



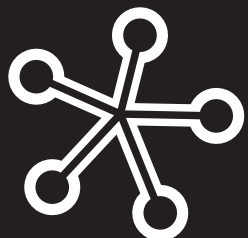
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An overview of women's work and employment in Azerbaijan

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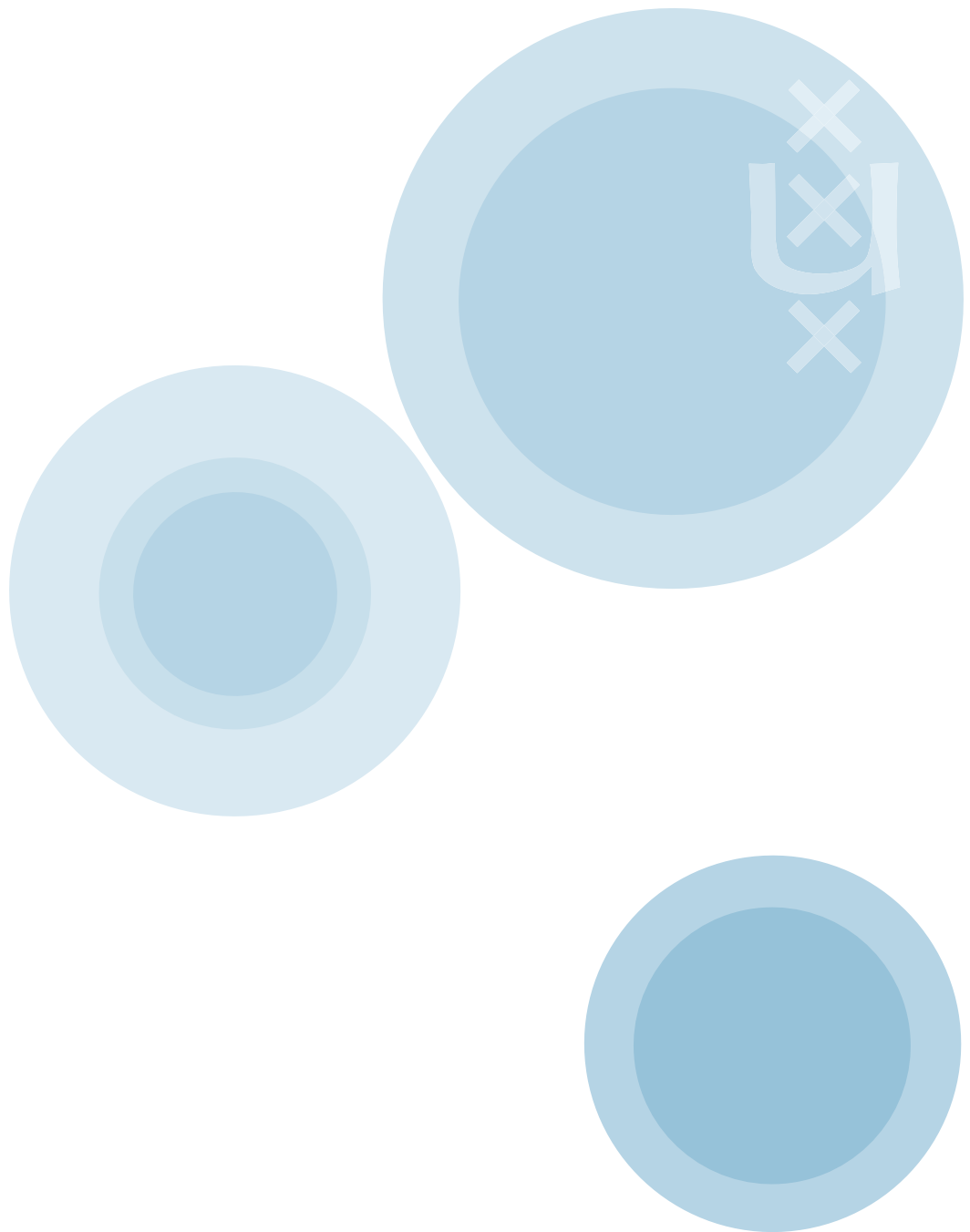


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An overview of women's work and employment in Azerbaijan

**Decisions for Life MDG3 Project
Country Report no. 9**

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WP 10/92

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Management summary

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

History (2.1.1). In the 1880s, the first oil boom took place in Azerbaijan. After brief independence from 1918 to 1920, the country realised independence from the Soviet Union in 1991. This was overshadowed by the Nagorno-Karabakh war with Armenia and an economic crisis that hit women dramatically. The 2000s witnessed spectacular economic growth, led by growing oil exports and high oil prices.

Governance (2.1.2). Azerbaijan is a secular and unitary republic with a presidential system. Recently the government's human rights record remained poor. The Constitution guarantees equality and rights for all citizens, but enforcement of human and women's rights is weak. With the 2009 elections, women representation in parliament came at 11.4%. Domestic violence and sexual harassment are widespread.

Prospects (2.1.3). Though Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) fell drastically in 2008-09, the global economic crisis has had a modest impact on Azerbaijan's economy. A further decline in jobs in manufacturing sub-sectors like textiles, garment and leather has negatively affected female employment.

Communication (2.2). Though the coverage of fixed telephone connections has recently grown, this is dwarfed by the expansion of the incidence of cell phones, to over three in four of the population in 2008. By that year, 181 per 1,000 were Internet users. Nearly all households have a TV set. Freedom of press, be it TV, radio or printed press, is a recurrent problem.

The sectoral labour market structure – Population and employment (2.3.1). Between 2003 and 2008 a growing "informalisation" of the economy has taken place, in particular concerning women's employment. With 66% in 2008, women's Labour Participation Rate (LPR) was 91% of men's.

The sectoral labour market structure - Unemployment (2.3.2). In the 2000s unemployment fell from 10-13% to 6-7%. The differences between the male and female unemployment rates are marginal. In 2006 unemployment was highest for girls and young women aged 15-24 (17%), followed by their male peers (15.5%). Most likely this picture is structural.

Legislation (2.4.1). Azerbaijan has ratified the eight core ILO Labour Conventions. The Constitution provides for the right to strike, but there are exceptions. The State prohibits unions from carrying out political activities. In the informal economy the government did not enforce contracts or labour legislation.

Labour relations and wage-setting (2.4.2). Depending on how many members the affiliates of the ATUC, the only union confederation, have, union density may vary between 42 and 91%. The national process of wage-setting seems to be orchestrated top-down, but some reservations should be made, like on bilateral government agreements with multinational enterprises (MNEs), setting aside labour laws. Unions also rarely participate in determining wage levels in the state sector.

The statutory minimum wage (2.5.1). Since 2008 the administratively set minimum wage is AZN 75, or 27% of the country's average monthly wage. Since 2004, the value of the MW has been about this level. In practice the MW is not effectively enforced.

Poverty (2.5.2). For 2008, it was officially estimated that less than 13% of the population lived below the national poverty line. This is questioned by various research outcomes, suggesting a more grim picture, though the trend towards less poverty and greater equality cannot be denied. Economic independence is far-away for many women, in particular for many young women. Female-headed households are much more locked in poverty than male-headed households.

Population and fertility (2.6.1). Azerbaijan has a rather low and decreasing population growth, currently lower than 0.8% yearly. The 2009 sex ratio at birth is 1.13 male/female. The total fertility rate (slightly above 2.0 children per woman) and the adolescent fertility rate (44 per 1,000) are rather low but the adolescent rate is increasing. Early marriage is uncommon but increasing too.

Health (2.6.2). In 2007, the number of people in Azerbaijan living with HIV was estimated at 7,800. Though HIV/AIDS is much more a men's disease, female risk groups include trafficked women and girls and injecting drug users. Levels of public awareness of HIV/AIDS are very low, as is the case for knowledge on contraceptive prevalence. Health disparities are large, including urban – rural divides.

Women's labour market share (2.6.3). Women make up nearly half of the country's labour force. In 2008 five of the 15 industries showed a female share above this average. Nearly half of all women employed could be found at the bottom of the labour market, in elementary occupations. Among legislators, senior officials and managers the female share was with 6% very low, but women made up majorities among professionals (54%) and among technicians and associate professionals (53%).

Literacy (2.7.1). The adult literacy rate –those age 15 and over that can read and write—in 1999-2006 was 98.7%, with hardly any gender gap: 99.0% for men and 98.3% for women. In 2007 literacy rate for 15-24-year-olds stood at 99.9%; young females even scored 100%.

Education of girls (2.7.2). In 2006 the combined gross enrollment rate in education was 66.2%, divided in 65.3% for females and 67.2% for males. In the 2000s school life for girls has been prolonged substantially. Net enrollment in primary education was for 2006 set at 83.3% for girls and for boys 86.2% for boys; in secondary education these rates were 76.4% and 79.2%. Beyond the age of 16, enrollment rates drop off sharply, with 13% of young adults in tertiary education. In 2006-2007, female students made up 47% of all tertiary enrolled.

Female skill levels (2.7.3). Gender differences in the country's education structure are rather small. Women are less represented at the highest level, but more at the second highest level. Women 25-29 of age are highest educated. Especially for women a serious underutilization of skills is at hand. We estimate the size of the target group of DECISIONS FOR LIFE for Azerbaijan at about 90,000 girls and young women working in urban areas in commercial services.

Wages (2.8.1). We found for 2008 large differences between wages across industries, as well as a large gender pay gap, totaling 43% -- fitting in the picture of a highly segmented labour market. Remarkably small was the gender pay gap in wholesale and retail, where men had quite low earnings.

Working conditions (2.8.2). Overall, gender differences in hours worked are small. Nearly one in four women works parttime i.e. less than 31 hours per week. In 2008, in eight of 15 industries the average monthly hours of females were longer than those of males, in four industries even considerably.

1. Introduction: The Decisions for Life project

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

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

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

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

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

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

2. Gender analysis regarding work and employment

2.1. Introduction: the general picture

2.1.1. History

In the 1880s, Azerbaijan took worldwide attention as its first oil boom took place: easily accessible oil reserves in the vicinity of the Baku capital attracted European trading interests seeking to break the American oil monopoly and making quick fortunes; some local residents also developed into oil barons. The country was briefly independent from 1918 to 1920, when it declared independence as the Azerbaijan Democratic Republic (ADR). The short-lived ADR was the first democratic parliamentary republic in the Muslim world. One of the important accomplishments of its parliament was the extension of suffrage to women, making the country the first Muslim nation to grant women equal political rights with men. A number of measures aiming at state building, education, independent financial and economic systems, et cetera, were taken. However, Lenin made clear that the young Soviet republic could not survive with Azerbaijani oil: soon the Red Army invaded the country and established the Azerbaijan SSR as part of the Soviet Union. With the support of government and Communist party organisations women were involved, involuntarily at times, in public life and production, also in the most arduous fields of production like the oil industry. During World War II, Baku oil was crucial for Soviet resistance against the German war machinery. Some 800,000 Azerbaijanis fought in the ranks of the Soviet Army of which 400,000 died (wikipedia Azerbaijan; Cosby et al 2007). For seven decades Azerbaijan was one of the principal oil-producing regions of the Soviet Union, with large chemical, petrochemical and metallurgical complexes. High levels of environmental damage resulted, including widespread pollution of the Caspian Sea and surrounding areas. Currently, the country faces serious challenges concerning air, soil and water pollution (cf. ADB 2005; Republic of Azerbaijan 2005).

In 1990, in the course of the collapse of the Soviet Union, an Azerbaijani independence movement developed. On 18 October 1991, the Supreme Council of Azerbaijan adopted a Declaration of Independence which was affirmed by a nationwide referendum in December 1991, when the Soviet Union was officially dissolved. The early years of independence were overshadowed by the Nagorno-Karabakh war with neighbouring Armenia. With the cease-fire in mid-1994, Azerbaijan lost control of one-fifth of its territory.

In the conflict, an estimated 30,000 people were killed and more than a million had been displaced. Azerbaijan must support about 800,000 internally displaced persons and refugees (IDP/Rs) as a result of the conflict. A large part of these IDP/Rs is unemployed, and the health status of IDP/R women and children is generally quite poor. The combination of transition from the communist economy and the war led to an economic crisis that hit women dramatically. Thousands of males out-migrated in search of jobs. Jointly with the many men killed in the war, poverty among in particular women exploded; a surge in patriarchal attitudes intensified the risks of poverty for them. Moreover, with the demise of the Soviet Union, many state programs focusing on the needs of women, such as the system of family and child-care support, were eliminated, transferring this responsibility to women who were already struggling to balance and meet their paid and unpaid work responsibilities. The “triple shift” and poverty have also manifested themselves in women’s and children’s declining health indicators (ADB 2005; CIA World Factbook; Cosby et al 2007).

