



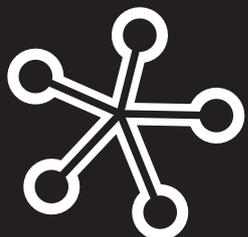
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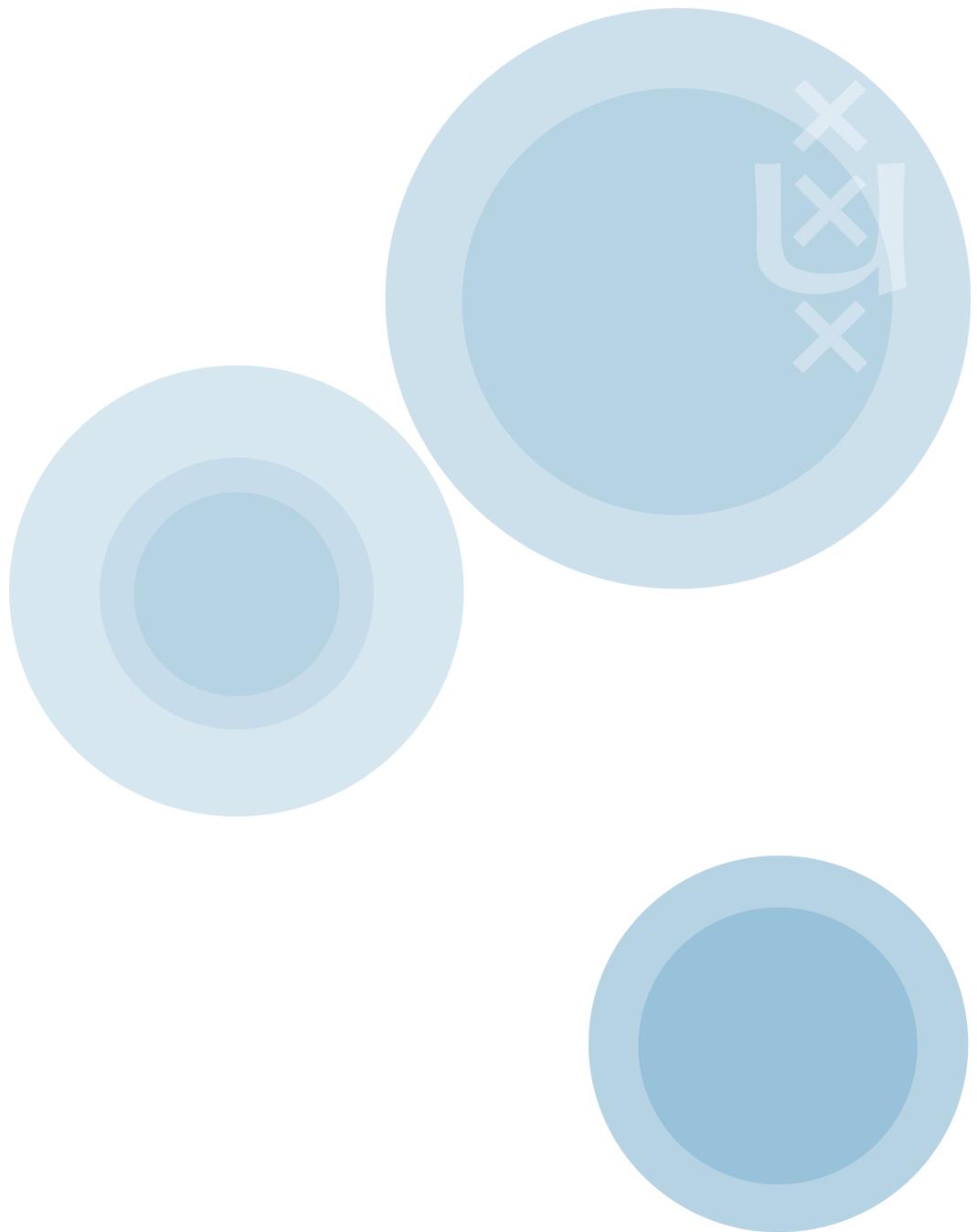
## An overview of women's work and employment in Ukraine

*Maarten van Klaveren, Kea Tijdens,  
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# **An overview of women's work and employment in Ukraine**

**Decisions for Life MDG3 Project  
Country Report no. 8**

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**WP 10/93**



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## Management summary

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

*History (2.1.1).* Under the Soviet regime, Ukraine in particular suffered from intellectual oppression and agriculture collectivisation, to become after 1945 an important center of Soviet steel and arms industry. After the collapse of the Soviet Union, the country had great difficulties in adapting its governance system and consequently in its economic transition, in the 1990s resulting in widespread poverty. In the 2000s export-led growth followed based on the strong points of Ukraine's economy.

*Governance (2.1.2).* Ukraine is a multiparty, democratic republic with a mixed presidential and parliamentary system. Corruption remains widespread at various levels. The legislation upholds the rights of women, but women face discriminatory practices in various areas. Women's participation in politics and governance is low, and contrast with women's participation in employment and education. The law does not explicitly address domestic violence and spousal rape.

*Prospects (2.1.3).* Ukraine's economy has been severely hit by the global economic crisis. In 2009, the country's GDP fell by 15%, and real wages by over 9%. Recovery prospects are modest, and current projections imply that it will take five or six years before Ukraine will surpass its 2008 GDP level.

*Communication (2.2).* The coverage of fixed telephone connections has recently increased, but Ukraine has been an early adapter to the cellular telephone revolution, with currently over one cell phone per person. By 2008, there were 226 Internet users per 1,000 of the population. Internet sources played a major role in the "Orange Revolution". Nearly all households have a TV set. Political pressure on the press is rather heavy.

*The sectoral labour market structure – Population and employment (2.3.1).* Between 2000 and 2005 there was a significant shift away from paid employment to self-employment, employership and working for own account, resuming in 2009. In the 2000s many women have started a "women's business". With nearly 62%, women's Labour Participation Rate (LPR) in 2008 was 86% of men's.

*The sectoral labour market structure – Unemployment (2.3.2)* In 2009, unemployment has grown by more than one-third, though especially female 15-24-year olds seem discouraged to look after formal employment, instead prolonging their education, engaging in informal labour or helping in the family. Female 25-29-year-olds obviously have a much stronger propensity to continue in formal labour.

*Legislation (2.4.1)*. Ukraine has ratified the eight core ILO Labour Conventions. The Constitution provides for the freedom of association and assembly and the right to strike, though the registration procedure for unions is extremely cumbersome and the right to strike is also subject to many legal limitations.

*Labour relations and wage-setting (2.4.2)*. The trade union movement in Ukraine is dominated by the Federation of Trade Unions of Ukraine, FPU. Jointly with two smaller federations, union density in 2008-09 was nearly 60% of all paid employees. In 2009, the FPU and the government had a continuous conflict focusing on setting the subsistence minimum and the minimum wage.

*The statutory minimum wage (2.5.1)*. In December 2009 the monthly minimum wage, set by law, was 669 hryvnias, or 35% of the country's average monthly wage. Over 2000-2006 the minimum wage rose from about 35 to 70% of the subsistence minimum, but the gap between the subsistence minimum and the average wage grew considerably.

*Inequality and poverty (2.5.2)*. Directly after independence, inequality and poverty started to increase, poverty depending on the yardstick used in 1995-96 growing to 30-85%. About 15 years ago a large part of the population experienced poverty in often harsh forms. From 2001-2006, poverty decreased, but the 2008-09 crisis may well have aggravated poverty substantially. Income inequality developed simultaneously with poverty, and is currently at low-to-medium level in international perspective.

*Population and fertility (2.6.1)*. Since the 1980s Ukraine is in a demographic crisis, with reduced fertility rates, high death and emigration rates, ending up in massive depopulation. Between 1990 and 2009, population decreased by nearly 12%. The total fertility rate, less than 1.3 children per woman, is quite low; the adolescent fertility rate is with 32 per 1,000 rather low but since a few years growing. Many –young women and men—want to marry young.

*Health (2.6.2)*. In 2007 there were an estimated 440,000 persons with HIV/AIDS in Ukraine, or 1.6-1.8% of the adult population, the highest percentage in Europe or Central Asia. The levels of public awareness of HIV/AIDS are rather low. The life expectancy at birth is very low for men. In particular many men have serious health and mental problems, and international organisations talk about a health crisis. They regard almost half of deaths before the age of 75 in Ukraine as avoidable.

*Women's labour market share (2.6.3).* Women make up nearly half of the country's labour force. In 2008 six of 15 industries showed a female majority. Women made up majorities in five occupational groups, in particular among professionals and associate professionals. In high-skilled occupations they concentrate in the formal sector. Even at the level of legislators, senior officials and managers, the female share of 39% is in international perspective rather high.

*Literacy (2.7.1).* The adult literacy rate—those age 15 and over that can read and write—in 1999-2006 was 98.9%, with hardly a gender gap: 99.0% for men and 98.8% for women. In 2007 the literacy rate for 15-24-year-olds stood at 99.8% for both sexes.

*Education of girls (2.7.2).* In 2006, the combined gross enrollment rate in education was 88.8%, divided in 91.5% for females and 86.3% for males. Net enrollment in primary education was for 2007 set at 89.8% for girls and 89.9% for boys. Women to men parity in secondary education increased to 100% in 2007. With 88% gross enrollment in tertiary education in 2008, women's participation at this level of education is very high, and women to men parity 124%.

*Female skill levels (2.7.3).* Women in the employed population have on average a higher educational level than their male colleagues. Comparison with employment levels point at an immense underutilisation of their qualifications. Segmentation of the labour market seems to play a major role here. We estimate the current size of the target group of DECISIONS FOR LIFE for Ukraine at about 440,000 girls and young women 15-29 of age working in urban areas in commercial services.

*Wages (2.8.1).* We found for 2008 a considerable gender pay gap, totaling 25%. In the formal sector wage discrimination is identified as the main factor. Though the wage structure in the 2000s has been compressed, wage differences between sectors remain considerable. Besides having low wages, women in wholesale and retail and in the restaurant and hotel sector have been particularly hit by redundancies. Women in the top of the wage distribution earn more when they are self-employed than when they are salaried, both in the formal and in the informal sector.

*Working conditions (2.8.2).* As far as can be traced, gender differences in hours worked are small. In 2003, nearly 90% of males and 84% of females worked full-time, and very small shares worked less than 20 hours.



# 1. Introduction: The Decisions for Life project

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

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

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

This report is part of the Inventories, to be made by the University of Amsterdam, for all 14 countries involved. These Inventories and the underlying gender analyses are listed in the Table. All reports will be posted at the project website. In this country report on Ukraine the sequence of the sections differs from the table. The report covers mainly Activity nr 1.03, the Gender analysis regarding pay and working conditions (or, as Chapter 2 is called here, work and employment). Partly included (in section 2.4.1) is Activity 1.01, Inventories of national legislation; partly the analysis of national legislation has resulted in a separate product, the DecentWorkCheck for Ukraine. Activity 1.02, Inventories of companies' regulations, will take

place through a company survey. Preparations for Activities 1.03a and 1.03b have resulted in a number of lists, to be used in the WageIndicator web-survey for country-specific questions and their analyses (Chapter 3). References can be found in Chapter 4; Chapter 5 gives more insight in the WageIndicator.

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

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

## 2. Gender analysis regarding work and employment

### 2.1. Introduction: the general picture

#### 2.1.1. History

Ukraine was a center of the medieval living area of the East Slavs. This state, known as Kyivan Rus, became the largest and most powerful nation in Europe, before disintegrating in the 12<sup>th</sup> century. During the latter part of the 18<sup>th</sup> century, the largest part of ethnographic Ukraine was integrated into the Russian Empire, with the rest under Austro-Hungarian control. With growing urbanization and modernization, a Ukrainian intelligentsia committed to national rebirth and social justice rose, and nationalist and socialist parties developed. In a chaotic period of incessant warfare and several attempts at independence (1917–21) following World War I, the collapse of the Russian and Austrian empires and the Bolshevik revolution, Ukraine witnessed a short-lived period of independence (1917-1920), before ending up in December 1922 as one of the republics of the Soviet Union. Initially, the Soviets encouraged Ukrainian culture and language, introduced universal health care, education and social-security benefits, and greatly increased women's rights. Most of these policies were sharply reversed by the early 1930s under Stalin. Systematic state terror murdered thousands of Ukraine's writers, artists, and intellectuals. Ukraine was involved in the Soviet industrialisation and agriculture collectivisation programs, both at a heavy cost for the peasantry. The collectivisation had a devastating effect on agricultural productivity. In 1932–33 up to 10 million Ukrainians died in the famine known as Holodomor; Stalin's policies aimed at killing people through starvation have been identified as one of the causes (wikipedia Ukraine; CIA World Factbook; Ellman 2005, 2007).

Following the Invasion of Poland in September 1939, German and Soviet troops divided the territory of Poland, and Ukrainian SSR's territory was enlarged westward: Eastern Galicia and Volhynia with their Ukrainian population became reunited with the rest of Ukraine (Since then, the country's mainly agricultural "West" and industrialized "East" would often show varying societal and political attitudes). German armies invaded the Soviet Union on June 22, 1941, thereby initiating four straight years of incessant total war. The Axis allies initially advanced against desperate efforts of the Red Army, but in November-December 1941 the Red Army and the horrible winter turned the fortune of war. The wide majority of Ukrainians fought

alongside the Red Army and Soviet resistance, though some elements of the Ukrainian nationalist movement sided with the Nazis. Among the estimated 8.7 million Soviet troops who fell in battle against the Nazis, 1.4 million were ethnic Ukrainians. In Ukraine Hitler, characterizing the population as “just a family of rabbits”, followed systematic politics of depopulation to prepare the area for “great-German” colonisation, including a food blockade on Kiev (wikipedia Ukraine; Kershaw 2000; Berkhoff 2004).

The Ukrainian republic was heavily damaged by the war, and it required major efforts to recover. The situation was even worsened by a famine in 1946–47, caused by the drought and the infrastructure breakdown, that again took away tens of thousands of lives. Yet, already by 1950 the Ukraine SSR had surpassed pre-war levels of production. It became an important center of the Soviet steel and arms industry and high-tech research. Then, on April 26, 1986, Reactor No. 4 in the Chernobyl Nuclear Power Plant exploded, resulting in the Chernobyl disaster. After initially attempting to conceal the scale of the disaster, the Soviet authorities evacuated 135,000 inhabitants from the city of Pripjat and the further area. Environmental exposure in the Ukraine is suspected of being the major cause of increased mortality in populations affected by the Chernobyl disaster. Among the 600,000 receiving the most significant radiation exposure, cancer mortality may have increased by a few percent, but scientific evidence to attribute even such effects to the disaster is heavily debated (wikipedia Economy of Ukraine; wikipedia Chernobyl disaster).

1990-91 saw the collapse of the USSR. On July 16, 1990, the new parliament adopted the Declaration of State Sovereignty of Ukraine. The declaration established the principles of the self-determination of the Ukrainian nation, its democracy, political and economic independence, and the priority of Ukrainian law on the Ukrainian territory over Soviet law. After a conservative coup in Moscow failed to restore the Communist party’s power, on August 24, 1991 the Ukrainian parliament adopted the Act of Independence in which the parliament declared Ukraine as an independent democratic state. A referendum and the first presidential elections took place on December 1, 1991. More than 90% of the Ukrainian people expressed their support for the Act of Independence, and they elected the chairman of the parliament, Leonid Kravchuk to serve as the first President of the country. In December 1991, at two meetings in Brest, Belarus, and Alma-Ata, Kazakhstan, leaders of 11 of 15 Soviet republics, including Ukraine, formally dissolved the Soviet Union and formed the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) (wikipedia Ukraine; wikipedia Kazakhstan). Obviously, assessment in the population of the Soviet dissociation in Ukraine in particular differed between “West” and “East” – and continued to do so.<sup>1</sup>

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1 One of many possible examples: in a 2002 survey, over 40% of 25-29-year-olds in a western province had positive feelings about the disintegration of the USSR, against only 2% in an eastern province (Predborska 2005, 361).

On the eve of the country's independence, prospects for successful transition to a market economy seemed bright because of Ukraine's strong industrial and agricultural resource base combined with a highly educated population. However, Ukraine turned out to be one of the poorest performers among the CIS countries. Its first, rather wild stage of transition has been dubbed, alternately, as a disaster, a lost decade, and a case study in state-sponsored looting (Berry and Schelzig 2005, 11). Between 1990 and 1996, Ukraine's GDP (Gross Domestic Product) fell by 57%, industrial production by 50%, and real wages by about two-thirds (not counting the large non-payment of wages). GDP per capita<sup>2</sup> fell from USD 1,969 in 1990 to USD 864 in 1996. In early 1992, the government hastily liberalized most prices to combat widespread product shortages, while at the same time continuing to subsidize state-run industries and agriculture by uncovered monetary emission. These policies pushed consumer price increases to hyperinflationary levels. In 1993, consumer prices rose by over 10,000%: the world record for inflation in one calendar year. Between 1990 and 1996 the consumer price index increased by 165,000 times, while average wages increased only 56,000 times. A large part of the population (75-80% is defensible) fell into poverty; many survived thanks to their garden plots for growing food, and many engaged in petty commerce that has become known as "hustling" (*krutitsya*). Moreover, millions of Ukrainians lost all they invested between 1993 and 1995 in trust funds. Dissatisfied with the economic conditions, as well as with endemic corruption, Ukrainians protested and organised strikes. Tight monetary and fiscal policies and the introduction of a new currency, the hryvnia, in 1996, helped stabilizing the economy. In 1997 inflation was brought down to less than 11%; though rising in 1998 and 1999 again to respectively 23 and 28%, the Russian ruble crisis of 1998 helped substantially. Economists hold that the lack of structural reforms combined with Ukraine's dependence for energy supplies have made the country's economy extremely vulnerable for external shocks. Energy prices rose by a factor 12 when Russia began to sell its oil and gas at world prices instead of virtually donating it to the republics of the USSR like Ukraine (leading to a heavy energy-intensive economy). Currently the country imports about three-fourths of its oil and natural gas requirements (wikipedia Economy of Ukraine; CIA World Factbook; World Bank 1996; Revenko 1997; Milanovic 1998; Aslund 2000; World Bank 2004; Berry and Schelzig 2005; website Statistics Ukraine).<sup>3</sup>

In the 2000s export-led growth based on the strong points of Ukraine's economy --its immense agricultural output (meat, milk, grain, vegetables) and the products of its diversified metals industry-- resulted in on average high but rather volatile growth figures. Real GDP increased by 9.2% in 2001, 5.2% in 2002,

2 In constant USD as of 1995.

3 Other relevant factors have to do with the breaking up of command / governance, trade and payment mechanisms existing in the former Soviet Union (cf. Hansen and Cook 1999).

9.6% in 2003, 12.1% in 2004, 2.7% in 2005, 7.3% in 2006, and 7.9% in 2007, followed by a slowdown to 2.1% growth in 2008 – implying growth averages of 6.9% in 1998-2008 and 7.0% in 2003-2008 (World Bank 2009c, 2009e). Taking into account the development of the labour force, GDP growth per person employed was 8.1% in 2001, 5.8% in 2002, 10.1% in 2003, 12.8% in 2004, 4.7% in 2005, 8.1% in 2006, and recently 8.7% in 2007 and 2.7% in 2008 (authors' calculations based on ILO Laborsta and UNECE 2009). Thus, the GDP growth rate per person employed for 2001-2006 averaged 8.3%, slightly decreasing to an average growth rate of 7.9% for 2003-2008.

