



Promote gender equality and empower women

The international community has decided that the key task for implementation of the gender MDG is “to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and at all levels no later than by 2015”. The chosen indicators for assessing progress in attainment of the education target, and thus of the MDG, are: the

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ratio of girls to boys in primary, incomplete secondary and complete secondary education; the ratio of literate girls to literate boys in the 15-24 age group; female share in non-agricultural wage employment; and the proportion of women in parliament.

It is assumed that achieving gender equality in access to all levels of education will eradicate inequality of access to wage employment, level out the gender structure of employment access, and reduce gender asymmetry in political participation. No doubt, implementation of this strategy will be productive in many countries. However, the experience of Russia suggests that gender equality in the education system is an essential but not necessarily sufficient condition for gender equality in other

aspects of public life. Women in our country generally have a higher level of education than men and represent more than half of the total number of people in paid employment. Nevertheless, the social status of women in Russia is less than adequate.

Therefore the target of ensuring gender equality in access to education needs to be supplemented in Russia by other targets, which can guarantee equal rights and opportunities for men and women in all spheres.

It is also important to remember that sustainable human and economic development of any country, including Russia, presupposes broader development opportunities for both sexes, since women are not isolated from men in this world. So problems of gender development are relevant for Russian men as well as Russian women.

Inclusion of these issues in MDG targets for Russia will enable design of a plan for overcoming gender asymmetry in Russian society and make it possible to monitor removal of key obstacles to constitutional equality between the sexes.

3.1. GENDER ANALYSIS OF LEGISLATION

In Russia the principle of equal rights and liberties, and equal opportunity for men and women in their realization, is set out in a

number of legal and regulatory documents, and laws and regulations in this sphere are being continuously improved (Box 3.1). However, the current legal framework only provides equal rights and opportunities for men and women, and prevention of discrimination, in theory. National legislation lacks mechanisms for their actual realization, and there is no precedent for legal action to counter violations of the principle of equal rights and opportunities for men and women, and to counter widespread gender discrimination.

3.2. NATIONAL MACHINERY FOR IMPROVING THE STATUS OF WOMEN IN THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION

Despite some obvious progress, Russian legislation still makes no provisions for specialized structures, which would be responsible for achieving gender equality. However, there is now some national machinery for improving the status of women. It includes the Government Commission for the Status of Women; Family, Women and Children Department of the Ministry of Labor and Social Development; Duma Committee for Women, Family and Youth; and Commission for Women's Affairs of the Chairman of the Federation Council. However, these structures were created by order of various state bodies and tend to lack stability. For example, the Commission for the Status of Women ceased to exist as a result of administrative reform of the executive branch of power in 2004. Further administrative reform in subjects (regions) of the Russian Federation could lead to liquidation of regional commissions for the status of women.

The current national mechanism for gender equality lacks power and financial resources, so that its functions are essentially reduced to consulting and coordinating.

Box 3.1. Legal environment for implementation of the gender equality principle

The principle of equal rights and liberties, and equal opportunities for men and women in their exercise, is set out in the 1993 RF Constitution (Article 19, para.3). Russia has also ratified the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women, ILO Conventions and recommendations, and UNESCO Conventions on abolishing discrimination in the sphere of education. The Federal Assembly of the Russian Federation has ratified the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and Supplementary Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children. The State Duma is currently reviewing the Supplementary Protocol to the UN Convention on Liquidation of Any Forms of Discrimination Towards Women. The constitutional principle of equal rights and opportunities for men and women is reflected in a number of legal documents, adopted at the federal level.

Further improvements are being made to the legal framework for equal rights and opportunities of the sexes. In recent years the State Duma has ratified ILO Convention No. 156 On Equal Treatment and Equal Opportunities for Working Men and Women: Working People with Family Responsibilities, adopted a Concept of Legislative Activity to Ensure Equal Rights and Equal Opportunities for Men and Women, and is presently reviewing a bill On State Guarantees of Equal Rights and Liberties and Equal Opportunities for Men and Women.

The Russian Federation signed the Declaration and the Platform of Action of the Fourth World UN Conference on Women (Beijing, September 4-15, 1995), thereby assuming the commitment to create an independent competent authority at the highest level with responsibility for improving the status of women. This authority is supposed to have direct influence on Government policy in women's issues, to participate in the legislative process and to have its own budget.

3.3. GENDER PROBLEMS IN RUSSIAN STATE POLICY

During the years of socio-economic reforms in Russia, state policy goals relating to women have evolved from "creating more favorable conditions for women to combine their professional, maternal and household tasks" to creation of a society based on gender equality.

There have been two distinct phases of policy formulation and implementation. The first stage, in the 1990s, gave an appearance of activity, but tended to be limited to words. It sets targets for female participation in state bodies, for ending of the long-established wage gap between men and women in parts of the public sector, where most employees are women, etc. A National plan of Actions to Improve the Status of Women and Their Role in Society (2001-2005) was drafted, but it has remained little more than a declaration due to lack of budget financing.

In the second phase, dating from the turn of the Millennium, the state has given up both declarations and actions. Gender issues have effectively dropped out of the Government's socio-economic priorities and are only considered in the context of child and family issues. The Russian Government has not set itself a single task in the sphere of gender equality. Gender issues are ignored in the Medium-term Program of Socio-economic Development of the Russian Federation (2005-2008), and no gender-sensitive indicators are included in the Consolidated Report on Outcomes and Key Tasks of RF Government Activities. Even such obvious gender-asymmetric issues as low life expectancy at birth and inadequate labor remuneration are discussed in this document with no regard to differences between men and women.

The Gender Strategy of the Russian Federation, prepared in 2002-2003 by the Ministry of Labor and Social Development, could provide a political and legal basis for state policy on women's issues, enhancement of women's status, overcoming gender discrimination, and achieving gender equality in all spheres of life. The document sets out contemporary goals and targets for state gender policy, including human development, devel-

Low life expectancy of Russian men is the key problem on the male side of Russian gender issues.

opment of democracy, and promoting sustainable economic growth. But the Strategy has not yet been approved.

Neglect of gender equality issues is deep rooted in Russia's cultural and socio-economic background. Society's attitude towards gender problems cannot be changed without a review of ideology and increased awareness among the general public and the authorities of real gender problems in contemporary Russia.

3.4. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE CURRENT SITUATION

The past 15 years of socio-economic reforms have shown that developments in our society have different and sometimes contradictory effects on men and women, creating different zones of male and female gender problems, and creating obstacles to practical attainment of gender equality.

