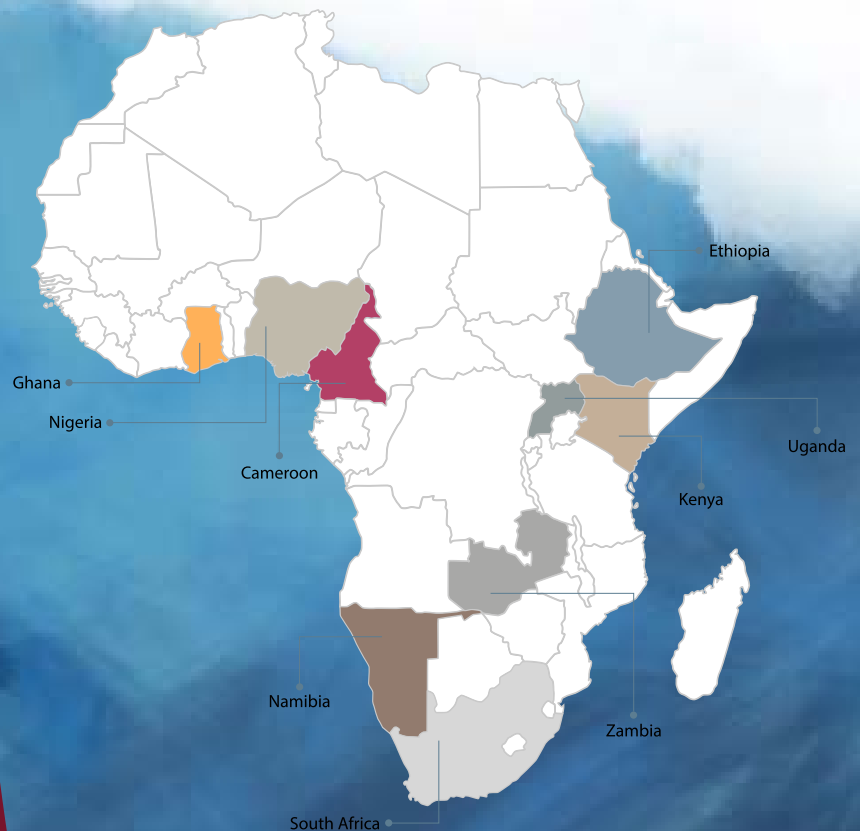


SIFA
Skills Initiative
for Africa

TC
Technical Cooperation

COMPARATIVE STUDY OF RAPID ASSESSMENTS OF RESKILLING AND UPSKILLING NEEDS DUE TO THE COVID-19 CRISIS: AFRICA



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FOREWORD

The COVID-19 pandemic caused a major health and economic crisis with massive labour market disruptions. While workers in advanced economies were able to continue working from home, for most African countries, this was only possible for more qualified personnel. Low skilled workers; those in sectors dependent on foreign revenues (such as tourism); and those where social distancing-imposed constraints on working modalities, such as hospitality and education, were more severely affected. The pandemic reversed many social gains of the previous periods in Africa. The International Labour Organization (ILO) estimated that by 2021, nearly 4 million jobs were lost. These labour market disruptions, unfortunately, contributed to worsening working poverty in Africa, with 18 million more workers falling into poverty in 2020 compared to 2019.

In response to this global crisis, the ILO developed a specific guide on undertaking rapid skills assessments (RSAs) that measure the impact of COVID-19 pandemic on employment and skills across a range of countries in the world. These assessments were conducted in several African Countries. The rapid assessments sought to establish the reskilling, and upskilling needs of affected workers and to identify ways of improving outcomes for employers and individuals in view of abrupt changes in the work and occupational environments. The analysis also sought to identify practical recommendations for skills development interventions more broadly at system and policy levels as part of the recovery process. As the onset of the SIFA Skills Anticipation Project implementation coincided with the COVID-19 outbreak, ILO and AUDA-NEPAD supported several countries in Africa to conduct rapid assessment to identify skill needs arising from the pandemic. The analysis also sought to identify practical recommendations for skills development interventions more broadly at system and policy levels, as part of the recovery process Under the leadership of AUDA-NEPAD, the findings from the rapid assessments were shared and extensively discussed by stakeholders at both national level and continental level. Input from AUDA-NEPAD.

This comparative study has the twofold objective of identifying common trends among the assessed countries with the view of contributing to a broader understanding of the impact of COVID-19 in Africa. Additionally, the study reflected on elements prioritized by key stakeholders and policy makers.

The findings across the countries suggest that employers' skill needs changed significantly during the pandemic. There was a major increase in the demand for digital skills with indications that these may be in short supply in the coming years, especially among managerial, professional, administrative, and clerical occupations which could easily be undertaken remotely. Evidence also showed an increased need for basic to intermediate digital skills among low-skilled occupations. All this will require interventions both at the level of reskilling and upskilling of workers and at the level of infrastructure development to equip workplaces with the tools required in the new normal. New sets of health and safety skills were also flagged as critical to ensuring maintenance of hygiene standards and adequate handling of highly contagious diseases in the workplace.

Most employers highlighted the need for training in occupation-specific technical skills, administrative and managerial skills, together with the growing importance of core skills to enhance adaptability; areas which were also identified as priorities for training by individual respondents. Employers emphasized the importance of skills development beyond the pandemic, as a means of improving businesses performance and productivity, in view of the shifting demand caused by supply chains interruptions and the need for economic diversification to capture new markets. The study further revealed that providers of education and training across the surveyed countries were unprepared and struggled to effectively respond to the skilling and upskilling needs arising from the COVID-19 pandemic. The comparative study has underscored the fact that solutions to the identified challenges will not only depend on the institutional readiness, but also on the countries' capacities

to allocate financial and human resources in the strengthening of skills development systems. The report re-emphasizes the need to act upon the recommendations presented in the country level rapid skills assessments, which ranged from investing in modular and flexible learning formats and in the infrastructure needed to support them, and to incentivising the delivery of resilience-building skills especially among vulnerable groups to help them reintegrate into the labour market. . The report calls for investments that can drive the strengthening of skills needs identification and anticipation, , a critical priority for the Africa region which was also articulated by African Union (AU) Member States in the official communique of the 2021 Skills Anticipation and Matching Conference*, and which was later adopted by the 2022 Specialized Technical Committee of Ministers of Education, Science and Technology, at the 2022 Meeting of Ministers of Education from AU Member States, with the call to *“support Member States in strengthening capacities for collecting, analysing, interpreting and disseminating skills anticipation-related data”*.

Ms. Cynthia Samuel-Olonjuwon

Assistant Director-General & Regional Director
for Africa
International Labour Organization

In the spirit of this continental call, the ILO, and African Union Development Agency (AUDA-NEPAD) reiterate their commitment to support Governments and social partners in AU member states. This commitment includes supporting the design of innovative approaches for applying the study recommendations as countries progress to full recovery from the negative impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic, and enhancing national, sector and local level systems for the identification of skills needs and skills development strategies. to increase future resilience and employability in African labour markets.

Ms. Nardos Bekele-Thomas

Chief Executive Officer
African Union Development Agency (AUDA-NEPAD)

* Available at: <https://www.nepad.org/skillsportalfor youth/publication/conference-communique-skills-anticipation-and-matchingafrica>

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The acknowledges the collaborative partnership with the German Development Agency (GIZ) that led to the multi-country rapid skills assessments and subsequently this comparative analysis.

The evidence presented in this report is based on data collected through rapid assessments in nine sub-Saharan Countries: namely, Cameroon, Ghana, Kenya, Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa, Uganda, Zambia undertaken at the height of the COVID 19 pandemic through the SIFA Programme, and from the Ethiopia rapid assessments conducted with funding from the ILO-SIDA Partnership Project and the BMZ funded ILO Pro-Agro Project.**

The ILO and the SIFA Programme wish to thank Professor Terence Hogarth from Warwick University, and Dr. Ben Kriechel and the team from Economix Research & Consulting for this insightful comparative analysis of the effects of the COVID 19 pandemic on the different African labour markets.

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The ILO SKILLS technical backstopping team comprising of Olga Strieska-Ilina, Bolormaa Tumurchudur-Klok, Naomy Kanyemba-Lintini, and Alice Vozza were instrumental in the successful finalization and production of this Comparative Study.

Dr. Joni Musabayana

Director
International Labour Organization
DWT/CO-Pretoria

** https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---emp_ent/---ifp_seed/documents/publication/wcms_818214.pdf

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ACRONYMS

AUC	Africa Union Commission
AUDA-NEPAD	African Union Development Agency
CBNRM	Community-Based Natural Resource Management
GDP	Gross domestic product
IAIP	Integrated Agro-Industrial Park
ICT	Information and communications technology
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IT	Information technology
RSA	Rapid skills assessment
Sida	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SIFA	Skills Initiative for Africa
SMME	Small, medium, and micro enterprise

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

During 2020/21, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) provided technical support to nine African countries in undertaking a series of rapid skills assessments (RSAs) of COVID-19's impact on employment and skills. Eight of these were undertaken under the auspices of the Skills Initiative for Africa (SIFA), the Africa Union Commission (AUC), and the African Union Development Agency (AUDA-NEPAD), while one was covered by the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida)-ILO Partnership Programme.

The overall aim of the exercise was to identify upskilling and reskilling needs due to the pandemic, understand the contribution reskilling and upskilling could make to improving outcomes for employers and individuals, and identify practical options or recommendations for policy action on reskilling and upskilling to improve employment outcomes.

This report contains comparative findings from: Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa, Uganda, and Zambia. Each of the country assessments on which this comparative study is based was undertaken via:

- A review of key policy documents which set out how governments sought to support employment;
- A series of interviews with key stakeholders (that is, those who had responsibility for developing and/or managing responses to the pandemic from an employment perspective);
- Surveys of employers and individuals on how the pandemic had affected their employment and skills needs.

In light of the need to collect data rapidly from a large number of employers and individuals, the findings should be regarded as indicative, rather than definitive. While the surveys for the most part covered all sectors of the economy, selected sectors in each country were chosen for more in-depth analysis, given their importance to the economy.

IMPACTS OF THE PANDEMIC

The pandemic resulted in a steep decline in both employment and hours worked. Although some workers were able to continue in employment by working from home, this was largely restricted to more highly qualified personnel, often working in the service sector. The costs associated with the sharp drop in demand have not always been borne equally. In particular, the following groups appear to have been particularly adversely affected:

- Relatively low skilled workers;
- Sectors that are dependent upon foreign revenues (such as tourism);
- Sectors where social distancing imposes constraints on work (such as hospitality and education).

RESPONSES TO THE PANDEMIC

Overall, the pandemic led to the reduction of employment. However, there were attempts to mitigate this impact and, in some cases, new opportunities even arose as a result of it. Nevertheless, while the following responses to the pandemic did have skills implications, many employers still faced reduced capacity to deliver and/or fund training. These responses included: The following responses resulting from the pandemic were evident.

1. Increased demand for employment and skills in some sectors. This was principally the case with regard to the information technology (IT) sector, where the demand for IT services increased as business switched to being increasingly online. Nevertheless, it is evident that it was difficult for the IT sector to satisfy this demand.
2. Temporary reprieves in other sectors, with the interruption of international supply chains resulting in them being able to capture an increased share of the domestic market while the supply of imports was much reduced (such as the textiles sector in South Africa).

3. Pursuit of new domestic markets being sought where traditional export markets had contracted sharply, or were almost wiped out, as in the case of the hospitality and tourism sectors. In Namibia, for example, the tourist industry had responded by looking to serve domestic and regional tourists rather than those travelling from much further afield.
4. Providing health and safety skills so that establishment were able to remain operational and comply with social distancing and various other guidelines.
5. Switching to working from home where possible.

EMERGING SKILLS AND TRAINING NEEDS

Across all country assessments, the common key skills required during the pandemic relate to IT (increasing supply to the IT sector and to workers who need to use IT, as well as to employers who need to improve their IT infrastructures); health and

safety (such as social distancing and maintenance of hygiene standards); and a more general set of skills which allow workers to handle a more diverse workload.

Although training did take place during this period, employers generally had limited resources to spend on training, and there was evidence that the training sector was struggling to maintain continuity of service provision, with limited provision available online.

Looking to the future beyond the pandemic, employers emphasise the importance of skills development for their businesses to perform effectively, especially in the following areas: specific technical skills required for each job/occupation; administrative and managerial skills; and digital skills.



Recommendations

The following recommendations are important measures which can be taken to reskill or upskill those in the labour force:

1. Countries should increase online training and blended learning formats.
2. The availability of online training needs to be promoted and communicated to potential users, with special provision for particular groups who do not have access to computers or have limited digital skills.
3. Ways to incentivise more vulnerable workers to participate in training need to be found.
4. Skills which have economic value in the labour market need to be provided, particularly since resources for training are in short supply. In addition, there is a need to focus on skills which provide resilience in the face of a pandemic, and skills which will be priorities as the impact of the pandemic lessens. These include digital and IT skills, health and safety skills, capacity to manage a wider range of workplace tasks, specific technical skills required for each job and occupation, and administrative and managerial skills.
5. Stronger processes are required for identification and anticipation of skills needs in most of the countries covered.
6. A roadmap can bring all of these recommendations together by setting out a plan for how to respond to the training needs related to the pandemic and develop resilience in the labour market, with responsibilities attached to various groups for delivering outputs within a clear timetable.

1. Introduction

During 2020/21, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) undertook a series of rapid skills assessments (RSAs) of COVID-19's impact on employment and skills across nine countries in sub-Saharan Africa, namely Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa, Uganda, and Zambia. The overall aim of the exercise was to identify upskilling and reskilling needs due to the pandemic, understand the contribution reskilling and upskilling could make to improving outcomes for employers and individuals, and identify practical options or recommendations for policy action on reskilling and upskilling to improve employment outcomes. In doing so, the study addressed the impact of COVID-19 on:

- Employment levels in firms (how many staff had been laid-off and from which jobs);
- Employment of existing workers (such as the impact on their continued employment, hours of work, and wages);
- Employment transitions of workers (for example, the shifts between employment and unemployment and moves into and out of self-employment);
- Types of skills that have been lost as a result of the pandemic and, importantly, the new skill demands which have arisen in dealing with the impact of COVID-19 in the workplace;
- Training that was undertaken or is in demand to meet emerging skills needs resulting from the pandemic;
- Expectations for the future with respect to recovery of employment levels and changes in skills needs.

This report presents key findings based on a synthesis of the evidence collected through the series of RSAs, which were conducted as part of the Skills Initiative for Africa (SIFA) Skills Anticipation Project. Each national assessment included:

- A review of key policy documents which set out how governments sought to support employment;
- A series of interviews with key stakeholders (that is, those who had responsibility for developing and/or managing responses to the pandemic from an employment perspective);
- Surveys of employers and individuals on how the pandemic had affected their employment and skills needs.

The researchers who undertook the studies in each respective country were asked to give special attention to specific sectors which were considered to be particularly sensitive to the pandemic either because employment and skills supply was likely to be, or had been, adversely affected, or because the sectors were strategically important to the country or in responding to the pandemic. The sectoral focus of each country is captured in Table 1.1, which shows that there is a degree of commonality across countries, given the frequency with which agriculture, food, hospitality/tourism, and education are mentioned.

Table 1: Dissemination of online employer survey link

Country	Sectors
Cameroon	Hospitality; Food industry; Financial and insurance services
Ethiopia	Agro-processing, Tourism
Ghana	Agriculture; Tourism and hospitality; Construction; Wholesale and retail; Pharmaceuticals; Education (private schools)
Kenya	Manufacturing, Hospitality, Education and training
Namibia	Agriculture, Blue Economy, Tourism
Nigeria	Agriculture/Food; Information and communications technology (ICT); Education
South Africa	Clothing and textiles; E-commerce (online retail, banking, and insurance)
Uganda	All sectors
Zambia	Mining, Manufacturing, Energy, Tourism, Education and training

As well as having a sectoral focus, the study had a particular interest in understanding how the pandemic had affected different groups of workers, especially those whose employment might be regarded as particularly vulnerable to economic downturns, such as those in less skilled jobs, unemployed people, and those in self-employment. The surveys of individuals were designed to collect information on the experiences of all those in the labour force, but made sure that information was collected on more vulnerable groups. The surveys of employers were, for the most part, economy-wide and designed to identify how the pandemic had affected their businesses and the resulting impact on working practices and employment levels. Information was also collected from employers about their expectations for the future.

It is important to note that, given the nature of the RSAs – that is, the need to collect information as quickly as possible so that policy-makers were informed about the impact of the pandemic on employment and skills and, critically, identify what appeared to work relatively well in responding or mitigating its more abject impacts – their findings are indicative rather than definitive. Nevertheless, vital information is provided about how the pandemic affected employment and skills demand, along with insights into how skills supply responded to emerging needs, as employees increasingly moved to working remotely online and employers progressively relied on e-commerce or e-business.

As such, this report presents evidence that can be used to inform interventions for:

- Stimulating employment and skills supply during the pandemic recovery period and ensuring that skill shortages do not slow any potential growth.
- Responding to any future uptakes in infection rates with respect to protecting employment and skills.

The remainder of this report is structured as follows: Section 2 provides information about the data collection exercises; Section 3 provides information on the economic and social context in which the country studies were undertaken; Section 4 looks at individuals' employment status

transitions during the pandemic; Section 5 examines how jobs were adapted to respond to changes in the workplace; Section 6 addresses how emerging skills needs were met; Section 7 looks at employers' and individuals' expectations for future employment and skills needs; Section 8 reviews sector-specific findings within individual countries; and finally, by way of conclusion; Section 9 summarises the key findings and provides recommendations for measures that can be taken to reskill or upskill those in the labour force.



2. Data collection and analysis

2.1. Method

Data collection was covered in eight countries by the Skills Initiative for Africa (SIFA), the Africa Union Commission (AUC), and the African Union Development Agency (AUDA-NEPAD), and in one country (Ethiopia) by the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida)-ILO Partnership Programme. Data was collected through a review of background information and policy documents relating to the pandemic's impact on employment and skills demand, interviews with key stakeholders, and surveys with individuals and employers. The fieldwork was carried out from 2020 to 2021 at different times in the respective countries, as indicated in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Fieldwork period by country

Country	Fieldwork period
Cameroon	Mid 2020
Ethiopia	Early 2021
Ghana	Mid 2020
Kenya	Mid 2020
Namibia	Early 2021
Nigeria	Early 2021
South Africa	Early 2021
Uganda	Early 2021
Zambia	Mid 2020

2.2. Review of key literature and interviews with stakeholders

In order to provide context for the study, the national teams were requested to conduct a review of key literature, including government reports, to gauge how the pandemic had affected the country's economy and labour market. Sector-specific information was also collected. Semi-structured interviews were then conducted with key stakeholders to capture the most up-to-date information, including:

- Government ministries and agencies;
- Organisations providing training;
- Employers' representative organisations;
- Other business associations;
- Workers' representative organisations;
- Sector experts.

The experts conducting the interviews were given a degree of autonomy over the questions they asked stakeholders, given the diverse national contexts, so long as an understanding was gained of how the pandemic was affecting the economy and labour market – with a particular focus on the key sectors selected for inclusion in the national reports – and the emerging policy responses. In practice, the extent to which different stakeholder groups were involved in the study varied, reflecting the difficult times during which the fieldwork was being conducted, which affected the availability of potential respondents.

2.3. Surveys of individuals and employers

The following is a summary of the descriptive statistics of the individuals and employers surveyed for the study. Detailed information is captured in the annex of the report.

Survey of individuals

In total, 5,029 individual surveys were conducted, ranging from 204 in Cameroon to 1,100 in Nigeria. With the exception of South Africa, there were more male (60%) than female (40%) respondents. The majority of the participants were aged 26-35 years old (around 55%), followed by individuals aged between 36-45 years old, and then those aged 21-25 years (about 17% for each age group). The most commonly held level of qualification was a (i) bachelor's degree or (ii) community college/intermediate/vocational training qualification, which accounted for 41% and 30% respectively. Individuals with post-graduate and secondary education qualifications made up 12% each. In comparison, the percentage of people without any education is relatively small (about 1.5%). Accordingly, the data

overrepresents higher educated people. This is likely because the survey was mainly conducted online, supplemented by some telephone interviews. The principal exception was Ethiopia, where the surveys were administered mainly in person.

In terms of the distribution of participants by labour market status, employed and unemployed individuals comprised the largest groups, at around 40% and 35%, respectively, while self-employed people made up 15%. Respondents were drawn from a range of occupations and sectors, including as services and sales people; professionals; managers; clerical support workers; and technical/associate professionals within the education; health and social activities; administration; hospitality; finance; and agriculture, forestry, and fishing sectors. The number of those working in elementary or craft occupations was relatively low.

¹ Those who were working or in apprentice at the time of participating in the survey.

Survey of employers

While the majority of the 1,801 employers surveyed were private companies, accounting for 80% of the sample, other types of companies, such as co-operatives, non-profit organisations, and national or local government organisations were included, making up the remaining 20%. Among the participating establishments in the survey, half were in the service sector, followed by industry (19%) and agriculture (17%).

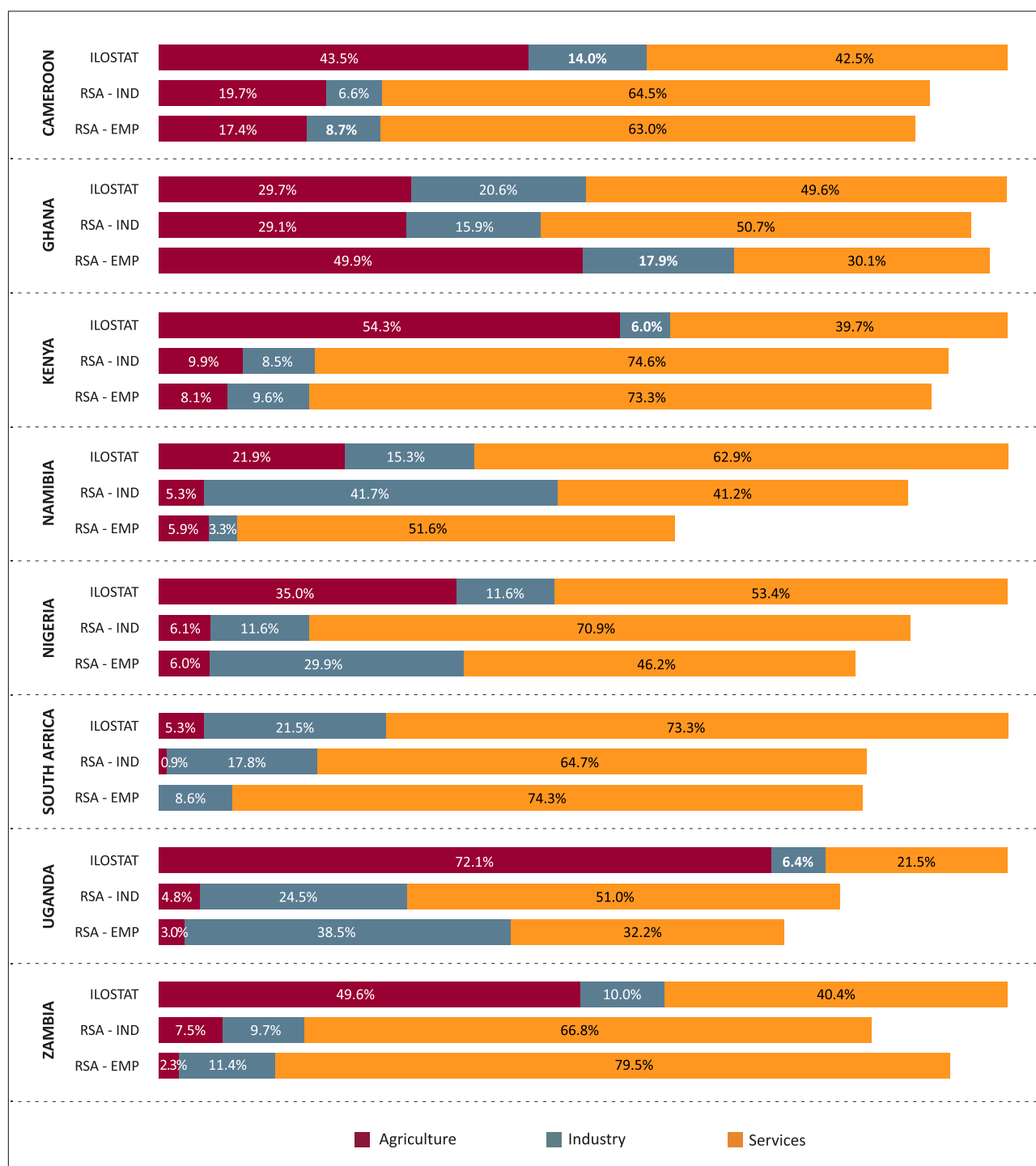
In most countries, small companies (with less than 25 staff) made up the majority of respondents (75%), followed by medium-sized firms (more than 50%). Only around 10% were large companies with more than 250 staff. Many companies shrunk in size due to the pandemic, which is especially observable among medium-sized companies.

Representativeness of the surveys

Overall, the RSA surveys among individuals match the employment structure by sector and size classes of the countries in which they were conducted reasonably well (see Figure 2.1 comparing shares reported in the surveys with employment shares based on ILOSTAT data on employment). There is, however, an underrepresentation of low skilled people in the survey of individuals, while the employer surveys overrepresent specific sectors, and are thus less representative of the overall economy. It may be that the request to focus on particular sectors led to the overrepresentation, especially in the employer survey. In all but one country, Ghana, the agricultural sector is underrepresented, and all countries overrepresent the service sector.

Generalising across the countries, the allocation across sectors is closer to the employment distribution in the individuals' survey and leaning more towards specific (mostly service-oriented) sectors in the employer survey. This may well be, as mentioned above, the result of targeting establishments in particular sectors. The survey in Ethiopia is a special case as it targets exclusively the following sectors: hotel and tour operators, agriculture, and agri-processing establishments.

Figure 2.1: Sector representation in the RSA surveys (%)



Note: The first bar (ILOSTAT) of each country provides the employment shares of a sector in the country, the second bar (RSA-IND) provides the response shares of individuals by sector, the third bar (RSA-EMP) gives response shares of employers in the establishment survey. In the RSA surveys, respondents who did not answer or allocate themselves to a sector ("Other sectors") are excluded from calculating the shares.

Source: ILOSTAT, ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals, survey of employers.

2.4. Data collection approach

The data collection approach allowed for data to be gathered rapidly so that the way in which COVID-19 affected employment and skills demands could be assessed timeously. Collecting data from various sources – stakeholders, individuals, and employers – provided the basis for comparing different sources to arrive at the most robust findings.

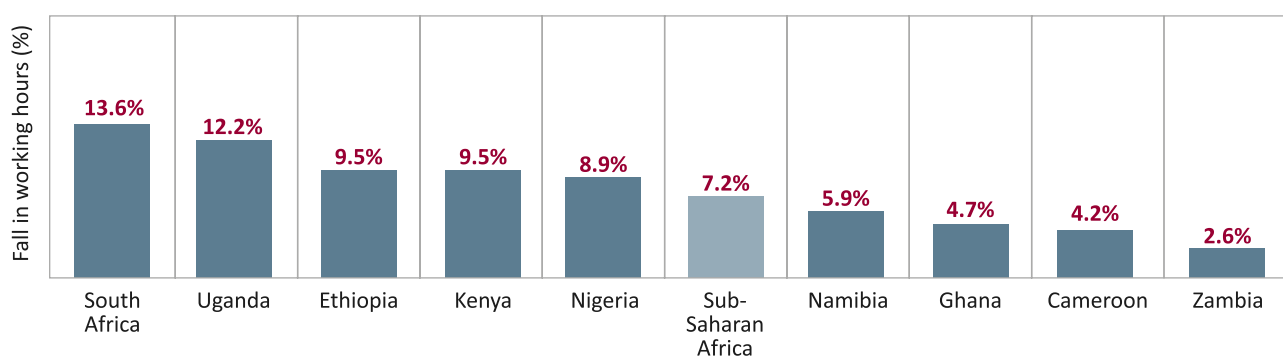


3. Economic and social context

Across all countries covered by the RSAs, evidence (derived mainly from ILO's published statistics as well as other information on, for instance, changes in output levels²) shows that the pandemic had a large impact on the economy and employment, with a steep decline in output observed in 2020, following a period of substantial growth in the years prior. In Zambia, for example, gross domestic product (GDP) is estimated to have contracted by 7.2% in 2020, compared with a growth of 4% in 2019.

Similarly, as shown in Figure 3.1, the reduction in hours worked between 2019 and 2020 indicates the pandemic's impact on employment in all countries, as does the substantial, though variable, reduction in the volume of work that was carried out. Likewise, Figure 3.2 shows the estimated change in employment to population ratios in each country, with a drastic drop in employment recorded in each country in 2020.

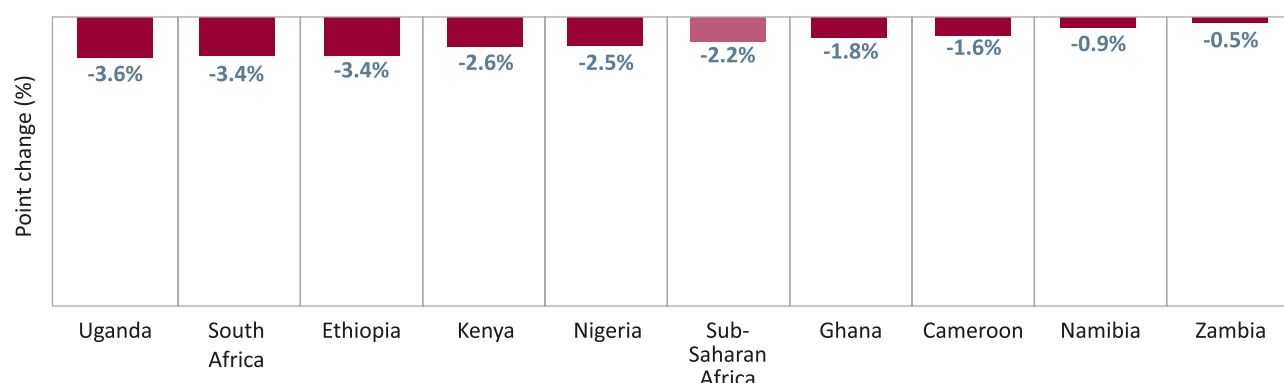
Figure 3.1: Reduction in working hours (ILO modelled estimate) (%)



Source: ILOSTAT

² For example, see African Development Bank (2021) African Economic Outlook 2021. Abidjan: African Development Bank Group.

Figure 3.2: Change in the employment to population ratio, 2020 (%)



Source: ILOSTAT

From the national reports produced as part of the study, it is clear that the pandemic also exacerbated pre-existing weaknesses in the respective economies in terms of overall economic performance and/or its impact on particular sub-sectors, which in turn had a negative impact on the labour market. The key economic impacts are captured in Table 3.1. While all sectors of the labour market were adversely affected by the pandemic, there were some on which several of the selected countries

were particularly dependent, especially tourism and hospitality, which experienced a more calamitous decline. For other sectors, such as agriculture and horticulture, results were mixed, as restrictions on trade limited the capacity to export certain products but sometimes boosted domestic demand. At the other end of the scale, there were sectors that actually benefitted, at least over the short-term, because supply chains were disrupted so more needed to be sourced locally.

Table 3.1: The pandemic's impact on the economy and employment in selected countries, 2020

Country	Economic impact	Employment impact	Adversely affected sectors
Cameroon	Real GDP contracted by 2.4% in 2020 following growth of 3.7% in 2019. The decline in economic activity is largely explained by the fall in world oil prices and a range of domestic measures.	May have had an adverse impact on the informal sector which accounts for 8 out of 10 jobs.	Hotel and leisure Food industries Financial and insurance services
Ethiopia	The economy grew by 6.1% in 2020, down from 8.4% in 2019.	The Jobs Creation Commission indicated that potentially anywhere between 727,000 and 2.5 million jobs could be threatened.	Hospitality Transport Communications
Ghana	Strong growth in early 2020 softened the impact on GDP, which fell to 1.1% compared with 6.5% pre-COVID.	About 25% of employees had their wages reduced and around 42,000 were laid off during the country's partial lockdown.	Agriculture Construction Tourism Pharmaceuticals
Kenya	Output fell by 5.5% year-on-year in the second quarter of 2020 as domestic economic activity was interrupted and global demand collapsed.	In 2020, over 1.2 million jobs were lost, 48% of people partially lost their income, and 39% completely lost their income.	Tourism, accommodation, and food services Manufacturing Education Horticulture
Namibia	On the heel of poor performances in pre-vious years, the economic effects of the country's lockdown were immediate and devastating, especially for small, medium, and micro enterprises (SMMEs) whose operations were deemed 'non-essential'.	The pandemic caused 11 210 job losses from 983 employers in 2020/21; it is estimated that about 30% of employment in the formal tourism sector was lost.	Tourism Retail Health Education

Country	Economic impact	Employment impact	Adversely affected sectors
Nigeria	Overall, the economy contracted by 1.9% in 2020.	An estimated 6.7% decline in working hours in the second quarter of 2020, equivalent to loss of 195 million full-time jobs.	Wholesale and retail Agriculture Education
South Africa	The economy contracted by 7.2% in 2020, with all economic sectors experiencing a downturn. By September 2020, 76% of companies' revenues had fallen by more than 20%.	In 2019, the official unemployment rate was 29.1% and expanded unemployment (including discouraged work-seekers) was 38.7%. By the end of 2020, the corresponding figures were 32.5% and 43.1%.	All sectors, but especially small businesses.
Uganda	Real GDP declined by 0.5% in 2020, after growing 7.5% in 2019.		Tourism and hospitality Manufacturing Wholesale and retail Education
Zambia	Real GDP contracted by an estimated 4.9% in 2020, after growing by 4.0% in 2018 and 1.9% in 2019, resulting from deterioration in all the key sectors of the economy.		Mining Agriculture Tourism

Source: National country reports conducted for the ILO.

Despite the national reports pointing to a general expectation that economy and employment would rebound relatively strongly in 2022, there is clearly a degree of uncertainty attached to the speed with which the global economy will revert back to its pre-COVID growth trends. In the case of tourism in Namibia, for example, national stakeholders do not see the sector recovering before 2024. Furthermore, even if economies rebound strongly in 2022 or 2023, there may be more long-lasting changes.

Companies, for instance, may permanently change the way they do business in order to reinforce organisational resilience to fend against potential future shocks (such as engaging in more e-business or e-commerce). Accordingly, the ramifications for skills demands may well extend beyond the current pandemic and immediate economic rebound.

4. Employment transitions

This section provides an analysis of the pandemic's impact on employment. It examines how employers adjusted the size of their workforces in response to the effects of the pandemic, and the resulting implications for individual's subsequent employment transitions. However, as the sample is not representative of the entire economy, but rather overrepresents specific (priority) sectors at the establishment level and more highly educated workers in the survey of individuals, some caution is required in interpreting the results, which, as mentioned, should be regarded as indicative.

4.1. Employer perspectives

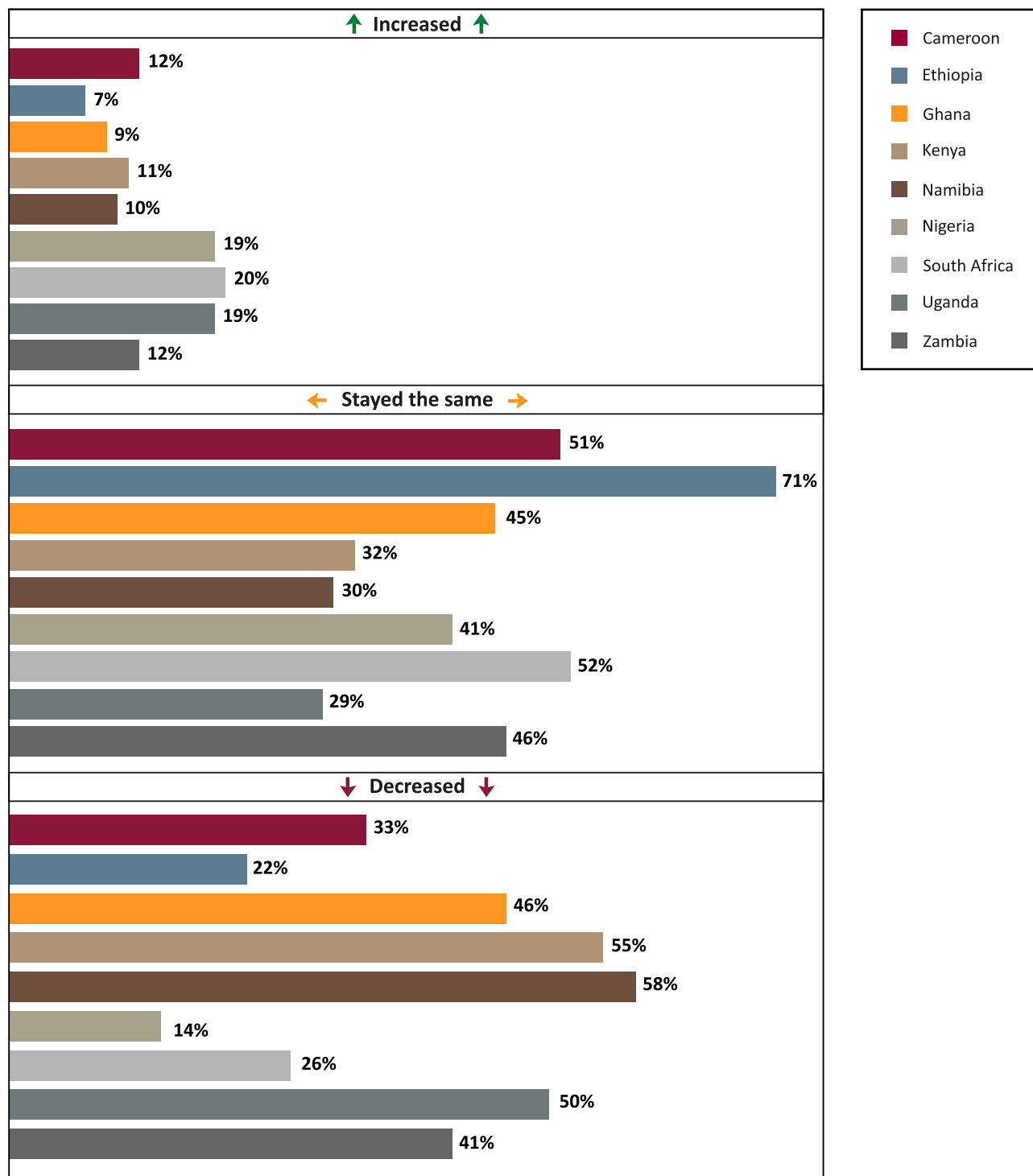
Employment levels

Figure 4.1 shows changes in employment levels since 2019 in the establishments surveyed as part of the study. A high share of employers reported that the number of people they employed had fallen due to the pandemic, particularly in Kenya, Namibia, and Uganda, where the economies were already in a weakened state when the pandemic commenced.

In contrast, employers in Nigeria and South Africa were less likely to report that employment had decreased. In Ethiopia, most employers reported that employment had stayed the same since the end of 2019, even though the sectors on which the survey concentrated – agro-processing and tourism – were directly affected by the pandemic



Figure 4.1: Changes in employment since the end of 2019 (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Similarly, the fall in employment was not equal across all occupations. Figure 4.2 shows the change in employment across occupations and countries between 2019 and 2021.³ Employers reported that employment in relatively unskilled elementary jobs had decreased in all countries, in contrast to those of professionals and clerical, services, and sales occupations, which were relatively stable in all countries. These occupations often comprise jobs where people can work from home via the internet.

Figure 4.2: Occupations shares before and after COVID-19 as reported by employers (%)

Country	Year	Professionals	Clerical, services and sales	Skilled manual workers and operators	Unskilled elementary jobs
Cameroon (*)	2019	 54.5%	 26.2%	 9.5%	 9.8%
	Now	 50.7%	 21.4%	 22.9%	 5.0%
	Difference	↓ -3.8%	↓ -4.8%	↑ 13.4%	↓ -4.8%
Ethiopia	2019	 22.2%	 27.0%	 15.6%	 35.3%
	Now	 22.3%	 27.6%	 15.6%	 34.5%
	Difference	↑ 0.1%	↑ 0.6%	→ 0.0%	↓ -0.8%
Ghana	2019	 14.4%	 13.7%	 25.0%	 46.8%
	Now	 16.6%	 10.6%	 26.7%	 46.1%
	Difference	↑ 2.2%	↓ -3.1%	↑ 1.7%	↓ -0.7%
Kenya (*)	2019	 33.2%	 29.0%	 34.0%	 3.8%
	Now	 41.4%	 26.0%	 18.5%	 14.1%
	Difference	↑ 8.2%	↓ -3.0%	↓ -15.5%	↑ 10.3%
Namibia	2019	 25.1%	 20.3%	 14.7%	 39.9%
	Now	 28.5%	 20.2%	 15.0%	 36.3%
	Difference	↑ 3.4%	↓ -0.1%	↑ 0.3%	↓ -3.6%
Nigeria	2019	 31.0%	 20.9%	 26.4%	 21.7%
	Now	 30.3%	 22.9%	 26.4%	 20.4%
	Difference	↓ -0.7%	↑ 2.0%	→ 0.0%	↓ -1.3%
Uganda	2019	 31.1%	 23.2%	 25.7%	 20.1%
	Now	 31.1%	 23.0%	 25.0%	 20.9%
	Difference	→ 0.0%	↓ -0.2%	↓ -0.7%	↑ 0.8%
South Africa	2019	 36.1%	 43.1%	 12.9%	 7.8%
	Now	 36.1%	 44.4%	 12.0%	 7.5%
	Difference	→ 0.0%	↑ 1.3%	↓ -0.9%	↓ -0.3%
Zambia (*)	2019	 42.5%	 15.7%	 23.8%	 17.9%
	Now	 34.1%	 13.3%	 34.1%	 18.5%
	Difference	↓ -8.4%	↓ -2.4%	↑ 10.3%	↑ 0.6%

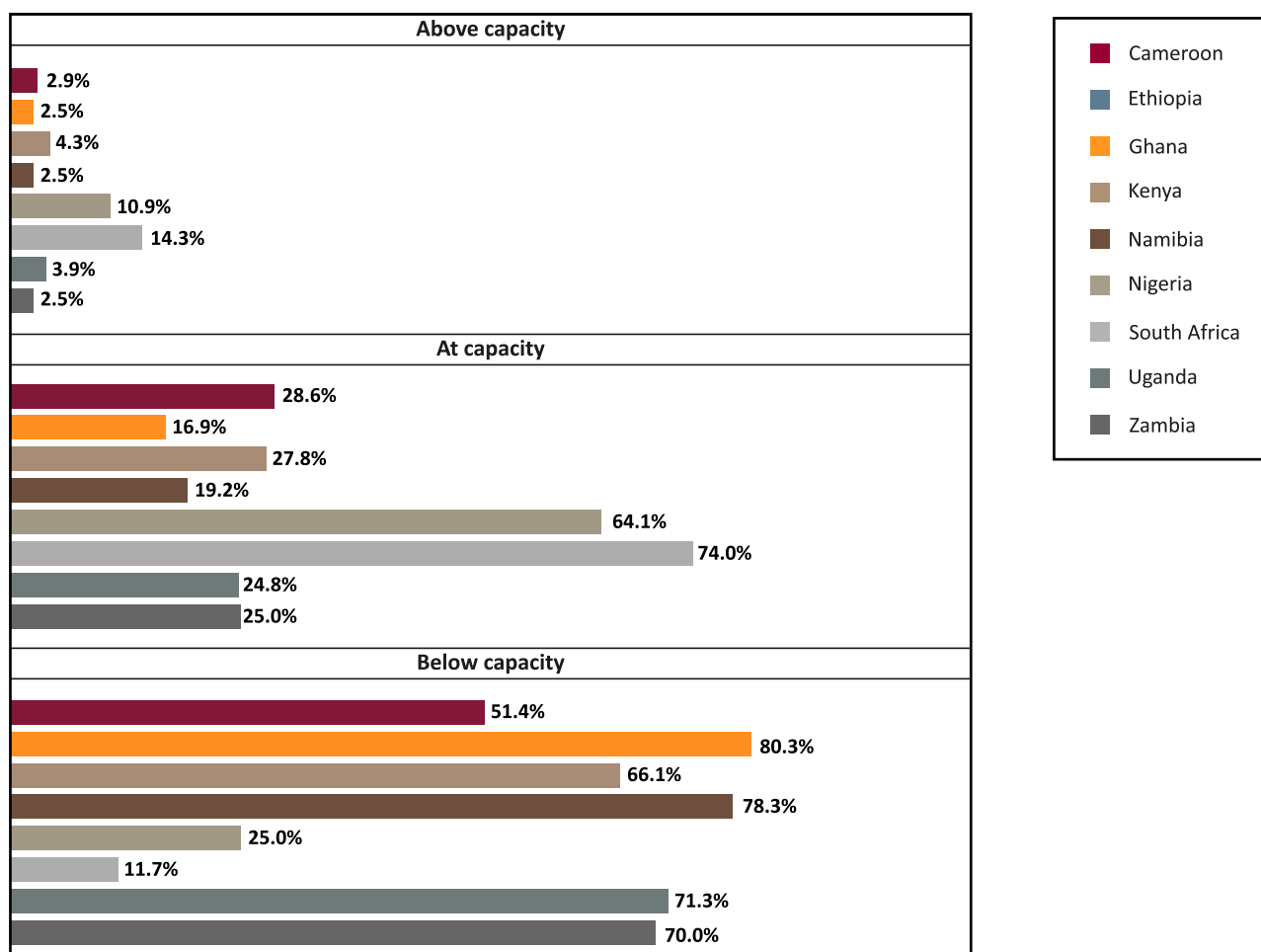
(*): Too few observations, results easily change because of outliers.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

³ Because of the low number of respondents in specific occupations, the results for Cameroon, Kenya, and Zambia are sensitive to the results of outliers.