By 2006, the Ukrainian GDP had recovered to slightly above its 1991 level, though by the time political turmoil threatened to frustrate the country's progress. The "Orange Revolution", a peaceful mass protest in Kiev spreading to other cities, even to Russian-speaking eastern cities like Kharkiv, in the cold November 2004 – January 2005 months forced the authorities to overturn a rigged presidential election and to allow a new internationally monitored vote that swept into power a reformist slate under Viktor Yushchenko. Yushchenko beat the Russian-oriented candidate, Viktor Yanukovych, till then protected by the incumbent president, Leonid Kuchma. The Orange Revolution was an impressive testimony of civil society mobilisation. However, major political instability followed, and currently Ukraine is experiencing its fifth administration after the Orange Revolution. Subsequent internal disagreement in the Yushchenko camp allowed Yanukovych to stage a comeback in parliamentary elections and become prime minister in August 2006. A political crisis in spring 2007 resulted in early elections, which brought Yulia Tymoshenko, leading the "Orange", more western-oriented coalition, into power as new prime minister in December 2007. Under president Yushchenko and PM Tymoshenko, disputes with Russia over the price of gas briefly stopped all gas supplies to Ukraine in 2006 and again in 2009. Following continuing disagreement between Yushchenko and Tymoshenko, paralyzing the country amidst the economic and financial crisis, after two ballot rounds Yanukovych was elected President in February 2010. Initially Tymoshenko, against evidence of international monitors arguing that elections were rigged again, refused to concede her defeat, but after a week she withdrew her appeal (wikipedia's Economy of Ukraine, Ukrainian presidential election 2010; CIA World Factbook; various news websites; Salnykova 2006).

In a global perspective, Ukraine is located in the higher ranks of medium human development, in 2006 ranking no. 82 on the Human Development Index (HDI) with a rating of 0.786, implying an increase between 2000 and 2006 of 0.033. In 2006 its GDP per capita reached USD (PPP) 6,224, ranking no. 93 in

the world. The estimated earned income for men was USD 8,045, and for women USD 4,648, implying a women to men parity rate of 58% (UNDP 2008). As we will see, this low rate is indicative for the position of Ukrainian women in the field of work and employment.

### 2.1.2. Governance

Ukraine is a multiparty, democratic republic with a mixed presidential and parliamentary system of government. The country subdivided into twenty-four oblasts (provinces) and one autonomous republic, Crimea. Executive authority is shared by a directly elected president and a unicameral, 450-seat *Verkhovna Rada* (parliament), which selects a prime minister as head of government. The 2010 election has been widely recognized as fair by all international observing agencies (wikipedia Ukrainian presidential election 2010). There is a large number of political parties, in parliament mostly unified in blocs. Yet, various international reports document Ukraine's poor record in democratic institution building (Shapovalova 2008, 6). In 2008 and 2009, civilian authorities generally maintained effective control of the security forces. Human rights problems included reports of serious police abuse, beatings, and torture of detainees and prisoners; harsh conditions in prisons and detention facilities; arbitrary and lengthy pretrial detention; an inefficient and corrupt judicial system; and incidents of anti-Semitism. Corruption in the government and society was widespread. There was violence and discrimination against women, children, Roma, Crimean Tatars, and persons of non-Slavic appearance. Trafficking in persons continued to be a serious problem (US Dept of State 2009, 2010).

The constitution and the law prohibit torture and comparable practices; however, in 2009 there were reports that police continued to abuse and torture persons in custody. According to the Ukrainian Helsinki Human Rights Union (UHHRU) and other local nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), an estimated one-third of criminal suspects were routinely mistreated or beaten by law enforcement officers to extract confessions and information. The law does not clearly prohibit confessions or other statements made under duress from being introduced as evidence in court proceedings. Efforts to check these practices were made more difficult by an ineffective system for investigating allegations of abuse and by detainees' lack of access to defense lawyers and doctors. In 2009 the media reported several instances of police abuse, and authorities prosecuted police officers who abused persons in detention. Reports of military hazing violence against conscripts in the armed forces continued during 2008 and 2009. Prison and detention center conditions generally did not meet international standards. Overcrowding, abuse, inadequate sanitation, light, food, water, and medical care were persistent problems. Conditions in police temporary holding facilities and pretrial

detention facilities were harsher than in low- and medium- security prisons. Overcrowding and poor conditions in prisons and detention centers exacerbated the problem of tuberculosis (TB). The February 2009 report by the UN Working Group on Arbitrary Detention noted the following problems: the continued practice of detaining until trial persons suspected of minor crimes; a perceived lack of independent and effective control over the detention process by the judiciary; and unlawful restrictions on pretrial detainees, such as denying them contact with their families before court trials (US Dept of State 2009, 2010).

The constitution and law provide for an independent judiciary; however, in practice the judiciary remained subject to political pressure, suffered from corruption and inefficiency, and lacked public confidence. The right to a fair trial was limited by lengthy court proceedings, particularly in administrative courts, and by political pressure on judges, inadequate court funding, a shortage of qualified legal assistance for defendants, and the inability of courts to enforce their rulings. Judges also continued to complain about pressure from high-ranking politicians seeking improper resolution of cases. While the law provides for judicial independence, in some cases it also gives the president considerable power over the judiciary. The president has the authority, with the agreement of the Ministry of Justice and the chair of the Supreme Court or of a corresponding higher specialized court, to establish and abolish courts of general jurisdiction. The president determines the number of judges in the court system, appoints and removes chairpersons and deputy chairpersons of courts, and establishes appellate commercial and appellate administrative courts (US Dept of State 2009, 2010).

There were several media reports of allegations of privacy interference and illegal surveillance by government authorities. For example, on April 28, 2009, the weekly newspaper *Dzerkalo Tyznia* reported that appeal courts reviewed 25,086 requests by law enforcement agencies (mostly by the SBU, the Ministry of Internal Affairs, and tax police) for permission to intercept information, seize correspondence, or use other technical means to obtain information, all of which the newspaper described as related to restrictions of the constitutional rights of citizens (US Dept of State 2010).

The law provides criminal penalties for official corruption; however, corruption is ineffectively prosecuted and such penalties are rarely imposed. Officials and high-ranking officials often engaged in corrupt practices with impunity. Corruption remained a pervasive problem in the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of the government; so did police corruption. According to the Ministry of Internal Affairs, 39,204 law-enforcement officers (approximately 16% of the 250,000-member force) were subjected to adminis-

trative disciplinary actions in the first nine months of 2009. On April 24, 2009, the Cabinet of Ministers appointed a new government commissioner for anticorruption policy. On December 9, the Cabinet of Ministers adopted 14 anticorruption measures, including an anticorruption strategy (US Dept of State 2010).

Under the country's first president, Kravchuk, high-level corruption was institutionalized. Many "red directors" privatized large industrial firms and accumulated significant amounts of capital. From 1993 on under Kuchma, political and economical interests remained heavily intertwined, characterized by competing interest associations or "political-economic groups" (PEGs). Small groups were able to privately acquire huge monopoly rents at the expense of society at large (Aslund 2000, 262). Many parliamentary deputies were leading businessmen, profiting from stakes in privatised firms and in firms investing in newly created special economic zones with tax deductions, and Ukrainian politics could not be understood without mapping the development of PEGs (Kubicek 2000; Salnykova 2006). It has been computed for 1999-2003 that Ukraine had an immensely large shadow economy, covering 42-45% of the official GDP (Schneider 2005); other approaches estimate the unofficial sector at the same magnitude (cf. Berry and Schelzig 2005, 20-2). It remains to be seen whether corruption has been pushed back since 2004. According to the World Bank's worldwide governance indicators (WGI), Ukraine's comparative position after 2000 improved on four of six indicators used though the country still is to be found in the world's lower half. On voice and accountability, the country in 2008 was in the sixth percentile, indicating that about at least 50% of countries worldwide had better ratings; on political stability and absence of violence, the country also scored in the sixth percentile; on government effectiveness and on regulatory quality, it was in the seventh percentile, with a fall back in 2005-2007; on regulatory quality, its score was in the sixth percentile; on rule of law the country was in the seventh percentile, but its score on control of corruption was 2008 relatively lowest, in the eight percentile, again with a backslide after a peak in 2005 (World Bank 2009b). There are signs that corruption frustrates (international) business in Ukraine more than elsewhere. In a large 2008 international survey, half of all firms operating in Ukraine identified corruption as a major constraint, against 34% of firms active in the Eastern Europe and Central Asia region (website Enterprise Surveys).

The Constitution of Ukraine upholds the principle of equality between men and women and the country's Penal Code specifically mentions the need to eradicate all forms of discrimination. A law providing for equal opportunities for men and women was passed in 2006, but very few judges are aware of its existence. In general terms, Ukraine's legislation upholds the rights of women and guarantees their protection. Negative stereotypes persist, however, and continue to limit women's participation in society. The effect is exacer-

bated by low level of women's participation in politics and governance structures in Ukraine, a complex of facts for the outside world often distorted by the stylish appearance of Yulia Tymoshenko (website OECD-SIGI). In 2009 there were 36 female members of the 450-seat parliament, or 8% of seats (website IPU). Earlier, from 2003-2006 the score was with 24 seats (5.3%) even lower (UN MDG Indicators). Besides holding the post of PM, women among other senior government posts in 2009 were minister of labour and social policy, secretary of the National Security and Defense Council, head of the state treasury, and human rights commissioner (ombudsman). The 18-member constitutional court included two female justices (US Dept of State 2010). The new cabinet of ministers formed after the 2010 presidential elections is all-male. In March 2010 the new PM, Mykola Azarov, enraged feminist groups by suggesting that women are unsuitable for high political office and incapable of carrying out reforms (Harding 2010). After all, Ukrainian women's low participation in politics contrasts heavily with their high participation in employment and education.

The Ukrainian law protects women relatively well within the family context. The legal minimum age for marriage is 17 years for women and 18 years for men. The courts can authorise marriage from the age of 14 years if it is clear "that the marriage is in the person's interests." Polygamy is not a common practice. In Ukraine, parental authority is shared by the mother and father, and parents have equal rights and responsibilities regarding their children's development and education. Social stereotypes within the family remain strong. It is not uncommon for men to divorce and then refuse to fulfil their parental obligations, which leaves mothers (and their children) with limited resources. Such women have very few legal options to pursue action against their ex-husbands. There is no legal discrimination against women in regard to inheritance (website OECD-SIGI).

Legally, women in Ukraine have relatively strong ownership rights, but they still face discriminatory practices in certain areas. According to the government, many women gained access to land through the 2001 agrarian reforms, which transformed the country's collective farms into agricultural businesses. The Constitution guarantees women's legal rights to access to property other than land. By law, joint property acquired during marriage belongs equally to both spouses, but this is rarely the case in practice. If a man leaves his wife and forces her to leave the marital home, she has few legal avenues through which to pursue an equitable distribution of property. According to law, Ukrainian women have equal access to bank loans, but access to loans is equally difficult for men and women. Men have the advantage that they can sometimes

use their relationships within the administration to acquire loans. Because women are poorly represented in administrative bodies, they typically do not have this option. Following the 2001 agrarian reform, many women in rural areas established credit unions (website OECD-SIGI).

The collapse of the Soviet Union may well have enforced patriarchal tendencies in family and society, and allowed commitment to the patriarchal family to be revived with impunity (Predborska 2005). The Ukrainian law prohibits discrimination based on race, gender, language, social status, or other circumstances; however, both governmental and societal discrimination persisted, and the government did not effectively enforce the prohibitions. The law prohibits rape but does not explicitly address domestic violence and spousal rape. A law prohibiting "forced sexual relations with a materially dependent person" may allow prosecution for spousal rape, which in practice was common in recent years. Authorities are currently considering an amendment to the Criminal Code that would specifically prohibit domestic violence. According to the Ministry of Internal Affairs, during the first nine months of 2009, police recorded 598 incidents of rape or attempted rape, a decrease of 8.6% compared with the same period in 2008. Domestic violence against women remained a serious problem. Advocacy groups asserted that the percentage of women subjected to physical violence or psychological abuse at home remain high. According to various NGOs, national authorities, particularly the Ministry for Family, Youth and Sports, devoted more attention to domestic violence than in previous years. For example, in July 2009 social advertisements against domestic violence, with hotline numbers for victims, were established in eight major cities. The ads were part of a national campaign to combat domestic violence against women entitled "stop violence!" On July 30, 2009 the Minister for Family, Youth and Sports announced other measures to prevent and combat domestic violence. This included a program for dealing with offenders and raising public awareness of the issue by including information on domestic violence in syllabi of all educational institutions for judicial, law enforcement personnel, medical staff, social workers, and teachers. According to his Ministry there were 22 centers for social-psychological assistance in 19 oblasts, Crimea, and the cities of Kiev and Sevastopol, which had capacity for 390 persons. The centers received funding from regional and district budgets. NGOs operated additional centers for domestic violence victims in eight oblasts. According to women's advocacy groups, private and municipally funded shelters were not always accessible (US Dept of State 2010; website OECD-SIGI).

The law on equal rights and opportunities qualifies sexual harassment as discrimination; however, women's rights groups asserted that it does not contain an effective mechanism to protect against sexual harassment. Women's groups reported that there was continuing, widespread sexual harassment in the workplace,

including coerced sex. A study carried out by La Strada and Kyiv International Institute of Sociology during 2008-09 suggested that the level of public awareness of the issue remained low: 43% of respondents answered that sexual harassment was a relevant issue in the country, while 6% said this type of discrimination was relevant for them at work. Legal experts regarded the safeguards against harassment as inadequate. La Strada-Ukraine operates a national hotline for victims of violence and sexual harassment (US Dept of State 2010).

The law prohibits all forms of trafficking in persons; however, also recently there was abundant evidence that persons were trafficked from, to, and within the country. Ukraine remains a country of origin for internationally trafficked men, women, and children. The main destinations are Russia, Poland, Turkey, Italy, the Czech Republic, Germany, the Netherlands, Portugal, and Spain. The country is also a transit point for traffickers and victims from Central Asia, Russia, and Moldova, usually to destinations further west or to the Middle East. The main trafficking victims were women up to 30 years of age for sexual exploitation, older women for labour exploitation, men of all ages for labour exploitation, and children under the age of 16 for sexual and labour exploitation. The commercial sexual exploitation of children remained a serious problem in 2008 and 2009. According to local NGOs and researchers, orphaned and homeless children are at high risk as trafficking victims. Many Ukrainian girls and women are vulnerable for exploitation as prostitutes. Already in the late 1990s it was found in surveys that two-thirds of young Ukrainian women were willing to go abroad. Many of them wanted to escape the poverty, bad family situations and lack of opportunity at home, but were also attracted by Western lifestyles seen in the media. According to the US Dept of State employment, travel, marriage, and modeling agencies, often operating on the Internet, and individuals were involved in recruitment of victims. Yet, most women prostitutes seem to be recruited through an acquaintance, who gains the woman's confidence. In the "second wave" trafficked women return home to recruit other women. As a rule, these various circuits are controlled by organized crime groups and use of violence against women is standard. Corruption in the judiciary and police continued to impede the government's ability to combat trafficking. Local NGOs operated shelters in major cities with local administrations providing the premises at a nominal fee. Government funding for these facilities continued to be limited. A toll-free hotline offering advice and warnings regarding employment abroad continued to operate and provided assistance to persons who were exploited while abroad (Hughes and Denisova 2002 ; US Dept of State 2009, 2010).

For 2008 the Gender Gap Index of the World Economic Forum ranked Ukraine no. 62 of 130 countries, just below Azerbaijan. For three of the four yardsticks used, rather high scores were attached to Ukraine: no. 27 concerning the position of women in economic participation and opportunity, no. 34 for educational attainment, --with other countries, like Kazakhstan-- no. 38 for health and survival, while only for political empowerment the country was to be found on the 114<sup>th</sup> spot. In the lower middle income group of countries, Ukraine took a middle position (Hausmann *et al*/2008). Finally, it is worth mentioning that the SIGI Gender Equality and Social Institutions Index ranked Ukraine tenth of 102 countries in 2008 (website OECD-SIGI).

### 2.1.3. Prospects

A World Bank research note as of July 2009 states: “The global economic crisis is exposing households in virtually all developing countries to increased risk of poverty and hardship”, adding “While in the short-run, the non-poor may be the most affected by the crisis, experience from past economic and financial crises suggests that the adverse impacts are likely to spread in the medium-term to poor households.” The World Bank note ranked Ukraine among the 75 countries that will be moderately exposed to the crisis, showing decelerating growth. It is rated in the category of countries with medium fiscal capacity, meaning the government has some fiscal space to counteract the poverty effects of the crisis (Cord *et al*/2009). It seems that Ukraine’s administration had already rapidly used its space, and that public finance early went into crisis. Already in November 2008 Ukraine reached an agreement with the IMF for a USD 16.5 million standby loan (CIA World Factbook). The country’s economy was severely hit by the worldwide crisis, notably because of the drop of steel prices and the falling demand for steel, the country’s main export product, as well as because of aggressive foreign borrowing. The fact that Ukraine has a quite open economy clearly worked to its disadvantage. In 2008 trade in goods and services accounted for 89% of GDP (UN Data).<sup>4</sup> Moreover, as for example the FTU trade union confederation observed (Inform-Contact no. 65), Ukraine was in a political situation in which authorities were paralyzed.

The development of Ukraine’s GDP in 2008-2009 was one of the worst worldwide. The country’s real GDP fell from September 2008 – September 2009 by nearly 20%, with the heaviest fall in the first quarter of 2009 (20.3% compared to the same quarter of 2008), followed by 17.8% in the second quarter. Output indicators also showed a massive decrease. Comparing January – October 2009 with January – October 2008

4 It is also telling that on the KOF Globalization Index 2010 Ukraine was ranked no. 46 of 141 countries on globalisation at large, considerably higher than for example BRIC countries Brazil (no. 91), China (97), and Russia (92); yet, its ranking on economic globalisation was with a 70th ranking considerably lower (KOF Swiss Economic Institute 2010).

showed that industrial output fell by 26%, investment by 44%, and construction output even by 51%, while exports dropped 45% (World Bank 2009e; website Statistics Ukraine). The international position of Ukraine has weakened considerably, also because of the heavy capital outflow: already in the first eight months of 2009, external debts led to a net outflow of USD 7.1 billion, while domestic capital outflows—flight to foreign cash by Ukrainian residents—drained out USD 5.7 billion (World Bank 2009e). Though still decreasing, industrial production showed some recovery in the third and fourth quarters, resulting in a GDP decrease over 2009 of 15% (World Bank 2009e; website Statistics Ukraine).

The crisis has had severe consequences for large parts of the Ukrainian population. Real wages in 2009 fell by an average 9.2%. The development of wages by industries clearly indicate that construction workers paid the highest toll. Average nominal wages in construction already fell by 21.2%; taking price inflation of nearly 14% into account, this meant a fall in real wages of 35%. The other sector with nominally decreasing wages was public administration; though with 2.6% the average decrease was much smaller, it meant a real wage decrease of over 16%. Remarkably, nominal wage increases in finance (7.8%) and real estate (7.0%) remained above average, though they still implied real wage decreases of 6-7%. Also remarkable were the nominal wage increases in three low-paid sectors partly depending on public spending, in community and other personal services (18.0%), education (11.2%), and health care and social work (11.0%), though in the end only for those in community and other personal services a real increase (of 4%) was left (authors' calculations on website Statistics Ukraine). These figures do not necessarily indicate real earnings, as they hide the return of an old nasty phenomenon in Ukraine, that of wage arrears. At the beginning of 2009, the amount of arrears of wages increased by 80% compared to the beginning of 2008, without reaching the excessively high levels of 1997-2002 (website Statistics Ukraine). Over 2009, the number of persons officially employed fell by 887,000 less compared to 2008 (see for the development of employment and unemployment in 2009, section 2.3.2).

