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AFTER THE FINANCIAL CRISIS: ACHIEVING THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS IN EUROPE, THE CAUCASUS AND CENTRAL ASIA

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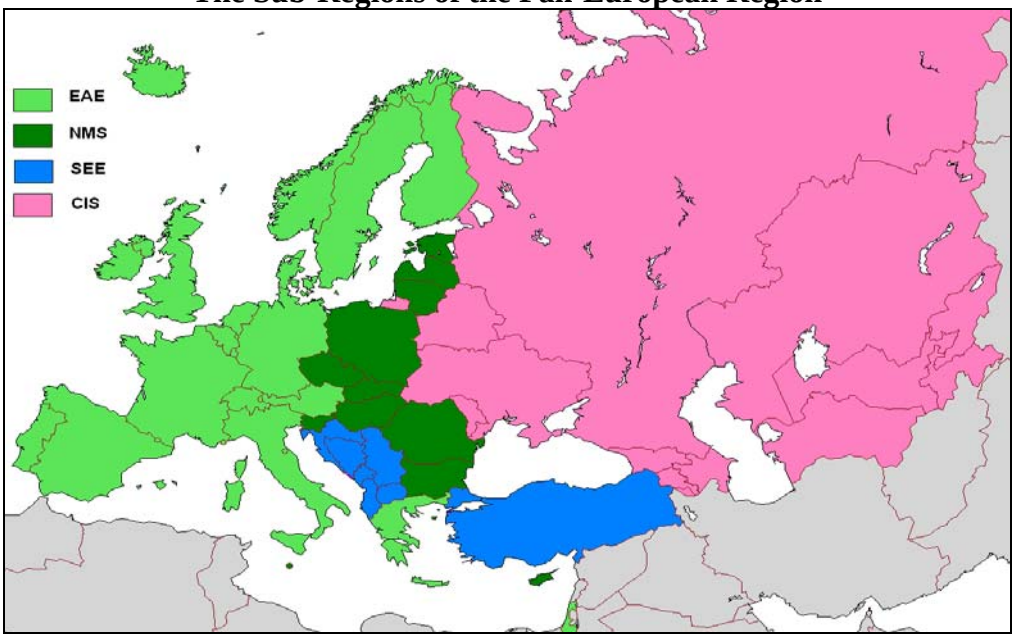
After the Financial Crisis: Achieving the Millennium Development Goals in Europe, the Caucasus and Central Asia

Robert C. Shelburne
Claudia Trentini[1]

Abstract

The Pan-European Region made significant progress from 1995 to 2007 in improving the economic, social, environmental and health indicators incorporated into the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). However, given the huge set-backs associated with the transition recession in the early 1990s and the more recent economic declines from the global financial crisis, achievement of some of the MDGs in a significant number of countries by 2015 is now problematic. The degree to which the actual targets can be achieved by 2015 will depend critically on: (i) the speed of recovery from the current crisis and the policy responses to it; (ii) the commitment by national governments to focus resources on the MDG objectives and their willingness to implement new policy initiatives, and (iii) the level of foreign assistance and regional cooperation that can be obtained. The EU new Member States (NMS) are most likely to meet the MDGs, while the prospects for the other European emerging economies are more mixed, especially for MDGs related to poverty and health. All of the Pan-European economies are falling short in terms of achieving environmental sustainability and gender equality.

Figure 1
The Sub-Regions of the Pan-European Region



[1] United Nations Economic Commission for Europe. David Boko was largely responsible for the tables in the statistical appendix of this report. We also acknowledge helpful comments from Jaromir Cekota, Lidia Bratanova, Paola Deda, Romain Hubert, Ursula Hermelink, Robert Nowak, Christina von Schweinichen, and Virginia Cram-Martos. This paper was produced as a background document for the regional consultations held in Geneva in March 2010 which were requested by UN General Assembly Resolution (64/84) as part of the preparatory process for the High-level Plenary Meeting of the UN General Assembly on MDGs scheduled for September 2010 in New York.

I. Introduction

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) represent a shared commitment made by the world community in 2000 to address the basic needs of its most vulnerable citizens.[2] The logic of this initiative was that this basic commitment could best be achieved if it could be formalized into a number of quantifiable targets that could be measured and monitored. The result was a set of 8 main goals based upon 18 targets which could be measured by 48 specific indicators which have now been increased to 65. (A list of the indicators is provided in appendix table 1). The objective was to achieve these targets by 2015 with 1990 being used as the base year for judging the progress that has been made. This report attempts to explain the underlying factors affecting each indicator, assess the degree to which these targets are being achieved, highlight where progress has been disappointing, and make recommendations as to how they can be achieved by 2015. This paper follows an earlier report on the MDGs in the Pan-European region which covered up to 2005.[3]

The focus of this report is on the Pan-European Region, but given that this group contains a significant group of advanced economies with few of the world's most vulnerable, the report concentrates on developments in the European emerging economies (EEE). This group includes the 12 countries in the CIS[4] and the 7 in south-east Europe not in the EU (SEE). All of these economies except Turkey are included in the UN definition of economies in transition (EiT).[5] In addition the region contains a number of intermediate-income economies, the EU new member states (NMS), for which some targets apply and others for which they do not. For all of these economies some of the targets incorporated into the MDGs have been adjusted to account for their specific development needs. There are a few targets that apply to even the European advanced economies (EAE); in fact, UN Secretary General Ban Ki-Moon has said that *"although the primary focus of the MDGs is developing countries … vulnerability, discrimination, social exclusion, and gender disparities still persist in advanced economies and must not be overlooked."* In addition, the advanced economies have also made a global commitment to help the developing world achieve its targets. Thus the report concentrates on the situation in the EEE but a complete evaluation of progress towards achieving all of the MDGs requires a broader assessment including the NMS and the EAE and the contributions being made by these to improve the structure of the world trading and financial systems in which economic development must take place.

An analysis of the progress that the economies in the region are making towards achieving the MDGs is difficult for some of the targets because they require a comparison of current conditions to the base year of 1990. However, 1990 is a problematic base year for the EEE for two important reasons. Firstly, country level

[2] The MDG were adopted by 189 member States of the UN General Assembly in the United Nations Millennium Declaration (55/2) in 2000.
[3] UNECE, The Millennium Development Goals: The Way Ahead, Geneva 2006.
[4] The regional grouping CIS refers to the former members of the Soviet Union minus the Baltic economies and does not refer to the institutional arrangement of that name which does not include Georgia, Turkmenistan or Ukraine as official members although the latter two are de facto members. In some publications this regional grouping is also referred to as eastern Europe, the Caucasus and central Asia or EECCA.
[5] The countries in each of the sub-regions used in this report are listed in appendix table 2 and the four major sub-regions are shown in figure 1.

data is not always available for 1990. This is due to a number of factors but most importantly to the fact that the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia (and later Czechoslovakia) disintegrated around this time and thus a large number of the countries in this region did not exist as sovereign entities at that time. Despite this fact, for some variables data is available because perhaps it was collected at a local sub-national level and data for the newly created country could be reconstructed backwards using this local data. Alternatively there may be certain econometric estimation techniques available which are viewed to be reliable enough to allow researchers to construct a regionally disaggregated data series which would thereby provide data for the new countries prior to their creation. For example, there do not appear to be any reliable country level data for most of the CIS or SEE regarding poverty rates for 1990. Nevertheless there is aggregated data for either the CIS or SEE for this variable since presumably there is data for the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia for 1990. Thus target 1.A (*halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar and twenty-five cents a day)* can therefore be evaluated at the regional level but not at the country level. Some health statistics related to the MDGs, however are available for these economies in 1990 even though they did not exist as countries at that time because data were either collected locally to begin with or there was some reliable method to estimate them.

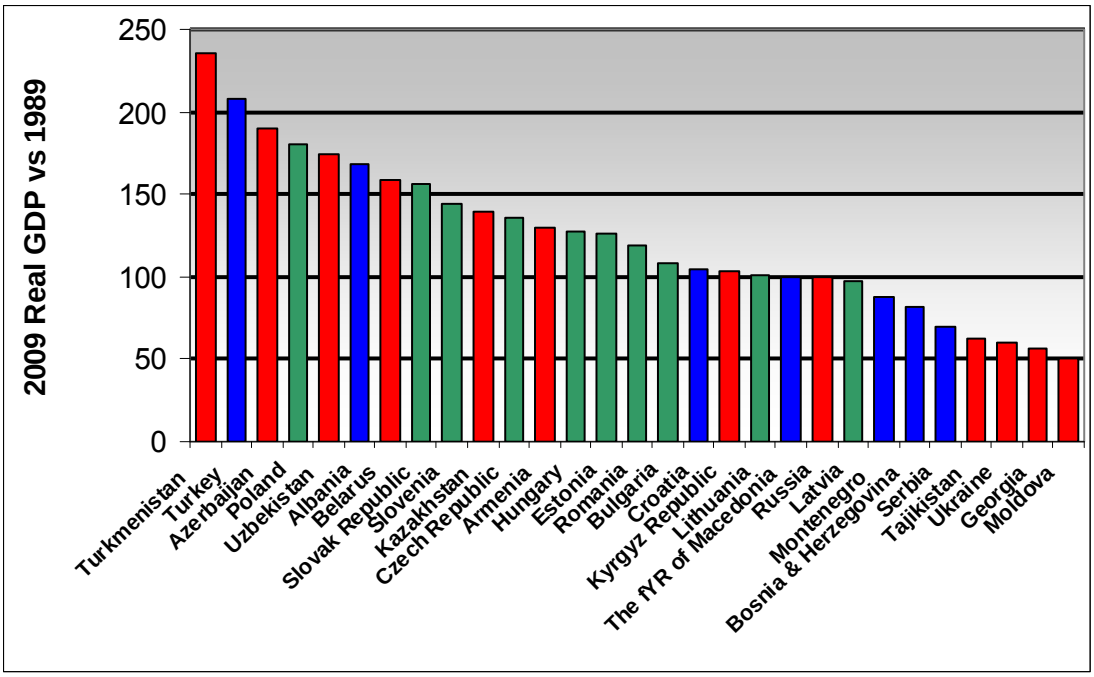
The second reason 1990 is a problematic base year is that most of the indicators relevant to the MDGs deteriorated quite significantly after the collapse of central planning and the disintegration of the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia. Therefore there may be indicators that have been improving for 15 years but are still below the level in 1990. Thus a simple answer on how countries have been addressing the basic economic, social and health indicators may be misleading if the 1990 base year is used. For instance, with 1990 as the base year many of the EEE will in most likelihood not achieve the target of lowering extreme poverty by half. If instead the base year had been 1995 when many of these economies were in the middle of a depression then the conclusion would be that impressive progress had been made and the target would be easily achieved. The situation is the exact opposite for the green house gas (GHG) emissions target. With 1990 as the base year, the EEE have led the world in reducing emissions but if 1995 had been used then they would be one of the worse performing regions. Choice of any base year can always impact results but for basic economic trends over a 25 year period the significance of the base year is usually not that important; however this is not true for the EEE. Therefore 1990 is an important base year because that is the year that the international community agreed to in making its commitments contained in the Millennium Declaration and a strictly legalistic evaluation of the MDGs must therefore use that as a base year. However, a later year may be more appropriate for a broader evaluation of progress in achieving development goals and for assessing what level of progress can be expected over the next five years in improving the MDG indicators.

Thus the EEE differ from economies in all the other world regions in these two important respects associated with the significance of the 1990 base year. Because of these two issues, it is sometimes the case that an evaluation of a target from a regional perspective which uses the MDG standard 1990 base year differs from the sum of the country experiences since the latter are only available for a date after 1990.

The human development indicators incorporated into the MDGs were reasonably high in the EEE+NMS prior to their transition from planned to market economies which began in 1990. This was especially true when they were compared to other economies at a similar level of per capita income. Most of these economies experienced a major collapse in economic activity during the first half of the 1990s; in addition the social safety nets which had been established in these planned economies often collapsed as well. Also, almost one half of the EEE became involved in some form of national or international conflict during the 1990s. By the middle of this decade the Baltic and south-east European economies had experienced GDP declines in the range of 30 to 40 per cent while in CIS the declines where in the 40 to 60 per cent range. Near the end of that decade these economies were able to eventually establish market based institutions and were able to regain some degree of growth.

Thus the economic, social and political turmoil caused the MDG indicators to decline substantially in these economies in the early years of the transition. The speed of the recovery from this difficult adjustment period varied considerably depending on these countries different economic circumstances but by 2000 the entire region began to experience a period of relatively high growth which lasted until 2008. In addition the region's governments made significant progress during this period in re-establishing the social safety nets that had collapsed during the transitional process. As a result significant progress was made during 2000-2008 towards improving the indicators incorporated in the MDG targets. As the economic and financial crisis developed in 2008 all of the EEE except the Baltics where able to maintain positive growth but by 2009 almost all of these economies experienced significant downturns.

Figure 2
Real GDP in 2009 Compared to 1989



Source: Calculations from EBRD and IMF data.

By 2009, or two decades after the transition period began, some of these economies (the energy-rich central Asian CIS, the central European NMS, and the non-Yugoslavian SEE) had increased their national incomes approximately 50 per

cent above their 1989 levels, but many (European CIS, the former states of Yugoslavia in SEE, and the Baltics) had only returned to something similar to the 1989 level while a few economies (Georgia, Moldova, Serbia, Tajikistan, and Ukraine) remained 30 per cent or more below this earlier level. Turkey, which did not have to go through the transition process but still had a severe currency crisis in 1999, more than doubled its real GDP over this period. Figure 2 shows the level of real GDP in 2009 as compared to the level in 1989 for the EEE (the CIS are in red, NMS in green, and SEE in blue). The degree to which the indicators incorporated into the MDGs have improved or declined over the 1990-2009 period is closely related to the overall economic performance of the particular country during this period.

A contributing factor to the poor social and economic outcomes in the region is the significant number of frozen political conflicts in the Balkans, the Caucasus, and to a lesser degree in central Asia. Most of these are the result of unresolved issues surrounding the breakup of the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia into numerous new countries. As a result of these conflicts it has been more difficult to create viable governmental institutions and the private sector has been less willing to make long-term investments; in some cases the physical infrastructure as well as private capital stock remains damaged from previous open conflicts. Political stability and economic prosperity reinforce each other, and without one, the other is not obtainable.

It is difficult to assess the overall policy environment of a country in terms of how it is using its national income to address poverty and basic needs. However a rough estimate of this might be the degree to which a country is able to achieve the basic requirements for human existence as measured by the UNDP human development index (HDI). The change in this index over the 1990 to 2008 period is closely correlated with the change in GDP growth over this period. Thus economies such as Tajikistan and Moldova which experienced large income declines have also recorded large declines in their indexes while those economies that grew the most, such as Turkey and Poland have had large increases in their indexes.[6]

The efficiency to which a country is using its current income to address basic needs can be generally assessed by comparing its HDI to other economies after controlling for its level of per capita income. By this standard the EEE continue to do remarkably well (as they had prior to the transition) with almost all of the countries ranking higher in terms of human development than they do in terms of per capita income; Kazakhstan, Russia, Turkey and Turkmenistan are notable exceptions. This pattern is strongest for the poorest economies especially those in the Caucasus, south-east Europe (SEE), and central Asia; the NMSs have human development indicators only marginally above what would be expected given their income. However an important exception to this general finding is that life expectancy is particularly low for the non-Caucasus CIS.

The efficiency with which a country is using its income to address the basic needs of its population is not just a question of the commitment of its government to address poverty, health, and education or a question of the competency of its institutions in carrying out the mandates of the government. There are major

[6] Of course per capita income is a component of the HDI but it also includes health and education variables as well.

uncertainties regarding the effectiveness of various policy approaches at the general level of addressing poverty and at the very specific levels of how to address quite specific problems. In fact one of the major objectives of the UN's analysis of MDG trends is to try to uncover which policies are cost effective and which ones are not. It should be noted that the research of Esther Duflo, who was the 2010 winner of the prestigious John Bates Clark award, has been to analyze the outcomes of randomized trials of social policy experiments of different policy approaches for addressing MDG related issues. Her research has shown that there are often huge differences in the cost-effectiveness of different approaches to achieving specific policy targets and that often the best approach is often far from being intuitive.[7] Thus much research is needed to determine the most cost-effective approaches for addressing the MDG targets.

A central concern of this paper is to assess the degree to which the global financial crisis of 2007-2010 has disrupted progress towards achieving the MDG targets. This crisis has increased unemployment and poverty throughout the region, led to deterioration in government fiscal positions and reduced the amount of external resources available for advancing economic development. As a result it is likely that progress in achieving many if not most of the MDGs will be negatively impacted. However, given the crisis did not seriously affect the region until the last quarter of 2008 and given the delay in compiling and disseminating data, the extent of this deterioration is difficult to gauge at this point in time. In addition, with unemployment likely to remain high for another year or two, and with government finances requiring significant consolidation, the negative consequences of this crisis may continue, if not intensify, over the coming year. As such it may be several years before a full assessment of the crisis's impact on the MDGs can be made. Most fundamentally, the full implication of this is that the next five years will be a very difficult and challenging economic period in which progress in achieving the MDGs may be quite disappointing unless there is a concerted intensification of efforts by all of the stakeholders.

Any assessment of the progress that has been made in achieving the MDGs in the EEE requires the availability of accurately collected data. However, data availability for many of the indicators for this region is limited and the available data are often not internationally comparable nor available for the same year. Therefore it must be appreciated that there is often a significant margin of error contained in the estimates provided and aggregated estimates for aggregate regions may be based upon estimates derived from data for different years. Given the limitations of the data, values and percentages in this report are often given in rounded off numbers since it is not possible to provide the estimates at a higher level of precision. Improving the statistical capacity in a number of the EEE must be viewed as a necessary and important objective as part of the MDG project. UN agencies, including the UNECE, are currently involved in a number of activities in this regard.[8]

As a general rule, the UN normally uses government provided data for the various MDG indicators. Some agencies may adjust this data based on other information such as for example survey's undertaken in the country by the agency,

[7] A video by Dr. Duflo explaining the benefits of randomized trials is available as a TED lecture.
[8] Most recently was an UNECE organized expert group on MDG indicators which was held in Kazakhstan in October 2009.

academic researchers, private contractors or NGOs. Thus there are often discrepancies in the reported values of various indicators since the different agencies may have adjusted the data differently. The degree to which the data are adjusted or if they should be adjusted at all from what a government has reported remains controversial. As an example, the NGO Doctors Without Borders (Medecins Sans Frontieres) recently published an assessment of the public health system in Turkmenistan that is quite critical of that government's reported health statistics (i.e., HIV, tuberculosis, etc); in addition that same report is also critical of the acceptance and use of those statistics by WHO.[9] As another example, the Turkmenistan government reports a number of economic statistics concerning GDP and unemployment; some agencies report these numbers while the UNECE, for example, has concluded that the government has not properly documented the procedures that were used to make these calculations and therefore has concluded that they are unreliable and refuses to publish them on its website.[10]

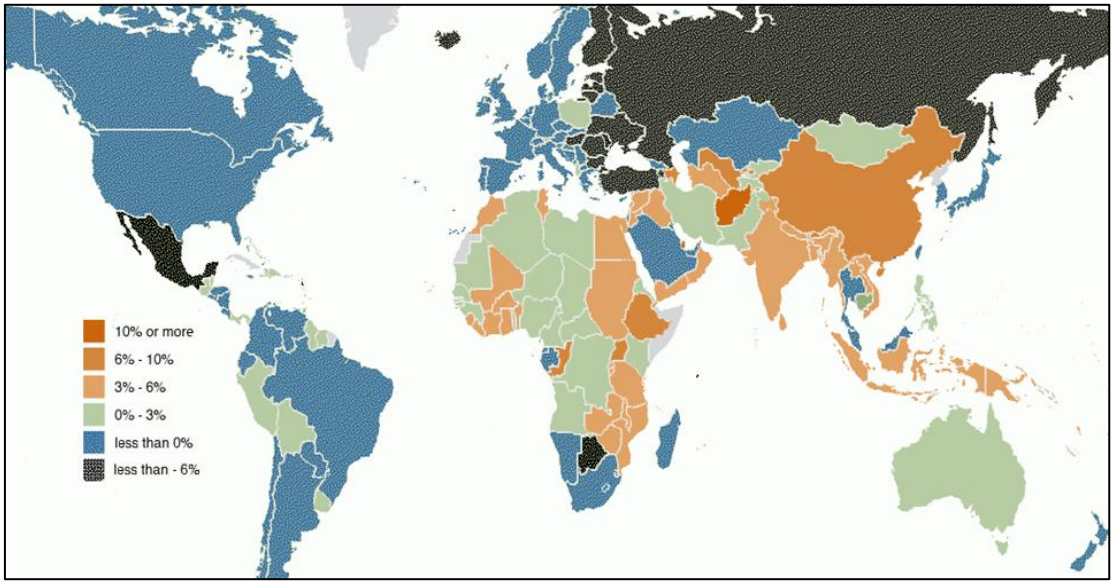
A number of the economies in the region have established a national MDG strategy in which the targets have been modified from those in the original UN Millennium Declaration. This often makes an evaluation of a target more difficult in that it is unclear whether the original or the revised national target should be analyzed and makes regional aggregation more difficult.

II. The Current Economic Context

The European emerging economies were particularly hard hit by the global financial and economic crisis of 2007/2010; in fact the region was the most severely impacted of any major region in the world economy. As shown in figure 3, much of the developing world in Asia and Africa was able to maintain positive economic growth (tan and green) during the worst part of the global financial crisis and although Latin America, North America and western Europe had negative economic growth (in blue), it was the emerging economies in eastern and south-east Europe and the European CIS that were the most negatively impacted. Many of the economies in this region experienced negative growth of over minus six per cent (in black). Not only were the GDP declines for the European emerging economies large with a 2009 decline of 6.2 per cent, but given their rapid growth prior to the crisis, the change in GDP growth was extraordinary. For example, Russia, the largest of the EiT, experienced a 16 percentage point change (8.1 to -8.0) between 2007 and 2009. As such not only did progress towards achieving the MDGs come to standstill but for a significant number of indicators there was a substantial deterioration. Growth in the EEE is likely to be moderately positive in 2010 but significantly below the trend level obtained during 2002-2007 and slightly below that of the world average (4.2 percent) and is likely to be lowest of any developing/emerging region.

[9] Medecins Sans Frontieres, Turkmenistan's Opaque Health System, April 2010.
[10] In this report, we generally use what we have determined to be the best estimate based upon published sources and avoid missing values whenever possible; this situation simply further highlights the main point of this paragraph that there are in some cases severe data problems that need to be addressed.

Figure 3
Real Growth in 2009

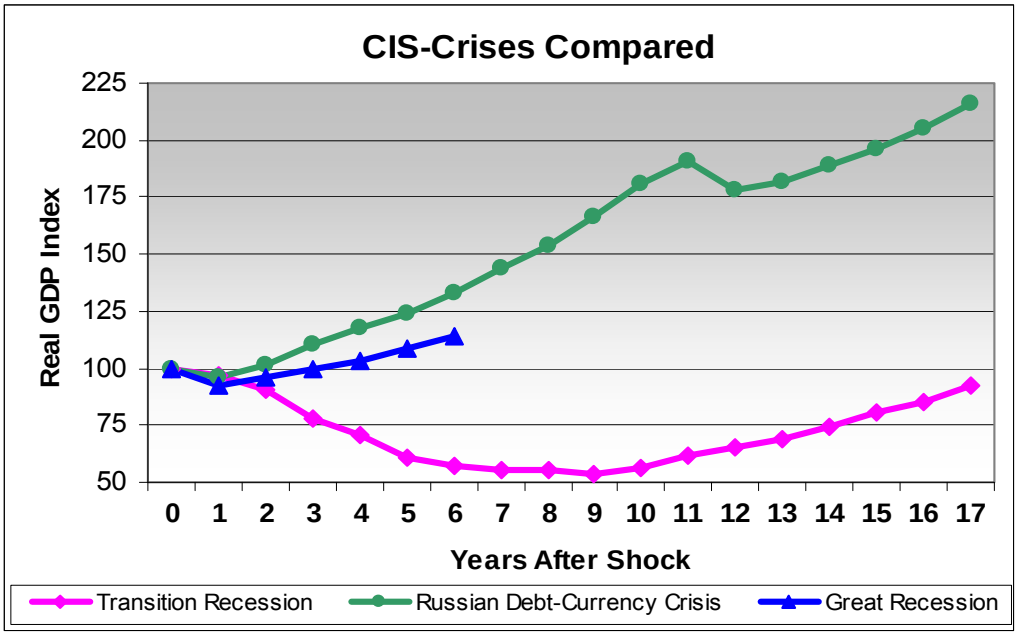


The fact that the EEE were so devastated by the current economic and financial crisis was somewhat surprising in that the residents and financial institutions in the EEE owned few of the sub-prime assets at the heart of the global financial crisis. Instead their vulnerability resulted from large declines in exports due to the significant declines in the GDP of their major trading partners, a rapid fall-off in remittances, the collapse in the price of commodities, but most importantly from their dependence on external capital markets for financing their economic development. Many of them experienced a classic "sudden stop" once capital markets froze after the bankruptcy of Lehman Brothers in the autumn of 2008. One vulnerability which these economies did not have, that is often associated with a sudden stop of this type, was fiscal budget deficits; the external borrowing had been largely undertaken by the private financial sector. Of course, after the crisis, once tax revenues began to fall and with increases expenditures needed to maintain demand, the fiscal situation in a number of these economies as deteriorated considerably.

The GDP decline during this crisis has been quite large, much larger than that experienced by the CIS economies during the 1998-99 Russian debt-currency crisis, but it has nevertheless been considerably smaller than the declines associated with the transitional recession in the 1990s following the move by most of them to market-based economies.[11] The depth and length of the three crises in the CIS are compared in figure 4. As can be seen, despite the severity of the current downturn (i.e., the Great Recession) and the fact that it may take 3 or 4 years before income returns to the 2008 level, this crisis is likely to be less severe than the 1990s transition.

[11] Robert C. Shelburne, The Global Economic Crisis and the Transition Economies, a paper presented at the Project LINK Conference, Bangkok, Thailand, October 27, 2009.

Figure 4
A Comparison of Three Economic Crises in the CIS

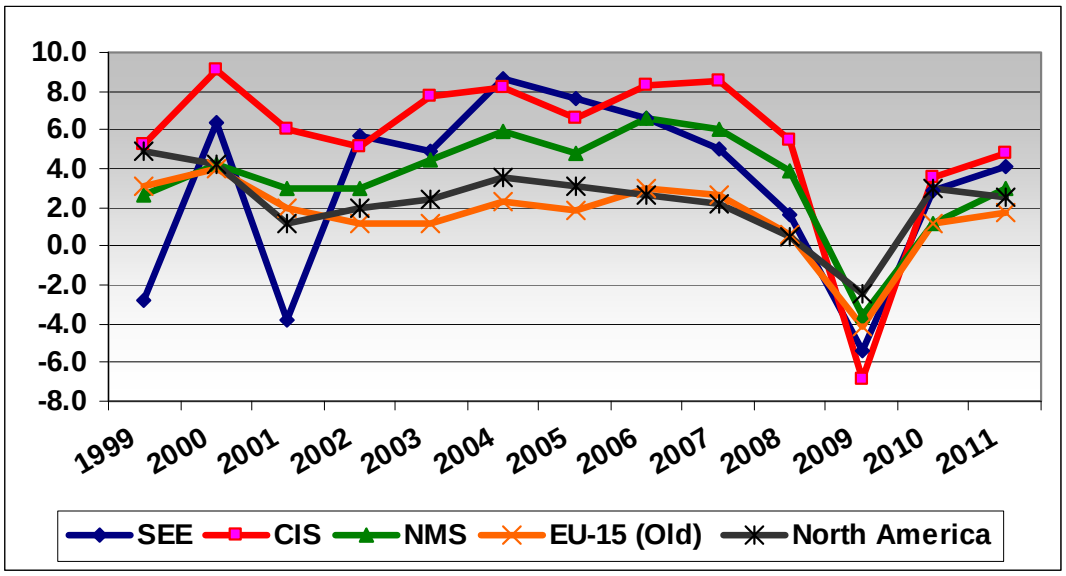


Source: Robert C. Shelburne, The Global Economic Crisis and the Transition Economies, Project LINK Conference, Bangkok, Thailand, October 27, 2009.

There was considerable variation in the performance of the different European regions (figure 5); south-east Europe (-4.4 per cent) did better than the CIS (-6.9 per cent), and in the CIS the central Asian economies especially those with energy resources and limited exposure to foreign capital markets did relatively well. In fact three of these economies – Azerbaijan, Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan had solid growth in 2009 and are forecast to be amongst the fastest growing economies in the world in 2010. Those economies with large sovereign wealth funds or international reserves more generally (i.e., Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, and Russia) were also able to use these resources to mitigate the impact of the crisis. Two of the CIS, Armenia and Ukraine experienced double-digit GDP declines in 2009 although both may have positive but quite low growth in 2010. Income in the NMS declined by 3.0 per cent in 2009 and 4.2 per cent in the EU-15 (compared to minus 2.7 per cent in North America).

Unlike emerging markets during typical economic crises, these EEE were generally able to implement quite large macroeconomic stimulus packages, especially fiscal expansions. The ability to use expansionary monetary policy was more constrained because of exchange market considerations. However 13 countries in the EEE+NMS turned to the International Monetary Fund (IMF) to get some form of support and one or two additional ones may still need to do so. Despite the projected modest recovery in output 2010, these economies face major uncertainties. A further weakening of commodity prices and continued difficulties in accessing international capital markets could weaken economic prospects, particularly for countries with large external financing needs. The banking sectors remain impaired in several of the larger economies and this will limit investment in the near term. In the medium-run, further economic diversification and institutional reform will be necessary for restoring robust economic growth in the CIS.

Figure 5
Real Growth in the UNECE Sub-Regions 1999-2011



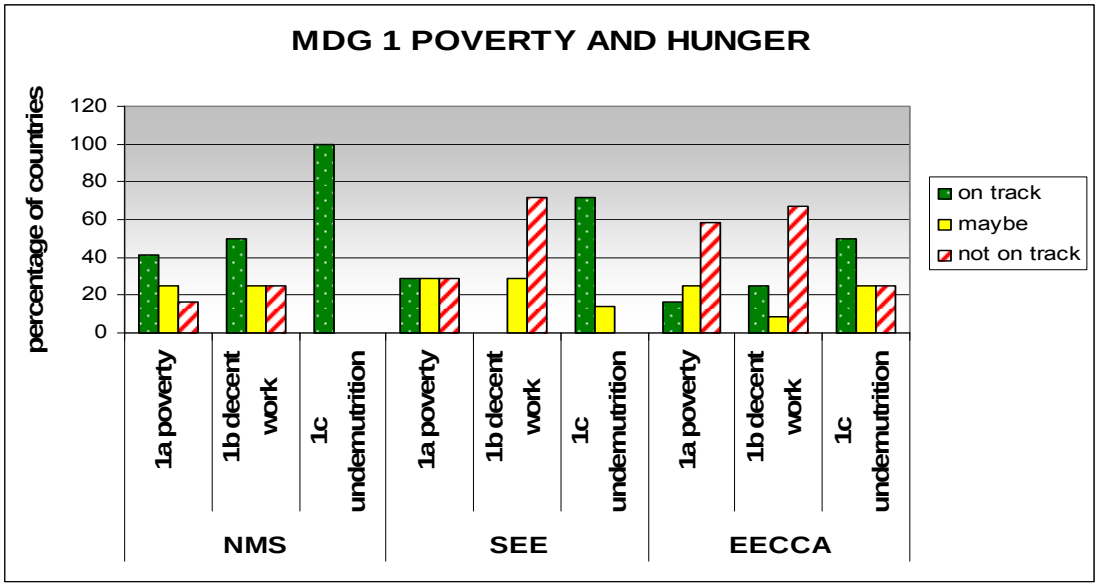
Source: Robert Shelburne, The State of the World Economy, UNWTO Resilience Committee, Berlin, March 12, 2010.

The economic crisis is impacting the various MDG indicators through a large number of different channels. The most obvious is that of unemployment as it reduces family income and increases poverty. This reduction in income reduces the quantity and quality of diets which increases hunger and health outcomes including specifically maternal health, child mortality and susceptibility towards diseases such as tuberculosis. Poverty increases risky behaviors such as drug use and prostitution associated with HIV transmission. Lower family income means parents may not be able to afford to send their children to school or may result in children having to drop out of school in order to work. Economic downturns negatively affect government fiscal positions by reducing tax revenue and increasing spending for social support programs. As a result of budget pressures, governments may need to reduce their provision of social services on a per capita basis, and may have to cut back on programs to address environmental and public health objectives.

Thus although most of the region is characterized as being in an economic recovery in 2010, for some of the worst hit economies it may be several years before the level of GDP returns to the post-crisis level. An even then, governments may be in a worse fiscal position that will require further cut backs in social programs and infrastructure development. As a result the effect of the crisis has been to effectively move the target date up from 2015 to 2012 or even 2011 in the sense that in 2015 they will only be where they would have been in 2012 if there had been no crisis. In addition, at the time this report is being finalized the sovereign debt crisis is continuing to unfold and it is possible that contagion from that crisis could spill over into the EEE and moderate their expected recoveries.

III. MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger

Figure 6



Note: The sum of values in the graph might not always amount to 100 per cent since some countries might not have sufficient information.

In all of the Pan-European economies there are some individuals or isolated pockets where there is extreme poverty; however the problem of poverty, especially when defined in an absolute sense, is mostly restricted to those economies whose per capita income is less than twice the world average. In 2008, the world average per capita income on a PPP current international dollar basis was $10,415. Twenty-six or approximately half of the Pan-European economies (with a combined population of over 455 million) have income below $20,830 which is twice the world average.

Table 1
UNECE Economies with Per Capita Incomes Less than Twice the World Average

GDP per Capita Relative to World GDP per Capita	Range PPP Current $	Number of UNECE Countries	Countries	Total Population Millions
1.5 to 2	$15,623 – $20,830	7	Croatia, Estonia, Hungary Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Russia	201.4
1 to 1.5	$10,415 – $15,622	7	Belarus, Bulgaria, Kazakhstan, Montenegro, Romania, Serbia, Turkey	133.4
0.5 to 1	$5,207-- $10, 414	7	Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bosnia-Herzegovina, the fYR of Macedonia, Turkmenistan, Ukraine	72.6
0.25 to 0.5	$2,603 – $5,207	3	Georgia, Moldova, Uzbekistan	35.1
Below 0 .25	Below $2,602	2	Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan	12.5

Source: Data from the World Development Indicators for 2008

Of these, 12 economies (with a population of 120 million) have a per capita income below the world average, and five of these are below half of the world average. The two poorest economies in the region (with 12.5 million people) have a per capita income which is less than a quarter of the world average.[12] Included in this list of 26 are all 12 members of the CIS, all 7 of the SEE and 7 of the NMS. Note that 13 of the 26 countries in table 1 requested assistance from the IMF during the recent crisis and several more may still do so in 2010.

For those economies with per capita incomes more than twice the world average, poverty is generally considered as a relative concept. Nevertheless there are still small segments of the population which have slipped through social safety nets, especially the unemployed, the sick, the aged, the unskilled, and migrants for which poverty represents a deprivation in the basic physical requirements needed for survival. Basic physical needs include an adequate diet (i.e., the proper nutrients and caloric intake), suitable clothing and shelter.[13]

However for the twenty six economies listed above (with incomes below twice the world average) poverty represents more than just being relatively poor; instead it is associated with inadequate food, shelter and clothing. Thus even in the top tier (1.5 to 2) of this group, often a fifth or more of children and adults are found to suffer from micronutrient deficiency and insufficient caloric intake. Nevertheless those suffering from inadequate basic needs are limited to certain geographical areas or segments of the population and represent a fifth to a fourth of the population; thus absolute poverty is characteristic of a sizable but certainly not the majority of the general population. As one moves down into the lower tiers, the percentage of the population facing inadequate basic needs increases so that by the lower two tiers (i.e., those with per capita income less than a half of the world average) the share lacking basic needs becomes widespread and by some measures may characterize the majority of the population. For example, in Kyrgyzstan 50 per cent of pre-school children are found to suffer from anemia and 88 per cent have an iodine deficiency.[14] These dietary deficiencies have huge future economic implications; for example, either anemia or iodine deficiency reduces cognitive development and have been shown to significantly reduce IQ scores.[15] Thus poverty in these 26 economies does not mean simply having fewer material possessions, but means inferior health, low productivity and sometimes actual physical discomfort, pain or suffering.

It is worth pointing out that the WHO separates the European region into three different groups based upon measures of child and adult mortality. The two groups (i.e., their Eur-B and Eur-C) with the least desirable health indicators contain 26 countries and exactly match those in table 1 except for Slovakia which is included in their two groups but not in table 1 while Croatia is in table 1 but is not in either of

[12] Data from the World Development Indicators for 2008.
[13] Although basic needs are often thought of as being determined by biological necessity, what is viewed to be biologically necessary has evolved through time. See Robert C. Shelburne, The History and Theory of the Living Wage Concept, a background document produced for a US Congressionally mandated study, 1999.
[14] Even in the most advanced economies these specific indices do not drop to zero, but in Western Europe they are generally below 10% and in the US below 5%.
[15] Micronutrient Initiative, *Investing in the Future: A United Call to Action on Vitamin and Mineral Deficiencies*, 2009.

these two WHO groups. This strong similarity reflects the important connection between national income levels and indicators of basic human welfare.

The extent of poverty, of course, is dependent not just on national per capita income but also how it is distributed and the effectiveness of social safety nets.[16] Market-based economic systems require that individual workers bear a significant proportion of the cost of economic adjustments associated with changing product demands, productivity changes and other "shocks". In order to limit the personal costs for those subject to these developments, social safety nets have an important role in maintaining income during these adjustment periods. In the Pan-European Region the design and effectiveness of these social safety nets varies substantially. Thus although poverty is due largely to a lack of economic opportunities or to a situation in which the people lack the necessary human skills to take advantage of these opportunities, social safety nets are important in keeping households from falling into poverty during transition periods.

However, more extensive social safety nets are not necessarily better as poorly designed social safety nets can reduce incentives for people to work and save and thereby create a culture of dependency on state assistance. Critical for the design of social safety nets is to have systems that accurately target the vulnerable; this involves ensuring that the systems reach most of the vulnerable groups while at the same requiring that benefits are means-tested and narrowly targeted so as to avoid payments to large segments of the population. In many of the EEE there is substantial room for improving the targeting of their social protection systems. According to a World Bank analysis of safety net systems in the EEE+NMS, about half are judged to have well targeted programs that should now be scaled up, while most of the others are characterized by weak or ineffective targeting which need to be reformed before being scaled up. For example, in Russia only 33 per cent of child allowances and 30 per cent of housing benefits go to the poorest fifth of the population.[17] In a number of countries many, often a majority, of the vulnerable do not receive benefits. For example, in Ukraine despite a poverty rate of 27 per cent only 2.3 per cent of the population obtains benefits from either of the two main schemes providing social assistance (low-income family support and housing subsidies).[18]

In addition, ethnic and gender discrimination are also significant factors in explaining poverty in the region. The problem of the Roma in central and southern Europe is well documented. In Serbia, Romania and Albania, the percentage of the population living on under $2.50 per day is between 20 and 40 per cent among the Roma communities, while the same indicator is below 5 per cent for the rest of the population. People from the Caucasus and central Asia may face discrimination in the European CIS, and those of a Muslim background have complained about discrimination in both eastern and western Europe. An issue that has appeared in a

[16] In addition demographic factors, or specifically declines in the dependency ratio, have been found to be quite significant in explaining the cross-country differences in poverty reduction; see Jaime Ros, *Poverty Reduction in Latin America: The Role of Demographic, Social and Economic Factors*, CEPAL Review, August 2009.

