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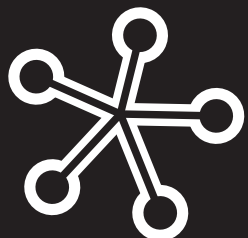
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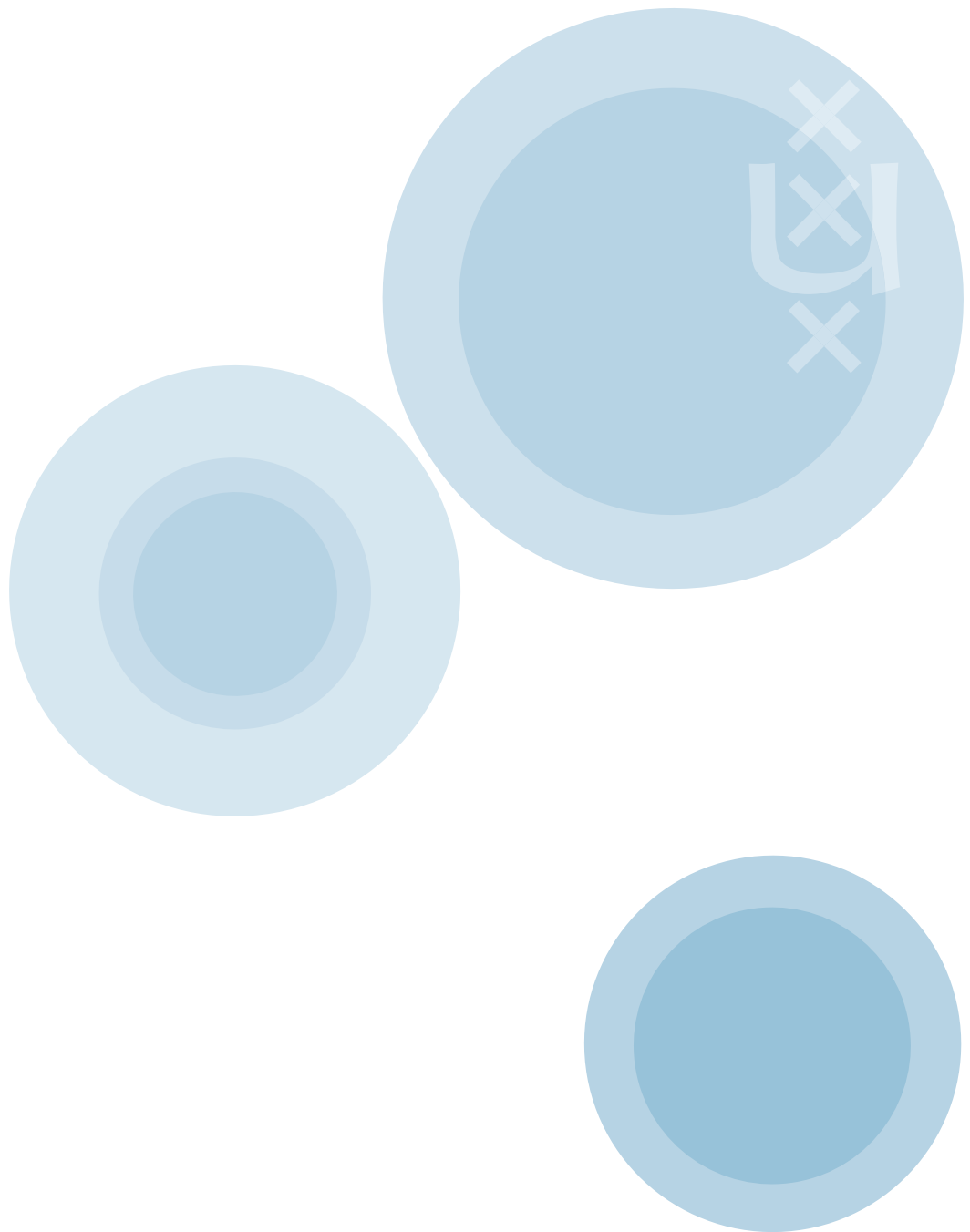
An overview of women's work and employment in Kazakhstan

*Maarten van Klaveren, Kea Tijdens,
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Working Paper 10-93

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An overview of women's work and employment in Kazakhstan

**Decisions for Life MDG3 Project
Country Report no. 10**

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WP 10/93

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Management summary

This report provides information on Kazakhstan on behalf of the implementation of the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project in that country. The DECISIONS FOR LIFE project aims to raise awareness amongst young female workers about their employment opportunities and career possibilities, family building and the work-family balance. This report is part of the Inventories, to be made by the University of Amsterdam, for all 14 countries involved. It focuses on a gender analysis of work and employment.

History (2.1.1). Under the Soviet regime, the Kazahs had a hard time, initially not improving with the collapse of the Soviet Union. In the 2000s, based on its mineral wealth and high oil prices, the economy boomed, followed by a nosedive in 2008.

Governance (2.1.2). Kazakhstan is a republic with a parliamentary system dominated by president Nazarbayev and his party. Recently the government's human rights record remained poor. Though constitution and law provide for equal rights and freedoms for men and women, enforcement of human and women's rights is weak. Women's participation in politics and governance structures is low.

Prospects (2.1.3). The global economic crisis has a considerable impact on Kazakhstan's economic and maybe social prospects. The government had to massively support the banking system. Though official (un)employment and wage figures for 2009 do not yet point at serious consequences for the population, projections until 2015 stick to low growth rates, which among other things may endanger the government's ambitious diversification program.

Communication (2.2). Though the coverage of fixed telephone connections has recently increased, this is dwarfed by the expansion of the incidence of cell phones, to about one per inhabitant in 2008. By that year, 146 per 1,000 were Internet users. Nearly all households have a TV set. The government uses a variety of means to control the media and limit freedom of expression.

The sectoral labour market structure – Population and employment (2.3.1). Between 2001 and 2008 a growing "formalisation" of the of the labour market took place, lifting the share of employees to about two-third. In particular women's employment witnessed strong growth. Reaching 75% in 2008, women's Labour Participation Rate (LPR) was rather high and 92% of men's.

The sectoral labour market structure – Unemployment (2.3.2) In the 2000s unemployment fell from over 10% to below 7%, with female unemployment rates remaining one third above male. Youth employment is rather low, the highest unemplyment rates are among the female 25-29 aged.

Legislation (2.4.1). Kazakhstan has ratified the eight core ILO Labour Conventions. The Constitution provides for the freedom of association and the right to strike, though notably the latter right is subject to numerous legal limitations. In the informal economy the government did not enforce contracts or labour legislation.

Labour relations and wage-setting (2.4.2). The union movement of Kazakhstan consists of both “traditional” and, after independence newly created, “independent” trade unions. In the 1990s membership of in particular the traditional confederation fell heavily. In 2008, union density may have been about 50% (paid employees). Based on formally tripartite structures, the yearly General Agreement is the basis for national, regional and sectoral collective agreements.

The statutory minimum wage (2.5.1). In 2009 the national monthly minimum wage, set by law, was 13,717 Tenge, or 23% of the country’s average monthly wage. Since 2004, the gap between the minimum and average wage has slightly decreased.

Poverty (2.5.2). The country’s growth pattern has been pro-poor, with in the (early) 2000s poverty falling according to all yardsticks. For 2004, it was estimated that 16% of the population lived below the national poverty line. Income inequality is relatively limited. Nevertheless, an in-depth study revealed considerable housing poverty and poor quality of basic infrastructure services.

Population and fertility (2.6.1). Kazakstan’s population showed a sharp downward trend from 1989 to 2002, followed by a modest growth of on average 0.9% yearly. The total fertility rate, about 1.9 children per woman, and the adolescent fertility rate (29 per 1,000) are both rather low and stable. Early marriage and early pregnancy do occur, but seem to remain rather limited.

Health (2.6.2). In 2007, the number of people in Kazakhstan living with HIV was estimated at 12,000, or 0.7 per 1,000, low in comparison with the rest of the region. The levels of public awareness of HIV/AIDS are low, as is the case for knowledge on contraceptive prevalence among women. General health indicators are still low by international standards. In particular in urban areas, access to essential infrastructure services is limited.

Women’s labour market share (2.6.3). Women make up nearly half of the country’s labour force. In 2008 seven of 15 industries showed a female share above this average as well as a female majority. Women are clearly over-represented in four occupational groups at the higher and middle levels, each time with more than a two to one parity; even at the level of legislators, senior officials and managers, the female share of 38% is in international perspective rather high.

Literacy (2.7.1). The adult literacy rate –those age 15 and over that can read and write—in 1999-2006 was 97.9%, with a small gender gap: 99.0% for men and 96.7% for women. In 2007 the literacy rate for 15-24-year-olds stood at 99.8%; the young females scored 99.9%.

Education of girls (2.7.2). In 2006, the combined gross enrollment rate in education was 91.8%, divided in 88.5% for females and 95.1% for males. Net enrollment in primary education was for 2007 set at 99.4% for girls and 98.6% for boys. Women to men parity in secondary education increased to 97% in 2007. Income differences play a major role in further education after secondary school, though much more young women than young men enroll in universities and colleges.

Female skill levels (2.7.3). Women in the employed population have on average a higher educational level than their male colleagues. In contrast, women's opportunities in work and employment are severely limited by the segmentation of the country's labour market along regional and gender dimensions. We estimate the current size of the target group of DECISIONS FOR LIFE for Kazakhstan at about 230,000 girls and young women 15-29 of age working in urban areas in commercial services.

Wages (2.8.1). We found for 2008 a large gender pay gap, totaling 36%. Further, fitting in the picture of a highly segmented labour market, wages in Kazakhstan vary largely across sectors, occupational categories, the urban – rural divide, and across regions.

Working conditions (2.8.2). Official statistical information concerning working conditions is quite limited. As far as can be traced, gender differences in hours worked are small.

1. Introduction: The Decisions for Life project

The DECISIONS FOR LIFE project aims to raise awareness amongst young female workers about their employment opportunities and career possibilities, family building and the work-family balance. The lifetime decisions adolescent women face, determine not only their individual future, but also that of society: their choices are key to the demographic and workforce development of the nation.

DECISIONS FOR LIFE is awarded a MDG3 grant from the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs as part of its strategy to support the United Nations' Millennium Development Goals no 3 (MDG3): "Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women". DECISIONS FOR LIFE more specifically focuses on MDG3.5: "Promoting formal employment and equal opportunities at the labour market", which is one of the four MDG3 priority areas identified in Ministry's MDG3 Fund. DECISIONS FOR LIFE runs from October 2008 until June 2011 (See www.wageindicator.org/main/projects/decisions-for-life).

DECISIONS FOR LIFE focuses on 14 developing countries, notably Brazil, India, Indonesia, the CIS countries Azerbaijan, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Ukraine, and the southern African countries Angola, Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Project partners are International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC), Union Network International (UNI), WageIndicator Foundation, and University of Amsterdam/AIAS.

This report is part of the Inventories, to be made by the University of Amsterdam, for all 14 countries involved. These Inventories and the underlying gender analyses are listed in the Table. All reports will be posted at the project website. In this country report on Kazakhstan the sequence of the sections differs from the table. The report covers mainly Activity nr 1.03, the Gender analysis regarding pay and working conditions (or, as Chapter 2 is called here, work and employment). Partly included (in section 2.4) is Activity 1.01, Inventories of national legislation; partly the analysis of national legislation has resulted in a separate product, the DecentWorkCheck for Kazakhstan. Activity 1.02, Inventories of companies' regulations, will take place through a company survey. Preparations for Activities 1.03a and 1.03b have resulted in a number of lists, to be used in the WageIndicator web-survey for country-specific questions and their analyses (Chapter 3). References can be found in Chapter 4; Chapter 5 gives more insight in the WageIndicator.

Table 1. Activities for DECISIONS FOR LIFE by the University of Amsterdam

No	Inventories
1.01	Inventories of national legislation
1.02	Inventories of companies' regulations
1.03	Gender analysis regarding pay and working conditions
1.03a	Gender analysis start-up design of off-line gender analyses inventory
1.03b	Gender analysis data-entry for off-line use inventories

2. Gender analysis regarding work and employment

2.1. Introduction: the general picture

2.1.1. History

The Republic of Kazakhstan is the ninth largest country in the world and the world's largest landlocked country, though inhabited by slightly over 16 million people. By the mid-19th century, the whole country was colonised by the Russian Empire. In late 1917, a group of nationalists vested an autonomous republic (the Alash Autonomy), before in 1920 surrendering to the Bolsheviks. After various reorganisations, in 1936 the territory was made a full Soviet republic, the Kazakh SSR or Kazakhstan. Stalin's efforts to collectivize agriculture led to repeated famines; between 1926 and 1939, the Kazakh population declined by 22%, due to starvation, violence, and mass emigration. In contrast, under Stalin dissidents and groups of which it was feared that they would collaborate with the German enemy (Crimean Tatars, Germans, Muslims) as well as Poles were massively deported to Kazakhstan. Kazakh identity and culture was violently repressed, and thousands of Kazakh intellectuals murdered. During World War II, coal and oil extraction was increased, as was industrialisation, in support of the Soviet war effort. In the 1950s and 1960s, under Khrushchev's Virgin Lands Campaign Soviet citizens were encouraged to help turn the traditional pasture lands of Kazakhstan into a major grain-producing region for the Soviet Union, and in the 1960s and 1970s Russian settlers were attracted in a program to relocate Soviet industry close to the extensive coal, gas, and oil deposits of Central Asia. Within the Soviet economic system, Kazakhstan played an important role as a supplier of agricultural (livestock, grain), mineral (coal and oil, basis for a well-developed energy industry) and heavy industrial products (construction equipment, agricultural machinery), as well as providing space (the current Baikonur Cosmodrome) and nuclear bomb testing infrastructure. In particular the latter offended ethnic Kazakhs (wikipedia's Kazakhstan; Demographics of Kazakhstan; Economy of Kazakhstan; History of Kazakhstan).

