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LABOR MARKETS IN EASTERN EUROPE AND EURASIA

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Abstract: This research attempts to look systematically at the available data regarding labor market characteristics of the transition in Eastern Europe and Eurasia. A primary focus is the examination of the data in light of a World Bank working hypothesis that "there are signs of an emerging divide between labor markets in the transition economies of Eastern Europe and those of low-income Eurasian countries." We find significant labor market gaps and differences between the CEE countries (particularly the Northern Tier CEE) and Eurasia but mixed evidence at best that these gaps are growing. We also find that there remain some key challenges and adverse trends in labor markets even among the Northern Tier CEE countries.

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Summary

This research attempts to look systematically at the available data regarding labor market characteristics of the transition in Eastern Europe and Eurasia. A primary focus is the examination of the data in light of a World Bank working hypothesis that "there are signs of an emerging divide between labor markets in the transition economies of Eastern Europe and those of low-income Eurasian countries." Our analysis first includes an examination of broad transition trends in the labor markets compared to trends in other parts of the world. We then proceed to examine the evidence in terms of generalized labor market differences among the key sub-regions in the transition: Northern Tier CEE vs. Southern Tier CEE vs. Eurasian countries (and within Eurasia, the low-income countries).

1. Salient labor market characteristics of the transition region vs. rest of the world.

The ILO tracks global employment trends annually, and compares data in the transition region (of the Southern Tier CEE and Eurasia countries) with other parts of the world (where the Northern Tier CEE countries are included in the Developed (OECD) Country classification). These data show that the transition countries have among the lowest employment to population ratio worldwide: 52% in 2005 (for the Southern Tier CEE and Eurasian transition countries), well below the global average of 61% and less than all other regions in the world except the Middle East and North Africa (46%). Since the early 1990s, the transition region has experienced the largest percentage drop in this ratio worldwide (11% drop from 1993-2005 vs. a global trend of a 3% decrease).

This low and falling employment to population ratio in the region is consistent with very significant "jobless growth" that has prevailed in many of the transition countries. One half of the twenty-two transition countries (for which data exist) have actually experienced a decline in employment levels on average during the recent years of economic growth. This has included Northern Tier CEE countries (Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, Slovakia, and the Czech Republic), Southern Tier CEE countries (Albania, Bulgaria, and Romania), and Eurasian countries (Armenia, Moldova, and the Kyrgyz Republic).

The proportion of the working poor in Eastern Europe and Eurasia (less the Northern Tier CEE countries) increased from 32% in 1995 to 35% in 2000, but subsequently plummeted to 12.5% by 2005. The proportion of working poor has dropped from 1995 to 2005 in all other developing regions of the world (except Sub-Saharan Africa), though nowhere near the order of magnitude as experienced in the transition region. Moreover, the proportion of working poor in the transition region is far below levels found in the developing world, which range from 32% in Latin America and the Caribbean to 87% in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa.

Across all three primary economic sectors (agriculture, industry, and services), women in the labor force as a percent of total labor force in each sector in the transition region is greater than the world average; equal to the proportion of female workers in the developed economies in the service sector, and notably higher in agriculture and industry.

On average, youth unemployment rates are 2.2 times higher than national averages in the transition region. This is also very close to the order of magnitude in Western Europe, though a key difference is that the youth unemployment rates in CEE and Eurasia are much higher in absolute terms. Drawing from data as far back as 2001, youth unemployment rates have been 30% or greater in Bosnia-Herzegovina, Serbia, Macedonia, Poland, Slovakia, Georgia and (female youth only) in Estonia. Youth unemployment rates are highest relative to national averages among females in Serbia (3.9 ratio in 2002), Estonia (3.3 in 2003), and Russia (2.9 in 2001), and among males in Serbia (3.2 ratio in 2002), Romania (3.0 in 2004), the Czech Republic (2.8 in 2004), and Bosnia-Herzegovina (greater than 3.0 ratio in 2002-03 both genders combined).

Long-term unemployment in the region is very high and may still be increasing in a number of countries. In fourteen of nineteen countries for which data are available, roughly fifty percent or more of the unemployed have been unemployed for a year or more (at least through the early 2000s, latest data available). Nine of eighteen transition countries have had a notable increase in long-term unemployment as a percent of total unemployed since 1995; only five have had a clear decrease. Long term unemployment is also very high in some countries in Western Europe, though not as high. During 2002-2004, it was 49% in Germany, 38% in France, 34% in Spain, 21% in UK, and 19% in Sweden. In Japan, it was 27% in 2000-01; in the U.S., only 6%.

2. Significant labor market gaps and differences between transition countries

In the CEE countries, labor market adjustments have been significant in terms of both price changes (real wages) and quantity changes (employment). In contrast, the lion's share of labor market adjustments in Eurasia has been through the price mechanism, through real wages. There has been very little change in formal employment levels in Eurasia, all the more extraordinary given the tremendous changes in economic output.

We calculated the total sum of the labor market price and quantity changes since 1990 by summing the average annual changes in real wages and employment levels in absolute terms. By this measure, the Eurasian countries have experienced much greater changes in the labor markets during the transition than the CEE countries. The low-income Eurasian countries have experienced the most changes, particularly Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, and the three Caucasus countries. These findings are broadly consistent with the scope of changes in economic output across the transition region since the collapse of communism; that is, where economic output collapsed the most and often subsequently recovered the most, one finds parallels with the scope of change in the labor markets.

We also calculated how the total labor market change has been distributed between the price and quantity adjustments and found very different results according to sub-regions. In Eurasia, 88% of the labor market adjustments occurred in the price dimension, and

only 12% in quantity changes. The distribution in CEE was closer to 75% in real wages and 25% in employment. The extremes are found in Azerbaijan and Tajikistan at one end (where 95% or more of the total changes occurred via real wages) and Macedonia at the other end (where almost 40% of the total changes occurred in employment).

With very little change in employment levels in Eurasia (alongside very significant changes in real wages and output), one might expect the existence of a large informal sector economy. The available estimates of informal sector employment and output are consistent with this observation. Estimates of informal sector employment in Eurasia range from 36% to 45% of total employment; perhaps twice the amount in the Northern Tier CEE countries (22%) and much greater than that found in the Southern Tier CEE countries as well (31%). It is estimated that informal employment is 17% of total employment in the OECD countries.

Self-employment is also highest in Eurasia, though estimates vary widely by source. One source (Eurostat) has self-employment in Eurasia to be 37% of total employment in 2002 on average (of nine countries). However, the range in estimates across the Eurasian countries is very large, from less than 10% in Belarus and Russia to at least 50% in the each of the Caucasus, in Armenia, Georgia, and Azerbaijan, as well as in the Kyrgyz Republic. According to the Eurostat data, self-employment in the Northern Tier CEE (at 17% of total employment) is about one-half the Eurasia level. Eurostat reports self-employment data for only one Southern Tier CEE, Romania at 40%.