Employers were also asked whether they had spare capacity in the sense that there was scope to increase their output if there were a demand for it. As reflected in Figure 4.3, more than half indicated they were working below capacity at the time of the survey, with the exception of Nigeria and South Africa, where most establishments were operating at capacity. This reflects the reduced number of hours people were often working and the temporary laying off staff.

Figure 4.3: Current capacity utilisation (%)*



Note: Information not available for Ethiopia.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

*Data totals vary based on data rounding discrepancies. This does not effect the overall data interpretation.

Ways of working

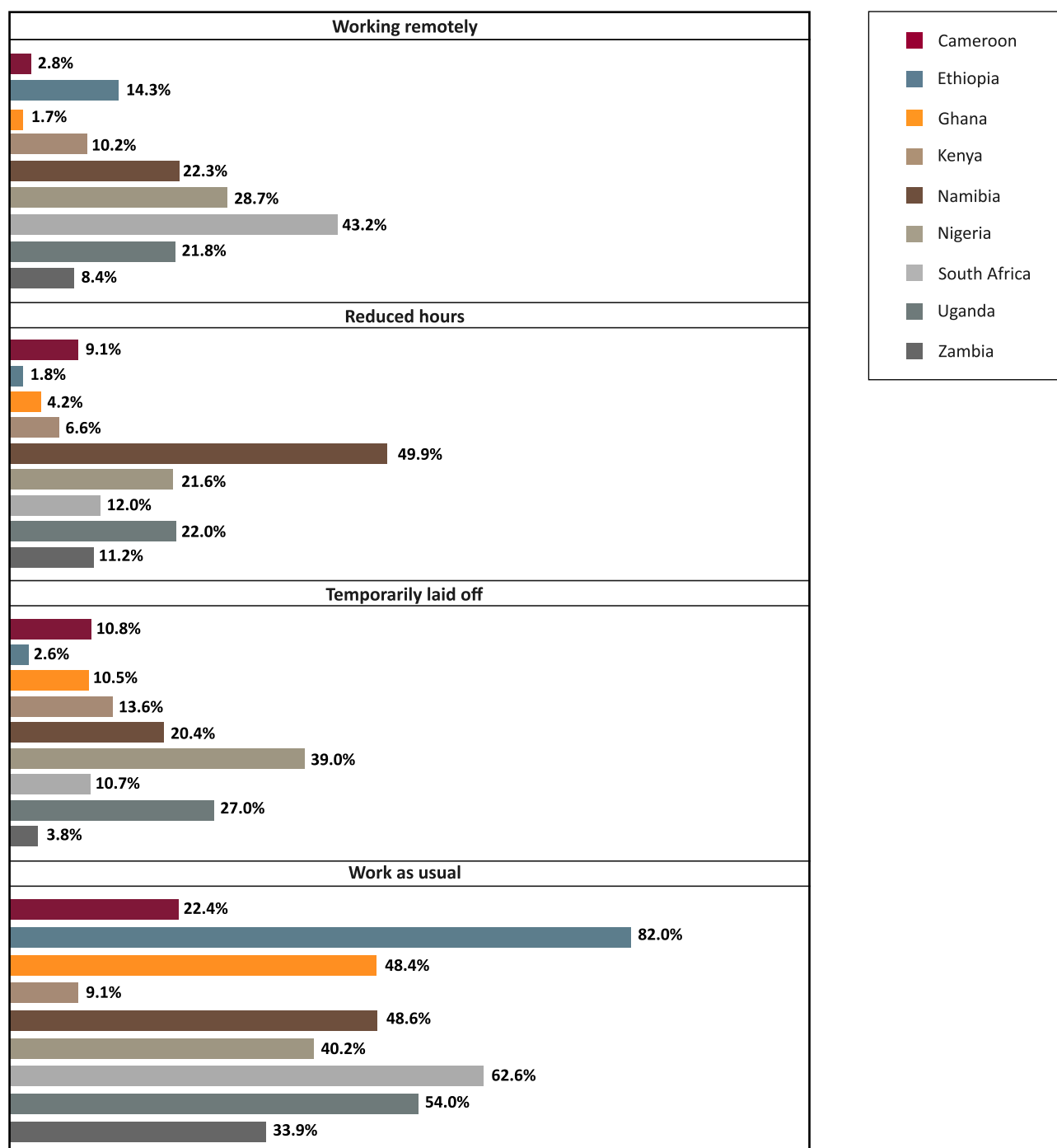
In order to assess if and how the jobs of those people who remained in employment changed as a result of the pandemic, employers were asked if, during this time, their staff were:

- Working remotely;
- Working reduced hours;
- Temporarily laid off;
- Working as usual.

The extent to which individual employees' work situations changed was likely to vary considerably, depending on the types of jobs in different sectors and the differing employment systems in the countries surveyed. As such, caution needs to be exercised in making comparisons between countries.

For example, as revealed in Figure 4.4, the percentage of employees (as reported by their employers) who were working remotely ranged from 42% in South Africa to barely 2% in Ghana, which could have implications for their continued employment. There were similar variations across the other indicators, such as reduced working hours, which was much more prevalent in Namibia, while resorting to temporary lay-offs was much more common in Nigeria. Although the sectoral focus of the survey was narrow in Ethiopia, many more employees were reported to have continued “working as usual” than in any other country.

Figure 4.4: Working situation of those who remained employed (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Changes within sectors

Figures 4.5a to 4.5d show the changes in employment across sectors and countries by occupation. The results reveal a mixed pattern of COVID-19's impact on employment. For instance, Figure 4.5a illustrates that the share of managers, professionals and associate professionals/technicians was relatively stable across sectors, which is in line with the general analysis on the impact of COVID-19 on employment. South Africa appeared to be an exception, with a reduction of 15 percentage points in the share of high skilled

workers in the industry and construction sector. In contrast, clerical, services, and sales workers demonstrate mixed results across countries, for example, a slight reduction in Ghana and Uganda, but an increase in Nigeria and South Africa (Figure 4.5b). In most countries, however, the share of skilled manual workers and operators and workers in elementary jobs decreased in all sectors (Figure 4.5c-4.5d). The occupational composition of employment by firm size or by ownership did not change during the pandemic.

Figure 4.5a: The share of managers, professionals/technicians before and after COVID-19 across sectors (%)

Country	Year	Agriculture	Industry & Construction	Total services	Other
Cameroon	End of 2019	-	-	19.9%	25.0%
	Now	-	-	17.2%	25.0%
	Difference	-	-	↓ -2.7%	→ 0.0%
Ghana	End of 2019	8.9%	6.2%	13.8%	15.9%
	Now	11.4%	9.5%	15.6%	3.9%
	Difference	↑ 2.5%	↑ 3.3%	↑ 1.8%	↓ -12.0%
Kenya	End of 2019	9.6%	1.5%	10.2%	1.5%
	Now	4.4%	1.5%	12.6%	3.9%
	Difference	↓ -5.2%	→ 0.0%	↑ 2.4%	↑ 2.4%
Namibia	End of 2019	9.7%	-	18.3%	37.7%
	Now	9.7%	-	20.8%	40.3%
	Difference	→ 0.0%	-	↑ 2.5%	↑ 2.6%
Nigeria	End of 2019	29.8%	25.8%	34.3%	32.7%
	Now	28.8%	25.0%	34.2%	30.8%
	Difference	↓ -1.0%	↓ -0.8%	↓ -0.1%	↓ -1.9%
South Africa	End of 2019	-	28.1%	40.2%	21.4%
	Now	-	14.4%	41.7%	23.6%
	Difference	-	↓ -13.7%	↑ 1.5%	↑ 2.2%
Uganda	End of 2019	20.8%	20.9%	38.7%	41.8%
	Now	21.7%	19.9%	40.4%	41.5%
	Difference	↑ 0.9%	↓ -1.0%	↑ 1.7%	↓ -0.3%
Zambia	End of 2019	-	-	25.2%	-
	Now	-	-	23.7%	-
	Difference	-	-	↓ -1.5%	-

Note: Country/sector with too few observations is not reported.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

⁴ The sample sizes become small when analysing data at this level of disaggregation. Where the samples are too small to report, this is indicated in the figure.

Figure 4.5b: The share of clerical, services, and sales workers before and after COVID-19 across sectors (%)

Country	Year	Agriculture	Industry & Construction	Total services	Other
Cameroon	End of 2019	-	-	12.4%	5.0%
	Now	-	-	10.0%	6.0%
	Difference	-	-	-2.4%	1.0%
Ghana	End of 2019	5.1%	8.2%	18.8%	10.5%
	Now	4.2%	5.4%	17.9%	5.4%
	Difference	-0.9%	-2.8%	-0.9%	-5.1%
Kenya	End of 2019	9.0%	0.1%	8.4%	4.4%
	Now	5.5%	0.2%	7.9%	9.1%
	Difference	-3.5%	0.1%	-0.5%	4.7%
Namibia	End of 2019	6.0%	-	19.3%	24.2%
	Now	5.0%	-	19.4%	23.6%
	Difference	-1.0%	-	0.1%	-0.6%
Nigeria	End of 2019	25.8%	19.0%	21.1%	22.2%
	Now	30.4%	20.5%	23.0%	24.1%
	Difference	4.6%	1.5%	1.9%	1.9%
South Africa	End of 2019	-	16.3%	46.4%	45.9%
	Now	-	29.4%	46.1%	46.4%
	Difference	-	13.1%	-0.3%	0.5%
Uganda	End of 2019	9.7%	16.9%	23.5%	35.4%
	Now	7.8%	16.3%	25.0%	34.7%
	Difference	-1.9%	-0.6%	1.5%	-0.7%
Zambia	End of 2019	-	-	9.8%	-
	Now	-	-	9.6%	-
	Difference	-	-	-0.2%	-

Note: Country/sector with too few observations is not reported.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure 4.5c: The share of skilled manual workers and operators before and after COVID-19 across sectors (%)

Country	Year	Agriculture	Industry & Construction	Total services	Other
Cameroon	End of 2019	-	-	8.6%	3.0%
	Now	-	-	9.0%	2.5%
	Difference	-	-	↑ 0.4%	↓ -0.5%
Ghana	End of 2019	7.8%	48.2%	13.4%	7.0%
	Now	9.0%	46.4%	22.1%	7.0%
	Difference	↑ 1.2%	↓ -1.8%	↑ 8.7%	→ 0.0%
Kenya	End of 2019	14.5%	3.2%	6.8%	7.5%
	Now	8.8%	3.0%	4.9%	10.3%
	Difference	↓ -5.7%	↓ -0.2%	↓ -1.9%	↑ 2.8%
Namibia	End of 2019	36.7%	-	13.9%	10.8%
	Now	34.2%	-	15.5%	12.0%
	Difference	↓ -2.5%	-	↑ 1.6%	↑ 1.2%
Nigeria	End of 2019	24.1%	34.2%	21.9%	24.0%
	Now	21.9%	32.9%	23.6%	23.2%
	Difference	↓ -2.2%	↓ -1.3%	↑ 1.7%	↓ -0.8%
South Africa	End of 2019	-	41.9%	7.0%	22.3%
	Now	-	44.4%	5.5%	21.4%
	Difference	-	↑ 2.5%	↓ -1.5%	↓ -0.9%
Uganda	End of 2019	35.3%	36.5%	21.8%	9.5%
	Now	36.7%	36.0%	19.2%	10.5%
	Difference	↑ 1.4%	↓ -0.5%	↓ -2.6%	↑ 1.0%
Zambia	End of 2019	-	-	13.2%	-
	Now	-	-	14.0%	-
	Difference	-	-	↑ 0.8%	-

Note: Country/sector with too few observations is not reported.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure 4.5d: The share of unskilled elementary jobs before and after COVID-19 across sectors (%)

Country	Year	Agriculture	Industry & Construction	Total services	Other
Cameroon	End of 2019	-	-	7.4%	2.5%
	Now	-	-	4.1%	0.0%
	Difference	-	-	↓ -3.3%	↓ -2.5%
Ghana	End of 2019	47.2%	15.3%	11.0%	28.3%
	Now	48.6%	15.6%	14.6%	35.6%
	Difference	↑ 1.4%	↑ 0.3%	↑ 3.6%	↑ 7.3%
Kenya	End of 2019	14.1%	8.4%	6.7%	12.9%
	Now	9.4%	2.5%	7.5%	6.3%
	Difference	↓ -4.7%	↓ -5.9%	↑ 0.8%	↓ -6.6%
Namibia	End of 2019	47.7%	-	48.5%	27.3%
	Now	51.2%	-	44.3%	24.1%
	Difference	↑ 3.5%	-	↓ -4.2%	↓ -3.2%
Nigeria	End of 2019	20.4%	20.9%	22.7%	21.2%
	Now	18.8%	21.6%	19.1%	21.9%
	Difference	↓ -1.6%	↑ 0.7%	↓ -3.6%	↑ 0.7%
South Africa	End of 2019	-	13.8%	6.5%	10.5%
	Now	-	11.9%	6.7%	8.6%
	Difference	-	↓ -1.9%	↑ 0.2%	↓ -1.9%
Uganda	End of 2019	34.2%	25.7%	16.0%	13.2%
	Now	33.8%	27.8%	15.5%	13.3%
	Difference	↓ -0.4%	↑ 2.1%	↓ -0.5%	↑ 0.1%
Zambia	End of 2019	-	-	14.7%	-
	Now	-	-	12.4%	-
	Difference	-	-	↓ -2.3%	-

Note: Country/sector with too few observations is not reported.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

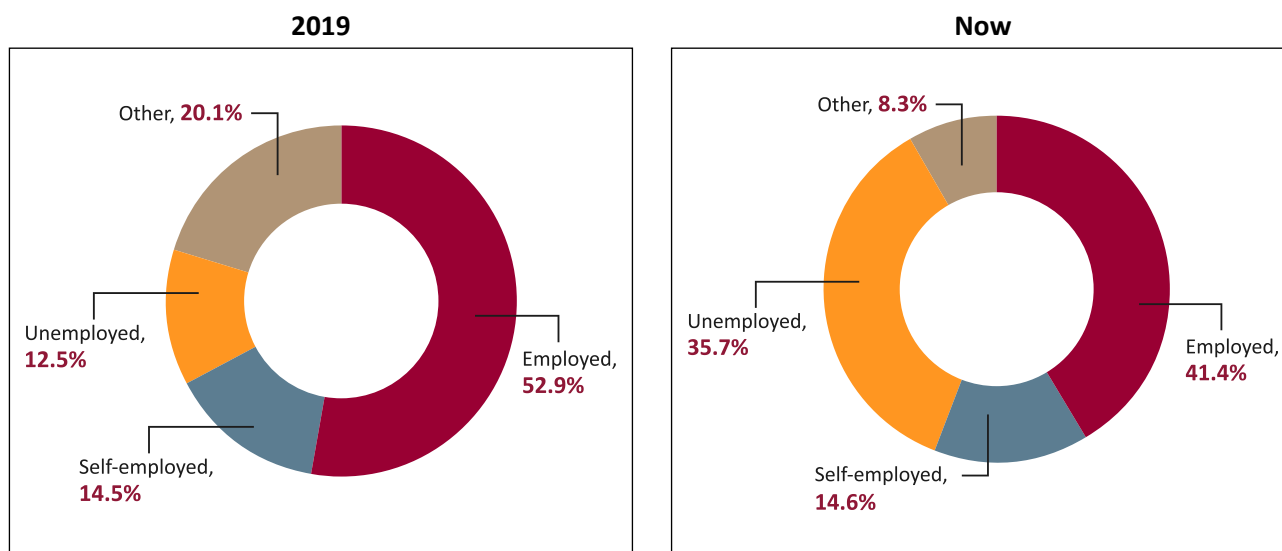
4.2. Implications for workers

Changes in employment status before and after COVID-19

Figure 4.6 shows the respondents' changes in employment status between 2019 and the time of the interview ("now"), revealing a significant reduction of the share of employed respondents by about 10 percentage points. The share of people in the remainder category "other" (for example,

trainees, unpaid workers who work for the family business, and retirees) also dropped significantly. Across all countries, most of the people in these two categories moved into unemployment, as reflected by the surge in the share of unemployed by approximately 23 percentage points. The share of self-employed people remained at about the same level.

Figure 4.6: Respondents' labour market status before and after COVID-19 (%)



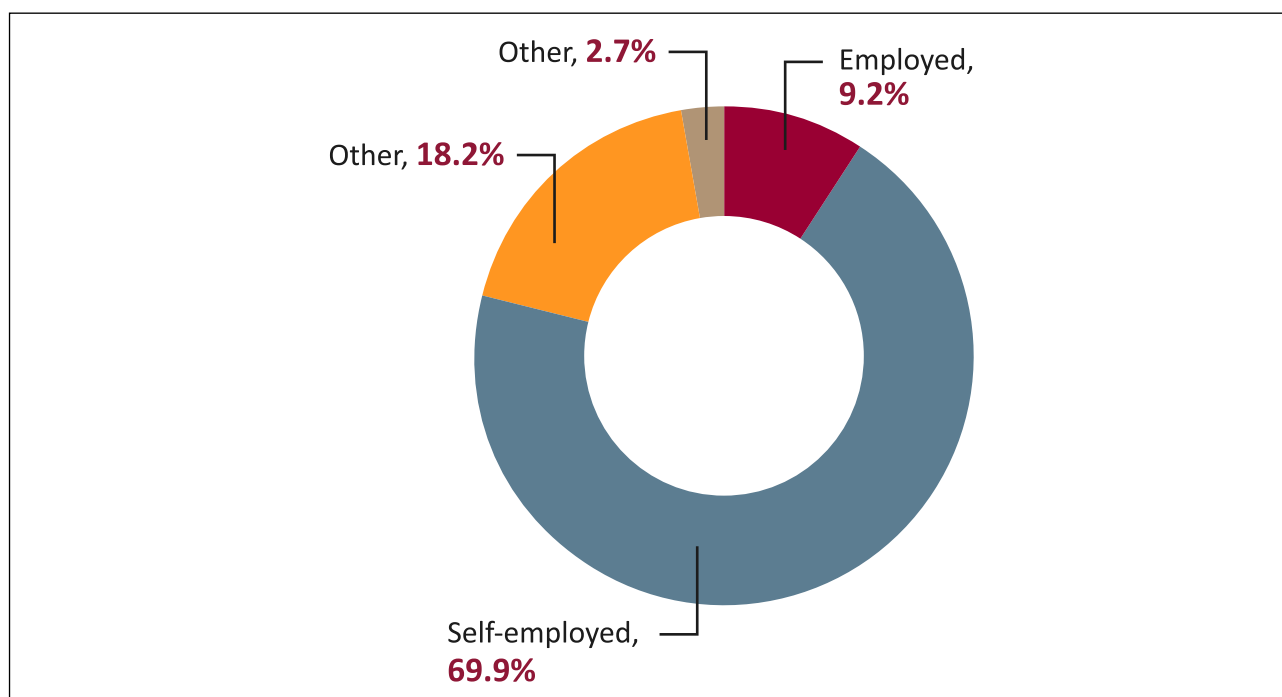
Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Movement of workers among employment groups

Similarly, the movement to and from employment and unemployment between 2019 and the time of the interview ("now") is depicted in Figures 4.7a to 4.7d below. Figure 4.7a and 4.7b confirm that most self-employed individuals in 2019 remained in self-employment at the time of the survey. However, this hides an underlying dynamic: around 30% of those self-employed when the survey took place actually changed their status. They continued to work as

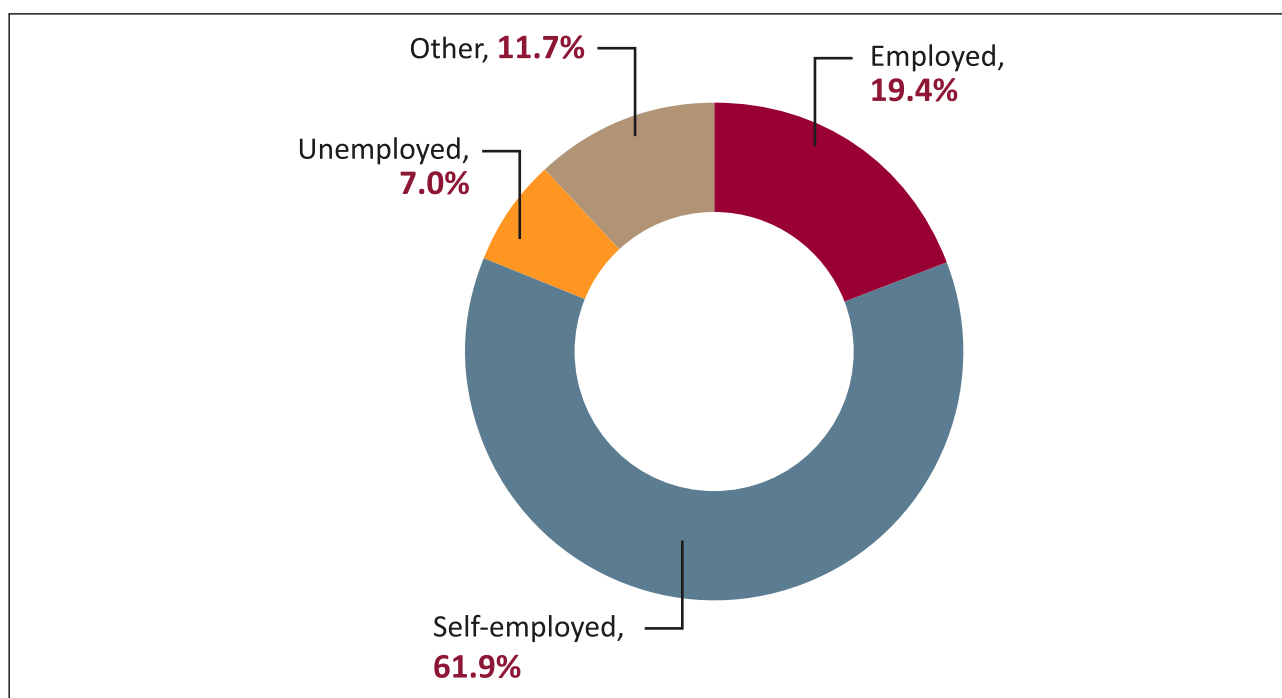
employees, become unemployed, or continue in the remainder category. Possibilities for this movement include people who had been employed being pushed into self-employment and others (such as unpaid workers) becoming self-employment (Figure 4.7a). On the other hand, a third of those who reported having been self-employed in 2019 were either unemployed (18.2%) or employed (9.2%) at the time of the interview (Figure 4.7b).

Figure 4.7a: Employment status in 2019 if self-employed “now” (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

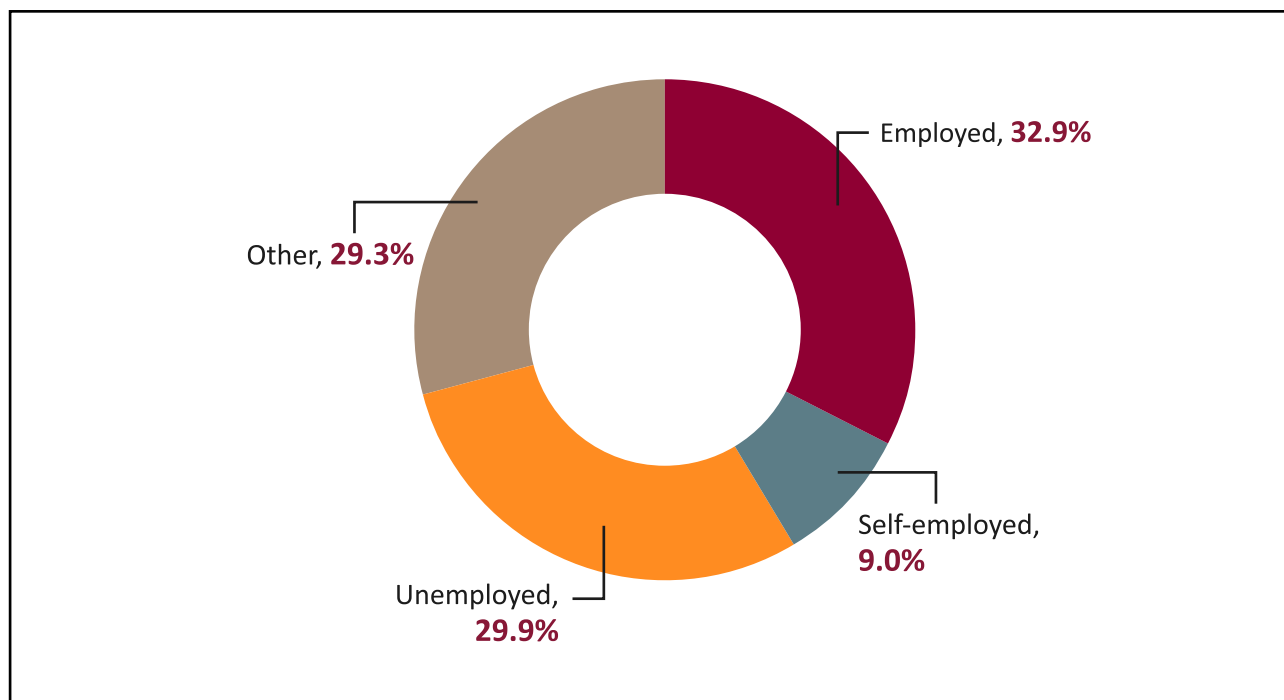
Figure 4.7b: Employment status “now” if self-employed in 2019 (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 4.7c shows that only 29.9% of people who were unemployed at the time of interview were also unemployed in 2019, while the majority of those who became unemployed during the pandemic were either employees (32.9%) or in other types of employment (29.3%) in 2019. Figure 4.7d shows that the majority of those unemployed in 2019 remained unemployed during COVID-19 until “now”, although about 20% managed to re-enter the labour market and 10% were self-employed at the time of survey.

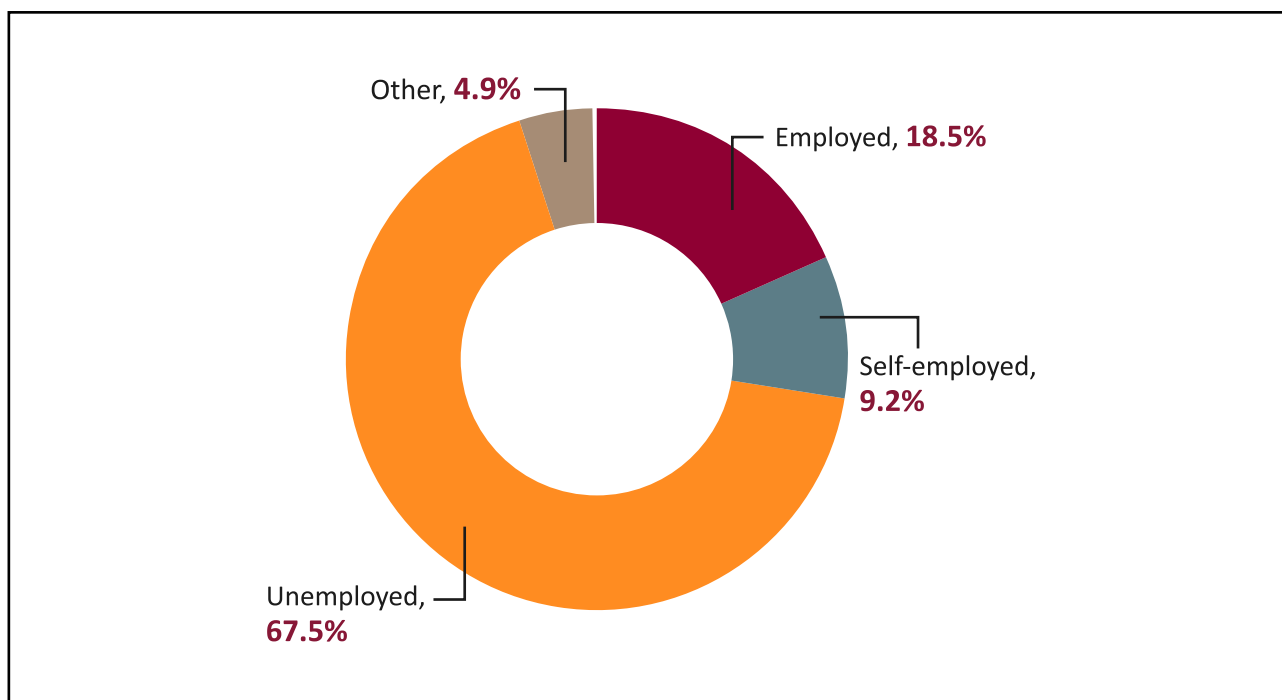
Figure 4.7c: Employment status in 2019 if being unemployed “now” (%)*



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

*Data totals vary based on data rounding discrepancies. This does not effect the overall data interpretation.

Figure 4.7d: Employment status “now” if being unemployed in 2019 (%)*



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

*Data totals vary based on data rounding discrepancies. This does not effect the overall data interpretation.

Figures 4.8 and 4.9 show how the labour market responded to the COVID-19 crisis, as reflected by the how the shares of employees, self-employed, and unemployed changed between 2019 and the time of the survey. Figure 4.8 shows that the share of individuals who reported being employed decreased between 2019 and "now" in all countries, whereas the changes in the share of self-employed individuals was mixed. The share of employees fell the most (about 20 percentage points) in Ghana and Ethiopia, while the share of self-employed decreased the most in Cameroon. Nigeria, South Africa, Uganda, and Zambia experienced a marginal increase in the share of employment accounted for by self-employment. Figure 4.9 reveals that the share of surveyed individuals who said they were unemployed increased by more than 15 percentage points in all the countries, with the increase highest in Cameroon, Ethiopia, and Namibia (an increase of 30 percentage points or more).

Figure 4.8: Share of employed and self-employed workers before/after COVID-19 (%)

Country	Year	Employee	Self-employed
Cameroon	In 2019	 37.5%	 29.8%
	Now	 18.5%	 23.0%
	Difference	↓ -19.0%	↓ -6.8%
Ethiopia (*)	In 2019	 72.4%	 3.8%
	Now	 51.4%	 0.5%
	Difference	↓ -21.0%	↓ -3.3%
Ghana	In 2019	 79.2%	 11.6%
	Now	 56.6%	 10.5%
	Difference	↓ -22.6%	↓ -1.1%
Kenya	In 2019	 64.3%	 15.0%
	Now	 46.7%	 14.4%
	Difference	↓ -17.6%	↓ -0.6%
Namibia	In 2019	 36.6%	 17.6%
	Now	 22.1%	 13.3%
	Difference	↓ -14.5%	↓ -4.3%
Nigeria	In 2019	 36.7%	 20.6%
	Now	 25.0%	 23.1%
	Difference	↓ -11.7%	↑ 2.5%
South Africa	In 2019	 50.0%	 9.5%
	Now	 46.8%	 11.9%
	Difference	↓ -3.2%	↑ 2.4%
Uganda	In 2019	 53.1%	 12.6%
	Now	 45.1%	 12.7%
	Difference	↓ -8.0%	↑ 0.1%
Zambia	In 2019	 71.6%	 11.7%
	Now	 58.2%	 12.2%
	Difference	↓ -13.4%	↑ 0.5%

(*): Very low number of observations for self-employed in Ethiopia.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 4.9: Share of unemployed before/after COVID-19 (%)

Country	In 2019	Now	Difference
Cameroon	 4.8%	 41.0%	↑ 36.2%
Ethiopia	 17.6%	 48.1%	↑ 30.5%
Ghana	 1.7%	 25.5%	↑ 23.8%
Kenya	 7.1%	 29.8%	↑ 22.7%
Namibia	 29.5%	 59.3%	↑ 29.8%
Nigeria	 18.7%	 45.0%	↑ 26.3%
South Africa	 12.6%	 34.1%	↑ 21.5%
Uganda	 8.6%	 30.4%	↑ 21.8%
Zambia	 5.8%	 22.1%	↑ 16.3%

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Jobs distribution across occupations before and after COVID-19

The diverse impact of COVID-19 on different types of employment dynamics across countries can be analysed by comparing occupation shares and labour market status before and after the pandemic. One caveat is that the number of individual respondents who participated in the survey was low and potentially biased towards some occupations. In addition, while most of the surveyed individuals answered the question about their occupations in 2019 (around 90% of both employed and self-employed), those in self-employment did not

answer the question when asked about current occupations ("now"). Therefore, investigating the occupational characteristics of self-employed respondents is challenging.

Figures 4.10a and 4.10b, which show the changes in the occupation distribution of respondents both in 2019 and "now", reveal that after COVID-19, there was a slight increase in the share of people employed in high skilled occupations, which compensated for the decrease in the share of both skilled and low skilled occupations.

Figure 4.10a: Distribution of respondents' occupation in 2019 (%)

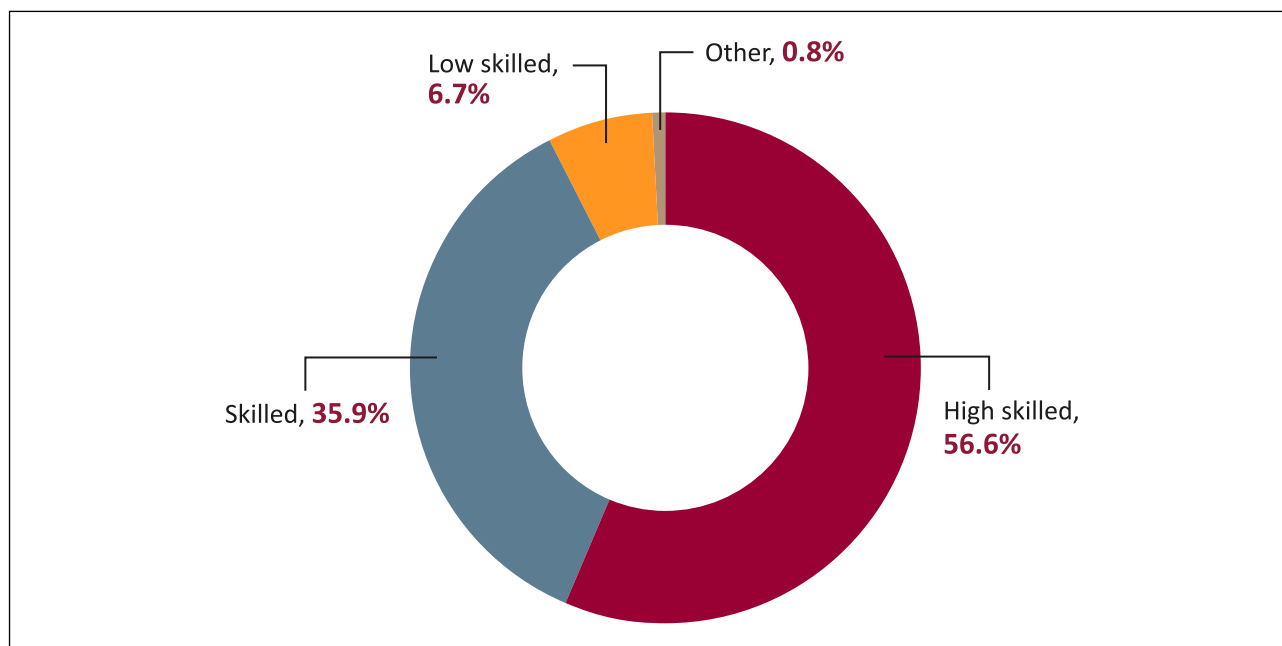
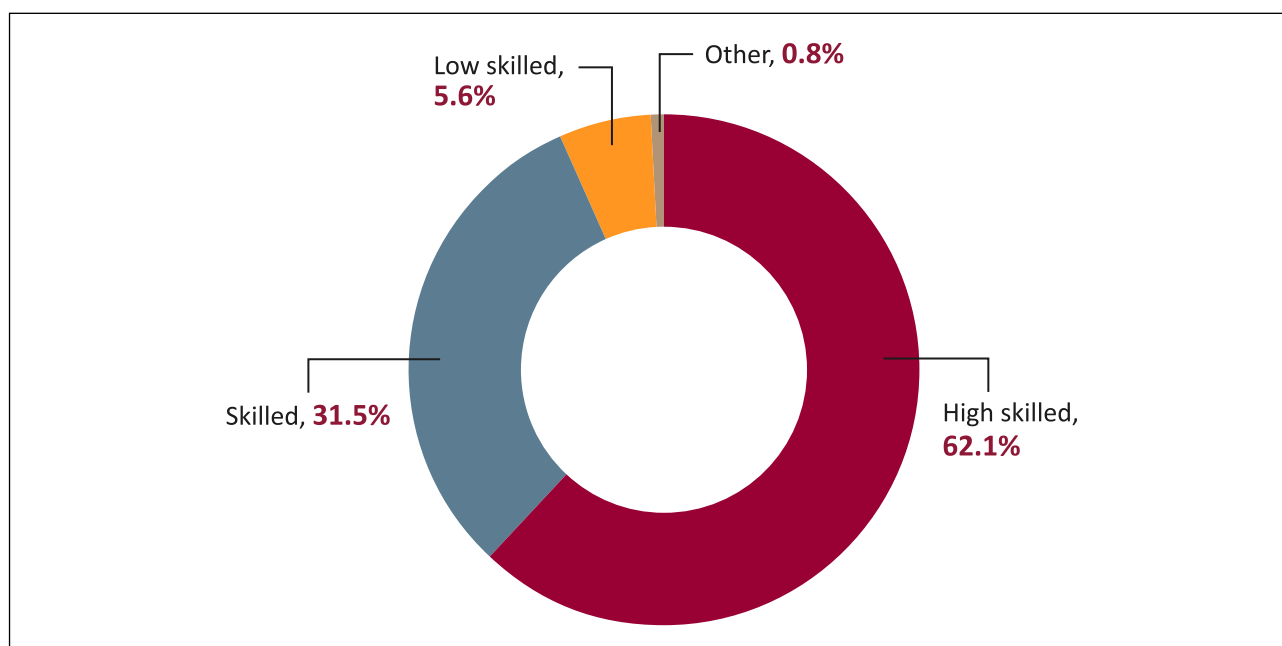


Figure 4.10b: Distribution of respondents' occupation now (%)



Note: Figure 4.10a was calculated from a sample of 3,057 respondents, while figure 4.10b was calculated from a sample of 1,994 respondents.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

In examining the skills distribution of those individuals who became self-employed after COVID-19, Figure 4.10c shows that most of the newcomers among this group were in skilled or high-skilled occupations in 2019. A similar skills distribution was seen among those who remained self-employed after COVID-19, as shown in Figure 4.10d.

