

United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE)

United Nations Development Account project  
on Strengthening Social Inclusion, Gender Equality  
and Health Promotion in  
the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

# **Mainstreaming Gender into Economic Policies to Reach the Millennium Development Goals in Central Asia**

Stocktaking Study 2008



**U N I T E D N A T I O N S**

## **Note**

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## **Preface**

The study was prepared under the interregional Development Account project 06/07/B on Strengthening Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion in the MDGs (2006-2009). It presents trends and concerns related to economic aspects of gender equality in four Central Asian countries (Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan), and analyzes policy responses as reflected by National Development Strategies (NDS) and activities of international organizations.

The analysis shows that gender equality is still considered a social issue with weak or no links to economic policies reflected in NDSs and national budgetary processes. Traditional views of women as a disadvantaged group within a human rights approach and a lack of gender disaggregated data in the economic area are among key factors behind the problem.

Recommendations to close gender gaps in economic policies include identification of related gender-disaggregated indicators in the economic area related to the Millennium Development Goals (MDG), establishing a regional knowledge hub to promote the approach to gender equality as “smart economics” and exchange good practices as well as policy oriented research in selected areas, including an assessment of the business environment for small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in rural and urban areas, and gender-responsive budgeting.

The study was discussed at two expert meetings under a platform of the Project Working Group on Gender and Economy of the United Nations Special Programme for the Economies of Central Asia (SPECA).<sup>1</sup> The study was prepared by the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) with substantive inputs from a Multi-Stakeholder Network and the United Nations agencies active in the region. It has been financed as part of the interregional Development Account project on Strengthening Social Inclusion, Gender Equality and Health Promotion in the MDGs.

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<sup>1</sup> See [http://www.unece.org/oes/gender/SPECA\\_WG\\_Gender/SPECA\\_gender.htm](http://www.unece.org/oes/gender/SPECA_WG_Gender/SPECA_gender.htm)

## ***Acknowledgements***

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The study was prepared by a consultant, Olga Skorobogatova, UNECE, with the assistance of Nadejda Khamrakulova, UNECE, and in close cooperation with a Multi-Stakeholder Network consisting of representatives of national statistical offices, academia and gender machineries.

Members of the Network, who provided valuable inputs, include:

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Valuable inputs were also received from United Nations agencies, in particular, from Gulira Myrzabaeva (Director of the United Nations Gender in Development Bureau, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Kazakhstan), Damira Sartbaeva (Regional Programme Director for the Commonwealth of Independent States, United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM)) and Nargis Azizova (Gender and Governance Adviser, UNIFEM Tajikistan).

The source of the data in the Annex was the statistical database of the UNECE Statistical Division.

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*“I am convinced that equality of economic opportunities is central to a modern growth and development strategy. And that it is in the best interest of countries, which want to comply with their commitment to rights-based development but also be able to face global competition.”*

- Marek Belka, UNECE Executive Secretary (2005 - 2008)

## **INTRODUCTION**

Asia's economic performance was exceptional in 2006, according to the Asian Development Outlook 2007 of the Asian Development Bank (ADB). Countries of Central Asia and the Caucasus (CCA) have been growing at a high and steady rate in the last decade, for example, the growth rate of GDP in CCA countries in 2006 ranged from strong growth of 7 per cent in Tajikistan to phenomenal 32 per cent in oil rich Azerbaijan.

However, managing economic growth, creating jobs and combating poverty remain important challenges. The level of GDP per capita income is still very low in some of the CCA countries, similar to that of the least developed countries. Tajikistan, for example, has the same income level as Rwanda (\$1,200). In a number of countries in the region the level of GDP per capita is comparable to the average GDP per capita level in Latin America or in better-off African countries, such as Egypt (above \$4,000).

The poverty level is also very high in these countries. The poverty level (\$2 a day)<sup>2</sup> varies from 32.74 per cent in Kyrgyzstan to 50.8 in Tajikistan and up to 77.5 per cent in Uzbekistan.<sup>3</sup> The tendency in feminization of poverty is seen in all CCA countries.

Reduction of poverty is thus among the priorities of the National Development Strategies (NDSs) in the framework of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Relatively little attention, however, is given to reducing female poverty, especially through gender-sensitive economic policies improving women's access to resources, jobs and income.

The purpose of this study is to assess gender issues in the member countries of the United Nations Special Programme for the Economies of Central Asia (SPECA) from the economic standpoint, namely how much have women contributed to economic growth, how its benefits are distributed among men and women, and how the economic potential of women is reflected in NDSs in the framework of the MDGs.

This remains an important issue for many SPECA member countries despite the progress made in recent years. Several countries of the SPECA region have experienced a decline in women's access

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<sup>2</sup> World Bank Database on country classifications, available at: <http://web.worldbank.org>;

<sup>3</sup> PovcalNet databases based on World Development Indicators, available at: <http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/jsp/index.jsp>;

to economic opportunities, which directly affects Millennium Development Goal 1 (Poverty reduction) and Goal 3 (Gender equality) and indirectly all other goals. The ten-year review of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action - both at regional and global level - identified 'gender and economy' as a priority area to improve the prospects of achieving all MDGs by fostering economic development and reducing poverty.

The study is based on country and region-specific empirical research papers, as well as relevant national and international policy documents and reports. Particular attention is given to the area of gender and economy in the context of MDGs and NDSs, including targets and indicators.

The stocktaking study consists of four parts. Part I presents the current situation in gender and economy, related to poverty, access to assets, employment and social protection. Part II discusses related targets and indicators to measure gender gaps in each of these areas. Part III focuses on the policy response to close these gaps as reflected in NDSs in the framework of the MDGs. Part IV presents the response of the international community. The concluding section summarizes gender gaps as identified by the stocktaking study and suggests areas for further policy-oriented research and action.

## **I. LITERATURE OVERVIEW**

The existing literature in the field of gender and the economy in Central Asia can be classified into several groups of academic research by themes, governmental documents, documents prepared by international organizations and statistical publications.

### **Academic research**

The academic research includes studies on gender aspects of poverty (Hotkina 2003) particularly indicating the current trend in its feminization, the role of gender equality in the transition, development and achievement of the MDGs (Paci 2002, Baramia 2005) as well as issues of mainstreaming gender into Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) (Jashi 2004, Baramia 2005). However, not all aspects are included. For example, more research is done into access to finance than into social security. The situation of rural women in Central Asian republics is also poorly described. The existing research does not cover an assessment of rural women's needs and the difference between urban and rural economic development. One exception includes the discussion of rural economy and female labour supply in Uzbekistan (Kandiyoti 1999).

Although academic research exists, access to finance and assets is seen from a perspective of women's rights to land (Giovarelli 2001) and is predominantly in the agricultural context in such countries as Kyrgyzstan (WESA 2005), Tajikistan (Li 2002) and Uzbekistan (Eckert 1996, Razavi 2003.)

Aspects of women's employability and their position in the labour market are presented in ADB and UNDP reports on women's status in Central Asian countries. Women's entrepreneurship development is particularly seen only in Azerbaijan (ILO 2004) and Georgia (Jashi 2005). Some aspects of business development are covered in Kazakhstan (Sarsembaeva 2004). However, the research does not cover the assessment of women's unemployment and increasing presence in the informal sector.

Existing research on social security policies is present in some CCA countries (Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan) but not all. There is a lack of a gender dimension of social security and, in particular, pensions. The existing research covers only an analysis of pension reform in the period of transformation (Castel 2001, Kandiyoti 1996).

The empirical analysis specific to CCA countries on gender-responsive budgets is very scant. The only example on gender budget analysis in the employment sector is available for Tajikistan (Kurbanov 2005) initiated by ADB.

Overall, the existing academic research focuses more on the social than the economic framework in gender aspects of poverty. The lack of research in some aspects can also be explained by the fact that research is mainly initiated by international organizations such as ADB, UNDP, ILO, etc.

### **Governmental documents**

Documents reviewed in this stocktaking study are mainly the national policy documents for gender equality, PRSPs, MDG progress reports and reviews of the Beijing Platform for Action. These documents reflect countries' commitments under the Beijing Process and the MDGs.



As all CCA countries have ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) they are legally bound to put its provisions into practice. They are therefore committed to producing national reports on the measures they have taken to comply with treaty obligations. These reports are backed up with statistical data demonstrating implementation of the Convention. However, the overall lack of gender-disaggregated data makes the reporting value less tangible.

The National Development Strategies were elaborated in accordance with countries' commitments under the MDGs. Azerbaijan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan have prepared PRSPs that include countries' strategy for further economic development. Kazakhstan has elaborated its own Programme for Poverty Reduction. However, the analysis of these governmental documents shows that gender issues are covered in relation to social issues such as health and education, and not in relation to economic issues.

MDG Progress Reports assess countries' achievements in poverty reduction and other MDG targeted indicators. Such reports are available in Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan. The issues on gender and economy are presented there, however gender-disaggregated data is lacking.

## **Reports and documents prepared by international organizations**

This part of the literature overview presents the main part of the available research in CCA countries. It includes country gender assessments produced by ADB and UNDP, analytical reports produced by UNECE, contributions from the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), UNIFEM, United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) as well as assessments prepared by the World Bank and World Economic Forum.

ADB gender assessments cover, among other issues, gender dimensions of poverty, discrimination in the labour market, women's access to economic resources, social protection mechanisms and women's participation in decision-making. The assessments analyse government responses to women's needs, institutional structures to promote gender equality as well as (changes in) the situation of women since 1995, when countries agreed to take measures under the Beijing Platform for Action.

UNDP assesses the country situation from a gender equality perspective as well as the achievement of the MDGs by 2015. National Human Development reports prepared by UNDP cover various aspects influencing human development. These reports are region focused (HDR 2005) and cover particular problems, including gender issues (HDR 1995).

Other United Nations agencies such as UNICEF, UNIFEM and UNFPA produce thematic based publications reflecting gender issues, however they are mainly done from a social perspective.

The analytical reports produced by UNECE as a part of the Beijing +5, Beijing +10 and Beijing +15 processes include good practices in the area of gender and economy. The UNECE Gender and MDG Statistics database also allows assessment of progress.

## Statistical publications

Existing statistical publications cover the assessment of living standards and poverty in relation to gender (Bauer 2004, Falkingham 2004, UNDESA 2005, UNDP 1999). The status of gender-disaggregated statistics is reflected in some publications (UNDP 2005, UNECE 2004, Tokhtajdjaeva 1998) as well as recommendations on further improvement of gender statistics (UNECE 2004a, Hedman 2000, UNDP 1998). However, there is still a lack of gender statistics covering economic areas.

CCA countries in their national statistical publications on women and men present the available gender-disaggregated statistics. Despite the progress, these publications are not regularly produced and are mainly supported by international organizations (UNDP) and other financial institutions (ADB). Moreover, developing a series of sub-indicators for each of the NDSs can also be used as guidance for line ministries in their strategies in a more gender-sensitive manner.

*To sum up*, analytical and empirical literature is available in the area of gender and economy, however, it does not cover all issues or lacks in-depth analysis. Rural/urban differentials in the CCA countries have not been studied properly from a gender perspective. The issues of segregation and gender asymmetries on the labour market, part-time and informal employment and the gender pay gap remain uncovered. Research on the gender impact of privatization, reforms of social security (including pension systems) and gender responsive budgeting specific to CCA countries is scarce.

## **II. MAIN ISSUES OF CONCERN**

The existing literature in the area of gender and the economy emphasizes the role of gender equality in achieving the MDGs, reducing poverty and contributing to rural development. In this context, the following issues are discussed

- Feminization of poverty;
- The position of men and women in the labour market;
- Access of men and women to finance, land and assets;
- Gender aspects of the reforms of social protection system;
- Gender responsive budgeting.

Another issue of concern is the scarcity of data available in the CCA countries. The statistical tables (annexed to this paper) prepared by UNECE present available statistics in the areas of concern discussed in this section. These tables show that data on East European and Central Asian countries are absent.

### **Feminization of Poverty**

An important achievement of the Beijing Conference has been the recognition by Governments that there is a gender dimension to poverty. This has resulted in efforts to refocus poverty eradication policies to address specifically the needs of women, particularly in rural areas. The increasing gap between women and men caught in the cycle of poverty is referred to as "the feminization of poverty". Women on average earn less than men. Women living in poverty are often denied access to critical resources such as credit, land and inheritance. Their labour goes unrewarded and unrecognized. Caught in the cycle of poverty, women lack access to resources and services to change their situation.

It is difficult, however, to measure the gender dimension of poverty. Usually the measurement of poverty is at the household level. Other analysis disaggregates to the individual level, so as to capture intra-household factors and different types and causes of deprivation affecting men and women. Often, the income of a single adult (or parent) household headed by men and women are compared, which is however at best an imperfect proxy for the gender gap in poverty.

Women's vulnerability in access to economic resources and opportunities form a gender dimension of poverty. In most CCA countries the position of women on the labour market has deteriorated due to horizontal and vertical segregation. The existing research on women's access to assets and opportunities, realization of ownership rights and involvement in the informal sector shows that women have more limited access than men to economic resources such as credit, agricultural inputs and land. However, more in-depth research and gender-disaggregated data are needed to assess the situation. Nevertheless, the above listed issues may suggest that feminization of poverty is present in CCA countries.

Governments address the issue of poverty through their social protection systems. Social protection programming has been extensively restructured in most CCA countries during the transition period to bring systems more in line with other market reforms. Despite extensive reforms, distribution remains uneven and of concern. This is due to limited monitoring of who actually receives benefits and how appropriate many of these programmes are to meet the needs of target groups. For

example, the needs of well-educated women displaced from some sectors of the economy are very different from those of the rural poor. Another main issue is incorporating unpaid care work into the social welfare system.

## The Position of Men and Women in the Labour Market

In most CCA countries women's employability has declined along with the disproportional losses of women's jobs and employment as compared to men's. A rise of discriminatory practices, especially in the private sector (gender pay gap and discrepancies in sectoral occupation) and cuts in social protection (affecting compatibility of work with family responsibilities) are among the factors which affect women's employability. Other issues include unpaid work, work in the informal sector, and women's access to education and training, including the use of Information and Communications Technology (ICT).

**Unemployment.** Although data are scarce, women's unemployment seems to have decreased in the last five years when growth resumed. Still, women's unemployment rates are at least 2-3 per cent higher than those of men in all CCA countries (Annex, Table 3). For example, the unemployment rates in Azerbaijan varied from 25.7 per cent for females to 19.0 per cent for males (2003). In Kyrgyzstan the difference in unemployment rates is less, however female unemployment is still 16.3 per cent compared to 13.4 per cent for males (Women and men in Kyrgyzstan, 2005). These examples show that countries have an additional burden in their economies as women's potential remains untapped. In countries for which data are available women on average have a comparable level of educational attainment. In Georgia, for example, 48.8 per cent of tertiary students are female (Annex, Table 4) and in Kazakhstan women represent 54.3 per cent of the total number of students in the universities (Women and Men in Kazakhstan, 2006).

However, even with higher education levels, women have difficulty finding employment and on average remain unemployed for longer periods than men (UNDP and GRK 2005a). This is especially the case for women seeking to return to the labour market after childbirth or child rearing. Stereotypes regarding women's low productivity because of childcare responsibilities are frequently cited as the reason that women of childbearing age have difficulty in securing jobs.

**Gender pay gap.** Although the principle of equal wages for equal work is guaranteed by law, CCA countries have a significant wage gap which is higher than in the other countries of the UNECE region (Annex, Table 2). The gender pay gap is defined as the difference between average gross earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees as a percentage of average gross earnings of male paid employees. It is most pronounced in Tajikistan, where women earn on average only 46 per cent of what men earn (UNIFEM 2007). In Kyrgyzstan, where women earn 66.5 per cent of men's earnings (2004), the wage gap is still considerably high. The highest wage gaps between men and women are in regions of Kazakhstan with the highest gross regional product, as 90 per cent of jobs in the mining and mineral extraction sector, with higher-than-average salaries, are taken by men (ADB, 2006a).

**Occupational segregation.** All CCA countries have adopted progressive legislation aimed at ensuring women's representation in all occupational groups and sectors of the economy. Nonetheless large differences still exist in the pattern of women's and men's employment.

Gender differences in sectoral employment show that the patterns of labour segregation established in the Soviet period have largely continued (higher male employment in construction; higher female employment in health care and education). In Uzbekistan, for instance, women represent 78.4 per

cent of those employed in the health care sector, and 69.3 per cent of those in education, according to the Government of Uzbekistan (2005). In Kazakhstan the share of women in the education sector is 73.1 per cent while in the public health and social services sector women represent 79.6 per cent of the total number of employees (Women and Men in Kazakhstan, 2004). In Tajikistan women represent 73.2 per cent of the total number of employed in population in agricultural sector, this sector is, however, one where most of the population employed - 63,8 percent (UNIFEM 2007). These, together with agriculture, are also branches where wages tend to be lower than the national average. This pattern can be observed in most SPECA member countries.