[17] Pradeep Mitra, Marcelo Selowsky, and Juan Zalduendo, *Turmoil at Twenty*, (Chapter 4), World Bank, Washington, DC, 2010.

[18] Dmytro Boyarchuk, Liudmyla Kotusenko, Katarzyna Pietka-Kosinska, Roman Semko, Irina Sinitsina, *Agricultural Income Assessment for the Purpose of Social Assistance: The Case of Ukraine*, No. 399/2009, Case Network, Warsaw, 2009.

number of the EEE concerns the use of language; in a number of countries there are significant minorities that speak a language different from the majority. A number of governments have passed laws requiring the use of the majority language in a number of instances including schools and public offices and some have restricted voting rights and citizenship for those not fluent in the "national" language. For example, the treatment of ethnic Russians in Latvia and Estonia has been widely criticized;[19] when Latvia entered the European Union approximately 20 per cent of its residents were "stateless"; in Estonia 12 per cent were.[20] In addition there have been occupational limitations on those that do not speak the national language. As a result these minorities have been placed at a disadvantage in obtaining an education or a job or they have been denied a voice in the policy debates. In a number of cases the justification for these policies was that they were needed in order to try to shape a national identity in newly created countries. The criticism would be that those that were most negatively affected by these policies were not given the proper assistance in helping them to adjust.

In addition in some countries even when public policy is not an issue, there are often informal barriers due to societal discrimination against ethnic groups similar to what is often found in the gender dimension.[21] As with gender a neutral public policy stance is often not sufficient as a more pro-active agenda against discrimination is needed. In central Asian rural societies, customary law and societal norms tend to discriminate against women while severely limiting women's land rights and their access to land-related resources. Reducing these causes of poverty may involve more extensive social policies than just improved safety nets. In some cases there are complex social and cultural factors that have perpetuated poverty in certain communities.

It is generally believed that extreme poverty increased substantially in the EEE during the transitional period of the 1990s although there is limited data covering this period. Not only did real wages decline, unemployment and income inequality increased, and social safety nets often collapsed or were significantly scaled back for budget considerations. After 2000, however, poverty rates declined significantly throughout the EEE although there has been some reversal due to the current economic crisis. Also as previously discussed since poverty data for many of the EEE only became available beginning in the mid-1990s by which time most of these economies were in the middle of a depression, an evaluation of progress using this individual country data differs starkly from conclusions derived from the regional data.

Target 1.A: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar and twenty-five cents a day.

[19] In November 2009 this was the case when the European Commission, the Council of Europe, and NGOs such as the Social Platform raised the issue at the Equality Summit in Stockholm. A UN Human Rights Council report of 2007 also found serious problems of discrimination and racism in the Baltic States.

[20] Both countries were required to modify their citizenship and language laws as a condition for EU accession.

[21] It should be noted that the European Commission has generally been quite progressive and forthright in investigating discrimination within its member States.

Extreme poverty is defined in the broader UN MDG framework as living on less than $1.25 a day;[22] for most of the EEE+NMS the percentage of the population living on less than $1.25 is less than several percent. However in a few economies it is much higher; in Georgia and Turkmenistan the percentage is in the teens, while it is in the twenties in Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan and almost 40 per cent in Uzbekistan. In the EEE the number of people living at this level declined to slightly over 20 million by 2005. By this standard, extreme poverty in the CIS and SEE has increased since 1990, and in fact these two regions are the only regions in the world in which extreme poverty increased between 1990 and 2005.[23] In the CIS, the proportion of people living on less than $1.25 has increased from 3 per cent in 1990 to 8 per cent in 1999 before declining to 5 per cent in 2005. With the MDG target being to reduce extreme poverty in 2015 by half from the 1990 level, the objective would be to lower the extreme poverty rate to 1.5 per cent by the later date. Within the CIS however, there are two distinctly different tends in the European region and the Asian one. In the European CIS those living in extreme poverty ($1.25) accounted for 2 per cent of the population in 1990 but had fallen to less than half a per cent by 2005; thus these economies had clearly achieved the target and although there may be a set-back due to the crisis, poverty is likely to be below the target in 2015. In the Asian CIS, however, those with incomes under $1.25 a day amounted to 6 per cent of the population in 1990 and that increased to 22 per cent in 1999 and was still at 19 per cent in 2005. It is extremely unlikely that this can be reduced to 3 per cent by 2015.

In SEE (excluding Turkey) extreme poverty increased from 0.1 per cent in 1990 to 2 per cent in 1999 before declining to .5 per cent in 2005. The 2015 target for this region would thus be .05 per cent. Recent UN projections estimate that the number of people in the EiT living on less than $1.25 increased by an additional one million in 2009 over 2008 levels.[24] Given the deterioration in this indicator that occurred during the first decade of the transition, the further decrease in 2009 after a decade of progress, and given the prospects for these economies over the next five years, it would appear doubtful if this MDG objective will be reached for SEE or the Asian CIS. Despite this disappointing progress it must nevertheless be pointed out that the level (as opposed to the trends) of extreme poverty in these two regions is quite low relative to the other developing world regions. For example, although eastern Asia (i.e., China) has already achieved this MDG target by cutting its poverty rate in half, the percentage of its population living in extreme poverty is many times higher than in SEE. Extreme poverty in the Asian CIS, however, is quite high compared to many other world regions with only sub-Saharan Africa and south Asia having a higher rate.

The $1.25 numerical target is viewed by many as an inappropriate standard for which to assess extreme poverty in the EEE due to their more urbanized environment and the extra food, shelter, heating and clothing expenses associated with living in a cooler climate. The World Bank has therefore proposed a higher standard of $2.50 a day for defining extreme poverty; using this level the number of people in the EEE+NMS living in poverty declined by more than half over the 2000 to 2007 period to approximately 30 million people. The World Bank has projected that this number

[22] The original definition of extreme poverty adopted in 2000 was $1 a day but that has been revised to $1.25 due to inflation.
[23] United Nations, *Millennium Development Goals Report*, 2009.
[24] United Nations, *World Economic Situation and Prospects*, New York, 2010.

will be 2.4 per cent higher in 2010 than it would have been on the pre-crisis trajectory. However other researchers have provided even larger projections of the poverty increase with some finding that this number may double to over 60 million by 2011 due to the economic crisis. Using an even more generous standard of $5 a day as a definition of poverty, up to 50 million more people in the region may be thrown into poverty by 2011.[25]

In addition to the $1.25, $2.50 and $5 a day poverty standards, the countries of the region have generally established their own national levels for extreme poverty based upon their calculation of the income level needed for a minimum level of subsistence. This data for a few selected years for the EEE are provided in statistical appendix table 1A. With these data, which are defined country specifically, it is difficult to compare trends across countries, provide aggregate data for the region or compare this region to other world regions. Nevertheless the data do allow an assessment of the progress that is being made in each country in terms of addressing poverty. These data corroborate the conclusion reached above that poverty declined in the EEE, often substantially, over the 2000 to 2007 period. However, preliminary data reveal that much of the progress in poverty reduction made between 2000 and 2008 has been reversed during the economic crisis. For example, according to the Russian State Committee on Statistics, the number of Russians living in poverty increased from 18.5 million at the end of 2008 to 24.5 million (or 30 per cent) during the first three months of 2009.[26]

An additional measure of poverty is provided by the EU economies which estimates the percentage of their populations viewed to be at risk of poverty as defined by having a disposable income below 60 per cent of national medium income. As shown in statistical appendix table 1B, over the 1995 to 2008 period, these figures remain relatively stable except for some rather substantial increases in the Baltic economies and Bulgaria and Romania especially near the end of this period. Given the very rapid GDP growth experienced by these economies during this period, they provide clear evidence that growth without appropriate redistribution and social safety nets may not be sufficient for reducing poverty.

A substantial number of the poor in many of the EEE are rural households and migrant workers. In the CIS 31 million people have emigrated to work in another country, often another CIS economy; in 9 of the CIS economies, more than 10 per cent of the population has emigrated. Due to the economic crisis remittances declined significantly, in some cases by more than 25 percent; this has had negative implications for living standards and investment in health and education for the poorest segments of the populations in the remittance receiving countries. Migrant workers are often illegal or even if legal they are not granted the same legal rights or given the same access to social benefits as domestic residents. As such these workers are often marginalized and exploited. In order to address the needs of this population, migration policy and migrant rights need to be updated. More specifically, migration needs to occur under a bilateral (sender and host countries) or multilateral agreed upon legal framework and domestic legislation needs to protect migrant rights and

[25] Balazs Horvath, Andrey Ivanov, Mihail Peleah, and Michaela Pospisilova, Losing the Gains: How the Crisis Will Impact Human Development in the Region, *Development and Transition No. 14*, December 2009.
[26] Defined as 5,497 rubles a month (or slightly over $5 a day).

provide them with education, health and other basic social services. The World Bank, through its ECA's Poverty Reduction and Economic Management Department is providing technical assistance in this matter.

NGOs have played an important role in addressing the basic needs of the vulnerable throughout the world. Restrictions on NGO activity which exist in some of the EEE have limited the effectiveness of these organizations in carrying out their useful activities.

The eight EEE with the lowest per capita incomes (Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan) are included in the IMF's Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility (PRGF). The objective of this program has been to incorporate poverty reduction more centrally into the macroeconomic framework of these economies.

Target 1.B: Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people.

Poverty in the EEE+NMS is highly linked to unemployment; generally those with jobs outside of the informal and agriculture sector are able to escape from extreme poverty. Thus creating high levels of employment is of central importance for addressing poverty in these areas. The region has for almost two decades been characterized as having anemic employment growth and relatively high rates of unemployment. Between 1989 and 2003 total employment fell by 27 per cent in SEE excluding Turkey, 17 per cent in the European and Caucasian CIS, and 17 per cent in the NMS excluding Malta and Cyprus. Over this period, employment increased by 15 per cent in Turkey and 10 per cent in the central Asian CIS.[27] Unemployment rates remained high even in 2008 despite the relatively solid economic growth of the prior eight years. Overall unemployment rates in the EEE have generally been slightly higher for women but there are many important exceptions such as in Russia (see statistical appendix table 2).

The current economic downturn resulted in approximately two million jobs being lost in the EEE; this was the only emerging/developing region in the world which experienced a loss in total employment during this crisis. Although due largely to the recession, this loss was also the result of the fact that this region has been experiencing negative population growth. This employment decline corresponded to an increase in the unemployment rate in the EEE of approximately 2 percentage points from 8.3 per cent in 2007 and 2008 to 10.3 per cent in 2009 and is expected to stay at about that level during 2010. The only world region with a higher unemployment rate is North Africa.[28] Given the severity of the GDP decline, this two percentage point increase was relatively mild. The unemployment rate may however, underestimate the employment impact of the crisis since discouraged workers often drop out of the workforce and are thereby not considered in the unemployment rate. For example in Tajikistan at the end of 2009 the official unemployment rate was 12 per cent but researchers have estimated its actual rate to be near 40 per cent and as high as 60 per cent in some areas. Given limited safety nets in the region and

[27] UNECE, Economic Survey of Europe, 2005 No.1, Geneva, 2005.
[28] ILO, *Global Employment Trends*, January 2010.

relatively high unemployment to begin with, the result of the crisis has been that a significant proportion of the population has been placed in a vulnerable position.

The increase in unemployment during the current crisis was especially large for the youth of the region whose unemployment rate increased by 4 percentage points to over 20 per cent; thus the youth unemployment rate is over twice that of adults. Although this is quite high relative to the world average of 13 per cent and to many other developing regions, it is slightly below that found in North Africa and the Middle East. Given that the crisis was concentrated in the construction and industrial sectors, men were more negatively impacted than women; their decline in the employment to population ratio has been double that of women. This gender effect is similar to what occurred in the EAE. The fact that GDP declined so much more than employment meant that labor productivity declined by almost 5 per cent in 2009; it had been increasing at about 5 per cent a year prior to the crisis. This also suggests that there was significant labor hording which would mean that employment growth during the recovery will not be particularly strong.

One particular problem that has affected workers in the CIS has been the high rate of wage arrears. These increased considerably during the crisis in many of the CIS; in Russia they doubled between November 2008 and June 2009, reaching 2 per cent of the total wage fund. In the Ukraine, unpaid wages grew by 38 per cent during the first half of 2009, reaching 7.6 per cent of the total wage bill.

The shortage of jobs is especially prevalent for young workers and those with limited skills and thus for them unemployment rates and poverty are quite high. Those unable to obtain regular employment are pushed into the unregulated informal or rural agriculture sectors where wages are low and benefits are limited.[29] Poverty is higher in rural areas than urban areas, sometimes double or triple the level. Poverty is often high among the elderly in that they often lost access to the retirement benefits they had acquired under the planned economy. There is also an ethnic dimension to unemployment and thus poverty in a number of countries in the region, especially in SEE and in some of the NMS. Those displaced by internal conflicts have also had a hard time in gaining employment in the formal sectors.

Although creating decent jobs in the formal sector is of critical importance in addressing poverty, this is an objective that will take substantial time in order to achieve. Many of the workers lack the job skills needed to earn a decent wage and the complementary infrastructure and private sector capital needed for enhancing productivity is lacking. In order to significantly expand employment in the resource-rich CIS, economic diversification is needed into manufacturing and services. As an example, the oil sector in Azerbaijan accounts for 60 per cent of GDP but only 1.1 per cent of employment. Subsidized training for vulnerable groups and for those in disadvantaged sub-regions can help increase productivity.

Creating decent employment involves improving the labor market institutions in the EEE. By international standards the EEE are considered to have relatively well developed employment protection legislation, however the trend over the last decade

[29] Marek Gora, Oleksandr Rohozynsky, Irina Sinitsina, Mateusz Walewski, *Social Security Driven Tax Wedge and Its Effects on Employment and Shadow Employment*, CASE Network Studies and Analyses, No 389/2009

has been to reduce this in order to increase labor market flexibility. The policy objective in these economies, as in much of western Europe as well, has been to try to increase incentives for people to find work while still providing high support levels for those in need.[30] Nevertheless, in many of the EEE labor institutions such as unemployment insurance, health and safety regulations, disability and work injury compensation, and pension systems need to be improved and this will require adequate government financial resources. Due to the demographic problem of aging which is important for most of the UNECE region except perhaps in the Caucasus and central Asia, pension reform is also needed.[31] The working lives of individuals will need to be lengthened; this will lower poverty for the aged, reduce the social security contributions from younger workers which will thereby increase their incomes, and provide additional financial resources for the government which can be used for addressing other social needs. However, until the labor market institutions and private sector industrial productivity of these economies can be upgraded sufficiently, it will be necessary to have in place social protection systems that rely primarily on financial transfers.

Neither the government nor the management of private businesses can be counted on to fully create decent work conditions; the workers themselves need to have input into policies that affect the workplace. The primary mechanism that gives workers a voice in these decisions is through union representation. Appropriate labor market regulation is a precondition for unions being able to play this critical role. Union membership was quite high in many of the EiT before the transition but it has declined considerably in most since then. Nevertheless by international norms it remains high in most. For example 92 per cent of workers in Belarus belong to a union since it is mandatory in many enterprises.[32] However, even when membership rates are high, union rights remain constrained in a number of the EEE. An additional implication of having widespread union representation is that empirical evidence has found that the more extensive are wage setting institutional mechanisms such as encompassing collective bargaining agreements, the lower is the gender pay gap (see MDG goal 3).[33]

Underlying the issue of poverty is the more general problem of increasing inequality in the EEE. In addition to being an underlying factor that has contributed to poverty, inequality has been introduced as a specific target in some countries' national MDG strategies and is therefore an objective in itself. For example, Latvia and the FYR of Macedonia both include lowering inequality as defined by the Gini coefficient as specific targets. Armenia also has a target of lowering inequality but defines it as the ratio of the income of the poorest quintile to that of the richest.

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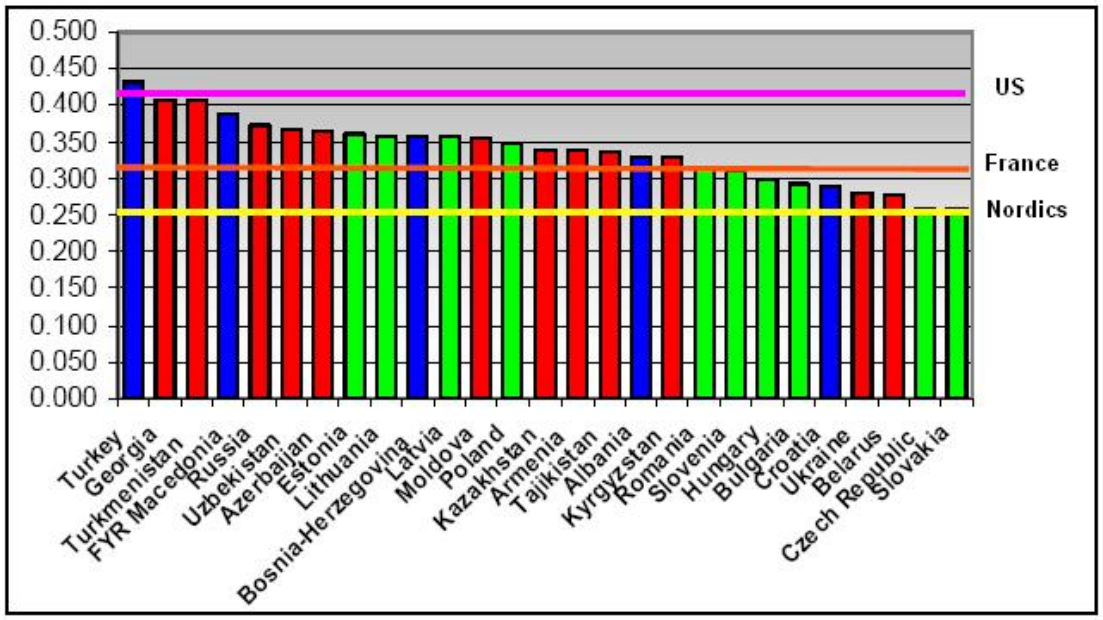
[30] Hartmut Lehmann and Alexander Muravyev, *How Important Are Labor Market Institutions for Labor Market Performance in Transition Economies?*, IZA Discussion Paper No. 4673, Bonn Germany, 2009.

[31] Marek Góra, Oleksandr Rohozynsky, Oxana Sinyavskaya, *Pension reform options for Russia and Ukraine: A critical analysis of available options and their expected outcomes*, ESCIRRU Working Paper No. 25, 2010.

[32] Alena Nesporova and William Nero, *Promoting Decent Employment in Eastern Europe, Central Asia and Turkey*, a paper presented at the UN Conference on Social Impacts of the Economic Crisis in Eastern Europe, Turkey, and Central Asia, Almaty Kazakhstan, 2009.

[33] Francine Blau and Lawrence Kahn, *Understanding International Differences in the Gender Pay Gap*, NBER Working Paper No. 8200, Cambridge, Mass., US, 2001.

Figure 7
Gini Index in the EEE+NMS



Source: UNDP Human Development Report, 2009.

Inequality has increased substantially, as defined by the Gini coefficient, in almost all of the EEE+NMS over the last decade. Although some of the increase in inequality is due to changes in benefits and capital income, the liberalization of product and labor markets have increased inequality in wage incomes and this is primarily responsible for the increase in inequality. A partial exception to this trend of higher inequality is Russia, where it has declined since peaking in 2001, although it had increased significantly during the 1990s and remains above the 1990 level. The Gini index for the EEE are provided in figure 7. Generally the NMS are more equal than the EEE with about half having less inequality than France and half above that of France. Most of the EEE have an index above France but below the US; Turkey is the only EEE with more inequality than the US. None of the EEE and only the Czech Republic and Slovakia in the NMS are as equal as the Nordic economies. The level of inequality in the EEE is considerably less than in some other developing regions, such as Latin America. Tax policy is one of society's more important and effective instruments for redistributing income but progressive income taxes have not been used extensively to redistribute income in the region. Some of the region's economies even enacted flat-taxes and this has exacerbated inequality. The resource-rich economies also have high levels of inequality and high unemployment; the implementation of policies that would promote economic diversification could help reduce inequality, increase employment and reduce poverty.

In addition to inequality in the overall population, some economies in the region have a problem of regional differences in income and therefore reducing the geographical variation in income is considered as an important objective. For example, Macedonia has an indicator for reducing regional disparities in GDP in its national MDG strategy. Community work programs and special employment schemes for vulnerable groups can help address these regional pockets of unemployment and poverty.

Target 1.C: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.

Malnourishment is moderate to low in most of the EEE+NMS although it is reported to be considerably higher in some, although which ones depends on which of several measures of under-nourishment are used. In terms of the absolute level of under-nourishment, the percentage of the population with a caloric intake below the minimum dietary energy requirement (according to the FAO) is below 5 per cent in most of the EEE but was reported to be higher than this (in 2004-06) in Turkmenistan (6%), Azerbaijan (11%), Georgia (12%), Armenia (23%) and Tajikistan (26%).[34] As mentioned earlier in the discussion of poverty, in the poorest of the EEE childhood anemia and iodine deficiency which result from inadequate diets are widespread. Over 10% of the children in the EEE are classified as moderately or severely stunted; in some countries including Azerbaijan, Albania and Tajikistan over 20% are stunted.[35]

By the onset of the Great Recession most of the countries in the region had made considerable progress in reducing hunger by the one-half goal incorporated into MDG target 1.C. Tajikistan and Turkmenistan have made measurable progress and may be able to reach the target; the Caucasus economies had already achieved the target by 2006 and their objective would be to not allow this progress to be undone by the current crisis. Hunger however, appears to have increased in some of the EEE with the increases being most noticeable in Uzbekistan.

In the last several years, the affordability of food in the region has declined due to the income losses associated with the Great Recession. However, even prior to the beginning of this crisis, the populations of this region were significantly affected by the global increase in commodity prices. In a number of the EEE consumers have to spend a large percentage of their income on food; thus price inflation for food products translates into large declines in real purchasing power.

Access to food in the region has benefited from the fact that the region went from being a significant importer of grains in the late 1980s to a significant exporter today. In the 1990s, grain production declined in the CIS as part of the transitional process. However since 2000, cereal production in the region has increased by almost 50 per cent. However, three countries (Russia, Ukraine, and Kazakhstan) account for most of the grain exports while most of the other EEE remain grain importers. Agricultural production of food is still being hampered in central Asia by uncertainty over land property rights. Given that local or even national production of food crops can contribute towards increasing access to food for that country's population, various government programs that benefit the agricultural sector can be implemented. These include such things as rural development of roads and transport infrastructure, promoting better risk management by farmers, improving sources of finance for fertilizers, seeds and equipment, improving water management and storage facilities, and providing informational services for farmers regarding agricultural practices,

[34] William Meyers, *Impacts of the Global Economic and Financial Crisis on Food Security in Eastern Europe and Central Asia*, a paper presented at a Ministerial Conference on the Social Impacts of the Economic Crisis in Eastern Europe, Turkey and Central Asia in Almaty, Kazakhstan, December 7-8, 2009.

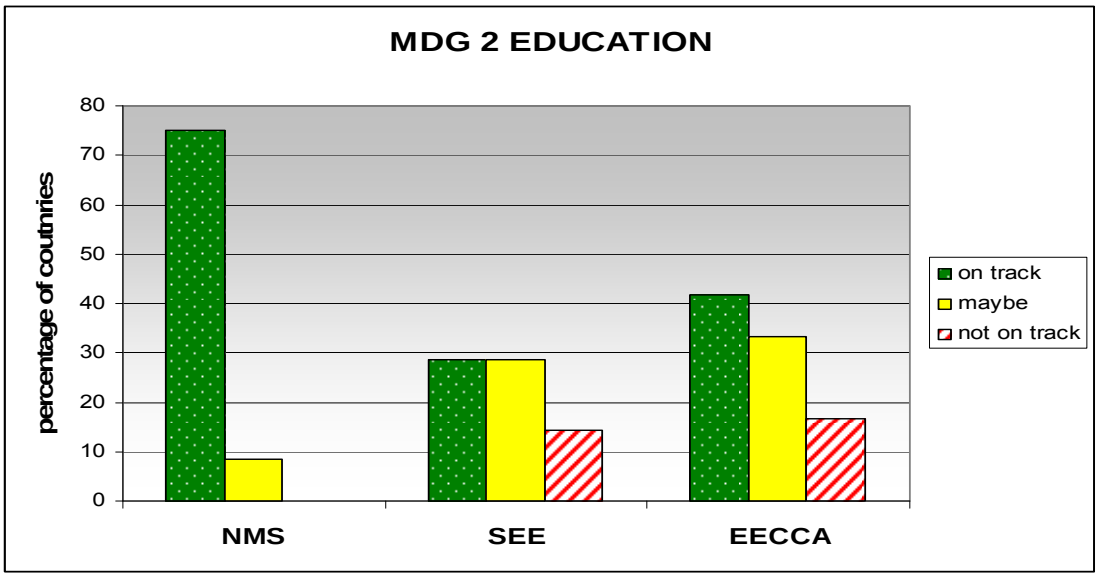
[35] UNICEF, *CEE/CIS MDG Statistical Profile*, March 2010.

marketing options, and weather information. Although the use of genetically modified crops remains controversial, given their potential for increasing agricultural productivity, restrictions on their use should be continually evaluated to ensure that objections are based upon clear scientific evidence. However, it is also necessary to consider how agricultural techniques might impact other MDGs, such as for example the environmental consequences on health and biodiversity of fertilizers, pesticides, and genetically modified crops.

High levels of national income and relatively solid employment growth combined with good welfare systems and unemployment insurance schemes, however, are not sufficient in themselves for eliminating hunger. As a result all countries need to have an appropriate back-up safety net that specifically targets hunger. For example, even in the United States it is estimated that 17 million US households experienced difficulty in 2008 in buying enough food.[36] The current US administration has set a goal of eliminating childhood hunger in the US by 2015.[37]

IV. MDG 2: Achieve Universal Primary Education

Figure 8



Note: The sum of values in the graph might not always amount to 100 per cent since some countries might not have sufficient information.

Target 2.A: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.

Even prior to the transition to market economies, the EEE had achieved relatively high levels of literacy, especially compared to other economies at similar levels of per capita income. Generally, school attendance for those under 16 was compulsory and there were an extensive number of kindergartens. There was some slight deterioration in the provision of primary education in some economies (i.e., Moldova and the Caucasus) during the transitional phase as the level of public

[36] Estimates are by the US Agriculture Department.
[37] Wall Street Journal, Feb. 2, 2010.

services more generally declined. Although relatively high rates of primary school enrolment were maintained, the quality of instruction and actual attendance rates may have declined. Enrolment, attendance and quality increased during the prosperous years of 2000-2007 and it is unlikely that the current global economic crisis will cause these indicators to decline measurably. In almost all of the EEE most (i.e. 97 to 99 per cent) of those that start grade 1 reach the last year of primary school (indicator 2.2); the literacy rates for those 15-24 years old in these countries are near 99 per cent (indicator 2.3).

In many of the EEE enrolment rates are similar to those in the middle income countries in Latin America and south-east Asia and are approaching those of the advanced economies. One particular problem for the region is that actual school attendance rates are often significantly below enrolment rates.[38] Although in a few countries enrolment rates need to be increased, the primary concern for the EEE are in how to achieve high attendance rates and the quality of the education that the students are receiving. As shown in statistical appendix table 3 the only countries for which data is available where the boys enrolment rate is more than three per cent above the girls is in Turkey and Tajikistan.

Although this MDG target is primarily concerned with achieving basic literacy, as countries develop economically and work and life become more complicated and technologically challenging, what is viewed to be a necessary minimum level of education increases. The EEE are therefore focused on increasing the enrolment in secondary and even tertiary schooling. For most of the EEE there has been a considerable increase in the secondary and tertiary enrolment rates since at least 1999; there are a few exceptions however which include primarily those economies which experienced the largest income declines after the transition and have incomes today that are considerably below those achieved in 1990. Increasing enrolment in secondary and tertiary education is critical to achieving target 1.B of decent work because the private sector can not pay wages significantly different from the productivity levels of the workers; thus creating decent jobs is dependent on having workers with the appropriate technical skills.

In some countries including even the advanced ones such as the US and some in western Europe, the provision of subsidized lunches for students is a mechanism for addressing hunger and nutrition. Schools are also often a mechanism for assuring that children obtain the required immunizations. The subject matters taught in school can also be used to increase student awareness of health and environmental issues. Thus increasing enrolments not only address educational issues but can also help address the MDGs related to hunger, heath, and the environment.

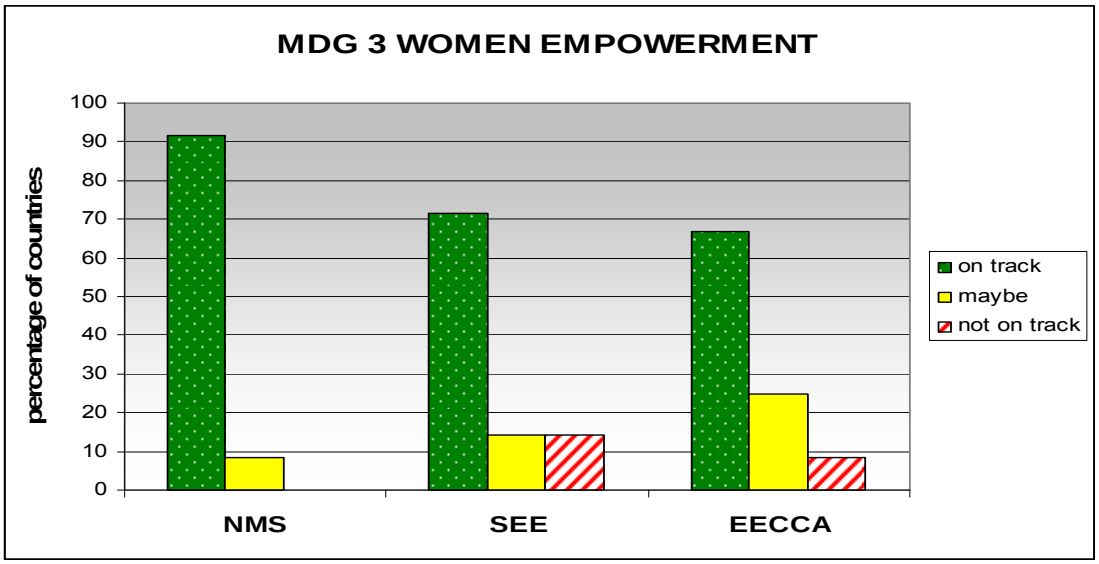
An issue of some relevance for some of the EEE+NMS concerns the language of instruction. There are a number of linguistic minorities in some countries and the children may not speak the national language at home. As a result these children may be at a distinct disadvantage when starting school if schools do not provide instruction in the minority languages. This has been an especially sensitive issue in some of the

[38] This is discussed in more detail in UNECE, The Millennium Development Goals: The Way Ahead, Geneva 2006.

countries created out of the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia as they attempt to create a national identity.

V. MDG 3: Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women

Figure 9



Note: The sum of values in the graph might not always amount to 100 per cent since some countries might not have sufficient information.

Target 3.A: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015.

Although target 3.A specifically references education and there are specific indicators for female attendance in the various school levels, there are two additional indicators that address the status of women in labor markets and their role in the political process. Nevertheless, this target interprets the objective of MDG 3 quite narrowly as there is really no attempt to measure the more general objective of the empowerment of women. Arguably MDG 3 with its focus on gender equality and empowerment covers a more complex set of issues that are not adequately captured by the assigned target and indicators. It has been widely argued that women's empowerment and greater gender equality can positively affect progress towards reaching the other MDGs and efforts should not be restricted to only reaching educational parity. In recognition of this, in 2005, targets on full, productive and decent employment – especially for women and youth – and on universal access to reproductive health were added to Goal 1 and Goal 5 respectively. Gender equality is increasingly considered a decisive factor for sustainable and innovative economic growth, allowing for the best use of human resources and talents for both women and men.

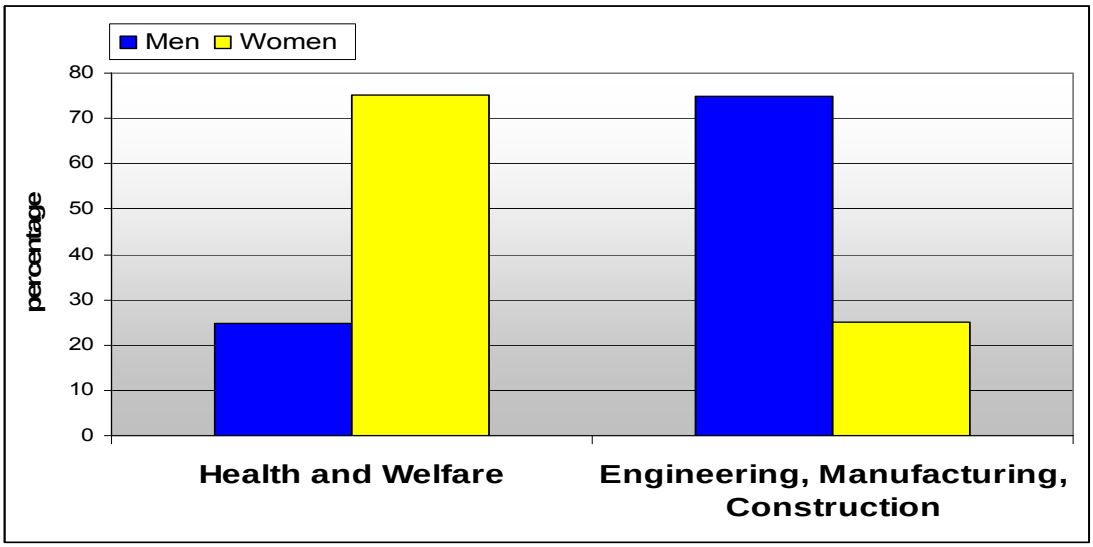
In the UNECE region the narrowly defined target 3.A of reaching educational parity (indicator 3.1) is not of particular concern; women in most countries make up 55 to 60 per cent of the graduates in tertiary education, with the highest share being

observed in the east European countries (see statistical appendix tables 3, 4, and 5).[39] The EiT made important achievements in the field of education, including universal enrolment for basic schooling, free access (at least formally) to school and tertiary level institutions, with a strong emphasis on equity in access. The economic crisis at the beginning of the transition period put many of these achievements at risk, but nevertheless most of the countries managed to maintain high female enrolment rates for compulsory education even during the most difficult phase of economic decline.[40]

In the central Asian countries, remaining gender disparities in education appear more pronounced in rural than urban areas, especially in countries with a significant rural population such as Azerbaijan, Kyrgyzstan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan. Shortages in public funding, impoverishment of the population, and a return to traditional practices (especially marriage of girls at an early age) are contributing factors.

In most countries in the UNECE region (including Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Sweden, Ukraine and especially the Baltic States), women now outnumber men in tertiary education (see figure 10), with Tajikistan being a notable exception. There remain however large gender differences in the fields of study chosen. Men continue to dominate in the fields of science, mathematics and computing while women dominate business administration, law, social sciences, journalism, humanities and arts. Gender segregation in the educational choices risks reinforcing occupational segregation in the labour market and thereby the gender pay gap.

Figure 10
Gender Differences in Tertiary Education



Source: UNECE Statistics Database, 2006-7 data
Note: Figure represents the simple average of selected countries from the UNECE region: Armenia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, and Finland.

[39] UNECE, ECE/AC.28/2009/3, *Regional review of progress: Regional synthesis*, background document for November 2009 Beijing +15 regional review conference.
[40] UNICEF, *Innocenti Social Monitor 2009*, Florence, 2009.

Women's labour market participation in the UNECE region has increased in recent years and is the highest in the world. However, despite the importance of women as a source of new labour and their high education level, severe problems remain both with respect to the quality of women's employment and their career opportunities, especially in countries in eastern Europe, central Asia and the Caucasus. Vertical and horizontal labour market segregation continues to be a major concern: the majority of women still occupy lower-paid, part-time or other forms of unstable jobs at the lower end of the career ladder, they are concentrated in fewer occupations, and have more career interruptions, largely due to care responsibilities (see figure 11). These differences contribute to lower earnings (referred to as a gender pay gap) and slower career progressions. Furthermore, the disadvantages accumulate over the lifetime leading to lower pensions in old age.[41]

Figure 11
Gender Differences in Employment in the UNECE Region

Source: UNECE Statistics Database, 2008 data or latest available
Note: *Employees* are all the workers who hold paid employment jobs; *Managerial positions* refer to Legislators, Senior Officials and Managers; *Employers* are workers who hold self-employment jobs and have engaged, on a continuous basis, one or more persons to work for them in their business as employees.

Labour market access remains problematic for many women, especially those trying to re-integrate into the labour market after maternity leave. Thus, the higher educational attainment of women in many countries is not yet reflected in women's job quality and remuneration and therefore has yet to feed through to employment.[42]

In most of the UNECE countries, women's economic activity rate is lower than men's (indicator 3.2); there are a few exceptions such as Latvia. The highest rate is found in Iceland where nearly 80 per cent of women of working age are economically active. In contrast, only about 25 per cent of Turkish women participate in economic activity. On average, the women's employment rate tends to be higher in

[41] Norberto Pignatti, *Labor Market Segmentation and the Gender Wage Gap in Ukraine*, ESCIRRU Working Paper No. 17, 2010
[42] UNECE, Gender Gap and Economic Policies, 2009.

the CIS and the Baltic States than in the EU (especially the NMS from central Europe) and the Balkans.

Unemployment remains generally higher for women than for men. Where female unemployment is lower than men's (Baltic States, Ireland, Romania, Russian Federation, and Ukraine), women are more likely than men to accept jobs below their qualifications or to retire from the labour market (Estonia, Italy). The 2007-2009 economic crisis severely affected the labour markets of UNECE member States. While initially the number of unemployed men increased at a faster rate than the number of unemployed women, more recent data show that women's unemployment is likely to increase at a rapid pace, while the rate of increase of men's unemployment is slowing.