Figure 4.10c: Occupations (in 2019) distribution of newcomer self-employed after COVID-19 (%)

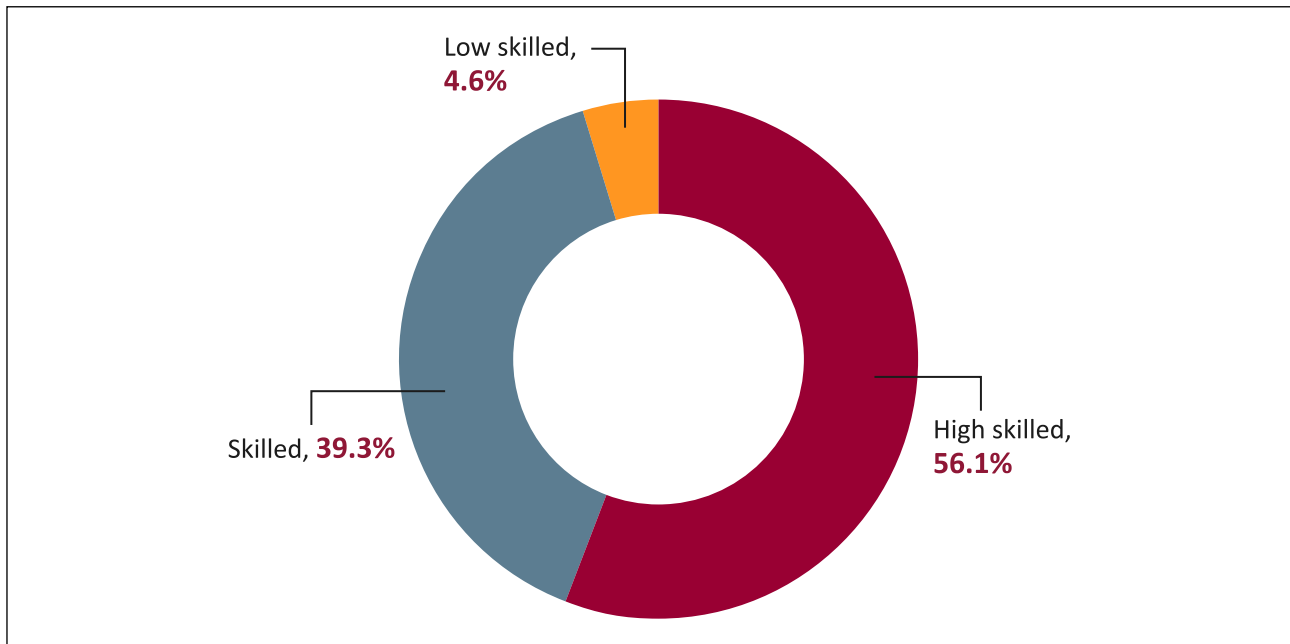
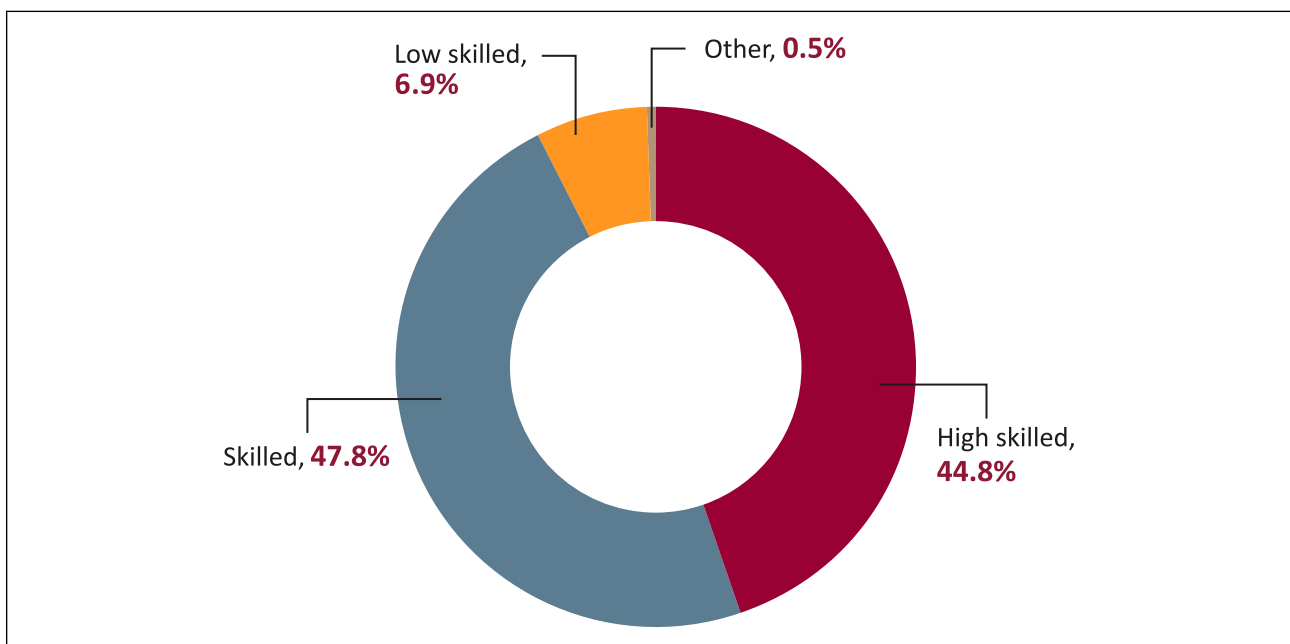


Figure 4.10d: Occupations (in 2019) distribution of those who remained self-employed after COVID-19 (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals (Figure 4.10c and 10d).

In comparing the occupational skill level in 2019 to those at the time of the survey ("now") across countries, Figure 4.11 shows that while overall employment levels had declined, this seemed to affect highly skilled positions less, as seen by the overall distribution of surveyed workers becoming increasingly skewed towards the high skilled. However, it is likely that the overall skill composition of those in work increased simply because less-skilled workers were more likely to have lost their jobs.⁵

Semi-skilled workers appear to be the group most likely to have affected, given the change in the relative share accounted for by this group of workers. Although the impact on unskilled workers remains unclear because of the lack of observations in most countries, where data was available, the share of unskilled workers reveals a sharp downward trend from the start of COVID-19 until the time of the survey.

Figure 4.11: Occupational skill level before and after COVID-19 (% in employment)

Country	Year	High skilled	Skilled	Low skilled
Cameroon (*)	In 2019	66.7%	33.3%	-
	Now	71.4%	17.9%	7.1%
	Difference	↑ 4.7%	↓ -15.4%	7.1%
Ethiopia (*)	In 2019	50.0%	41.7%	6.3%
	Now	57.1%	40.0%	2.9%
	Difference	↑ 7.1%	↓ -1.7%	↓ -3.4%
Ghana	In 2019	43.2%	47.3%	8.9%
	Now	44.3%	46.9%	8.9%
	Difference	↑ 1.1%	↓ -0.4%	→ 0.0%
Kenya (*)	In 2019	70.8%	25.1%	2.9%
	Now	66.2%	29.2%	3.9%
	Difference	↓ -4.6%	↑ 4.1%	↑ 1.0%
Namibia (*)	In 2019	50.0%	41.7%	5.0%
	Now	52.3%	36.9%	6.2%
	Difference	↑ 2.3%	↓ -4.8%	↑ 1.2%
Nigeria	In 2019	59.8%	30.4%	9.4%
	Now	59.9%	29.2%	10.4%
	Difference	↑ 0.1%	↓ -1.2%	↑ 1.0%
South Africa	In 2019	63.3%	30.2%	5.7%
	Now	61.9%	32.9%	4.3%
	Difference	↓ -1.4%	↑ 2.7%	↓ -1.4%
Uganda	In 2019	71.5%	22.8%	5.2%
	Now	78.3%	17.8%	3.2%
	Difference	↑ 6.8%	↓ -5.0%	↓ -2.0%
Zambia (*)	In 2019	71.8%	25.9%	1.2%
	Now	76.0%	21.3%	1.6%
	Difference	↑ 4.2%	↓ -4.6%	↑ 0.4%

(*): Low number of observations in low skilled occupations.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

⁵ High skilled workers include managers; professionals; and technician occupations. Skilled workers include clerical support worker; services and sales workers; craft and related trade worker; skilled agricultural, forestry, and fishery worker; plant and machine operators and assemblers. Low skilled workers include elementary occupations.

Sectoral distribution of employment and self-employment before and after COVID-19

As revealed in Figure 4.12, which shows the distribution of the jobs across sectors, it appears that the service sector was relatively resilient in the face of the pandemic. However, it is the direction of change here rather than the scale of the change that is noteworthy: indeed, it seems that the fact that the service sector in every country increased the share of overall employment was as a result of a higher rate of job loss in the agriculture and industry sectors.

As the survey in Ethiopia was designed to focus on different sectors, the findings for this country are shown separately in Figure 4.13. They illustrate that the share of workers in the hotel and tour operator sector as well as the poultry sector slightly declined, in contrast to those in the edible oils sector, who were actually better off after the pandemic compared to other sectors in the country. The share of workers in the fruits and vegetables and floriculture sectors remained the same as before the pandemic.

Figure 4.12: Sector distribution of workers before and after COVID-19 (% in employment)

Country	Year	Agriculture	Industry	Services	Other
Cameroon	In 2019	18.2%	4.5% (*)	68.2%	9.1%
	Now	14.3%	-	78.6%	7.1%
	Difference	↓ -3.9%	4.5%	↑ 10.4%	↓ -2.0%
Ghana	In 2019	29.7%	15.3%	50.7%	4.2%
	Now	30.8%	16.0%	46.2%	7.1%
	Difference	↑ 1.1%	↑ 0.7%	↓ -4.5%	↑ 2.9%
Kenya	In 2019	9.2%	8.2%	75.8%	6.8%
	Now	5.1%	13.4%	75.2%	6.4%
	Difference	↓ -4.1%	↑ 5.2%	↓ -0.6%	↓ -0.4%
Namibia	In 2019	5.4%	42.2%	42.2%	10.2%
	Now	4.5%	34.8%	51.5%	9.1%
	Difference	↓ -0.9%	↓ -7.4%	↑ 9.3%	↓ -1.1%
Nigeria	In 2019	6.3%	10.8%	71.6%	11.3%
	Now	2.8%	13.6%	76.2%	7.5%
	Difference	↓ -3.5%	↑ 2.8%	↑ 4.6%	↓ -3.8%
South Africa	In 2019	0.9% (*)	17.5%	64.4%	17.2%
	Now	0.9% (*)	20.3%	66.2%	12.6%
	Difference	→ 0.0%	↑ 2.8%	↑ 1.8%	↓ -4.6%
Uganda	In 2019	4.9%	24.4%	50.5%	20.2%
	Now	4.9%	21.9%	54.9%	18.2%
	Difference	→ 0.0%	↓ -2.5%	↑ 4.4%	↓ -2.0%
Zambia	In 2019	7.5%	9.7%	68.2%	14.6%
	Now	4.6%	10.4%	73.0%	12.0%
	Difference	↓ -2.9%	↑ 0.7%	↑ 4.8%	↓ -2.6%

Note: In Ethiopia, surveyed sectors were different than in other countries (Figure 4.13).

(*): Too few observations.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

**Figure 4.13: Sector distribution of workers before and after COVID-19 in Ethiopia
(% in employment)**

Sector	In 2019	Now	Difference
Hotel & Tour operator	47.1%	45.9%	↓ -1.2%
Edible oils	12.6%	15.3%	↑ 2.7%
Poultry	2.5%	1.0%	↓ -1.5%
Fruits and vegetables	15.1%	15.3%	↑ 0.2%
Floriculture	22.7%	22.4%	↓ -0.3%

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals

4.3. Summary: Who bore the costs?

Despite being indicative and not necessarily representative of the populations of employers nor the labour force in each country, as already noted, clear findings have nevertheless emerged:

- Employment contracted across most sectors and occupations (overall, in the sample, by around one one-fifth);
- The movement of workers among employment groups may lead to changes in the overall skills of each group;
- Employment in sectors such as hospitality, tourism, and private education services was especially hard-hit in many cases, however, service sector employment held up relatively well compared with the other sectors overall;
- Those people who are relatively highly skilled fared better than those working in less-skilled jobs.

While nearly every sector and occupation were adversely affected by the pandemic, it is clear that low-skilled individuals, often working in agriculture or industry (but not exclusively), bore the economic brunt. Though it is unclear what has happened to those who have lost their jobs, the suspicion is that the informal sector has absorbed them. Last but not least, the pandemic also prolonged the unemployment situation of those who were unemployed before the pandemic, making it harder for them to return to the labour market.

5. Job changes

5.1. Pandemic-related job changes in the workplace

Planned post-pandemic recruitment

Although the data collected from employers, as reported in the previous section, indicates that they reduced the numbers in their employment as a result of the pandemic, Figure 5.1 demonstrates that more than 60% expected to rehire people once the economy began to pick up again.

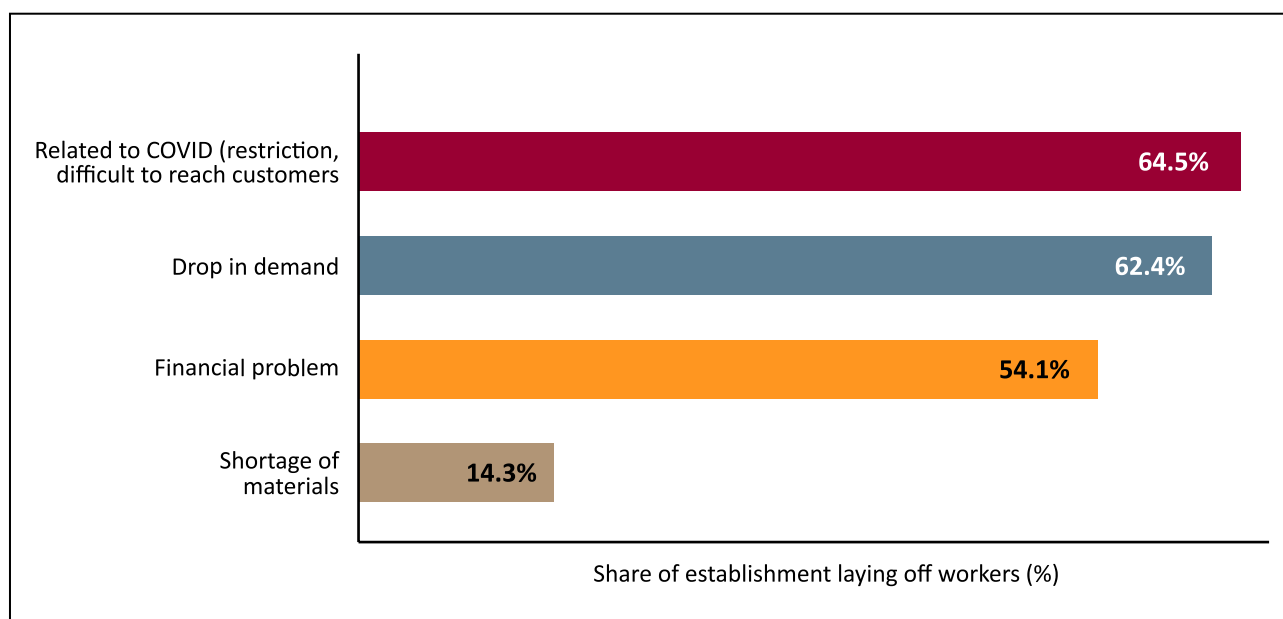
Figure 5.1: Share of establishments who reduced workers since the start of COVID-19 and who plan to rehire workers when recovery begins (%)

Country	Reduction since the end of 2019	Increase when recovery begins
Cameroon	60.0%	94.0%
Ethiopia	15.8%	20.0%
Ghana	51.5%	86.0%
Kenya	66.1%	82.0%
Namibia	65.0%	74.0%
Nigeria	33.3%	62.0%
South Africa	28.0%	67.0%
Uganda	61.1%	80.0%
Zambia	40.0%	64.0%

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure 5.2, which describes the reasons for laying off workers using cross-country pooled data, shows that in most cases this was related to the pandemic, including working restrictions. The other main reasons were a drop in demand and financial problems – although it is possible that these were also as a result of the pandemic, albeit indirectly .

Figure 5.2: Reasons for laying off workers (%)

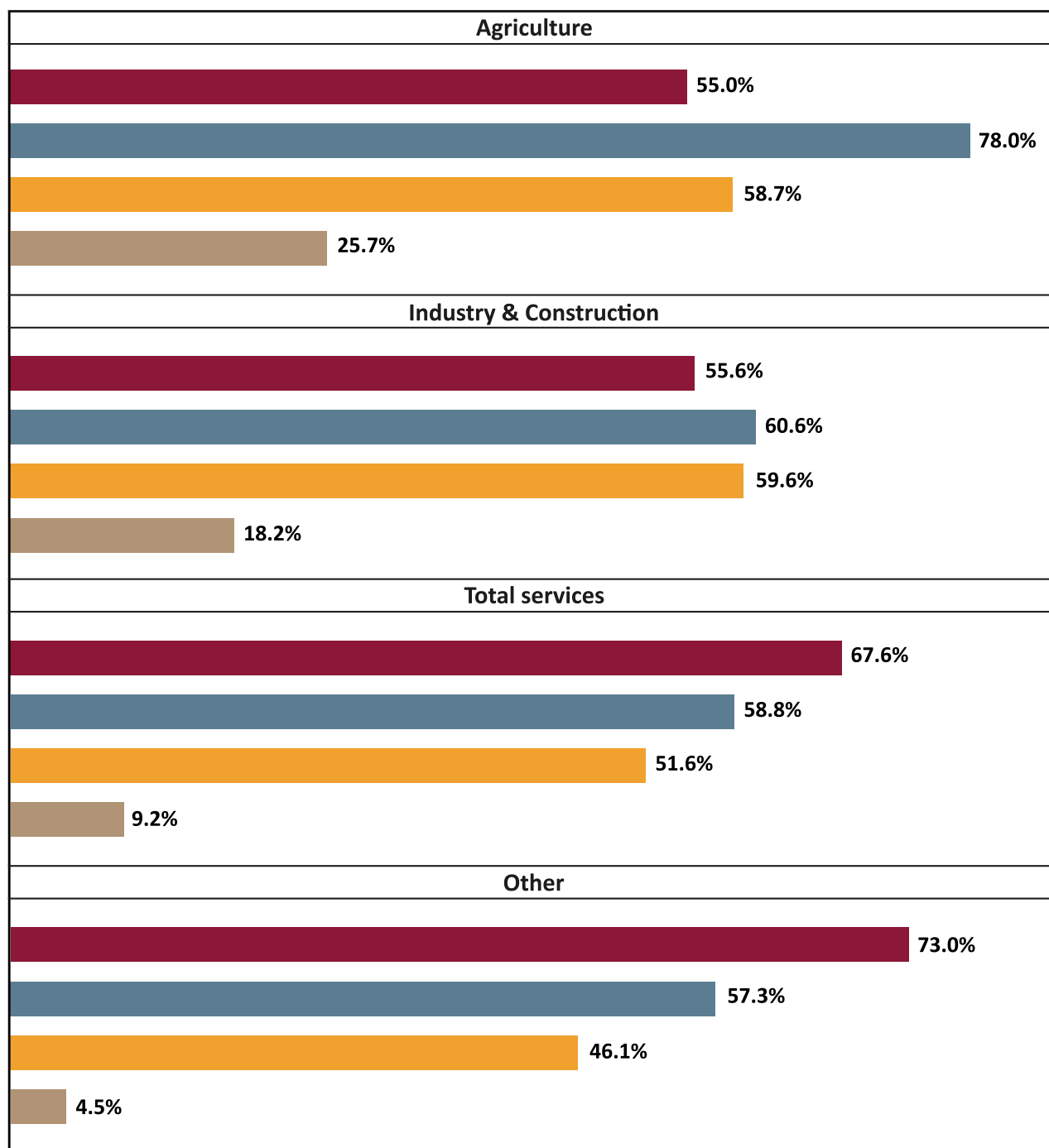


Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers (pooled data).

There is much variation in the reasons for laying off workers across sectors and by employer size. Figure 5.3 shows that a larger share of agricultural establishments had to decrease their workforce because of a drop in demand compared with the other sectors, whereas COVID-related restrictions had a larger negative impact on the services sector and a shortage of materials seems to have been a greater challenge for agricultural establishments.

Figure 5.4 shows that the drop in demand was the main cause of the reduction in the number of workers especially in smaller firms (with less than 25 workers), and to a lesser extent, in medium-sized firms (with between 25 and 250 workers). In comparison, in bigger firms with more than 250 workers, COVID-related restrictions were the main reason for reducing the number of employees.

Figure 5.3: Main reason for reducing the number of workers by sector (%)

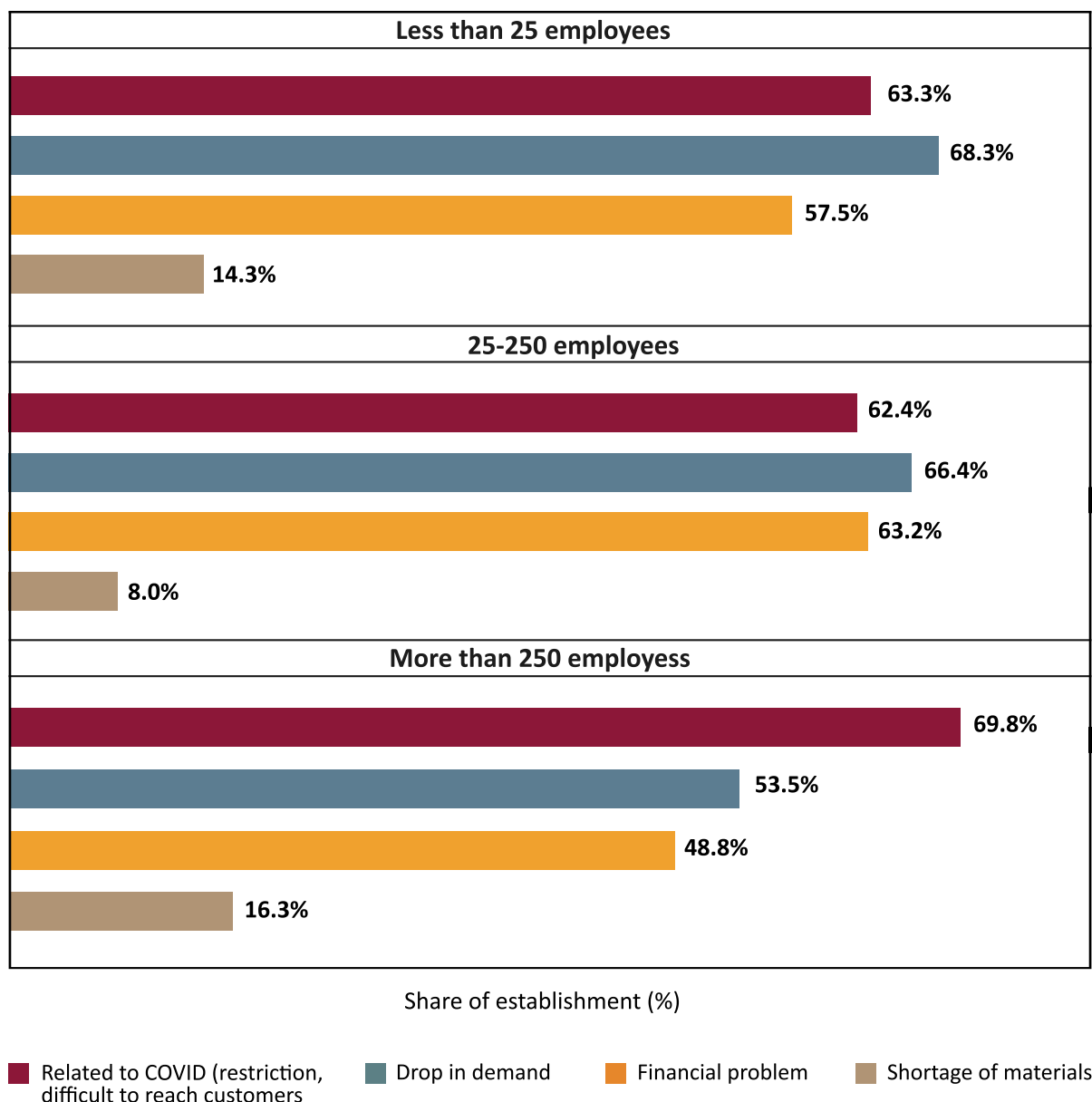


Share of establishment (%)

■ Related to COVID (restriction, difficult to reach customers)
 ■ Drop in demand
 ■ Financial problem
 ■ Shortage of materials

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employer.

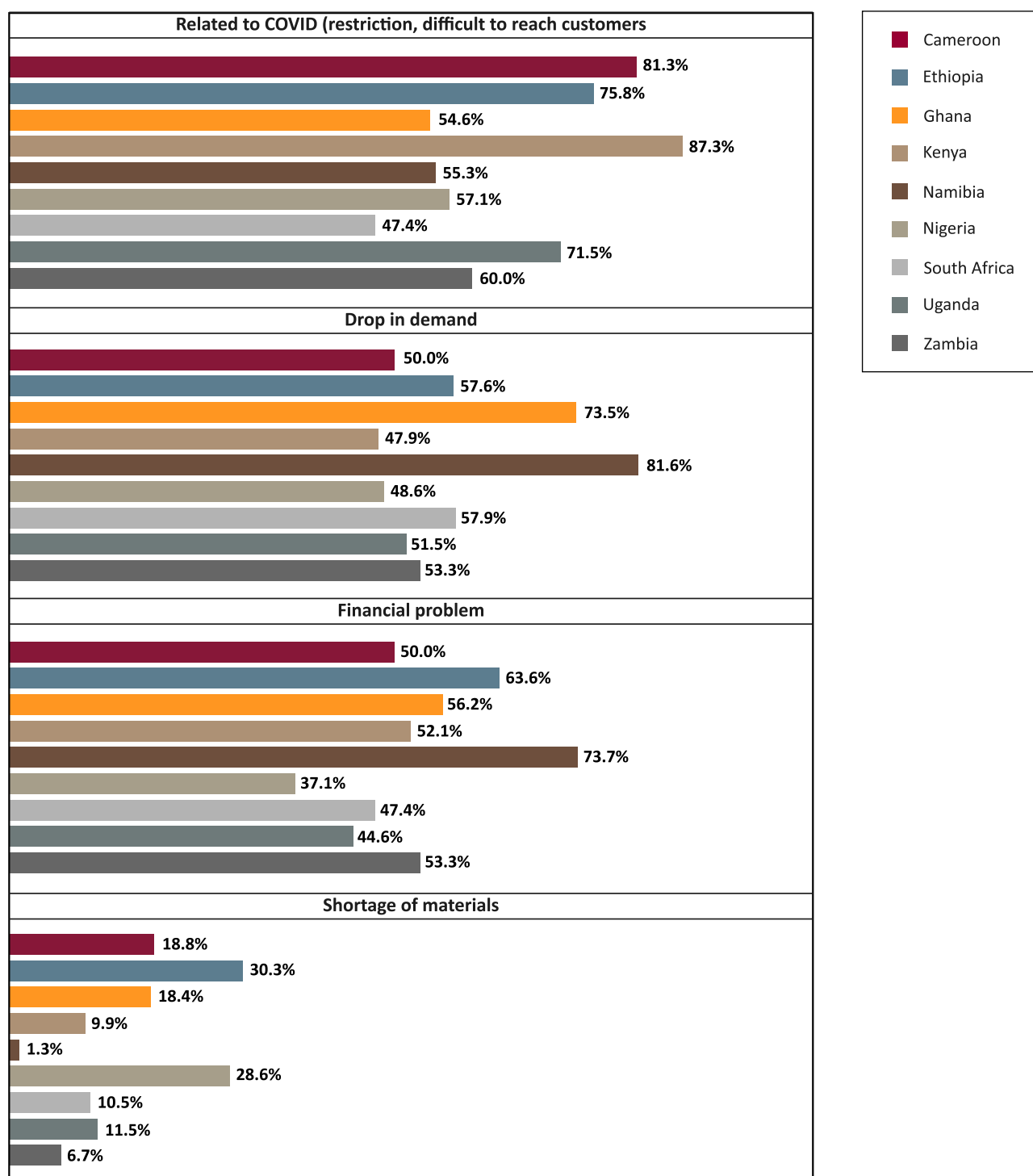
Figure 5.4: Main reason for reducing the number of workers by company size (in 2019) (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure 5.5, which shows the reasons employers gave for reducing the number of workers by country, reveals that COVID-restrictions had a stronger impact on the labour market in Cameroon, Ethiopia, and Kenya. In Ghana and Namibia, the drop in demand had a more pronounced negative impact on establishment employment levels, while in Uganda, a higher share of establishments reduced the number of workers because of financial problems.

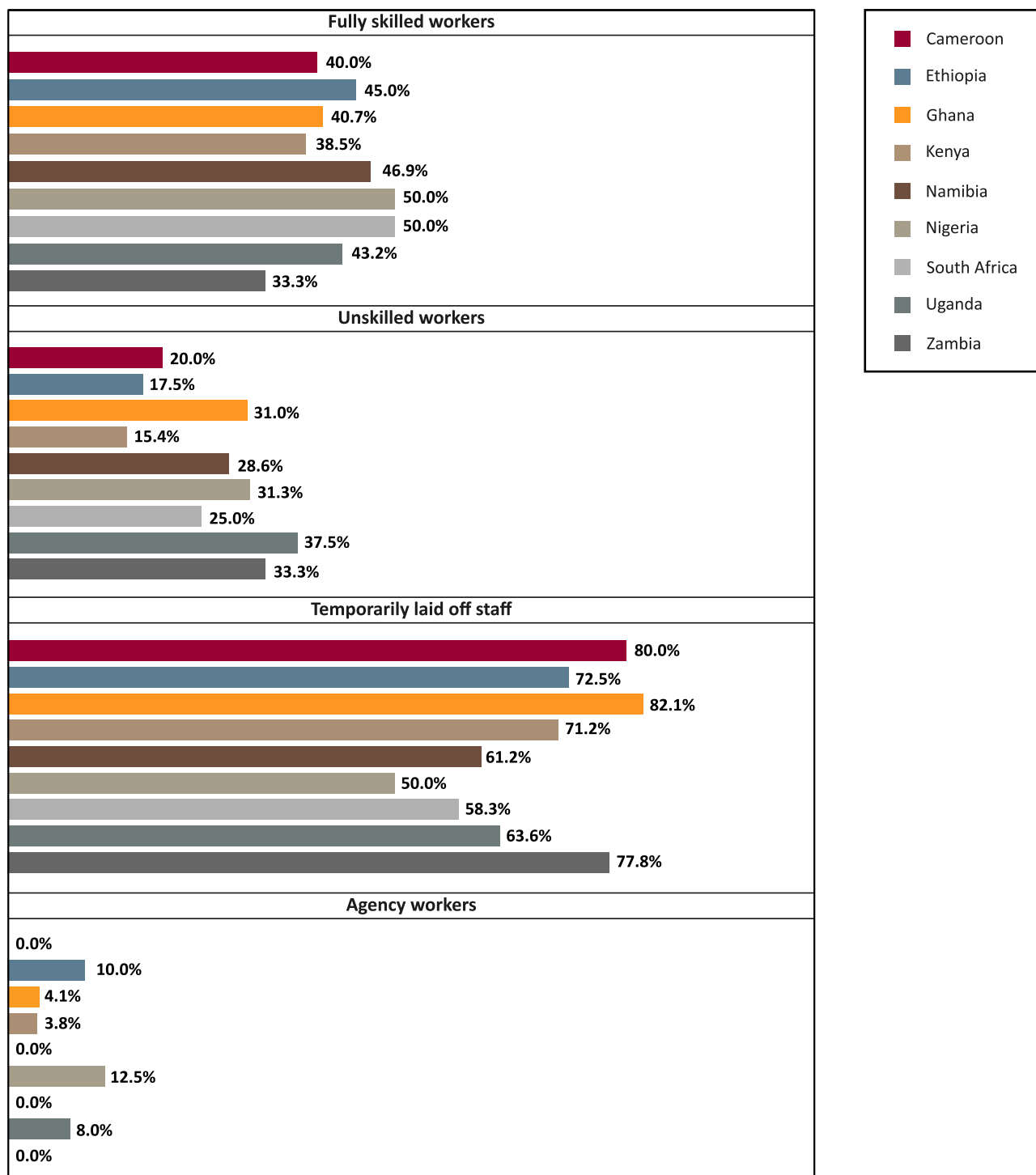
Figure 5.5: Main reason for reducing the number of workers (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

As shown in Figure 5.6, employers revealed they would be looking to take on fully skilled employees rather than relatively unskilled workers and then train them in response to the question about how they planned to fill new job openings. In addition, most employers said they would look to take on those employees who they had laid off during the pandemic, followed by recruiting new fully skilled workers.

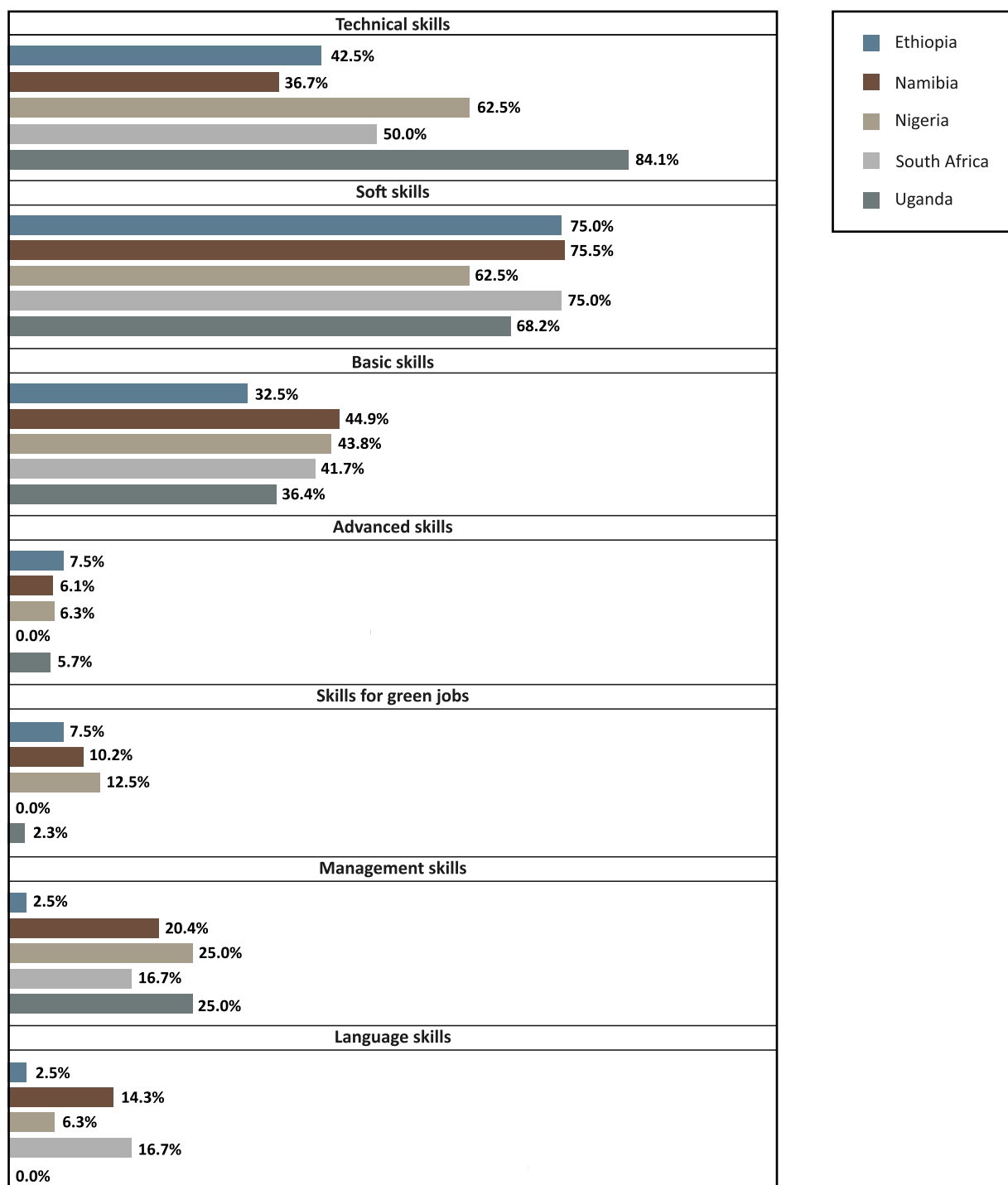
Figure 5.6: Strategies to recruit/fill jobs when recovery begins (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Once the pandemic recedes and employers begin to recruit new staff, there will be particular skill sets and qualities they will be looking for, as described in Figures 5.7a and 5.7b. Overall, it appears that technical skills (required by the employer) and soft skills were most important, followed by basic skills (such as literacy and basic numeracy). In addition, where it applied, knowledge of products and organisational operations played a major role (notably in Cameroon, Ghana, Kenya, and Zambia).

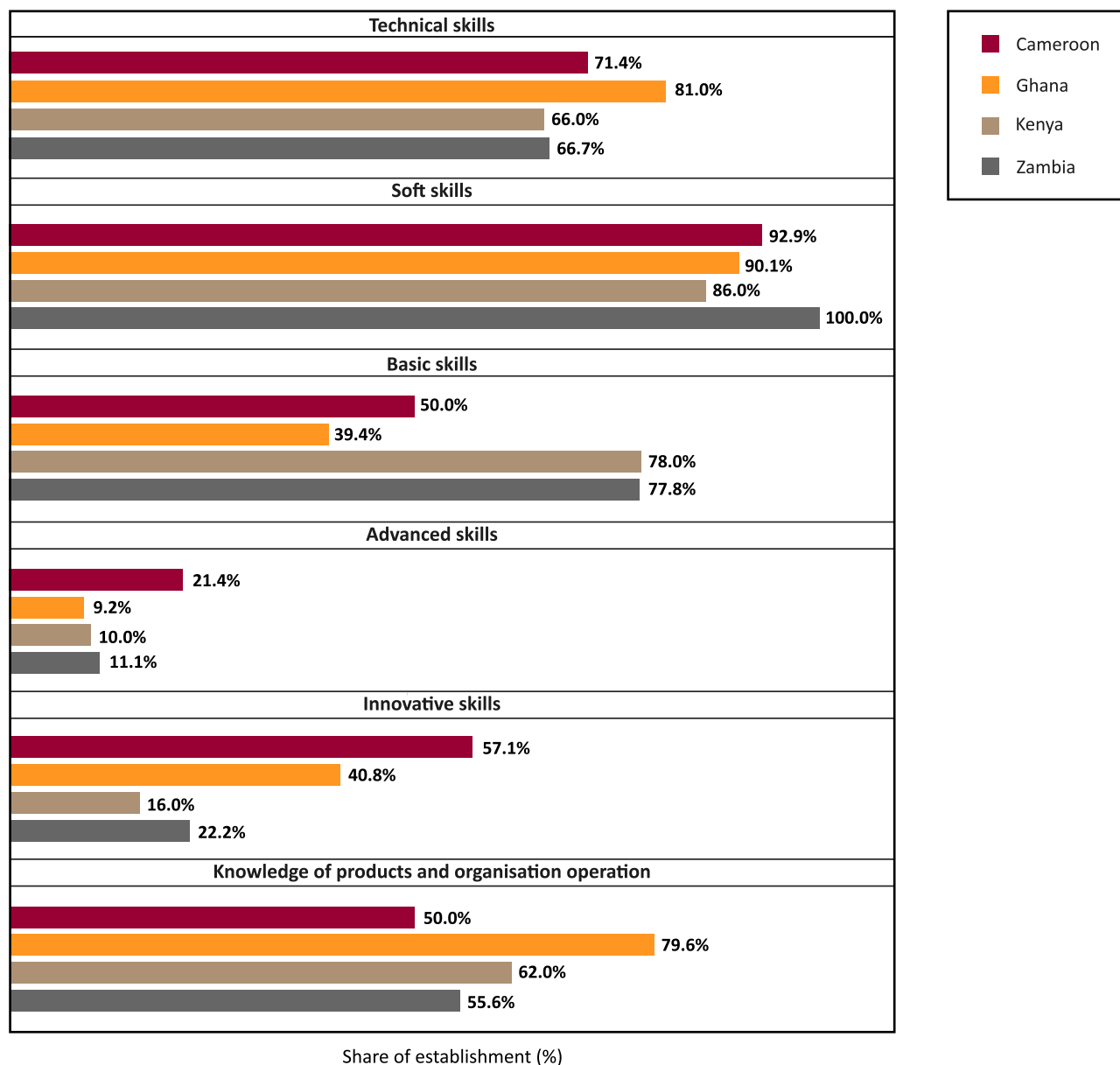
Figure 5.7a: Key skills and qualities needed in new workers (%)



Note: See Figure 5.7b for the different categories that apply in Cameroon, Ghana, Kenya, and Zambia.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure 5.7b: Key skills and qualities needed in new workers (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

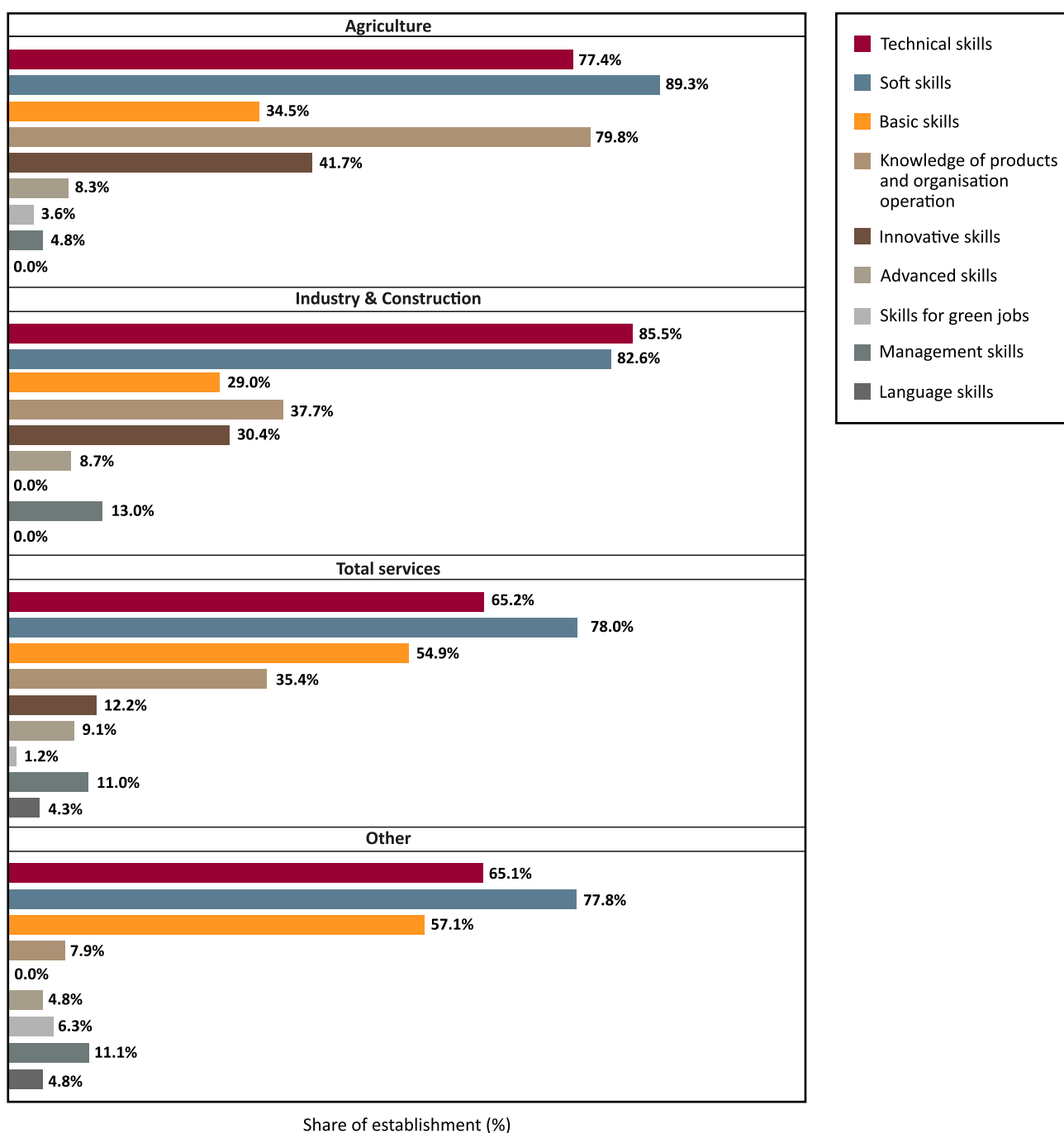
Although technical and soft skills were highlighted as most important overall, different sectors and company sizes may prioritise different skill sets and qualities when looking for from new recruits, as demonstrated in Figures 5.8 and 5.9, respectively. For instance, Figure 5.8 shows that soft skills are most commonly mentioned, followed by technical skills, except in the industry and construction

sector, where most establishments answered they are looking for technical skills. Knowledge of products and organisational operations was a skill or attribute required by a relatively large share of the establishments in agriculture (about 80%), whereas more than half of the establishments in the services and "other" sectors were looking for basic skills.