UNECE estimates that self-employment in 2005 is roughly half the level reported by Eurostat (in 2002): 17% in Eurasia on average (for seven countries), ranging from 1% in Belarus and 5% in Russia, to 33% in Moldova. This contrasts with 9% in the Northern Tier CEE, ranging from 6% in Estonia to 17% in Poland. The Southern Tier CEE sample consists of four countries: 14% on average, ranging from 9% in Bulgaria and Macedonia to 20% in Romania.

In contrast to self-employment trends, employment in small and medium enterprises (SMEs) is much greater in the CEE, particularly in the Northern Tier CEE, than in Eurasia. SME employment (as % of total employment) in 2001 in CEE (at more than 50%) is more than twice that found in Eurasia (at 25%). There are some outliers in Eurasia: the Kyrgyz Republic at 59%; Turkmenistan at 60% and Uzbekistan at 50%. The Eurasian average minus these three outliers is 15%.

Four of the five most unequal transition countries in terms of wage inequality are Eurasian. Azerbaijan has the most unequal wage distribution of all the seventeen countries for which sufficient data exist, followed by Russia, Armenia, Estonia, and Moldova. At the other extreme, Macedonia has the most equal wage distribution, followed by all the Northern Tier CEE countries, except Estonia. Estonia, hence, is very much the Northern Tier CEE outlier on this dimension.

The sectoral share of employment (that is, employment in agriculture, services, and industry) in the Northern Tier CEE countries is much closer to advanced country norms

than is both the Southern Tier CEE and Eurasian countries. Employment in agriculture in the Northern Tier CEE is less than 10% of total employment; in services, around 60%. Employment in agriculture in Eurasia and the Southern Tier CEE countries is greater than 30% of total employment; employment in services closer to 50%. In the EU-15, agriculture employment is 5% of total employment and services employment is close to 70%.

On average, tertiary enrollments in the Northern Tier CEE countries is two times the enrollment rates in the Southern Tier CEE and Eurasia (58% vs. 29% and 29% in 2004).

3. Evidence of growing gaps between transition countries is mixed at best.

(a) Where the evidence does support growing gaps:

Research & development persons (and labor skills). Out of a sample of nineteen transition countries, only the eight Northern Tier CEE countries and Armenia have witnessed an increase in research and development persons per million inhabitants from the early transition years. All four Southern Tier CEE countries witnessed a decrease (Romania, Bulgaria, and Croatia by about 30%; Serbia and Montenegro by 6%). Six Eurasian countries also witnessed a decrease: Azerbaijan and Moldova by roughly 50%; Belarus, Ukraine, and the Kyrgyz Republic ranging from around 20-30%; and Russia by 7%.

Sectoral changes. The gap between the Northern Tier CEE countries and the rest of the transition countries has increased in regards to the structural changes in employment by economic sectors. Employment in agriculture as a percent of total employment decreased in the Northern Tier CEE since 1990 by 5%, and increased by 5% in the Southern Tier CEE and 8% in Eurasia. Only in the Northern Tier CEE has there been a notable proportionate increase in employment in services since the beginning of the transition.

(b) Where the data don't support growing gaps

Real wages. Real wages have been increasing in recent years in all the transition countries. Most transition countries had real wages reach a minimum in the early or mid 1990s; by 1999, all had real wages recovering from a fall. Still the level of real wages in 2003 (most recent data available) relative to 1989 levels varies greatly across the countries. Moreover, most countries as of 2003 have still not attained pre-transition real wage levels. In the nineteen transition countries for which data are available from 1989 to 2003, only five countries had real wages in 2003 which equaled or exceeded 1989 levels: the Czech Republic; Poland; and Hungary in the Northern Tier CEE; and Georgia and Azerbaijan in Eurasia. Most recent real wages relative to 1989 wages are lowest far and away in Tajikistan (28% in 2003) and Uzbekistan (29% in 2002); they also remain very low in Armenia (54%), Bulgaria (55%), and Macedonia (56%).

Wage inequalities. Roughly one-half of the sixteen countries for which time series are available have recently been experiencing a fall in wage inequality. There does not seem to be a discernable pattern by level of inequality: some of the most unequal economies have been experiencing a decline (Moldova, the Kyrgyz Republic, and possibly Russia); but so too some of the most equal (Macedonia and Slovenia). However, a much smaller proportion of Northern Tier CEE countries has been witnessing a decline in wage inequality than has the Eurasian countries: two out of seven Northern Tier CEE countries vs. five out of seven in Eurasia.

Domestic disparities in unemployment rates. The data series show mixed or unclear results, generally between the results from the two statistical techniques employed. Only three countries showed a clear trend of increasing disparities in regional unemployment rates: the Czech Republic, Russia, and Ukraine. In only one country, Slovakia, was there consistent evidence of disparity levels being higher than the OECD comparators. In only three countries, Poland, Romania, and Lithuania, was there consistent evidence of disparity levels being within range of the three comparison countries in the West (France, Spain, and the USA).

Informal sector employment. There is insufficient data to gauge trends over time in informal sector employment.

Self-employment. There are only nine countries for which data exist from which to make meaningful observations about time trends in self-employment (i.e., where there are more than three years of observations from the same data source). All are CEE countries. Four countries have witnessed declining self-employment as a percent of total employment from 2001 to 2005: Romania from 24% to 20%; and Poland, from 19% to 17%; Bulgaria, from 10% to 8.6%; and Slovenia, 8.1% to 6.9%. Two countries have witnessed increases during this time period: Slovakia from 6% to 9%; and Croatia, from 14% to 18%. Two countries have witnessed no notable change from 2001-2005: Latvia, and the Czech Republic.

Tertiary enrollments (and labor skills). Most of the transition countries have been witnessing rising tertiary enrollments (all but Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Azerbaijan, and Tajikistan) and virtually all of these countries which have been experiencing rising enrollments (all but Armenia) have been experiencing these increases since the early years of the transition (anywhere from 1989 to 1994).

Functional literacy. All eight Northern Tier CEE countries have functional literacy rates comparable to OECD rates. Among this group, the Czech Republic scores the highest (at 101 where the OECD score is 100); Slovenia the lowest (ninety-six). In stark contrast, functional literacy in the Southern Tier CEE countries is much lower, though the cross-country range is large. Of the five countries for which data are available, these rates are far and away the lowest in Albania (74% of OECD levels) and Macedonia (82% of OECD norms); higher in Serbia & Montenegro (88%) and Romania (91%), highest in the Southern Tier CEE in Bulgaria (94%). In the three Eurasia countries for which data are available, these scores range from 90% in Armenia to 91% in Moldova to 97% in Russia.

Armenia and Moldova scores are roughly comparable to Southern Tier CEE standards; Russia's scores are comparable to Northern Tier CEE.

Growth elasticity of employment. As previously noted, one half of the twenty-two transition countries (for which data exist) have actually experienced a decline in employment levels on average during the recent years of economic growth. This has included Northern Tier CEE countries (Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, Slovakia, and the Czech Republic), Southern Tier CEE countries (Albania, Bulgaria, and Romania), and Eurasian countries (Armenia, Moldova, and the Kyrgyz Republic).