The World Bank in September / October 2009 expected an average negative growth rate of the Ukrainian GDP per capita of 2.9% over 2008-2012, with an expected recovery of 2.5% GDP growth in 2010 and 3.5% in 2011 (World Bank 2009c, 2009e). If the World Bank forecast holds, this would mean that it will take five or six years before Ukraine will surpass its 2008 GDP level. The Bank argues that “significant further spending reductions” in the government budget are needed, if it will not end up with a deficit in 2010 exceeding 8% of GDP. Yet, “the 2010 budget would benefit from provisions to improve the targeting of social safety nets to protect the most vulnerable households” (World Bank 2009e, 2). In a most recent report,

the World Bank (2010b) stresses that recovery of the Ukrainian economy will be conditional, depending on fiscal reform, reform of the banking system, and reform of the public sector “to improve governance and to regain market confidence”, including eliminating the wide scope for corruption.

## 2.2. Communication

Adequate communication facilities are absolutely essential for the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project. Ukraine has been making progress in recent years in developing its telecom sector, after inheriting at independence in 1991 a telephone system that was antiquated, inefficient, and in disrepair. Currently, fixed telephone density is rising and the domestic trunk system is being improved. About one-third of the country's networks are digital and a majority of regional centres now have digital switching stations, though improvements in local networks and exchanges continue to lag (CIA World Factbook). The coverage of fixed telephone connections per 1,000 of the population have increased from 143 in 1990 via 212 in 2000 to 292 or 13.2 million main lines in use in 2008 (UN MDG Indicators; World Bank 2009a). Ukraine was an early adapter to the cellular telephone revolution. The number of cellular phones in use has grown extremely rapid after the turn of the century, from 17 per 1,000 of the population in 2000 to 1,215 per 1,000 as of January 1, 2010, or 55.3 million cell phones (website Statistics Ukraine). This very high average of over one cell phone per person has led to saturation of the market, consequently slowing down expansion of the cell phone system (CIA World Factbook). Already in 2007 mobile cellular networks' coverage was 100%. In that year the average mobile phone use was 156 minutes per user per month, near the average for Europe and Central Asia. With USD 9.40 per month, the price basket for mobile service was also in the middle range, though more than threefold the price basket for residential fixed line service: USD 2.60 (World Bank 2009a).

According to the CIA World Factbook, in 2008 the share of Ukrainian Internet users had grown to 226 per 1,000 of the population, as it noted 10,354 million Internet users on a population of 45.7 million; for 2007, the World Bank (2009a) indicated 215 per 1,000 coverage. One may safely assume that currently about one in four Ukrainians is using the Internet, though outside the large cities Internet penetration remains rather low. There were no government restrictions on access to the Internet; however, law enforcement bodies engaged in Internet monitoring (US Dept of State 2009, 2010). By 2009, the country had 706,000

Internet hosts, and by December 2008 4.3 secure Internet servers per 1 million people. The price basket for Internet services has decreased rapidly, and was with USD 7.70 per month considerably below the European / Central Asian average (CIA World Factbook; World Bank 2009a).

The incidence of personal computers (PCs) is still rather low in Ukraine. While in 2000 this incidence was 1.8 per 100 inhabitants, by 2007 it had increased to 4.5% -- still for Europe and Central Asia a low share (World Bank 2009a). Yet, the regular use of computers, at work, in schools and universities and in Internet cafés is most likely much higher, especially among the young generation.

Ownership of television sets is widely spread: it was estimated that in 2007 97% of all households had a television set, a share that was already reached in 2000 (World Bank 2009a). In 2006, there were no less than 647 television stations, as well as 524 radio broadcast stations (CIA World Factbook). Following independence, the government of Ukraine began restoring the image and usage of Ukrainian language through a policy of Ukrainisation. Today, all foreign films and TV programs, including Russian ones, are subtitled or dubbed in Ukrainian (wikipedia Ukraine). According to the Ukrainian Association of Press Publications, approximately 4,200 print publications were regularly published in the country. Among them were 2,400 newspapers (including 52 dailies) and 1,700 magazines, with 1,550 having primarily nationwide distribution. The country's constitution and laws provide for freedom of speech and of the press, and in 2009 the government generally respected these rights in practice (US Dept of State 2010).

The Ukrainian Constitution prohibits censorship. Yet, the Kuchma regime influenced elections through patronage and coercion, and controlled the media, through official recommendations (*temnyky*); intimidation, and ownership of the country's largest dailies and TV channels, in the form of state ownership or ownership by political allies (D'Anieri 2005, 235-7). By contrast, in the Orange Revolution independent weeklies, TV and radio stations and Internet sources played major roles, and sparked social action. Internet sources in particular revealed corruption and related scandals taking place under Kuchma, including the planned murder of the oppositional journalist, Georgii Gongadze. In the month when "Orange" started, November 2004, Internet use in Ukraine grew by nearly 40% (Salnykova 2006, 35-40, 58-9).

It stands to be seen how and to what extent the old media structures and practices have changed after 2004 or have remained under recent political conditions. Anyway, according to the US Dept of State there were no reports in 2009 that central authorities attempted to direct media content. However, there were reports of intimidation of journalists by national and local officials. Individuals could criticize the government publicly and privately, and independent and international media were active and expressed a wide

variety of opinions. Private media outlets operated free of direct state control or interference; however, both independent and state-owned media at times demonstrated a tendency toward self-censorship on matters that the government deemed sensitive. Although private newspapers operated on a commercial basis, they often depended on their owners (political patrons or oligarchs who were connected to politicians) for revenue and did not enjoy editorial independence. According to national NGO media watchdog Institute for Mass Information (IMI) and their regional partners the practice of prepaid publications, veiled advertisements, and positive coverage presented as news (known as *dzhyntsa*), continued in the electronic and print media. The price for such coverage ranged from 24,000 hryvnia (USD 3,000) to as much as 40,000 hryvnia (USD 5,000) for participation in a TV talk show. Print stories cost from 800 hryvnia (USD 100) to 40,000 hryvnia (USD 5,000). IMI also emphasized that political parties frequently ordered the placement of stories in regional print media while law enforcement agencies did not investigate this breach of law (US Dept of State 2010).

In June 2009 parliament adopted a resolution prohibiting government agencies from carrying out inspections of mass media ahead of the 2010 presidential election campaign. The measure aimed to safeguard freedom of expression by eliminating legal, administrative, and economic obstacles for media reporting on the campaign. The law on presidential elections, however, imposed restrictions on media coverage of election campaigns. There were additional reports of intimidation and other types of harassment of journalists, including by national and local officials. Inadequate media access to government-held information was a problem, particularly in the regions. IMI and other media watchdogs asserted that most government agencies regularly denied requests by journalists and NGOs for basic public interest information. Government licensing provisions require that national media outlets broadcast at least 75% of their programs in Ukrainian, a policy that many citizens whose first language is not Ukrainian regard as discriminatory (US Dept of State 2010).

## 2.3. The sectoral labour market structure

### 2.3.1. Population and employment

Table 2 presents the development of total employment and employment status in Ukraine in the 2000s. In contrast with the decrease of the country's total population, the table shows a modest growth of total employment for both males and females between 2000-2008, with respectively 5.2% and 2.7%, an overall growth of 4.1% -- implying an average yearly increase of slightly over 0.4%. It also shows between 2000 and 2005 a significant shift away from paid employment to self-employment, employership and working for own account, with stabilisation of the new pattern and some renewed growth of the numbers of employees between 2005 and 2008 – but, as we will see in the next section, under pressure of crisis conditions the shift to self-employment resumed in 2009. On balance this shift happened among both sexes, but more strongly among women.

*Table 2. Total employment by status and gender, Ukraine, 2000, 2005, 2008*

	2000		2005		2008	
	male	female	male	female	male	female
Employers, own-account workers	11.1%	9.2%	16.7%	18.9%	16.7%	19.0%
Employees	88.1%	89.3%	82.8%	80.6%	82.9%	80.7%
Contributing family workers	0.8%	1.5%	0.5%	0.5%	0.4%	0.3%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total (in 1,000)	10,318	9,857	10,605	10,076	10,850	10,122

*Sources: ILO Laborsta, Table 2D*

The absolute size of paid employment decreased for both sexes between 2000-2008, for men by 324,000 or 3.5% (from 9,349,000 to 9,025,000 paid employees) and for women even by 624,000 or 7.1% (from 8,797,000 to 8,173,000 paid employees). In 2008, women made up just over 48% of the total labour force (48.3%). With 47.5%, the share of the women of all in paid employment was slightly lower. By contrast, in 2008 with 51.7% (1,915,000 of 3,701,000) females formed a small majority among employers and own account workers. With 52.3%, men formed a small majority among contributing family workers, though according to the official figures for both sexes this category was very small in 2008.

Of the total Ukrainian population, by 2005 —the last year for which a detailed age distribution was available-- 22,281,000 persons were counted as economically active (the share of the population over 14 of age in employment or registered unemployed), of which 632,000 aged 65 and older: see Table 3 (next page). If we leave out this group of elderly citizens in order to comply with the internationally comparable Labour Participation Rate (LPR) or Employment-to-Population ratio (EPOP) that only takes stock of the

labour force aged 15-64 in percentages of the total population of the same age, we can calculate the over-all LPR or EPOP at 66.4% (*MDG Indicator 1.5*), or 21,649,000 on 32.6 million people.<sup>5</sup> This implies a position in the lower ranks among the 14 countries in our project. With respectively 71.6% for males and 61.7% for females, the “corrected” female LPR in 2008 was 86% of the “corrected” male rate (the so-called women to men parity). If we apply the same calculation to the 2000 and 2008 figures, the outcomes confirm that LPR's have increased considerably between 2000-2008, from 71.0% to 75.1% for males and from 59.3% to 64.3% for females. As we pointed out, this increase fully was in self-employment and own-account work. To be fair, it should be noted that in Ukraine the border between “work” and “non-work” is rather blurred, and much informal work can also be regarded as voluntary or community work with rewards merely in kind (Williams 2007).

In the 2000s many women have started a “women's business” (*“zhinochyi biznes”*), small businesses in garment production, services like hair and beauty salons, but also many women with a university degree did so in higher qualified occupations in education (private tutoring) and commercial services (consultancies) (various websites). In the higher layers many women chose voluntarily to be informally self-employed, with higher average earnings than salaried women in comparable occupations. Also in salaried jobs they tended to choose for informality, at least in 2003-2004, though in these jobs largely involuntarily (Lehmann and Pignatti 2007; Pignatti 2010) (see also section 2.8.1). This combination of trends –contrary to those taking place in the 2000s in nearly all developed countries-- may partly be regarded as signs of continuous poverty at the bottom of the labour market, partly points at a highly segmented labour market with a widespread lack of accessibility of high-ranking jobs and of career opportunities for high-educated women (cf. Pignatti 2010).<sup>6</sup>

5 For 2009, this size has been estimated at 32.1 million, or about 500,000 people less. Following this estimate, the 15-64 of age made up 70.3% of the total population, divided over 15,399,000 males and 16,743,000 females (women to men parity: 92%) (CIA World Factbook).

6 Nevertheless, both Ukrainian men and women showed a higher disposition to move from the informal sector to the formal sector than vice versa, women even more so than men. Looking at the unemployed, again men seemed more likely to move to informality than formality, while for women the result was the opposite. Only women re-entering the labour market tended to enter in the informal sector rather than in the formal sector (Pignatti 2010, 25). The move to formal jobs concentrated at Kyiv; workers residing in the rest of the country were much less inclined or had less opportunity to move to formality (Lehmann and Pignatti 2007, 18).

Table 3. Economically active population and labour participation rates (LPRs), by gender and by age group, Ukraine, 2005

	all		male		female	
	x 1,000	LPR	x 1,000	LPR	x1,000	LPR
15-19	614	16.5	345	18.1	269	14.8
20-24	2,398	63.6	1,367	71.1	1,031	55.8
25-29	2,775	81.4	1,525	89.2	1,250	73.5
30-34	2,740	82.9	1,452	88.6	1,289	77.3
35-39	2,657	85.6	1,347	89.0	1,310	82.4
40-44	3,110	86.0	1,511	87.4	1,599	84.7
45-49	2,962	82.6	1,410	84.3	1,552	81.1
50-54	2,479	75.5	1,179	79.1	1,300	72.9
55-59	1,284	50.7	746	67.6	537	37.6
60-64	630	27.8	298	32.2	332	24.7
65+	632	19.4	289	22.7	343	17.3
Total 15+	22,281	62.2	11,467	67.9	10,814	57.0

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

Table 3 reveals some interesting gender differences in the LPR's for the 5-years' age cohorts. The male LPR's were highest among the 25-39-year-olds, while the female rates were highest for the 35-49 of age – though the male rates in the 40-49 aged cohorts remained higher than those of the females. With age 50 and over, the rates decreased rather quickly, especially among women. Of the potential female labour force of 55-59 aged, less than 38% was still employed, against 68% of males. As for the DECISIONS FOR LIFE target group, the girls and young women aged 15-29, in 2005 there were 2,551,000 employed in a population of 5,401,000, implying a joint LPR of 47.2%. With 58.5%, the LPR of their male peers was considerably higher. Taking into account the demographic trends between 2005-2009, including outward emigration, we may expect the size of our target group to have stabilised since at about 2,550,000.

### 2.3.2. Unemployment

In the course of the 2000s, the unemployment rate –measured following the ILO method—fell along a regular pattern, from 11.6% in 2000, via 8.6% in 2004, to an average 6.4% in both 2007 and 2008. The official male and female unemployment rates were about equal (website Statistics Ukraine). Table 4 (next page) reveals the official unemployment averages for 2008, by age and gender. Important for the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project is that –at least before the crisis-- the categories most affected by unemployment were those aged 15-19 and 20-24, and among the youngest cohort especially the girls. In 2008 the official unemployment rates of these two categories were over 16 and 13%.

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

	all	male	female
15-19	16.6	15.1	18.6
20-24	13.2	13.5	12.9
25-29	7.3	7.4	7.2
30-34	6.1	5.6	6.6
35-39	5.7	6.2	4.5
40-44	4.9	5.0	4.8
45-49	6.7	6.1	7.2
50-54	4.6	3.9	5.2
55-59	3.8	6.3	1.9
60-64	1.6	1.8	1.4
Total 15+	6.4	6.7	6.1

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

The worldwide crisis has clearly affected official unemployment rates in Ukraine, rising by over one-third or 2.4%points to an average 8.8% over 2009. Most recently Statistics Ukraine published unemployment figures for 2009 by gender and age, be it with a less detailed age division than Table 4. According to these figures male unemployment increased much stronger (3.6%points compared to 2008) than female unemployment (1.0%point). As far as 2008 and 2009 data can be compared, official unemployment for both sexes grew in all age categories, but consistently for males stronger than for females. Unemployment in the only category for which 2009 figures are directly comparable with our 2008 data, the 25-29 of age, rose 3.5%points for males and 2.6%points for females. Youth unemployment (among the 15-24 of age) grew quite unevenly by gender, with nearly 6%points for young males and 0.6% for young females (website Statistics Ukraine).

Overall, the increase of unemployment in 2009 seems moderate in view of the large decrease in 2009 in industrial and construction activities and along other economic indicators, as discussed in section 2.1.3. The increase in numbers of unemployed in 2009 (533,000 more than the 2008 average) is also considerably less than the fall in number of persons officially employed (887,000 less compared to 2008). A substantial number of the nearly 350,000 persons disappearing from the labour statistics may have added to the further growth of informal self-employment and own-account activities, and to the "large number of unregistered or underemployed workers" already noted in Ukraine before the crisis (CIA World Factbook). During 2009 the discouragement effect must have been strong: many people abstained to look after formal employment and oriented on informality. Whereas each quarter the number of "non-working individuals" turned to the State Service of Employment grew by 260,000-350,000, the supply of the non-working population per one

vacant work place, in the first quarter of 2009 increasing to 11, the highest rate since 2000, fell to 7 in the fourth quarter. The available evidence indicates that the discouraged in particular have to be found among the female 15-24-year olds: in considerable numbers abstaining from formal labour, many likely prolonging their education, others engaging in informal labour or helping in the family – suggesting for many a return to the, for most young women, perspectiveless 1990s and early 2000s (cf. Predborska 2005). In contrast, the statistics suggest that female 25-29-year-olds, having finalized their education, have a much stronger propensity to continue in formal labour (all data: website Statistics Ukraine).

In section 2.7.3 we will present 2008 unemployment rates by gender and highest level of education completed.

## **2.4. National legislation and labour relations**

### **2.4.1. Legislation**

Ukraine has ratified the eight core ILO Labour Conventions, i.e. no's 29, 87, 98, 100, 105, 111, 138 and 182. The right to join and form trade unions is guaranteed by the Constitution and the 1999 Act on Trade Unions. The Civil Code and the law on the state registration of legal entities and natural persons-entrepreneurs stipulate that trade unions can only acquire legal identity after they have been registered by the State, as the ITUC notes a restriction unacceptable by international labour standards. The registration procedure is extremely cumbersome, entailing visits to as many as 10 different offices, and paying court fees. An amendment that would remove the requirement for compulsory registration was rejected by Parliament in October 2005. The government has been taking steps to bring its legislation into line with ILO standards. Some legislative amendments were enacted in 2006 and instructions were given to ensure that the registration rules applied were in line with ILO standards. However, trade unions report that registration is still very complicated. In 2007, the Labour and Social Policy Committee of the Ukrainian parliament organised a special sitting on ILO Convention 87 and the rights of trade unions and employers' organisations. However, the Committee's recommendations have so far not been implemented. Anti-union discrimination is prohibited under the law. The Criminal Code stipulates penalties for the violation of trade union rights, including fines, the loss of the right to occupy certain positions or engage in certain activities and, in some cases, even imprisonment. However, no employer has been held liable under these provisions, even when courts have recognised cases of discrimination against trade union members (ITUC 2009; US Dept of State 2010).

The constitution of Ukraine provides for freedom of assembly, but in some instances regional governments infringed on these rights. Since there is no national law governing freedom of assembly, the code of administrative justice and case law prevailed. Local authorities sometimes invoked a Soviet-era decree on freedom of assembly that was more restrictive than the constitution. The constitution requires that organizers inform authorities of a planned demonstration in advance. The Soviet-era decree that local governments sometimes used to define “advance notice,” stipulates that organizations must apply for permission at least 10 days before an event or demonstration. In most cases permits were granted, and in practice unlicensed demonstrations were common and generally occurred without police interference, fines, or detention, although there were several exceptions (ITUC 2009).

The right to collective bargaining is guaranteed by the Law on Collective Agreements. Problems concerning wages and working conditions are supposed to be resolved by joint worker-management committees. Registered unions with national status may participate in the national collective bargaining agreement. However, according to the Model Statutes and Internal Rules for public limited companies, issued by the State Committee on Equities and the Stock Market in April 2004, it is works’ councils and not trade unions that have a mandate for collective bargaining. Yet, Ukrainian legislation does not provide for the establishment of works’ councils in workplaces. Trade unions have asked the Committee to withdraw this provision, but the Committee had not done so by the end of 2008 (ITUC 2009; website Wageindicator / Ukraine-mojazarplata).

The right to strike is recognised in the country’s constitution, provided it is used to “defend economic and social interests.” A strike can only be organised if two thirds of the workers of the enterprise vote for it, which –as the ITUC remarks-- is excessive by international standards. The list of essential services, in which strikes are prohibited, exceeds the ILO definition. Public servants may not strike, nor may members of the judiciary, armed forces, security services or law enforcement agencies. Workers who strike in prohibited sectors may receive prison terms of up to three years. Federations and confederations cannot call a strike. Trade unions want to introduce the notion of a “warning strike” of a limited duration that could be organised using a simplified procedure. The government does not agree with proposals to allow the unions to organise solidarity strikes (ITUC 2009).