**Vertical segregation.** Vertical segregation contributes to the wage gap as women rarely hold management positions even in the sectors with a high proportion of the female labour force, such as education or health service provision. This problem applies equally to all CCA countries. The share of women in Kazakhstan, for example, was only 3.5 per cent among managers in governmental bodies (Toksanova, 2007). Table 1 below demonstrates the situation in Uzbekistan, where even in female dominated areas like education and art, women do not hold more than 50 per cent of managerial positions.

**Table 1 - Share of men and women in managerial positions by branches of the economy in Uzbekistan**

	Women	Men
Total	28.8	71.2
including		
Industry	19.6	80.4
Agriculture and forestry	6.6	93.4
Transport	13.0	87.0
Communication	35.3	64.7
Construction	15.1	84.9
Trade, public catering, distribution and storaging	21.8	78.2
Housing and communal services	16.5	83.5
Healthcare, sports and social protection	30.7	69.3
Education, science and scientific services	50.2	49.8
Fine arts and culture	37.4	62.6
Science	26.6	73.4
Finance, credit and insurance	26.0	74.0
Administrative apparatus	17.0	83.0
Other sectors	18.4	81.6

Source: "Gender equality in Uzbekistan: facts and figures" (2000-2004),  
Statistical Bulletin

**Labour Migration.** CCA countries are characterized by high cross-border migration within and outside the region. Migrants often do not register in receiving countries which makes it difficult to obtain reliable data. The global database of the Development Research Centre on Migration, Globalization and Poverty (World Bank, 2002) estimates that since 1989 migration has reached 597,000 in Kyrgyzstan and up to 2,346,000 in Uzbekistan. According to Heleniak, the most affected is Kazakhstan where migration is higher than the natural increase of population.

The migration pattern in Central Asia had two distinct waves. The first shift in the early 1990s was caused by ethno-political factors when ethnic Russians, Germans and Ukrainians left Central Asia out of concern for their future. The second wave is mostly dominated by economic considerations due to unequal development of the regions within and between countries. If local labour markets fail to provide jobs, people look for countries with high labour demand (and often with the same language and easy transport routes). In this respect the most frequent destination for the migrants from Central Asia are the Russian Federation and, since recently, Kazakhstan.

According to UNDP (2005) the new features of labour migration include an increase in seasonal migration and an increase of the share of women among migrants. For example, the number of women who have emigrated from Uzbekistan is 80,260, which is 55.4 per cent of the total number of migrants (Women and Men in Uzbekistan, 2005).

This stocktaking is mainly concerned with labour migration<sup>4</sup>. Migration directly affects the welfare system of the sending countries, as migrants often do not pay taxes or social contributions, thus weakening the collection base for pensions and social assistance. On the other hand, families of migrants are often better off as their income is higher due to remittances.

Migration has a positive and a negative implication for girls and women. A World Bank study shows that migration strongly benefits girls in home countries by boosting households' income, girls' education and healthcare (World Bank 2007). On the other hand, female migrants (as much as their male counterparts) most often do not have any social benefits and work in the informal sector which will result in low pensions at retirement.

***Informal employment.*** A decrease in participation rates and relatively low unemployment figures for the countries where data are available may suggest that many women and men have moved to the informal sector, since very few workers can in fact afford to be unemployed or to withdraw completely from the labour market. According to the ILO definition, the informal sector consists of small-scale, self-employed activities, typically at a low level of organization and technology, with the primary objective of generating employment and incomes. The activities are usually conducted without proper recognition from the authorities, and escape the attention of the administrative machinery responsible for enforcing laws and regulations. Much of this employment is temporary, seasonal or part-time. While informal sector employment provides an alternative source of income for men and women, it also increases the vulnerability in the labour market of those who are poorer and more disadvantaged. It deprives them of legal rights and rights to social security benefits.

Some evidence suggests that women are more likely to be employed in the informal sector. In Kazakhstan, for example, women form 59.2 per cent of the rural economic active population in the informal sector (Toksanova, 2007). This is due to the existing social security regulations and particularly the generous maternity rights, which make female workers more expensive for employers. In Uzbekistan, for instance, employers have to pay female employees with a child under 2 years old a maternity benefit equal to 1.5 times the minimum wage, and keep the mother's job (ILO, Maternity Leave Protection Database). These measures aim at supporting women, however they make women more likely to be exposed to the insecurities of the informal market, or to fall back on small plot household production.

***Unpaid work.*** Due to gender stereotypes and traditions, women often have the primary responsibility for most domestic tasks. In all countries researched, women contribute more unpaid

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<sup>4</sup> CCA countries have also experienced refugee flows caused by conflicts and unrest, such as the Nagorno-Karabakh conflict which affected Azerbaijan, the Tajik civil war and violence in Andijan, Uzbekistan.

labour to household survival than men. In Kazakhstan, for example, women spend 3 times more of their time on household labour than men (Toksanova, 2007). As a result, women find it harder to remain in full-time employment due to pressure from unpaid work, especially as they have had to absorb extra tasks since social protection programmes stopped in the transition period. Time pressures are forcing women to seek income in the informal sector or insecure part-time jobs.

The increase of unpaid work has the following implications. The first is a disproportionate burden on poor women, since in poorer households the time required is greater than in households with higher incomes that are able to purchase food and services. The second is the high opportunity costs of unpaid labour time, as it reduces women's capacity to find employment or other sources of income, and hence increases income poverty among women. Finally, women may try to use household-based skills to earn income in the informal sector, for example in preparing food or selling small surpluses from subsistence production, trapping them in low-productivity activities. Finally, as a result of involvement in unpaid work, women are deprived of social protection and pension guarantees.

## **Access of Men and Women to Finance, Land and Assets**

Women facing difficulties in competing with men on the labour market might find self-employment and entrepreneurship a good alternative. Successful self-employment critically depends on the equality of economic opportunities, such as access to land and assets.

Progress in the development of women entrepreneurship has been acknowledged in all countries. The opportunities for women entrepreneurship vary depending on location in urban or rural areas, however the lack of data does not allow a full assessment of the situation. The existing evidence shows that women still have more restricted access than men to economic resources such as credit, agricultural inputs, and land. Women are therefore pushed to self-employment in the informal sector rather than establishing a small or medium-sized enterprise. A Labour Force Survey conducted in Azerbaijan in 2004 noted that 17 per cent of women who reported being employed defined themselves as engaging in a "private entrepreneur activity without forming of legal person," which suggests informal sector work (SSC 2004c, 31).

**Access to financing.** Analysis and data on gender specific barriers to entrepreneurship are scarce. However, available data suggest a large gender gap in the distribution of micro-credits, land and other economic assets. In Uzbekistan, according to the State Statistical Committee (2002), men received 85 per cent of total micro-credit funding. There are differences across regions, yet even in the Karakalpakstan and Khorezm oblasts, which are the regions with the highest share of female recipients of micro-credit; women's share does not exceed 26 per cent (see Table 2).

**Table 2 - Entrepreneurs receiving microcredits in the regions of Uzbekistan**

Oblast	Share received by women and men	
	Women	Men
Andiyhan	10.2	89.8
Bukhara	18.8	81.2
Dzhluzak	8.8	91.2
Fergana	17.9	82.1
Kazakalpakstan	25.5	74.5
Kashkadarya	10.0	90.0
Khorezm	24.1	75.9
Namangan	13.7	86.3
Navoi	11.9	88.1
Samarkand	10.0	90.0
Surkhandarya	20.2	79.8
Syrdarya	13.6	86.4
Tashkent	16.6	83.4
Tashkent city	16.2	83.9
Total Average	15.0	85.0

Source: State Statistical Committee of Uzbekistan, 2002

Gender-specific barriers, which include the inability to meet collateral requirements, difficulties in negotiating their way through the maze of banking regulations and requirements, and unresponsiveness from largely male lending officers, have combined to push women away from the formal financing sector. Most women entrepreneurs source funds from immediate family members, relatives, friends, and less often their own savings (UNECE 2002, UNECE 2004).

*The lack of household assets* is a striking characteristic of the SPECA region. In 2003, UNDP carried out a survey of household assets in three oblasts of Uzbekistan to identify what assets could be mobilized as capital for promoting small household-based entrepreneurial activities. The survey suggested that the demand for credit among households (to set up small businesses) is large. The share of families in the survey that would like to organize family-based businesses was at least twice as high as the share of families that have by now established such businesses by mobilizing their assets. Among the factors constraining households, financial factors prevail: most of the sampled families are willing to mobilize their assets to generate additional income, but they lack resources to do so. The results suggested that a family willing to capitalize its assets has to invest on average about \$945, or about 15 per cent of the total value of their assets. However, only 5.4 per cent of families could meet this criterion (UNDP, 2003).

Despite the lack of financial resources in leading household assets, the factor of male domination also exists. In Kazakhstan, for example, there are 13,514 farms headed by women (set up as small business), which is only 9 per cent of the total number of farms (Women and Men in Kazakhstan, 2004). The similar problem can be observed in all CCA countries.

*Cultural barriers* are still strong in many countries in Central Asia and the Caucasus. In 2002, 60.4 per cent of people in management positions in the finance sector and more than 70 per cent of all owners of banks and insurance companies were male. Women have reported difficulties negotiating with male loan officers as an individual female. Some women were even told to go home and bring back their husbands if they wanted to apply for a loan (OECD-UNESCAP-ADB 2004).



## Gender Aspects of the Reforms of Social Protection System

Social protection systems are undergoing reforms in CCA countries. The reforms differ in their scope and directions, but all social security reforms have gender implications, for example parental leave provisions, compensating women for unpaid care work, gender aspects of pension reforms, social benefits for part-time and flexible work arrangements, and gender-sensitive benefits in the case of poverty and unemployment.

Social protection programming has been extensively restructured in these countries during the transition period to bring the systems more in line with other market reforms. Social protection is now targeted to the poor instead of being universally available and is targeted to improve efficient use of the resources. Despite extensive reforms, the needs of women, especially those displaced from some sectors of the economy, are not taken into account.

***Social welfare programmes.*** These are vital to women, who are most frequently responsible for managing household resources to feed their families. These programmes generally include child, housing, and in some cases food benefits. As adjustments and further reforms are prepared, women should be carefully consulted to ensure that their specific needs as caregivers and managers of family resources are met. Welfare-based programmes should build self-reliance rather than dependence on state allocations. This requires careful coordination and targeting of programmes, such as those promoting self-employment and income supplements.

***Pensions.*** Among welfare schemes, old-age pensions cover the largest share of the population in most CCA countries and account for more than half of the total social protection spending. In most countries, reforms have introduced funded accumulative pension systems, based on mandatory contributions through places of employment. In some countries such schemes have also been established for the self-employed.

According to ADB (2005c), as the new cumulative systems mature, women in particular will see a steep decline in the value of their pensions - women have much lower accumulations than men because they earn less and have to leave the workforce for child bearing/rearing periods. Yet they will require greater total payments because of lower retirement age and greater longevity. This will lead to increased poverty among elderly women and hence increased demands on other welfare or minimum subsistence payments. Low pensions may in future discourage contributions from the self-employed and people in the informal sector. Those involved in the informal sector do not have a stable salary which prevents them from being provided with normal pension benefits in this kind of accumulative system (Toksanova, 2007). Returns on capital used to operate a farm or small business are much higher than that on pension savings; thus many people will opt to stay out of new systems where participation imposes a high opportunity cost. These concerns must be addressed, as high proportions of women are self-employed and will remain in the informal sector without any protection if their social security needs are not met.

## Gender-Responsive Budgeting

***Gender-responsive budgeting*** (GRB) refers to a great variety of processes and tools which aim at enabling an impact evaluation of government budgets in gender terms. During the evolution of these processes, efforts have been focused on auditing government budgets in order to determine their impact on women differentiated from men. In these evaluations not only expenditure (such as pensions, family benefits, etc.) is covered, but also income or revenue of government (taxes, prices of public goods including privatized goods, tariffs, etc.). The box below provides three specific examples of a gender-sensitive analysis of various policies and types of data required.

In CCA countries there are still on-going fiscal reforms or reforms in social security systems. These reforms, according to Villagomez (2007), offer both opportunities and challenges to the introduction of GRB, not to mention decentralization processes that also affect the location and scope of GRB, both of which will affect budget cycles and models used. Privatization processes affecting the provision of basic public services such as water or electricity, the use of the privatization proceeds and the continuation of the use of extra-budgetary accounts (especially in health, education, culture and science) and quasi-fiscal activities (linked mostly with government controlled tariffs applied by state owned enterprises) are all subject to gender impact assessment from diverse fronts: employment, user fees, beneficiaries of diverse programmes, etc.

**GRB initiatives.** So far the GRB concept is only developing in CCA countries. The most advanced are Kazakhstan and Azerbaijan where non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have started advocating GRB, and Georgia, which put GRB as one of the areas for action in its Beijing implementation report (2004). In Kazakhstan, women's NGOs are currently lobbying for gender budget mechanisms at the city and oblast levels. For example, Ust-Kamenogorsk Women's Federation Status is implementing a project called Gender Budgeting at the Local Level.

#### **Gender-Responsive Budgeting and Types of Statistics Needed**

The ability of a government to carry out useful gender budgeting crucially depends on the availability of appropriate data and statistics. Below, three specific examples are given for the different sources and types of data that are needed in order to conduct a gender-sensitive analysis of various policies.

##### *1. Gender-aware Medium Term Macroeconomic Policy Framework*

A gender-aware medium term macroeconomic policy framework incorporates gender analysis into the models on which medium term public expenditure planning is based. This can be done by disaggregating by sex the variables that refer to people, such as labour supply, or by including new variables to represent the unpaid care economy. Such a framework recognizes that women and men participate in economic activity in different ways and experience different costs and benefits from macroeconomic policies.

Data: data from the local budget (total budget, percentage of specific programmes for women within the budget, number of women using special public or publicly funded services, etc), basic labour market indicators by sex and age (activity rates, employment and unemployment rates, sectorial employment, occupational structure), tax-benefits system data by sex and age as well as other relevant characteristics such as lone parent status and widowhood etc.

Sources: specific questionnaires, labour force surveys, administrative data; satellite accounts on unpaid/informal economy

Administration in Charge: Central Government, Finance Ministry

##### *2. Gender-disaggregated Revenue Incidence Analysis*

Gender-disaggregated revenue incidence analysis is a calculation of the relative amount of direct and indirect taxes and user fees paid by women as opposed to men.

Data: Individual and household data of tax payers (different rates of taxation: effective, marginal), household data composition (number of members, ages, marital status, etc), income-expenditure data by sex and age and other relevant characteristics

Sources: administrative records of tax payers and service users, income-expenditure surveys

Administration in Charge: Central Administration, Finance Ministry, Tax Agency, Statistical Office

##### *3. Gender-disaggregated Beneficiary Assessments*

Gender-disaggregated beneficiary assessments are surveys or focus group studies designed to find out how men and women evaluate whether public services meet their needs and how existing patterns of public expenditure are in accord with their priorities.

Data: can include the data of the previous tools

Sources: questionnaires and focus group results, public services satisfaction surveys, labour force surveys etc

Administration in Charge: depending on decentralisation, central or regional/local governments in charge of public employment services

*Source*: Manual on Engendering National Statistical Systems, Draft of February 2007, Elizabeth Villagómez, UNECE Working Document No.26 Rev.1

According to Jashi (2004), in Georgia, traditional macroeconomic practices are gender-neutral, as generally there is no explicit mention of women and men regarding budget process. In 2000 the State Budget included a separate article “Social programmes and measures of state agencies relating to women’s matters”. However, this separate article existed only until 2001 without funding due to the budget deficit. A decrease in government funding for social, health care, and education needs influenced unprotected segments of the population, especially women and children. The GRB initiative was first introduced by a UNDP project in Georgia (2005). The project activities included institutionalization of gender in the state budgeting processes, support to state gender statistics and to the introduction of local gender budgeting and an increase of public awareness on GRB. However, among the main challenges governmental resistance in recognizing the GRB initiatives and a lack of gender-disaggregated data are still present.<sup>5</sup>

The most developed GRB initiatives in the CIS countries are in the Russian Federation, whose experience has extended to a new social technology of gender budgeting.

### Gender Budgets in the Russian Federation

Gender Budgets project in the Russian Federation is being conducted during a period of full-scale reforms, which include fundamental changes in the budgetary-taxation relations of decentralisation, including devolvement of competencies in the social sphere from federal to regional level. Therefore, it can address two issues simultaneously. First, it can increase gender sensitivity of the government and strengthen women’s decision-making role in Russia through their participation in the budgeting process. Second, supervision and control of budgetary flows to the regions and to different population groups by civil society and permanent analysis and monitoring through gender budgeting methods can provide effective mechanisms for upholding human rights for both men and women.

