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Gender Inequalities in SMEs and Governmental Structures in Kazakhstan

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Introduction

Introduction into the field of gender and economics takes place at three different levels. The first level is that of theory. A second level is the analysis of the different positions of men and women in the economy, for example, the division of labor within the family, the position in the labor market, unequal pay, career possibilities within companies and occupational segregation. The third level has to do with policy analysis. Attention shifts here towards the directives, recommendations and action programs originating there. At this level it is quite appropriate to seek both equality between men and women and gender equality and to discuss policy options for reducing inequality.^[1]

The main goal of this Research Paper is to explore the current state in small and medium enterprises from gender aspects and identify the main problems and constraints. In addition to analysis of gender trends in the Labor market of Kazakhstan, the factors influencing employment in the private business (SMEs), the gender inequalities between the private sector and governmental structures will be explored. This analysis of Kazakhstan gender inequalities will be based primarily on the survey conducted in the private businesses and governmental enterprises, in-depth interviews with the different stakeholders in Kazakhstan labor market. Besides, the official statistics on employment, social surveys and qualitative research conducted in the country during the past years will be provided.

According to Ferber and Nelson, Gender is the social meaning that is given to biological differences between the sexes; it refers to cultural constructs rather than to biological givens (Ferber and Nelson 1993:9-10). This means that biological differences may matter, but we are abstracting from them. The focus on gender in relation to economics implies studying another line of economic research. By using the word “gender”, we concentrate on “the system of social relations that produces distinctions between males and females” (Klamer 1992:323). This means that biological differences may matter, but we are abstracting from them[2].

The word “gender”, on the other hand, refers to differences between men and women determined by social and cultural values. This means that gender differences between men and women vary across countries and regions as well as over time within countries - and consequently can be changed by education, government policy, media images and opinion leaders. (Anker, 1998).

Many differences between men and women, such as those in income, life expectancy, educational attainment, can be seen and measured; and readdressed. Laws and government policies can be examined to determine whether there is discrimination against men or women. But the term “gender” in this research refers to the social constructs – the institutions – that greatly influence our behavior and interactions. Thus, the institutional changes in the labor markets of transitional economies, with a particular focus on Kazakhstan economy will be considered and analyzed as well.

1. Models of labor markets

In terms of Labor markets with gender division, the Western European welfare states can be divided into four groups according to Julkunen (1992)[3]:

- The “core” of western Europe (Germany, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Luxemburg, Northern Italy, Austria, Switzerland)
- Mediterranean belt (Greece, Spain, Portugal, Southern Italy, Ireland)
- Modern Nordic welfare state (Denmark, Iceland, Finland, Norway, Sweden)
- Liberal social structure (United Kingdom)

A similar division has been proposed by Lewis (1992), based on societal perception of the male-breadwinner role and the extent to which women are viewed as dependants. According to this division, western European countries range from strong to modified and then to weak male-breadwinner states. Ireland and Germany, for example, are classified as strong male-breadwinner states which define wives as dependent upon their spouse and do not encourage women’s gainful

employment when they are married or have children. The Nordic countries represent weak male-breadwinner states. However, Lewis's distinction is not necessarily sufficient, since taxation systems and social benefit policies are also very relevant (Rubery and Smith, 1996) Generally speaking, the Western and Southern European welfare state is built on men being breadwinner and women homemakers. The Nordic welfare state, on the contrary, is based on the normalization of women's participation in gainful employment and a shared breadwinner role with men.

In other studies on transition economies there are references on existence of two alternative models of transitional Labor markets: the first model exists in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) and the second one – in the countries of the former USSR (except Baltic's countries which are considered as a special case)[4].

The period of transition has reflected on the functioning of labor markets in the CEE. Many important issues these countries face have not been known to the countries with the developed market economies:

- Changes in wages due to the sharp drop of demand for labor force in the conditions of transformational crisis,
- Necessity in the movement of big amount of people from the state sector into the private one,
- Lack of financial sources to create the institutional network existing for developed labor markets

Nobody could predict that the labor market of CIS will have the different scenario and form the specific models that are different from the countries of CEE. The standard set of institutions was set up – the legal base for minimum wage, the insurance system from unemployment, system of collective agreements and striking activity.