Unemployment. Overall, unemployment data show very wide ranging results across the transition region, both in terms of the magnitude of unemployment rates and trends over time. Nor is there clear differentiation between sub-regions. Nine transition countries have been experiencing falling unemployment rates and eight countries still experiencing rising unemployment rates. Countries with unemployment rates falling into the single digit range include Estonia, Kazakhstan, Ukraine, and Russia. Countries with low (i.e. single digit) but rising unemployment rates include Moldova, the Czech Republic, and Romania. Poland and Slovakia are two Northern Tier CEE countries with very high and rising unemployment rates (closer to 20%). Macedonia and Armenia have the highest unemployment rates (above 30%), and these rates have been rising.

(c) Where the gaps are "reversed" (and CEE lags behind Eurasia)

Perceived labor market constraints. On average, labor market constraints are viewed relatively more severe among Northern Tier CEE businesses than elsewhere in the transition: 12% of Northern Tier CEE businesses view labor skills to be a major constraint to doing business vs. 9% in the Southern Tier CEE and 10% in Eurasia. Labor skills as a major constraint is perceived to be highest in Ukraine (20% of businesses in Ukraine deemed it as such), the Kyrgyz Republic (19%), Latvia (18%), and Lithuania and Poland (both 15%). It is lowest in Armenia and Azerbaijan (2%), Bosnia-Herzegovina (4%), Uzbekistan, Tajikistan, and Slovenia (5%). In addition, as with labor market skills, more businesses in the Northern Tier CEE view labor market regulations as a major constraint (11%) than do businesses in Eurasia (4%) or the Southern Tier CEE (8%).

Labor market rigidities. Consistent with business perceptions, labor market rigidities are higher in the CEE countries than they are in Eurasia. Three types of rigidities from the standpoint of businesses are measured (by the World Bank's Doing Business series): difficulty in hiring; rigidities in employment; and difficulty in firing. An average of the three measures reveals that labor market rigidities are highest in Latvia, Estonia, and Slovenia and lowest in Georgia, Kazakhstan, and Belarus.

Tax burden on labor. The tax burden (or tax wedge which includes payroll taxes and income taxes) is much higher in the CEE countries than it is in Eurasia. The range is very significant, from under 30% of gross wages in Armenia, Kazakhstan, and Tajikistan, to close to 50% or more in Montenegro, the Czech Republic, Romania, and Hungary.

Introduction¹

This research attempts to look systematically at the available data regarding labor market characteristics of the transition in Eastern Europe and Eurasia. The primary thrust is an attempt to explore more systematically two mutually exclusive working hypotheses that emerge from an analysis by World Bank researchers, *Enhancing Job Opportunities in Eastern Europe and the Former Soviet Union* (2005) about the large cross-country differences in labor market developments in the transition region.

The primary hypothesis is that "there are signs of an emerging divide between labor markets in the transition economies of Eastern Europe and those of low-income Eurasian countries." [According to the World Bank analysts], "labor markets in Eastern European transition economies in many respects resemble those in developed economies of Europe, in both positive (for example, productivity growth) and negative aspects (for example, high and stagnant unemployment). In contrast, labor markets in low-income Eurasian countries seem to have become similar to those in other low-income countries, with typical characteristics such as the dominant informal sector, underemployment and low-productivity employment."

The secondary hypothesis is that all the transition countries are going through the same transition process, though country progress is differentiated by (at least) three primary stages: (1) some countries are in stage one characterized by high employment and low open unemployment; (2) others are in stage two characterized by low employment and higher unemployment; and (3) some are at stage three with the resumption of rising employment and falling unemployment.³

Are the transition countries following one transition path or two separate paths regarding labor market trends, largely differentiated by a CEE-Eurasia divide? This question has relevance in other transition dimensions as well. Life expectancy trends continue to suggest a large and growing health gap between CEE and Eurasia. Eurasian "color revolutions" notwithstanding, the democratization gap between CEE and Eurasia is also very large and still growing.

We proceed below by first comparing several broad labor market characteristics in the transition region with other country groups worldwide. How do labor market characteristics of the transition countries as a whole compare with labor market characteristics in the industrialized economies and in the developing economies? We then proceed to examine the two working hypotheses by analyzing labor market trends within the transition region by trying to assess which countries and in which dimensions are labor market trends and outcomes comparable to OECD norms or approaching these norms or, conversely, closer to developing country standards and/or approaching those standards. To do so, we examine five areas: (1) employment and unemployment trends, including youth unemployment and long-term unemployment rates; (2) real wages and

¹ Thanks to Liz McKeon, Luba Fajfer, and Hugh Haworth for very helpful feedback on earlier versions of this research.

² Rutkowski et al., World Bank (2005), p. 102.

³ Ibid, p. 99.

their inter-relations with employment and output; (3) structural changes in the labor markets, including private sector vs. public sector employment, formal vs. informal, employment in agriculture vs. services; (4) labor skills and constraints, including the relationship between the two; and (5) labor market reforms, including labor regulations and labor costs due to government intervention.

Transition country labor markets vs. rest of the world

One of the most basic labor market indicators is the proportion of a country's population which is employed, the employment to population ratio (*Table 1*). For worldwide comparisons, we draw from the International Labour Office (ILO) data and calculations which define the transition economies to include the Southern Tier CEE countries and Eurasian countries; the eight Northern Tier CEE countries are part of the developed economies.

The ILO's estimates of the employment to population ratio across the world and over time show the transition economies (of the Southern Tier CEE and Eurasia) to be very distinct from the developed and the developing economies. In 2005, 52% of the population in the transition countries was employed. This is far below the world average (of 61%) and hence well below most all of the regions worldwide, including that of the industrialized countries (of 56%). Only the Middle East and North Africa region had a lower employment to population ratio (of 46%) in 2005 than did the transition countries.

Of equal note, is a comparison of the trends in the employment ratio across the globe over time. Most world country groups show considerable stability in the proportion of the population employed since (at least) the early 1990s, and most showed a small increase; this includes the industrialized countries. In contrast, two regions saw a substantial decrease in the proportion of the population employed from 1993 to 2005. East Asia went from an extremely high 78% employment to population ratio in 1993 to a still very high ratio of 72% in 2005, a percentage decrease of 8%. The largest percentage decrease occurred in the transition countries, from 59% in 1993 to 52% in 2005 or a percentage decrease of over 11%. The transition countries, i.e., have one of the lowest employment to population ratios which has been facilitated by the most significant drop in this ratio since 1993.

Table 2 shows the share of employment by sector (agriculture, industry, and services) by world country groups, 1995 vs. 2005, and the percentage of female employment in each sector relative to total employment. In this set of data, one does not see as much change (and development) in the Southern Tier CEE and Eurasian countries as befits a region going through transformational changes on other dimensions. The share of employment

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⁴ Key definitions used throughout this paper include: (1) working-age population: 15-64 years; (2) labor force: employed plus unemployed (aged 15+); (3) labor force participation rate: labor force 15-64 as a percentage of working age population; (4) employment rate: employed 15-64 as a percentage of working age population; (5) employment to population ratio: employed 15-64 as a percentage of total population; (6) unemployment rate: unemployed as a percentage of the labor force.

in agriculture has fallen and the share of employment in services has increased from 1995 to 2005, but not greatly, and not as much as it has in other parts of the world. Moreover, these structural changes lag far behind developed economy norms. Twenty-three percent of employment in the Southern Tier CEE and Eurasia in 2005 remained in agriculture vs. 4% in the developed economies. Fifty percent of employment in the Southern Tier CEE and Eurasia in 2005 was in services vs. 71% in the developed economies. These Eastern Europe and Eurasia sectoral shares compare closest to middle-income developing countries, in particular to the Middle East and North Africa countries and the Latin America and the Caribbean countries.