3.4.1. LOW (AND FALLING) MALE LIFE EXPECTANCY, ESPECIALLY IN THE ABLE-BODIED AGE GROUP

Low life expectancy of Russian men is the key problem on the male side of Russian gender issues. This is a long-term trend in the modern Russian demographic situation. Russia's lag compared with developed countries, measured by this indicator, first appeared in the early 1960s, but remained moderate through the 1970s and 1980s. There was a short period of growth in male life expectancy at birth in the second half of the 1980s (reaching a maximum of 63.8 years in 1990), but it was soon replaced by a reverse tendency. An absolute minimum of 57.6 years was registered in 1994, followed by a gradual rise to 61.3 years in 1998, followed by a new period of decline (in 2003 the indicator stood at 58.8 years).

The indicator of female life expectancy at birth has shown a parallel trend, but absolute values of the indicator for women have consistently exceeded those for men by at least 10 years. The minimum life expectancy gap between the sexes was registered in 1998, when it was 11.6 years, while the biggest gaps were in 1994 (13.59 years) and 2002 (13.57 years). The gender life expectancy gap has grown by more than 5 years over the last 45 years (since the early 1960s), and

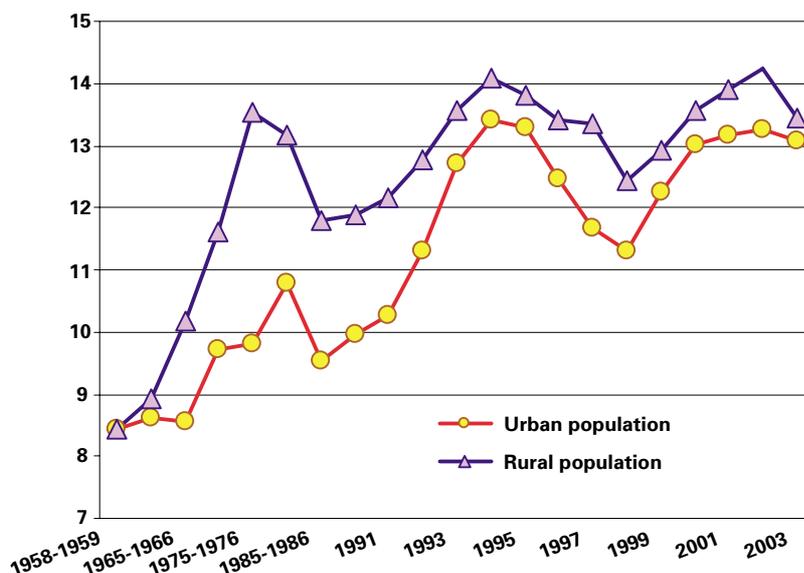
Russia set a world record when the gap went above 13 years for the first time in 1964. The current gap in Russia is 13.2 years, but in some regions it is as high as 15-17 years.

There has also been a considerable difference in the gender life expectancy gap between rural and urban areas since the 1960s. The maximum differences were registered in 1975-76 when the gap between men and women was 13.5 years for rural populations and 9.8 for urban populations. Later the indicators for urban and rural areas began to close, mainly due to increase of the gender life expectancy gap in urban areas. Finally, in 2003 the difference between rural and urban populations, measured by this indicator, was insignificant: women in urban areas were ahead of men in life expectancy by 13.08 years, and by 13.44 years in the country (Figure 3.1).

Low Russian male life expectancy is mainly due to abnormally high mortality rates in the able-bodied age group: mortality among males in this age group is 3.8 times higher than the respective female indicators (Table 3.1).

The main contribution to low life expectancy of Russian males is from socio-economic and behavioral factors closely connected with gender stereotypes. Male gender roles in the new socio-economic conditions create higher stress, and the correlation between stress and mortality is much more marked among men than among women. Male behavioral stereotypes in Russia include alcohol abuse, drug abuse, smoking as means of overcoming stress and various masculine displays. Growth of suicide mortality represents an extreme form of reaction to socio-economic pressure and incapacity to perform the traditional gender role of breadwinner. In 2001 suicide was the cause of death for 74.9

Figure 3.1. Gender life expectancy gap at birth in urban versus rural areas, 1959-2003



men per 100,000 able-bodied men in urban areas, while the corresponding indicator for women was 10.1 (Table 3.1). In rural areas suicide mortality indicators were even higher, at 128.3 for males and 16.7 for females.

Table 3.1. Mortality rates of able-bodied population by main causes of death (males 16-59 years, females 16-54 years)

(number of deaths per 100,000 able-bodied persons)	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Urban population							
Men							
accidental alcoholic poisoning	64.9	51.8	39.2	37.1	42.4	53.5	56.4
all types of transport accidents	48.6	41.3	38.3	41.6	47.0	48.2	49.2
Suicide	84.2	78.7	71.1	67.0	73.0	73.4	74.9
Homicide	71.5	59.6	52.3	49.9	55.4	60.6	63.6
Women							
accidental alcoholic poisoning	14.2	10.9	8.3	7.8	9.7	12.4	13.3
all types of transport accidents	12.4	10.9	11.1	11.8	12.5	13.4	13.9
Suicide	12.4	11.0	10.4	9.6	11.2	10.1	10.1
Homicide	17.5	15.5	13.3	12.7	15.2	15.8	16.1
Murder							
Men							
accidental alcoholic poisoning	69.5	57.9	48.3	43.2	47.9	59.7	66.2
all types of transport accidents	70.1	61.8	55.6	59.1	68.0	69.6	70.3
Suicide	126.5	124.0	119.9	112.2	123.2	128.8	128.3
Homicide	60.4	55.3	51.4	49.3	54.3	58.7	57.7
Women							
accidental alcoholic poisoning	15.1	13.0	10.6	9.8	11.3	13.7	16.3
all types of transport accidents	13.5	12.6	12.7	13.6	14.9	15.6	15.9
Suicide	17.3	16.3	16.0	15.0	16.2	16.4	16.7
Homicide	16.8	15.2	13.5	13.3	14.8	16.0	16.5

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Mortality rates of males and females from all types of transport accidents and homicide differ almost four-fold (both in urban and rural areas), also largely due to gender behavioral stereotypes.

The dynamics of mortality rates from suicide, homicide and alcohol abuse show a clear dependence on the socio-economic situation in the country. From 1995 to 1998

The sphere of employment is generally a sphere of female gender problems, primarily the relatively low wages earned by women.

mortality from these causes was in decline among both men and women, in both urban and rural areas. That trend has been reversed since 1999: economic growth in Russia has been accompanied by marked growth of mortality due to suicide, homicide and alcohol. (Connections between mortality and Russian health care and way of life are additionally reviewed in the respective Chapter of this Report).

