



International  
Labour  
Organization

**Marina Baskakova**

# **SOME ASPECTS OF YOUTH EDUCATION, GENDER EQUALITY AND EMPLOYMENT IN THE CAUCASUS AND CENTRAL ASIA**

**Marina Baskakova**

**Some aspects of youth education, gender equality  
and employment**

**in the Caucasus and Central Asia**

**International Labour Organization**

Moscow 2007

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## Foreword

Increasing unemployment of youth and a poor quality of youth employment are among the key problems of the modern labour market. According to the ILO<sup>1</sup>, the number of unemployed youth aged 15 to 24 has been steadily growing within the latest decade; hundreds of millions of young people are working but still living in poverty. Currently, the youth accounts for thalf of all unemployed in the world. Increasing youth unemployment impedes realization of abilities of young men and women, provokes social apathy, creates conditions for crime and drug-addiction, boosts other patterns of asocial behaviour and is an impulse for joining illegal labour migrants.

This tendency is very visible in the countries, where youth accounts for a significant part of the labour force. The countries covered by this study share these problems, too: Azerbaijan, Armenia, Georgia, Russia, Kyrgyzstan, Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan. Young people find themselves in a very vulnerable situation on the labour market in these countries. Female youth are the worst affected, since in the environment of reviving patriarchy stereotypes and gender roles, they are being discriminated in the labour market on two grounds: age and sex.

At the same time, problems of youth in former Soviet republics have some peculiarities. They are rooted in history and culture, as well as in specifics of socio-economic development of these countries. A relatively high education level of young people needs to be noted in the first place. However, young people cannot fully use their capacities due to unstable economic situation in most of the countries of the region. It is also important that many problems of youth and its dynamics are mostly hidden. This can be explained by limited and inaccessible national statistics, as well as the lack of research on youth issues.

The purpose of this paper is to partially fill the existing gaps related to labour market situation of youth. The survey is based on the analysis of data provided by the national statistical offices of the countries in the sub-region, CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee, as well as international organizations (ILO, UNICEF, UNDP, World Bank). The survey also uses the results of comparative analysis made at the Sub-regional Workshop on Youth Employment (Issyk-Kul, Kyrgyzstan, May-June 2006). Information obtained during discussions of tripartite partners from seven CIS countries (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Russia and Uzbekistan) allows to present the situation of youth in such areas as education, economic activity, unemployment, rates and quality of employment, as well as to highlight gender aspects of these problems.

In the light of *Recommendations*, produced during the sub-regional tripartite workshop in Issyk-Kul, this survey may serve as an information base for undertaking a situation analysis on youth employment in the countries of the sub-region and subsequent design and implementation of tripartite initiatives and specific programs aimed at effective involvement of young men and women in social and economic development.

Werner Blenk  
Director of the ILO Sub-Regional Office

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<sup>1</sup> Global Employment Trends for Youth, Geneva, October 2006.

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## Chapter 1.

### Demographic Factors in Developing Region's Labour Market

Youth education, job placement and employment problems are differently positioned as social problems of the countries in the region. To a great extent the differences depend upon peculiarities in scenarios of demographic development. This chapter analyzes how the demographic factors influence youth employment and unemployment. It gives an overview of population age trends and the number of young people affected and therefore demonstrates the scope of youth problems in each country. In the long run, it outlines the top priorities in national youth policies. Furthermore, the chapter gives an overview of the poverty spread in the region, which is closely linked to poor education opportunities. Also, the chapter estimates how acute the poverty problem is for families with children.

#### Population Age Trends

Demographic processes in the countries of the region under study differ greatly. However, on the whole, the countries can be split into two groups based on similar quantitative characteristic features of the demographic processes. Azerbaijan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan (Kazakhstan has recently joined the group) belong to a group with increasing populations. Throughout 2001 – 2005 alone, the population in these countries rose by more than 1 million people (except Uzbekistan since there is no relevant available data). Even in Soviet times these countries were seen as labour-excessive. In other words, they were seen as territories with fast-growing populations (including the working-age population). At the same time, their economies were not developing fast enough. It resulted in an acute shortage of jobs and a youth employment problem. The fact that the majority of the population was not educated enough to get highly skilled jobs made the situation even worse. To take the edge off the situation in the labour-excessive regions, special state programs were designed. They envisaged organized resettlement of the population to other regions of the country suffering from the shortage of the labour force. Currently, the problem is still there.

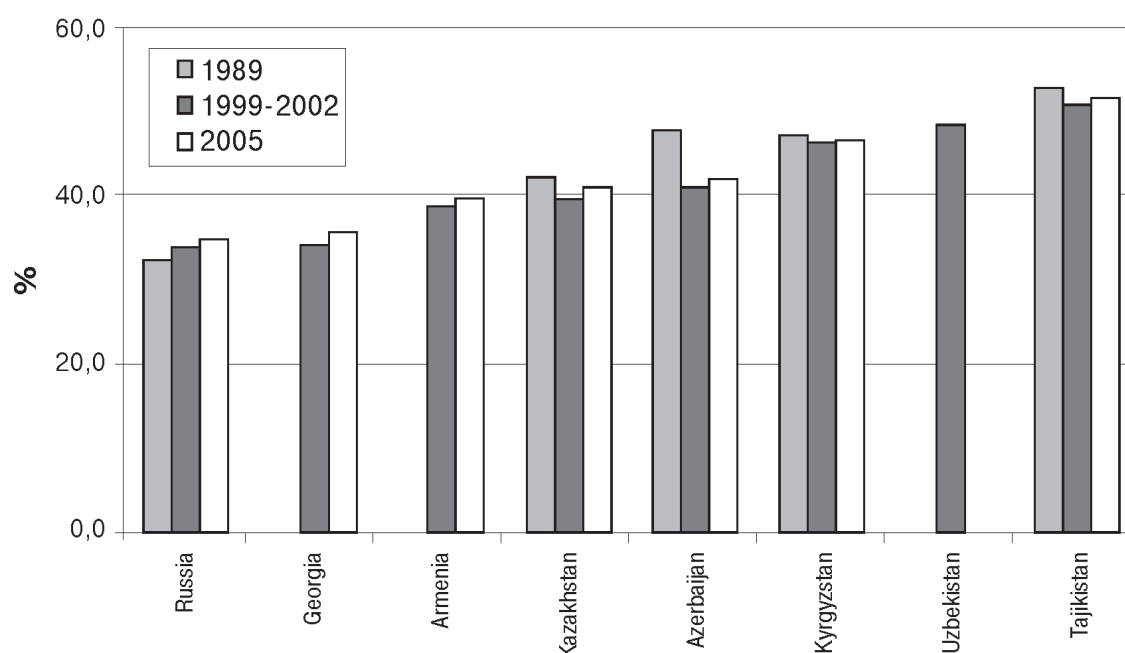
Armenia, Georgia and Russia belong to the second group. Their population is decreasing (throughout 2001–2005 alone, the population decreased by 2 million people).

The population age pattern and its trends in the two groups differ greatly. Countries of the first group have younger population compared with the countries of the second one. The working-age population is young, too. Those aged 15–29 have almost a 40% share among those aged 15–64 (in 2005 they accounted for 40.8% in Kazakhstan, 41.7% in Azerbaijan, 46.7% in Kyrgyzstan, 51.7% in Tajikistan and 48.5% in Uzbekistan – based on the 2002 statistical data) (see Figure 1). Accordingly, the problem of youth employment in these countries is more serious and the need to create conditions for decent youth employment opportunities, more critical. Moreover, the problem will remain topically important in the future. Today, children under 14 years old account for almost  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the countries' populations (the children's share in the region varies from 25% of the total population in Kazakhstan to 38% of Tajikistan's total population). However, the scope of the problems will shrink with the passage of time because the population in these countries is getting older quickly (in the last 15 years the share of both children and young people in the working-age population reduced and this trend is sustainable).

The Armenian, Georgian and Russian populations are older than the populations of the countries in the first group. Children account for 15% of the population in Russia and 22%, in Armenia. The youth share among those aged 15–64 ranges from 34.7% in Russia to 39.4% in Armenia. At the same time, these countries have recently witnessed a rise in the number of young people in the working-age population. Thus, in 1999–2005 their share rose from 34% to 34.7% in Russia, from 34% to 35.9% in Georgia and from 38.7% to 39.4% in Armenia. However, this was a short-term rise, which derived, to a large extent, from the USSR policy of boosting the birth rate in the 80s.



**Fig. 1 Dynamics of Youth Share (Aged 15–29) in the Working-Age Population (aged 15–64)**



*Source:* CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee

## Birth Rate Trends

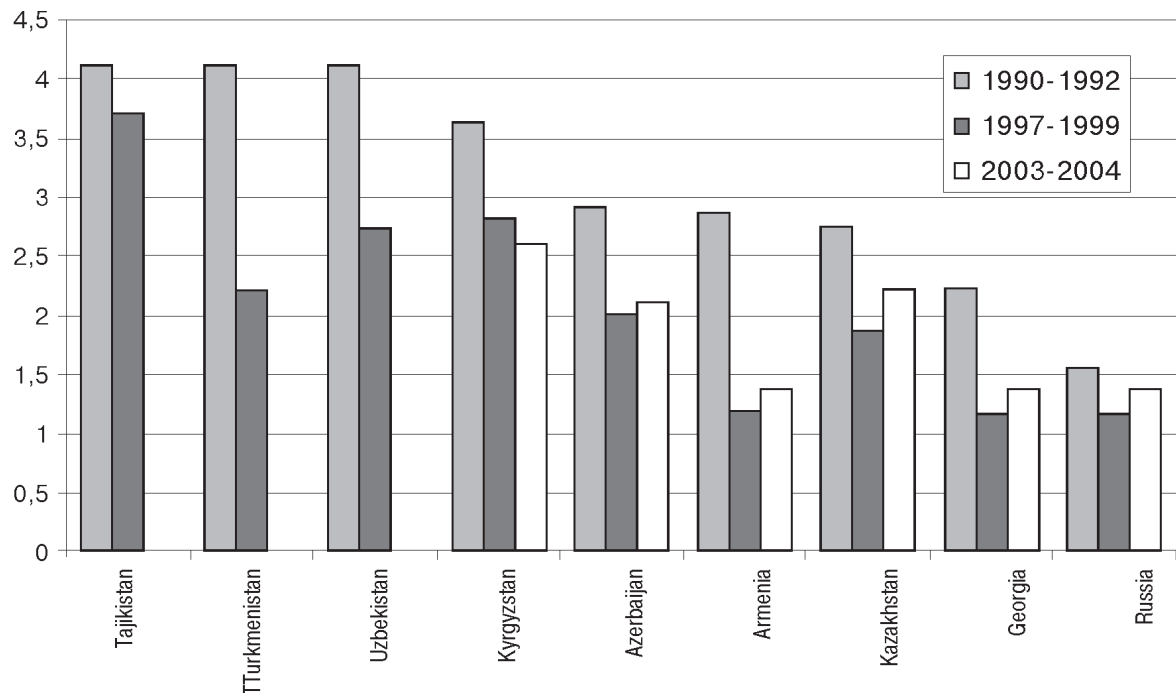
At the same time, the number of young people accessing the labour market and looking for a job for the first time will drop in the next decade in almost all countries of the region. Those born in the 1990s will reach their working-age. These years registered an unprecedented birth rate drop. According to analyses, it was caused by both a demographic transition and the plummeting living standards of most of the population in these countries. In the new millennium the birth rate has slightly increased due to the economic growth and higher living standards of the population in most countries of the region.

Throughout 1991–2001 the birth rate (the number of children born alive per 1000 people of the total population) reduced 1.3 times in Russia and 2.6 times in Armenia. The most drastic changes in absolute figures occurred in countries that used to enjoy a high or relatively high birth rate. During this period, the number of children born alive per 1000 people of the population fell from 39.1 to 27.2 in Tajikistan, from 26.6 to 13.8 in Azerbaijan, and from 21.6 to 8.4 in Armenia. However, these birth rate changes were not that substantial in countries with a low birth rate, for example, in Georgia where the figure dropped from 16.3 to 10.8 and in Russia where it was 9 against 12.1.

The cumulative birth rate, which is a more accurate tool to register changes of the birth rate, has also decreased. It shows how many children, on average, a woman could possibly give birth to throughout her overall fertile period (age the 15–49 years), if at every age she had kept the birth rate of the year for which the figure was calculated (see Figure 2). In the early 1990s out of all countries of the region, only Russia had a birth rate insufficient to sustain population reproduction (the cumulative figure was 1.6). At present, Armenia and Georgia also have a birth rate of less than 2 children per woman.



**Fig. 2 Cumulative Birth Rate Trends**



*Source:* CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee

## Scope and Level of Poverty in the Countries of the Region

The world sees the population poverty level as a key factor affecting youth educational opportunities and their need for paid employment. Poor families have fewer opportunities to pay for their children's education but need their wages badly.

To understand youth employment problems in the countries of the region it is necessary to take into account the crisis that hit their economies and drastically decreased the living standards among the majority of the population in the region. It also extended the poverty boundaries by covering new social and demographic groups. Living standards are hugely differentiated, both within and across these countries.

Poverty differentiation of the countries in the region originates from the Soviet times. Most of these former Soviet republics used to live on grants from the centre, i.e. they were poor (for example, the Soviet Central Asian republics). Their living standards were relatively low. The collapse of the Soviet Union and the economic crisis that followed only aggravated the social issues of the newly emerged sovereign states. The poverty level has been recently decreasing. Nonetheless, it is still a key social problem in the region although different in every country.

The data on the poor population in the countries of the region (under national poverty levels) proves that Armenia, Georgia and Kyrgyzstan are the worst affected. However, Tajikistan is an indisputable leader in the region. Sixty four percent of the Tajik population live below the poverty level. Russia and Kazakhstan have been successfully fighting poverty in the population and are relatively safe in that respect.

A wide income gap is another problem facing all the countries in the region. In many countries, unbalanced income distribution is significant not simply because it is enormous but because it keeps on rising fast.

Table 1

## Some Figures of Population Income (Expenditures) Inequality

	Population with average per capita incomes/expenditures below poverty level, in %		Gini Coefficient, %		
	2001	2004	1987–1990	2001	2004
Azerbaijan	...	...		...	...
Armenia	50,9	42,9 <sup>2</sup>	27	53,5 <sup>3</sup>	43,8 <sup>1</sup>
Georgia	...	52,0	29	44,7	38,7 <sup>3</sup>
Kazakhstan	28,4	16,1	30	34,8	29,1
Kyrgyzstan	47,6	42,9	31	44,1	33,5 <sup>3</sup>
Russia	27,6	17,8	26	39,6	40,6
Tajikistan <sup>4</sup>	81	64	28		35

<sup>1</sup> 2003.

<sup>2</sup> Data on population differentiation in terms of available resources.

<sup>3</sup> Data on population differentiation in terms of consumer spendings.

<sup>4</sup> Data on population differentiation in terms of cash expenses.

**Source:** CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee

Just before the collapse of the Soviet Union (in 1987–1990), the Gini coefficient which shows the inequality of incomes distribution, was low and used to vary insignificantly (from 26% in Russia to 31% in Kyrgyzstan, i.e. it was 6 points). However, at the beginning of the new millennium all the countries of the region saw an increase in the figures and their spread of values. In 2001, the Gini coefficient was 34.8% in Kazakhstan and 53.5% in Armenia (the figures have increased by up to 18.7 points). The rise in income inequality slowed down in many countries (both within each country and among them) throughout the years that followed. In 2004 Kazakhstan enjoyed the least inequality of population income (29.1%). Armenia took the lead with a high Gini coefficient of 43.8% – although in comparison with the 2001 figures it decreased (so the spread of coefficient values made up 14.7 points).

## Poverty among Children. How Acute is the Problem?

The breadth and scale of population poverty in all countries of the region has resulted – to a great extent – from a sharp drop in real wages and a substantial cut in government social security and social protection obligations. Under such circumstances, 'those under 16 years old' and 'families with children' found themselves in social and demographic groups running the highest risk of becoming poor. This problem is extremely acute in the Central Asian and Caucasus states. Traditionally, families of the indigenous population in these regions have been large, especially in rural areas. Studies, of which there are few, show that children's poverty levels in all countries of the region are higher than that of the whole population.

For instance, Russia's poverty level for children under 16 was 24.4%, while that of the whole population equalled 20.6% (as of 2003). In Armenia the respective 2001 figures were 57% and 51% while in Azerbaijan they were 52% and 49%.<sup>5</sup> As for Kazakhstan, the largest low-profit group includes children aged 0-14 (33%) and youth aged 15–19 (13%).<sup>6</sup>

<sup>2</sup> Data for 2003. Социальный портрет Армении и бедность. Статистический аналитический доклад.– Ереван 2004.

<sup>3</sup> Статистический ежегодник Армении 2004 г. Ереван 2004

<sup>4</sup> 1999 and 2003 household researches sponsored by World Bank

<sup>5</sup> Sources: Republic of Azerbaijan State Programme on Poverty Reduction and Economic Development 2003–2005 Baku – 2003; Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper. Republic of Armenia. – Yerevan 2003. p.40.

<sup>6</sup> Уровень жизни населения и бедность в Республике Казахстан. Статистический мониторинг, Алматы, 2005.

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Large families run the highest risk of becoming poor. For instance, in Kazakhstan large families make up the biggest group among the poor population. According to the 2003–2005 Poverty Reduction Strategies, 46% of the poor families used to have 3 or more children<sup>7</sup>. In Azerbaijan, the share of the poor among households with 4 or more children was 1.8 times bigger than among families with no children at all (63% and 38% respectively). Similar figures on extreme poverty were twice as high<sup>8</sup>.

In Tajikistan the risk of becoming poor depends on how many children under 15 a household has. Only 7% of those living in households with no children are poor while the share of those among families with 5 or more children is 37%.<sup>9</sup>

It is no better in Armenia. According to official data, the poverty levels of households with no children and ones with 5 or more children do not differ significantly – by 4.3 percentage points (in this case families living below the absolute poverty level but above the extreme poverty level are considered poor). However, the risks of becoming extremely poor differ greatly. 42.9% of households with 5 or more children are below the extreme poverty level while the share of those among households with one child is 'only' 18.9%.<sup>10</sup>

The poverty of a large number of families indicates certain challenges they face trying to educate their children and subsequently to find employment for them. In the countries of this region, low-income poverty is closely linked to lack of opportunity. This is true for educational opportunities, decent work opportunities and for opportunities to get any paid job.

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<sup>7</sup> Цели ООН в области развития на пороге тысячелетия в Казахстане 2002, Алматы, Taimas Print House, 2002.

<sup>8</sup> Source: Republic of Azerbaijan State Programme on Poverty Reduction and Economic Development 2003–2005 Baku – 2003; Poverty Incidence by Categories of the Population (individuals).

<sup>9</sup> Republic of Tajikistan. Joint IDA-IMF Staff Assessment of the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper and Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper. October 31, 2002. Central Asia Country Unit Europe and Central Asia Region Document of The World Bank Report No. 25059-TJ.

<sup>10</sup> Source: Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper. Republic of Armenia. Yerevan, 2003. P.41

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## Chapter 2.