Employment relations are regulated basically by the Labour Code of Ukraine as of 1971, thus enacted when Ukraine was part of the Soviet Union (Code of Labour Laws, in act since 10.12.1971 N322-VII). The terms of individual labour contracts agreements may not be worse than conditions guaranteed under the

Labour Code. Primary responsibility for the implementation of state labour and employment policies rests with the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy of Ukraine and the State Centre for Employment. Of particular relevance for the young female target group of the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project is the following labour legislation, based on the Labour Code and more specific regulations as mentioned below (website Wageindicator / Ukraine-mojazarplata; ILO-Travail database; ILO Natlex; website PriceWaterhouseCoopers):

- working overtime is paid twice with preserving the usual payment. It is impossible to have extra days-off as compensation for working overtime. The amount of overtime may not exceed four hours in any two-day period or 120 hours in a year (Law N108/95-BP, 24.03.1995 On remuneration of labour);
- employees are entitled to annual (main and extra) holidays with maintenance of job and average earnings, of at least 24 days per year. Of these, a minimum of 14 are consecutive calendar days to be used for the employee's main annual holidays (Law N504/96-BP, 15.11.1996 on Holidays);
- working on holidays is paid twice the usual payment. On demand of the employee who worked on holidays he/she can be granted another day-off (Law N504/96-BP, 15.11.1996 on Holidays);
- employees are entitled to weekly continuous periods of rest no less than 42 hours (Law N504/96-BP, 15.11.1996 on Holidays);
- women are given paid maternity leave (“social vacation”) lasting ten weeks (70 days) before birth and eight weeks (56 days) after birth (Law N2801-XII, 19.11.1992 on Basics of Ukrainian Health Care);
- income during maternity leave is 100% of the average income of the employee and does not depend on the insurance length period (Law N 2240 18.01.2001 on Obligatory state social insurance on the reason of temporarily disability and expenses connected with birth or burial);
- according to medical conclusion the working norms for pregnant women are lowered or they are transferred to an easier job, without dangerous and hazardous conditions while maintaining the same salary (Law N 2240 18.01.2001 on Obligatory state social insurance on the reason of temporarily disability and expenses connected with birth or burial);
- it is not allowed to employ persons under 16 of age, although with the agreement of one parent or a person who substitutes him/her, persons having reached the age of 15 can be employed for specified light activities (Labour Code).

It should be added that the law does not provide regulations concerning sexual harassment at work.

## 2.4.2. Labour relations and wage-setting

The trade union movement in Ukraine is dominated by the Federation of Trade Unions of Ukraine, FPU. This confederation was established as the Federation of Independent Trade Unions of Ukraine after Ukraine became independent on 6 October 1990. As such, it was a successor of the Ukrainian Republican Council of Trade Unions, existing under Soviet rule. In November 1992, it was renamed the Federation of Trade Unions of Ukraine. By 2006, 44 national trade unions and 26 regional trade unions belonged to the FPU (wikipedia). In the 2000s, various sources mentioned FPU membership to be over 10 million; by October 2009 FPU claimed to have 9,755,500 members (website ITUC). Two other federations are much smaller. The All-Ukrainian Union of Workers' Solidarity (VOST) by October 2009 was set at 150,000 members, and the Confederation of Free Trade Unions of Ukraine (KVPU or CFTU) at 268,000 members (website ITUC). FPU, VOST and KVPU are all three ITUC-affiliated. These figures imply a rather high total union density in 2008-09, of about 48% of the labour force at large, or nearly 60% of all paid employees.

VOST and KVPU were established as independent unions after the country's independence, initially mainly organising high-skilled technicians and workers at key positions, like locomotive drivers, pilots and air traffic controllers. Based on these positions, they displayed quite some strike activities (Kubicek 2000). Over the years, the small federations have issued complaints about the assumed privileged position of the FPU, among others based on real estate and other property from the Soviet era.<sup>7</sup> More recently KVPU-affiliated unions of coal miners in the eastern part of the country reported significant harassment because of their union activities. They alleged that FPU representatives colluded with management to put pressure on the KVPU union members to quit (US Dept of State 2010).

More generally, the ITUC reports, union members are often subject to pressure and discrimination. This includes dismissals, transfers, demotions and deteriorating working conditions for trade unionists. Employers, employers' organisations as well as central and municipal authorities often refuse to give unions information on issues concerning their members' interests, including the company's economic performance, regardless of unions' legal right to access such information. Trade unionists are often denied access to workplaces (ITUC 2009). Also, collective bargaining turns out to be far from easy. Like in other CIS countries, the annual National General Agreement, based on tripartite consultation and negotiation, is the cornerstone of collective bargaining, and the basis for regional and sectoral collective agreements. However,

<sup>7</sup> The US Dept of State (2010) reported over 2009, that unions not affiliated with the FPU, including the KVPU, continued to be denied a share of the former Soviet trade unions' real-estate and financial holdings. These included social insurance benefit funds, which gave the FPU a benefit that independent unions could not offer. Leaders of nonFPU trade unions and some government officials claimed that the FPU improperly sold some Soviet-era assets to thwart their future distribution. A 2007 parliamentary moratorium on the FPU's sale of property remained in place.

over 2008 the ITUC concluded that despite having signed the National General Agreement, some employers' organisations avoid sectoral collective bargaining. Employers refused to enter into collective bargaining with trade unions, for example in CJSC Energovugillia (coal industry) and in ProstoFinance Ltd. According to the KVPU, even a court order was not sufficient to convince the employer to enter into negotiations with a trade union (ITUC 2009).

In January 2009, the FTU decided to enter into a dispute with the Cabinet of Ministers over its failure to fulfill the General Agreement for 2008-2009 to secure workers' rights in the crisis situation. The minimum wage played a crucial role in this dispute. The confederation argued that trade union attempts to establish a social dialogue with the authorities in overcoming the crisis consequences had yielded no result, and that the Cabinet neglected union proposals and the standards set forth in the General Agreement. For example, the provisions of the draft State Budget for 2009 concerning the amount of the subsistence minimum, minimum wage rates, and minimum pay guarantees for workers in the budgetary sector had not been negotiated with the unions. Moreover, the draft laws submitted for consideration by the parliament tended to shift the burden of the crisis entirely onto the shoulders of the population. Speaking on a large October 17 rally to finalize a national action against poverty, FTU president Vasyl Khara stated all conciliation bodies that arbitrated in the conflict found the FTU claims to be just and recommended that the authorities should pay heed to them – which they refused to do. Khara repeated the main union demands: the minimum wages cannot be lower than the subsistence minimum, while the latter must be revised and upgraded; and the government must take steps to settle the wage arrears that rose by 30% in one year. Finally, on October 20 the parliament approved the Law on setting the subsistence minimum and the minimum wage for 2010, signed by Ukraine's President on October 30. The FTU stated that "Although it does not fully provide the level of state social standards and guarantees as specified by national legislation, the new law is nevertheless oriented to the support of socially vulnerable citizens and prevention of growing poverty", adding that signing by the president does not guarantee implementation, as "it will be necessary to amend the State Budget for the current year and allocate appropriate financial resources in the budget - 2010" (InformContact 2009, no's 63, 65 and 66).

## 2.5. Minimum wage and poverty

### 2.5.1. The statutory minimum wage

As of December 1, 2009, the government increased the monthly minimum wage to 669 hryvnias (USD 83): 35.1% of the 2009 average monthly wage of 1,906 hryvnias (website Statistics Ukraine). The minimum wage is the legally guaranteed amount of wage for simple, unqualified labour. The amount can be changed if the law on the Ukrainian state budget is changed, with the increase of consumer prices. According to the US Dept of State (2010), the minimum wage recently did not provide a decent standard of living for a worker and family. The State Labour Inspectorate is responsible for enforcing the minimum wage but was unable to monitor all employers. Many workers, particularly in the informal sector, received wages far below the established minimum (US Dept of State 2010). While the minimum wage is not generally enforced, it is used to set some public sector wages. Importantly, the Government has used the subsistence minimum to guide minimum pensions, especially since September 2004 (World Bank 2007, 4).

The Ukrainian minimum wage is based on the subsistence minimum. This minimum, as defined in Article 45 of the Constitution, is the reference income for securing living standards for all Ukrainians. The Parliament began setting the subsistence minimum in 2000 and since 2004 the Parliament has set the subsistence minimum as part of the annual State Budget Law (World Bank 2007). Over 2000-2006 the minimum wage rose from about 35 to 70% of the subsistence minimum; in particular in 2003 it was lifted substantially, from 38% to 51% of the subsistence minimum (Raiser 2007). However, the gap between the subsistence minimum and the average wage grew at the same time. Over 2000-2001 the subsistence minimum was set close to the average wage, but between 2001 and 2008 average wages rose much more quickly: from 94% in 2001, via 206% in 2006, to 270% in 2008, followed by a fall to 256% in 2009 (website Statistics Ukraine).

### 2.5.2. Inequality and poverty

The standard of living in Ukraine increased significantly in the 1980s. Between 1980 and 1991, the share of those in the population under the national poverty line fell from 38% to 9%. Income inequality declined too. This trend ended abruptly with the fall of the Soviet Union. In 1991-92 inequality and poverty started to increase, partly because government benefits went more to richer families than to those in need. Real per capita family income grew by an average 7% in 1989-90, then fell about 24% in 1991-92. In 1992 30% lived in poverty again – an alarming increase attributable both to a decline in real per capita income and an

increase in inequality (Kakwani 1995). In the next years, both poverty and inequality continued to increase. As for inequality, the share of the poorest 20% in national consumption, in 1992 set at 9.5%, fell to 7.2% in 1996 (UN MDG Indicators).

Capturing the social side of the economic collapse of the early 1990s is far from easy. Also for later years, it remains difficult to gather a consistent picture of poverty and inequality, as various statistical series circulate. In 1995 and 1996 two household budget surveys were carried out in the Ukraine used to assess the incidence of poverty, one by the Kiev International Institute of Sociology used by the World Bank (1996) and a much larger regular survey by Statistics Ukraine in 1996, jointly with other data analysed by Revenko (1997). The World Bank used an absolute poverty line based on the food component of the official minimum consumption basket and added non-food expenditure, ending up at USD 24 per person per month in June 1995. In doing so, the Bank research team found a poverty incidence of 29.5%, with the addition that about one-third of the Ukrainian population lived less than 20% above the poverty line. Both Revenko and the World Bank team concluded that families with children and elderly over 65 were worst-off. The World Bank found that 34% of households with two children were poor and 48% of households with three or more children. Results also hardly differed concerning the position of women. According to the World Bank, except for the cohorts 40-44 and 60-64 age the incidence of poverty was larger among women than among men, though the overall difference (32% against 29%) was rather small. Single female-headed households had a high incidence of 41% poverty.

The overall poverty rates calculated in the World Bank report were widely regarded as low. Using macro data, Milanovic (1998), also for the World Bank, estimated for 1993-95 that 63% of the Ukrainian population lived below the poverty line of USD 120 per capita per month – of all transition countries only to be surpassed by Moldova (66%). Following a methodology that defined a relative poverty line at 50% of average total income per head, Revenko concluded that 16.5% of the population by 1996 would be identified as poor. However, he argued that though such a relative measure might be realistic in terms of the targeting of social assistance it would be extremely low in Ukraine as an absolute poverty indicator. Revenko defended the position that 85-90% of Ukrainian households in 1996 had total incomes below the 1990 poverty line, below which only about 10% of the population fell in 1990. In 1996 nine of ten decile groups with each 10% of the population in subsequent income order could be considered poor. Except for the 10<sup>th</sup> (richest) group, the structure of their incomes did not vary much, except that on average 86% of income of urban households was in cash, against 53% of rural household incomes. Revenko also went into the expendi-

ture pattern of households. He found an extremely high share of expenditure on food: 56% of the gross incomes of urban and 67% of rural households – shares similar to those in the 1950s and 1960s. This outcome meant that many other basic needs (warm clothing, access to transport, et cetera) for many could not be met. Moreover, between 1990 and 1996 the caloric content of the food consumed fell on average by about 30%. Whereas the entire rural population appeared to consume still sufficient calories, about one quarter of the urban population was calorie deficient (Revenko 1997). Whatever the exact incidence, it is clear that about 15 years ago a large part of the Ukrainian population has experienced poverty in often harsh forms. Clear reasons as well for the Strategy Overcoming Poverty, launched by the Ukrainian government in August 2001.

In a 2007 poverty update, the World Bank (2007, iv) states that “Ukraine recorded one of the sharpest declines in poverty of any transition economy in recent years”, arguing that the poverty rate, measured against an absolute poverty line, fell from a high of 32% in 2001 via 19.5% in 2003 and 14% in 2004, and then again—even steeply-- to 8% in 2005. The Bank team points at the considerable real wage increases of 2004-2006 and generous increases in social transfers, of which 45% was calculated to reach the poorest 20%. It shows that poverty declined no matter what the choice of poverty line. According to the team, pro-poor growth was concentrated in small towns and in rural areas; poverty in Kyiv fell to an impressive low of 1.4% in 2005. Again, like in the 1990s the poverty rate rose with household size; the poorest groups had six or more household members; families with several children aged 0-6 had some of the highest poverty rates. Education matters: the poverty rate in 2005 was 14% for people with no elementary education, fell to 10% among those with completed secondary education, whereas it was 4% among those with completed tertiary education (all data: World Bank 2007). The main results of the World Bank study are partly in contrast with those of Brück *et al* (2007), which included changes in consumption patterns in their analysis. By using various poverty lines, they confirm that between 1996 and 2004 poverty generally decreased, but that in particular so-called income poverty remained substantial. By 2004, depending on the yardstick used, according to their calculations income poverty still varied between 25 and 48%. In particular households with more children and single-parent families (especially if headed by women) remained relatively often in poverty. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in 2008 also showed a much less optimistic view than the World Bank, maintaining that in 2007 28% of people in Ukraine still lived below the USD 3 per day poverty line (website UNDP). The 2008-09 crisis may well have aggravated poverty substantially;

the country may have been thrown back to the 2003 level, following the World Bank (2007) methodology implying a level of about 20% of the population under the poverty line, with another 25-30% living less than 20% above that line.

What about income inequality in the period at stake? Here too, various time series circulate, but the outcomes are rather univocal. The broad picture is that inequality grew from 1986 till 2000 and then stabilized. Some sources find a peak in 1996, others an increase till 2003 and stabilisation afterwards. Most sources we used set the Gini coefficient (a measure that rates 0 as perfect equality and 100 as perfect inequality) for 1986-1990 at 0.24-0.29, increasing to 0.31-0.33 in 2003 and then stabilizing (cf. Ganguli and Terrell 2005; CIA World Factbook). Though supporting the broad pattern of development, some sources find lower 'Gini's', like the World Bank (2007: 0.274-0.276 for 2003-05), and some considerably higher (Brück *et al* 2007: 0.375 for 2004; Orel 2006: 0.359 for 2004). The World Bank estimates of the Gini ratio remain low in international perspective, the others fall in the middle range. These results are rather in line with outcomes regarding the share of the poorest 20% in national consumption, which recovered at a level between 8.5 and 9%: 8.8% in 1999, 8.9% in 2002, and 9.0% in 2005 (UN MDG Indicators). Ukraine is obviously one of the few countries in which poverty and inequality developed by and large in the same direction(s) during the last two decades.

## 2.6. Demographics and female labour force

### 2.6.1. Population and fertility

Since the 1980s Ukraine is in a demographic crisis, with reduced fertility rates, high death and emigration rates, ending up in massive depopulation. In the transition phase the birth rate, already low, fell from 12.7 in 1990 per 1,000 of the population to 7.8 in 2000. Afterwards, it slowly recovered to 10.2 in 2007 and 11.1 per 1,000 of the population in 2009: still the lowest birth rate in Europe and far below replacement level.<sup>8</sup> The total fertility rate (TFR, the number of births a woman would have if she survived to age 50) fell continuously from 1982 on, and is for 2009 estimated at 1.26. Most experts expect this trend to continue as women become more educated, move towards having children at an older age, and having increased access to contraception. The death rate, showing a long-term increase, grew from 12.1 per 1,000 of the population

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<sup>8</sup> In 2007, for the first time since 1990 five Ukrainian regions experienced more births than deaths. With the exception of Kiev, these regions were located in the less industrialized western part of the country. In some eastern and central regions there were still 2.1 deaths for every birth (wikipedia Demographics of Ukraine). In recent years the government has encouraged an increase in the birth rate through, among other incentives, increasing the sum of payments connected with births (Volkov *et al* 2008).

in 1990 to 15.4 in 2000 and 16.6 in 2005, and from then on decreased slowly. For 2009 the death rate is set at 15.3 per 1,000. Life expectancy has been falling too, in particular for males, though here the last few years some rebound is visible: see the next section. Already because of the differences between birth and death rates, the natural decrease of population went up to a record 373,000 per year in 2000; though diminishing, this decrease was still 240,000 in 2008. Moreover, between 1994 and 2004 net emigration was considerable and totaled over 1.2 million. In the 2000s it gradually slowed down and after 2004 Statistics Ukraine suggests a yearly small net immigration to take place. Total population still grew from 51.8 million in 1990 to a peak of 52.2 million in 1993, but the 2001 Census counted only 48.9 million Ukrainians, or 3.3 million (6.3%) less than in 1993.<sup>9</sup> 2009 population estimates vary between 45.7 and 46.0 million – anyway implying a further decrease from 2001-2009 between 2.7 and 3 millions (5.5-6.2%), or a yearly average decrease of 0.7%. Thus, between 1990 and 2009 the size of the Ukrainian population decreased by no less than 5.8-6.1 million, or 11.2-11.8%. If current trends continue, by 2050, the population is projected to decline by around 40% to 36.2 million (sources: wikipedia Demographics of Ukraine; CIA World Factbook; website Statistics Ukraine; website Demoscope; World Bank 2009f).

In March 2010, Statistics Ukraine estimated for 2009 the population growth rate at minus 0.42%, whereas international sources indicated minus 0.63%. All sources show a massive female majority, of most recently 54% women: according to Statistics Ukraine in 2009 24,78 million women against 21,19 million men. Also for 2009 the median age is estimated at a relatively high 39.4 years, with a large gender difference: 36.1 years for males and 42.5 years for females. Currently only 13.9% of the population is 0-14 of age (against 21.4% in 1990), 16.1% is 65 years and more (11.9% in 1990), and 70.0% is aged 15-64 (1990: 66.7%) – the category we used as the basis for our LPR / EPOP calculations (wikipedia Demographics of Ukraine; CIA World Factbook; website Statistics Ukraine).

The Ukrainian urbanisation rate in 2009 stood at 68.4% of the total population, a rather high share in international perspective. Since 1990 the urban share has increased very slightly, accelerating somewhat in the 2000s: the 2001 Census outcome was 67.4%, thus 1.0%point growth in 2001-2009. In 2009, the economically active population was somewhat stronger urbanised than the population at large: 69.9% of the economically active lived in urban areas (website Statistics Ukraine). Though Statistics Ukraine figures do not show a clear trend, international sources predict that the urban population will be soon decreasing relatively, with an estimated annual rate of change in urbanisation for 2005-2010 of 0.7% negative (CIA World

<sup>9</sup> In this development, a considerable ethnic change took place. Whereas the number of self-defined Ukrainians grew slightly from 1989 to 2001, the number of self-defined Russians decreased by over 3 million, or from 22.1% of the population in 1989 to 17.3% in 2001. Out-migration was responsible for about 40% of the Russian decrease (Salnykova 2006, 33).

Factbook; WHO 2009). The largest city is the capital, Kiev (Kyiv), with in 2008 2.6 million inhabitants, followed by Kharkiv (1.4 million), Dnipropetrovsk, Odessa, and Dometsk (all about 1.0 million)(wikipedia Ukraine; UNECE 2009).