The collapse of the Soviet Union caused a complex series of events in Kazakhstan, where according to the 1989 Census the two largest ethnic groups, Kazakhs and Russians, both made up nearly 40% of the population. The parliament had named Nursultan Nazarbayev, in 1989 becoming in power as General Sec-

retary of the Communist Party of Kazakhstan, its chairman, shortly afterwards converted to the presidency of the republic. Nazarbayev long remained committed to the perpetuation of the Soviet Union in any form, convinced that independence would mean economic suicide for Kazakhstan, at the same time fighting to secure the country's control of its mineral wealth and industrial potential. In June 1991, Moscow had to surrender control of the young republic's mineral resources. In December 1991, Nazarbayev solidified his position by winning an uncontested election for president. In the complicated final phase of the dissolution of the Soviet Union, the capital of Kazakhstan lent its name to the Alma-Ata Declaration, in which 11 of the 15 Soviet republics announced to the expansion of the thirteen-day-old CIS (Commonwealth of Independent States). On December 16, 1991, just five days before that declaration, Kazakhstan was the last of the republics to declare independence (wikipedia's Kazakhstan; Demographics of Kazakhstan; Economy of Kazakhstan; History of Kazakhstan).

The USSR's collapse also meant a collapse in demand of Kazakhstan's traditional heavy industry. The 1990s witnessed a sharp economic contraction, with between 1990 and 1996 an average decrease of the country's GDP (Gross Domestic Product) of over 6% per year. A burst of inflation exceeded 1,000% in each of the years 1992-94, before the government introduced a new currency, the Tenge, and regained macro-economic control. By 1995, only 8% of the state assets was privatised and 37% of employment was in the non-state sector (Milanovic 1998). In 1995-97 the government speeded up the change toward a market economy, including a program of economic reform and privatization, socially amended under pressure of mass actions organised by the trade unions. The signing, in 1996, of the agreement with the Caspian Pipeline Consortium to build a pipeline to the Black Sea increased prospects for larger oil exports. For the time being these measures could not stop the deterioration of the economy. Tens of thousands of workers were sent on administrative leave, the majority without any compensation, and by the end of 1999 42% of all enterprises made losses. Yet, in the same year 1999 the recovery of world oil prices and a huge grain harvest pulled the economy out of recession. In 2000 Kazakhstan even became the first former Soviet republic to repay all its debts to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), seven years ahead of schedule. That year marked the first of eight consecutive years of strong economic growth, with a real GDP increase of 9.8%, continued by 13.2% real GDP growth in 2001, 9.5% in 2002, 9.2% in 2003, 9.4% in 2004, 9.2% in 2005, 10.6% in 2006, and 8.7% in 2007, followed by a slowdown to 3.3% growth in 2008 due to declining oil prices and the worldwide economic crisis (wikipedia's Kazakhstan and Economy of Kazakhstan; NN 2005; World Bank 2009c; UNECE 2009).

Taking into account the country's rather volatile employment development from year to year, yearly GDP growth per person employed over 2001-2006 averaged 7.6%, over 2003-2008 6.3% and over 2005-2008 6.2% (authors' additional calculations based on website SAK). With high oil and metal prices, the booming processing and export of the country's huge mineral resources was the main impetus; it has been calculated that the oil industry accounted for slightly less than half of the country's economic growth in the period 2001-2005 (Hare and Naumov 2008, 13). Moreover, economic reform, good harvests, and increased Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) helped too. FDI inflows recently grew massively, to USD 6.3 billion in 2006, USD 11.1 billion in 2007, and USD 14.5 billion in 2008 (UNCTAD 2009). Finally, the industrial policy upon which the government embarked as to diversify the economy seems to reward (CIA World Factbook). The long-term prospects of Kazakhstan's economy seem good. Besides large proven oil and natural gas deposits, the country currently has the world's second largest uranium, chromium, lead and zinc reserves, the third largest manganese reserves, the fifth largest copper reserves, and ranks in the top ten for coal, iron ore, and gold. Kazakh agriculture suffers environmental problems, but prospects of exports of both livestock products and crops (grain) are good (wikipedia Kazakhstan). However, the short term is a different story, and the global economic crisis of 2008-09 has also hit Kazakhstan's economy: see section 2.1.3.

In a global perspective, Kazakhstan is located in the lower ranks of high human development. In 2006 the country ranked no. 71 on the Human Development Index (HDI) with a rating of 0.807 (the same score as Brazil), meaning an increase between 2000 and 2006 of 0.061. In 2006 its GDP per capita reached USD (PPP) 9,832, ranking no. 72 in the world. The estimated earned income for men was USD 11,782, and for women USD 8,039 (UNDP 2008), implying a women to men parity rate of 68%. As we will see, this moderately low rate is indicative for the position of Kazakhstani women in the field of work and employment.

2.1.2. Governance

Kazakhstan is a multiethnic country with a long tradition of tolerance and secularism. It is a republic with a parliamentary system dominated by president Nazarbayev and his Nur Otan Party. In 1997 the capital moved from Almaty, former Alma-Ata and with about 1.4 million inhabitants the country's largest city, to Astana. After being elected president in 1991, Nazarbayev remained in undisputed power. The Constitution of 1993 made the Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers solely responsible to the president, and in 1995 a new Constitution reinforced that relationship. Opposition parties were severely limited by legal restrictions on their activities. Within that rigid framework, Nazarbayev supposedly gained popularity by

limiting the economic shock following the collapse of the Soviet Union, by maintaining ethnic harmony and by pursuing a “multidimensional” foreign policy, seeking equally good relations with Russia, China, the US, the European Union, and Turkey (wikipedia Kazakhstan).

Whereas Constitution and law provide for a democratic government with universal suffrage for those older than 18 years of age, in practice the government severely limited the right of citizens to change their government. Although the 2007 constitutional amendments increased legislative authority in some spheres, the Constitution continues to concentrate power in the presidency, permitting the president to control regional and local governments and to exercise significant influence over the legislature and judiciary. These amendments also exempted president Nazarbayev from the two-term presidential term limit; he and only he is allowed to run for presidency indefinitely. The country has a bicameral parliament. According to official results, Nur Otan got 88% of the vote in the 2007 national elections for the *Mazhilis* (lower house of parliament), winning every seat; no other party received the benchmark 7% level of the seats. Both local observers and observers of the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) noted some improvements in the electoral process in comparison to past national elections but criticized the 2007 elections as falling short of a number of international standards. An OSCE assessment criticized in particular a provision allowing the Assembly of People of Kazakhstan--an unelected body whose members the president appointed-- to choose nine of the 107 members of the *Mazhilis*. In 2009 there were credible allegations that persons entering government service were pressured to join the Nur Otan party (US Dept of State 2009, 2010; wikipedia Kazakhstan).

In 2008 and 2009 civilian authorities generally maintained effective control of the security forces. The following human rights problems were reported: severe limits on citizens’ rights to change their government; military hazing that led to deaths; detainee and prisoner torture and other abuse; unhealthy prison conditions; arbitrary arrest and detention; lack of an independent judiciary; restrictions on freedom of speech, the press, assembly, and association; pervasive corruption, especially in law enforcement and the judicial system; prohibitive political party registration requirements; restrictions on the activities of nongovernmental organisations (NGOs); discrimination and violence against women; trafficking in persons; and societal discrimination. During 2009, prison conditions remained harsh and facilities did not meet international health standards. NGOs reported that about half of the inmate population needed professional treatment,

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especially for HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, and other infectious diseases. The law does not provide for an independent judiciary; the executive branch limited judicial independence (US Dept of State 2009, 2010).

According to a 2008 poll released by the PGO's Crime Statistics Committee, 35% of the population did not believe the government could protect them from infringement of their civil rights and freedoms, specifically infringement by the police and the courts. Public perception of police effectiveness was low, and corruption among law enforcement officers was believed to be high. Indeed, corruption was evident at every stage of the judicial process. The law provides criminal penalties for official corruption; however, in 2008 and 2009 the government did not implement the law effectively: opposition leaders and human rights NGOs accused the government of rampant corruption. Corruption seems to prevail in the executive branch, various law enforcement agencies, local government administrations, the education system, and –as indicated-- the judiciary, though it should be noted that in 2009 the government intensified its campaign to address the evil, and several highly placed government officials were investigated for embezzlement and abuse of office (US Dept of State 2009, 2010). According to the World Bank's worldwide governance indicators (WGI), Kazakhstan's comparative position since 1998 improved on four of six indicators used though the country still is to be found in the world's lower half. On voice and accountability, the country in 2008 was in the ninth percentile, indicating that about at least 80% of countries worldwide had better ratings; on political stability and absence of violence, the country scored best with a position in the fourth percentile, thus with about 30% of countries rated better; on government effectiveness and on regulatory quality, it was in the seventh percentile; on regulatory quality, its score was in the sixth percentile; on rule of law the country was in the eighth percentile, and on control of corruption it was in 2008 in the ninth percentile, just above the lowest 10% (World Bank 2009b). Also, it has been computed for 1999-2003 that Azerbaijan had an immensely large shadow economy, covering approximately 45% of the official GDP (Schneider 2005). For 2010-2012, the government plans the expansion of its tax base "through legalization of shadow business" (Republic of Kazakhstan 2009, 20).

The constitution and law of Kazakhstan prohibit arbitrary interference with privacy, family, home, or correspondence; however, the government at times infringed on these rights. The law provides for limited freedom of assembly. Yet, in 2009 there were significant restrictions on this right in practice, and police used force to disrupt peaceful demonstrations. The law defines unsanctioned gatherings, public meetings, marches, demonstrations, illegal picketing, and strikes that upset social and political stability as national security threats. In the course of 2009 in Almaty the number of protests increased due to the economic

crisis; in most cases authorities denied the permits of the organisers. The National Human Rights Action Plan 2009-12, which the Presidential Human Rights Commission presented to the media on September 10, 2009, noted that the country's legal norms on public gatherings at times contradicted international standards, and proposed that a new law on public assemblies be adopted by the end of 2010 (See for freedom of press section 2.2). A number of domestic and international human rights groups generally operated with relative freedom; however, the government restricted certain NGO activities, including police visits and surveillance of NGO offices and personnel (US Dept of State 2009, 2010).

Women's participation in politics and governance structures in Kazakhstan is rather low. In 2009 there were two women in the 47-seat senate (4.3%), and 19 women in the 107-member *Mazhilis* (17.8%). From 2000 to 2007, women occupied eight seats in the by then 77-member parliament, or 10.4%. In 2009 there was one woman in the cabinet and one chaired a national agency (US Dept of State 2010; website Inter-Parliamentary Union; UN MDG Indicators). The US Dept of State (2010) notes that traditional attitudes may hinder women from holding high office or playing active roles in political life, although no legal restrictions on the participation of women and minorities in politics are in existence.

The Kazakh Family Code does not appear to discriminate against women. The 1998 Law on Marriage and the Family sets the minimum legal age for marriage at 18 years for both men and women. If there are "legitimate grounds", a registry office authorise marriages at 16 years. The law prohibits polygamy. The same law stipulates that men and women have equal roles within the family. Article 60 of the Family Code states that mothers and fathers should share parental authority and make joint decisions regarding their children's education, taking into account the best interests of the children. According to the Family Code, property acquired during marriage is considered joint property and is distributed accordingly upon the death of a spouse. The Civil Code guarantees equal ownership rights for women and men, making provisions for them to possess, use and inherit property. The country's land reform was based on the principle of gender equality, important as more than half of Kazakh farmers are women. Yet, overall, women continue to experience discrimination in regard to access to land and to property other than land. Kazakh women do not seem to encounter discrimination in regard to access to bank loans (website OECD-SIGI).

The Constitution and law of Kazakhstan provide for equal rights and freedoms for men and women. Though earlier the Kazakh legislation did not refer specifically to gender-based discrimination, on December 10, 2009 the president signed a new gender equality law that defines the terms "gender", "gender equality", "sexual discrimination", and "equal opportunity", and prohibits discrimination based on gender. Violence

against women, trafficking in persons, and discrimination against persons with disabilities, homosexual activity, and nonethnic Kazakhs in government were problems. The law criminalizes rape. The punishment for rape, including spousal rape, ranged from three to 15 years' imprisonment. Violence against women, particularly domestic violence, remains a significant problem. On December 7, 2009, the president signed a new law on domestic violence based on a bill submitted to parliament in 2007. The law defines for the first time "domestic violence" and "victim"; identifies various types of violence, such as physical, psychological, sexual, and economic; and outlines the responsibilities of the local and national governments and NGOs in providing support to domestic violence victims. The criminal procedure code sets the maximum sentence for spousal assault and battery at 10 years in prison, which is the same as for any beating. Although official statistics were scarce, activists assessed that one in four families experienced domestic violence. Police tend to consider such violence as a family matter and intervene only if the victim's life is in danger; according to NGO estimates, police investigated only 10 to 30% of domestic violence cases. NGOs also reported that economic uncertainty often prompted female victims to drop their charges. According to the government, there were 25 crisis centres in the country providing assistance to women and two centres that provided assistance to men; six centres also provided shelter for victims of violence. Sexual harassment also remained a problem. The new law prohibits some forms of sexual harassment, but legal and gender experts regarded the legislation as inadequate to address the problem. Incidents of harassment were reported, but reports of any cases prosecuted were lacking. According to observers women in rural areas faced greater discrimination than women in urban areas and suffered from a greater incidence of domestic violence, limited education and employment opportunities, limited access to information, and discrimination in their land and property rights (website OECD-SIGI; US Dept of State 2009, 2010).

The law prohibits trafficking in persons for all purposes, but the practice remained a considerable problem. In 2008 and 2009 Kazakhstan was a source, transit, and destination country for victims of trafficking. Internal trafficking was also a problem. NGOs reported a continued increase in the identification of victims, possibly reflecting greater awareness of the problem. Individuals were trafficked to the United Arab Emirates, Turkey, Israel, South Korea, Greece, Russia, and Western Europe for purposes of forced labour and sexual exploitation. Traffickers targeted girls and young women in their teens and twenties for sexual exploitation: adolescents in orphanages, regardless of gender, and those from rural and economically disadvantaged areas were particularly vulnerable. On April 2, 2009, the government adopted a new national plan to combat trafficking in persons for 2010-2011. Trafficking is punishable by a maximum seven-year prison

term; if a minor is involved, the maximum penalty increases to 12 years' imprisonment. In 2009 the number of successful prosecutions for trafficking continued to increase, and NGOs reported improved cooperation with government officials in coordinating assistance for trafficking victims. The Ministry of Education and Science reported that the curriculum of all high schools and colleges included trafficking awareness (US Dept of State 2009, 2010).