3.4.2. DEFORMATION OF MATRIMONIAL PROFILE OF POPULATION

High indicators of male mortality inevitably lead to deformation of the matrimonial profile in Russia. The share of

The experience of Russian economic reforms shows that as soon as a sector or a profession starts to yield high income it attracts a rush of male labor, and conversely.

widows considerably exceeds the respective share of widowers after 30 years of age. After 50 years of age the gender asymmetry great-

ly increases: among the 50-59 age group the share of married men exceeds that of married women by 1.4 times, in the 60-64 age group by 1.6 times, in the 65-69 age group by 1.8 times, and by more than 3 times over 70 years of age. High male mortality, a high divorce rate, growing share of widows among women, declining rate of new marriages among women – all these factors together raise the share of broken families (single households).

3.4.3. EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG MEN AND WOMEN

The sphere of employment is generally a sphere of female gender problems, primarily the relatively low wages earned by women. However, there are some unresolved male employment issues too, particularly a high level of employment in unfavorable labor conditions.

Starting from the second half of the 1960s Russia achieved an exceptionally high level of female wage employment, and women have retained their strong presence in the labor market to this day: women now account for 49% of wage employment and men for 51%. The 1990s saw a decline in absolute employment figures, which affected both men and women. However, economic growth after 1999 had a vigorous positive effect on female employment. In 2000-2003 alone the number of employed women grew by 1,382,000 and the female employment rate from 53.6% to 56.0%, while the number of employed men increased by only 649,000 and their employment rate grew from 63.7% to 65.1%.

Women have consistently dominated the registered unemployed in recent years, with their share varying from 60% in 1996 to 70% in 1999, and 68% in 2003. Real unemploy-

ment registered in accordance with ILO methodology is consistently male-dominated. The share of women varied between 44.8% in 1996 to 47.3% in 1992, and stood at 46.4% in 2003.

3.4.4. SUBSTANTIAL (AND GROWING) GENDER DIFFERENCES IN LABOR REMUNERATION

Despite higher levels of education among women, their wage levels considerably lag those of men. In the Soviet period female wages did not exceed 70% of male wages, and the gap has tended to widen in recent years. In 1998 female employees at large- and medium-size enterprises were paid 70% of the wages of men, in 2001 just 63%, and 64% in 2003. The differences in labor remuneration are especially large in the 20-40 age group, i.e. when women have to shoulder the main burden of child care and domestic responsibilities.

The main reason for the wage gap between men and women in Russia is a high level of gender segregation in the work place. This segregation has various aspects:

- sector-related (sectors where the share of women is higher have a lower wage level);
- occupational ("female" professions are among the least prestigious and least paid);
- vertical (women are concentrated at lower levels of the personnel hierarchy within the same profession, which is reflected in their earnings).

According to various estimates the sectoral segregation level in Russia is currently 30-33%, comparable with the situation in developed western countries in the second half of the 1980s. Professional segregation indicators are currently estimated at 45%, also considerably exceeding levels in developed countries.

The impact of sectoral segregation in employment on the wage gap is well illustrated by the following data. In 2003 wage levels in seven out of fourteen sectors of the economy were below the average for the economy as a whole (RUR 5499.), while they were higher in the other seven. The former group of sectors employed 62.4% of all employed women and just 33.9% of men. In the group of high-wage sectors the situation was inverse: they employed 63.1% of men and just 35.6% of all women. It should be noted that the size of the gender wage gap has no clear dependence on the degree of "feminization" in a particular sector. For example, in education, where the share of women is 80%, the average wage of women is 23% lower than that of men, while in construction (where women make are only 20%), the wage gap between men and women is 18%.

The effect of professional segregation is manifested by the fact that women earn less than men in equal positions. The maximum gender gap is found in labor remunerations at a medium level of qualification. Here female wages are only 63.6% of wages received by men. Notably, the gender wage gap exists even in professions and positions viewed by employers as "typically female". Thus, the wage gap between men and women was above average even among employees engaged in preparing information, drawing up documents, accounting and services.

Vertical segregation is observed in all sectors and occupations, including those where women are in an absolute majority. Even in such a highly feminized sphere as education the share of women decreases further up the hierarchy. For example, the overwhelming majority of those employed in secondary education are women, but only 65% of secondary school head teachers are women. Vertical segrega-

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tion is even more conspicuous in higher education, where 68% of teaching staff of universities are women, but only 7% of principals, and 31% of deans.

The experience of Russian economic reforms shows that as soon as a sector or a profession starts to yield high income it attracts a rush of male labor, and conversely (this scenario has been particularly obvious in the finance, credit and insurance sector).

Vertical segregation and replacement of women by men due to higher wage lev-

Work conditions as a cause of injury and ill-health (particularly lethal traumatism) are a predominantly male problem in contemporary Russia.

els are in spite of higher professional education levels among women compared with men. At present every fourth working Russian woman has a university diploma, compared with every fifth man. Women are also in the majority among all employees with secondary special and higher education. Conversely, many more of those who have only primary professional education or secondary general education are men. So, for women, education in modern Russia fails to perform one of its crucial functions – that of vertical social mobility.

Table 3.2. Share of men and women in education (in %)

	1996	1997/98	2000	2001/02	2003
Primary professional education					
Share of men	61	61	62	62	62
Share of women	39	39	38	38	38
Secondary special education					
Share of men	40*	41	45	45	48
Share of women	60*	59	55	55	52
Higher professional education					
Share of men	46*	45	43	43	43
Share of women	54*	55	57	57	57

* 1995 data

3.4.5. HIGH EMPLOYMENT IN HARMFUL LABOR CONDITIONS

Work conditions as a cause of injury and ill-health (particularly lethal traumatism) are a predominantly male problem in contemporary Russia.

The modern labor protection system in Russia retains some traditions inherited from Soviet times and is primarily aimed at maternity protection: there are restrictions on employment of women in 600 professions and jobs. There are also certain gender differences as regards labor discipline and work safety regulations.

Because of this, employment levels of women and men in conditions, which fail to meet sanitary and hygiene standards, differ almost twice, the number of women and men who receive severe workplace injuries differ three-fold, and there is a difference of 16 times between the sexes in numbers of lethal industrial accidents.