This initiative, started in 2004 and supported by UNIFEM and UNDP, attracted high-level experts in budgeting and gender for the development of the methodology of gender budgeting in Russia. It also allowed cooperation of representatives of the executive and legislative power authorities, civil society, mass media and the experts. The **key results** achieved:

- Methodology of gender budgeting at federal and regional levels was elaborated, taking into account the changes made to the Budgetary Code in the context of decentralisation;
- Gender analysis of Federal (national, Russian Federation) and Regional (local, Komi Republic) budgets, and gender analysis of the set of Laws influencing budgetary policy decisions was conducted together for the first time in Russia (The Law on ‘*Minimum wage rate*’; the Law on ‘*State allowances to citizens having children*’; and the Law on ‘*Budget of Federal Fund for compulsory medical insurance*’);
- The following amendments were approved by the local government of the Komi Republic:
  1. Increase in salary rate of the state employees by 20 per cent;
  2. Special amendments to add to the pensions of women-veterans of the Second World War;
  3. Increase in funding for housing improvements for women-veterans of the Second World War;
  4. Increase the funding of the republican programme “Children of the Republic of Komi”.

These recommendations represent the redistribution of approximately 50 mlrd roubles in the Federal budget to cover the expenditures of gender responsive measures.

*Source*: Villagomez, Elizabeth. “Gender Responsive Budgets” in *Gender Gap and Economic Policy*, 2008, UNECE (forthcoming)

<sup>5</sup> Information on this project is available at: [http://www.parliament.ge/index.php?lang\\_id=ENG&sec\\_id=1099](http://www.parliament.ge/index.php?lang_id=ENG&sec_id=1099);

## Conclusions

- Gender equality and empowerment of women is not only important for reasons of fairness but is also essential to economic growth and poverty reduction.
- The research identified several areas of main concerns, including poverty, gender gaps in access to assets, labour market, migration and entrepreneurship, and gender impact of social system reforms.
- Several gender gaps identified in this section suggest that, compared to men, women are likely to be more affected by poverty and benefit less from emerging economic opportunities.
- Despite progressive legislation, *de facto* access of women to economic assets and opportunities is lower than that of men. It is important that women and men have equal opportunities to take advantage of the improving economic situation. Women in particular need to have continued access to assets and the training required to take advantage of the opportunities emerging from the progressive policy emphasis on facilitating private sector and SME development.
- Labour market analysis signals a deterioration of the position of women in the labour market in most SPECA countries, despite a comparable level of education of men and women. Although employment opportunities are legally equal, *de facto* women are paid less than men, they are concentrated in low paid sectors, bear a higher cost of transition and increasing difficulties of combining work and family responsibilities, and have more impediments for entering the labour market. This results in women's standards of living declining more than those of men. Furthermore, it is detrimental for the economy, as the productive potential of many women is wasted.
- Although the introduction of more rational models and market-oriented social protection systems (including pensions) are being recommended by international financial institutions, the impacts of these changes in gender terms have not been taken into account or analysed in SPECA member countries. The same is true for gender-responsive budgeting (GRB). The continuing transition and an increase in transparency and consolidation of central budgets is therefore an opportunity to introduce GRB and to analyse what the present situation is generating in gender terms and what the expected impacts of these changes are.
- Policy, planning and monitoring in the area of gender and the economy is based on data and statistical indicators. The final conclusions and in-depth analysis depends therefore on the quality and availability of statistical data. This presents challenges from two points of view. On the one hand, data are scarce for most CCA countries as can be seen in the Annex which offers comparison with other UNECE member States. On the other hand, many issues are novel and difficult to quantify. More discussion on the statistical issues is presented in the following section.

### **III. MEASURING GENDER GAPS**

#### **Current situation and challenges for gender statistics**

Countries in Central Asia and the South Caucasus demonstrated their commitment to development by signing the Millennium declaration, developing NDS (which is a Poverty Reduction Strategy process in all countries but Kazakhstan and Turkmenistan) and embarking on processes of CEDAW and the Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA). The collection and provision of sex-disaggregated data on the status of men and women in all spheres of socio-economic and political life is instrumental in monitoring the implementation as well for the formulation of gender-aware policies and programmes to achieve the MDGs and to ensure strong linkages between CEDAW, BPFA, MDGs and NDSs.

National statistical publications related to the status of women are listed in the bibliography and cover status, quality and availability of gender statistics. The immediate overview of the availability of statistics in the UNECE region can be obtained looking at the Annex. SPECA member countries lag behind other countries in the UNECE region in the availability of statistics, including data on the key gender and economy issues, such as poverty, entrepreneurship, informal employment, time-use, and participation in decision-making.

South Caucasus and Central Asian countries have good practice in gender statistics, an example being the series of publications on “Women and Men in ...”. These statistical bulletins are based on governmental commitments in the area of gender equality - CEDAW, BPFA and MDGs. The need for new indicators reflecting the situation of women and men in the economy was recognized, in particular access of women and men to resources, especially to land ownership. As an example Table 3 lists the sex-disaggregated indicators available in the publication of “Women and Men in the Kyrgyz Republic 2001-2005”.

The problems however remain. Most SPECA member countries produce this type of publication often on an ad hoc basis only and need support from donors. They are mainly supported by the regional and country offices of UNDP, UNIFEM and UNFPA and are not part of the activities carried out by the National Statistical Offices.

The UNECE Statistical Division is an active contributor to the development of gender statistics in UNECE member countries. UNECE reports (2004a, 2004b) identify the key gender issues in the region, assess the current framework the countries have for the production and development of gender statistics, analyse the availability and quality of gender-related data in national statistical offices, and provide recommendation for improving their gender statistics programmes.

According to its assessment<sup>6</sup>, the challenges for gender statistics are in converting into regular programmes of data collection what is now based on ad hoc initiatives (eg. measurement of time use) and in developing instruments for gender analysis that go beyond the traditional aspects of women’s and men’s participation in society. There is a need to scrape the surface and, for example,

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<sup>6</sup> See for example UNECE. 2004a. *Gender Statistics: are there new challenges for Europe?* Angela Me, Geneva, and UNECE. 2004b. *Report on the status of official statistics related to gender equality in Eastern Europe and the CIS countries.* Geneva.

look at the quality of employment and access to the labour market rather than to measure only employment and unemployment. Much still needs to be done to standardize indicators, ensure wide dissemination of statistics, establish links between official statistics and policies, and to engender the production and dissemination of statistics particularly in those areas where there is little tradition of gendered analysis, such as economic and business statistics.

National Development Strategies in the framework of the MDGs are concrete government commitments, which can serve as a platform for scaling up gender equality issues to the high political agenda. Developing a series of sub-indicators for each of the NDS objectives and target areas could be used to guide line ministries in their strategies in a more gender-sensitive manner. For example, improved collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated poverty data could strengthen the understanding of the dynamics of poverty within households and, after that, feed into better informed policy decisions.

So systematic work on gender statistics is required, especially in the economic area where there is little tradition of gendered analysis. This is a pre-condition of mainstreaming gender into economic policies, which is beneficial not only for women but for the economy as whole.

**Table 3 - Women and men statistical gender book in Kyrgyzstan (2001-2005): Content of section on gender and MDGs**

Goal 1	Eradicate extreme poverty
	1. Extreme poverty headcount ratio (percentage of population with consumption below the national food poverty line)
	1.2 Poverty rate by sex of the household head
	1.3. Extreme poverty rate among two-parent and one-parent families by sex of the household head
	1.4. Proportion of women and men among the recipients of governmental allowances
	1.5 Proportion of men and women in employment – by types of enterprises
	1.6. Proportion of population below \$1 per day
	1.7. Poverty gap ratio
	1.8. Share of the poorest quintile in population income
	1.9. Prevalence of underweight children 1-6 years of age
	1.10. Proportion of population below 2100 kkal per day
Goal 2	Achieve universal secondary education
	2.1. Proportion of girls and boys in primary, incomplete secondary and secondary school
	2.2. Proportion of pupils in secondary schools in total population of children in the corresponding age brackets
	2.3. Literacy rate of 15-24 year-olds
Goal 3	Promote gender equality and empower women
	3.1. Share of women in students of higher education institutions
	3.2. Ratio of girls to boys in students of basic vocational schools (by type of activity)
	3.4. Unemployment rate
	3.5. Share of women and men in people suffered at work by type of economic activity
	3.6. Proportion of women and men suffering from industrial incidents by type of economic activity
	3.7. Representation of women and men in state power and management structures
	3.8. Proportion of seats held by women in parliament
Goal 4.	Reduce child mortality
	4.1. Under-five mortality rate (number of deaths in children 0-4 years of age)
	4.2. Infant mortality rate (number of deaths under 1 year of age)
	4.3. Proportion of children attending pre-school facilities by sex
	4.4. Immunization coverage of children (against measles)
Goal 5	Improve maternal health
	5.1. Maternal mortality rate
	5.2. Proportion of pregnant women with anaemia
	5.3. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
Goal 6	Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases

	6.1. Number of HIV/AIDS-infected by sex and age
	6.2. Incidence of malaria
	6.4. Incidence of tuberculosis
	6.5. Incidence of brucellosis
	6.7. Number of drug addicts (number of drug addicts registered in health facilities at the end of year)
Goal 7	Ensure environmental sustainability
	7.1. Indicators of ecological sustainability
Goal 8	Develop a global partnership for development
	8.1. Youth unemployment rate
	8.2. Number of landline and cellular telephones per 1000 population

Source: National Statistical Committee of Kyrgyzstan, 2006

## Proposed statistical framework for measuring gender gap

A coherent framework is necessary to facilitate an effective discussion on indicators and to classify and organize information. The proposed framework includes four tiers. Each indicator will be discussed within the framework and placed in one of the tiers, based on how well the data reflect the desirable qualities:

- Relevance – the degree to which the statistical product meets user needs in coverage, content and detail
- Accuracy/Integrity – the degree to which the information correctly describes the phenomena it was designed to measure
- Timeliness – the degree to which data produced are up to date, published frequently and delivered according to schedule
- Accessibility – the ease with which users are able to access and understand the statistical data and their supporting information
- Coherence/Consistency – the degree to which statistical information can be successfully brought together with other statistical information within a broad analytical framework and over time
- Interpretability – the availability of the supplementary information and metadata necessary to interpret and utilize it effectively
- Efficiency – minimization of costs and respondent burden
- Based on international principles, standards and classifications.

**TIER 1** statistics are based on an internationally recognized set of principles, standards and classifications. The data are easily and regularly collected in national statistical systems. (If an indicator reflects the above characteristics but the data are not collected in some countries, the indicator is still referred to as tier 1.)

**TIER 2** data could be available in the majority of countries but indicators are not regularly produced or disseminated by national statistical offices. Offices equipped with appropriate tools and procedures could possibly start the process of regularly collecting and disseminating indicators in tier 2. Indicators in tier 2 may also lack definitions and classifications agreed at international level.

**TIER 3** data are not available in official statistics, but mentioned in research studies as highly useful. The data are not widely used at international level. The indicators are highly desirable as they have proved to be very relevant. However, it is difficult to set up a process to start regular data collection and dissemination in official statistics.

**TIER 4** includes qualitative targets and issues which are not possible or very difficult to quantify and put in the data framework. However tier 4 data might be useful for research and additional qualitative aspects.

As an example, the multi-tier framework has been applied to several indicators measuring gender equality in the economy (see Table 4).

National experts, statisticians, researchers and users of statistics from SPECA member countries are expected to provide a general feedback on the proposed framework, and address specific questions:

- Are there any other indicators identified in the research to fit in the table below?
- Do indicators measure their respective areas?
- Is there any (country-specific) research linking the target areas and listed indicators?
- Which indicators are available/regularly collected (in your countries)?
- How can these indicators be used (in the context of achieving the MDGs)?

**Table 4 - Examples of measures and indicators in gender and the economy area<sup>7</sup>**

Target/ Research area	Examples of measures and indicators	Tier	Availability in CCA
Poverty reduction and access to economic opportunities			
Combating feminization of poverty	Income of single adult household by sex of the adult	2	
	Household income and intra-household distribution of income and assets	3	
	Dwelling ownership by sex of owner	2	Survey Ar
	Individual income by sex and level of education	3	Survey Tj
	Individual income by sex	3	Survey Tj; Easily available in countries with an individual taxation system
Improving women's access to (economic) assets	Land owners by sex	3	
	Land tenure by sex	3	
	Number of persons who regularly use a computer by sex/share of women and men who regularly use a computer	2	
	Number of persons who regularly use internet by sex/share of women and men using regularly internet	2	
	Number of female and male recipients of (micro)credits	3	Survey Kg
	Amount of (micro)credits received by women and men/share of micro credits received by women and men	3	Survey kg
Women's access to entrepreneurship and labour market			
Improving access to entrepreneurship	Own account workers by sex	1	Available
	Employers by sex	1	Available
	Percentage of self-employed persons as a percentage of total employed persons excluding agriculture, by sex	2	
	Percentage of enterprises managed by women	2	
	Percentage of farms managed by women	2	

<sup>7</sup> All the measures presented in the table could also be useful for measuring progress in combating disparities between rural and urban areas and among regions if the data are disaggregated by region and rural/urban population.



## Mainstreaming Gender into Economic Policies to Reach the Millennium Development Goals in Central Asia

Target/ Research area	Examples of measures and indicators	Tier	Availability in CCA
	Survival rate of the companies according to the sex of the entrepreneur	2	
	Number of persons involved in tertiary education in the field of business by sex	1	
Reducing vertical segregation of the labour market	Employment rate by economic activity and by sex	1	Available
	Unemployment rate by sex and level of education	1	Available
	Employment rate by sex and level of education	1	
	Share of women and men in informal employment	2	
	Part-time employment by sex	1	
	Percentage of employees in managerial posts by sex	1	
	Number of women and men who are members of the executive boards of large enterprises	2	
Reducing horizontal segregation of the labour market	Gender pay gap by level of education	2	
	Average wages by sex and economic activity	2	Ar Ge Kz Kg
	Employment rate by status of employment and sex	1	
	Employment rate by occupation and sex	1	
Reconciliation of work and family responsibilities	Number of childcare facilities over the total number of pre-school children	2	
	Proportion of children attending preschool establishments	1	Survey Tj, censuses
	Employment rate by marital status, sex disaggregated	2	Survey Ar
	Employment rate by number of children and sex	2	
Public expenditure, including gender responsive budgeting, social protection and pensions			
Ensuring equal social protection	Average pension provision by sex	2	Az, Kz., Kg, Tj
	Number of pensioners by sex	1	Ar, Ge, Az, Kz., Kg, Tj; censuses
	Number of persons with disabilities who received social benefits by sex	1	Ar, Ge, Az, Kz., Kg, Tj
Measuring productive work (e.g. unpaid work, care giving, subsistence agriculture)	Number of hours spent in paid and unpaid work per week by sex	2	Survey Ar, Kz
	Share of women and men in informal employment as part of total employment	2	
Women in economic decision-making and public life			
Ensuring women's equal participation in economic decision-making	Central Banks' board members by sex	2	
	Employees of economic line ministries by sex	2	
	Government officials at local level by sex	2	

Notes: Ar = Armenia                      Az = Azerbaijan                      Ge = Georgia  
Kz = Kazakhstan                      Kg = Kyrgyzstan                      Tj = Tajikistan

## Conclusions

- National Development Strategies (NDSs) are a good entry point for mainstreaming and monitoring progress in equal opportunities as they represent concrete government commitments and are regularly revised.
- Developing a series of sub-indicators for each of the NDS objectives and target areas can be used to guide line ministries in their strategies in a more gender-sensitive manner, and to ensure scaling up of gender equality to a high level of economic decision-making.
- The proposed statistical framework is a good starting point to undertake more in-depth evaluation of individual data and MDG-related indicators.
- Among the main challenges to gender statistics in the SPECA region are:
  - irregularity (ad hoc initiatives need to be converted into regular programmes)
  - lack of production and/or dissemination of gender statistics covering economic and business areas
  - lack of standardization
  - missing links between official statistics and policies.

## IV. POLICY RESPONSE

### Millennium Development Goals and National Development Strategies

The Millennium Declaration adopted in September 2000 is a global programme aimed at ensuring peace, security, and development in the world. Within this global framework each country has set its own national targets and indicators proposed in the participatory process and approved by the government or parliament.

While national MDGs constitute the long-term development agenda with a very broad vision, work on countries' National Development Strategies (NDSs) provides the mechanism for translating the vision into concrete policy priorities and, most importantly, linking these to the countries' budget, and setting targets and indicators for progress monitoring. Development of the NDSs often goes in parallel with the discussion of the countries' MDGs, thus ensuring a broad alignment between them.

All CCA countries have identified poverty as a major development problem. Azerbaijan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan have prepared Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP) (see Table 5). This is a new instrument designed to serve as a framework document for concessional lending to low-income countries, approved by the International Monetary Fund and World Bank in December 1999. PRSPs aim at addressing the challenges of poverty reduction, and include an analytical framework, integrating macroeconomic, structural, sectoral and social considerations<sup>8</sup>.