Across all three sectors, women in the labor force as a percent of total labor force in that sector in the transition region is greater than the world averages. This proportion is highest in employment in services: 53% of the work force in the transition region in services is female (only the developed economies have a proportion as high). Forty-five percent of transition workers in agriculture are female; only East Asia, at 47%, has a higher proportion. Thirty-three percent of transition workers in industry are female, which is also one of the highest proportions (only East Asia, at 40%, and South-East Asia, at 36%, have higher proportions).

The ILO also provides estimates of the "working poor" as a share of total employed throughout the developing and transition country world (*Table 3*). The numbers for Eastern Europe and Eurasia (less the Northern Tier CEE) stand out. With poverty defined as \$2 dollars or less a day, almost half of the working world (48.4%) was considered poor in 2005. However, poverty as so defined in the transition region was much lower, at 12.5%, than this world average and hence much lower than the developing countries (where poverty ranges from 32% in Latin America and the Caribbean to 87% in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia). What is also striking in the transition region numbers vs. elsewhere is the trend over time. The proportion of the working poor in Eastern Europe and Eurasia increased from 1995 to 2000, from 32% to 35%, but subsequently plummeted to 12.5% by 2005. The proportion of working poor has dropped from 1995 to 2005 in all other developing regions of the world (except Sub-Saharan Africa), though nowhere near the order of magnitude as experienced in the transition region.

Labor market trends differentiated within the transition region.

1. Employment and unemployment. Tables 4 and 5 summarize the employment and unemployment trends of the transition region. Table 4 includes employment rates, labor force survey unemployment rates, and (in a very limited sample of countries) regional unemployment rate trends within countries. Table 5 disaggregates the unemployment rates to include female and male youth unemployment rates, and long-term unemployment rates. Tables 6-11 provide elaboration.

The summary tables attempt to take stock of both the level and trends over time in the transition countries. As part of this, we've attempted to determine whether countries are

moving in the right direction. Is the country's employment rate recovering (or at least stabilized)? Is its unemployment rate falling (or at least stabilized)? Over the duration of the transition, can minimums (of the employment rate) and maximums (of the unemployment rate) be identified? The summary assessment takes stock of these trends and attempts to group the countries into one of two categories: (1) those with employment and unemployment characteristics that are either comparable to OECD or EU standards or making appreciable progress towards those norms; and (2) those that are not getting towards those standards in any meaningful way.

Findings. *Summary findings*: (1) Even several of the Northern Tier CEE countries have not yet achieved OECD norms and are not appreciably moving towards those standards. Drawing from the indicators of *Table 4*, we find that five of the Northern Tier CEE countries are either "there" (i.e., OECD norms) or "getting there." The three exceptions are the Czech Republic, Slovakia, and Poland. When one expands the analysis to include youth and long-term unemployment (*Table 5*), one finds an even split among the Northern Tier CEE countries on the summary assessment; that is, half are there or getting there, half (including three mentioned above and Estonia) are not.

- (2) The Southern Tier CEE countries perform worse. Of the seven countries, only Bulgaria and Romania may qualify as countries that are either OECD comparable (Romania) or moving towards the OECD thresholds (Bulgaria) on these measures. Romania has an employment rate of 66% and an unemployment rate of 8%. Bulgaria has an employment rate of 61% and a relatively high unemployment rate of 12%, though down from a peak of 19.4% in 2001.
- (3) Data are less complete in the case of Eurasia and no doubt less accurate. With that caveat, the available data do suggest that more Eurasian countries are closer to the OECD thresholds (or moving towards them) on these dimensions than those countries that are not. The former group includes Russia, Belarus, and the Kyrgyz Republic on the full set of employment and unemployment indicators, and Kazakhstan, Ukraine, Georgia, and Uzbekistan on the limited set (i.e. no data are available on youth and long-term unemployment for these latter countries). However, these conclusions about employment and unemployment data should not be treated as "stand alone" conclusions. As will be shown below, to a large extent, labor markets have been adjusting differently in Eurasia than in CEE, the former adjusting more in price changes (i.e., real wages), the latter more in quantity changes (i.e. employment and unemployment). Related to that is the observation that informal employment is also much more prevalent in Eurasia than in CEE.

Tables 6-11 form the basis of the summary conclusions and data from Tables 4 and 5. Table 6 shows trends in the employment rate, or the number of employed as a percent of the working age population, 15-64 years. It shows that employment rates vary widely in the transition region, lowest in several Southern Tier CEE countries, including Serbia and Montenegro (36% in 2001), Macedonia (42% in 2003), and Albania (49% in 2003), and highest in Kazakhstan (74%), followed by Azerbaijan and the Czech Republic (71%) and Estonia and Latvia (70%). The latest data available (for 2003) show employment rates

continuing to fall in a number of countries, ranging from Eurasian countries with high employment rates (Azerbaijan and Belarus) to Southern Tier CEE countries with low employment rates (Albania and Macedonia) to a Northern Tier CEE country, Poland.

Table 7 shows the available data on unemployment rates estimated by labor force surveys. Figures 1-5 attempt to differentiate those transition countries where unemployment rates have been falling in the past several years (Figures 1 and 2) vs. those countries where unemployment rates have been rising (Figures 3-5). Overall, these data show very wide ranging results, both in terms of the magnitude of unemployment rates and trends over time. There is no clear differentiation between sub-regions. Nine transition countries have been experiencing falling unemployment rates and eight countries still experiencing rising unemployment rates. Available data are insufficient to permit an assessment of change over time in the remaining countries. Countries with unemployment rates falling into the single digit range include Estonia, Kazakhstan, Ukraine, and Russia. Countries with low (i.e. single digit) but rising unemployment rates include Moldova, the Czech Republic and Romania. Poland and Slovakia are two Northern Tier CEE countries with very high and rising unemployment rates (closer to 20%). Macedonia and Armenia have the highest unemployment rates (above 30%), and these rates have been rising.

In general, most transition countries compare very unfavorably to advanced economy unemployment rate trends. Unemployment rates in Western Europe (the EU-15) have fallen from around 10% in the mid 1990s to 7% on average in 2004 and early 2005. Of all the transition countries for which reliable and recent data exist, only Slovenia and Hungary have unemployment rates as low as the EU-15 average. Unemployment rates in the U.S. have ranged from 4-6% since 1990.