By firm size, as shown in Figure 5.9, technical skills were commonly cited by larger establishments (more than 250 workers), followed by soft skills and basic skills, in contrast to both medium and small firms, where soft skills were more commonly cited, followed by technical and basic skills.

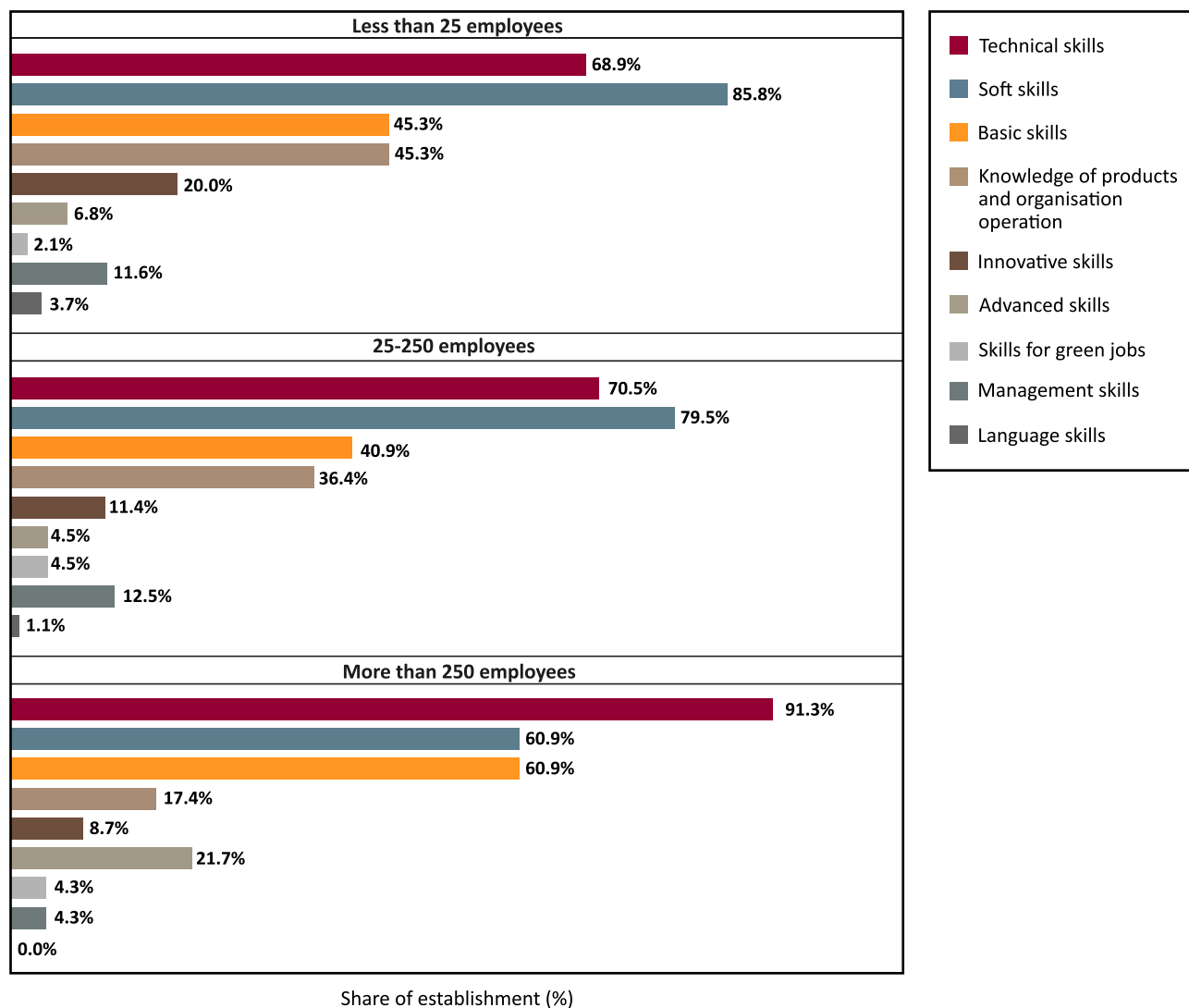
Moreover, larger companies were more likely to require workers with advanced skills, whereas small- and medium-sized firms tended to prioritise knowledge of product and organisational operations more, along with innovative skills.

Figure 5.8: Key skills and qualities needed in new workers by sector (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure 5.9: Key skills and qualities needed in new workers by company size (%)

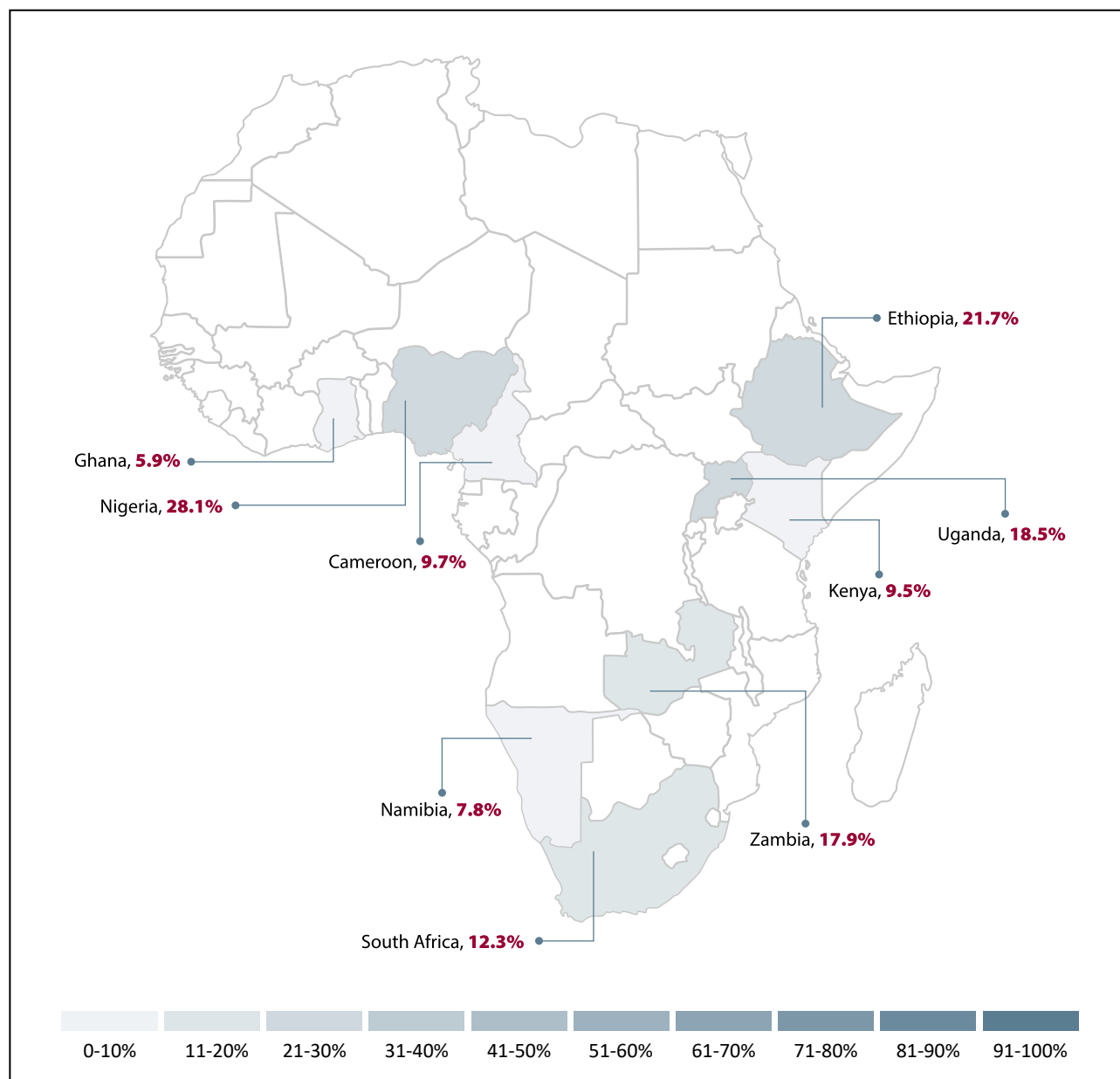


Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Job gains during the pandemic

Despite the overall reduction of employment as a result of the pandemic, the surveys of employers show that it also led to people being recruited into new jobs to help manage or mitigate its impact on their businesses. For example, as Figure 5.10 shows, in Nigeria and Ethiopia, there was a higher share of COVID-related recruitment relative to the other countries.

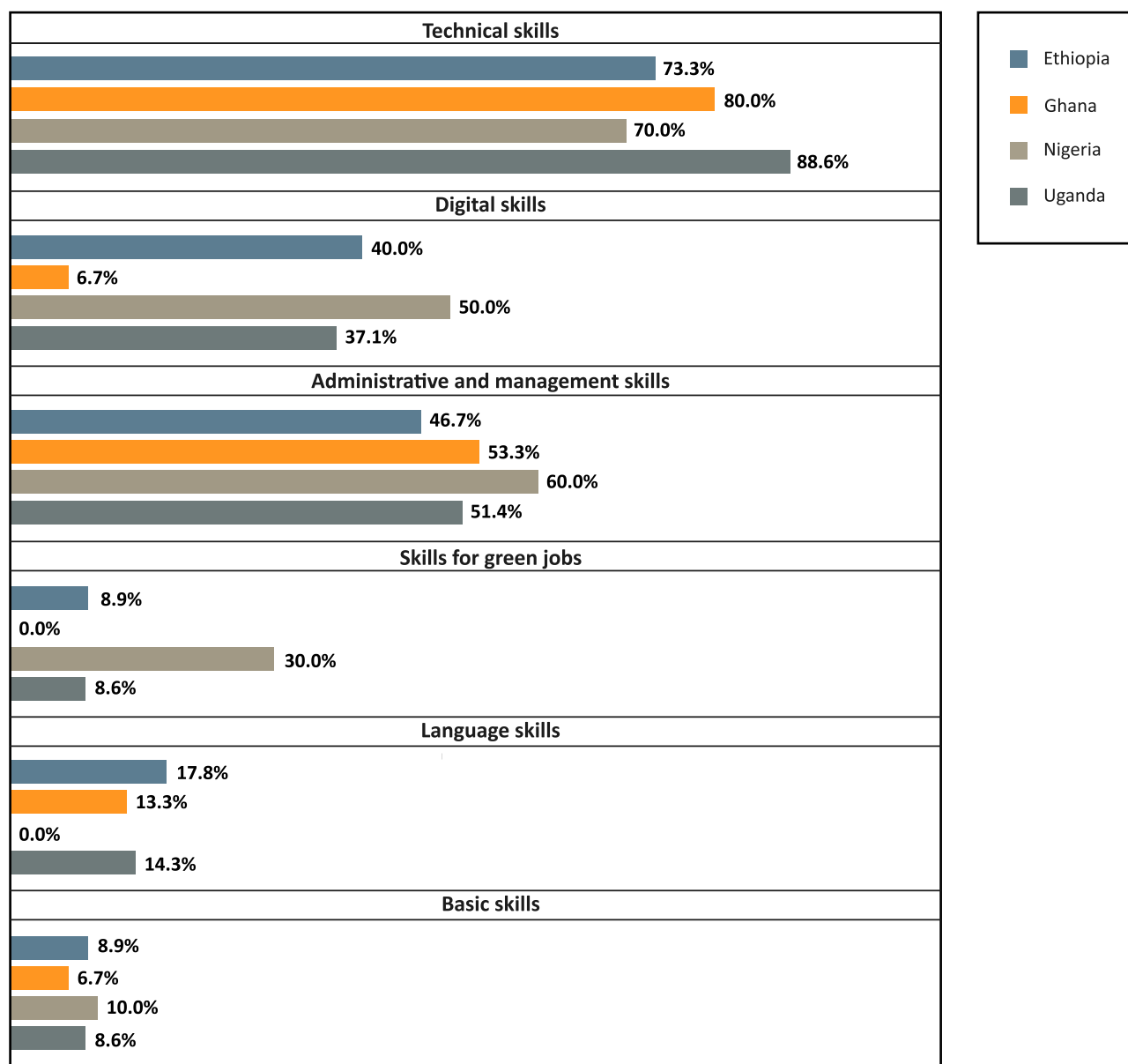
Figure 5.10: Share of establishments that increased employees in some jobs since the start of the pandemic (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure 5.11 reflects on the consequent training needs for these new workers, as reported by more than 70% of employers. The main training need cited was technical skills, followed by training in administrative and management skills. This information is, however, only available for Ethiopia, Ghana, Nigeria, and Uganda, as the number of observations was too low in the other countries.

Figure 5.11: The share of establishment that reported training needs for new workers (%)



Note: Too few observations in Cameroon, Kenya, Namibia, South Africa, and Zambia.
Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

How employers responded to emerging skill needs in response to the pandemic

In general, as depicted in Figure 5.12, employers in Ethiopia, Namibia, Nigeria, and South Africa described their employees as being well prepared to deal with the pandemic, in contrast to employers in Cameroon, Ghana, Kenya, Uganda, and Zambia,

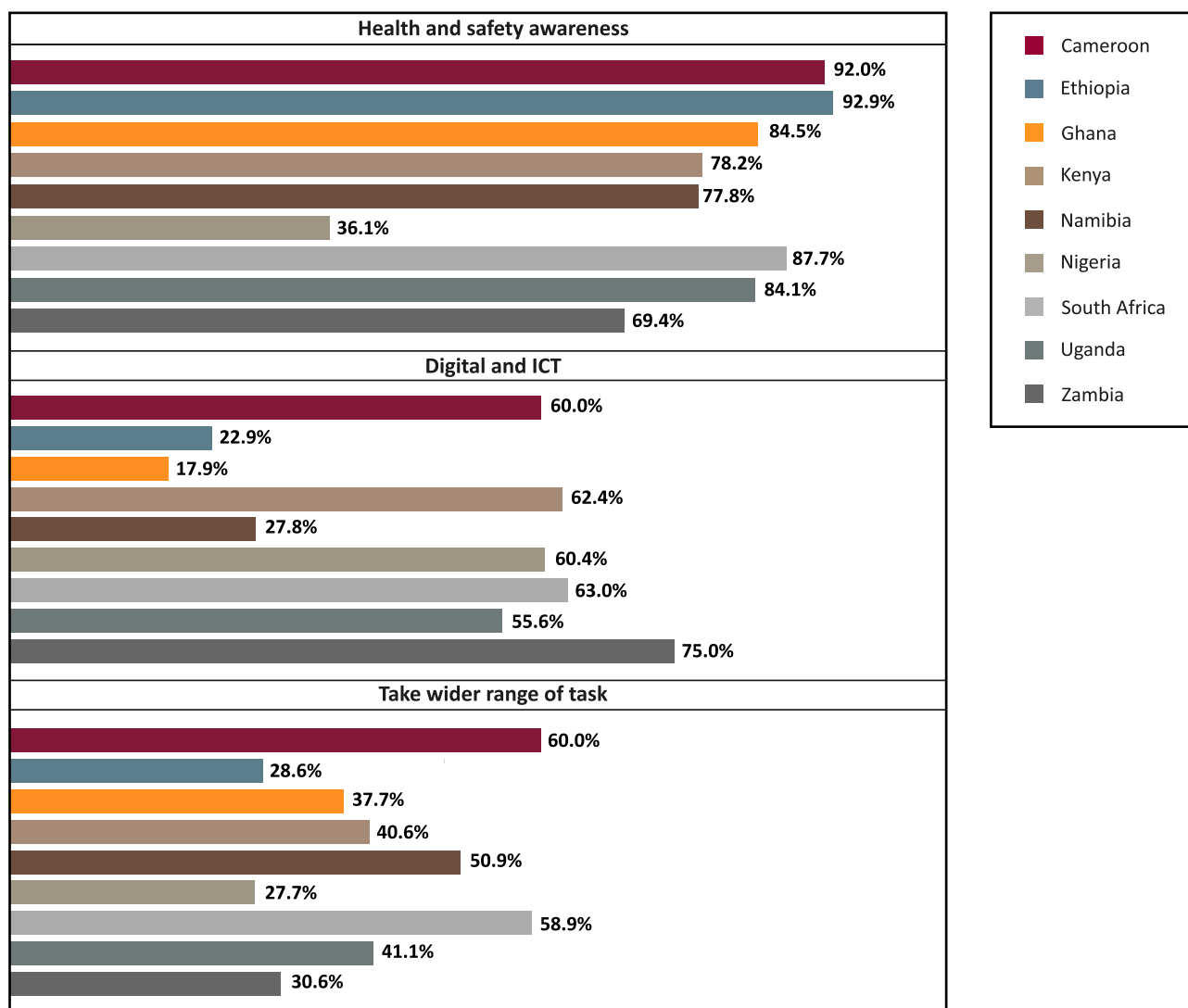
who were more likely to report that their employees were not well prepared to deal with changes during the crisis. In terms of the skills or capabilities they felt their employees needed to improve in responding to the pandemic, Figure 5.13 shows that health and safety was the main area cited by employers, followed by digital and ICT skills.

Figure 5.12: Share of establishments reporting that their employees were well prepared to deal with changes at work during COVID-19 (%)

Country	Well prepared	Not well prepared
Cameroon	6.1%	25.6%
Ethiopia	88.1%	11.9%
Ghana	25.2%	56.3%
Kenya	20.7%	34.6%
Namibia	41.0%	28.6%
Nigeria	55.0%	15.0%
South Africa	55.0%	11.0%
Uganda	22.3%	42.8%
Zambia	16.2%	39.7%

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

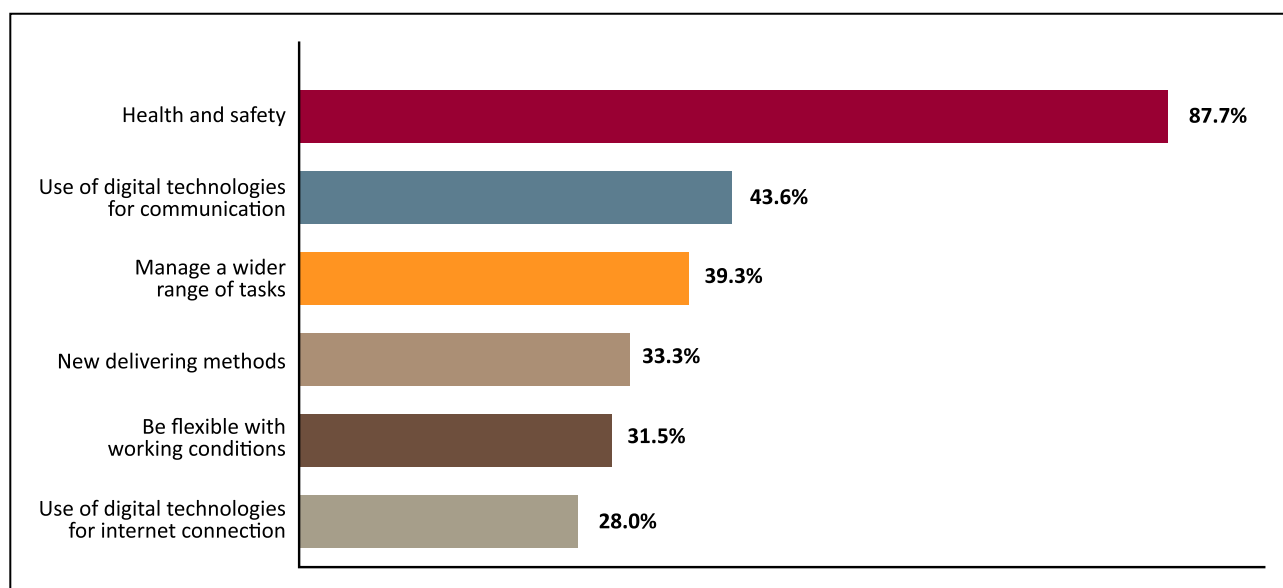
Figure 5.13: Share of establishments reporting that employees have had to improve their skills in order to do their jobs during COVID-19 (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

To cope with new working arrangements during the pandemic, most employers responding to the survey provided training to their employees. As Figure 5.14 shows, where this was the case, training was concentrated in health and safety and digital skills. The use of digital technologies for communication and internet connection were also prioritised.

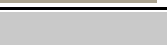
Figure 5.14: Training provision to employees to deal with new working arrangements during COVID-19 (%)



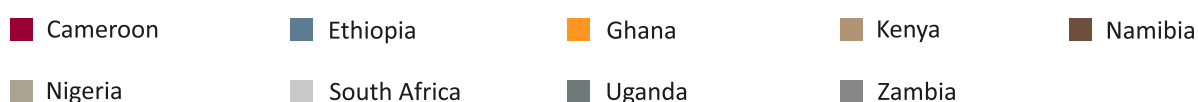
Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Where training was provided, employers' most preferred training method was internal training, followed by online training (see Figure 5.15), although there were variations across countries. For instance, internal training was most preferred by employers in South Africa, while external training was chosen the most in Ghana.

Figure 5.15: Share of establishment reporting specific measures to provide training to current employees (%)

External training	Internal training	Online training
 42.9%	 64.3%	 42.9%
 42.9%	 74.6%	 4.8%
 58.4%	 45.5%	 5.8%
 28.8%	 54.2%	 44.1%
 11.8%	 74.1%	 25.9%
 31.3%	 41.7%	 37.5%
 9.5%	 81.0%	 39.7%
 22.9%	 73.7%	 21.2%
 29.2%	 54.2%	 54.2%

In-person training	Technical help line	Staffs to other staffs
 21.4%	 14.3%	 35.7%
 31.7%	 31.7%	 42.9%
 23.4%	 3.2%	 9.7%
 28.8%	 20.3%	 30.5%
 48.2%	 3.5%	 36.5%
 35.4%	 10.4%	 31.3%
 36.5%	 12.7%	 36.5%
 30.7%	 10.1%	 33.5%
 50.0%	 16.7%	 29.2%



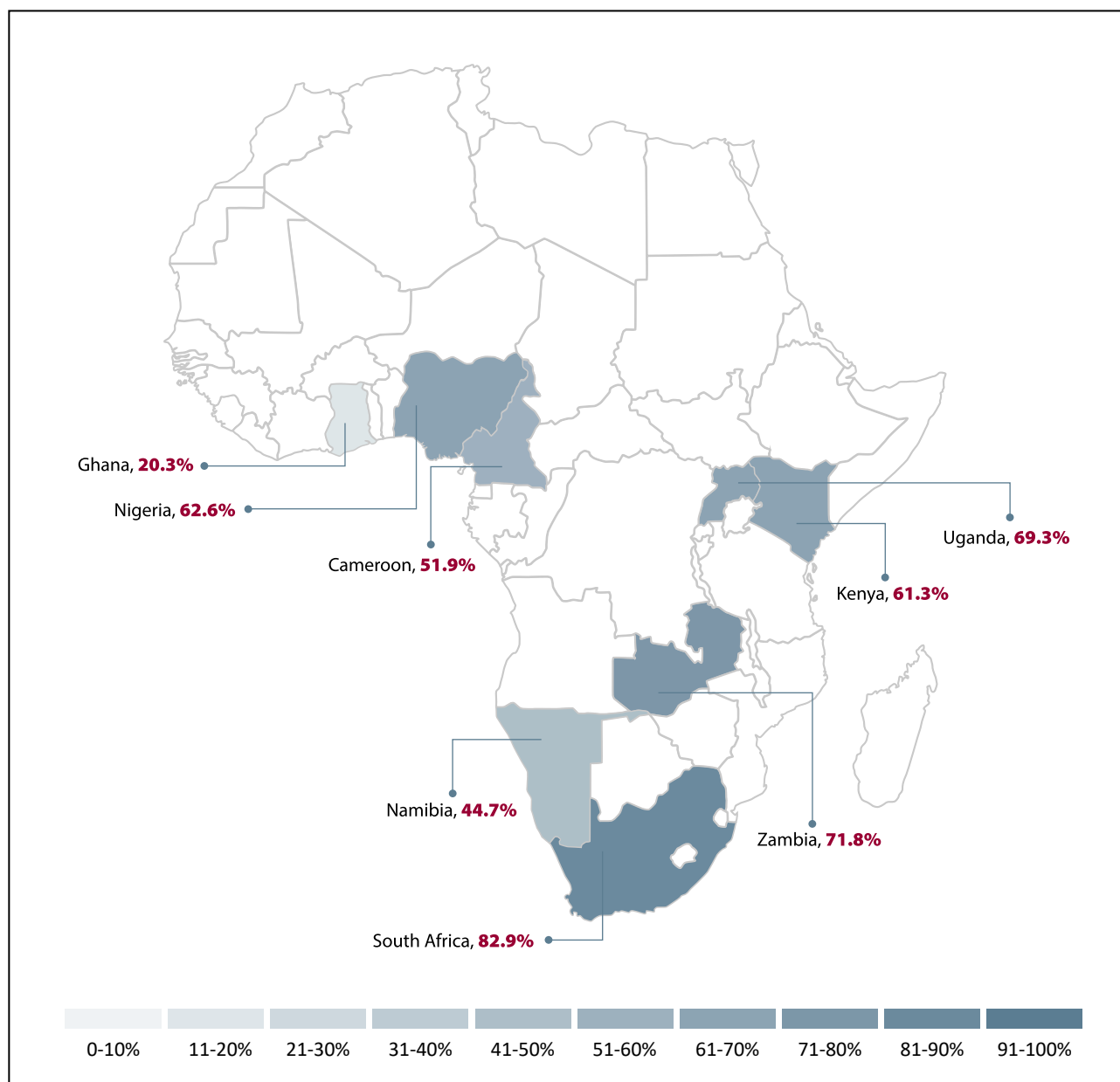
Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

New patterns of work in response to the pandemic: Working from home

Having employees work from home was one of the most important measures employers used in responding to the pandemic, as Figure 5.16 reveals. Where this was the case, 70% of employers reported that it was managers, professionals,

and technicians who had been working from home (see Figure 5.17), in contrast to those in unskilled elementary jobs, who were much less likely to be able to work from home than any other occupational group.

Figure 5.16: Share of establishments with employees working from home since the pandemic started (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure 5.17: Share of establishments reporting specific occupational groups working from home since the pandemic started (%)

Managers, professionals, technicians	Clerical, services, sales workers	Skilled manual workers and operators	Unskilled elementary jobs
 76.1%	 43.5%	 13.0%	 7.6%
 76.6%	 29.9%	 11.7%	 10.4%
 87.8%	 69.4%	 6.1%	 10.2%
 75.5%	 24.5%	 20.2%	 10.6%
 96.6%	 56.9%	 1.7%	 3.4%
 90.7%	 41.4%	 7.9%	 3.6%
 74.2%	 51.6%	 32.3%	 22.6%

Share of establishment (%)

 Ghana	 Kenya	 Namibia	 Nigeria	 South Africa	 Uganda	 Zambia
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Note: Not applicable for Ethiopia.

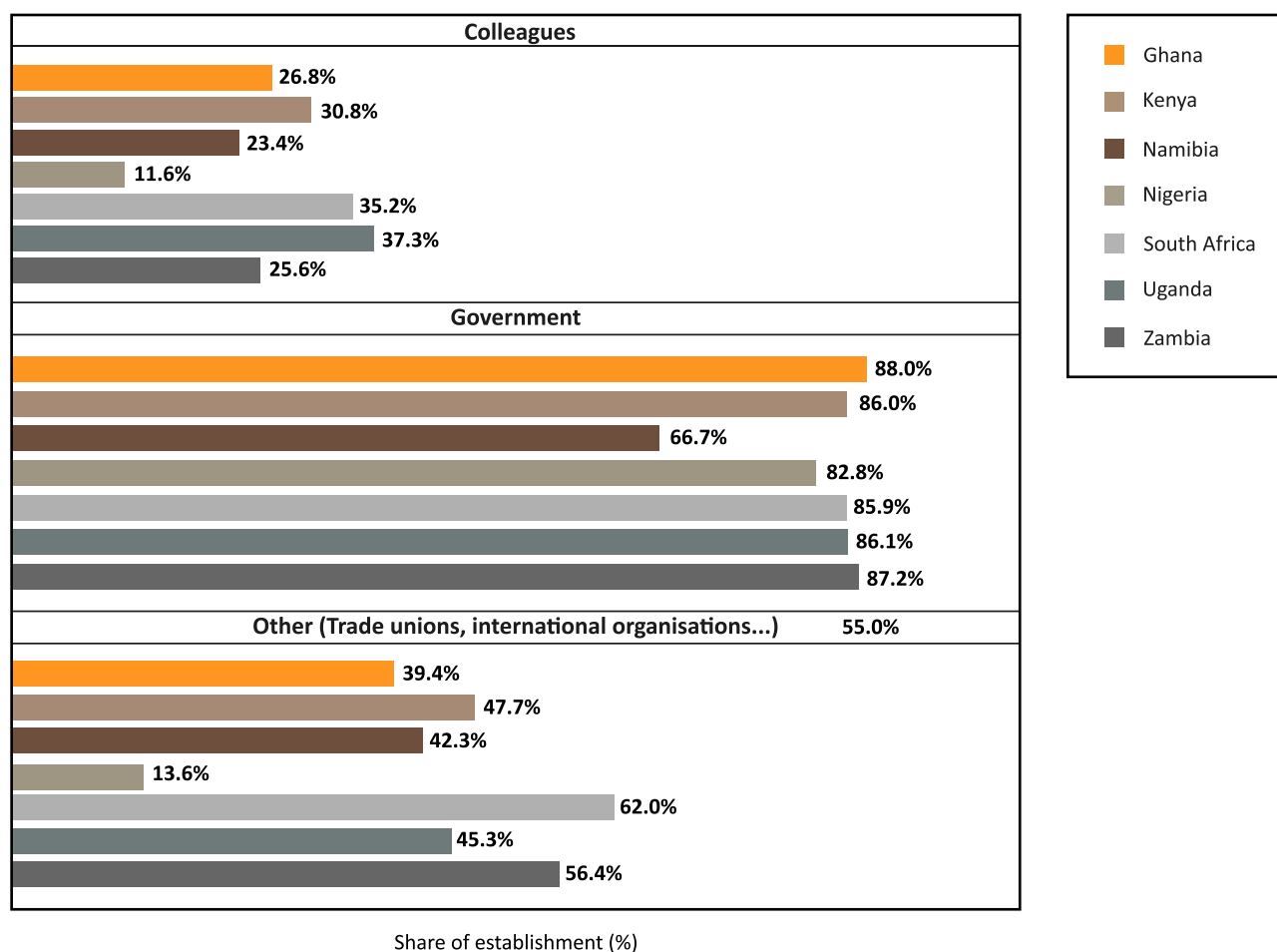
Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Provision of information to employers

Employers often needed specific information to make effective decisions on working safely during the pandemic. Figure 5.18 shows that in most countries, the government was the principal source

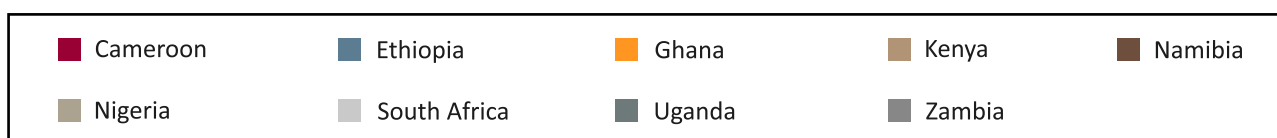
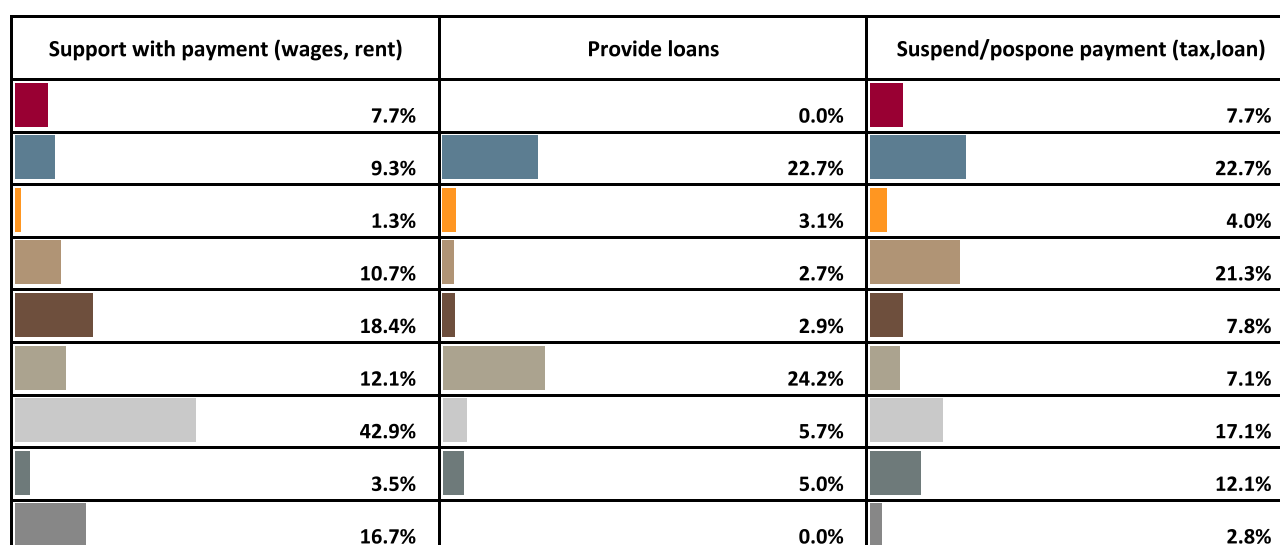
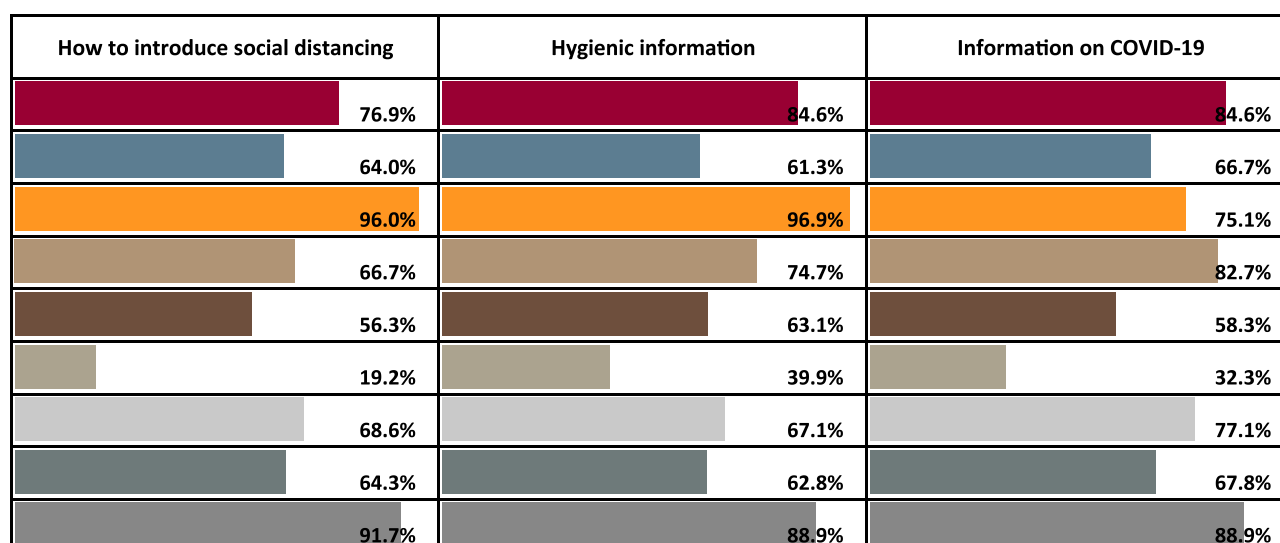
of information on dealing with and responding to COVID-19 in the workplace. In most cases, where information was received, it was related to health and safety issues, such as ensuring social distancing in the workplace (Figure 5.19).

Figure 5.18: Share of establishments reporting use of specific sources of information on COVID-19 and how businesses can respond to it (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

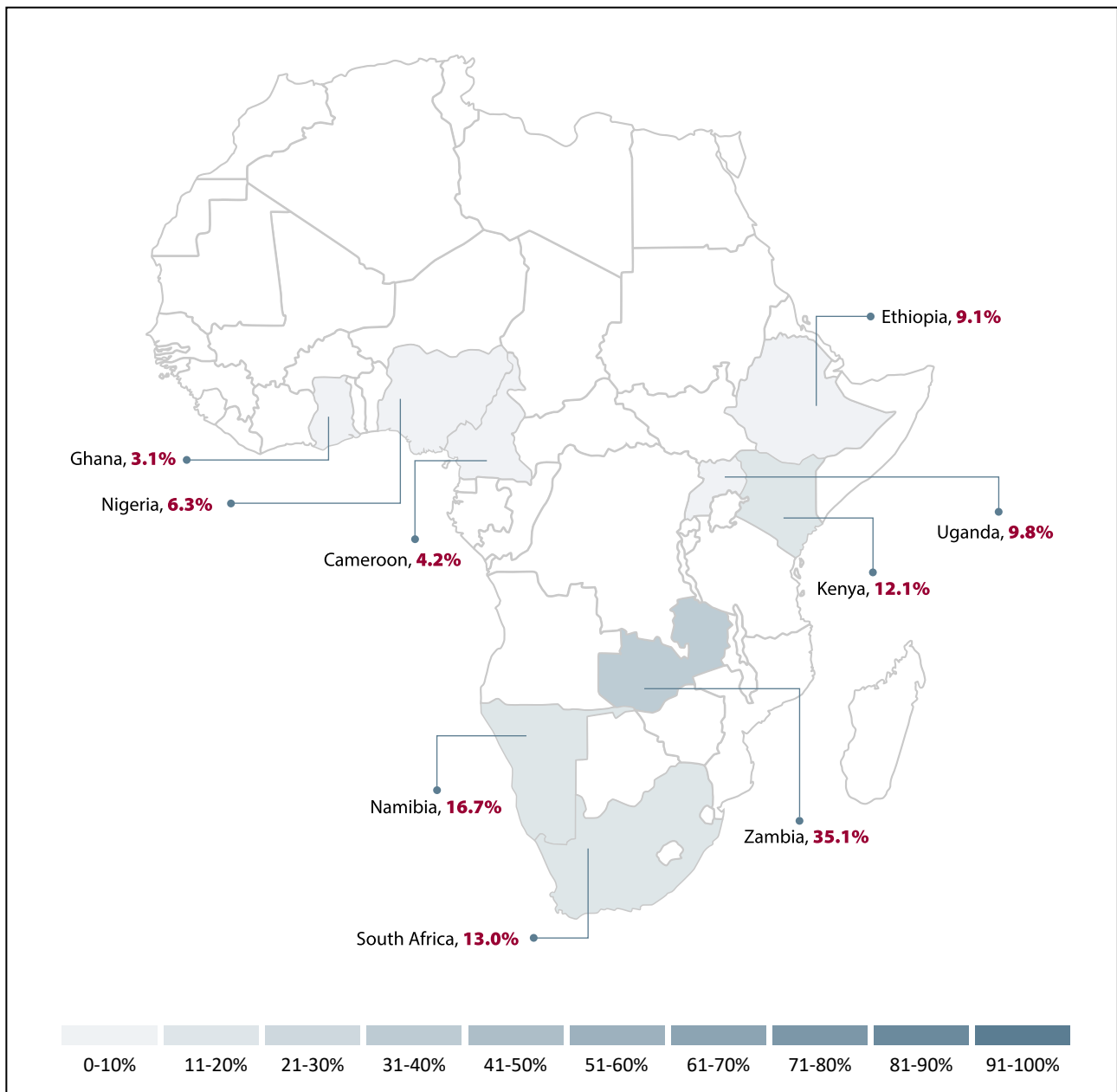
Figure 5.19: Share of establishments reporting specific types of information or assistance received from the government (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Besides information, employers may well have needed other kinds of support, such as financial assistance from the government, to respond to the pandemic. The incidence of an establishment receiving such support was highest in South Africa (35%) and lowest in Ghana (3%), as seen in Figure 5.20, however, if South Africa is excluded, the provision of financial assistance to employers was relatively limited.

Figure 5.20: Share of establishmentz that received financial assistance from the government (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

5.2. Individuals' experiences of dealing with COVID-19

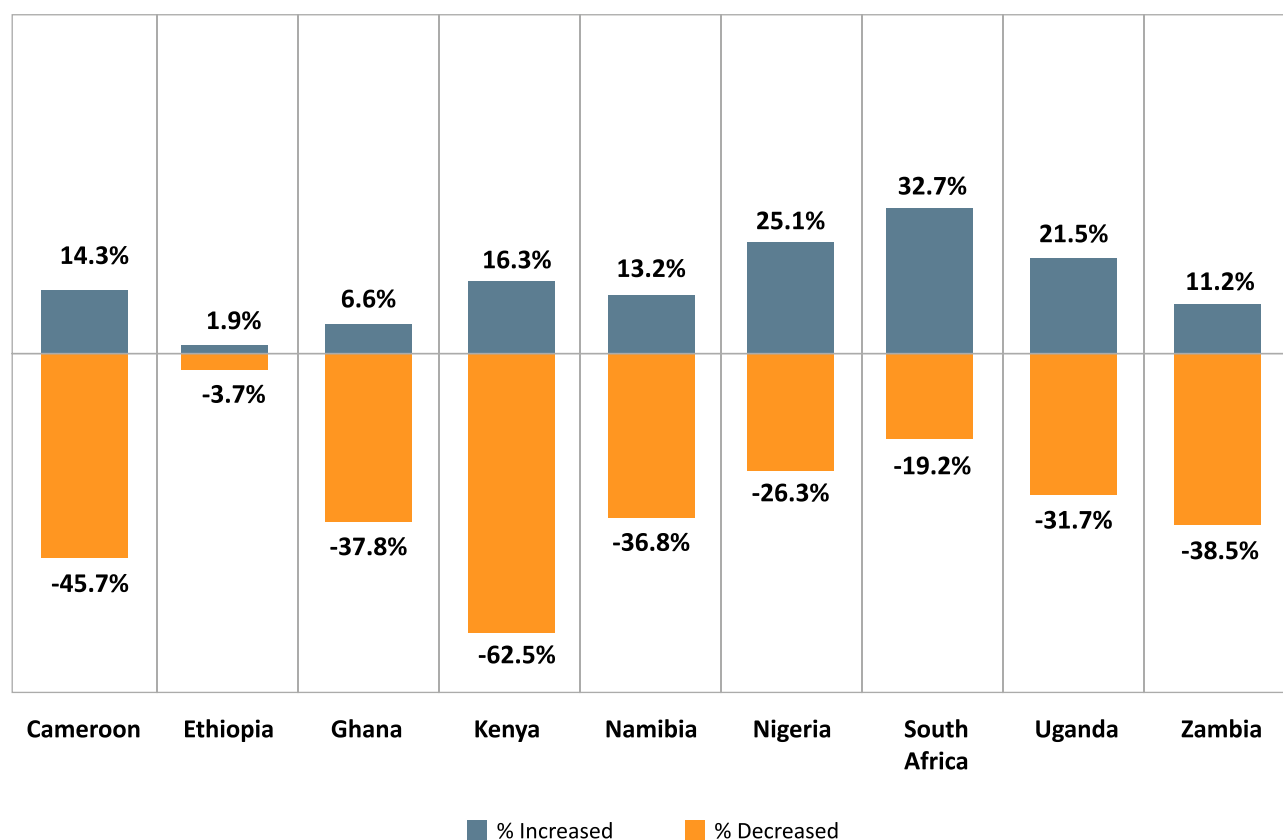
The previous section has provided indicative information on how employers responded to COVID-19. This section now looks at comparable information from the perspective of the individual.