In 1993, democratically elected president Abulfaz Elçibay was overthrown by a military insurrection led by Colonel Surat Huseynov, which resulted in the rise to power of the former leader of Soviet Azerbaijan, Heydar Aliyev. Aliyev succeeded to avert two other coups, in 1994 and 1995. On November 12, 1995, the country adopted a democratic Constitution that went into effect two weeks later. Aliyev managed to reduce the country's unemployment, reined in criminal groups, brought stability, peace and major foreign investment (FDI), but did not ban widespread corruption in the governing bureaucracy. In October 1998, Aliyev was reelected for a second term (wikipedia Azerbaijan; CIA World Factbook). In 1994, Heydar Aliyev’s son, İlham, was appointed vice-president of the State Oil Company of Azerbaijan (SOCAR). He participated as one of the key figures during the negotiations between Azerbaijani government and Western oil companies in the conclusion, in that year, of what is now known as the “Contract of the Century.” In August 2003, two months prior to the presidential elections, he was appointed prime minister. In October, Heydar Aliyev, suffering failing health, stepped down as president and appointed his son as his party's sole presidential candidate. İlham Aliyev won the elections with 77% of the popular vote, though the elections received harsh criticism from the opposition and the international community. On March 26, 2005, İlham Aliyev was officially elected as the ruling New Azerbaijan Party chairman. The opposition denounced this as a violation of state laws, because according to the law on political parties the president should have no party affiliation

(wikipedia İlham Aliyev). In the October 2008 presidential elections, İlham Aliyev was re-elected with 87% of the votes. Several major political parties boycotted the vote because of alleged poll-fixing and oppression of political opponents. The Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) said that there was progress in the elections compared to past ones, however it did not meet international standards (wikipedia Azerbaijani presidential election, 2008; US Dept of State 2009).

Azerbaijan is rich in oil and natural gas, as well as in gold, silver, iron, copper, titanium, chromium, manganese, cobalt, molybdenum, and antimony. The country's economy continued to improve in the 2000s, capitalizing on its mineral resources, in particular on the exploitations of the Azeri-Chirag-Guneshli oil field and the Shah Deniz gas field. After the troublesome period of the 1990s, with negative yearly GDP (Gross Domestic Product) growth per person employed of on average 20.1% between 1992 and 1995, followed by yearly average growth rates increasing from 3.5% in 1996-1999 to 7.5% in 2000-2004, especially from 2005-2007 the Azerbaijani economy showed spectacular growth. GDP per person employed increased by 8.2% in 2003, 5.3% in 2004, 24.7% in 2005, 31.0% in 2006, 14.0% in 2007, and 9.3% in 2008, thus averaging for 2003-2008 15.4% and 19.8% for 2005-2008 (website UN Data). This boom is largely attributable to large and growing oil exports coupled with very high oil prices. And though the non-energy sector also featured double-digit growth in 2008, spurred by growth in the construction, banking, and real estate sectors, the dominance of the oil sector has increased, in 2007 accounting for 59% of GDP. As already envisaged by the International Monetary Fund (IMF), in 2008 the economy showed signs of over-heating, with inflation –in 2007 already over 19%-- accelerating to 21% (CIA World Factbook; wikipedia Azerbaijan; IMF 2008).

In a global perspective, Azerbaijan is located in the middle ranks of medium human development, in 2006 ranking no. 97 on the Human Development Index (HDI) with a rating of 0.758, with an increase between 2000 and 2006 of 0.053. In 2006 its GDP per capita reached USD (PPP) 6,178, ranking no. 100 in the world. The estimated earned income for men was USD 7,495, and for women USD 4,915 (UNDP 2008), implying a women to men parity rate of 65.5%. As we will see, this moderately low rate is indicative for the position of Azerbaijani women in the field of work and employment.

2.1.2. Governance

Azerbaijan is a secular and unitary republic, with about nine million inhabitants¹, in majority Turkic and Shi'ite Muslim. Legislative authority is vested in the 123-member unicameral Milli Majlis or National Assembly, but in practice the president dominates the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of government. The two-term limit for the presidency was removed in a March 2009 referendum, the conduct of which was seriously flawed. Although there were more than 50 political parties, the ruling Yeni Azerbaijan Party (YAP) continued to dominate the political system. Civilian authorities generally maintained effective control of the security forces, but in 2008 and 2009 members of the security forces at national and local committed numerous human rights abuses. Over these years, the government's human rights record remained poor and even worsened in some areas. The public's right to peacefully change the government was restricted in the October 2008 presidential elections, March 2009 referendum, and December 2009 municipal elections. Law enforcement officers acted with impunity. The law states that persons who are detained, arrested, or accused of a crime should be advised immediately of their rights for arrest and accorded due process, but the government did not respect these provisions in practice. The collegium of lawyers is government-controlled, quite small (in total 768 members, of which only an estimated 415 were practicing) in a country of nine million, and its legal services are, according to an OSCE report, "well below the minimum professional standards expected of an independent defense bar". Prison conditions were generally harsh and resulted in numerous deaths, with Tuberculosis (TB) remaining the primary cause of death. The government continued to imprison persons for politically motivated reasons. In 2008 and 2009 restrictions on freedom of assembly continued, and restrictions and pressure on the media worsened, as did restrictions on political participation. A number of domestic and international human rights groups generally operated without government restriction, investigating and publishing their findings on human rights cases. Although the government maintained ties with some human rights non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and responded to their inquiries, on occasion the government criticized and intimidated other human rights NGOs and activists. The Ministry of Justice continued routinely to deny or fail to register some human rights NGOs. Among the major domestic NGOs is the Association for the Protection of Women's Rights (US Dept of State 2009, 2010).

¹ The variation in population figures circulating has in particular to do with the inclusion or exclusion of the population of the Nagorno-Karabakh and related regions. In recent years ethnic Armenian separatists, with Armenia's support, continued to control most of the Nagorno-Karabakh region and seven surrounding Azerbaijani territories (US Dept of State 2009). The CIA World Factbook estimated the Azerbaijani population by July 2009 at 8,24 million, whereas the UN Dept of Economic and Social Affairs Population Division estimated it for 2009 at 8,83 million. In January 2010, the ninth millionth Azerbaijani citizen was officially born (wikipedia). As a starting point for education statistics, UNESCO (2010) set the total population by 2007 at 8,47 million.

Corruption in the governing bureaucracy has often been described as “pervasive”, “rampant”, or “ubiquitous”. Law enforcement corruption is widespread. Police often levies spurious, informal fines for traffic and other minor violations and extracts protection money from local residents. In 2008 and 2009, the executive branch continued to exert a strong influence over the judiciary, and the judiciary remained corrupt and inefficient. Key provisions of the government’s 2007 national strategy for increasing transparency and combating corruption still had not been implemented at the end of 2009 (US Dept of State 2009, 2010). According to the World Bank’s worldwide governance indicators (WGI), Azerbaijan’s comparative position since 1998 improved on two of six indicators used though the country still is to be found in the world’s lower half. On voice and accountability, the country in 2008 was in the ninth percentile, indicating that about at least 80% of countries worldwide had better ratings; on political stability and absence of violence, it was in the seventh percentile, thus with about 60% of countries rated better; on government effectiveness, it was in the also in the seventh percentile; on regulatory quality, its score was relatively best, in the sixth percentile; on rule of law the country was in the seventh percentile, and on control of corruption it was in 2008 in the ninth percentile, just above the lowest 10% (World Bank 2009b). Also, it has been computed for 1999-2003 that Azerbaijan had an immensely large shadow economy, covering over 60% of the official GDP (Schneider 2005).

Women’s participation in politics and governance structures in Azerbaijan has declined sharply in the transition period, although their participation is nowhere legally restricted. Women still made up 40% of the Supreme Soviet of the Azerbaijan Republic in 1989, partly due to the quota system that set the level of women’s representation at a minimum of 33%. Within one year of independence, women’s representation had declined to only 4.3% (website AGIC). After 1991 women NGOs emerged; in March 2010, we counted on the website of the Azerbaijan Gender Information Center (AGIC) 118 of such NGOs. Official structures and policies aiming at gender mainstreaming were created. In 1998 the State Committee for Women’s Issues was established by Presidential Decree, later transformed into the State Committee on Family, Women and Children's Issues. In 2000 president Alijev issued a Decree on the State Women's Policy. At the same time, the Cabinet of Ministers approved the National Action Plan on Women's Issues (2000-2005) and ordered the selection of gender focal points in all government institutions to bear the responsibility for promoting gender equality. Attention in politics for gender issues increased (Cosby et al 2007). Yet, the representation of women in the political arena remains weak. In 1995, 15 of 124 parliamentary seats or 12.1% were held by women, falling between 2000 and 2005 below 11%. By 2009, women held 14 of 123 parliamentary seats or

11.4%, implying for Azerbaijan the 94th rank among 135 countries. A few women held senior government positions, but in deputy roles, including deputy speaker of parliament, several deputy ministers, and deputy chair of the Central Election Commission (website Inter-Parliamentary Union; website AGIC; wikipedia Women in Azerbaijan). The situation as of 2004, when women occupied less than 12% of senior management positions in government (ADB 2005, 60-1), seems to persist.

The Constitution of Azerbaijan guarantees equality and rights for all citizens; Article 25 specifically prohibits any restriction of these rights on the grounds of gender. Principles contained in the Employment Code, the Penal Code and the Marriage and Family Code all stem from the Constitution, thereby further sanctioning equal rights and freedoms for men and women. In October 2006 Azerbaijan passed a law on gender equality, which defines gender-based discrimination as any distinction, exclusion or restriction exercised on the basis of gender. Azerbaijani women within the family have a relatively high level of protection. The minimum legal age for women to marry is 17 years. Polygamy is prohibited by law. The Penal Code also prohibits any attempt to oblige women to enter into marriage or polygamous relationships (website OECD-SIGI).

Parental authority is covered by Articles 56 to 61 of the Family Code, which stipulate that both parents have the same rights and responsibilities in caring for and educating their children. Nonetheless, traditional norms and culture restrict women in a subordinate role. In general, men are considered the head of the family and have sole control over all aspects of family life. By contrast, women are expected to seek agreement from their husbands before making important decisions. The law on inheritance reflects legislation granting spouses equal property rights. It awards preference to the surviving spouse, thereby ensuring that the spouse receives shares equal to that of the children and parents of the deceased. Regardless of what the will of the deceased states, a portion of the inheritance must pass to the surviving spouse – and must equal at least half the share to which the spouse would be legally entitled. Widows are free to decide whether they wish to remarry and, indeed, who to wed. Concerning ownership rights, Azerbaijani women have the right to pursue economic independence. Access to land is a guaranteed right for all Azerbaijani citizens, regardless of gender. There are no legal restrictions on women's access to property other than land and no statutory limits on their access to bank loans. Both spouses have the same rights of ownership and tenure of the couple's joint property, whether such property was acquired with the husband's or wife's income (website OECD-SIGI). Women NGOs argue that in Azerbaijan women are expected to function primarily within a family, and that single women are widely perceived as a failure once they have passed the marriageable age of 21 to 23 years.

The prevailing “family honour” limits women’s mobility, placing them in a vulnerable position if they have sex before marriage or decide to live independently. In order to protect the “family honour”, families often limit their daughters’ access to higher education through not allowing them to enter universities in other cities (Center Women and Modern World et al 2009) .

The physical integrity of Azerbaijani women is not fully guaranteed. The transition period has been characterized by the increase of violence against women in its many forms, including sexual harassment in the workplace, assaults, rapes, and domestic violence (physical and emotional). In the 2001 Reproductive Health Survey (RHS) one in every four women reported that they had been subject to physical violence in the month prior to the survey. A 2004 International Rescue Committee (IRC) survey of both resident and IDP/R communities found that 43% of the married women surveyed had experienced violence in their current relationship, including emotional abuse, physical violence, and rape (ADB 2005, 8, 55). In recent years violence against women remains problematic, particularly in rural areas. In 2009, 11,389 acts of violence against women were registered (website AGIC). Rape is illegal and carries a maximum 15-year prison sentence; yet, most rape victims reportedly knew their assailants but did not report incidents out of fear and shame. A joint UN / government report states in this respect: “Women remain helpless when they are victims of domestic violence, they can, at best, call relatives for help. This also indicates that women are not aware of their right to complain to authorities, do not trust the authorities' effectiveness, or are afraid of filing a complaint due to social pressure” (Cosby et al 2007, 87). Especially in rural areas women have no effective recourse against assaults by their husbands or others; there are no specific articles in the Criminal Code on marital rape. The reporting process is complicated and traumatic, and the police, the medical profession, and the judicial process offer little protection and support. There are no government-sponsored programs for victims of rape or domestic violence. In Baku a women's crisis center operated by the Institute for Peace and Democracy provides free medical, psychological, and legal assistance for women. Representatives of the institute regularly appear on popular television talk shows to discuss women's issues (website OECD-SIGI; US Dept of State 2009, 2010).

The law of October 2006 on Ensuring gender equality prohibits sexual harassment, which in articles 2 and 3 is defined in detail. Articles 11 and 12 regulate employment situations if sexual harassment has taken place and ban persecution of the person reporting sexual harassment by the employer. However, women NGOs judge the implementation of this legislation not adequate and unclear, and state that the public is largely unaware of its existence. Large-scale surveys conducted by international NGOs found that about

30% of women has experienced sexual harassment at work. Another survey revealed that it is believed broadly that women should quit their job if they experience sexual harassment from their employer or from a co-worker (Center Women and Modern World et al 2009).

