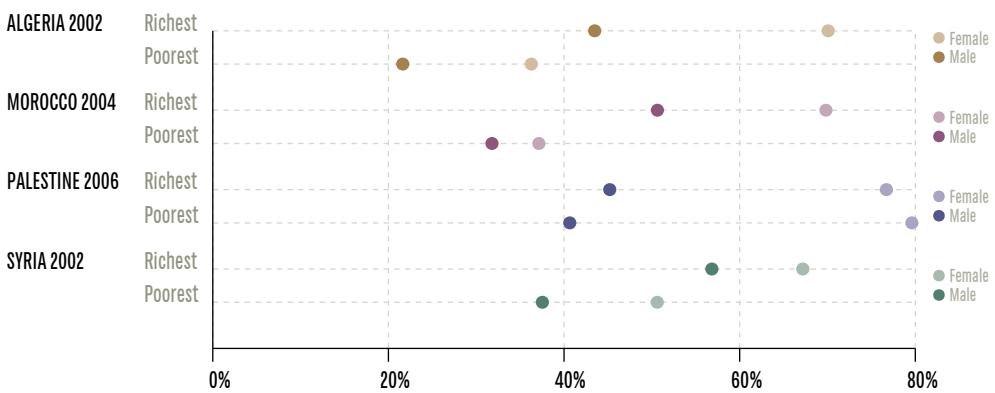


FIGURE 72. Husband and wife decide about household expenditure by wealth



Conclusions: attitudes on decision-making

Joint decision-making is the preferred approach by both men and women for most of the issues addressed, except if a woman should work outside the home and how to decide on the family income.

When men have university degrees, they are more likely to support joint decision-making on decisions about contraception, the number of children to have, and the educational level a boy or girl should attain. In addition to these, when women have university degrees they are more likely to support joint decision-making on the decisions that men are less likely to prefer joint decision-making for: if a woman should work outside the home and how to decide on the family income.

Increased wealth reduces the gender gap for the decision about the wife working outside the home and, to a lesser extent, the decision about a girl's education.

The educational attainment of the respondent's parents is positively associated with increased support for joint decision-making on a boy or girl's education. However, its impact is not consistent across all countries.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

CONCLUSIONS

HEALTH KNOWLEDGE

Young men and women were asked about their awareness of AIDS and sexually-transmitted diseases (STDs), if they had heard of family planning and if they could name a place of health care provision. Data were not always available for all countries surveyed.

Worrisome gender gaps in basic health knowledge are noticed for some countries, particularly with regard to young women's lack of AIDS awareness in Iraq and Morocco, and young men's lack of contraception knowledge in Algeria and Morocco. When respondents have a university education, however, gender gaps for all four questions almost entirely disappear. Although poverty somewhat increases the likelihood of gender gaps, the benefits of wealth are not systematically apparent in reducing gender gaps.

AIDS awareness for Iraq and Morocco countries is low overall, but young women's lesser knowledge of AIDS indicates that the urban-rural divide (and the contributing attributes of such divide, like education and wealth) discriminates more sharply against women. Particularly given the connection between increased AIDS awareness and increased education for young women, ensuring that girls receive more than a primary education may help reduce the gender disparity in AIDS knowledge in rural areas.

Gender gaps remain in Syria and Tunisia for STD awareness, and Syria's overall low rates of awareness are particularly noted. Lower education, rural residence and poverty seem to discriminate more against young women than men in terms of their STD awareness. Urban residence was shown to have a more positive impact on young women than men, but the education of the respondents' fathers seemed to only benefit young men in terms of STD awareness.

Although all countries surveyed showed more young women than men aware of contraception, the opposite gender gap was most extreme in Algeria and Morocco, with universally low rates in Syria. Further investigation is needed to better identify how and why young women, even when experiencing disparities in education and wealth, are able to obtain information on family planning that young men in similar circumstances are not.

Measured according to the respondent's ability to cite one location of health care provision, the overall high rates of response and small gender gaps are encouraging. However, in Morocco, pockets of inequity remain, with poor, less educated young women in rural Morocco still less likely than young men to be able to identify at least one place of health care.