The Portrait of Labor Market for CIS during 1992-2000 years was the following:

1. Employment in C.I.S. turn out to be a firm and not too sensitive to the external shocks of transitional period. For this period it dropped by 13%. It has been in disproportion to reduction of GDP that reached 40%. The Number employed in CEE decrease by 20-25% under comparable or even smaller value of GDP's reduction.
2. In spite of greater depth and length of transitional crisis, a growing unemployment in C.I.S. was a weak and had a less explosive nature.
3. The Nature of unemployment was unusual - without any sharp picks which were quite typical for CEE's countries
4. The was an unusual feature – a sharp reduction in the duration of working time
5. By the official data, a reduction of real salary has reached 60% and there have been systematic delays in its payment
6. Another practice of voluntary firings versus involuntarily leaves in the CEE - other paradoxical feature.
7. The work on a time-basis, involuntarily administrative leaves, secondary employment, employment in informal sector, delays in wages/salaries and “shadow” payments became the business card of CIS labor market.

8. Despite the shocks in the economy of C.I.S. countries, strikes' activity was registered at the very low mark. For comparison, in Poland there were 230 days lost in payment per thousand employed workers in 1992. In first half 1990-s years there were from 3 to 25 days lost in payment per thousand workers employed, but by the end of 1990 s this figured dropped to 3 days.

2. Gender aspects of Labor market in Transition countries

There have been many changes in the labor market during the years of independence in terms of gender aspects. Prior to the economic transition, individuals were required to work if able and as a result, unemployment was officially eradicated. Both men and women had equal access to job opportunities. However, during the period of economic restructuring the work requirement is no longer enacted, and as a consequence unemployment has become a very painful feature.

Men and women have entered the transition process unprepared to face the loss of job security and massive lay-offs. The situation at the onset of the transition process reflected the past system, where women played in most cases a role of second-earners employed in less strategic sectors within the industrialization led by heavy industries. Despite participation in the labor force women remained responsible for childcare and family. As a result, many working mothers had less interest in management positions or engaging in related activities, such as trade unions or professional associations.

The closure of Soviet factories has resulted in increased unemployment for women and men who had previously been employed in full-time, permanent jobs in the formal sector. While men often have remained unemployed for extended periods of time during the transition, women have tended to seek income through the informal economy[5]. The transition to privatization also resulted in the elimination of free health care provided by the state and in the restructuring of the state health care and education systems. These changes led to the decreases in state care-giving services and, consequently, to increases in unemployment in areas, where women constituted the predominant labor force. Examples of women's informal work include self-employed, home-based workers, street and market vendors, small-scale farmers; and day workers and employees of informal businesses and small and medium size enterprises.

Many enterprises experienced wage arrears and many others enterprises - shut down. The transition period of the 1990s in the Republic of Kazakhstan was characterized by large-scale emigration and the emergence of new types of labor migration flows: labor and irregular migration, refugees and flows of internally displaced people, commercial ("shuttle") trade, foreign-licensed labor and cross-border and seasonal migration. Many differences between men and women on the labor market, such as those in income, educational attainment, can be observed and measured.

Changes during the 1990s had negative impact on men and women in terms is of the loss of job security and employment cuts, but until recently, women took over a large share of the adjustment costs. This could be explained by the horizontal and vertical segregation of women's jobs, but also by their position as secondary earners, inherited pattern of male dominated labor

market institutions (trade unions, chamber of commerce) and policies. The latter reflected a traditional male breadwinner approach to employment despite high levels of women's participation in the labor market in the past.

Entrepreneurship is becoming an important source of job creation and new career opportunities. There is however, a gender asymmetry in using these opportunities, which is also reflected in how men and women share the costs of adjustments on the labor market to the market conditions.

The number of women entrepreneurs in all transitional countries is much lower than men. National studies confirm lower levels of women's entrepreneurial activity and underline the significance of gender specific barriers starting businesses. The studies of Bulgaria, Hungary and Poland indicate that most women businesses are small or micro-enterprises and that many women became self-employed only due to the lack of other job opportunities. Many women are involved in such activities as cross-border trade, subcontracting work at home or street trade[6]. In transition economies, the overall gender trends show that[7]:

- 1) Until recently women absorbed a disproportionately large share of employment cuts.
- 2) During the last two years, the available data show that men were more affected than women by employment cuts, except Armenia, Slovakia and Slovenia. It probably reflects the pattern of structural changes and longer protection of men's job in industry.
- 3) Data on sectoral changes and self-employment in selected transitional countries show that they did not benefit as often as men from job opportunities in the private sector and in the most dynamic branches of the services sector.
- 4) In many transitional countries lower unemployment rates reflected women's withdrawal from the labor market, especially in the first phase of the transition process.
- 5) Despite successes of women-entrepreneurs, men start their own businesses usually twice as often as women. During the 1990s the gap between men and women in entrepreneurial activities has widened in most of countries for which data are available
- 6) Women's share in part-time employment increased, which could indicate the trends towards feminization of this market segment. The Gender asymmetry should be seen in the context of significant differences in the economic situation, process in reforms and policies in countries and sub-regions[8].
- 7) For many women self-employment became the only avenue for paid employment and income. At the same time, gender specific barriers made it more difficult for women to start own business in the emerging market environment, under the conditions of unstable market institutions and weak support for entrepreneurial activities. Establishing gender sensitive policies supporting SMEs development is a priority of economic policies in transition countries[9].

Four general major features emerge as essential in the labor markets of CIS: pervasive labor hoarding, the importance of social assets, mounting wage arrears, and the mobility of some workers. The first two features can be considered as forces of inertia, the last two as forces of flexibility[10]. CIS workers face greatly uncertainty associated with leaving the firm than do workers in other transition or market economies. Uncertainty is greater in CIS because institutions are weaker and macroeconomic policy fluctuates more than elsewhere.

3. Gender equality, inequality and discrimination in labor markets

Gender equality was one of the major achievements of the Soviet Union and the socialist regimes of Central Europe. Women had equal access to schooling, health care, and employment and, to some extent, leadership. The consequences were evident: literacy rates were high among both women and men, levels of female employment often exceeded those of the OECD, and benefits such as pensions were provided equally to men and women[11].

• Occupational segregation of men and women

Although this is now a flourishing area of research, the interest in gender segregation at works is relatively recent. Much of the research has emerged as a result of the upsurge of academic interest in what we might broadly categorize as women's studies[12].

Despite the Equal Pay and Sex Discrimination Acts, there are still clear pay differentials between women and men. This differential may partly reflect the fact that some women may still be doing virtually the same work as men for less pay, but without doubt gender segregation is the major cause of pay disparities. In her important and influential study, published in 1979, Catherine Hakim distinguished between two different aspects of segregation: horizontal segregation refers to the concentration of women and men in different types of work, vertical segregation to the concentration of men in higher grades, women in lower grades, both within and between occupations and industries. Taken together, these account for women's lower levels of pay and face us with a substantial picture of inequality.

Gender segregation is perceived in the asymmetric dislocations of men and women in different structures: by industry, profession and position. Horizontal segregation is seen in the different professional groups (both in industry and profession) and the vertical one – among the same professional groups (in positions).

The reason why occupational segregation by sex should be of critical concern to researchers and policy makers extend well beyond the very important equity concerns and a desire to improve the situation for women.

First, occupation segregation by sex (where, as at present, women tend to have lower paying and lower status jobs, and where work in female-dominated occupations is similar to activities women perform at home) has an important negative effect on how men see women as well as how women see themselves by reinforcing and perpetuating gender stereotypes. This, in turn, negatively affects women's status and empowerment[13].

Second, occupational segregation based on the sex of workers has a negative effect on labor market efficiency and labor market functioning.

Third, sex segregation is a major labor market rigidity, greatly reducing a labor market's ability to respond to change.

Fourth, the segregation of men and women into different occupations negatively affects the education and training of future generations.

Fifth, occupational segregation probably keeps many women out of wage employment altogether. This undesirable effect is of particular importance in countries where reducing high population growth is a major policy objective.

Six, sex segregation is a major determinant of male-female wage differentials, a point which is stressed in the research literature, because of the fact that female occupations have lower pay as compared to male occupations.

Seventh, the low pay and income for women workers that accompany occupational segregation are becoming an increasingly important contribution to poverty and inequality in society as a whole (Anker, 1995).

- **Discrimination and its types**

Gender discrimination remains pervasive in many dimensions of life – worldwide. The nature and extent of the discrimination vary considerably across countries and regions. But the patterns are striking. In no region of the developing world are women equal to men in legal, social and economic rights. Gender gaps are widespread in access to and control of resources, in economic opportunities, in power, and political voice. Greater women’s rights and more equal participation in public life by women and men are associated with cleaner business and governmental and better governance. Whether the influence of women in public life is greater, the level of corruption is lower.