For 2008 the Gender Gap Index of the World Economic Forum ranked Kazakhstan no. 45 of 130 countries. For three of the four yardsticks used, rather high scores were attached to the country: no. 18 concerning the position of women in economic participation and opportunity, no. 40 for educational attainment, and no. 38 for health and survival, while only for political empowerment the country was to be found quite low on the 101st spot. In the upper middle income group of countries, Kazakhstan took a middle position, just above Croatia (Hausmann et al 2008). Finally, it is worth mentioning that the SIGI Gender Equality and Social Institutions Index ranked Kazakhstan third of 102 countries in 2008 (website OECD-SIGI).

2.1.3. Prospects

A World Bank research note as of July 2009 states: "The global economic crisis is exposing households in virtually all developing countries to increased risk of poverty and hardship", adding "While in the short-run, the non-poor may be the most affected by the crisis, experience from past economic and financial crises suggests that the adverse impacts are likely to spread in the medium-term to poor households." The World Bank note ranks Kazakhstan among the 75 countries that will be moderately exposed to the crisis, showing decelerating growth. It is rated in the category of countries with medium fiscal capacity, meaning the government has some fiscal space to counteract the poverty effects of the crisis (Cord et al 2009). However, the government used a substantial part of that space in supporting the domestic financial sector, as in 2008 that sector –rather integrated in the world financial markets-- turned out to be very vulnerable. The Kazakh banks, having borrowed heavily in foreign currency, were struggling with poor asset quality and refinancing their external liabilities. At the end of 2008, the government said to directly save over 50,000 jobs by rescuing the four major banks in purchasing shares in each, with in February 2009 further injections in two of them. Yet, in the same month problems aggravated when the Tenge was devaluated by nearly 20% (various websites; wikipedia Kazakhstan). Indeed, over 2008 the share of the government budget in the GDP rose rapidly to 30%. Under such budgetary pressure, inflation in 2008 peaked at 17.6% (World Bank 2009c). When world oil prices fell, the country's dependence on fuel and hydrocarbon products, accounting for 73%

of exports in the five preceding years, enlarged its problems. Over 2009 the country's GDP 2009 growth has been 1.1%, indicating negative per capita growth, while export value dropped by 40%, the country's trade surplus by 52%, and industrial production by 6.6%. Especially the real estate and construction sectors were hit, with less than one-sixth of allocated housing funds disbursed (various websites; CIA World Factbook; Republic of Kazakhstan 2009; Nurshayeva 2010). This nosedive has prompted fears of social discontent, definitely if the government acts like the country "is a testing ground for neo-liberal experiments", as trade unionists concluded in a recent seminar crisis (Ivanou 2010). Such policies may work out dramatically for the poor, and particularly for many women, as the case of pension benefits shows (section 2.5.2).

We now project a number of outcomes of the country's Statistics Agency (SAK) against the backdrop of the aforementioned facts and figures. According to the Agency, employment in the fourth quarter of 2008 fell by 43,000 or 0.6% compared to the third quarter, and again by 27,000 (0.3%), as to rebound strongly, already by the third quarter of 2009 surpassing employment of the same quarter of 2008 by 30,000. Official unemployment only rose incidentally by 0.2%points, and would have reached a historically low 6.3% in the fourth quarter of 2009; with 6.9%, female unemployment remained at a slightly higher level. Remarkably, comparison of employment in the fourth quarter of 2009 with the same quarter of 2008 shows a considerable decrease in agriculture (100,000, or 4.5%) and a relatively small decrease in manufacturing (12,000, 2%), jointly more than compensated by growing employment in 2009 in construction (by 15,000, 2.5%), trade (50,000, 4.5%), real estate and other commercial services (33,000, 8%), and public administration, education and health care (60,000, 4.5%). Against the background of practices widely used before of sending workers on administrative leave, hardly or not compensated, such employment figures may be of limited value. However, recent wage figures provided by the Agency do not point at the spread of such practices. Average real wage growth over 2009 would have been 1.2%, though average wages in industries with many high-educated workers, in particular ICT, finance, education and health care, decreased 1 to 3%. In the short run, this relatively positive wage development was helped by prudent fiscal policies and a decrease of inflation in 2009 below 7% (website SAK; Republic of Kazakhstan 2009).

Whatever the value of these figures, it may well be that that the crisis will continue to affect the economy of Kazakhstan over a longer span of time. Obviously, the World Bank assumes such a scenario realistic by predicting only 0.7% GDP growth for Kazakhstan over 2008-2012, resulting in a fall of 1.2% average per year in GDP per capita, and only 2.7% average yearly growth in goods and services exports (World Bank 2009c). Clearly, though the government has a buffer through its "oil fund" (Sovereign Wealth Fund), its mar-

gins to stimulate the economy have narrowed substantially. In January 2010, the Kazakh authorities lowered earlier estimates of 2.4% GDP growth in 2010 to 1.5-2.0% (Nurshayeva 2010). One day later, president Nazarbayev, in an effort to raise taxes, called for an end to foreign oil investors' immunity to new tax laws, which has been included in contracts signed in the 1990s. His energy minister reacted by saying, "It is not an easy question. Of course there is an order so we will (implement) it" (Gorst 2010). This move may conflict with the strategic development plan till 2020, including the increase of oil and gas production notably between 2011 and 2015 as to partially compensate for the projected decline in oil prices. A massive state program of diversification, "forced industrial-innovative development" (PFIID), is based on this projection (Republic of Kazakhstan 2009).

2.2. Communication

Adequate communication facilities are absolutely essential for the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project. Kazakhstan has been making progress in recent years in developing its telecom sector, after inheriting at independence in 1991 from the Soviet Union an outdated telecom network requiring modernisation (CIA World Factbook). The coverage of fixed telephone connections per 1,000 of the population have increased in the 2000s from 122 in 2000, via 210 in 2007, to 221 in 2008 or 3,41 million main lines in use in 2008. In Kazakhstan, too, very clearly the future is on cellular telephone services, including possible access to mobile Internet. The number of cellular phones in use has grown extremely rapid after the turn of the century, according to international sources from 13 per 1,000 of the population in 2000, via 799 in 2007, to 950 per 1,000 in 2008, or 14,91 million cell phones (CIA World Factbook; World Bank 2009a; UN MDG Indicators); the domestic Statistics Agency for 2008 even notes 1,026 mobile phone users per 1,000 inhabitants, of which 22 broadband Internet users (website SAK). In the huge country, reaching full coverage of the population by mobile cellular networks is a problem: by 2007 that coverage had reached 84%. In that year the average mobile phone use was a rather low 100 minutes per user per month. With USD 11.40 per month, the price basket for mobile service was about the average for Europe and Central Asia, though over twice the Kazakh price basket for residential fixed line service: USD 4.80 (World Bank 2009a).

According to the CIA World Factbook, in 2008 the share of Kazakh Internet users had grown to 146 per 1,000 of the population, as by then it noted 2.3 million Internet users on a population of 15.7 million; for 2007, the UN (MDG Indicators) had indicated 123 per 1,000 coverage. One may safely assume that currently about one in six Kazakhs is using the Internet, though outside the cities Internet penetration remains

low. Typically, according to the domestic statistics there were much less, i.e. 38 per 1,000, Internet users in the country in 2008, of which 22 per 1,000 broadband Internet users (website SAK). Observers reported that the government monitored e-mail and Internet activity, blocked or slowed access to opposition websites, and planted pro-government propaganda in Internet chat rooms. The state regulated the country's only two Internet service providers, state-owned Kaztelecom and privately owned Nursat. Nevertheless, websites expressed a wide variety of views, including viewpoints critical of the government. On July 11, 2009, the president signed amendments to the legislation governing the Internet. The new law reclassified all websites, including chat rooms and blogs, as "media outlets," making them subject to the media law. It also made it easier for the government to shut down websites for violations during electoral periods or for inciting interethnic violence (US Dept of State 2010). By 2009, the country had 48,900 Internet hosts, and by December 2008 only 2.0 secure Internet servers per 1 million people. The price basket for Internet services was with USD 16.30 per month rather high, higher than the European / Central Asian average (CIA World Factbook; World Bank 2009a).

The national Statistics Agency for 2008 set the incidence of personal computers (PCs) at 46 per 1,000 of the population, or about 750,000 PC's. Over half of all PC's, 400,000, was found in firms, of which 154,000 in the largest city, Almaty. In 2008, over three in four firms possessed PC's, and 55% of all firms had access to Internet (website SAK).

Ownership of television sets is widely spread: for 2000 it was estimated that 92% of all households had a television set, but later figures are lacking (World Bank 2009a). In 2008, there were 87 radio broadcast stations, of which 60 on AM frequencies (CIA World Factbook). There are seven nationwide television broadcasters, most of which media observers believe to be owned wholly or partly by the government. Regional governments owned several frequencies; independent broadcasters arranged to use the majority of these. According to government statistics, approximately one-fifth of the 2,973 media outlets were government-owned. The majority of broadcast media that the government did not own, including the larger outlets, were nonetheless owned by holding companies believed to be controlled by members of the president's family or by loyal associates. As a result of an April 18 2009 government tender, all radio frequencies in major cities and regions went to one company that the government favoured. Similarly, in January 2008 the government conducted a tender for new licenses for television frequencies, but media monitors charged that the government predetermined the results and awarded all new television frequencies to companies it favoured (US Dept of State 2009, 2010).

The Kazakh Constitution and the law provide for freedom of speech and of the press; however, the government used a variety of means, including laws, harassment, licensing regulations, Internet restrictions, and criminal and administrative charges to control the media and limit freedom of expression. Judicial actions against journalists and media outlets contributed to the suspension of media outlets and self-censorship. Journalists working in opposition media and those covering corruption reported harassment and intimidation by government officials and private actors. The restrictive media law enacted in 2006 included tightened government control, enabling the government to restrict media content under amendments that prohibit undermining state security or advocating class, social, race, national, or religious superiority, or cruelty and violence. The government used this provision to limit media freedom. In contrast to 2008, NGO monitors in 2009 reported an increase in libel cases against journalists and media outlets. Private parties could initiate criminal libel suits on behalf of the government, and an individual filing such a suit would be able to file a civil suit as well, based upon the same allegations. Officials increasingly used the law's restrictive libel and defamation provisions to constrain media outlets from publishing unflattering information (US Dept of State 2009, 2010).

2.3. The sectoral labour market structure

2.3.1. Population and employment

Table 2 presents the development of total employment and employment status in Kazakhstan between 2001-2008. The table shows a substantial growth in these years of total employment for males, by 16%, and an even stronger growth for females, by 611,000 persons or 18%. The increase of paid employment went faster, clearly diminishing the shares as well as the numbers of own-account and contributing family workers.¹ After rapidly growing unemployment rates, “informalisation” of the economy and in particular self-employment increasing in the 1990s, after the turn of the century this development reversed, unemployment rates fell (see section 2.3.2), real wages increased considerably, and a growing “formalisation” of the labour market took place (cf. Arabsheibani and Mussurov 2006). Between 2001 and 2008 the number of male employees increased by 28% and the number of female employees by no less than 42.5%. Each year female employment grew slightly more rapid than male employment. The development of total employment was rather volatile, with growth rates of -1.0% in 2002, 3.5% in 2003, 2.4% in 2004, 0.8% in 2005,

1 These are rough estimates. More solid figures on the proportion of own-account workers and contributing family workers in total employment, based on the Household Budget Survey, date from 2004: 35.8% total, divided in 33.3% for men and 38.5% (MDG Indicator 1.7, derived from UN MDG Indicators), thus matching with the picture of Table 2.

2.0% in 2006, 2.4% in 2007, and 2.2% in 2008. The preliminary growth rate for 2009 was 0.6% (authors' calculations based on website SAK).

Table 2. Employment by status and gender, Kazakhstan, 2001 and 2008

	2001				2008			
	male		female		male		female	
	x1,000	%	x1,000	%	x1,000	%	x1,000	%
Employers	43	1.2%	16	0.5%	79	2.0%	42	1.1%
Own-account workers and Contributing family workers	1,310	37.8%	1,467	44.5%	1,228	30.6%	1,309	34.1%
Employees	2,117	61.0%	1,746	54.0%	2,711	67.4%	2,489	64.8%
Total	3,470	100%	3,229	100%	4,018	100%	3,840	100%

Sources: ILO Laborsta; website SAK

Of the total Kazakhstani population, by 2008 8,415,000 persons were counted as economically active (the share of the population over 14 of age in employment or registered unemployed), of which 95,000 aged 65 and older: see Table 3 (next page). If we leave out this group of elderly citizens in order to comply with the internationally comparable Labour Participation Rate (LPR) or Employment-to-Population ratio (EPOP) that only takes stock of the labour force aged 15-64 in percentages of the total population of the same age, we can calculate the over-all LPR or EPOP at 78.2% (*MDG Indicator 1.5*). This implies a position in the higher ranks among the 14 countries in our project. With respectively 81.6% for males and 75.2% for females, the “corrected” female LPR in 2008 was 92% of the “corrected” male rate (the so-called women to men parity). In 2001, the labour forces in the two large cities, Almaty and Astana, showed no differences across gender, but the gender gap grew in smaller communities, until in villages the LPR for men doubled that of women (Arabsheibani and Mussurov 2006).

In Table 3 we show the 2008 LPR's for 5-years'age cohorts. The table reveals some interesting gender differences in these LPR's. For men, the LPR's were highest among the 25-49-year-olds, for women slightly later, among the 35-49-year-olds. Unless the usual decrease with age over age 49, the participation rates remain quite high, especially for men. As for the DECISIONS FOR LIFE target group, the girls and young women aged 15-29, in 2008 there were 1,188,000 of them employed on a population of 2,026,000, implying an LPR of 58.6% – rather high across countries. With 64.6% (1,364,000 active in a population of 2,111,000), the LPR of their male peers was 6%points higher (data: ILO Laborsta; website SAK).