When jobs are not available in the formal sectors workers tend to find informal employment. In the CIS in particular, many women continue to work in the informal economy, including in home-based market-oriented production of goods and services (sewing, souvenir production, home care services, etc.), and subsistence food production. Due to the rising job uncertainty reflected in atypical working arrangements and increasing incidence of outsourcing, self-employment has become a more and more important avenue for women to provide a steady income for themselves and their families. The agrarian reform in post-Soviet central Asia disarticulated the previously existing social fabric in rural areas and the virtual absence of new institutions (such as civil society organizations and microfinance systems) favored the dramatic rise of inequality and poverty rates. Poverty has increased particularly in rural areas and most of all among women, many of whom lost their jobs in the decline of rural social infrastructure.[43] Moreover, the precedence of customary law and societal norms, which tends to discriminate against women and limited awareness of women about their economic rights, particularly with regards to land and property ownership, contribute to women's difficulties to obtain land and get access to land-related resources.[44] UNIFEM spearheaded a process of legal analysis, advocacy and partnership-building that led to the adoption of gender amendments in the Land Code in Tajikistan and in the Law on Land Management in Kyrgyzstan.[45]

Despite widespread legislation against wage discrimination, women across the UNECE region continue to earn considerably less than men. Some countries report a narrowing of the gender pay gap, but wage differentials remain a resilient challenge to equality in the region, ranging from an average of 17 per cent in the EU to between 40

[43] Max Spoor, *Agricultural Restructuring and Trends in Rural Inequalities in Central Asia. A Socio-Statistical Survey,* UNRISD, Programme Paper Nr 13, November 2004.

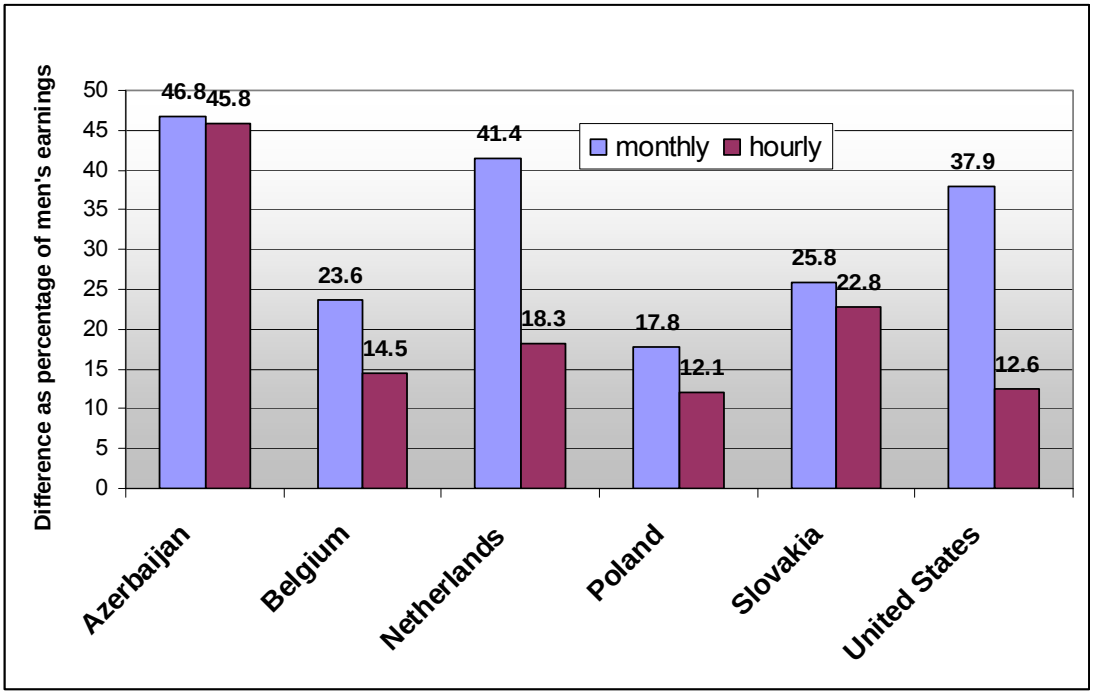
[44] In Kyrgyzstan women faced many obstacles in realizing their rights to land due to some gaps in land related legislation regulating norms of land inheritance, land-disputes in case of divorce or marriages. In Kazakhstan the social workers in rural regions were deprived of their land shares, as they were not the members of the agricultural farms. Later, due to common decline of the social service system in villages majority of social workers lost their job, staying without land shares at the same time. In Tajikistan due to the strong patriarchal customs and inheritance system, and patriarchal living arrangements, women had access to land and other productive resources only through their relationship to a male, be it a father or husband. This problem is quite similar to Uzbekistan where women due to cultural, religious, legal and information constraints are typically excluded from gaining control over land and other productive resources.

[45] For more information on these projects see http://www.unifem.org/worldwide/europe_cis/

and 50 per cent in central Asia and the Caucasus[46]. Frequently women earn less than men for work of equal value. One reason for women's lower remuneration may be gender-biased job and competence evaluations.[47] In all countries there are important variations by sector (the gap tends to be higher in the private than the public sector), and by occupation and educational level (the gap is generally larger for people with higher education).

Figure 12 and appendix tables 6a and 6b present two indicators of the difference between men's and women's average earnings from employment, shown as a percentage of men's average earnings. Gender pay gap (GPG) indicators offer a synthesized view of earning differences, but can also convey a variety of interpretations depending on the way they are calculated and presented. The first measure of GPG (table 6a) refers to differences in gross monthly earnings from employment. This measure of GPG is arguably a more accurate indicator of overall gender inequality since it takes into account levels of participation in the labour market, such as full and part-time work. The second (table 6b) relates to differences in the hourly wage rate between male and female employees. This indicator is independent of the number of hours worked by either sex in any sector of economy. It therefore reflects overall inequalities which could stem from factors such as occupation (sector and seniority), qualification, and length of experience.

Figure 12
Gender Pay Gap in Monthly and Hourly Earnings, selected UNECE Countries, 2008 or Latest Available



Source: UNECE Statistical Database

[46] International comparisons of the gender pay gap should be interpreted with care as there are variations in measurement across countries: http://www.unece.org/stats/gender/Welcome.html.
[47] Lisa Warth, *Gender Equality and the Corporate Sector*, UNECE Discussion Paper No. 2009.4, Geneva, 2009.

Generally, the earnings gap based on monthly data is bigger than that based on hourly wages. As already mentioned, one factor affecting this is that women tend to work fewer hours than men. In fact, the difference between the two measures is a valuable source of information in itself. Looking at the pattern for Azerbaijan, for example, the overall pay gap is almost 50 per cent for both monthly and hourly earnings. This indicates that patterns of full/part-time employment are similar between the sexes. There are therefore other factors that are determining the high GPG. In Poland, on the other hand, where the overall GPG is relatively low, up to a third of the disparity could possibly be attributed to differences in labour force participation of men and women. This highlights the importance of not focusing exclusively on the wage gap but considering it as one part of a more complicated picture. For example, the wage gap declined in the East Germany Länder during the 1990s but this was due largely to the fact that low-skilled women were disproportionately laid off during the restructuring.[48]

Women position on the labour market could deteriorate in the wake of the financial crisis. In fact, the economic crisis led to an increase in female vulnerable employment and the wage gap. The lack of income generation opportunities in the formal sector and an oversupply of workers in the informal economy result in working arrangements in the latter that have low wages and few benefits. Women tend to be more affected by recession-induced deteriorations in labor markets as they were generally more likely to work in the informal economy and were paid less than men before the crisis. Concerns that the existing gender pay gap might increase during this crisis have been confirmed by recent evidence from developed countries (e.g. UK, US).[49]

The weak position of women in our societies is reflected by the low political representation they have. While women's participation in economic and political decision-making has been increasing over the past five years in many countries across the UNECE region, improvements in women's access to power have generally been rather slow and uneven and women continue to be strongly underrepresented in all areas of decision-making in most countries (see appendix tables 7 and 8). Where women are given more political responsibility, it tends to be limited to socio-cultural issues. Although there are no legal barriers for women to vote and stand for elections in the Pan-European region, their significant under-representation in power and decision-making across the region implies that significant challenges to women's empowerment persist. The use of quotas as a mechanism to increase the number of women in parliaments is increasingly being used; for instance Belarus, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova and Serbia have some type of quota system for women.

In most countries (e.g. Luxembourg, Canada, Croatia, Poland, Turkmenistan), between 15 and 25 per cent of members of parliament (MPs) are female (indicator 3.3). Just a few, including Belgium and Denmark, report a share higher than 35 per cent. Only in Sweden has full parity practically been achieved with 47 per cent female MPs. The weakest representation of women in national parliaments is found in

[48] Jennifer Hunt, The Transition in East Germany: When Is a Ten-Point Fall in the Gender Wage Gap Bad News?, Journal of Labor Economics, 2002.
[49] Ursula Hermelink and Claudia Trentini, *Gender-sensitive Economic Policies in the UNECE Region in the Context of the Economic and Financial Crisis*, UNECE Discussion Paper No. 2009.3, Geneva, 2009.

Georgia (6 per cent), Albania (7.1 per cent) and Malta (8.7 per cent). In Turkey, even though still relatively low, the share of women in national parliament has doubled since 2004 (see appendix table 9).

In all the countries of the Pan-European region except Finland and Spain, men outnumber women as ministers in national government. Female ministers tend to be concentrated in social-cultural functions and rarely head the ministries responsible for the economy, infrastructure, home affairs, foreign affairs, and defense. Although government is a large employer of women, they tend to be less represented in the higher administrative posts, especially in western Europe where the share of female senior civil servants often does not exceed 30 per cent. In numerous countries (e.g. the Baltic States, Kazakhstan), this share equals more than 50 per cent. In some of the CIS (e.g. Uzbekistan), affirmative action has been undertaken to ensure women's representation in power and decision-making. In others (e.g. the Russian Federation), the introduction of transparent competitive selection procedures of candidates for an open vacant post in governmental organizations has been viewed as an instrument to ensure fair gender competition and promotion.[50]

As already mentioned, there are concerns that the 2007-2009 economic and financial crisis could endanger the achievements of the past years and even slow down the pace of progress by diverting issues related to women's rights and gender equality from the political, economic and social agenda of public authorities. At the same time new challenges are arising in the region, which have a gender dimension such as the expansion of migration flows and the acceleration of population ageing.

With regard to the dramatic increase of migration flows in the Pan-European region in recent years, the condition of working migrant and/or trafficked women needs particular attention. Much of the migration to western European countries is accounted for by women (as more than 50 per cent of migrants are females) working in households and in the sex industry. These two categories of migrant workers are particularly vulnerable. Their work and status in the society are "invisible", being usually informal workers, they are at high risk of exploitation and abuse, and do not have access to social or health protection.

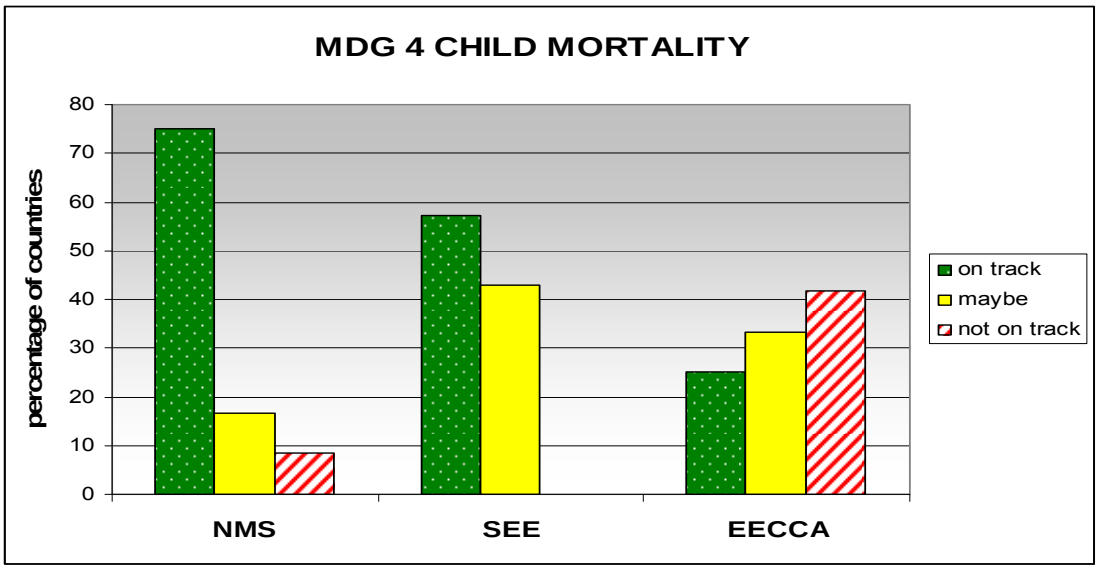
Migrant domestic workers contribute to the sustainability of western European ageing populations, freeing time for western women to enter the formal labor market. However, this equilibrium is not sustainable in the long term. In fact, many countries in the eastern part of the region – i.e., the migrant sending countries – also have fertility rates which are declining rapidly. A long-term sustainable equilibrium in European welfare and employment systems can only be achieved through the better use of women's abilities in the labour market while ensuring that career and family can be adequately combined. [51]

[50] UNECE, ECE/AC.28/2009/3, *Regional review of progress: Regional synthesis*, background document for November 2009 Beijing +15 regional review conference.

[51] The average fertility rate in the UNECE region has declined over the past two decades from 2.4 to 1.5 children per woman between 1980 and 2005. Over the same period, the old-age dependency ratio (population aged 65 and higher over the population aged 15 to 64) has increased in virtually all UNECE countries. This process will accelerate during the coming decades when the falling fertility rates impact the size of the workforce and the baby-boom generations of the 1960s retire, (UNECE, Gender Gap and Economic Policies, 2009).

VI. MDG 4: Reduce Child Mortality

Figure 13



Note: The sum of values in the graph might not always amount to 100 per cent since some countries might not have sufficient information.

Target 4.A: Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate.

A critical indicator for assessing the health status of young children is the mortality rate for children under five years of age (U5MR). This indicator (indicator 4.1) not only measures the probability of survival of a newborn to his or her fifth birthday, but also reflects the socio-economic conditions in which the child grows up, and the access of households to basic social services and infrastructure. Infant mortality (i.e. mortality occurring before the first birthday) represents the main component of under five mortality, since the vast majority of the deaths for children under the age of five occur in the first year of life.

Child survival and health are strongly influenced by an interplay of different factors such as the health and nutritional status of mothers, mothers' knowledge of basic healthcare and hygiene, the extent of immunization coverage, the availability of maternal and child healthcare services including pre-natal and neo-natal care, household income levels, the availability and nutritional value of food, access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation, and the overall safety of the environment in which the child grows up. For most countries in the region U5MR has dropped rapidly since the late 1990s.

Child mortality in the UNECE is the lowest in the world, and there is an overall trend towards achieving target 4.A in the region. The estimates reported in appendix table 11 show that for some countries the reductions were impressive, in the CIS the mortality rate has fallen in some cases by 50 per cent over the last decade. Nevertheless, child mortality in these countries is still high, and five of them are unlikely to reach the target. Three more may reach it only with additional effort.

The countries of central Asia and the Caucasus have levels of under-5 mortality in the range of 25 and 70 per 1,000 live births; an intermediate group of countries – mainly in SEE and the Western CIS – have levels of between 10 and 25 per 1,000 live births; and finally the other countries - mainly in central Europe and the Baltic States – have levels below 10 per 1,000.

The Czech Republic and Slovenia rank among those countries with the lowest U5MR in the world. They have managed to reduce rates since the late 1990s by improving the survival chances for very pre-term children and low and very low birth-weight children, and reducing sub-national disparities. The other countries in central Europe and the Baltic States have succeeded in reducing the average U5MR to below 10 per 1,000, but further progress in reducing mortality for preterm newborns and reducing sub-national disparities is needed in order to achieve lower rates.[52]

Bulgaria and Romania are the only European Union countries with U5MR of over 10 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2007. UNICEF reports marked sub-national disparities, which to a large extent reflect the higher concentrations of the Roma population in a few regions of these countries. From the early 1990s they have also reported levels of low weight births which – at 9.6 per cent in Bulgaria and 8 per cent in Romania in 2006 – are among the highest in the region, also pointing to problems with maternal and prenatal care.

Much of the improvements in child mortality can be explained with wide changes in the patterns of fertility and family formation in formerly socialist countries. Later marriage and childbearing may result in parents who are better prepared, financially and otherwise, to raise a family; the increase in the use of modern contraception leads to better timing of childbirth and possibly fewer 'unwanted' children.[53]

But there is one fertility trend in the region that is unambiguously negative—an increase in sex ratios at birth in the Caucasus. The sex ratio in the Soviet Union had always fluctuated around the biological norm of 1.05 males to females; normal sex ratios also characterized the more traditional, less industrialized Soviet republics in cental Asia and the Caucasus. But since the dissolution of the Soviet Union there has been a striking upward trend in the sex ratio of children aged 0 to 4 in all three Caucasian republics. Azeri official statistics indicate a sex ratio of 1.168 in 2008; the 2001 Armenian census reveals a sex ratio of 1.145; and the 2002 Georgian census shows a sex ratio of 1.104. In contrast, the sex ratio in Russia in the 2001 census is 1.049. According to these figures, excess female mortality in Armenia, Azerbaijan and Georgia appears to be at a level similar to that of China and India, where the most recent sex ratios for children aged 0-4 are 1.145 and 1.106, respectively.[54]

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[52] WHO, *The European Health Report*, Geneva, 2009

[53] The formerly socialist countries of eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union have experienced a remarkable demographic transformation in the past twenty years. On many dimensions of fertility and family formation, much of the region now looks like Western Europe—below-replacement fertility rates, rising age at first marriage and first birth, and high and increasing out-of-wedlock birthrates, characterize many countries formerly distinguished by replacement-level fertility and early, near-universal marriage and childbearing (Mikhail Dmitriev, *Fertility. Abortion. Contraception. Demographic situation in Russia in1994-2003*, MPRA Paper No. 21151, 2010).

[54] Elizabeth Brainerd, *The Demographic Transformation of Post-Socialist Countries*, WIDER Working Paper No. 2010/15

Moreover, UNICEF highlights the presence of wide subnational disparities in under-5 mortality rates in other SEE countries, as well as some western CIS countries. In The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, survey results point to continuing large differences between levels in urban (10 per 1,000 live births) and rural areas (26 per 1,000 live births). On the other hand, official data for the Republic of Moldova suggest that the improvements recorded since the late 1990s are due, among other things, to successes in reducing the differences in child mortality rates between urban and rural areas. High level of intracountry disparities are reported also in the in the Caucasus and central Asia where the highest levels of U5MR are found. Armenia, for example, has an estimated U5MR of 24 deaths per 1,000 live births for 2007, the lowest level of child mortality for this group. Improvements in primary healthcare interventions have contributed to the reduction in child mortality by about one third since 2000. All the other countries have levels which are above 30 deaths per 1,000 live births, with Tajikistan (at 67 per 1,000) registering the highest U5MR, with persistent intracountry disparities in rates, both by socio-economic status and by place of residence.[55]

Infant mortality before 1 year of age indicates living conditions and access to health care (indicator 4.2). It has fallen by more than 50 per cent since 1990 in the Pan-European Region. The rate for the Pan-European Region in 2007 was 7.74 deaths per 1000 live births. Although the declines have been similar across country groups, rates still differ greatly, varying from a low rate ratio, of 3.84 in the EU15 countries to an average ratio around 13 in the CIS (see appendix table 12).[56]

Target 4.A includes also an indicator on immunization for measles: immunization coverage is universal in the UNECE region (indicator 4.3).

In many of the high U5MR countries, better data collection and more timely analysis in patterns of underlying trends in these rates are needed to strengthen policy responses. Official data on infant mortality, based on vital registration, are generally considered unreliable, and there are large discrepancies between survey results and the mortality statistics obtained from the vital registration system. This is partly linked to the continuing use of the former Soviet definition of live birth in these countries, which leads not only to underestimates of neonatal deaths, but also to a lack of policy attention on the need to improve the quality of pre and neonatal care.[57]

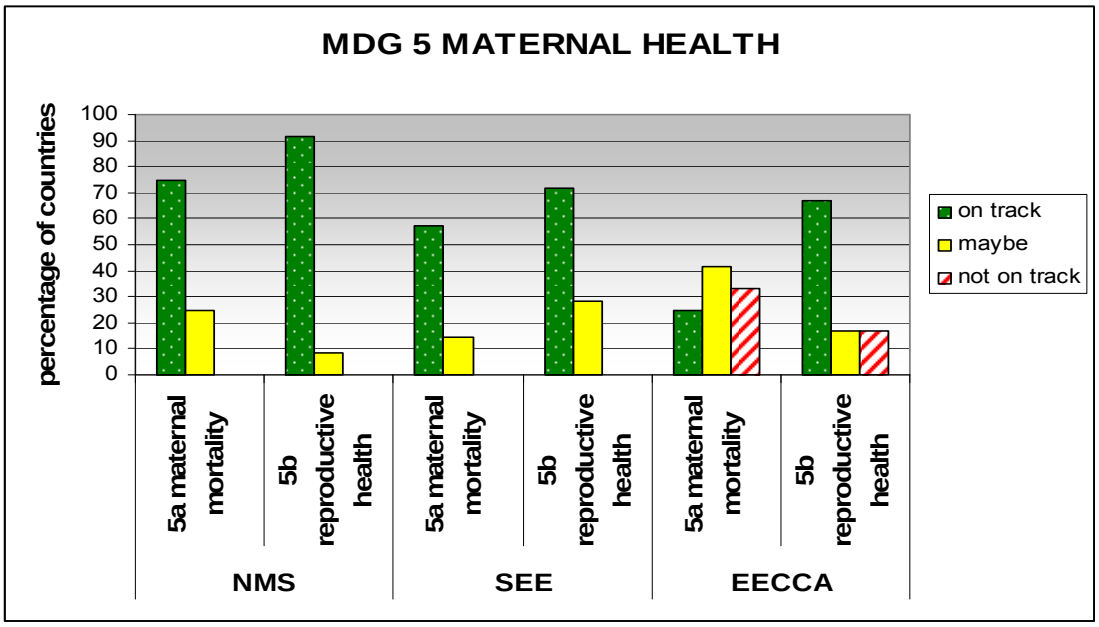
Although children mortality data seems to suggest that reaching MDG 4 is a concern only in a few countries, changing social and economic environments pose new challenges to children' wellbeing. Many countries in the region have reached high levels of out-migration. In this context UNICEF has highlighted the fact that the number of children left behind by migrating parents, and thus living without one or both parents, has correspondingly grown. In Albania and the Republic of Moldova the share of children left behind – even if in some cases this is for short periods – is significant. Survey data for the Republic of Moldova in 2007 suggest that 37 per cent of children aged 0–14 years were not living in families with both parents, and in

[55] UNICEF, *Innocenti Social Monitor 2009*, Florence, 2009.
[56] WHO, *The European Health Report*, Geneva, 2009.
[57] UNICEF, *Innocenti Social Monitor 2009*, Florence, 2009.

slightly more than half of the cases this was due to the migration of one or both parents.[58]

VII. MDG 5: Improve Maternal Health

Figure 14



Note: The sum of values in the graph might not always amount to 100 per cent since some countries might not have sufficient information.

Target 5.A: Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio.

Maternal mortality reflects access to and the quality of health care for women (indicator 5.1). There are clear linkages between improvements in maternal health and other MDGs. The costs associated with poor maternal health are often a cause of impoverishment; improved maternal health can reduce poverty (MDG 1) by saving families from the often devastating economic consequences of a mother's death or disability. Skilled care for mothers during birth and immediately following will improve child survival (MDG 4), both by protecting infants in the vulnerable neonatal period and by allowing more mothers to survive to care for their children (indicator 5.2).

For the first time in decades, researchers are reporting a significant drop worldwide in the number of women dying each year from pregnancy and childbirth, to about 342,900 in 2008 from 526,300 in 1980, challenging the prevailing view of maternal mortality as an intractable problem that has defied every effort to solve it.[59] This result is certainly due to improvements in large countries like India and China

[58] UNICEF, *Innocenti Social Monitor 2009*, Florence, 2009.
[59] C. JL Murray et al, Maternal mortality for 181 countries, 1980—2008: a systematic analysis of progress towards Millennium Development Goal 5, *The Lancet*, Early Online Publication, 12 April 2010

but it might also be related to the better dataset and more sophisticated statistical methods used. In fact, WHO is expected to revise its statistics this year. In the following analysis, the old WHO statistical dataset (consulted in March 2010) is used.

In the Pan-European Region maternal mortality declined to 14.1 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2008, nearly 50 per cent of the 1990 level (see table 13). The decline has been steepest in the NMS (nearly 75 per cent) and lowest in the EU15 (30 per cent), even though the latter have the lowest maternal mortality in the Pan-European Region (around 5.3).[60] Even if ratios in CIS countries are five, six times the EU 15 average, it has to be pointed out that the EEE group of countries has the lowest levels of maternal mortality in the developing world.[61]

According to WHO nearly 40 per cent of maternal deaths in CIS countries are related to mostly preventable causes like haemorrhage, abortion and toxaemia. In the Russian Federation, for example, it is estimated that around a quarter of maternal deaths are abortion related.[62] In fact an important issue specific to this group of countries arises from the widespread use of abortion as an alternative to contraception. A large proportion of women in the countries of the Caucasus – Armenia, Azerbaijan and Georgia – rely on traditional methods, particularly withdrawal, to control their fertility. Partly as a result, these countries have high rates of abortion.[63] However, as shown in table 14 in the appendix, abortion rates have been decreasing steeply for many countries. Similar to child mortality, four CIS countries have higher rates and are not on track to reach the target, and four more may be able to attain it if they increase their efforts.

On the positive side, the maternal mortality ratio in Turkey fell by about 90 per cent. In 1973, Turkey's ratio was more than 8 times the average of the countries in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), but it was down to about 2.5 times the OECD average by 2006, and is now (2008 data) estimated at 19.42 per 100 000 live births. This progress is largely due to making maternal mortality a political priority, funding it accordingly, pursuing policies and providing services in a culturally sensitive manner. This includes establishing pre-delivery care homes for expectant mothers near a hospital and providing land and air transport free of charge for obstetrical emergency cases, greatly reducing the distance and time needed to access appropriate and high-quality specialized care.[64]

The presence of skilled healthcare personnel at childbirth is important for reducing both infant and maternal mortality (indicator 5.2). Although the countries of the region on the whole perform well in all of these indicators, there is evidence in some countries of problems concerning the quality of medical assistance. Official data suggest that in 2006, in almost all the EiT countries, the rate of deliveries assisted by skilled birth attendants was almost 100 per cent. The main exceptions were Tajikistan and Azerbaijan where coverage in 2006 was 88 per cent, while two other countries had slightly less than universal coverage: Kyrgyzstan and Romania, where between

[60] The SEE result is very much affected by Turkey's success in reducing maternal mortality rates.
[61] UNICEF, *Progress for Children. A Report Card on Maternal Mortality*, Number 7, September 2008
[62] WHO, *Health: a vital investment for economic development in eastern Europe and central Asia*, Geneva, 2007.
[63] UNICEF, *Progress for Children. A Report Card on Maternal Mortality*, Number 7, September 2008
[64] WHO, *The European Health Report*, Geneva, 2009.

1.5 and 2 per cent of all births were not attended by skilled personnel.[65] Maternal deaths are also related to HIV infection and can thereby be reduced by increasing access to antiretrovirals.

Target 5.B: Achieve, by 2015, universal access to reproductive health.

Many health problems among pregnant women are preventable, detectable or treatable through visits with trained health workers before birth. The UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the World Health Organization (WHO) recommend a minimum of four antenatal visits. These enable women to receive important services, such as tetanus vaccinations and screening and treatment for infections, as well as potentially life-saving information on warning signs during pregnancy.[66] According to the latest estimates, 95 per cent of women in EEE receive antenatal care (ANC) from a skilled health provider at least once during pregnancy (indicator 5.5). This compares favorably with the 78 per cent in the developing world as a whole. Despite these high levels of coverage, progress needs to be made for all women to receive the minimum number of four antenatal visits. A subset of countries with available data on four visits suggests that rural women, in particular, are not receiving minimum antenatal care.[67]

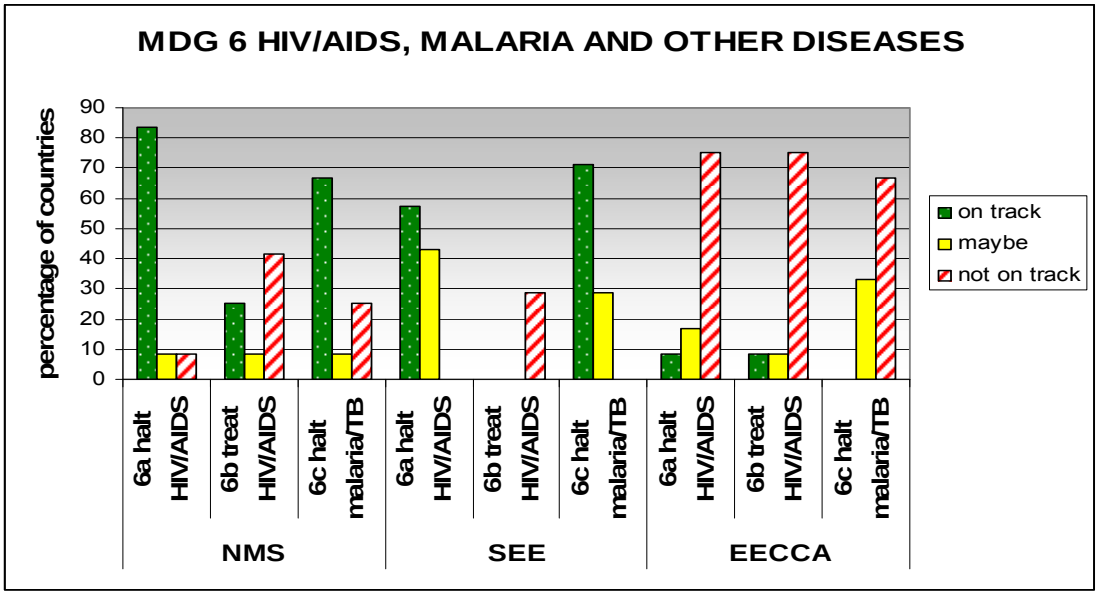
Young adolescents are more likely to die or experience complications in pregnancy and childbirth than adult women (indicator 5.4). Moreover, the children of these young mothers have a higher risk of morbidity and mortality. Girls who give birth before the age of 15 are five times more likely to die in childbirth than women in their twenties. An infant's risk of dying in his or her first year of life is 60 per cent higher when the mother is under age 18 than when the mother is 18 or older. Again, adolescent fertility is relatively low in the UNECE Region where adolescent birth rates range between 5 and 40 per cent (see table 15 in the appendix). This is below other developing regions (for example, Sub-Saharian Africa has an average adolescent birth rate of 146 per cent) with the exception of Eastern Asian and the Pacific (19 per cent).

Interestingly, the highest rate of adolescent pregnancies[68] in the UNECE is found in the US (42 per cent) closely followed by Bulgaria (41 per cent). In developed countries adolescent pregnancies are usually related to poor and excluded social strata, like Roma people in Europe (especially in Bulgaria and Romania), or black communities in the US. In the EU adolescent fertility rates are quite low, ranging between 5 and 15 per cent roughly, the exceptions being Bulgaria, Romania (36 per cent) and the United Kingdom (26 per cent). In the CIS the return to old traditions and practices like girls marrying at a young age is considered one of the factors contributing to the high values still observed is some countries (e.g. Azerbaijan, Ukraine, Georgia).

[65] UNICEF, *Progress for Children. A Report Card on Maternal Mortality*, Number 7, September 2008
[66] United Nations, *Millennium Development Goals Report*, 2009.
[67] Data available at www.childinfo.org
[68] Defined as number of live births to women aged 15-19 per 1000 women aged 15-19.

VIII. MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases

Figure 15



Note: The sum of values in the graph might not always amount to 100 per cent since some countries might not have sufficient information.

The basic health outcomes in many of the EiT declined substantially during the transition; there was a high correlation across countries between the decline in heath outcomes and the decrease that occurred in national income during the transition.[69] The severe economic conditions combined with collapsing health care systems (often enterprise-based) and limited public funds and weak public health institutions led to a deterioration of health outcomes that did not recede even after prosperity returned after 2000. This was because diseases such as AIDS, tuberculosis, and alcoholism became well-established within these societies.[70] The increase in inequality that developed in these economies also contributed to growing inequalities for access to health care and in health care outcomes. Thus the deterioration in health outcomes experienced during the transition was not a temporary setback which was rapidly overcome once economic growth returned, but instead evolved into a more "permanent" phenomenon as certain diseases and social practices became firmly ingrained. The region is also characterized (relative to other world regions with similar levels of income) by its high death rates from noncommunicable diseases (i.e., alcoholism, traffic accidents, etc). Many of the CIS now have life expectancies below what they had before the transition. Death rates for adult males are particularly high in many of the CIS relative to global norms; for example in Ukraine the adult male death

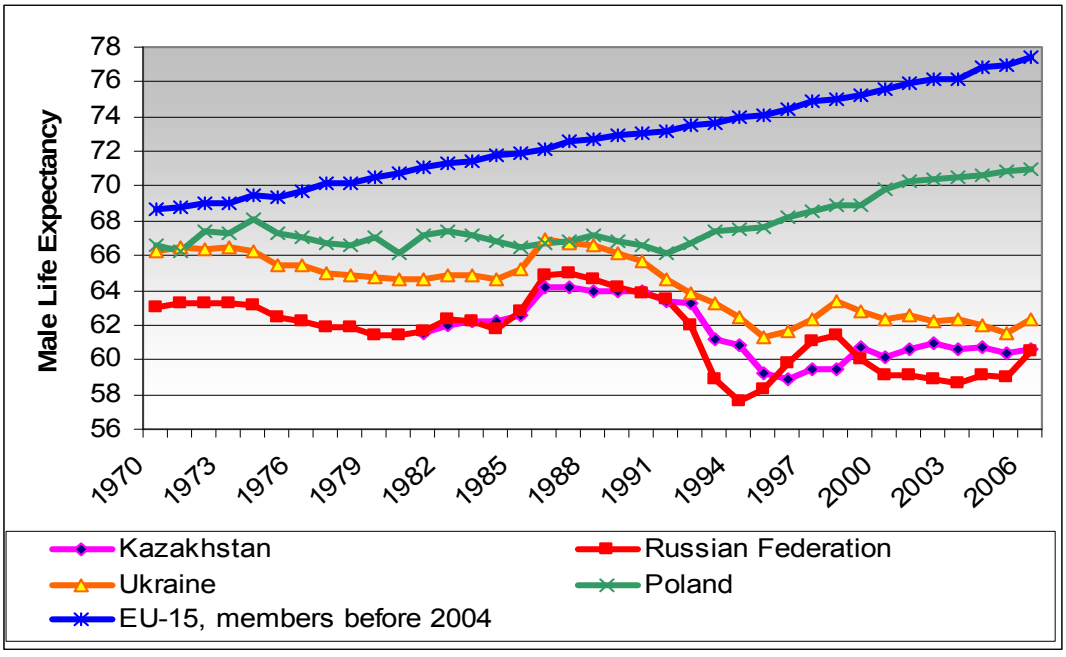
[69] Elizabeth Brainerd and David Cutler, Autopsy on an Empire: Understanding Mortality in Russia and the Former Soviet Union, *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 19 (1), 2005, pp. 107-130.

[70] Former communist countries failed in keeping up with development in the west also because of an increase of health care complexity: i.e. the growth in chronic disease, the emergence of new forms of infectious disease, and the introduction of new treatments requiring integrated delivery systems. See Martin McKee and Ellen Nolte, Health Sector Reforms in Central and Eastern Europe: How Well Are Health Services Responding to Changing Patterns of Health?, *Demographic Research*, 2 (7), 2004.

rate is comparable to that in countries with only one-fifth of its per capita income.[71] Due to high levels of smoking, the central European NMS have lung cancer mortality rates almost twice that of many of the western European economies although this has been on a downward trend in last five years.[72]

Male life expectancies in several EEE as well as the EU-15 average are plotted in figure 16. Life expectancy in the EU-15 (i.e., EU-NMS) has increased by 10 years over the last 40 years and there is little evidence that it has been affected by the economic business cycle. This reflects the strong safety nets that exist in these economies and the fact that health coverage is not generally employment based in many of these economies. In contrast, the EiT experienced less progress even prior to the transition. As shown male life expectancy in the EU-15 was only about 2 years higher than that in Ukraine or Poland in 1970 but had increased to almost 15 years by 1989 as life expectancy remained essentially constant in these economies over this period. To some degree this is explained by the economic stagnation experienced by these economies during the 1970s and 1980s. Russia experienced little improvement over the 1970-1985 period but life expectancy did increase significantly in the last half of the 1980s. Health outcomes deteriorated substantially in the CIS economies during the beginning years of the transition to market economies, while they remained flat in Poland. By the early 1990s life expectancy began to increase in Poland at a rate similar to western Europe (although at a lower level) but deteriorated further in the CIS.

Figure 16
Male Life Expectancy in Selected Areas 1970-2006



Source: WHO Database

Thus although Ukraine and Poland had a similar life expectancy in 1989, by 2006 Poland's was 9 years longer. In the CIS economies there was a further

[71] Robert C. Shelburne and Claudia Trentini, *Public Health in Europe: The 2007-2009 Financial Crisis and UNECE Activities*, UNECE Discussion Paper 2009.2.
[72] OECD, *Health At A Glance 2009*, OECD, 2009.

deterioration, although of a lesser degree, after the 1998 Russian currency crisis. Public expenditures in general and on health in particular declined throughout the 1990s and only partially recuperated in the last decade before the 2007-2009 economic crisis.

Currently, once income levels are controlled for, health expenditures in the transition economies appear to be "normal" by global standards. Nevertheless there is significant diversity within this group, with some economies spending twice as much as other countries which have the same level of national income. The current economic crisis may lead to a further deterioration in health outcomes by increasing poverty, reducing governmental support for medical care, and increasing a number of social behaviors such as prostitution and drug use that have contributed to spread of a number of diseases.

The communicable diseases which are problematic for the region pose a problem not only for the national governments, but because they are readily transferable across national boundaries represent a problem for the entire region as well as the world community. Thus controlling these diseases are like the global environmental objectives incorporated into the MDGs in that no nation can fully achieve its ultimate objective unless every country achieves its targets. Thus although national targets are important, it is progress at the global level that will be necessary to fully address these problems even at the national level.

According to Sachs, the key to maintaining progress in addressing the health-related MDGs is an expansion of the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis, and Malaria into a more generalized Global Health Fund.[73] Sachs recommends that the current yearly funding should be increased from $3 billion to $12 billion. According to Sachs the Global Fund which was created in 2002 has saved over 5 million lives at a cost of $19 billion (or $3,000 per life). The key justification for expanding this program is that it has established institutional mechanisms that have proven to be efficient and cost effective and improving basic health services is now just as important (in terms of savings lives, etc.) as providing funding for these specific diseases. There may, however, be more of an economic (but perhaps not moral) justification for global funding to tackle diseases such as AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria which readily cross borders and are more of a global "public bad" than for addressing local health problems.

Target 6.A: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS.