**Table 5 - World Bank and International Monetary Fund Board presentation of PRSP documents in CCA countries**

Country		I-PRSP	PRSP	APR*1	APR2
Azerbaijan	State Programme on Poverty Reduction and Economic Development	5 June 2001	27 May 2003	10 Sep 2004	25 Aug 2005
Kyrgyzstan	National Poverty Reduction Strategy	4 Dec 2001	27 Feb 2003	29 Jun 2004	4 May 2006
Tajikistan	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper	31 Oct 2000	5 Dec 2002	29 Jun 2004	11 Nov 2005
Uzbekistan	Welfare Improvement Strategy Paper	24 May 2005	27 August 2007	–	–

*Source:* Various PRSP documents and World Bank list of Board presentations of PRSP documents as at 30 June 2007 (<http://www.worldbank.org/poverty/strategies/boardlist.pdf>) with additions on WISP in Uzbekistan.

\* *Annual progress report*

The legislative framework and relevant mechanisms for promoting gender equality were established in all CCA countries after the Beijing Conference.<sup>9</sup> The laws are directed at ensuring equal opportunities in access to education, health, employment as well as women's participation in

<sup>8</sup> It should be noted here that the use of PRSP has evolved since 1999, partly because the term "paper" is clearly inappropriate to describe what is, essentially, a process. An inconsistent approach has been used to address this issue with a range of qualified terms being used; for example, Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRS) process, initiative, approach or framework.

<sup>9</sup> National Machineries in Central Asia and the South Caucasus: Progress and Challenges, Regional Preparatory Meeting for 10-year Review of the Beijing Platform for Action, Conference Room Paper: CRP.4, Annex 1.

decision-making processes. All CCA countries prepared National Action Plans to ensure gender equality, however, they are not closely linked with NDSs in the framework of the MDGs.

## Gender in National Development Strategies

The following section analyses how gender issues are reflected in the government commitments in the area of economic development, expressed in the latest NDSs in Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan.

Information provided in this section is based on inputs from the Multi-Stakeholder Network, reports and policy documents of governments as well as reports prepared by United Nations agencies (UNIFEM, UNDP) and ADB (see references).

### Kazakhstan

The Government of Kazakhstan articulated its development goals and strategies in 1997 through the Kazakhstan Long-Term Development Strategy 2030 (2030 Vision). In 2001 the Government announced the 2010 Strategic Development Plan. Three of its objectives are an agro-industrial policy to improve the welfare of the rural population through increased productivity and profitability of agrarian production, creation and support of employment in rural areas, and industrialization. It also includes a special section on gender and development.

As a prelude to preparing the 2004-2006 indicative plan, the government announced three key areas of public investment strategy:

- (a) State Programme for Poverty Reduction, 2003–2005;
- (b) Rural Area Development Programme, 2004–2010; and
- (c) The Industrial Innovation Strategy, 2003–2015.

*The State Programme for Poverty Reduction* illustrates how women and gender imbalances are identified as contributing to poverty levels in Kazakhstan. Yet specific measures to effectively address these gender dimensions in poverty reduction strategies and programmes are rarely articulated. The poverty profile in the State Programme recognizes that women are vulnerable to poverty because of their double burden of work inside and outside the home, discriminatory employment practices, and continuing poor reproductive health status. It also acknowledges the inability of women to fully compete in the labour market with men although they possess higher education. Government indicated the existence of the wage gap between the earnings of women and men and its critical level in rural areas. However, the poverty reduction objectives and detailed strategies do not follow up with specific activities to address these constraints. The state programmes and policies do not articulate women's vulnerability to poverty and do not refer to specific ways of reducing gender imbalances.

Vulnerable groups are broadly identified in the State Programme, as are principles to guide the implementation of the programme. But although discrimination against women is identified as contributing to women's poverty, the need to address the economic impact of gender discrimination is not specifically identified in the overarching principles.

Microcredit is the only area where special steps are recommended to correct unequal access to economic resources for socially vulnerable groups. Special measures are also recommended to assist rural women to organize their own businesses. This recommendation builds on an existing

programme initiated by the National Commission for Family and Women's Affairs, which provides a special credit line to support women entrepreneurs working in the production sector.

The strategic approaches to poverty reduction now being planned, following up on the State Programme, promote economic diversity and rural revival, and mark a transition from a cautious fiscal policy to a strategy of accelerated development that will increase public investment in social services by 2 per cent of GDP annually in the medium term. Despite the limited targeting of initiatives to support women in the State Programme, increases in social service spending will benefit women and improvements in several critical development indicators where women have fallen behind men.

The Government has already developed poverty reduction programmes that target certain vulnerable groups. Improvements in the standard of living in almost all regions of Kazakhstan demonstrate the effectiveness of these programmes for some. But persistent gender gaps in key indicators highlight the need to adapt some programmes more effectively, to address the needs of women as well as men. As the Government's new programmes for economic diversification and agricultural revival are developed and delivered, it is vital that women have equitable access to the new resources being made available through public investments. Effective implementation of the poverty reduction programmes demands governmental understanding of the different impact of economic transition on women and on their status relative to that of men. These programmes need to be adjusted to address different and unintended impacts on both sexes.

Poverty assessment in Kazakhstan has tended to focus on income poverty measurement and therefore fails to reflect the diverse features of poverty. Furthermore, despite progress in the collection of some sex-disaggregated data and publication of specific statistical reports focusing on the status of women and gender differences, the data do not reappear in many mainstream poverty assessments. None of the 18 performance indicators for the State Programme are sex-disaggregated, apart from the longevity target and the inclusion of maternal mortality. This limits the capacity of stakeholders to track progress in addressing the specific vulnerabilities of women identified by the Government.

The State Programme performance indicators are specifically tied to the priority programmes (e.g., retraining, provision of microcredit, improved access to potable water, and increased telephone coverage). However, if outcomes of these programmes are not sex-disaggregated, it is not possible to identify where and how future programming can be adjusted to reduce emerging gender gaps.

## **Kyrgyzstan**

The development goals and strategies of Kyrgyzstan are detailed in two key documents:

- (a) Comprehensive Development Framework (CDF) of Kyrgyzstan to 2010; and
- (b) National Poverty Reduction Strategy, 2003-2005 (NPRS).

Whereas the CDF, which was prepared in early 2001, outlines a 10-year national development vision framed by some broad national goals, the NPRS presents a detailed strategy for realizing the CDF vision and objectives. In addition, the Government has developed a set of national targets towards achieving the MDGs and, through the National Council on Women, Family and Gender Affairs and its Secretariat, a detailed National Plan of Action for Achieving Gender Equality 2002–2006. (See Table 6 for an overview of the extent to which the documents have focused on gender equality concerns).

**Table 6 - Government responses and international commitments to poverty reduction and gender equality in Kyrgyzstan**

Document	Time Span	Focus on Gender Issues
Comprehensive Development Framework	To 2010	Not mainstreamed throughout document. Separate paragraph section on “Gender Policy”. No gender-sensitive indicators identified. No resources allocated for gender equality measures outlined.
National Poverty Reduction Strategy	2003–2005	Not mainstreamed throughout document. Separate section provides good analysis of gender and poverty issues. No gender-sensitive indicators identified. No resources allocated for gender equality measures outlined.
National Plan of Action for Gender Equality	2002–2006	Centrepiece of government gender policy. Good analysis of gender and poverty issues. Six key objectives identified, along with 72 key “measures” to achieve those objectives. Gender-sensitive indicators provided against each of the 72 measures, but require further refinement. No budget attached to any of the 72 measures identified.
Millennium Development Goals	To 2015	MDG 3 amended at the national level from “eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education” to “eliminating gender disparity in employment and managerial positions”. Gender-sensitive indicators for MDG 3 and other goals in process of being developed with UNIFEM support.

Source: ADB. 2005. *Country Gender Assessment: The Kyrgyz Republic*. Manila

**Comprehensive Development Framework.** Gender issues are not mainstreamed in the CDF. There is, however, a paragraph on the status of women in the assessment section of the CDF on the “Kyrgyz Republic Today” that notes the need to protect the relatively high social status of Kyrgyz women, and highlights the importance of engaging the non-governmental sector in such efforts. Other sections of the assessment chapter of the CDF, such as the assessment of current status of the health care and education systems and the sections on living standards, employment, and social protection, do not specifically highlight the important gender dimensions of these issues, such as high levels of maternal mortality, anaemia, and iodine deficiency; decreasing primary enrolments for girls; and high and persistent levels of female unemployment. Considerable gender impacts of the loss of social protection measures in the transition period are also not identified.

The section which identifies nine key national priorities for achieving the identified goals and objectives does not specifically address gender issues. However, the priorities such as the development of rural and remote areas and depressed small towns have clear gender dimensions. Poverty levels in rural and remote areas are acute and men’s internal/external migration has resulted in significant numbers of women heads of households, often eking out a bare subsistence wage on earnings from seasonal agricultural employment and in the informal sector.

The most detailed section of the CDF, which focuses on the strategy for achieving the identified goals and objectives, includes a brief section on “Gender Policy” which notes the continued need for efforts to promote gender equity policies and programmes and undertake gender reviews of legislation, as well as providing support to NGOs.

The strategies outlined for addressing key areas, such as social protection and pension systems, do not specifically address gender issues even though proposed pension reforms that would tie rates to contributions would have clear gender dimensions. Despite considerable evidence that a large and increasing number of women are working in the informal and micro-enterprise sector, and the

considerable scope for expanding this involvement to the small and medium enterprise (SME) sector, the strategy identified for development of SMEs does not highlight the considerable obstacles facing women in this sector and does not include any specific measures aimed at increasing women's participation rates. Nor are any gender equality indicators identified in Appendix XI of the document, which lists monitoring indicators for each of the CDF's principal objectives and actions.

**National Poverty Reduction Strategy.** The NPRS 2003-2005 is the first phase of implementing the CDF and was approved in 2003. It is a detailed document that is structured in conformity with the three overarching national objectives identified in the CDF, with separate chapters on "Formation of an effective state" (CDF Objective 1), "Building a fair society" (CDF Objective 2) and "Promoting sustainable economic growth" (CDF Objective 3). Emphasis is placed throughout the document on "pro-poor economic growth" underlined by improved governance structures, increased levels of direct investment, and commitments to improvements in education and health care in particular. The resources for achieving the objectives set forth in the strategy are outlined in several annexes and a summary list of indicators to track progress. As in the CDF, gender issues are not mainstreamed within the NPRS. Table 7 indicates the sections of the NPRS and the level of inclusion of gender issues in its content.

The NPRS, however, include separate subsection on gender issues that identifies a number of key priorities that require government action. These include:

- (a) Addressing gender inequities in the area of employment and social protection;
- (b) Improving women's representation at decision-making levels, including within government administration and Parliament;
- (c) Addressing growing inequities in the health care and education sectors;
- (d) Addressing the growing problem of violence against women and trafficking; and
- (e) Raising public awareness on gender issues and gender equality legislation.

In particular, the section includes a good analysis of the key obstacles to achieving gender equity, noting among others a strong patriarchal culture and lack of awareness and poor understanding of gender issues; a lack of gender equality at decision-making levels; and unequal pay levels and a lack of institutional capacity to undertake gender analysis and gender mainstreaming.

To achieve the identified priorities, the section notes that a National Plan of Action was developed. Taken as a whole, however, the remainder of the NPRS does not take a gender mainstreaming approach to analysing and diagnosing the various dimensions of poverty, neither the economic dimensions — such as income differentials, lack of access to productive inputs such as credit, or gender biases in the labour market — nor the "non-economic" dimensions — such as lack of political representation and the high levels of time poverty arising from increased and unpaid domestic work (including child care) — are discussed. As a result, gender issues outside the allocated gender chapter appear in a piecemeal and fragmented fashion.

**Table 7 - Gender and the National Poverty Reduction Strategy in Kyrgyzstan**

Ref. No.	Chapter Title	No mention of gender issues	Brief mention of gender issues	Treated with some elaboration of gender issues
Chapter I	THE SCALE OF POVERTY		X	
Chapter II	SUSTAINABLE STABILIZATION AND NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT			
2.1	Expand National Potential through NPRS	X		
Chapter III	FORMATION OF AN EFFECTIVE STATE			
3.1	Democratic Institutions		X (1 line)	
3.2	Raising the Effectiveness of the Legislature	X		
3.3	Refining the Judiciary and Law Enforcement Agencies	X		
3.4	Reforming Central and Public Administration	X		
3.5	Decentralization and Local Government	X		
3.6	Reforming State Financial Management	X		
3.7	Creating an Effective Civil Service		X (1 line)	
3.8	Electronic Government	X		
Chapter IV	BUILDING A FAIR SOCIETY			
4.1	Targeted Social Protection	X		
4.2	Integration of the Disabled into Society	X		
4.3	Poverty among Children	X		
4.4	The Retirement Pension Benefits System	X		
4.5	The Labour Market and Job Creation	X		
4.6	Reform of Wages and Labour Agreements	X		
4.7	Access to Quality Education	X		
4.8	Science	X		
4.9	Culture	X		
4.10	Access to Quality Health Care Services	X		
4.11	Physical Culture and Sports	X		
4.12	Gender Equity			X
4.13	Rational Environmental Management	X		

In the NPRS gender issues are treated with some elaboration only in the section specifically dedicated to “gender equality,” with a brief mention of gender issues in only three other areas. By way of illustration, while the section on pension reform notes that the reformed retirement pension benefits system will take into account length of service, it does not note the potential gender impacts of the reform on women, whose length of service is often interrupted by periods of maternity leave. Similarly, the strategy does not consider or address the significant negative impacts on women arising from the removal of the sizeable social protection framework that existed prior to 1991.

Similarly, while the section on “The Labour Market and Job Creation” notes high unemployment and inactivity rates arising from the dismantling of many state-owned enterprises and related structural adjustment programmes, it does not highlight the gendered impacts of these changes, including an unemployment rate for women that is higher than that for men; the vertical segregation of the labour market, with women disproportionately represented at lower pay scales; and symptomatically a female wage rate that in 2005 was only 67 per cent of that of men’s.



As a result of this lack of a gender mainstreaming approach within the document as a whole, and despite having an Appendix dedicated to the identification of indicators, the NPRS does not include any gender-sensitive indicators against which progress can be measured. The National Plan of Action for Achieving Gender Equality, which is referred to in the NPRS, does include such indicators, but no reference is made to them and it is not stated whether they are applicable to the NPRS document.

## Tajikistan

The Government's coordinated framework for addressing poverty in Tajikistan is provided in the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP). The PRSP was approved in 2002 and seeks to increase real incomes, achieve a fair distribution of the benefits of growth, and ensure a rise in the living standards of the poorest groups in the population. This will be achieved through three key objectives: (i) sustained high economic growth, (ii) improved governance, and (iii) improved access to and better targeting of social services.

*The Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper* views growth of the agriculture sector and increased agricultural exports, as well as the provision of adequate infrastructure (energy, transport, water supply, and communication), as the keys to achieving economic growth and poverty reduction. Five of the poverty reduction targets in the PRSP are based on the MDGs. The MDG process is seen to be parallel and complementary to implementation of the PRSP, sharing common goals.

The PRSP is the Government's first comprehensive analysis of poverty reduction and priorities for policies and programmes to address the causes presented in the introductory analysis. PRSP objectives and corresponding targets provide extensive entry points for addressing most aspects of current gender gaps in economic and human development, but specific reference to either gender-related targets or indicators is limited.

The background analysis of poverty identifies gender gaps in only two areas - education and the labour market - but does not provide an analysis of factors influencing these gaps. Programming outlined in the PRSP assumes equal access for men and women, except as noted in education and unemployment, where specific steps are identified to address gender gaps. Indicators are highly aggregated, except where based on MDG targets. No corresponding programmes are set out in the PRSP to reach targets for the MDG indicators for women's empowerment that are incorporated into the PRSP indicators.

The revised version of the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP-2) in Tajikistan is the second medium-term plan (2007-2009) towards economic growth and improved service delivery to the poorest. Increasing gender equality is formulated there as one of the goals.

A recent evaluation of gender aspects provided by UNIFEM and the Canadian International Development Agency<sup>10</sup> pointed out that PRSP-2 envisages three objectives to achieve gender equality: (i) improved institutional gender policy base, (ii) creation of effective mechanisms aimed at providing equal access to resources, (iii) reducing the level of domestic and society violence. The PRSP provide that institutional policy requires changes in existing legislation as well as providing a "soft quota" to women in placement to civil servants' positions. The economic-related objective to provide equal access to resources requires, according to PRSP, the regular collection of information on the most acute needs of women entrepreneurs, looking at possibilities to include gender in the social and demographic statistics sections. By this means the Government proposes to facilitate a

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<sup>10</sup> UNIFEM & CIDA, 2007, *Gender Equality in the Sphere of Employment*, Tajikistan

reduction of vertical segregation and promotion of women's participation in the adoption of important political decisions, and expanding access to resources.

However, the system of gender statistics is absent in the proposed framework for the PRS. The indicators are envisaged only in the proportion of women in the total economically active population, gender imbalance in salary, proportion of women at all levels of legislative and executive power. PRSP-2 does not include gender-disaggregated indicators such as the economic activity rate among men and women, unemployment level and timeframe by gender, gender employment structure by sector and profession, average remuneration for men and women by sector and profession, proportion of women among heads of small- and medium-sized business enterprises by sector, and proportion of money allocated to women under loan programmes for small- and medium-sized businesses. More work is needed to include these MDG-related indicators into the PRSP.