### Modern Systems of Education and Inequality of Access to Education

High quality education is crucial for modern youth to succeed in looking for and getting productive and decent professional employment. Throughout years of independence, both general and vocational education systems in the countries of the region have drastically changed. Some changes are doubtlessly positive. Above all, the number of students at secondary and higher educational establishments has risen, more students are trained for the hard-to-fill and most demanded occupations. At the same time, both general and vocational education systems have certain problems, of which the following are the most acute: lower quality of education; divergence between trained graduates and market demands; and, for some social groups, an increasing inequality of access to education.

#### Key Reason for the Rise in Unequal Access to Education

The economic crisis that broke out in the beginning of the market reforms in all countries of the region resulted in cuts of budget expenditures in the social sector. Education was no exception. It would be enough to say that in the last decade (from 1995 to 2004) Azerbaijan and Russia cut their spending in the consolidated budget for education and vocational training (% to GDP) from 4 to 3.5%. In Armenia, the spendings dropped from 2.6 to 2.3%. In Kazakhstan, the figures fell from 5 to 3.4% while in Kyrgyzstan they dropped from 6.6 to 4.6%. Tajikistan was the only country to steadily increase the spending (overall in this period, they rose from 2.2 to 2.7%). However, in absolute values, the means earmarked for education in Tajikistan are modest.

**Table 2**

**Consolidated Budget Spending on Education and Vocational Training in 1995-2004**  
(% of Gross Domestic Product)

	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Azerbaijan	4.0	3.9	3.5	3.2	3.3	3.5
Armenia	2.6	2.6	2.3	1.9	2.2	2.3
Kazakhstan	5.0	3.3	3.3	3.2	3.2	3.4
Kyrgyzstan	6.6	3.5	3.9	4.4	4.5	4.6
Russia	4.0	2.9	3.1	3.8	3.6	3.5
Tajikistan	2.2	2.3	1.9	2.6	2.4	2.7

*Source:* CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee.

Since the budget expenditure is insufficient, education systems in all countries of the region have begun to attract finances from other sources (primarily from the population). An increase in paid educational services occurred mostly in the area of vocational education (in all countries general education was officially free of charge).

At present, paid educational services are offered by both private and state-run educational establishments. Although private educational establishments are developing fast in all countries there are currently more students paying for the education provided by state-run institutions.

In different countries paid professional education has advanced differently. However, all countries share the same trend: the higher the level of vocational education is, the more students pay for their education (see Table 3).

**Table 3**

**Paid Vocational and Higher Education at State-Run Establishments**  
(as of the beginning of 2004/2005 academic year, %)

	Students paying for education in state-run establishments among all students	
	Vocational education	Higher education
Azerbaijan	36.0	52.5
Armenia	77.7	68.5
Georgia	30.9	45.7
Kazakhstan	67.4	75.4
Kyrgyzstan	56.7	85.9
Russia	35.1	48.8
Tajikistan	19.3	54.0

**Source:** CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee.

On the one hand, a fast rise in paid vocational education made it possible to preserve the system of vocational training (or even boost it in certain countries), to meet the demands of youth (whose number was increasing throughout these years - as shown above) for education, to set up vocational training in a number of new professions required by the market economy, to prevent a large number of young people from entering the labour market (since it could add much pressure to the labour market in the previous years), etc.

On the other hand, such a rise caused a number of serious problems. Above all, an imbalance in the training of specialists irrespective of labour market demands and a higher inequality of access to vocational education – especially to its higher stages – for various social groups of youth (urban and rural youth, males, females, children and their families with different incomes).

## Development of General and Vocational Education

### *General Education*

In the first years of independence a drastic cut in financing the social sector and a decline in the living standards of the population in all countries could have caused a drop in the general education enrolment ratio of children and a rise in illiterate youth. Today it is clear that most countries managed to prevent these issues from becoming extremely acute (in 2002 the basic education enrolment ratio of children in the countries of the region ranged from 90% in Russia to 100% in Kazakhstan)<sup>11</sup>. However, these problems remain acute for certain significant social groups including: children from poor and low-income families, rural and female youth, homeless and neglected children, refugees' children and migrants. According to experts, the illiteracy level of children in these groups is rising. Unfortunately, the official statistical data does not reflect it.

The situation in Tajikistan is extremely alarming. In the 1990s, the basic education enrolment ratio was declining steadily. In 1989 it was 94.3% while in 2000 it reached 88.4%. However, the country succeeded in turning it around in the last two years: in 2001 it rose to reach 92.2% and in 2002 it was 95%. On average, 6% of boys and 18% of girls in urban areas as well as 4% of boys and 7% of girls in rural areas did not continue education after finishing secondary school. The situation in the city of Dushanbe is serious since 21% of girls and 4% of boys finished only elementary school. The key problem for Tajikistan is poorly-equipped schools. According to the World Bank, only 30% of students at general education schools have

<sup>11</sup> Социальный мониторинг «Инноченти», 2004 год, ЮНИСЕФ, с. 85

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textbooks. In some subjects that number is only 10%. Not all of the newly-published textbooks meet new teaching techniques. Moreover, some of the textbooks currently used were published in the Soviet times<sup>12</sup>.

All countries of the region share a decline in the quality of general education as well as increasing disparity between general education establishments depending on the quality of services offered. On the one hand, a few 'elite schools' have emerged. On the other hand, a lot of rural schools have no money to teach properly and have become degraded. Thus, most schools in the region are unable to provide their students with the knowledge required either to continue their education or get employed successfully.

### ***Vocational Education***

According to statistics, throughout the years of independence the various types of vocational education in the countries of the region have been developing unequally.

*In the Soviet times, the Basic Vocational Education System* successfully trained skilled workers for the country's economy. Today, its state is deplorable. Currently, in all countries under study the number of students at basic vocation education colleges has reduced greatly in comparison with 1992. Above all, the collapse of the basic vocational education system has been caused by the crisis that affected material production in the countries of the region. In fact, it killed not only individual enterprises but also whole branches of industry. The demand for highly skilled and skilled workers dropped, resulting in less interest from both the state and employers in training new staff.

Russia and Kazakhstan along with other countries of the region have recently showed some interest in training new production staff due to their reviving economy and higher rates of industrial production renovation and restructuring. Nonetheless, this shift has not yet disseminated to national systems of basic vocation training. However, there are some positive signs. For instance, in 2000–2005 the number of students at basic vocational schools rose by 14% in Kazakhstan and by 7% in Kyrgyzstan. In Azerbaijan it rose by 3% in 2004–2005 alone. However, despite such a rise, this number has still not reached that of the early 1990s in either of the countries mentioned above. Given a greatly increased total number of young people in these countries, the basic vocational education enrolment ratio of youth has dropped greatly.

According to experts, although the shortage of skilled workers has begun to hamper Russia's economic growth, the number of such students is still reducing.

In the last 15 years the quality of education has dropped sharply. This is another problem for the basic vocational education system. An outdated production base and training methods as well as insufficient teachers are among the problems facing all basic vocational schools. As a result, students with outdated knowledge which does not reflect the current economic reality are struggling to succeed on the labour market.

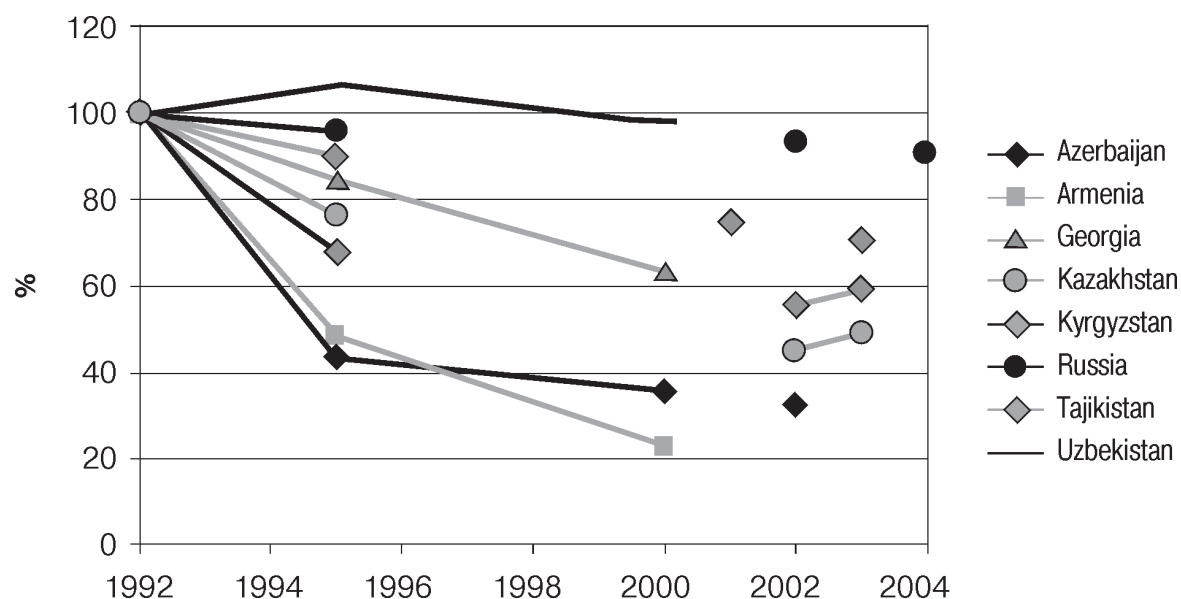
A special employers' survey, conducted in Russia in 2005, rated the quality of modern vocational education the lowest (both if compared to the quality of other levels of vocational education and if compared to the basic vocational education of the past)<sup>13</sup>. It is the poorly-trained graduates of these vocational schools that cannot find a job on the labour market (see Youth Unemployment Problems).

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<sup>12</sup> Quoted from a report by the Tajik Government on implementation of PRSP (Poverty Reduction Strategies Paper) 2003, the Second Report on Implementation of PRSP, 2005

<sup>13</sup> Спрос на рабочую силу – мнение работодателей. Мониторинг экономики образования. Информационный бюллетень, 2006. №1(19). С.333–34

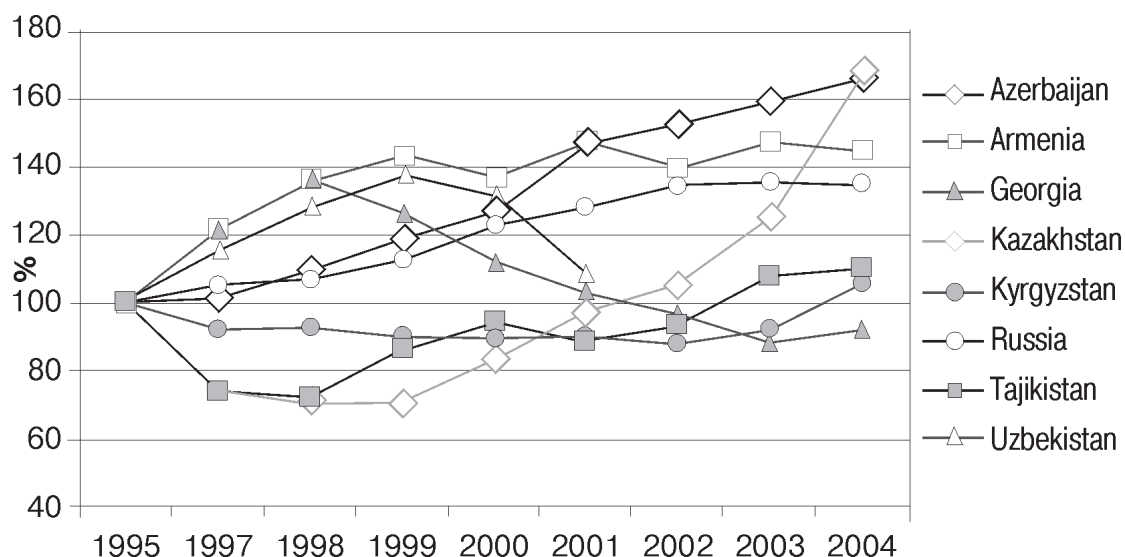
**Fig. 3 Students at Basic Vocational Schools (% of 1992)**



**Source:** CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee

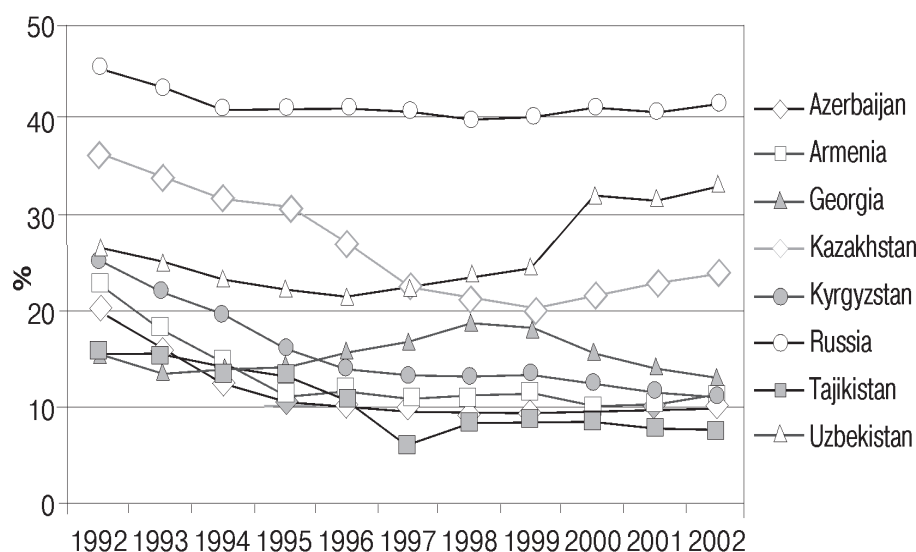
*Specialized Secondary Education* is the next step in vocational education. All countries of the region, except Georgia, have been successfully developing this system. However, they are introducing it as part of their overall educational development, increasing the number of those who pay for education (both in state-run and private schools). The highest rise of 68% of students at specialized secondary educational establishment in the last decade (1995–2004) was registered in Kazakhstan. Azerbaijan comes second with a 66% rise. Tajikistan and Kyrgyzstan are at the end of the list with 10% and 6% rise respectively.

**Fig. 4 Number of Students in Specialized Secondary Educational Establishments, % of 1995**





**Fig. 5 Specialized Secondary Education Enrolment Ratio**  
(general figures, share of population aged 15–18, %)



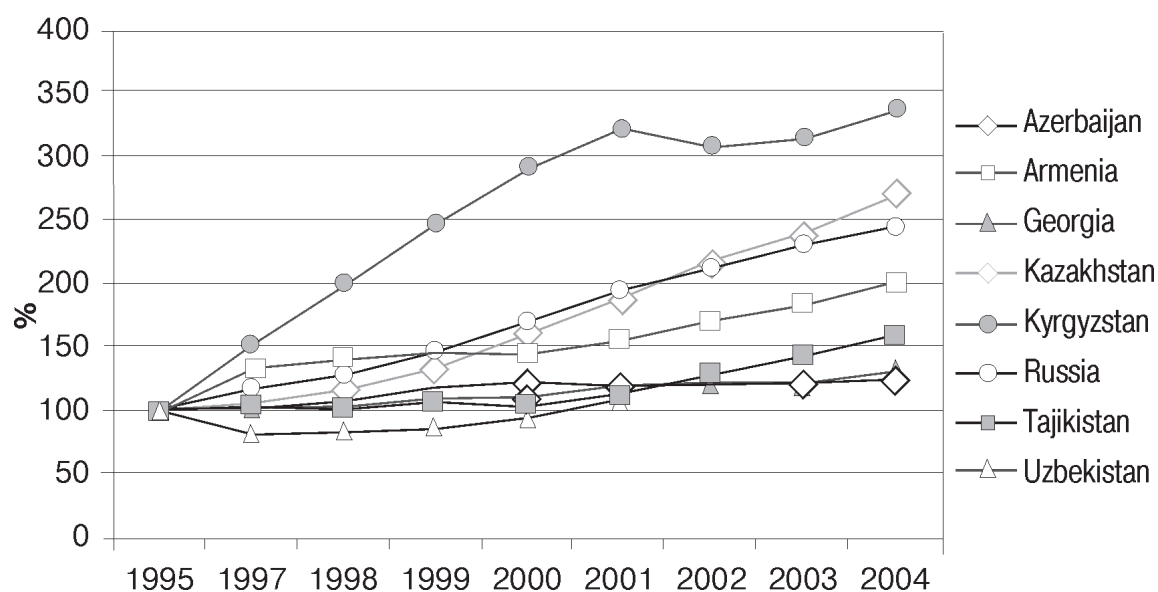
**Source:** CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee.

At first sight, the increase in students seems to be quite dynamic. However, the absolute number of youth aged 15–18 (the age of most students at specialized secondary schools) has been increasing as well. That's why the enrolment of students aged 15–18 at specialized secondary education has increased only in Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan (the latest data on Uzbekistan's students at specialized secondary schools are unavailable). In Russia the figures have almost remained unchanged unlike in other countries where they have dropped (see Figures 4 and 5).

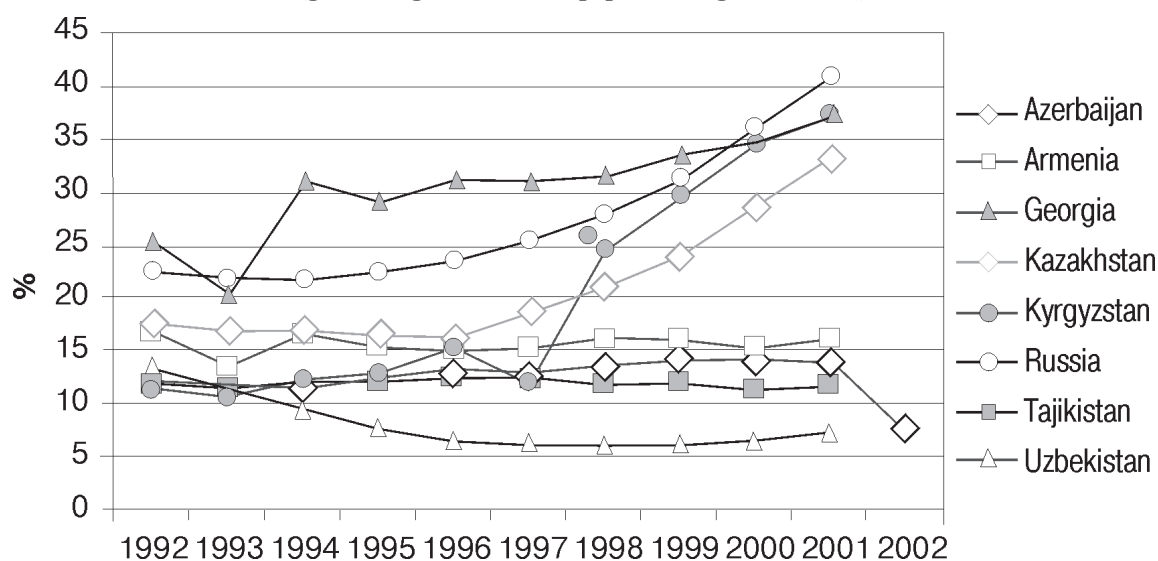
## System of Higher Education

The system of higher education has changed greatly. Throughout the years of independence in all countries of the region it was the number of students at higher educational establishments that increased the fastest. It is to be noted that the increase was not dependant on the country's economic growth. Thus, in 1995–2004 Kyrgyzstan showed the highest increase in students at higher educational establishments – by 3.4 times. Nonetheless, the country's economy is still in crisis. The lowest increase of 1.3 times was registered in Azerbaijan.