Table 3. Economically active population and labour participation rates (LPRs) by gender and by age group, Kazakhstan, 2008

	all		male		female	
	x 1,000	LPR	x 1,000	LPR	x1,000	LPR
15-19	308	22.8	175	25.3	133	20.2
20-24	998	69.5	539	72.8	459	66.0
25-29	1,246	92.0	650	95.6	596	88.4
30-34	1,265	93.2	625	95.6	640	90.9
35-39	944	94.6	466	97.4	479	92.0
40-44	970	94.1	473	96.0	497	92.5
45-49	1,072	93.7	520	95.5	553	92.1
50-54	841	90.6	400	93.0	441	88.5
55-59	508	79.5	247	89.2	261	72.1
60-64	168	41.9	100	64.7	68	27.5
65-69	61	12.9	32	15.9	29	10.6
70+	34	4.7	18	7.6	16	3.4
Total 15+	8,415	71.1	4,244	76.1	4,171	66.7

Source: ILO Laborsta, Table 1A (Labour Force survey)

Comparison with the 1999 Census outcomes shows remarkable shifts in the LPR's of both sexes between 1999-2008. The participation rates for the two youngest cohorts fell: for the males aged 15-19 by 7%points, for the females of the same age by even 14%, from 34% to 20%; for the males aged 20-24 the decrease in this period was 11%points, for the females of the same age only 2%points, from 68 to 66%. The LPR for all other age groups went up, though for women considerable more than for men. In the age cohorts between 25-49 of age, the male LPR's increased by 4-6%points, but the female LPR's by 9-13%. The most pronounced rises were among the 50 and older, with an increase for the women 50-54 of age of 32%points and an astonishing rise for the women aged 55-59, from 11 to 72% or 61%points. For our project, the fall of the LPR of the 15-19 aged girls is most interesting. Their 14%point decrease cannot be explained by developments in female enrollment in secondary education, as between 2003-'07 this fell by 10,600 (UN Data).

2.3.2. Unemployment

Between 2001-2008, the official unemployment rate of Kazakhstan gradually fell from over 10% to below 7%. Although the absolute gap between the male and the female unemployment rates fell somewhat (in 2001 nearly 14% of women was unemployed, against 10% of men), female unemployment rates remained above male, in 2008 by 2.6%points or one third. Most striking in this period was the decrease in unemployment of the youngest cohort. While Kazakhstan –like most, also developed, countries-- in the early 2000s suffered from considerable youth unemployment, with unemployment rates in 2001 of 24% for boys aged 15-19 and 29% for girls of the same age (authors' calculations based on ILO Laborsta), it succeeded to lower these rates to slightly over 6% in 2008. Though to a lesser extent, this succeeded for the 20-24-year olds too, but between 2001-2008 the unemployment rates for the 25-29 aged remained at approximately the same level, with the female rate continuously about 40% over the male rate. In 2008, jointly on average 113,000 females aged 15-29 were unemployed, or 8.5% of this group economically active at large (data: ILO Laborsta; website SAK). According to the official figures, in the last quarter of 2009 109,000 females aged 15-29 were unemployed: 7.1% of the 15-24 aged and 11.2% of the 25-29 aged (website SAK).

Table 4. Unemployment by gender and by age group, % of economically active population, Kazakhstan, 2008

	all	male	female
15-19	6.2	6.2	6.3
20-24	7.8	7.0	8.7
25-29	9.0	6.6	10.9
30-34	6.9	4.9	8.8
35-39	6.3	4.6	7.9
40-44	4.5	3.5	5.2
45-49	5.2	4.1	6.3
50-54	6.1	4.3	7.8
55-59	7.4	6.0	8.9
60-64	7.9	7.7	8.1
Total 15+	6.6	5.3	7.9

Source: authors' calculations based on ILO Laborsta

In section 2.7.3 we will present unemployment rates by gender and highest level of education completed.

2.4. National legislation and labour relations

2.4.1. Legislation

Between 1999 and 2003, Kazakhstan has ratified the eight core ILO Labour Conventions, i.e. no's 29, 87, 98, 100, 105, 111, 138 and 182 (ILO Natlex). Concerning the freedom of association, membership organisations must have 10 members to register at the local level and must have branches in more than half of the regions for national registration. NGOs reported that the registration process was fairly straightforward, although corruption in the process was common. Political parties and trade unions were considered membership organizations but had additional specific registration requirements. The law prohibits members of the armed forces, employees of national security and law enforcement organizations, and judges from participating in trade unions or political parties (US Dept of State 2010). The law provides for the right to organize and form trade unions, though it prohibits the operation of foreign unions as well as the financing of unions by foreign legal entities and citizens, foreign states, and international organizations. Following a widely publicized mining accident in Satpayev and a subsequent strike in January 2008, the government launched a pro-union campaign to empower workers to protect their workplace rights. Independent union organizers saw this campaign as a significant change in policy. Yet, organizers reported that the government continued to restrict the right to organize, and that most workers were not able to join or form trade unions of their choice. Also according to the US Dept of State, government recently continued to favour state-affiliated unions over independent unions. Workers are protected by law against anti-union discrimination, but in practice there were violations of this right. The violations ranged from threats of being fired, which would lead to the loss of social benefits, such as subsidized health care, to physical intimidation and assault. According to media accounts, local administrators tried to prevent the activities of independent trade unions through threatens, harassment, and physical intimidation (US Dept of State 2009, 2010).

The law provides for the right to strike, but exercising this right is subject to numerous legal limitations. The government maintained a list of industries and enterprises providing essential services where strikes were permitted only under limited conditions. In general workers may strike only if a labour dispute has not been resolved through existing compulsory arbitration procedures. Striking workers must give 15-day advance notice to employers. The law neither sanctions nor prohibits the firing of employees for participation

in an illegal strike. In practice there were reports of employers providing arbitrary justifications for firing employees who had attempted to organize strikes (US Dept of State 2010).

The law protects children from exploitation in the workplace. The minimum age for employment is 16 years; children who are between 14 to 16 years of age can perform, with parental permission, light work that does not interfere with their health or education. The law also restricts the length of the workday for employees younger than 18 years old. The government conducted labour inspections to enforce the minimum age for employment, but enforcement was uneven. The government did not maintain statistics on child labour, but NGOs and activists reported that it occurred routinely in agriculture. Recently in urban areas the country's increasingly formalized labour market led to a decrease in many forms of child labour. Nevertheless, there were reports of children begging, unloading freight, delivering goods in markets, washing cars, and working at gas station as well as exploited in prostitution and pornography (US Dept of State 2010).

The law stipulates that the normal workweek should not exceed 40 hours and limits heavy manual labour or hazardous work to no more than 36 hours a week. The law limits overtime to two hours in a day or one hour a day for heavy manual labour. Overtime is prohibited for work in hazardous conditions. The Ministry of Labour and Social Protection enforced minimum wages, working hours' restrictions, and overtime. Ministry inspectors conducted random inspections of employers. Labour advocates reported that some employers regularly violated labour legislation. The law provides for the right to safe and hygienic working conditions, but working and safety conditions in the industrial, agricultural, and construction sectors were often substandard. Workers in factories usually lacked protective clothing and worked in conditions of poor visibility and ventilation. There were reports of management ignoring regulations concerning occupational health and safety (US Dept of State 2010).

Of particular relevance for the young female target group of the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project is the following labour legislation, based on the RK Labour Code, 15.05.2007 № 252-3 of the Republic of Kazakhstan and more specific regulations as mentioned below (website Wageindicator / Kazakhstan-mojazarplata; ILO-Travail database; ILO Natlex):

- overtime pay shall not be lower than one and a half rate. Where piece-rate systems are used overtime shall be paid not lower 50% of the set tariff rate (Law, 04.12.2008 № 96-4);
- the annual leave with pay granted to the workers shall be of at least 24 calendar days duration (Order of the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection, 31.07.2007 № 182);
- work on days off shall not be paid lower than the double rate. If the worker wants so, work on days off can be compensated with an additional day of rest (Law, 13.12.2001 № 267-II on holidays);
- women shall be granted maternity leave of 70 calendar days before the childbirth and 56 (or 70 in case of complicated childbirth or delivery of two or more children) days after the childbirth (Code, 18.09.2009 № 193-4 on public health and healthcare);
- maternity leave benefit is defined by calculating the average monthly income for the past 12 calendar months before the social risk by the corresponding coefficients (Code, 18.09.2009 № 193-4 on public health and healthcare).

2.4.2. Labour relations and wage-setting

The trade union movement of Kazakhstan consists of both “traditional” and, after independence newly created, “independent” trade unions. The traditional trade union confederation, the Federation of Trade Unions of the Republic of Kazakhstan (FTURK, FPRK or SFPK), was formally established in October 1990. It took over organisational and financial positions from the union movement linked up with the Kazakh SSR government. In the 1990s, FPRK played an outspokenly political role, including participation in the parliamentary elections of 1995, 1999 and 2004.² In 2005, a reorientation followed towards a role more defensive of workers’ rights and conditions, also aiming at the wider inclusion of young people and women. By then, the reduction of membership of FPRK-affiliated unions proceeding from 1990 had slowed down: starting with a membership of 7.5 million in 1990, that amount fell to 5.1 million in 1995 and 2.2 million in 2000, as to preliminary end up with an estimated 2.0 million in 2005. A number of reasons for this reduction has been mentioned: internal conflicts; dependency on management of (state-owned) firms;

2 In 1995, an officially registered trade union group of deputies, Enbek, was created in parliament, comprising 16 members; from 1999 on, Enbek comprised 15 members. In the 2004 elections, 18 of the 29 candidates supported by the trade unions were elected, of which nine were members of Enbek and nine of the Nur Otan party (NN 2005).

expansion of the non-state sector and informalisation of the economy; refusal to pay union dues, both by members and by unions (to the federation), and lack of defensive union activities. Moreover, the break away from the embeddedness of unions in the state system has been described as a painful and still uncompleted process (NN 2005).

Important for the FPRK confederation has been its continuous participation in the National Tripartite Commission, started up in 1992 on its initiative and based on social partnership principles. The Commission is composed of government, employers' associations, and trade union representatives, and responsible for preparing and signing the annual General (Collective) Agreement. The General Agreement forms the basis for national, regional and sectoral collective agreements and for related Tripartite Commissions to prepare and monitor these agreements. The tripartite process has not pursued without tensions, though these often did not come into the open. Open conflict arose in 1996, when changes in the pension legislation allowed that pensioners under certain conditions could only receive 50% of their pensions. Against the background of increasing unemployment, the period 1996-1999 was characterized by confrontations between the authorities and the unions, with mass protests of workers against the government postponing minimum wage and other social legislation. In 1997 the government tried to agree a separate agreement without participation of the FPRK union confederation; the unions stuck to their principles and in the end a "normal" General Agreement was signed. In 1999 the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection proposed a new Labour Law. Discussions between government, unions and employers about the draft law took place through a boisterous correspondence, only reaching the mass media when the law came into effect in 2000. The new law basically introduced a contract system, with conflict between employer and employee to be resolved in court. Compensation for redundancy was reduced. Maternity and child care leave was reduced from three years to one year. In July 2004 a new draft Labour Code was published. Only after long parliamentary debates most trade union proposals were incorporated in the law (NN 2005).

In recent years the government remains rather dominant in the Tripartite Commissions, instead of being a neutral broker. Another problem is the weakness and diversity of the employers' organisation. Nevertheless, the union input in the system recently allowed the union movement to claim at least some successes. For example, it is claimed that through this mechanism in 2009 unions succeeded to raise the lowest wage scales in collective agreements for some industries, including mining and metallurgy. Also, in response to the global financial crisis unions are said to have played a key role in maintaining jobs for workers in industries facing declining demand (NN 2005; US Dept of State 2010).

Already in 1989 the first free trade union in the former USSR was created in Kazakhstan, called Birles or Unity, with its basis in the non-state sector, notably among aviation, education and health staff. In 2001, the independent trade union centre emerged, the Confederation of Free Trade Unions of Kazakhstan (KSPK). In the 1990s KSPK maintained a rather conflictuous relation with the FPRK confederation, but in 2003, under new leadership, it began to conduct a policy of reconciliation with FPRK and the authorities. The majority of KSPK affiliates did not agree with this policy and, jointly with a number of unions previously not belonging to any centre, participated in March 2004 in the formation of the Confederation of Labour of Kazakhstan (CLK). The remaining free trade unions dwarfed (NN 2005). Though membership figures are extremely difficult to trace, also for the confederations themselves, the estimate may be justified that the traditional confederation currently organises 1.5 million workers (cf. website Global Union Directory), or nearly 20% of the labour force at large, and the independent unions a somewhat lower share. These figures imply a total union density in 2008 of about 35% of the labour force at large, or slightly over 50% of all paid employees. According to the US Dept of State, in 2009 at least one-third of the workforce was unionized. The traditional confederation currently unites 25 national unions and 13 regional (“oblast”) industrial unions (US Dept of State 2010). Formally the Kazakh confederations are not affiliated to the ITUC, but they receive advice from various bodies linked with the ITUC, like global union federations (GUFs) as the International Metalworkers’ Federation (IMF)(cf. Ivanou 2010).

The law protects the rights of unions to conduct their activities without interference, and unions were free to recruit new members, conduct meetings, to bargain collectively with employers and to conclude collective agreements. The law provides that labour agreements may stipulate the length of working time, holidays, and paid annual leave for each worker. As of July 31, 2008, the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection reported that collective agreements were concluded with 83% of large enterprises, 84% of medium-sized enterprises, and 14% of small enterprises (US Dept of State 2009). In 2008 and 2009 the government increased efforts to encourage collective bargaining. As a result the FPRK confederation reported in September 2009 that 95% of all unionized enterprises had concluded collective agreements, a 2%points increase from the previous year. Activists noted the promising trend and stressed that political pressure was driving the rapid conclusion of such agreements (US Dept of State 2010). It has been illustrated with examples that multinational enterprises (MNEs) in Kazakhstan mostly form the toughest union opponents, and often forget about the principles of social dialogue they used to follow in their home countries (cf. Ivanou 2010).