*The State Programme for Equality between Men and Women* is the primary mechanism through which the Government promotes gender equality and the status of women. It also has a specific poverty reduction focus, but the analysis and targets are not consistent with the 2002 PRSP. The presence of gender dimension is discussed below<sup>11</sup>:

- The Programme includes the provision that restoring higher budget allocations to social sectors is vital for women for restoring capabilities eroded during the transition period. Women have also had to absorb cuts through unpaid labour in the family putting great pressure on time and overall well-being. The Government acknowledges unequal access to benefits from development programming but this is not articulated as a priority in reforms to structures and delivery mechanisms.
- Increasing women's competitiveness and reducing segregation in the labour market is mentioned in the programme. However, it contains neither a section on trends in workforce participation of women nor the policy of effective use of women's potential. Women are also not identified as target group in reforms of vocational trainings.
- The low proportion of women in decision-making positions in public service and equality of employment opportunities is neither identified in PRSP nor in other governmental programmes as a priority sphere. There is a lack of links between the policy priority areas and the budgets allocations.
- The section on social protection doesn't respond to the needs of both men and women equally. The pension reforms do not take into account that women have lower average salaries and correspondingly lower contribution through employment which increase women's vulnerability to poverty during old age.

**Constraints on monitoring gender aspects.** More than 100 indicators were originally identified to monitor progress of implementation of the PRSP. Because monitoring so many indicators presented a practical challenge, a core set of 48 quantitative and 6 qualitative indicators, with close alignment to MDG targets, was formulated. This has meant that the indicators have become more aggregated and macro in nature, which does not help to unmask gender-based differences in outcomes of poverty reduction programming. Moreover, several areas of the PRSP are no longer covered by explicit indicators, but government discussions are under way regarding identification of sub-indicators that will track specific programme targets that contribute to PRSP and MDG targets.

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<sup>11</sup> ADB. 2006. *Country Gender Assessment: Tajikistan*. Manila

## Uzbekistan

**Living Standards Strategy:** In the period 2003–2004, with technical assistance from ADB, the Government of Uzbekistan developed the Living Standards Strategy (LSS), which identifies the policy priorities for further reforms aimed at improving living standards and reducing poverty for the period up to 2010. This strategy document has since been used as the basis for the preparation of an Interim-PRSP<sup>12</sup>.

In the LSS, an attempt was made to treat gender issues as crosscutting, but in fact they have been addressed only in some sections of the strategy (for a brief overview of gender inclusion see Table 8). The LSS has a separate section on maternal and child welfare, and the I-PRSP has a short section summarizing the main legislative acts relating to gender equality. The LSS sets out, as one of its main directions, the need to “ensure gender equality and full participation of women in public and economic processes.” However, few concrete policy actions in the various sections point to how this goal will be achieved. The document in general has few concrete quantifiable targets, due largely to the same problems encountered when setting MDG targets: the lack of reliable baseline data, especially sex-disaggregated data, for setting targets.

Chapter 1 of the LSS highlights some gender aspects of poverty, looking in particular at occupational segregation and the fact that women are concentrated in the low-paying sectors of the economy. Enrolments in secondary and vocational education are gender disaggregated, and maternal mortality is touched upon.

The employment section notes the growth in vulnerability of women in the labour markets, due to the existing social security regulations that make them less competitive. It emphasizes the importance of access to credit for setting up small businesses to promote income generation, and the need to provide access, particularly to the rural population and rural women. This section also points to the need to try to find employment solutions for women with children, including the development of home-based employment. However, it does not set specific targets for increasing female employment or female participation in private sector development.

The policy matrix attached to the LSS does not include specific measures to address gender aspects of employment, rural development, education, health care, social protection, or the environment. Chapter 8 on monitoring does not provide indicators for monitoring the effect of the proposed policy measures on men and women. In particular, measures are needed to strengthen the way in which the employment problems of women in agriculture and rural areas are addressed; include more specific proposals on how to improve women’s participation in private sector growth; and pay more attention to the gender aspects of social protection, reform of health care and education services, regional reforms, and environmental policies.

**Poverty Reduction Strategy.** In 2005 Uzbekistan adopted the Interim PRSP (I-PRSP) which was a slightly extended version of the LSS. The I-PRSP, however, adds a separate subsection on gender equality.

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<sup>12</sup> This document is officially called “The Welfare Improvement Strategy Paper of the Republic of Uzbekistan for 2005–2010”, and abbreviated as “WISP”. For simplicity, the term I-PRSP and PRSP is used for all countries in this stocktaking study.

**Table 8 - Gender in the Living Standards Strategy and the Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy and Programme in Uzbekistan<sup>13</sup>**

Sections of Living Standards Strategy	Issues addressed
Chapter 1. Assessment and Main Characteristics of Poverty in Uzbekistan	Child and maternal welfare indicators School enrolments for boys and girls; employment and labour market segregation; and women in the private sector
Chapter 2. Main Goals, Objectives, and Directions of the Living Standards Strategy	Need to guarantee equal benefits of results of economic growth to all sections of society, and provide protection against economic discrimination, including gender-based discrimination Need to ensure gender equality and full participation of women in public and economic processes
Chapter 3. Priorities of Economic Policy: Accelerated Economic Growth and More Employment and Income-Generating Opportunities	Growth of vulnerability of women on labour market, and their lack of competitiveness due to social protection rights; need to improve access to microcredit for small businesses, particularly those in rural areas and those employing women; need to create conditions and incentives for home-based work, particularly for mothers with many children
Chapter 4. Social Development	Enrolment rates for girls and boys in primary education; need to improve gender equality in education; particularly in vocational education Need to improve vocational guidance to eliminate mismatch between supply and demand in labour markets, including gender aspects of the mismatch Need to improve quality of medical assistance provided to women of fertile age Section on child welfare including references to need to improve maternal health
Chapter 7. Environmental Concerns	Mention of increased morbidity rates, especially among women in fertile age, due to environmental pollution (water, air, and soil)
Policy Matrix	Need to strengthen women's health care and improve maternal mortality figures

The section lists the priority policy objectives mentioned in the Presidential Decree “On Additional Measures to Support the Activity of the Women’s Committee of Uzbekistan”. This stresses the need to give priority to supporting maternal and child care; improving women’s health status; improving employment opportunities for women, especially in rural areas, and their participation in entrepreneurial activities; and developing links between the Women’s Committee and national NGOs working on women’s issues. It states that special measures will be taken to improve employment for women, promote women’s business activities, and improve their competitiveness in the labour market; strengthen the work of reproductive health centres in the regions; and increase the public, political, and social participation of women through the introduction of quotas for women’s representation in public authorities.

The two interlinked processes of defining the country’s own national MDG targets and formulation of a full poverty reduction strategy are providing the vision and framework for the country’s development. In both processes, the principle of gender mainstreaming has been adopted, but needs to be strengthened.

<sup>13</sup> ADB. 2005. *Country Gender Assessment: Uzbekistan*. Manila

In August 2007 Uzbekistan adopted the Welfare Improvement Strategy<sup>14</sup> (PRS) for 2008-2010. The PRSP sets both the medium-term and longer-term priorities for development and transformation of various aspects of socio-economic and public life for the period up to 2015. The PRSP has a separate section on gender development which covers the following spheres: women's access to labour market and employment, access to education, health and women's representation at decision-making levels. The section sums up the gender development issues and addresses its key challenges. PRS addresses inclusion of gender perspective in economic issues in terms of creating favourable conditions to promote the economic sustainability of women. It is reflected further on vocational education development, promoting women's participation in the official labour market, including special vocational courses for women in small business and others.

The specific gender-disaggregated indicators are reflected in the PRSP in the part concerning employment, including social protection of unemployed men/women, and access to education, both primary and higher. One can also refer here to the annexes presented in the PRSP.

The Government acknowledged that there is a need to increase the proportion of women who are economically active (as 60 per cent of women do not have the opportunity or desire to start working because of their high level of family responsibilities). The Government also specifies the existence of gender stereotypes in women's access to higher level of education that provide more opportunities to get the better paid jobs. The necessity of measures for increasing women's role at decision-making levels, in particular in managerial positions, was recognized in PRSP.

However, the PRSP itself mentions that there is a lack of financing in implementing measures on gender policy (especially in the area of employment), lack of readiness of government employees to resolve gender issues, weakness of the gender analysis methodology and lack of research and indicators on the gender-related issues. The Government put this as the main challenges, however no mechanisms for their solution are provided in the PRSP.

The PRSP is linked with other sector-oriented, regional and special targeted governmental; programmes, covering gender issues. These programmes in turn are linked to the national budgetary commitments of Uzbekistan. However, there is no a Mid-term Expenditure Framework in Uzbekistan. This affects the sustainability of financing most of the NDSs, including those dealing with gender issues.

## **Conclusions**

- Gender issues are not sufficiently addressed in the policy parts of National Development Strategies related to economic issues. While gender issues are well reflected in the analytical part of the NDSs the opposite is true for the policy part (see Table 9 for an overview of inclusion gender into NDS). There is thus a gap between the analysis of a country's priorities related to reaching the MDGs and government commitments reflected in the policy matrix with targets and indicators, which is often gender neutral in many areas.
- This could be explained by two factors - the lack of sex-disaggregated targets and indicators, and a traditional perception that gender is a social issue. For example, even though most NDSs discuss feminization of poverty in the analytical part, target indicators for poverty and social protection in the policy part are not disaggregated by sex. The lack of gender-sensitive indicators has implications on the design of budgetary lines supporting the implementation

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<sup>14</sup> The official website of the Welfare Improvement Strategy in Uzbekistan is [www.wis.uz](http://www.wis.uz);

of concrete policy objectives. Furthermore, the lack of sex-disaggregated targets and indicators does not allow monitoring of progress in equality of economic opportunities.

- The view that gender is a “social” issue reflects the approach to women as one of a disadvantaged group. As a consequence, gender inequalities are addressed primarily through social policies aimed at vulnerable groups (social transfers, access to public services). Gender aspects are also reflected in some areas of labour market policies. But other parts of the NDS, in particular its economic core, remain gender neutral, such as policies related to financial markets, private sector development and government spending. Thus, gender equality is not taken into account as an economic asset.
- Work is thus needed on more precise policy measures to address gender concerns, to look in a more systematic way at the expected effect of all the proposed policy goals and measures on men and women, to set concrete targets for addressing gender concerns, and to set baselines and monitoring indicators using gender-disaggregated data. National Development Strategies provide a good opportunity for implementing these recommendations as the strategies are regularly revised.

**Table 9 - Gender in NDS/PRSPs in CCA countries**

Country	Policy documents	Inclusion of gender	Inclusion of Gender		Gender specific indicators		Link to budgetary commitments
			Social issues	Economic issues	Social issues	Economic issues	
Kazakhstan	NDS	xx	xx	--	x	--	?
Kyrgyzstan	NDS	xx	xx	--	x	--	?
	PRSP	xx	xx	--	x	--	?
Tajikistan	PRSP	xx	xx	--	x	--	?
Uzbekistan	NDS	xx	xx	x	--	--	--
	PRSP	xx	xx	x	x	x	x

xx = present      x = present to some extent    -- = absent      ? = information not available.

## **V. INTERNATIONAL SUPPORT**

Multilateral assistance is provided by a number of international organizations actively working in CCA countries. They mostly work on promoting democracy, however, some of the important initiatives cover the area of gender and the economy. The main actors are United Nations organizations (UNDP Country offices, UNIFEM Regional Office in CIS, UNFPA, UNESCAP), international organizations (ILO Offices in Moscow and Azerbaijan, Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE)), and international financial institutions (World Bank, ADB). They focus their activities on supporting governments to include gender in development policies as well as to support women in financing and trainings. Assistance is also provided through bilateral support from countries.

### **One United Nations approach**

The One United Nations approach, as part of the United Nations reform, aims at establishing a basis for joint programmes coordinated by United Nations Country Teams (UNCT). UNCT are formed by the United Nations agencies as well as international financial institutions, such as the World Bank. A good example of joint programming can be seen in Kyrgyzstan where a Joint Country Strategy was prepared with the World Bank as lead institution and with the participation of all United Nations agencies. This strategy is directed to assess the current situation in the country and to build synergies to assist in poverty reduction and reaching the MDGs. By creating special thematic groups UNCT also assists countries in particular aspects, one of which is gender. The initiatives to organize thematic groups on gender and to prepare joint strategies are being established in a number of CCA countries, such as Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan.

Below are some examples of recent activities conducted by United Nations agencies and some of the international financial institutions.

*The United Nations Development Programme* works in CCA countries to assist Governments in the poverty reduction process and in providing equality of economic opportunities. In Georgia and Azerbaijan, UNDP supported a national survey on gender attitudes and the elaboration of policy documents to mobilize women's potential (2005-2006). In Kazakhstan it is currently supporting the Government in engendering policy documents related to the development of rural and remote areas of the country as well as building capacity for women's organizations to implement the National Action Plan on Improving Women Status. UNDP work in Kyrgyzstan focuses more on gender equality in politics and gender expertise in legislation. However, the project on gender mainstreaming into policies and strategies of the ministries was implemented in 2000-2004. In Tajikistan it supports women's entrepreneurial initiatives by training women from rural regions and also works for improving women's access to higher education. In Uzbekistan UNDP supports capacity development for women's empowerment as well as engendering the National Development Strategy and building statistical capacity for MDG monitoring and reporting.

The MDG needs-assessment conducted in Tajikistan was the first example of UNDP work on a full and detailed analysis of the situation from the MDG perspective, where gender is also included. The particularity of this assessment is that it looks at the Government's financial estimations for promoting gender equality as well as current recommendations on further work to improve the

situation in achieving gender equality in the selected areas, including the labour market, political participation and others.

The UNDP Regional Bureau for Europe and the CIS also supports the elaboration of gender statistics for MDG monitoring to enhance the capacity of national statistical offices in the CIS.

***United Nations Development Fund for Women*** in the CIS works towards engendering PRSPs and the adoption by governments of common gender-responsive indicators that serve for the implementation of the commitments under the MDGs and CEDAW. In particular, in Kazakhstan it cooperated with the National Commission on Family Affairs and Gender Policy and the National Statistics Agency to develop the Strategy for Gender Equality for 2006-2016 as well as work on the gender budgets programme. In Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan UNIFEM supports projects on ensuring women's rights to land. In Tajikistan it also supports a project on improved food security and enhanced livelihoods through institutional and gender-sensitive land reform.

Recently UNIFEM jointly with the Canadian International Development Agency conducted research on gender equality in the sphere of employment, social security and also the agricultural sector in Tajikistan. The research provided an analysis of the existing legislative and institutional background to ensure gender equality in these spheres as well as recommendations on the inclusion of gender aspects and gender-specific indicators in the PRSP.

***The United Nations Population Fund*** also supports countries' initiatives in the area of gender and the economy, however it mainly focuses its activities on social issues related to gender, such as health, education, etc.

***The Asian Development Bank***, in order to prevent further deterioration in women's social and economic status, initiated in 2004 a project on mainstreaming gender into the PRSPs in Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan. It focuses on supporting Governments in identifying key gender issues for poverty reduction. The objectives of the project are to improve the quality of National Development Strategies by identifying and implementing policies and programmes that will benefit both men and women and maximize the potential benefit for the poor. ADB also supports regional cooperation for socio-economic development by expanding statistical databases and information.

***The World Bank*** supports the advancement of women's economic empowerment in order to promote shared growth and achievement of MDG 3. This is the project being implemented since 2007 in Armenia and Tajikistan. The focus areas of the project include women's empowerment in the economic sectors and infrastructure such as energy, transport, water and sanitation, agriculture, private sector development and finance. The project is implemented through mobilizing economic resources and improvement of knowledge and statistics on women's economic participation in the country. In Uzbekistan the World Bank has mainstreamed gender in its health, water supply and sanitation projects, and has provided small grants to local NGOs directed to women's empowerment.

**The SPECA** programme supports activities in the area of gender and the economy through the creation and functioning of its special Project Working Group. The objective is to raise awareness that gender equality is a smart choice for economic policy. The activities are directed at policy-oriented research, exchange of good practices and preparation of policy guidelines and recommendations. SPECA is also a platform for developing pilot projects in selected areas (in particular, gender-sensitive SME policies and gender budgets).



An overview of the activities done by some of the United Nations agencies in Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan is presented in Table 10.