In the transition period, a high priority has been given to maternal and child health. By 2006, 99% of all births in Ukraine were attended by skilled health personnel (a health professional) (WHO 2009). Child mortality rates have been falling and are currently moderate in worldwide perspective, though above EU averages, including the rates of former socialist countries. In 2005 neonatal mortality (deaths during the first 28 days of life per 1000 live births) stood at 5.6 per 1,000 live births, compared to an EU average of 3.3 (World Bank 2009f). The infant mortality rate (probability of dying between birth and age 1 per 1,000 live births) stood at 12 in 2007, progress as the rate for 1990 was 23 and that for 2000 19, but again considerably above EU average. The under 5 mortality rate (probability of dying between by age 5 per 1,000 live births) was 12 by 2007: progress too as the rate came down from 23 in 1990 and 19 in 2000. With 18 per 100,000 live births in 2005, the maternity mortality rate in 2005 was also rather low (World Bank 2009f; WHO 2009; UN Data).

For an indication of the situation of our target group, the adolescent fertility rate (births per 1,000 women 15-19 of age) is of special importance. For 2008 Statistics Ukraine set this rate at 32.0, in international perspective a rather low figure. In 1990 the adolescent fertility rate was still 59.1, but from 1992 a strong --though declining-- decrease took place, via 32.1 in 2000 to 28.6 in 2005; from then on an increase could be seen. This increase was in line with the increase of other age-specific birth rates that already took off somewhat earlier: for the 20-24-year-olds from 2001 on, and for the 25-29 and the 30-34 aged from 1999 on. It has to be noted that regional differences remain considerable (website Statistics Ukraine). The incidence of early marriage is quite high for a European country, in particular regarding the high educational level of women (section 2.7.3). A 2004 United Nations report estimated that 10% of girls between 15 and 19 years of age were married, divorced or widowed (website OECD-SIGI). In a 2002 Ukrainian survey, most women and men aged 25-29 interviewed regarded the ages of 18-21 for females as ideal to get married and have children (Predborska 2005, 356-7). For 2006 the average age women at birth of their first child was 23.2 years (UNECE 2009).

## 2.6.2. Health

Concerning Ukraine, HIV/AIDS has to be a major issue. By the end of 2007 there were an estimated 440,000 persons with HIV/AIDS in Ukraine, or 1.6-1.8% of the adult population, according to statistics compiled by international organizations; at the time the adult HIV prevalence in the country was higher than in any other country in Europe or Central Asia and nearly threefold the regional average. By then, 12,500 deaths because of HIV/AIDS had been registered (CIA World Factbook; WHO 2009; US Dept of State 2010; World Bank 2009f). Annual HIV diagnoses had more than doubled since 2001 (UNAIDS / WHO 2008). The Ukrainian National AIDS Center reported 13,039 newly registered cases of HIV infection in the first eight months of 2009, nearly half among injection drug users (US Dept of State 2010). Injecting drug use remains the driving force behind the spread of HIV in the country. A significant overlap exists between injecting drug use and sex work: female sex workers are a main risk group. Yet, since the turn of the century the epidemic shifted from high-risk groups to the general population through heterosexual transmission. Women represent about 40% of those infected with HIV/AIDS (Dabash *et al* 2006; World Bank 2009f). Alongside the HIV epidemic, also since 1995 a tuberculosis (TB) epidemic has been observed in Ukraine. Each year almost 40,000 people are infected with TB, amounting to more than 10,000 deaths per year. The major factors behind the TB epidemic are poverty, multidrug-resistant TB, HIV co-infection and the spread of TB in prison populations (World Bank 2009f, 26).

The highest HIV incidence is in the 20-24 age group. Two-thirds of all new HIV infections are among young people aged 20-34, and about 40% of the newly infected are women (IHAAU / World Bank 2006). Quite some adolescent girls in the main cities live on the streets, sometimes with their babies and –according to a 2009 UNICEF study-- often engaging in sex work; high rates of drug use by injection are found among them, including the practice of sharing needles (NN 2010). HIV prevalence among pregnant women is among the highest in Europe, and was estimated at 0.33% in 2006. It has to be added that Ukraine has taken substantial steps to limit HIV transmission from mothers to children. In 2006, 95% of all pregnant women were tested for HIV, and 93% of HIV-positive women who delivered babies have been receiving antiretroviral prophylaxis to prevent HIV transmission during pregnancy and delivery. As a result, the national mother-to-child transmission rate has been reduced to 7% (UNAIDS / WHO 2008). The AllUkrainian Network of Persons Living with HIV noted that persons with HIV/AIDS faced discrimination in the workplace, job loss without legal recourse, harassment by law enforcement officers, prosecutors, social isolation and stigmatisation (US Dept of State 2010). Others report strong stigmatisation too (cf. Dabash *et al* 2006).

By 2014, it is estimated that the 20-34 age group --those in the most active reproductive age-- will account for three-quarters of all new HIV infections, half of which will be among women. Given the persistent demographic decline in Ukraine, even modest increases in adult HIV/AIDS prevalence rates could result in a strong long-term demographic impact. Also by 2014, AIDS-related deaths will account for 60% of all female deaths in the 15-49 age group. Several factors prevailing in Ukraine exacerbate the situation: the demographic decline, the high prevalence of TB and sexually transmitted infections (STIs), and a generally weak health system. HIV/AIDS has already become one of the major obstacles to the country's economic growth. A IHAAU / World Bank (2006) study expected by 2014 a 1-2% reduction in the labour force due to the epidemic. Since the younger groups are most affected, these losses will be felt for a long time. The sharpest decline in labour force participation is projected for females in the 15-19 age group. Moreover, the country is projected to have 42,000 dual orphans due to AIDS-related deaths of both parents by 2014; the number of children who have lost at least one parent to AIDS is projected to reach 105,000-169,000, depending on the scenario. Further, medical expenses associated with treating HIV/AIDS and opportunistic infections can become catastrophic at the household level, driving poor households below the poverty line. The study stresses the need for a prevention strategy focused on harm-reduction programs as well as sex education for youth. Against this backdrop, organisations fighting the epidemic worry about behavioural risks as the levels of public awareness of HIV/AIDS are regarded insufficient. With 42% in 2007, the proportion of 15-24-year-old Ukrainian females with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS was moderate; their male peers scored with 43% a fraction higher. By contrast, also in 2007 the percentage of condom use at last high-risk sex among 15-24 years olds was with 68% for women and 71% for men rather high, though obviously many still stick to risky behaviour (UN MDG Indicators; World Bank 2009f). In Ukraine HIV/AIDS treatment is still in its infancy. In 2007 coverage of Anti Retro-Viral Therapy (ART) among people with advanced HIV infection stood at only 8%. Clinical treatment facilities are very limited outside the big cities (WHO 2009; Dabash *et al* 2006).

For 2000-2005, the probability of not surviving to age 40 in Ukraine was estimated at 8.4% of the relevant age cohort, a relatively high share (UNDP 2008). For 2006, life expectancy at birth was set at an average 67.7 years: 62.0 years for males and 73.5 years for females. In 1990, the respective figures were 70 i.e. 66 and 75 years; the levels resulting from the rapid fall in life expectancy between 1986 and 1997 have been stabilized after 2000 (UNDP 2008; WHO 2009). While other formerly socialist countries like the Czech Republic, Slovenia, Hungary and Poland made big strides in this respect, life expectancy in Ukraine stagnated.

Only quite recently some rebound seems visible, though widening the gap between female and male life expectancies to an extreme value of 12 years (EU average by 2005: 6.2 years -- World Bank 2009f). For 2009, life expectancy at birth has been estimated at 62.2 years for males and 74.2 for females, an increase of 0.2 years for men and 0.7 year for women compared to three years before (website Statistics Ukraine). These trends have major social consequences. The gender gap in life expectancy has already led to a high proportion of single women and widows in notably the northern regions of Ukraine (World Bank 2009f, 17).

The wikipedia on Ukraine summarizes correctly that the country suffers from environmental pollution, poor diets, widespread smoking, extensive alcoholism, and deteriorating medical care, adding that in particular many men have serious health and mental problems. A recent World Bank (2009f) report labels Ukraine's health crisis "an avoidable tragedy". In detailing the country's high mortality rates, the report shows that they are largely driven by mortality among working age males. The Ukrainian adult (15-60 of age) male mortality rates are at levels similar to countries like Benin, Togo or Haiti. Ukrainians are not only dying younger but also have fewer lived in full health relative to inhabitants of other European countries. In 2002, they spent almost 13% of their lives in states less than perfect health, a proportion which was for women (13.7%) even larger than for men (11.7%). In 2002 ten leading diseases were responsible for 72% of deaths in Ukraine.<sup>10</sup> Ischemic heart disease (IHD) is the single biggest killer in Ukraine, and in 2005 responsible for 40% of all deaths. Mortality from mental disorders increased sharply in the transition era between 1990 and 1999, reaching 14 deaths per 100,000 males and four per 100,000 female, followed by a downward trend but rising from 2002 on again. Cancer in Ukraine is characterized by extremely high lethality, especially at younger ages; men die from cancer at twice the rate of women. Though the mortality rates from breast cancer of females remained relatively low, it showed a significant increase during 1990-2005. As for non-communicable diseases (NCD), the high proportion of NCD related deaths in Ukraine is driven by a rise in unhealthy lifestyles such as smoking, alcohol abuse, poor diet (low fruit and vegetable intake) and physical inactivity, particularly among the young and working age populations. High blood pressure is the leading risk factor. In 2007-08 almost a third of Ukrainians (one in four Ukrainian women 15-49 of age) suffered from elevated blood pressure, and over three in five of them (49% of women) were not aware that they were hypertensive – increasing the probability of death and disability due to hypertension. Compare to other

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10 In the "control group" of countries the joint shares of these top ten diseases / causes were much smaller: 46% in Slovenia, 48% in Poland, 53% in Czech republic, and 54% in Hungary. The ten causes were: ischemic heart disease; cerebrovascular disease (stroke); COPD; self-inflicted injuries; poisonings; other unintentional injuries; trachea, bronchus, lung cancers; HIV/AIDS; cirrhosis of the liver, and stomach cancer. Compared to the other countries, in particular ischemic heart disease, HIV/AIDS, poisoning, violence, and nutritional deficiencies contributed more significantly to health gaps in Ukraine (World Bank 2009f, 18-19).

causes, Ukraine has the highest death rates in Europe from smoking-related causes among both males and females, and their levels remained high in the 2000s, whereas those of other countries were falling. With 62% in 2005, the percentage of regular smokers among males over age 15 was the highest in Europe, and over fourfold the percentage among females (17%), which across countries had a rather low ranking. Yet, girls and young women are increasingly likely to smoke compared to older women (all data: World Bank 2009f).

As for communicable diseases, HIV/AIDS and TB account for 90% of all deaths in this category (for HIV/AIDS, see above). As for external causes of death, Ukrainian men have more than a four times higher risk of dying from external causes (poisoning, drowning, falls, fires) compared to the EU average risk, and Ukrainian women twice. Unintentional poisoning is the most important external cause of death, in both males and females. Mortality for external causes increased between 1990 and 1996, showed a downward trend in 1996-1998, as to stabilize at a high level afterwards. The World Bank (2009f, 24) mentions as the main causes a deterioration of the economic situation, growing psychological stress, relaxation of previous occupational safety, and return to drinking patterns seen before the 1985-86 anti-alcohol campaign. Ukrainian men had the second highest mortality from alcohol abuse among men in Europe, women the fourth highest rate (all data: World Bank 2009f). Finally, about one-third of the population of Ukraine lives in conditions of intensive air pollution. As said, environmental exposure in the Ukraine is suspected of being the major cause of increased mortality in populations affected by the Chernobyl disaster. By 2002, 4,000 cases of thyroid cancer had been reported in children and adolescents in Ukraine, Belarus and Russia of which many most likely attributable to radiation exposure, but there is no scientific evidence of a major health impact attributable over two decades after the disaster (World Bank 2009f; wikipedia Chernobyl disaster). Finally, the World Bank report (2009d, 36) concludes that in Ukraine, based on 2004 figures, almost 50% of deaths before the age of 75 were avoidable: 14% preventable, 17% treatable, and 17% of IHD deaths avoidable (through a combination of both prevention and treatment).

### **2.6.3. Women's labour market share**

Unfortunately, for Ukraine there is no recent division available of the full labour force by industry. Table 5 comes most close, and is based on the yearly Establishment Survey as of 2008.

Table 5. Employment by industry and gender, employees (paid employment), Ukraine, 2008

	all		male		female	
	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%
agriculture, forestry, fishing	783	6.9	519	9.7	264	4.4
fishing	11	0.1	9	0.2	2	0.1
mining	480	4.2	356	6.7	124	2.0
manufacturing	2,192	19.2	1,263	23.7	929	15.3
utilities (gas, water, electr.)	516	4.5	319	6.0	197	3.3
construction	497	4.4	400	7.5	97	1.6
wholesale and retail	947	8.3	472	8.8	475	7.8
transport, storage, commun.	974	8.6	575	10.8	399	6.6
restaurants, hotels	94	0.8	27	0.5	67	1.1
finance	339	3.4	107	2.0	232	3.8
real estate, renting, business	631	5.5	324	6.1	307	5.1
public administrat., defense	627	5.5	208	3.9	419	6.9
education	1,642	14.3	382	7.2	1,260	20.9
health, social work	1,267	11.1	224	4.2	1,043	17.2
other community and personal services	389	3.4	150	2.8	239	3.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>11,389</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>5,335</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>6,054</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: ILO Laborsta, Table 2E (Establishment survey)

Comparing these figures with those underpinning Table 2 learns that they cover nearly 60% of all the country's males in paid employment and nearly 75% of the females with the same employment status. The figures of Table 5 definitely underestimate the proportion working in agriculture, which based on older data can be estimated at about 19% instead of 7%, and overestimate to about the same extent the proportion in services, to be estimated at 57%; the share of mining and manufacturing, just over 23%, may be 1%point higher in the labour force at large.

According to these figures, the share of women employed in the non-agricultural sector (in percentages of total non-agricultural employment) was 54.6% in 2008 (in conformity with UN MDG Indicators). This share had increased from 52.9% in 2000 (UN MDG Indicators). The table also shows that, at least in this sample, education was the largest employer of women (nearly 21%), followed by health and social work (17%). Concerning female paid employment the manufacturing industry, the largest employer for men (24%), came third. Nearly one in four female employees worked in wholesale and retail and commercial services. This may be a rather low score in international perspective, but it still regards 1,48 million Ukrainian women. If the overall coverage of the Establishment Survey may also be applied to the service sector, this would imply that nearly 2 million women worked in this sector.

Table 6 presents an overview of the female employment shares by industry, for those in paid employment. In the Establishment survey sample, the average female share of 53.2% is about 5%points larger than in the labour force as a whole (see Table 2). Five of the 15 industries show a female share above this average, and six industries show a female majority. With over 82%, this majority is quite large in health and social work, followed—in this order—by education (77%), restaurants and hotels (71%), public administration and defense (67%), other community and personal services (61%), and, with just over half female employees, wholesale and retail. For the first five industries these shares are rather common or somewhat above average in international perspective, whereas for wholesale and retail the 50% share is rather low. The female share in manufacturing (42%) is in international perspective rather high, though not exceptional. By contrast, the female share in finance (11%) is exceptionally low. Again, it should be noticed that these figures do not cover all in paid employment.

*Table 6. Female employment shares by industry, paid employment, Ukraine, 2008*

	x 1,000	%
agriculture, forestry, fishing	264	33.7
fishing	2	18.2
mining	124	25.8
manufacturing	929	42.4
utilities (gas, water, electr.)	197	38.2
construction	97	19.5
wholesale and retail	475	50.1
transport, storage, commun.	399	41.0
restaurants, hotels	67	71.3
finance	232	11.2
real estate, renting, business	307	48.7
public administration, defense	419	66.8
education	1,260	76.7
health, social work	1,043	82.3
other community and personal services	239	61.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>6,054</b>	<b>53.2</b>

*Source: ILO Laborsta, Table 2E (Establishment survey)*

Table 7 shows the total labour force (!), for 2008 divided by occupational group and gender.

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

	all		male		female	
	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%
legislators, senior officials, managers	1,581	7.5	970	8.9	610	6.0
professionals	2,724	13.0	995	9.2	1,729	17.1
technicians, associate professionals	2,422	11.5	860	7.9	1,562	15.4
clerks	727	3.5	113	1.0	615	6.1
service, shop, sales workers	2,953	14.1	936	8.6	2,017	19.9
skilled agricultural, fishery workers	235	1.1	143	1.3	92	0.9
craft and related trades	2,822	13.5	2,433	22.5	389	3.8
plant & machine operators, assemblers	2,642	12.6	2,076	19.1	566	5.6
elementary occupations	4,867	23.2	2,323	21.4	2,543	25.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>20,972</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>10,850</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>10,122</b>	<b>100.0</b>

*Source: ILO Laborsta, Table 2C (Labour Force Survey)*

One quarter of all women employed can be found at the bottom of the labour market, in elementary occupations. Nearly one in five women worked as service, shop or sales workers, and nearly two of five (38.5%) could be traced in the three occupational groups ranked highest in organisational hierarchies, among which 17% as professionals and over 15% as technicians and associate professionals. Based on international experience, we may estimate that two thirds or approximately 1,35 million of the just over 2 million females working in the service, shop, and sales occupations did so in commercial services, including wholesale and retail. Comparison with Table 4 learns that this leaves about 650,000 females working in commercial services in other occupational groups, notably managers; professionals; technicians, associate professionals, and clerks.

Building on Table 7, Table 8 (next page) shows the female employment shares by occupational group. Compared to the average share of just over 48%, women were slightly overrepresented in elementary occupations (52%), but they had a much clearer majority among clerks (85%), among service, shop and sales workers (68%) and, more surprisingly, with both about 64%, among professionals and associate professionals. These last two large shares may largely follow from the strong female presence in two large industries, education and health (see Tables 3 and 4). We may assume that secondary and tertiary education teachers and high-skilled medical staff normally have been grouped under “professionals”, whereas primary education teachers and nurses normally can be found under “technicians and associate professionals”. At the top of the hierarchy, covered by legislators, senior officials, and managers, the female share was with 39% quite somewhat lower but in international perspective still rather high. In line with this latter finding, in a large 2008 international survey 28% of 851 firms operating in Ukraine had a female top manager, against 19% of

firms active in the Eastern Europe and Central Asia region and 17% of firms worldwide (website Enterprise Surveys). Based on a survey held in 2003-04, Pignatti (2010) found that in the formal sector women were more concentrated in the categories of professionals and technicians / associate professionals, whereas in the informal sector they were more concentrated in service and related occupations and in elementary occupations. By contrast, men's distribution over occupations in the informal sector did not differ significantly from that in the formal one.

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

	x 1,000	%
legislators, senior officials, managers	610	38.6
professionals	1,729	63.5
technicians, associate professionals	1,562	64.5
clerks	615	84.6
service, shop, sales workers	2,017	68.3
skilled agricultural, fishery workers	92	39.1
craft and related trades	389	13.8
plant & machine operators, assemblers	566	21.4
elementary occupations	2,543	52.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>10,122</b>	<b>48.3</b>

*Source: ILO Laborsta, Table 2C (Labour Force Survey)*

## 2.7. Education and skill levels of the female labour force

### 2.7.1. Literacy

Traditionally, literacy has been quite high in Ukraine. The country's adult literacy rate—those age 15 and over that can read and write—in 1999-2006 was, according to the UNDP Human Development Indicators, 98.9%, divided in 99.0% for men and 98.8% for women, of course resulting in nearly 100% women to men parity (UNDP 2008). For 2007 the youth (15-24-year-olds) literacy rate was with 99.8% for both sexes quite high; this level had already been reached in 2001 (*MDG Indicator 2.3*, derived from UN MDG Indicators and based on UNESCO data).