In 2009, the country was primarily a source and transit point for women, men, and children trafficked for sexual exploitation and forced labour. The US Dept of State maintains that the risk of women migrants of being trafficked is increasing, and that young women and girls are usually trafficked through well-organized international crime networks with powerful national and international connections. Mentioned as primary destination countries are Turkey and the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Domestic monitors recently reported a growing trend of internal trafficking of women and girls for sexual exploitation, primarily from regional areas to Baku (ADB 2005; website OECD-SIGI; US Dept of State 2009, 2010). In October 2009, the Executive Committee of the Azerbaijan Trade Union Confederation (ATUC) discussed how to contribute to the struggle against human trafficking (InformContact, October-December 2009).

For 2008 the Gender Gap Index of the World Economic Forum ranked Azerbaijan no. 61 of 130 countries.² For three of the four yardsticks used, low scores were attached to Azerbaijan: though for the position of women in economic participation and opportunity, the country was ranked very high with a fourth position,³ for educational attainment the score was no. 91, for health and survival no. 129, while for political empowerment the country was to be found on the 114th spot. In the lower middle income group of countries, Azerbaijan took a middle position, just above Ukraine (Hausmann et al 2008). Finally, it is worth mentioning that the SIGI Gender Equality and Social Institutions Index ranked Azerbaijan 37th of 102 countries in 2008 (website OECD-SIGI).

2.1.3. Prospects

The reverse to Azerbaijan's economic progress is its growing dependency on exports, in 2008 making up nearly 70% of its GDP against 23% ten years earlier (OECD 2009). The country has to a considerable extent been integrated in the world economy, though globalization or transnationality indices do not seem to take this fully into account.⁴ In spite of all governmental efforts to diversify the economy, the propensity of multinational enterprises (MNEs) to invest in extracting the country's mineral wealth, and the underlying

2 To be included in this index, a country must have data available for a minimum of 12 indicators out of 14 variables; Azerbaijan had two indicators missing (Hausmann et al 2008, 7). The index ranks economic participation and opportunity; educational attainment; health and survival, and political empowerment.

3 Mainly because of a no. 5 position worldwide on "wage equality on similar work", indicating a 16% gender pay gap; though according to Hausmann et al based on a survey, a questionable outcome (compare our section 2.8.1).

4 For example, on the KOF Globalization Index 2010 Azerbaijan ranked no. 95 of 141 countries on globalisation at large and no. 89 on economic globalisation, in the latter respect scoring slightly higher than for example the Russian Federation (no. 92) (KOF Swiss Economic Institute 2010).

world oil prices, will remain crucial in the years ahead. According to the State Statistics Committee (SSC), the FDI inflow, still USD 3.4 billion in 2008, over 2009 fell by 34% and total investment by 19%. Figures for the first months of 2010 suggested a rebound, with in January-February 2010 84% growth in FDI compared with the (very low level of) first two months of 2009. Foreign investments made up 30% of the January-February total, a preliminary break with the trend that the share of domestic investment in total investments showed a long-term increase, to 80% over 2009 (website ABC).

For the time being the increase of foreign investment and exports has served the expansion of the investment budget, enabling the decrease the impact of the worldwide crisis. A World Bank research note as of July 2009 stated: “The global economic crisis is exposing households in virtually all developing countries to increased risk of poverty and hardship”, and adding “While in the short-run, the non-poor may be the most affected by the crisis, experience from past economic and financial crises suggests that the adverse impacts are likely to spread in the medium-term to poor households.” This note ranked Azerbaijan among the 49 countries with medium exposure to the crisis, showing decelerating growth. Yet, it is also rated in the category of countries with “more fiscal capacity”, able to expand their fiscal deficits as to counteract the poverty effects of the crisis (Cord et al 2009). It seems that the Azerbaijani authorities have well managed the crisis and used fiscal deficits carefully; clearly the macro-economic effects of the crisis have been limited. Contrary to classical economic wisdom, it may have been of help that, according to the IMF (2008, 9), “The financial system is underdeveloped”. The balance act in limiting the inflation danger obviously has been successful: a prominent Azeri economist expects inflation to decrease in 2010 to vary between 3 and 5% (NN 2010c).

Nevertheless, there is evidence that the country's manufacturing industry has suffered from the global crisis rather directly. Between May 2008 and July 2009, 10,800 manufacturing workers had become redundant (InformContact, July-September 2009). Both employment and working hours figures suggest that in particular the manufacture of textile and leather goods, basic metals, and machinery and equipment production have been hit (see also section 2.8.2). It seems that the crisis accelerated developments already under way, in particular diminishing women's jobs in sub-sectors like textiles, garment and leather. As a result, male industrial employment between 2000 and 2008 slightly grew while female employment in manufacturing was halved, from about 60,000 to 30,000 (ILO Laborsta; SSC via AGIC website).

2.2. Communication

Adequate communication facilities are absolutely essential for the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project. Azerbaijan has been making progress in recent years in developing its telecom sector, but it still faces problems. The coverage of fixed telephone connections per 1,000 of the population have increased considerably, from 86 in 1990 via 98.4 in 2000 to 154.5 in 2008 (ADB 2009a). The general assessment is that the infrastructure is poor and requires considerable expansion and modernization. Moreover, the Ministry of Communications & Information Technologies (MCIT), as well as being an operator through its role in Aztelekom, is both a policy-maker and a regulator, mostly regarded an unlikely combination (wikipedia Azerbaijan; CIA World Factbook). In Azerbaijan, too, very clearly the future is on cellular telephone services, including possible access to mobile Internet. The number of cellular phones in use in the 2000s has grown extremely rapid, from 51.6 per 1,000 of the population in 2000 to 767.3 per 1,000 in 2008, or over 6.5 million cell phones (ADB 2009a; CIA World Factbook). In 2007 99% of the population was covered by mobile cellular networks. In that year the average mobile phone use was a relatively low 78 minutes per user per month. With USD 15.10 per month, the price basket for mobile service was still high, nearly threefold the price basket for residential fixed line service: USD 5.30 (World Bank 2009a). There are three GSM mobile network providers: Azerfon (Nar Mobile), Bakcell and Azercell (wikipedia Azerbaijan).

According to the CIA World Factbook, in 2008 the share of Internet users had grown to 181 per 1,000 of the population, as it noted 1,485,000 Internet users on a population of 8.2 million. One may safely assume that currently about one in five Azerbaijani is using the Internet, though outside the Baku capital Internet penetration remains low. The government generally does not restrict access to the Internet, but requires Internet service providers to be licensed and have formal agreements with MCIT. It has been observed that at times the government has blocked websites, mostly related to NGOs monitoring elections. It has also been reported that electronic media are rather susceptible to pressure due to their reliance on government-provided broadcast licenses. They are regarded less critical of the government than opposition and independent printed media (US Dept of State 2009, 2010). By 2009, the country had 7,045 Internet hosts, and by December 2008 a rather low 1.6 secure Internet servers per 1 million people (CIA World Factbook; World Bank 2009a). The website of the Azerbaijan Gender Information Center (AGIC) provides a massive amount of information on all kinds of women's and gender issues in the country, also in English. The AGIC coordinates training programs and undertakes research in selected areas.

The incidence of personal computers (PCs) is still low. While in 2000 this incidence was 0.7 per 100 inhabitants, in 2007 it had more than trebled, to 2.4% -- still a low share (World Bank 2009a). Yet, the regular use of computers, at work, in schools and universities and in Internet cafés is much higher, especially among the young generation. For 2007 this use was estimated at over 40% for young females aged 16-24 and over 60% for young males of the same age. By contrast, computer use among females aged 25-54 was estimated slightly less than 20%, against about 35% for males of the same age. Among those aged 55-74 this use was estimated lower than 5% for both sexes (UNECE 2009).

Ownership of television sets is very widely spread: it was estimated that in 2007 99% of all households had a television set (World Bank 2009a). In 2009, there were seven national television stations and 10 regional TV stations, as well as 11 national radio broadcasters. There were also several national state-owned newspapers and numerous newspapers funded by city or district-level officials. The printed media express a wide variety of views on government policies, though objective, professional reporting is rather rare. Most print outlets in the country are organs of the ruling party, opposition parties, or are thought to be connected to prominent government officials. Newspaper circulation rates, both government and opposition, are low, not surpassing 5,000 in most cases. Many newspapers circulate only in Baku. The law provides for freedom of speech and of the press and specifically prohibits press censorship, but recently the government did not respect these rights in practice. Notably in 2008 media freedom deteriorated significantly, and during 2009 the government took actions that further limited media independence. A March 2009 referendum made a number of changes to the Constitution, including several that limit freedom of the media. These included a prohibition on videotaping or photographing of anyone without their permission. The government also amended the law on mass media to make it easier for the government to close a publication (US Dept of State 2009, 2010).

The National Television and Radio Council (NTRC) in 2006 temporarily closed down ANS Television, and in 2008 prohibited broadcasts of the BBC, Voice of America and Radio Liberty on national television and FM radio frequencies. It also closed Russian-owned Europa Plus, which played mostly pop music. A number of journalists who criticized government officials in the course of their work were subjected to harassment, threats, and acts of physical violence that appeared to be connected to their criticism of the government or public officials. Reporters Without Borders (RWB) reported over 2008 that independent and opposition journalists were under constant pressure because of their work. A monitoring study of television broadcasting supported by the European Commission indicated that the country's television networks

were largely devoted to promoting the president, his government, and the ruling party. State-run AzTV, for example, devoted 98% of its political coverage to the government, the presidential family, and the ruling party, with just 2% left for opposing views (US Dept of State 2009, 2010). The Rapporteur of the Council of Europe stated, related to the 2009 municipal elections, “De facto, television largely transmitted the image of a single party system in Azerbaijan, where elections do not play an important role” (website Council of Europe). In September 2009, a number of journalists came out in protest against, what they called, the assault of the authorities on the free press; some blamed the lack of solidarity among journalists (NN 2009b). A few weeks later, the chairman of the World Association of Newspapers voiced concern over the lack of conditions for the promotion of strong and independent media in Azerbaijan (NN 2009c).

2.3. The sectoral labour market structure

2.3.1. Population and employment

As elucidated, the population of Azerbaijan in 2009 approached nine million. The recent urbanisation rate is estimated at 52%, the rate of urbanisation for 2005-2010 at 1% annual change (CIA World Factbook; WHO 2009). The capital, Baku, is by far the largest city, with in 2009 2,04 million inhabitants. The second and third largest cities, Ganja and Sumqayit, currently have both about 310,000 inhabitants (wikipedia’s Azerbaijan and Baku).

Table 2 presents the development of total employment as well as employment by status and gender in Azerbaijan between 2003-2008, based on total population figures of respectively 8,27 million (2003) and 8,73 million (2008). The table shows a modest growth in these years of total employment for males, by 3.7%, and a very strong growth for females, by 606,000 persons or 43%. This obviously has largely to do with changes in statistical observation and interpretation, leading to a drastic increase of own-account and contributing family workers for both sexes but in particular for females; the statistically large creation of employment has been questioned by domestic sources too (f.e. NN 2009a). According to the available figures paid employment has substantially decreased for men, by 150,000 or 13%, while paid employment for women showed a slight increase, by 5,000 or 0.7% (all data: ILO Laborsta). More detailed figures show the continuous importance of government and state-owned enterprises for wage employment, especially of women. They clarify that in 2008 24.6% of all women employed worked in government and state-owned enterprises (men: 24.8%), only 7.0% in non-state enterprises (men: 16.1%), and 5.4% in other forms of paid

labour (men: 6.8%), implying that government and state-owned enterprises account for two-thirds (66.5%) of women's paid employment, against just over half (52%) of men's (data: SSC via AGIC website).

Table 2. Employment by status and gender, Azerbaijan, 2003 and 2008

	2003				2008			
	male		female		male		female	
	x1,000	%	x1,000	%	x1,000	%	x1,000	%
Employers	140	7.1%	99	7.1%	101	4.9%	19	0.9%
Own-account workers and Contributing family workers	709	35.9%	566	40.4%	970	47.4%	1,247	62.1%
Employees	1,127	57.0%	737	52.5%	977	47.7%	742	37.0%
Total	1,976	100%	1,402	100%	2,048	100%	2,008	100%

Sources: ILO Laborsta, Table 2D

The growing "informalisation" of the economy suggested by the figures of Table 2 seems rather at odds with the rapid expansion of the Azerbaijan economy already noted, but is also reported by other sources (cf. ADB 2005; Cosby et al 2007; ITUC 2008) and seems part of a longer-term trend. The Asian Development Bank gender assessment report as of 2005 noted, "With fewer opportunities in the formal sector (including in the developing private sector), women have increasingly looked to the informal sector to supplement family income, although such work is usually unprotected and involves long hours for little pay" (ADB 2005, xii). In 2004 at least one in six women could be found in informal labour: according to the Labor Force Survey, 17% of women who reported themselves as employed defined themselves as engaging in private entrepreneurship without establishing a legal entity (ADB 2005, 5).