Changes in hours of work and wages

For those who remained employed, a key impact of the pandemic was on their hours of work and the resulting impact of this on their income.

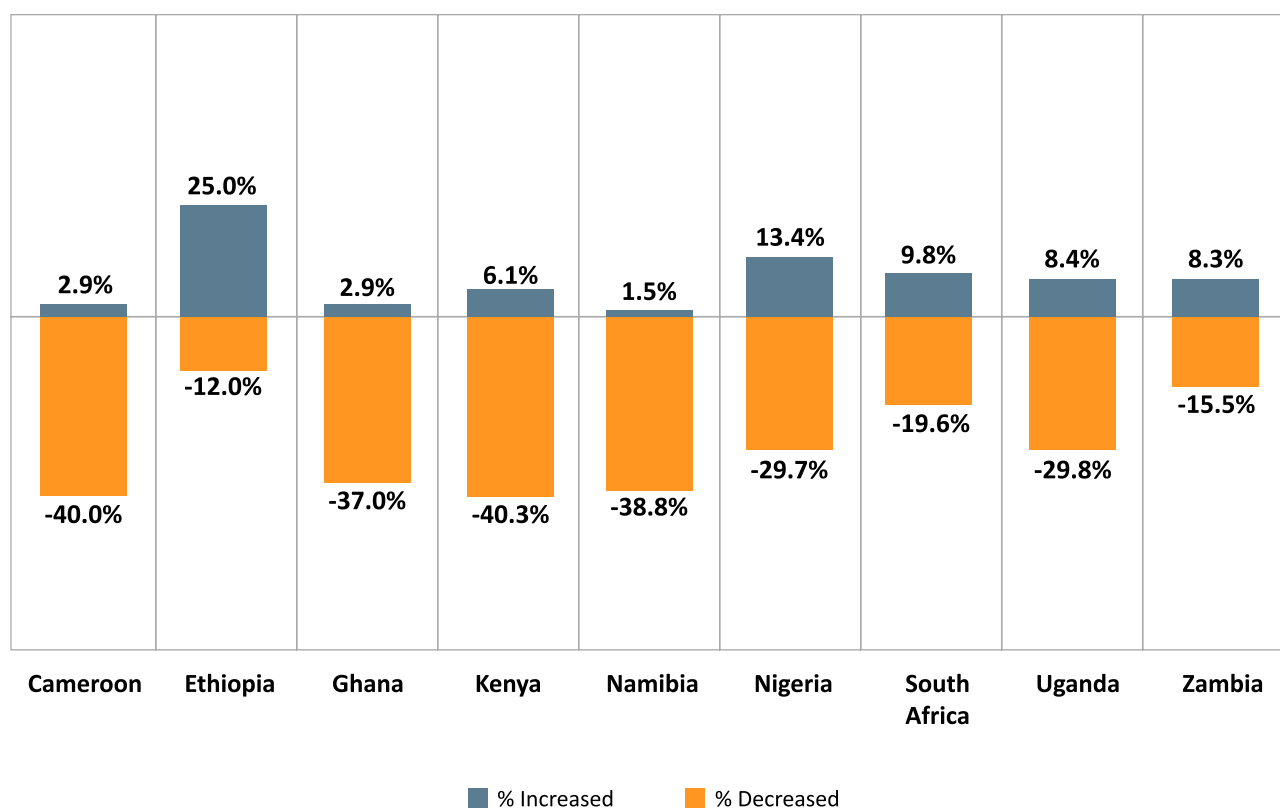
Indeed, although this varied by country, the overall finding across countries was that a substantial share of employees had their hours of work reduced, as illustrated in Figure 5.21. Associated with the reduced hours of work was a reduction in earnings (see Figure 5.22), which likewise, despite the variation across countries, affected many employees.

Figure 5.21: Share of employees who experienced changes in the number of hours worked since the start of the pandemic (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 5.22: Share of employee who experienced changes in salary since the start of the pandemic (%)

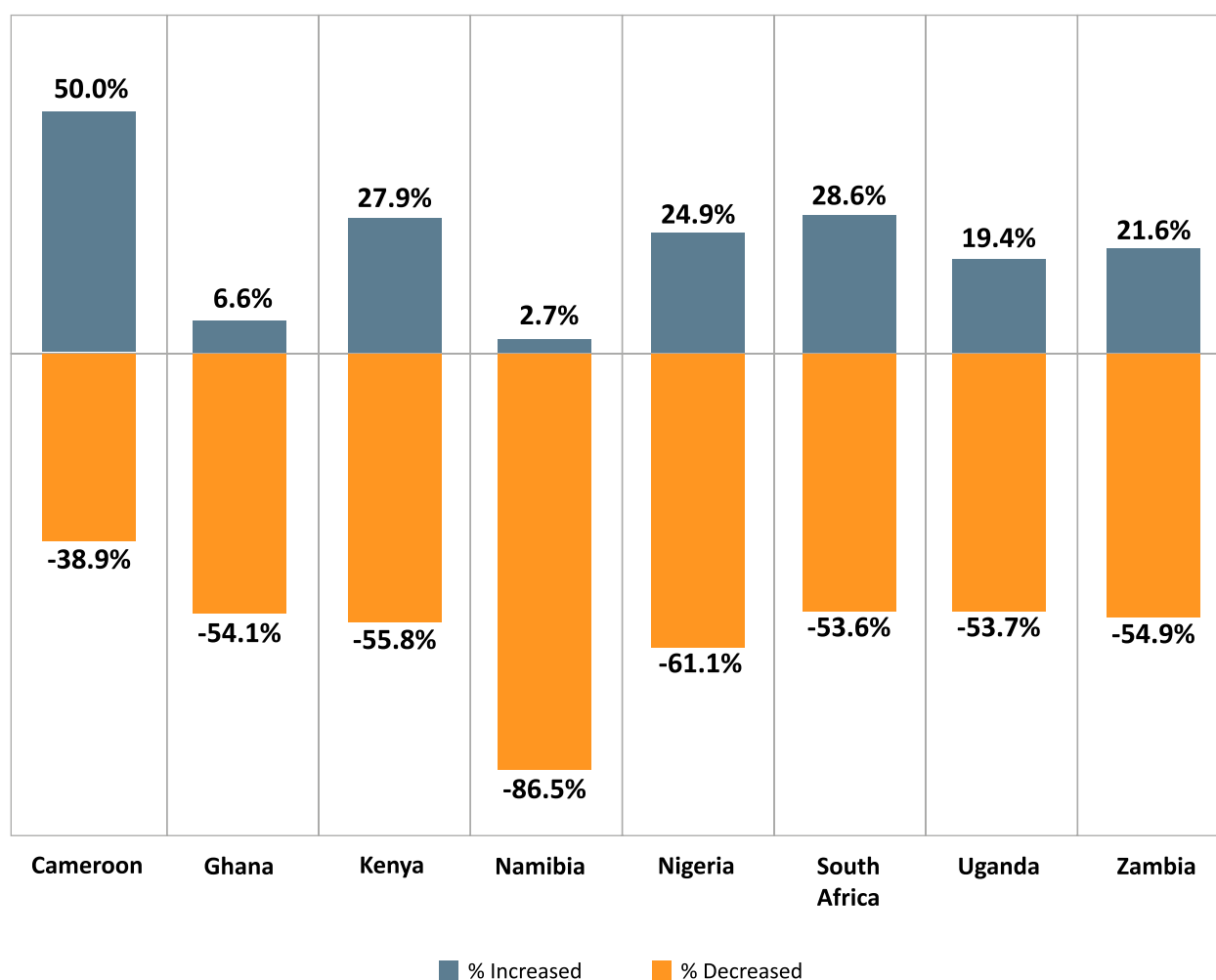


Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Similarly, self-employed people also reported working fewer hours (see Figure 5.23), in fact more than employed workers, and their earnings consequently fell in the majority of cases. Figure 5.24 shows that among those self-employed who experienced changes in income in the workplace,

more than 30% experienced the income change because of changes in the salary rate. In some countries, this share was much higher than in other countries, for example, in Kenya and Namibia, where it was above 80%.

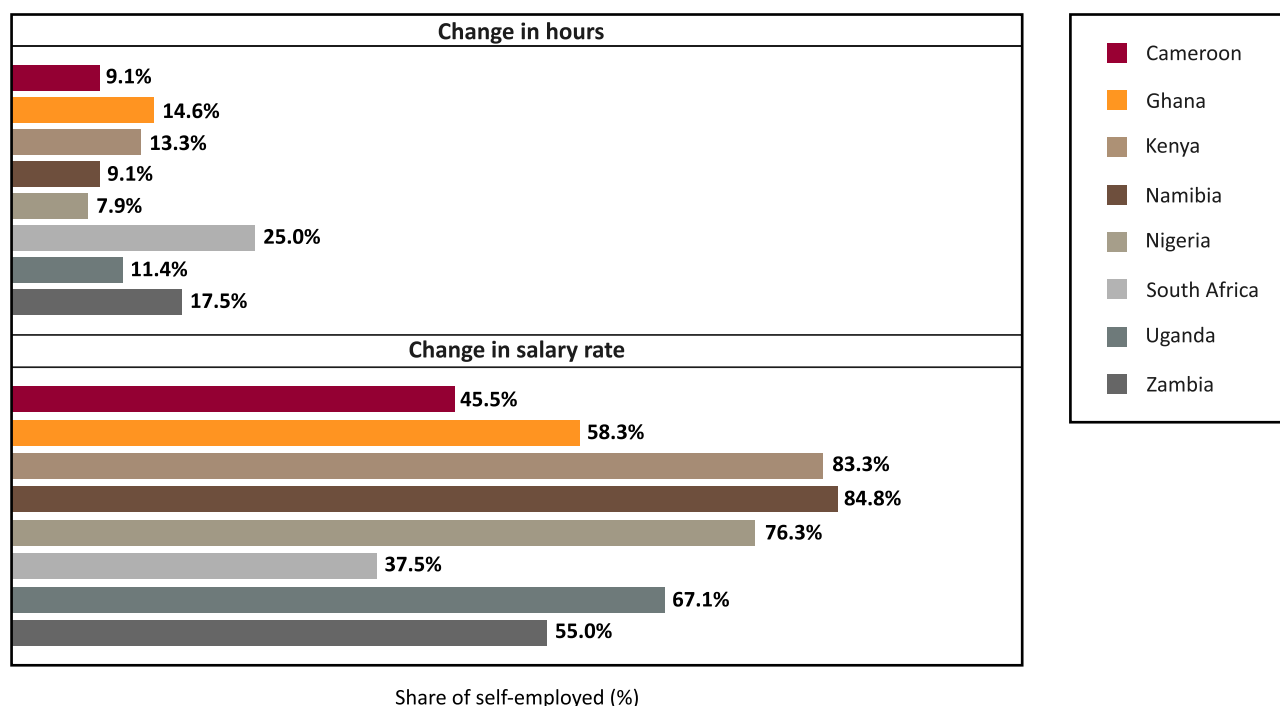
Figure 5.23: Share of self-employed people who experienced changes in their working hours since the start of the pandemic (%)



Note: No information for Ethiopia.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 5.24: Share of self-employed people who reported reasons for changes in income since the start of the pandemic (%)



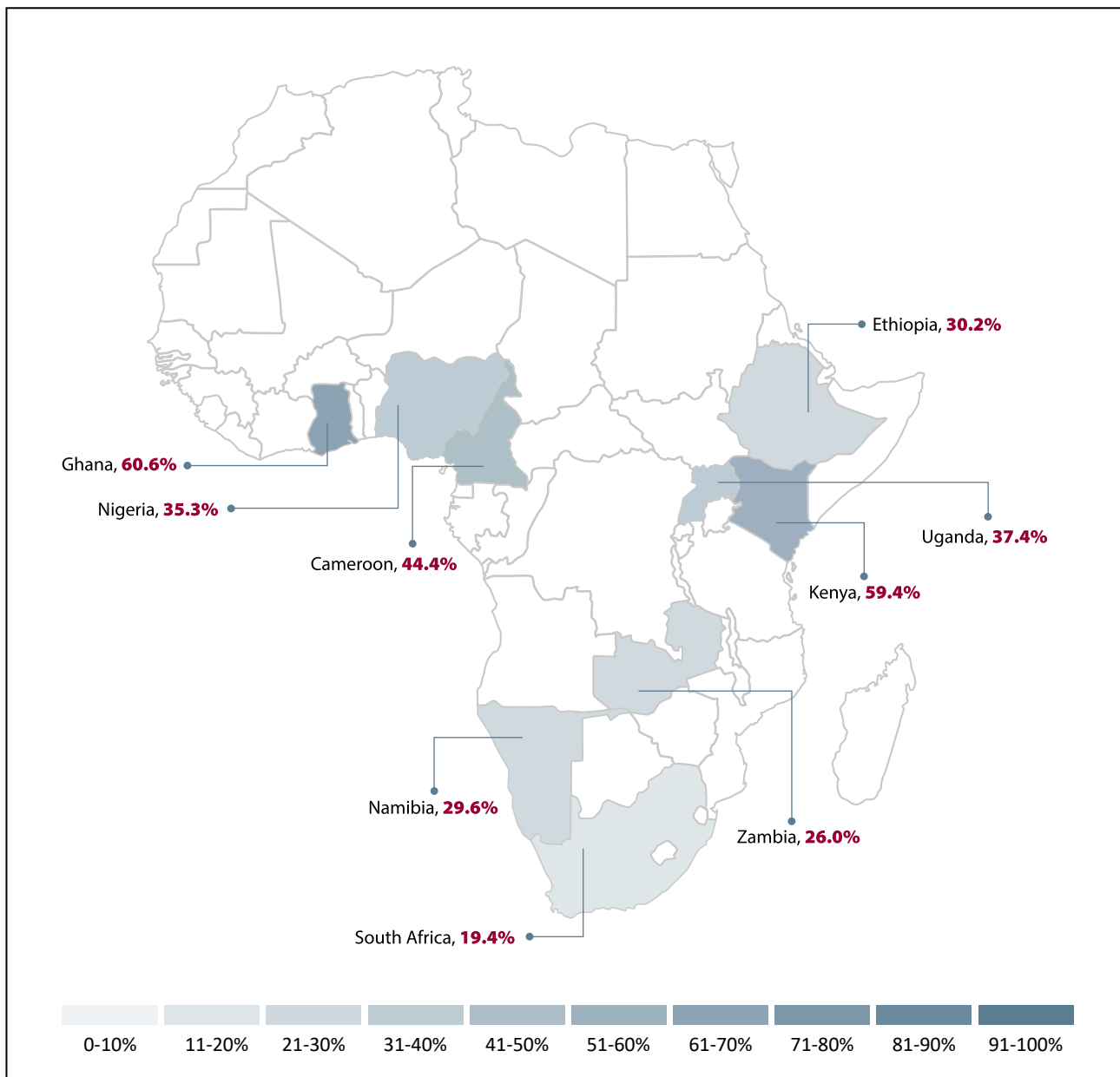
Note: Not applicable for Ethiopia.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Experiences of those laid-off as a result of COVID-19

Figure 5.25 shows the share of unemployed people who were laid off because of COVID-19 again varied across countries. For example, this share was higher in Ghana (60%) and Kenya (59%) and lower in South Africa (19%).

Figure 5.25: Share of unemployed who left their job because of being laid off permanently due to COVID-19 (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 5.26, which describes the share of unemployed people responding to the survey who had (a) received training when out of work and (b) where that training was COVID-related, shows that the share of unemployed who received such training was relatively high in Nigeria (64%) and Uganda (53%).

Figure 5.26: Share of unemployed people who received training when out of work and whose training was COVID-related (%)

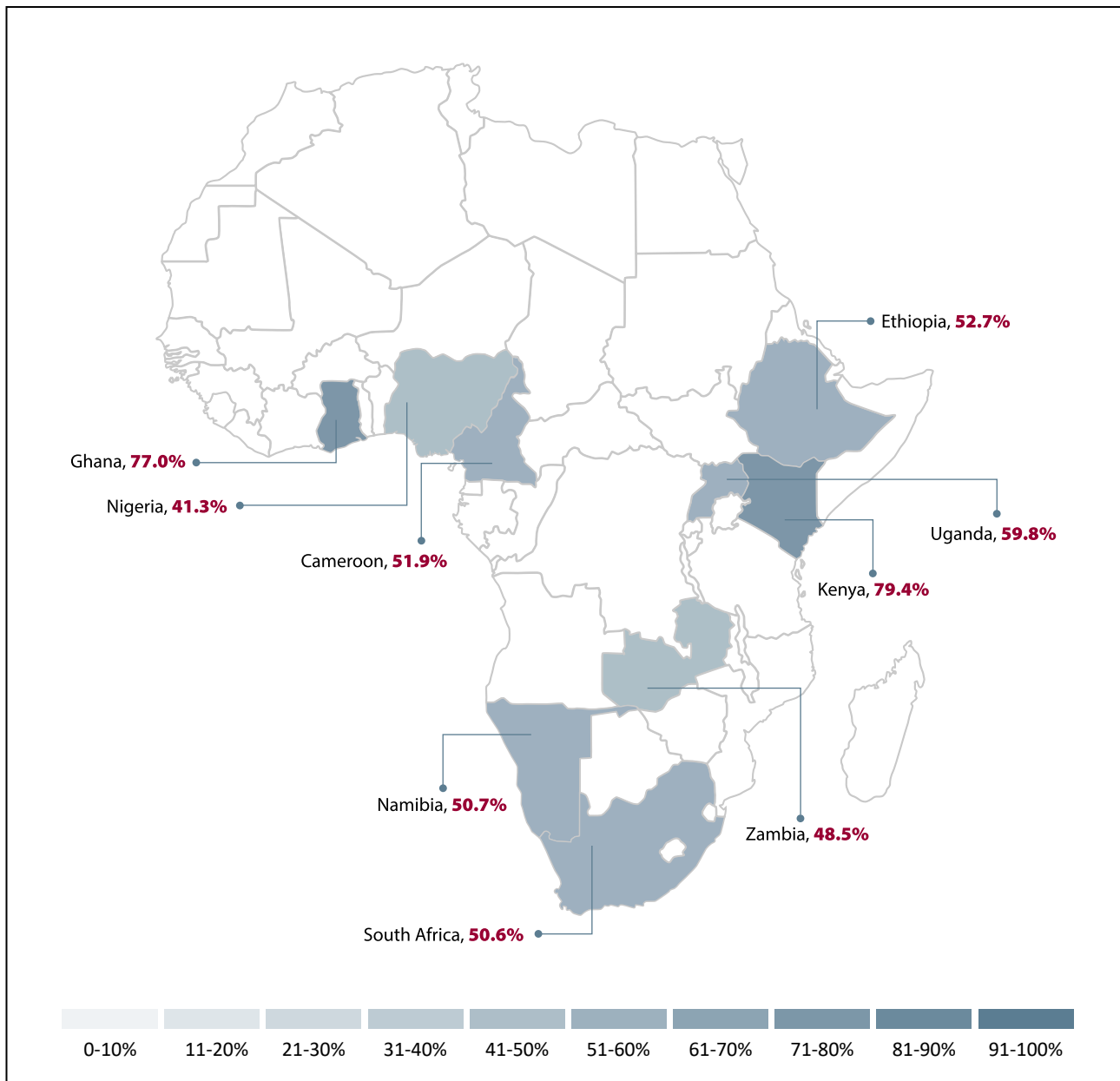
Country	Received training	COVID-related
Cameroon	46.4%	33.3%
Ethiopia	22.5%	8.7%
Ghana	13.8%	22.7%
Kenya	35.1%	41.0%
Namibia	32.8%	21.4%
Nigeria	64.1%	38.3%
South Africa	39.5%	12.5%
Uganda	53.2%	27.6%
Zambia	24.1%	15.4%

Share of unemployed (%)

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 5.27 demonstrates that about half of unemployed people thought they would be able to obtain the same job they were doing before being laid off as a result of the pandemic. The share was highest in Kenya (79%) and Ghana (77%), but despite country variations, the evidence points to unemployed people being relatively confident overall about returning to work.

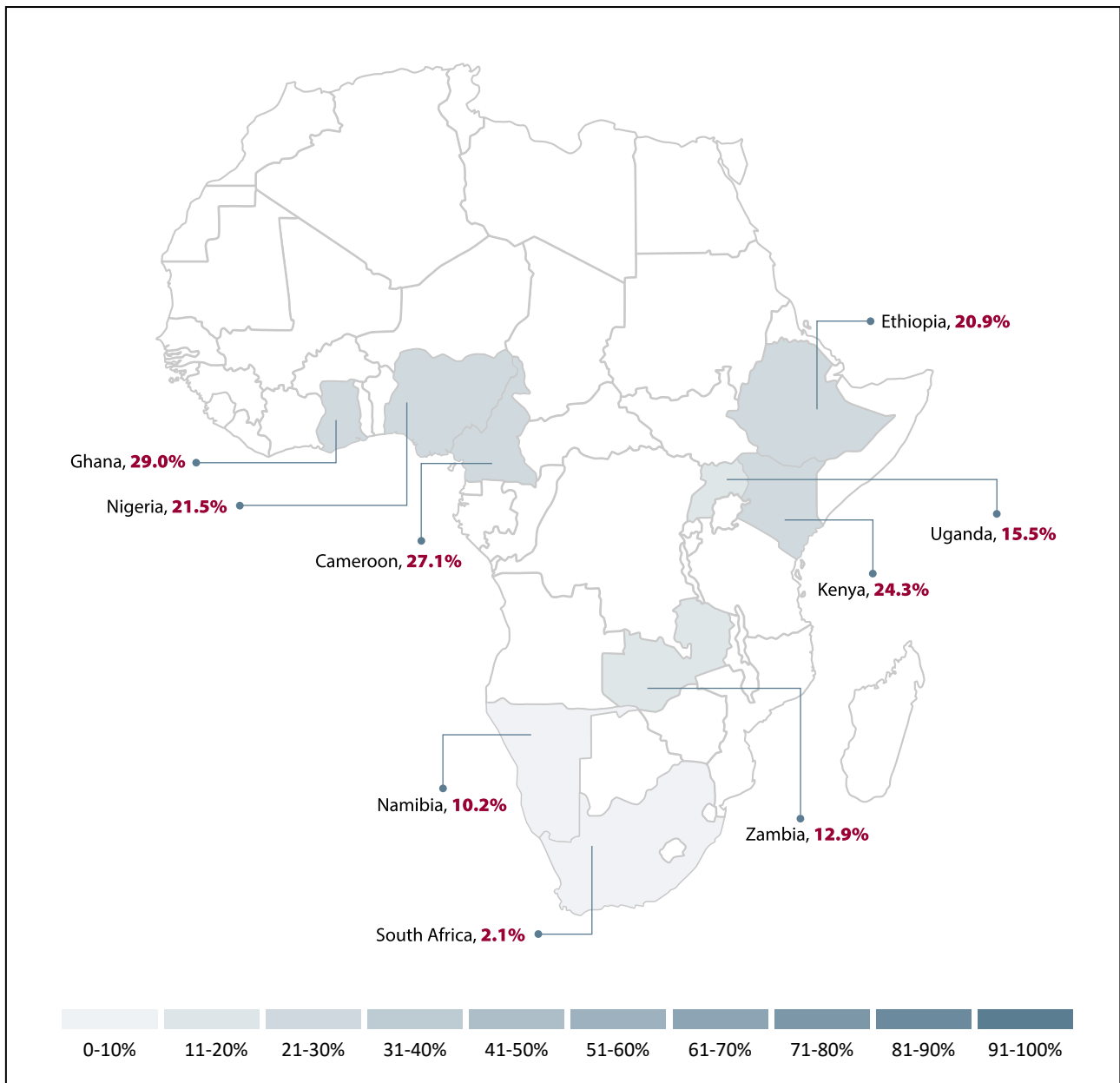
Figure 5.27: Share of unemployed who expected to obtain the same job that they were doing before COVID-19 (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Finally, country variations can again be seen in the share of unemployed people who, having been laid off, thought they would need training to return to work after COVID-19 (see Figure 5.28), ranging from 29% in Ghana right down to 2% in South Africa.

Figure 5.28: Share of unemployed people who had been laid off and expected to have training to return to work (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

5.3. Understanding how COVID-19 affected the world of work

In summary, the evidence points to several changes within establishments as a consequence of the pandemic. Although the principal impact on employment was that of job loss and reduced working hours, it was apparent that new skills were also needed as a consequence of practices being introduced to mitigate the impact of the pandemic and changes in working practices, with people increasingly working from home wherever feasible. However, it is important to note that working from home has mostly only been an option for managers, professionals, and administrative/clerical workers. For individual workers, the main impact was of job loss or reduced working hours, which had implications for their income. For those who remained in employment, especially as employees, there has been an increased need to engage in training to ensure they are suitably prepared to work safely, such as through maintaining social

distancing at work and practising high levels of hygiene through frequent handwashing. There are clearly other training needs that have arisen as a consequence of more work and business being conducted online as well, which has created an increased demand for digital skills. In addition, where people have been recruited during the pandemic, the jobs they filled were typically ones that related to mitigating the impact of the pandemic on business.

Many establishments responding to the survey who had laid off workers expected to increase their employment levels in the future. In doing so, they intended to re-hire temporarily laid-off staff. Where they expected to hire new staff, ideally those new hires would need to possess the technical and soft skills required to carry out the job, rather than needing to be trained.



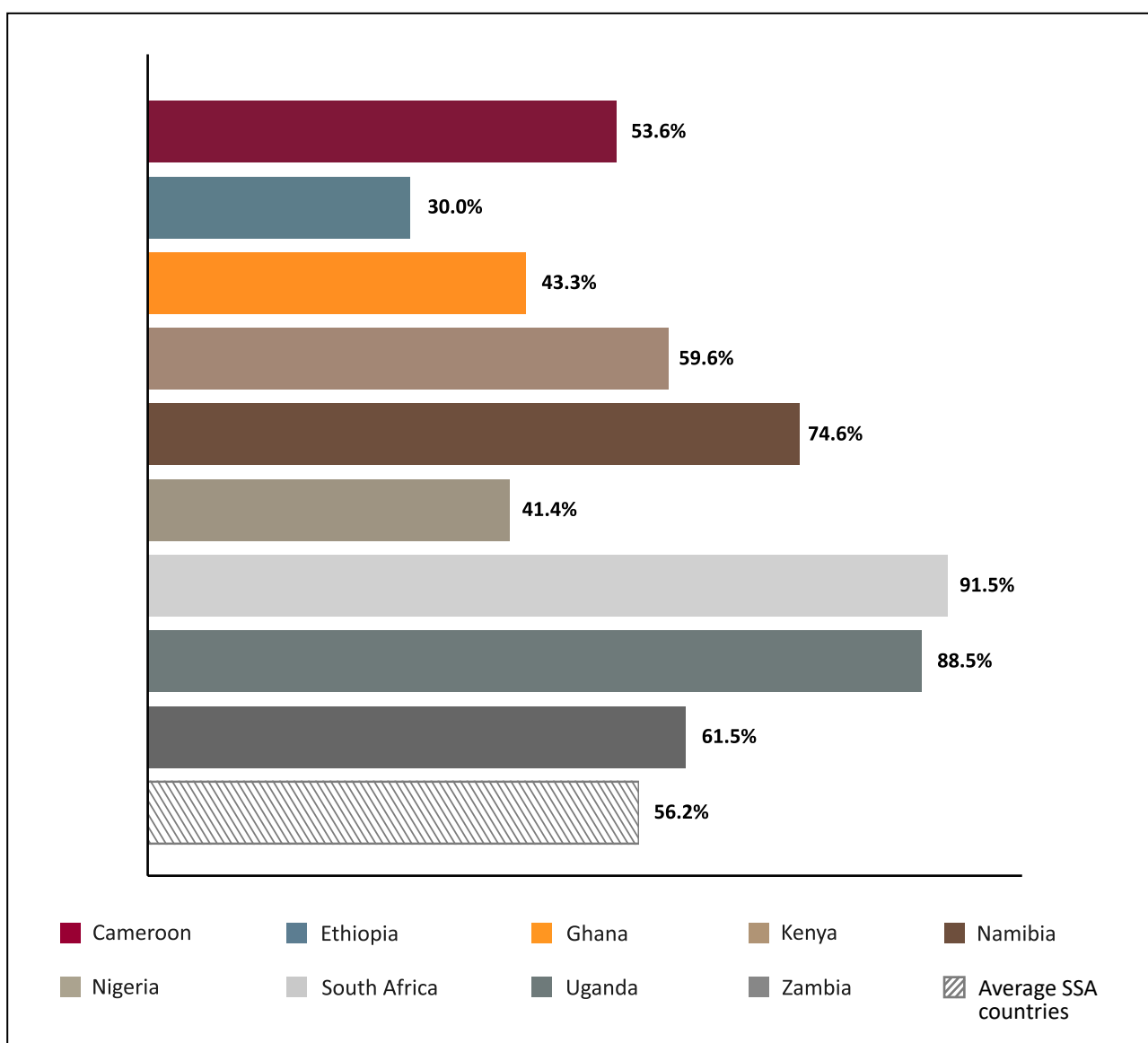
6. Meeting pandemic-related training needs

This section addresses the training provided to workers so that they could adapt to changes in working practices required as a consequence of the pandemic.

6.1. Provision of training in the workplace

On average, around 58% of employers responded that they provided training to their existing employees during COVID-19 (Figures 6.1 and 6.4). This was highest in South Africa and Uganda, where more than 80% of the establishments trained their workers.

Figure 6.1: Share of establishment who provided training to their existing employees during COVID-19 (%)

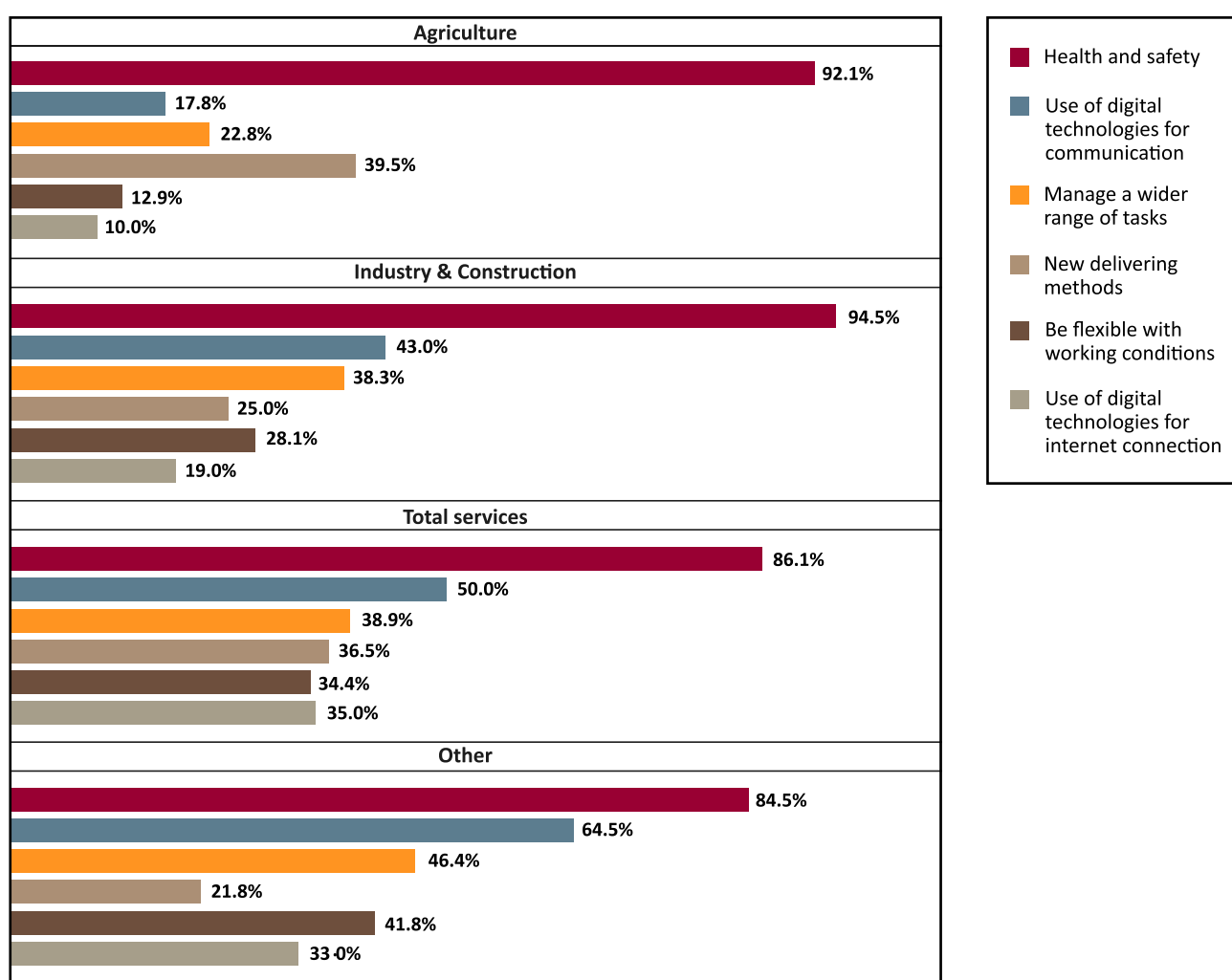


Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

In terms of specific types of training provided by sector and employer size, Figures 6.2 and 6.3 show that employers in the services sector provided the most types of training to their employees during the pandemic, while agricultural firms were less likely to provide training (except in health and safety). The role of specific types of training also varied across sectors. For instance, training on digital technologies for communication was more common in the services and industry and construction sectors.

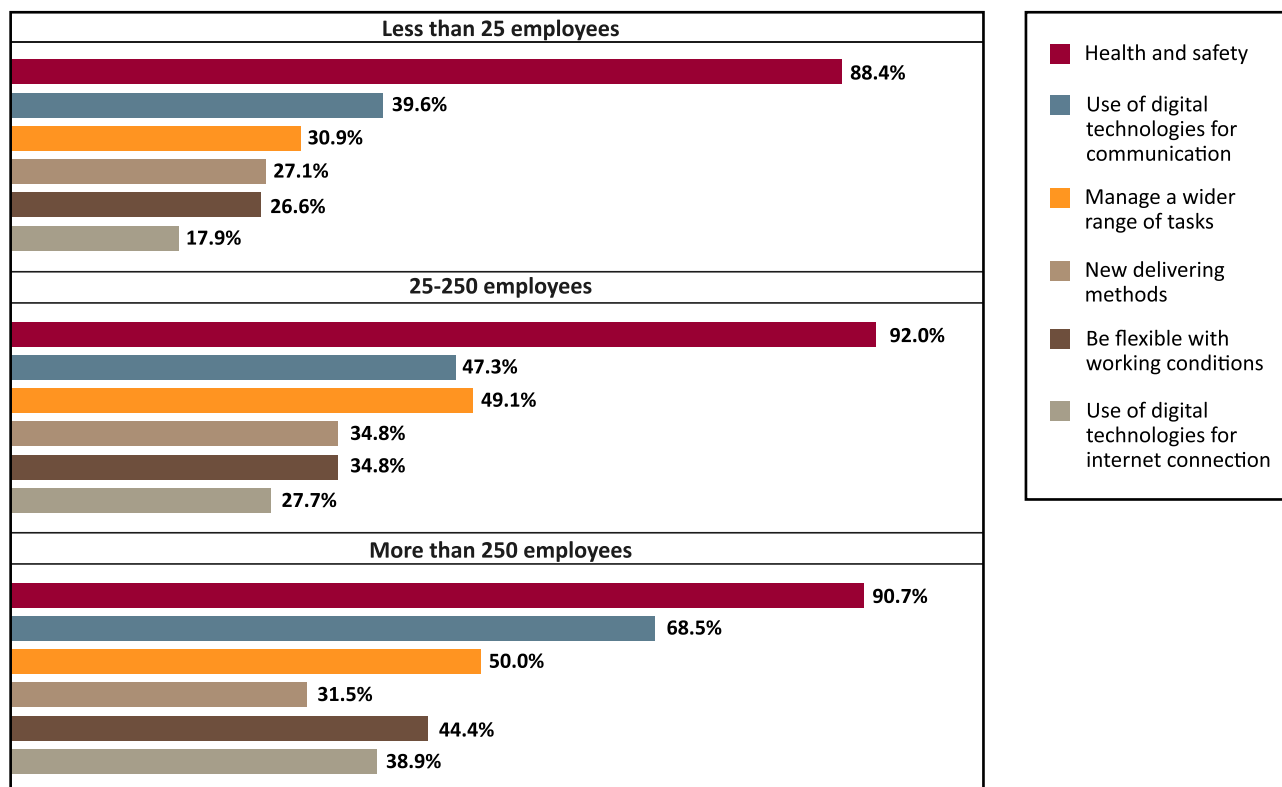
In contrast, agricultural sector establishments focused on new delivery methods training for their employees. There are almost no differences in the share of firms providing training by employer size (Figure 6.3). However, while health and safety training was provided by most firms regardless of their size, larger establishments were more focused on providing training on digital technology to maintain communications within the company.

Figure 6.2: Types of training for the existing workforce during COVID-19 by sector (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure 6.3: Types of training for the existing workforce during COVID-19 by company size (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure 6.4: Types of training for the existing workforce during COVID-19 (by country) (%)

Health and safety	Use of digital technologies for communication	Manage a wider range of tasks
92.9%	42.9%	57.1%
79.4%	20.6%	57.1%
92.9%	26.6%	21.4%
83.3%	55.0%	30.0%
87.1%	37.6%	42.4%
68.8%	52.1%	35.4%
90.5%	63.5%	63.5%
92.2%	53.6%	41.9%
83.3%	62.5%	33.3%

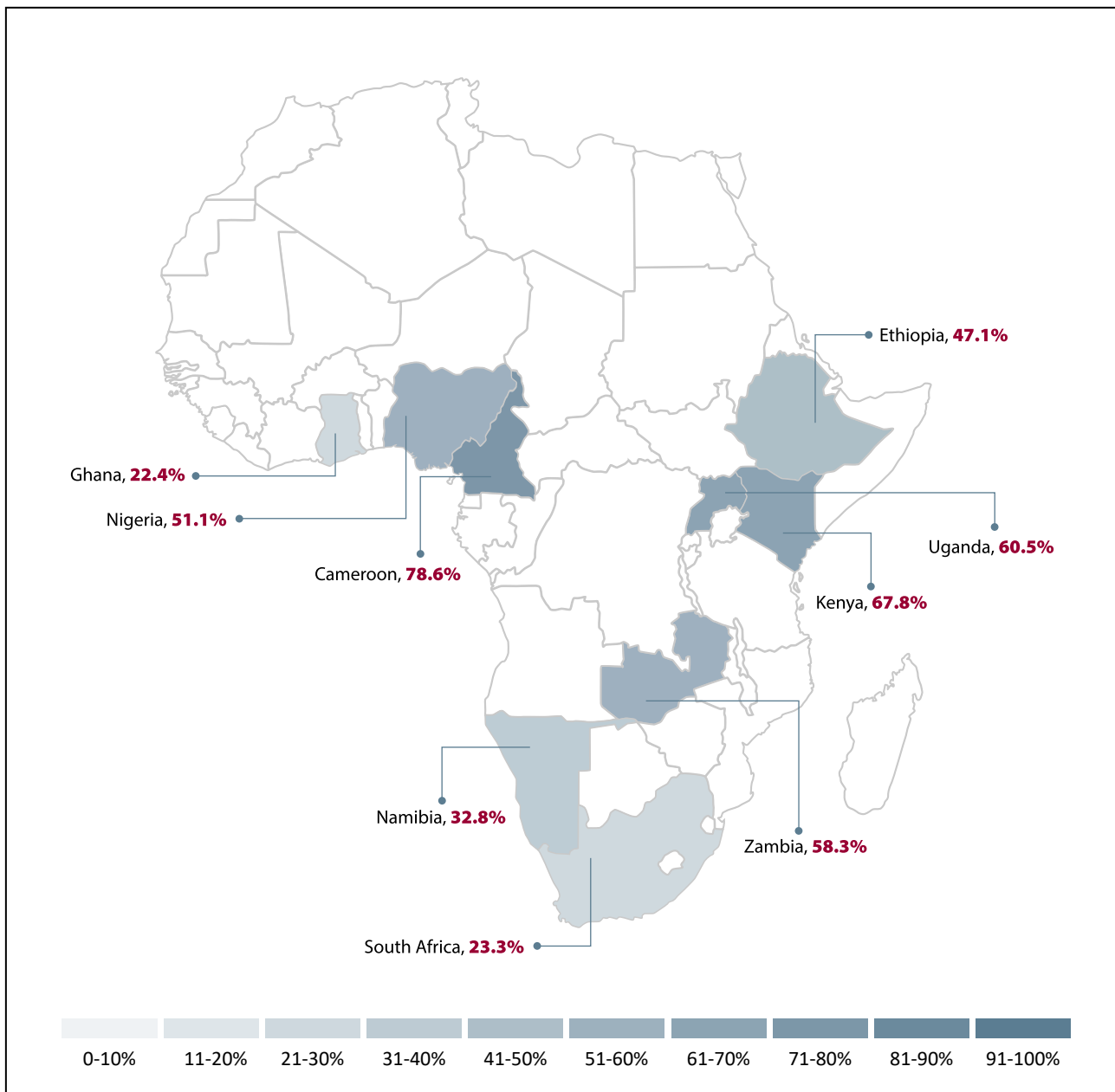
New delivering methods	Be flexible with working conditions	Use of digital technologies for internet connection
42.9%	42.9%	28.6%
46.0%	36.5%	34.9%
36.4%	14.9%	14.3%
35.0%	38.3%	28.3%
32.9%	28.2%	25.9%
41.7%	41.7%	39.6%
49.2%	42.9%	49.2%
19.0%	34.1%	25.7%
20.8%	41.7%	41.7%

Cameroon	Ethiopia	Ghana	Kenya	Namibia
Nigeria	South Africa	Uganda	Zambia	

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Obtaining or organising training was not without challenges for employers, as demonstrated in Figure 6.5. The country where the highest share of employers faced difficulties was Cameroon (79%), followed by Kenya (68%) and Uganda (60%).