Women in business are less likely to pay bribes to governmental officials, perhaps because women have higher standards of ethical behavior or grater risk aversion. A study of 350 firms in the republic of Georgia concludes that firms owned or managed by men are 10 percent more likely to make unofficial payments to governmental officials than those owned or managed by women[14].

The differences in the workers’ race, gender, national origin, sexual orientation, and other characteristics are often attributed to labor market discrimination[15].

4. Kazakhstan model of Labor market from Gender perspectives

a. Legal and Institutional Framework on women’s rights and Equal opportunities in Kazakhstan

The legal framework of the Republic of Kazakhstan contains no definition of discrimination against women as such. However, this notion is widely used in legal practice and is incorporated in the Constitution and other normative acts. Articles 14 of the 1995 Constitution states: 1) Everyone is equal before the law and courts; 2) No one can be subject to any form of discrimination of the basis of origin, social status, job position or property ownership, gender, race, nationality, language, religious affiliation, belief, place of residence or any other kind of distinction.

There is no special normative act in the legislation securing the principle of equality between men and women. However, the National Plan of action on the Improvement of Women's status (approved by the Government on 19 July, 1999) foresees in the second half of the year 2000 the development, led by the National Commission on the Affairs of Family and Women, of a draft law "on equal rights and opportunities"[16]. A National Commission on the affairs of Women and the Family was set up in March, 1999. The Commission has consultative –advisory status and deals with general problems of women's status, including the issues of equality and discrimination. Kazakhstan acceded to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in July 1998.

Kazakhstan joined the Convention on liquidation of all forms of discriminations on June, 29 in 1998. The countries that joined Convention have to adapt the measures improving the social, legal, economic, cultural, political and moral status of women. This Convention gives definition of "discrimination towards women". Discrimination occurs in different spheres both in economic inequalities and unequal opportunities for the professional training and career growth, and women's traffic[17]. According to the data of COMCON-2 Eurasia (2002), 83.3% respondents consider that there are equal rights between men and women in Kazakhstan society and there is no discrimination by gender.

b. Characteristics of gender differentials of population of the Republic of Kazakhstan

The comprehensive economic reform program affected men and women differently. Some of the effects are indirect. A move from central planning to a market economy changed the labor market payoffs to education, for example, which could affect men and women differently. Trade liberalization changed the composition of labor demand and hence the gender structure of employment.

The most evident predominance of men's personnel is in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (84%), Agency on Investments (65%), Ministry of Natural Resources and Environmental Protection (62%). The most typical regions in terms of regional gender differences are South-Kazakhstani (70%), Jambyl (60%) and Kzyl-Ordinskaya (58%).

For women it is much more difficult to remain in a paid job in comparison with the men. The ratio for unemployed women and men is 60:40. Thus, a weak competitive position of women is seen not only in the reduction of their employment, but also in the concentration in low-paid industries.

In conclusion, the data suggests that in Kazakhstan women's experience in the labor market is substantially different from men's: women work in different sectors, for fewer hours of paid work, have higher rates of schooling and literacy, are less likely to be self-employed and more likely to be unemployed.

There is a general prevalence of women over men in the population of Kazakhstan.

The share of women in the composition of population is 51.8%. In average, for 1000 women there are 929 men, moreover, there are regional differences in the gender structure of population.

So, number of female population exceeds the male population in Almaty (829 men per 1000 women) and Astana (870 men per 1000 women), as well as in Karaganda, Pavlodar, Kostanay and the Eastern-Kazakhstan oblasts. The women live 11 years in the average longer than men. The women dominate among the persons with a higher and average education, amongst retirees, widows and divorced, as well as among officially registered unemployed.

The amount of men exceed women among working on a “hiring contracts” (52.4% - men and 47.6% - women) and among the married persons (62.3% men and 55.6% women).

Women are distributed in the following way among the different ethnic groups: kazakhs (50.6%), russian and tatar (54.3%), ukrainians (53.4%), germans (52.4%), koreans (51.3%), belorussians (52.6%), poles (53.5%), bashkir (55.6%). Superiority of male population is typical for such ethnic groups as Armenians (56.7%), Chechens (53.8%), Azerbaijanis (53.6%), ingushes(53.4%), tadzhiks (52.4%), kurds (50.5%), uzbeks.