Of the total Azerbaijani population, by 2008 4,371,000 persons were counted as economically active (the share of the population over 14 of age in employment or registered unemployed), of which 45,500 aged 65 and older. If we leave out this group of elderly citizens in order to comply with the internationally comparable Labour Participation Rate (LPR) or Employment-to-Population ratio (EPOP) that only takes stock of the labour force aged 15-64 in percentages of the total population of the same age, we can calculate the over-all LPR or EPOP at 69.3% (MDG Indicator 1.5). This implies a position in the lower middle ranks among the 14 countries in our project. With respectively 72.7% for males and 66.0% for females, the "corrected" female LPR in 2008 was 91% of the "corrected" male rate (the so-called women to men parity). In Table 3, below, we show the 2008 LPR's for 5-years'age cohorts.

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

	all		male		female	
	x 1,000	LPR	x 1,000	LPR	x1,000	LPR
15-19	180	19.7	83	17.8	97	21.7
20-24	465	52.0	252	55.2	212	48.5
25-29	559	74.8	288	76.5	271	73.0
30-34	598	93.9	301	98.0	297	90.0
35-39	555	89.7	283	96.9	272	83.3
40-49	1,225	90.9	627	98.3	598	84.3
50-54	386	75.9	186	76.2	200	75.6
55-59	209	65.9	128	85.1	81	48.6
60-64	94	53.2	45	54.9	49	51.7
65+	46	7.7	12	5.0	33	9.6
Total 15+	4,317	63.9	2,205	67.6	2,112	60.5

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

The table reveals some interesting gender differences in the LPR's for the 5-years' age cohorts. For men and women alike, the LPR's were highest among the 30-49-year-olds, but the female rates fell after age 34. The male rate in the 55-59 aged cohort was remarkably high, and so was the female LPR in the 60-64 of age cohort. 53% of the potential female labour force of 55-65 aged was still employed, compared to other post-Soviet countries like Ukraine a rather high share. Additionally, it may be noted that LPR's in rural areas are 4-5%points higher than those in urban areas, for women and men alike (SSC via AGIC website).

As for the DECISIONS FOR LIFE target group, the girls and young women aged 15-29, in 2008 there were 580,000 of them employed in a population of 1,254,000, implying a LPR of 46.3%. Remarkably, with 47.9% (623,500 active in a population of 1,302,000), the LPR of their male peers was only slightly higher.

Comparison with the 1999 Census outcomes learns that between 1999-2008 the LPRs of both sexes have strongly converged: whereas the male LPR fell by 4.5%points, coming down from 77.2%, the female rate went up from 61.8%, thus by 4.2%points.⁵ These outcomes are the result of contradictory trends. As for the males, the LPR's for the three youngest cohorts fell by 14 to 19%points and the LPR for the 50-54 of age by 9%points, and this was not fully compensated by the 5-6%points' rise of the LPRs for the 30-49 aged. As for the females, the LPR's for the two youngest cohorts fell by respectively 9%points (for the 15-19 of age) and 16%points (for the 20-24-aged), whereas the LPR for the 25-29 of age remained at 73%; however, the labour participation of the middle-aged women grew spectacularly, by 10-17%points. This lat-

⁵ Though, unlike the 2008 Labour Force Survey, the 1999 Census excluded the 15-year-olds from the economically active population and defined the labour force as 16-64-year olds. This statistical change hardly influenced this convergence.

ter growth may be attributed mainly to the increase of informal work. For our project, the fall of the LPR of the 15-24 aged girls is of interest. This decrease cannot fully be explained by their growing enrollment in secondary education: between 1999 and 2006 female enrollment in secondary education grew by only 2.9%points (website Nationmaster; UIS 2010; see also section 2.7.2). Most of the “missing numbers” would have added to the “individuals engaged in house keeping, taking care of children and of elderly / sick family members”, though the share of this group recently seems to decrease. In 2003 they accounted for 44% of the female economically inactive population, against only 36% in 2006 (Republic of Azerbaijan 2005, 57; SSC via AGIC website).

2.3.2. Unemployment

Between 2006-2008, the unemployment level of Azerbaijan calculated on Labour Force Surveys stabilized at 6-7%, coming from 10-13% in 2000-2003 (Republic of Azerbaijan 2005). Table 4 reveals the unemployment averages for 2006, by age and gender.

Table 4. Unemployment by gender and by age group, % of economically active population, Azerbaijan, 2006

	all	male	female
15-19	15.4	14.6	17.3
20-24	16.3	16.2	16.4
25-29	9.7	9.5	10.2
30-34	5.9	6.1	5.6
35-39	4.7	4.9	4.5
40-44	4.1	4.4	3.8
45-49	4.2	4.2	4.2
50-54	4.7	4.6	4.8
55-59	3.5	4.6	1.8
60-64	0.4	0.6	0.0
Total	6.8	6.9	6.7

Source: SSC via website AGIC

Most likely these figures provide a structural picture that has not essentially changed since. Overall, the differences between male and female rates are marginal. Important for the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project is, as the table reveals, that the categories by far most affected by unemployment were the youngsters aged 15-24, girls and young women slightly more (jointly on average nearly 17% unemployed over the year), than their male peers (15.5% unemployed). According to the detailed statistics, nearly half of all unemployed –of both genders—consisted of first job seekers. This suits well with the fact that unemployment declines

with age for those over age 24. Unemployment is mostly an urban phenomenon. In urban areas, 24-26% of the males aged 15-24 were unemployed and even 25-30% of the females of that age. In rural areas the comparable unemployment rates were between 8 and 10% for both sexes. On average 48,000 females aged 15-29 were unemployed in 2006. If one looks at highest level of education completed, unemployment concentrated among those with second level first stage education completed (ISCED level 2). For both men and women, unemployment decreased with more education (data: SSC via website AGIC; ILO Laborsta).

2.4. National legislation and labour relations

2.4.1. Legislation

Azerbaijan has ratified the eight core ILO Labour Conventions, i.e. no's 29, 87, 98, 100, 105, 111, 138 and 182. The Constitution provides for freedom of association, including the right to form trade unions. In 2004, the government ratified the European Social Charter, notably the articles on freedom of association and collective bargaining. Under the Act on Trade Unions of 24 February 1994, seven persons or more may form a trade union and adopts its rules. Uniformed military and police as well as managerial staff are prohibited from participating in unions, although civilians working in the Ministry of Internal Affairs and the Ministry of Defense are allowed to do so. In 2006 the Labour Code and the Act on Trade Unions were amended. According to these new changes employers cannot dismiss employees without the written consent of the trade union within the enterprise (ITUC 2008; US Dept of State 2009, 2010).

The Constitution provides for the right to strike, but there are exceptions. In addition to banning strikes in the services deemed essential by international standards, the Labour Code as of 1 February 1999 (Section XI) states that employees of legislative authorities, relevant executive authorities, courts and law enforcement authorities may not go on strike. Strikes are also prohibited in the railway and air transport sectors. Striking workers who disrupt public transportation can be sentenced up to three years' imprisonment. The State prohibits unions from carrying out political activities. Unions may not be associated with political parties, carry out joint activities with them, or receive financial support or provide them with financial aid. The ITUC (2008) deems such a general prohibition contrary to the principles of freedom of association. The law prohibits retribution against strikers, such as dismissal or replacement. Both local and international NGOs claimed that workers in most industries were largely unaware of their rights and afraid of retribution

if they initiated complaints; this was especially true for persons working in the public sector (US Dept of State 2009, 2010; ILO Natlex).

The Labour Code and the Act on Leaves of 19 July 1994 jointly provide for a 40-hour workweek; the maximum daily work shift is 12 hours. Workers in hazardous occupations may not work more than 36 hours per week. The law requires lunch and rest periods, which are determined by labour contracts and collective agreements (ILO Natlex). In the informal economy the government did not enforce contracts or labour laws (US Dept of State 2010). Through the Act of 29 September 1992 on labour protection, the country has a rather extensive occupational health and safety legislation (ILO Natlex). However, government inspections of working conditions seem weak and ineffective, and health and safety standards widely ignored. The only trade union confederation, ATUC (Azerbaijani Trade Union Confederation, or Azerbaijan Hemkarlar Ittifaqlari Konfederasiyasi, AHIK), monitored compliance with labour and trade regulations, including safety and health conditions. In this field, the ATUC received 236,220 complaints in 2008. Conversely, the Ministry of Labour reported receiving only one complaint (US Dept of State 2010). In December 2009, the parliament approved amendments on the Labour and Family Codes, laying down that children under 15 years of age cannot be employed (NN 2009d).

Of particular relevance for the young female target group of the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project is the following labour legislation (ILO-Travail database; ILO Natlex):

- the probation period is limited to three months (Act of 21 May 1996 on individual labour contracts);
- the employer must give employees two months' notice regarding changes in conditions of employment (Act of 21 May 1996 on individual labour contracts);
- the contracts of pregnant women or women with children under three years of age may not be terminated by the employer (Act of 21 May 1996 on individual labour contracts);
- main leave (holidays) shall be provided with a minimum of 21 calendar days; employees aged 16 to 18 years shall be provided with 36 days of leave (Act on Leaves of 19 July 1994);
- working women are provided with 126 calendar days of paid maternity leave for the period of pregnancy (70 calendar days) and the period after childbirth (56 days). Irrespective of the actually used number of leave days delivered before the childbirth, (100%) leave money shall be paid at the expense of the State Social Protection Fund (Act on Leaves of 19 July 1994);

- Any of the parents or another member of the family looking after the children has the right for partly paid leave until children reach the age of three years; during this leave the person looking after the children shall get allowances equal to twice the minimum wage until each child reaches the age of one year and a half, and equal to a minimum wage in the period from that age to that of three years (Act on Leaves of 19 July 1994).

2.4.2. Labour relations and wage-setting

According to the US Dept of State (2010) the ATUC, affiliated to the ITUC, in 2009 had approximately 1.6 million members representing 28 union federations in various industrial sectors. However, the ITUC 2009 affiliates list (ITUC website) mentions for ATUC a membership of 735,000. Taking the size of the labour force in paid employment for 2009 (an estimated 1,750,000) as a starting point, union density in Azerbaijan may vary between 42 and 91%.

The national process of wage-setting seems to be orchestrated top-down, but one will see that some reservations may make sense. Traditionally, each year the General Collective Agreement is signed by the Cabinet Ministers, the ATUC and, on behalf of the employers, the Azerbaijan Confederation of Entrepreneurs (ACE). Mostly the ATUC executive discusses the union input in October, while the draft agreement is published in November and mostly also concluded. However, the most recent General Collective Agreement was not concluded before February 4, 2010. A considerable part of its text contains rather ritual wording. Interesting in view of the minimum wage is the commitment to “work over step-by-step bringing the population’s income to the requirements, established by the renewed European Social Charter, and approach in a staged manner minimum wages, based partly on pensions and the need criterion concerning the cost of living”. The agreement also contains obligations for employers on, inter alia, the creation of sanitary conditions for the preservation of the general and reproductive health of women. Finally, it was agreed that 0.15% of the wage fund of enterprises and organisations having signed branch and regional collective agreements should be transferred as membership fee to the trade unions (website ABC, various messages). According to a respected Azerbaijani news source the last agreement contained “strange macroeconomic operations of the parties”, as the Cabinet informed that in compliance with the agreement the parties were to work on a reduction in 2011 of the country’s GDP, industrial output and cash income of the population by some %points (NN 2010a). In contrast with this top-down “operations”, it does not seem that easy for the unions to get collective agreements off the ground. In this respect the ATUC closely cooperates with the Labour Inspectorate, and obviously not without success: in the first half year of 2009 they succeeded to

have collective agreements signed at 676 enterprises, 91% up from the first half of 2008 (InformContact, July-September 2009). This suggests coverage of only about 30% of the eligible companies, but obviously this kind of contacts makes the US Dept of State (2010) conclude that the majority of unions remain tightly linked to the government, with the exception of the journalists' unions.

While the labour law applied to all workers and enterprises in the country, there are exceptions to the law and to the General Collective Agreement. First, the government can legally conclude bilateral agreements with MNEs that set aside labour laws. The parliament must ratify these agreements. They are not officially published, and neither unions nor even labour inspectorates have access to them. The ITUC (2008) states that this anomaly is leading to the violation of labour rights in such enterprises. The international confederation adds that Azeri nationals employed by foreign companies, notably oil companies, often face discrimination. In many cases they are hired on short term contracts for as little as three months and then dismissed. They are forced to work overtime, and do not receive annual holiday pay or compensation for occupational injuries or diseases (ITUC 2008). The US Dept of State revealed that production sharing agreements (PSAs) between the government and multinational energy enterprises signed in 1994 and subsequently did not provide for employee participation in a trade union. By contrast, the ATUC reported that during 2009 there was some progress in starting new unions and that multinational enterprises had begun to welcome these initiatives (UN Dept of State 2010), though somewhat earlier it also stated that organizing efforts had been blocked mainly by MNEs operating in Azerbaijan (InformContact, July-September 2009).

A second category of problems emerges in state-owned enterprises, as we saw in Azerbaijan jointly with the public service covering no less than two-thirds of female and half of male paid employment. State-owned enterprises are run by government-appointed boards of directors who set wages for all government employees, according to a 1996 law. Despite this law, an effective system of collective bargaining between unions and enterprise management has yet to be established. Unions rarely participate in determining wage levels in the state sector, and where collective agreements exist, they are were often treated as formalities and not always respected (ITUC 2008; US Dept of State 2010). Various messages point at a rather bad reputation of the state-owned enterprises as regards compliance with the country's labour legislation, in particular in the field of occupational health and safety. For example, in January 2010 the cryptic formulation of the chief of the main Labour Inspectorate of the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection was that "the Azerbaijani state enterprises do not fall behind the private sector on the number of infringements on the labour legislation" (NN 2010a).