**Fig. 6. Number of Students in Higher Educational Establishments,  
% of 1995**



**Fig. 7 Higher Education Enrolment Ratio  
(general figures, share of population aged 19-24, %)**



*Source:* CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee.

The number of students increased due to an increase in those who paid for their education – which was the case at the previous level of vocational education. The number of such students both in state-run and private colleges tended to grow.

It is to be noted that a substantial rise in students originates not from real market demand for specialists with higher education but from students' and their parents' belief that a diploma guarantees a highly-paid and exciting job.

The increase in students at higher educational establishments was so sharp and steady that despite an increase in those aged 19–24 (the age of most students at higher educational establishments) the higher

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education enrolment of youth at this age increased, to differing degrees, in almost all countries of the region (see Figures 6 and 7).

The youth of the region is particularly interested in higher education because a certified professional diploma of higher education is gradually becoming an employer's key requirement for job applicants. At the same time, employers very often demand graduates whose level of education is higher than what they are required to do at work.

A study conducted in Russia in 2005 proves this. According to the study, 70% of top managers are interested in employees (and ready to employ them) with a level of education higher than that required by a position.<sup>14</sup> At the same time, the wages of such employment are at the usual level, i.e. employees' skills are not fully used and they are underpaid.

The quality of educational services has been reducing for 15 years and the low quality of higher education has recently become a problem for the countries under study. To a great extent, the reduction in quality at higher education level can be explained by a low educational level of school leavers. The fact that higher educational establishments are physically and morally outdated and their teaching resources and sometimes staff are unsatisfactory is also relevant (the low wages in education over the last 15 years have made such a scenario inevitable).

The 2005 survey of Russian employers mentioned above describes the quality of higher education received by students within the last few years as more poor than that in the Soviet times and in the 90s<sup>15</sup>.

## **Mismatch between the Occupational Composition of Graduates and the Market Needs**

Mismatches between the professions and occupations students are trained for at secondary and higher vocational schools and the modern market needs is another problem facing the countries of the region.

Under the state-administered economy, the centre approved the professions and the number of specialists to train for each. It all depended on the country's economic goals. It was the state that put forward an order for training the specialists intended to employ in the future. The transition to a market economy as well as a wider range of paid educational services allowed specialized secondary and higher educational establishments to decide how many students should be trained for professions.

This greatly influenced the occupational composition of graduates. The increase in students who paid for their education has recently led both state-run and private educational establishments to train more students for hard-to-fill positions or for professions considered popular during the first years in the labour market. Among such specialists are those trained in economics, law, accounting, etc.

Thus, throughout 1992–2004 almost all countries of the region saw a decrease in the share of graduates from industrial specialized secondary schools (except Russia and Uzbekistan), as well as from agricultural specialized secondary schools (except Tajikistan). However, they saw an increase in the share of graduates from secondary schools in economics and law (except Tajikistan) and from medical secondary schools (except Kazakhstan and Russia) (see Figure 8). The same is true for the system of higher education (see Figure 9). However, in this case the greater share of economists from higher schools is even more manifested.

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<sup>14</sup> Спрос на рабочую силу – мнение работодателей. Мониторинг экономики образования. Информационный бюллетень, 2006. №1 (19). С.25.

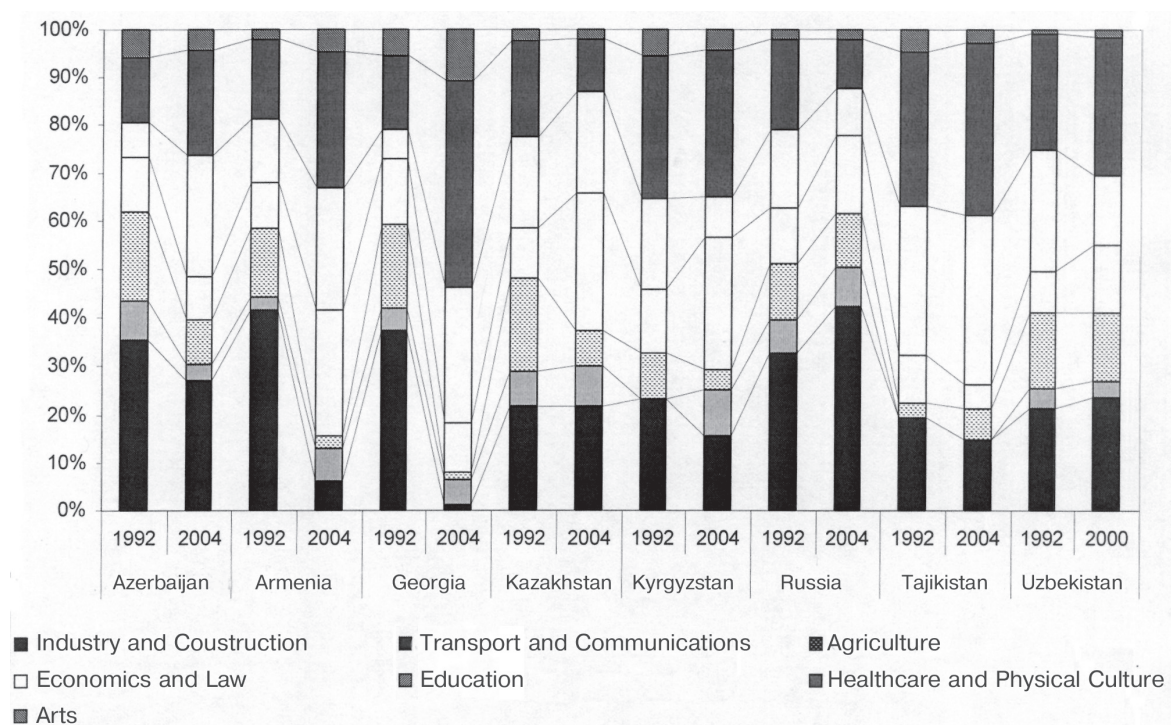
<sup>15</sup> Спрос на рабочую силу – мнение работодателей. Мониторинг экономики образования. Информационный бюллетень, 2006. №1(19). С.333–34.

The figures below do not show all the changes in the occupational composition of graduates from specialized secondary and higher educational establishments. It is notable that economists, lawyers and accounting specialists have recently been trained not only by those solely specializing in their training but also by secondary and higher schools which traditionally trained engineers, specialists in agriculture, technologists, etc. This had a negative impact on the quality of training specialists in areas that are new for these educational establishments.

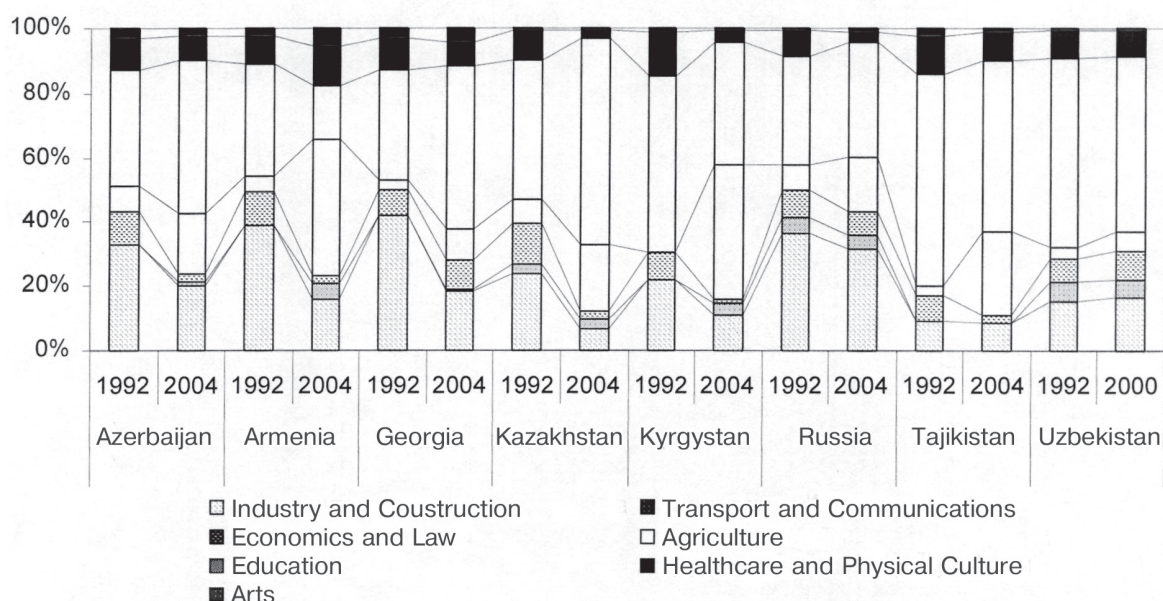
At the same time, young people on the verge of enrolling at an educational establishment find it difficult to decide upon their future profession due to a lack of trustworthy information about real market needs and efficiency of educational establishments (information on schools' training quality is sometimes unavailable). Therefore, they make a choice about 'trendy-or-not-trendy' stereotypes in favour of economics, law and accounting.

As a result, the countries' labour markets are flooded with specialists in economics, law and psychology who face serious problems with their employment. However, in recent years potential students have begun to show more interest in becoming engineers and specialists in agriculture. The revival of the economies in most of the countries can account for this shift.

**Fig. 8. Occupational Composition of Graduates from Specialized Secondary Educational Establishments (by Branches of Industry)**



**Fig. 9 Structure of Post-Graduation  
(by Sectoral Affiliation of Higher Learning Centers)**



*Source:* CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee.

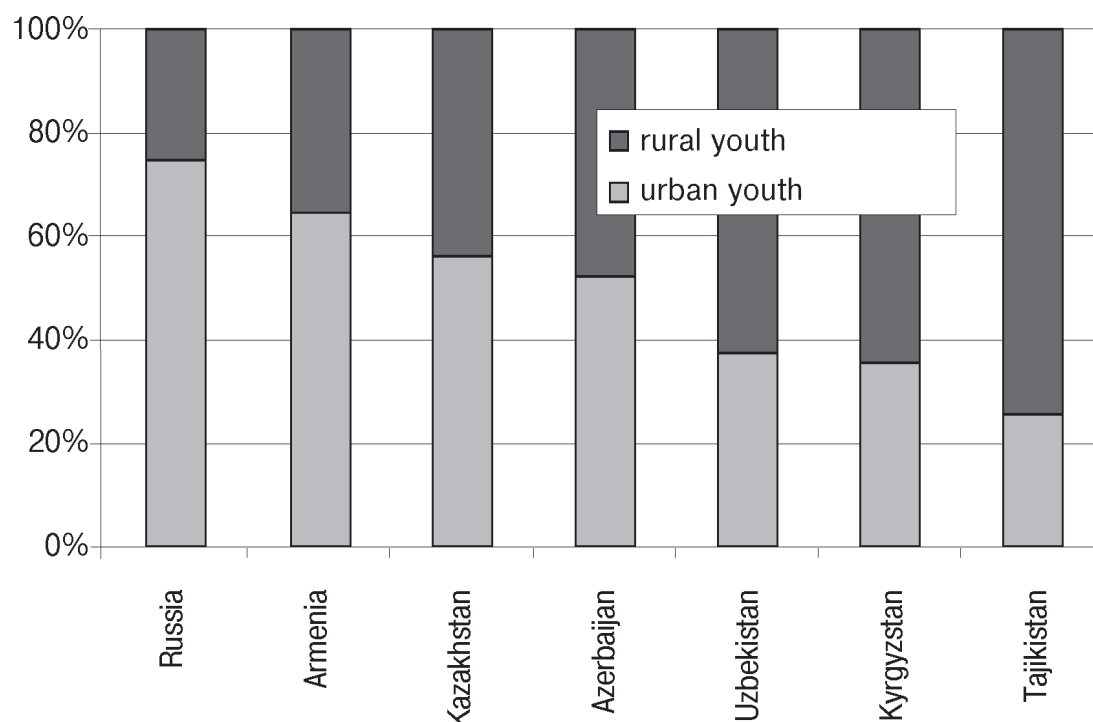
## Inequality of Access to Education

At present, the administrative and legislative norms of all countries of the region provide for equal access of their youth to education (irrespective of nationality, residence, sex, etc.). However, unequal access to education for different social groups of the population is among the most acute problems facing all these countries.

Residents of rural areas as well as children of poor families are specifically positioned among such groups of the population.

Limited access to education for children from poor families means limited opportunities to use both paid (poor families cannot afford to have their children educated, thus, specialized secondary and higher education become inaccessible for them) and free educational services (children in poor families have to abandon their studies to earn money).

**Fig. 10. Youth (Aged 15–29) by Residence (rural/urban areas) in Countries of the Region (in 2005)**



*Source:* CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee.

There are several reasons behind the limited access of children from rural areas to education. Firstly, children from rural areas have fewer opportunities to access high-quality education because all countries of the region have experienced a reduction in the quality of rural education. Secondly, as a rule, the rural population is poorer than the urban one. Thus, it has restricted access to educational services (above all, to paid vocational education). Children residing in the rural areas of the countries of the region have restricted access to education because educational establishments are too far away from where they live.

In Azerbaijan, Uzbekistan, Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan the rural youth accounts for half of total youth aged 15–29 (see Figure 10). Therefore, it is quite obvious that a risk group is taking shape, which is likely to be insufficiently educated to play an effective role in the modern labour market.



## Chapter 3.

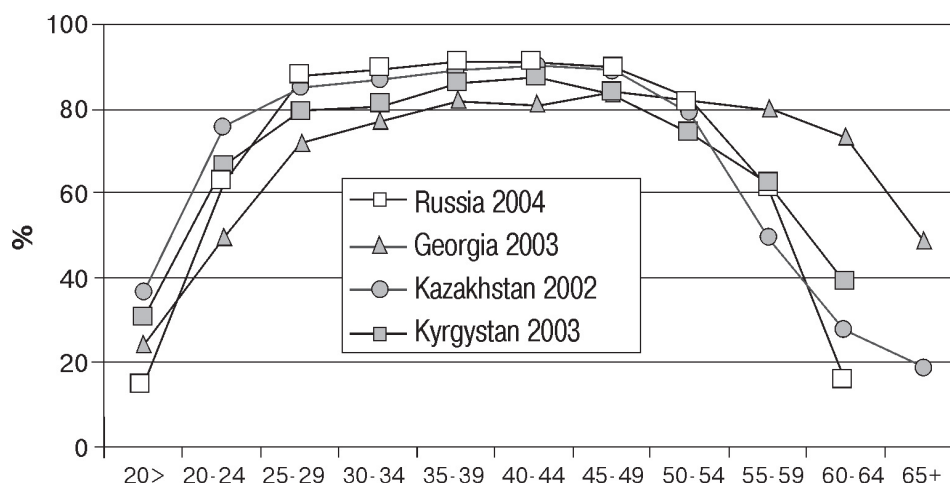
### Youth in the Region's Labour Markets

Most people see decent professional employment as a solid foundation for a decent life. Unfortunately, the countries of the region (and a lot of other countries in the world) provide limited decent employment opportunities for youth. This is attributed to their lack of work experience and required skills. As a result, the youth unemployment rate is much higher than the adult equivalent while the employment rate and its quality are much lower. Young people entering the labour market for the first time have most of the problems. This chapter analyzes youth economic activity, employment and unemployment, both in the formal and informal sectors.

### Youth Economic Activity

Population's economic activity and its parameters (unemployment and employment rate) are key factors, which describe the population's need (including the youth) for waged employment.

**Fig. 11 Economic Activity in Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Russia, by Age**



**Sources:** data from the Russian Federal Statistical Service, Kazakhstan Poverty Monitoring, Labour Market in Georgia. 2002–2004. Statistical publication – Tbilisi 2005, Занятость и безработица. Итоги кыргызского интегрированного обследования домашних хозяйств 2003 г. Специальная публикация.– Бишкек 2005.

According to estimates, the total economically active population in the countries of the region in 2004 was almost 100 million people. Almost all the countries of the region enjoyed quite a high economic activity. For example, in Russia it represented 65.4% among those aged 15–72 (and 76.6% among working-age population), in Kazakhstan it equalled 70.0% (in 2003). In Azerbaijan the working-age population accounted for 71.9% of the total population.

The economic activity of the population depends on the age. However, age profiles of economic activity in the countries of the region are similar (see Figure 11). They look like a trapezium with smoothed angles. Those aged 35–45 are the most economically active and the figures range from 80 to 95%.

At the same time, youth economic activity in the countries of the region is relatively low. While the average economic activity worldwide is 54.9% (the figure is calculated for those aged 15–24), it is much lower in the countries of the regions. In Russia (in 2004) and Georgia (in 2003) it equalled 38.2%. The economic activity of youth in all transition economy countries, Middle East and North Africa countries together was a little higher. Kazakhstan stands apart. Its youth economic activity makes up 48%. East Asian countries have the highest youth economic activity, at 73.2%.



The relatively low youth economic activity in the countries of the region is attributed to a high enrolment ratio in this age group. On the other hand, students do not combine full-time studies with part-time employment, which is the case in industrially developed countries. Young students in former Soviet republics still tend to see full-time education as the only form of employment, which delays their entering the labour market. Such an 'education-getting' strategy reduces pressure on the labour market.

**Table 4**

**Share of Economically Active Youth (in 2003)**

	Economically active youth (%)
WHOLE WORLD	54.9
Industrially developed countries	51.5
Transition economy countries	39.9
East Asia	73.2
Southeast Asia	56.5
South Asia	44.4
Latin America and The Caribbean	54.7
Middle East and North Africa	39.7
Sub-Sahara Africa	65.4
Russia (2004)	38.2
Georgia (2003)	38.2
Kazakhstan (2001)	48.0

**Sources:** GET Model, 2004; see also GET, 2004, Technical note (quoted from Global Employment Trends for Youth. – International Labour Office, Geneva, 2004), national statistical services of Russia, Georgia and Kazakhstan.