Table 1 Gender differentials in the Republic of Kazakhstan PK (census data of 1999 year, published 2003)

Indicator	Men	Women	Men%	Women, %
Population, Thousand people	7201.8	7751.3	48.2	51.8
Persons of working age	4413, 9	4657, 6	61.3	60.1
Average age, years	28,9	32,1	-	-
Expected duration of life	60. 3	71	-	-
Had registered marriages, th. people	3132.4	3140.7	62.3	55. 6
Widows, th. (thousand)	145.3	830.9	2.9	14.7
Divorced, th.	219.4	461.6	4.4	8.2
Households consisting of 1 parent and children, th.	42.4	444.8	1	10.7
Pensioners			33.5	66.5
Persons with higher education,	603.5	745.7	12	13.2
Лица со средним специальным образованием, тыс. чел.	999.4	1390.4	19.9	24.6
Working on a “hiring” basis, th.	1304.1	1185.4	56.9	43.1
Average salary/ wage(1999), tenge	13315	8999	100	67.6
Average salary (2000), tenge	16477	9951	100	60.4
Unemployed (officially registered), th.	101.9	149.4	40.5	59.5
State employees, people	2087	2480	45.7	54, 3
state local employees, people	25137	29784	45.8	54.2

c. How the transition process influenced the labor market

Economic and social turmoil of transition affected Kazakhstan women at most.

Women play a major role in the Central Asian workforce, despite the drastically decreasing number of working women in the formal sector. The majority of working women is concentrated in the fields of education, health care, trade, social welfare, and the service sector and for the most part, women comprise the middle echelon of employees – those most vulnerable to changes due to the ever-increasing competitive labor market. This program makes the conclusion, that, unfortunately, as the effects of economic restructuring take their toll, and traditional societal forces gain prominence, women are finding it more difficult to enter the labor force and participate in entrepreneurial activity.

In Kazakhstan women comprise 80 percent of the people employed in the wholesale markets and 85 percent in the farm markets. The educational level of these women is high- approximately 36 percent have post-secondary level education. Their chief motive for entering small business is the low salaries paid in the state sectors and the many-months delays in the payment of these salaries[18].

The transition to a market economy has provided many challenges for all sectors of the population, both men and women. It is evident however women have been hardest hit by recent economic and political changes. . Women shoulder the responsibility of raising the children and carrying out the vast majority of household duties in addition to working outside the home, creating a heavy dual burden for women. As the level of unemployment rises for both men and women, women are often forced to find additional income in the informal sector to feed their families, adding to women's already overburden lives.

According to the Agency of Statistics average monthly nominal salary in Tenge (Kazakh currency) by gender was:

Table 2. Average monthly nominal salary of employed (paid) workers in 2001

Sectors of economy	Average monthly nominal salary,		Women salary to men salary, %
	women	men	
Total by types of activity	12635	21511	58,7
Agriculture, hunting, timber in.	5444	7300	74.6
Fishery	5353	8272	64.7
Industry	17861	26438	67.6
Mining	26911	39839	67.6
Manufacturing	15597	22184	70.3
Production and Distribution of Power, Gas, Water	16428	21500	76.4
Construction	19923	28054	71
Trade	13540	16677	81.2
Hotels and restaurants	18749	26952	69.6
Transportation and Communication	20083	26636	75.4
Financial activities	33698	56048	60.1
Real estate business	17816	25073	71.1
State administration	11777	16831	70
Education	9494	11322	83.9
Public Health	8015	9617	83.3
Other municipal, social and individual services	13229	20572	64.6
Ex-territorial organizations activities	65174	91754	71

Source: Agency of Statistics of the Republic of Kazakhstan. "Women and Men of Kazakhstan". Gender statistics, Almaty, 2002

The Labor market in Kazakhstan is characterised by gender disproportion. Stabilization in the real sector of the economy and in the financial market has positively influenced men's incomes. According to the data published by the Agency of Statistics, an average income of women calculated in all sectors of economy in the year 2002 was registered at the level of 61.5 % from similar income of men. Access and control over the economic resources for women are still at a minimum level. Trade liberalization has a direct impact towards deepening gender segregation.

Women are not accepted to the highly-paid positions or to jobs with a high salary (phenomenon of the “glass ceiling”), moreover, the process of their exclusion is going on.

Horizontal professional segregation defines an uneven distribution of men and women by the sectors of economy and professions. In this context, Kazakhstani women are concentrated in the following spheres: health and social services (83%), education (77%), hotel and restaurant business (75%), financial sector (66%). Men are employed in construction (81%), agriculture, hunting and forestry (77%), fishing (74%), mining (75%), energy (72%), transport and communication (67%), processing (64%) and public administration (60%).