2.5. Minimum wage and poverty

2.5.1. The statutory minimum wage

Since August 25, 2008, the administratively set minimum wage is 75 new manat (AZN, approximately USD 91) per month. At that date, by Presidential Decree the minimum wage of 60 new manat was increased by 25%. Local NGOs reported that this wage was not enough to provide a decent standard of living (US Dept of State 2010). Indeed, with the average monthly wage for 2008 being AZN 274 (our Table 12, section 2.8.2), the minimum wage was just 27% of this average. In the 2000s, the relative value of the minimum wage has been lifted. In early 2003 the minimum wage was less than 12% of the average wage, but its nominal value was nearly doubled in September 2003 and increased by another 33% in January 2004, while inflation in 2003 and 2004 was only 9%. Taking into account the (strong but not equivalent) increases of average wages in real terms, by the end of 2004 the minimum wage was 29% of the average wage (Republic of Azerbaijan 2005) – a level where it remained since.

The Ministry of Taxes, the Ministry of Labour, and the State Social Protection Fund share responsibility for enforcing the minimum wage. However, in practice the minimum wage was not effectively enforced. Due to intervention by trade unions and inspectors, approximately AZN 950,000 (USD 1,100,000) were paid to workers who filed reports about unpaid salaries from the middle of 2008 until the middle of 2009 (US Dept of State 2010).

2.5.2. Inequality and poverty

For 2005, it was officially estimated that less than 2% of the population of Azerbaijan lived below the common UN income poverty yardsticks of USD 2 a day and USD 1.25 a day (in PPP terms). According to most internationally circulating figures the country has succeeded in rapidly bringing down the share of poor. In 1995, still 15.6% were computed to live below the USD 1.25 a day yardstick, a share that had decreased to 6.3% in 2001. And while in 1995 68.1% of the population was estimated to live below the national poverty line, by 2003 this would have decreased to 39.7% and by 2008 this share was estimated at only 13.2%. The income distribution seems relatively egalitarian. According to the 2003 Household Budget Survey (HBS), the Gini coefficient (a measure that rates 0 as perfect equality and 100 as perfect inequality) was equal to 0.275 using income distribution and 0.288 using consumption expenditure -- relatively low figures in international perspective. Also in 2003, the average income of the richest 20% was 2.9 times more than that of the poorest 20%. The share in total consumption (expenditure) of the poorest 20% was in 2005

13.3%, whereas the equivalent shares mentioned for 1995 and 2003 were 6.9% respectively 12.2%. Across countries, the 2003 and 2005 shares are high too. Moreover, they suggest a trend toward greater equality in consumption and income (Republic of Azerbaijan 2005; ADB 2009a; UNDP 2008; IMF 2008; UN MDG Indicators).

Various research outcomes question the above outcomes, though most researchers do not deny the development in the last decade towards less poverty and greater equality. First, under-reporting of expenditure in the higher income categories is rather common, also in Azerbaijan, implying that inequality is underestimated: the current Gini coefficient gives a too sunny picture. Second, the share of “working poor” may be underestimated, most likely through statistics not capturing the underemployed: those who work less than full time and hence cannot earn enough to rise above the poverty line and those who apparently work full time but at low intensity. In poor rural areas the incidence of both groups seems considerable. Third, in the early 2000s it became clear that the average level of social assistance (in spite of more than 35 types of social benefits!) and pensions lagged behind the average wage level. In spite of an increase in pensions in 2003, the average pension amount represented two-thirds of the poverty line (Republic of Azerbaijan 2005, 29-30, 33-5).

Indeed, the same sources as cited above also deliver a grim picture of more persistent poverty. Also according to the 2003 HBS, close to 3.7 million people or about 45% of the total population, lived in poverty, consuming less than USD 36.50 per capita per month or less than 70% of the median consumption expenditure in 2002. Among these, a group of 800,000 persons, almost 10% of the total population, lived in extreme poverty with monthly consumption below USD 25.50 per month. Poverty and economic vulnerability define the daily lives of many men, women, and children; few of these poor, including women, are able to resist even the slightest income “shocks” to their welfare because they have few assets or savings to cushion the fall-out from loss of employment or even the loss of an elderly family member who contributed pension income. Economic vulnerability has increased: the breakdown of family and community kinship obligations and the weakening of traditional social networks has weakened the social safety net upon which many poor women and men have long relied (ADB 2005, 7; Republic of Azerbaijan 2005).

In Azerbaijan economic independence is far-away for many women, in particular for many young women. Female-headed households are much more locked in poverty than male-headed households. According to the 2005 HBS, nearly 40% of the households run by 18-29-year-old women were in the poorest 10% of the population (against 28% of households headed by men of the same age), whereas this held for 23% of

the households run by women 30 and older (men: 13%). Nearly 60% the households headed by 18-29-year-old women were in the poorest 20% (against nearly 40% of men of the same age). The 2005 survey also showed that male-headed households tend to have income from more reliable sources (such as regular paid employment and agriculture), which in general generate more income. Women tend to concentrate in resources such as pensions or “other income” resources that are neither very reliable nor sufficient. This instability of income is usually an important source of poverty (SSC via AGIC website; Cosby et al 2007).

2.6. Demographics and female labour force

2.6.1. Population and fertility

Azerbaijan has a rather low and decreasing population growth; for the year 2009 its growth is estimated at less than 0.8%. Based on the 1999 Census, the population was estimated at 8,016,200,⁶ whereas the Labour Force Survey for 2008 comes at 8,730,300: an increase of 8.9% in nine years, or 0.75% yearly growth. Women make up 51% of the population, but among the 0-14 years of age girls make up 47%. The rate of newborn boys compared to girls shows a long-term increase, and the 2009 sex ratio at birth is 1.13 males against 1 female (see next section). The total fertility rate (TFR, the number of births a woman would have if she survived to age 50) is currently estimated at 2.04 and the birth rate at 17.6 per 1,000 of the population, thus rather low as well. The current death rate is set at about 8.3 per 1,000. As said, migration has been considerable; it is estimated that as many as three million Azerbaijani, many of them guest workers, currently live in Russia. After 2000, this migration tended to decrease; for 2009, the net outward migration is estimated at 1.69 per 1,000 inhabitants, or 15,200 people, again a lower level than before. Also for 2009 the median age is estimated at 28.2 years, 26.6 years for males and 30.0 years for females (sources: wikipedia; CIA World Factbook; ILO Laborsta; SSC via AGIC website).

Registered child mortality in Azerbaijan is rather low in international perspective. In 2004 neonatal mortality (deaths during the first 28 days of life per 1000 live births) was measured as 35 per 1,000 live births, in international comparison a rather high rate (WHO 2009). The infant mortality rate (probability of dying between birth and age 1 per 1,000 live births) stood at 34 in 2007, considerable progress as the rate for 1990 was 78 and that for 2000 58. The under 5 mortality rate (probability of dying between by age 5 per 1,000 live births) averaged 39 by 2007, again suggesting major progress as the rate came down from 98 in 1990

⁶ According to the 1999 Census, there were 1,28 million families with children under 18 of age, rather equally divided over urban and rural areas. The TFR in rural areas is traditionally higher, and rural families were on average considerably larger: nearly half (49%) had three or more children, against only 36% of urban families (SSC, via website AGIC).

and 69 in 2000. However, international organisations have repeatedly stated that neither the country's measurement of mortality rates nor the final statistics are accurate enough for policy interventions to be made, particularly in view of the clear discrepancies between official statistics and survey data. For example, in the early 2000s UNICEF and WHO found a maternity mortality rate of 94 per 100,000 live births, in contrast to the official figure of 38. The latest maternity mortality rate included in UN statistics was 82 for 2005 (ADB 2009a, 47; WHO 2009; UN Data). Statistical discrepancies may point at underreporting, in particular through a decline in the use of public health facilities from which official statistics are generated, related to an increase in home deliveries and the use of traditional birth attendants (TBAs), particularly in rural areas. Deaths following home deliveries are much less likely to be reported. The UNICEF MICS 2000 survey found that while skilled assistance at delivery was provided in 88% of births, discrepancies in this attendance were significant for rich and poor, resident and IDP/R, and urban and rural women. For example, 20% of poor women giving birth were assisted by TBAs or relatives. A 2001 survey found that almost 36% of rural women delivered at home (ADB 2005, 47-8). The government has become aware of the need for action in this field, and initiated the Action Program on protection of mother and child health (2006-2010).

For an indication of the situation of our target group, the adolescent fertility rate (births per 1,000 women 15-19 of age) is of special importance. For 2007 the rate for Azerbaijan was set at 44, in international perspective a figure in the middle range but definitely not very low. Moreover, contrary to the international trend the adolescent fertility rate showed a rise compared to 1990, when it was 26 (ADB 2009a; WHO 2009). Early marriage is still uncommon, but increasing among poor families living in rural areas in the centre and south of the country. The same may hold for early pregnancy. A 2001 survey reported an increase in the proportion of women who had their first birth before the age of 20 from 12% among women currently 40-44 years of age up to 22% for women 20-24 years of age. Given that 86% of first pregnancies were terminated through induced abortion, more than one quarter of adolescents seem to have been pregnant before reaching the age of 20 (ADB 2005, 48).⁷ For 2006, the mean age of women when giving birth to their first child was set at 23.8 years (UNECE 2009).

⁷ According to official figures, the incidence of abortions (including illegal abortions) fell from 18 per 1,000 women aged 15-49 in 1991 to 8.1 per 1,000 in 2006. In that last year only 2.2% of the registered abortions concerned women under age 20 (statistics SSC via website AGIC).

2.6.2. Health

The number of people in Azerbaijan living with HIV/AIDS for 2007 was estimated at 7,800, and that was low in comparison with the rest of the region. In 2006, men made up nearly 90% of the newly registered HIV cases. Since 2001 the World Health Organization (WHO) notes a steep rise of the HIV prevalence among adults over the age 15, up to 120 per 100,000 in 2007 (WHO 2009), and still HIV prevalence may well be under-reported: in 2006 out of 263,000 people tested for HIV at least 33,000 did not go through pre-test counseling. Though mainly a men's disease, recent increases in the numbers of trafficked women and girls living with HIV are of particular concern. Notably in Baku HIV prevalence was high among injecting drug users (IDUs), and IDUs comprise the dominant mode of transmission. Since the number of drug users in Azerbaijan is quite high, and 50% to 60% of them inject heroin, the potential for further growth of HIV infection rates is strong. International organizations emphasize that levels of public awareness of HIV/AIDS are very low in Azerbaijan. In 2001, only one in 12 women spontaneously mentioned the use of condoms as a possible preventive behaviour, and less than 3% of women independently identified HIV testing as a form of prevention (ADB 2005, 53-4; CIA World Factbook). For 2000-2007, the WHO (2009) set the proportion of the 15-24-year-olds with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS at a very low 5% of males and 6% of females. In Azerbaijan HIV/AIDS treatment is still in its infancy. Access to Anti Retro-Viral Therapy (ART) was limited and, in spite of legally free treatment, HIV patients had to pay for receiving treatment. Coverage of people with advanced HIV infection was only 14% (WHO 2009; Center Women and Modern World *et al* 2009).

Concerning contraceptive prevalence, in a 2001 survey nearly three out of four women stated that they wanted more information about contraception, including 85% of women aged 20–24 years. At the same time 45% of married women reported an unmet need for effectively limiting childbearing. Clearly, like in the former Soviet Union induced abortion still is the main method of fertility control. The 2001 RHS survey reported the rather high number of 116 abortions per 1,000 women aged 15-44 years in a period of May 1998 – April 2001. Data on the sex ratio at birth and at later age (section 2.6.1), indicating a substantially larger proportion of boys being born, strongly suggests that selective sex abortion is taking place. In a 2006 survey, 63% of the female respondents said to be aware of selective sex abortion practices, though less than 30% said to consider such practices acceptable. Obstetricians expressed their concern to researchers that four out of 10 women referring to them and wanting to discontinue pregnancy did so because they were bearing a girl (Republic of Azerbaijan 2005, 44; ADB 2005, 50-1; Cosby *et al* 2007, 50-1).

For 2000-2005, the probability of not surviving to age 40 was estimated at the relatively high score of 12.4% of the relevant age cohort. For 2006, life expectancy at birth in Azerbaijan was set at 63.6 years for males and 70.9 years for females (UNDP 2008). For 2009, life expectancy at birth was estimated at 62.5 years for males, a decrease of 1.1 year, and 71.3 years for females, an increase for the latter of 0.4 year (CIA World Factbook), enlarging the already large gender difference. The health situation of many men in Azerbaijan is quite worrisome. Alcohol and drug dependency among men are growing and in overall terms, men are much more prone to alcohol and drug dependence than women. Men's alcohol dependence is cited as a major "family" problem by many women who are often victims of alcohol-related male violence. Men are also heavy smokers. Tuberculosis (TB) is a major health issue for men in Azerbaijan and although women are also susceptible, men constitute over three in four newly emerged and ongoing cases of active TB (ADB 2009, 53).