### 2.7.2. Education of girls

While education is free, universal, and from 2001 on compulsory during 12 years from entrance age 3 (preschool) until age 15, the public education system in 2008 and 2009 continued to suffer from chronic underfunding, and children from poor families continued to drop out of school before turning 15 (US Dept of State 2009, 2010). As a matter of fact, in 2006 school life expectancy was 10.4 years: 10.5 years for males and 10.4 years for females (UIS 2010), thus considerably shorter than the compulsory duration. The World Bank (2010b) shades the underfunding issue, and argues that Ukraine spends more than 6% of its GDP on public education (well above other middle income countries), but does so inefficiently. Input “norms” of the Ministry of Education and Science, for example, have led to very small class sizes, but Ukraine ranked below regional comparators (including Russia, Kazakhstan, Armenia, and the Baltic countries) in international achievement tests for fourth and eighth graders. As of 1 January 2010, a financial reform is set in motion, by which general education schools have the option to independently manage the resources assigned from the state budget (wikipedia Education in Ukraine). It is interesting to note that teaching in primary schools is nearly exclusively a female job: in 2006 98.8% of primary school teachers were women (UIS 2010).

The combined gross enrolment in education was in 2006 88.8%: 91.5% for females and 86.3% for males -- or a women to parity of 106% (UNDP 2008). General education comprises “younger”, “middle” and “senior” schools, mostly in the same school building. Since independence, pre-school education has been rather neglected. Remarkably for a country in which many women are working full-time, less than half of all children aged three to five are enrolled (UIS 2010). “Younger school” comprises grades 1 to 4. Concerning enrollment in primary education, Ukraine made great strides since independence, but the most recent developments seem disquieting. Because of a substantial increase in girls' net enrollment rate in primary

education, the total net enrollment rate increased from 84.9% in 1991 (92.0% for boys and 77.1% for girls, resulting in 84% girls to boys parity) to an overall 88% over 2000-2007, divided into 90% for boys and 87% for girls, or 97% girls to boys parity (WHO 2009). More detailed year-to-year figures even show that for a moment girls' enrollment would have surpassed boys': the net enrollment rate peaked in 2005, with 96.9% (96.1% for boys and 97.7% for girls). This rate decreased with 7%points to 89.9% in 2007, of which 89.9% for boys and 89.8% for girls. However, the 2005 peak may have been merely a statistical fallacy, as other statistics show the proportion of primary school children out of school in the 2000s stabilizing around 10%, reaching nearly 11% in 2008 – 11% for boys and 10% for girls (UNESCO 2005; UIS 2010; UN MDG Indicators).

Students continue in secondary education in the “middle school” from grade 5 to year 9, thus five years, while “senior school” comprises three profile years. With 99.8% in 2003, the transition rate from primary to secondary education remains quite high, divided in 100% for boys and 99.7% for girls. The gross enrollment rate in secondary school was also slightly higher for boys than for girls: in 2006 94.2% against 92.6%, thus 98% women to men parity (average 93.4%) (UIS 2010). For 2007, even 100% women to men parity was reported (UN MDG Indicators). As noted, average school years are over 1.5 years shorter than the compulsory 12 years. Partly this is a consequence of the rather low enrollment in preschool, partly of the large amounts of students leaving secondary school with incomplete education (second level). The share of this group in all those finishing general education was in 1990 63%, falling slightly to 60% and in 2000 to 56% (website Statistics Ukraine), but of course the situation in which still only 44% completes secondary education is far from satisfactory.<sup>11</sup> Secondary teaching is for a large part a female job: in 2006 79% of secondary school teachers were women (UIS 2010).

Higher education in Ukraine is either state-funded or private. It is common practice that university candidates are not required to pass an entrance examination if they are willing to pay for their education. For most students that study at state expenses, the level of government grants is not sufficient to cover their basic living expenses. The two degrees conferred by universities are in accordance with the Bologna process, in which Ukraine is taking part: a Bachelor's Degree (4 years, leading to ISCED level 5A) and a Master's Degree (5-6<sup>th</sup> year, leading to ISCED level 5B) (wikipedia Education in Ukraine; Kremen and Nikolajenko 2006). The available statistics suggest that enrollment in higher education in the 2000s has grown towards a very high level, from 56% of the eligible five-year group after secondary education in 2000 to 76% in

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11 Unfortunately, these figures are neither divided by gender nor by income of parents. Like the US Dept of State (2010), reports on poverty in Ukraine suggest that —like in many other countries— students from poor families have much higher drop-out rates than average, without delivering convincing statistical evidence (cf. World Bank 2007).

2008. The 2008 figure for females was even 88%, against 71% for males, implying a women to men parity rate of 124% (UIS 2010). This rate has increased at regular speed from 103% in 1991 and 114% in 2000 (UN MDG Indicators). It should be added that according to various investigations the output standards in Ukrainian higher education are still largely based on the plan economy of the Soviet era. As a result, there is a major qualitative mismatch between qualifications offered by the education system and labour demand of employers. As many as one in five Ukrainian firms regards the skills of available workers as a major obstacle to their firm's operation and growth. This percentage is higher than in any other transition economy of the CIS and other Eastern European countries. Such skill shortages mostly afflict modern and expanding firms (World Bank 2009d, 2010; Nijssen and Grijpstra 2006).

### 2.7.3. Female skill levels

Table 9 presents the division of the economically active population of Ukraine (aged 15-70) by gender and educational attainment, based on official estimates as of 2008 and following the ISCED division. The table first clarifies that in international perspective the Ukrainian population has a quite high educational level; second, that female educational attainment is considerably higher than male. According to these figures, over half of all females (53.2%) had attained ISCED levels 5-6, against less than two of five males (38.7%). If we attach a 1 to 5 ranking to the five levels with shares attached, starting with 1 for ISCED 1, the outcomes show that there is a positive gender gap: the average female rating is 3.69, against a male average of 3.60. The high level of educational attainment is quite likely: UNESCO statistics (website) confirm that in Ukraine over 1999-2007 62% of females and 52% of males have been in tertiary education (though completion rates are somewhat less clear).

*Table 9. Economically active population by highest level of education completed and by gender, Ukraine, 2008 (age 15-70)*

	all		male		female	
	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%
no education completed (ISCED X-0)	-	-	-	-	-	-
first level (ISCED 1)	147	0.7	60	0.5	87	0.8
second level, first stage (ISCED 2)	1,880	8.4	1,045	9.0	835	7.7
second level, second stage (ISCED 3)	10,131	45.2	6,014	51.8	4,117	38.2
third level, first stage *) (ISCED 5)	5,033	22.5	2,055	17.7	2,978	27.6
third level, first/second stage **) (ISCED 6)	5,206	23.2	2,445	21.0	2,761	25.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>22,397</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>11,619</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>10,778</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: ILO Laborsta, Table 1B (Official estimates)

\*) first stage, leading to an award not equivalent to a first university degree

\*\*) (leading to a) university degree or equivalent qualification

A critical note may be that the combination with earlier figures points at an immense underutilisation of the qualifications of Ukrainian women. We remind the reader that 38.5% of the female labour force could be traced in the three occupational groups that ranked highest; yet even this outcome pales by the side of over 50% females with third level attainment. Labour market segmentation, with the exclusion of women from the better remunerated jobs at the top of the hierarchy, may play a major role here (cf. Pignatti 2010).

Table 10 presents the 2008 official unemployment rates by gender and highest level of education completed. It shows rather small differences between educational categories, with unemployment somewhat concentrated at the lower and middle levels. Other than in many other countries with about the same level of development as Ukraine, employment among those with academic and related education seem to have been consistently low.

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

	all	male	female
first level (ISCED 1)	-	-	-
second level, first stage (ISCED 2)	6.4	5.6	7.7
second level, second stage (ISCED 3)	7.5	7.5	7.4
Third level, first stage *) (ISCED 5)	7.0	6.9	7.0
Third level, first/second stage **) (ISCED 6)	4.2	4.7	3.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>6.4</b>	<b>6.7</b>	<b>6.1</b>

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

*\*) first stage, leading to an award not equivalent to a first university degree*

*\*\*\*) (leading to a) university degree or equivalent qualification*

We can now produce an estimate of the size of the target group of the DECISIONS FOR LIFE project for Ukraine, the girls and young women aged 15-29, working in urban areas in commercial services -- that is, wholesale and retail as well as commercial services more narrowly defined, like finance and restaurants / hotels. The current total size of the female labour force aged 15-29 in Ukraine can be estimated at 2,550,000. Given an urbanisation rate of 68%, about 1.75 million of them lived and worked in urban areas. Of this 1.75 million, slightly more than one in four<sup>12</sup> or about 440,000 can be estimated to belong to our

<sup>12</sup> We calculate with a 4% points overrepresentation of girls and young women aged 15-29 in commercial services compared to women over age 29.

target group as they worked in commercial services. A growing share of them, maybe about one in five, may currently work outside paid employment.<sup>13</sup> Some 160,000 to 210,000 (depending on the economic conditions) girls and young women will enter into commercial services employment in the next five years.

## 2.8. Wages and working conditions of the target group

### 2.8.1. Wages

In Ukraine nominal wage increases have been substantial in the 2000s. Between 2000 and 2009, the average nominal wage raise was 729%, from Hryvnia 230 monthly in 2000 to Hryvnia 1,906 in 2009.<sup>14</sup> Notwithstanding the largest increases were in industries very low-paid in 2000 (other community and personal services 1,000%, education 932%, health care and social work 774%), in 2008-2009 these were still low-pay industries. With a wage increase of 592%, the relative position of wholesale and retail even worsened; the same was true for the hotel and restaurant sector, with wages increasing 612% between 2000 and 2009. Nevertheless, in general the sectoral wage structure became more compressed: while in 2000 the difference between the highest paid (finance) and the lowest paid industry (agriculture) was 5.0 : 1, in 2008 that distance had decreased to 3.5 : 1 and in 2009 to 3.3 : 1. The regional wage differences showed the same trend: the distance between the region with the highest average wages (the city of Kyiv) and the two regions with the lowest averages (Volyn and Ternopil) in 2000 still 3.6 : 1, fell to 2.3 : 1 in 2008 and 2.2 : 1 in 2009 (all data: website Statistics Ukraine).

Table 11 (next page) focuses for 2008<sup>15</sup> on the differences in wages between men and women, the gender pay (wage) gap, though it also pictures wage differences between industries. It shows that for both genders the highest earnings are in finance, paying respectively 129% (men) and 109% (women) above average earnings. For males, the mining industry in the earnings ranking comes second, while for females public administration ranks second, followed by—in this order—real estate and other business; transport et cetera; utilities; construction, and manufacturing. Remarkably low are the average earnings in education, health and social work, not only for females but also for males. Above-average wage increases in 2009 in these two in-

13 We expect the total share of women in self-employment and own-account work currently to be about 25%, but this share most likely is lower among women under age 30.

14 The average real wage increase over 2000-2009 was 205% (authors' calculation based on website Statistics Ukraine). An important caveat is that in Ukraine for quite some time large unreported informal wages—notably remuneration in kind—have prevailed; wages in the public sector in the early 2000s may have underreported real earnings by about 30%. The more recent strong increases have likely represented at least to some extent the formalisation of wages (Raiser 2007, 3).

15 At the time of reporting, Statistics Ukraine had not released 2009 wage figures by gender. The average nominal total wage growth from 2008-2009 was 5.5%, from Hryvnia 1,806 to Hryvnia 1,906 (website Statistics Ukraine).

dustries as well as in other community and personal services (see section 2.1.3) have most recently changed the picture somewhat, though total averages these three sectors in 2009 remained 6-31% below the overall average monthly earnings. Like in many countries, wages in wholesale and retail and in the restaurant and hotel sector are relatively low. On top of this, the labour market position of women in these two sectors is quite vulnerable: in past economic downturns these female workers have been particularly hit by redundancies (Lehmann et al 2005).

*Table 11. Average (monthly) wages by industry and by gender, Ukraine, 2008, in Hryvnia*

	total	male	female	m/f gap
agriculture	1,101	1,149	1,008	12.3
mining	2,681	3,067	1,575	48.6
manufacturing	1,849	2,103	1,504	28.5
utilities (gas, water, electr.)	2,111	2,311	1,785	22.8
construction	1,832	1,883	1,623	13.8
wholesale and retail	1,514	1,679	1,349	19.6
transport, storage, commun.	2,207	2,474	1,823	26.3
restaurants, hotels	1,221	1,378	1,158	16.0
finance	3,747	4,763	3,279	31.2
real estate, renting, business	2,085	2,165	2,001	7.6
public administrat., defense	2,581	2,898	2,424	16.3
education	1,448	1,630	1,392	14.6
health, social work	1,177	1,307	1,150	12.0
other community and personal services	1,511	1,829	1,311	28.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,806</b>	<b>2,080</b>	<b>1,565</b>	<b>24.8</b>

Source: ILO Laborsta; website Statistics Ukraine

In the fourth column of the table we have indicated the magnitude of the gender pay gap,<sup>16</sup> on a monthly base. It has to be added that this gap is normally calculated on an hourly base, as to eliminate gender differences in hours worked. Yet, as Table 12 (p. 58) will show, following the official statistics these differences are marginal. The only caveat may be that this information on working hours is somewhat outdated, as it is latest available over 2003. However, it clearly appears that the full-time working week, of 40 hours or more, is the standard in Ukraine, and we found no indications that this has essentially changed. Thus, the figures of Table 11 can be regarded as reasonable indications of the gender pay gap in Ukraine. Recently, with nearly 25% the over-all gap was quite large. Across industries the gap by far largest in mining, but –with over 25%-- quite considerable in finance; manufacturing; other community and personal services, and transport et cetera. Remarkably small was the gender pay gap in real estate and other business, and it was also under average in construction; hotels and restaurants; education, and health and social work – though as said in the last three industries wages of both genders were quite low. In extremis, this held for agriculture and fishing,

<sup>16</sup> Using the international standard formula for the gender pay (or wage) gap:  $((\text{wage men} - \text{wage women}) : \text{wage men}) \times 100$ .

with female earnings in fishing even slightly higher (or better: less low) than male. The US Dept of State (2010) reported over 2009 that the legal principle of equal pay for equal work generally was observed in the Ukraine, but that sectors dominated by female workers had the lowest relative wages (sectoral sorting). Moreover, women had limited opportunities for advancement.

An earlier analysis concluded that in 2003 the gender pay gap was much higher in the top half of earners than in the bottom half. In the top half, men earned about 45% more than women. The most important factor may have been the relative increase of the national minimum wage in 2003, raising the wage floor for more low-paid women than men. Thus, compliance with the minimum wage can be useful for closing the gender pay gap, in particular in the private sector. As to decrease the gender pay gap in the public sector, re-evaluating the system of compensation in the public sector and recognizing the incidence of discrimination are recommended (Ganguli and Terrell 2005). Most recent research shows that Ukrainian women do earn less than men in both the formal and the informal sector. The mechanisms behind these gap, however, differ. In the formal sector wage discrimination is identified as the main factor. Here, the gender gap remains as women have less career opportunities and are excluded from jobs at the top of the hierarchy. In the informal sector, on the contrary, wage differentials can be explained from differences in personal, household and job characteristics of women respectively men. This may also explain why women in the top of the wage distribution earn more when they are self-employed than when they are salaried, both in the formal and in the informal sector. The author suggests that in Ukraine seizing opportunities to become self-employed is a viable strategy for women to diminish the gender pay gap (Pignatti 2010).

### **2.8.2. Working conditions**

Although the law contains occupational safety and health standards, the standards were frequently ignored in practice. Lax safety standards and aging equipment caused many injuries on the job. Because of limited funding, there are few officials to inspect workplaces and the labour laws only provide minor sanctions on violations (ITUC 2009). Nevertheless, progress can be reported. In the course of the 2000s, the reported workplace injuries level fell by about 50%, till 16,491 injuries in 2008, of which 3,337 (20%) in women. These included 927 deaths as a consequence of workplace accidents (job-related fatalities), of which 67 women (7%) (ILO Laborsta). During the first half of 2009, 5,823 workplace injuries were report-

ed (27% fewer than for the same period in 2008), including 306 fatalities (compared with 514 in 2008, 40%). Over the years, mining has clearly been the most accident-prone industry. The number of mining fatalities during 2009 was 151, a decrease of 13% from 2008 (US Dept of State 2010).

Finally we concentrate on working hours. Ukrainian data on this major issue in working conditions is scant and rather outdated, but we include here figures as of 2003 as they may give an indication of the current situation: the structure of working hours tends to change only slowly. Table 12 contains information about 77% of the total economically active population (also 77% of females). It shows that a large majority works full-time, that is 40 or more hours per week: nearly 90% of all males and 84% of females. Very small shares worked less than 20 hours. Detailed figures (not shown) reveal that full-time hours were even more widespread among young female workers than among their older colleagues: 634,000 (87%) of the 731,000 female employees aged 15-24 worked 40 hours or more per week, whereas 97,000 worked less (all data: ILO Laborsta).

*Table 12. Economically active population by hours of work and by gender, Ukraine, 2003 (age 15-70)*

Hours/week	all		male		female	
	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%	x 1,000	%
<20	410	2.5	95	1.2	315	4.1
20-29	378	2.3	92	1.1	286	3.7
30-39	1,300	8.2	667	8.1	632	8.1
>=40	13,856	86.9	7,339	89.6	6,517	84.1
Total excl. unk.+not sp.	15,944	100.0	8,193	100.0	7,750	100.0
unknown	2,349		871		1,479	
not specif.	2,262		1,407		856	

*Source: ILO Laborsta; website Statistics Ukraine*

## 3. Basic information for WageIndicator Questionnaire

### 3.1. Introduction

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

### 3.2. List of educational categories and ISCED levels

Below, a full list of the educational categories used in Ukraine, designed for use in the web-survey and including the ISCED levels attached to them, can be found.