A key consideration is to what extent labor markets are adjusting differently in different regions within countries; to what extent regional disparities exist in this dimension, and are they increasing or decreasing. We draw from three sources (EBRD 2003, Huber 2006, and Rutkowski 2006) and two measures of disparity in domestic regional unemployment rates (standard deviation and coefficient of variation) (Tables 8-10). Data are limited to eleven transition countries in addition to France, Spain, and the U.S. The only Eurasian country in the sample is Russia. We tried to make two bottom line determinations from the data series: (1) is there evidence of growing or declining regional disparities in unemployment rates?; and (2) how do the level of regional disparities compare with the three OECD comparator countries? As summarized in Table 10, more often than not, the data series showed mixed or unclear results, generally between the results from the two statistical techniques. Only three countries showed a clear trend of increasing disparities in regional unemployment rates: the Czech Republic, Russia, and Ukraine. In only one country, Slovakia, was there consistent evidence of disparity levels being higher than the OECD comparators. In only three countries, Poland, Romania, and Lithuania, was there consistent evidence of disparity levels being within range of the three comparison countries in the West.

Table 11 provides youth unemployment figures, that is, the unemployment rates of 15-24 year old persons as a percent of the youth labor force. Three primary observations emerge. One, youth unemployment rates in the transition region are high by various standards. In all countries for which data are available with the exception of Belarus and the Kyrgyz Republic, youth unemployment rates are double digit and notably higher than national averages. On average, youth unemployment rates are 2.2 times higher than national averages in the transition. This is also very close to the order of magnitude in Western Europe, though a key difference is that the youth unemployment rates in CEE and Eurasia are much higher in absolute terms. Drawing from data as far back as 2001, youth unemployment rates have been 30% or greater in Bosnia-Herzegovina, Serbia, Macedonia, Poland, Slovakia, Georgia and (female youth only) in Estonia. Youth unemployment rates are highest relative to national averages among females in Serbia (3.9 ratio in 2002), Estonia (3.3 in 2003), and Russia (2.9 in 2001), and among males in Serbia (3.2 ratio in 2002), Romania (3.0 in 2004), the Czech Republic (2.8 in 2004), and Bosnia-Herzegovina (greater than 3.0 ratio in 2002-03 both genders combined).

Two, there is no general trend when comparing female youth unemployment rates with male youth unemployment rates. In roughly half the countries, female youth unemployment rates are less than male youth unemployment rates.

Three, as with national unemployment rates, country variation as regards trends over time in youth unemployment rates is significant. Of the ten countries for which data are available, four countries had youth unemployment rates higher in 2003-04 than in 1995 (Poland, Slovakia, Estonia, and the Czech Republic), four had rates lower in 2003-04 relative to 1995 (Bulgaria, Lithuania, Latvia, and Slovenia), and two had mixed results between the two sexes (Romania and Hungary).

Table 12 and Figure 6 present data on long-term unemployment rates. One is considered long-term unemployed if one is out of work (yet still in the labor force; i.e., still looking for work) for at least one year. Long-term unemployment in the region is very high and may still be increasing in a number of countries. In fourteen of nineteen countries for which data are available, roughly fifty percent or more of the unemployed have been unemployed for a year or more (at least through the early 2000s, latest data available). Nine of eighteen transition countries have had a notable increase in long-term unemployment as a percent of total unemployed since 1995; only five have had a clear decrease. Long term unemployment is also very high in some countries in Western Europe, though not as high. During 2002-2004, it was 49% in Germany, 38% in France, 34% in Spain, 21% in UK, and 19% in Sweden. In Japan, it was 27% in 2000-01; in the U.S., only 6%.

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⁵ The youth unemployment data for Bosnia-Herzegovina and Serbia come from World Bank country-specific reports. The data for Bosnia-Herzegovina are provided in a somewhat different way than the UNECE data shown in *Table 11*. Specifically, youth unemployment rates in Bosnia-Herzegovina are calculated separately for youth aged 15-18 (which in 2002 was 59% of the labor force of that age) and youth aged 19-24 (which in 2002 was 43%). In addition, self reported unemployment rates are cited; in 2003, they were 73% for youth aged 15-18 and 52% for youth aged 19-24. World Bank, Bosnia-Herzegovina (2005).

2. Wages, Employment, and Economic Growth

In broad terms, as in any market in a market economy, labor markets can adjust in one of two ways or a combination of the two, through changes in prices and/or changes in quantity. The price of labor is measured primarily by real wages; the quantity of labor is measured primarily by employment rates. Hence, an overall look at labor market adjustments in the transition region needs to include both. This is the focus in this section. We look at how and how much change has occurred in both dimensions, how they relate to each other, and how they relate to economic growth (or how responsive the labor market adjustments are to economic growth).

Figures 7-9 provide a starting point for the analysis; they show trends since the transition began in economic output, real wages, and employment for the three transition subregions. The differences in trends between the CEE countries (both Northern Tier and Southern Tier CEE) and Eurasia are striking. In the CEE countries, labor market adjustments have been significant in terms of both price (real wages) and quantity (employment). In contrast, the lion's share of labor market adjustments in Eurasia has been through the price mechanism, through real wages. There has been very little change in formal employment levels in Eurasia, all the more extraordinary given the tremendous changes in economic output. Appendix 1 shows the trends in real wages, employment and GDP for each of the transition countries.

As shown in *Table 13*, real wages have been increasing in recent years in all the transition countries. Most transition countries had real wages reach a minimum in the early or mid 1990s; by 1999, all had real wages recovering from a fall. Still the level of real wages in 2003 (most recent data available) relative to 1989 levels varies greatly across the countries. Moreover, most countries as of 2003 have still not attained pretransition real wage levels. In the nineteen transition countries for which data are available from 1989 to 2003, only five countries had real wages in 2003 which equaled or exceeded 1989 levels: the Czech Republic; Poland; and Hungary in the Northern Tier CEE; and Georgia and Azerbaijan in Eurasia. Most recent real wages relative to 1989 wages are lowest far and away in Tajikistan (28% in 2003) and Uzbekistan (29% in 2002); they also remain very low in Armenia (54%), Bulgaria (55%), and Macedonia (56%).

Table 14 and Figures 10-12 provide a closer look at the inter-relationships between real wages, employment, and economic growth. We look at the data in three ways. First, we calculated the total sum of the labor market changes since 1990; that is; the sum of the average annual changes in real wages and employment levels in absolute terms. The results are shown in the first column of Table 13 and in Figure 10. Overall, the Eurasian countries have experienced much greater changes in the labor markets during the transition than the CEE countries. By this measure, the Eurasian countries have experienced more than twice the changes than the Northern Tier CEE countries. The

low-income Eurasian countries have experienced the most changes, particularly Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, and the three Caucasus countries. Among the CEE countries, Lithuania and Albania have experienced the greatest changes. These findings are broadly consistent with the scope of changes in economic output across the transition region since the collapse of communism; that is, where economic output collapsed the most and often subsequently recovered the most, one finds parallels with the scope of change in the labor markets.