Currently it is estimated that approximately 2.5 million people in the Pan-European Region are infected with HIV;[74] but estimates range from 1.7 million to 2.9 million depending on estimation technique.[75] Each year approximately another

[73] Jeffrey Sachs, *Funding a Global Health Fund*, Project Syndicate, March 2010.
[74] Approximately 33 million people in the world have HIV, so the Pan-European Region accounts for about 7.5 per cent of the world's HIV infections. Note that there is a difference between HIV and AIDS in that it takes about ten years for someone who has contracted the HIV virus to develop the condition referred to as AIDS.
[75] A large number of HIV infections and AIDS cases are not reported to national health authorities and thus actually reported cases significantly under-estimates the true incidence of HIV/AIDS. Different estimation techniques often arrive at significantly different estimates so there is considerable

110,000 people in the region are becoming newly infected; and as a result the number infected has doubled since 2001 when there were 1.25 million. Annual HIV/AIDS deaths remain high and are estimated to be between 65,000 and 100,000; about half of these are in Russia. Although there has been significant progress in limiting new infections in the EAE, progress in controlling the spread of HIV/AIDS has been disappointing in the EEE where over 1.5 million are now living with HIV. Currently, "Eastern Europe and central Asia is the only region of the world where HIV prevalence clearly remains on the rise."[76] The infection rate continues to rise despite quite large increases in funding by some governments.[77]

The HIV infection rate varies quite significantly throughout the Pan-European Region; a very approximate generality is that the infection rate for adults in the EEE (0.7 per cent) is slightly more than twice what it is in EAE+NMS (0.3 per cent). The infection rate easily varies by a factor of 20 between the countries where it is the highest to those where it is the lowest. Ukraine has the highest infection rate in the Pan-European Region; currently over 400,000 or 1.6 per cent of the adult population (age 15-49) are infected.[78] Estonia has the second highest HIV/AIDS infection rate (1.3%). The infection rate in Russia is 1.1% of their adult population with total estimated infections approaching one million. Latvia also has a relatively high rate of .8 per cent. Prevalence rates at these levels are approaching those currently experienced in some of the sub-Saharan Africa countries with the lowest rates. The infection rate in these countries varies significantly in the different geographical regions; for example in Ukraine the infection rate is 6 times higher in the east of the country compared to the western regions; and in Estonia infections are higher along the Russian border. In Russia the highest incidence is found in the large cities of St. Petersburg and Moscow. The adult incidence rate in western Europe varies considerably; on average it is about 0.2-0.3 per cent but is twice that in several countries including France, Italy, Portugal, Spain and Switzerland. For both the EEE and EAE+NMS women have a lower infection rate and account for about one third or less of infections.

Injecting drug use (IDU) and unprotected sex are the main means of transmission for the HIV virus; current estimates are that for the EEE the majority of HIV infections are due to injecting drugs. In the Pan-European Region there are currently about 3.7 to 4.0 million people who inject drugs with the vast majority of them in the EEE.[79] In the EEE this amounts to slightly below one percent of the population. Approximately one-quarter of drug injectors in the EEE are HIV infected, but is estimated to be above a third in Ukraine and Russia. Drug use was quite low in the region before the transition to market economies and its recent increase would appear to be related significantly to the economic and social dislocations associated with the transition crisis. Young people account for a surprisingly high percentage of

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uncertainty about the exact level of cases, and the data from organizations with HIV/AIDS related activity therefore also vary considerably.

[76] Michel Sidibé, UNAIDS Executive Director at the 3rd EECAAC Conference on Universal Access in Moscow, October 28, 2009.

[77] In 2007 the Russian government spent $444.8 million on HIV-related activities which was 57 times more than in 2005.

[78] See, *Ukraine: National report on Monitoring Progress Towards the UNGASS Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS, January 2006-December 2007*, Ukrainian Ministry of Health, 2008.

[79] It is estimated that there are about 12 million injecting drug users worldwide, so the Pan-European region accounts for about a third; about a fourth are in the CIS

those with HIV/AIDS; for the CEE/CIS estimates are that more than 80 per cent of those with HIV/AIDS are under 30 years old[80] and in Belarus 60 per cent are below 24 years old and in Ukraine 25 per cent are below 20 years old.[81] (By comparison only 33 per cent of those infected in western Europe are under 30.) Young people also account for a high percentage of those injecting drugs as a quarter of them are believed to be under the age of 20.[82] Condom use among injecting drug users is quite low and estimated to be below 20 per cent.[83]

Unlike the situation in much of the rest of the world, HIV/AIDS in the former transition economies is largely a male disease although the share of women has been slowly increasing. In 2001, 72 per cent of those infected are male and by 2007 this had declined to 69 per cent.[84] UNDP observes that in the CIS region, "today, this is predominantly an epidemic among urban, young, male injecting drug users and their sexual partners." The incidence of HIV/AIDS in women has been increasing largely due to sex with drug users.[85] For example, in Russia 42 per cent of new infections were women in 2008; this has increased from only 21 per cent in 2000. Heterosexual transmission is particularly high (around 50 per cent of infections) in Belarus and Moldova. The sex trade (which is generally illegal throughout the region) is also escalating the heterosexual transmission of HIV/AIDS as condom use with prostitutes is reported to be below 50 per cent and in some areas a third or more of sex workers are HIV positive.[86] The Russian government, however reports that for the country overall, 6 per cent of sex workers are infected;[87] while the percentage is 9 per cent in Ukraine and 8 per cent in Estonia.[88] By contrast, in Bulgaria less than one per cent of sex workers have HIV. There is significant overlap between injecting drug users and those in the sex trade; in Russia more than 30 per cent of sex workers have injected drugs.[89] UNAIDS has concluded that a high rate of sexual violence against women is positively related to the number of HIV cases. This would appear to be a problem in the some of the EEE; for example a recent study concluded that in Tajikistan, "one third to one half of women have regularly been subject to physical, psychological or sexual violence".[90]

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[80] See, *HIV/AIDS in Europe and Central Asia*, United Nations Children's Fund, CEE/CIS and Baltics Regional Office, 2004.
[81] See, *At Great Risks of HIV/AIS: Young People in Eastern Europe and Central Asia*, Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS, 2005.
[82] See *World Youth Report 2007*, chapter 6 entitled, *Labour Market Challenges and New Vulnerabilities for Youth in Economies in Transition*.
[83] See, *The Changing HIV/AIDS Epidemic in Europe and Central Asia*, Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS, 2004.
[84] Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS, *At Great Risks of HIV/AIS: Young People in Eastern Europe and Central Asia* , 2005 and the 2008 Report on the Global AIDS Epidemic.
[85] By comparison, in South Africa HIV infection rates for women aged 15 to 24 are three times than for men.
[86] For example, a study of young prostitutes in St. Petersburg, Russia found that 33% were HIV positive; see Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS, *2006 Report on the Global AIDS Epidemic*, 2006.
[87] Ministry of Health and Social Development of the Russian Federation, *Country Progress Report of the Russian Federation on the Implementation of the Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS, January 2006-December 2007*, 2008.
[88] World Health Organization, *Towards Universal Access: Progress Report 2009*, Geneva.
[89] UNAIDS, Fact Sheet: Eastern Europe and Central Asia, 2009.
[90] Amnesty International, *Women and Girls in Tajikistan: Facing Violence, Discrimination and Poverty*, London, UK, 2009.

In the EAE HIV transmission is significantly related to homosexual activity which accounts for about a fourth to a third of new infections. However, in the EEE less than 0.5 per cent of new infections are estimated to be the result of homosexual sex.[91] Nevertheless the percentage of male homosexuals infected with HIV is rather high; it is estimated to be 4 per cent in Latvia, 6 per cent in Russia and Serbia, 7 per cent in Uzbekistan and over 10 per cent in Ukraine.[92]

The HIV infection rate for the prison population is generally above that of the general population. The infection rate is extremely high in Estonia (14 per cent) and is relatively high (about 5 per cent) in the Russian and Ukrainian prison populations; a high percentage of these are/were intravenous drug users and were infected before entering prison. In Russia during 2006-7 prisoners accounted for 10 per cent of those newly diagnosed with HIV. In Azerbaijan almost a third of those with HIV are thought to be in jail.

The are a few people in the region that contracted HIV through contaminated blood products, but that method of transmission has been essentially eliminated in recent years. For example, Bulgaria reports that the last case of transmission from a blood transfusion occurred in 1996. In Russia almost 20 per cent of new infections were due to blood product transmission in 1987 but that fell to almost zero by the end of the 1980s.[93]

Table 2
Method of Transmission of New HIV Diagnosed Infections in 2008

	European Advanced Economies	Central and South-east Europe	CIS and the Baltics
Heterosexual	42%	19%	44%
Homosexual	35%	27%	0.5%
Injecting Drugs	4%	7%	45%

Source: AVERT, European HIV and AIDS Statistics. In many cases the transmission route is unknown or unrecorded.

Target 6.B: Achieve, by 2010, universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS for all those who need it.

The usage of anti-retroviral drugs in the Pan-European Region has been increasing but remains far from universal. Between 2004 and the end of 2007 those receiving treatment in this region increased by over 50 per cent from 282,000 to 435,000.[94] The number of people receiving anti-retroviral treatment has doubled or tripled in many of the EEE over the last five years and by the end of 2008

[91] UNAIDS, Fact Sheet: Eastern Europe and Central Asia, 2009.
[92] World Health Organization, *Towards Universal Access: Progress Report 2009*, Geneva; and UNAIDS, Fact Sheet: Eastern Europe and Central Asia, 2009.
[93] Ministry of Health and Social Development of the Russian Federation, *Country Progress Report of the Russian Federation on the Implementation of the Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS, January 2006-December 2007*, 2008.
[94] World Health Organization, *The European Health Report*, Geneva, 2009.

approximately 22 per cent of adults needing anti-retroviral therapy were getting it.[95] Somewhat surprising however, this is a relatively low percentage compared to the global average for low- and middle-income countries where almost 42 per cent have access to antiretroviral therapy. Just in the last year, Russia has increased those receiving treatment by 80 per cent to cover more than 55,000. Because of the severity of the financial crisis in Latvia, the government was forced to reduce the budget for HIV and introduced a cap on the number of people that could receive free anti-retroviral treatment. Approximately 71 per cent of those in the EEE that receive anti-retroviral therapy benefit from financial support from the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria.[96]

Because of a strong stigmatism against drug use, prostitution, and homosexuality members of these groups are often deprived of health services in some of the EEE. Coverage for drug users is problematic and many who have access many drop out of treatment.[97] Nevertheless, all of the EEE have set national universal access targets for HIV/AIDS prevention. Many have prevention programs specifically targeting sex workers, homosexuals, and injecting drug users. "Harm reduction" strategies that provide services for drug users have proven to be beneficial in a number of the EEE including Azerbaijan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, and Ukraine. Some disease projection studies have concluded that in those EEE where injecting drug users account for a particularly large percentage of new infections, that specifically targeting drug users is the most cost effective strategy for reducing HIV infections even for those that do not inject drugs.[98] Also many of the EEE, such as Russia, do not have programs that provide legal opiates (e.g., methadone) as a substitution therapy for injecting illegal drugs; these have been shown to reduce HIV infections and increase adherence to anti-retroviral therapy. Kyrgyzstan, Ukraine, and Uzbekistan have such programs and Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania established methadone programs for their prisoners in 2006. Clean needle exchanges are also an effective method of controlling HIV infection; a number of countries including Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Ukraine, and Uzbekistan provide needle exchanges. In some other countries although programs exist the availability of clean needles is very limited; this includes Armenia and Azerbaijan. Russia has such a program but there are reports, somewhat dated from 2004, of police arresting people outside pharmacies providing them. [99]

The transmission from mother to child during pregnancy has been limited in the EEE through the increased availability of testing and use of antiretroviral drugs. Approximately 65 per cent of pregnant women in this region are tested for HIV; [100]

[95] Only about a fourth to a third of those with HIV infection are deemed to need antiretroviral treatment since it is usually started only after the person has had HIV for a number of years and there are signs of advanced clinical disease.
[96] UNAIDS, Outlook Report 2010.
[97] Currently it is necessary for someone on anti-retroviral treatment to take the drugs daily and they can have, in some cases, very undesirable side effects; as such, it requires a significant level of focus and commitment to stay on the program.
[98] Elisa Long, Margaret Brandeau, Cristina Galvin, Tatyana Vinichenko, Swati Tole, Adam Schwartz, Gillian Sanders, Douglas Owens, Effectiveness and Cost-effectiveness of Strategies to Expand Antiretroviral Therapy in St. Petersburg, Russia, *AIDS*, Vol. 20 (17), pp. 2207-2215, 2006.
[99] Human Rights Watch, Lessons Not Learned: Human Rights Abuses and HIV/AIDS in the Russian Federation, April, 2004.
[100] World Health Organization, *HIV/AIDS Programme Highlights 2008-09*, Geneva.

and approximately 95 per cent of those determined to need antiretroviral drugs received them in 2008. There are approximately 20,000 children (under 15 years of age) with HIV in the EEE+NMS with about 4,000 new infections per year and about 1,500 AIDS-related deaths. Child infections in the EAE are probably less than a 100.[101]

The number of HIV testing and counseling sites in the EEE has been dramatically increasing. In Kazakhstan the number increased from 325 in 2006 to 3,360 in 2008 and in Ukraine from 216 in 2006 to 1,806 in 2008. As a result the numbers tested have also increased significantly; in Kazakhstan it increased from 725,815 in 2006 to 1,047,712 in 2008.[102] The availability of HIV testing is generally low for prisoners; however, a few countries with high testing rates for prisoners include Bosnia and Herzegovina (97 per cent), and to a lesser degree Kazakhstan (57 per cent) and Latvia (48 per cent).[103]

Most of the schools in the region now provide some type of skills-based HIV education. This is quite important development because knowledge about the transmission of HIV has been quite low in much of the region. For example, in 2001 in Azerbaijan only 7 per cent of students had received a school-based lecture on HIV/AIDS by the time they were 18. As a result many had misconceptions about HIV/AIDS transmission. Among women of reproductive age, 20 per cent thought one could get HIV by shaking hands, 29 per cent by using public restrooms, 41 per cent by sharing objects, and 42 per cent by kissing. Also importantly only 21 per cent knew that HIV could be asymptomatic, and thus presumably the majority did not know you could get HIV from someone who did not appear to be sick.[104] In some cases the information provided to students is fear-based and/or incorrect and has further increased discrimination against those with HIV.

Universal HIV testing and immediate initiation of anti-retroviral therapy are considered the most effective approach for controlling this disease;[105] HIV testing of the general population is available in a number of the EEE as well as in western Europe and HIV testing for those most at risk has increased significantly over the last several years. [106]

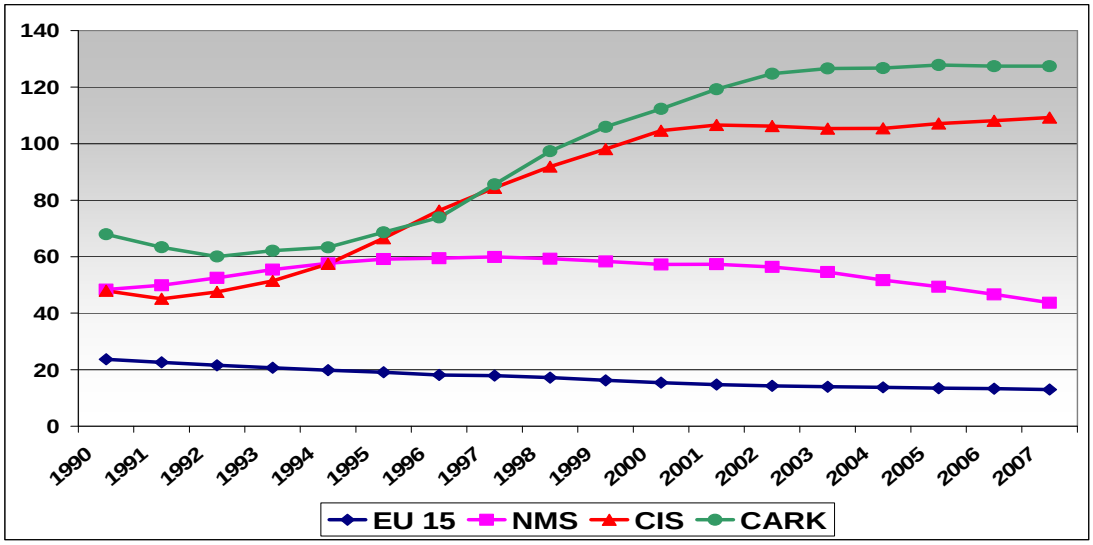
Target 6.C: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases.

Malaria is not a serious problem in most of the EEE but it does continue to pose a risk in parts of Turkey, the Caucasus, and central Asia. The problem is most severe in Kyrgyzstan where approximately 40 per cent of the population is estimated

[101] UNAIDS/WHO, Mapping Progress towards Universal Access, November 2009.
[102] World Health Organization, *Towards Universal Access: Progress Report 2009*, Geneva.
[103] World Health Organization, *Towards Universal Access: Progress Report 2009*, Geneva.
[104] U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention), *Reproductive, Maternal and Child Health in Eastern Europe and Eurasia: A Comparative Report*, Atlanta, GA, USA, 2003.
[105] Brian Williams (South African Centre for Epidemiological Modelling and Analysis), *Battling HIV/AIDS –Test All, Treat All?*, American Association for the Advancement of Science Annual Meeting, San Diego, USA, February 20, 2010.
[106] In October 2009 the 3rd HIV/AIDS Conference for Eastern Europe and Central Asia on Efforts Towards Universal Access was held in Moscow.

to be at a high risk and another 35 per cent at a low risk of contracting malaria. In Tajikistan also about 75 per cent of its population is viewed to be at a risk but only 5 per cent is at a high risk. Azerbaijan, Turkey, Georgia and Uzbekistan also have at least five per cent of their populations at risk. The number of confirmed cases in the region fell dramatically from over 20,000 in 2001 to only 580 in 2008. The largest number of cases in 2008 was reported in Tajikistan where 318 were infected but this is down from 11,387 in 2001. Turkey with 136 cases had the second highest number in 2008, down from 7,710 in 2001; Turkey is the only EEE which recorded documented cases of death from malaria in 2008. Progress in reducing confirmed cases had been slow in Uzbekistan where cases in 2007 were above those in 2001 but significant progress occurred in 2008. In all the other EEE with populations at risk significant declines have occurred since 2001. Malaria transmission in all these economies is seasonal with most infections occurring between June and October. All of the affected countries have implemented intensive control programs and all have endorsed the Tashkent Declaration which has the aim of eliminating transmission in the region by 2015.[107] All of the EEE either already have or should achieve the malaria objective of target 6.C by 2015.

Figure 17
Incidence of Tuberculosis per 100,000 in the Sub-regions of the ECE



Note to the graph: CARK: the central Asian republics (Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan). Source: WHO Europe dataset.

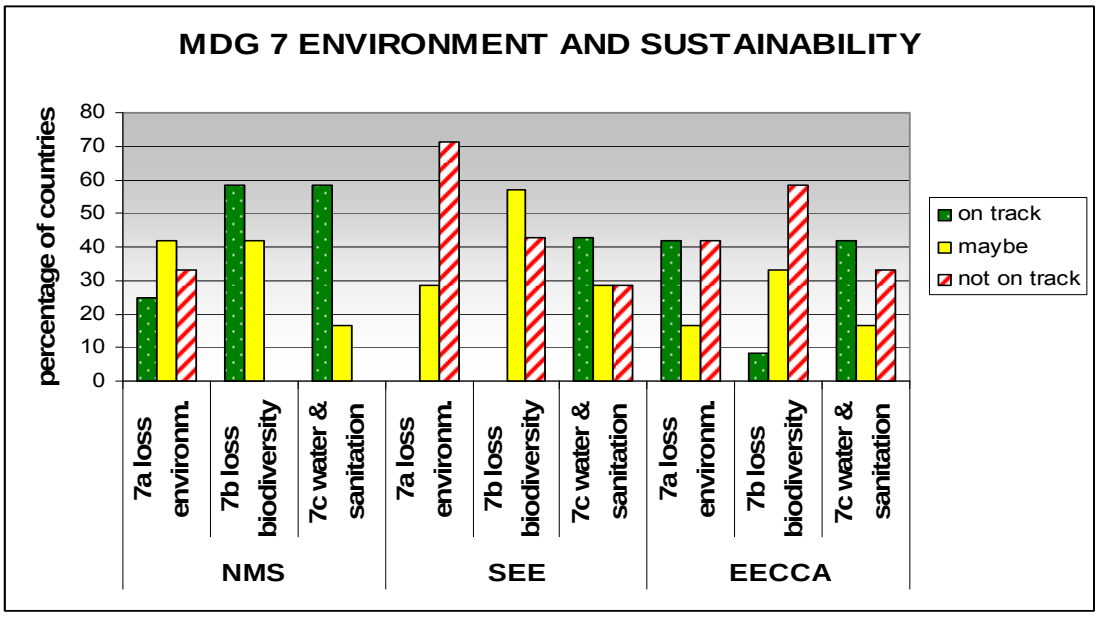
The spread of tuberculosis has been quite important for the region and progress has been quite limited. There was a huge increase in the incidence of drug resistant tuberculosis in the EiT during the transition crisis. While the NMS managed to control the incidence with its peak in the late 1990s, the CIS have been less successful as rates there were rising as recently as 2002 and have now stabilized at a fairly high level. The incidence rate in the CIS and especially the central Asian CIS is now about three times higher than in the NMS and almost ten times higher than in western Europe (see figure 17). The incidence rate in the CIS is now about twice the level prior to the transition crisis. Within the CIS the incidence is highest in central Asia; as shown in appendix table 16, the incidence rate in Tajikistan (230.7 per 100,000) is twice that of Russia (110.4) in 2007. The TB treatment success rate is

[107] World Health Organization, World Malaria Report 2009, Geneva, 2009.

lower and the death rate is higher in the CIS due to drug-resistant varieties and less aggressive treatment (appendix table 17). There has also been a significant increase in those with both HIV and TB infections in the CIS.

IX. MDG 7: Ensure Environmental Sustainability

Figure 18



Note: The sum of values in the graph might not always amount to 100 per cent since some countries might not have sufficient information.

Target 7.A: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources.

Current patterns of world growth are unsustainable as a number of resources are being depleted at an alarming rate. Of foremost concern is the use of the atmosphere as a dumping ground for the emissions of greenhouse gases (GHG) whose accumulations are altering the global climate. If not abated, this will have profound effects on the world's biological, economic and social systems. The need to address this will be a major concern for all of the UNECE economies for the next century and only very limited progress can be expected by 2015. Therefore the objective of reversing the loss of environmental resources will not be obtained by 2015 in either the UNECE region or globally. All that can be expected is that a policy framework can be established both nationally and internationally which will begin to address the political, economic and technological challenges for addressing this problem. National governments throughout the UNECE region have begun to implement tentative programs to address these challenges but the progress is only in its earliest phase. Currently the UNECE accounts for approximately one half of global GHG emissions (and a roughly similar percentage of global GDP).

The first international agreement to control GHG was the Kyoto Protocol which included commitments by some economies to reduce emissions in 2008-2012 from their 1990 level. Thirty of the 31 countries that have made a commitment under the Kyoto Protocol to reduce GHG emissions are UNECE members; six others committed to limit but not reduce emissions with Cyprus, Malta, Russia and Ukraine

agreeing to no growth, Norway to a one per cent increase and Iceland to a ten per cent increase.

The transition crisis which led to a collapse in the GDPs of the EiT worsened most of the indicators incorporated into the MDGs. An important exception, however was that the economic decline in output translated into a significant reduction in GHG emissions. As a result the EiT are the only region of the developing/emerging world in which emissions in 2006 were below their level in 1990. Thus while developing regions emissions more than doubled, those in the CIS declined by approximately 36 per cent. Turkey's emissions, however, in 2007 were over double those in 1990. Emissions from the EU-27 have declined since 1990 by 9 per cent while those from the EU-15 have fallen by 4 per cent.[108] The reductions in the latter are due primarily to the reductions obtained in the new (East German) Länder and the UK's switch from coal to gas for electricity generation. The US released 16 per cent more GHG emissions in 2005 than in 1990 and is currently the world's second largest emitter after China. Comparison of the US with the EU-15 is complicated by the faster population and real economic growth in the former. Essentially all of the difference between the trends in two regions is accounted for by these two factors; slightly more than half is explained by higher population growth in the US and the remainder is due to higher per capita economic growth.

The region's progress in reducing emissions is more favourable when calculated in terms of emissions per $1 of GDP. Most of the economies in the region have achieved sizable reductions in this measure which reflects an increasingly efficient use of energy (see appendix table 18). For instance between 1980 and 2006 western Europe and the US reduced emissions per dollar of GDP by 44 per cent. The energy intensity of GDP in western Europe is approximately a third lower than in North America and less than half that in the CIS. Thus there is considerable potential for reducing emissions if North America and the EiT simply increased their efficiency to the levels of western Europe. Especially in these two regions, but even in western Europe there are numerous opportunities for increasing energy efficiency that have negative long-run costs; the challenge is to identify these opportunities and find sources of finance with which to implement them.[109]

Despite the failure to reach an agreement at COP-15 in Copenhagen in December 2009, most of the UNECE economies are making commitments to further reduce their GHG emissions and many have implemented a number of programs and regulations to achieve these objectives.[110] However the pledges made at Copenhagen and other proposed national policies if fully implemented are sufficient to only stabilize GHG emissions by 2020, but world emissions must decline by at least 50 per cent (and thus UNECE emissions by even more) in order to limit global temperature increases to a manageable level (i.e., about 2 degrees centigrade). Thus although these

[108] The EU-15 committed under the Kyoto Protocol to reduce emissions by 8%. It is now estimated that emissions for the commitment period will be 6.9% below base-year levels, but when additional offsets are included with are allowed under the Kyoto Protocol, a reduction of up to 13.1% is expected (*Progress Towards Achieving the Kyoto Objectives*, Report from the Commission to the European Parliament and Council, 12.11.2009.

[109] The UNECE has such a programs including its Energy Efficiency 21 Project.

[110] For example, the EU has committed to a 20 per cent reduction in GHG emissions from 1990 levels by 2020.

newly proposed actions can further contribute towards reducing emissions, none of the economies of the region can be said to have put forth a national agenda that will be sufficient to reduce emissions to a level that is sustainable over the long-run. [111]

The current economic crisis by reducing economic income and perhaps medium-term growth may slightly reduce GHG emissions; however this is unlikely to be important in the long run. There had been some hope that the fiscal expansions associated with the recovery packages implemented during the crisis could be used to promote climate related initiatives as part of a "green new deal." And in fact some of the economies in the region did increase environmentally related spending or increased "green" tax credits as part of their fiscal expansions. However over the medium to long run, the extra government spending was not additional expenditure but was simply "borrowed" from the future. Thus over the medium term this represented no additional expenditure and considering that lower national income means lower government revenue and expenditure, the crisis has most probably reduced the total amount that governments will spend on climate related activities. In addition the private sector has also reduced its investments in climate related activities due principally to problems in obtaining finance. Thus overall, the Great Recession has probably negatively affected progress in addressing climate change.

In order to achieve the necessary large reductions in GHG emissions, a major restructuring will be required in numerous industries including electricity production, transport systems[112] and in housing design and urban planning. Thus progress in achieving the overall emissions reductions can be monitored by examining the progress that is being made in these various sectors. Approximately 30 to 40 per cent of energy is used in buildings so improving the heating and lighting in these can significantly reduce overall energy use and thus carbon emissions. Over the last several decades improved building techniques have allowed energy consumption per square meter to decline by 50 per cent; newer developments in passive housing promise even larger efficiency gains. Building techniques in many of the EiT use older technologies and significant improvements would be possible if they used more recent technology and design.

Globally the transport sector currently accounts for 23 per cent of world GHG emissions from fuel combustion and 13 per cent of total GHG emissions. Approximately three-quarters of this is accounted for by road transport. The transport sector does not appear favourably when comparing the growth of emissions over time by sector or major economic activity. While total EU GHG emissions declined between 1990 and 2006, transport emissions increased by 27 per cent. This has been due to a number of factors. Despite increases in fuel economy, there has been a continued increase in the number of vehicles (which increased in the EU by 22 per cent between 1995 and 2006) and the number of miles driven per vehicle. Car ownership in eastern and central Europe tripled between 1990 and 2007. Freight transport (in tonne-kilometres) continues to grow (up 35 per cent in the EU between 1996 and 2006) and road (up 45 per cent) and air freight (up 43 per cent) which is the least efficient has increased considerably faster than the more efficient modes of rail (up 11 per cent) and inland waterways (up 17 per cent). For example, air freight

[111] A concise summary of climate change activities in the UNECE region is available in UNECE, Catalysing Change: UNECE Responds to the Climate Countdown, Geneva, 2009.
[112] For a summary of UNECE anticipated activities to further reduce emissions see ECE/TRANS/

emissions per tonne-kilometre are over 25 times those rail while road freight are 3 times those of rail.[113] For passenger travel, bus transport is more efficient than car transport but it has its highest share in the poorest countries which suggest that it is viewed to be an inferior good with the implication that the bus share will decline with further economic growth.

Target 7.B: Reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss.

Biodiversity is concerned with the species variety and overall heath of ecosystems. In 2006 the UN General Assembly declared 2010 to be the international year of biodiversity; in the latter part of 2010 the UN General Assembly will convene a high level meeting on biodiversity. A quantitative measure of how biodiversity is changing is not really possible since there is no internationally agreed upon measure of biodiversity and different measures are commonly used to describe different types of ecosystems. At the most general level, habitat destruction and species extinction are associated with declining biodiversity.

At the global level the UN Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity has the responsibility for monitoring this issue. In 2002 there was a global agreement to reduce significantly the rate of biodiversity loss by 2010. However a 2010 report concluded that not only was this target not achieved but that the situation had actually deteriorated.[114] A large number of plant and animal species are currently viewed to be "threatened" with extinction; the situation is the most dire for tropical and fresh water ecosystems with amphibians and coral the most threatened species. Increased urbanization, large scale agriculture, pollution and other human related activities are producing stresses on the biodiversity in Europe and central Asia. The European Environment Agency (EEA is an agency of the European Union) has selected 26 indicators to measure biodiversity and had set a 2010 target of halting the loss of biodiversity based upon these indicators; but it has recently concluded that this target can not be met.[115]

One aspect of biodiversity concerns the size of and species in the forest in the region; two of the EEA's 26 indicators addressed forest biodiversity. While forest area has declined in many developing regions of the world, forest area has increased in Europe. The forest area in the UNECE region increased by 17 million hectares between 1990 and 2005. This included an increase of 12 million hectares in western Europe and 4 million hectares in North America. Forest area has been stable in Russia which accounts for 20 per cent of the world's forest. Maintenance and development of forest is subject to severe challenges in the Caucasus and central Asia where forest cover is low and must compete with other land-uses and for water resources, while at the same time being subject to illegal logging. Forest as a percentage of land area

[113] European Environment Agency, *Transport at a Crossroads*, EEA Report No. 3/2009, Copenhagen.
[114] Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity, Global Biodiversity Outlook 3, Montreal, Canada, 2010.
[115] European Environment Agency, *Progress towards the European 2010 Biodiversity Target – Indicator Fact Sheets*, Technical Report No. 5/2009, Copenhagen, 2009.

(appendix table 19) is particularly low in Kazakhstan (1.2 per cent), Tajikistan (2.9 per cent) and Kyrgyzstan (4.5 per cent). In addition to land area the Forest Europe process currently uses 9 additional indicators to measure the trends in the biodiversity of European forest: these include tree species composition, regeneration, naturalness, introduced tree species, deadwood, genetic resources, landscape pattern, threatened forest species and protected forests. Protected forests are those for which some limitations have been set on how they can be used. The area of protected forests has expanded by about 2 million hectares in the last five years and now accounts for 3 to 5 percent (depending on definition) of Europe's forests. Less than 1 per cent of Europe's forest is dominated by introduced tree species.

One area in which Europe has made significant progress has been in reducing the use of nitrogen fertilizer on agricultural land which has reduced the amount of nutrient run-off and thereby lowered the level of nitrate and phosphate levels in inland water bodies.

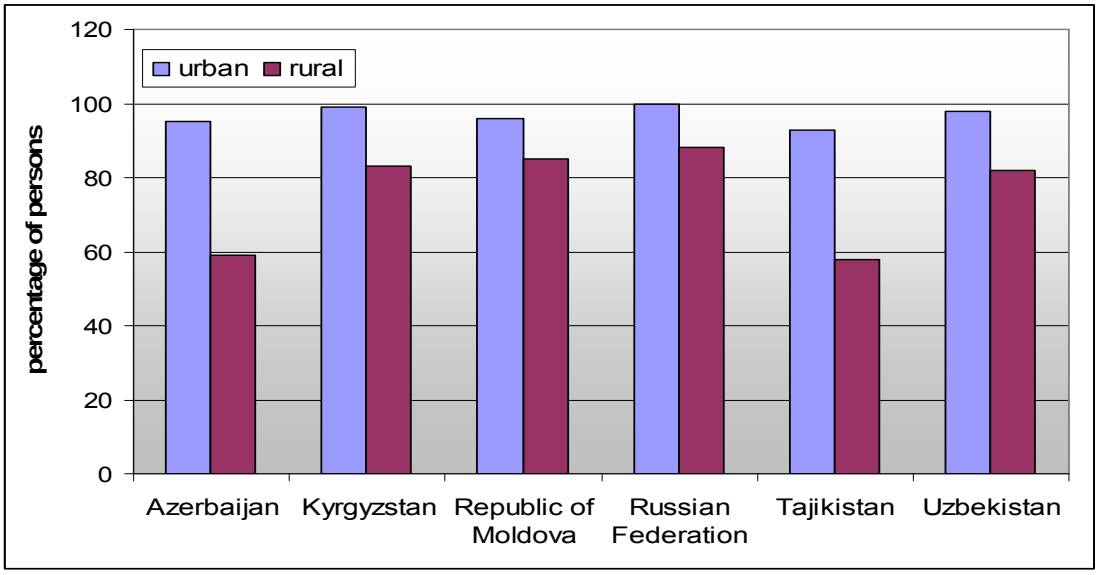
Target 7.C: Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation.

Lack of access to safe drinking water and proper sanitation remain serious problems in many of the EEE+NMS and is a leading cause of death for children aged 0-14. Approximately 13,000 deaths in this region occur each year due to diarrhoeal disease obtained from unsafe drinking water. In addition unsafe water causes many to get sick from viral hepatitis A, E. coli, and typhoid fever.[116] Currently, over 20 million people in this region do not have access to safe drinking water and up to 50 million do not have access to appropriate sanitation.[117] This is primarily a problem in the poorest economies, for example one in three in Tajikistan and one in ten in Kyrgyzstan do not have safe drinking water. The problem is significantly worse in the rural areas (appendix table 20). Improved sanitation is also a problem in a number of economies; for example in Moldova in 2006 only 79 per cent had adequate facilities and this was up by just one percentage point from the level in 1995 (appendix table 21). In only 13 per cent of the households in Uzbekistan, 22 per cent in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 24 per cent in Kyrgyzstan, and 30 per cent in Moldova and Turkmenistan have a bath or shower in the dwelling.[118] Even in Romania only about 10 per cent of rural households are connected to a safe supply of water. Access to safe drinking water and sanitation is closely related to the problem of informal settlements

[116] Drinking water supply can be broken down into three categories: unimproved drinking water sources, improved drinking water sources other than piped water, and water piped into a dwelling, plot or yard. The category 'improved drinking water sources' includes sources that, by nature of their construction or through active intervention, are protected from outside contamination, particularly faecal matter. These include piped water in a dwelling, plot or yard, and other improved sources. 'Unimproved sources' refer to unprotected dug well, unprotected spring, cart with small tank/drum, tanker truck, and surface water (river, dam, lake, pond, stream, canal, irrigation channels), bottled water (UNICEF and WHO, *Progress on Drinking Water and Sanitation*, a 2008 MDG Assessment Report).
[117] WHO, *The European Health Report*, Geneva, 2009.
[118] Improved sanitation facilities are facilities that ensure hygienic separation of human excreta from human contact. These include shared sanitation facilities which are facilities of an otherwise acceptable type shared between two or more households. Shared facilities include public toilets (UNICEF and WHO, *Progress on Drinking Water and Sanitation*, a 2008 MDG Assessment Report).

(target 7.D) as municipal authorities or private water companies are unlikely to construct infrastructure for illegal developments.

Figure 19
Percentage of Persons Using Improved Drinking Water Sources, Urban and Rural, 2006 Data



Source: MDG database of the UN Statistics Division

Target 7.D: By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers.

The housing market in central and eastern Europe and the CIS has a very different history than that found in typical market economies. However, there was no single model of housing provision among the formerly planned economies but instead there were a diversity of institutional arrangements resulting from their different economic orientations and levels of economic development. While the means of production were largely state-owned under socialism, there were three basic patterns of housing ownership which coexisted simultaneously including state, co-operative, and privately owned housing. Even where there was a sizable percentage of private ownership of the dwellings, the state sector was the largest developer of new properties. Relative to population, the housing stock was low throughout the EiT.[119] Relative to western norms the amount of urban land reserved for residual use was quite low; for example in Moscow and St. Petersburg approximately 35 per cent of the land was allocated for residential use while the average in cities in market economies was 65 per cent.[120] Given the generally long life of housing and the small yearly additions to the housing stock, this legacy of limited and low quality housing remains a significant factor in understanding the present situation and trends in the current housing market.

[119] Jose Palacin and Robert Shelburne, *The Private Housing Market in Eastern Europe and the CIS*, Discussion Paper 2005.5, Geneva 2005.
[120] World Bank, Russia Housing Reform and Privatization: Strategy and Transition Issues (Washington, DC), 1995.

Although most of the housing stock has now been privatised the region is characterized by some unique characteristics including a quite limited amount of rental housing and a very limited amount of social or publicly subsidized housing. Currently over 50 million people in the region are classified as living in informal settlements; these are defined as housing units built without legal rights to the land and is generally associated with the lack of complementary physical infrastructure such as sanitation and running water.[121] In some urban areas a sizable percentage of the population lives in informal housing; for example 70 per cent of the population of Istanbul lives in, and 40 per cent of the residential areas of Belgrade are composed of informal settlements. In addition to the inadequate housing stock, the underlying problem is the result of poverty, poorly defined property rights, undeveloped housing market institutions, rapid rural to urban migrations, and displacements related to political conflicts and natural disasters. Population segments generally found in informal settlements include the long-term unemployed, large or one-parent families, people with a low level of education, those with disabilities, ethnic minorities, and refugees.