However, a growing share of workers of both sexes are employed in harmful labor conditions. The share of men employed in industry in conditions, which did not comply with sanitary and hygiene standards, rose from 26.4% in 1999 to 28.6% in 2003. Among women the share has grown from 14.9% to 16.3%. The growth is probably caused by recommissioning of obsolete and previously mothballed equipment or continued operation of worn equipment.

Although the number of people who suffer injuries in workplace accidents is decreasing, the number of lethal accidents is on the increase, giving cause for concern. The situation in construction is particularly serious: the share of male construction workers in lethal accidents (0.424%) was twice the average for all employments in 2003.

A high level of employment in harmful labor conditions is one factor explaining the extremely high mortality among males.

3.4.6. EDUCATION

Ratio of boys to girls at all levels of general and professional education

The shares of boys and girls in Russia's general school system are practically equal. There is no gender distinction in the structure of pupils at the compulsory level of education (grades 1-4 and 5-9). However, girls are a majority at the third, non-compulsory level (grades 10-11). In the 2001-2002 school year girls were 56.1% of all grade 10 pupils, and 56.9% of grade 11 pupils. The main reason for this gender asymmetry in senior grades is that more boys than girls graduate from grade 9 to the system of primary professional education (evidenced by a higher share of boys among students at such institutions) and to paid employment (males in this age group show a higher level of employment than girls).

The main gender problems in education are inferior levels of education among men, and relatively low economic efficiency of female education.

Inferior levels of education among men

Women in modern Russia are better educated than men, and this gap will only increase in years to come (Table 3.2). There are significant differences between the sexes in professional education strategies (young women are increasingly interested in a high or a very high level of professional education, while young men increasingly often make do with lower levels).

Low economic efficiency of female education

There is a gender difference in the efficiency of investment in education, which became particularly obvious when paid education services began to appear in Russia.

Generally, women need higher education in order to secure a significant increment in their earnings, whereas men obtain sufficient economic gains from their education even in blue-collar jobs, which require only secondary special education. It is also true that higher levels of education are still insufficient to bridge the gap between women's labor remuneration and that of men with a comparable level of education. The latent discrimination mechanisms in the labor market devalues the high level of female education. In effect, the high level of female education renders itself redundant.

Another negative aspect of gender disproportions in education, strange though it may seem, is growth of conservative attitudes towards the role of women in the family and society. Young male blue-collar workers who lack higher education tend to have more conservative views on the distribution

Despite the high level of female education and employment, the distribution of gender roles in Russia remains traditional: domestic work is predominantly left to the woman, who therefore does a double day of work.

of gender roles in the family and to support a patriarchal family model.¹ The conflict of gender role concepts may be further aggravated if the wife has higher education. So gender differences in the levels of education may indirectly hinder political strategies aimed at achieving gender equality.

3.4.7. SPREAD OF TRADITIONAL GENDER ROLES AND STEREOTYPES

Despite the high level of female education and employment, the distribution of gender roles in Russia remains traditional: domestic work is predominantly left to the woman, who therefore does a double day of work. On average women spend 30.3 hours per week on domestic work, compared with just 14.0 for men.² Women's total average number of work-

For rural women and women from low-income households, the additional burden of part-time farming has actually extended the working day by three times.

ing hours (at workplace and at home) is 25% higher than men's, while women of working age spend twice as long working than their male peers.³ Assessing the gender distribution of time resources in the family both men and women admit that men are much more able to devote as much time and effort to work as they wish, and to spend their time away from work as they wish.⁴ It should also be noted that, in the reform period, "do-it-(grow-it)-yourself" has become an important adjustment strategy for households, which has led to a further increase of women's domestic and general workload. For rural women and women from low-income households, the additional burden of part-time farming has actually extended the working day by three times. Non-recognition of the social importance of female household work results in marginalization of female employment and loss of pension insurance for women.

3.4.8. CRIME

The structure and dynamics of crime in Russia differ substantially by gender. The level of crime among men considerably

exceeds the respective indicators among women. In 2002 there were 680,248 men confined in Russian penitentiary institutions, compared with only 40,808 women (respectively, 94.3 and 5.7% of all adult prisoners).⁵ Male crime peaked in 1999-2000, but indicators for female crime have been stable. However, the share of female crime grew from 14.9 to 17.8% in the period from 1995 to 2002.⁶

The structure of female crime is dominated by consumer fraud, while the structure of male crime is much more versatile with a higher share of theft (Figure 3.2). It is disturbing to note that crime is becoming more brutal in younger age groups compared with older age groups, and that is true of young women as well as young men. However, there is no doubt that crime is predominantly a male problem.

3.4.9. GENDER ASPECTS OF VIOLENCE IN RUSSIA

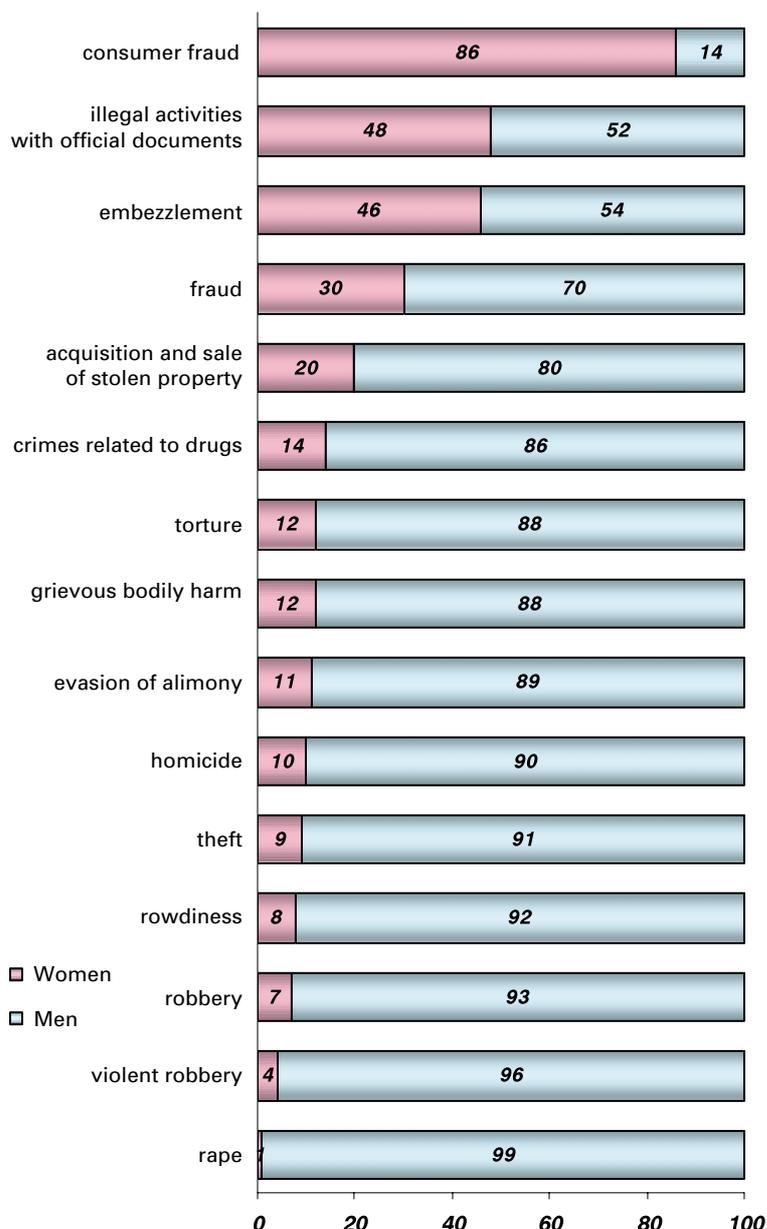
Russian violent mortality indicators are 3 times higher than the world average. Analysis of the problem is handicapped by the fact that Russia does not maintain regular crime victim monitoring of registered offenses. According to the International Crime Victim Survey (ICVS),⁸ carried out by the UN International Crime Research Institute (UNICRI), personal crimes are more often committed against men. A survey in Russia in 1996 suggested that 7.6% of men and 4.2% of women had been victims of assault or threat of violence during the year. However, taking account of sexual incidents, in which the victims are generally women (2.1% of surveyed women were victims of such crimes during the year), the picture is balanced. Other statistical data suggest that in 2000 men were victims of violent crime twice more often than women.⁹