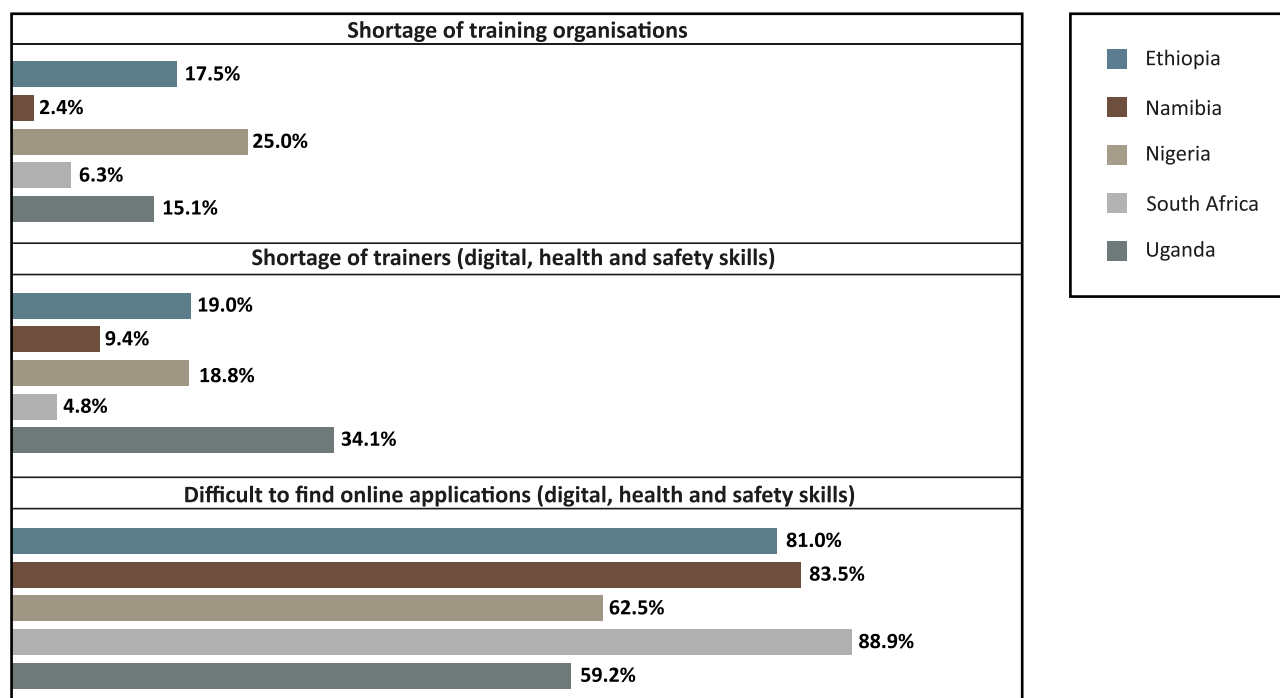
Figure 6.5: Share of establishment which faced difficulties in providing training to their existing employees (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

With regard the types of difficulties that establishments experienced when providing training, Figure 6.6 shows that finding online provision was by far the most difficult to obtain.

Figure 6.6: Types of difficulties when providing training to their current employees (%)



Note: Not applicable for Cameroon, Ghana, Kenya, and Zambia.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

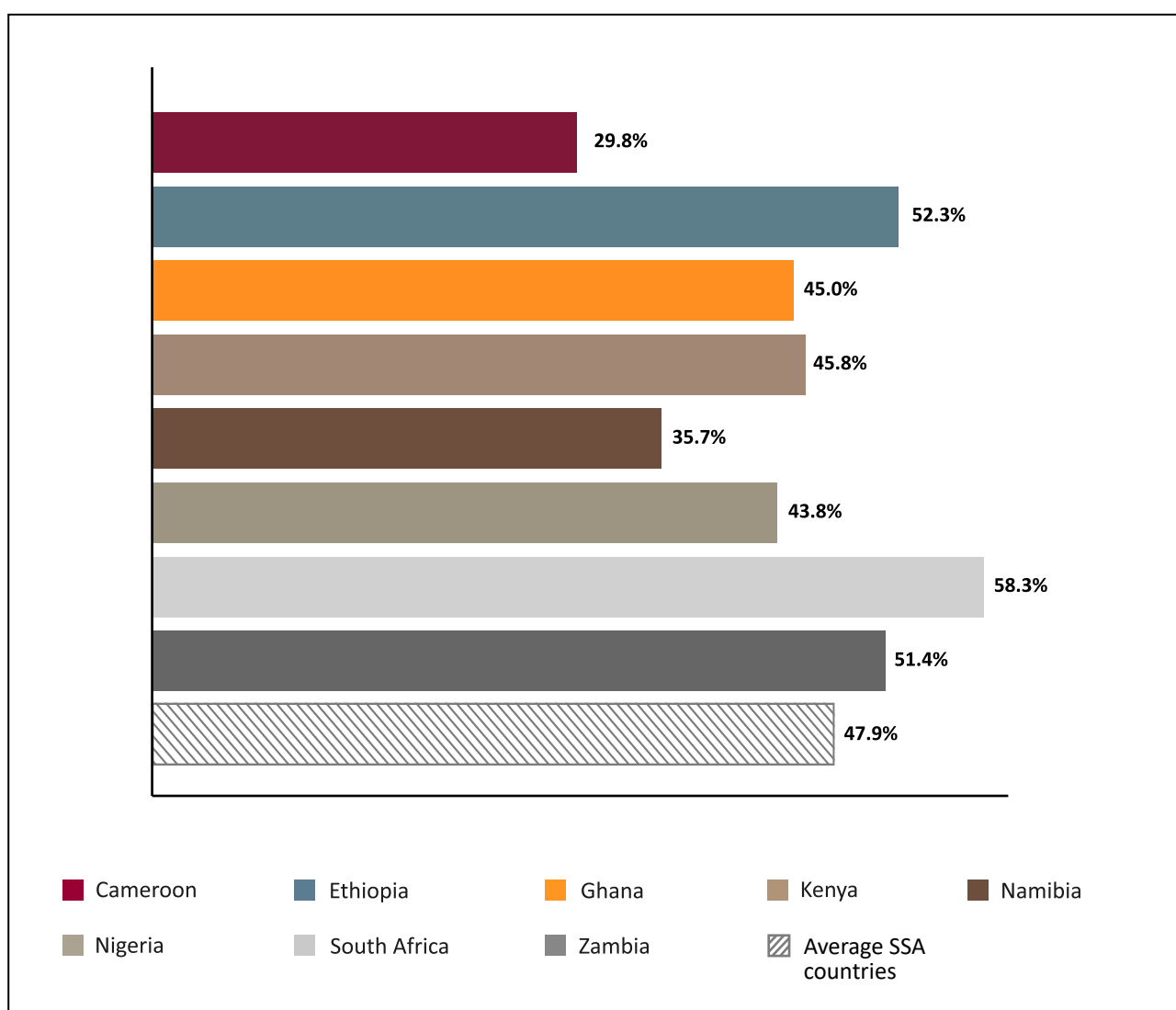
6.2. Ways in which individuals' skills were kept up-to-date during the pandemic

Training in relation to COVID-19

This section reports on individuals' experiences of the training they received during the pandemic. Figure 6.7 shows that about half of the employees received health and safety training connected to COVID-19, while Figures 6.8a and 6.8b describe the characteristics of these employees.

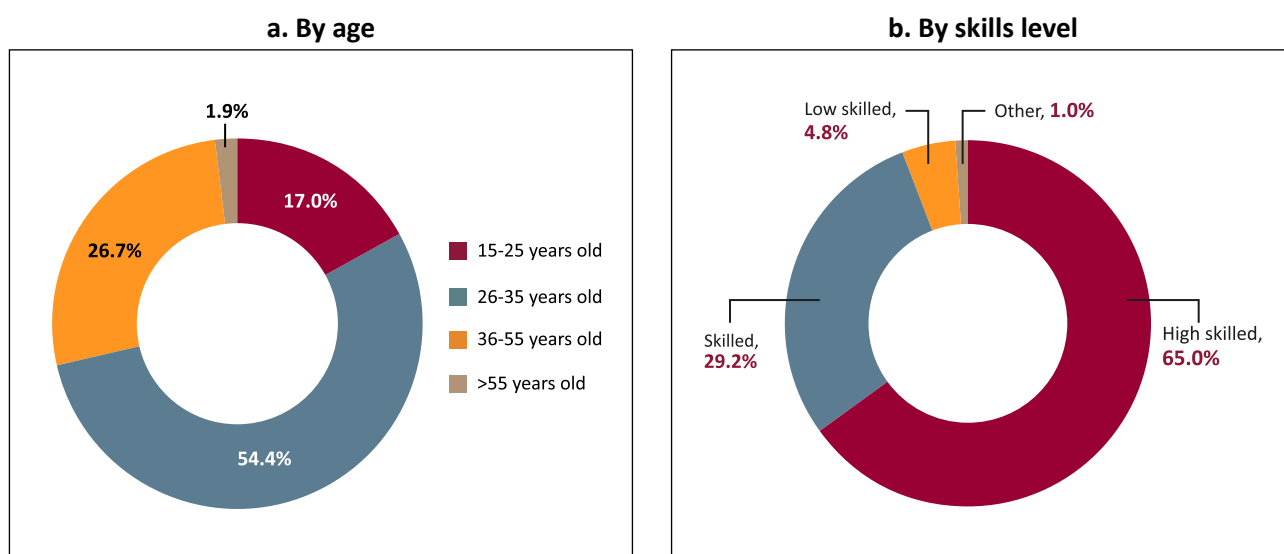
About half (54%) were aged 26-35 years old and almost a third (27%) were aged 36-55-years. Among workers who were trained, high-skilled workers accounted for the majority (about 65%), followed by approximately 30% of workers with medium levels skills. Only a small share of trained workers were low skilled.

Figure 6.7: Share of workers who received health and safety training connected to COVID-19 (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

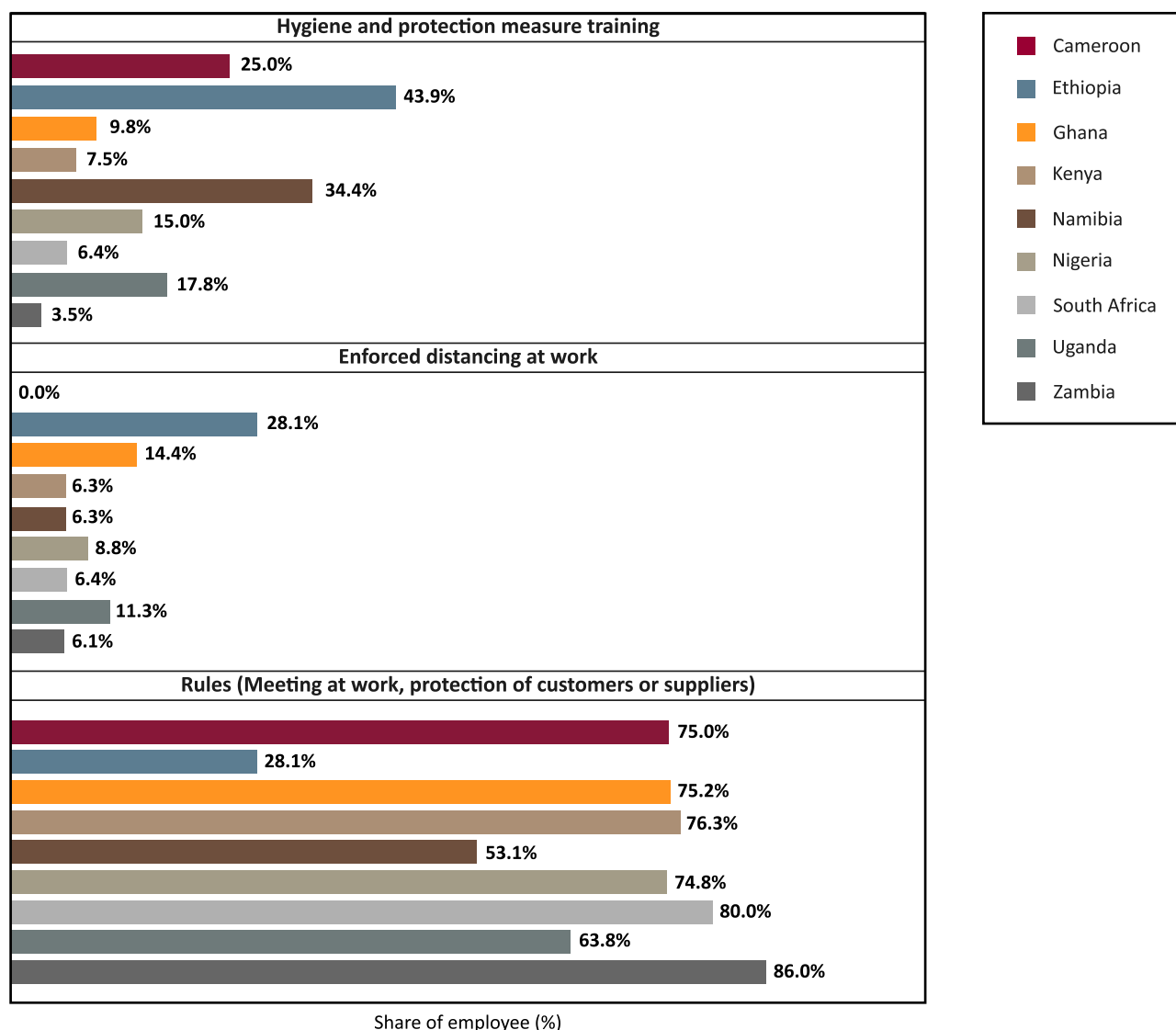
Figure 6.8: Share of workers in receipt of health and safety training (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 6.9 shows that a substantial share of the individuals responding to the surveys received health-related training connected to COVID-19 in all the countries, except for Ethiopia, where the share was lower than 30%. Most of the training received related to rules and regulations on meeting at work as well as the protection of customers or suppliers.

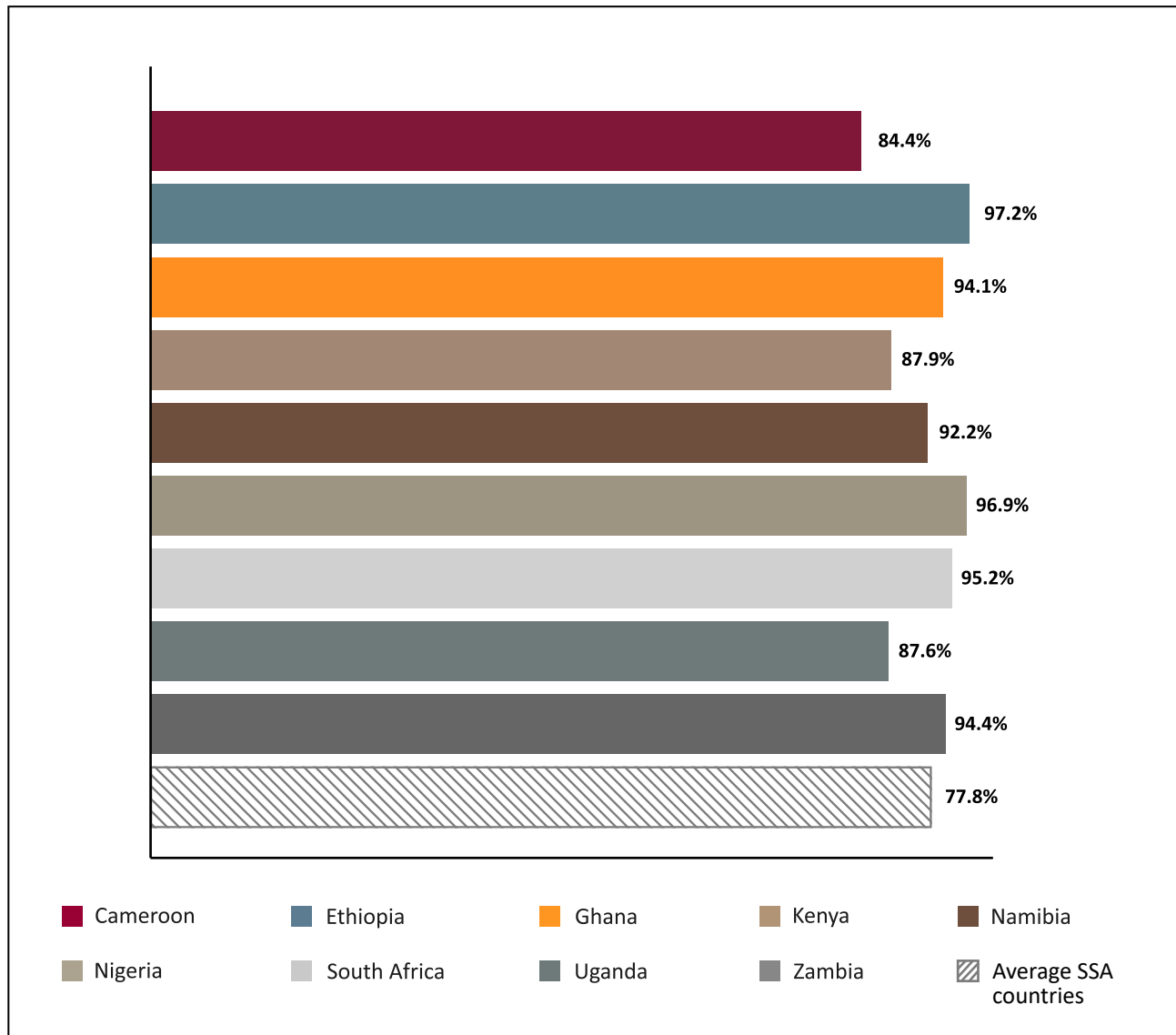
Figure 6.9: Share of workers who received health-related training connected to COVID-19 (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Irrespective of the share of employees who received training, Figure 6.10 shows that most felt well informed on protection from COVID-19 across all countries.

Figure 6.10: Share of workers who reported being informed about how to protect themselves or their colleagues from COVID-19 while at work (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Changing skills needs associated with COVID-19

A key skill needed during the pandemic was how to communicate effectively when business and work was increasingly being conducted online. As indicated in Figure 6.11, in most countries, about 70% of individuals were using online platforms to communicate at work during COVID-19, except in Ethiopia and Ghana.

Figure 6.11: Usage and purpose of online platforms (such as Teams Zoom, Skype) (%)

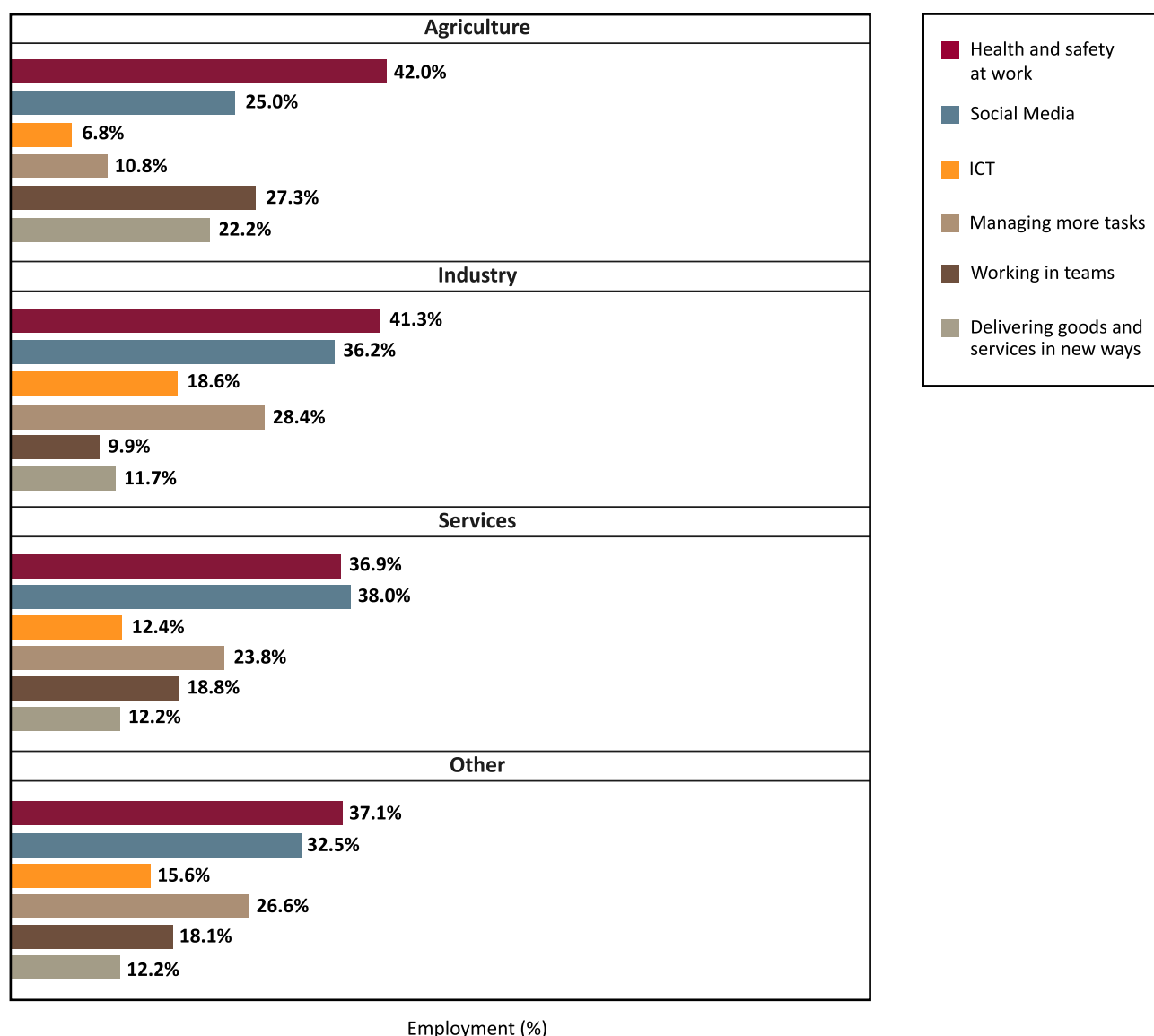
Country	Communicate with colleagues (left-hand side)	Communicate with clients(right-hand side)
Cameroon	74.2%	64.4%
Ethiopia	25.0%	28.4%
Ghana	54.6%	46.7%
Kenya	82.7%	75.6%
Namibia	74.4%	71.1%
Nigeria	79.2%	79.2%
South Africa	72.9%	70.6%
Uganda	74.0%	70.3%
Zambia	81.6%	70.2%

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

From the worker's perspective, the skills identified as being needed to work effectively during COVID-19 were health and safety at work, social media, working in teams, and managing more tasks. Despite some variation in prioritisation across sectors (Figure 6.12) and countries (Figure 6.13), these align with the employers' perspective that health and safety skills are the top priority across the board.

On the other hand, compared with other sectors, a higher share of employees in agriculture said that it was relatively important to improve those skills associated with working in teams and delivering goods and services in new ways, whereas skills related to using social media at work were reported as being more important by those working in the industry and services sectors.

Figure 6.12: Skills required for better job performance during COVID-19 by sector (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 6.13: Types of skills required to improve job performance during COVID-19 (%)

Health and safety at work	Social media	ICT
 32.5%	 50.0%	 2.5%
 57.8%	 13.8%	 24.8%
 40.7%	 31.8%	0.0%
 70.8%	 55.4%	0.0%
 49.4%	 39.1%	 20.7%
 32.7%	 39.5%	 26.1%
 28.5%	 30.1%	 23.6%
 47.1%	 43.7%	 36.6%
 40.7%	 48.7%	0.0%

Managing more tasks	Working in teams	Delivering goods and services in new ways
 32.5%	 27.5%	 7.5%
 30.3%	 34.9%	 26.6%
 9.7%	 29.5%	 27.5%
 25.1%	 23.1%	 5.1%
 21.8%	 24.1%	 11.5%
 25.8%	 37.0%	 11.7%
 27.2%	 21.1%	 23.2%
 36.2%	 21.6%	 6.9%
 30.4%	 24.5%	 10.6%

 Cameroon	 Ethiopia	 Ghana	 Kenya	 Namibia
 Nigeria	 South Africa	 Uganda	 Zambia	

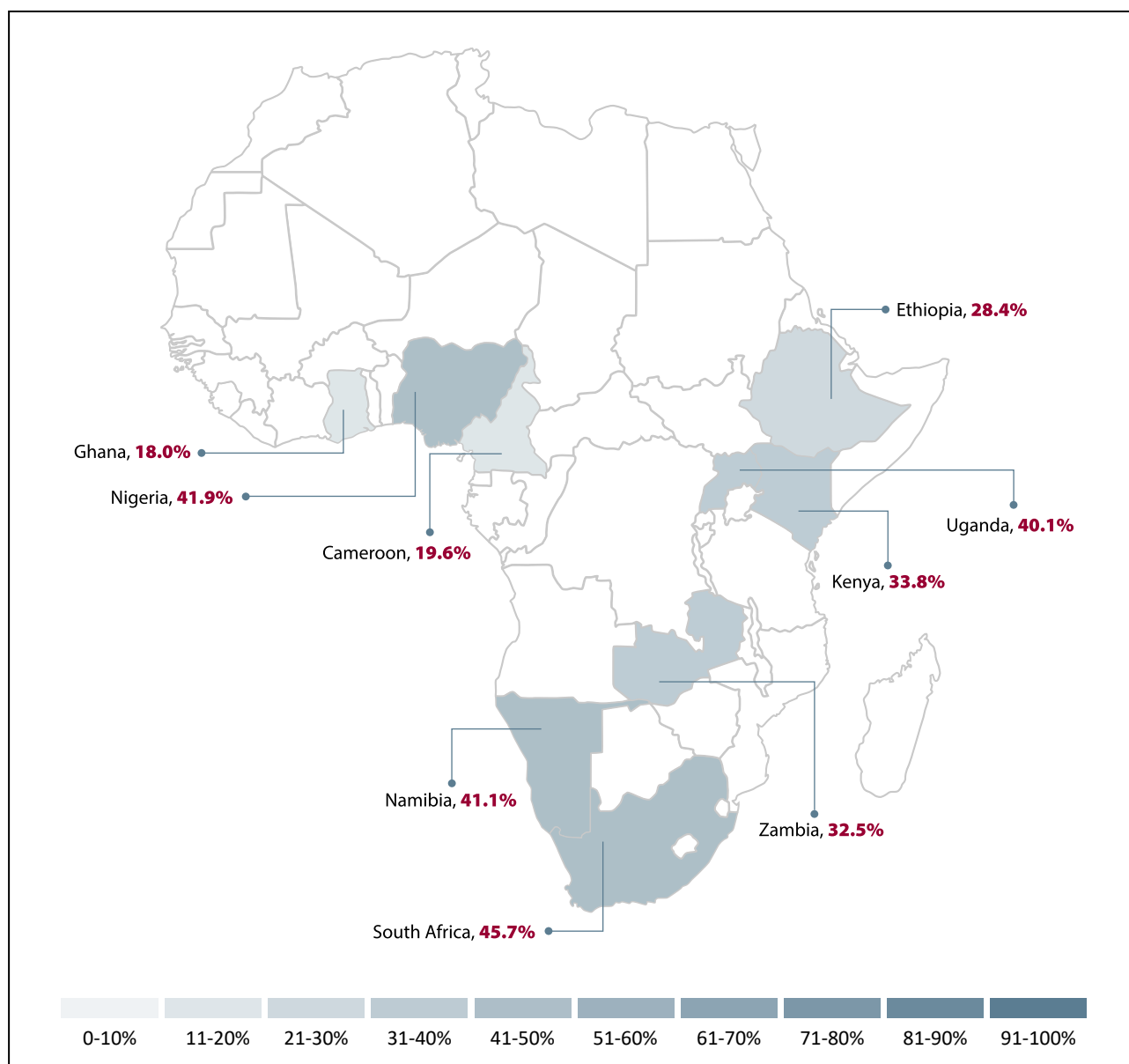
Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Further training needs

The findings above demonstrate that the pandemic has boosted the demand for certain skills, which thereby increases the need for training, although, as noted, this is not always easy to find or access. When asked if they had received any training other than health and safety to keep their job during the COVID-19 pandemic, Figure 6.14 shows that in most countries, more than a quarter of the individuals

said they had, with the exception of Cameroon and Ghana, where the share is lower. This training was commonly related to digital skills and job-specific skills (see Figure 6.15). Where individuals had not been trained, they were asked what training they would like to have received. Their responses reveal a wide range of skills needs, with digital skills slightly in advance of the others (see Figure 6.16).

Figure 6.14: Training received to keep jobs during COVID-19 (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 6.15: Type of training received to perform jobs during COVID-19 (%)

Job/occupation-specific technical skills	Digital skills	Administrative skills
 2.5%	 100.0%	 1.0%
 64.5%	 16.1%	 9.7%
 5.6%	 100.0%	 2.5%
 6.5%	 100.0%	 2.3%
 55.9%	 38.2%	 29.4%
 57.8%	 60.7%	 25.2%
 47.4%	 47.4%	 25.9%
 61.5%	 61.5%	 22.4%
 8.1%	 100.0%	 3.5%

Managerial/supervisor/teamwork skills	Innovative skills
 1.0%	 1.0%
 51.6%	 32.3%
 2.5%	 5.6%
 3.5%	 7.8%
 47.1%	 26.5%
 45.9%	 47.4%
 38.8%	 42.2%
 52.7%	 45.4%
 4.3%	 8.3%

 Cameroon	 Ethiopia	 Ghana	 Kenya	 Namibia
 Nigeria	 South Africa	 Uganda	 Zambia	

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 6.16: Type of training individuals would have liked to receive to do their jobs during COVID-19 (%)

Job/occupation-specific technical skills	Digital skills	Administrative skills
 40.7%	 59.3%	 29.6%
 45.2%	 25.8%	 12.9%
 48.3%	 40.6%	 20.5%
 41.3%	 70.0%	 21.9%
 55.8%	 42.9%	 14.3%
 45.0%	 45.0%	 28.0%
 40.2%	 40.7%	 11.6%
 50.7%	 49.7%	 17.3%
 33.2%	 45.9%	 18.6%

Managerial/supervisor/teamwork skills	Innovative skills
 44.4%	 59.3%
 51.6%	 35.5%
 22.2%	 54.3%
 28.1%	 43.8%
 36.4%	 50.6%
 51.0%	 49.0%
 43.9%	 41.3%
 53.0%	 39.7%
 25.0%	 42.3%

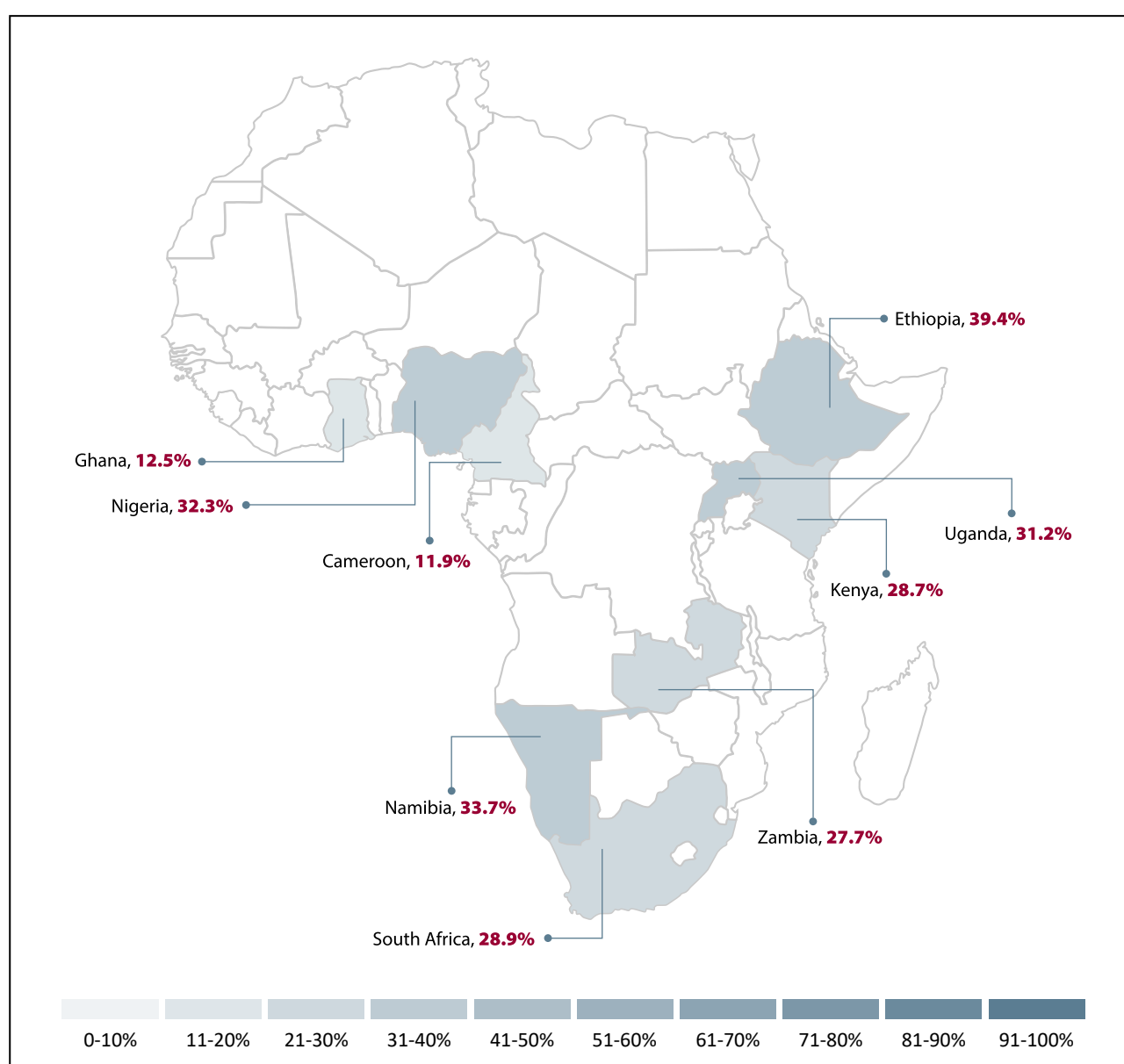
 Cameroon	 Ethiopia	 Ghana	 Kenya	 Namibia
 Nigeria	 South Africa	 Uganda	 Zambia	

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 6.17a shows that the share of individuals who received training to help keep their jobs after COVID-19 is slightly lower in all countries than workers who received training to do their jobs during the COVID-19 pandemic. Of those that did receive training to help them keep their job beyond the COVID-19 pandemic, Figure 6.17b shows that, in almost all the countries, the types of training received was in job/occupation-specific technical skills, followed by digital skills and innovative skills.

Compared with those skills which were important to do the job during COVID-19 (Figure 6.15), digital skills were considered less important to keep the job after COVID-19. In contrast, job/occupation-specific technical skills were reported as important for keeping the job beyond the pandemic. Innovative skills and managerial skills also emerged as important.

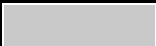
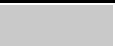
Figure 6.17a: Share of individuals who received training to keep the job after COVID-19 (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 6.17b: Areas in which individuals received training to keep their jobs after COVID-19 (%)

Job/occupation-specific technical skills	Digital skills	Administrative skills
 25.0%	 50.0%	0.0%
 67.4%	 7.0%	 20.9%
 47.9%	 31.3%	 18.8%
 39.3%	 58.9%	 16.1%
 51.9%	 44.4%	 7.4%
 56.5%	 58.7%	 16.3%
 53.7%	 44.8%	 10.4%
 49.4%	 59.5%	 10.8%
 53.2%	 55.8%	 15.6%

Managerial/supervisor/teamwork skills	Innovative skills
 25.0%	 25.0%
 44.2%	 42.0%
 31.3%	 54.0%
 12.5%	 43.0%
 48.1%	 41.0%
 45.7%	 27.0%
 35.8%	 27.0%
 41.8%	 34.0%
 18.2%	 30.0%

 Cameroon	 Ethiopia	 Ghana	 Kenya	 Namibia
 Nigeria	 South Africa	 Uganda	 Zambia	

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

6.3. Summary: Differential experiences of human capital development during the pandemic

The evidence presented above indicates that the pandemic has increased the demand for certain skills related to working remotely and carrying out business online, particularly skills in using digital technologies, plus those related to health and safety, such as social distancing in the workplace. In addition, a much broader range of skills related to working in a changing environment where workers need to carry out a wider range of tasks than previously is also required. This necessarily creates a demand for training which is not always readily

available, as can be seen by the varying extent across countries to which training has actually been provided to workers in employment and to those seeking to improve their employment prospects. Nevertheless, there are major areas in which workers have generally undergone training, namely digital skills, managerial/supervisory/teamworking skills, innovative skills, and, to a lesser extent, administrative skills. In addition, many of those surveyed have undergone technical training specific to their area of work.



7. Future expectations

As well as asking employers and individuals about their recent experiences of work and the labour market during the pandemic, there is also an interest in knowing about future intentions and expectations, since this will be likely to shape the demand for skills and training in time to come. As indicated in the introductory chapters, most forecasts suggest a relatively rapid bounce back from the pandemic, which may presage a return to pre-COVID levels of business. On the other hand, if COVID-19 continues to affect economies to some

degree for a few more years, there is likely to be continued heightened demand to acquire those capabilities which instil resilience. At the same time, even with a return to a more normal business environment, the experience of the pandemic has greatly accelerated the adoption of digital technologies for working, communicating, and conducting business online. As such, digital skills will likely continue to increase in significance in the pandemic's aftermath.

7.1. Employers' perspectives regarding the future of employment

Employers' expectations

Looking at employer's expectations for six months on and then a year from the time the survey was conducted, which was in mid-2020 or early 2021, Table 7.1 shows that employers in Kenya, Namibia, South Africa, and Zambia were those most pessimistic about the labour market outlook in the

short run. More than a quarter of them predicted that employment would continue to decrease over the next six months, and were also pessimistic about the recovery over the next 12 months. Across all countries, in fact, employers were relatively pessimistic about a return to pre-COVID-19 employment levels even in a year's time.

Table 7.1: Employers' expectations about future employment levels (%)

In the next 6 months				
	Increase to above pre-COVID levels	Return to pre-COVID levels	Increase, but below pre-COVID levels	Decrease
Cameroon	10.7	21.4	25.0	17.9
Ethiopia	a	a	a	a
Ghana	21.8	28.2	27.9	8.4
Kenya	21.5	10.3	29.0	29.0
Namibia	1.8	8.1	27.9	45.9
Nigeria	32.7	26.5	11.7	13.8
Uganda	24.0	24.5	33.0	11.0
South Africa	9.9	28.2	18.3	35.2
Zambia	10.3	17.9	15.4	30.8
In the next 12 months				
	Increase to above pre-COVID levels	Return to pre-COVID levels	Increase, but below pre-COVID levels	Decrease
Cameroon	11.1	33.3	14.8	14.8
Ethiopia	13.8	40.5	26.7	11.0
Ghana	35.9	33.9	14.6	2.0
Kenya	29.6	19.4	26.9	16.7
Namibia	4.5	11.7	38.7	28.8
Nigeria	24.5	18.9	17.3	15.3
Uganda	37.0	18.0	21.0	9.5
South Africa	14.1	23.9	22.5	31.0
Zambia	17.9	20,5	12.8	20.5

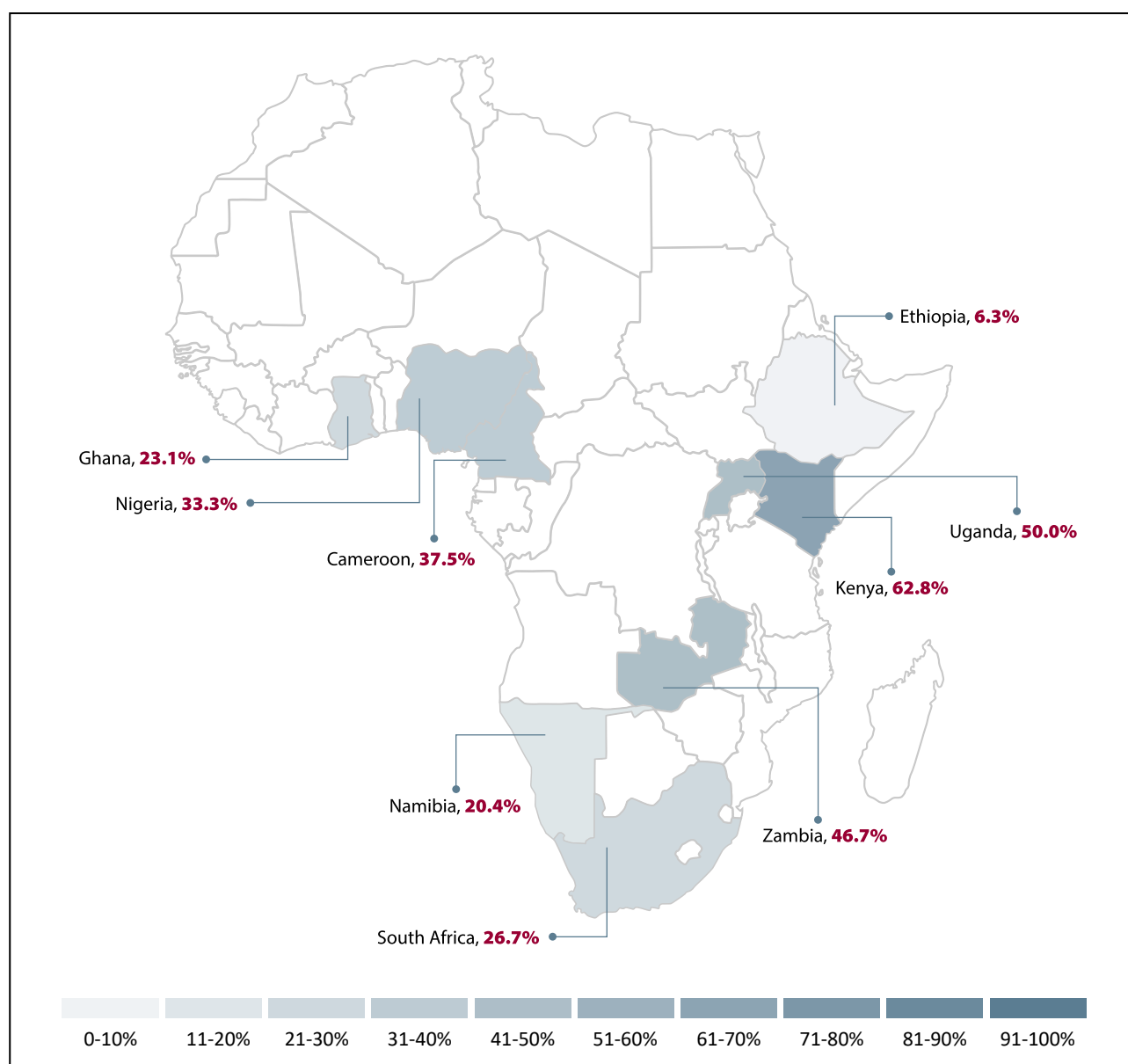
a: Not available for Ethiopia.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Despite this generally pessimistic outlook, given that although the pandemic posed a threat to the economy and employment, it also created a demand for certain products and services, there were companies that believed they might have business opportunities related to COVID-19 in the next 12 months. As seen in Figure 7.1, this share is higher in Kenya, Namibia, and Zambia (close to 50%) and lower in Ethiopia and Namibia.