X. MDG 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development with Targets for Aid, Trade and Debt Relief

Goal 8 considers the degree to which the world's trading and financial system is conducive for economic development and what is needed in order to ensure that globalization becomes a positive force for all the world's people. An evaluation of this goal is best performed at the global level but given the importance of the EAE in the governance structure of world economic institutions these countries have an especially important role in fulfilling this goal. Since they are collective targets a country level evaluation of each country's contribution to the global objective is generally not possible; the official development assistance (ODA) objective is an exception. Some of the targets are defined quite broadly which further makes an evaluation of progress for them particularly difficult. The UN MDG Gap Task Force was created to monitor the progress being made for MDG 8 and each year they release an annual report. Generally they have concluded that progress is being made in several areas but that important gaps remain in fulfilling the global commitments contained in this goal. The recent economic crisis has also resulted in a significant slippage on several fronts.[122]

Central to the MDG project was the recognition that many developing countries did not have the domestic resources that would be required in order to achieve their objectives. Thus aid and private sector financial resources are important ingredients for allowing countries to achieve their MDG targets. The advanced economies which are able to provide this aid are primarily located in the UNECE region as these economies donate almost 90 per cent of total ODA supplied by DAC countries (Japan and Australia being the only major donors outside the UNECE).

Since 1990 the real dollar amount of net ODA has increased but as a percentage of the GNI of the donors, the level in 2010 is likely to be approximately

[121] Using perhaps a different definition, UN-HABITAT had estimated that 25 million in the EiT lived in slums in 2001.
[122] The United Nations MDG Task Force reports are available online on its web site.

equal to what it had been in 1990 (0.33 per cent). This level is also only about half of the level of 0.7 per cent of GNI which was first proposed as a target by the 1969 Pearson Commission on International Development.[123] The DAC donors had committed in 2005 at the Gleneagles G8 meeting and at the UN Millennium +5 Summit to raise their ODA/GNI ratio from 0.26 per cent to 0.36 per cent by 2010. Recent estimates from the OECD suggest that the actual figure will be 0.34 per cent of GNI in 2010. Other than Japan, the non-EU members are likely to meet their targets in 2010. The EU, however which had committed to raise its ODA from 0.35 per cent to 0.59 per cent will significantly miss that target in 2010 by providing only 0.48 per cent. The failure to meet these ODA commitments may be the result of the financial crisis; historical evidence shows that financial crises often lead to a decline in foreign assistance.[124] Despite missing the 2010 target, the EU still provides a higher percentage contribution than the non-EU members (except for Norway's level of 1 per cent). [125]

In terms of ODA received, the economies in SEE (except Turkey) have received extremely large amounts, often more than $100 per capita. Most of these receive more aid per capita than most of the African nations. In addition, Armenia ($109 per capita) and Georgia ($87) in the Caucasus and Kyrgyzstan ($52) and Tajikistan ($31) in central Asia also receive considerable aid (appendix table 22).

Target 8.A: Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory multilateral trading and financial system.

The EiT became segmented off from the global trading and financial system for over 40 years. Since the transition, the NMS (especially due to their membership in the EU) and to a lesser degree SEE have now become reasonably integrated into the world economy.[126] The growth of exports from the NMS nearly doubled after EU accession. Although the total value of the CIS economies exports are approaching global norms this is due to their extensive exports of natural resource products. The manufacturing sectors of these economies remain largely outside of global markets and global supply chains; their shares of manufactured exports are low relative to global norms. There has been limited progress in diversifying their export structures; in fact there has been a tendency for their export concentrations to increase.

The export structure of these economies deviates from global norms in several respects. Given their natural resource base, technological levels and per capita incomes, exports of chemical manufactures and apparel seem particularly low. The geographical destinations for their exports are also unusually concentrated, with the CIS over-relying on other CIS members as destinations for their manufactures exports. CIS trade is also noteworthy in that the level of intra-industry trade is particularly low; liberalization of trade flows is an important determinate of the level

[123] This target was based upon a calculation of what would be necessary in order to double the rate of net capital formation in the developing world, see Robert Shelburne, Improving the Economic Performance of the Global Economy: The Challenges Ahead, *Global Economy Quarterly*, Vol. 3 (2), 2002.

[124] Hai-Anh Dang, Steve Knack, and Halsey Rodgers, *International Aid and Financial Crises in Donor Countries*, Work Bank Policy Research Paper 5162, Washington, US, 2009.

[125] OECD, *ODA Volume Prospects in 2010*, DCD/DAC(2010)10, February 8, 2010.

[126] Vitalija Gaucaite Wittich, *Some Aspects of Recent Trade Developments in South-east Europe*, UNECE Discussion Paper No. 2005.6, Geneva, 2005.

of intra-industry trade.[127] In the NMS FDI inflows have been found to be associated with increased exports and thus the ability of the CIS to export more manufactures could be enhanced by encouraging more FDI into those sectors. During the current economic crisis, the CIS economies experienced large declines in trade especially in the first half of 2009; in Russia, for instance, exports declined by 47 per cent and imports 43 per cent in the first half of 2009 compared to 2008.

Although the need for diversification is most apparent for the natural resource abundant CIS, the remaining EEE also could benefit from increased diversification. Various indices of commodity concentration show that the region is overly concentrated and that its trade flows deviate in some other respects from world averages. For example during the crisis Slovakia found its concentration of manufacturing activity in the automobile sector to be a handicap. The NMS and SEE are, however making some progress in increasing their export structures towards more high-skill and technology-intensive exports.

The exports of services are also low for the EiT but as a percentage of total trade in goods and services (13.2 per cent) they represent a similar level as Latin America (12.8 per cent) but a much smaller share than the developed countries (23.3 per cent).[128] This percentage share for the EiT has been relatively stable over the last five years. Trade in services is closely dependent on the "right of establishment" which is dependent on a country's foreign investment climate. Thus services trade even more than merchandise trade is a function of the investment climate.

One of the indicators concerning improving market access of the emerging economies concerns the proportion of their exports that are admitted duty-free into the developed countries. On this measure significant progress has been made for the CIS; in 1996, 68 per cent of this region's exports received duty-free treatment in the developed economies (compared to 53 per cent for all developing market economies) and by 2007 this had increased to 94 per cent (compared to 83 per cent for all developing economies). As a result the CIS now have better market access, as defined by this measure, than even the least developed countries (for which 80 per cent enter duty free). This is somewhat surprising given that many of the CIS are not members of the WTO and are not entitled to MFN-treatment in a number of economies. To some degree the high level of market access is due to their concentration of exports of petroleum products which are often given duty-free treatment. Only 22 per cent of CIS textile products received duty-free treatment in 2007 compared to 36 per cent for all developing countries. [129] The average tariff rate faced by the CIS in exporting to the developed market economies is fairly similar to that faced by the developing countries.

A central objective in having target 8.A for many developing countries was to change the trade rules inscribed in the agreements and procedures of the World Trade Organization (WTO) so as enhance the role that trade can contribute to the development process. For this reason the current round of trade negotiations which

[127] Robert C. Shelburne and Oksana Pidufala, *Evolving Trade Patterns in the CIS: The Role of Manufacturing*, UNECE Discussion Paper No. 2006.2, Geneva, 2006.
[128] United Nations, *World Economic Situation and Prospects*, New York, 2010.
[129] The data on duty-free access come from the ITC Millennium Development Goals database at www.mdg-trade.org.

began in Doha in 2001 has been referred to as the Doha Development Round since a key objective was supposed to be to make the trading system fairer for developing countries. Due to disputes between primarily developed and developing countries a final agreement has yet to be reached and many of the development objectives which the developing countries initially expected would be addressed in this trade round have been dropped from the negotiations.

The failure to complete the Doha Development Round is currently of limited importance to many of the EiT because of their failure to join the World Trade Organization (WTO). Ten countries (Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kazakhstan, Montenegro, Russia, Serbia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan) in the EEE have yet to gain accession to the WTO. As such these economies are often subject to higher tariffs (and other trade barriers) than most of the rest of the countries of the world. This has been a significant factor that has limited the integration of these EiT into the world economy. Generally current WTO members have requested significant structural reforms (especially towards more market-based principles) in these economies as a condition for membership.

The WTO does recognize that the accession process is not working as efficiently as it should as the issue was a topic on the agenda of the WTO Ministerial Conference in December 2009.[130] A number of members made statements about the accession process during this conference. For example the EU raised the issue generally and specifically mentioned the problems being faced by Montenegro. Their statement read: *"One accession facing particular difficulties is that of Montenegro. This accession is stalled because of far-reaching requests for market access. Yet Montenegro's economy is already very open, and its current consolidated offer on goods and services improves substantially on that. The EU believes that Montenegro should rapidly accede, and calls on Ukraine to show realism in its requests for market access."* Montenegro stated that despite completing all of its multilateral commitments its accession had been blocked by one country which had demonstrated *"a lack of any kind of flexibility."* Kyrgyzstan stated that it was the only central Asian country in the WTO and the fact that its main trading partners were not had been detrimental for its development and its ability to have regional bilateral trade agreements. It concluded by saying, *"I would like to call upon the Members to provide more flexibility in the accession process for these countries. We believe that expanded membership and a predictable regime would benefit the sustainable development of the region and would push forward the development of world trade."* Slovenia, in regard to the accession process, stated, *"Some kind of limit or margin could be incorporated in to the WTO rules in order to prevent ever-increasing levels of requests in the areas of goods and services."*

A number of general equilibrium modelling efforts have been undertaken to investigate the implications of WTO membership on these economies. These studies find that although trade would increase slightly and this would slightly increase economic welfare the major positive impact would come from increased FDI especially in the service sectors. The attempts of some of the economies in the CIS to form a customs union have complicated WTO accession as the optimal sequence of

[130] See, World Trade Organization, Records of Working Session I, Ministerial Conference, 30 November -2 December 2009, Geneva, document WT/MIN(09)/WS/R/1.

either WTO or customs union membership is uncertain. A customs union by Russia, Belarus and Kazakhstan as part of the wider Eurasian Economic Community (EurAsEC) process is the most advanced in this regard.

An additional development which has contributed to increasing trade integration in the region has been the progress made in terms of regional integration agreements. Obviously the expansion of the EU to include the NMS has been vastly important as is the EU likely further enlargement into SEE. The Central European Free Trade Agreement has proven to be a quite adaptable institutional structure that has essentially shifted from being a preferential trade area in central Europe to one in south-east Europe. All of the SEE except Turkey but including Moldova are now parties to the agreement. The members expect to establish a free trade area by the end of 2010. There has been less progress in the CIS where the Eurasian Economic Community (EurAsEC) has been the main institutional arrangement promoting trade integration in the region. However, because several countries appear to have different visions regarding its objectives Belarus, Russia and Kazakhstan have decided to move ahead independently in creating a customs union. There are a number of important free trade agreements in the region including most importantly that between the EU and Turkey and well as a likely one between the EU and Ukraine.

Many of the EEE, like other developing countries have a number of additional obstacles in expanding trade links to the rest of the world. Regional transport infrastructure is inadequate, border crossing procedures are cumbersome, and product and regulatory standards (i.e., health, safety, environmental, etc.) may be incompatible with global norms. These infrastructure and institutional issues can be quite significant in reducing both exports and in limiting the gains from importing cheaper or technologically superior inputs. These problems are compounded when countries are landlocked and therefore dependent on the transport infrastructures and border control policies of their neighbors (see target 8.C). The resulting high transport costs erode their competitiveness and reduce the volumes traded. Together these factors have reduced the pace and quality of economic development.

Compared to other developing regions, the EEE have a more extensive transport infrastructure network although there are significant maintenance backlogs. The creation of new states after the disintegration of the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia meant that the existing transport network was no longer consistent with the new geographic conditions. This development cut off parts of the railway network while creating numerous enclaves without appropriate infrastructure connections with their national capitals. Consequently national investment programmes have favoured the construction of new transport links rather than regular maintenance of the already existing transport infrastructure assets.

Although some progress has been made in the region in addressing these impediments to trade, it has nevertheless been disappointing. For the infrastructure constraints, limited progress is to be expected since improving infrastructure involves significant investment and takes time to build. For instance improving the Euro-Asian rail and road systems for the central Asian economies involves investments of tens of billions of dollars. Given financing constraints, all that can be expected for infrastructure improvements is slow but incremental progress.

However, these constraints do not affect progress in addressing institutional constraints or non-physical obstacles such as cumbersome export/import and regulatory procedures and regulatory standards. The lack of real progress in this area largely reflects a lack of commitment on the part of national governments to adequately address these matters. The World Bank's Doing Business report ranks countries in terms of the ease of trading based upon the time and difficulty (i.e., number of documents, etc) in obtaining customs clearances. In its 2009 report four (Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan) of the 10 most difficult countries in obtaining customs clearance are in the CIS. The cost of exporting a container from Tajikistan or Uzbekistan is over $3,000 while it is only $600 in Latvia.[131] The failure to make more progress is often blamed on special interest groups, poor governance, corruption, or simply the failure of national governments to focus attention on these issues.

Addressing these issues, however, often require technical assistance and funding. The Aid for Trade initiative has been implemented to help countries address some of these problems. Over the 2001-2007 period, the transition economies received over $1.9 billion for Aid for Trade projects, including $65 million to address technical trade barriers and $57 million for sanitary and phytosanitary measures.[132] Similar objectives in promoting trade and transport facilitation are incorporated into the Almaty Programme of Action which addresses specific trade problems of the EEE landlocked developing countries (see target 8.C).

When countries do make a concerted effort often dramatic results are possible in a short period of time. For example, in 2006 which was three years after Serbia decided to reform its customs procedures, the time it took to obtain the necessary documents and obtain customs clearance for exporting declined from 32 to 11 days and time for importing from 44 to 12 days.[133] However despite this progress there is still considerable room for improvement since in some high income countries it takes just 1.3 days to export. Likewise Georgia reduced the days needed to export by three-quarters and The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia by one-third between 2005 and 2008. When Serbia and Bulgaria concluded in 2006 an agreement on railway border controls, which facilitated the coordination of the activities of their border authorities, the travel time to pass through custom controls declined by 65 per cent for passenger trains and 82 per cent for freight trains.[134]

Target 8.A is also concerned with improving the access of developing countries to international financial markets as a source of development finance. In terms of integrating financially into the world economy the region has been rather successful but these flows are characterized by a number of anomalies. Prior to the transition private sector inflows were quite small with most borrowing being undertaken by government authorities. After the transition the privatization schemes

[131] World Bank, Doing Business 2010, Washington, DC, 2010.
[132] Lorenza Jachia, *Aid for Trade: Supporting the Use of Standards*, UNECE 2009 Annual Report, Geneva, 2009.
[133] Jacqueline Den Otter, *Cross-border Trading Reforms in Post-war Serbia*, World Bank Doing Business Website.
[134] Border control of passenger trains is carried out during their movement between the border stations of Dimitrovgard, Serbia and Dragoman, Bulgaria while freight trains are processed at a newly open joint border station.

that sold off state-owned production facilities began to attract significant foreign investment. By the 2000-2008 period, the NMS and SEE were receiving very large net capital inflows and these were quite significant in contributing to the strong growth of that period. These external inflows allowed these economies to achieve investment rates much higher than would have been possible otherwise.[135] Net inflows of capital to the NMS and SEE which had reached over 8 per cent of GDP prior to the crisis were over twice the percentage level for other developing areas including even fast growing Asia. In 2006 and 2007 even the CIS had capital inflows greater than in any other developing world region except NMS+SEE.[136] Nevertheless this reliance on external capital proved to be the most important underlying factor that caused the region to experience the economic crisis of 2007-2009 to a greater degree than any other region of the world economy. Not only was the region more dependent than elsewhere on capital inflows but the drop in capital inflows during the crisis was larger than elsewhere.

Capital flows to emerging /developing economies have been subject to a high degree of volatility over the last 40 years. The collapse of capital inflows to the EEE+NMS in 2008-2009 had a number of strong similarities to a similar collapse in the capital inflows to east Asia in 1997-1998. Nine of the EEE (Armenia, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Serbia, Tajikistan, and Ukraine) and four of the NMS (Hungary, Latvia, Poland,[137] and Romania) were forced to turn to the IMF for some type of assistance during the current economic crisis.[138] These experiences suggest that, given the current design of the world financial system, an over-reliance on external capital flows to finance development is not a prudent development strategy.[139]

Despite these concerns about the ability of the international financial system to continuously provide external finance, there have been several recent reforms in the design and operation of the international financial system that have made it slightly more "development friendly". Given the high volatility in private international capital flows and the large negative consequences during periods of reversals, the world needs a type of "lender of last resort" that can provide emergency funds to help replace private sector withdrawals. The IMF has primarily provided this service but its effectiveness has been limited because of limited resources. At the London G-20 meeting in April 2009 the resources of the IMF were quadrupled (including the SDR increases) and this should allow it to play an enhanced role in stabilizing the international financial system. (In fact this increase was critical in containing the current global crisis).

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[135] Robert Shelburne, Current Account Deficits in the EU New Member States: Causes and Consequences, *Intereconomics: Review of European Economic Policy*, March/April 2009, Vol. 44 (2), p. 90-95

[136] Robert Shelburne, *Financing Development in the UNECE Emerging Markets*, UNECE Annual Report, Geneva, 2008.

[137] Poland only requested a precautionary facility which was not used.

[138] Hungary, Latvia, and Romania concurrently received EU balance of payments assistance loans under Article 119 of the Treaty of Rome; this provision has now become Article 143 after the Lisbon Treaty went into force December 1, 2009.

[139] The EEE+NMS had been warned about the financial risks that were developing in the region several years before the current crisis but few policies to address these risks were implemented; for warnings see, UNECE, *Economic Survey of Europe*, 2005 No. 1, Geneva, 2005.

The IMF had been highly criticized for the policies it had required (i.e., conditionality) for providing support for decades up to and including the Asian financial crisis. During the current crisis this conditionality was relaxed considerably (largely for the EEE) in order to minimize the economic downturn in the borrowing nations.[140] Most observers view this as a significant improvement in IMF operations and one that makes use of IMF resources more likely and thus the international monetary system more stable. During the current crisis, for the loans provided jointly by the IMF and the EU, it has been argued that the EU advocated stronger conditionality than the IMF; and thus the IMF is even less committed to austerity than the loans in the current crisis would suggest. According to this analysis, this difference is due to the IMF's more extensive experience in crisis management, the greater flexibility of its staff, and a more general mandate than the tight institutional constraints of the EU's Stability and Growth Pact.[141]

Most recently the IMF has suggested some support for the use of capital controls in order to reduce the boom/bust cycles caused by volatile private sector capital flows. The IMF has also altered its quota allocations with additional reform on the table. The governance of the World Bank has perhaps been more democratic. In 2010 the developing and transition economies had 47.2% of the votes which is only slightly less than their share of global GDP on a PPP basis; this is up from 44.6% as recently as 2008.[142] The MDG Declaration also proposed increased coherence and coordination between the UN agencies and the Bretton Woods Institutions; regular meetings between these have occurred since 1998.[143] All of these changes in IMF governance, procedures and policy prescriptions are making the international financial system more supportive of development since 1990 by increasing the desirability of using external finance. However, even with these improvements the experiences of the EEE during the current crisis show that there are clear limits on the degree to which this option should be used.

The design and governance of the current international economic system take place not just within formal global institutions such as the IMF but also in other forums such as the G-20. The G-20 has no permanent secretariat, staff or building. Nevertheless this group is responsible for making some of the most important decisions concerning the operation of the global economy. During the recent global financial crisis the G-20 essentially replaced the G-8 as the main policy making group. To some degree this did represent a significant move towards making the governance of the global economy more democratic and thus representative of the interests of developing countries. Given an expectation that increased representation will be reflected in the decisions made by the group, this development could be

[140] This change in conditionality was largely the result of the IMF's own appraisal of its previous operations; IMF Independent Evaluation Office, *Structural Conditionality in IMF-Supported Programs*, Washington, DC, 2007.

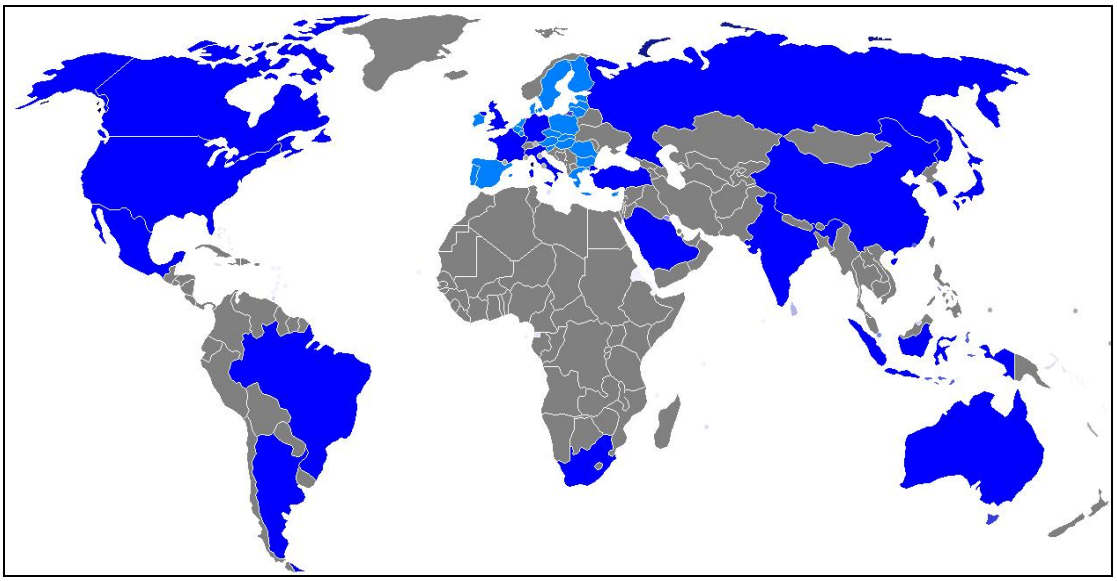
[141] Susanne Lütz and Matthias Kranke, *The European Rescue of the Washington Consensus? EU and IMF Lending to Central and Eastern European Countries*, London School of Economics Discussion Paper No. 22/2010.

[142] In terms of voting share at the World Bank, the US with 15.85% has less than its share of world GDP, Germany (4.0%) has about the same as its GDP, and France (3.75%) and the UK (3.75%) would appear to be over-represented.

[143] In April of each year there is a special high-level meeting between ECOSOC, the Bretton Woods institutions, the WTO, and UNCTAD.

viewed as an important step towards making the international economic order more development friendly.

Figure 20
The Members of the G-20



The G-20 includes 19 countries and the EU as shown in figure 20 where the EU members which are only represented as part of the EU are given a lighter shade. If all of the EU members (the four countries plus the other 23 EU members) are included in the totals, the G-20 accounts for 85 per cent of world GDP and 67 per cent of world population. Nevertheless 150 countries, mostly developing ones, are not represented. Given the difficulty in achieving efficient decision making with large groups, the G-20 might represent for the time being the best trade-off between efficiency and democratic representation.

The European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD) has assisted the EEE in financing specific development projects since its founding in 1991 to help assist the EiT+NMS with the transition. During the current crisis the financial sectors in the EEE+NMS benefited considerably from the support of the EBRD which increased its investments by 55 per cent in 2009 to $10.7 billion. EBRD involvement in investment projects also contributes to the achievement of some MDG 7 goals as the organization requires that approved projects meet environmental standards. The European Investment Bank has also provided significant loans for specific projects especially in the NMS, south-east Europe and the European CIS. The Council of Europe Development Bank finances social projects primarily in the EU and south-east Europe; in 2008 it approved 39 projects worth almost €1.9 billion. These projects are particularly relevant to MDG objectives and include such things as housing for low-income households, education, vocational training and job creation, construction of healthcare facilities, and environmental projects. The Eurasian Development Bank and the Asian Development Bank have financed major infrastructure investment projects in the CIS, especially in Russia and Kazakhstan. Loans by these organizations contribute to the ability of both the public and the private sectors to contribution towards achieving the MDGs.

Besides the level of capital inflows the structure of those inflows is also important. Generally it is viewed that foreign direct investment (FDI) contributes

more towards economic development than inflows of portfolio equity or debt. This is because FDI is generally associated with inflows of technology and managerial talent and is less subject to volatility. As with capital flows generally, the EEE were relatively successful in attracting FDI inflows. In SEE excluding Turkey the stock of FDI as a percentage of GDP increased quite substantially from 14 per cent to 40 per cent between 2000 and 2008. In Turkey it only increased from 7 per cent to 10 per cent over this period. In the CIS the stock remained about constant at 16 per cent of GDP over this period although it varies widely from being over 50 per cent in Georgia and Turkmenistan to only about 10 per cent in Belarus, Russia, and Uzbekistan.[144] Besides FDI being smaller and growing by less in the CIS than in SEE, an additional issue is that the inflows have been largely associated with natural resource extraction. Increasing FDI in their manufacturing and services sectors could contribute significantly to making the CIS more dynamic and diversified. The stock of FDI has been increasing and is quite high in the NMS with most countries being in the range between 30 to 50 per cent of GDP.

The reforms required to increase FDI are primarily domestic as there are at this point no meaningful proposals under consideration as to how the global financial system might be altered to promote additional FDI. Creating a more inviting investment and business climate has been one of the major challenges facing the EEE since the beginning of the transition and remains an important issue for these economies. For example in Russia the price/earnings ratio of its stock market is almost half that of other comparable emerging markets, reflecting nervousness on the part of global investors about exposure to that market. Nevertheless, slow but incremental progress is being made as judged by such indicators as the EBRD transition score, the World Bank's Doing Business rankings, or the World Economic Forum (WEF) competitiveness index. Further required domestic reforms include strengthening legal systems and the rule of law, strengthening intellectual property rights, and easing investment requirements. Bilateral investment treaties have also been shown to have a positive impact on increasing FDI and may be able to substitute for weak domestic institutions.[145]

Given the potential risks of private sector capital inflows, other public sources of finance would be desirable for the EEE. These funds could come from sources such as a global carbon tax, a tax on financial or exchange market transactions, or on the exploitation of sea-bed resources. SDRs could be allocated based upon development needs instead of by IMF quotas. Currently, however, none of these proposals is under serious consideration and therefore none of these alternative sources of funding is likely by the MDG 2015 target date.

Target 8.B: Address the special needs of the least developed countries.

and

Target 8.C: Address the special needs of landlocked developing countries and small island developing States (through the Programme of Action for the Sustainable

[144] UNCTAD, World Investment Report, Geneva 2009.
[145] Matthias Busse, Jens Königer, and Peter Nunnenkamp, FDI Promotion through Bilateral Investment Treaties: More than a Bit?, *Review of World Economics*, Vol. 146(1), April 2010, pp.147-177.

Development of Small Island Developing States and the outcome of the twenty-second special session of the General Assembly).

None of the UNECE economies are considered part of the UN least developed countries but the poorest UNECE economies are mostly landlocked economies so target 8.B and 8.C are considered together. There are 20 landlocked economies in the UNECE region[146] and two additional ones (Slovenia and Bosnia and Herzegovina) that are considered to be almost landlocked due to very limited coastlines.[147] Of these 12 are EEE economies and nine of these (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, FYR of Macedonia, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan) are considered to be UN landlocked developing countries. The three EEE that are not considered UN landlocked developing countries include: Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Serbia. Four NMS are landlocked including the Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovakia, and Slovenia.

Being a landlocked economy is considered to impose on a country an additional handicap as it limits an economy's access to world markets and the benefits that derive from that. Empirical analysis which controls for other components of growth finds that being landlocked reduces economic growth.[148] In this regard, however, the experiences of the EAE landlocked economies are of particular importance as they include some of the richest economies in the EAE.[149] Their experiences therefore suggest that any disadvantage of being landlocked can essentially be eliminated with well designed regional trade agreements, trade facilitation procedures, regional transport networks, and national policies. Some of the problems of the landlocked economies in central Asia are being addressed by the Almaty Programme of Action. This program has set out specific objectives for the landlocked economies, the transit countries, the donor community and the United Nations agencies. Funding and technical assistance for these activities are provided by the Enhanced Integration Framework, which is a six agency program chaired by the WTO.

Target 8.D: Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term.

Generally, the external debt levels of the EEE have been relatively normal and have not posed a significant problem. Most started the transition with limited external

[146] Those with a coastline on the Caspian or Aral Sea are considered landlocked since access to that body of water does not give them direct access to world markets; however those with access to the Black Sea are not considered landlocked despite some limitations that might exist in terms of wider ocean access.
[147] Bosnia and Herzegovina has a coastline of 24.5 kilometers, but its only port, Neum, has not been fully utilized because the road into the rest of the country is poor and not suitable for heavy trucks, there is no rail-line, and existing tensions between the two sub-national entities of that country. Most sea freight for Bosnia and Herzegovina currently enters at Ploce, Croatia which has railway access to the country.
[148] Landis MacKellar, Andreas Wörgötter, and Julia Wörz, Economic Development Problems of Landlocked Countries, Vienna Institute for Advanced Studies, Transition Economies Series No. 14, 2000.
[149] The remaining UNECE landlocked economies include: Andorra, Austria, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, San Marino, and Switzerland.

debt and slowly accumulated more over the 1990s. Since 2000 debt levels as a percentage of GDP in most of the EEE have been on a downward path (see appendix table 23). Since 2000 the level of public debt of the EEE have increased quite slowly or in many cases actually declined; most of the increase in external debt since 2000 has been assumed by the private sector. In terms of either public debt or private debt, the EAE generally have higher debt to GDP ratios than the EEE. Debt service payments as a percentage of export revenues declined in SEE from 12 per cent to 4 per cent between 2000 and 2007, and declined from 8 per cent to per cent in the CIS. In 2000 Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, and Tajikistan had debt to GDP ratios significantly above 100 per cent of GDP but by 2008 these had declined to 69 per cent, 68 per cent, and 27 per cent respectively. The external debt levels of Moldova and Kyrgyzstan have been close to thresholds established for the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries Initiative of the IMF and World Bank but neither country is currently eligible under that program although Kyrgyzstan is currently being considered for entry into the program. The private sector in Kazakhstan has assumed substantial debt (which was 81 per cent of GDP in 2008) but because of the international reserves of the government and the oil wealth of the economy, it is not viewed to be necessarily problematic in a long-run developmental sense although during the recent economic crisis it presented a significant liquidity problem.

Many of the NMS increased their external debt ratios considerably during the five years prior to the crisis due to the large current account deficits they were incurring; a substantial proportion of this was private sector debt. Like with Kazakhstan, the NMS debt was not viewed to be necessarily problematic in the long run but the need to refinance parts of this debt created a significant liquidity problem for some of these economies during the current crisis.[150]

Target 8.E: In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries.

In order for the private sector to invest in the development of new drugs they must be able to sell them at a price that allows then to recoup the research and development costs. At the same time there are clearly moral issues involved when those in need of treatment are unable to obtain it because they lack the income to purchase it. As such there is a natural "conflict" at least in the short run between global health and intellectual property law.[151] This conflict took on a decidedly international dimension with the WTO Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) agreement in 1994 which required that all WTO members standardize their intellectual property law by the beginning of 2005. Concerns that implementation of this agreement might negatively impact global health led to the Doha Declaration that the UN least developed countries were not obligated to implement it until 2016. In addition the declaration also introduced a provision that developing countries with a public health emergency could use compulsory licensing

[150] Nevertheless the rate of increase during the mid-2000s in many was considered to be unsustainable; see Robert Shelburne, *Current Account Deficits in European Emerging Markets*, UNECE Discussion Paper 2008.2.

[151] The World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) has established a Committee on Development and Intellectual Property (CDIP) to establish and introduce development-oriented principles into WIPO's work program.

to produce generics domestically.[152] Under compulsory licensing the patent holder is entitled to some compensation based upon the "economic value of the authorization".[153] This issue has been of particular importance for the entire UNECE since almost all of world-wide drug development occurs in the advanced economies of the region and the EEE have had a particular need for a number of highly expensive drugs used to fight AIDS and tuberculosis. Although Russia is not a WTO member its patent legislation is generally consistent with the TRIPS agreement. Russia and Ukraine are members of the Technological Network on HIV/AIDS which has as its objective self-sufficiency in the development and production of antiretroviral drugs.

Target 8.F: In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications.

A comprehensive analysis of the information and communications technology (ICT) sector in the UNECE region concluded that although there is a digital divide between the economies largely connected to per capita income levels, it has been gradually shrinking due to efforts undertaken by governments and civil society groups.[154] In recent years there has been a significant increase in the number of internet users in the EEE+NMS (appendix table 25). In the European CIS internet use has increased from 4 per cent to 22 per cent between 2002 and 2007. SEE has experienced a similarly large increase from 7 per cent to 23 per cent over the same period. Internet use in these two regions is about double the average for the developing world. Internet use is below the developing country average in the central Asian CIS but it quadrupled from 2 per cent to 8 per cent over this period.[155] In addition to internet availability there are other technologies such as personal computer use (appendix table 24), voice and data mobile telephony and digital television for which there is a divide. Significant impediments towards further reducing the digital divide is the legacy of state control over knowledge production and dissemination in many of the EiT and state monopolies over ICT infrastructure. The availability of ICT varies greatly within countries with those living in rural areas or the poor often not having access.

A global analysis of the digital divide concluded that per capita income was by far the most important variable explaining the level of digitalization.[156] Generally the middle income countries in the Pan-European Region have digitalization scores somewhat higher than what would be expected based upon their per capita incomes. After controlling for per capita income, the factors that affect the level of digitalization appear to vary depending on the level of economic development. For middle income countries, improvements in the education system and the

[152] Production of domestic generics can greatly lower the price of drugs. In India the price for a yearly treatment of anti-retroviral drugs for HIV/AIDS fell from $12,000 to only $350 once a domestic generic was made available. See Monika Ermert, EU-India Trade Talks Continue with Public Health Concerns, Intellectual Property Watch, Vol. 7(5), 2010.
[153] TRIPS Article 31(h).
[154] Larissa Kapitsa, *Towards a Knowledge-based Economy –Europe and Central Asia: Internet Development and Governance*, UNECE Discussion Paper No. 2008.1, Geneva, 2008.
[155] United Nations, *Millennium Development Goals Report*, 2009.
[156] Margarita Billon, Fernando Lera-Lopez and Rocio Marco, Differences in Digitalization Levels: A Multivariate Analysis Studying the Global Digital Divide, *Review of World Economics*, Vol. 146 (1), April 2010, pp. 39-73.

telecommunication infrastructure are important for increasing the diffusion of digital services. The use of private-public partnerships offers a way of overcoming a limit on public financial resources. Provision of digital services in schools, libraries and community centers allow large numbers of people to get access to digital services.

Access to digital services is of course not an end in itself; improvement of the telecommunication infrastructure provides households, businesses and governments increased information for decision making and improved communications for relaying information. Therefore upgrading a country's ICT should be viewed as an important resource for addressing the other MDGs regarding hunger, health, education, and environmental sustainability.

XI. Conclusions

The economic, social, environmental and health indicators incorporated into the MDGs deteriorated significantly in the European emerging economies following the breakdown of their planned economies in the early 1990s. The use of 1990 as the base year is of critical importance in evaluating the progress that has been made in achieving the MDGs in the EEE and that year is problematic for a number of reasons outlined in this report. Another factor making assessment difficult is that the variation in economic performance in the EEE varies considerably more than in any other region of the world; there are no other regions of the world in which the growth in the level of income between the best and the worse economies has changed by a factor of five over the 1990 to 2009 period. Thus aggregating countries experiences by geographical groupings is particularly problematic. As a consequence, interpreting and evaluating the progress of the EEE in achieving the MDGs is more nuanced than for the other countries in the world and a strict interpretation of the actual targets may provide conclusions that are perhaps somewhat "misleading". A strict interpretation of the objectives stated in the targets and indicators suggest that there are a number of them that are unlikely to be achieved. However, in evaluating the performance of the EEE it must be appreciated that although they may not achieve the improvement specified in the target, the actual level of the target generally compares quite favorably with that of other countries even after controlling for per capita income.

In the analysis presented in this report, an attempt has been made to assess progress both in terms of a "strict legalistic" as well as a "more sophisticated analysis" interpretation of the MDGs. Because there is so much information involved in measuring the progress in achieving the MDGs, it is useful to present the basic conclusions in a concise table or chart. This has been widely done in most analyses of the MDGs by most institutions and that convention is followed here as well. Nevertheless it must be fully appreciated that evaluating progress in achieving the MDGs is complex and involves considerable judgment about a number of nuances and a table or chart can only provide a simplistic answer. A really meaningful assessment of the progress that has been achieved regarding the MDGs can only be obtained by fully reading the more detailed analysis and studying the tables of data provided in this report. Although this conclusion probably applies to an analysis of the MDG project either globally or in other regions, it is particularly relevant for the UNECE region and is one of the most important basic conclusions included in this report.

Probably the most important factor that will determine the degree to which the region is able to achieve the MDGs by 2015 will be the region's growth rate over the next five years. A return to the vigorous growth of the 2000-2007 would be a quite important development but that remains problematic given the damage caused by the Great Recession to the region's financial systems and government fiscal positions. Nevertheless within the constraints of national income there are a vast number of policy improvements that could be implemented that could speed up progress on a number of fronts and these have been highlighted in this paper.

Figure 21 provides an overview of three subregions' – NMS, SEE, and CIS - prospects in reaching the MDGs. The figure shows for each cluster of countries the percentage of countries which are "on track" or are experiencing problems in reaching the MDGs targets. Countries' progress has been considered against official global targets, and not on the basis of national development strategies. The methodology for these estimates is provided in appendix table 3.

Like in previous regional reports, countries joining the EU are shown to have greatly profited from the new institutional, economic and financial framework. As a consequence it is not a surprise that amongst these three regions, the NMS countries are most likely to meet the MDGs, while the prospects are mixed, especially for MDGs related to poverty, health and infrastructures, in the other two regions.

In all of the UNECE economies there are vulnerable population strata where there is extreme poverty[157]; however the problem of poverty (target 1.A), when defined in an absolute sense, is mostly restricted to the resource-poor countries of the EECCA region. The 2007 – 2009 crises has had a huge impact on the livelihood in the region, including the most advanced economies (EAE), and is endangering the progress achieved in all of EEE countries and in some of the NMS. Target 1.B on decent work remains problematic in all of the subregions, both for structural problems - like the high share of vulnerable and informal employment, as well as for the high unemployment rates for youth - and for more contingent reasons, like the drop in labor productivity during the crisis. The problem of high informal employment is particularly severe in the rural economies of central Asia. Malnourishment (target 1.C) is moderate to low in virtually all of the EEE and NMS. The most vulnerable economies in the CIS had already achieved the target by 2006 and their objective would be to not allow this progress to be undone by the current crisis.

Not surprisingly, the best outcomes are on the MDGs for school enrollment and gender equality in schools (goals 2 and 3) —because of the region's tradition of mandatory school attendance and equal access. However, the quality of education is deteriorating in a number of countries of the EECAA region, particularly in rural areas.

Gender equality in education has often not resulted in labor market equity, and it is largely disappointing in terms of female political representation. Throughout the region, despite women's high education level, severe problems remain both with respect to the quality of women's employment and their career opportunities,

[157] This is especially the case for rural areas and for the unemployed and unskilled labour, ethnic minorities, retired and elderly persons, single parent households and persons with health problems.

especially in CIS countries. The majority of women still occupy lower-paid, part-time or other forms of unstable jobs at the lower end of the career ladder. Moreover, wage differentials remain a resilient challenge to equality in the region, ranging from an average of 17 per cent in the EU to between 40 and 50 per cent in central Asia and the Caucasus. The weak position of women in our societies is reflected by the low political representation they have. With the exception of the Scandinavian countries, women continue to be strongly underrepresented in both political and economic decision-making positions in all countries of the region.