2.5. Minimum wage and poverty

2.5.1. The statutory minimum wage

In 2009 the national monthly minimum wage, set by law, was 13,717 Tenge (approximately USD 91): 22.8% of the 2009 average monthly wage of 60,620 Tenge (authors' recalculation based on website SAK). According to the Labour Code, 15.05.2007 № 252-3, and Law 04.12.2008 № 96-4, the minimum monthly wage is the guaranteed minimum of payments to an employee who is engaged in simple unqualified labour and is fulfilling the labour norms (labour duties) in normal conditions and during normal length of working time per month. Besides the general minimum law, there are 50 sectoral raising coefficients, defined by the sectoral agreements and approved by the government (website WageIndicator / mojarplata; website SAK).

The minimum wage was increased from the 2008 level of 10,515 Tenge, a rise that exactly followed the inflation rate of 2008-09. Thus, it comes as no surprise that, according to among others the US Dept of State (2010), the Kazakh minimum wage does not provide a decent standard of living for a worker and family. However, the State Dept adds, it is common for working-class families to have more than one wage earner, and most workers earn above minimum wage in urban areas. In 2009, for the first time in recent years the monthly minimum wage exceeded the minimum monthly subsistence level, which was set at an average 12,700 Tenge (approximately USD 84) during the first eight months of the year (US Dept of State 2010; website WageIndicator / mojarplata). In 2004, the unions made a considerable effort to increase the minimum wage to 6,600 Tenge, by the time 21.5% of the average monthly wage (NN 2005; website SAK). The distance between minimum and average wage slightly decreased over the last five years, though that distance remained quite large.

2.5.2. Inequality and poverty

Results on measuring poverty are somewhat outdated for Kazakhstan. It is clear, however, that the country after the turn of the century has managed in bringing down the share of poor that rose dramatically in the 1990s. Quite remarkably for a resource-rich country, its growth pattern has been essentially pro-poor (Verme 2006; Hare and Naumov 2008). For 2003, it was estimated that 17.2% of the country's population lived below the common UN income poverty yardstick of USD 2 a day (UNDP 2008), and for 2004 this share was estimated (in 2005 PPP's) at 10.4%. In 1996, 5.0% of the population was computed to live below the USD 1.25 a day yardstick for extreme poverty, and for 2004 (in 2005 PPP's) 1.2% was estimated

to live below this yardstick (UNDP 2008; Bauer *et al* 2008, 20). Also in 1996, 34.6% lived below the national poverty line, a share that had declined to 15.4% in 2002 but increased to 16.1% in 2004, when the national poverty line was 5,427 Tenge per month (UNDP 2008; UN MDG Indicators).

Income inequality in Kazakhstan is relatively limited. In the transition period the Gini coefficient (a measure that rates 0 as perfect equality and 100 as perfect inequality) using income distribution figures indicated growing inequality, though not as much as in other CIS countries, increasing from 0.260 in 1987-88 to 0.330 in 1993-95 (Milanovic 1998, 41), before gradually falling to 0.315 in 2003³, 0.304 in 2005 and 0.288 in 2008 (CIA World Factbook) -- relatively low figures in international perspective, though under-reporting in the higher income categories may have led to the underestimation of inequality and the current Gini coefficient may give a too sunny picture (see our country reports on Indonesia and Azerbaijan).

An in-depth report on living conditions in 2002 presents a more structural picture of poverty in Kazakhstan. Whereas by that time 15.4% of the total population lived under the national poverty line, this was on average 10.2% in the urban areas and 21.7% in the rural areas. Additionally, 28% of the population lived in poor housing conditions, and 11% had only primary education or less. In 2002, an estimated 43% suffered from at least one form of poverty: 58% in rural areas and 30% in urban areas. Housing poverty and the broader problem of poor quality of basic infrastructure services (see section 2.6.2) were prevalent (World Bank 2004). In 2001-02 mobility out of poverty was rather low, except for resource-rich regions: here, very high growth rates in the non-agricultural sector led to substantial reductions in urban poverty. The TSA Program, an anti-poverty program introduced in 2002, though according to the World Bank comparatively efficient, reached only three in ten of the poorest 20% because of its rather modest funding, and its benefit levels were too low to raise the majority of its poor beneficiaries out of poverty (World Bank 2004, 35). By 2002, the pension system was the main mechanism for preventing poverty among the elderly, but under the pension reform the level of benefits will decline significantly below the 2002 level, especially after 2020. The overall decline is driven by the steep decline in the value of women's pensions due to the more direct relationship between wages and years of work in the new system. According to the World Bank, "The significant reduction of pension benefits could lead to a greater prevalence of poverty among the elderly, especially women." Moreover, the current pension system "does not address the special problems

3 Verme (2006) found for 2002 a Gini coefficient of 0.281, but also noted a decrease in inequality i.e. of the Gini ratio in the early 2000s. The same holds for Hare and Naumov (2008), calculating Gini ratio's of 0.357 in 2002 and 0.334 in 2005. They found regional Gini coefficients varying in 2005 between 0.349 (in Akmolinskaya) and 0.252 (in Jambilskaya). The most mineral-rich regions had widely differing Gini's (Atiraukaya 0.345, Mangistauskaya 0.299), but both the ratios showed a strong decline from 2001-2005. In 2005 the two largest cities had a comparatively high Gini ratio i.e. considerable inequality (Almaty 0.343, Astana 0.345).

faced by workers in the rural sector or informal economy” (World Bank 2004, 37). In these sections, the study suggests that female-headed households were more locked in poverty than male-headed households, but hard evidence was lacking.

2.6. Demographics and female labour force

2.6.1. Population and fertility

Our historical overview already explained the complex demography of Kazakhstan. Currently, there are two dominant ethnical groups, ethnic Kazakhs (according to the preliminary outcomes of the 2009 Census 63.1% of the population) and ethnic Russians (23.7%), with a wide array of other groups, like Ukrainians, Uzbeks, Uyghurs, Tatars, and Germans. After the fall of the Soviet Union, the German population part emigrated en masse to Germany, their share falling from 5.8% in 1989 to 1.1% in 2009; so did many Russians, moving to Russia, the Russian population share consequently decreasing from 37.4% in 1989. Moreover, ethnic Kazakhs (re)migrated from Russia, Mongolia, and China. Though various total population figures for the last decades circulate that show discrepancies⁴, it is clear that the country went through a substantial population growth (27%) between 1970 and 1989, followed by a sharp downward trend from 1989 to 2002, when population after independence declined by nearly 1.6 million and bottomed at 14.9 million: a decrease of 10.2% or an average 0.6% yearly. From 2002 on, population increased again, by 1,15 million, 7.8% or averaged 0.9% yearly. There are signs that population growth even has speeded up recently: based on the official figures, the 2008-2009 growth rate may have been 1.9% (wikipedia's Kazakhstan and Demographics of Kazakhstan; CIA World Factbook).

The total fertility rate (TFR, the number of births a woman would have if she survived to age 50) is currently estimated at 1.88 and the birth rate at 16.6 per 1,000 of the population, thus rather low. TFR's may widely differ between population groups: in 1999 the TFR for ethnic Kazakhs was 2.5 and that for Russians was less than 1.4. The current death rate is set at about 9.4 per 1,000 (wikipedia Demographics of Kazakhstan; CIA World Factbook). The urbanisation rate in 2007 stood at 58%, a growth of 2%points compared to 2000. The estimated annual rate of change in urbanisation for 2005-2010 is 1.2% (CIA World

⁴ As of 2003, various Western sources show different figures. The CIA World Factbook (and the US Census Bureau) population estimates are 3.5-4% above those of the World Bank. Yet, in turn the CIA World Factbook estimates are considerably below the (preliminary) 2009 Census outcomes. The latter comes at 16,005 million inhabitants, the CIA World Factbook at 15,399 million for 2009. In the text we follow the Census figures for 1970, 1989, 1999 and 2009, and domestic Kazakh estimates for 2002, 2005, and 2008. We leave out the highly unreliable domestic estimate for 1993, suggesting continuous growth from 1989-1993 (cf. wikipedia Demographics of Kazakhstan).

Factbook; WHO 2009). There still is net out-migration, though recently much less than a decade ago. For 2009 the net migration rate was an estimated 3.3 per 1,000 of the population, or about 55,000 people out-migrating. Also for 2009 the median age is estimated at 29.6 years, 28.1 years for males and 31.3 years for females (CIA World Factbook).

For both 1999 and 2006, the MICS survey outcome stated was nearly 100% of births (99.1% in 1999, 99.8% in 2006) were attended by skilled health personnel (a health professional; UN MDG Indicators). Indeed, the country's child mortality is rather low, though child mortality rates vary dramatically across regions (oblasts); they vary with poverty rates at the oblast level indicating a strong link between poverty and poor health outcomes (World Bank 2004, 21). In 2005 neonatal mortality (deaths during the first 28 days of life per 1000 live births) stood at 32 per 1,000 live births, in international comparison a rate in the middle ranks though considerably above the regional average for Europe (WHO 2009). The infant mortality rate (probability of dying between birth and age 1 per 1,000 live births) stood at 28 in 2007, considerable progress as the rate for 1990 was 51 and the rate for 2000 38. The average under 5 mortality rate (probability of dying between by age 5 per 1,000 live births) was 32 by 2007, again major progress as the rate came down from 60 in 1990 and 44 in 2000. By contrast, with 140 per 100,000 live births in 2005, the maternity mortality rate in 2005 was high and over five times the regional average for Europe (ADB 2009a; WHO 2009; UN Data).

For an indication of the situation of our target group, the adolescent fertility rate (births per 1,000 women 15-19 of age) is of special importance. For 2007, according to national statistics the rate for Kazakhstan was set at 28.6, in international perspective a moderately low figure. In the 1990s this rate showed a steep decrease, in particular from 56.2 in 1994 to 31.0 in 2000, as to stabilise at a level between 26 and 29 per 1,000 afterwards (WHO 2009; UN MDG Indicators). Early marriage and early pregnancy do occur, but seem to remain rather limited. A 2004 UN report estimated that 7% of girls aged between 15 and 19 were married, divorced or widowed (website OECD-SIGI). In 2006 the average age of women giving birth of their first child was 24.0 years (UNECE 2009).

2.6.2. Health

The number of people in Kazakhstan living with HIV/AIDS for 2007 was estimated at 12,000, or 0.7 per 1,000, and that was low in comparison with the rest of the region (CIA World Factbook). The World Health Organization notes since 2001 a slow rise of the HIV prevalence among adults over the age 15, up to 112 per 100,000 in 2007 (WHO 2009). Organisations involved in fighting the epidemic worry about

behavioural risks in Kazakhstan as the levels of public awareness of HIV/AIDS seem low. With 22%, the proportion of the 15-24-year-old females with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS is rather low; figures for knowledge of their male peers are missing. Older figures on condom use at last high risk sex among 15-24 year-olds, as of 1999, vary widely between males and females: whereas males indicated 65% in the affirmative, for females this was only 32%. Condom use to overall contraceptive use among currently married women 15-49 years old is, though increasing, still quite low: 6.8% in 1999, 9.5% in 2006 (WHO 2009; UN MDG Indicators). In Kazakhstan HIV/AIDS treatment is progressing. In 2007 coverage of Anti Retro-Viral Therapy (ART) for people with advanced HIV infection stood at 23% (WHO 2009).

Though recovering from the lows of the 1990s, health indicators are still low by international standards. For 2000-2005, the probability of not surviving to age 40 in Kazakhstan was estimated at the relatively high score of 11.1% of the relevant age cohort. After life expectancy for both sexes had been falling in the 1990s, the 2000s witnessed a rebound (WHO 2009). For 2006, life expectancy at birth was set at 61.0 years for males and 71.8 years for females (UNDP 2008). For 2009, the country's life expectancy at birth was estimated at 62.5 years for males: an increase of 1.4 year compared to three years before and 73.5 years for females, an increase of 1.7 years (CIA World Factbook), thus pointing in a positive direction for both sexes though still at rather low levels.

With 3.6% of the GDP in 2006, total health expenditure is rather low and –mainly because of falling private expenditure—even decreasing in comparison with 2000 (4.2%). The proportion of the population living below a minimum level of dietary energy consumption as defined by the FAO until 2003-2005 remained less than 5%; more recent figures are lacking. According to the international statistics the share of the population not using an improved water source was a low 4% in 2006, with some spatial differentiation: 1% in urban areas and 9% in rural areas. In the same year, the proportion of people not using improved sanitation facilities was officially only 3%, with 2% the rural areas even scoring better than the urban areas with 3% (ADB 2008a; WHO 2009).

However, according to the 2002 National Household Survey only a few years earlier access to essential infrastructure services was much more limited, in particular in urban areas. By then, 25% of the urban population had no access to piped water, and 38% of this population had no access to a sewerage system. In the bottom 20% of incomes the latter proportion was 67%, but even in the top 20% almost one-quarter lacked access to sewerage systems and 12% lacked access to piped water. Heating systems are essential provisions in view of the cold winters of Kazakhstan, but in 2002 only 60% of the urban population had

access to district heating: 77% among the top 20% incomes, and only 31% of the poorest 20%. Among the latter 20% an estimated 4% did not have any heating, indicating a high degree of deprivation on their part. Moreover, the use of coal and liquid gas by lower income groups raises questions about indoor pollution and possible adverse impact on immediate health, especially for the young and elderly (World Bank 2004, 26-7). More recently, delivery of rural water supply and sanitation services has been characterized as widely inadequate by the Asian Development Bank, having provided a loan to Kazakhstan for a program covering over a half million people living in rural communities and benefitting from the provision of potable qualified piped water and improved wastewater drainage facilities, to be completed in 2010 (ADB 2008b).

2.6.3. Women's labour market share

In Table 5 we present the division of the Kazakhstani labour force by industry and gender, for the labour force at large. The table shows that still a considerable part of the labour force of Kazakhstan is in agriculture: about 30%, comparatively slightly more men than women. For both sexes, wholesale and retail trade is the second largest employer, though for females this industry is, with nearly 18%, more important than for males, for nearly 12% employed in wholesale and retail. For women, education comes third (14.2%), followed by health and social work (6.9%) and manufacturing (5.5%). Also for men (7.3%), the share of manufacturing in employment is low, but this can be explained by the fact that a large part of manufacturing is in capital-intensive chemical, metallurgy and metal industries. In 2008, 30% of the female labour force was in commercial services, of which over half in wholesale and retail.