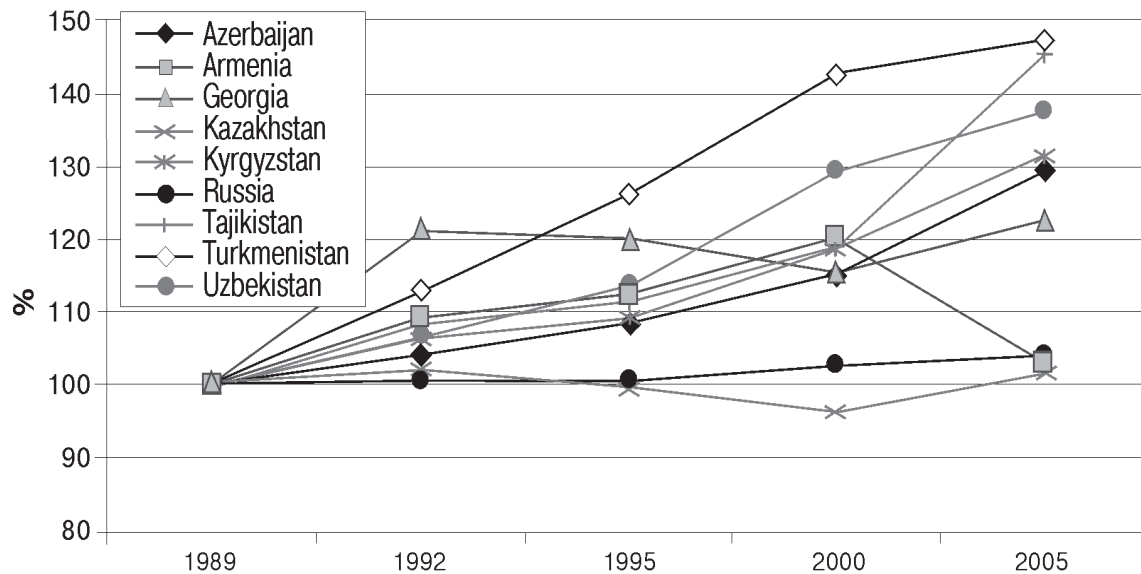
## Youth Employment Rate

The emergence of market economies in the former Soviet republics was accompanied by dramatic events in the employment of the population. Above all, pressure on the labour market increased, reaching a critical level in some countries.

Pressure on the labour market in the region resulted not only from a reduction in employment but also from demographic processes. The fact is that in most countries employment trends and working-age population trends tend to develop along different vectors. While employment opportunities reduce, working-age population increases. And the generation of the 80s, large in number, is now moving to adulthood (see Figure 12). The period of 1989–2005 alone saw a 12 million rise in those aged 15–64 in all countries of the region.

It is quite natural that the highest increase in the working-age population (despite a substantial outflow of the population from most of these countries after the collapse of the USSR) occurred in Central Asian and Caucasus countries, which have traditionally enjoyed high birth rates and the largest labour market excess. Thus, throughout 1989-2005 the number of those aged 15–64 (i.e. the most economically active) increased by 46% in Turkmenistan, by 45% in Tajikistan, by 37% in Uzbekistan, by 31% in Kyrgyzstan and 29% in Azerbaijan. The smallest population increase in this age group was registered in Russia (3%), Armenia (2%) and Kazakhstan (1%).

**Fig. 12 Trends of CIS Population Aged 15–64  
(% of 1989)**



**Source:** CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee.

Thus, the working-age population of the region was increasing while the number of jobs and the number of employed in national economies respectively was going down in many countries of the region. In 2004 the number of employed in Armenia made up 70.4% of the 1992 figures, in Russia and Kazakhstan it was 91.4% and 94.8%. Georgia experienced a sharp reduction in the employed population. In other countries of the region the employment rates increased, however, the rise was minor (on average 2% in Azerbaijan and Kyrgyzstan and 9% in Tajikistan) and did not meet the growth of the working-age population.

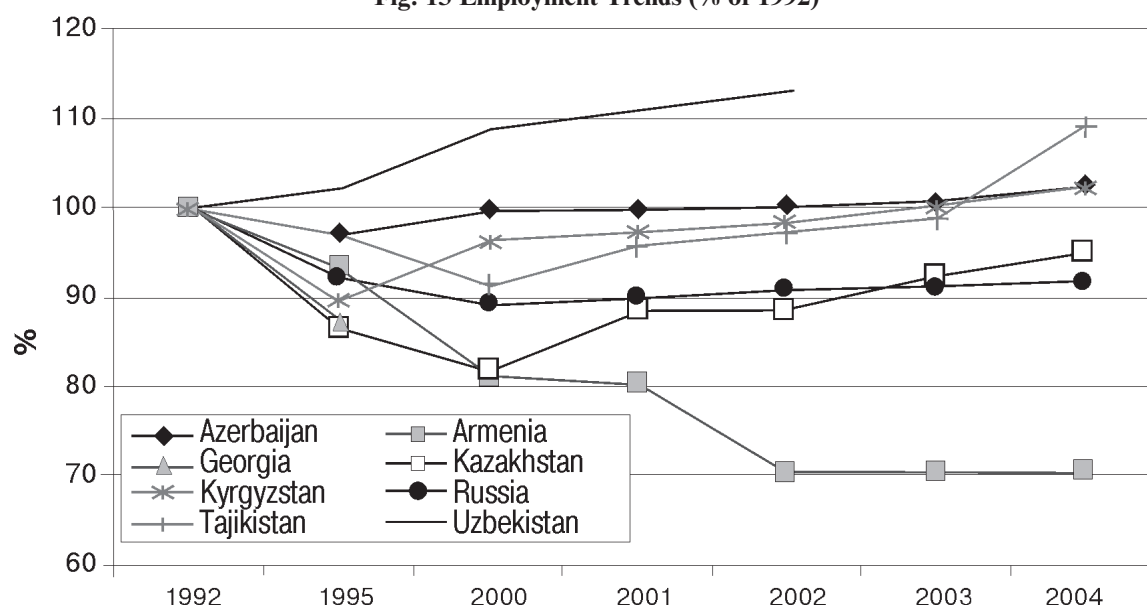
The emergence of market economies in the region was characterized by a mismatch between population employment rate trends and the rate of GDP decline. When the crisis affected the countries' national economies the GDP used to decline faster than employment whereas, during the period of economic growth in most of the countries of the region, the growing GDP did not cause an adequate growth in employment. Currently, the economy is growing faster than employment. In 2000–2003 the real GDP grew by 10–35% while the number of employed increased by no more than 13%. In Armenia the number of employed has actually shrunk by 13%.

On a whole, a relatively minor employment change in the countries of the region (in some it even rose) over the last 15 years can be explained – to a great extent – by the spread of hidden unemployment, part-time or seasonal employment.

At present, the employment rate in the countries of the region is lower than that during the Soviet times. However, the countries remaining relatively high according to international standards are responsible for a significant differentiation within the region.

At the same time, the employment age profiles of certain countries (illustrated below) show that it is the young people that face the most difficult problems with employment. They have the lowest employment rates (compared with the population of other age groups). The fact that the profiles are similar proves that this situation is typical of the whole region.

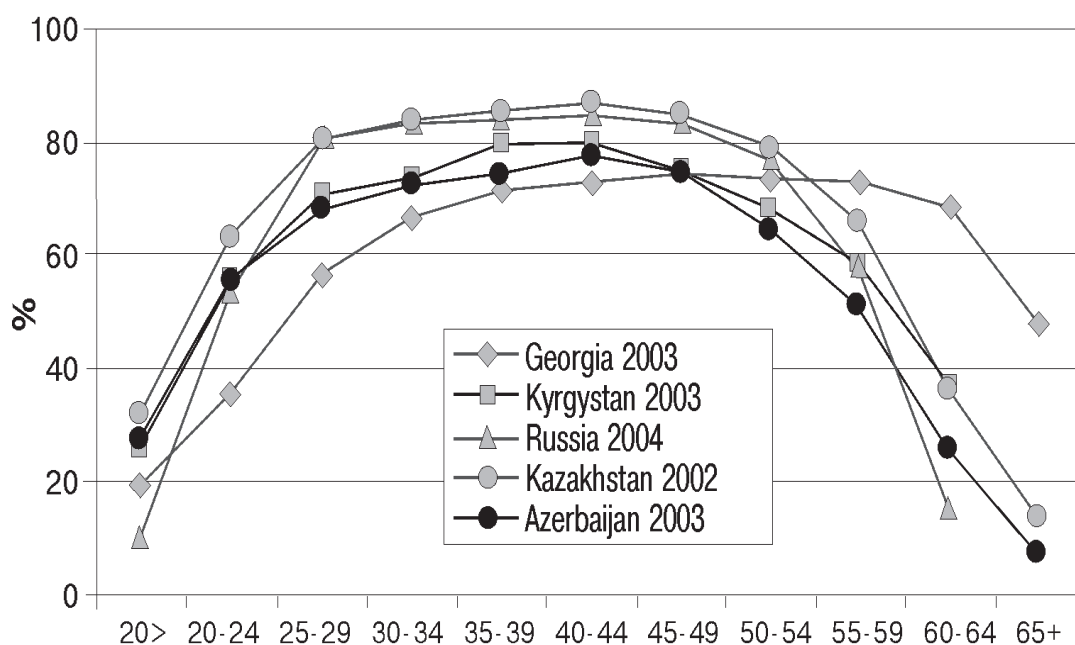
**Fig. 13 Employment Trends (% of 1992)**



*Source:* CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee.

In 2002–2004, every fourth Kyrgyz citizen (equalling 26.2%) aged 15–19 and every second Kyrgyz citizen (56.2%) aged 20–24 was employed. In Russia, Azerbaijan and Georgia the figures were 10.2% and 53.7%, 27.9% and 56%, 19.7% and 36.2% respectively.

**Fig. 14 Age Profile of Employment in Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Russia and Azerbaijan**



*Sources:* Russian Federal Statistical Service, Kazakhstan Poverty Monitoring, Republic of Azerbaijan State Programme on Poverty Reduction and Economic Development 2003-2005 Baku – 2003, Labour Market in Georgia. 2002–2004. Statistical publication – Tbilisi 2005, Занятость и безработица. Итоги кыргызского интегрированного обследования домашних хозяйств 2003 г. Специальная публикация.– Бишкек 2005

A comparison of youth employment rates in the countries of the region with the world's youth employment rate (see Table 5) shows that the former figures are much lower than the world average calculated for most of the regions in the world (except Kazakhstan).

**Table 5**

**Youth (age 15–24) Employment Rates (in 2003)**

	Youth Employment Rate (%)
WHOLE WORLD	47.0
Industrially developed countries	44.6
Transition economy countries	32.4
East Asia	68.0
Southeast Asia	47.3
South Asia	38.3
Latin America and The Caribbean	45.6
Middle East and North Africa	29.6
Sub-Sahara Africa	51.6
Georgia	28.7
Kazakhstan	49.0
Kyrgyzstan	39.9
Russia	31.5

**Sources:** GET Model, 2004; see also GET, 2004, Technical note (quoted from Global Employment Trends for Youth. - International Labour Office, Geneva, 2004), national statistical services of Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Georgia and Russia.

## Youth Employment Quality

Unfortunately, the low employment rate is not the only problem facing young people in the labour market are facing. There are other problems such as insufficient quality. Widespread working for a wage and self-employment among youth is one of the indicators of the problem. These figures are vital for the analysis because in the countries of the region those working for a wage are – as a rule – more socially protected. Other people have to resort to self-employment as a means to survive when there is no other way to get a paid job. Self-employment is common for the region's informal sector, which implies instability and no legal protection for those employed this way.

The available data (for certain countries of the region) show that the waged to non-waged employment ratio among youth greatly differs from the same ratio among adults: very often, young workers are forced to accept non-waged employment. For example, in Georgia only one in ten professionally employed young worker under the age of 20 has waged employment. As for those aged 20–24, the share of workers with waged employment is 27% while their share among those aged 25–55 is 38–44% (see Figure 15).

**Fig. 15 Distribution of Employed Population of Different Age Groups by Employment Status (Georgia, 2003)**



**Sources:** Labour Market in Georgia. 2002-2004. Statistical publication – Tbilisi 2005.

The same is true for Russia, however, with one exception. Russia has underdeveloped entrepreneurship. This is illustrated by the waged to-non-waged employment ratio. Thus, in 2004 out of all those employed, 93.2% had waged employment and only 6.8% were non-waged workers and this ratio remained almost the same with the passage of time. As a result, 'only' 87% of employed youth had waged employment.

Kazakhstan's official statistical data give detailed information of workers' employment status by age. Thus, 40% of all professionally employed are non-waged workers. However, 96% of workers at the age of 15 are non-waged (!) while their share among workers aged from 16 to 24 is 52%. It should be noted that, according to the ILO methodology, non-waged workers include employers, self-employed workers, and members of producers' cooperatives as well as workers of family-owned businesses. The employers' category is doubtlessly the most prestigious and high-income amongst these. The statistics show that there are hardly any young people in this category.

The waged workers' category is diverse too. It consists of those employed by state and public organizations, by individuals and farm households. Among the employment types mentioned above, individuals' employment is the least protected. In 2002, workers enjoying such a status accounted for 12.4% of Kazakhstan's total waged workers. At the same time, the share of those employed by individuals on a waged basis among workers aged 15 has reached 66.3% (!). The higher the workers' age, the lower their share: among youth aged 16–24 it made up 20.6%. State and public organizations are reluctant to employ youth: in Kazakhstan such organizations employed 81.2% of total waged workers and only 21.5% of total youth waged workers aged 15 and 67.1% of those aged 16–24).

Table 6

**Employed Population by Employment Status and Age in Kazakhstan  
(in 2002)**

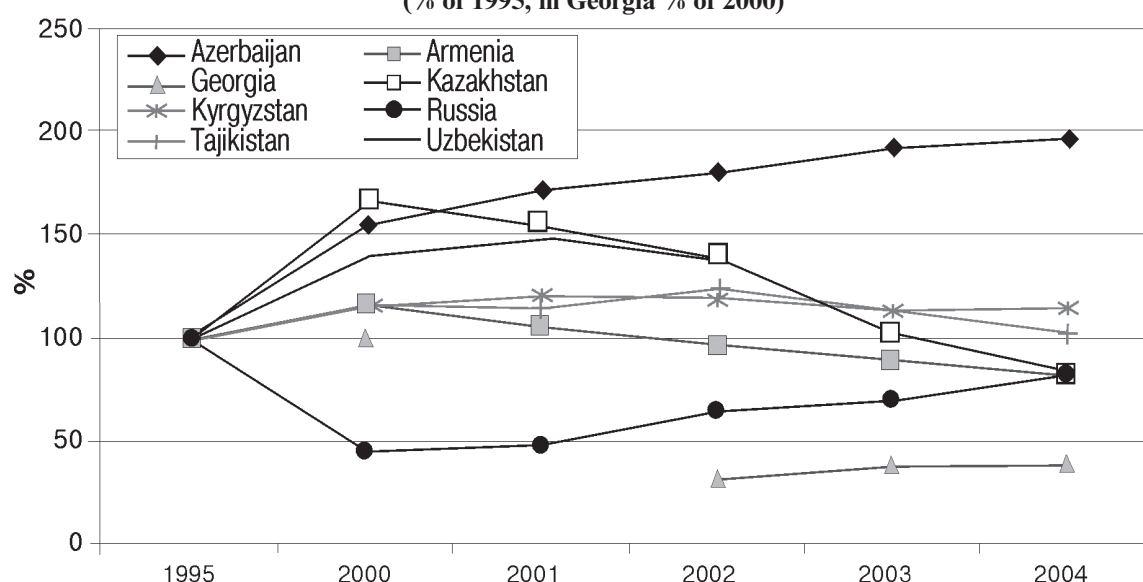
	All workers	Aged 15	Aged 16–24	Aged 25–34
Total employed population	100	100	100	100
<b>Waged workers, including those employed by:</b>	<b>60.1</b>	<b>4.1</b>	<b>47.8</b>	<b>63.9</b>
State organizations	41.7	15.1	29.0	42.1
Public organization	39.5	6.4	38.1	37.4
Individuals	12.4	66.3	20.6	14.1
Farm households	6.4	12.2	12.3	6.3
<b>Non-waged workers, including:</b>	<b>39.9</b>	<b>95.9</b>	<b>52.2</b>	<b>36.1</b>
Employers	2.2	–	0.3	2.0
Self-employed workers	92.9	99.1	92.6	92.5
Members of producers' cooperative	2.4	0.3	2.0	2.8
Unpaid workers of family-owned businesses	2.5	0.6	5.1	2.7

**Source:** Рынок труда в Республике Казахстан. 1991–2002 годы. Статистический справочник, Алматы, 2003.

### Youth Unemployment: Scope, Rates and Trends

The transition to market economies in all CIS member-states was accompanied by an increasing gap between the population's need for paid employment and real employment opportunities. At first, it led to unemployment in the region and then, to its sharp rise. Studies show that each country had its own scenario.

**Fig. 16 Dynamics of Change among Unemployed Registered in Countries  
(% of 1995, in Georgia % of 2000)**



**Source:** CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee.

It should be noted that CIS unemployment has a peculiar feature. The real unemployment rate in the region is not identical to the one officially registered by the employment services. There are several reasons

behind this gap between the dimensions and rates of these types of unemployment. Among them is insufficient state moneyed support for the unemployed (Kazakhstan has abandoned the practice of paying unemployment benefits and has focused on financing public works, retraining and employment promotion programs), the low quality of jobs offered by employment services and the bureaucratic procedures required to acquire official status as unemployed and/or to get unemployment benefits.

## Unemployment Registered by Employment Services

On the whole, unemployment registered by national employment services in all countries is meagre: the share of registered unemployed among the total working-age population in 2004 ranged from 1% in Azerbaijan and Tajikistan to 5.3% in Armenia. The statistics show that youth account for a considerable share among the registered unemployed. In 2002, youth under 30 accounted for 43% of the registered unemployed in Azerbaijan, 28% in Armenia, 26% in Kazakhstan, 37% in Kyrgyzstan, 31% in Russia, and 62.6% in Tajikistan (!). At the same time, the youngest youth represent the largest share among unemployed youth. This means that the youngest players in the labour market find it hardest to get employed.

**Table 7**

**Share of Youth under 30 among Unemployed Registered by Employment Services  
(in 1992–2002)**

	1992	1995	2000	2001	2002
Azerbaijan	24	50	43	43	43
Armenia		45	30	22	28
Kazakhstan	...	47	29	28	26
Kyrgyzstan	...	40	40	37	37
Russia	38	36	32	32	31
Tajikistan	...	64	65	66	63

**Source:** CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee.

## Real Unemployment

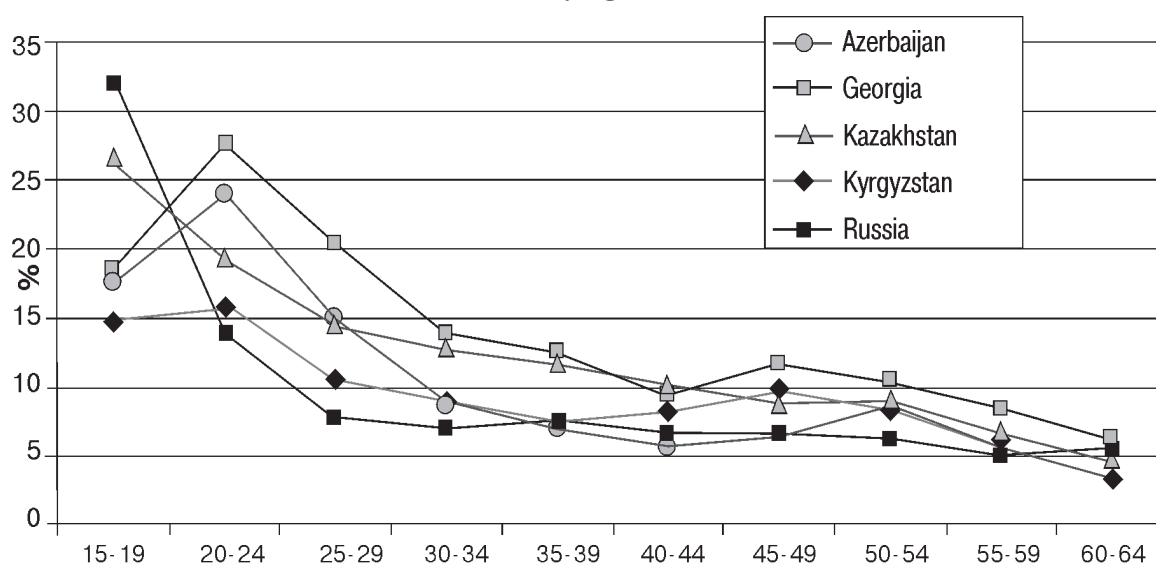
Based on national censuses and special surveys, CIS labour markets analysts stress that real unemployment (i.e. unemployment calculated according to the ILO methodology) in these countries is much higher than registered unemployment. Thus, in Russia unemployment was estimated at 8.2% (as of 2004), at 9.9% in Kyrgyzstan (as of 2003), at 8.4% in Kazakhstan (2004), at 12.6 in Georgia (as of 2004) and at 10.7% in Azerbaijan (2003). In Tajikistan total unemployment makes up 11.3%<sup>16</sup>, however, according to certain data, Tajik seasonal unemployment reaches 33%<sup>17</sup>.