ATTITUDES ON GENDER EQUALITY

Unmarried respondents aged 15-24 were asked about their gender perceptions in terms of highest level of education a boy and a girl should attain, and the most suitable age at marriage for a man and a woman. Data were available for all countries surveyed except Iraq.

It is not surprising that high educational attainment of the respondent generally leads to the respondent supporting higher education for hypothetical progeny, as well as a more equal perception of ideal educational attainment for boys and girls. It is concerning, however, that while no gender gaps are shown in terms of the near-universal support for boys to attain a university education, no such unanimity is shown for girls to achieve a university degree, with more women than men supporting higher education for girls.

Significant gender gaps are witnessed in Algeria, Palestine, Morocco and Syria between the percentages of men and women who think girls should obtain a primary or a university education. Increased education decreases the likelihood of thinking that a girl should only obtain a primary education, and significantly increases the likelihood of all respondents thinking a girl should obtain a university education, reducing gender gaps in Morocco and Tunisia. Poverty increases the likelihood of respondents thinking a girl should obtain a primary education, and reduces the likelihood of thinking a girl should obtain a university education; gender gaps were exacerbated by poverty in Morocco and Syria. A higher educational attainment of the respondent's father is found to reduce the likelihood of men thinking girls should have a primary education in Morocco. Similarly, a higher educational attainment of the respondent's mother is found to eradicate the gender gap between men and women who think girls should obtain a university education in Palestine, and to drastically increase the percentage of Tunisian women who think girls should obtain a university education.

It is of interest that the stated preferred age at marriage does not reflect the growing trend of Arab men and women marrying at increasingly older ages (generally witnessed, except in Palestine) (Rashad et al, 2005). Although exact percentages vary, more women than men prefer men to marry at 30 years of age or above, whereas more men than women generally prefer men to marry in the 25-29 age group. In terms of the preferred age at marriage for women, although plurality of both men and women respondents prefer the 20-24 age group, consistently more men than women think women should marry under the age of 20, and more women than men think women should marry in their late 20s.

Algeria, Morocco, Palestine and Tunisia show significant gender gaps between the preferred age at marriage for men and for women.

Increased education is shown to affect gender gaps in the preferred age at marriage for men, although not uniformly. In Algeria and Morocco, when young women have a university education, there is an increased likelihood that they will think men should marry in the highest age category; however, when male respondents have a university degree, they were more likely to prefer that men marry in the middle age group. In Palestine, most respondents want men to marry in the middle age group. Although a university education for women in Palestine drastically reduces the likelihood of her supporting men marrying in the youngest age group, a similar result is not witnessed for men with university degrees. In Tunisia, increased education for men distinctly increases the likelihood of them preferring that men marry in the highest age group, whereas both women with a primary or a university education prefer men to marry in the oldest age category.

Increased education also corresponds with respondents supporting marriage for women in their late 20s. In Algeria, Palestine and Tunisia increased education reduces the likelihood that men prefer women to marry under the age of 20, and also increases the likelihood that women think women should marry in their late 20s. In Palestine, only women with university degrees (and only a small per cent of them) think women should marry in their late 20s. In Morocco, increased education increases the likelihood that women think women should marry in their late 20s, but does not necessarily increase the likelihood of men preferring women to do so.

ATTITUDES ON DECISION-MAKING

Unmarried youth aged 15-24 were asked who in a married couple – the husband, the wife or both – should decide on issues ranging from contraception and the number of children to have, to educating the children, to deciding if the wife should work outside the home, to allocating household expenses. Data were available for four countries (no data were available for Tunisia, and only data for women were available for Iraq).

Joint decision-making is clearly the preferred approach by both men and women for most of the issues addressed, except if a woman should work outside the home and how to decide on the family income.

Both men and women respondents think that the decision to use family planning should be taken jointly, and very few respondents think that the wife should decide alone. Significant gender gaps are found in Algeria and Palestine. Increased education decreases the likelihood that respondents think the husband alone should decide on using contraception, particularly for men in Palestine. Increased education also increases the likelihood that respondents think the husband and wife should decide together on using contraception, particularly for men in Algeria and Palestine.