**Table 10 - Current projects in the gender and economy area implemented by United Nations agencies**

Gender and economy areas	Project focus
Gender equality, poverty reduction, rural development and MDGs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Incorporation of gender as development factor into governmental agenda (UNFPA Kyrgyzstan);</li> <li>• Capacity development for women’s empowerment: legislative and institutional approach (UNDP Uzbekistan)</li> </ul>
Women’s position in the labour market and entrepreneurship	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Support for women in business in rural areas (UNDP Kyrgyzstan);</li> <li>• Promotion of women’s labour rights, including for women migrants (UNDP Uzbekistan),</li> <li>• Economic advancement of women in rural areas (UNDP Kazakhstan)</li> <li>• Business skill and support training for women in small business (UNDP Kazakhstan)</li> </ul>
Women’s access to finance, land and assets	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Promotion and support for women’s rights to land and sustainable livelihoods (UNIFEM Kyrgyzstan);</li> <li>• Governmental cooperation on increasing living standards through partnership mechanisms (UNDP Uzbekistan);</li> <li>• Support for micro credits for women entrepreneurs, particularly in rural areas (UNDP Uzbekistan)</li> </ul>
Reforms of social protection system, including pension reforms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Support for Government in the engendering of social development strategies (UNIFEM Kyrgyzstan)</li> <li>• Support to the social protection concept (UNDP Kazakhstan)</li> </ul>
Gender responsive budgeting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facilitation to local governmental administration in gender analysis of budgets (UNIFEM Kyrgyzstan)</li> </ul>
Mainstreaming gender into National Development Strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Support in engendering National Development Strategies (UNDP Kazakhstan, UNIFEM Tajikistan, UNDP Uzbekistan);</li> <li>• Support to Government in establishing gender focal points in governmental bodies (UNIFEM Tajikistan);</li> <li>• Support to Government in elaborating gender equality law (UNIFEM/OSCE Tajikistan)</li> </ul>
Gender statistics and indicators	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Support to Government in engendering statistics and indicators (UNFPA, UNIFEM Tajikistan);</li> <li>• Support to Government in provision of transparency of municipal finances (UNDP Kyrgyzstan);</li> <li>• Statistical capacity building for MDG monitoring and reporting (UNDP Uzbekistan)</li> </ul>

Source: Information provided by UNDP Offices in Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan and UNIFEM Office in Tajikistan

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

In the last decade SPECA member countries have demonstrated high growth in their economies. However, several aspects of economic development are still lagging behind and need the attention of policymakers.

Gender equality is one of the areas which need attention, as a factor which can contribute to sustaining and accelerating economic growth and development. Increased gender equality allows women to have better education and access to markets, including the labour market. This leads to higher labour force participation by women (including entrepreneurship). Women receive a higher income, thus reducing the current level of poverty and fostering economic growth. Higher savings rates, higher productivity and improved education for children translate into higher economic growth and lower poverty in the future.

Thus gender equality and empowerment of women are not only important for reasons of fairness but are also essential to economic growth and poverty reduction. Increased gender equality contributes to attaining the MDGs directly (Goal 3 “Gender equality”) and indirectly (all other goals through higher economic growth). This paper therefore argues that gender equality should be viewed also as an economic issue and should be a critical component of any economic strategy.

Following an economic approach to gender equality, this stocktaking study analysed gender equality by looking at the existing literature describing the current situation related to gender equality in the economic area and the issues of measurement and data availability. Government responses were reviewed focusing on whether and how gender disparities have been addressed in National Development Strategies.

- Key concerns which need urgent attention in all CCA countries, are:
  - Feminization of poverty;
  - Inequalities in access to finance, land and assets;
  - De facto inequalities in access to employment, including self-employment;
  - Mismatch between level of education and position in the labour market, gender wage gap;
  - Little attention to gender aspects of welfare reforms, including pensions.
- These areas are often difficult to measure due to the lack of data and/or its low quality. Even when data is available (“tier 1 indicators” in the second part of the study), national statistical offices often do not regularly produce and disseminate gender-disaggregated statistics.

**More work is needed on identifying data and MDG-related indicators, its improvement, collection and dissemination. There is a need for a full assessment of data to measure the gender gap in the economy.**

- National Development Strategies are a good entry point for closing gender gaps. They already include some gender aspects, however this inclusion often remains at the level of general acknowledgement where gender equality is seen as a social issue. There are also few concrete commitments related to gender aspects in economic policies. This can be seen in the policy matrices of NDSs which contain few gender disaggregated targets and indicators.

**There is thus a need for further policy-oriented research to ensure that a gender perspective is present in all aspects of economic policies and associated with specific measures to close the existing gender gaps in economic opportunities.**

- It is important to raise government awareness on the necessity of including MDG-related targets and indicators in NDSs as well as taking a gender perspective in economic policies and national budgets. Revisions of NDSs/PRSPs are a good opportunity to provide assistance to government in this process. International organizations and United Nations Country Teams have already undertaken steps to support governments in that direction.

**However, more targeted efforts of international organizations, including the UNCT, are needed to support governments in mainstreaming gender into their economic policies.**

## **ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS**

ADB	Asian Development Bank
BFPA	Beijing Platform for Action
CCA	Caucasus and Central Asia
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
GDP	Gross domestic product
GRB	Gender responsive budgeting
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
ILO	International Labour Organization
NDS	National Development Strategy
NGO	Non-governmental organization
OSCE	Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers
SME	Small and medium-sized enterprise
SPECA	United Nations Special Programme for the Economies of Central Asia
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNESCAP	United Nations Economic and Social Council for Asia and the Pacific
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women

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## ANNEX

TABLE 1. Demographic trends

	Sex ratio of population aged over 80 <sup>a</sup>				Total fertility rate <sup>b</sup>				Share of female one-parent families <sup>c</sup>			
	1990	1995	2000	2004	1990	1995	2000	2004	1990	1995	2000	2004
<b>Western Europe</b>												
<b>EU-15</b>												
Austria .....	251	254	262	255	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.4	86.7	87.5	87.1	..
Belgium .....	236	236	232	211	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	79.8	..	76.1	74.7 <sup>e</sup>
Denmark .....	205	204	203	197	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	86.2	87.4	87.1	86.8 <sup>e</sup>
Finland .....	265	264	268	254	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.8	85.9	85.5	84.6	84.1
France .....	225	221	220	204	1.8	1.7	1.9	1.9	84.7	85.6	85.4	85.9 <sup>e</sup>
Germany .....	257	271	279	262	1.5	1.2	1.4	1.4	84.1	83.6	82.0	80.8 <sup>f</sup>
Greece .....	141	144	146	137	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	..	..	..	..
Ireland .....	183	184	190	187	2.1	1.8	1.9	2	83.1	83.9	86.9	87.3 <sup>d</sup>
Italy .....	199	196	205	203	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3	..	77.7	85.0	86.0 <sup>f</sup>
Luxembourg .....	239	239	246	251	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.7	80.0	..	..	77.7 <sup>e</sup>
Netherlands .....	225	232	229	216	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	83.4	84.5	84.8	84.0 <sup>d</sup>
Portugal .....	200	193	187	181	1.6	1.4	1.5	1.4	..	..	..	..
Spain .....	191	195	196	188	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.3	88.0	..	87.0	85.7 <sup>f</sup>
Sweden .....	187	187	185	178	2.1	1.7	1.6	1.8	85.2	..	83.4	82.9 <sup>e</sup>
United Kingdom .....	242	229	212	194	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.7	..	..	..	..
<b>New EU-12</b>												
Bulgaria .....	151	152	159	170	1.8	1.2	1.3	1.3	82.4	..	..	82.8 <sup>e</sup>
Cyprus .....	132	136	140	143	2.4	2.1	1.8	1.5	..	..	..	..
Czech Republic .....	240	236	236	230	1.9	1.3	1.1	1.2	83.2	..	..	84.6 <sup>e</sup>
Estonia .....	324	323	327	337	2.0	1.3	1.4	1.5	..	..	90.4	..
Hungary .....	215	221	229	229	1.8	1.6	1.3	1.3	..	..	..	..
Latvia .....	277	310	329	356	2.0	1.3	1.2	1.2	..	..	89.7	..
Lithuania .....	203	244	264	281	2.0	1.5	1.3	1.3	..	..	..	92.9 <sup>e</sup>
Malta .....	..	170	169	169	2.0	1.8	1.7	1.4	..	..	..	..
Poland .....	227	232	238	242	2.0	1.6	1.3	1.2	91.2	91.1	..	..
Romania .....	150	169	182	185	1.8	1.3	1.3	1.3	82.6	..	..	..
Slovakia .....	196	202	207	217	2.1	1.5	1.3	1.2	83.5	..	..	..
Slovenia .....	239	243	264	283	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.2	85.8	..	..	86.0 <sup>f</sup>
<b>Other Developed Countries</b>												
Canada .....	192	193	194	186	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.5 <sup>d</sup>	..	..	..	..
Iceland .....	157	161	159	155	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.0	92.9	93.6	92.2	..
Israel .....	121	141	149	152	3.0	2.9	3.0	2.9	..	..	90.7	..
Norway .....	199	201	201	195	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.8	..	..	..	..
Switzerland .....	215	214	207	199	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4	83.9	..	85.1	..
United States .....	215	207	199	187	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.0	85.1	84.1	80.9	..
<b>South and Eastern European Countries</b>												
Albania .....	184	186	189	163	3.0	2.5	2.0	1.8	..	..	..	80.2 <sup>e</sup>
Bosnia and Herzegovina .....	153	179	192	192 <sup>f</sup>	1.7	..	1.3	1.2	81.5	..	..	..
Croatia .....	217	..	..	254 <sup>f</sup>	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.4	82.6	..	..	83.0 <sup>e</sup>
Serbia and Montenegro .....	144	137	136	174 <sup>d</sup>	2.1	1.9	1.6	1.6	76.9	..	..	..
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia .....	..	122	135	141	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.5	..	..	..	79.4 <sup>f</sup>
Turkey .....	154	..	154	..	3.1	2.8	2.3	2.2	..	..	..	..
<b>European CIS countries</b>												
Belarus .....	290	332	350	351	1.9	1.4	1.3	1.2	..	..	..	..
Republic of Moldova .....	220	222	219	221	2.4	1.8	1.3	1.3	90.0	91.5	89.6	91.3 <sup>e</sup>
Russian Federation .....	419	397	388	414	1.9	1.3	1.2	1.3	..	..	..	..
Ukraine .....	307	325	328	349	1.9	1.4	1.1	1.2	..	..	..	..
<b>Caucasian CIS countries</b>												
Armenia .....	181	177	174	250	2.6	1.6	1.3	1.4	..	..	..	..
Azerbaijan .....	248	265	281	236	2.8	2.3	2.0	2.0	..	..	..	..
Georgia .....	234	265	297	271 <sup>d</sup>	2.2	1.4	1.5	1.4	..	..	..	..
<b>Central Asian countries</b>												
Kazakhstan .....	..	..	..	328	2.7	2.3	1.8	2.2	..	..	..	..
Kyrgyzstan .....	246	294	273	252 <sup>d</sup>	3.6	3.1	2.4	2.6	..	..	89.7	..
Tajikistan .....	..	..	..	..	5.1	4.2	3.7	..	..	..	..	..
Turkmenistan .....	..	..	..	..	4.0	3.6	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uzbekistan .....	..	..	..	..	3.8	3.4	..	..	..	..	..	..

Source: UNECE Gender Statistics Database, <http://www.unecce.org/stats/data.htm>

<sup>a</sup> Sex ratio is defined as the number of women per 100 men.

- b* The total fertility rate is defined as the average number of children that would be born alive to a woman during her lifetime.
- c* One-parent families are families composed by a lone parent with one or more children. *d* 2003. *e* 2001. *f* 2002.

## Mainstreaming Gender into Economic Policies to Reach the Millennium Development Goals in Central Asia

TABLE 2. Gender and Employment

	Share of women in labour force (Age 15+)		Economic activity rate <sup>a</sup>				Share of women in employment as percent of all employed in each sector of activity						Gender pay gap <sup>b</sup>	
	1995	2005	Female		Male		Agriculture		Industry		Services		1995	2005
			1995	2005	1995	2005	1995	2005	1995	2005	1995	2005		
<b>Western Europe</b>														
<b>EU-15</b>														
Austria .....	43.5	45.4	49.4	51.5	70.5	67.5	48.8	45.6	21.9	21.2	52.5	55.1	22.0	18.0
Belgium .....	41.4	44.2	40.5	45.6	61.2	60.5	31.1	31.5	19.2	20.1	48.9	51.9	12.0	7.0
Denmark .....	45.5	46.8	57.5	59.7	72.1	71.2	25.4	23.4	24.8	24.2	53.7	55.0	15.0	18.0
Finland .....	47.9	48.4	56.3	58.1	66.4	66.6	34.1	29.4	25.0	23.0	59.2	58.9	..	19.0 <sup>c</sup>
France .....	45.1	46.7	48.2	50.2	63.4	62.4	34.0	29.1	30.0	23.1	51.7	54.9	13.0	12.0
Germany .....	42.9	44.9	47.7	50.8	68.6	66.2	40.4	33.0	23.7	24.3	53.3	54.7	21.0	22.0
Greece .....	38.2	40.7	35.5	42.3	64.4	64.8	42.1	42.6	21.6	17.1	39.6	48.4	17.0	9.0
Ireland .....	37.6	42.3	39.9	51.4	68.4	71.8	11.3	9.3	23.5	18.3	49.4	55.4	20.0	9.0
Italy .....	37.0	40.1	33.9	37.9	62.3	61.4	34.6	30.5	23.6	22.2	41.5	47.7	8.0	9.0
Luxembourg .....	35.9	42.4	35.7	46.3	66.4	65.1	..	..	12.2	15.2	44.7	47.8	19.0	14.0
Netherlands .....	41.3	44.9	48.3	57.5	70.4	72.8	24.2	29.1	17.0	18.5	48.1	52.4	23.0	18.0
Portugal .....	44.8	46.6	49.5	55.5	67.8	69.4	48.7	50.2	31.5	28.0	50.6	54.7	5.0	9.0
Spain .....	38.0	41.3	36.8	46.0	64.2	67.8	27.1	26.9	15.8	16.7	44.3	51.7	13.0	13.0
Sweden .....	47.7	47.5	66.2	59.8	72.0	68.4	25.3	21.4	22.0	20.1	58.9	56.4	15.0	16.0
United Kingdom .....	43.8	46.2	52.5	55.2	71.2	68.8	26.7	24.8	22.9	19.8	53.8	54.6	26.0	20.0
<b>New EU-12</b>														
Bulgaria .....	47.3	46.5	47.9	44.8	56.8	55.8	40.2	35.7	39.5	39.3	53.6	52.7	..	16.0
Cyprus .....	38.6	43.8	..	53.5	72.5 <sup>d</sup>	74.2	..	31.8	..	19.1	..	52.2	29.0	25.0
Czech Republic .....	44.2	44.1	52.3	50.5	71.4	68.5	36.5	30.7	32.3	29.0	54.3	54.0	..	19.0
Estonia .....	47.8	50.1	53.6	53.3	71.3	65.7	36.7	33.6	37.5	36.0	57.1	60.3	27.0	25.0
Hungary .....	44.2	45.9	40.3	43.0	57.1	58.1	25.7	24.9	33.7	29.9	52.6	55.6	22.0	11.0
Latvia .....	47.4	48.3	..	51.1	65.0 <sup>d</sup>	65.6	37.7	33.3	35.3	30.9	56.9	58.8	..	17.0
Lithuania .....	47.2	49.1	55.1	51.1	72.0	63.4	40.9	39.7	35.6	35.1	56.3	58.6	27.0	15.0
Malta .....	26.4	31.5	..	30.7	70.4 <sup>d</sup>	69.4	..	..	..	17.4	..	37.4	..	4.0
Poland .....	45.9	45.4	51.1	47.2	66.5	62.4	45.0	42.8	29.7	26.2	56.4	55.4	..	10.0
Romania .....	46.3	45.0	60.4	48.1	74.4	62.7	52.7	46.4	36.1	36.9	47.2	51.3	21.0	13.0
Slovakia .....	44.8	44.9	51.2	51.1	68.5	68.0	30.8	24.5	32.7	28.9	55.7	56.7	..	24.0
Slovenia .....	46.2	45.9	52.1	52.5	65.8	65.3	47.8	45.9	36.2	31.3	55.6	55.7	14.0	8.0
<b>Other Developed Countries</b>														
Canada .....	45.3	46.7	57.4	61.8	72.1	72.8	26.5	..	22.8	..	53.1	..	27.3	29.4 <sup>e</sup>
Iceland .....	46.9	46.9	77.5	78.3	87.0	87.5	21.5	19.0	27.4	23.2	57.6	56.1	47.2 <sup>d</sup>	44.2 <sup>e</sup>
Israel .....	43.5	46.5	45.6	50.0	62.1	60.7	17.9	20.0 <sup>e</sup>	22.0	22.4 <sup>e</sup>	52.1	53.7 <sup>e</sup>	37.8 <sup>e</sup>	36.7 <sup>c</sup>
Norway .....	46.5	47.1	64.5	68.5	74.3	76.0	26.4	22.9	20.3	18.2	55.4	56.3	14.5 <sup>d</sup>	13.3
Switzerland .....	..	45.7	..	59.3	77.8 <sup>d</sup>	75.1	35.7	33.1	23.3	22.2	51.2	53.1	23.9	20.7 <sup>f</sup>
United States .....	46.1	46.4	57.2	59.3	72.2	73.3	25.4	..	25.1	..	53.9	..	27.2	21.4 <sup>c</sup>
<b>South and Eastern European Countries</b>														
Albania .....	40.8	..	..	..	..	74.8 <sup>g</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..	31.1 <sup>d</sup>	34.6 <sup>c</sup>
Bosnia and Herzegovina .....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Croatia .....	..	45.6 <sup>f</sup>	..	43.2	62.1 <sup>g</sup>	57.5	48.5	49.8	33.1	28.0	51.6	53.3	10.5 <sup>g</sup>	10.7 <sup>c</sup>
Serbia and Montenegro .....	43.9	..	47.5	..	62.9	51.8 <sup>g</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2.1 <sup>e</sup>
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia .....	39.1	..	..	..	..	64.4 <sup>d</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..	17.5 <sup>d</sup>	17.5 <sup>f</sup>
Turkey .....	30.0	25.9	31.9	24.8	76.5	72.2	46.7	..	12.6	..	15.7	..	..	..
<b>European CIS countries</b>														
Belarus .....	52.5	53.1	54.9	45.3	59.0	45.5	36.4	..	46.3	..	65.2	..	20.9	20.9
Republic of Moldova .....	..	51.5	..	47.5	63.9 <sup>d</sup>	50.2	..	51.8	..	37.6	..	58.2	28.1 <sup>e</sup>	28.7 <sup>c</sup>
Russian Federation .....	46.7	49.2	48.4	47.2	63.3	56.3	..	38.8	..	35.2	..	58.1	..	35.5 <sup>e</sup>
Ukraine .....	49.9	48.5	57.1	57.0	69.1	67.9	..	45.1 <sup>c</sup>	..	39.7 <sup>c</sup>	..	56.5 <sup>c</sup>	19.9	29.1
<b>Caucasian CIS countries</b>														
Armenia .....	44.1	..	36.2	..	51.3	54.8 <sup>d</sup>	26.0	..	44.4	..	55.1	..	51.9	44.3
Azerbaijan .....	46.4	47.7	..	43.5	49.5 <sup>d</sup>	49.2	..	45.2	..	34.2	..	52.9	..	..
Georgia .....	..	46.9	..	55.9	74.7 <sup>d</sup>	73.5	..	50.0	..	22.4	..	50.2	38.7 <sup>d</sup>	50.9
<b>Central Asian countries</b>														
Kazakhstan .....	..	..	..	64.8 <sup>c</sup>	76.0 <sup>f</sup>	75.6	..	46.0 <sup>c</sup>	..	28.8 <sup>c</sup>	..	56.6 <sup>c</sup>	38.5 <sup>d</sup>	38.1 <sup>c</sup>
Kyrgyzstan .....	..	..	..	53.5 <sup>c</sup>	68.6 <sup>d</sup>	74.4 <sup>c</sup>	45.9	42.5 <sup>c</sup>	37.1	26.5 <sup>c</sup>	48.6	49.5 <sup>c</sup>	26.7	33.4 <sup>c</sup>
Tajikistan .....	46.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	35.2	56.8 <sup>d</sup>
Turkmenistan .....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uzbekistan .....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Source: UNECE Gender Statistics Database and Eurostat.