Child mortality in the UNECE is the lowest in the world, and there is an overall trend towards achieving target 4.A in the region. In the CIS countries the mortality rate has fallen in some cases by 50 per cent over the last decade. Nevertheless, child mortality in these countries is still high, and some of them might not reach the target. Furthermore, persistent high level of intra-country disparities are reported, both by socio-economic status and by place of residence, in eastern Europe, central Asia, SEE and even in some of the NMS.

Similar to child mortality, only a few countries in the CIS region are not on track to reach the target on maternal mortality (target 5.A). However, the widespread use of abortion as an alternative to contraception and the high rate of adolescent pregnancies affect a number of countries throughout the ECE region.

By contrast, MDG 6 presents the largest challenge for virtually all the region, with HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis emerging as particular concerns. Not only is the HIV/AIDS infection rate high across much of the region with its epicenter in the CIS, but also in virtually none of the countries, is there adequate antiretroviral treatment coverage for the infected although it has been increasingly rapidly (target 6.B). The spread of tuberculosis (target 6.C) is also of concern for the region as its incidence has doubled since 1990 in the CIS; the NMS and SEE had a similar incidence rate as the CIS in 1990 but it has been stabilized and has even begun to decline in recent years.

In spite of the significant declines in GHG emissions since 1990, MDG 7 remains a concern for the region, especially because of the poor energy efficiency of these economies and the need in the coming years for greater declines. Moreover, the latest increases of emissions per capita and the limited progress in improving energy efficiency in the last decade suggest that countries are not on a sustainable path. Most countries have not yet implemented adequate policies to address the decline in biodiversity that has been occurring in the region. Although progress is being made in terms of limiting the number of slum dwellers and providing safe drinking water and basic sanitation, the inadequacies are quite high especially considering the income levels of the countries involved (target 7.C). Even if reliable and extensive data is not available, estimates suggest that large segments of the population live in informal housing, without any secured property rights, in the SEE region as well as in areas which recently witnessed armed conflicts in the CIS countries. More generally, many of the EEE have yet to significantly address environmental issues in their national development strategies.

MDG8 is not considered in figure 21 as it is difficult to measure. The advanced economies which are able to provide ODA are primarily located in the UNECE region. Recent estimates suggest that major donors will not to meet the 2010

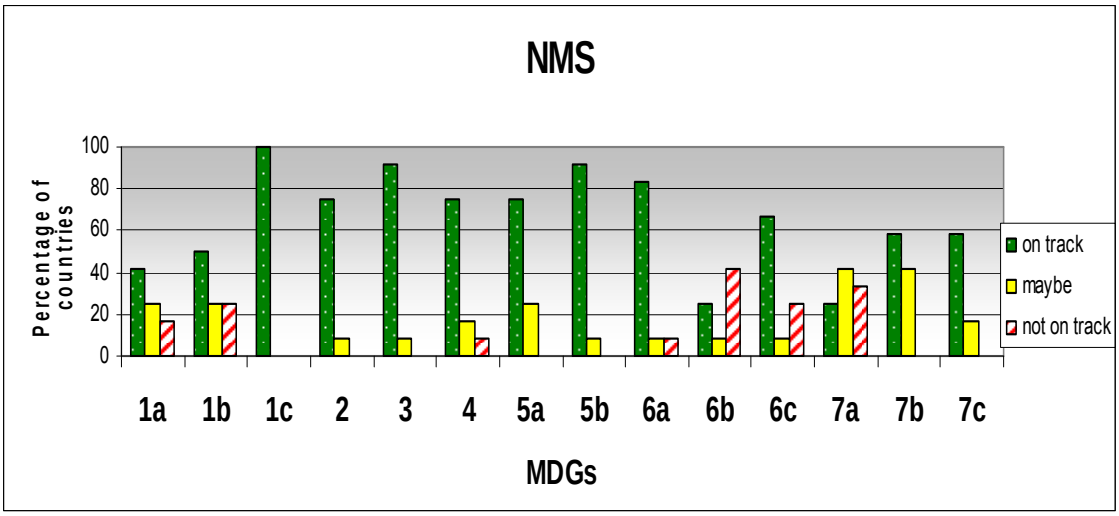
ODA/GNI targets they committed to at the Gleneagles G8 summit. The failure to meet these ODA commitments may be the result of the financial crisis since historical evidence shows that financial crises often lead to a decline in foreign assistance. Concerning international trade (target 8.A), while NMS and to a lesser degree SEE have now become reasonably integrated into the world economy, CIS economies have difficulty to perform well in this area, due to limited progress achieved in diversifying their export structures. Another important factor limiting the integration of transition economies into the world economy is the fact that a high number of them have yet to gain accession to WTO. Countries with transition economies need also to address a number of additional obstacles to trade like improvement of regional transport infrastructure, simplification of border crossing procedures and harmonization of product and regulatory standards. These obstacles affect particularly the trade capacity of landlocked countries of the CIS and SEE regions.

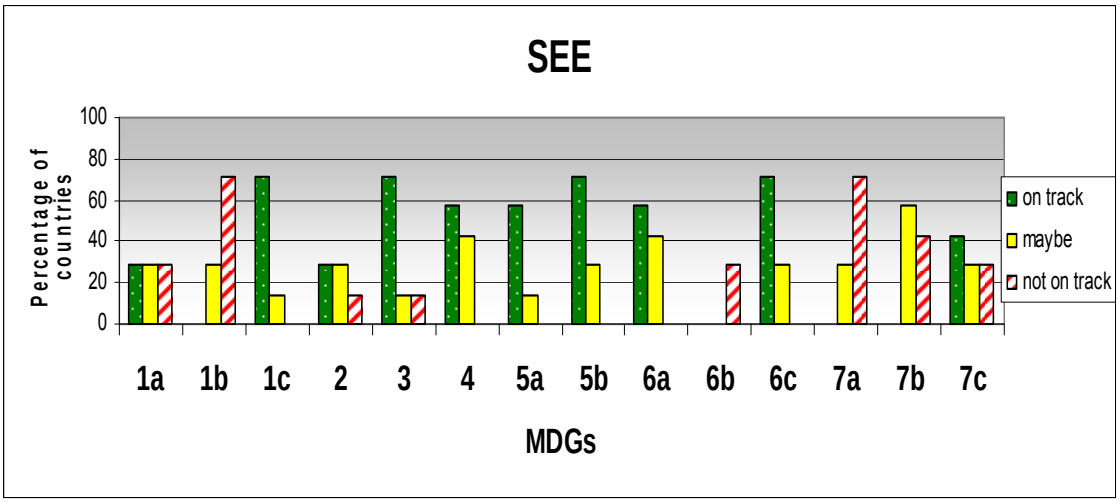
In sum, figure 21 reveals increasing divergences in the progress towards MDGs between the subgroups of countries considered. This adds to the increasing inequality among countries within the subregions highlighted in this report and to the growing inequality within countries reported by several countries' studies. While in a global perspective, the region's progress can be considered as positive, especially if compared to African economies, the mentioned growing inequality, clearly calls for a reframing and an upgrading of the social security systems and of the health infrastructures and services in many countries. Another point of concern remains the environment and how to include the principles of sustainable development into countries policies in all of the Pan-European Region.

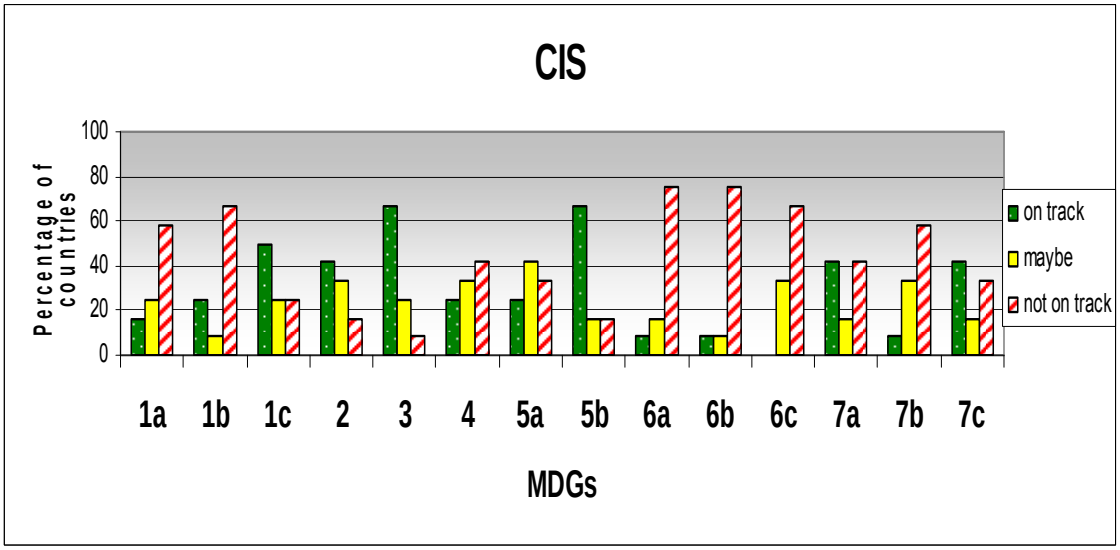
In conclusion, the key findings of this report are:

- **Achievement of the MDGs is problematic in central Asia, and the Caucasus, and to a lesser degree southeast Europe**
- **The challenges for achieving the MDGs are greatest in rural areas and for specific social groups**
- **Environmental sustainability and gender equality have yet to be achieved in even in the advanced economies of the region**
- **Generally good progress was being made for most goals due significantly to renewed economic growth after 2000, but the financial crisis has set back progress by about three years**
- **Although growth is important it is not sufficient, policy changes are needed in a wide range of areas**
- **The MDGs are a global partnership; the advanced economies have not fulfilled their commitments in this regard**

Figure 21
Regional Assessment of MDG Progress by Target







Note: The sum of values in the graph might not always amount to 100 per cent since some countries might not have sufficient information.

Appendix Table 1
MDG Indicators

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)	
Goals and Targets (from the Millennium Declaration)	**Indicators for monitoring progress**
Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	
Target 1.A: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day	1.1 Proportion of population below $1 (PPP) per day 1.2 Poverty gap ratio 1.3 Share of poorest quintile in national consumption
Target 1.B: Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people	1.4 Growth rate of GDP per person employed 1.5 Employment-to-population ratio 1.6 Proportion of employed people living below $1 (PPP) per day 1.7 Proportion of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment
Target 1.C: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger	1.8 Prevalence of underweight children under-five years of age 1.9 Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption
Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education	
Target 2.A: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling	2.1 Net enrolment ratio in primary education 2.2 Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary 2.3 Literacy rate of 15-24 year-olds, women and men
Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women	
Target 3.A: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015	3.1 Ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education 3.2 Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector 3.3 Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament
Goal 4: Reduce child mortality	
Target 4.A: Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate	4.1 Under-five mortality rate 4.2 Infant mortality rate 4.3 Proportion of 1 year-old children immunised against measles
Goal 5: Improve maternal health	
Target 5.A: Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio	5.1 Maternal mortality ratio 5.2 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
Target 5.B: Achieve, by 2015, universal access to reproductive health	5.3 Contraceptive prevalence rate 5.4 Adolescent birth rate 5.5 Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit and at least four visits) 5.6 Unmet need for family planning
Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases	
Target 6.A: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS	6.1 HIV prevalence among population aged 15-24 years 6.2 Condom use at last high-risk sex 6.3 Proportion of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS 6.4 Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of non-orphans aged 10-14 years
Target 6.B: Achieve, by 2010, universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS for all those who need it	6.5 Proportion of population with advanced HIV infection with access to antiretroviral drugs
Target 6.C: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases	6.6 Incidence and death rates associated with malaria 6.7 Proportion of children under 5 sleeping under insecticide-treated bednets 6.8 Proportion of children under 5 with fever who are treated with

	appropriate anti-malarial drugs 6.9 Incidence, prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis 6.10 Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under directly observed treatment short course
Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability	
Target 7.A: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources Target 7.B: Reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss	7.1 Proportion of land area covered by forest 7.2 CO2 emissions, total, per capita and per $1 GDP (PPP) 7.3 Consumption of ozone-depleting substances 7.4 Proportion of fish stocks within safe biological limits 7.5 Proportion of total water resources used 7.6 Proportion of terrestrial and marine areas protected 7.7 Proportion of species threatened with extinction
Target 7.C: Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation	7.8 Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source 7.9 Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility
Target 7.D: By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers	7.10 Proportion of urban population living in slums
Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development	
Target 8.A: Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system Includes a commitment to good governance, development and poverty reduction – both nationally and internationally Target 8.B: Address the special needs of the least developed countries Includes: tariff and quota free access for the least developed countries' exports; enhanced programme of debt relief for heavily indebted poor countries (HIPC) and cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous ODA for countries committed to poverty reduction Target 8.C: Address the special needs of landlocked developing countries and small island developing States (through the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States and the outcome of the twenty-second special session of the General Assembly) Target 8.D: Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term	*Some of the indicators listed below are monitored separately for the least developed countries (LDCs), Africa, landlocked developing countries and small island developing States.* <u>Official development assistance (ODA)</u> 8.1 Net ODA, total and to the least developed countries, as percentage of OECD/DAC donors' gross national income 8.2 Proportion of total bilateral, sector-allocable ODA of OECD/DAC donors to basic social services (basic education, primary health care, nutrition, safe water and sanitation) 8.3 Proportion of bilateral official development assistance of OECD/DAC donors that is untied 8.4 ODA received in landlocked developing countries as a proportion of their gross national incomes 8.5 ODA received in small island developing States as a proportion of their gross national incomes <u>Market access</u> 8.6 Proportion of total developed country imports (by value and excluding arms) from developing countries and least developed countries, admitted free of duty 8.7 Average tariffs imposed by developed countries on agricultural products and textiles and clothing from developing countries 8.8 Agricultural support estimate for OECD countries as a percentage of their gross domestic product 8.9 Proportion of ODA provided to help build trade capacity <u>Debt sustainability</u> 8.10 Total number of countries that have reached their HIPC decision points and number that have reached their HIPC completion points (cumulative) 8.11 Debt relief committed under HIPC and MDRI Initiatives 8.12 Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services
Target 8.E: In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries	8.13 Proportion of population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis
Target 8.F: In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications	8.14 Telephone lines per 100 population 8.15 Cellular subscribers per 100 population 8.16 Internet users per 100 population

Appendix Table 2
Sub-Regions of the UNECE

South-east Europe (SEE)

Albania	Serbia
Bosnia and Herzegovina	The former Yugoslavian Republic
Croatia	of Macedonia
Montenegro	Turkey

Commonwealth of Independent States[158] (CIS or EECCA)

Armenia	Moldova
Azerbaijan	Russia
Belarus	Tajikistan
Georgia	Turkmenistan
Kazakhstan	Ukraine
Kyrgyz Republic	Uzbekistan

EU New Member States (NMS)

Bulgaria*	Lithuania*
Cyprus* €	Malta* €
Czech Republic*	Poland*
Estonia*	Romania*
Hungary*	Slovak Republic* €
Latvia*	Slovenia* €

European Advanced Economies (EAE)

Andorra	Liechtenstein
Austria* €	Luxembourg* €
Belgium* €	Monaco
Denmark*	Netherlands* €
Finland* €	Norway
France* €	Portugal* €
Germany* €	San Marino
Greece* €	Spain* €
Iceland	Sweden*
Ireland* €	Switzerland
Israel	United Kingdom*
Italy* €	

European Union Members = *
Eurozone Member = €
EU-15 = European Union - NMS
European Emerging Economies (EEE) = CIS + SEE
Economies in Transition (EiT) = EEE – Turkey
Previously Planned Economies = EiT + NMS – Cyprus - Malta
Pan-European Region = EAE + NMS + SEE + CIS
UNECE Economies = Pan-European Region + Canada + US

[158] The regional grouping CIS refers to the former members of the Soviet Union minus the Baltic economies and does not refer to the institutional arrangement of that name which does not include Georgia, Turkmenistan or Ukraine as official members.

Appendix Table 3
Methodology of Estimating MDG Progress in Figure 21

Target 1.A given the lack of data on 1990 level of poverty and the related impossibility to establish country based targets, it is particularly difficult to verify the progress or the achievement of the related target on a country basis. Moreover, as already noted many countries establish own targets which can only be verified analyzing the national MDG strategy. For the preceding analysis, countries have been classified on the basis of the progress shown over time in their poverty reduction strategy using both the measure based on the $1.25 PPP level, and the one based on the national poverty lines. As consequence, even if poverty levels are as high as those of 1990, many countries have not been classified as "not on track", but only cases where levels of poverty are still unacceptably high have been classified as such. Countries whose progress towards poverty reduction was slow or endangered by the recent crisis have been classified as "uncertain."

Target 1.B Countries have been classified on the basis of their employment to population rate and of the rates of vulnerable employment. In particular, employment to population rates lower than 50 per cent and a percentage of vulnerable employment to total employment above 30 per cent determined a "not on track" classification. Also the trend has been considered, especially in the determination of "uncertain cases."

Target 1.C. In this case data was relatively scarce; however the latest data from UNICEF did not reveal big problems in the region with the exception of very few cases.

Target 2 Enrolment rates are very high in the region, thus uncertain and "not on track" cases have been defined if rates are following a decreasing path or if the enrolment rate is below 90 per cent (still higher than in many other world regions).

Target 3 This target is defined in a very strict way using indicators which consider enrolment rates in school, the female employment rate in non agricultural sectors, and the percentage of parliament seats hold by women. Again, in a world perspective, the region can be considered as gender equal. Thus even small differences in enrolment rates have been considered carefully. Also, non agriculture employment rates lower than 30 per cent or parliamentary representation lower than 10 per cent have determined at least a classification as "uncertain."

Target 4.A is based on WHO data on infant and under 5 years mortality. Immunization is universal thus it was not considered here. Countries were considered "on track" if a linear trend projection based on the data in the past years would result in mortality rates lower than their 2015 targets

Target 5.A is based on WHO data on maternal mortality. Countries were considered "on track" if a linear trend projection based on the data in the past years would result in a mortality rate lower than their 2015 target.

Target 5.B is based on several indicators: availability of skilled healthcare at childbirth, antenatal care, and adolescent birth rates. Few countries had data on the

four antenatal visits recommended by WHO and UNICEF, thus this indicator has not been considered.

Target 6.A this classification is based on the trend in the number of new HIV cases (WHO database).

Target 6.B is based on data from UNAIDS. Countries which showed a great increase in antiretroviral treatment coverage but still had a percentage below 30-40 per cent were considered “not on track”.

Target 6.C is only based on tuberculosis cases (from WHO database) as all the countries are likely to achieve the malaria target. Countries where the number of TB cases is very high but that managed to revert the trend in the latest years have been classified as “uncertain.”

Target 7.A is based on forest coverage, CO2 emissions per capita and per 1$ PPP GDP, and energy efficiency. Countries which had lower emissions than in 1990 but that had very low energy efficiency or very high per capita emissions have been classified as “not on track”.

Target 7.B considers a percentage of protected territory lower than 10 per cent as “not on track” and a stagnant and/or decreasing over time percentage as “uncertain.”

Target 7.C here problems have been detected only in very poor countries. (sanitation or access to safe water lower than 90 per cent).

Target 7.D is not included in this chart because of the unavailability of reliable and timely information.

Statistical Appendix Tables

Table 1A

Population below national poverty line, percentage [a]

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
South-Eastern Europe											
Albania	..	..	..	..	25.4	..	..	18.5	..	..	12.4
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	..	19.5	..	..	18.3	..	..	18.2	..
Croatia	..	..	..	17.2	18.2	16.9	16.7	17.5	17.0	18.0	..
Serbia	..	..	..	..	10.6	10.5	..	6.5	..	..	..
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	20.7	21.0	22.3	22.7	30.2	30.2	29.6	30.0	29.8	29.4	28.7
Turkey	..	..	..	..	27.0	28.1	25.6	20.5	17.8	17.8	17.1
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia											
Armenia	..	..	..	..	..	..	34.6	29.8	26.5	25.0	23.5
Azerbaijan	..	..	..	49.6	46.7	44.7	40.2	29.3	20.8	15.8	13.2
Belarus	33.0	46.7	41.9	28.9	30.5	27.1	17.8	12.7	11.1	7.7	6.1
Georgia	50.2	51.8	51.8	51.1	52.1	54.5	27 [b]	..	..	31.0	..
Kazakhstan	39.0	34.5	31.8	28.4	24.2	19.8	16.1	31.6 [c]	18.2	12.7	12.1
Kyrgyzstan	..	..	..	47.6	..	49.9	..	43.1	..	..	..
Republic of Moldova	52.0	73.0	67.8	54.6	40.4	29.0	26.5	..	..	..	..
Russian Federation	..	..	29.0	..	19.6	20.3	17.6	17.7	15.2	13.3	13.5 [d]
Tajikistan	..	74.9	..	..	..	44.4	..	..	..	..	..
Ukraine	..	..	..	26.4	27.2	27.2	26.6	27.3	27.1	28.1	..
Uzbekistan	..	..	..	27.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Developed countries											
Canada	13.7	13.0	12.5	11.2	11.6	11.6	11.4	10.8	10.5	9.2	..
Switzerland	..	..	9.1	7.7	7.2	8.3	8.8	8.5	9.0	8.8	..
United States	12.7	11.8	11.3	11.7	12.1	12.5	12.7	12.6	12.3	12.5	13.2

Notes: The national poverty rate is the percentage of the total population living below the national poverty line.
National poverty lines are set by individual countries, reflecting their population's basic needs for subsistence. The following are definitions applied in the reported countries.

a Data on population at risk of poverty in the EU countries, Iceland and Norway are presented in Table 1B.
b Break in series due to change in methodology.
c Break in series due to change in composition of food and non-food items in the minimum subsistence basket.
d Provisional data.

Table 1B

Population at risk of poverty in the EU countries, Iceland and Norway, percentage

	Total				Women				Men			
EU member countries	**1995**	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**1995**	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**	**1995**	**2000**	**2005**	**2008**
Austria	13	12	12	12	15	14	13	13	12	9	11	11
Belgium	16	13	15	15	17	14	15	16	15	12	14	14
Bulgaria	..	14	14	21	..	15	15	23	..	13	13	20
Croatia	..	..	18	..	..	..	20	..	..	..	16	..
Cyprus	..	..	16	16	..	..	18	18	..	..	15	14
Czech Republic	..	..	10	9	..	..	11	10	..	..	10	8
Denmark	10	..	12	12	..	..	12	12	..	..	12	12
Estonia	..	18	18	19	..	19	19	22	..	17	17	16
Finland	..	11	12	14	..	13	13	14	..	9	11	13
France	15	16	13	13	16	16	14	14	15	15	12	13
Germany	15	10	12	15	16	11	13	16	13	10	11	14
Greece	22	20	20	20	22	20	21	21	21	19	18	20
Hungary	..	11	13	12	..	12	13	12	..	11	14	12
Ireland	19	20	20	16	20	21	21	16	17	19	19	15
Italy	20	18	19	19	21	19	21	20	19	18	17	17
Latvia	..	16	19	26	..	16	20	28	..	17	18	23
Lithuania	..	17	21	20	..	17	21	22	..	17	20	18
Luxembourg	12	12	14	13	13	12	14	14	11	12	13	13
Malta	..	15	14	15	..	15	15	15	..	15	14	14
Netherlands	11	11	11	11	12	11	11	11	11	10	11	11
Poland	..	16	21	17	..	16	20	17	..	16	21	17
Portugal	23	21	19	18	24	22	20	19	21	19	19	18
Romania	..	17	18	23	..	18	18	24	..	17	18	22
Slovakia	..	..	13	11	..	..	13	12	..	..	13	10
Slovenia	..	11	12	12	..	12	14	14	..	11	11	11
Spain	19	18	20	20	19	19	21	21	19	17	19	18
Sweden	..	..	9	12	..	..	10	13	..	..	9	11
United Kingdom	20	19	19	19	22	21	19	20	19	16	19	18
Non-EU members countries												
Iceland	..	..	10	10	..	..	10	11	..	..	10	10
Norway	..	..	11	11	..	..	13	13	..	..	10	10

Source: Eurostat (Statistical Office of the European Union)

Note: Share of persons aged 0+ with an equivalised disposable income below 60% of the national equivalised median income.

Table 2

Unemployment rate by sex, percentage

Country	Total						Women						Men					
	1995	2000	2005	2007	2008	2009	1995	2000	2005	2007	2008	2009	1995	2000	2005	2007	2008	2009
European Union																		
Austria	3.9	3.6	5.2	4.4	3.8	5.0	5.0	4.3	5.5	5.0	4.1	4.7	3.1	3.1	4.9	3.9	3.6	5.2
Belgium	9.7	6.9	8.5	7.5	7.0	7.9	12.7	8.5	9.5	8.5	7.6	8.2	7.6	5.6	7.6	6.7	6.5	7.7
Bulgaria	..	16.4	10.1	6.9	5.6	6.7	..	16.2	9.8	7.3	5.8	6.6	..	16.7	10.3	6.5	5.5	6.9
Cyprus [a]	..	4.9	5.3	4.0	3.6	5.3	..	7.2	6.5	4.6	4.2	5.5	..	3.2	4.3	3.4	3.1	5.1
Czech Republic	..	8.7	7.9	5.3	4.4	6.8	..	10.3	9.8	6.7	5.6	7.8	..	7.3	6.5	4.2	3.5	6.0
Denmark	6.7	4.3	4.8	3.8	3.3	6.0	8.1	4.8	5.3	4.2	3.7	5.4	5.6	3.9	4.4	3.5	3.0	6.5
Estonia	..	12.8	7.9	4.7	5.5	13.8	..	11.7	7.1	3.9	5.3	10.6	..	13.8	8.8	5.4	5.8	16.9
Finland	15.4	9.8	8.4	6.9	6.4	8.2	15.1	10.6	8.6	7.2	6.7	7.6	15.7	9.1	8.2	6.5	6.1	8.9
France	11.0	9.0	9.3	8.4	7.8	9.4	13.0	10.8	10.3	9.0	8.4	9.8	9.3	7.5	8.4	7.8	7.3	9.1
Germany	8.0	7.5	10.7	8.4	7.3	7.5	9.0	7.5	10.1	8.3	7.2	6.9	7.2	7.5	11.2	8.5	7.4	8.0
Greece	..	11.2	9.9	8.3	7.7	..	..	17.1	15.3	12.8	11.4	..	..	7.4	6.1	5.2	5.1	..
Hungary	..	6.4	7.2	7.4	7.8	10.0	..	5.6	7.4	7.7	8.1	9.7	..	7.0	7.0	7.1	7.6	10.3
Ireland	12.3	4.3	4.4	4.6	6.0	11.8	12.5	4.2	4.0	4.2	4.6	8.0	12.2	4.4	4.6	4.9	7.1	14.8
Italy	11.2	10.1	7.7	6.1	6.7	..	15.4	13.6	10.0	7.9	8.5	..	8.6	7.8	6.2	4.9	5.5	..
Latvia	..	13.7	8.9	6.0	7.5	17.6	..	12.9	8.7	5.6	6.9	14.4	..	14.4	9.1	6.4	8.0	20.6
Lithuania	..	16.4	8.3	4.3	5.8	14.0	..	14.1	8.3	4.3	5.6	10.5	..	18.6	8.2	4.3	6.1	17.4
Luxembourg	2.9	2.2	4.6	4.2	4.9	5.7	4.3	2.9	6.0	5.1	5.9	6.2	2.0	1.8	3.6	3.4	4.1	5.3
Malta	..	6.7	7.2	6.4	5.9	7.0	..	7.4	8.9	7.5	6.6	7.7	..	6.4	6.4	5.9	5.6	6.6
Netherlands	6.6	2.8	4.7	3.2	2.8	3.5	8.1	3.6	5.1	3.6	3.0	3.5	5.5	2.2	4.5	2.8	2.5	3.4
Poland	..	16.1	17.8	9.6	7.1	8.2	..	18.2	19.2	10.4	8.0	8.7	..	14.4	16.6	9.0	6.4	7.8
Portugal	7.2	4.0	7.7	8.1	7.7	9.6	8.1	5.0	8.8	9.7	9.0	10.3	6.4	3.2	6.8	6.7	6.6	9.0
Romania	..	7.3	7.2	6.4	5.8	..	..	6.5	6.4	5.4	4.7	..	..	8.0	7.8	7.2	6.7	..
Slovakia	..	18.8	16.3	11.1	9.5	11.9	..	18.6	17.2	12.7	10.9	12.6	..	18.9	15.5	9.9	8.4	11.2
Slovenia	..	6.7	6.5	4.9	4.4	6.0	..	7.0	7.1	5.9	4.8	5.9	..	6.5	6.1	4.0	4.0	6.1
Spain	18.4	11.1	9.2	8.3	11.3	18.0	24.7	16.0	12.2	10.9	13.0	18.4	14.8	7.9	7.1	6.4	10.1	17.7
Sweden	8.8	5.6	7.7	6.1	6.2	8.3	7.8	5.3	7.7	6.4	6.5	8.0	9.7	5.9	7.7	5.8	5.9	8.6
United Kingdom	8.5	5.4	4.8	5.3	5.6	..	6.8	4.8	4.3	5.0	5.1	..	9.9	5.9	5.2	5.6	6.1	..
Other developed countries																		
Canada	9.5	6.8	6.8	6.0	6.1	8.3	9.1	6.7	6.5	5.6	5.7	7.0	9.8	6.9	7.0	6.4	6.6	9.4
Iceland	5.2	1.9	2.6	2.3	3.0	7.2	4.9	2.6	2.6	2.3	2.6	5.7	5.5	1.3	2.6	2.3	3.3	8.6
Israel	..	8.8	9.0	7.3	6.1	7.6	..	9.2	9.5	7.9	6.5	..	..	8.4	8.5	6.8	5.7	..
Norway	4.9	3.2	4.5	2.5	2.5	..	4.6	3.1	4.3	2.5	2.3	..	5.2	3.4	4.7	2.6	2.7	..
Switzerland	3.3	2.7	4.4	3.6	3.4	4.1	3.9	3.1	5.1	4.5	4.0	4.5	2.9	2.3	3.9	2.9	2.8	3.7
United States	5.6	4.0	5.1	4.6	5.8	9.3	5.6	4.1	5.1	4.5	5.4	8.1	5.6	3.9	5.1	4.7	6.1	10.3
South-Eastern Europe																		
Albania [b]	12.9	16.8	14.1	13.5	13.0	..	14.8	19.3	17.2	..	..	..	11.6	14.9	12.1	..	..	..
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	31.1 [c]	..	23.4	..	..	..	34.9 [c]	..	..	..	..	..	28.9 [c]		..	
Croatia	..	16.1	12.7	9.6	8.4	9.6	..	17.3	13.9	11.2	10.1	10.6	..	15.0	11.6	8.4	7.0	8.7
Montenegro	..	..	30.3	..	..	..	..	..	26.2	..	..	..	..	..	35.5	..	..	..
Serbia	..	..	20.8	18.1	..	..	..	..	26.2	21.0	..	..	..	..	16.8	15.8	..	..
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	32.2	37.3	34.9	33.8	..	..	34.9	38.4	35.6	34.2	..	..	30.5	36.5	34.5	33.4	..
Turkey	7.6	6.5	10.3	..	9.9	..	7.3	6.3	10.3	..	10.3		7.8	6.6	10.3	..	9.7	..
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia																		
Armenia	36.4	..	31.2	28.7	28.6	..	34.4	..	37.6	35.4	35.0	..	38.0	..	26.1	22.2	22.2	..
Azerbaijan	..	..	7.6	..	6.1	..	..	..	7.5	..	6.5	..	..	..	7.7	..	5.6	..
Belarus [b]	2.9	2.1	1.5	1.0	0.8	..	3.5	2.4	2.0	..	..	..	2.2	1.7	1.0	..	..	..
Georgia	7.6	10.4	13.8	..	16.5	..	7.8	9.7	12.6	..	..	..	7.4	11.0	14.8	..	..	..
Kazakhstan	..	..	8.1	7.3	6.6	..	..	..	9.6	8.7	..	..	..	..	6.7	5.9	..	..
Kyrgyzstan	..	..	8.1	8.2	..	..	..	..	9.1	9.0	..	..	..	..	7.4	7.6	..	..
Republic of Moldova	..	8.5	7.3	..	..	..	..	7.2	6.0	..	..	..	..	9.7	8.7	..	..	..
Russian Federation	9.4	10.6	7.1	..	7.0	..	9.2	10.4	7.0	..	6.4		9.7	10.8	7.3	..	7.5	..
Tajikistan	..	9.3	..	..	..	..	..	9.6	..	..	..	..	..	9.0	..	..	..	..
Turkmenistan [b]	..	2.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ukraine	..	11.6	7.2	6.4	6.4	..	..	11.6	6.8	6.0	6.4	..	..	11.6	7.5	6.7	6.6	..
Uzbekistan [b]	0.3	0.4	0.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Source: UNECE Statistical database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat and ILO) official sources.

Note: The unemployment rate is the share (in per cent) of the unemployed in the labour force.
The unemployed are all the persons above a specific age who, during the reference period, were: (a) without work, i.e. were not in paid employment or self-employment, (b) currently available for work, i.e. were available for paid employment or self-employment during the reference period, and (c) seeking work, i.e. had taken specific steps in a specified reference period to seek paid employment or self-employment.

a Data cover only the Government controlled area.
b Data refer to end of period registered unemployment.
c Data refer to 2006.

Table 3

Net enrolment rate in primary education by sex

Country	Total			Girls			Boys		
	1999/2000	2004/2005	2007/2008	1999/2000	2004/2005	2007/2008	1999/2000	2004/2005	2007/2008
European Union [a]									
Austria	..	97.0	..	..	97.9	..	..	96.0	..
Belgium	99.5	97.4	97.8	99.7	97.6	98.0	99.4	97.2	97.5
Bulgaria	96.9	92.6	94.6	96.1	92.3	94.4	97.7	92.9	94.9
Cyprus	95.3	99.3	99.0	95.5	99.4	98.9	95.1	99.3	99.1
Czech Republic	..	93.4	..	..	94.7	..	..	92.2	..
Denmark	97.3	95.8	95.6	97.5	96.3	96.3	97.2	95.3	95.0
Estonia	96.6	94.7	94.4	96.0	94.5	94.3	97.2	94.8	94.5
Finland	99.7	98.5	96.3	99.3	98.6	96.4	100.0	98.4	96.2
France	99.0	98.6	98.5	99.1	98.8	98.6	98.9	98.5	98.5
Germany	99.2	98.5	98.2	99.2	98.5	98.1	99.3	98.6	98.3
Greece	93.5	99.6	99.4	93.7	99.5	99.7	93.3	99.6	99.2
Hungary	88.5	90.7	88.8	88.2	89.8	87.9	88.8	91.6	89.6
Ireland	93.5	95.3	96.9	93.9	95.7	97.3	93.2	94.9	96.4
Italy	98.5	98.6	98.6	98.5	98.2	98.2	98.6	99.0	99.1
Latvia	..	90.1	..	..	91.7	..	..	88.7	..
Lithuania	95.6	88.1	91.3	95.6	88.0	90.7	95.6	88.1	91.8
Luxembourg	96.6	95.0	95.5	97.9	95.7	96.2	95.4	94.2	94.8
Malta	95.5	91.2	91.4	96.3	90.8	91.9	94.7	91.7	91.0
Netherlands	99.4	98.3	98.5	98.9	97.6	98.0	99.9	98.9	99.0
Poland	96.6	96.7	95.6	96.6	97.0	95.8	96.7	96.4	95.3
Portugal	..	98.0	98.9	..	97.6	98.4	..	98.4	99.3
Romania	93.8	91.3	93.9	93.6	91.0	93.9	94.0	91.5	93.8
Slovakia	..	91.8	..	..	92.3	..	..	91.3	..
Slovenia	94.3	94.9	95.6	95.2	94.7	95.4	93.5	95.1	95.8
Spain	99.9	99.6	99.7	99.9	99.4	99.6	100.0	99.8	99.9
Sweden	99.4	96.7	93.8	99.1	96.6	93.6	99.7	96.9	93.9
United Kingdom	100.0	98.7	97.2	100.0	98.8	97.6	99.9	98.6	96.8
Other developed countries [a]									
Canada	99.5	..	..	99.7	..	..	99.3	..	..
Iceland	98.9	98.3	97.1	97.9	96.9	97.2	99.9	99.5	97.1
Israel	97.9	97.4	97.1	97.7	97.8	97.7	98.0	97.0	96.6
Norway	99.7	98.0	98.4	99.8	98.2	98.5	99.5	97.8	98.4
Switzerland	95.4	94.3	93.5	95.6	94.2	93.4	95.2	94.3	93.5
United States	94.2	90.8	91.5	94.2	91.5	92.1	94.2	90.1	90.9
South-Eastern Europe									
Albania	99.4	90.8 [b]	..	99.4	91.0 [b]	..	99.5	90.6 [a]	..
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Croatia	86.0	90.5	..	85.4	90.2	..	86.7	90.8	..
Montenegro	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Serbia	..	97.7	97.0	..	98.0	96.9	..	97.4	97.1
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	92.1	89.9	..	91.7	89.9	..	92.5	89.9	..
Turkey	..	91.9	..	..	89.6	..	..	94.1	..
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia									
Armenia	..	82.2	74.0	..	84.2	74.7	..	80.3	73.3
Azerbaijan	89.5	95.6	96.0	90.5	94.7	95.3	88.6	96.4	96.7
Belarus	..	89.4	94.4	..	87.8	95.6	..	90.8	93.3
Georgia	..	91.3	98.7	..	90.9	97.6	..	91.6	99.7
Kazakhstan	87.2	91.0	90.3	87.8	90.9	90.2	86.7	91.1	90.5
Kyrgyzstan	86.7	85.1	83.5	86.0	84.8	83.2	87.3	85.4	83.9
Republic of Moldova	89.0	85.9	83.3	88.2	85.6	82.4	89.7	86.2	84.1
Tajikistan	95.9	97.5	97.3	92.2	95.6	95.4	99.5	99.3	99.2
Ukraine	..	90.5	88.9	..	90.4	89.1	..	90.7	88.7
Uzbekistan [a]	..	..	89.9	..	..	88.7	..	..	91.1

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics database

Note: The net enrolment ratio is the number of students of the official school-age group (defined by each country) enrolled in primary level education per 100 persons of the same age group.

a For 2007/2008: data refer to 2006/2007.
b Data refer to 2003/2004.