Second, we calculated how the total labor market change has been distributed between the price and quantity adjustments (*Figure 11* and columns 2 and 3 of *Table 14*). This is an attempt to more rigorously quantify the relative changes in these two dimensions. As expected we find very different results according to sub-regions. In Eurasia, 88% of the labor market adjustments occurred in the price dimension, and only 12% in quantity changes. The distribution in CEE was closer to 75% in real wages and 25% in employment. The extremes are found in Azerbaijan and Tajikistan at one end (where 95% or more of the total changes occurred via real wages) and Macedonia at the other end (where almost 40% of the total changes occurred in employment).

Third, we calculated the responsiveness of these labor market changes to economic growth (*Figure 12* and columns 4 and 5 of *Table 14*). This is comparable to the concept of elasticity of demand. For each country, from the start of when economic growth resumed, we calculated the average annual change in wages relative to that of GDP, and did the same for employment relative to GDP. A number of findings emerge. First, real wages have been much more responsive to economic growth than employment, particularly in Eurasia and the Northern Tier CEE. Second, in all but one country, real wages have increased in response to economic growth. Bulgaria is the exception. Third, and in striking contrast to the wages elasticity of growth, one half of the transition countries actually experienced declining employment levels on average during economic growth years. This adds a new dimension to the concept of "jobless growth." In other words, to date, economic growth has been accompanied by contracting employment in half of the transition countries. The most significant drops in employment relative to economic growth occurred in Moldova followed by Lithuania and Armenia.

3. Structural changes, types of employment, and wage inequality

One of the most fundamental structural changes in the transition of the labor markets has been the shift from public sector employment to private sector employment (*Table 15*). Overall, as with private sector share of GDP, there has been very significant change in this dimension. Roughly 80% of employment in the transition region in 1990 was public sector employment. By the early 2001, it was closer to 30%. Most change has occurred in the Northern Tier CEE; the least change in Eurasia.

Another key structural change to monitor is the shift in employment in the primary economic sectors, in agriculture, industry, and services. In general, the transition in the labor market should see a shift out of employment in industry and agriculture and into

services. We capture these trends by showing the sectoral share of employment in agriculture and services in *Tables 16* and *17*, and provide a summary assessment in *Table 18*. We find that all the Northern Tier CEE countries either have sectoral shares comparable to OECD or EU-15 levels or are approaching those shares. In contrast, most of the Southern Tier CEE countries are neither "there" or "getting there"; only Croatia and Serbia and Montenegro. More than one-half of Eurasian countries are not OECD comparable and/or meaningfully approaching those norms: Russia, Moldova, Belarus, and Kazakhstan, yes; the Caucasus and most of the Central Asian Republics, no.

Perhaps the most challenging aspects of the labor markets to measure concern the informal sector. *Table 19* pulls together the estimates of informal sector employment from various sources. The primary source is the work from Friedrich Schneider, though this is supplemented with World Bank country specific studies as well as a study by Yang-Ro Yoon et. al. on informal sector employment in the CIS-7 or the poorest Eurasian economies. With the exception of the study by Yoon et. al., it's not clear how these estimates are made. With that caveat in mind, one finds some consistency in the numbers from different sources, but also three significant discrepancies, in the cases of the Kyrgyz Republic, Ukraine, and Azerbaijan.

Overall, these data suggest that informal sector employment as a percent of total employment is lowest in the transition region in the Northern Tier CEE countries (22% on average) followed by the Southern Tier CEE (31%) and then Eurasia (36-45%). It is estimated that informal employment is 17% of total employment in the OECD countries.

Table 20 compares these sub-regional averages in informal sector employment with estimates of informal sector output. The relative orders of magnitude are comparable. That is, the Northern Tier CEE has the smallest informal economy in the transition region whether measured by employment or GDP followed by the Southern Tier CEE and then Eurasia. OECD's informal economy is much smaller still on both dimensions (and one-half the Northern Tier CEE in terms of informal sector output). Developing country averages in informal sector output are comparable to CEE levels. It is estimated that the Asian developing countries have informal economic output comparable in magnitude to that found in the Northern Tier CEE countries (roughly 30% of output); informal output in the African and Latin America and the Caribbean countries is slightly higher than that found in the Southern Tier CEE (43% vs. 40%). Informal sector output as a share of GDP is highest in Eurasia (51%).

Estimates of the magnitude of self-employment come from two sources: from the UNECE over two different time periods; and from Eurostat as reported in the World

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⁶ The World Bank studies of Ukraine and Serbia disaggregate informal sector employment in these countries. In Ukraine, 16% of employment is informal, though the percentage of informal employment varies widely by sector; it is much higher in construction (39%), hotels and restaurants (33%) and agriculture (32%), and much lower elsewhere including in industry (8%), transport and, communications, finance, and real estate (5%). In Serbia, the informal employment is disaggregated by region: 31% of total employment for all of Serbia, vs. 21% in Belgrade, 36% in Central Serbia and 28% in Vojvodina.

Bank's *Enhancing Job Opportunities* (*Tables 21* and 22). Many gaps and a number of apparent inconsistencies exist. The Eurostat estimates are uniformly higher than the UNECE estimates and notably higher in a number of countries.

First, the Eurostat numbers (all in 2002): self-employment is highest in Eurasia, 37% of total employment in 2002 on average (of nine countries). However, the range in estimates across the Eurasian countries is very large, from less than 10% in Belarus and Russia to at least 50% in the each of the Caucasus, in Armenia, Georgia, and Azerbaijan, as well as in the Kyrgyz Republic. According to the Eurostat data, self-employment is about one-half the Eurasia level in the Northern Tier CEE (at 17% of total employment). The range in estimates across the Northern Tier CEE countries is also large, though not as large as in Eurasia, from under 10% in Slovakia and Estonia to roughly 30% in Poland and Lithuania. Eurostat reports self-employment data for only one Southern Tier CEE, Romania at 40%.

The two UNECE series give us a time series from as early as 1993 to as recent as 2005 in some countries. According to the UNECE estimates, the Northern Tier CEE average is 9%, ranging from 6% (Estonia) to 17% (Poland). The Southern Tier CEE sample consists of four countries: 14% on average, ranging from 9% in Bulgaria and Macedonia to 20% in Romania. Self-employment is highest in Eurasia: 17% on average (for seven countries), ranging from 1% in Belarus and 5% in Russia to 33% in Moldova.

What can be said about trends over time in these self-employment data? There are only nine countries for which data exist from which to make meaningful observations about time trends (i.e., where there are more than three years of observations from the same data source). Four countries have witnessed declining self-employment as a percent of total employment from 2001 to 2005: Romania from 24% to 20%; and Poland, from 19% to 17%; Bulgaria, from 10% to 8.6%; and Slovenia, 8.1% to 6.9%. Two countries have witnessed increases during this time period: Slovakia from 6% to 9%; and Croatia, from 14% to 18%. Two countries have witnessed no notable change from 2001-2005: Latvia, and the Czech Republic.

Table 22 restates the UNECE figures of self-employment for 1993 vs. the most recent figures (anywhere from 2001 to 2005), and disaggregates them by gender. Self-employment is generally greater among men than women. The proportion of male self-employment is at least two times the proportion of the female self-employed in Macedonia, Romania, the Czech Republic, Slovenia, Estonia, and Slovakia. Moreover, in a sizable majority of countries (in nine out of fifteen countries for which data are available), the ratio of male to female self-employment has increased since 1993.