The proportion of the population undernourished --living below a minimum level of dietary energy consumption as defined by the FAO—decreased but is still considerable: it fell from 27% in both 1990-1992 and 1995-1997 to 12% in 2005 (UN MDG Indicators). General health facilities shows some striking spatial disparities to the detriment of rural areas. In 2006, the share of the population not using an improved water source was 22%, with still a large spatial divide: 5% in urban areas and 41% in rural areas. Whereas the situation in urban areas improved (from 18% non-use in 1990), progress in rural areas (49% non-use in 1990) lagged behind. Moreover, water supply in notably Baku is reported to be intermittent. Water shortages tend to affect lower income households and particularly poor women more adversely, as they spend a higher proportion of time and income on strategies to cope with such shortages, including queuing for water, water storage, and treatment like boiling. Also in 2006 the proportion of people not using improved sanitation facilities was 20%, again with considerable differences between the urban (10%) and the rural population (30%). In the 2000s, these figures remained the same, indicating lack of any progress. Many rural residents still use traditional pit latrines or open pits (ADB 2005; ADB 2009a; WHO 2009).

2.6.3. Women's labour market share

In Table 5 we present the division of the Azerbaijan labour force by industry and gender, for the labour force at large.⁸ The table shows that still a considerable part of the Azerbaijani labour force is in agriculture: 40% of the females, 37% of the males. For both sexes, wholesale and retail trade is the second largest employer, though for females this industry is, with 22%, more important than for males, with 10.5% employed in wholesale and retail. For women, education comes third (11.6%), followed by health and social work (6.5%) and manufacturing (4.6%). The share of manufacturing in employment is still quite low, which is also the case for men (5.2%). In 2008, 28% of the female labour force was employed in commercial services, of which three of four in wholesale and retail (22%).

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

	all		male		female	
	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%
agriculture, forestry, fishing	1,557	38.4	754	36.8	803	40.0
mining	45	1.1	35	1.7	10	0.5
manufacturing	199	4.9	107	5.2	92	4.6
utilities (gas, water, electr.)	46	1.1	37	1.8	8	0.4
construction	226	5.1	192	9.4	34	1.7
wholesale and retail	654	16.1	212	10.4	442	22.0
transport, storage, commun.	209	5.2	145	7.1	64	3.2
restaurants, hotels	23	0.6	11	0.5	12	0.6
finance	19	0.5	11	0.5	8	0.4
real estate, renting, business	139	3.4	96	4.7	43	2.1
public administrat., defense	274	6.8	205	10.0	69	3.4
education	346	8.5	113	5.5	233	11.6
health, social work	183	4.5	52	2.5	131	6.5
other community services	135	3.3	74	3.6	61	3.0
Total	4,056	100	2,048	100	2,008	100

Source: ILO Laborsta, Table 2B

Table 6 (next page) presents an overview of the female employment shares by industry for the labour force at large. Five of the 15 industries show a female share above average. With over 72%, this majority is largest in health and social work, followed by wholesale and retail (68%); education (67%); restaurants and hotels (52%), and agriculture (51%). The female share in manufacturing (46%) is in international perspective

⁸ We could also construct a table for the division by industry and gender for employees alone, based on ILO Laborsta, Table 2E, but this table contained unexplainable differences with our Table 5. For some industries, like finance, the number of employees derived from the ILO statistics was larger than their total labour force, whereas for others the number of employees was obviously too small to be taken into consideration, for example in public administration, where for 2008 the number of employees was less than 25% of the total labour force. Therefore, we left out such a table, and we have used only total labour force data to construct the female employment shares by industry (Table 6).

high, though not exceptional. By contrast, with 25% the female share in public administration is comparatively low. The shares in commercial services (68% in wholesale and retail, 52% in restaurants and hotels, 42% in finance) are rather average in international perspective. Current employment perspectives for young women in commercial services seem quite good. After a fall in annual growth (turnover) rate of the services sector at large in Azerbaijan of 7.7% yearly between 1988 and 1998, the sector showed a strong rebound by growing yearly 9.8% between 1998 and 2008. In 2008 its growth rate was even nearly 14%. By that year, the share of services in the Azerbaijani GDP was 24% (OECD 2009).

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

	x 1,000	%
agriculture, forestry, fishing	803	51.4
mining	10	22.2
manufacturing	92	46.2
utilities (gas, water, electr.)	8	17.4
construction	34	15.0
wholesale and retail	442	67.6
transport, storage, commun.	64	30.6
restaurants, hotels	12	52.1
finance	8	42.1
real estate, renting, business	43	30.9
public administrat., defense	69	25.2
education	233	67.3
health, social work	131	71.6
other community services	61	45.2
Total	2,008	49.5

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

Table 7 provides an overview of the total labour force divided by occupational group and gender, for 2008.

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

	all		male		female	
	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%
legislators, senior officials, managers	48	1.2	44	2.1	3	0.1
professionals	614	15.1	281	13.7	334	16.6
technicians, associate professionals	160	3.9	76	3.7	84	4.2
clerks	239	5.9	141	6.9	98	4.9
service, shop, sales workers	230	5.7	151	7.4	79	3.9
skilled agricultural, fishery workers	808	19.9	551	26.9	257	12.8
craft and related trades	372	9.2	236	11.5	136	6.8
plant & machine operators, assemblers	218	5.4	178	8.7	40	2.0
elementary occupations	1,362	33.6	385	16.4	977	48.7
Total	4,056	100.0	2,048	100.0	2,008	100.0

Source: ILO Laborsta, Table 2C

Table 7 shows that the skill (qualification) structure of the Azerbaijan female labour force, as captured in these statistics, has a large low end. Nearly half of all women employed can be found at the bottom of the labour market, in elementary occupations, against less than one in six men employed. Obviously, majorities of women working in agriculture et cetera and in wholesale and retail trade have been classified under “elementary occupations.” For example, in 2008 442,000 women were counted as working in wholesale and retail, but only 79,000 --less than one in five-- were classified as service, shop or sales workers. By contrast, 151,000 of 212,000 men working in wholesale and retail --nearly three in four-- were classified as service, shop or sales workers. One may question whether such different outcomes are based on a real valuation of gender differences in skills (qualifications) used, or may reflect a mere statistical bias. Slightly over 20% of all women could be traced in the three occupational groups ranked highest in organisational hierarchies, of which over 80% as professionals: another peculiar outcome. We may assume that secondary and tertiary education teachers, researchers and high-skilled medical staff have been grouped under “professionals”, whereas primary education teachers and nurses can be found under “technicians and associate professionals”.⁹ Obviously, these classifications have not been consistently followed here.

Building on Table 7, Table 8 shows the female employment shares by occupational group for 2008. Compared to the average share of nearly 50%, women were largely overrepresented in elementary occupations (72%), and slightly overrepresented among professionals (54%) and technicians and associate professionals (53%). We just present these outcomes here, as we already commented on the classifications and calculations behind them. It should be emphasized that at the top of the hierarchy, covered by legislators, senior officials and managers, the female share was with 6% very low. We already saw (section 2.1.2) that in 2004 women occupied less than 12% of all senior decision-making posts in government – an outcome in line with our findings. By contrast, in 2006 women made up 52% of all researchers, 43% of all university professors, and 61% of all doctors (Cosby *et al* 2007; UNECE 2009).

⁹ According to education statistics, in 2006 86.5% of the primary school teachers were female, as were 66.1% of the secondary school teachers (UNESCO 2010).

Table 8. Female employment shares by occupational group, total labour force, Azerbaijan 2008

	x 1,000	%
legislators, senior officials, managers	3	6.3
professionals	334	54.4
technicians, associate professionals	84	52.5
clerks	98	41.0
service, shop, sales workers	79	34.3
skilled agricultural, fishery workers	257	31.8
craft and related trades	136	36.6
plant & machine operators, assemblers	40	18.3
elementary occupations	977	71.7
Total	2,008	49.5

Source: authors' calculations on ILO Laborsta, Table 2C (Labour Force Survey)

2.7. Education and skill levels of the female labour force

2.7.1. Literacy

Traditionally literacy has been quite high in Azerbaijan. The country's adult literacy rate—those age 15 and over that can read and write—in 1999-2006 was, according to the UNDP Human Development Indicators, 98.7%, divided in 99.0% for men and 98.3% for women, resulting in a women to men parity rate of 99% (UNDP 2008). These rates differ slightly from those found in the country's last in-depth investigation into literacy, the UNICEF MICS survey (2000): 99.5% for men and 98.2% for women. According to this survey, the remaining pockets of illiteracy concentrate on poor women in rural areas (ADB 2005). For 2007 the youth (15-24-year-olds) literacy rate of Azerbaijan was with 99.9% close to the maximum; young females even scored 100%, against 99.9% for the young males. Already in 1999, both scores were 99.9% (MDG Indicator 2.3, derived from ADB 2009a).

2.7.2. Education of girls

In 2006, the combined gross enrollment rate in education was for Azerbaijan 66.2%, divided in 65.3% for females and 67.2% for males, or 97% women to men parity (UNDP 2008). The total school life expectancy in 2006 was 9.4 years for girls and 9.8 years for boys (UNESCO 2010). Compared to figures delivered by the large 2000 MICS survey, this implied considerable progress especially for girls, as by 2000 total years in school for girls were 7.9, thus 1.5 years shorter, versus 8.9 years for boys, or 0.9 years shorter (UIS 2010).

According to UNESCO figures based on administrative data, the net enrollment ratio in primary education was in 2006 84.8%, somewhat lower compared to 2000 when this rate was 90.9%. The 2006 rate for girls was 83.3% and for boys 86.2%, implying 96.5% women to men parity. Another important indicator concerning primary educational advancement is the primary completion rate, taking account of drop-outs and indicating which share of the children who have enrolled in the first grade of primary education can be expected to reach the last grade. With 91.9% in 2006, this rate was high in Azerbaijan; the girls' rate was 90.0% and boys' rate 93.7%, bringing women to men parity at 96%. Earlier MICS survey data, as of 2000, showed net attendance rates higher than the administrative enrollment rates eight years later. By then, with 91.0% the female net attendance rate was slightly higher than the male rate (90.8%); the urban attendance rate (91.6%) was somewhat higher than the rural rate (90.2%), whereas the rate for the richest 20% (93.6%) was clearly higher than the one for the poorest 20% (88.7%) (UNESCO 2010).

Again according to UNESCO 2006 figures based on administrative data, the net enrollment ratio in secondary education was 77.8%, divided in 76.4% for females and 79.2% for males, or (again) 96.5% women to men parity. Compared to the 2000 MICS survey net attendance rates of total 85.8%, females 84.4% and males 87.2%, this was consistently 8%points lower. Also at secondary level, the urban attendance rate was slightly higher than the rural one (86.9% against 84.6%), and children from the richest 20% families had a clearly higher rate than those from the 20% poorest: 89.5% against 81.4%. Worst-off were girls from the poorest 20% families, with an attendance rate of 80.8%, versus 82.1% for boys from the poorest 20% (UNESCO 2010).

The vocational and tertiary education sector in Azerbaijan is characterized by a large drop in enrollments compared with those at the compulsory levels of education. Beyond the age of 16, enrollment rates drop off sharply: in 2004 only 13% of young adults aged 17–24 were enrolled in postsecondary institutions (ADB 2005). Enrollment of young women in tertiary education is lower than that of young males, though the gap seems to be closing. At the beginning of the academic year 2006-2007, female students made up 47% of all tertiary students, implying over 88% women to men parity in tertiary education (ADB 2009a; SSC via website AGIC) -- a 18%points increase. However, with 29% female participation in vocational schools and vocational lyceums is relatively low. The same applies to organizations with postgraduate courses and institutions with doctor's degree, where the female share stuck at 28%. Choices of study at state higher educational institutions are still quite very gendered. Young women tend to opt for courses in fields such as education (in 2006-07 88% women), public health (67% women), natural sciences (73% women),

humanities and social sciences (58%), and men for geology (13% women), engineering and electronics (11% women), and economics and management (24% women). In 2006-07, over three in four female students (76%) had chosen education, public health, natural sciences and humanities and social sciences, against three in ten (31%) male students (SSC via website AGIC). According to figures as of 2000, the urban – rural and income disparities were by far largest in tertiary education. The share of urban youngsters 17-22 of age following higher education, this was over four times of rural youngsters, and the shares for youngsters from the richest 12 times that of the poorest 20% families (UNESCO 2010). Anecdotic evidence indicates that these proportions have hardly changed (cf. Cosby *et al* 2007).

2.7.3. Female skill levels

Table 9 presents the division of the economically active population of Azerbaijan by gender and educational attainment, based on official estimates as of 2008 and following the ISCED division. A majority of the labour force has their highest level of education completed at ISCED level 3. Gender differences are rather small. Women are less represented at the highest level (ISCED 5-6), with women to men parity 78%, but they are more represented at the second highest level (ISCED 4), bringing women to men parity here to 123%. If these figures are correct, we cannot but conclude that for both genders, but especially for women, a serious underutilization of skills is at hand. The fact that in the same year nearly half of the female jobs is classified as "elementary occupations" is difficult to reconcile with the finding that less than 5% of the female labour force has an education completed below ISCED level 3. If we attach a 1 to 5 ranking to the five levels, starting with 1 for ISCED X-1, the outcomes clarify that the gender gap in education of the labour force is quite small: the average female rating is 3.51, against a male average of 3.59.