Table 4

Net enrolment ratio at secondary level by sex

Country	Total			Girls			Boys		
	1995/1996	1999/2000	2006/2007	1995/1996	1999/2000	2006/2007	1995/1996	1999/2000	2006/2007
European Union									
Austria	89.6	..	..	89.2	..	..	90.1	..	..
Belgium	97.1	..	..	97.4	..	..	96.8	..	..
Bulgaria	75.9	86.0	87.5	..	85.2	86.9	..	86.8	88.1
Cyprus	79.5	88.0	95.1	81.5	89.4	96.3	77.7	86.7	94.0
Czech Republic	87.4	..	89.7	88.9	..	90.7	86.0	..	88.9
Denmark	87.3	88.5	89.6	88.4	89.6	91.1	86.3	87.4	88.2
Estonia	84.7	83.8	89.9	88.0	85.8	91.4	81.5	81.8	88.5
Finland	92.6	95.0	96.8	93.7	95.7	97.2	91.5	94.2	96.5
France	94.4	92.6	98.3	95.0	93.5	99.1	93.8	91.8	97.5
Germany	89.0	87.3	..	89.0	87.5	..	89.0	87.1	..
Greece	..	81.3	91.0	..	84.4	90.6	..	78.5	91.4
Hungary	86.1	84.1	90.5	87.1	84.5	90.4	85.2	83.8	90.5
Ireland	85.0	83.8	88.1	87.1	86.2	90.2	83.0	81.5	86.1
Italy	..	88.1	92.4	..	..	93.2	..	..	91.7
Latvia	78.4	..	92.2	80.3	..	92.3	76.7	..	92.1
Lithuania	..	91.6	92.1	..	92.0	92.9	..	91.3	91.3
Luxembourg	69.3	84.5	83.0	72.1	86.7	84.9	66.6	82.3	81.2
Malta	77.8	..	82.0	77.4	..	85.0	78.2	..	79.2
Netherlands	90.9	90.9	88.6	91.4	91.0	89.7	90.4	90.8	87.5
Poland	..	90.4	93.8	..	92.1	94.7	..	88.9	93.0
Portugal	..	83.1	87.9	..	86.3	91.9	..	80.1	84.2
Romania	71.7	76.3	73.0	72.6	77.3	72.1	70.9	75.4	73.9
Slovakia	..	85.7	89.5	..	86.3	90.2	..	85.1	88.9
Slovenia	..	90.9	88.5	..	92.8	89.0	..	89.2	88.1
Spain	..	89.4	94.3	..	90.7	95.9	..	88.1	92.7
Sweden	97.5	95.6	99.1	98.0	97.4	99.1	97.1	93.9	99.2
United Kingdom	92.7	94.4	91.3	93.8	95.0	93.0	91.7	93.9	89.7
Other developed countries									
Canada	91.1	..	..	90.8	..	..	91.4	..	..
Iceland	86.7	83.3	90.3	87.4	85.7	91.7	86.0	81.0	88.9
Israel	..	87.5	87.6	..	88.2	88.1	..	86.7	87.1
Norway	95.1	94.8	96.6	95.5	95.2	96.9	94.7	94.4	96.3
Switzerland	86.7	84.1	84.7	83.4	81.6	82.6	89.9	86.4	86.8
United States	89.3	85.9	88.2	89.4	86.9	89.1	89.1	84.9	87.4
South-Eastern Europe									
Albania [a]	..	68.5	73.8	..	67.3	73.0	..	69.8	74.5
Croatia	..	82.1	88.3	..	83.0	89.2	..	81.4	87.4
Montenegro	..	..	77.9	..	..	79.5	..	..	76.4
Serbia	..	..	87.8	..	..	89.1	..	..	86.6
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	54.7	..	77.8	54.6	..	76.5	54.8	..	79.1
Turkey	38.7	..	56.5	33.2	..	52.2	44.1	..	60.7
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia									
Armenia	..	84.7	85.0	..	83.8	87.5	..	85.5	82.7
Azerbaijan	..	74.8	83.0	..	75.2	81.6	..	74.5	84.4
Belarus	..	..	86.9	..	..	..	..	..	..
Georgia	71.4	77.6	81.9	70.7	77.5	82.1	72.0	77.8	81.6
Kazakhstan	..	87.0	86.2	..	88.1	86.0	..	86.0	86.4
Kyrgyzstan	..	..	80.5	..	..	81.3	..	..	79.8
Republic of Moldova	..	78.2	80.6	..	79.3	81.9	..	77.2	79.3
Russian Federation	92.0	..	97.3	93.0	..	..	91.0	..	..
Tajikistan	..	71.1	81.3	..	65.9	75.0	..	76.1	87.5
Ukraine	..	90.7	84.5	..	92.5	84.9	..	89.1	84.1
Uzbekistan	..	..	91.7	..	..	90.2	..	..	93.2

Source: UNECE Statistical database, compiled from national and international (UNESCO Institute for Statistics) official sources.

Note: The net enrolment ratio is the number of students of the official school-age group (defined by each country) enrolled in secondary-level education per 100 persons of the same age group.

a For 2006/2007: data refer to 2003/2004.

Table 5

Gross enrolment ratio in tertiary education by sex

Country	Total			Women			Men		
	1999/2000	2004/2005	2006/2007	1999/2000	2004/2005	2006/2007	1999/2000	2004/2005	2006/2007
European Union									
Austria	55.7	48.3	50.3	57.6	52.8	55.1	53.8	44.0	45.7
Belgium	57.8	62.3	62.1	61.5	68.9	69.3	54.2	56.0	55.1
Bulgaria	..	44.0	49.7	52.6	47.1	54.8	37.2	41.1	44.9
Cyprus	19.6	33.2	36.2	22.2	35.3	36.1	16.9	31.2	36.3
Czech Republic	29.4	48.1	54.3	29.9	51.8	60.9	28.9	44.6	48.0
Denmark	57.6	80.8	80.3	66.6	94.1	94.1	48.8	67.8	66.9
Estonia	55.6	66.0	65.0	65.9	82.8	81.2	45.6	49.8	49.6
Finland	82.8	92.0	93.8	90.9	100.8	103.7	75.0	83.6	84.3
France	53.3	55.3	54.7	58.7	62.0	61.5	48.1	48.8	48.1
Greece	51.2	90.4	90.8	53.7	96.7	95.5	49.0	84.6	86.5
Hungary	37.3	63.9	67.2	41.1	76.2	79.9	33.6	52.1	55.0
Ireland	48.6	58.3	61.2	53.7	65.2	68.5	43.7	51.7	54.1
Italy	48.6	64.4	67.1	54.8	74.5	78.8	42.6	54.7	56.0
Latvia	56.3	74.9	69.2	72.3	96.6	90.4	40.7	54.0	48.9
Lithuania	50.4	76.3	75.9	61.0	93.4	93.1	40.0	59.8	59.5
Luxembourg	9.6	12.0	10.0 [a]	10.1	13.0	10.5 [a]	9.2	11.0	9.4 [a]
Malta	21.4	31.5	33.0	23.5	36.4	39.0	19.4	26.8	27.0
Netherlands	52.1	59.0	60.1	53.0	61.1	62.9	51.2	57.0	57.4
Poland	49.7	64.1	66.9	58.2	75.0	78.2	41.5	53.5	56.0
Portugal	48.1	55.7	56.9	55.2	63.2	62.6	41.3	48.5	51.3
Romania	24.0	45.2	58.3	25.5	50.4	66.7	22.7	40.1	50.1
Slovakia	28.8	40.3	50.1	29.6	45.5	60.3	28.0	35.3	40.3
Slovenia	55.6	79.5	85.5	64.5	94.5	102.2	47.2	65.3	69.6
Spain	59.3	66.1	68.5	64.3	72.7	75.9	54.6	59.7	61.5
Sweden	67.2	81.0	74.5	80.0	98.9	91.5	54.9	63.9	58.4
United Kingdom	58.1	59.4	59.0	63.2	69.2	69.1	53.1	50.0	49.4
Other developed countries									
Canada	59.3	62.3 [b]	..	68.2	72.0 [b]	..	50.9	53.0 [b]	..
Iceland	45.5	71.0	72.3	57.0	93.5	94.9	34.2	49.1	50.8
Israel	49.7	58.1	60.4	58.6	66.7	69.1	41.2	49.9	52.1
Norway	69.2	78.5	75.9	82.5	95.3	93.3	56.5	62.3	59.2
Switzerland	37.7	45.4	47.2	32.4	42.3	45.5	42.9	48.5	48.9
United States	67.5	81.6	81.6	77.1	95.6	95.9	58.4	68.1	68.0
South-Eastern Europe									
Albania	16.1	19.3 [b]	..	18.6	23.4 [b]	..	13.4	14.9 [b]	..
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	33.5	..	..	..	..	..	..
Croatia	30.8	43.9	47.0	33.1	48.2	51.8	28.6	39.7	42.4
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	22.6	29.8	35.5	25.5	34.7	39.9	19.9	25.1	31.5
Turkey	23.2	31.5	37.1	18.8	26.9	32.1	27.5	36.0	41.9
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia									
Armenia	23.6	28.0	34.2	24.6	30.8	37.3	22.6	25.2	31.1
Azerbaijan	16.5	15.2	15.2	13.1	14.4	14.2	19.9	15.9	16.2
Belarus	53.4	63.6	68.4	60.8	73.6	80.2	46.2	54.0	57.0
Georgia	38.0	45.9	37.0	37.2	46.6	38.9	38.8	45.2	35.2
Kazakhstan	28.2	52.0	51.1	30.6	61.4	60.6	25.8	42.9	42.1
Kyrgyzstan	34.7	41.4	42.8	35.0	46.1	48.5	34.5	36.8	37.2
Republic of Moldova	32.8	37.3	40.7	37.2	44.3	47.3	28.4	30.5	34.3
Russian Federation	..	71.8	75.0	..	83.0	86.5	..	60.8	63.9
Tajikistan	14.0	17.4	19.8	7.1	9.0	10.9	20.8	25.7	28.7
Ukraine	48.9	68.5	76.4	52.3	75.7	84.8	45.7	61.6	68.3
Uzbekistan	13.0	9.7	9.9	11.8	8.0	8.2	14.1	11.3	11.5

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics database

Note: Enrolment in tertiary education expressed as percentage of population that is in the five-year age group following the age of leaving the secondary school. The age for each level of education is specific to each country. Tertiary level is defined as level 5 and 6 of ISCED 1997 for the academic year concerned.

a Data refer of school year 2005/2006.
b Data refer to school year 2003/2004.

Table 6A

Gender pay gap in gross monthly earnings, percentage

Country	1995	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008
European Union						
Austria	..	..	29.7	26.9	..	..
Belgium	..	26.5	24.7	23.6	..	..
Bulgaria	..	24.2	17.7	16.8	16.6	..
Cyprus	..	..	..	25.7	22.7	..
Czech Republic	..	..	24.9	24.6	24.8	26.0
Denmark [a]	..	..	..	17.6	17.7	
Estonia	..	..	31.6	33.3	..	..
Finland	21.4	21.2	19.1	19.8	19.8	..
France	19.4	18.6	18.5	..	..	..
Germany [a]		..	..	22.7	23.0	..
Greece [a]	..	..	..	20.7	21.5	22.0
Hungary	21.6	21.0	20.2	12.2	..	..
Ireland	25.2	20.9	19.1	..	..	..
Italy [a]	..	..	..	4.4	5.1	4.9
Latvia	21.7	21.4	18.1	17.6	16.1	15.2
Lithuania	29.7	18.3	17.6	17.9	20.7	19.3
Luxembourg	..	19.1	19.2	18.7	17.7	17.3
Netherlands	45.0	42.9	41.4	..	..	..
Poland	..	..	..	17.8	..	..
Portugal	..	29.8	24.9	32.8	..	..
Romania	..	..	14.1	13.1	10.6	..
Slovakia	..	25.0	28.4	26.9	25.8	..
Slovenia	15.0	12.2	6.9	6.9	..	..
Spain [b]			19.2	19.6	18.9	..
Sweden	15.0	17.6	16.3	15.9	16.1	..
United Kingdom [c]	..	26.9	23.3	23.7	23.6	..
Other developed countries						
Canada	35.8	38.3	36.0	35.3	34.3	
Iceland	..	35.4	30.6	30.7	30.8	28.1
Israel	39.6	38.4	36.8	36.6	35.8	36.9
Norway	..	16.5	15.3	15.4	15.7	15.0
Switzerland	..	21.3	..	18.9	..	..
United States	45.1	44.3	41.4	39.1	37.9	..
South-Eastern Europe						
Albania	..	31.1 [d]	..	..	..	..
Croatia	..	..	10.6	11.0	10.8	..
Montenegro	..	..	..	..	..	..
Serbia	..	..	7.3	6.7	3.7	..
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	17.5	..	..	..	..
Turkey	..	..	..	2.0	..	..
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia						
Armenia [e]	..	48.1	42.5	40.8	40.0	..
Azerbaijan	..	..	54.6	53.5	49.2	46.8
Belarus	20.9	19.0	20.9	20.1	21.6	26.1
Georgia	..	45.7	51.1	50.9	49.5	..
Kazakhstan	..	38.5	38.9	37.7	34.2	36.2
Kyrgyzstan	..	32.4	37.5	34.2	32.7	32.7
Republic of Moldova [e]	..	..	..	24.0	22.8	23.1
Russian Federation	..	..	39.3	..	..	..
Tajikistan	..	56.8	48.0	44.6	43.3	40.3
Ukraine	33.0	29.1	29.1	27.2	27.1	24.8

Source: UNECE Statistical database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat, ILO) official sources.

Note: Gender pay gap is the difference between men's and women's average gross monthly earnings from employment, shown as a percentage of men's average gross monthly earnings.

a Figures are calculated based on hourly full-time equivalent.
b Data correspond to full-time equivalent workers.
c Data do not include part-time workers.
d Data refer to October 1998.
e Data refer to net earnings.

Table 6B

Gender pay gap from hourly earnings, percentage

Country	1995	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008
European Union						
Austria	21.1	18.4	17.9	19.7	19.0	..
Belgium	..	18.2	16.7	14.5	..	..
Bulgaria	..	..	15.0	14.0	..	..
Cyprus	..	..	..	22.2	..	..
Czech Republic	..	..	23.3	23.2	23.5	24.8
Estonia	26.7	24.6	25.4	26.9	..	..
Finland	19.4	19.8	20.0	19.6	19.4	..
France	13.0	13.0	12.0	11.0	..	..
Germany [a]	..	..	..	22.7	23.0	..
Hungary	..	..	..	14.4	16.3	..
Ireland	20.0	19.0	9.0	9.0	..	..
Latvia	..	19.8	15.8	14.9	15.4	..
Lithuania	26.8	16.1	15.1	16.2	19.3	18.2
Luxembourg	..	15.1	14.3	14.0	13.6	14.7
Malta	..	11.0	4.0	3.0	..	..
Netherlands	24.0	21.1	18.3	..	..	..
Poland	..	..	..	12.1	..	..
Portugal	..	..	..	8.4	7.4	7.8
Slovakia	..	22.6	26.0	24.0	22.8	..
Slovenia	14.0	12.0	8.0	8.0	..	..
Spain	13.0	15.0	13.0	11.0	..	..
Sweden	15.0	18.0	16.0	16.0	..	..
United Kingdom	16.9	16.3	13.0	12.9	12.4	12.7
Other developed countries						
Canada	..	19.4	16.2	16.2	16.0	16.2
Iceland	..	35.1	28.4	27.5	28.2	24.5
Israel [b]	19.3	17.3	16.7	..	16.0	17.3
Norway	..	17.0	16.0	16.0	..	..
Switzerland	..	21.3	..	18.9	..	..
United States	..	16.7	12.9	13.2	12.6	12.7
Other countries						
Croatia	..	..	11.0	..	..	..
Azerbaijan	..	..	55.0	53.1	49.2	45.8
Kyrgyzstan [c]	..	32.4	37.5	34.2	32.7	32.7

Source: UNECE Statistical database and Eurostat, compiled from national and international official sources.

Note: Gender Pay Gap as difference in hourly earnings refers to the gender gap in average hourly earnings.

a Data do not cover employees in the industrial sectors: Agriculture and Forestry; Fishing and Public Administration, Defense, Compulsory Social Security.
b From 2006: data cover both, paid employees and self-employed.

c Figures for hourly earnings are obtained by dividing the monthly earnings figures by the total number of monthly working hours.

Table 7

Women in managerial positions, as percentage of total number of persons in managerial positions

Country	1995	2000	2005	2008
European Union				
Austria	23.9	28.4	27.2	28.3
Bulgaria	28.5 [a]	29.8	34.0	32.3
Cyprus [b]	..	14.4	15.1	16.0
Czech Republic	26.8	24.9	29.6	28.1
Denmark	19.2	24.2	24.2	23.6
Estonia	36.6	39.9	36.9	36.2
Finland	..	26.7	29.8	29.5
France [c]	36.4	35.0	37.4	38.6
Germany	26.0	27.1	28.3	..
Greece	22.1	25.1	26.5	28.2
Hungary	33.8	33.5	34.8	36.4
Ireland	27.6	26.3	30.3	32.5
Italy	15.7	14.3	32.4	33.2
Latvia	37.5 [d]	37.2	42.7	41.3
Lithuania	35.8 [a]	41.9	42.9	40.2
Luxembourg	24.6	27.2	23.5	..
Malta	..	18.2	18.5	15.9
Netherlands	20.3	26.6	25.5	28.1
Poland	34.7	32.5	32.8	36.1
Portugal	30.4	31.1	33.9	31.2
Romania	28.2	26.8	29.2	29.5
Slovakia	27.4	31.2	30.8	29.6
Slovenia	27.2	29.6	34.2	34.9
Spain	31.3	31.5	32.0	32.3
Sweden	..	30.7	29.9	32.1
United Kingdom	33.6	34.5	34.3	34.8
Other developed countries				
Canada [e]	34.4	35.5	35.9	36.0
Iceland	27.7	29.3	27.4	32.7
Israel	22.1	28.2	28.2	..
Norway	..	25.0	30.4	31.5
Switzerland	23.9	23.3	28.3	30.2
United States	..	40.5	42.5	..
South-Eastern Europe				
Croatia	22.6	24.7	24.1	26.5
Montenegro	..	..	19.7	..
Serbia [f]	..	..	24.8	..
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	..	28.5	..
Turkey	..	..	6.9	..
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia				
Azerbaijan	..	..	..	6.2
Belarus [g]	..	45.5 [h]	..	..
Georgia [i]	..	19.0	26.3	..
Kazakhstan	..	..	35.5	38.3
Kyrgyzstan	..	..	30.1	..
Republic of Moldova [j]	..	33.2	38.9	38.0
Russian Federation	37.5 [a]	35.6	39.0	37.1
Ukraine	..	36.7	38.2	38.6

Source: UNECE Statistical database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat and ILO) official

Note: Percentage of women in managerial positions is the percentage of female employed in the ISCO-88 category, legislators, senior officials and managers, over the total number of male and female employed of the same ISCO-88 category.

a Data refer to 1997.
b Data cover only the Government controlled area.
c Data do not cover overseas departments (DOM).
d Data refer to 1996.
e Data do not cover the three northern territories (Yukon, Northwest and Nunavuk).
f Data do not cover Kosovo and Metohia.
g Data refer to the national classification of occupations.
h Data refer to 1999.
i Data do not cover Abkhazia and South Ossetia (Tshinvali).
j Data do not cover Transdniestra.

Table 8

Female employers, as percentage of total number of employers

Country	1995	2000	2005	2008
European Union				
Austria	24.5	29.1	23.3	26.4
Belgium	13.8	21.1	21.7	22.2
Bulgaria	25.0	25.5	27.7	29.0
Cyprus [a]	..	10.6	12.1	10.8
Czech Republic	24.1	23.1	23.2	22.6
Denmark	18.9	16.4	16.4	19.8
Estonia [b]	26.1	32.4	23.6	23.0
Finland	32.4 [c]	24.0	24.7	24.5
France	21.5	21.4	22.2	26.3
Germany	21.3	22.5	24.1	23.9
Greece	12.9	18.2	19.2	20.0
Hungary	23.5	26.8	27.9	26.6
Ireland	15.9	18.5	17.6	18.1
Italy	22.5	24.0	21.4	22.3
Latvia	27.4 [d]	28.4	33.8	26.5
Lithuania [c]	37.9 [e]	38.8	28.6	23.2
Luxembourg	21.4	24.8	24.1	24.5
Netherlands	30.4	31.2 [f]	22.6	21.7
Poland	31.3	31.5	31.2	30.2
Portugal	25.0	25.0	25.6	27.7
Romania	27.4	22.8	24.4	22.9
Slovakia	24.5	28.5	25.2	23.4
Slovenia	28.7 [d]	23.1	27.1	24.4
Spain	17.6	20.5	24.2 [g]	25.5
Sweden	21.2	18.7	20.0	19.7
United Kingdom	22.4	23.6	24.3	22.5
Other developed countries				
Iceland	24.5	26.1	25.0	23.5
Israel	9.7	14.2	16.1	..
Norway	26.7 [f]	29.1 [f]	28.8	27.9
Switzerland	22.5	41.4	23.0	24.3
South-Eastern Europe				
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	..	27.4
Croatia	28.5 [d]	24.1	25.4	25.9
Montenegro	..	..	28.2	..
Serbia [h]	..	..	23.8	28.7
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	16.4	19.6	..
Turkey	3.6	3.9	4.5	6.0
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia				
Belarus	..	19.9 [i]	..	..
Georgia	..	12.0	18.8	..
Kazakhstan	..	..	23.2	..
Kyrgyzstan	..	17.7	22.3	..
Republic of Moldova [j]	..	16.2	23.0	30.8
Russian Federation	..	28.7	39.8	36.9
Ukraine [c, k]	56.8	50.7	52.0	51.7

Source: UNECE Statistical database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat and ILO) official sources.

Note: Employers are workers who hold self-employment jobs and have engaged, on a continuous basis, one or more persons to work for them in their business as employees.

a Data cover only the Government controlled area.
b Data include members of producers cooperatives.
c Data include own-account workers.
d Data refer to 1996.
e Data refer to 1997.
f Data include own-account workers and members of producers cooperatives.
g Break in series.
h Data do not cover Kosovo and Metohia.
i 2000 : data refer to 1999.
j Data do not cover Transdniestra.
k Data do not cover the persons who are still living in the area of Chernobyl contaminated with radioactive material.

Table 9

Women in national parliaments, percentage

Country	1997 [a]	2000	2005	2008
European Union				
Austria	26.8	26.8	33.9	32.8
Belgium	12.0	23.3	34.7	35.3
Bulgaria	13.3	10.8	20.8	21.7
Cyprus [b]	5.4	7.1	16.1	14.3
Czech Republic	15.0	15.0	17.0	15.5
Denmark	33.0	37.4	36.9	38.0
Estonia	12.9	17.8	18.8	20.8
Finland	33.5	36.5	37.5	41.5
France	6.4	10.9	12.2	18.2
Germany	26.2	30.9	32.8	31.6
Greece	6.3	8.7	14.0	14.7
Hungary	11.4	8.3	9.1	11.1
Ireland	13.9	12.0	13.3	13.3
Italy	11.1	11.1	11.5	21.3
Latvia	9.0	17.0	21.0	20.0
Lithuania	17.5	17.5	22.0	22.7
Luxembourg	20.0	16.7	23.3	23.3
Malta	5.8	9.2	9.2	8.7
Netherlands	31.3	36.0	36.7	39.3
Poland	13.0	13.0	20.2	20.2
Portugal	13.0	17.4	21.3	28.3
Romania	7.0	7.3	11.2	9.4
Slovakia	14.7	14.0	16.7	19.3
Slovenia	7.8	10.0	12.2	12.2
Spain	24.6	28.3	36.0	36.3
Sweden	40.4	42.7	45.3	47.0
United Kingdom	9.5	18.4	19.7	19.5
Other developed countries				
Canada	18.0	19.9	21.1	21.3
Iceland	25.4	34.9	30.2	33.3
Israel	7.5	12.5	15.0	14.2
Norway	39.4	36.4	38.2	36.1
Switzerland	21.0	23.0	25.0	28.5
United States	11.7	12.9	15.2	16.8
South-Eastern Europe				
Albania	12.1	5.2	6.4	7.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	28.6	16.7	11.9
Croatia	7.9	20.5	21.7	20.9
Montenegro	..	..	..	11.1
Serbia	..	..	..	21.6
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	3.3	6.7	19.2	30.0
Turkey	2.4	4.2	4.4	9.1
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia				
Armenia	6.3	3.1	5.3	9.2
Azerbaijan	12.0	12.0	10.5	11.4
Belarus	..	4.5	29.4	29.1
Georgia [c]	6.8	7.2	9.4	6.0
Kazakhstan	13.4	10.4	10.4	15.9
Kyrgyzstan	1.4	10.0	3.2	25.6
Republic of Moldova [d]	4.8	8.9	20.8	21.8
Russian Federation	10.2	7.7	9.8	14.0
Tajikistan	2.8	15.0	17.5	17.5
Turkmenistan	18.0	26.0	16.0	16.0
Ukraine	3.8	7.8	5.3	8.2
Uzbekistan	6.0	7.2	17.5	17.5

Source: UNECE Statistical database, compiled from national and international official sources (Inter-Parliamentary Union).

Note: Percentage of women who are in the lower or single house of the parliaments (on 30th June of the reference year) from the total number of men and women who are in the lower or single house.

a Data refer to 1 January 1997.
b Data cover only the Government controlled area.
c Data do not cover Abkhazia and South Ossetia (Tshinvali).
d Data do not cover Transdniestria.

Table 10

Life expectancy at birth by sex

	Total				Women				Men			
Country	**1995**	**2000**	**2005**	**2007**	**1995**	**2000**	**2005**	**2007**	**1995**	**2000**	**2005**	**2007**
European Union												
Austria	76.9	78.4	79.6	80.4	80.1	81.2	82.3	83.1	73.4	75.2	76.7	77.5
Belgium	77.0	77.9	79.1	79.9	80.4	81.0	81.8	82.6	73.5	74.6	76.2	77.1
Bulgaria	71.0	71.6	72.5	73.0	74.9	75.0	76.2	76.6	67.4	68.4	69.0	69.5
Cyprus	..	..	78.9	80.0	79.8	80.4	80.9	82.2	75.3	75.3	76.8	77.8
Czech Republic	73.3	75.1	76.1	77.0	76.8	78.5	79.2	80.2	69.7	71.7	72.9	73.8
Denmark	75.3	76.9	78.3	78.4	77.9	79.2	80.5	80.6	72.7	74.5	76.0	76.2
Estonia	67.7	70.8	72.8	73.1	74.3	76.2	78.1	78.8	61.4	65.2	67.3	67.2
Finland	76.8	77.9	79.4	79.7	80.4	81.3	82.8	83.2	72.9	74.3	75.8	76.1
France	..	79.2	80.3	..	82.2	83.0	83.7	..	73.9	75.3	76.8	..
Germany	76.7	78.3	79.4	80.1	79.9	81.2	82.0	82.7	73.3	75.1	76.7	77.4
Greece	77.5	78.0	79.2	79.4	80.0	80.6	81.6	81.8	75.0	75.4	76.8	77.1
Hungary	70.0	71.8	73.0	73.6	74.8	76.2	77.2	77.8	65.4	67.6	68.7	69.4
Ireland	75.5	76.6	79.6	79.8	78.3	79.2	81.8	82.1	72.8	74.0	77.3	77.4
Italy	78.3	79.9	80.9	..	81.5	82.8	83.6	..	75.0	76.9	78.0	..
Latvia	66.3	70.6	71.1	71.2	72.9	76.1	76.6	76.5	60.0	64.9	65.4	65.8
Lithuania	69.2	72.2	71.3	71.0	75.1	77.5	77.4	77.3	63.3	66.8	65.4	64.9
Luxembourg	76.8	78.0	79.6	79.5	80.6	81.3	82.3	82.2	73.0	74.6	76.7	76.7
Malta	77.2	78.4	79.4	79.9	79.6	80.3	81.4	82.2	74.8	76.2	77.2	77.5
Netherlands	77.7	78.3	79.7	80.5	80.6	80.8	81.8	82.6	74.7	75.6	77.4	78.2
Poland	72.0	74.0	75.1	75.4	76.4	78.1	79.4	79.9	67.7	69.8	70.8	71.0
Portugal	75.4	76.7	78.2	79.1	79.0	80.2	81.3	82.2	71.7	73.2	74.9	75.9
Romania	69.4	71.2	72.2	73.3	73.5	74.8	75.8	76.9	65.5	67.8	68.8	69.7
Slovakia	72.4	73.3	74.1	74.6	76.5	77.5	78.1	78.4	68.4	69.2	70.2	70.6
Slovenia	74.7	76.2	77.5	78.4	78.5	79.9	80.9	82.0	70.8	72.2	73.9	74.7
Spain	78.1	79.4	80.3	81.0	81.8	82.9	83.7	84.3	74.4	75.8	77.0	77.8
Sweden	79.0	79.8	80.7	81.1	81.7	82.0	82.9	83.1	76.2	77.4	78.5	79.0
United Kingdom	76.8	78.1	79.3	79.9	79.4	80.4	81.4	81.9	74.1	75.6	77.1	77.7
Other developed countries												
Canada	78.2	79.4	80.4	..	81.1	81.9	82.7	..	75.1	76.7	78.0	..
Iceland	78.0	79.7	81.5	81.5	80.1	81.6	83.5	83.4	76.0	77.8	79.6	79.6
Israel	77.5	79.0	80.2	..	79.4	81.1	82.1	..	75.5	76.7	78.2	..
Norway	77.8	78.8	80.3	80.6	80.9	81.5	82.7	82.9	74.8	76.0	77.8	78.3
Switzerland	78.7	80.0	81.4	82.0	81.9	82.8	84.0	84.4	75.4	77.0	78.7	79.5
United States	75.8	76.8	77.4	..	78.9	79.3	79.9	..	72.5	74.1	74.9	..
South-Eastern Europe												
Albania [a]	74.9	..	..	75.2	78.3	78.6	78.6	77.8	71.5	72.1	72.1	72.9
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	..	74.8	75.1	76.7	77.5	77.5	69.5	71.3	72.1	72.1
Croatia	73.3	73.0	75.4	..	77.2	76.7	78.9	..	69.3	69.1	71.9	..
Montenegro	..	..	74.2	74.6	76.7	76.3	77.0	77.2	71.4	71.0	71.4	72.1
Serbia [b]	72.2	72.3	72.7	73.3	74.7	75.1	75.4	76.1	69.9	69.5	70.0	70.7
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	71.8	73.0	73.8	73.8	74.0	75.2	75.9	75.8	69.8	70.8	71.6	71.8
Turkey [a]	70.2	70.4	71.3	71.8	67.8	72.8	73.8	74.3	65.6	68.1	68.9	69.4
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia												
Armenia	71.2	72.9	73.5	73.6	74.9	75.8	76.5	76.7	67.3	70.1	70.3	70.3
Azerbaijan	69.1	71.8	72.4	72.4	72.9	75.1	75.1	75.1	65.2	68.6	69.6	69.7
Belarus	..	69.0	68.8	70.3	74.3	74.7	75.1	76.2	62.9	63.4	62.9	64.5
Georgia [a]	70.3	71.3	74.0	74.2	74.2	75.0	77.6	79.0	66.3	67.5	70.0	69.3
Kazakhstan	64.6	65.8	65.9	66.4	70.4	71.6	71.7	72.3	59.3	60.2	60.4	60.8
Kyrgyzstan	65.5	67.8	67.7	..	69.9	72.0	71.8	..	61.3	63.8	63.8	..
Republic of Moldova	65.9	67.8	67.8	69.0	69.7	71.4	71.7	72.7	62.0	64.0	63.8	65.2
Russian Federation	64.7	65.4	65.4	67.5	71.7	72.4	72.4	73.9	58.3	59.2	59.0	61.4
Tajikistan	66.1	68.2	70.6	71.7	68.9	70.3	73.2	74.0	63.5	66.1	68.1	69.4
Turkmenistan	..	..	..	..	67.5	71.8	72.7	..	61.9	64.9	65.8	..
Ukraine	66.9	67.9	67.3	..	72.6	73.6	73.4	..	61.3	62.3	61.5	..
Uzbekistan	69.1	70.8	71.8	72.7	71.7	73.2	74.1	75.0	66.4	68.4	69.6	70.3

Source: UNECE Statistical database, compiled from national and international (WHO European Health for All Database, Eurostat and UNICEF TransMONEE) official sources.

Note: Life expectancy at birth is the average number of years a newborn is expected to live, if the prevailing patterns of mortality at the time of her/his birth were to stay the same throughout her/his life.

a For 2007: data refer to 2008.

b From 2000: data do not cover Kosovo and Metohia.

Table 11

Children under five mortality rate, per 1,000 live births

Country	1990	1995	2000	2005	2007
European Union					
Austria	9	7	6	5	4
Belgium	10	8	6	5	5
Bulgaria	18	19	17	13	12
Cyprus	11	9	7	5	5
Czech Republic	12	8	6	4	4
Denmark	9	7	6	5	4
Estonia	18	16	11	7	6
Finland	7	5	4	4	4
France	9	7	5	5	4
Germany	9	7	5	5	4
Greece	11	8	7	5	4
Hungary	17	13	10	8	7
Ireland	9	7	7	5	4
Italy	10	8	6	4	4
Latvia	17	19	15	10	9
Lithuania	16	15	11	9	8
Luxembourg	9	6	5	4	3
Malta	11	10	7	6	5
Netherlands	8	7	6	6	5
Poland	17	14	10	7	7
Portugal	15	10	7	5	4
Romania	32	27	23	17	15
Slovakia	15	12	10	8	8
Slovenia	11	7	5	4	4
Spain	9	7	5	5	4
Sweden	7	5	4	4	3
United Kingdom	9	7	7	6	6
Other developed countries					
Canada	8	7	6	6	6
Iceland	7	5	4	3	3
Israel	12	9	7	6	5
Norway	9	6	5	4	4
Switzerland	8	7	6	5	5
United States	11	10	8	8	8
South-Eastern Europe					
Albania	46	34	24	17	15
Bosnia and Herzegovina	22	19	17	15	14
Croatia	13	10	8	7	6
Montenegro	16	15	14	11	10
Serbia	..	16	13	9	8
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	38	26	16	17	17
Turkey	82	63	44	29	23
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia					
Armenia	56	48	36	27	24
Azerbaijan	98	93	69	46	39
Belarus	24	21	18	15	13
Georgia	47	40	35	32	30
Kazakhstan	60	56	44	35	32
Kyrgyzstan	74	61	50	42	38
Republic of Moldova	37	30	24	20	18
Russian Federation	27	27	24	17	15
Tajikistan	117	114	94	74	67
Turkmenistan	99	87	71	55	50
Ukraine	21	21	19	17	16
Uzbekistan	74	68	62	46	41

Source: MDG database of the UN Statistics Division

Note: The under-five mortality rate (U5MR) is the probability (expressed as a rate per 1,000 live births) of a child born in a specified year dying before reaching the age of five if subject to current age-specific mortality rates.

Table 12

Infant mortality rate, per 1,000 live births by sex

	Total				Girls				Boys			
Country	**1995**	**2000**	**2005**	**2007**	**1995**	**2000**	**2005**	**2007**	**1995**	**2000**	**2005**	**2007**
European Union												
Austria	5.4	4.8	4.2	3.7	4.9	4.2	4.0	3.3	5.9	5.4	4.4	4.1
Belgium	5.9	4.8	3.7	4.0	4.5	4.4	..	..	7.2	5.2	..	..
Bulgaria	14.8	13.3	10.4	9.2	13.0	12.0	9.0	..	16.6	14.6	11.8	..
Cyprus	..	5.6	4.7	3.2	..	5.5	5.0	3.4	..	5.7	4.5	2.9
Czech Republic	7.7	4.1	3.4	3.1	6.4	3.5	2.7	2.5	8.9	4.6	4.0	3.7
Denmark	5.1	5.0	4.4	4.0	4.5	4.3	3.7	..	5.6	5.6	5.2	..
Estonia	14.9	8.4	5.4	5.0	13.1	7.2	5.1	..	16.6	9.5	5.7	..
Finland	4.0	3.6	3.1	2.7	3.6	3.1	2.9	2.3	4.4	4.1	3.3	3.1
France	4.9	4.4	3.6	..	4.3	3.8	3.2	..	5.4	5.0	4.0	..
Germany	5.3	4.4	3.9	3.9	4.6	3.9	3.5	..	5.9	4.9	4.4	..
Greece	8.2	5.4	3.8	3.5	7.3	4.8	3.6	3.3	9.0	6.1	4.0	3.8
Hungary	10.7	9.2	6.2	5.9	9.3	8.6	5.4	..	12.0	9.8	7.0	..
Ireland	6.4	6.2	3.9	..	5.8	5.1	4.2	..	6.9	7.2	3.5	..
Italy	6.1	4.3	..	3.7	5.3	4.0	..	..	6.9	4.5	..	..
Latvia	18.8	10.4	7.8	8.7	16.7	8.9	7.7	9.3	20.8	11.8	7.9	8.3
Lithuania	12.5	8.6	6.8	5.9	11.0	8.9	6.0	6.0	13.9	8.3	7.7	5.8
Luxembourg	4.1	3.0	2.6	1.8	3.4	2.9	3.1	..	4.7	3.0	2.2	..
Malta	8.9	6.0	6.0	6.5	6.8	5.9	4.8	8.7	10.8	6.0	7.0	4.4
Netherlands	5.5	5.1	4.9	4.1	4.6	4.7	4.6	3.4	6.2	5.5	5.2	4.7
Poland	13.6	8.1	6.4	6.0	12.4	7.4	5.8	5.4	14.7	8.8	7.0	6.5
Portugal	7.4	5.5	3.5	..	6.6	5.0	3.5	..	8.2	6.0	3.5	..
Romania	21.2	18.6	15.0	12.0	18.6	16.6	13.0	10.5	23.7	20.6	16.8	13.4
Slovakia	11.0	8.6	7.2	6.1	9.6	7.2	6.3	..	12.4	9.9	8.0	..
Slovenia	5.5	4.9	4.2	2.8	5.1	4.2	3.9	2.9	6.0	5.6	4.4	2.7
Spain	5.5	4.4	3.8	3.7	5.1	4.1	3.3	..	5.9	4.7	4.2	..
Sweden	4.2	3.4	2.4	2.5	3.6	2.8	2.3	..	4.7	4.0	2.5	..
United Kingdom	6.2	5.6	5.1	4.8	5.4	5.0	4.4	4.3	6.9	6.1	5.7	5.3
Other developed countries												
Canada	6.1	5.3	5.4	..	5.5	4.7	5.0	..	6.7	5.9	5.9	..
Iceland	6.1	3.0	2.3	2.0	4.9	1.4	1.9	0.9	7.2	4.6	2.8	3.0
Israel	6.8	5.5	4.4	..	6.2	4.7	4.1	..	7.5	6.3	4.6	..
Norway	4.1	3.8	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.3	2.8	..	5.0	4.3	3.3	..
Switzerland	5.0	4.9	4.2	3.9	4.4	4.4	3.6	3.9	5.6	5.3	4.8	4.0
United States	7.6	6.9	6.9	..	6.8	6.2	6.2	..	8.3	7.6	7.6	..
South-Eastern Europe												
Albania	23.3	11.6	7.6	5.6	21.5	10.6	..	..	24.9	12.6	..	..
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	9.7	6.7	..	..	8.5	5.9	..	..	10.8	7.5	..
Croatia	9.0	7.4	5.7	..	7.6	7.1	5.6	..	10.2	7.7	5.8	..
Montenegro	12.1	11.1	9.5	7.4	12.5	9.5	8.9	..	11.7	12.6	10.0	..
Serbia [a]	13.8	10.6	8.0	7.1	12.8	8.8	6.3	6.0	14.8	12.4	9.6	8.2
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	24.3	13.2	12.8	10.3	24.4	12.4	11.9	..	24.2	13.9	13.6	..
Turkey	43.0	28.9	23.6	21.7	38.0	25.4	20.6	19.0	47.7	32.3	26.4	24.3
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia												
Armenia	14.2	15.8	12.3	10.8	12.6	12.3	..	..	15.7	18.6	..	..
Azerbaijan	23.3	12.8	9.3	11.6	22.2	12.0	8.7	..	26.2	13.5	9.8	..
Belarus	13.3	9.3	7.1	5.2	10.9	7.9	5.7	..	15.6	10.7	8.4	..
Georgia	28.4	22.5	19.7	13.3	24.3	19.2	19.9	..	32.1	25.6	19.6	..
Kazakhstan	27.8	19.1	15.1	14.4	23.4	16.1	13.3	12.2	32.0	21.9	16.8	16.6
Kyrgyzstan	27.7	23.0	29.7	..	23.3	19.3	26.8	..	31.8	26.5	32.4	..
Republic of Moldova	21.5	18.4	12.4	11.3	18.8	15.0	12.3	11.0	24.1	21.6	12.5	11.5
Russian Federation	18.2	15.2	11.0	9.2	15.6	13.1	9.4	..	20.7	17.2	12.6	..
Tajikistan	..	12.6	11.8	..	..	11.2	10.4	..	..	13.9	13.1	..
Turkmenistan	42.8	21.4	12.1	..	38.0	..	..	..	47.4	..	..	..
Ukraine	14.8	12.0	10.0	11.0	12.8	9.9	8.7	..	16.7	13.9	11.2	..
Uzbekistan	26.3	19.1	15.0	..	22.5	16.7	13.1	..	29.9	21.4	16.7	..