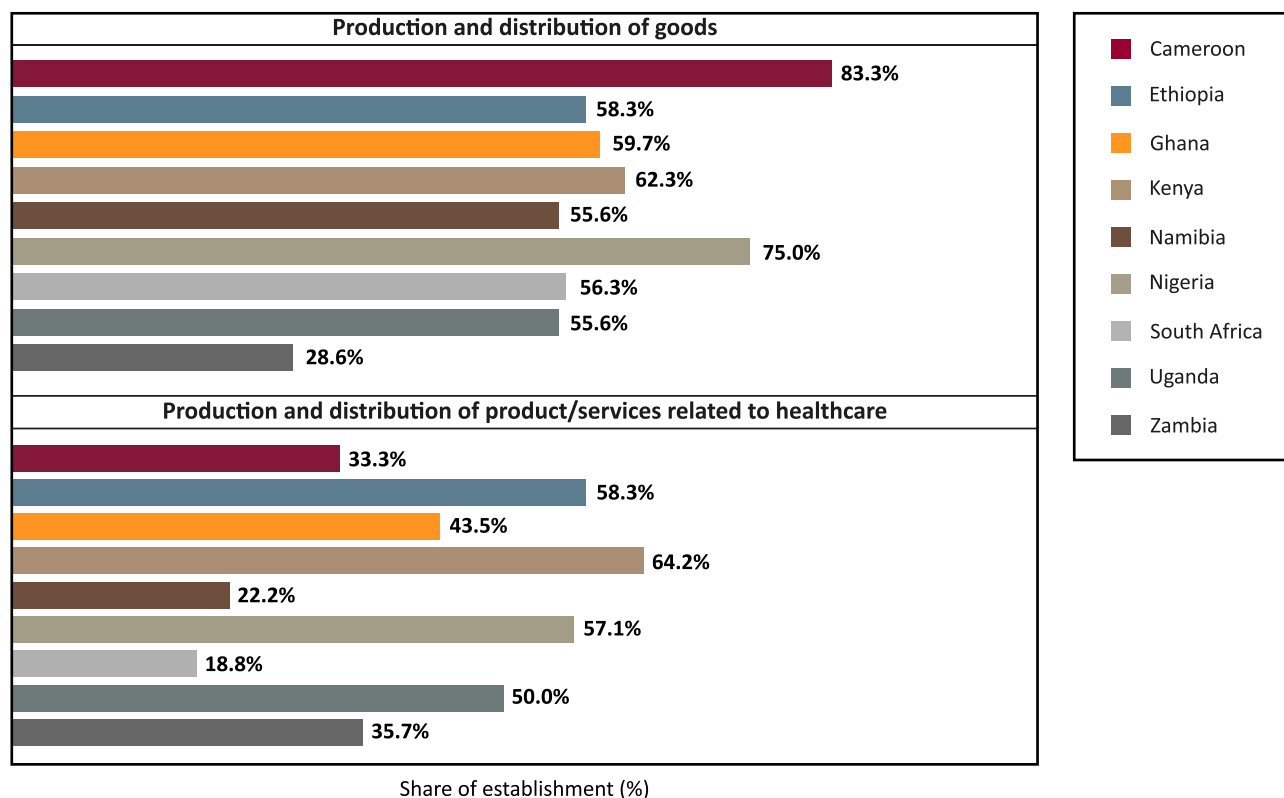
Figure 7.2 expands on this to show the types of opportunities that might arise, which are not all related to health care (as Section 8 demonstrates). For example, opportunities sometimes arise due to interruptions in international trade flows, which means that the demand for domestically-produced goods increases, at least temporarily.

Figure 7.1: Opportunities expected from pandemic-related issues in the next 12 months (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure 7.2: Types of opportunities in the next 12 months (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Changing skills requirements

Figure 7.3 shows the share of employers who answered that to take up COVID-19 related opportunities, staff needed to be trained or recruited. In all countries, the share of employers declaring that people will need to be trained was higher than the share of employers declaring that new people will need to be recruited.

Figure 7.3: Share of establishments reporting that their workforce will need to be trained or new staff recruited to take up pandemic-related opportunities (%)

Country	Trained	Recruited
Cameroon	100.0%	83.3%
Ethiopia	45.6%	26.7%
Ghana	79.3%	68.4%
Kenya	82.7%	64.7%
Namibia	52.9%	38.9%
Nigeria	60.0%	30.8%
South Africa	80.0%	64.3%
Uganda	91.5%	74.3%
Zambia	92.9%	53.8%

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure 7.4 shows the share of employers by types of training needed to take up the pandemic-related opportunities mentioned above. In all countries, training for administrative and management skills was most commonly cited, followed by technical and digital skills.

Figure 7.4: Share of establishments reporting specific types of training needed to take up pandemic-related opportunities (%)

Job/occupation-specific technical skills	Digital skills	Administrative and management skills
100.0%	33.3%	83.3%
62.6%	23.2%	68.7%
82.6%	37.0%	58.7%
55.8%	72.1%	62.8%
66.7%	33.3%	77.8%
66.7%	53.3%	73.3%
41.7%	91.7%	83.3%
67.2%	64.1%	59.4%
76.9%	92.3%	61.5%

Skills for green jobs	Language skills	Basic skills
16.7%	66.7%	33.3%
33.3%	21.2%	0.0%
23.9%	34.8%	17.4%
25.6%	25.6%	25.6%
33.3%	22.2%	11.1%
20.0%	13.3%	0.0%
8.3%	25.0%	0.0%
17.2%	7.8%	6.3%
53.8%	15.4%	23.1%

■ Cameroon
 ■ Ethiopia
 ■ Ghana
 ■ Kenya
 ■ Namibia
■ Nigeria
 ■ South Africa
 ■ Uganda
 ■ Zambia

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

7.2. Individuals' expectations

For the most part, those currently employed thought they would still be in their current job in six months (70% in all countries), as illustrated in Figure 7.5, although the share of individuals who believed it would be easy to find a new job varies across countries, from highest in Ethiopia to lowest in Kenya.

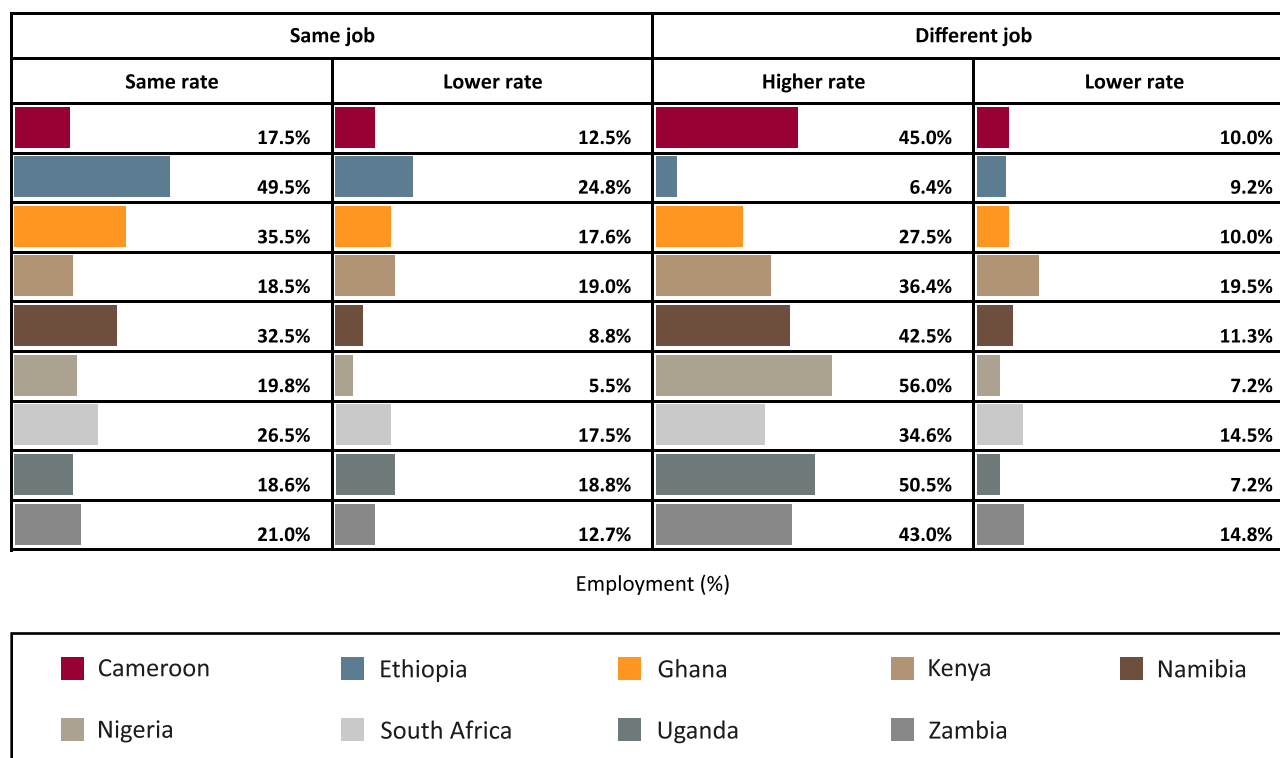
There was also a degree of confidence about future job expectations. In almost all the countries, the majority of the individuals answered that, if needed, they would be able to either obtain the same job at the same wage rate or that they would be able to obtain a different job at a higher rate (see Figure 7.6).

Figure 7.5: Individuals' expectations of their job during the next six months (%)

Country	Continue the current job (left-hand side)	Easy to find a new job if loose the job (right-hand side)
Cameroon	70.7%	19.5%
Ethiopia	96.3%	45.9%
Ghana	85.9%	20.1%
Kenya	76.1%	9.1%
Namibia	81.3%	12.7%
Nigeria	75.1%	29.0%
South Africa	78.6%	18.6%
Uganda	77.3%	29.1%
Zambia	85.4%	14.6%

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 7.6: Workers' expectations of characteristics of their future job (%)

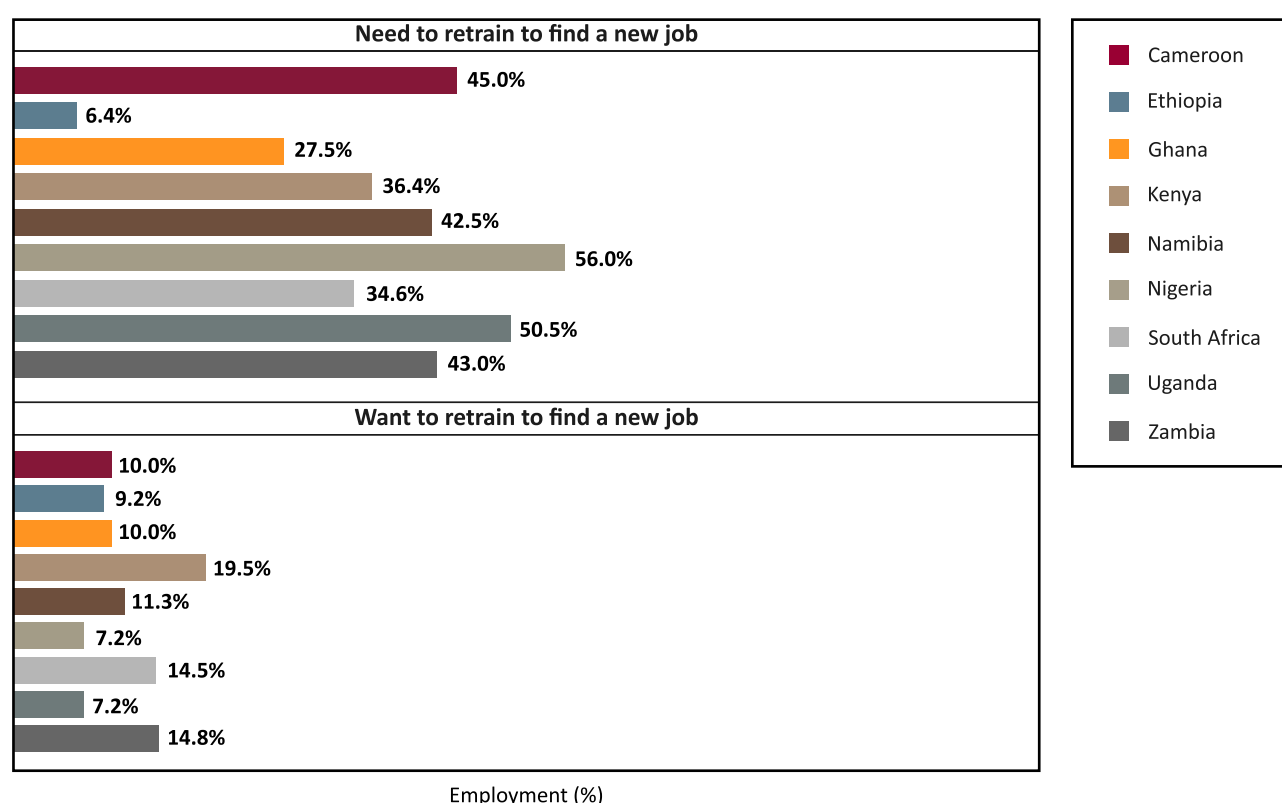


Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 7.7 shows that in most countries, more than a quarter of employees answered that they would need to retrain to find a new job (except in Ethiopia), and in Nigeria and Uganda, more than half did. However, only around 10% of individuals actually wanted to retrain to find a new job. Similarly, Figure 7.8 shows that in almost all countries, individuals thought that job- or occupation-specific training would be necessary

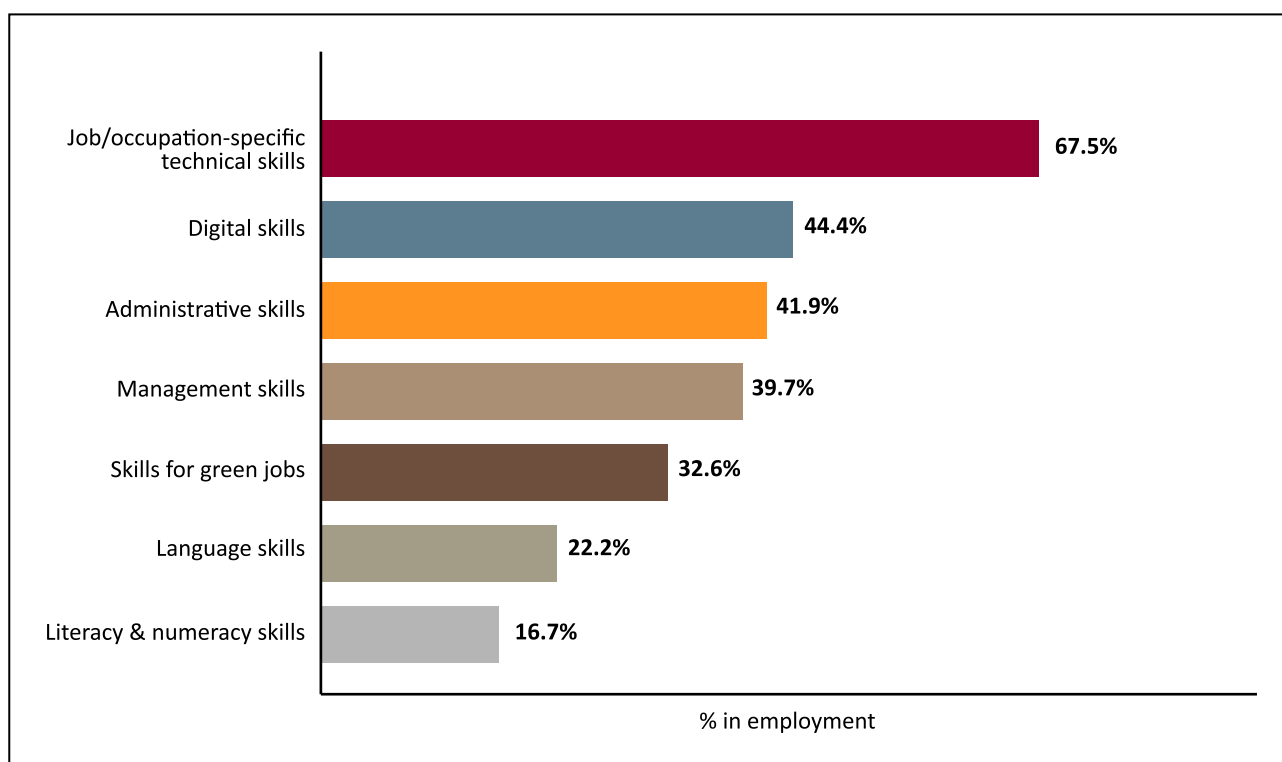
to find a new job (more than half of the sample in each country). This underscores the important role of job-/occupation-specific technical skills for future jobs after COVID-19. Around 70% of the employees in the surveys expected to retrain in these skills to find a new job. Digital, administrative, and management skills were also highly valued by employees for future jobs (around 40%).

Figure 7.7: Necessity and willingness of employed people to retrain to find a new job (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 7.8: Specific skills employed people said they would require retraining in to find a new job (%)

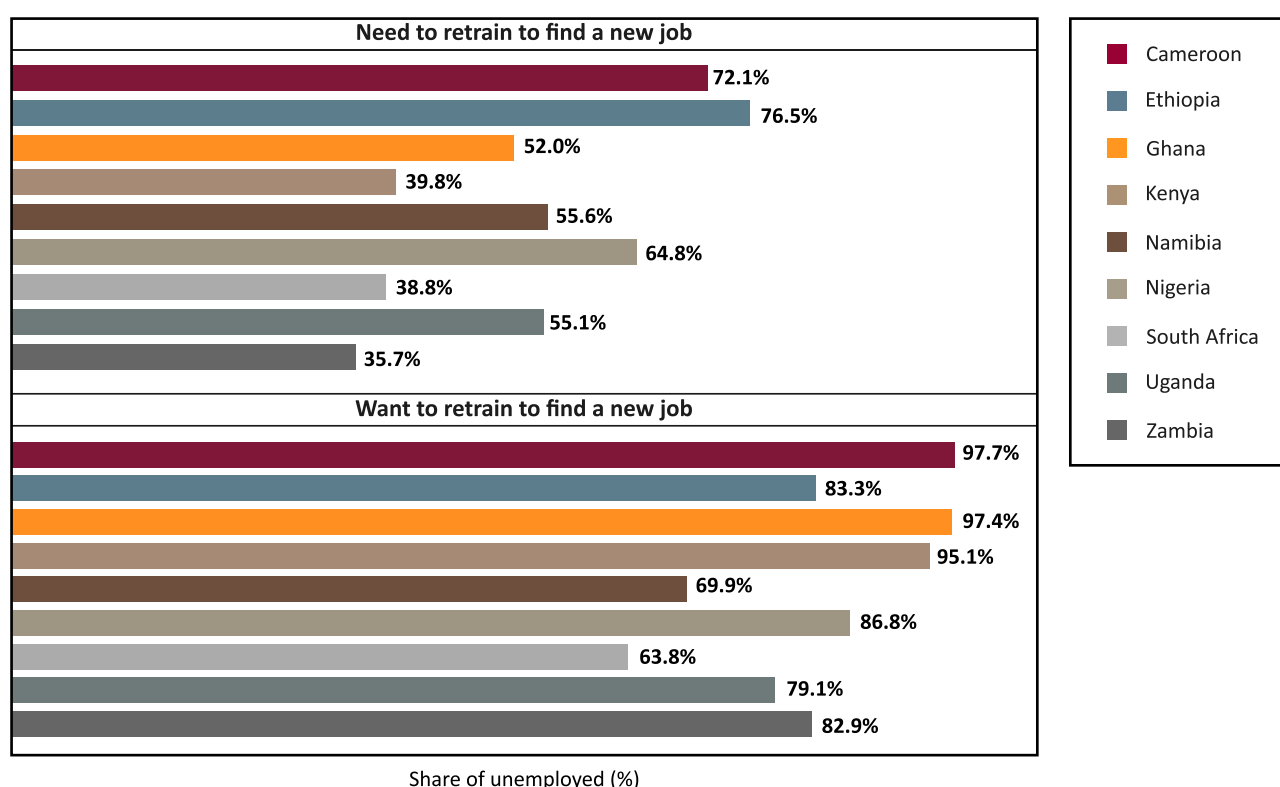


Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

In addition, Figures 7.9 and 7.10 show that in most of the countries, more than half of unemployed people expressed a need to retrain to find a new job (except Kenya, South Africa, and Zambia, where this was around 40%), and a significant percentage were willing to participate in training to find a new job. When it comes to specific skills, most unemployed people who wanted to retrain to find a new job sought training in job-/occupation-specific skills (about 62%) and administrative skills (around 42%). Digital skills, management skills, and skills for green jobs were also mentioned by around one-third of unemployed people.

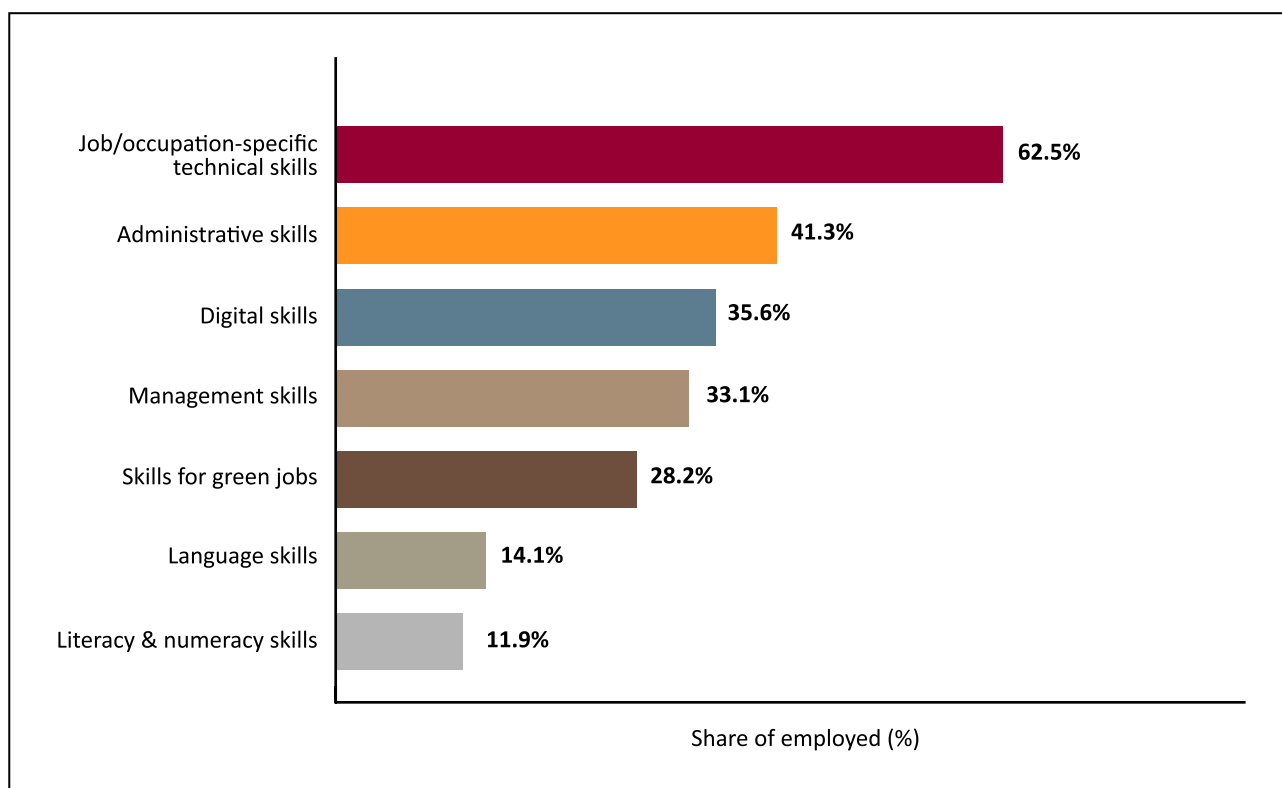
Comparing the workers' and the employers' perspectives (as represented in Figure 7.4 and Figure 7.8, respectively) on the importance of specific skills for future jobs, job-/occupation-specific skills were considered important by employers, those in employment, and unemployed people. There was also agreement on the need for administrative, management, and digital skills in order perform well in an existing function or find a new job.

Figure 7.9: Necessity and willingness of unemployed people to retrain to find a new job (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure 7.10: Specific skills unemployed people said they would need retraining in to find a new job (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

7.3. Summary: Has COVID-19 affected future employment and skills demand?

Employers were more pessimistic than employees in their expectations for the future. While many of the employers surveyed expected employment levels to increase, overall, they did not expect them to reach pre-pandemic levels over the next 6-12 months. In contrast, individuals currently in employment were more upbeat about the future. They expected to remain in employment, and should they lose their jobs, there was a degree of confidence that they would be able to find another one that paid at least the same rate. It should be noted that those who remained in employment were more likely to be relatively highly skilled and qualified workers.

For individuals, a common picture emerged about the need to acquire skills to increase their job security with their current employer and/or gain employment elsewhere, based on gaining job-specific or technical skills related to those parts of the economy that are likely to prove resilient. The previous sections indicate that alongside job-specific skills, there will be a need for a range of more transversal skills related to communication and being able to manage a wider range of activities than previously. Individuals' positive expectations about the future were to some extent dependent upon them acquiring skills that are in demand in the labour market.

Key messages

Future outlook

- *In some countries more than in others, employers had relatively pessimistic expectations about future employment levels (over the short- to medium-term).*
- *The share of employers who expected there to be pandemic-related opportunities (not just related to healthcare) in the next 12 months varied across countries.*
- *Overall, a high share of employees had a positive outlook about keeping their job or finding a new one.*
- *Being able to update their existing skills or being able to acquire new skills linked to digitalisation are related to the individuals' relatively positive expectations about the future.*

Changing skills requirements

- *Most of the employers surveyed answered that retraining in job-/occupation-specific technical skills, administrative and management skills, and digital skills would be necessary to take up COVID-19 related job opportunities.*
- *Employed individuals believed they would need training in job-/occupation-specific skills followed by digital and innovation skills. These are also the three types of training they would have liked to receive.*
- *The majority of unemployed respondents recognised the need to update their skills to find a new job, with a relatively high share of them willing to take part in the training to upgrade their skills. The types of training they wanted related to the acquisition of job-/occupation-specific technical skills.*

8. Further exploration of the pandemic's sectoral impact

A key focus of the comparative study was to understand the sectoral impact of the pandemic in selected countries. Based on the evidence from the individual and employer surveys and the country studies conducted by the national experts, it is possible to explore some of the key sectoral impacts and their wider ramifications for countries in more detail, including:

- Wider impacts of output and job loss in key sectors;
- Employment opportunities which arose as a consequence of the pandemic and the need for certain skills to exploit those opportunities fully;

- Difficulties in maintaining social services such as education because of infrastructure and skill constraints;
- Relative resilience of some sectors in the face of the pandemic's often devastating economic and social impact.

It is clear from the in-depth case studies that the pandemic gave rise to new demands for skills. In many respects, these skills were the ones related to the supply and use of digital technologies that would allow activities to be conducted online. The pandemic accelerated this trend across sectors.

8.1. Understanding the wider impacts resulting from sectoral impacts

The pandemic undoubtedly had a differential sectoral impact, although tourism was typically mentioned across all countries as being particularly adversely affected. In Zambia, for example, within a month of the pandemic, most hotels, lodges, bars, and tourist attractions closed to the public. It led to huge job losses and significant losses of revenue as the sector effectively came to a standstill. The national case study report cites the Tourism Council of Zambia estimate that between December 2019 and March 2020, the sector lost about 62,777 jobs and US\$416 400 million in revenue. Notable tourist sites, including Victoria Falls, were closed to mitigate risk. It is the example of Namibia, however,

which most clearly demonstrates the impact of sizeable reductions in revenue and employment on the wider economy and society. The example below from the national case study report illustrates the way in which the immediate impact on output and employment loss had implications for Namibia's policy priorities relating to, respectively, increasing employment opportunities for women and conservation. Although the country and sector had sought to minimise the impact by developing new markets (for regional/domestic tourists) while borders and air travel were closed, the fact remains that a substantial foreign revenue source has severely contracted.



Tourism in Namibia

In early 2021, shortly after the COVID-19 pandemic swept across Europe and the rest of the globe, activity in Namibia's billion-dollar tourism industry collapsed. The pandemic was devastating to an industry that attracted more than 1.6 million visitors in 2019. Namibia's Tourism Revival Initiative, announced in August 2020 and implemented on 1 September, marked the reopening of Namibia's borders to tourists. This paved the way for a trickle of foreign tourists to visit the country, including those from major markets such as Germany. In February 2021, the Bank of Namibia announced the country's tourism industry lost about N\$3.2 billion from travel-related services because of COVID-19. Women, who make up most workers in the tourism industry, were some of the most affected. The Namibia Labour Force Survey report of 2018 showed that between 2016 and 2018, the number of women working in the food and accommodation sector increased by 74%, underlining the sector as an important job creator for women. Indeed, of the total of 83,056 people working in the food and accommodation sectors in 2018, 63,900 were women.

Many businesses were forced to lay-off employees, cut salaries, or close their doors. Individuals who worked closely with the sector as guides, drivers, or those making and selling arts and crafts lost their freelance income streams. Yet, the shake-up of the industry, though harsh, presents a chance to reshape it. Much needed attention has been paid to refining and redefining the industry, updating technology, and focusing on domestic and regional travellers, a long-neglected and more price-sensitive market segment.

Over the past three decades, Namibia's community conservation model has attracted widespread international recognition and helped empower rural communities that benefit from the protection of wildlife and natural resources through sustainable tourism and hunting operations. Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) grew out of the recognition that wildlife and other natural resources are of value in communal areas and that they can be unlocked if local communities are empowered to manage and utilise these themselves. Tourism has played a key role in the success of the model. Conservancies supported profitable joint-venture tourism and hunting operations, which in turn helped boost employment, community development, and wildlife conservation. Communities living in conservancies that were heavily reliant on tourism through lodges, guiding, souvenir sales, and other services were some of the worst affected by the pandemic. The steep decline in tourism numbers adversely affected conservation funding.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment Report: Namibia.

It is also apparent that the pandemic has had a major impact on priority sectors linked to both national and regional development strategies within countries. The example from the national case study report of the agro-business sector in Ethiopia illustrates how COVID-19 had an impact on an important source of export revenues and resources for regional development.



Agro-processing in Ethiopia

The agro-processing industry has been identified as a key sector in various government strategy documents, including the current 10-year perspective plan. Because of the presence of abundant agricultural resources, such as livestock and cropland, suitable climate conditions, and vast linkage opportunities with the rest of the economy, the agro-industry is a key priority sector with immense potential for job creation, import-substitution, and exports. The development of Integrated Agro-Industrial Parks (IAIPs) is a crucial strategic initiative to achieve industrial development by linking the agricultural sector with agro-processing industries by facilitating the delivery of services and the provision of infrastructure. IAIPs are envisaged to generate positive agglomerative economic effects by clustering agro-processing enterprises in areas with vast agricultural potential. Two IAIPs in the Amhara and Sidama regions have recently become operational and another two are near completion in the Oromia and Tigray regions. More are being planned in other regions.

The Ethiopian government envisages the promotion of the development of agricultural investment, mainly commercialisation of the agricultural sector, to increase agricultural production and create rural employment opportunities. Horticulture has received considerable attention in the current 10-year development plan. Further, the sector is predicted to play a major role in the transformation of smallholders into wage labourers on larger farms, as well as diversification of the export sector, moving from traditional agricultural to non-traditional agricultural exports. Currently, the horticulture industry is the fourth largest contributor to export revenue for Ethiopia, next to the coffee, oilseed, and manufacturing sectors.

The impact of COVID-19 on employment, capacity utilisation, and work arrangement reveals that 70% of firms stagnated in employment growth (that is, they had been on an upward employment trajectory and this then stalled), while 20% exhibited a reduction in employment. This is a significant negative impact of the pandemic on employment in the agro-processing industry. In relative terms, fruits and vegetables and edible oil sub-sectors experienced the least impact of the pandemic on worker layoff, while the poultry subsector showed the highest decrease in employment, with about a third of firms reporting a reduction in workforce. In terms of firm size, micro and small enterprises were more likely to experience lay-offs than medium and large firms.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment Report for the agro-processing sector: Ethiopia.

8.2. New opportunities

Despite the pandemic's largely negative impact, in some cases it did present new opportunities to sectors which had been in decline, with the opportunity to recapture domestic markets when the flow of imports had been stopped or slowed. This can be seen, for instance, in the case of the clothing and textiles sector in South Africa, which is an important source of employment but one which has been in decline over recent years in the face of cheap imports. Although the example below from the national case study report for South Africa demonstrates that while the interruption

of global supply chains may have offered some domestic producers a (temporary) respite, it is nevertheless important to bear in mind that many other sectors are dependent upon those global supply chains for their raw materials. Employment in the manufacturing sector in Uganda, for example, contracted by around 20% in part because of factory closures in China, alongside the substantial drop in domestic demand.



Clothing and textiles sector in South Africa

COVID-19 and the lockdown battered the beleaguered clothing and textiles sector. The GDP contribution of this sector, including retail, is R74 billion a year, while its contribution to employment is 210,074. Retail is the major employment segment in the value chain. For example, in 1987, manufacturers employed 200,000 people, but by 2006, the workforce halved, and manufacturers have since struggled to compete with a flood of cheap imports from Asia.

The COVID-19 crisis is presenting opportunities for the clothing and textiles sector to recover quickly due to import stoppages. Domestic retailers are prioritising rapid replenishment, quick response, and fast fashion capabilities to give them in-season competitive advantages during the crisis. This requires retailers to source products from local manufacturers, and hence productivity improvements, lean manufacturing, small batch production, fast fashion, and multi-skilling are opportunities to forge a tighter fit in the value chain between manufacturers and retailers. In this respect, there are considerable upskilling and reskilling needs for workers.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment Report: South Africa.

A key issue, of course, is whether the clothing and textiles sector is able to capitalise upon its gains so that they are sustained post-pandemic. The evidence presented above indicates that this will be dependent upon investments in, for example, new capital equipment, but also a range of skills that will allow it to compete against imports.

The pandemic also provided opportunities for other sectors to develop. This is readily apparent in the case of e-commerce. While this presents a

potential opportunity to, for example, retailers, the employment opportunities it provides are not always fully captured. For instance, in South Africa, there has been a substantial increase in the provision of online services related to sectors such as retailing. However, because of digital skills shortages in the country, the digital element (design of apps and so forth) is often outsourced to other countries, such that the potential employment gains are only partially realised locally.



Online retailing in South Africa

COVID-19 is reshaping buying habits, encouraging online shopping, and catalysing growth. Kantar research found that 22% of consumers surveyed say they are using online shopping more frequently, and 42% of people under 35 years are doing less shopping at physical outlets. COVID-19 is compelling local retailers to transition to online trading to expand their customer base. Companies are investing in mobile shopping apps to respond to low bandwidth penetration and retailers are using social media platforms to build their brands and reach a wider net of customers. They are also integrating store payment cards into online shopping, with other innovations in the payment space including instant electronic transfers, mobile money transfers, and cryptocurrency options.

As online retailing grows, fuelled by COVID-19, skills shortages intensify, encouraging retailers to outsource work to countries with strong digital skills, especially as this sector requires strong information technology (IT) skills in programming, coding, software development, database management, cybersecurity, cryptocurrencies, data analytics and so forth. Business skills are also needed in taxation, international trade, competition policy, laws and regulations, social media marketing, and entrepreneurship.

The outlook for online retailing in South Africa is nevertheless positive, with enterprise development opportunities, business growth, innovation, job creation, and skills development. The demand for these skills is expected to grow in the post-COVID-19 era as people become accustomed to e-commerce and online shopping.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment Report: South Africa.

While the example of South Africa draws attention to some opportunities not being taken, in general, the IT sector would appear to have benefited as enterprises sought to improve their online offer. In Nigeria, for instance, the evidence points to there being an increase in sales jobs related to IT.

8.3. Maintenance of social services

An important challenge facing many countries is how to maintain a range of public services and social goods during the pandemic. The example below from the national case study report for Kenya of the education sector is illuminating. It demonstrates the difficulties education institutions

faced in adapting to the privations that the pandemic imposed on society and reveals the way in which teachers lacking digital skills coupled with students having limited access to the internet effectively stymied the capacity of the sector to mitigate the impact of the pandemic.



The education sector in Kenya

The education sector in Kenya, especially the private institutions, were severely affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. The lockdown led to the closure of all educational institutions, disrupting the academic calendar, and resulting in a loss of teaching and learning time. Many teachers and support workers in private institutions were either furloughed or laid off. Private institutions effectively lost their only source of revenue – student fees. Some private institutions closed permanently.

The education sector appeared ill-prepared for the crisis and ensuing lockdown. Most teachers and lecturers were not equipped to provide online learning to students, facing challenges including lack of interconnectivity, data, hardware and software, and pedagogic skills to deliver lessons through the online medium. There was a lack of training for teachers on health and safety protocols, and they were not given training to enable them to cope during and after the pandemic either. For example, around 15% of the individuals surveyed in the education sector did not feel well informed about how to protect themselves or their fellow workers from COVID-19 while at work, and only 30% undertook health and safety training connected with the crisis.

Students faced similar challenges, which included the lack of interconnectivity, data, hardware and software, and digital skills to learn through online platforms. Schools also lacked a digital infrastructure to make online learning available.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment Report: Kenya.

Similar findings were reported in other countries. In Nigeria, for example, while learning shifted from physical classrooms to virtual environments during the lockdown, this was effectively halted in many schools, especially public and low-fee private ones, due to lack of infrastructure for virtual learning. Parents were hesitant to enrol their children in

a virtual classroom and had difficulty using the learning tools in guiding their children. Job losses and an increase in food prices led to household budget rationing and reduced the willingness to pay for virtual learning among parents as well, especially those in the low-income groups.

8.4. Resilient sectors

Not all sectors were adversely affected by the pandemic. When a sector is of strategic importance to the country and where employment can remain in relatively remote parts of the country, there is scope to continue production. The example below from the national case study report for Zambia of the mining sector is of interest here.



Mining sector in Zambia

Copper is the mainstay of the formal Zambian economy, which generates more than 80% of the foreign exchange earnings. Hence, a drop in copper prices means that the impact will reverberate through the economy and affect the whole country. It also has a direct impact on tax collection and the delivery of public services. Copper production surprisingly increased in 2020. The COVID-19 pandemic led to some loss of productivity, reduced sales, and interruptions in some mines, although the impact on the copper mining sector was slight. Contract workers were more severely affected than their permanent counterparts. At the height of the pandemic, management of Mopani Copper Mine, one of the largest mines, attempted to close operations and put the Mufulira and Kitwe mines on care and maintenance. However, the government intervened due to the threat from labour action and the spillover impact on mining towns. The increase in global copper prices enabled some mines such as Lumwana, Kalumbila, Kansanshi, and Chambeshi to continue operations. Copper production increased by 21% between January and October 2020, from 64,840 MT in January 2020 to 78,662 MT in August, an increase of 21%.

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment Report: Zambia.

Some agricultural sectors have also been able to increase output during the pandemic, such as in Namibia (aided by a bumper harvest after several years of drought). The importance of drawing attention to resilient sectors is that it indicates the

way in which the impact on the demand for labour and skills is sector-specific. Some sectors have, at least over the short-term, been able to weather the storm much more than other sectors, such as tourism and education.

8.5. Summary

The pandemic exposed vulnerabilities in many sectors, with the result that employment declined. This begs questions about:

- The capacity of employers to recruit workers once economies and labour market begin to recover through 2021 and 2022 and whether this will increase skills shortages. Some sectors were forced to lay off skilled workers during the pandemic, and it cannot always be taken for granted that they will return once employers begin recruiting once more.
- The types of skills which embed resilience within organisations, such that they are able to take advantage of the opportunities which arise during a pandemic that allow a degree of mitigation that would not otherwise take place. The key message which emerges from the wider study and the evidence collated in the national country reports is that communication skills linked to a range of online/digital skills are critical.

Thinking about how sectors recover from the pandemic suggests attention needs to be focused on the type and volume of skills demand which is likely to arise in the recovery period. In many countries, employers have endured a substantial fall in output and thereby income. The implication is that employers have little to no resources to pay for training, with the resources they possess being focused on trying to stem the loss of output. Even if employers were able to provide the training that is required to deal with the pandemic or support recovery, many people in need of training have exited employment in the formal sector and would therefore not benefit from employer-funded training. The danger is that as the recovery starts, the multi-skilled individuals that employers are looking for will not be available and this may constrain the recovery.



9. Conclusion and recommendations

9.1. Key findings

From an economic perspective, the pandemic can be interpreted as a massive shock that has devastated the livelihoods of many individuals and employers. The evidence presented in this report reveals that while sectors responded in different ways to the pandemic, these responses were unable to stem the substantial loss of employment and reductions in working hours resulting from the sharp drop in demand many establishments experienced. Nevertheless, at the margin, they may well have had some impact. At the sectoral level there were examples of:

- Increased demand for employment and skills in some sectors. This was principally the case with regard to the IT sector, where the demand for IT services increased as business switched to being increasingly online. Nevertheless, it is evident that it was difficult for the IT sector to satisfy this demand.
- Temporary reprieves in other sectors, with the interruption of international supply chains resulting in some import-competing sectors being able to capture an increased share of the domestic market while the supply of imports was much reduced (such as the textiles sector in South Africa).
- Pursuit of new domestic markets being sought where traditional export markets had contracted sharply, or were almost wiped out, as in the case of the hospitality and tourism sectors. In Namibia, for example, the tourist industry had responded by looking to serve domestic and regional tourists rather than those travelling from much further afield.⁷
- Providing health and safety skills so that establishments were able to remain operational and comply with social distancing and various other guidelines.
- Switching to working from home where possible.