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

	all		male		female	
	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%
no education completed (ISCED X-1)	11	0.3	6	0.3	5	0.2
second level, first stage (ISCED 2)	145	3.4	60	2.7	85	4.0
second level, second stage (ISCED 3)	2,608	60.7	1,315	60.0	1,293	61.4
third level, first stage (ISCED 4)	573	13.3	262	12.0	311	14.8
third level, second stage (ISCED 5-6)	958	22.3	547	25.0	411	19.5
Total	4,295	100.0	2,190	100.0	2,105	100.0

Source: ILO Laborsta, Table 1B

Table 10 shows the more detailed distribution of educational levels for the female labour force by age group.

Table 10. Female labour force by age group (incl. unemployed) and highest level of education completed, Azerbaijan, 2008

ISCED	X-1	2	3	4	5-6	total	x 1,000	rating
15-19	1	14	82	3	0	100%	97	2.87
20-24	0	3	69	17	11	100%	212	3.36
25-29	0	2	56	15	27	100%	271	3.67
30-34	0	1	62	12	25	100%	297	3.61
35-39	0	2	56	19	23	100%	272	3.63
40-44	0	3	68	14	15	100%	315	3.41
45-49	0	2	64	17	16	100%	284	3.44
50-54	0	4	64	15	17	100%	200	3.45
55-59	1	2	58	22	17	100%	81	3.52
60-64	7	13	40	22	18	100%	49	3.31
65+	16	9	38	12	24	100%	33	3.16
Total	0	4	61	15	20	100%	2,112	3.51

Source: authors' calculations on ILO Laborsta, Table 1B

It turns out that the women 25-29 of age were highest educated (a rating, as elucidated above, of 3.67), followed by the 35-39 of age (3.63) and those aged 30-34 (3.61). In all three groups, over 35% had a completed education at ISCED level 4 or higher, and 23-27% even were educated at the combined highest ISCED levels 5-6. Jointly, 21% of the 15-29-year-olds, our target group, was educated at level 5-6, and 11% at level 4, though of course part of this group was still in education. As the ratings show not only the cohort from 60 of age onwards but also the middle-aged group, women aged 40-54, turned out to be relatively low educated.

We can now produce an estimate of the size of the target group of the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project for Azerbaijan, the girls and young women aged 15-29, working in urban areas in commercial services -- that is, wholesale and retail as well as commercial services more narrowly defined, like finance and restaurants and hotels. The total size of the female labour force aged 15-29 in Azerbaijan can be estimated at 580,000. Given an urbanisation rate of 52%, about 300,000 lived and worked in urban areas. Of this 300,000, about 30%¹⁰ or approximately 90,000 girls and young women can be estimated to belong to our target group as they worked in commercial services. A growing share of them, roughly to be estimated at about 40% or 36,000, may currently work outside paid employment. Some 30,000 to 40,000 (depending on the economic conditions) girls and young women will enter into commercial services employment in the next five years.

¹⁰ We calculate with a 4%points overrepresentation of girls and young women aged 15-29 in commercial services compared to women over age 29.

2.8. Wages and working conditions of the target group

2.8.1. Wages

Concerning wages, we focus here on the differences in wages between men and women or the gender pay (wage) gap¹¹, though Table 11 also gives a picture of the (large) wage differences between industries in Azerbaijan. It shows that for both genders by far the highest earnings are in mining, paying respectively 217% (men) and 346% (women) over the total average earnings, with finance ranking second. Earnings in the other industries follow at large distance. Remarkably low –also for males, though here a considerable gender pay gap is left-- are the official average earnings in education, health and social work. Except for agriculture and fishing, the health and social sector even closes the ranks.

Table 11. Average monthly earnings by industry and by gender, Azerbaijan, 2008, in AZN

	total	male	female	m/f gap
agriculture	114.7	118.9	93.0	21.8
fishing	104.6	104.9	87.4	16.7
mining	1,011.4	1,029.0	826.0	19.7
manufacturing	251.6	253.9	191.6	24.5
utilities (gas, water, electr.)	287.4	293.3	232.6	20.7
construction	371.9	406.1	220.7	45.7
wholesale and retail	211.3	214.3	199.1	7.1
transport, storage, commun.	329.4	355.8	210.1	40.9
restaurants, hotels	257.8	265.4	241.9	8.9
finance	812.6	877.5	573.8	34.6
real estate, renting, business	527.9	643.8	269.2	58.2
public administrat., defense	288.0	296.4	231.1	22.0
education	214.4	257.0	186.0	27.6
health, social work	130.9	167.8	112.6	32.9
other community and personal services	182.7	238.6	126.4	47.0
Total	274.4	324.6	184.5	43.2

Source: ILO Laborsta, Table 5A

In the fourth column of the table we have indicated the magnitude of the gender pay gap, on a monthly basis. It has to be added that this gap is normally calculated on an hourly base, as to eliminate gender differences in hours worked. Yet, as we will see in the next section there are any gender differences in hours worked, which means that the outcomes of Table 11 may be regarded as reasonable indications of the hourly gender pay gap in Azerbaijan. With over 43% the over-all gap in 2008 was extremely large, also in international perspective. This outcome fully fits in the picture of a highly segmented labour market that we

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

derived from the labour market statistics presented earlier. Across industries the gap was by far largest in real estate and other business, where men's average earnings more than doubled those of women, followed –in this order-- by other community and personal services; construction, and transport, storage, and communication. Remarkably small was the gender pay gap in wholesale and retail, where men had quite low earnings –unless the segmentation in occupational titles we earlier found for this industry.

2.8.2. Working conditions

Azerbaijani statistics concerning aspects of working conditions like occupational health and safety mainly focus on manufacturing industry. They point out that notably men are working here under, as it is called, disadvantageous conditions. In 2006, one in six men in manufacturing (16.3%) was working in conditions not meeting sanitary-hygienic norms; for women, this share was nearly one in ten (9.5%). The highest incidence had exposure to noise (4.9% of men, 2.3% of women) and working in air-polluted zones (5.3% of men, 1.6% of women (SSC, via website AGIC).

As Azerbaijani statistics provide rather good evidence on working hours, we concentrate here on this major issue in working conditions. Table 12 (next page) gives an overview of the distribution of hours usually worked by gender, for the total labour force, the paid employees and the self-employed. The frequency division presented here dates from 2003 but the picture still seems relevant. It shows that overall working hours were not quite long and gender differences rather small. One third of males in the labour force (34%) and just over one in five females (21%) made long hours i.e. worked 41 hours a week or more; among paid employees, these shares were with 29% respectively 16% somewhat lower. The working weeks of the self-employed were more segmented. A larger part of them worked 30 hours or less (30% of the female self-employed, against 19% of the female employees), but a larger part also worked over 40 hours (27% of female self-employed, against 16% of the female employees). If we define part-time work as less than 31 hours per week, 24% of all women in the labour force, 19% of female employees and 30% of female self-employed, worked part-time. For 2007, UNECE (2009) mentions 23% women in part-time employment, implying that this share is stable over time.

Table 12. Employment by employment status, working week (distribution of hours usually worked) and gender, Azerbaijan, 2003

hours	total labour force			paid employees			self-employed		
	total	men	women	total	men	women	total	men	women
< 9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9-15	2	1	4	2	1	4	2	1	4
16-20	4	3	6	3	2	5	5	4	7
21-30	11	9	14	6	4	10	17	15	19
31-40	54	53	55	65	64	65	41	38	45
41-50	19	21	16	15	17	13	23	26	19
> 50	10	13	5	9	12	3	12	16	8
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
x mln.	3,38	1,98	1,40	1,85	1,11	0,74	1,53	0,86	0,67

Source: authors' calculations based on ILO, Laborsta

More recent working hours information divided by gender comprises only averages, like presented in Table 13 for 2008 for paid employees.

Table 13. Average monthly working hours by industry and by gender, paid employees, Azerbaijan, 2008

	total	male	female
agriculture	149.4	148.5	152.4
fishing	163.8	158.5	179.2
mining	154.7	155.5	149.2
manufacturing	135.8	135.0	138.5
utilities (gas, water, electr.)	154.4	155.5	149.4
construction	169.6	170.1	163.4
wholesale and retail	155.3	153.7	159.0
transport, storage, commun.	156.6	156.4	157.0
restaurants, hotels	147.2	142.3	157.7
finance	154.4	156.4	148.4
real estate, renting, business	157.0	155.2	160.1
public administrat., defense	160.3	160.5	159.8
education	145.8	145.8	145.8
health, social work	145.8	145.8	145.8
other community and personal services	157.9	157.0	158.7
Total	151.5	152.5	150.2

Source: ILO Laborsta, Table 4.A

The overall gender difference is quite small: male employees worked 2.3 hours per month longer than females. However, it should be noted that in eight of 15 industries the average monthly hours of the females were longer -- in fishing (over 20 hours difference), wholesale and retail (5.3 hours difference), restaurants and hotels (15.4 hours difference), and real estate et cetera (4.9 hours difference) even much longer. Remarkable are the relatively short working months in 2008 in manufacturing industry, also compared to 200,

when the industry average still was 142.3 hours, or 6.5 hours more than in 2008 (all data: ILO Laborsta, Table 4A). Detailed figures on average working weeks for manufacturing sub-sectors (from ILO Laborsta, Table 4B) learn that in 2008 these average weeks for men and women alike were less than 30 hours in the manufacture of textile and leather goods, basic metals, and in machinery and equipment production, suggesting that these sub-sectors by then –except for structural decreasing employment, in particular in textiles et cetera-- went through a slack time.

3. Basic information for WageIndicator Questionnaire

3.1. Introduction

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

3.2. List of educational categories and ISCED levels

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

Table 14. List of educational categories in Azerbaijan (by 1/1/2010)

az_AZ	az_AZ	Translation	ISCED
31101	AZE Pre-school	Məktəbəqədərki təhsil	0
31102	AZE Elementary School grades 1 - 4	İbtidai məktəb (1 - 4 sinif)	1
31103	AZE Secondary School grades 5 - 9 (Basic education)	Orta məktəb (5 - 9 sinif)	2
31104	AZE Secondary School grades 10 - 11	Orta məktəb (10 - 11 sinif)	3
31105	AZE Secondary professional education	Orta peşə təhsili	4
31106	AZE Technical or Vocational education	Texniki və ya Peşə-texniki təhsil	3
31107	AZE Bachelor degree	Bakalavr dərəcəsi	5
31108	AZE Diploma of Specialist	Diplomlu mütəxəssis	5
31109	AZE Master's degree	Magistr dərəcəsi	5
31110	AZE Candidate of Science degree	Elmlər namizədi	5
31111	AZE Doctoral degree (PhD)	Doktorluq dərəcəsi	6
31112	AZE Doctor of Science	Elmlər doktoru	6

3.3. List of regions

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

Table 15. List of regions in Azerbaijan (by 1/1/2010)