<sup>a</sup> Economic activity rate is defined as the ratio of labour force (employed + unemployed) to the population aged 15+, expressed in percentage.

<sup>b</sup> Gender pay gap is the difference between average gross earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees as a percentage of average gross earnings of male paid employees. There are differences among countries in the earnings considered: data for EU –27 countries relate to the hourly gross earnings, data for other countries relate to monthly gross earnings. Furthermore, the definition of “paid employees” differs across countries. As a result, gender pay gap figures are not fully comparable across countries. <sup>c</sup> 2004. <sup>d</sup> 2000. <sup>e</sup> 2003. <sup>f</sup> 2002. <sup>g</sup> 2001.



TABLE 2 (continued). Gender and Employment

	Share of women in employment as percent of all employed in selected occupational areas (by ILO/ISCO)						Share of women in employment as percent of all employed in each sector				Part-time employment as per cent of employed of the corresponding gender				Share of women in self-employment as per cent of all self-employed	
	Legislators, senior officials, managers		Professionals (eg. teachers, engineers,)		Clerk (eg. secretaries, cashiers)		Private		Public		1995		2005 <sup>a</sup>		Employers	Own-account workers
	1995	2005	1995	2005	1995	2005	1995	2001	1995	2001	Female	Male	Female	Male		
<b>Western Europe</b>																
<b>EU-15</b>																
Austria	24	27	47	46	66	70	42	42 <sup>b</sup>	43	47 <sup>b</sup>	27	4	38	5	21	27
Belgium	..	..	52	54	58	63	38	39	47	52	30	3	41	7	22	32
Denmark	19	24	37	43	73	73	..	..	..	..	35	10	34	12	17	29
Finland	..	30	..	50	..	80	40	39	67	70	..	..	..	..	25	35
France	36	37	37	43	77	76	40	41	58	59	..	..	..	..	22	31
Germany	26	28 <sup>c</sup>	36	38 <sup>c</sup>	67	68 <sup>c</sup>	..	..	..	..	34	4	42	7	24	35
Greece	22	26	45	48	55	58	35	37	38	41	8	3	8 <sup>e</sup>	2 <sup>c</sup>	19	29
Ireland	28	30	52	55	70	74	..	..	..	..	23	6	32	6	18	15
Italy	16	32	55	45	52	60	..	..	..	..	13	3	25	5	21	31
Luxembourg	25	23	35	42	52	56	..	..	..	..	21	1	36	3	20	..
Netherlands	20	26	40	46	65	69	..	..	..	..	67	17	75	22	23	..
Portugal	30	34	52	57	59	63	..	..	..	..	12	4	16	7	26	47
Spain	31	32	49	51	53	64	..	..	..	..	17	3	18	3	24	32
Sweden	..	32	..	51	..	71	37	38	73	74	42	11	36	12	20	28
United Kingdom	34	35	46	44	74	79	40	40	59	62	44	8	44	10	25	28
<b>New EU-12</b>																
Bulgaria	29	34	60	65	76	71	40	45	50	52	1	1	3	2	28	35
Cyprus	..	14	..	51	..	76	..	..	..	..	15 <sup>b</sup>	5 <sup>b</sup>	13	5	12	31
Czech Republic	27	27 <sup>c</sup>	52	50 <sup>c</sup>	82	79 <sup>c</sup>	40	40 <sup>b</sup>	56	62 <sup>b</sup>	10	3	9 <sup>c</sup>	2 <sup>c</sup>	23	27
Estonia	37	37	62	67	86	68	44	44	55	61	10	6	11	5	36 <sup>c</sup>	33 <sup>c</sup>
Hungary	34	35	55	58	92	77	..	..	..	..	4	2	6	3	..	..
Latvia	38	42	71	66	82	77	41	45	54	59	12	12	13	8	34	43
Lithuania	36	43	70	66	87	76	43	43	56	65	12	9	10	7	29	..
Malta	..	20	..	43	..	57	..	..	..	..	14 <sup>b</sup>	3 <sup>b</sup>	19	4	..	22
Poland	35	33	64	65	77	68	42	41 <sup>b</sup>	48	52 <sup>b</sup>	13	8	14	8	31	36
Romania	28	29	46	52	75	72	39	43 <sup>b</sup>	54	49 <sup>b</sup>	19	10	11	10	25	29
Slovakia	27	31	60	58	79	71	34	35 <sup>b</sup>	53	57 <sup>b</sup>	4	1	4	1	25	24
Slovenia	27	34	57	60	71	64	45	41	50	56	7	5	11	8	27	26
<b>Other Developed Countries</b>																
Canada	35	34 <sup>d</sup>	53	52 <sup>d</sup>	79	77 <sup>d</sup>	45	45	56	60	29	11	28 <sup>d</sup>	11 <sup>d</sup>	..	..
Iceland	28	27	51	54	81	87	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	24	23
Israel	20	29 <sup>c</sup>	46	48 <sup>c</sup>	73	75 <sup>c</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	15 <sup>d</sup>	30 <sup>d</sup>
Norway	..	31	..	44	..	65	..	37	..	67	48	10	45	15	29	..
Switzerland	24	28	29	35	64	71	..	..	..	..	53	8	59	12	23	44
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	45	45	55	57	27	11	25 <sup>e</sup>	11 <sup>e</sup>	38 <sup>e</sup>	..
<b>South and Eastern European Countries</b>																
Albania	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	40	..	42	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Croatia	23	24	56	57	70	75	..	44	..	46	11 <sup>b</sup>	7 <sup>b</sup>	11	6	26	44
Serbia and Montenegro	..	..	..	..	..	..	46	41	41	42	2	1	1 <sup>e</sup>	1 <sup>e</sup>	..	..
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	27 <sup>c</sup>	..	52 <sup>c</sup>	..	50 <sup>c</sup>	..	43	..	38	..	..	..	..	23 <sup>e</sup>	21 <sup>e</sup>
Turkey	..	7 <sup>d</sup>	..	33 <sup>d</sup>	..	37 <sup>d</sup>	..	..	..	..	13	4	13 <sup>d</sup>	4 <sup>d</sup>	5 <sup>d</sup>	15 <sup>d</sup>
<b>European CIS countries</b>																
Belarus	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	20 <sup>b</sup>	37 <sup>b</sup>
Republic of Moldova	..	39	..	63	..	85	..	49	..	58	3 <sup>b</sup>	1 <sup>b</sup>	2 <sup>e</sup>	1 <sup>e</sup>	34 <sup>c</sup>	48 <sup>c</sup>
Russian Federation	38	39	61	62	90	90	..	..	..	..	9.5 <sup>b</sup>	5 <sup>b</sup>	6 <sup>e</sup>	2 <sup>e</sup>	33 <sup>e</sup>	48 <sup>e</sup>
Ukraine	..	38	..	66	..	82	..	47	..	49	3.5 <sup>b</sup>	2 <sup>b</sup>	2 <sup>d</sup>	1 <sup>d</sup>	28 <sup>d</sup>	51 <sup>d</sup>
<b>Caucasian CIS countries</b>																
Armenia	19	..	30	..	67	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	27 <sup>f</sup>	21 <sup>f</sup>
Azerbaijan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Georgia	..	26	..	62	..	72	..	48	..	53	..	..	..	..	17 <sup>d</sup>	35 <sup>d</sup>
<b>Central Asian countries</b>																
Kazakhstan	..	38 <sup>a</sup>	..	68 <sup>a</sup>	..	76 <sup>a</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kyrgyzstan	..	25 <sup>a</sup>	..	58 <sup>a</sup>	..	75 <sup>a</sup>	43	43 <sup>b</sup>	53	50 <sup>b</sup>	..	..	..	..	18 <sup>b</sup>	45 <sup>b</sup>
Tajikistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

## Mainstreaming Gender into Economic Policies to Reach the Millennium Development Goals in Central Asia

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Turkmenistan .....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uzbekistan .....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

*Source:* UNECE Gender Statistics Database. *a* 2004. *b* 2000. *c* 2003. *d* 2002. *e* 2001. *f* 1995.

## Mainstreaming Gender into Economic Policies to Reach the Millennium Development Goals in Central Asia

TABLE 3. Unemployment rates disaggregated by sex

	Unemployment rate								Long-term unemployment rate (age 15+)			
	Total (age 15+)				Youth (age 15-24)				1995		2005	
	1995		2005		1995		2005		1995		2005	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
<b>Western Europe</b>												
<b>EU-15</b>												
Austria .....	4.9	3.9	5.4	4.9	6.8	4.5	10.3	10.4	29.9	24.0	24.9	25.7
Belgium .....	12.2	7.3	9.5	7.6	25.6	20.5	22.1	21.0	61.0	58.9	52.8	50.7
Denmark .....	8.6	5.6	5.3	4.4	11.3	8.2	8.6	8.6	27.7	31.3	22.8	24.1
Finland .....	16.2	17.8	9.9 <sup>a</sup>	11.0 <sup>a</sup>	28.6	30.7	19.5	20.6	29.3	34.5	22.6	29.0
France .....	13.8	9.7	10.1	8.2	30.7	23.5	25.4	21.9	40.6	38.0	42.2	40.1
Germany .....	9.6	7.1	10.9	11.4	19.0	10.9	14.3	15.6	51.1	45.3	53.0	53.0
Greece .....	13.8	6.2	15.3	6.1	38.3	19.8	34.8	18.7	57.6	40.9	57.9	42.3
Ireland .....	12.1	11.9	4.0	4.6	17.9	20.8	8.0	9.1	53.3	66.9	21.0	41.3
Italy .....	16.1	9.1	10.0	6.2	35.6	26.1	27.4	21.5	65.0	61.7	51.9	47.7
Luxembourg .....	4.4	2.1	5.8	3.5	7.8	6.6	16.4	11.8	22.1	27.6	20.5	33.8
Netherlands .....	8.7	6.1	5.1	4.4	12.1	10.7	8.4	8.0	41.8	53.4	37.0	43.2
Portugal .....	7.8	6.5	8.7	6.7	18.4	15.0	19.1	13.6	38.7	50.5	48.8	47.4
Spain .....	30.5	17.9	12.2	7.0	47.9	33.2	23.5	16.7	66.4	44.5	27.9	20.5
Sweden .....	7.9	9.8	7.4	7.6	17.7	20.4	22.1	23.0	12.7	36.6	12.1	17.1
United Kingdom .....	6.9	10.1	4.3	5.1	12.8	17.5	11.3	14.5	30.2	48.1	15.2	25.2
<b>New EU-12</b>												
Bulgaria .....	15.8	15.5	11.5 <sup>b</sup>	12.5 <sup>b</sup>	..	..	21.1	23.3	68.6	63.2	61.1	58.8
Cyprus .....	3.7	1.9	6.5	4.4	..	..	14.2	12.0	..	..	27.0	19.3
Czech Republic .....	4.8	3.4	9.9 <sup>a</sup>	6.2 <sup>a</sup>	..	..	19.1	19.3	1.4	0.9	50.6 <sup>a</sup>	46.4 <sup>a</sup>
Estonia .....	8.9	10.5	7.1	8.8	..	..	14.9	16.6	26.7	35.6	59.9	48.2
Hungary .....	..	..	7.4	7.0	..	..	19.0	19.6	50.8	57.4	43.4	46.6
Latvia .....	19.8	11.0	8.8	9.0	..	..	16.2	11.8	58.3	58.4	42.8	48.8
Lithuania .....	13.9	14.2	8.4	8.2	..	..	15.3	16.0	..	..	53.6	51.3
Malta .....	..	..	8.8	6.6	..	..	16.0	16.9	..	..	36.0	52.8
Poland .....	14.7	12.1	19.1	16.6	..	..	38.3	35.7	43.7	36.3	59.3	56.1
Romania .....	8.6	7.5	6.4	7.8	..	..	25.5	25.9	47.9	46.2	52.3	59.0
Slovakia .....	13.8	12.6	17.2	15.5	..	..	28.8	31.0	55.2	51.4	71.5	72.3
Slovenia .....	7.0	7.7	7.0	6.0	..	..	17.8	14.5	48.7	56.7	46.3	48.4
<b>Other Developed Countries</b>												
Canada .....	9.0	9.8	7.2 <sup>a</sup>	8.0 <sup>a</sup>	..	..	10.6	14.2	14.2	17.8	7.7 <sup>c</sup>	10.0 <sup>c</sup>
Iceland .....	4.9	4.8	2.6 <sup>d</sup>	3.3 <sup>d</sup>	9.1	13.1	6.0	8.5	11.0	9.7	12.1 <sup>b</sup>	7.1 <sup>b</sup>
Israel .....	..	..	11.3 <sup>a</sup>	10.2 <sup>a</sup>	16.9	12.9	16.8 <sup>e</sup>	17.1 <sup>e</sup>	..	..	..	..
Norway .....	6.3	6.3	4.2	4.6	11.4	12.0	11.0	12.2	20.0	25.0	17.5	19.7
Switzerland .....	3.9	2.9	5.1	3.9	..	..	8.7 <sup>a</sup>	8.5 <sup>a</sup>	30.8	18.9	31.5 <sup>a</sup>	21.0 <sup>a</sup>
United States .....	5.6	5.6	5.7 <sup>a</sup>	6.3 <sup>a</sup>	11.6	12.5	10.1	12.4	8.1	11.0	11.4 <sup>b</sup>	13.7 <sup>b</sup>
<b>South and Eastern European Countries</b>												
Albania .....	14.8	11.6	17.5 <sup>b</sup>	12.4 <sup>b</sup>	..	..	..	..	74.7	71.0	91.3 <sup>c</sup>	91.3 <sup>c</sup>
Bosnia and Herzegovina .....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Croatia .....	..	..	13.8	11.6	..	..	35.5	30.4	..	..	57.4 <sup>b</sup>	50.0 <sup>b</sup>
Serbia and Montenegro .....	16.1	11.3	16.4 <sup>a</sup>	14.4 <sup>a</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia .....	..	..	37.8 <sup>b</sup>	36.7 <sup>b</sup>	..	..	62.2	62.9	..	..	..	..
Turkey .....	7.3	7.6	9.7 <sup>b</sup>	10.5 <sup>b</sup>	11.6	18.1	19.3	19.3	47.2	32.5	46.0 <sup>b</sup>	37.1 <sup>b</sup>
<b>European CIS countries</b>												
Belarus .....	3.5	2.2	2.0	1.0	..	..	..	..	17.9	11.7	15.4 <sup>c</sup>	6.7 <sup>c</sup>
Republic of Moldova .....	..	..	6.0	8.7	..	..	18.3	19.1	..	..	44.7 <sup>b</sup>	44.9 <sup>b</sup>
Russian Federation .....	9.2	9.7	7.0	7.3	..	..	17.2	14.5	..	..	41.1 <sup>c</sup>	36.2 <sup>c</sup>
Ukraine .....	4.9	6.3	6.8	7.5	..	..	14.4	15.2	..	..	..	..
<b>Caucasian CIS countries</b>												
Armenia .....	15.2	4.7	12.0	4.6	..	..	59.2	51.4	53.2	57.0	79.4 <sup>c</sup>	75.5 <sup>c</sup>
Azerbaijan .....	1.0	0.6	1.6	1.3	..	..	25.7 <sup>a</sup>	19.0 <sup>a</sup>	..	..	..	..
Georgia .....	..	..	12.6	14.8	..	..	30.7	26.8	..	..	..	..
<b>Central Asian countries</b>												
Kazakhstan .....	..	..	9.6	6.7	..	..	14.5	12.5	..	..	..	..
Kyrgyzstan .....	..	..	9.1	7.4	..	..	16.3	13.4	10.0	8.5	29.7 <sup>c</sup>	27.4 <sup>c</sup>
Tajikistan .....	..	..	9.6 <sup>e</sup>	9.0 <sup>e</sup>	..	..	10.7 <sup>b</sup>	9.5 <sup>b</sup>	..	..	..	..
Turkmenistan .....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uzbekistan .....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Source: UNECE Gender Statistics Database, <http://www.unece.org/stats/data.htm>

a 2003. b 2004. c 2001. d 2002. e 2000.