Table 5. *Employment by industry and gender, total labour force, Kazakhstan, 2008*

	all		male		female	
	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%
agriculture, forestry, fishing	2,370	30.2	1,250	31.1	1,120	29.2
mining	200	2.5	149	3.7	51	1.3
manufacturing	573	7.3	360	9.0	213	5.5
utilities (gas, water, electr.)	165	2.1	115	2.9	50	1.3
construction	549	7.0	418	10.4	131	3.4
wholesale and retail	1,150	14.6	470	11.7	680	17.8
transport, storage, commun.	589	7.5	434	10.8	155	4.0
restaurants, hotels	103	1.3	32	0.8	71	1.8
finance	96	1.2	37	0.9	59	1.5
real estate, renting, business	378	4.8	182	4.5	196	5.1
public administrat., defense	375	4.8	206	5.1	169	4.4
education	754	9.6	195	4.9	559	14.2
health, social work	347	4.4	82	2.0	265	6.9
other community services	205	2.6	88	2.2	178	4.6
Total	7,857	100	4,018	100	3,839	100

Source: ILO Laborsta, Table 2B

Table 6 presents an overview of the female employment shares by industry for the labour force at large. Seven of 15 industries show a female share above the average 48.9%, all with a female majority. With over 87%, this majority is quite large in other community services, but also in health and social work (76%); education (74%); restaurants and hotels (69%); finance (over 61%), and wholesale and retail (59%). In international perspective, notably the high female share in finance is surprising. By contrast, with 45% the female share in public administration is in that perspective rather low.

Table 6. Female employment shares by industry, total labour force, Kazakhstan, 2008

	x 1,000	%
agriculture, forestry, fishing	1,120	47.3
mining	51	25.5
manufacturing	213	37.2
utilities (gas, water, electr.)	50	30.3
construction	131	23.9
wholesale and retail	680	59.1
transport, storage, commun.	155	26.3
restaurants, hotels	71	68.9
finance	59	61.5
real estate, renting, business	196	51.9
public administrat., defense	169	45.1
education	559	74.1
health, social work	265	76.4
other community services	178	86.8
Total	3,839	48.9

Source: authors' calculations on ILO Laborsta, Table 2B

Table 7 (next page) gives an overview of the total labour force divided by occupational group and gender, for 2008. The table shows that the qualification structure of the Kazakhstani female labour force is rather well balanced. In 2008 a rather limited share, 20% of all women employed, was at the bottom of the labour market, in elementary occupations, about the same share as for males. A considerable share, over 1.34 million or one in three women (35%), could be found in the three occupational groups at the top of the organisational hierarchy.

Table 7. Employment by occupational group and gender, total labour force, Kazakhstan, 2008

	all		male		female	
	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%
legislators, senior officials, managers	506	6.4	312	7.8	194	5.1
professionals	1,006	12.8	323	8.0	683	17.8
technicians, associate professionals	714	9.1	247	6.1	467	12.2
clerks	170	2.2	46	1.1	124	3.2
service, shop, sales workers	1,077	13.7	360	9.0	717	18.7
skilled agricultural, fishery workers	1,281	16.4	657	16.5	624	16.3
craft and related trades	739	9.4	570	14.3	169	4.4
plant & machine operators, assemblers	713	9.1	636	15.9	77	2.0
elementary occupations	1,625	20.8	848	21.2	777	20.2
Total	7,857	100.0	4,018	100.0	3,839	100.0

Source: ILO Laborsta, Table 2C

Building on Table 7, Table 8 shows the female employment shares by occupational group in Kazakhstan for 2008. Quite remarkable is that, except for the very top level, women are clearly over-represented in four occupational groups at the higher and middle levels, each time with more than a two to one parity: among professionals (68%); technicians and associate professionals (65%); clerks (73%), and service, shop and sales workers (67%). Even at the level of legislators, senior officials and managers, the female share of 38% is rather high in international perspective. By contrast, with just 10% the female share in operational manufacturing occupations is quite low.

Table 8. Employment by occupational group and gender, total labour force, Kazakhstan, 2008

	x 1,000	%
legislators, senior officials, managers	194	38.3
professionals	683	67.9
technicians, associate professionals	467	65.4
clerks	124	72.9
service, shop, sales workers	717	66.6
skilled agricultural, fishery workers	624	48.7
craft and related trades	169	22.9
plant & machine operators, assemblers	77	10.8
elementary occupations	777	47.8
Total	3,839	48.9

Source: authors' calculations on ILO Laborsta, Table 2C

2.7. Education and skill levels of the female labour force

2.7.1. Literacy

Traditionally literacy has been quite high in Kazakhstan. The country's adult literacy rate—those age 15 and over that can read and write—in 1999-2006 was, according to the UNDP Human Development Indicators, 97.9%, divided in 99.0% for men and 96.7% for women and resulting in a women to men parity rate of 98% (UNDP 2008). For 2007 the youth (15-24-year-olds) literacy rate of Kazakhstan was with 99.8% close to the maximum; young females scored 99.9%, against 99.8% for the young males. Already in 1999, these scores were 99.9% and 99.8% (MDG Indicator 2.3).

2.7.2. Education of girls

Education is mandatory through 16 years of age or secondary school; elementary schooling generally begins at age six. Primary and secondary education are free and universal. The law provides equal access to education for boys and girls (website OECD-SIGI). In 2006, the combined gross enrollment rate in education was for Kazakhstan 91.8%, divided in 88.5% for females and 95.1% for males, or 93% women to men parity (UNDP 2008).

Since independence, pre-school education has been neglected. Remarkably for a country in which a majority of women works full-time, less than half of all children aged four and five are enrolled (UIS 2010). In its 2009 Anti-Crisis plan, the government has included “improved pre-school education” (Republic of Kazakhstan 2009). Primary school begins at age six and runs from years 1 to 5. The total net enrollment ratio in primary education was in 2007 99.0%, large progress compared to 1991 when this rate of 86.7%. In 2007, with 99.4% the rate for girls was even higher than that for boys (98.6%), implying 101% women to men parity (ADB 2008a). Another important indicator concerning primary educational advancement is the primary completion rate, taking account of drop-outs and indicating which share of the children who have enrolled in the first grade of primary education can be expected to reach the last grade. With 99.5% in 2007 the primary completion rate was in Kazakhstan remarkably high; the girls' rate was even 100%, surpassing the boys' rate of 99.1% and again bringing women to men parity at 101%. Notably girls progressed as in 1991 their rate was still 93.3%, whereas the rate for boys (in 1991 98.4%) obviously met its limits earlier (ADB 2008a; UIS 2010). As regards disparities in education along urban-rural and income divisions, only data as of 1999 is available. By then, such disparities were remarkably small. Primary school attendance rates were only 1.2%points higher for children living in urban areas over those from rural areas, and 1.3%points

for children from the richest 20% of families over those from the poorest 20%. The drop-outs also differed only marginally, with a rate of 0.4% for urban children against 0.5% for rural children, and a zero rate for children from the richest 20% against 1.0% for children from the poorest 20% (UIS 2010).

Students continue in lower secondary school from grade 5 to year 9. Higher secondary education comprises three tracks: general secondary school, covering grades 10 and 11; initial vocational education provided by training schools and lycees, and secondary vocational education provided by colleges and trade schools (wikipedia Education in Kazakhstan). Women to men parity in secondary education, which in 1990 was 78%, increased to 97% in 2004, the same proportion as in 2007. Whereas, because of smaller age cohorts, between 2004 and 2007 the number of boys enrolled fell by 11,000, the number of girls increased at the same time by 10,600 (UN Data). Again, as regards disparities in education only data as of 1999 is available. In secondary education disparities were much larger: secondary school attendance rates were 5.3%points higher for children living in urban areas over those from rural areas, and even 12.2%points higher for children from the richest 20% of families than for those from the poorest 20%. The drop-out rates also differed considerably, with a rate of 4.0% for urban children against 7.2% for rural children, and a 3.3% drop-out rate for children from the richest 20% against 8.9% for children from the poorest 20% (UIS 2010). Over-all, the drop-out rates were among the lowest in the region. Neither age of the child nor mother's education affected the drop-out rate in Kazaklhstan significantly (UNESCO 2005).

Since in tertiary education a system of tuition fees has been introduced, income differences play a major role in further education. In 2002 only 16% of the poorest 20% young adults aged 25-29 had completed university or college, against 45% of the richest 20% (World Bank 2004, 23). Enrollment of young women in tertiary education is in Kazakhstan growingly higher than enrollment of young males. Women to men parity in tertiary education, which in 1999 was 115%, developed into 144% for 2008 (World Bank WDI). In 1999 already 3.9% of the females of secondary age in school had started higher education, against only 1.8% of males (UIS 2010). In 2009, the country had 26 institutions of tertiary education, universities and colleges; the two top universities are al_farabi Kazakh National University in Almaty and Eurasian National University in Astana, but other universities have also earned a good reputation (wikipedia Education in Kazakhstan).

2.7.3. Female skill levels

Table 9 (next page) presents the division of the economically active population of Kazakhstan by gender and educational attainment, based on official estimates as of 2008 and following the ISCED division. In line with the statistics on employment by occupational group, the table shows that women in the employed population have on average a higher educational level than their male colleagues. Not only were women underrepresented at the lower levels, they were also well represented at the highest levels. The considerable share of nearly 26% of all women in employment had reached ISCED 5-6 level, 56% of all at this level, bringing women to men parity at 125%. If we attach a 1 to 5 ranking to the five levels, starting with 1 for ISCED 1, the outcomes clarify that there is a positive gender gap: the average female rating is 3.17, against a male average of 3.01. Comparison with statistics as of 2002 suggest that the gender distance remained about the same between 2002-2008.⁵

Table 9. Economically active population (incl. unemployed) by highest level of education completed and by gender, Kazakhstan, 2008

	all		male		female	
	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%
no education completed (ISCED 1)	383	4.6	211	5.0	172	4.1
second level, first stage (ISCED 2)	2,645	31.4	1,405	33.1	1,240	29.7
second level, second stage (ISCED 3)	3,149	37.4	1,630	38.4	1,520	36.4
third level, first stage (ISCED 4)	289	3.4	132	3.1	157	3.8
third level, second stage (ISCED 5-6)	1,949	23.2	866	20.4	1,082	25.9
Total	8,415	100.0	4,244	100.0	4,171	100.0

Source: ILO Laborsta, Table 1B

The in-depth analysis cited earlier for 2002 confirmed that the labour market of Kazakhstan is segmented along regional and gender dimensions. It showed that, other things equal, (a) being a female significantly lowered the chances of finding employment, and lowered the level of earnings; (b) workers in high poverty regions were less likely to hold a job than other workers with similar qualifications and in the same sectors; (c) the public sector (including state-owned enterprises) had the highest wage premium, and (d) workers in agricultural regions saw much lower earnings than workers in other regions, also for non-farm occupations (World Bank 2004, 19).

Table 10 (next page) presents the 2008 official unemployment rates by gender and highest level of education completed. Most striking is that women are worse off at all educational levels, except for third level, first stage (ISCED 4), where unemployment is highest. It should be noted that this regards a rather small group, making up 3-4% of the economically active population, and that there is some unclarity in

⁵ Unfortunately, changes between 2002 and 2008 in the statistical grouping of the number of employed at various ISCED levels do not allow a more detailed picture over time of the educational structure.

recent statistics whether at this level the unemployed matched correctly with the employed. This unclarity may have led to an overestimation of the unemployment rate at level 4 and some underestimation of that rate at levels 5-6. Notably in rural areas unemployment among the higher educated turns out to be considerable, which points at both low geographical mobility and problems of labour market segmentation (World Bank 2004, 23). Of course, the huge distances in Kazakhstan play their role here.

Table 10. Unemployment by gender and highest level of education completed, % of economically active population, Kazakhstan, 2008

	all	male	female
first level (ISCED 1)	9.3	7.9	11.5
second level, first stage (ISCED 2)	8.1	6.5	10.0
second level, second stage (ISCED 3)	5.8	4.2	7.5
third level, first stage (ISCED 4)	13.5	15.8	11.7
third level, second stage (ISCED 5-6)	4.4	3.3	5.2
Total	6.6	5.3	7.9

Source: authors' calculations based on ILO Laborsta, Table 3C

We are now able to produce an estimate of the size of the target group of the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project for Kazakhstan, the girls and young women aged 15-29, working in urban areas in commercial services -- that is, wholesale and retail as well as commercial services more narrowly defined, like finance and restaurants and hotels. The total size of the female labour force aged 15-29 in Kazakhstan can be estimated at 1,188,000. Given an urbanisation rate of 58%, about 690,000 girls and young women lived and worked in urban areas. Of this 690,000, about one in three⁶ or about 230,000 can be estimated to belong to our target group as they worked in commercial services. A large majority of them, about 70 to 80%, will work in paid employment. Some 90,000 to 110,000 (depending on the economic conditions) girls and young women will enter into commercial services employment in the next five years.

⁶ We calculate with a 4%points overrepresentation of girls and young women aged 15-29 in commercial services compared to women over age 29.

2.8. Wages and working conditions of the target group

2.8.1. Wages

Concerning wages, we focus here on the differences in wages between men and women, the gender pay (wage) gap, though Table 11 also gives a picture of the wage differences between industries in Kazakhstan. It shows that for both genders by far the highest earnings are in finance, paying respectively 144% (men) and 152% (women) over the average earnings, with mining ranking second. Earnings in the other industries follow at quite some distance. Remarkably low are the official average earnings in education, health and social work, also for males. Except for agriculture and fishing, the health and social work sector even closes the ranks.