In contrast to self-employment trends, employment in small and medium enterprises (SMEs) is much greater in the CEE, particularly in the Northern Tier CEE, than in Eurasia (*Table 23*). SME employment (as % of total employment) in 2001 in CEE (at more than 50%) is more than twice that found in Eurasia (at 25%). There are some outliers: in Eurasia, the Kyrgyz Republic at 59%; Turkmenistan at 60% and Uzbekistan at 50%. The Eurasian average minus these three outliers is 15%.

Wage inequality. Three measures of wage inequality are compared: wage (or earnings) inequality (gini coefficient, UNICEF), the wage ratio of the ninth population decile to the first (or bottom) population decile (World Bank), and the minimum wage to average wage ratio (World Bank) (*Table 24*). We calculated the average rank of the inequality measures to decrease the variability of the results. We were able to draw observations on levels and trends over time in seventeen countries for which at least two inequality measures were available.

Findings. Four of the five most unequal countries are Eurasian. Azerbaijan has the most unequal wage distribution of all the seventeen countries, followed by Russia, Armenia, Estonia, and Moldova. At the other extreme, Macedonia has the most equal wage distribution, followed by all the Northern Tier CEE countries, except Estonia. Estonia, hence, is very much the Northern Tier CEE outlier on this dimension.

The World Bank estimates that wages of the ninth population decile in the OECD countries are roughly 3.3 times greater than those of the first decile. Of the sixteen transition countries where these data are available, only the Czech Republic has a lower ratio or a more equal wage distribution than the OECD average. Wage inequality in Slovenia is OECD comparable. In contrast, wage inequality in Azerbaijan by this measure is more than four times greater than the OECD norm; such inequality in Russia is almost as high.

UNICEF provides time series trends on wage inequality. From that series, we tried to identify whether wage inequality has been increasing or decreasing, whether a maximum inequality level has been reached, and when.

Roughly one-half of the sixteen countries for which time series are available have recently been experiencing a fall in wage inequality. There does not seem to be a discernable pattern by level of inequality: some of the most unequal economies have been experiencing a decline (Moldova, the Kyrgyz Republic, and possibly Russia); but so too some of the most equal (Macedonia and Slovenia). However, a much smaller proportion of Northern Tier CEE countries have been witnessing a decline in wage inequality than have the Eurasian for which data are available and trends are clear: two out of seven Northern Tier CEE countries vs. five out of seven in Eurasia. ⁷

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⁷ The World Bank in its *World Development Indicators* provides gini coefficient estimates (and decile estimates) worldwide for income inequality. This is a broader concept than wage inequality. It is nevertheless instructive to compare income inequality in the transition region with such inequality worldwide. One finds inequality estimates in the transition region to be comparable relative to OECD norms, but much lower than in some other parts of the world, in Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America and Caribbean in particular. The OECD gini coefficient average is 33 (out of a possible 100), but ranges widely from the most equal economies worldwide including Sweden (25), Denmark (25), and Norway (26), to much higher inequality in Mexico (50) and the U.S. (41). The E&E average of 32 (for 25 countries) is very close to the OECD average. In contrast, there are over 20 countries, most all in Latin America and the Caribbean or Sub-Saharan Africa with income inequalities much higher, including among the highest, Namibia at 74 (in 1993), Botswana, Lesotho, and Sierra Leone at 63, Central African Republic, Swaziland, Bolivia, Colombia, Brazil, and Paraguay, ranging from 58 to 61.

4. Education, labor skills and constraints

In this section, we attempt to analyze available data regarding key skills of the labor force and the extent to which these skills may impede the transition. Relevant data on the education and skills of the workforce are limited, though expanding. Most education data are "quantity" indicators, enrollment numbers at different levels of education and expenditures. Moreover, traditional "quality" of education indicators are generally not too revealing for the transition region. The most widely available quality or output indicator of education is the literacy rate. Literacy rates as traditionally defined are uniformly high in the transition region by world standards. The World Bank reports that adult literacy rates in the transition region averaged 99% for males and females alike in 2002. To compare, literacy rates in Latin America and the Caribbean are 91% for adult males and 90% for adult females; in South Asia, 72% and 46%, respectively.

"Functional" literacy, or how well students and adults can function in a market economy given their formal and informal education, may be a more relevant measure of the quality of education in the transition region. The conventional wisdom has been that educational aspects of human capital in the former communist countries were largely an asset going into the transition. It has also been widely perceived that the type of education in the communist countries (with emphases on memorization at the expense of analytical and critical thinking, and perhaps premature specialization if not overspecialization) may be ill-suited for the needs of a market economy.

We've identified three surveys to qualify as meaningful cross-country measures for functional literacy: PISA; PIRLS; and TIMSS. Many data gaps exist; only sixteen transition countries have participated in at least one of the three. 10 Perhaps not surprisingly, most of the data gaps exist in Eurasia; only three countries of twelve Eurasian countries have so far participated. For each survey, we compare the country score with the OECD norm, and then take the average for each of the sixteen countries across the three surveys, data permitting. Figure 13 shows the comparability in results across the three surveys as well as the data gaps (in seven of the sixteen countries, survey data are not available for one or two surveys). Most of the country results from the different surveys show little to modest range between them. Greatest variation exists in Bulgaria and Romania.

Table 25 provides the summary results. All eight Northern Tier CEE countries have functional literacy rates comparable to OECD rates. Among this group, the Czech Republic scores the highest; Slovenia the lowest. In stark contrast, functional literacy in the Southern Tier CEE countries is much lower, though the cross-country range is large.

⁸ World Bank, World Development Indicators 2006 (2006).

⁹ The Program for International Student Assessment (PISA); the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS): and the Trends in International Mathematics and Sciences Study (TIMSS). For elaboration of these surveys and an analysis of them, see Murphy, Petric, and Sprout, Education in Eastern Europe and Eurasia, USAID Working Paper Series on the Transition Countries, Number 2 (October 2005).

¹⁰ Additional countries are scheduled to participate in 2006 and 2007; by 2007, as many as twenty-five transition countries will have participated in at least one survey; i.e., all Turkmenistan and Tajikistan.

Of the five countries for which data are available, these rates are far and away the lowest in Albania (74% of OECD levels) and Macedonia (82% of OECD norms); higher in Serbia & Montenegro (88%) and Romania (91%), highest in the Southern Tier CEE in Bulgaria (94%). In the three Eurasia countries for which data are available, these scores range from 90% in Armenia to 91% in Moldova to 97% in Russia. Armenia and Moldova scores are roughly comparable to Southern Tier CEE standards; Russia's scores are comparable to Northern Tier CEE.

As shown in *Figure 14*, tertiary enrollment rates and functional literacy rates generally "move together", albeit in a non-linear fashion (i.e., at some level of tertiary enrollment, around 50%, further increases in enrollment is generally not accompanied by increasing functional literacy). Hence, tertiary enrollments would seem to be a rough proxy for the quality of education (at least in countries with lower levels of human capital).