Vertical segregation means an unequal distribution of men and women in the job hierarchy. This phenomenon is demonstrated by the fact, that 76% of top-managers’ positions in the government bodies belong to men, whereas the proportion of women in the local administration is more than 54%. Women politicians’ share does not exceed 9% in the local and 11% in the central bodies.

The other indicators of labor markets with gender division are shown below:

Main indicators of labor market of the republic of Kazakhstan in 2001

	Total population	Of those		Population of work age	Of those	
		Male	Female		Male	Female
Total population						
Economically active population, thousand of people	7124,3	3687,2	3437	6849,6	3594,2	3255,4
Level of economic activeness of population, %	66,8	73,5	60,8	77,8	80,7	74,8
Employed population, thousand of people	6221,9	3272,3	2949,6	5966	3184,5	2781,5
Level of employment, %	87,3	88,7	85,8	87,1	88,6	85,4
Casual workers, thousand of people	3570,2	1937,7	1632,6	3530,4	1923,7	1606,7
Share of population employment, %	57,4	59,2	55,3	59,2	60,4	57,8
Self-employed workers, thousand of people	2651,7	1334,6	1317	2435,7	1260,8	1174,9
Share of population employment, %	42,6	40,8	44,7	40,8	39,6	42,2
Unemployed population, thousand of people	902,4	414,9	487,5	883,6	409,7	473,9
Total level of unemployment, %	12,7	11,3	14,2	12,9	11,4	14,6
Level of youth unemployment, % (between age 15-24 years)	22,7	20,8	24,8	22,9	21	25
Level of long-term unemployment, %	9,2	7,8	10,8	9,5	7,9	11,3
Economically inactive population, thousand of people	3544,4	1332,1	2212,2	1953,9	858,2	1095,7
Level of economic passiveness of population, %	33,2	26,5	39,2	22,2	19,3	25,2

City population						
Economically active population, thousand of people	3892,9	1953,6	1939,3	3791,3	1921	1870,3
Level of economic activeness of population, %						
	62,9	69,6	57,2	75,4	77,8	73,1
Employed population, thousand of people	3284,9	1684	1600,9	3199,4	1655,6	1543,8
Level of employment, %	84,4	86,2	82,5	84,4	86,2	82,5
Casual workers, thousand of people	2456,4	1291,4	1165,1	2424,9	1280,4	1144,4
Share of employed population, %	74,8	76,7	72,8	75,8	77,3	74,1
Self-employed workers, thousand of people	828,4	392,63	435,8	774,5	375,2	399,4
Share of employed population, %	25,2	23,3	27,2	24,2	22,7	25,9
Unemployed population, thousand of people	608,1	269,6	338,5	591,9	265,4	326,5
Level of total unemployment, %	15,6	13,8	17,5	15,6	13,8	17,5
Level of youth unemployment, % (between age 15-24 years)	29,3	27,8	30,8	29,3	27,8	30,8
Level of long-term unemployment, %	11,1	9,2	13	11,4	9,3	13,4
Economically inactive population, thousand of people	2300,8	852,6	1448,2	1235,3	547,6	687,7
Level of economic passiveness of population, %	37,1	30,4	42,8	24,6	22,2	26,9
Rural population						
Economically active population, thousand of people	3231,3	1733,6	1497,7	3058,3	1673,2	1385,1
Level of economically active population, %	72,2	78,3	66,2	81	84,3	77,2
Employed population, thousand of people.	2937	1588,3	1348,7	2766,6	1528,9	1237,7
Level of employment, %	90,9	91,6	90,1	90,5	91,4	89,4
Casual workers, thousand of people	1113,8	646,3	467,5	1105,5	643,2	462,2
Share of employment, %	37,9	40,7	34,7	40	42,1	37,3
Self-employed workers, thousand of people	1823,2	942	881,2	1661,1	885,6	775,5
Share of employment, %	62,1	59,3	65,3	60	57,9	62,7
Unemployed population, thousand of people	294,3	145,3	149	291,7	144,3	147,4
Level of total unemployment, %	9,1	8,4	9,9	9,5	8,6	10,6
Level of youth unemployment, % (between 15-24)	17	15,2	19,1	17,2	15,4	19,3
Level of long-term unemployment, %	6,9	6,1	7,8	7,2	6,3	8,4

According to the Agency on statistics of RK in 2001 the rate of economically active population throughout all population made 66,8%, while the rate of economically active population of work age 77,8%, of it the rate of economically active men 80,7%, women 74,8%. The rate of employed population in the Republic made 87,3%, the rate of employment of population able to work 87,1%, of it the rate of employment of male population 88,6% (which is somewhat higher than the average total rate of employment level), the rate of employment of female population made 85,4% (which, considerably lower than the average total rate of employment). The share of self-employed people within the number of employed population made 42,6%, almost half of the employed people. Share of self-employed people able to work within the number of employed made 40,8%, i.e. almost all self-employed population. The rate of self-employed male population is lower in several units (39,6%), of the rate of self-employed female population (42,2%), specific weight of self-employed female population make the so-called shuttle traders.