There is a clear preference for both husband and wife to decide on the number of children to have, with minimal support for the wife to decide. However, a significant proportion of young men believe that only the husband should decide, and a larger number of young women than men support joint decision-making. Significant gender gaps are again found in Algeria and Palestine. Increased education increases the likelihood of both men and women supporting joint decision-making on the number of children to have, but has a greater effect on men. In Algeria and Palestine, the gender gap is reduced through the clear association between young men's university education and the increased likelihood of them supporting joint decision-making. Increased wealth is also positively associated with thinking the both husband and wife should decide on how many children to have. Particularly in Algeria, higher rates of poverty reduce the likelihood of men thinking that the husband alone should decide on how many children to have.

Both men and women respondents think that the decisions on how much education boys or girls should receive should be taken jointly, and very few respondents thought that the wife should decide alone. However, a significant proportion of young men believe that only the husband should decide. More men than women think the husband should decide, and more women than men support joint decision-making. Significant gender gaps are found in Algeria, Morocco and Palestine. Increased education increases the likelihood that respondents support joint decision-making on the level of education a boy or a girl should obtain. In Algeria and Palestine, the gender gap is most reduced through the impact of increased education on young men. Increased wealth is also positively associated with supporting joint decision-making on determining the level of education a girl should receive. In Syria, increased wealth is positively associated with more men supporting joint decision-making.

Unlike prior decision questions, a greater percentage of young men think the husband alone should decide if his wife should work outside the house, than the percentage of men who think the decision should be taken jointly. There is limited support for wife to decide, and more women than men support joint decision-making. Considerable gender gaps are witnessed in Algeria, Morocco, Palestine and Syria. Increased education decreases the likelihood that respondents think the husband should decide if the wife works outside of the home (with slightly more impact on women than men), and increased education also increases the likelihood that respondents support joint decision-making. In Palestine, the gender gap is reduced by increased education having a slightly greater impact on women. Increased wealth also reduces the likelihood of respondents thinking the husband should decide if the wife works outside the home, and increases the likelihood of men and women supporting joint decision-making. In Algeria and Morocco, increased wealth decreases women's support of the hus-

band deciding, but in Syria, increased wealth decreases men's support of husband deciding. In Algeria and Syria, reduced poverty sharply increases the likelihood of young men thinking the decision about the wife working outside of the home should be taken jointly.

Similar to the question about if a wife should work outside the house, consistently more men than women think that the husband alone should decide on household expenditure, and a majority of men think the husband should decide. More women than men think that both the husband and the wife should decide, and there is minimal support for the wife alone to decide. Significant gender gaps are found in Algeria, Morocco and Palestine. Increased education consistently reduces the likelihood of men and women thinking the husband alone should decide on household expenditure, and consistently increases the likelihood of men and women supporting joint decision-making. In Palestine, the impact of increased education is most strongly affects women's opinions on decision-making on household expenditures. Poverty increases the likelihood of men and women thinking the decision on household expenditures should be made by the husband, and decreases the likelihood of men and women supporting joint decision-making (except in Palestine). In Algeria and Morocco, the impact of the highest wealth quintile is greatest on women's opinions about decision-making on household expenditures.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations, as proposed during the Expert Working Group meeting on 4-5 November 2012, held in Amman, Jordan, include:

1. *Increase and promote health education and outreach for young people in marginalized communities (especially AIDS awareness for young women in poor, rural areas).*
2. *Strengthen programmatic intervention and awareness raising for youth and adolescents on sexual and reproductive health, supported by increases in budgetary allocations for youth health, and recognize the different programmatic needs and priorities between sexual health and reproductive health for youth.*
3. *Consider increased usage of social media to raise awareness on sexual and reproductive health issues.*
4. *Given that increased education for girls and women consistently decreases gender gaps in health knowledge, promote education policies to support more women obtaining at least an intermediate education.*
5. *Further research is needed to ascertain why young men's perceptions on sexual and reproductive health do not seem to change with increased education.*
6. *Link all health-promotion outreach on youth's sexual and reproductive health with gender equality awareness-raising.*
7. *Ensure that interventions promoting increased gender equality are cross-cutting at all levels of education and target both marginalized and more privileged communities.*
8. *Design targeted interventions to change young men's perceptions on early marriage, and explore ways to better link education with changing young men's attitudes towards early marriage.*
9. *Expand awareness-raising efforts to better promote the benefits of women's participation in decision-making in public and private life.*

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