Source: UNECE Statistical database, compiled from national and international (WHO European Health for All database, Eurostat and UNICEF TransMONEE) official sources.

Note: The infant mortality rate is the number of deaths of infants under one year of age per 1,000 live births in a given year.

a Data do not cover Kosovo and Metohia.

Table 13

Maternal deaths rate, per 100,000 live births

Country	1990	1995	2000	2005	2007	2008
European Union						
Austria	6.6	1.1	2.6	3.8	3.9	2.6
Belgium	3.2	9.5	..	..	..	..
Bulgaria	20.9	13.9	17.6	11.3	..	..
Cyprus	..	0.0	0.0	24.3	..	..
Czech Republic	8.4	6.2	9.9	14.7	2.6	5.9
Denmark	1.6	10.0	..	3.1	14.0	7.7
Estonia	31.4	51.8	45.9	13.9	0.0	0.0
Finland	6.1	1.6	5.3	5.2	1.7	8.4
France	10.4	9.6	6.5	5.3	7.6	..
Germany	9.1	5.4	5.6	4.1	4.1	..
Greece	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.8	..
Hungary	20.7	15.2	10.3	5.1	8.2	17.2
Ireland	3.8	0.0	1.8	1.6	1.4	2.7
Italy	8.6	3.2	3.0		2.3	
Latvia	23.7	37.1	24.7	4.6	25.8	12.5
Lithuania	22.9	29.1	11.7	13.1	6.2	8.6
Luxembourg	20.3	18.5	17.5	18.6	18.3	..
Malta	0.0	21.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	23.8
Netherlands	7.6	7.4	8.7	8.5	5.0	4.3
Poland	12.8	12.7	10.8	3.0	2.8	..
Portugal	10.3	8.4	2.5	..	.	..
Romania	83.6	47.8	32.8	16.7	15.4	13.5
Slovakia	6.3	8.1	1.8	3.7	0.0	3.5
Slovenia	8.9	5.3	22.0	16.6	15.1	..
Spain	5.5	4.4	3.8	3.9	..	..
Sweden	3.2	3.9	4.4	5.9	1.9	..
United Kingdom	7.6	7.0	6.8	7.1	7.3	..
Other developed countries						
Canada	..	..	..	7.0	..	..
Iceland	21.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	..
Israel	12.6	6.0	3.7	4.9	7.3	6.4
Norway	3.3	6.6	3.4	3.5	6.8	..
Switzerland	6.0	8.5	6.4	5.5	1.3	..
United States	..	..	..	11.0	..	..
South-Eastern Europe						
Albania	37.8	29.1	22.3	..	15.1	19.3
Bosnia and Herzegovina	10.5	..	5.1	8.7	3.0	..
Croatia	10.8	12.0	6.9	7.1	14.3	6.9
Montenegro	..	..	..	..	12.8	..
Serbia	..	..	9.5	13.9	7.3	14.5
TFYR Macedonia	..	21.8	13.7	13.3	0.0	0.0
Turkey	180.0	55.0	..	28.5	21.3	19.4
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia						
Armenia	40.1	34.7	72.9	26.7	15.0	36.4
Azerbaijan	9.3	37.0	37.6	28.9	34.9	26.3
Belarus	21.8	13.8	24.6	15.5	6.8	2.8
Georgia	20.5	55.1	49.2	23.4	20.2	14.1
Kazakhstan	73.2	76.7	61.6	40.9	47.5	33.3
Kyrgyzstan	62.9	67.3	46.5	61.0	62.5	58.9
Republic of Moldova	44.1	40.8	27.1	21.2	18.4	43.6
Russian Federation	47.4	53.3	39.7	25.4	..	..
Tajikistan	97.7	97.7	48.4	33.2	..	..
Turkmenistan	42.3	49.6	..	..	..	14.8
Ukraine	32.4	32.3	24.7	17.6	19.9	15.5
Uzbekistan	34.1	33.0	34.5	29.2	25.0	21.4

Source: WHO European Health for All database, UNSD MDG database and UNICEF Transmonee database

Note: A maternal death is death of a woman while pregnant or within 42 days of termination of pregnancy, irrespective of the duration and site of the pregnancy, from any cause related to or aggravated by the pregnancy or its management, but not from accidental or incidental causes.

Table 14

Abortions, per 1,000 live births

Country	1990	1995	2000	2005	2007
European Union					
Austria	39	28	30	23	..
Belgium	..	97	120	140	..
Bulgaria	1 375	1 349	833	588	499
Czech Republic	852	515	381	259	222
Denmark	325	254	234	235	..
Estonia	1 319	1 308	975	670	563
Finland	187	157	193	189	179
France	259	237	..	..	..
Germany	160	128	176	181	171
Greece	99	133	175	..	..
Hungary	719	687	607	499	449
Italy	284	257	248	233	..
Latvia	1 030	1 201	851	595	508
Lithuania	857	759	476	327	297
Netherlands	93	110	132	153	..
Poland	..	1	0	1	1
Portugal	..	..	5	7	..
Romania	3 153	2 125	1 100	739	639
Slovakia	702	584	335	265	247
Slovenia	659	569	464	322	261
Spain	93	136	160	197	..
Sweden	303	304	343	345	346
United Kingdom [a]	247	239	291	286	..
Other developed countries					
Canada	230	286	322	283	..
Iceland	150	189	229	203	199
Israel [b]	150	151	137	133	128
Norway	255	228	247	247	259
Switzerland	155	144	157	148	..
United States	387	349	324	..	..
South-Eastern Europe					
Albania	318	442	410	237	265
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	..	..	..
Croatia	697	285	172	107	109
Montenegro	..	429	..	266	215
Serbia [c]	..	..	574	369	356
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	619	492	389	295	268
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia					
Armenia	327	628	343	291	287
Azerbaijan [d]	134	200	150	138	147
Belarus	1 835	1 911	1 301	714	447
Georgia [e]	659	702	306	423	419
Kazakhstan	702	807	617	450	413
Kyrgyzstan [f]	416	231	165	116	108
Republic of Moldova [g]	1 063	1 014	705	442	417
Russian Federation	2 063	2 028	1 688	1 189	..
Tajikistan	196	169	132	107	95
Turkmenistan	285	260	169	134	..
Ukraine	1 551	1 502	1 128	619	445
Uzbekistan	278	175	117	89	70

Source: UNECE Statistical database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat, UN Statistics Division Demographic Yearbook, WHO European Health for All database and UNICEF TransMONEE) official sources.

Note: Legal abortions refer to legally induced early foetal deaths and do not cover spontaneous abortions (i.e. miscarriages). The abortion rate is defined as the recorded number of abortions per 1,000 live births during a given year.

a Data do not cover Northern Ireland.

b Including data for East Jerusalem and Israeli residents in certain other territories under occupation by Israeli military forces since June 1967.
Data refer to applications for abortions and not to actual abortions performed.

c Data do not cover Kosovo and Metohia.

d Data include an estimate of illegal abortions.

e From 1995 : data do not cover Abkhazia and South Ossetia (Tshinvali).

f Data include miscarriages.

g From 2000 : data do not cover Transdniestra.

Table 15

Adolescent fertility rate, live births per 1,000 women aged 15-19

Country	1990	1995	2000	2005	2006	2007
European Union						
Austria	21	17	14	13	12	11
Belgium	12	10	..	..	..	..
Bulgaria	71	52	46	38	40	41
Cyprus [a]	34	17	10	6	6	5
Czech Republic	45	25	13	11	11	11
Denmark	9	9	8	6	6	6
Estonia	50	38	26	21	22	24
Finland [b]	12	10	10	10	9	9
France	13	..	12	12	..	..
Germany [c]	10	9	13	11	10	10
Greece	20	13	9	10	11	11
Hungary	40	31	23	20	20	19
Ireland [d]	16	15	19	17	17	..
Italy	9	7	7	6	..	..
Latvia	50	30	18	16	18	18
Lithuania	41	41	25	19	19	19
Luxembourg	14	11	12	12	10	10
Malta	..	10	17	16	17	18
Netherlands	8	6	7	6	5	5
Poland	31	..	17	13	14	..
Portugal [e]	24	20	22	19	17	17
Romania	51	42	39	34	35	35
Slovakia	45	32	24	20	20	21
Slovenia	25	13	8	6	5	5
Spain	12	8	9	11	..	..
Sweden	14	9	7	6	6	6
United Kingdom [f]	33	28	29	26	..	..
Other developed countries						
Canada [g]	25	24	17	13	..	..
Iceland	30	23	23	14	14	14
Israel [h]	20	18	17	15	14	14
Norway [i]	17	14	12	8	9	9
Switzerland	7	6	6	5	5	4
United States	60	57	..	40	42	..
South-Eastern Europe						
Albania	15	23	16	16	13	..
Bosnia and Herzegovina	40	..	20	15	15	16
Croatia	27	19	16	14	14	14
Montenegro	26	24	21	16	16	17
Serbia [j]	42	33	26	23	23	22
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	44	31	22	20	20
Turkey [k]	50	50	..	..	..	..
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia						
Armenia [l]	70	66	33	27	25	25
Azerbaijan [l]	27	40	29	34	37	39
Belarus [l]	44	39	27	21	22	22
Georgia [l, m]	58	64	40	38	36	36
Kazakhstan [l]	53	50	31	27	28	29
Kyrgyzstan [l]	47	32	34	26	28	29
Republic of Moldova [l, n]	58	62	36	29	29	26
Russian Federation [l]	55	45	28	27	29	29
Tajikistan [l]	40	52	..	..	..	..
Turkmenistan [l]	24	25	26	..	..	..
Ukraine [l, o]	61	54	40	28	29	30
Uzbekistan [l]	44	59	21	9	9	..

Source: UNECE Statistical database, compiled from national and international (Eurostat, UN Statistics Division Demographic Yearbook, WHO European health for all database and UNICEF TransMONEE) official sources.

Note: Adolescent fertility rate is the number of live births to women aged 15-19 per 1,000 women aged 15-19.

a Data cover only the Government controlled area.
b Data include nationals temporarily outside the country.
c 1990 : data cover only West Germany (Federal Republic of Germany). From 1995 : data refer to reunified Germany, i.e. include the ex-German Democratic Republic (East Germany).
d Data are tabulated by date of registration (rather than occurrence) and refer to births registered within one year of occurrence. 2005: provisional data.
e Data refer to resident mothers.
f Data are tabulated by date of occurrence for England and Wales and by date of registration for Northern Ireland and Scotland.
g Data include Canadian residents temporarily in the United States but exclude United States residents temporarily in Canada.
h Data include East Jerusalem and Israeli residents in certain other territories under occupation by Israeli military forces since June 1967.
i Age classification is based on year of birth of mother rather than the exact age of mother at birth of child.
j Data do not cover Kosovo and Metohia. Data are tabulated by date of registration (rather than occurrence).
k 1990, 1995 : data refer to 1989, 1997.
l Data do not cover infants born alive with less than 28 weeks gestation, less than 1,000 grams in weight and 35 centimeters in length, who die within seven days of birth.
m From 1995 : data do not cover Abkhazia and South Ossetia (Tshinvali).
n From 1995 : data do not cover Transdniestra.
o 2000 : data refer to 1998.

Table 16

Tuberculosis incidence, per 100,000 population

Country	1995	2000	2005	2007
European Union				
Austria	17.9	14.4	12.8	12.4
Belgium	18.0	15.6	13.3	11.8
Bulgaria	37.6	44.0	39.8	38.8
Cyprus	7.1	5.8	5.1	4.9
Czech Republic	20.2	15.3	10.4	8.8
Denmark	11.6	9.4	8.3	8.1
Estonia	53.4	65.5	42.6	38.1
Finland	12.7	10.4	6.2	5.9
France	20.0	16.2	14.3	13.9
Germany	16.2	11.3	7.1	5.9
Greece	25.7	20.8	18.3	17.8
Hungary	48.3	36.0	22.0	16.7
Ireland	17.7	14.4	12.7	13.2
Italy	10.6	8.6	7.6	7.4
Latvia	60.2	83.4	62.7	53.0
Lithuania	65.3	76.7	63.5	68.0
Luxembourg	17.6	14.2	12.6	12.2
Malta	8.6	7.0	6.2	6.0
Netherlands	10.8	8.8	7.7	7.5
Poland	50.6	35.2	26.5	25.2
Portugal	58.6	45.9	34.4	29.6
Romania	111.6	136.4	134.1	114.9
Slovakia	40.9	26.2	17.3	16.6
Slovenia	32.7	23.0	14.4	12.9
Spain	42.7	34.5	30.5	29.6
Sweden	6.4	5.2	5.7	6.0
United Kingdom	12.0	11.7	14.4	15.3
Other developed countries				
Canada	7.3	5.9	5.2	5.1
Iceland	4.6	3.7	3.4	3.6
Israel	10.9	8.8	7.8	7.5
Norway	8.0	6.5	5.7	5.5
Switzerland	12.6	9.0	7.2	6.1
United States	8.0	5.6	4.5	4.2
South-Eastern Europe				
Albania	27.3	25.4	20.0	16.9
Bosnia and Herzegovina	84.4	62.8	52.2	51.1
Croatia	66.4	49.5	41.1	40.3
Montenegro	..	..	33.0	32.4
Serbia	..	..	33.0	32.4
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	48.3	36.0	29.9	29.3
Turkey	39.7	31.3	28.9	29.6
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia				
Armenia	46.5	70.7	71.8	72.3
Azerbaijan	49.6	75.4	76.6	77.1
Belarus	54.3	73.5	61.0	61.0
Georgia	54.2	82.3	83.7	84.3
Kazakhstan	61.8	141.2	137.1	129.0
Kyrgyzstan	76.9	134.9	123.9	121.3
Republic of Moldova	90.7	137.8	140.0	141.0
Russian Federation	73.0	112.7	106.0	110.4
Tajikistan	64.8	117.4	192.2	230.7
Turkmenistan	52.4	92.3	69.8	68.5
Ukraine	51.3	83.9	101.6	101.5
Uzbekistan	76.3	92.7	117.5	112.6

Source: MDG database of the UN Statistics Division

Note: Number of newly diagnosed tuberculosis cases, all forms during the given calendar year per 100,000 population.

Table 17

Tuberculosis treatment success rate under DOTS, percentage

Country	1995	2000	2005	2006
European Union				
Austria	..	73.2	75.2	70.9
Belgium	..	..	66.4	73.2
Bulgaria	..	..	85.8	79.7
Cyprus	..	..	62.5	87.5
Czech Republic	60.2	70.2	71.7	68.9
Denmark	..	..	82.8	77.4
Estonia	..	69.6	71.6	68.2
Germany	..	77.3	70.9	..
Hungary	..	64.2	45.1	45.6
Italy	79.7	73.5	67.2	..
Latvia	61.1	72.2	73.5	73.3
Lithuania	..	91.7	70.0	73.9
Malta	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Netherlands	71.9	76.1	83.7	..
Poland	..	72.4	76.9	75.2
Portugal	68.7	79.3	88.9	87.5
Romania	71.9 [a]	79.8	81.9	82.6
Slovakia	64.2	81.5	92.4	80.5
Slovenia	89.6	84.1	84.4	91.6
Sweden	..	..	..	63.4
Other developed countries				
Canada	..	35.0	67.5	56.9
Iceland	..	..	100.0	..
Israel	..	77.5	77.3	74.2
Norway	77.0	70.3	91.5	92.7
United States	75.7	83.2	63.8	64.2
South-Eastern Europe				
Albania	..	..	76.8	92.9
Bosnia and Herzegovina	93.4 [b]	94.3	96.5	96.7
Croatia	..	..	..	29.5
Serbia	..	..	84.6	83.9
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	85.8	84.4	87.1
Turkey	..	..	89.5	90.7
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia				
Armenia	82.9	87.0	72.5	69.3
Azerbaijan	85.5 [b]	90.8	59.1	59.6
Belarus	..	..	73.1	70.0
Georgia	58.4	62.7	72.6	75.5
Kazakhstan	..	78.6	71.1	72.1
Kyrgyzstan	87.5 [a]	82.2	84.7	82.2
Republic of Moldova	..	83.3	62.0	62.3
Russian Federation	64.8	68.0	57.6	58.3
Tajikistan	..	..	86.2	84.4
Turkmenistan	..	69.5	81.1	83.7
Ukraine	..	..	..	59.2
Uzbekistan	..	80.5	80.5	80.6

Source: MDG database of the UN Statistics Division

Note: Treatment success rate is the proportion of registered patients who were cured or who completed treatment to all registered cases. DOTS (Direct Observed Therapy Short Course) is the method of the therapy that is considered the most cost-effective strategy to reduce tuberculosis cases and deaths.

a Data refer to 1997.
b Data refer to 1996.

Table 18

Carbon dioxide emissions, kg per $1 GDP (PPP)				
Country	**1995**	**2000**	**2005**	**2006**
European Union				
Austria	0.29	0.26	0.29	0.27
Belgium	0.46	0.40	0.37	0.35
Bulgaria	1.15	0.91	0.76	0.73
Czech Republic	0.81	0.73	0.60	0.57
Cyprus	0.44	0.43	0.41	0.40
Denmark	0.42	0.32	0.29	0.31
Estonia	1.57	1.01	0.75	0.65
Finland	0.52	0.40	0.35	0.40
France	0.26	0.24	0.22	0.21
Germany	0.40	0.35	0.34	0.33
Greece	0.46	0.46	0.40	0.38
Hungary	0.54	0.43	0.36	0.34
Ireland	0.46	0.37	0.30	0.28
Italy	0.31	0.29	0.30	0.29
Latvia	0.59	0.35	0.26	0.25
Lithuania	0.56	0.37	0.30	0.28
Luxembourg	0.48	0.34	0.38	0.36
Malta	0.46	0.27	0.31	0.29
Netherlands	0.39	0.32	0.31	0.29
Poland	1.06	0.71	0.60	0.59
Portugal	0.31	0.30	0.31	0.29
Romania	0.79	0.62	0.52	0.51
Slovakia	0.77	0.59	0.47	0.42
Slovenia	0.47	0.39	0.36	0.34
Spain	0.31	0.30	0.31	0.29
Sweden	0.27	0.21	0.18	0.17
United Kingdom	0.37	0.32	0.29	0.28
Other developed countries				
Canada	0.60	0.56	0.51	0.48
Iceland	0.35	0.33	0.28	0.28
Israel	0.48	0.43	0.40	0.42
Norway	0.23	0.21	0.20	0.19
Switzerland	0.19	0.18	0.17	0.17
United States	0.60	0.54	0.49	0.47
South-Eastern Europe				
Albania	0.18	0.21	0.24	0.21
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.77	1.23	1.09	1.10
Croatia	0.43	0.43	0.40	0.38
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	0.86	0.83	0.72	0.67
Turkey	0.34	0.36	0.33	0.33
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia				
Armenia	0.64	0.49	0.35	0.31
Azerbaijan	2.36	1.52	0.94	0.69
Belarus	1.31	0.89	0.66	0.64
Georgia	0.28	0.41	0.30	0.32
Kazakhstan	2.34	1.59	1.35	1.33
Kyrgyzstan	0.83	0.63	0.63	0.61
Republic of Moldova	1.65	1.09	0.96	0.88
Russian Federation	1.35	1.17	0.90	0.87
Tajikistan	0.86	0.69	0.60	0.62
Turkmenistan	..	..	1.85	..
Ukraine	1.95	1.63	1.25	1.22
Uzbekistan	3.03	2.95	2.15	2.06

Source: MDG database of the UN Statistics Division

Note: Carbon emissions are measured as the total amount of carbon dioxide emitted by the country as a consequence of all relevant human (production and consumption) activities. Total CO2 emissions is divided by the total value of the gross domestic product (GDP) expressed in purchasing power parity (PPPs).

Table 19

Proportion of land area covered by forest, percentage			
Country	**1990**	**2000**	**2005**
European Union			
Austria	45.6	46.4	46.7
Belgium	22.4	22.0	22.0
Bulgaria	30.1	30.5	32.8
Cyprus	17.4	18.7	18.9
Czech Republic	34.0	34.1	34.3
Denmark	10.5	11.5	11.8
Estonia	51.0	52.9	53.9
Finland [a]	72.9	73.8	73.9
France	26.4	27.9	28.3
Germany	30.8	31.7	31.7
Greece	25.6	27.9	29.1
Hungary	19.6	20.7	21.5
Ireland	6.4	8.8	9.7
Italy	28.5	32.1	33.9
Latvia	44.7	46.5	47.4
Lithuania	31.0	32.2	33.5
Luxembourg	33.2	33.5	33.5
Malta	1.1	1.1	1.1
Netherlands	10.2	10.6	10.8
Poland	29.2	29.8	30.0
Portugal	33.9	39.2	41.3
Romania	27.8	27.7	27.7
Slovakia	40.0	40.0	40.1
Slovenia	59.0	61.5	62.8
Spain	27.0	32.9	35.9
Sweden	66.5	66.7	66.9
United Kingdom	10.8	11.6	11.8
Other developed countries			
Canada	33.6	33.6	33.6
Iceland	0.2	0.4	0.5
Israel	7.5	8.0	8.3
Liechtenstein	40.6	43.1	43.1
Norway	29.8	30.4	30.7
Switzerland	29.2	30.3	30.9
United States	32.6	33.0	33.1
South-Eastern Europe			
Albania	28.8	28.1	29.0
Bosnia and Herzegovina	43.6	43.1	43.1
Croatia	37.8	38.1	38.2
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	35.8	35.8	35.8
Turkey	12.6	13.1	13.2
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia			
Armenia	12.3	10.8	10.0
Azerbaijan	11.3	11.3	11.3
Belarus	35.6	37.8	38.0
Georgia	39.7	39.7	39.7
Kazakhstan	1.3	1.2	1.2
Kyrgyzstan	4.4	4.5	4.5
Republic of Moldova	9.7	9.9	10.0
Russian Federation	47.9	47.9	47.9
Tajikistan	2.9	2.9	2.9
Turkmenistan	8.8	8.8	8.8
Ukraine	16.0	16.4	16.5
Uzbekistan	7.4	7.8	8.0

Source: MDG database of the UN Statistics Division

Note: Proportion of forest area to total land area expressed as a percentage.

a: The official land area by the National Land Survey of Finland on 1.1. 2004 is the one used. This is because the land area of Finland has been changing size due to the postglacial crustal uplift and to the construction of artificial lacs.

Table 20

Persons using improved drinking water sources, percentage

	Total			Urban			Rural		
Country	**1995**	**2000**	**2006**	**1995**	**2000**	**2006**	**1995**	**2000**	**2006**
European Union									
Austria	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Belgium	..	..	..	100	100	100	..	..	..
Bulgaria	99	99	99	100	100	100	97	97	97
Cyprus	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Czech Republic	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Denmark	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Estonia	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	99	99
Finland	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
France	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Germany	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Greece	98	99	100	100	100	100	94	97	99
Hungary	97	99	100	99	100	100	94	98	100
Ireland	..	..	..	100	100	100	..	..	..
Italy	..	..	..	100	100	100	..	..	..
Latvia	99	99	99	100	100	100	96	96	96
Luxembourg	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Malta	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Netherlands	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Poland	..	..	..	100	100	100	..	..	..
Portugal	97	99	99	98	99	99	96	98	100
Romania	80	85	88	95	97	99	62	70	76
Slovakia	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Spain	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Sweden	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
United Kingdom	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Other developed countries									
Canada	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	99	99
Iceland	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Israel	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Norway	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Switzerland	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
United States	99	99	99	100	100	100	94	94	94
South-Eastern Europe									
Albania	96	97	97	100	100	97	93	94	97
Bosnia and Herzegovina	97	97	99	99	99	100	96	96	98
Croatia	99	99	99	100	100	100	98	98	98
Montenegro	..	..	98	..	..	100	..	..	96
Serbia	..	..	99	..	..	99	..	..	98
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	100	100	..	100	100	..	99	99
Turkey	89	93	97	94	96	98	80	87	95
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia									
Armenia	91	93	98	99	99	99	75	83	96
Azerbaijan	70	76	78	85	93	95	53	58	59
Belarus	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	99
Georgia	78	87	99	92	95	100	61	78	97
Kazakhstan	95	96	96	99	99	99	91	91	91
Kyrgyzstan	77	82	89	97	98	99	65	73	83
Republic of Moldova	93	92	90	98	97	96	89	88	85
Russian Federation	95	96	97	98	99	100	87	88	88
Tajikistan	56	59	67	91	92	93	42	47	58
Ukraine	97	97	97	100	100	97	90	92	97
Uzbekistan	90	89	88	97	98	98	85	83	82

Source: MDG database of the UN Statistics Division

Note: Percentage of persons who use improved drinking water sources to the total population. Improved drinking water sources include household connection, public standpipe, borehole, protected dug well, protected spring, and rainwater collection.

Table 21

Persons using an improved sanitation facility, percentage

Country	Total			Urban			Rural		
	1995	2000	2006	1995	2000	2006	1995	2000	2006
European Union									
Austria	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Bulgaria	99	99	99	100	100	100	96	96	96
Cyprus	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Czech Republic	99	99	99	100	100	100	98	98	98
Denmark	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Estonia	95	95	95	96	96	96	94	94	94
Finland	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Germany	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Greece	97	98	98	99	99	99	94	96	97
Hungary	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Latvia	..	78	78	..	82	82	..	71	71
Luxembourg	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Malta	..	..	..	100	100	100	..	..	..
Netherlands	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Portugal	95	97	99	98	99	99	92	95	98
Romania	72	73	72	88	88	88	53	54	54
Slovakia	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	99	99
Spain	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Sweden	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Other developed countries									
Canada	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	99	99
Iceland	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Israel	..	..	..	100	100	100	..	..	..
Switzerland	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
United States	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	99	99
South-Eastern Europe									
Albania	86	89	97	97	97	98	79	83	97
Bosnia and Herzegovina	96	96	95	99	99	99	94	93	92
Croatia	99	99	99	99	99	99	98	98	98
Montenegro	..	..	91	..	..	96	..	..	86
Serbia	..	..	92	..	..	96	..	..	88
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	88	89	..	92	92	..	81	81
Turkey	86	87	88	96	96	96	70	71	72
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia									
Armenia	89	89	91	94	95	96	78	79	81
Azerbaijan	80	80	80	90	90	90	70	70	70
Belarus	93	92	93	91	91	91	96	96	97
Georgia	94	93	93	96	95	94	91	91	92
Kazakhstan	97	97	97	97	97	97	96	97	98
Kyrgyzstan	92	93	93	93	93	94	92	93	93
Republic of Moldova	78	78	79	86	86	85	72	72	73
Russian Federation	87	87	87	93	93	93	70	70	70
Tajikistan	83	86	92	88	91	95	81	84	91
Ukraine	96	96	93	98	98	97	93	91	83
Uzbekistan	94	94	96	97	97	97	92	93	95

Source: MDG database of the UN Statistics Division

Note: Percentage of persons who use improved sanitation facilities to the total population. Improved sanitation facilities include connection to a public sewer, connection to a septic system, pour-flush latrine, simple pit latrine, ventilated improved pit latrine.

Table 22

Official development assistance and official aid (current US$)

Country	1995		2000		2005		2007	
	US$ per cap	US$ Mln	US$ per cap	US$ Mln	US$ per cap	US$ Mln	US$ per cap	US$ Mln
South-Eastern Europe								
Albania	57.5	180.2	103.5	317.5	102.6	319.2	97.4	305.2
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	174.2	736.9	128.1	553.5	102.2	443.2
Croatia	11.4	53.3	14.8	65.6	28.6	127.2	36.9	163.8
Montenegro	..	..	..	..	..	..	169.1	105.9
Serbia	..	95.1	148.0	1 133.6	152.6	1 135.6	112.9	833.6
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	40.3	78.8	123.9	251.1	112.3	228.7	104.4	213.5
Turkey	5.2	312.7	5.1	326.8	6.7	458.7	11.3	797.2
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia								
Armenia	66.9	217.6	67.0	215.9	60.0	193.1	109.0	351.6
Azerbaijan	15.4	118.6	17.3	139.1	26.8	224.6	26.3	225.3
Belarus	..	..	4.0	39.6	5.8	57.2	8.6	83.3
Georgia	44.2	209.1	38.3	169.4	70.9	309.2	87.1	382.2
Kazakhstan	4.1	64.6	12.7	188.7	14.7	222.4	13.1	202.5
Kyrgyzstan	62.4	284.7	43.9	214.7	52.4	268.3	52.6	273.7
Republic of Moldova	18.2	65.8	33.7	122.6	53.2	191.4	75.2	269.2
Russian Federation	10.9	1 610.9	10.6	1 561.1	..	..	..	..
Tajikistan	11.2	65.1	20.0	123.5	36.7	251.3	31.0	221.3
Turkmenistan	6.7	27.9	7.0	31.5	6.0	29.3	5.7	28.5
Ukraine	6.2	319.2	11.1	541.2	8.7	410.5	8.7	405.3
Uzbekistan	3.7	83.7	7.5	185.8	6.4	169.6	6.2	166.1

Source: Compiled by UNECE from UNECE Statistical database and World Development Indicators (World Bank).

Table 23

Gross external debt in relation to GDP, percentage

Country	1995	2000	2005	2006	2007	2008
European Union						
Austria	..	..	169	201	216	201
Belgium	..	..	261	289	335	267
Bulgaria	77	83	65	86	108	103
Cyprus	27	30	88	135	130	104
Czech Republic	31	38	37	40	44	37
Denmark	..	..	139	164	183	172
Estonia	..	53	81	101	118	114
Finland	71	93	112	127	128	125
France	..	..	142	168	186	172
Germany	..	..	128	145	154	141
Greece	..	..	108	125	146	143
Hungary	70	64	72	111	122	139
Ireland	..	..	663	794	872	881
Italy	..	..	95	112	118	101
Latvia	31	59	94	118	135	124
Lithuania	24	42	48	63	77	69
Luxembourg	..	..	3 093	3 545	3 641	3 373
Malta	..	57	37	41	41	48
Netherlands	..	..	261	309	335	281
Poland	38	40	44	50	55	46
Portugal	..	..	163	195	217	198
Romania	18	29	37	44	50	47
Slovakia	23	38	44	47	53	53
Slovenia	41	52	68	81	108	100
Spain	..	..	119	146	159	145
Sweden	..	113	149	171	183	161
United Kingdom	177	223	324	379	402	338
Other developed countries						
Canada	..	..	56	54	56	52
Iceland	63	100	283	431	589	700
Israel	..	54	58	59	55	43
Norway	42	79	92	123	137	125
Switzerland	110	248	258	294	360	260
United States	..	..	75	84	95	95
South-Eastern Europe						
Albania	17	17	17	17	17	..
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	34	24	22	19	16
Croatia	17	51	68	79	83	79
Montenegro	..	..	44	48	73	75
Serbia	..	172	61	67	64	59
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	35	43	51	52	53	49
Turkey	32	44	35	39	39	38
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia						
Armenia	30	45	37	31	32	29
Azerbaijan	17	20	14	9	7	6
Belarus	20	20	17	18	28	25
Georgia	..	..	..	45	56	60
Kazakhstan	29	69	76	91	92	81
Kyrgyzstan	51	127	96	94	83	69
Republic of Moldova	59	134	70	74	76	68
Russian Federation	38	62	34	32	36	29
Tajikistan	143	119	39	31	30	27
Turkmenistan	9	46	5	3	2	..
Ukraine	22	38	46	51	56	56
Uzbekistan	18	32	30	23	22	18

Source: UNECE Statistical database, compiled from national and international official sources

Note: Data refer to gross external debt as a percentage of GDP.

Table 24

Number of personal computers, per 100 population

Country	1995	2000	2005	2006	2007
European Union					
Austria	16	36	61	..	..
Belgium	18	22	38	42	..
Bulgaria	2	5	..	..	9
Cyprus	5	19	33	38	..
Czech Republic	5	12	27	..	..
Denmark	27	51	69	73	55
Estonia	..	16	49	51	52
Finland	23	40	50	..	..
France	15	30	58	66	..
Germany	18	34	60	65	..
Greece	3	7	9	9	..
Hungary	4	9	14	18	26
Ireland	18	36	53	59	..
Italy	8	18	37	..	..
Latvia	1	14	25	33	..
Lithuania	1	7	18	18	..
Luxembourg	..	46	62	68	..
Malta	8	20	..	..	..
Netherlands	20	40	86	91	..
Poland	3	7	14	17	..
Portugal	5	10	15	16	17
Romania	1	3	13	15	19
Slovakia	4	14	36	43	52
Slovenia	10	28	41	42	43
Spain	6	17	28	37	40
Sweden	25	51	83	88	..
United Kingdom	20	34	77	81	.
Other developed countries					
Canada	22	42	88	95	..
Iceland	21	39	48	54	..
Israel	14	26	..	..	..
Norway	27	49	59	63	..
Switzerland	29	66	89	88	93
United States	32	57	77	80	..
South-Eastern Europe					
Albania	..	1	2	4	..
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	..	5	6	..
Croatia	2	11	..	..	..
Serbia	..	..	..	16	18
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	..	..	22	27	37
Turkey	1	4	6	6	..
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia					
Armenia	..	1	10	..	..
Azerbaijan	..	..	2	2	2
Belarus	..	..	1	..	..
Georgia	..	2	5	..	5
Kyrgyzstan	..	1	2	..	..
Republic of Moldova	0	1	8	10	..
Russian Federation	2	6	12	13	..
Tajikistan	..	..	1	..	..
Turkmenistan	..	..	7	..	..
Ukraine	1	2	4	5	..
Uzbekistan	..	..	3	3	..

Source: International Telecommunication Union (ITU)

Note: The number of Personal Computers (PC) measures the number of computers installed in a country. The statistic includes PCs, laptops, notebooks etc, but excludes terminals connected to mainframe and mini-computers that are primarily intended for shared use, and devices such as smart-phones that have only some, but not all, of the functions of a PC (e.g., they may lack a full-sized keyboard, a large screen, an internet connection, drives etc).

Table 25

Individuals regularly using the internet, percentage

Country	1995	2000	2005	2007
European Union				
Austria	1.9	33.4	55.0	67.0
Belgium	1.0	29.1	58.0	67.0
Bulgaria	0.1	5.4	20.0	31.0
Cyprus	0.4	15.3	31.0	38.0
Czech Republic	1.5	9.7	32.0	49.0
Denmark	3.8	39.1	77.0	81.0
Estonia	2.8	28.7	59.0	64.0
Finland	13.9	37.2	73.0	79.0
France	1.6	14.3	43.2	51.2
Germany	1.8	30.1	65.0	72.0
Greece	0.8	9.1	22.0	33.0
Hungary	0.7	7.0	37.0	52.0
Ireland	1.1	17.9	37.0	57.0
Italy	0.5	22.9	48.2	54.4
Latvia	..	6.3	42.0	55.0
Lithuania	..	6.4	34.0	49.0
Luxembourg	1.6	23.0	69.0	78.0
Malta	0.2	13.0	38.0	45.0
Netherlands	6.5	44.0	79.0	84.0
Poland	0.7	7.2	35.0	44.0
Portugal	1.5	16.4	32.0	40.0
Romania	0.1	3.6	16.5	24.0
Slovakia	0.5	9.4	50.0	42.9
Slovenia	2.9	15.3	47.0	53.0
Spain	0.4	13.5	44.0	52.0
Sweden	5.1	45.6	81.0	80.0
United Kingdom	1.9	26.9	66.0	72.0
Other developed countries				
Canada	4.2	42.3	68.0	73.0
Iceland	11.2	44.4	86.0	67.2
Israel	0.9	20.9	25.1	28.9
Norway	6.4	26.7	80.0	85.0
Switzerland	3.6	48.0	70.0	77.0
United States	9.3	43.6	69.0	72.5
South-Eastern Europe				
Albania	0.0	0.1	6.0	..
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	1.0	20.6	26.8
Croatia	0.5	6.6	32.4	43.6
Montenegro	..	..	39.8	46.8
Serbia	..	..	..	15.2
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	0.0	2.5	23.0	27.3
Turkey	0.1	3.7	14.0	16.2
Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia				
Armenia	0.1	1.3	5.3	..
Azerbaijan	..	0.2	8.1	10.9
Belarus	..	1.9	..	29.0
Georgia	0.0	0.5	6.1	8.2
Kazakhstan	0.0	0.7	4.1	12.3
Kyrgyzstan	..	1.0	10.5	14.1
Republic of Moldova	..	1.2	13.1	18.5
Russian Federation	0.2	2.0	15.2	21.1
Tajikistan	..	0.1	0.3	7.2
Turkmenistan	..	0.1	1.0	1.4
Ukraine	0.0	0.7	17.2	21.6
Uzbekistan	..	0.5	3.3	4.4

Source: International Telecommunication Union (ITU) and Eurostat

Note: Data correspond to the percentage of users of internet, usually in an age group of population. The age groups are country specific (e.g., 15-74 years old). The percentage is measured over a reference period (e.g., last three months preceeding the survey). Use of internet includes all locations and methods of access.