az_AZ	az_AZ	Source label	Source label	Translation	Translation
310100000	310100131	AZE Absheron	AZE Absheron Sumqayit	Abşeron rayonu	Sumqayıt
310100000	310100332	AZE Absheron	AZE Absheron Xirdalan	Abşeron rayonu	Xırdalan
310100000	310109632	AZE Absheron	AZE Absheron A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Abşeron rayonu	Şəhər (əhalisi 10,000-dən çox)
310100000	310109704	AZE Absheron	AZE Absheron A village (less than 10,000)	Abşeron rayonu	Kənd, qəsəbə (əhalisi 10,000-dən az)
310100000	310109805	AZE Absheron	AZE Absheron Rural area	Abşeron rayonu	Kənd, vilayət
310200000	310200231	AZE Aran	AZE Aran Mingachevir	Aran rayonu	Mingəçevir
310200000	310200332	AZE Aran	AZE Aran Ali Bayramli (Shirvan)	Aran rayonu	Şirvan
310200000	310200132	AZE Aran	AZE Aran Yevlax	Aran rayonu	Yevlax
310200000	310209632	AZE Aran	AZE Aran A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Aran rayonu	Şəhər (əhalisi 10,000-dən çox)
310200000	310209704	AZE Aran	AZE Aran A village (less than 10,000)	Aran rayonu	Kənd, qəsəbə (əhalisi 10,000-dən az)
310200000	310209805	AZE Aran	AZE Aran Rural area	Aran rayonu	Kənd, vilayət
310300000	310300201	AZE Baku	AZE Baku Baku	Bakı	Bakı
310300000	310300302	AZE Baku	AZE Baku The suburbs of Baku	Bakı	Bakı ətrafı yaşayış məntəqələri
310300000	310300132	AZE Baku	AZE Baku Bakixanov	Bakı	Bakixanov
310300000	310300432	AZE Baku	AZE Baku Qaracuxur	Bakı	Qaraçuxur
310300000	310309632	AZE Baku	AZE Baku A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Bakı	Şəhər (əhalisi 10,000-dən çox)
310300000	310309704	AZE Baku	AZE Baku A village (less than 10,000)	Bakı	Kənd, qəsəbə (əhalisi 10,000-dən az)
310300000	310309805	AZE Baku	AZE Baku Rural area	Bakı	Kənd, vilayət
310400000	310400132	AZE Yukhari-Karabakh	AZE Yukhari-Karabakh Aghdam	Yuxarı Qarabağ	Ağdam
310400000	310400232	AZE Yukhari-Karabakh	AZE Yukhari-Karabakh Fizuli	Yuxarı Qarabağ	Fizuli
310400000	310409632	AZE Yukhari-Karabakh	AZE Yukhari-Karabakh A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Yuxarı Qarabağ	Şəhər (əhalisi 10,000-dən çox)
310400000	310409704	AZE Yukhari-Karabakh	AZE Yukhari-Karabakh A village (less than 10,000)	Yuxarı Qarabağ	Kənd, qəsəbə (əhalisi 10,000-dən az)
310400000	310409805	AZE Yukhari-Karabakh	AZE Yukhari-Karabakh Rural area	Yuxarı Qarabağ	Kənd, vilayət
310500000	310500132	AZE Dagliq Shirvan	AZE Dagliq Shirvan Aghsu	Dağlıq Şirvan	Ağsu
310500000	310500232	AZE Dagliq Shirvan	AZE Dagliq Shirvan Ismayilly	Dağlıq Şirvan	İsmayıllı
310500000	310500332	AZE Dagliq Shirvan	AZE Dagliq Shirvan Samaxi	Dağlıq Şirvan	Şamaxı
310500000	310509704	AZE Dagliq Shirvan	AZE Dagliq Shirvan A village (less than 10,000)	Dağlıq Şirvan	Kənd, qəsəbə (əhalisi 10,000-dən az)
310500000	310509805	AZE Dagliq Shirvan	AZE Dagliq Shirvan Rural area	Dağlıq Şirvan	Kənd, vilayət

310600000	310600132	AZE Quba-Khachmaz	AZE Quba-Khachmaz Davachi	Quba-Xaçmaz	Dəvəçi
310600000	310600232	AZE Quba-Khachmaz	AZE Quba-Khachmaz Quba	Quba-Xaçmaz	Quba
310600000	310600332	AZE Quba-Khachmaz	AZE Quba-Khachmaz Siazan	Quba-Xaçmaz	Siyəzən
310600000	310600432	AZE Quba-Khachmaz	AZE Quba-Khachmaz Khachmaz	Quba-Xaçmaz	Xaçmaz
310600000	310609632	AZE Quba-Khachmaz	AZE Quba-Khachmaz A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Quba-Xaçmaz	Şəhər (əhalisi 10,000-dən çox)
310600000	310609704	AZE Quba-Khachmaz	AZE Quba-Khachmaz A village (less than 10,000)	Quba-Xaçmaz	Kənd, qəsəbə (əhalisi 10,000-dən az)
310600000	310609805	AZE Quba-Khachmaz	AZE Quba-Khachmaz Rural area	Quba-Xaçmaz	Kənd, vilayət
310700000	310700331	AZE Ganja-Qazakh	AZE Ganja-Qazakh Ganja	Gəncə-Qazax	Gəncə
310700000	310700232	AZE Ganja-Qazakh	AZE Ganja-Qazakh Goygol	Gəncə-Qazax	Göygöl
310700000	310700132	AZE Ganja-Qazakh	AZE Ganja-Qazakh Qazax	Gəncə-Qazax	Qazax
310700000	310700432	AZE Ganja-Qazakh	AZE Ganja-Qazakh Shamkir	Gəncə-Qazax	Şəmkir
310700000	310709632	AZE Ganja-Qazakh	AZE Ganja-Qazakh A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Gəncə-Qazax	Şəhər (əhalisi 10,000-dən çox)
310700000	310709704	AZE Ganja-Qazakh	AZE Ganja-Qazakh A village (less than 10,000)	Gəncə-Qazax	Kənd, qəsəbə (əhalisi 10,000-dən az)
310700000	310709805	AZE Ganja-Qazakh	AZE Ganja-Qazakh Rural area	Gəncə-Qazax	Kənd, vilayət
310800000	310800104	AZE Kalbajar-Lachin	AZE Kalbajar-Lachin Kalbajar	Kəlbəcər-laçın	Kəlbəcər
310800000	310800232	AZE Kalbajar-Lachin	AZE Kalbajar-Lachin Lachin	Kəlbəcər-laçın	Laçın
310800000	310809704	AZE Kalbajar-Lachin	AZE Kalbajar-Lachin A village (less than 10,000)	Kəlbəcər-laçın	Kənd, qəsəbə (əhalisi 10,000-dən az)
310800000	310809805	AZE Kalbajar-Lachin	AZE Kalbajar-Lachin Rural area	Kəlbəcər-laçın	Kənd, vilayət
310900000	310900132	AZE Lankaran	AZE Lankaran Jalilabad	Lənkəran	Cəlilabad
310900000	310900232	AZE Lankaran	AZE Lankaran Lankaran	Lənkəran	Lənkəran
310900000	310909632	AZE Lankaran	AZE Lankaran A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Lənkəran	Şəhər (əhalisi 10,000-dən çox)
310900000	310909704	AZE Lankaran	AZE Lankaran A village (less than 10,000)	Lənkəran	Kənd, qəsəbə (əhalisi 10,000-dən az)
310900000	310909805	AZE Lankaran	AZE Lankaran Rural area	Lənkəran	Kənd, vilayət
311000000	311000332	AZE Nagorno Karabakh	AZE Nagorno Karabakh Shushi	Dağlıq Qarabağ	Şuşa
311000000	311000132	AZE Nagorno Karabakh	AZE Nagorno Karabakh Tartar	Dağlıq Qarabağ	Tərtər
311000000	311000232	AZE Nagorno Karabakh	AZE Nagorno Karabakh Xankandi (Stepanakert)	Dağlıq Qarabağ	Xankəndi
311000000	311009632	AZE Nagorno Karabakh	AZE Nagorno Karabakh A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Dağlıq Qarabağ	Şəhər (əhalisi 10,000-dən çox)
311000000	311009704	AZE Nagorno Karabakh	AZE Nagorno Karabakh A village (less than 10,000)	Dağlıq Qarabağ	Kənd, qəsəbə (əhalisi 10,000-dən az)
311000000	311009805	AZE Nagorno Karabakh	AZE Nagorno Karabakh Rural area	Dağlıq Qarabağ	Kənd, vilayət

311100000	311100132	AZE Nakhchivan Autonomous Republic	AZE Nakhchivan Autonomous Republic Julfa	Naxçıvan Muxtar Respublikası	Culfa
311100000	311100232	AZE Nakhchivan Autonomous Republic	AZE Nakhchivan Autonomous Republic Nakhchivan	Naxçıvan Muxtar Respublikası	Naxçıvan
311100000	311100332	AZE Nakhchivan Autonomous Republic	AZE Nakhchivan Autonomous Republic Ordubad	Naxçıvan Muxtar Respublikası	Ordubad
311100000	311109704	AZE Nakhchivan Autonomous Republic	AZE Nakhchivan Autonomous Republic A village (less than 10,000)	Naxçıvan Muxtar Respublikası	Kənd, qəsəbə (əhalisi 10,000-dən az)
311100000	311109805	AZE Nakhchivan Autonomous Republic	AZE Nakhchivan Autonomous Republic Rural area	Naxçıvan Muxtar Respublikası	Kənd, vilayət
311200000	311200232	AZE Sheki-Zaqatala	AZE Sheki-Zaqatala Shaki	Şəki-Zaqatala	Şəki
311200000	311200132	AZE Sheki-Zaqatala	AZE Sheki-Zaqatala Zaqatala	Şəki-Zaqatala	Zaqatala
311200000	311209632	AZE Sheki-Zaqatala	AZE Sheki-Zaqatala A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Şəki-Zaqatala	Şəhər (əhalisi 10,000-dən çox)
311200000	311209704	AZE Sheki-Zaqatala	AZE Sheki-Zaqatala A village (less than 10,000)	Şəki-Zaqatala	Kənd, qəsəbə (əhalisi 10,000-dən az)
311200000	311209805	AZE Sheki-Zaqatala	AZE Sheki-Zaqatala Rural area	Şəki-Zaqatala	Kənd, vilayət
319900000	319905100	AZE Abroad	AZE Abroad Armenia	Xaricdə	Ermənistan
319900000	319926800	AZE Abroad	AZE Abroad Georgia	Xaricdə	Gürcüstan
319900000	319936400	AZE Abroad	AZE Abroad Iran	Xaricdə	İran
319900000	319964300	AZE Abroad	AZE Abroad Russia	Xaricdə	Rusiya
319900000	319999900	AZE Abroad	AZE Abroad Other country	Xaricdə	Digər ölkə

3.4. List of languages

Table 16. List of languages in Azerbaijan (by 1/1/2010)

Az_AZ	Source label	Translation
31001	AZE Azerbaijani (Azeri)	Азәрбајҹан дили
31002	AZE Lezgi	Лезги чІал
31003	AZE Russian	Русский
31004	AZE Armenian	армянский
31998	AZE Local dialect	местном диалекте
31999	AZE Other language	другой язык

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What is WageIndicator?

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

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

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

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

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

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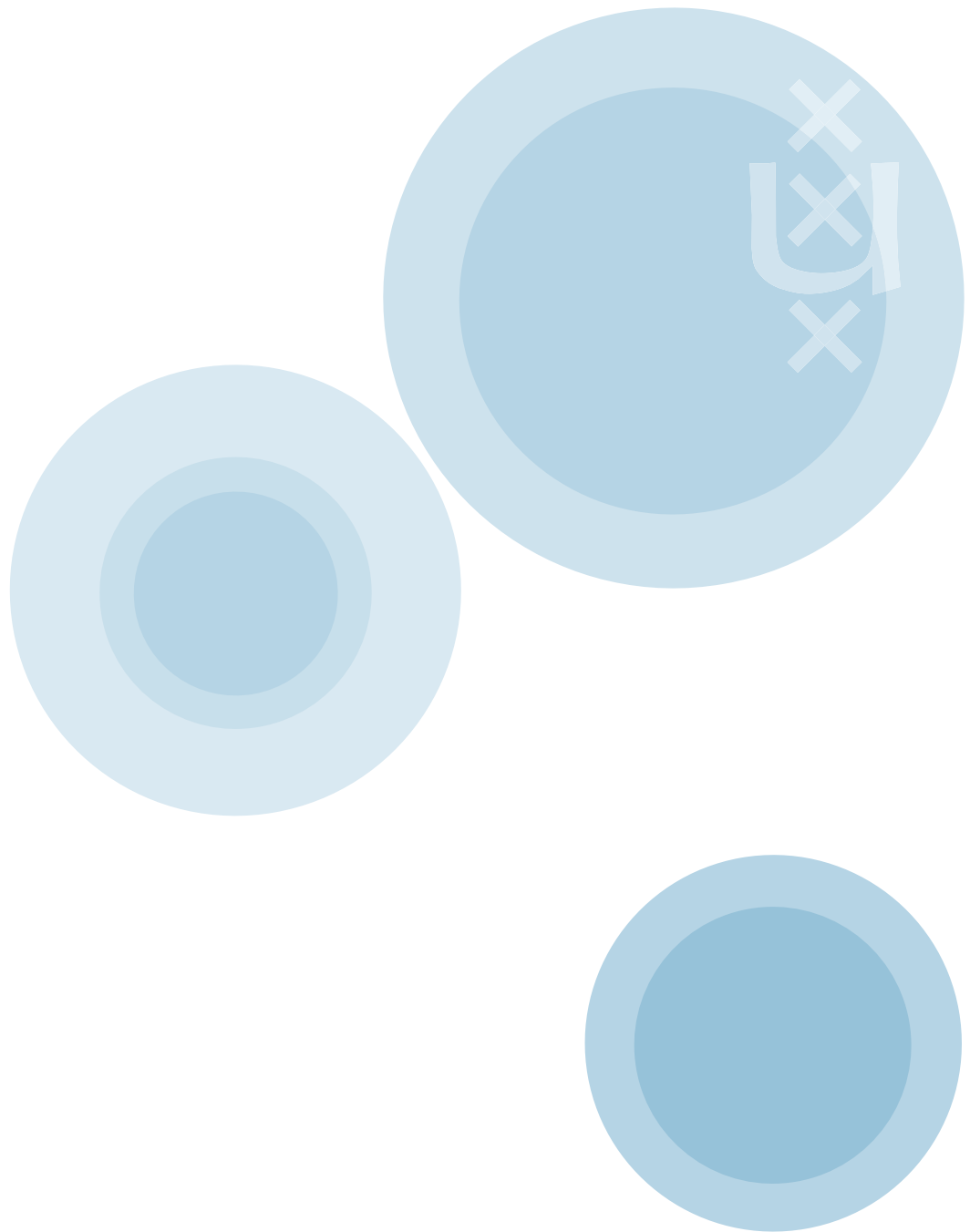
Information about AIAS

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

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

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

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



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