Table 13. List of educational categories in Ukraine (by 1/1/2010)

ua-UA	ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ru-UA	ISCED
804101	UKR Pre-school	Дошкільна	Дошкольное	0
804102	UKR Elementary school (Grades 1-4)	Початкова школа (1-4 класи)	Начальная школа (1 - 4 классы)	1
804103	UKR Lower Secondary school (Grades 5-9)	Молодші класи середньої школи (5-9 класи)	Младшие классы средней школы (5 - 9 классы)	2
804104	UKR Upper Secondary school	Старші класи середньої школи	Старшие классы средней школы	3
804105	UKR Vocational Secondary School	Професійна середня освіта	Профессиональное среднее образование	4
804106	UKR Specialised Secondary school	Спеціалізована середня освіта	Специализированное среднее образование	4
804107	UKR Bachelor degree	Степень бакалавра	Степень бакалавра	5
804108	UKR Bachelor degree - Medicine	Ступінь бакалавра медицини	Степень бакалавра медицины	5
804109	UKR Diploma of Specialist	Дипломований спеціаліст	Дипломированный специалист	5
804110	UKR Master's Degree	Ступінь магістра	Степень магистра	6
804111	UKR Candidate of Science degree	Кандидат наук	Кандидат наук	6
804112	UKR Doctor of Science	Доктор наук	Доктор наук	6

### 3.3. List of regions

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

Table 14. List of regions in Ukraine (by 1/1/2010)

ua_UA	ua_UA	ua_UA	ua_UA	Translation ua_UA	Translation ua_UA	Translation ru_UA	Translation ru_UA
8040020000	8040020132	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea Alusta	Автономна Республіка Крим	Алушта	Автономная Республика Крым	Алушта
8040020000	8040020232	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea Armjansk	Автономна Республіка Крим	Армянськ	Автономная Республика Крым	Армянск
8040020000	8040020332	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea Bachysaraj (Bahçesaray)	Автономна Республіка Крим	Бахчисарай	Автономная Республика Крым	Бахчисарай
8040020000	8040020432	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea Dzankoj (Cankoy)	Автономна Республіка Крим	Джанкой	Автономная Республика Крым	Джанкой
8040020000	8040020531	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea Evpatorija (Gozleve)	Автономна Республіка Крим	Євпаторія	Автономная Республика Крым	Евпатория
8040020000	8040020631	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea Kerc	Автономна Республіка Крим	Керч	Автономная Республика Крым	Керчь
8040020000	8040020732	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea Krasnoperokopsk	Автономна Республіка Крим	Красноперекопськ	Автономная Республика Крым	Красноперекопск
8040020000	8040020832	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea Saky (Saki)	Автономна Республіка Крим	Саки	Автономная Республика Крым	Саки
8040020000	8040020931	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea Simferopol	Автономна Республіка Крим	Сімферополь	Автономная Республика Крым	Симферополь
8040020000	8040021032	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea Feodosija	Автономна Республіка Крим	Феодосія	Автономная Республика Крым	Феодосия
8040020000	8040021132	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea Jalta (Yalta)	Автономна Республіка Крим	Ялта	Автономная Республика Крым	Ялта
8040020000	8040029632	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Автономна Республіка Крим	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Автономная Республика Крым	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040020000	8040029704	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea A village (less than 10,000)	Автономна Республіка Крим	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Автономная Республика Крым	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040020000	8040029805	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea	UKR Autonomous Republic of Crimea Rural area	Автономна Республіка Крим	Сільська місцевість	Автономная Республика Крым	Сельская местность
8040230000	8040230131	UKR Vinnytsya region	UKR Vinnytsya region Vinnytsia	Вінницька область	Вінниця	Винницкая область	Винница

ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ru-UA	Translation ru-UA
8040230000	8040230232	UKR Vinnytsya region	UKR Vinnytsya region Haisyn	Вінницька область	Гайсин	Винницкая область	Гайсин
8040230000	8040230332	UKR Vinnytsya region	UKR Vinnytsya region Zhmerynka	Вінницька область	Жмеринка	Винницкая область	Жмеринка
8040230000	8040230432	UKR Vinnytsya region	UKR Vinnytsya region Koziatyn	Вінницька область	Козятин	Винницкая область	Казатин
8040230000	8040230532	UKR Vinnytsya region	UKR Vinnytsya region Ladyzhyn	Вінницька область	Ладизжин	Винницкая область	Ладыжин
8040230000	8040230632	UKR Vinnytsya region	UKR Vinnytsya region Mohyliv-Podilskyi	Вінницька область	Могилев-Подільський	Винницкая область	Могилев-Подольский
8040230000	8040230732	UKR Vinnytsya region	UKR Vinnytsya region Khmilnyk	Вінницька область	Хмельник	Винницкая область	Хмельник
8040230000	8040239632	UKR Vinnytsya region	UKR Vinnytsya region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Вінницька область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Винницкая область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040230000	8040239704	UKR Vinnytsya region	UKR Vinnytsya region A village (less than 10,000)	Вінницька область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Винницкая область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040230000	8040239805	UKR Vinnytsya region	UKR Vinnytsya region Rural area	Вінницька область	Сільська місцевість	Винницкая область	Сельская местность
8040240000	8040240132	UKR Volyn region	UKR Volyn region Volodymyr-Volynskyi	Волинська область	Володимир-Волинський	Волынская область	Владимир-Волынский
8040240000	8040240232	UKR Volyn region	UKR Volyn region Kovel	Волинська область	Ковель	Волынская область	Ковель
8040240000	8040240331	UKR Volyn region	UKR Volyn region Lutsk	Волинська область	Луцьк	Волынская область	Луцк
8040240000	8040240432	UKR Volyn region	UKR Volyn region Novovolynsk	Волинська область	Нововолинськ	Волынская область	Нововолинск
8040240000	8040249632	UKR Volyn region	UKR Volyn region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Волинська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Волынская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040240000	8040249704	UKR Volyn region	UKR Volyn region A village (less than 10,000)	Волинська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Волынская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040240000	8040249805	UKR Volyn region	UKR Volyn region Rural area	Волинська область	Сільська місцевість	Волынская область	Сельская местность
8040060000	8040060232	UKR Dnipropetrovsk region	UKR Dnipropetrovsk region Vilnohirsk	Дніпропетровська область	Вільногорськ	Днепропетровская область	Вольногорск
8040060000	8040060331	UKR Dnipropetrovsk region	UKR Dnipropetrovsk region Dniprodzerzynsk	Дніпропетровська область	Дніпродзержинськ	Днепропетровская область	Днепродзержинск
8040060000	8040060101	UKR Dnipropetrovsk region	UKR Dnipropetrovsk region Dnipropetrovsk	Дніпропетровська область	Дніпропетровськ	Днепропетровская область	Днепропетровск
8040060000	8040060432	UKR Dnipropetrovsk region	UKR Dnipropetrovsk region zovti Vody	Дніпропетровська область	Жовті Води	Днепропетровская область	Желтые Воды
8040060000	8040060531	UKR Dnipropetrovsk region	UKR Dnipropetrovsk region Kryvyj Rih	Дніпропетровська область	Кривий Ріг	Днепропетровская область	Кривой Рог
8040060000	8040060632	UKR Dnipropetrovsk region	UKR Dnipropetrovsk region Marhanec	Дніпропетровська область	Марганець	Днепропетровская область	Марганец
8040060000	8040060731	UKR Dnipropetrovsk region	UKR Dnipropetrovsk region Nikopol	Дніпропетровська область	Нікополь	Днепропетровская область	Никополь

ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ru-UA	Translation ru-UA
8040060000	8040060832	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region Novomoskovsk	Дніпропетровська область	Новомосковськ	Днепропетровская область	Новомосковськ
8040060000	8040060932	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region Ordzonikidze	Дніпропетровська область	Орджонікідзе	Днепропетровская область	Орджоникидзе
8040060000	8040061031	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region Pavlohrad	Дніпропетровська область	Павлоград	Днепропетровская область	Павлоград
8040060000	8040061132	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region Persotravensk	Дніпропетровська область	Первомайськ	Днепропетровская область	Першотравенск
8040060000	8040061232	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region P'jatychatky	Дніпропетровська область	П'ятихатки	Днепропетровская область	Пятихатки
8040060000	8040061332	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region Synelnykove	Дніпропетровська область	Синельниково	Днепропетровская область	Синельниково
8040060000	8040061432	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region Ternivka	Дніпропетровська область	Тарновка	Днепропетровская область	Терновка
8040060000	8040069632	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Дніпропетровська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Днепропетровская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040060000	8040069704	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region A village (less than 10,000)	Дніпропетровська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Днепропетровская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040060000	8040069805	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region	UKR Dni-propetrovsk region Rural area	Дніпропетровська область	Сільська місцевість	Днепропетровская область	Сельская местность
8040070000	8040070132	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Artemivsk	Донецька область	Артемівськ	Донецкая область	Артемовск
8040070000	8040070231	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Horlivka	Донецька область	Горлівка	Донецкая область	Горловка
8040070000	8040070332	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Dymytrov	Донецька область	Дмитрів	Донецкая область	Дмитров
8040070000	8040070101	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Donetsk	Донецька область	Донецьк	Донецкая область	Донецк
8040070000	8040070432	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Druzhkivka	Донецька область	Дружківка	Донецкая область	Дружковка
8040070000	8040070531	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Yenakiieve	Донецька область	Єнакієво	Донецкая область	Енакиево
8040070000	8040070632	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Kostiantynivka	Донецька область	Костянтинівка	Донецкая область	Константиновка
8040070000	8040070731	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Kramatorsk	Донецька область	Краматорськ	Донецкая область	Краматорск
8040070000	8040070931	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Makiivka	Донецька область	Макіївка	Донецкая область	Макеевка
8040070000	8040071031	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Mariupol	Донецька область	Маріуполь	Донецкая область	Марнуполь
8040070000	8040071131	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Slavyansk	Донецька область	Слов'янськ	Донецкая область	Славянск
8040070000	8040071232	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Snizhne	Донецька область	Сніжне	Донецкая область	Снежное
8040070000	8040071332	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Torez	Донецька область	Торез	Донецкая область	Торез
8040070000	8040071432	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Khartsyzk	Донецька область	Харцизьк	Донецкая область	Харцизск

ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ru-UA	Translation ru-UA
8040070000	8040070832	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Krasnoarmiyisk	Донецька область	Червоноармійськ	Донецкая область	Красноармейск
8040070000	8040071532	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Shakhtarsk	Донецька область	Шахтарськ	Донецкая область	Шахтерск
8040070000	8040079632	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Донецька область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Донецкая область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040070000	8040079704	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region A village (less than 10,000)	Донецька область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Донецкая область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040070000	8040079805	UKR Donetsk region	UKR Donetsk region Rural area	Донецька область	Сільська місцевість	Донецкая область	Сельская местность
8040270000	8040270232	UKR Zhytomyr region	UKR Zhytomyr region Berdychiv	Житомирська область	Бердичів	Житомирская область	Бердичев
8040270000	8040270331	UKR Zhytomyr region	UKR Zhytomyr region Zhytomyr	Житомирська область	Житомир	Житомирская область	Житомир
8040270000	8040270432	UKR Zhytomyr region	UKR Zhytomyr region Korosten	Житомирська область	Коростень	Житомирская область	Коростень
8040270000	8040270532	UKR Zhytomyr region	UKR Zhytomyr region Korostyshiv	Житомирська область	Коростишів	Житомирская область	Коростышев
8040270000	8040270632	UKR Zhytomyr region	UKR Zhytomyr region Malyn	Житомирська область	Малин	Житомирская область	Малин
8040270000	8040279632	UKR Zhytomyr region	UKR Zhytomyr region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Житомирська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Житомирская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040270000	8040270732	UKR Zhytomyr region	UKR Zhytomyr region Novohrad-Volynskiyi	Житомирська область	Новоград-Волинський	Житомирская область	Новоград-Волинский
8040270000	8040279805	UKR Zhytomyr region	UKR Zhytomyr region Rural area	Житомирська область	Сільська місцевість	Житомирская область	Сельская местность
8040270000	8040279704	UKR Zhytomyr region	UKR Zhytomyr region A village (less than 10,000)	Житомирська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Житомирская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8049900000	8049911200	UKR Abroad	UKR Abroad Belarus	За кордоном	Білорусія	За рубежом	Беларусь
8049900000	8049949800	UKR Abroad	UKR Abroad Moldova	За кордоном	Молдова	За рубежом	Молдова
8049900000	8049961600	UKR Abroad	UKR Abroad Poland	За кордоном	Польща	За рубежом	Польша
8049900000	8049964300	UKR Abroad	UKR Abroad Russia	За кордоном	Росія	За рубежом	Россия
8049900000	8049964200	UKR Abroad	UKR Abroad Romania	За кордоном	Румунія	За рубежом	Румыния
8049900000	8049970300	UKR Abroad	UKR Abroad Slovakia	За кордоном	Словакія	За рубежом	Словакия
8049900000	8049934800	UKR Abroad	UKR Abroad Hungary	За кордоном	Угорщина	За рубежом	Венгрия
8049900000	8049999900	UKR Abroad	UKR Abroad Other country	За кордоном	Інша країна	За рубежом	Другая страна
8040250000	8040250232	UKR Zakarpattia region	UKR Zakarpattia region Berehove	Закарпатська область	Берегово	Закарпатская область	Берегово
8040250000	8040250332	UKR Zakarpattia region	UKR Zakarpattia region Vynohradiv	Закарпатська область	Виноградів	Закарпатская область	Виноградов
8040250000	8040250432	UKR Zakarpattia region	UKR Zakarpattia region Mukachevo	Закарпатська область	Мукачеве	Закарпатская область	Мукачево
8040250000	8040250531	UKR Zakarpattia region	UKR Zakarpattia region Uzhhorod	Закарпатська область	Ужгород	Закарпатская область	Ужгород

ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ru-UA	Translation ru-UA
8040250000	8040250132	UKR Zakarpattia region	UKR Zakarpattia region Khust	Закарпатська область	Хуст	Закарпатская область	Хуст
8040250000	8040259632	UKR Zakarpattia region	UKR Zakarpattia region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Закарпатська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Закарпатская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040250000	8040259704	UKR Zakarpattia region	UKR Zakarpattia region A village (less than 10,000)	Закарпатська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Закарпатская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040250000	8040259805	UKR Zakarpattia region	UKR Zakarpattia region Rural area	Закарпатська область	Сільська місцевість	Закарпатская область	Сельская местность
8040260000	8040260132	UKR Zaporizhya region	UKR Zaporizhya region Berdyansk	Запорізька область	Бердянськ	Запорожская область	Бердянск
8040260000	8040260532	UKR Zaporizhya region	UKR Zaporizhya region Enerhodar	Запорізька область	Енергодар	Запорожская область	Энергодар
8040260000	8040260231	UKR Zaporizhya region	UKR Zaporizhya region Zaporizhya	Запорізька область	Запоріжжя	Запорожская область	Запорожье
8040260000	8040260332	UKR Zaporizhya region	UKR Zaporizhya region Melitopol	Запорізька область	Мелітополь	Запорожская область	Мелитополь
8040260000	8040260432	UKR Zaporizhya region	UKR Zaporizhya region Tokmak	Запорізька область	Токмак	Запорожская область	Токмак
8040260000	8040269632	UKR Zaporizhya region	UKR Zaporizhya region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Запорізька область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Запорожская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040260000	8040269704	UKR Zaporizhya region	UKR Zaporizhya region A village (less than 10,000)	Запорізька область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Запорожская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040260000	8040269805	UKR Zaporizhya region	UKR Zaporizhya region Rural area	Запорізька область	Сільська місцевість	Запорожская область	Сельская местность
8040080000	8040080132	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region Dolyna	Івано-Франківська область	Долина	Ивано-Франковская область	Долина
8040080000	8040080231	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region Ivano-Frankivsk	Івано-Франківська область	Івано-Франківськ	Ивано-Франковская область	Ивано-Франковск
8040080000	8040080332	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region Kalush	Івано-Франківська область	Калуш	Ивано-Франковская область	Калуш
8040080000	8040080432	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region Kolomyia	Івано-Франківська область	Коломия	Ивано-Франковская область	Коломыя
8040080000	8040080532	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region Nadvirna	Івано-Франківська область	Надвірна	Ивано-Франковская область	Надворная
8040080000	8040089632	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Івано-Франківська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Ивано-Франковская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040080000	8040089704	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region A village (less than 10,000)	Івано-Франківська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Ивано-Франковская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040080000	8040089805	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region	UKR Ivano-Frankivsk region Rural area	Івано-Франківська область	Сільська місцевість	Ивано-Франковская область	Сельская местность
8040130000	8040130131	UKR Kyiv region	UKR Kyiv region Bila Tserkva	Київська область	Біла Церква	Киевская область	Белая Церковь
8040130000	8040130200	UKR Kyiv region	UKR Kyiv region Boryspil	Київська область	Бориспіль	Киевская область	Борисполь
8040130000	8040130332	UKR Kyiv region	UKR Kyiv region Brovary	Київська область	Бровари	Киевская область	Бровары

ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ru-UA	Translation ru-UA
8040130000	8040130400	UKR Kyiv region	UKR Kyiv region Vasylykiv	Київська область	Васильків	Киевская область	Васильков
8040130000	8040130500	UKR Kyiv region	UKR Kyiv region Irpin	Київська область	Ірпін	Киевская область	Ирпень
8040130000	8040130600	UKR Kyiv region	UKR Kyiv region Fastiv	Київська область	Фастів	Киевская область	Фастов
8040130000	8040139632	UKR Kyiv region	UKR Kyiv region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Київська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Киевская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040130000	8040139704	UKR Kyiv region	UKR Kyiv region A village (less than 10,000)	Київська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Киевская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040130000	8040139805	UKR Kyiv region	UKR Kyiv region Rural area	Київська область	Сільська місцевість	Киевская область	Сельская местность
8040120000	8040120232	UKR Kirovohrad region	UKR Kirovohrad region Znamianka	Кіровоградська область	Знам'янка	Кировоградская область	Знаменка
8040120000	8040120331	UKR Kirovohrad region	UKR Kirovohrad region Kirovohrad	Кіровоградська область	Кіровоград	Кировоградская область	Кировоград
8040120000	8040120132	UKR Kirovohrad region	UKR Kirovohrad region Oleksandria	Кіровоградська область	Олександрія	Кировоградская область	Александрия
8040120000	8040120432	UKR Kirovohrad region	UKR Kirovohrad region Svitlovodsk	Кіровоградська область	Світловодськ	Кировоградская область	Светловодск
8040120000	8040129632	UKR Kirovohrad region	UKR Kirovohrad region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Кіровоградська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Кировоградская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040120000	8040129704	UKR Kirovohrad region	UKR Kirovohrad region A village (less than 10,000)	Кіровоградська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Кировоградская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040120000	8040129805	UKR Kirovohrad region	UKR Kirovohrad region Rural area	Кіровоградська область	Сільська місцевість	Кировоградская область	Сельская местность
8040150000	8040150131	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region Alchevsk	Луганська область	Алчевськ	Луганская область	Алчевск
8040150000	8040150232	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region Antratsyt	Луганська область	Антрацит	Луганская область	Антрацит
8040150000	8040150332	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region Brianka	Луганська область	Брянка	Луганская область	Брянка
8040150000	8040150432	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region Kirovsk	Луганська область	Кіровськ	Луганская область	Кировск
8040150000	8040150632	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region Krasnyi Luch	Луганська область	Красний Луч	Луганская область	Красный Луч
8040150000	8040150532	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region Krasnodon	Луганська область	Краснодон	Луганская область	Краснодон
8040150000	8040150731	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region Lysychansk	Луганська область	Лисичанськ	Луганская область	Лисичанск
8040150000	8040150831	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region Luhansk	Луганська область	Луганськ	Луганская область	Луганск
8040150000	8040150932	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region Pervomaisk	Луганська область	Первомайськ	Луганская область	Первомайск
8040150000	8040151032	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region Rovenky	Луганська область	Ровеньки	Луганская область	Ровеньки
8040150000	8040151132	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region Rubizhne	Луганська область	Рубіжне	Луганская область	Рубежное
8040150000	8040151232	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region Sverdlovsk	Луганська область	Свердловськ	Луганская область	Свердловск
8040150000	8040151331	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region Sievierodonetsk	Луганська область	Северодонецьк	Луганская область	Северодонецк

ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ru-UA	Translation ru-UA
8040150000	8040151432	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region Stakhanov	Луганська область	Стаханів	Луганская область	Стаханов
8040150000	8040159632	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Луганська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Луганская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040150000	8040159704	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region A village (less than 10,000)	Луганська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Луганская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040150000	8040159805	UKR Luhansk region	UKR Luhansk region Rural area	Луганська область	Сільська місцевість	Луганская область	Сельская местность
8040160000	8040160132	UKR Lviv region	UKR Lviv region Boryslav	Львівська область	Борислав	Львовская область	Борислав
8040160000	8040160232	UKR Lviv region	UKR Lviv region Drohobych	Львівська область	Дрогобич	Львовская область	Дрогобыч
8040160000	8040160331	UKR Lviv region	UKR Lviv region Lviv	Львівська область	Львів	Львовская область	Львов
8040160000	8040160432	UKR Lviv region	UKR Lviv region Novyi Rozdil	Львівська область	Новий Розділ	Львовская область	Новый Раздол
8040160000	8040160532	UKR Lviv region	UKR Lviv region Sambir	Львівська область	Самбір	Львовская область	Самбор
8040160000	8040160632	UKR Lviv region	UKR Lviv region Stryi	Львівська область	Стрий	Львовская область	Стрый
8040160000	8040160732	UKR Lviv region	UKR Lviv region Truskavets	Львівська область	Трускавець	Львовская область	Трускавец
8040160000	8040160832	UKR Lviv region	UKR Lviv region Chervonohrad	Львівська область	Червоноград	Львовская область	Червоноград
8040160000	8040169632	UKR Lviv region	UKR Lviv region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Львівська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Львовская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040160000	8040169704	UKR Lviv region	UKR Lviv region A village (less than 10,000)	Львівська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Львовская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040160000	8040169805	UKR Lviv region	UKR Lviv region Rural area	Львівська область	Сільська місцевість	Львовская область	Сельская местность
8040140000	8040140107	UKR The city of Kyiv	UKR The city of Kyiv Kyiv	м. Київ	Київ	Город Киев	Киев
8040140000	8040140202	UKR The city of Kyiv	UKR The city of Kyiv The suburbs of Kyiv	м. Київ	Передмістя Києва	Город Киев	Пригород Киева
8040170000	8040170132	UKR Mykolayiv region	UKR Mykolayiv region Voznesensk	Миколаївська область	Вознесенськ	Николаевская область	Вознесенск
8040170000	8040170231	UKR Mykolayiv region	UKR Mykolayiv region Mykolayiv	Миколаївська область	Миколаїв	Николаевская область	Николаев
8040170000	8040170332	UKR Mykolayiv region	UKR Mykolayiv region Ochakiv	Миколаївська область	Очаків	Николаевская область	Очаков
8040170000	8040170432	UKR Mykolayiv region	UKR Mykolayiv region Pervomaisk	Миколаївська область	Первомайськ	Николаевская область	Первомайск
8040170000	8040170532	UKR Mykolayiv region	UKR Mykolayiv region Yuzhnoukrainsk	Миколаївська область	Південноукраїнськ	Николаевская область	Южноукраинск
8040170000	8040179632	UKR Mykolayiv region	UKR Mykolayiv region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Миколаївська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Николаевская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040170000	8040179704	UKR Mykolayiv region	UKR Mykolayiv region A village (less than 10,000)	Миколаївська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Николаевская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)

ua_UA	ua_UA	ua_UA	ua_UA	Translation ua_UA	Translation ua_UA	Translation ru_UA	Translation ru_UA
8040170000	8040179805	UKR Mykolayiv region	UKR Mykolayiv region Rural area	Миколаївська область	Сільська місцевість	Николаевская область	Сельская местность
8040180000	8040180132	UKR Odesa region	UKR Odesa region Bilhorod-Dnistrovskiyi	Одеська область	Білгород-Дніпровський	Одесская область	Белгород-Днестровский
8040180000	8040180232	UKR Odesa region	UKR Odesa region Izmail	Одеська область	Ізмаїл	Одесская область	Измаил
8040180000	8040180332	UKR Odesa region	UKR Odesa region Illichivsk	Одеська область	Іллічівськ	Одесская область	Ильичевск
8040180000	8040180432	UKR Odesa region	UKR Odesa region Kotovsk	Одеська область	Котовськ	Одесская область	Котовск
8040180000	8040180501	UKR Odesa region	UKR Odesa region Odesa	Одеська область	Одеса	Одесская область	Одесса
8040180000	8040180632	UKR Odesa region	UKR Odesa region Yuzhne	Одеська область	Південне	Одесская область	Южное
8040180000	8040189632	UKR Odesa region	UKR Odesa region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Одеська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Одесская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040180000	8040189704	UKR Odesa region	UKR Odesa region A village (less than 10,000)	Одеська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Одесская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040180000	8040189805	UKR Odesa region	UKR Odesa region Rural area	Одеська область	Сільська місцевість	Одесская область	Сельская местность
8040190000	8040190932	UKR Poltava region	UKR Poltava region Komso-molsk	Полтавська область	Комсомольськ	Полтавская область	Комсомольск
8040190000	8040191031	UKR Poltava region	UKR Poltava region Kremenchuk	Полтавська область	Кременчук	Полтавская область	Кременчуг
8040190000	8040191132	UKR Poltava region	UKR Poltava region Lubny	Полтавська область	Лубни	Полтавская область	Лубны
8040190000	8040191232	UKR Poltava region	UKR Poltava region Myrhorod	Полтавська область	Миргород	Полтавская область	Миргород
8040190000	8040199632	UKR Poltava region	UKR Poltava region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Полтавська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Полтавская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040190000	8040191331	UKR Poltava region	UKR Poltava region Poltava	Полтавська область	Полтава	Полтавская область	Полтава
8040190000	8040199805	UKR Poltava region	UKR Poltava region Rural area	Полтавська область	Сільська місцевість	Полтавская область	Сельская местность
8040190000	8040199704	UKR Poltava region	UKR Poltava region A village (less than 10,000)	Полтавська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Полтавская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040200000	8040200132	UKR Rivne region	UKR Rivne region Dubno	Рівненська область	Дубно	Ровенская область	Дубно
8040200000	8040200232	UKR Rivne region	UKR Rivne region Kostopil	Рівненська область	Костопіль	Ровенская область	Костополь
8040200000	8040200332	UKR Rivne region	UKR Rivne region Kuznetsovsk	Рівненська область	Кузнецовськ	Ровенская область	Кузнецовск
8040200000	8040200431	UKR Rivne region	UKR Rivne region Rivne	Рівненська область	Рівно	Ровенская область	Ровно
8040200000	8040200532	UKR Rivne region	UKR Rivne region Sarny	Рівненська область	Сарни	Ровенская область	Сарны
8040200000	8040209632	UKR Rivne region	UKR Rivne region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Рівненська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Ровенская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040200000	8040209704	UKR Rivne region	UKR Rivne region A village (less than 10,000)	Рівненська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Ровенская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040200000	8040209805	UKR Rivne region	UKR Rivne region Rural area	Рівненська область	Сільська місцевість	Ровенская область	Сельская местность

ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ru-UA	Translation ru-UA
8040010000	8040010131	UKR The City of Sevastopol	UKR The City of Sevastopol	Севастополь	Севастополь	Севастополь	Севастополь
8040010000	8040010231	UKR The City of Sevastopol	UKR The City of Sevastopol The suburbs of Sevastopol	Севастополь	Передмістя Севастополя	Севастополь	Пригород Севастополя
8040210000	8040210132	UKR Sumy region	UKR Sumy region Okhtyrka	Сумська область	Ахтирка	Сумская область	Ахтырка
8040210000	8040210232	UKR Sumy region	UKR Sumy region Hlukhiv	Сумська область	Глухів	Сумская область	Глухов
8040210000	8040210332	UKR Sumy region	UKR Sumy region Konotop	Сумська область	Конотоп	Сумская область	Конотоп
8040210000	8040210432	UKR Sumy region	UKR Sumy region Lebedyn	Сумська область	Лебедин	Сумская область	Лебедин
8040210000	8040210532	UKR Sumy region	UKR Sumy region Romny	Сумська область	Ромни	Сумская область	Ромны
8040210000	8040210631	UKR Sumy region	UKR Sumy region Sumy	Сумська область	Суми	Сумская область	Сумы
8040210000	8040210732	UKR Sumy region	UKR Sumy region Shostka	Сумська область	Шостка	Сумская область	Шостка
8040210000	8040219632	UKR Sumy region	UKR Sumy region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Сумська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Сумская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040210000	8040219704	UKR Sumy region	UKR Sumy region A village (less than 10,000)	Сумська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Сумская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040210000	8040219805	UKR Sumy region	UKR Sumy region Rural area	Сумська область	Сільська місцевість	Сумская область	Сельская местность
8040220000	8040220132	UKR Ternopil region	UKR Ternopil region Kremenets	Тернопільська область	Кременець	Тернопольская область	Кременец
8040220000	8040220231	UKR Ternopil region	UKR Ternopil region Ternopil	Тернопільська область	Тернопіль	Тернопольская область	Тернополь
8040220000	8040220332	UKR Ternopil region	UKR Ternopil region Chortkiv	Тернопільська область	Чортків	Тернопольская область	Чортков
8040220000	8040229632	UKR Ternopil region	UKR Ternopil region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Тернопільська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Тернопольская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040220000	8040229704	UKR Ternopil region	UKR Ternopil region A village (less than 10,000)	Тернопільська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Тернопольская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040220000	8040229805	UKR Ternopil region	UKR Ternopil region Rural area	Тернопільська область	Сільська місцевість	Тернопольская область	Сельская местность
8040090000	8040090132	UKR Kharkiv region	UKR Kharkiv region Balakliia	Харківська область	Балаклея	Харьковская область	Балаклея
8040090000	8040090232	UKR Kharkiv region	UKR Kharkiv region Izyum	Харківська область	Ізюм	Харьковская область	Изюм
8040090000	8040090332	UKR Kharkiv region	UKR Kharkiv region Kupiansk	Харківська область	Купянськ	Харьковская область	Купянск
8040090000	8040090432	UKR Kharkiv region	UKR Kharkiv region Lozova	Харківська область	Лозова	Харьковская область	Лозовая
8040090000	8040090532	UKR Kharkiv region	UKR Kharkiv region Pervomaiskyi	Харківська область	Первомайський	Харьковская область	Первомайский
8040090000	8040090601	UKR Kharkiv region	UKR Kharkiv region Kharkiv	Харківська область	Харків	Харьковская область	Харьков
8040090000	8040090732	UKR Kharkiv region	UKR Kharkiv region Chuhuiv	Харківська область	Чугуєв	Харьковская область	Чугуев
8040090000	8040099632	UKR Kharkiv region	UKR Kharkiv region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Харківська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Харьковская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)

ua_UA	ua_UA	ua_UA	ua_UA	Translation ua_UA	Translation ua_UA	Translation ru_UA	Translation ru_UA
8040090000	8040099704	UKR Kharkiv region	UKR Kharkiv region A village (less than 10,000)	Харківська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Харьковская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040090000	8040099805	UKR Kharkiv region	UKR Kharkiv region Rural area	Харківська область	Сільська місцевість	Харьковская область	Сельская местность
8040100000	8040100132	UKR Kherson region	UKR Kherson region Henichesk	Херсонська область	Геніченськ	Херсонская область	Геническ
8040100000	8040100232	UKR Kherson region	UKR Kherson region Kakhovka	Херсонська область	Каховка	Херсонская область	Каховка
8040100000	8040100332	UKR Kherson region	UKR Kherson region Nova Kakhovka	Херсонська область	Нова Каховка	Херсонская область	Новая Каховка
8040100000	8040100431	UKR Kherson region	UKR Kherson region Kherson	Херсонська область	Херсон	Херсонская область	Херсон
8040100000	8040100532	UKR Kherson region	UKR Kherson region Tsiurupynsk	Херсонська область	Цюрупинськ	Херсонская область	Цюрупинск
8040100000	8040109632	UKR Kherson region	UKR Kherson region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Херсонська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Херсонская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040100000	8040109704	UKR Kherson region	UKR Kherson region A village (less than 10,000)	Херсонська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Херсонская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040100000	8040109805	UKR Kherson region	UKR Kherson region Rural area	Херсонська область	Сільська місцевість	Херсонская область	Сельская местность
8040110000	8040110132	UKR Khmelnytsky region	UKR Khmelnytsky region Kamianets-Podilskyi	Хмельницька область	Кам'янець-Подільський	Хмельницкая область	Каменец-Подольский
8040110000	8040110232	UKR Khmelnytsky region	UKR Khmelnytsky region Netishyn	Хмельницька область	Нетешин	Хмельницкая область	Нетешин
8040110000	8040110332	UKR Khmelnytsky region	UKR Khmelnytsky region Slavuta	Хмельницька область	Славута	Хмельницкая область	Славута
8040110000	8040110432	UKR Khmelnytsky region	UKR Khmelnytsky region Starokostiantyniv	Хмельницька область	Старокостянтинів	Хмельницкая область	Староконстантинов
8040110000	8040110531	UKR Khmelnytsky region	UKR Khmelnytsky region Khmelnytskyi	Хмельницька область	Хмельницький	Хмельницкая область	Хмельницкий
8040110000	8040110632	UKR Khmelnytsky region	UKR Khmelnytsky region Shepetivka	Хмельницька область	Шепетівка	Хмельницкая область	Шепетовка
8040110000	8040119632	UKR Khmelnytsky region	UKR Khmelnytsky region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Хмельницька область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Хмельницкая область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040110000	8040119704	UKR Khmelnytsky region	UKR Khmelnytsky region A village (less than 10,000)	Хмельницька область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Хмельницкая область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040110000	8040119805	UKR Khmelnytsky region	UKR Khmelnytsky region Rural area	Хмельницька область	Сільська місцевість	Хмельницкая область	Сельская местность
8040030000	8040030232	UKR Cherkasy region	UKR Cherkasy region Vatutine	Черкаська область	Ватутіно	Черкасская область	Ватутино
8040030000	8040030332	UKR Cherkasy region	UKR Cherkasy region Zolotonosa	Черкаська область	Золотоноша	Черкасская область	Золотоноша
8040030000	8040030432	UKR Cherkasy region	UKR Cherkasy region Kaniv	Черкаська область	Канів	Черкасская область	Канев
8040030000	8040030532	UKR Cherkasy region	UKR Cherkasy region Smila	Черкаська область	Сміла	Черкасская область	Смела

ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ua-UA	Translation ru-UA	Translation ru-UA
8040030000	8040030632	UKR Cherkasy region	UKR Cherkasy region Uman	Черкаська область	Умань	Черкасская область	Умань
8040030000	8040030131	UKR Cherkasy region	UKR Cherkasy region Cherkasy	Черкаська область	Черкаси	Черкасская область	Черкассы
8040030000	8040039632	UKR Cherkasy region	UKR Cherkasy region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Черкаська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Черкасская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040030000	8040039704	UKR Cherkasy region	UKR Cherkasy region A village (less than 10,000)	Черкаська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Черкасская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040030000	8040039805	UKR Cherkasy region	UKR Cherkasy region Rural area	Черкаська область	Сільська місцевість	Черкасская область	Сельская местность
8040050000	8040050232	UKR Chernivtsi region	UKR Chernivtsi region Novodnistrovsk	Чернівецька область	Новодністровськ	Черновицкая область	Новоднестровск
8040050000	8040050132	UKR Chernivtsi region	UKR Chernivtsi region Chernivtsi	Чернівецька область	Чернівці	Черновицкая область	Черновцы
8040050000	8040059632	UKR Chernivtsi region	UKR Chernivtsi region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Чернівецька область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Черновицкая область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040050000	8040059704	UKR Chernivtsi region	UKR Chernivtsi region A village (less than 10,000)	Чернівецька область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Черновицкая область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040050000	8040059805	UKR Chernivtsi region	UKR Chernivtsi region Rural area	Чернівецька область	Сільська місцевість	Черновицкая область	Сельская местность
8040040000	8040040232	UKR Chernihiv region	UKR Chernihiv region Bachmac	Чернігівська область	Бахмач	Черниговская область	Бахмач
8040040000	8040040332	UKR Chernihiv region	UKR Chernihiv region Nizyn	Чернігівська область	Ніжин	Черниговская область	Нежин
8040040000	8040040432	UKR Chernihiv region	UKR Chernihiv region Pryluky	Чернігівська область	Прилуки	Черниговская область	Прилуки
8040040000	8040040131	UKR Chernihiv region	UKR Chernihiv region Chernihiv	Чернігівська область	Чернігів	Черниговская область	Чернигов
8040040000	8040049632	UKR Chernihiv region	UKR Chernihiv region A small city (10,000 - 100,000)	Чернігівська область	Невелике місто (10,000 - 100,000)	Черниговская область	Небольшой город (10,000 - 100,000)
8040040000	8040049704	UKR Chernihiv region	UKR Chernihiv region A village (less than 10,000)	Чернігівська область	Смт, село (10,000 і менше)	Черниговская область	Пгт, село (10,000 или менее)
8040040000	8040049805	UKR Chernihiv region	UKR Chernihiv region Rural area	Чернігівська область	Сільська місцевість	Черниговская область	Сельская местность

### 3.4. List of languages

Below, a list of the languages used in Ukraine and designed for use in the web-survey, can be found.

Table 15. List of languages in Ukraine (by 1/1/2009)

Ru_AU	Source label	Translation ru_AU
804001	UKR Ukrainian	Украинский
804002	UKR Russian	Русский
804998	UKR Local dialect	местном диалекте
804999	UKR Other language	другой язык

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# What is WageIndicator?

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

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

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

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

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



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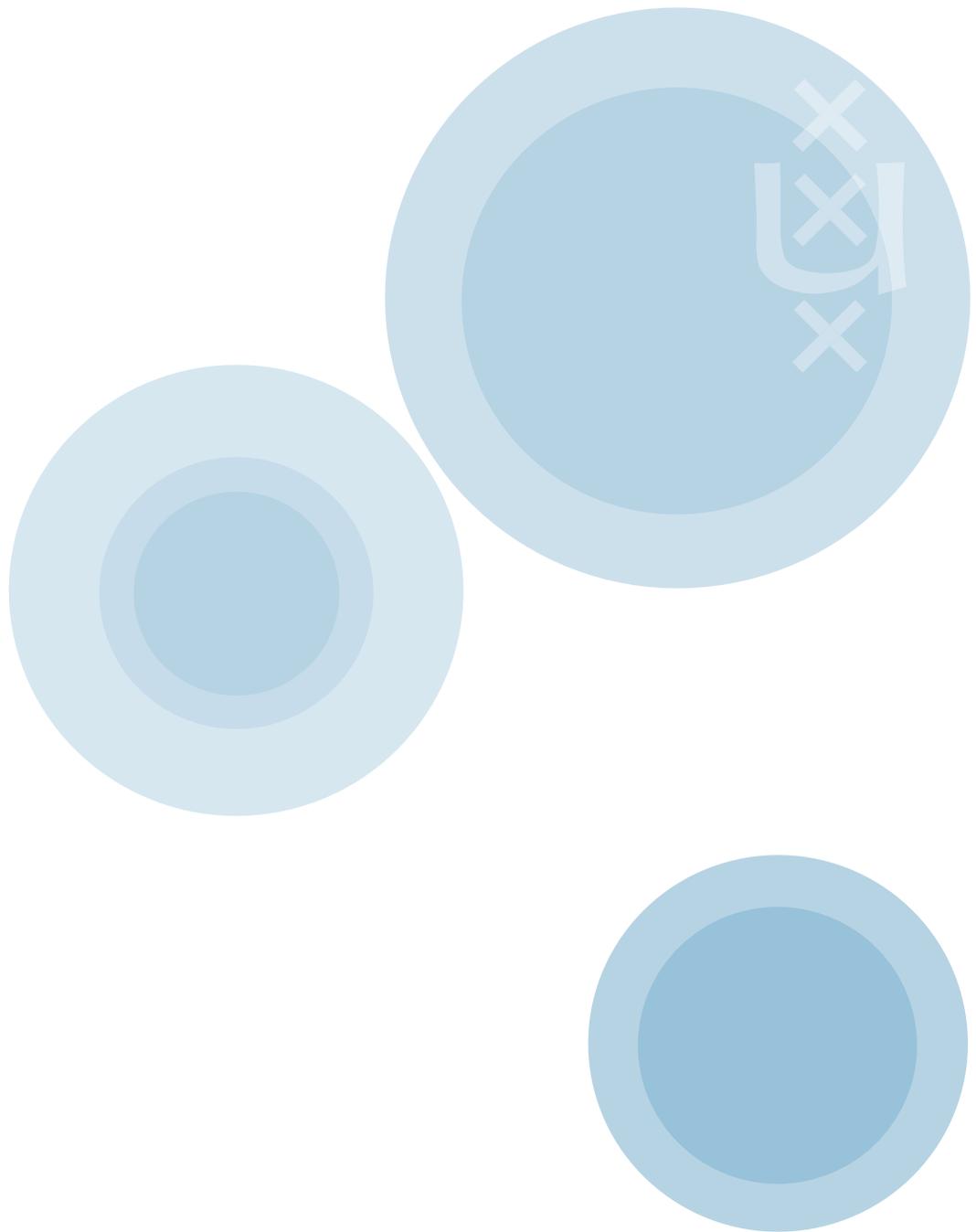
## Information about AIAS

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

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

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

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



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