Rape or attempted rape is one of the most widespread types of violence against women. Trends show a slight decline in rape and attempted rape, but results of a survey suggest that 15% of reported rapes are concealed by law-enforcement authorities.¹⁰ Hence, the decline in statistical indicators of registered rape or attempted rape (Table 3.3) may in fact imply higher latency of this type of crime.

There is also a fairly high incidence of sexual harassment and coercion to sexual contacts at work. More than half of men and an absolute majority of women believe that a woman who rejects such harassment is in serious danger of losing her job, which may lead to loss of career opportunities or salary.¹¹

Although most victims of violence are men, domestic violence is overwhelmingly a female problem (93% of victims are women).¹² According to the 1996 survey, 25% of married women were subjected to physical violence and up to 30% of divorced women had experienced violence in previous marriages. Incidence of family violence is much higher in rural areas.¹³ According to 2000-2002 research conducted in 7 regions of Russia, 41% of women had been hit by their husband at least once, while 3% were beaten by their husbands once a month or more.¹⁴ 87% of men and 93% of women believe that there is a problem of domestic violence against women in Russia, and 15-20% acknowledge violence in their own families.¹⁵ The problem of domestic violence is only just emerging as a serious subject for social dialogue in Russia. Almost half of survey respondents believed that if a husband has beaten his wife, that remains their private affair, and external interference is undesirable (Table 3.4). Domestic violence and sexual harassment at work remain beyond the sphere of state policy at present.

Figure 3.2. Ratio of convicted women to convicted men by type of crime (court sentences enforced in 2003)⁷



3.4.10. PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN AND MEN IN DECISION-MAKING

There are no restrictions in current Russian law on participation by women in political activity or electoral campaigns, and laws governing participation in public service are formally gender-neutral. However, women in Russia are insufficiently involved in the deci-

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Table 3.3. Dynamics of rape and attempted rape

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
number of victims	10900	9300	9000	8300	7900	8200
per 100,000 people	7.4	6.3	6.1	5.7	5.4	5.7

sion-making process. This is true of all branches of power (legislative, executive and judicial).

In general, women represent the majority of public servants in the executive and legislative branches and women were 69.3% of all federal public servants in 2003. However, they were primarily concentrated in lower- and middle-rank positions and almost absent at the decision-making level (Figure 3.3).

There are currently no women in the Russian Government or among heads of the Government Administration, the six Federal Agencies, and eleven Federal Services. There is only one female head of the three State Funds (the head of the Social Insurance Fund).

As of March 2005 there were only 5.6% of women among senators of the Federation Council (the upper chamber of the Russian Parliament). The Federation Council is chaired by a man, his four deputies are three men and one woman. There is only one head of the 22 committees and commissions of the Federation Council (she heads the Social Policy Committee).

Table 3.4. Whom should a woman appeal to in case of physical violence in the family, (several response options are possible, %)¹⁶

	Women	Men
Near social environment (relatives, friends)	56.6	52.5
Law (police, lawyer)	34.2	29.3
Psychologist, family consultancy, crisis centers	40.9	27.3
Local authorities, social organizations, husband's superiors	5.3	4.7
Nobody	43.7	51.9

Women's representation in the State Duma (the lower chamber of Parliament) is somewhat higher. Women are 9.8% of all deputies in the current Duma (2003-2007). According to the Inter-Parliamentary Union, that makes Russia 84th out of 125 countries by the number of women in its national parliament in 2005.

Under-representation of women among decision-makers contradicts fundamental democratic principles and international obligations adopted by Russia in the sphere of gender equality.

3.5. PROSPECTS FOR ACHIEVING THE MDG GOAL TO "PROMOTE GENDER EQUALITY AND EMPOWER WOMEN": DEVELOPMENT SCENARIOS

The Russian Government intends to undertake large-scale reforms in the social sphere in coming years. However, lack of Government interest in implementing its Gender Strategy means that gender equality goals remain a formal declaration. Past experience suggests that the proposed social changes may have a gender-asymmetrical effect, holding back the human development potential of women and men in Russia. Omission of a gender aspect in the social reform programs is largely due to lack of expert assessment from a gender viewpoint and lack of studies of likely gender-related consequences of the reforms.

In what follows we review the gender effects of certain socio-economic reform directions, which are still treated in official documents as irrelevant to gender issues (Russia's WTO membership, pension reform, education credits).

3.6. MDG PERFORMANCE MONITORING AND PROPOSED INDICATORS

Monitoring of the gender situation in Russia can only be partially based on the indicators suggested by the MDG, since only a quarter of the Goal 3 indicators are relevant to Russia.