- These all have skills implications, but it was apparent that the sharp drop in demand that many employers endured reduced further whatever capacity they might have possessed to deliver and fund training. Moreover, the costs associated with this drop in demand have not always been borne equally. In particular, the following groups would appear to have been particularly adversely affected:
 - Relatively low skilled workers;
 - Sectors that are dependent upon foreign revenues (such as exports and tourism);
 - Sectors where social distancing imposes constraints on work (such as hospitality and education).

As recorded in the country reports, the result was a rise in unemployment and a fall in working hours, with a potential increase in informal working as people searched for sources of income.

In thinking about the lessons learnt from the pandemic in relation to employment and skills, the focus is essentially on resilience. In other words, what are the means of working and associated skills requirements which allow individuals and employers to fare relatively well in the face of shocks such as the one imposed by COVID-19?

Effective business responses to the need to operate with resilience during the pandemic pivot around:

- Being able to diversify production or capture new markets (such as switching from export to domestic or regional markets) – in other words, the agility to quickly respond to rapid changes in the external environment;
- Adopting online or digital solutions to overcome the problems imposed by travel restrictions, social distancing, lockdowns, and so forth – these are the digital resilience skills that many employers have had to acquire quickly, some with more success than others;

⁷ There were some sectors that experienced relatively less impact because they were regarded as a priority or strategically important one, which allowed them to continue working without much impact on production (such as the mining sector) or because they provided essential services (such as in parts of the food sector).

- Ensuring people have the health and safety skills so that establishments can remain both open and safe.

Again, these have skills implications. In the first instance, it requires a workforce that has the skills to quickly adapt to supply new markets, and in the second case, it requires people to possess various digital skills.

As the recovery gains pace, employers expect employment levels to increase. For the most part, they intend to re-recruit those they made redundant and/or recruit fully experienced workers, although the findings from the surveys and interviews with stakeholders suggest that employers' skills needs have changed as a consequence of the pandemic. This is most apparent with respect to the demand for digital skills and those related to health and safety.

Digital skills in particular would appear to be in short supply, with a substantial increase in the requirement for stronger digital skills especially by managerial, professional, administrative, and clerical occupations that can most often be undertaken remotely, and which are most likely to be involved in online business operations. To a much lesser extent, there has also been some increase in need for digital skills in lower-skilled occupations and in occupations that require presence in the workplace. In addition, there has been an increase in the need for skills in systems administration and systems management, and in adoption and deployment of IT systems to support increased digitalisation.

Most employers also identify a need for more training in job-/occupation-specific technical skills and in administrative and managerial skills. These categories of skill are also the categories most commonly identified as priorities for training by unemployed respondents.

Online sales and related delivery services have grown significantly, and this has driven more activity in ICT services businesses. It has also increased the requirement for ICT literacy on the part of employees and delivery workers. In the education sector, the increase in online service delivery has created a need for online teaching skills, but it has been challenging for education and training providers to develop these. Students have likewise needed digital skills, and have often been challenged by inadequate access to suitable devices and to the internet and other IT infrastructure. It is also evident that the training needs of employers and individuals are arising at a time when employers are least able to satisfy them because their resources are so depleted. At the same time, there is evidence that those who might provide training (such as providers in the education sector) have struggled to shift education and training online.

There was an expectation at the time the country studies were conducted that the economic recovery might come soon, however, at the time of writing this report in August 2021, there were signs that the full recovery might be achieved later than expected given current infection and vaccination rates. Moreover, there is a need to consider the possibility that COVID-19 will be around for many years to come, possibly necessitating future curtailments of economic activity. This suggests that the skills required to mitigate the impacts of COVID-19 might be required in the longer term.

Looking to the future beyond the pandemic, employers emphasise the importance of skills development for their businesses to perform effectively, especially in the following areas: specific technical skills required for each job/occupation; administrative and managerial skills; and digital skills.

9.2. Recommendations

Bearing all of the above in mind, the following recommendations are suggested as a means of making both employers and the employment prospects of individuals more resilient over the next few years. It is conventional to consider in the first instance developments on the demand side and think about how the supply-side might respond.

Here the supply-side will be considered first. This is because a key ingredient in the mix of responses relies on having education and training provision in place that can continue to function during the pandemic, especially in light of the education sector struggling to provide continuity of service during the pandemic in some countries.



Recommendation 1: Providing online training and blended learning formats during the pandemic

The first recommendation stresses the importance of training provision being available during a pandemic to equip both employers and employees with the skills they need to continue working during periods of lockdown. This will require more training provision to be moved online or to adopt blended learning approaches that reduce the need for physical presence. However, employers surveyed reported that they struggled to find online provision. As such, countries need to ensure that employers and training providers have the capacity to integrate online learning into their training provision, and that they have access to the resources required to do so. This might include developing and making available online content and supports for training in skills for which there is wide demand, such as supervisory management skills, administrative skills, digital user skills, and application of digital technologies to business. These could be developed locally or sourced from other countries, although it is important to ensure in that case that there is sufficient local context for it to be relevant to the needs of employers and individuals in the countries concerned, and that language and literacy barriers are addressed to the extent that is feasible.



Recommendation 2: Promoting the availability of online training

Where online training provision is available, this needs to be communicated to potential users. Since cost is likely to be a barrier to people participating in training, some means of subsidising the provision of training (perhaps in full) should be considered, especially given that the cost of including an additional learner is usually much less for online and blended learning provision than for traditional provision that is fully in-person. Since courses are online, there will be a need to provide access to particular groups who do not have access to computers or have limited digital skills. Local training hubs which allow people to have supported access to online training may be one means of overcoming this particular barrier. While the pandemic provides a strong motivation to develop this provision, it can continue to make a valuable and cost-efficient contribution to learning even as restrictions driven by COVID are relaxed or ended.



Recommendation 3: Incentivising certain groups to participate in training

More vulnerable groups, especially those who have lost their jobs during the pandemic, may have limited time to engage in training if they are focussed on activities related to job searches or working in the informal economy, both during COVID-19 restrictions and to the extent that some types of employment opportunity remain depressed as restrictions are relaxed. Different ways to incentivise them to participate in training will need to be found, bearing in mind that providing information on the benefits of engaging in job-relevant training may not be sufficient.



Recommendation 4: Providing skills which have economic value in the labour market

Given that resources for training are in short supply, there is a need to focus on skills that are essential to provide resilience in the face of a pandemic. The evidence presented in this report suggests the key areas of skills need during the pandemic are: (i) IT skills; (ii) health and safety skills in the workplace; and (iii) the capacity to manage a wider range of tasks in the workplace (given that, typically, more needs to be done by fewer people). As the impact of the pandemic on operations and markets lessens, common priorities for skills development will include specific technical skills required for each job/occupation, administrative and managerial skills, and digital skills.





Recommendation 5: Establishing or strengthening processes for identification and analysis of skills needs

The RSA process has highlighted the need for much stronger domestic processes for identification and anticipation of skills needs in most of the countries covered, and for systems of skills system governance that actively uses the outputs of these processes in shaping provision of skills development for individuals and employers. Elaborating on, and responding to, the skills development needs identified by the study provides an opportunity not just to address the skills challenges arising from the COVID-19 pandemic, but also to build more effective and sustainable systems of skills anticipation and governance for the future, so as to better meet the skills needs of workers and employers over the long term.

For the immediate future, while the RSA country reports provide high-level guidance on what needs to be done, more detail is required so that training can be tailored to exactly that which is required to assist employers and various groups of individuals in the labour market. To this end, there needs to be a process in place that is able to identify skills needs for specific sectors in each country. Expert panels of key stakeholders can be one of way of rapidly refining the outputs of the study so as to guide further immediate action beyond the recommendations already in the reports.



Recommendation 6: A roadmap

A roadmap (at sector, national, or regional level) can bring all of these recommendations together by setting out a plan for how to respond to the training needs related to the pandemic, with responsibilities attached to various groups for delivering outputs within a clear timetable.

9.3. A final comment

The above measures for reskilling or upskilling those in the labour force can, as noted, make an important difference at the margin – however, ultimately, the measures required to support employment in various sectors requires much more than just training and skilling. This is most evident in relation to IT skills, given how resilience in the face of the pandemic has relied so heavily on the

availability of digital skills. Being able to maintain economic activity in the face of possible future outbreaks of COVID-19 will not only depend on possessing digital skills, but will also be contingent on having a digital infrastructure in place that allows businesses, consumers, and households to readily access the internet.

Annex: Descriptive statistics

Table A.1: Number of observations - Individual data

	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
Cameroon	204	4.06	4.06
Ethiopia	210	4.18	8.23
Ghana	644	12.81	21.04
Kenya	397	7.89	28.93
Namibia	339	6.74	35.67
Nigeria	1,110	22.07	57.75
Uganda	981	19.51	77.25
South Africa	628	12.49	89.74
Zambia	516	10.26	100.00
Total	5,029	100.00	

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Table A.2: Descriptive statistics - Individuals

	N	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max
Gender	3,525	1.41	.49	1	2
Age	3,524	4.11	.88	1	7
Labour market status now	5,029	2.75	1.82	0	7
Occupation now	1,994	3.42	2.33	1	10
Sector now	1,995	8.97	6.6	0	27
Education	3,525	4.44	1.05	1	7

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Table A.3: Number of observations - Employer data

	Freq.	Percent	Cum.
Cameroon	82	4.55	4.55
Ethiopia	210	11.66	16.21
Ghana	405	22.49	38.70
Kenya	188	10.44	49.14
Namibia	161	8.94	58.08
Nigeria	260	14.44	72.52
Uganda	318	17.66	90.17
South Africa	109	6.05	96.22
Zambia	68	3.78	100.00
Total	1,801	100.00	

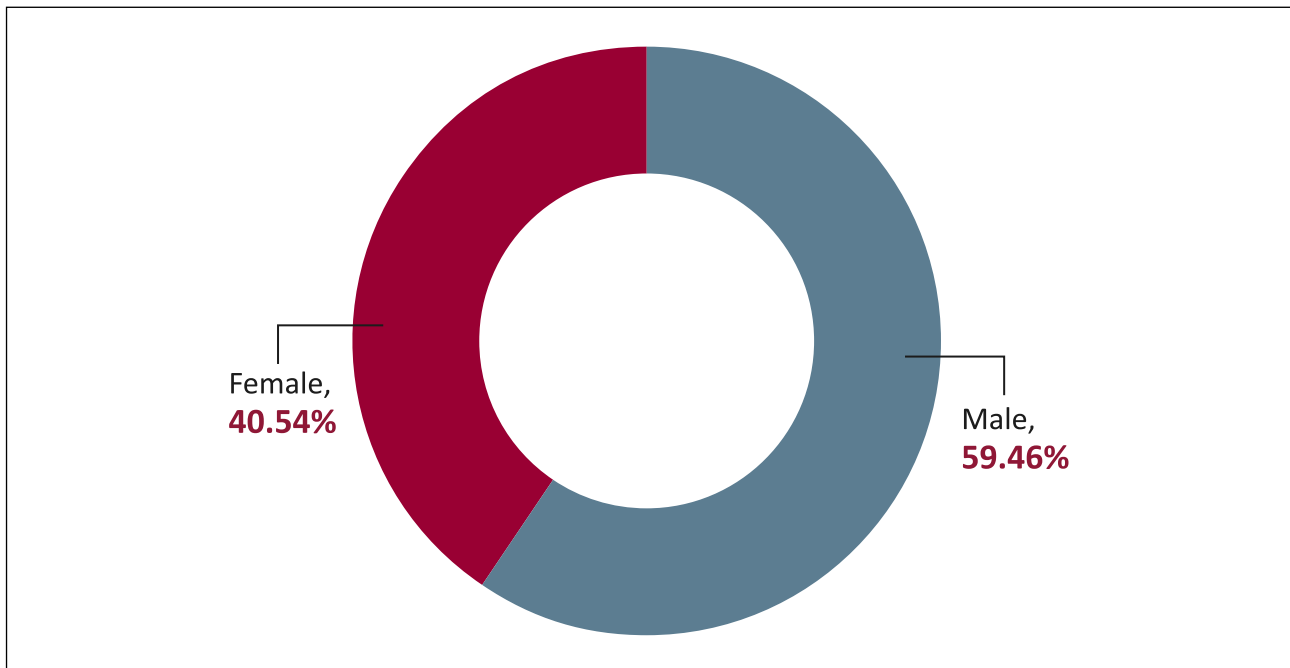
Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Table A.4: Descriptive statistics – Employers

	N	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max
Private	1663	1.22	.41	1	2
Sector now	1413	2.64	.95	1	4
Size in 2019	646	1.49	.68	1	3
Size now	1539	1.5	.7	1	3

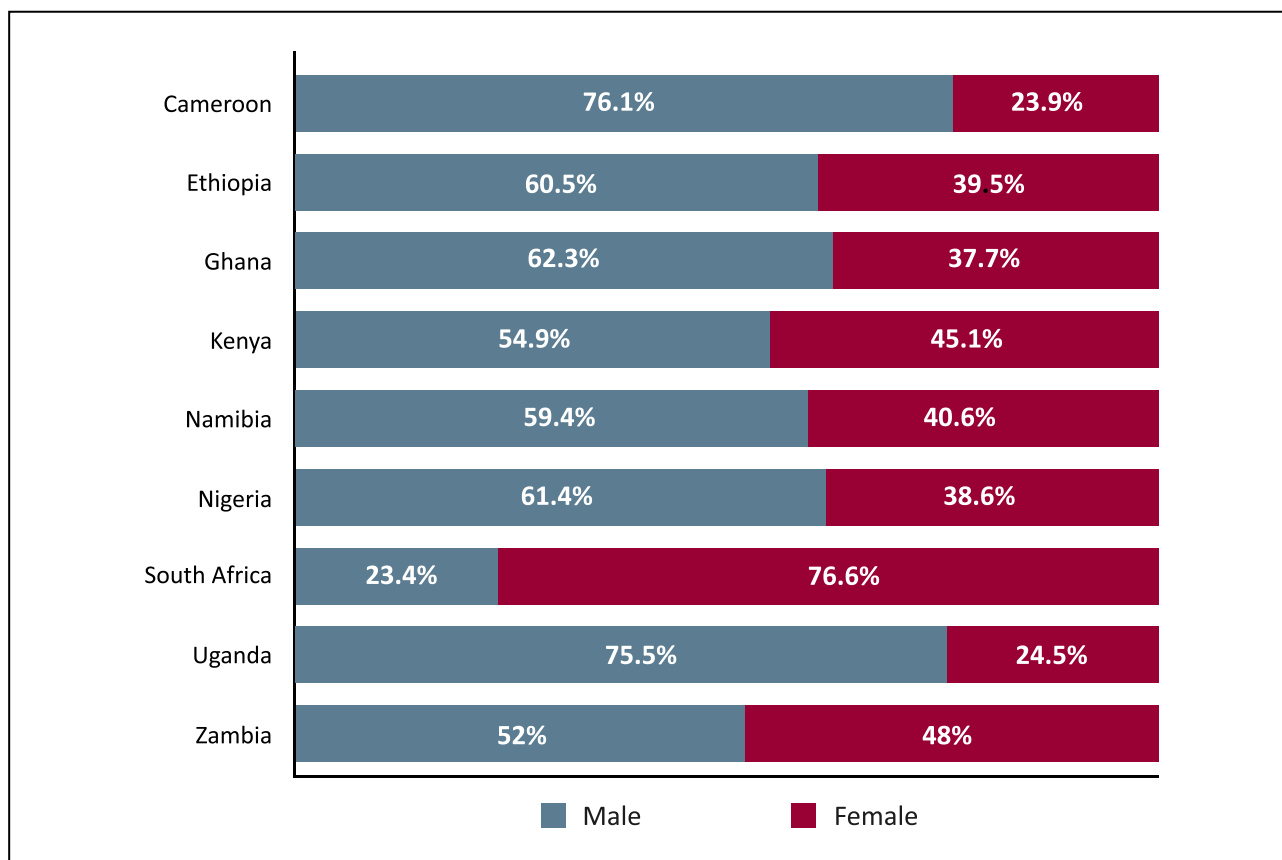
Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure A1: Percentage of male and female individuals in the sample (%)



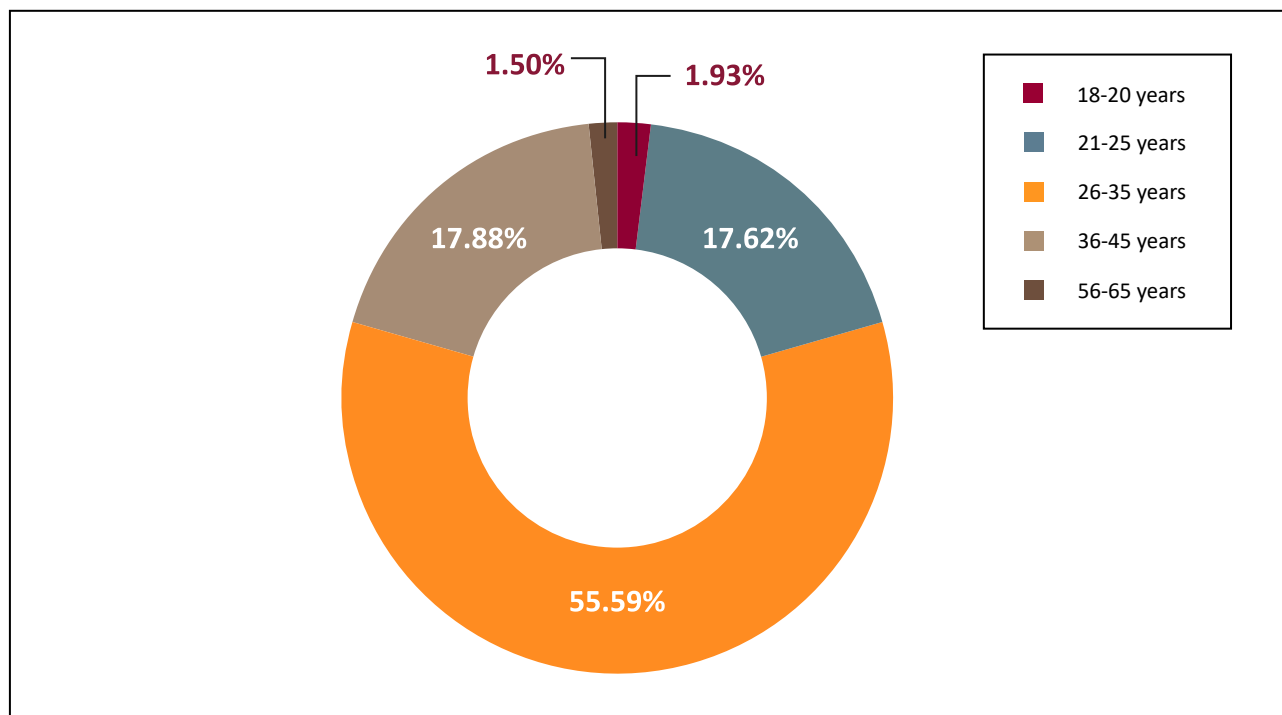
Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure A2: Percentage of male and female participants in each country (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

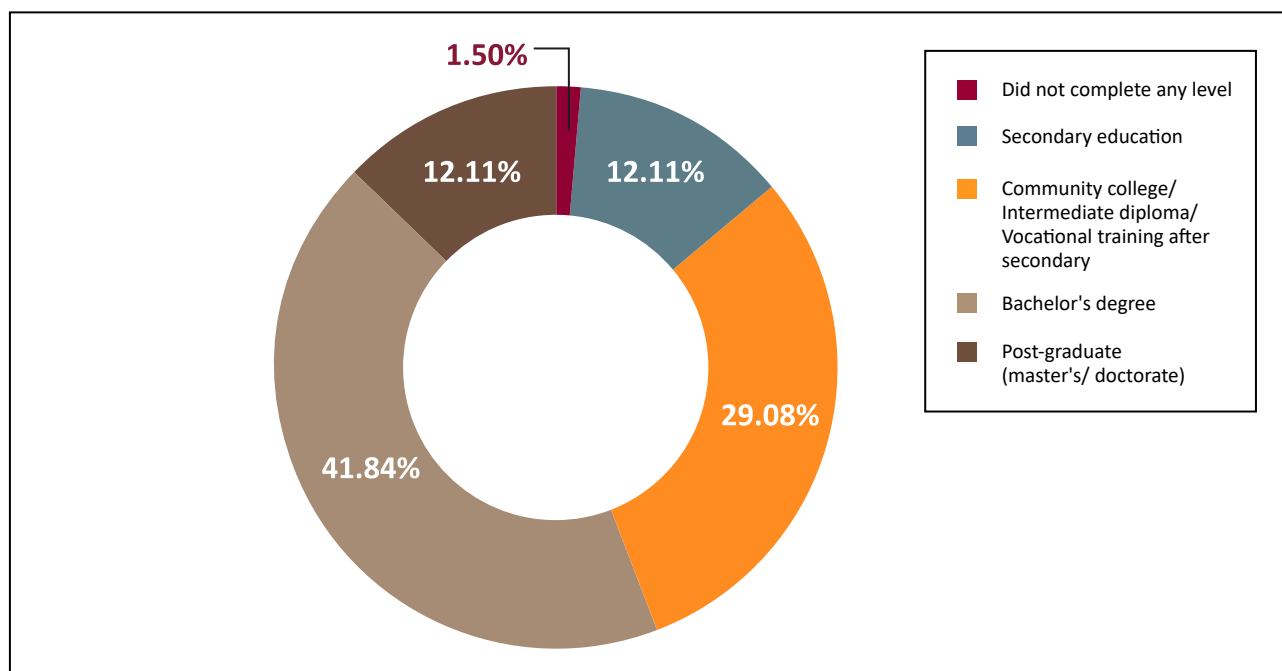
Figure A3: Percentage of individual participants by age group (%)*



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

*Data totals vary based on data rounding discrepancies. This does not effect the overall data interpretation.

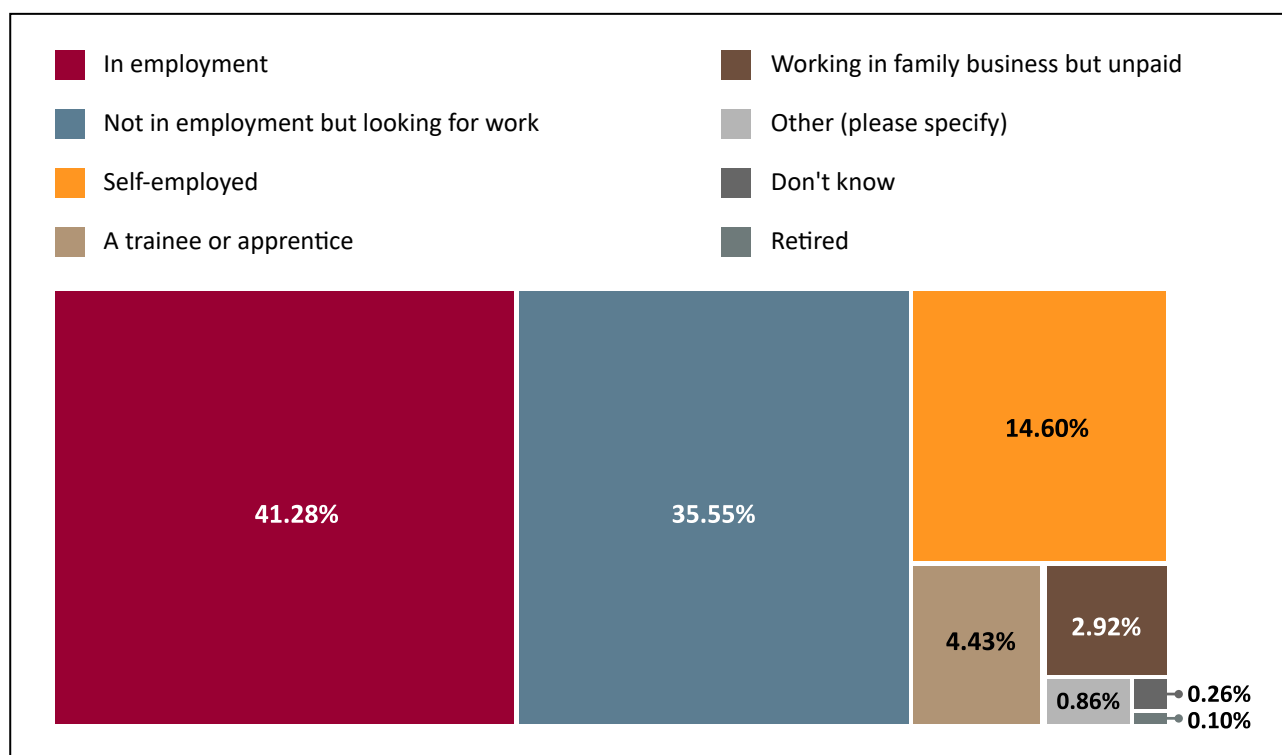
Figure A4: Percentage of individual participants by education levels (%)*



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

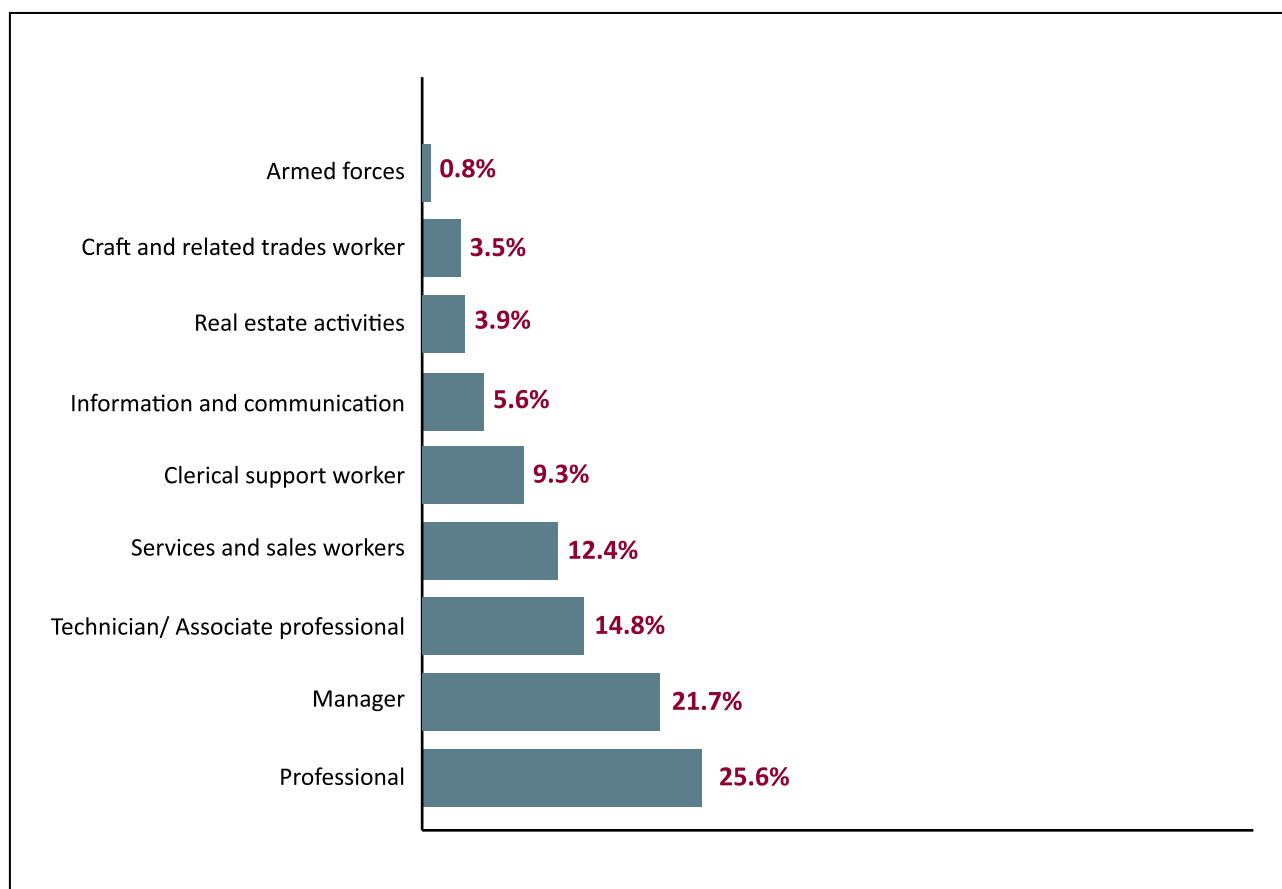
*Data totals vary based on data rounding discrepancies. This does not effect the overall data interpretation.

Figure A5: Percentage of individual participants by labour market status (%)



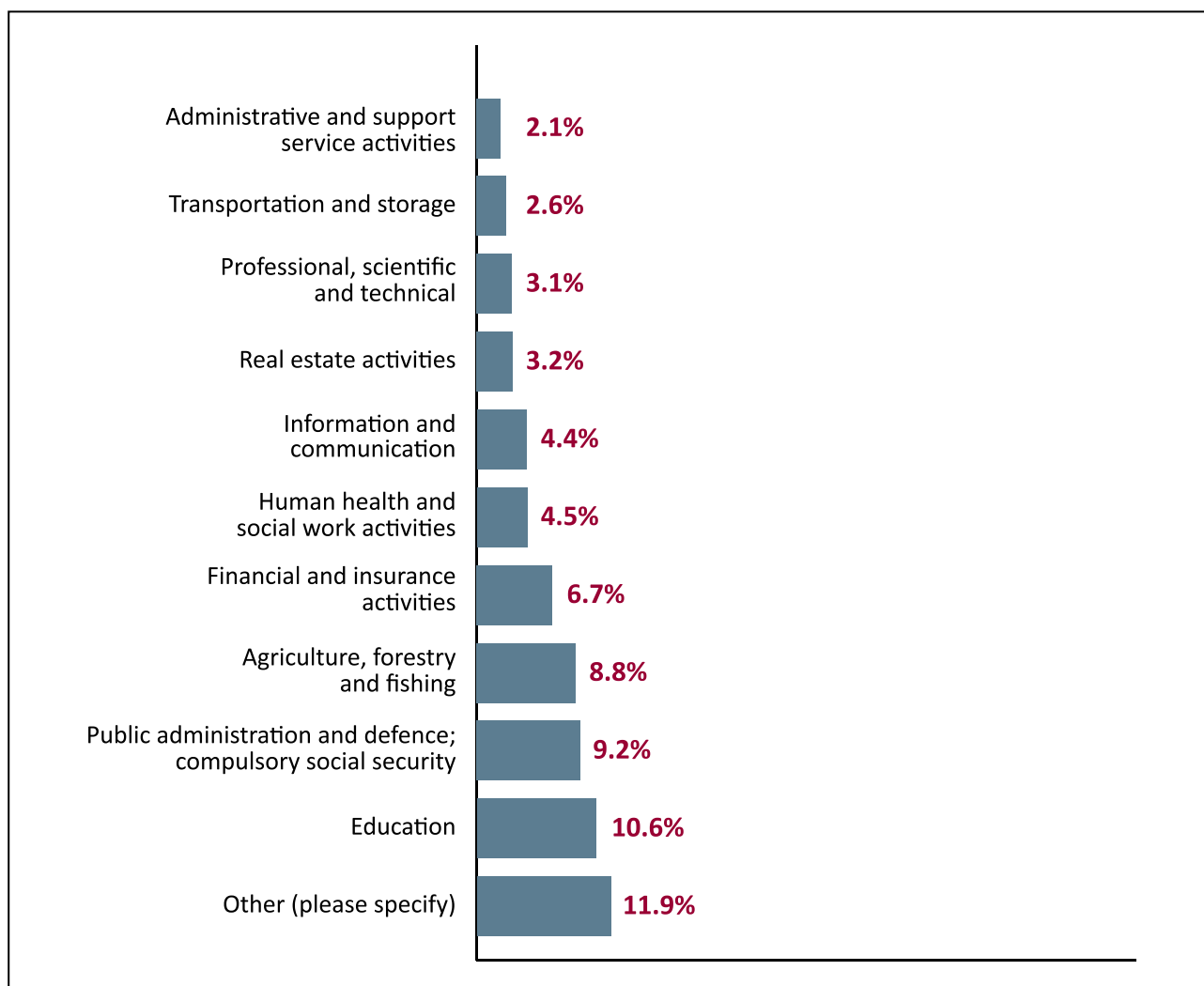
Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure A6: Percentage of individual participants by occupation (%)



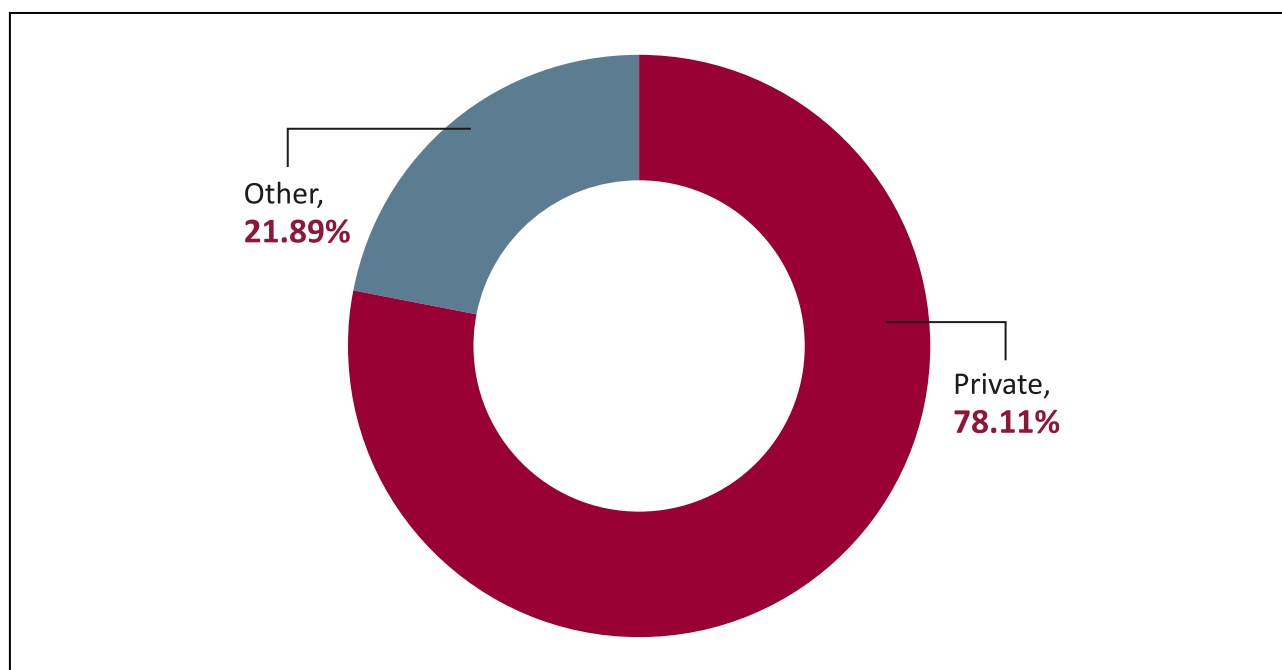
Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure A7: Percentage of individual participants by sector (%)



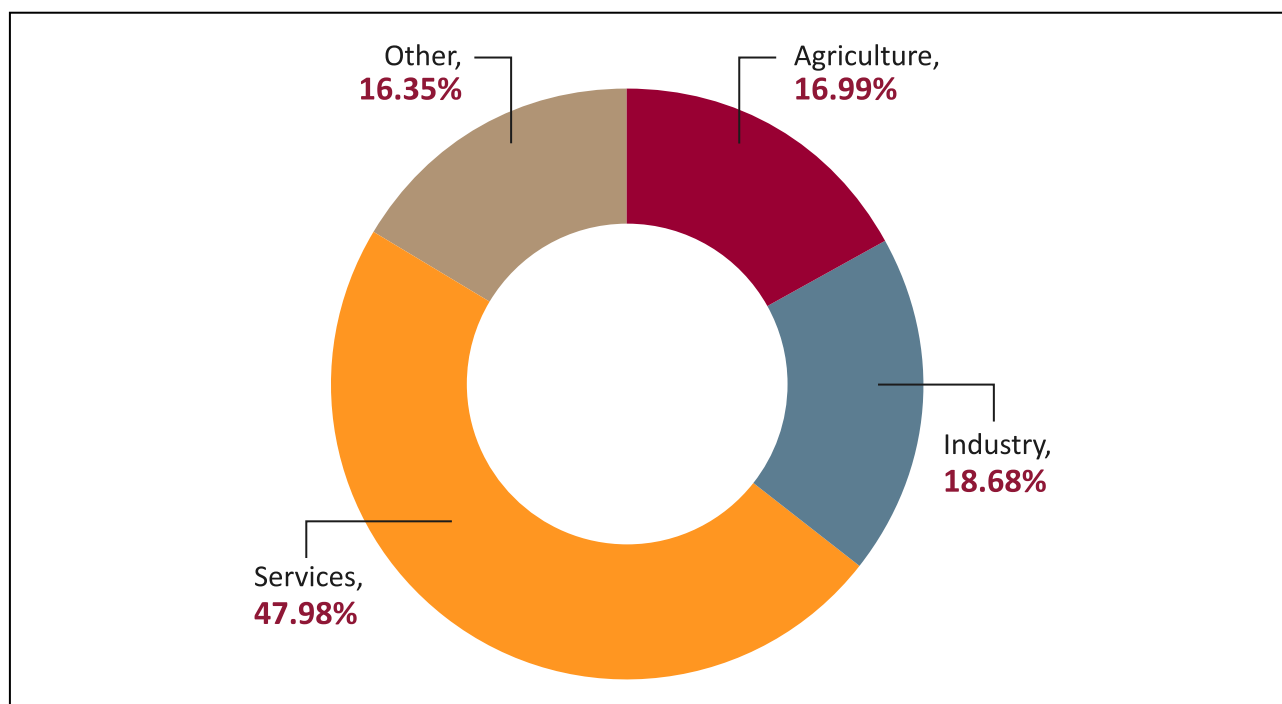
Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.

Figure A8: Types of company distribution (%)



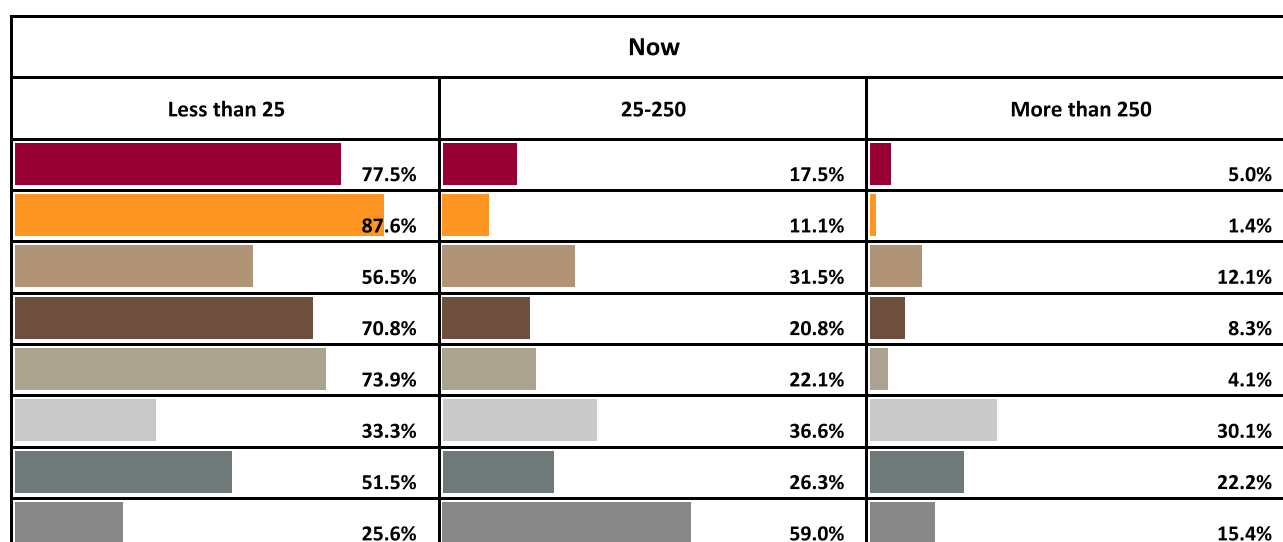
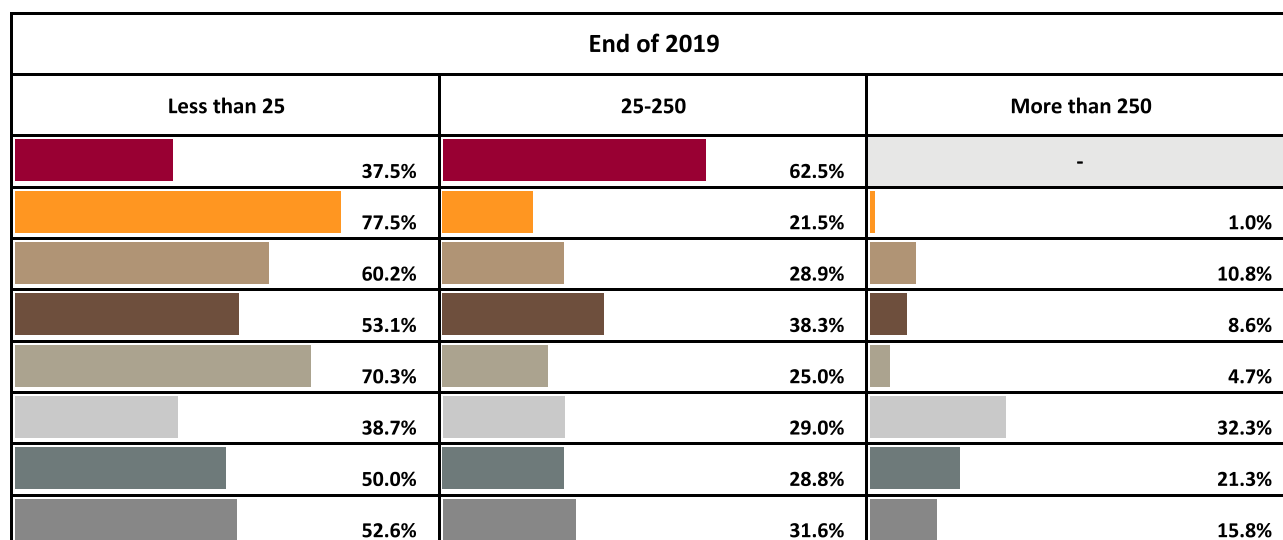
Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure A9: Percentage of company by sector (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure A10: Enterprises distribution by firm's size across countries (%)



Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of employers.

Figure A11: Share of responses on occupation title and labour market status (%)

Country	2019	Now
Employed	 92.0%	 84.5%
Self-employed	 87.4%	0.0%
Unemployed	 3.1%	0.2%
Other	 35.7%	 56.9%

Source: ILO Rapid Skills Assessment of COVID's Impact: Survey of individuals.