<sup>16</sup> 2002 Poverty Monitoring sponsored by Asian Development Bank

<sup>17</sup> Republic of Tajikistan Joint IDA-IMF Staff Assessment of the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper and Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper. Document of The World Bank Report No. 25059-TJ, October 31, 2002, Central Asia Country Unit Europe and Central Asia Region).



**Fig. 17 Unemployment in Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Russia, by Age**



**Sources:** Russian Federal Statistical Service, Kazakhstan Poverty Monitoring, Republic of Azerbaijan State Programme on Poverty Reduction and Economic Development 2003-2005 Baku – 2003, Labour Market in Georgia. 2002–2004. Statistical publication – Tbilisi 2005, Занятость и безработица. Итоги кыргызского интегрированного обследования домашних хозяйств 2003 г. Специальная публикация.– Бишкек 2005

In all countries of the region young people have peak unemployment figures. At the same time, any reduction in unemployment is not necessarily related to age. However, in some countries (Russia and Kazakhstan) such a relationship does exist. In other countries (in Azerbaijan, Georgia and Kyrgyzstan) unemployment among the youngest (under 20) on the labour market was lower than that among youth aged 20–24.

However, the highest figures were registered in Russia (in 2004 every third economically active young person under 20 was unemployed) and in Georgia (unemployment youth aged 20–24 reached 27%).

Table 8

**Youth Unemployment (Rates and Total Number) and Youth-to-Adult Unemployment Ratio  
(in 2003)**

	Youth unemployment (%)	Youth-to-Adult Unemployment Ratio
WHOLE WORLD	14.4	3.5
Industrially developed countries	13.4	2.3
Transition economy countries	18.6	2.4
East Asia	7.0	2.9
Southeast Asia	16.4	4.8
South Asia	13.9	5.9
Latin America and the Caribbean	16.6	3.1
Middle East and North Africa	25.6	3.3
Russia (as of 2004)	17.5	2.7
Georgia	24.9	2.5
Azerbaijan	21.8	2.7
Kazakhstan (2001)	19.1	2.2

**Sources:** GET Model, 2004; see also GET, 2004, Technical note (quoted from Global Employment Trends for Youth. – International Labour Office, Geneva, 2004), national statistical services of Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Georgia and Russia.

If compared with international figures, youth unemployment in the countries of the region is quite high (see Table 8). According to available data, all countries have youth unemployment exceeding the average world unemployment figures as well as ones calculated for industrially developed, Asian and Latin American countries.

We can now begin to assess how acute youth unemployment is. To do so it is necessary to estimate the share of youth aged 15–24 among the total number of the unemployed. The data given in Table 8 show that the share is quite large in all countries and much higher (tenfold) than the share of youth among the employed population. The largest – 41% share of youth among the unemployed – has been registered in Azerbaijan. This is 2.4 times higher than the share of youth among all employed. Kyrgyzstan comes second with every third unemployed being a young person under 25 (it is to be noted that youth accounts for only 20% of all employed).

Table 9

**Share of Youth (Aged 15–24) among Employed and Unemployed**

	Youth (aged 15–24) among	
	Employed	Unemployed
Azerbaijan (2003)	17.6	41.0
Georgia (2004)	7.1	19.5
Kazakhstan (2002)	13.7	27.9
Russia (2004)	11.4	28.1
Kyrgyzstan (2003)	21.2	34.9

**Sources:** Russian Federal Statistical Service, Kazakhstan Poverty Monitoring, Republic of Azerbaijan State Programme on Poverty Reduction and Economic Development 2003–2005 Baku – 2003, Labour Market in Georgia. 2002–2004. Statistical publication – Tbilisi 2005, Занятость и безработица. Итоги кыргызского интегрированного обследования домашних хозяйств 2003 г. Специальная публикация. – Бишкек 2005.

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There is no doubt that a large share of youth among the unemployed is partially linked to their large share among the working-age population. However, a wide gap between the youth share among the employed and the youth share among the unemployed indicates a crisis on the youth labour market.

High youth unemployment often leads to social apathy which, in its turn, instigate crime and drug-addiction.

It is to be stressed that unemployment in most countries under study could have been much higher, if not for a strong outflow of labour migrants in the last decade.

### **Problems of First Waged Employment (Graduates)**

Unemployed youth have their own risk groups. These are professionally inexperienced graduates who just entered the labour market. Their employment problems are attributed both to education and labour areas.

One of the key reasons behind their employment problems is a mismatch between the graduates' professions, occupations and skills and labour market needs (i.e. occupational composition). Moreover, this is a double mismatch since it is registered both between the graduates' professions and professions required by the market as well as between the graduates' skill level and the one required by the market. In other words it can be described as structural unemployment.

The second reason is the low quality of educational services provided by most of the educational establishments of various levels (see Chapter 2). Declining quality of education results in graduates' inability to start working without additional preliminary training. At the same time, employers who do not trust the professional skills of young specialists and do not feel like investing in their additional training make work experience a mandatory requirement for getting employed. They believe it offers something of a guarantee that the specialist will be prepared enough to fulfil his or her duties. This results in a vicious circle where lack of professional experience hampers the professional employment of graduates (including those who graduated from vocational schools). At the same time, young people cannot gain such experience since employers refuse to employ them due to their lack of experience.

Next reason is insufficient graduate job placement mechanisms. The Soviet system of mandatory work assignment for graduates was abandoned. However, no other system was created to promote youth employment in the new market environment. Currently, certain countries of the region are trying to establish such mechanisms (state order for training of specialists, specialists being trained at request of commercial firms, students' traineeship at enterprises, etc.).

Nonetheless, as a rule, today's graduates find jobs on their own or through their friends or relatives. Unfortunately, very often their employment does not match their profession, and this greatly devalues their education.

According to the CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee, graduate employment problems are really acute. Thus, in 2004, graduates from comprehensive schools, vocational schools, specialized secondary and higher educational establishments accounted for 20% of the unemployed registered by the Employment Services in Azerbaijan, 21% in Kyrgyzstan, 10% in Russia and 2% in Kazakhstan.

As for the graduates' share among the total unemployed (calculated under the ILO methodology) only data on Kazakhstan is available. Thus, in 2002, graduates accounted for 15.7% of the total unemployed *'due to the absence of work upon graduation'*. At the same time, among those aged 16–24 the reason mentioned above was voiced by 47%.

When discussing CIS unemployment it should be noted that the figures could have been much higher if not for increasing informal employment. To a certain extent, this became an employment pattern for those who failed to find a place on the formal labour market during the economic reforms. This is especially true for young people.

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## Informal Sector Employment

In the last 15 years the informal economy has spread widely in the former Soviet republics including the countries of the region under study. This employment pattern includes all population groups such as females, males, youth and preretirement. Scarce analyses on the subject do not allow a precise estimate of the scope of the phenomenon. However, it is possible to make rough estimations. Moreover, the available data on certain countries show how the informal economy is distributed across the region.

According to experts' estimates, about 30% of workers in Kazakhstan are illegally employed. Besides, a great number of workers are seasonally or occasionally employed and in most cases tend to evade income taxes<sup>18</sup>. According to the National Statistical Committee of Kyrgyzstan, in 2003 the informally employed accounted for 65–70% of all employed in the country's economy<sup>19</sup>. According to the Russian Federal Statistical Service, Russia's informal sector is significantly smaller: as of August 2005 it employed 13.2 million people which was 19% of the country's total employed population. It should be stressed that the number of informally employed has been increasing with the passage of time (in August 2003 it was 'only' 11.3 million people or 17% of the country's total employed population).

Data on youth employment in the informal sector are almost non-existent. At the same time, occasional or indirect reports clearly show that such employment pattern is more popular among youth than among adults. This is because youth have more problems not only with finding a decent job but with finding any kind of work in the formal sector and they have to accept socially unprotected, poorly paid, temporary work in the informal sector more often than workers of other age groups.

For example, in Kyrgyzstan 92.1% of those employed at the age of 15-19 were employed in the informal sector while their share among those aged 20-24 made up 73.3%<sup>20</sup>.

**Table 10**

**Employed in Formal and Informal Sectors in Russia, by Age**  
(%, on average, as of February-November 2004)

	Total	By ag groups					
		15–19	20–29	30–39	40–49	50–59	60+
Employed in economy	100,0	1.9	22.4	24.4	30.0	17.5	3.8
Employed in informal sector	100,0	4.6	23.9	25.8	27.8	11.7	6.2
Urban population in informal sector	100,0	3.2	27.4	28.7	26.1	10.8	3.8
Rural population in informal sector	100,0	6.5	19.0	21.8	30.1	13.0	9.6

**Source:** Russian Federal Statistical Service.

Russian youth aged 15–19 accounts for 4.6% of those employed in the country's informal sector while their share among the formally employed is only 1.7% (3.2% among urban population and 6.5% among rural population).

Young people opt for socially risky employment patterns not because of their limited life experience and their search for easy ways to conquer the world so typical of their age (according to statistics) but because there are no opportunities to get decent work in the formal economy.

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<sup>18</sup> Экономика Казахстана. Развитие человеческого потенциала в Казахстане.

<sup>19</sup> Занятость и безработица. Итоги кыргызского интегрированного обследования домашних хозяйств 2003 г. Специальная публикация, Бишкек, 2005.

<sup>20</sup> Там же.

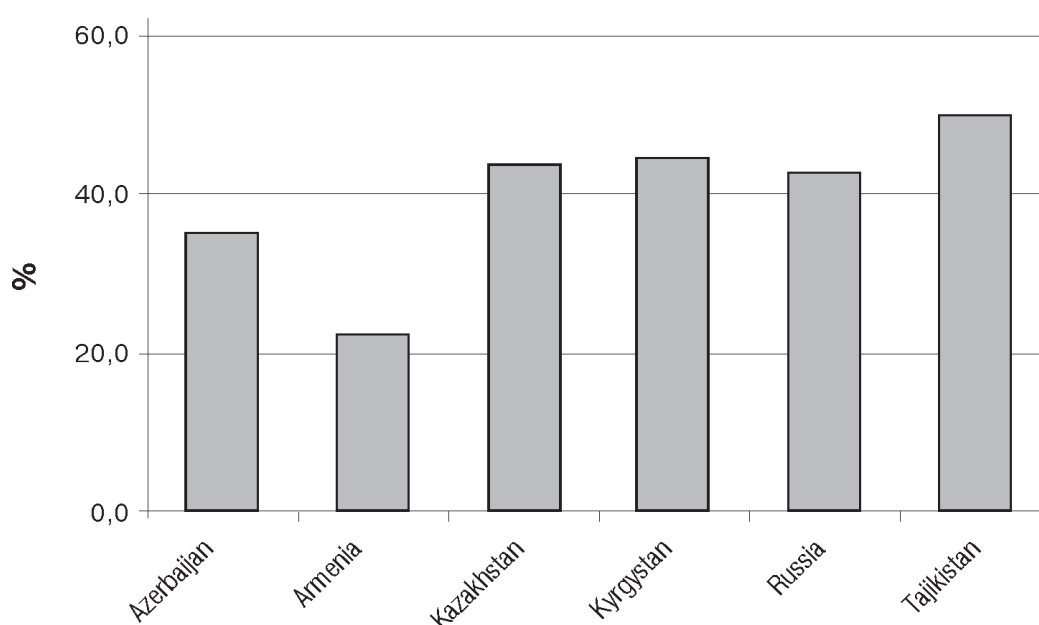
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## Youth in Labour Migration

In the last decade an unbalanced pressure on the labour market and poverty spread across and inside the countries of the region has resulted in strong labour migration. Therefore, a number of countries have become 'receiving' (above all, Russia and Kazakhstan) and others to 'sending'. Very often the 'sending' countries tend to see the formation of labour migration outflows as part of their labour market policy (for example, Tajikistan and Kyrgyzstan). Youth employment is a key aspect in such a policy since it is considered that youth labour migrants return home with work experience, professional status and seed capital for starting their businesses.

At the same time, young people are the most active in labour migration including illegal labour migration since a lot of them are hopeless to get decent job at home.

**Fig. 18 Youth (Aged 15-29) among Departing Migrants**



**Source:** CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee.

Even the official data, which weakly reflect the real labour migration in the countries of the region, show that youth currently account for 22% to 50% of all registered departing migrants.

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## Chapter 4.

### Gender Equality in Education and on Labour Market

Specific analyses show that all countries of the region have no discriminative laws restricting the education or professional occupation of females including young women. However, in reality young males and females have different education and decent employment opportunities in the modern labour market. This chapter deals with gender differences in terms of access to different stages of general and vocational education, as well as with problems facing young men and women in terms of employment and the labour market.

#### Young Men and Women in Education

Although legislation in the countries of the region does not favour neither sex in terms of access to education, the students' gender composition is actually quite unbalanced. Moreover, characteristic features of such an imbalance are different across the countries and reflect differences in gender roles, educational values and wage employment preparation strategies for men and women adopted in these countries.

##### *Male-to-Female Ratio in General (School) Education*

When dealing with boys-to-girls ratio at the general education schools it is to be noted that in all countries of the region gender problems at elementary school (1<sup>st</sup>–4<sup>th</sup> year) and secondary school (5<sup>th</sup>–9<sup>th</sup> year) differ greatly from those at high school (10<sup>th</sup>–11<sup>th</sup> year).

Both countries of the region and the CIS member-states have practically no gender differences among pupils at elementary and secondary school. Although at these educational levels boys' share is a bit larger than that of the girls, these differences mostly reflect boys' and girls' shares in their respective age groups (due to different boys' and girls' shares among newborn babies; as a rule, there are 104–106 newborn boys to 100 newborn girls).

Thus, in Kyrgyzstan girls accounted for 49% and 49.5% of pupils at elementary and secondary school respectively (in 2003/2004 academic year)<sup>21</sup>. In Russia the figures were 48.6% and 49.2% (in 2001/02 academic year), in Uzbekistan – 48.9% and 48.8% (in 2000/2001 academic year)<sup>22</sup>, in Kazakhstan – 48.8% and 49.1% (in 2001/02 academic year)<sup>23</sup>. In Tajikistan there were 89 girls per 100 boys at secondary school in 1998, while in 2002 the ratio was 86 to 100.

The situation at the high school is different. Moreover, it is different in all countries. Thus, in Tajikistan poverty and reviving gender roles have cut the number of girls in comparison to boys among those after secondary school, i.e. after compulsory general education. In 2001 girls accounted for only 36.7% among high school leavers<sup>24</sup>. In the 2000/01 academic year, Uzbekistan's high school preserved the gender balance of girls and boys<sup>25</sup>. As for other countries of the region whose statistical data allow an estimate of gender composition at high school, it is mostly girls that get a full general education. In Kyrgyzstan, girls account for 52.5% of the students at high school (in 2003/04 academic year)<sup>26</sup>, while in Russia they have a 56.5% share (in 2001/02 academic year). In Kazakhstan girls account for 52.5% (in 2001/02 academic year)<sup>27</sup>.

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<sup>21</sup> Гендерные отношения в Кыргызской Республике. Бишкек, 2005. С.44–46.

<sup>22</sup> Женщины и мужчины Узбекистана. Статистический сборник. Ташкент, 2002. С. 64.

<sup>23</sup> Образование в Республике Казахстан, Алматы, 2002.

<sup>24</sup> «Право на качественное образование», ЮНИСЕФ, 2002. С. 78.

<sup>25</sup> «Достижение Целей развития тысячелетия в Республике Таджикистан», Проект, 30 апреля 2003 г.

<sup>26</sup> Женщины и мужчины Узбекистана. Статистический сборник. Ташкент, 2002. С. 64.

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## ***Young Men and Women in Basic Vocational Education***

The statistical data show that in all countries of the region young women's share among students at basic vocational schools varies greatly but is still smaller than that of young men. Uzbekistan has the largest – 43% share of young women among students at vocational schools (in 2000/01 academic year)<sup>28</sup>. Then comes Russia with 38%. In Kazakhstan their share in 2001/02 academic year was 38%, while in Kyrgyzstan they made up 36% (in 2004/05 academic year). In Azerbaijan young women accounted for 31% of the students at vocational schools<sup>29</sup>. In Tajikistan the share of young women among students at vocational schools has been steadily reducing. In 2004, it was 26.8%.<sup>30</sup>

At the same time, analyses show that there is no common reason behind the situation. In certain countries (for instance, in Russia, Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan) the gender imbalance at vocational schools results from different strategies of vocational education among men and women. In these countries women strive for higher levels of education (both specialized secondary and higher education) since a basic vocational education level is not appealing to them. Men often opt for lower levels of vocational education.

In other countries (in Uzbekistan and Tajikistan) the scarce share of young women among students at vocational schools can be explained by the large-scale influence of traditional gender roles and increasing gender discrimination by families (especially by poor families) towards access to education. Young women from poor families are more inclined to marry early and with insufficient means. Above all, such families tend to pay for their sons' education rather than their daughters'. Given this trend, basic vocational education now seems to be quite attractive for young women.

## ***Gender Ratio in Secondary Vocational Education***

At the second level of vocational education – in specialized secondary education – the young woman's share among students is larger than their share in the system of basic vocational education and is larger than the respective share of young men in all countries of the region. Currently, in most countries this level of vocational education is the most feminized.

Thus, in the 2003/04 academic year in Armenia young women accounted for 69.1% of students at state-run secondary vocational schools and for 76.3% in private ones<sup>31</sup>. In Kyrgyzstan the figure was 64.4%.<sup>32</sup> In Uzbekistan it is secondary vocational education that is the most attractive for young women (and most probably also the easiest to access). In the 2000/01 academic year they accounted for 52.4% of the students. As a rule, young women prefer full-time attendance (in 2000/01 their share among full-time students was 56%), while evening and correspondence courses are the least popular among them (young women account for 28.5% of all evening and 38.9% of all correspondence students)<sup>33</sup>.