The rate of total unemployment made 12,7%, the rate of unemployment of people able to work 12,9% as we see these indicators coincide, the unemployed in Kazakhstan are mainly people of work age.

The rate of unemployment among women 14,6%, which is many units higher than the total number of unemployment, the rate of youth unemployment almost twice higher than the total rate of unemployment and makes 22,7%, while the rate of unemployment of young women is 25%. Again, the rate of long-term unemployment among women (11,3%) higher than the average long-term unemployment (9,2%). The rate of long-term unemployment of population of work age made 9,5%. The rate of youth unemployment in cities (29,%) higher than the rate of youth unemployment in villages (17%) in 12,3%, the specific weight of self-employed workers in villages makes youth, apparently that is why the rate of youth unemployment in villages less than in cities. The rate of youth unemployment among women in cities (30,8%), in villages (19,3%) compared to the youth unemployment rate among men in cities (27,8%), in villages (15,4%) higher, because women are the most vulnerable groups of population, especially young, without sufficient education, qualification, work experience, etc. Indicators of long-term unemployment show that the rate of long-term unemployment of city population (11,1%) almost twice higher than the rate of long-term unemployment of village population (6,6%). Among women the indicator in cities and in villages is higher, than among men. The rate of economically inactive population made 33,2%, the rate of economically inactive women 25,2%, which is explained by more intense involvement of a women into household.

Share of economically active city population in 2001 made 62,9%, which is much lower than the share of economically active village population 72,2%, although the number of people living in cities bigger than the one for villages. The share of economically active city population able to work is 75,4%, for villages 81%.

The rate of economically active male city population able to work is 77,8%, while the rate of economically active female city population is 73,8%, which is less in 4%. The rate of economically active able to work male population of villages 84,3%, and the rate of economically active female population of villages able to work is 77,2%, which is together with city female population is less in 7,1%.

The share of employed city population 84,4%, at the same time all employed population is of work age. The share of employed village population is 90,9% the city tendency remains here as well. Share of casual workers in cities (74,8%) much higher than the share of self-employed (25,2). In villages the picture is much different, the rate of casual workers makes 37,9%, and self-employed 62,1%. Obviously, the village inhabitant can easier find a work (gardening, street trade in bigger cities), than the city inhabitant. The rate of self-employed women both in cities (25,9%) and in villages (62,7%) is higher than the rate of self-employed[19] men (in cities – 22,7%), in villages (57,9%).

4. Survey of Gender Inequalities in the Labor Market of Kazakhstan Analytical framework.

The cornerstone of the proposed framework is an adequate data base which considers what women and men do and why. Gender includes both men and women, and we have to look at both. The key challenge, however, is how to organize and present this information so as to facilitate its translation into projects terms.

This framework uses four interrelated components[20]. The first, the activity Profile, is based on the concept of a gender-based division of labor. The activity Profile will delineate the economic activities of the population in the project area first by age and gender and then by ethnicity, social class, or other important distinguishing characteristics. In addition, it will indicate the amount of time spent by individuals to accomplish these activities, The second component, the Access and Control Profile, will identify what resources individuals can command to carry out their activities and the benefits which they derive from them. Analysis of Factors influencing activities, access and control focuses on the underlying factors which determine the gender division of labor and gender-related control over resources and benefits. These analyses identify the factors which create differential opportunities or constraints for men's and women's.

The final component of the analytic framework, Project Cycle Analysis, consists of examining a project in light of the foregoing basic data and the trends that are likely to affect it and/or be generated by it.