TABLE 4. Gender and Education  
 (Female as Percent of total for both sexes in the respective column)

	Tertiary students by field of study (by UNESCO/SCED 1997)											
	Upper and post secondary pupils		Students in total tertiary education		Science		Health and welfare		Social sciences, business and law		Engineering, manufacturing, construction	
	2000-2001	2003-2004	2000-2001	2003-2004	2000-2001	2003-2004	2000-2001	2003-2004	2000-2001	2003-2004	2000-2001	2003-2004
<b>Western Europe</b>												
<b>EU-15</b>												
Austria .....	48.1	48.6	50.4	53.3	33.3	34.6	62.8	67.6	51.6	54.9	18.7	20.6
Belgium .....	51.6	48.8	52.8	53.8	30.8	28.5	71.7	73.1	52.5	53.9	18.5	22.8
Denmark .....	50.9	50.2	56.5	57.9	33.2	31.8	80.4	81.3	47.1	51.1	26.2	33.6
Finland .....	52.8	51.0	53.9	53.4	41.8	41.3	83.6	83.9	62.5	63.3	18.2	18.5
France .....	49.5	49.7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Germany .....	47.5	47.5	48.7	49.4	32.6	33.8	71.7	73.0	45.2	47.7	18.8	18.9
Greece .....	50.5	49.2	51.2 <sup>a</sup>	51.7	37.2 <sup>a</sup>	37.9	72.0 <sup>a</sup>	74.5	54.1 <sup>a</sup>	54.0	27.0 <sup>a</sup>	28.1
Ireland .....	52.9	47.1	54.7	55.2	45.1	41.2	76.3	78.6	60.2	58.4	18.7	16.7
Italy .....	49.2	49.0	56.0	56.2	49.6	48.7	62.9	64.8	56.7	56.6	26.5	27.2
Luxembourg .....	50.8	50.5 <sup>b</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Netherlands .....	48.6	49.2	50.5	50.9	23.4	19.6	75.1	74.5	46.3	46.7	11.9	13.5
Portugal .....	51.7	53.0	57.0	56.1	49.9	49.2	75.8	76.6	60.0	59.8	27.8	26.7
Spain .....	52.4	52.4	52.5	53.8	37.2	35.9	73.4	76.2	57.4	59.2	25.5	27.7
Sweden .....	57.2	50.3	59.1	59.5	45.4	41.9	80.6	81.2	61.2	61.1	29.3	28.2
United Kingdom .....	49.5	49.8	55.8	57.0	43.3	45.2	78.5	79.1	55.2	55.4	18.4	19.2
<b>New EU-12</b>												
Bulgaria .....	49.5	48.3	56.3	52.5	55.1	49.6	63.9	64.4	60.9	58.8	36.9	32.2
Cyprus .....	49.9	50.0	58.0	47.9	36.0	33.2	73.4	70.0	57.1	50.0	7.8	10.1
Czech Republic .....	51.1	50.2 <sup>b</sup>	49.0	51.7	35.3	35.4	72.6	74.9	55.6	59.1	20.3	20.3
Estonia .....	53.2	52.9	60.1	61.8	38.9	39.9	85.7	88.3	60.6	64.5	28.1	26.9
Hungary .....	50.2	48.6	54.8	57.3	31.7	33.7	74.3	77.1	60.4	63.9	20.1	18.6
Latvia .....	51.6	50.6	61.8	62.3	38.8	33.5	83.6	84.2	62.1	64.8	24.9	21.4
Lithuania .....	51.9	52.9	59.8	60.0	42.0	36.0	79.9	83.2	66.2	67.9	30.6	27.8
Malta .....	44.8	41.1	54.8	55.9	31.6	33.1	62.1	65.3	49.9	53.1	23.3	26.9
Poland .....	49.2	48.7	58.0	57.6	49.5	40.3	69.1	74.5	62.1	62.7	21.7	22.5
Romania .....	50.9	50.6	53.5	54.8	59.8	57.5	64.7	64.5	60.2	62.8	26.6	30.2
Slovakia .....	50.4	50.1	51.3	54.1	31.9	34.4	73.6	78.7	57.5	59.1	27.1	28.7
Slovenia .....	49.6	49.3	56.1	56.9	30.8	30.3	79.2	78.7	62.7	63.8	24.7	23.7
<b>Other Developed Countries</b>												
Canada .....	47.6	49.4 <sup>a</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Iceland .....	50.9	49.9	62.7	64.5	40.6	35.2	79.2	85.4	58.2	59.5	25.7	31.1
Israel .....	48.4	48.6	54.0	..	36.7	..	72.6	..	53.7	..	26.2	..
Norway .....	48.9	49.1	59.2	59.6	33.7	32.7	81.2	81.0	55.9	56.3	24.0	23.8
Switzerland .....	47.0	47.4	43.3 <sup>a</sup>	44.9	25.3 <sup>a</sup>	26.4	62.8 <sup>a</sup>	66.9	42.9 <sup>a</sup>	44.5	13.1 <sup>a</sup>	13.9
United States .....	50.7	51.2	55.9	57.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>South and Eastern European Countries</b>												
Albania .....	49.4	47.2	61.4	62.0	63.5	74.2	72.4	74.4	49.2	60.2	24.0	26.3
Bosnia and Herzegovina .....	49.8	49.5 <sup>b</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Croatia .....	50.3	50.2 <sup>b</sup>	52.5	53.7	42.3	45.6	70.6	73.3	65.4	63.6	24.9	24.9
Serbia and Montenegro .....	49.4	50.6 <sup>a</sup>	53.7	..	59.0	..	72.7	..	60.4	..	28.8	..
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia .....	47.9	47.9 <sup>b</sup>	55.8	57.0	57.5	53.0	69.9	74.0	61.5	61.2	28.5	31.6
Turkey .....	40.6	39.7	40.5	41.4	40.1	40.3	54.8	61.6	43.3	43.2	21.7	18.9
<b>European CIS countries</b>												
Belarus .....	48.3	46.9	56.3	56.8 <sup>a</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Republic of Moldova .....	52.1	52.6	56.5	56.8 <sup>b</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Russian Federation .....	49.9	49.2 <sup>b</sup>	55.8	55.8 <sup>b</sup>	51.8	52.5 <sup>b</sup>	78.3	77.8 <sup>b</sup>	66.7	65.8 <sup>b</sup>	22.0	24.9 <sup>b</sup>
Ukraine .....	48.6	48.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>Caucasian CIS countries</b>												
Armenia .....	58.5	56.0 <sup>b</sup>	54.5	53.7 <sup>b</sup>	..	..	49.4	40.6 <sup>b</sup>	45.8	47.2 <sup>b</sup>	30.4	26.9 <sup>b</sup>
Azerbaijan .....	50.6	50.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Georgia .....	51.3	52.1	48.9	48.8 <sup>b</sup>	66.9	69.8 <sup>b</sup>	73.3	72.0 <sup>b</sup>	36.3	38.5 <sup>b</sup>	24.4	31.3 <sup>b</sup>
<b>Central Asian countries</b>												
Kazakhstan .....	50.5	49.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kyrgyzstan .....	52.6	51.7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tajikistan .....	38.9	40.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Turkmenistan .....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..



TABLE 5. Public Life and Decision-Making

	Share of female members of national parliament, per cent		Government ministers				Senior level civil servants				Central bank board members			
	1995	2005	1995		2005 <sup>a</sup>		1995		2005		1995		2005	
			Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
<b>Western Europe</b>														
<b>EU-15</b>														
Austria .....	21.9	33.9	2	11	6	12	10 956	33 876	10 505 <sup>b</sup>	33 646 <sup>b</sup>	0 <sup>c</sup>	5 <sup>c</sup>	0	6
Belgium .....	12.7	34.7	..	..	5	16	..	..	..	..	2 <sup>c</sup>	6 <sup>c</sup>	2	6
Denmark .....	33.0	36.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1 <sup>c</sup>	2 <sup>c</sup>	1	2
Finland .....	33.5	37.5	7	11	8	10	656	2 191	685 <sup>b</sup>	1 903 <sup>b</sup>	1	4	1	3
France .....	5.9	12.2	..	..	6	26	381 <sup>b</sup>	2 807 <sup>b</sup>	409 <sup>d</sup>	2 860 <sup>d</sup>	1 <sup>c</sup>	6 <sup>c</sup>	1	6
Germany .....	30.8	32.8	3	15	6	10	5 388	64 382	10 274 <sup>e</sup>	55 032 <sup>e</sup>	0	17	0	8
Greece .....	6.3	14.0	..	..	3	16	..	..	..	..	0 <sup>c</sup>	6 <sup>c</sup>	1	12
Ireland .....	13.3	13.3	2	13	3 <sup>c</sup>	12 <sup>c</sup>	6	103	17 <sup>c</sup>	137 <sup>c</sup>	1	9	1	11
Italy .....	11.1	11.5	..	..	6	20	..	..	..	..	..	..	0	4
Luxembourg .....	16.7	23.3	3	9	2	12	..	..	..	..	0 <sup>c</sup>	3 <sup>c</sup>	1	8
Netherlands .....	32.7	36.7	4	10	5 <sup>c</sup>	10 <sup>c</sup>	28	942	70 <sup>c</sup>	563 <sup>c</sup>	0	4	0	5
Portugal .....	13.0	21.3	..	..	2	15	..	..	..	..	0 <sup>c</sup>	6 <sup>c</sup>	0	6
Spain .....	24.7	36.0	3	13	8	13	4	188	9 <sup>d</sup>	181 <sup>d</sup>	0 <sup>c</sup>	8 <sup>c</sup>	1	9
Sweden .....	40.4	45.3	..	..	9	13	..	..	..	..	3 <sup>c</sup>	3 <sup>c</sup>	3	3
United Kingdom .....	9.2	19.7	..	..	8	15	460	3 710	720 <sup>b</sup>	3 000 <sup>b</sup>	2	16	7	12
<b>New EU-12</b>														
Bulgaria .....	10.8	20.8	..	..	3	15	..	..	..	..	1 <sup>d</sup>	6 <sup>d</sup>	1	6
Cyprus .....	5.4	16.1	1	10	0 <sup>b</sup>	11 <sup>b</sup>	11	214	24 <sup>b</sup>	154 <sup>b</sup>	0	6	0	6
Czech Republic .....	10.3	17.0	0 <sup>b</sup>	17 <sup>b</sup>	2	13	..	..	..	..	0	7	1	6
Estonia .....	10.9	18.8	0	15	2	12	1 292 <sup>b</sup>	1 716 <sup>b</sup>	1 401 <sup>d</sup>	1 713 <sup>d</sup>	0	9	2	6
Hungary .....	11.1	9.1	..	..	2	10	..	..	..	..	0 <sup>c</sup>	7 <sup>c</sup>	0	4
Latvia .....	9.0	21.0	2	26	5	13	190 <sup>d</sup>	151 <sup>d</sup>	234 <sup>c</sup>	162 <sup>c</sup>	2	4	2	6
Lithuania .....	18.0	22.0	1	19	2	11	267	533	300 <sup>e</sup>	572 <sup>e</sup>	3 <sup>d</sup>	10 <sup>d</sup>	1	4
Malta .....	5.8	9.2	..	..	2	12	..	..	..	..	1 <sup>c</sup>	4 <sup>c</sup>	1	4
Poland .....	13.0	20.2	..	..	4	18	..	..	..	..	1 <sup>c</sup>	9 <sup>c</sup>	1	8
Romania .....	7.3	11.2	..	..	3	19	..	..	..	..	1 <sup>c</sup>	8 <sup>c</sup>	2	7
Slovakia .....	14.7	16.7	..	..	2	15	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Slovenia .....	13.3	12.2	2	16	1	15	550 <sup>d</sup>	602 <sup>d</sup>	524 <sup>c</sup>	593 <sup>c</sup>	0	11	0	9
<b>Other Developed Countries</b>														
Canada .....	20.6	21.1	..	..	4	21	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	5
Iceland .....	25.4	30.2	1	9	4	8	..	..	..	..	0	3	0	4
Israel .....	7.5	15.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0	3
Norway .....	39.4	38.2	8	11	9	10	..	..	169 <sup>b</sup>	813 <sup>b</sup>	2 <sup>b</sup>	5 <sup>b</sup>	3	4
Switzerland .....	21.5	25.0	1	6	3	4	..	..	1 920 <sup>b</sup>	7 148 <sup>b</sup>	0	3	0	3
United States .....	11.7	15.2	..	..	4	11	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	4
<b>South and Eastern European Countries</b>														
Albania .....	7.1	6.4	3 <sup>d</sup>	15 <sup>d</sup>	3 <sup>e</sup>	15 <sup>e</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	7
Bosnia and Herzegovina .....	28.6 <sup>b</sup>	16.7	1 <sup>b</sup>	5 <sup>b</sup>	2	15	..	..	..	..	0 <sup>b</sup>	4 <sup>b</sup>	1	4
Croatia .....	7.9	21.7	2	18	4	10	128 <sup>b</sup>	513 <sup>b</sup>	130 <sup>d</sup>	479 <sup>d</sup>	0	12	2	14
Serbia and Montenegro .....	6.5	7.9	4 <sup>e</sup>	15 <sup>e</sup>	2 <sup>f</sup>	15 <sup>f</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia .....	3.3	19.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Turkey .....	2.9	4.4	2	32	0 <sup>d</sup>	36 <sup>d</sup>	..	..	..	..	1 <sup>c</sup>	4 <sup>c</sup>	1	4
<b>European CIS countries</b>														
Belarus .....	4.5 <sup>b</sup>	29.4	..	..	1	24	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	10
Republic of Moldova .....	4.8	20.8	0	19	5	12	..	..	..	..	1	3	0	5
Russian Federation .....	10.2	9.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0	12
Ukraine .....	3.8	5.3	..	..	1 <sup>b</sup>	14 <sup>b</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	13
<b>Caucasian CIS countries</b>														
Armenia .....	6.3	5.3	0	26	1	16	..	..	..	..	0 <sup>b</sup>	6 <sup>b</sup>	2	5
Azerbaijan .....	12.0	10.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Georgia .....	6.0	9.4	2 <sup>f</sup>	16 <sup>f</sup>	3	15	2 <sup>f</sup>	26 <sup>f</sup>	..	..	..	..	1	8
<b>Central Asian countries</b>														
Kazakhstan .....	13.4	10.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	10
Kyrgyzstan .....	1.4	3.2	2 <sup>f</sup>	15 <sup>f</sup>	2 <sup>a</sup>	12 <sup>a</sup>	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tajikistan .....	2.8	17.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Turkmenistan .....	18.0	16.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uzbekistan .....	6.0	17.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

 Source: UNECE Gender Statistics Database, <http://www.unece.org/stats/data.htm> a 2006. b 2000. c 2003. d 2001. e 2002. f 2004.