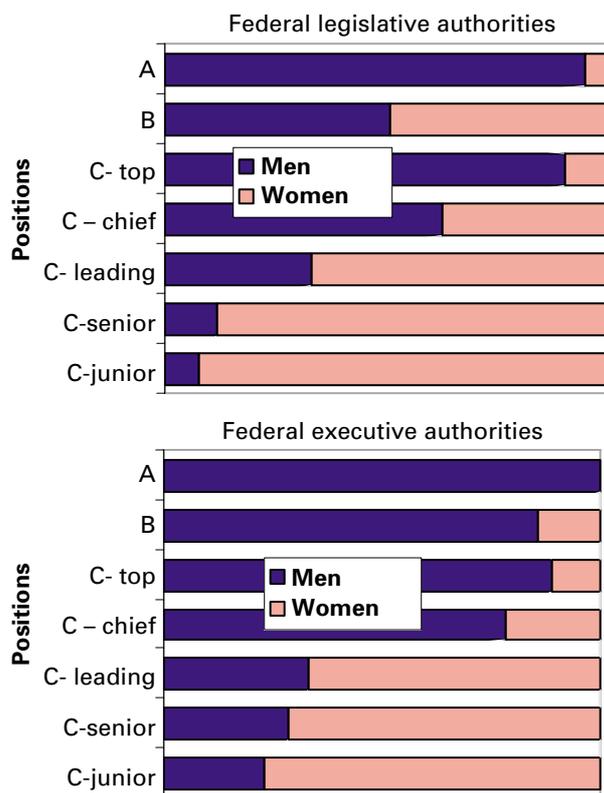
The targets formulated under Goal 3 should therefore be complemented by the following:

- ensure equalization of opportunities for women and men to access political institutions;
- eliminate discriminatory practices in labor and employment;
- create a system of real mechanisms for preventing violence against women; and
- reduce impact of unfavorable socio-economic factors on health and life expectancy, especially for men.

The following indicators could be used for assessing performance in attainment of the above targets:

1. The share of seats occupied by women in:
 - the National Parliament (State Duma),
 - Russian Federal Government,
 - Constitution and Supreme Courts.
2. Gender wage differences.
3. Gender differences in business, measured by the degree of involvement in business and business size.
4. Number of cases of violence against women registered by social care institutions and the Ministry of Internal Affairs (Police).
5. Life expectancy at birth of:
 - Women,
 - Men.
6. Gender life expectancy difference.
7. Reduction of harmful employment and gender employment differences in harmful employment.

Figure 3.3. Gender composition of public service by category and groups of posts, and by branches of power



Box 3.2. Russia's accession to the WTO: assessment of gender impact

Analysts have pointed out that Russia's WTO accession will inevitably divide society into winners and losers, but they neglect the question of how social and economic costs will be shared by men and women. However, the gender impact may be among the most significant, as we will now attempt to show.

(1) According to research data and projections, WTO membership should not cause mass redundancies or a surge of unemployment. However, the list of sectors where shrinkage of production and employment is expected to be greatest looks gender-asymmetric. These sectors include agroindustry, food processing, textile, footwear, furniture industries, mechanical engineering as a whole and, particularly, production of domestic items and electric appliances. The majority of these sectors employ mainly women, threatening gender-asymmetric redundancy.

(2) Social risks related to opening of the Russian economy and trade liberalization are likely to vary substantially between regions. The risks will be particularly high for regions with import-substituting industries (in particular, mechanical engineering), high employment levels in textile and food processing industries, significant agriculture, and a high concentration of urban settlements centered on a single industry. Many regions and towns do not have a gender-balanced labor force structure or a developed small-business sector, which could cushion social problems due to employment shifts. WTO accession is likely to bring serious social gender consequences (male or female, depending on the profile of key employers) in addition to economic problems in such regions. Regions most exposed to gender effects are those which combine the highest share of single-industry urban settlements with specialization in "risk group" sectors. These are, for example, the Ivanovo Region (textile industry), Sverdlovsk and Nizhny Novgorod Regions (mechanical engineering).

(3) It has been forecast that liberalization of foreign trade and successful integration into the global economy could accelerate economic growth and

reduce poverty in Russia. Some experts estimate that 5% reduction of import tariffs for non-food items in eight commodity groups will give the Russian consumer a per-capita gain of 540 rubles a year, and an average family of three will gain 1600 rubles a year. In terms of gender analysis the crucial issue is how this gain will be allocated among different gender and age groups. There is no guarantee that this consumer advantage will be available to women (and men) who are poor and to people of pension age, who have a lower share of nonfood items in their expenditure structure. In view of the feminization of poverty, now occurring in Russia, and the higher share of women pensioners, there is a threat that the consumption due to the WTO will not have a significant impact on well-being of these groups.

8. Level and gender differences in rates of mortality from accidents, traumas, homicide, suicide, and alcohol abuse (number of deceased per 100,000 people of respective genders).

The content of other MDGs and all the targets formulated under these goals imply their examination in the context of gender analysis. This entails a need for rapid development of a set of gender-sensitive indicators to measure progress in attainment of each MDG and each target.

Box 3.3. Gender aspects of pension reform

Gender inequality in current Russian pension provision is due to national pension legislation, which sets different norms for men and women, and does not take account of differences in life expectancy and of the spheres where women tend to be employed due to specific features of legislation, cultural traditions and gender roles accepted in our society.

The principal gender inequality authorized by Russian pension legislation is related to different retirement ages for men and women (respectively, 60 and 55 years). The formula for calculation of the insurance pension amount is uniform for men and women with no account for the difference of their pension ages and life expectancy, effectively infringing male pension rights.

Current gender inequality in employment is related to labor legislation (e.g. restriction of female employment in harmful jobs), and various discriminatory practices and stereotypes. The stereotypes mean that a woman's career is more likely to be interrupted by unpaid/uninsured periods (nursing leave, personal leave, etc.). It is also important to note that gender differences in labor remuneration mean that women make considerably smaller contributions to the Pension Fund than men, so the amount of their pension accruals is smaller when they reach pension age.

Hence, Russia has all the prerequisites for significant gender inequality in pension insurance. However, due to historical features of the development of Russia's national pension system, the average ratio of men's to women's pensions¹⁷ has remained close to one up until now. This is because most current pensioners receive pensions earned under the old system, when there was virtually no linkage between pension level and earnings and labor record.

The new pension system will be more sensitive to inequality in employment and legislation, since pension amounts will be more strongly tied to earnings throughout a person's work life. The more time passes from the first year of pension reform, the greater will be the impact of those factors. Calculations¹⁸ assuming that new pension legislation is kept as it is, and that labor market and life expectancy trends continue as they are (base scenario), suggests that the female-to-male pension ratio in 2015 will be 87%, and will fall to 50% by 2050.