Thus I used 2 ways to identify the problem: by sending the Questionnaire prepared in electronic version for all selected segments, and afterwards, to conduct the in-depth interviews. I wanted to turn the in-depth interviews into actual dialogue to avoid problems that Bourdeau (1973, 1987) identified long ago. He stated that sociological interviews usually don't favor the free flow of ideas for the interviewer controls the question-making process, leaving the interviewee to merely answer the questions. Therefore information runs only in one way: from the respondent to the researcher guiding the interviews, from the commended to the person in command.[21]

Program description “Questionnaire design”

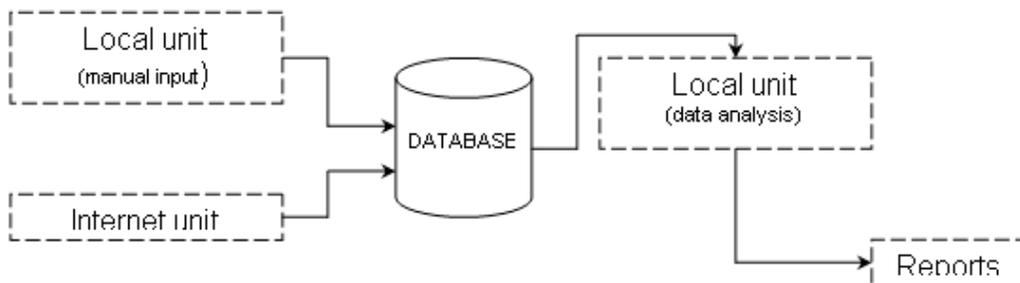
Questionnaire design program helps to automatize survey process. It allows to make a e-questionnaire design using computer. Local unit is designed for fill in data directly. Internet unit helps to make a survey all over the region.

Local unit consist of two parts: manual input of data and data analysis. Internet unit has manual input function only. These two units are linked to data base.

Local unit is a Windows based application created with help of Microsoft Access or Borland Delphi. Internet module has a Web design – web page.

Standard database tools are include: search, sorting, filter. More complicate data analysis tools are also include. The program could generate and print reports.

Principal units scheme is shown below:



The Survey is currently going on. The sample of Questionnaire and results will be placed when the Survey is over.

5. Policy issues

Establishing a sound environment for is a key condition to promote the development of entrepreneurship and SMEs in all transition countries. This includes institutional framework, proper tax system, financing schemes, business support services and other elements, which would encourage and facilitate the process of setting up own businesses.

The persistence of a gap between women and men-entrepreneurs, however, is an important argument in favor of special programmes supporting women’s entrepreneurs. Such programs exist in North America, in Nordic countries as well as in a number of countries in Western Europe. Many of these programmes are initiated and implemented by municipalities and /or local authorities.[22]

How to deepen understanding of the links between gender equality and development and how to reflect these links in policy decisions are key challenges for the present and the future. Two areas for more analysis disaggregated by gender:

- What are the gender impacts of specific macro and sectoral policies? And how do public expenditures choices promote of inhibit gender equality and economic efficiency? Policymakers face numerous competing demands for public resources and attention with

tight fiscal and administrative budgets. Under these constraints, information and analysis help governments achieve the maximum social gains from the gender-related interventions they choose. Moreover, because the nature of gender disparities differ among societies, effective policy needs to be grounded in analysis that integrates local and national gender concerns.

- Increasingly, it will be important to look beyond how policies and programs affect our usual development markers (such as labor force indicators) to how specific interventions improve female autonomy, leadership, and voice – both within the household and in society more broadly. Understanding which interventions are most effective in achieving this requires more gender analysis.[23]

The following overview comprises the main characteristics of three approaches towards gender equality based on differences in diagnosis, in the attribution of causality, in prognosis and in the resulting call for action[24].

Table

STRATEGY	DIAGNOSIS	ATTRIBUTION OF CAUSALITY	PROGNOSIS	CALL FOR ACTION
	What is wrong?	Who/what is responsible for the problem?	What should be done?	Who should do something?
Equal treatment	Inequality in law, different laws/rights for men and women	Individual responsibilities	Change the laws towards formally equal rights for men and women in laws	Legislators
Specific Equality policies	Unequal starting position of men and women. Group disadvantage of women that are not addressed. Lack of access, skills, or resources of women	Diverse, both at individual level, and at structural level	Design and fund specific projects to address the problems of (specific groups of) women.	Gender equality agencies, sometimes together with established institutions
Gender Mainstreaming	Gender bias in regular policies and social institutions resulting in gender inequality	Policy makers (unintentionally)	(Re)organize policy processes to incorporate a gender equality perspective in all policies	Government/all actors routinely involved in policy making

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