Table 11. Average monthly earnings of employees by industry and by gender, Kazakhstan, 2008, in Tenge

	total	male	female	m/f gap
agriculture	31,407	34,084	24,698	27.6
fishing	28,894	30,714	22,428	27.0
mining	109,933	117,867	82,517	30.0
manufacturing	65,874	73,457	48,764	33.6
utilities (gas, water, electr.)	55,955	60,346	46,423	23.6
construction	81,573	83,407	61,985	25.7
wholesale and retail	59,330	66,094	51,208	22.5
transport, storage, communication	83,012	87,342	73,749	15.6
restaurants, hotels	64,382	90,832	52,137	42.6
finance	138,544	178,649	116,749	34.7
real estate, renting, business	93,557	97,807	84,616	13.5
public administrat., defense	47,276	51,670	40,540	21.5
education	34,454	37,255	33,506	10.1
health, social work	35,775	39,384	34,952	11.2
other community and personal services	61,369	75,816	47,914	36.8
Total	54,514	63,441	43,501	31.4

Source: authors' recalculation based on ILO Laborsta; website SAK

In the Constitution of Kazakhstan (amended 2007) and the Labour Code 2007 the principle of fair pay is laid down: the worker is guaranteed fair pay for labour in compliance with its quantitative, qualitative and public importance. Yet, there is a rather wide gender pay gap. In the fourth column of the table we have indicated the magnitude of this gap,⁷ on a monthly base. It has to be added that this gap is normally calculated on an hourly base, as to eliminate differences in hours worked between men and women. The scarcely available and rather outdated statistics for Kazakhstan show hardly any gender differences in hours worked.

⁷ Using the international standard formula for the gender pay (or wage) gap: $((\text{wage men} - \text{wage women}) : \text{wage men}) \times 100$.

A full-time working week, of 35-45 hours, clearly is the country's standard, also for a majority of women workers; in 2006, 27% of women worked less than 35 hours (website SAK). Thus, the figures of Table 11 are reasonable indications of the gender pay gap in Kazakhstan. With over 31% in 2008, the overall gap was earlier large, also in international perspective. Four industries show higher pay gaps: manufacturing; hotels and restaurants, surprisingly (as this industry across countries has no reputation of high gender pay gaps); finance, and other community and personal services. The two industries with the lowest average earnings --education, health and social work--also show the smallest gender pay gaps. Some comfort may be found in the fact that with 39.3% in 2003 the gender pay gap was considerably wider (website SAK).

It should be stressed that the evidence on the gender pay gap in Kazakhstan presented here is in contrast with the evidence showed earlier on employment by occupational group, with female overrepresentation in three of four groups of (highly) qualified occupations, and on level of education completed, with Kazakhstani women in employment having surpassed their male colleagues in this respect. The main explanation left for such a large gender pay gap is a large extent of segmentation in the labour market. A second but likely less important explanation may be the existence of practices of wage discrimination. More generally, wage inequalities remain large in Kazakhstan (Arabsheibani and Mussurov 2006). Besides wages varying largely across sectors, occupational categories and gender, they also vary widely across the urban – rural divide and across regions (oblasts), and again segmentation will be the dominant force here. In 2002, the average wage in rural areas was significantly lower --less than half-- than the average urban wage (USD 380 per year versus USD 797), though this does not correct for rural-urban price differences or for workers' educational levels. Across Kazakhstan's regions average wages, this time after correcting for regional price variation, ranged from USD 433 to USD 1,221 per year (World Bank 2004, 18).

2.8.2. Working conditions

The Statistics Agency of Kazakhstan only publishes quite limited statistical information concerning working conditions (cf. website SAK). Concerning occupational health and safety, most information is directly from the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection. Over the first 11 months of 2009, the ministry reported 20,421 inspections and 94,738 violations of occupational health and safety standards and rules. In addition to inspections by the ministry, unions conducted inspections of unionized enterprises and reported their findings to authorities for investigation. The law specifically grants workers the right to remove themselves from situations that endanger their health or safety without losing their job. In practice workers, particularly in the construction industry, were not always free to exercise this right without jeopardizing

their employment. During the first 11 months of 2009, the government reported 1,811 workplace injuries, compared with 2,184 during the first six months of 2008. The government reported 298 workplace deaths during the first 11 months of the year, marking a considerable increase compared with the 117 deaths reported in the first six months of 2008. According to officials at the KSPK union confederation, many of the deaths were due to antiquated equipment, Soviet-era infrastructure, and disregard for safety regulations in the mining and metallurgy sectors (US Dept of State 2010).

As said, the official evidence on working hours by gender is limited and outdated; we refrain from including it here.

3. Basic information for WageIndicator Questionnaire

3.1. Introduction

Preparations for the DECISIONS FOR LIFE Activities 1.03a and 1.03b have resulted in a number of lists, grouped in this Chapter and to be used in the WageIndicator web-survey for country-specific questions and their analyses. This basic information can be used on-line, but if needed also off-line. The lists contain information on educational categories and ISCED levels (3.2), regions (3.3), ethnic groups (3.4.1) and languages (3.4.2).

3.2. List of educational categories and ISCED levels

Below, a full list of the educational categories used in Kazakhstan, designed for use in the web-survey, can be found.

Table 12. List of educational categories in Kazakhstan (by 1/1/2010)

ru_KZ	ru_KZ	Translation	ISCED
398001	KAZ Pre-Primary/Kindergarten	Дошкольное	0
398002	KAZ Primary School	Начальное (1-4 классы)	1
398003	KAZ Basic	Общее базовое (5-9 классы)	2
398004	KAZ General Secondary	Полное среднее образование	3
398005	KAZ Vocational/Professional School (2 year course)	Специализированное среднее образование (2 года)	3
398006	KAZ Vocational/Professional School (4 year course)	Специализированное среднее образование (4 года)	4
398007	KAZ Bachelors degree	Степень бакалавра	5
398008	KAZ Specialists Diploma	Дипломированный специалист	5
398009	KAZ Masters Degree	Степень магистра	5
398010	KAZ Candidate of Sciences	Кандидат наук	5
398011	KAZ Doctorate (PhD)	Докторская степень	6
398012	KAZ Doctor of Sciences	Доктор наук	6

3.3. List of regions

Below, a full list of the regions in Kazakhstan, designed for use in the web-survey, can be found.

Table 13. List of regions in Kazakhstan (by 30/10/2009)

ru_KZ	ru_KZ	Source label	Source label	Translation	Translation
3980040000	3980040131	KAZ Aqtobe	KAZ Aqtobe Aktobe	Ақтобінская область	Ақтобе
3980040000	3980049632	KAZ Aqtobe	KAZ Aqtobe A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Ақтобінская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
3980040000	3980049704	KAZ Aqtobe	KAZ Aqtobe A village (less than 10,000)	Ақтобінская область	В деревне, хутор (10,000 или менее)
3980040000	3980049805	KAZ Aqtobe	KAZ Aqtobe Rural area	Ақтобінская область	Сельская местность
3980030000	3980030132	KAZ Aqmola (Astana)	KAZ Aqmola (Astana) Aqsu	Ақмолинская область	Ақсу
3980030000	3980030231	KAZ Aqmola (Astana)	KAZ Aqmola (Astana) Kokshetau	Ақмолинская область	Кокшетау
3980030000	3980030332	KAZ Aqmola (Astana)	KAZ Aqmola (Astana) Stepnogor	Ақмолинская область	Степногорск
3980030000	3980030432	KAZ Aqmola (Astana)	KAZ Aqmola (Astana) Scucinsk (Shchoche)	Ақмолинская область	Щучинск
3980030000	3980039632	KAZ Aqmola (Astana)	KAZ Aqmola (Astana) A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Ақмолинская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
3980030000	3980039704	KAZ Aqmola (Astana)	KAZ Aqmola (Astana) A village (less than 10,000)	Ақмолинская область	В деревне, хутор (10,000 или менее)
3980030000	3980039805	KAZ Aqmola (Astana)	KAZ Aqmola (Astana) Rural area	Ақмолинская область	Сельская местность
3980010000	3980010131	KAZ Almaty	KAZ Almaty Taldykorgan	Алматынская область	Талдықорған
3980010000	3980019632	KAZ Almaty	KAZ Almaty A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Алматынская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
3980010000	3980019704	KAZ Almaty	KAZ Almaty A village (less than 10,000)	Алматынская область	В деревне, хутор (10,000 или менее)
3980010000	3980019805	KAZ Almaty	KAZ Almaty Rural area	Алматынская область	Сельская местность
3980050000	3980050131	KAZ Atyrau	KAZ Atyrau Atyrau (Gurjev)	Атырауская область	Атырау
3980050000	3980059632	KAZ Atyrau	KAZ Atyrau A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Атырауская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
3980050000	3980059704	KAZ Atyrau	KAZ Atyrau A village (less than 10,000)	Атырауская область	В деревне, хутор (10,000 или менее)
3980050000	3980059805	KAZ Atyrau	KAZ Atyrau Rural area	Атырауская область	Сельская местность
3980070000	3980070131	KAZ Bayqongyr City	KAZ Bayqongyr City Bayqongyr City	Байконур	Байконур
3980060000	3980060131	KAZ Batys Qazaqstan (Oral)	KAZ Batys Qazaqstan (Oral) Oral (Uralsk)	Западно-Казахстанская область	Уральск
3980060000	3980069632	KAZ Batys Qazaqstan (Oral)	KAZ Batys Qazaqstan (Oral) A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Западно-Казахстанская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
3980060000	3980069704	KAZ Batys Qazaqstan (Oral)	KAZ Batys Qazaqstan (Oral) A village (less than 10,000)	Западно-Казахстанская область	В деревне, хутор (10,000 или менее)
3980060000	3980069805	KAZ Batys Qazaqstan (Oral)	KAZ Batys Qazaqstan (Oral) Rural area	Западно-Казахстанская область	Сельская местность

ru_KZ	ru_KZ	Source label	Source label	Translation	Translation
3980160000	3980160132	KAZ Shyghys Qazaqstan (Oskemen)	KAZ Shyghys Qazaqstan (Oskemen) Zyrjan (Zyranovsk)	Восточно-Казахстанская область	Зырянновск
3980160000	3980160232	KAZ Shyghys Qazaqstan (Oskemen)	KAZ Shyghys Qazaqstan (Oskemen) Ridder (Leninogorsk)	Восточно-Казахстанская область	Риддер
3980160000	3980160331	KAZ Shyghys Qazaqstan (Oskemen)	KAZ Shyghys Qazaqstan (Oskemen) Semej (Semi-palatinsk)	Восточно-Казахстанская область	Семей
3980160000	3980160431	KAZ Shyghys Qazaqstan (Oskemen)	KAZ Shyghys Qazaqstan (Oskemen) Oskemen	Восточно-Казахстанская область	Усть-Каменогорск
3980160000	3980169632	KAZ Shyghys Qazaqstan (Oskemen)	KAZ Shyghys Qazaqstan (Oskemen) A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Восточно-Казахстанская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
3980160000	3980169704	KAZ Shyghys Qazaqstan (Oskemen)	KAZ Shyghys Qazaqstan (Oskemen) A village (less than 10,000)	Восточно-Казахстанская область	В деревне, хутор (10,000 или менее)
3980160000	3980169805	KAZ Shyghys Qazaqstan (Oskemen)	KAZ Shyghys Qazaqstan (Oskemen) Rural area	Восточно-Казахстанская область	Сельская местность
3980170000	3980040231	KAZ Astana City	KAZ Astana City Astana	Город Астана	Астана
3980170000	3980170002	KAZ Astana City	KAZ Astana City The suburbs of Astana	Город Астана	Пригорода Астана
3980020000	3980020101	KAZ Almaty City	KAZ Almaty City Almaty	Город Алматы	Алматы
3980020000	3980020202	KAZ Almaty City	KAZ Almaty City The suburbs of Almaty	Город Алматы	Пригорода Алматы
3980140000	3980140132	KAZ Zhambyl (Taraz)	KAZ Zhambyl (Taraz) Karatau	Жамбылская область	Каратау
3980140000	3980140231	KAZ Zhambyl (Taraz)	KAZ Zhambyl (Taraz) Taraz	Жамбылская область	Тараз
3980140000	3980140332	KAZ Zhambyl (Taraz)	KAZ Zhambyl (Taraz) Shu	Жамбылская область	Чу
3980140000	3980149632	KAZ Zhambyl (Taraz)	KAZ Zhambyl (Taraz) A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Жамбылская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
3980140000	3980149704	KAZ Zhambyl (Taraz)	KAZ Zhambyl (Taraz) A village (less than 10,000)	Жамбылская область	В деревне, хутор (10,000 или менее)
3980140000	3980149805	KAZ Zhambyl (Taraz)	KAZ Zhambyl (Taraz) Rural area	Жамбылская область	Сельская местность
3980150000	3980150132	KAZ Qaraghandy	KAZ Qaraghandy Balqas (Balchas)	Карагандинская область	Балхаш
3980150000	3980150232	KAZ Qaraghandy	KAZ Qaraghandy Zezqazgan (Dzezqazgan)	Карагандинская область	Жезказган
3980150000	3980150331	KAZ Qaraghandy	KAZ Qaraghandy Qaragandy (Karaganda)	Карагандинская область	Караганда
3980150000	3980150432	KAZ Qaraghandy	KAZ Qaraghandy Saran	Карагандинская область	Сарань
3980150000	3980150532	KAZ Qaraghandy	KAZ Qaraghandy Satbaev (Nikolskij, Satpajev)	Карагандинская область	Сатпаев
3980150000	3980150631	KAZ Qaraghandy	KAZ Qaraghandy Temirtau	Карагандинская область	Темиртау
3980150000	3980150732	KAZ Qaraghandy	KAZ Qaraghandy Sachtinsk	Карагандинская область	Шахтинск
3980150000	3980159632	KAZ Qaraghandy	KAZ Qaraghandy A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Карагандинская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
3980150000	3980159704	KAZ Qaraghandy	KAZ Qaraghandy A village (less than 10,000)	Карагандинская область	В деревне, хутор (10,000 или менее)
3980150000	3980159805	KAZ Qaraghandy	KAZ Qaraghandy Rural area	Карагандинская область	Сельская местность
3980110000	3980110132	KAZ Qostanay	KAZ Qostanay Arqalyq (Arkalyk)	Костанайская область	Аркалык