Realization of Russia's commitments within the MDG (higher male life expectancy and closing of the gender gap in labor remuneration) should reduce gender inequality in pension provision. The extent of possible reduction can be measured by a model that assumes gradual equalization of life expectancy

3.7. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

By analyzing the gender situation in Russia from the viewpoint of MDG achievement we can identify the most pressing problems of gender equality in Russia and define priority tasks, whose implementation will expand human development potential for men and women in the MDG context. The implementation of a balanced state gender policy is still in the future. But we can already identify promising approaches to gender equality and, thus, to attainment of MDG 3. The most significant of these approaches are the following:

- create an efficient national mechanism for promoting gender equality;
- perform a mandatory gender review of existing national legislation, of laws and regulations, which are currently in preparation, and of programs for socio-economic development of the Russian Federation;
- overcome the traditional stereotypes of rigid gender roles and promote notions of social justice in allocation of power and responsibility among women and men at the family level and throughout society;
- Apply the concept of “the priority of the interest of the catch-up gender” in formulating state gender policy in specific spheres, including access to resources and property, and in the spheres of decision-making, demographic policy, health, etc;
- improve gender statistics monitoring the status of men and women in all spheres, make international comparisons, ensure information control and performance analysis of government decisions concerning equal rights and equal opportunities;
- increase female participation in legislative and executive branches at federal and local levels;
- eliminate direct and indirect forms of discrimination against both women and men, develop gender-specific measures to ensure

genuine equal opportunities, eradicate discriminatory labor and employment practices;

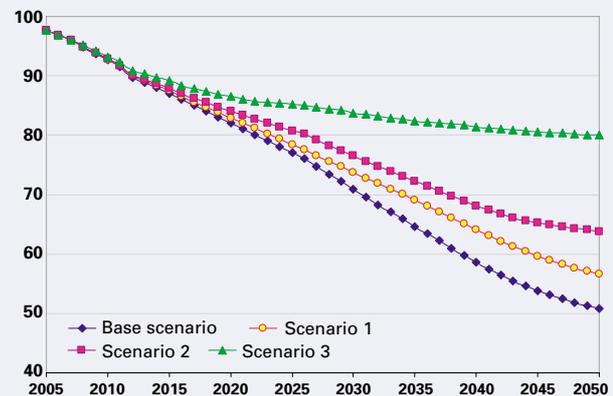
- create effective mechanisms to prevent violence against women in the form of a broad network of crisis centers, refuges and hotlines (also for men); develop methods of working with men who are inclined to domestic violence;
- reduce the effect of unfavorable socio-economic conditions on health and life expectancy, especially male;
- in the sphere of education, take measures to reduce gender segregation of students by speciality, in order to reduce labor segregation and close the gender gap in labor remuneration;
- coordinate the main constituents of state gender policy with sectoral and regional socio-economic development programs, and with state budget policy at federal and regional levels;
- implement state gender equality policy at the federal and regional levels: allocate required budget resources for fulfillment of the National Action Plan (at the federal level), and for realizing gender priorities in line with regional specifics (at the level of subjects of the Russian Federation).

(Scenario 1) and of labor remuneration (Scenario 2) for men and women, all other things being equal. The dynamics of these scenario parameters by future years are given in the table, and projections for the male-to-female pension ratio are given in the figure.

Scenario parameters of pension system model

Projection year	Female-to-male wage ratio	Female-to-male life expectancy ratio
2004	0.64	0.83
2005	0.66	0.84
2006	0.67	0.85
2008	0.70	0.87
2010	0.73	0.90
2012	0.76	0.92
2014	0.79	0.95
2016	0.82	0.96
2020	0.88	0.96
2030	0.95	0.96
2050	0.95	0.96

Projections of average women-to-men pension ratio



According to the calculations, even realization of optimistic MDG plans for alignment of life expectancy and wages of men and women cannot resolve the problem of gender inequality in pension insurance by 2015, since such a period is not long enough to change the inertial pension system. However, positive results are possible in a longer term: reducing gender differences in life expectancy could increase the men-to-women pension ratio by 6% in 2050, and aligning wages could increase it by 13%.

Gender differences in pension levels are also a function of the difference in retirement age between men and women, since the latter difference means that men pay contributions for longer than women. A higher pension age for women in the future could increase their pension levels. Calculations suggest, for example, that raising the retirement age for women to 60 years by 2015 (together with the other two scenario parameters) could reduce the gender difference in pension amounts by 30% (Figure, Scenario 3). In that case female pension levels could be 80% of male pension levels by 2050.

Further reduction of gender differences in pension levels could be obtained by state reimbursement of lost pension contributions due to periods of socially-useful but unpaid/uninsured activity, as well as by attainment of equality in gender division of labor in the public and private sectors.

Prof. V.N. Baskakov

Box 3.4. The official view of gender issues in the Russian Federation

Awareness of gender problems has increased over the last five years, both in state bodies and in society as a whole. Gender aspects are now taken into account, to a greater or lesser extent, in state programs for employment, healthcare, youth and family policy.

Problems of gender equality have become the subject of broader discussions at various levels of governance, facilitating attention to the needs of men and women in conduct of socio-economic policy.

The last five years have seen growth of gender education, including education of public servants, continued development and implementation of gender statistics, more active research in the gender field, an increasing number of gender experts in practically all humanitarian fields, and a general growth of awareness.

This new level of understanding of gender equality in Russia is expressed in the Government's Gender Strategy, which reflects issues of the status of both women and men, where state intervention is needed, and proposes measures to improve the situation. The Gender Strategy is the first such document ever prepared in the Russian Federation¹⁹, it creates a conceptual basis for implementation of specific measures to attain gender equality in each subject of the federation and facilitates a uniform state gender policy.

The process of Strategy drafting has increased coverage of women's problems in mass media, particularly as regards social and labor issues, prevention of violence against women and trafficking in persons. The activities of federal executive bodies and RF subjects have become more gender-integrated.

However, much remains to be done. The Gender Strategy should be adopted as an official document promoting gender equality. That will enable introduction of the concepts of "gender" and "gender approaches" to official Russian political language, and pave the way for specific gender development programs in subjects of the Russian Federation.

Development of civil society, with the women's movement as its important constituent, is among state policy priorities and is given all possible support by the state. In recent years women's organizations have accumulated experience in gender analysis of legislation and financial and economic policies, proposed measures to prevent violence against women and trafficking in persons, and organized numerous conferences, workshops, courses, schools, and educational programs on the issue of gender equality. Many women's organizations have become reliable partners of local executive authorities in the implementation of regional action plans to improve the status of women. This major activation of the women's movement in recent years is proof of its growing political and social potential.