In Kazakhstan the figure for the 2003/04 academic year was 54% while in Azerbaijan it reached 70%. Russia has recently witnessed a substantial drop in young women among students at specialized secondary educational establishment, at present they account for 52%.

The lowest share of young women among students at specialized secondary schools has been registered in Tajikistan. They account for 51% of students (in 2002/03 academic year). However, it is rising. The statistics show that in 1997/98 academic year it was only 48%.<sup>34</sup>

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<sup>27</sup> Гендерные отношения в Кыргызской Республике. Бишкек, 2005. С.44–46.

<sup>28</sup> Образование в Республике Казахстан, Алматы, 2002.

<sup>29</sup> Women and Men in Azerbaijan. State Statistical Committee of Azerbaijan Republic – Baku 2004 с 164

<sup>30</sup> Women and Men in Azerbaijan. State Statistical Committee of Azerbaijan Republic, Baku, 2004. С. 164.

<sup>31</sup> Данные официальных сайтов: [www.stat.tj](http://www.stat.tj), [www.minfin.tj](http://www.minfin.tj), [www.nbt.tj](http://www.nbt.tj), [www.tf-prs.tj](http://www.tf-prs.tj)

<sup>32</sup> Women and Men in Armenia. A Statistical Booklet, Yerevan. 2005. С.48.

<sup>33</sup> Гендерные отношения в Кыргызской Республике. Бишкек, 2005. С.47.

<sup>34</sup> Женщины и мужчины Узбекистана. Статистический сборник. Ташкент, 2002. С. 65.



All countries of the region with available data share the problem of student segregation at specialized secondary schools depending on their branch of industry (see Table 11). The data below show that despite certain peculiarities typical of this or that country young women are still in the majority among students at secondary schools specializing in healthcare, education, and culture, i.e. in highly-feminized (and as a rule, underpaid) branches of national economies. The data prove that today's gender composition of students will promote the existing employment segregation in the future.

**Table 11**

**Share of Female Students at Specialized Secondary Schools, by Branches <sup>35</sup>**

	Kyrgyzstan 2003/04 academic year	Kazakhstan 2003/04 academic year	Uzbekistan 2000/01 academic year	Azerbaijan 2003/04 academic year	Russia 2003/04 academic year, state and municipal offices	Tajikistan 2002/03 academic year
Industry	40	38	33	51	41	14
Building	16					
Transportation and communications		31	14,5	39	27	
Agriculture	21	41	22.2	26	42	7
Economics	66	54	39,7	68	66	67
Healthcare	90	75	87.8	86	83	72
Education	88	85	85.5	88	77	
Culture	63	62	40.8	70	68	

### ***Sex Ratio in Higher Education***

The third level of vocational education – higher education – is not that feminized. However, in terms of female students at higher educational establishments, the countries of the region can be split into two groups. The first group includes countries where the number of female students is much higher than the respective number of male students. Moreover, women's strategies to reach the highest level of vocational education have resulted (or will inevitable result) in a much higher level of education when compared with men among the whole population. The second group consists of countries that preserve traditional gender roles to maintain a traditional gender imbalance in the population in terms of level of education.

The first group includes Russia and Kazakhstan where women's share among students at higher schools was 57–58% in the last several years (the last censuses show that women's level of education is higher than that of men). Kyrgyzstan and Armenia are also in this group with women's share among students reaching 55% (in Kyrgyzstan, the share is rising steadily while in Armenia, on the contrary, it is declining).

<sup>35</sup> Гендерные отношения в Кыргызской Республике. Бишкек, 2005. С.49; Women and Men in Azerbaijan. State Statistical Committee of Azerbaijan Republic, Baku, 2004; Женщины и мужчины Узбекистана. Статистический сборник. Ташкент, 2002; Женщины и мужчины Казахстана 2004. Гендерная статистика. Алматы, Агентство РК по статистике, 2004.

Table 12

**Share of Female Students at Higher School**  
(as of beginning of academic year; %)

	1995	2000	2001	2003	2004
Azerbaijan	43.8	41.7	44.3	46.2	47.0
Armenia	55.5	54.9	55.0	55.8	54.6
Georgia	52.5	47.5	49.7	50.4	50.4
Kazakhstan	52.9	54.3	55.2	57.5	58.1
Kyrgyzstan	51.0	50.7	52.9	53.9	55.2
Russia	57.1	56.7	58.0	58.0	58.1
Tajikistan	27.9	23.7	24.3	24.8	25.8
Uzbekistan	38.9	37.8	...	...	...

**Source:** CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee.

The second group includes Azerbaijan (girls account for only 47% of students at higher learning centers although their number has recently been rising quickly), Uzbekistan (out of all educational levels higher vocational education is the least requested by young women. Their share of 37.8% among students is by far smaller than that of young men, according to the 2000/01 academic year data)<sup>36</sup> and Tajikistan (young women account for only one quarter of all students).

However, Tajikistan is now holding a campaign to attract young women to higher educational establishments, to overcome gender inequality in terms of access to this level of vocational education. Following Tajikistan President's initiative, all higher educational establishments in the country have introduced enrolment privileges for young women from rural areas (they do not have to take exams, since an interview is enough). The practices were officially fixed by Presidential Decree #5 dated 3.12.1999 and by Government Resolution #199 dated April 19, 2001 on young women's enrolment in higher educational establishments of Tajikistan under the President's 2001–2005 quota. Under the quota program, 3,050 young women were enrolled in higher educational establishments throughout 1998–2003.

Table 13

**Young Women Enrolled in Higher Educational Establishments of Tajikistan under the President's Quota Program (persons, 1998–2003)**

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	Всего
Young women	219	434	519	635	637	606	3.050

**Source:** PRRS Monitoring Office.

<sup>36</sup> Женщины и мужчины Узбекистана. Статистический сборник. Ташкент, 2002. С. 60.

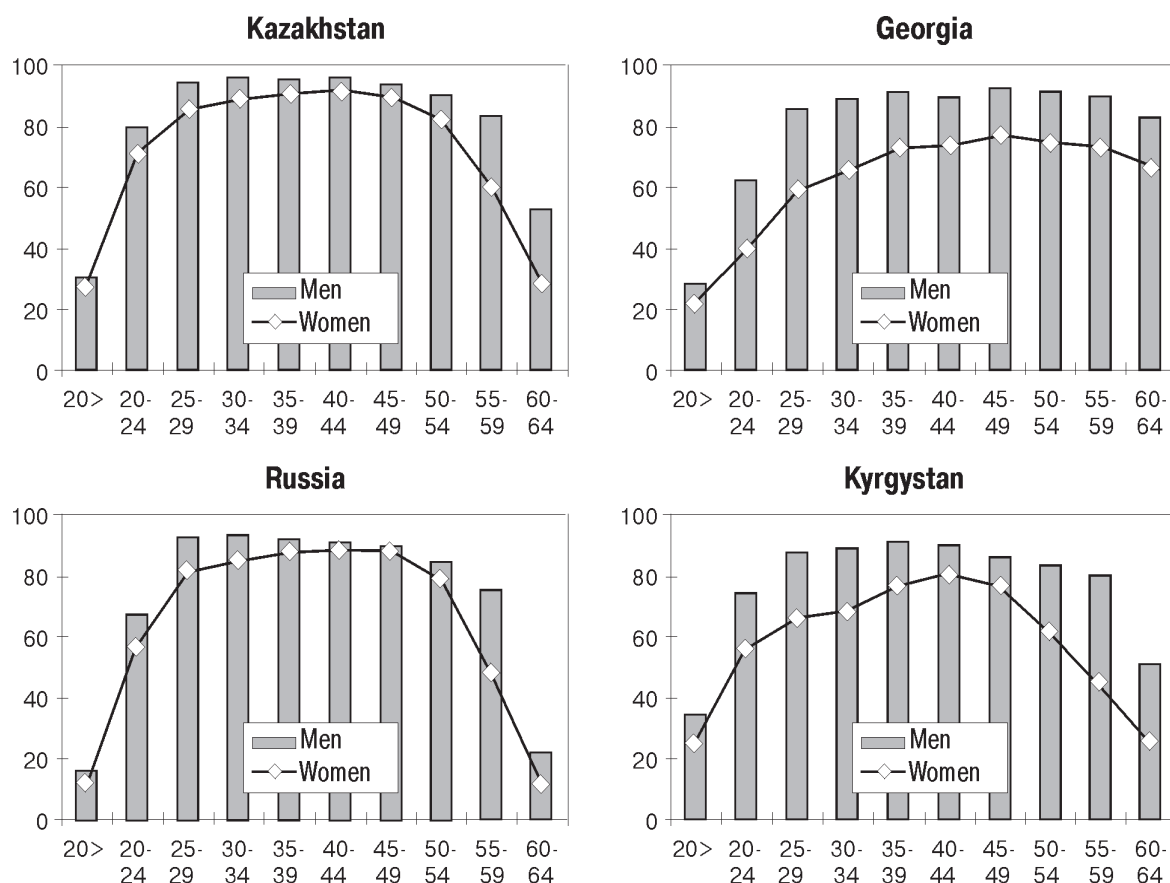
## Gender Problems of Youth Economic Activity and Employment of Youth

In all countries of the region women are widely represented in the national labour markets.

In Azerbaijan economically active people accounted for 71.9% of the total working-age population (78.2% of men and 65.7% of women), in Kazakhstan economically active women accounted for 65% and men for 75.6% (as of 2003), in Russia the figures were 60.8% and 70.4% respectively (74.3% and 78.8% among the working-age population)<sup>37</sup>.

At present, the women's share among the economically active population can be compared with that of men although the figures vary greatly, i.e. from 42% in Armenia and Azerbaijan to 49% in Russia and Kazakhstan.

**Fig. 19 Share of Economically Active Men and Women in Some Countries of the Region, by Age**



**Sources:** Russian Federal Statistical Service, Kazakhstan Poverty Monitoring, Republic of Azerbaijan State Programme on Poverty Reduction and Economic Development 2003–2005 Baku – 2003, Labour Market in Georgia. 2002–2004. Statistical publication – Tbilisi 2005, Занятость и безработица. Итоги кыргызского интегрированного обследования домашних хозяйств 2003 г. Специальная публикация.— Бишкек 2005.

<sup>37</sup> The Russian Federal Statistical Service, Kazakhstan Poverty Monitoring, Republic of Azerbaijan State Programme on Poverty Reduction and Economic Development 2003–2005 Baku – 2003.

Age profiles of men's and women's economic activity are similar. In all four countries women's economic activity in all age groups is lower than that of men. The available data on the countries (see Figure 19) show that the economic activity of the youngest players in the labour market (under 20 years old) is also the lowest in comparison with that of other age groups. Another characteristic feature of the group is that gender differences at that age are minimal.

The next age group shows a drastic change in the nature of economic activity: the economic activity of these young men's and women's groups is higher in all countries. However, at the same time, the gender gap is higher, too.

## ***Employment***

It should be stressed that the economic crisis of the 90s had a negative impact on male and female employment, although the extent of the negative impact was different. The scope of employment that changed during the years of Azerbaijan's and Kazakhstan's independence resulted in a larger share of women among the employed (see Table 14). At the same time, their share in Armenia and Russia remained unchanged while in Kyrgyzstan it reduced.

**Table 14**

**Share of Women among Employed (in 1992-2002, %)**

	1992	1995	2000	2001	2002
Azerbaijan	43	45	48	48	48
Armenia	48	...	46	46	48
Kazakhstan	47	47	48	48	48
Kyrgyzstan	49	48	44	44	44
Russia	49	48	48	48	49
Tajikistan	...	41	46	47	...
Uzbekistan	44	43	44	...	...

**Source:** CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee.

However, the quality of female employment in all countries has drastically worsened: sex discrimination in all countries has skyrocketed (cases of illegal dismissals and unsubstantiated refusal to hire, etc. have increased). Women began to be ousted to the outskirts of the labour market (to less prestigious and lower-income jobs). This all resulted in an increased gender gap in terms of wages registered in all the countries of the region. On the verge of the collapse of the Soviet Union the gender gap between men's and women's wages was estimated by experts at 30%. However, the gender gap now in terms of wages is 58% in Armenia, 39% in Kazakhstan, 33% in Kyrgyzstan, 36% in Russia and about 55% in Tajikistan.

Young women are most affected since very often the labour market discriminates against them in two ways – by age and sex. For example, if young male graduates are refused a job due to their lack of work experience, young women might be refused a job because they have families or small children. If a woman has a family with children, employers often refuse to hire her because they fear her small children may often fall ill and that she may often interrupt her employment to take care of them. If a woman does not have a family or children she is refused a job because she may get married and have a child and her employer will have to provide her with social benefits and when the child gets older it will start being sick often and the mother will have to interrupt her employment to take care of her child.

It is to be noted that large families, early marriages, bearing of first children at a young age as well as traditional gender roles according to which it is the mother that is mostly concerned with bringing up children is typical of all countries of the region and especially of Central Asian and Caucasian countries. Thus, according to the statistical data, the average age at which women give birth to their first child is quite young in all countries of the region: it falls (except in Georgia) on what according to the ILO methodology is the young age. The 2002 figures in the countries under study range from 22.4 years old in

Armenia to 23.9 years old in Azerbaijan (or 24.7 years old in Georgia). That is why the problems of female youth employment are closely intertwined with granting care leaves and promoting preschools<sup>38</sup>.

As for preschool facilities, their lack in most of the countries of the region has hampered to a great extent young women's access to the labour market. In the former Soviet Union the preschool facilities were far from ideal. In all former USSR republics they were quite inefficient and inaccessible for the population. However, throughout the economic reforms in most countries of the region the state of the preschool system has become critical. State-run preschools closed down due to a budget deficit while department-sponsored ones closed down due to the declining performance of industrial and agricultural enterprises, which were eager to get rid of the burden during the economic crisis.

Russia has managed to stay relatively stable. The decreasing number of preschools and their capacity cuts of the 1990s were partially compensated by a lower birth rate. However, even its recent moderate rise made the problem more acute. The worst situation has been registered in Tajikistan, Kyrgyzstan and Kazakhstan. They had the sharpest drop in those involved in preschool education. Throughout 1989-2002, their share dropped from 16.0% to 6.1% in Tajikistan, from 31.3% to 9.5% in Kyrgyzstan, from 53.1% to 13.5% in Kazakhstan. Moreover, in rural areas the preschool education system has practically ceased to exist.

Besides, there is another aspect of preschool inaccessibility: in addition to an insufficient number of preschool facilities, most people cannot afford their services because of their prohibitive cost.

**Table 15**

**Share of Children Aged 3-6 in Preschool Education** <sup>39</sup>

	1989	2002	2002 в % к 1989
Azerbaijan	21.6	19.3	89.4
Armenia	48.5	25.7	53.0
Georgia	44.5	30.8	69.2
Kazakhstan	53.1	13.5	25.4
Kyrgyzstan	31.3	9.5	30.4
Russia	73.4	68.2	92.9
Tajikistan	16.0	6.1	38.1
Uzbekistan	36.8	19.9	54.1

Some countries have drastically revised procedures for granting and financing the interruptions of employment required to take care of sick and/or small children. Thus, in Russia maternity leave has been transformed into parental leave (it is similar to practices adopted in Soviet times when it became possible to get sick leave to take care of sick children). However, Russian employers pay for neither of the leaves (at least, their expenditures cover only the first two days of temporary incapacity). Such a gender-neutral regulation of employment interruptions does not settle the problem of discriminating against women when hiring them, sacking them or promoting them (in reality it is mostly women who interrupt employment in this way), but it makes it less acute.

Under the Kazakh Labour Code, only women are entitled to privileges for such temporary interruptions of employment. Moreover, it is only employers with sponsored female workers that have to pay. It's quite hard for a woman to become a waged worker in that country. Kyrgyzstan has a similar situation.

<sup>38</sup> Социальный мониторинг «Инноченти», 2004 год, ЮНИСЕФ. С.63.

<sup>39</sup> Социальный мониторинг «Инноченти», 2004 год, Экономический рост и детская бедность в странах ЦВЕ/СНГ и государствах Балтии. ЮНИСЕФ, 2004. С.85.

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## Gender Aspects of Youth Unemployment

Throughout years of unemployment in the countries of the region the media and scientific studies have created a stereotype that the former Soviet republics suffered from pure female unemployment. Modern statistical data support this statement only partially. Firstly, the feminization of unemployment is not typical for all countries of the region; secondly, it is not typical of all types of unemployment and thirdly, the male-to-female unemployment ratio in some countries might have been subject to changes.

The statistical data on gender aspects of unemployment registered by the employment services show that in all countries of the region, except Georgia, women lead among those unemployed registered by the employment services (see Table 16). In 2004, their share ranged from 49% in Georgia to 70.3% in Armenia.

**Table 16**

**Share of Women among Unemployed Registered by Employment Services<sup>40</sup>**

	1995	2000	2001	2002	2004
Azerbaijan	59.7	55.9	55.0	54.7	52.3
Armenia	69.7	64.6	65.9	67.3	70.3
Georgia	36.8	52.6	...	...	49.0
Kazakhstan	60.1	...	54.7	58.8	62.8
Kyrgyzstan	59.3	53.6	53.8	54.1	54.0
Russia	62.5	68.9	68.0	68.5	66.3
Tajikistan	46.1	52.7	52.8	55.1	56.5
Uzbekistan	60.1	61.9	59.2	...	

**Source:** CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee.

Unemployment calculated under the ILO methodology has a different gender asymmetry. In a number of countries this type of unemployment is primarily female. For example, in Azerbaijan (in 2003) male unemployment was 9.8% while female was 12.5%<sup>41</sup>. In Kazakhstan the situation was similar: the figures were 7.2% and 10.4% respectively (in 2003 г.)<sup>42</sup>. In Kyrgyzstan they made up 9.4% and 10.5% respectively (in 2003)<sup>43</sup>. However, Russia has a totally different gender asymmetry. The 2003 male unemployment of 8.1% in Russia was higher than that of women (it was equal to 7.5%). However, the 2004 male unemployment was lower than that of women for the first time during the economic reforms (the figures were 7.8% and 8.0% respectively). In Georgia, the male unemployment is higher than the female one (13.4% and 11.8% respectively).

At the same time, unclear gender asymmetry in unemployment does not mean that unemployed women have no acute problems. Country-by-country studies show that in all countries women find it harder to search for a job than men. Moreover, it takes much longer. This is why more women are long-term unemployed. As a rule, long-term unemployment is typical for women.