ru_KZ	ru_KZ	Source label	Source label	Translation	Translation
3980110000	3980110231	KAZ Qostanay	KAZ Qostanay Qostanay	Костанайская область	Костанай
3980110000	3980110331	KAZ Qostanay	KAZ Qostanay Rudnyj	Костанайская область	Рудный
3980110000	3980119632	KAZ Qostanay	KAZ Qostanay A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Костанайская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
3980110000	3980119704	KAZ Qostanay	KAZ Qostanay A village (less than 10,000)	Костанайская область	В деревне, хутор (10,000 или менее)
3980110000	3980119805	KAZ Qostanay	KAZ Qostanay Rural area	Костанайская область	Сельская местность
3980120000	3980120132	KAZ Qyzylorda	KAZ Qyzylorda Aral (Aralsk)	Кызылординская область	Аральск
3980120000	3980120204	KAZ Qyzylorda	KAZ Qyzylorda Kazaly	Кызылординская область	Казалинск
3980120000	3980120331	KAZ Qyzylorda	KAZ Qyzylorda Qyzylorda	Кызылординская область	Кызылорда
3980120000	3980129632	KAZ Qyzylorda	KAZ Qyzylorda A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Кызылординская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
3980120000	3980129704	KAZ Qyzylorda	KAZ Qyzylorda A village (less than 10,000)	Кызылординская область	В деревне, хутор (10,000 или менее)
3980120000	3980129805	KAZ Qyzylorda	KAZ Qyzylorda Rural area	Кызылординская область	Сельская местность
3980080000	3980080131	KAZ Mangghystau (Aqtau)	KAZ Mangghystau (Aqtau) Aqtau (Sevcenko)	Мангистауская область	Ақтау
3980080000	3980080232	KAZ Mangghystau (Aqtau)	KAZ Mangghystau (Aqtau) Zanaozen (Novyj Uzen)	Мангистауская область	Новый Узень
3980080000	3980089632	KAZ Mangghystau (Aqtau)	KAZ Mangghystau (Aqtau) A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Мангистауская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
3980080000	3980089704	KAZ Mangghystau (Aqtau)	KAZ Mangghystau (Aqtau) A village (less than 10,000)	Мангистауская область	В деревне, хутор (10,000 или менее)
3980080000	3980089805	KAZ Mangghystau (Aqtau)	KAZ Mangghystau (Aqtau) Rural area	Мангистауская область	Сельская местность
3980100000	3980100132	KAZ Pavlodar	KAZ Pavlodar Aksu	Павлодарская область	Ақсу
3980100000	3980100231	KAZ Pavlodar	KAZ Pavlodar Pavlodar	Павлодарская область	Павлодар
3980100000	3980100304	KAZ Pavlodar	KAZ Pavlodar Sharbaky	Павлодарская область	Шарбақты
3980100000	3980100431	KAZ Pavlodar	KAZ Pavlodar Ekibastuz	Павлодарская область	Экібастұз
3980100000	3980109632	KAZ Pavlodar	KAZ Pavlodar A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Павлодарская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
3980100000	3980109704	KAZ Pavlodar	KAZ Pavlodar A village (less than 10,000)	Павлодарская область	В деревне, хутор (10,000 или менее)
3980100000	3980109805	KAZ Pavlodar	KAZ Pavlodar Rural area	Павлодарская область	Сельская местность
3980130000	3980130131	KAZ Soltustik Qazaqstan (Petropavlovsk)	KAZ Soltustik Qazaqstan (Petropavlovsk) Petropavlovsk	Северо-Казахстанская область	Петропавловск
3980130000	3980139632	KAZ Soltustik Qazaqstan (Petropavlovsk)	KAZ Soltustik Qazaqstan (Petropavlovsk) A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Северо-Казахстанская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
3980130000	3980139704	KAZ Soltustik Qazaqstan (Petropavlovsk)	KAZ Soltustik Qazaqstan (Petropavlovsk) A village (less than 10,000)	Северо-Казахстанская область	В деревне, хутор (10,000 или менее)
3980130000	3980139805	KAZ Soltustik Qazaqstan (Petropavlovsk)	KAZ Soltustik Qazaqstan (Petropavlovsk) Rural area	Северо-Казахстанская область	Сельская местность
3980090000	3980090132	KAZ Ongtustik Qazaqstan (Shymkent)	KAZ Ongtustik Qazaqstan (Shymkent) Arys	Южно-Казахстанская	Арыс

ru_KZ	ru_KZ	Source label	Source label	Translation	Translation
3980090000	3980090232	KAZ Ongtustik Qazaqstan (Shymkent)	KAZ Ongtustik Qazaqstan (Shymkent) Kentau	Южно-Казахстанская	Кентау
3980090000	3980090332	KAZ Ongtustik Qazaqstan (Shymkent)	KAZ Ongtustik Qazaqstan (Shymkent) Turkistan	Южно-Казахстанская	Туркестан
3980090000	3980090431	KAZ Ongtustik Qazaqstan (Shymkent)	KAZ Ongtustik Qazaqstan (Shymkent) Shymkent	Южно-Казахстанская	ШЫМКЕНТ
3980090000	3980099632	KAZ Ongtustik Qazaqstan (Shymkent)	KAZ Ongtustik Qazaqstan (Shymkent) A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Южно-Казахстанская	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
3980090000	3980099704	KAZ Ongtustik Qazaqstan (Shymkent)	KAZ Ongtustik Qazaqstan (Shymkent) A village (less than 10,000)	Южно-Казахстанская	В деревне, хутор (10,000 или менее)
3980090000	3980099805	KAZ Ongtustik Qazaqstan (Shymkent)	KAZ Ongtustik Qazaqstan (Shymkent) Rural area	Южно-Казахстанская	Сельская местность
3989900000	3989915600	KAZ Abroad	KAZ Abroad China	За рубежом	Китай
3989900000	3989941700	KAZ Abroad	KAZ Abroad Kyrgyzstan	За рубежом	Кыргызстан
3989900000	3989964300	KAZ Abroad	KAZ Abroad Russian Federation	За рубежом	Россия
3989900000	3989979500	KAZ Abroad	KAZ Abroad Turkmenistan	За рубежом	Туркменистан
3989900000	3989986000	KAZ Abroad	KAZ Abroad Uzbekistan	За рубежом	Узбекистан
3989900000	3989999900	KAZ Abroad	KAZ Abroad Other	За рубежом	Другое

3.4. List of languages

Kazakhstan is a bilingual country. The Kazakh language, in 2001 spoken by 64% of the population, has the status of “state” language, whereas Russian, which is spoken by almost all Kazakhstani, is declared the “official” language and is used routinely in business. Organisations and bodies of local self-administration may officially use Russian on an equal basis with Kazakh (wikipedia Demographics of Kazakhstan; Republic of Kazakhstan Constitution). Below, a list of the languages used in Kazakhstan and designed for use in the web-survey, can be found.

Table 14. List of languages in Kazakhstan (by 1/1/2010)

Ru_KZ	Source label	Translation
398001	KAZ Kazakh	Казахский
398002	KAZ Russian	Русский
398003	KAZ German	Немецкий
398998	KAZ Local dialect	местном диалекте
398999	KAZ Other language	другой язык

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What is WageIndicator?

WageIndicator has websites in 50 countries. In every country, a national website has a free Salary Check. This Check provides detailed information about the wages, on average earned in a wide range of occupations, taken into account personal characteristics, such as tenure/age, education, supervisory position, region and alike.

Apart from the Salary Check, the websites in many countries have attractive web-tools, such as Minimum Wage Checks, DecentWorkCheck, Gross-Net Earnings Check, and alike. In addition, most websites have content about wages, working conditions, labour standards and related topics. Each country has at least one website. Multilingual countries have two or more websites. In addition, many countries have websites for target groups, for example women or youth. The project website is www.wageindicator.org.

Worldwide, the national WageIndicator websites attract large numbers of web-visitors. The websites are consulted by workers for their job mobility decisions, annual performance talks or wage negotiations. They are consulted by school pupils, students or re-entrant women facing occupational choices, or by employers in small and medium sized companies when recruiting staff or negotiating wages with their employees.

In return for all free information provided, the web-visitors are encouraged to complete a web-survey, which takes 10 to 20 minutes. The survey has detailed questions about earnings, benefits, working conditions, employment contract, training, as well as questions about education, occupation, industry, and household characteristics. This web-survey is comparable across all countries. The web-survey is continuously posted at all WageIndicator websites, of course in the national language(s) and adapted to country-specific issues, where needed. The data from the web-survey are used for the calculations, underlying the Salary Check. For occupations with at least 50 observations in the national database a salary indication can be calculated. The Salary Checks are updated annually.

The project started in 2000 in the Netherlands with a large-scale, paper-based survey to collect data on women's wages. In 2001 the first WageIndicator website with a Salary Check and a web-survey was launched. Since 2004, websites were launched in European countries, in North and South America, in South-Africa, and in countries in Asia. All large economies of the world currently have a WageIndicator website, among which the USA, the Russian Federation, China, India and Brazil. From 2009 onwards, websites are being launched in more African countries, as well as in Indonesia and in a number of post-soviet countries. More information about the WageIndicator Foundation and its activities can be found at www.wageindicator.org.

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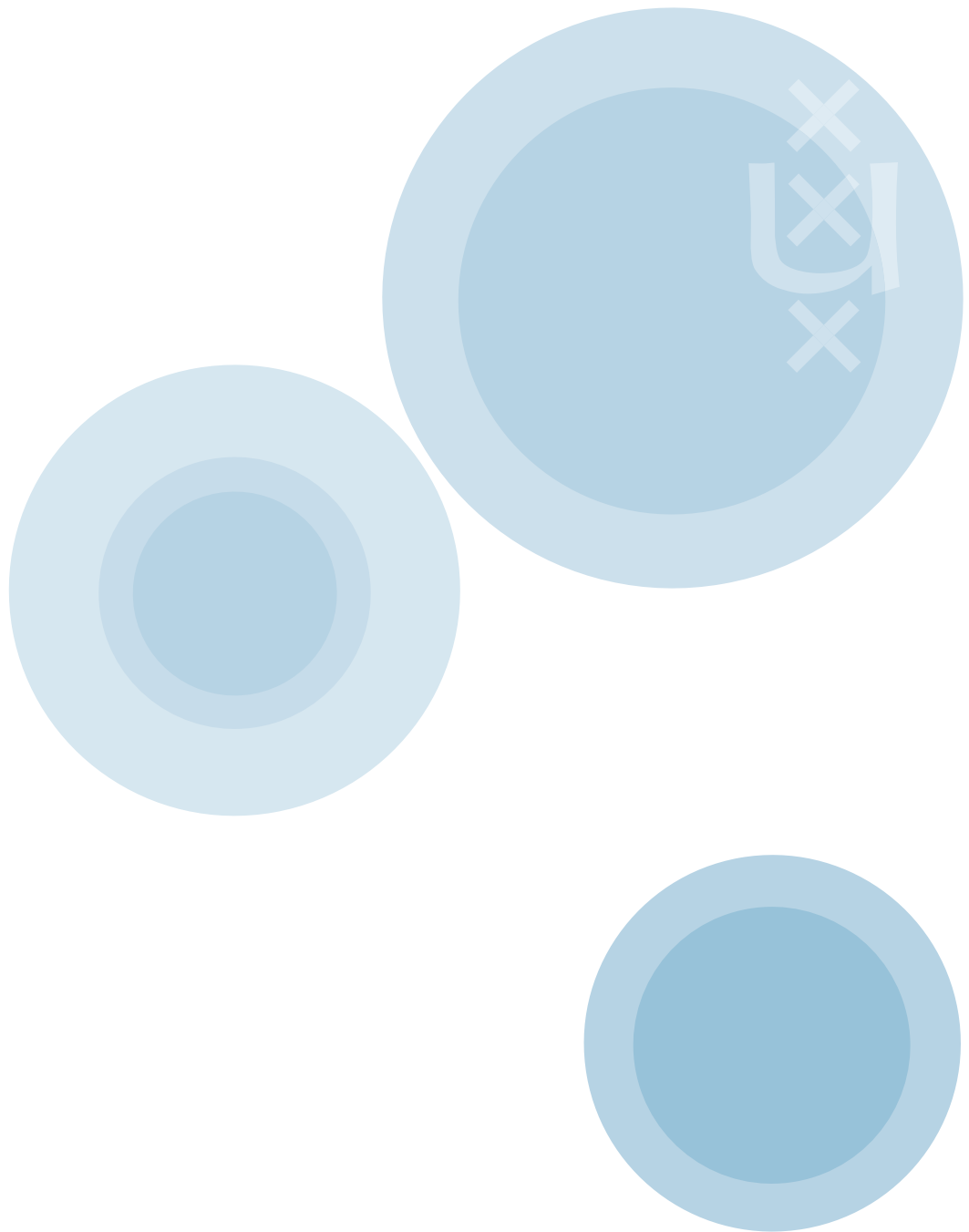
Information about AIAS

AIAS is a young interdisciplinary institute, established in 1998, aiming to become the leading expert centre in the Netherlands for research on industrial relations, organisation of work, wage formation and labour market inequalities. As a network organisation, AIAS brings together high-level expertise at the University of Amsterdam from five disciplines:

- Law
- Economics
- Sociology
- Psychology
- Health and safety studies

AIAS provides both teaching and research. On the teaching side it offers a Masters in Comparative Labour and Organisation Studies and one in Human Resource Management. In addition, it organizes special courses in co-operation with other organisations such as the Netherlands Centre for Social Innovation (NCSI), the Netherlands Institute for Small and Medium-sized Companies (MKB-Nederland), the National Centre for Industrial Relations 'De Burcht', the National Institute for Co-determination (GBIO), and the Netherlands Institute of International Relations 'Clingendael'. AIAS has an extensive research program (2004-2008) on Institutions, Inequalities and Internationalisation, building on the research performed by its member scholars. Current research themes effectively include:

- Wage formation, social policy and industrial relations
- The cycles of policy learning and mimicking in labour market reforms in Europe
- The distribution of responsibility between the state and the market in social security
- The wage-indicator and world-wide comparison of employment conditions
- The projects of the LoWER network



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