Work is now underway to work out a National Gender Equality Mechanism, which can meet current needs. The first step towards its institution was the Order of the Ministry of Health and Social Development No. 399 of May 16, 2005 to set up the Coordination Council for Gender Issues, which includes representatives of women's organizations and leading departments of the Ministry of Health and Social Development of Russia. An Inter-departmental Commission for Gender Equality in the Russian Federation is in the process of formation.

**Ministry of Health and Social Development
of the Russian Federation**

¹ Tikhonova N.E. Fenomen gorodskoy bednosti v sovremennoy Rossii.. M: Letniy Sad, 2003, p. 198.

² Mezentseva E.B. Muzhchiny i zhenschiny v sfere domashnego truda: logika ekonomicheskoy ratsional'nosti protiv logiki gendernoy identichnosti? // Gendernoy ravenstvo: poiski resheniya starykh problem. ILO, M.: 2003.

³ Mezentseva E.B. Muzhchiny i zhenschiny v sfere domashnego truda: logika ekonomicheskoy ratsional'nosti protiv logiki gendernoy identichnosti? // Gendernoy ravenstvo: poiski resheniya starykh problem. // Gendernoy ravenstvo: poiski resheniya starykh problem. ILO, M.: 2003. , p. 57-58.

⁴ Gorshkova I.D., Shurygina I.I. Nasiliye nad zhenami v sovremennykh rossiyskikh sem'yakh. M.: MAKSS Press, 2003, p. 112.

⁵ Prestupnost' i pravoporyadok v Rossii. Statisticheskiy aspekt. 2003. p. 55.

⁶ Prestupnost' i pravoporyadok v Rossii. Statisticheskiy aspekt. 2003. p. 24.

⁷ Zhenschiny i muzhchiny v Rossii. 2004. p. 11.

⁸ International Crime Victim Survey (ICVS). Russia took part in the survey in 1992, 1996, 2000, but only the data of 1992 and 1996 are available for analysis, www.unicri.it

⁹ Veltishev D.Yu. Nasiliye i zdorov'ye naseleniya Rossii. The Moscow Psychiatry Research Institute, the RF Ministry of Health, WHO, 2003

¹⁰ Women in Transitional Period. Regional Monitoring Report No. 6, UNICEF, 1999

¹¹ Russia: Nasiliye v sem'ye – nasiliye v obschestve. UNIFEM, UNFPA, M.: 2002, p. 44.

¹² Veltishev D.Yu. Nasiliye i zdorov'ye naseleniya Rossii. The Moscow Psychiatry Research Institute, the RF Ministry of Health, WHO, 2003

¹³ Rimashevskaya N., Vannoy D., Malysheva M. et al. Okno v russkuyu chastnuyu zhizn'. Supruzheskiye pary v 1996. M., 1999

¹⁴ Gorshkova I.D., Shurygina I.I. Nasiliye nad zhenami v sovremennykh rossiyskikh sem'yakh. M.: MAKSS Press, 2003.

¹⁵ Russia: Nasiliye v sem'ye – nasiliye v obschestve. UNIFEM, UNFPA, M.: 2002

¹⁶ Gorshkova I.D., Shurygina I.I. Nasiliye nad zhenami v sovremennykh rossiyskikh sem'yakh. M.: MAKSS Press, 2003, p. 82.

¹⁷ It should be noted that the men-to-women average old-age pension ratio is just one of the possible criteria for assessing gender equality in pension insurance. An alternative could be the amount of "pension transfer" from men to women, comparison of the extent to which they replace wages, etc.

¹⁸ These and further calculations were based on the Russian pension system analytical model developed by the Independent actuarial information and analytical center.

¹⁹ Prava zhenschin v Rossii. Zakonodatel'stvo i praktika. No. 1 (16) – M., 2004, p. 3-18.

Table. MDG Goal 3. Promote gender equality and empower women

MDG targets	MDG targets adapted for Russia	MDG performance indicators	MDG performance indicators adapted for Russia	Current Russian Indicator	Target Russian indicators for 2015
1	2	3	4	5	6
Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and at all levels no later than by 2015	X	Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and third-level education	X	In school year 2003/2004 50% of general school students were girls and 50% were boys; 57% of students in higher institutions were women and 43% were men	Among students of: - general school: girls 50%, boys 50% - higher school: women 50%, men 50%
	X	Ratio of literate women to literate men in the 15-24 age group	X	Illiteracy ratio (2002): - women 0.8%, - men 0.3%	Ratio of literate women to literate men in the 15-24 age group should be 50:50
	X	The proportion of women in non-agricultural wage employment	X	In 2003 the share of women in non-agricultural wage employment among all working women was 92.5%, and the share of women among all people in non-agricultural wage employment was 49.8%	
	X	The proportion of women in National Parliament	X	The share of women in the State Duma is 9.8%	The share of women in the State Duma should be 50%.
X	Equalization of access to political institutions for men and women	X	Share of seats occupied by women in: the National Parliament (State Duma), RF Government, Constitutional and Supreme Court	The share of women in the State Duma is 9.8%. Representation of women in RF Government is zero	The share of women in the State Duma should be 50%, in RF Government 50%, in the Constitutional Court and the Supreme Court 50%.
	Eliminate discriminatory practices in labor and employment	X	Gender wage differences	Average wages of women are 64% of those of men (2003.)	Average wage of women should be 80% of that of men.
	Create effective mechanisms of preventing violence against women	X	Number of cases of violence against women registered by social protection institutions and police	In 2003 official statistics registered 5800 cases of rape and 1420 complaints of violence against women.	Number of rape cases should be zero
	Reduce the impact of unfavorable socio-economic factors on health and life expectancy, especially male	X	Life expectancy of: women, men. Gender life expectancy difference	Life expectancy of women - 72 years, of men - 58.8 years. Gender life expectancy difference 13.2 years (2003)	Life expectancy of women should be 74 years, of men 71 years. Gender life expectancy difference should not exceed 3 years
			Reduction of total employment in harmful and dangerous labor conditions and gender differences therein	In 2003 the share of men employed in conditions, which did not meet sanitary and hygiene requirements, was 28.6%, the share of women was 16.3%.	
			Level and gender differences of mortality from accidents, traumas, homicide, suicide, alcohol abuse (number of deceased per 100,000 people of respective gender)	(2003) Women - 77 Men - 321	