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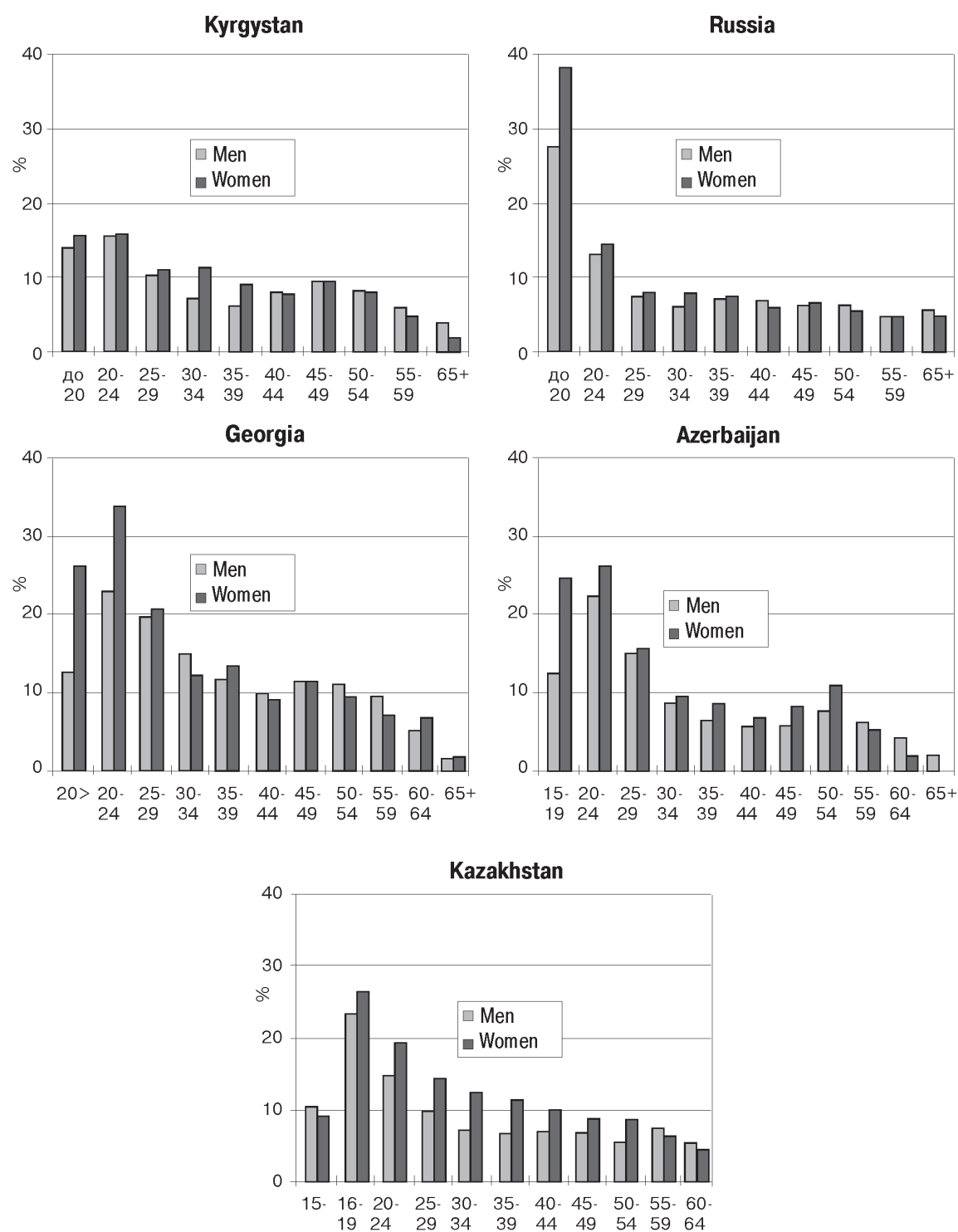
<sup>40</sup> Рынок труда в странах СНГ. Статистический сборник. М., Межгосударственный статистический комитет СНГ, 2002; Население и условия жизни в странах СНГ, М., Межгосударственный статистический комитет СНГ, 2005.

<sup>41</sup> Women and Men in Azerbaijan. State Statistical Committee of Azerbaijan Republic. Baku, 2004.

<sup>42</sup> Женщины и мужчины Казахстана 2004. Гендерная статистика. Алмааты, 2004.

<sup>43</sup> Женщины и мужчины Кыргызской Республики. Бишкек, 2005.

**Fig. 20 Age Profiles of Male and Female Unemployment in Countries of the Region**



**Sources:** Russian Federal Statistical Service, Kazakhstan Poverty Monitoring, Republic of Azerbaijan State Programme on Poverty Reduction and Economic Development 2003–2005 Baku – 2003, Labour Market in Georgia. 2002–2004. Statistical publication – Tbilisi 2005, Занятость и безработица. Итоги кыргызского интегрированного обследования домашних хозяйств 2003 г. Специальная публикация. – Бишкек 2005.



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Gender and age profiles of unemployment in the five countries of the region with available data given in Figure 20 show that unemployment among young women is much higher than that among young men in all countries<sup>44</sup>. On the contrary, in older age groups male unemployment is higher than female unemployment. It should be noted that the highest unemployment among young women as well as the biggest gender gap of unemployment rates have been registered in Russia and Georgia. In 2004, in Russia unemployment among young women under 20 years old was 38.1%, or 1.4 times higher than that among young men of the same age. In Georgia young women aged 20-24 had the highest unemployment rate of 34%, which was 1.5 times higher than unemployment among young men.

Thus, the conclusion is as follows: although legislation provides for equality for men and women in terms of employment, and women's level of education is high, youth unemployment in the region is primarily a women's problem.

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<sup>44</sup> Kazakh youth aged 15 is an exception: male unemployment is higher than female. At the same time, Kazakh young men are more economically active than women in all age groups. Most probably, a similar situation could be observed in other countries. However, the statistical data on them do not allow to separately analyze their unemployment rates.

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## Conclusion

The analysis proves that the economic crisis and the lack of effective youth policy in the countries of the region have resulted in more acute problems in youth education, employment and unemployment across the region.

1. According to the analysis of demographic processes to describe youth problems in the region under study, all the countries can be split into two groups. The first one includes Azerbaijan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan – countries with a younger population. In the near future, youth problems will remain quite acute. The other group consists of Armenia, Georgia and Russia with older populations. The recent years have seen an increase in youth numbers among the working-age population – however a short-term one.

In the next decade the number of young people joining the labour market will start decreasing in all countries of the region. Children born in the 1990s (when a sharp birth rate drop was registered) will start coming of working age.

2. A crisis that affected the region's economies has negatively influenced youth education and employment. It has drastically reduced living standards for the majority of the population, broadened the poverty scope and increased the differentiation of living standards both inside and across the countries. Therefore, children under 16 and families with children form social and demographic groups that run the highest risk of becoming poor. For many large families the risk is high. The studies show that children's poverty level is higher than the population poverty level in all countries of the region. This problem is extremely acute in Central Asian and Caucasus countries, which still maintain traditions of large families especially in rural areas. At the same time, as a rule, low income is linked to poor educational opportunities, which restrict decent employment opportunities for young people raised in poor families.

3. The region's system of education does not help to solve youth employment problems. The study shows that the economic crisis that broke out in the region drastically cut state financing of the system of education and resulted in increasing paid educational services. On the one hand, it preserved the system of education and met youth demand for educational services, promoted training for new professions and kept a great number of youth out of the labour market. On the other hand, it resulted in an imbalanced training of specialists who were not required by the labour market and whose level of education did not meet the market demand (thus, it resulted in structural youth unemployment). In the long run, it led to unequal access to the system of vocational education.

4. In the first years of independence, the social and economic crisis in the region posed a youth illiteracy threat. At present, it is clear that on the whole most countries managed to contain the problem. At the same time, it is still acute for children from poor and low-income families, rural youth, neglected children, refugees' children and migrants. However, it is not covered by the official statistics. The situation is extremely alarming in Tajikistan.

5. Youth economic activity in the countries of the region is not high. As a rule, it does not exceed the average worldwide figures. Most probably, it is due to a high vocational education enrolment ratio among this age group. On the other hand, it may be caused by the unpopularity of combining full-time studies with part-time employment.

6. The study shows that in the last 15 years the youth employment problem has been aggravated as more pressure has been put on the labour market (due to job cuts and the rise in working-age population). Low employment rate (in comparison with other population age groups) is indicative of difficulties facing young people in the region's labour markets. In most countries of the region employment is much lower than the average worldwide figures or figures calculated for most of the countries in the world.

7. Low quality jobs for young people is also a problem, as well as large-scale youth self-employment (because as a rule, waged-employment is more socially-protected in the region while self-employment is a means to survive when it is impossible to be employed on a waged basis; moreover, self-employment is

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informal in most cases). The data (available for some countries only) show that young workers are forced to opt for self-employment more often than adults.

8. Youth unemployment is an acute problem for the whole region. In all countries of the region youth unemployment exceeds the average worldwide figures as well as figures calculated for industrially developed, Asian and Latin American countries. It should be stressed that registered unemployment is not that high for a number of reasons. However, young people account for quite a substantial share of the registered unemployed. Moreover, the youngest players in the labour market face the acutest employment problems. As for real unemployment, it is much higher than registered unemployment in all countries of the region. Young people account for a large share of this unemployment. Moreover, it is much bigger than their share among the employed.

The study shows that it is those entering the labour market for the first time who experience most difficulties. Among them are graduates with no professional work experience. One of the key reasons for that is a mismatch between graduates' professions and skills and labour market needs. Other problem is low quality education provided by most vocational educational establishments at different levels and insufficient job placement mechanisms for graduates.

9. Over the last 15 years the informal economy has spread widely across the region. It was quite difficult for youth to get employed in the formal sector. Very often they had to accept socially unprotected, low-income and temporary employment in the informal sector. It would be fair to say that employment in this sector is more widespread among youth than among adults. Besides, a lot of young people who are desperate to get decent work at home actively join the labour migrants who are often illegal.

10. The study shows that student's composition is inbalanced in terms of gender in all countries of the region. However, its characteristics differ both by levels of education and by countries. In certain countries the balance is in favour of young women (for example, in Russia and Kazakhstan) while in others – in favour of young men (in Tajikistan and Uzbekistan). It is only student's composition at elementary and secondary school in all countries of the region that show practically no gender differences.

11. Women have quite a large representation in the national labour markets in all countries of the region. Their share among the economically active population has been and still is comparable to that of men, although the figures vary by country. At the same time, men and women have unequal decent professional employment opportunities in the modern labour market. Female employment quality has drastically declined in all countries: cases of sex discrimination have become more frequent; women are being ousted to less prestigious and lower-income occupations. As a result, the gender gap in wages has increased in all countries of the region.

Young women are the most affected since the labour market discriminates against them in two ways: on the basis of sex and age. New female graduates are refused employment not only because they have no work experience. Their family and small children are other reasons for an employer to say no. If a woman has a family and children employers refuse to hire her because they fear small children may fall ill often and the mother may be forced to interrupt her employment to take care of them. If a woman does not have a family or children employers still refuse her a job because they fear she may get married and give birth to a child. It should be noted that large families, early marriages and giving birth to a first child at a young age is typical of all countries of the region especially of Central Asia and Caucasus. This is why female youth employment is closely linked to granting care leaves and developing preschool facilities.

12. The deplorable state of the preschool system as well as the expensive services it offers hamper young women entering the labour market in most countries of the region. In some countries (Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan) employers must pay for women's interruptions of employment caused by care leave. This obligation impedes women's waged employment.

13. According to statistical data, feminised unemployment is not typical for all countries of the region. Secondly, it is not typical of all types of unemployment; thirdly, the ratio of men's and women's unemployment was changed over time in some countries. However, the lack of clear gender balance in

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unemployment does not mean that unemployed women have no problems at all. Country-by-country studies show that women have more difficulties finding jobs. Moreover, it takes longer. This is the reason why women often spend more time long-term unemployed than men. So, it is long-term unemployment that is feminized. Gender and age profiles of youth unemployment show that in all countries young women's share among the unemployed is bigger than that of young men.

14. The fact that such acute problems exist in the countries of the region proves that it is necessary to design and implement specific programs and steps to develop and improve the systems of education and employment services for youth across the region.

15. The study shows that in most countries of the region the statistical data still do not include comprehensive statistics that can adequately reflect youth education, employment and labour market problems. It is obvious that with no comprehensive statistical data required to analyze these problems it is difficult both to design and implement youth policy and to evaluate its efficiency.

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## Data Sources and Definitions

### Data Sources

The study is based on data by:

- The CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee;
- National Statistical Committees of the CIS member-states;
- Publications by international organizations (above all, by the UN, the ILO, the UNICEF, the UNDP, and the World Bank), publications by CIS non-governmental organizations on education, employment, unemployment, migration, poverty and women's status;
- Statistical data from Association of Pension and Social Funds of the CIS member-states and the Baltic States;
- Research papers.

The study focuses on two key information problems. The first one is caused by insufficient information due to poorly developed labour and gender statistics in some countries of the region. Although the market economy has been developing on the former Soviet territories for more than a decade, statistics do not adequately show all the changes in the countries of the region. Currently, not every country's data gathering and processing procedures meets the ILO standards. In most countries data on youth education, employment and unemployment are incomplete. Moreover, the statistical data for certain countries are unavailable. This is true for Uzbekistan and Tajikistan.

The second major problem in terms of statistical data is the dependability, particularly in terms of data on employment and income. This is a problem for all countries of the region and for any country with a transition economy. This is because the shadow or illegal economy – and shadow or illegal employment accordingly – is widespread across the region. As a rule, it is not covered by the official statistics.

Besides, it is also a problem to compare data on youth education, employment and unemployment. Above all, this relates to the notion of 'youth', whose age limits are different from the ILO standards (age spans of '15–19' and '20–24') and vary by countries. Thus, Kyrgyzstan has long used the '15–35' span while Russia has referred to the '15–19' and '20–29' spans. In Tajikistan it was the '14–30' span. The CIS Inter-State Statistical Committee is based on the '15–29' span and uses this pattern in all its publications.

### Definitions

The analysis of youth problems employs definitions given below:

**Unemployed** (real or factual unemployment calculated under the ILO methodology) are individuals at a certain age – under the national legislation – who had no work (gainful activities) within a considered period of time, searched for it through employment services or on their own and were prepared to start immediately; or who had no work within a period specified by the national legislation.

**Unemployed registered by employment services** are individuals recognized as unemployed by employment services in accordance with the established procedure.

**Employed** in the economy are individuals employed on a waged basis (irrespective of whether it is permanent, temporary, seasonal, or occasional), as well as those employed on a non-waged basis.

**Gini Coefficient** is a measure of inequality of income (expenditure) distribution among the population. Its value ranges from 0 to 100 percentage points. The higher the value, the greater the inequality of income distribution in society.

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**Fund coefficient** is a ratio between per capita incomes (expenditures) 10% of high-income and 10% low-income population.

**Waged workers** are individuals performing duties described as 'waged work'. For this it is necessary to make a clear (written or oral) or implicit labour contract which guarantees a basic compensation (in-kind or money) irrespective of the income of the organization employing an individual.

**Non-waged workers** are individuals performing duties described as 'work for their private enterprise or business'. The compensation depends upon the income received from manufacture of goods and services. This group includes employers, members of producer's cooperatives and assisting family members.

**Average maternity age** is an arithmetical average of the ages of all women who gave birth to children in the given year, weighted by five-year age-specific birth rates.

**Cumulative birth rate** shows how many children, on average, a woman could possibly give birth to throughout her overall fertile period (age 15–49 years), if at every age she had maintained the birth rate of the year for which the figure was calculated. It does not depend upon the age composition of the population and describes the average birth rate of a given calendar year.

**Unemployment rate** is a ratio of the unemployed to the economically active population.

**Employment rate** of a certain age group is the ratio of the employed population of a certain age group to the total population of this age group. At the same time, publications released in the CIS have two other ways to calculate the figure: 1) as an employed-to-total population ratio or 2) as an employed-to-economically active population ratio. However, using these figures especially to compare countries is quite disputable. The first one is affected by peculiarities of the population age composition of a country. The second cannot reflect real population needs for jobs since it is taken for granted that the economically inactive population is stable and will not pretend to jobs within the national economy (it would be too daring to say that for transition economies).

**Economic activity** of certain age group is the ratio of the economically active population to the population of a respective age group in percents.

**Economically active population** is the total of all employed and unemployed (at an age older than the youngest working age).

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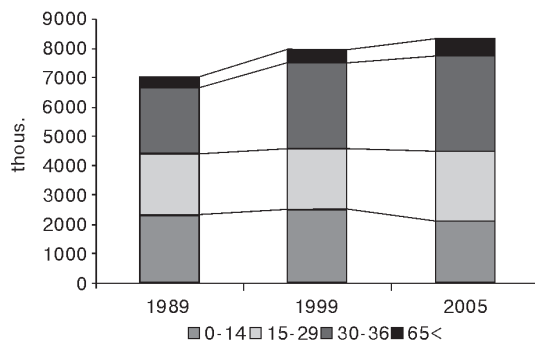
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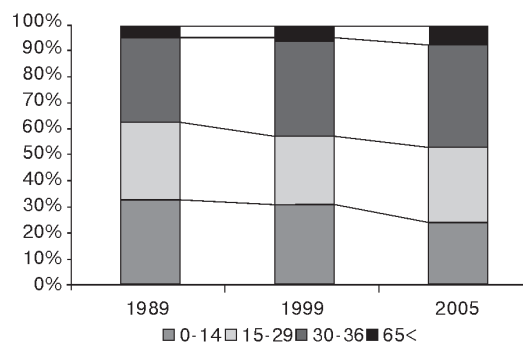
## Appendices

(According to the CIS Inter-State Committee)

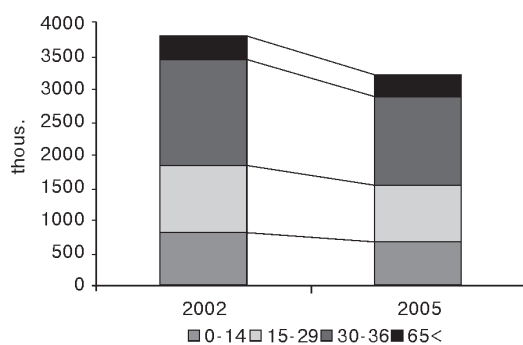
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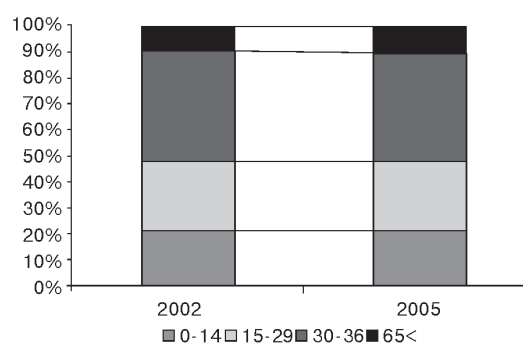
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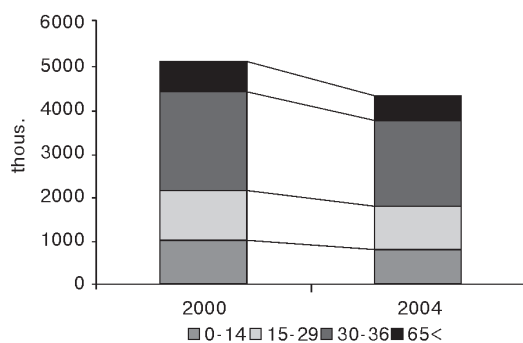
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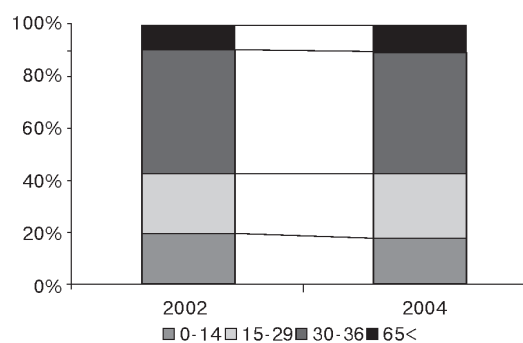
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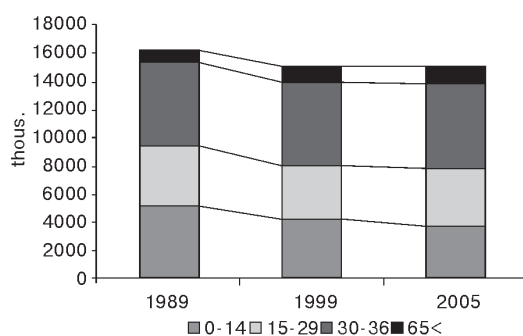
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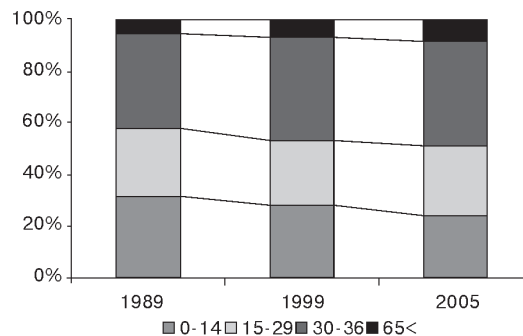
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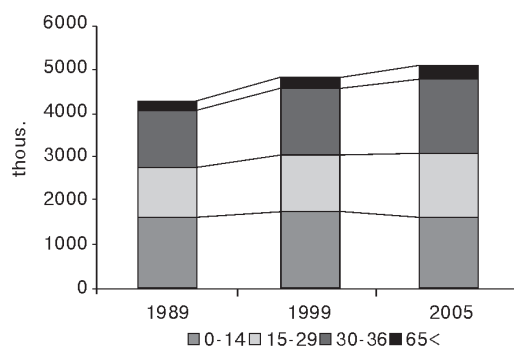


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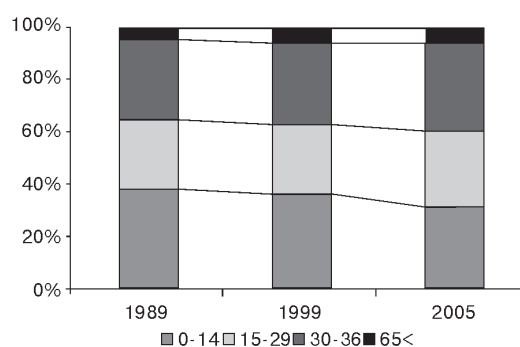
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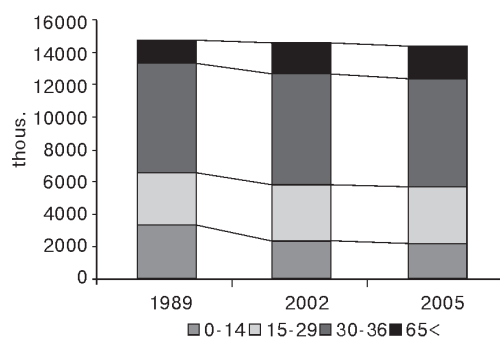


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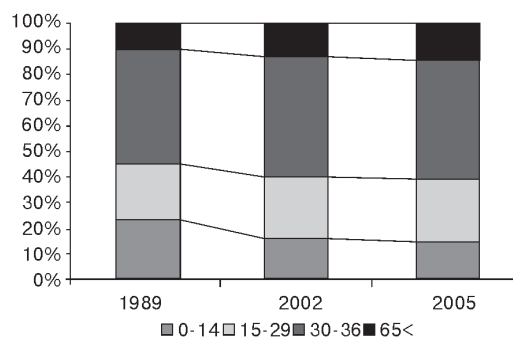
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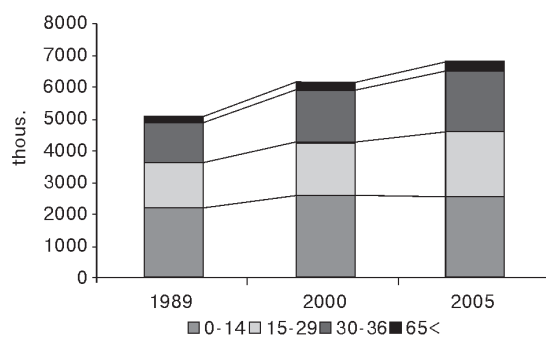
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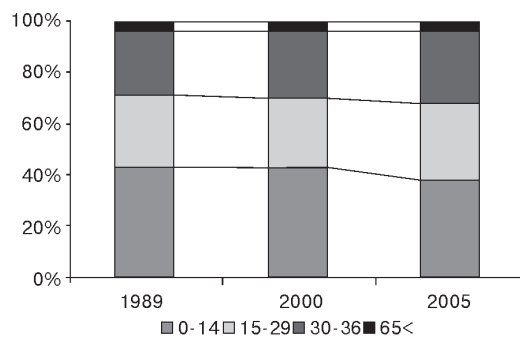
#### Russia



#### Tadjikistan



#### Tadjikistan



### Dynamics of Resident Population and Dependent-To-Population Rates

	Resident population at the age of				Per 1000 population at the age of 15–64	
	0–14	15–64	65 and over	Total	0–14	65 and over
<b>Azerbaijan</b>						
1992	2420.5	4549.1	354.5	7324.1	532	78
1995	2487.1	4739.0	417.4	7643.5	525	88
2000	2552.0	5025.2	439.0	8016.2	508	87
<b>Armenia</b>						
1992	1104.7	2318.5	225.7	3648.9	476	97
1995	1086.7	2385.6	281.2	3753.5	456	118
2000	921.6	2544.8	337.0	3803.4	362	132
<b>Georgia</b>						
1992	1321.9	3562.3	536.1	5420.3	371	150
1995	1244.9	3514.2	616.0	5375.1	354	175
2000	1042.1	3379.5	678.9	5100.5	308	201
<b>Kazakhstan<sup>1</sup></b>						
1992	5151.1	10290.7	1010.0	16451.8	501	98
1995	4862.4	10005.2	1089.1	15956.7	486	109
1999	4298.2	9650.4	1009.2	14957.8	445	105
<b>Kyrgyzstan</b>						
1992	1686.5	2591.9	224.0	4502.4	651	86
1995	1618.9	2658.9	247.2	4525.0	609	93
2000	1711.1	2891.0	265.3	4867.4	592	92
<b>Russia</b>						
1992	33562.8	99023.1	15739.7	148325.6	339	159
1995	31756.4	98696.3	17485.8	147938.5	322	177
2000	26604.1	100758.1	18197.0	145559.2	264	181
<b>Tajikistan</b>						
1992	2406.5	2932.4	215.9	5554.8	821	74
1995	2525.0	3006.4	226.1	5757.5	840	75
1998	2545.4	3210.7	248.0	6004.1	793	77
<b>Turkmenistan</b>						
1992	1614.9	2207.7	147.6	3970.2	731	67
1995	1800.3	2469.6	165.0	4434.9	729	67
2000	1817.7	2787.8	184.9	4790.4	652	66
<b>Uzbekistan</b>						
1992	8661.3	11597.3	847.7	21106.3	747	73
1995	9173.7	12354.5	933.3	22461.5	743	76
2000	9364.6	14089.5	1033.6	24487.7	665	73

<sup>1</sup> Data adjusted on the basis of the preliminary results of the 1999 census.

### Educational Level of Men and Women

	Per 1000 population at the age of 15 and older with		
	Higher education <sup>1)</sup>	Secondary education <sup>2)</sup>	Elementary education
<b>Azerbaijan (1999)</b>			
men	129	840	20
women	85	838	44
<b>Armenia (2001)</b>			
men	173	756	60
women	168	745	65
<b>Georgia (2002)</b>			
men	226	706	58
women	222	685	74
<b>Kazakhstan (1999)</b>			
men	120	814	59
women	132	762	88
<b>Kyrgyzstan (1999)</b>			
men	100	831	54
women	109	784	71
<b>Russia (2002)</b>			
men	155	766	61
women	163	722	90
<b>Tajikistan (2000)</b>			
men	107	831	50
women	45	859	68

<sup>1)</sup> Including post-graduate studies.

<sup>2)</sup> Including: incomplete higher educational specialized secondary educational; basic vocational education, general secondary and basic education.

### Free of Charge and Paid Education at State-Run Specialized Secondary Educational Establishments<sup>1</sup> (as of beginning of academic year, thous.)

	Enrolment at state-run educational establishments	Including that on a paid basis	Students at state-run educational establishments	Including those on a paid basis	Graduates from state-run educational establishments	Graduates from state-run educational establishments who paid for their education
<b>Azerbaijan</b>						
2001/2002	16.9	5.4	47.7	15.4	10.9	2.4
2004/2005	16.3	6.2	54.2	19.5	14.0	5.1
<b>Armenia</b>						
2001/2002	11.3	8.9	29.3	22.3	7.9	5.6
2004/2005	10.0	7.7	27.8	21.6	8.8	7.7
<b>Georgia</b>						
2001/2002	7.4	2.3	25.2	6.8	7.5	2.3
2004/2005	7.5	2.8	20.7	6.4	5.5	2.0
<b>Kazakhstan</b>						
2001/2002	57.1	37.8	135.8	89.5	35.3	20.0
2004/2005	82.7	61.4	191.2	128.8	40.9	26.6

<sup>1</sup> Education under contracts with legal persons and individuals with full compensation for education costs.

	Enrolment at state-run educational establishments	Including that on paid basis	Students at state-run educational establishments	Including those on paid basis	Graduates from state-run educational establishments	Graduates from state-run educational establishments who paid for their education
<b>Kyrgyzstan</b>						
2001/2002	10.9	5.8	26.1	12.0	8.2	3.3
2004/2005	13.8	8.6	30.5	17.3	7.1	3.6
<b>Russia</b>						
2001/2002	850.8	337.3	2409.9	818.0	593.2	189.4
2004/2005	852.5	329.6	2503.6	879.2	674.7	263.4
<b>Tajikistan</b>						
2001/2002	8.9	1.6	23.8	4.5	7.7	0.7
2004/2005	9.7	1.8	29.6	5.7	7.6	1.2

**Free of Charge and Paid Education at State-Run Higher Educational Establishments<sup>1</sup>**  
(as of beginning of academic year, thous.)

	Enrolment at state-run educational establishments	Including that on paid basis	Students at state-run educational establishments	Including those on paid basis	Graduates from state-run educational establishments	Graduates from state-run educational establishments who paid for their education
<b>Azerbaijan</b>						
2001/2002	23.5	11.9	99.0	48.8	22.4	7.6
2004/2005	21.5	11.1	106.0	55.6	26.2	13.8
<b>Armenia</b>						
2001/2002	12.6	8.3	47.4	30.4	7.6	4.0
2004/2005	17.1	12.6	62.5	42.8	9.1	5.6
<b>Georgia</b>						
2001/2002	25.9	12.0	115.5	50.0	15.7	4.9
2004/2005	31.3	18.9	135.5	61.9	19.3	7.4
<b>Kazakhstan</b>						
2001/2002	100.4	74.7	330.8	222.5	52.0	20.2
2004/2005	106.9	83.7	400.0	301.5	67.3	49.0
<b>Kyrgyzstan</b>						
2001/2002	47.9	42.1	191.9	160.9	20.6	14.0
2004/2005	59.8	52.8	202.5	173.9	30.8	24.6
<b>Russia</b>						
2001/2002	1263.4	675.6	4797.4	1954.6	647.8	174.0
2004/2005	1384.5	755.9	5860.1	2857.8	930.4	407.9
<b>Tajikistan</b>						
2001/2002	20.1	10.1	84.4	36.6	12.0	4.5
2004/2005	26.7	17.1	115.1	62.2	14.3	6.0

<sup>1</sup> Education under contracts with legal persons and individuals with full compensation for education costs.

**Labour Resources and Youth Employment in some CIS Member-States**  
(as of 2002, on average)

	Labour resources	including:		
		Working-age population at working age	Employed senior individuals	Employed youth
	Thousand persons			
Azerbaijan	4896	4740	143	13
Armenia	1977	1894	78	5
Kazakhstan <sup>1)</sup>	8531	8459	64	8
Kyrgyzstan	2842	2756	69	17
Russia <sup>2)</sup>	89260	84896	4260	104
Tajikistan	3477	3411	65	1
	%			
Azerbaijan	100	96.8	2.9	0.3
Armenia	100	95.8	3.9	0.3
Kazakhstan <sup>1)</sup>	100	99.2	0.8	0.1
Kyrgyzstan	100	97.0	2.4	0.6
Russia <sup>2)</sup>	100	95.1	4.8	0.1
Tajikistan	100	98.1	1.9	0.0

<sup>1</sup> 2000 г.

<sup>2</sup> Preliminary results of the Russian Census as of October 9, 2002.

**Indices of Real Average Monthly Wage**

	2001	2002	2003	2004
	% of 2000			
Azerbaijan	115	136	164	197
Armenia	104	115	140	164
Georgia	125	143	152	...
Kazakhstan	111	123	132	151
Kyrgyzstan	111	126	124	156
Russia	120	139	155	171
Tajikistan	111	139	163	211
	% of the previous year			
Azerbaijan	116	118	120	120
Armenia	105	110	122	117
Georgia	125	114	106	...
Kazakhstan	111	111	107	115
Kyrgyzstan	111	113	110	112
Russia	120	116	111	111
Tajikistan	111	126	117	130

**Unemployed Registered by Employment Services**  
(Thousand people, as of year's end)

	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Azerbaijan	28.3	43.7	48.4	51.0	54.4	55.9
Armenia	131.7	153.9	138.4	127.3	118.6	108.6
Georgia	...	116.9	...	37.0	45.9	46.9
Kazakhstan	139.6	231.4	216.1	193.7	142.8	117.7
Kyrgyzstan	50.4	58.3	60.5	60.2	57.4	58.2
Russia	2327.0	1037.0	1122.7	1499.7	1638.9	1920.3
Tajikistan	37.5	43.2	42.9	46.7	42.9	38.8
Uzbekistan	25.4	35.4	37.5	34.8	...	...

**Distribution of Unemployed Registered by Employment Services,  
by Dismissal Causes or by Last Occupations, 2004**  
(as of year's end; %)

	Total	Including				
		Voluntary resignation	Dismissed due to violation of labour discipline	Lay-off	Graduates from comprehensive, specialized secondary, higher and vocational schools	Other groups of citizens
Azerbaijan	100	25.9	...	16.9	20.4	36.8
Armenia	100	79.1	1.5	18.8	...	0.6
Kazakhstan	100	9.9	...	1.2	2.1	86.8
Kyrgyzstan	100	49.7	...	15.1	21.1	13.7
Russia	100	35.7	0.7	13.6	10.4	39.6

**Children at Preschools**  
(per 100 places; as of year's end)

	1995	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Azerbaijan	80	76	74	74	76	74	76	75	77
Armenia	55	58	63	60	61	59	66	73	62
Georgia	63	60	60	60	60	60	60	61	61
Kazakhstan	74	76	81	81	84	86	90	94	99
Kyrgyzstan	76	82	86	82	86	87	86	89	91
Russia	83	80	78	79	81	83	86	88	92
Tajikistan	90	80	82	77	77	82	85	91	92
Uzbekistan	94	72	71	72	74	...	...	...	...



**Provision of Preschools to Children**  
(% of children in respective year)

	1995	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Azerbaijan	15.0	14.0	14.0	15.0	17.0	18.0	19.0	19.9	19.6
Armenia	23.6	18.5	17.1	17.7	17.2	17.5	18.5	19.1	20.0
Georgia	15.5	19.1	22.3	22.0	23.0	27.0	22.4	20.2	20.9
Kazakhstan	11.01	11.0	10.9	...	9.7	8.5	11.3	11.9	12.6
Kyrgyzstan	6.5	8.3	8.7	8.0	5.8	6.3	5.7	5.9	8.6
Russia	55.5	54.4	53.9	54.9	56.0	57.2	58.1	57.6	57.7
Tajikistan	6.9	6.3	6.3	5.4	5.5	5.5	5.3	6.2	6.1
Uzbekistan	24.0	17.6	16.1	16.2	18.2	19.4	...	...	...

**Women's Share among Students at Higher Educational Establishments**  
(as of beginning of academic year; %)

	1995	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Azerbaijan	43.8	41.0	39.1	40.1	41.7	44.3	44.8	46.2	47.0
Armenia	55.5	50.4	57.9	52.6	54.9	55.0	55.2	55.8	54.6
Georgia	52.5	49.4	52.3	49.1	47.5	49.7	56.6	57.5	58.1
Kazakhstan	52.9	51.8	53.3	54.1	54.3	55.2	54.0	53.9	55.2
Kyrgyzstan	51.0	50.7	50.8	50.0	50.7	52.9	49.9	58.0	58.1
Russia	57.1	59.4	60.2	61.7	56.7	58.0	24.8	24.8	25.8
Tajikistan	27.9	26.1	25.3	25.1	23.7	24.3	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	38.9	37.9	38.1	37.4	37.8	...			

**Women's Share among Economically Active Population in 2000–2003**

	Women's share among economically active population
Azerbaijan	42
Armenia	52
Georgia	46
Kazakhstan	49
Kyrgyzstan	44
Russia	49

**Share of Unemployed Registered by Employment Services  
among Working-Age Men and Women in 2004**  
(as of end of period; %)

	Unemployment share of total working-age population	
	Among men	Among women
Azerbaijan	1.0	1.1
Armenia	3.2	7.3
Georgia	1.8	1.6
Kazakhstan	0.9	1.5
Kyrgyzstan	1.1	2.9
Russia	1.4	2.9
Tajikistan	0.9	1.1
Uzbekistan	0.2	0.3

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**Women-to-Men Average Wage Ratio in the CIS Member-States**  
(%, in 1996–2003) <sup>45</sup>

	1996	1998	2000	2001	2003
Azerbaijan				70	
Armenia				39	42
Georgia				52	
Kazakhstan		75.8	61.5	58.4	60.7
Kyrgyzstan	73.0	72.3	67.6	63.1	64.1
Russia		70.3	63.3	63,1	64
Tajikistan	64.9	60.9	43.2		

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<sup>46</sup> Источники: *Пиерелла Пачи* «Гендерные проблемы в странах с переходной экономикой». М.: Весь мир, 2003. С. 156–157; Цели ООН в области развития на пороге тысячелетия в Казахстане 2002. Алматы: Taimas Print House, 2002; Женщины и мужчины Кыргызской Республики 2002. Бишкек, 2002. С.55