Table 26 and Figures 15-18 show the data on tertiary enrollments over time. Most of the transition countries have been witnessing rising tertiary enrollments (all but Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Azerbaijan, and Tajikistan) and virtually all of these countries which have been experiencing rising enrollments (all but Armenia) have been experiencing these increases since the early years of the transition (anywhere from 1989 to 1994). However, there remains a very large range in tertiary enrollment rates, even within the three sub-regions. In the Northern Tier CEE, these enrollments range from 36% in Slovakia and 44% in the Czech Republic to 80% in Slovenia. In the Southern Tier CEE, the range is from 19% in Albania to 34-36% in Croatia, Bulgaria, and Romania. In Eurasia, the range is from 8% in Uzbekistan, 13-14% in Azerbaijan and Tajikistan, to 45-47% in Ukraine, Belarus, Kazakhstan, and Russia. On average, tertiary enrollments in the Northern Tier CEE countries is two times the enrollment rates in the Southern Tier CEE and Eurasia (58% vs. 29% and 29% in 2004).

The World Bank provides data on research and development persons (per million inhabitants) which gives us one measure of the size of the skilled labor force across the countries and over time (*Table 27*). The range of the number of research and development (R&D) persons as a percent of the population is very large worldwide, from 2,607 per million in the EMU, to 663 in East Asia and the Pacific, to 119 in South Asia, and likely lower still in Sub-Saharan Africa (where no sufficient data exist to provide a regional average) . There are 4,484 R&D persons per million in the United States. The highest proportion worldwide is in Finland at 6,000; among the lowest in countries in Burkina Faso (17), Uganda (24) and Congo (30).

The number of R&D persons per million inhabitants in the Northern Tier CEE is 1,908, ranging from under 1,500 in Hungary and Latvia, to slightly over 2,500 per million in Slovenia and Estonia. Hence, even the highest country estimates in the Northern Tier CEE fall short of the EMU average (of 2,607). The Southern Tier CEE average (of four countries) in R&D persons at 1,142 is much below the Northern Tier CEE average. The Southern Tier CEE range is from roughly 1,000 in Serbia and Montenegro and Romania, to 1,300 in Croatia and Bulgaria. The Eurasian average of nine countries of R&D persons at 1,505 per million falls somewhere in between the Northern Tier and Southern

Tier averages. The Eurasian average ranges widely, from 172 in Moldova, 406 in the Kyrgyz Republic and 629 in Kazakhstan, to 3,319 in Russia (the highest proportion of all the transition countries).

Out of a sample of nineteen transition countries, only the eight Northern Tier CEE countries and Armenia have witnessed an increase in R&D persons per million inhabitants from the early transition years. All four Southern Tier CEE countries witnessed a decrease (Romania, Bulgaria, and Croatia by about 30%; Serbia and Montenegro by 6%). Six Eurasian countries also witnessed a decrease: Azerbaijan and Moldova by roughly 50%; Belarus, Ukraine, and the Kyrgyz Republic ranging from around 20-30%; and Russia by 7%.

We also draw from data regarding perceptions from businesses on major business constraints. To what extent do business managers view labor skills of their employers as a major constraint to doing business? The answers range widely across the countries (*Tables 28* and *29*). On average, however, labor constraints are viewed relatively more severe in the Northern Tier CEE countries than elsewhere in the transition: 12% of Northern Tier CEE businesses view labor skills to be a major constraint to doing business vs. 9% in the Southern Tier CEE and 10% in Eurasia. Labor skills as a major constraint is perceived to be highest in Ukraine (20% of businesses in Ukraine deemed it as such), the Kyrgyz Republic (19%), Latvia (18%), and Lithuania and Poland (both 15%). It is lowest in Armenia and Azerbaijan (2%), Bosnia-Herzegovina (4%), Uzbekistan, Tajikistan, and Slovenia (5%).

A key part in explaining the result that labor skills tend to be perceived to be more severe in the more advanced transition countries likely hinges on the fact that the assessment is relative to other perceived constraints (including policy uncertainties, government regulations and tax administration, physical infrastructure, finance, courts, crime and corruption). Moreover, in many countries that are further behind the transition than are the Northern Tier CEE, other constraints are likely more pressing. Tax rates, tax administration, policy uncertainty, finance, and corruption all tend to be perceived to be the most problematic of the eleven cited business challenges.

With that caveat in mind, we compare the scores of labor skills as a major constraint with tertiary enrollments (*Figures 19-20*) and with functional literacy (*Figures 21-22*). At least in this two dimensional display (i.e., not controlling for possible exogenous influences), it appears that the relationship between tertiary enrollment and labor skills and functional literacy and labor skills in the transition region is fundamentally at odds with the patterns observed outside the transition region. Specifically, as one might expect, as tertiary enrollment increases and functional literacy increases, labor skills as a major constraint decreases in countries outside the transition region; i.e. inverse relationships are observed (*Figures 19* and *21*). In striking contrast, if anything, it looks as if tertiary enrollments and functional literacy are positively related to labor skill constraints in the transition region (*Figures 20* and *22*).

(5) Labor market reforms

We look at three data sets to assess the extent to which government policy may be part of the solution vs. part of the problem vis-à-vis labor markets: (1) from the World Bank business surveys (and perceptions that labor market regulations are a major constraint to business); (2) labor market rigidities as defined and measured by the World Bank *Doing Business* data; and (3) tax wedges or the burden of taxes on labor.

Tables 28 and 29 show the data regarding business perceptions of labor market regulation constraints. Overall, businesses in the transition region view labor market regulations to be even less of a constraint than labor market skills. Only seven percent of businesses across the region view labor market regulations as a major constraint. This translates into the lowest constraint out of a possible eleven constraints. As with labor market skills, more businesses in the Northern Tier CEE view labor market regulations as a major constraint (11%) than do businesses in Eurasia (4%) or the Southern Tier CEE (8%).

Table 30 summarizes the measures of labor market rigidities from the World Bank's Doing Business analysis. Three indices are created (difficulty in hiring, difficulty in firing, and labor market rigidities or constraints while employed) and assessed on a 0 to 100 scale, where the lower the number, the fewer the rigidities or constraints. An average of the indices shows labor market rigidities are highest worldwide in Sub-Saharan Africa, the EU-15, and the transition region. Within the transition region, these rigidities are higher in the CEE countries than they are in Eurasia. The greatest labor market rigidities in the transition region tend to be focused on the rigidity of hours employed (and the constraints towards hiring part-time workers and time-limited contractors).

Taxes on labor include the taxes paid by employers (payroll taxes) and the taxes paid by employees (income taxes). Together, these two taxes as a percent of gross wage are referred to as the tax wedge. The higher the tax wedge, the greater the likelihood that the demand for labor may fall (due to high costs incurred by the employers) and that the supply for labor may also fall (due to high costs incurred by the employees).

Table 31 shows the range of tax wedges in the transition region. The range is very significant, from under 30% in Armenia, Kazakhstan, and Tajikistan, to close to 50% or more in Montenegro, the Czech Republic, Romania, and Hungary. The tax wedge is much higher in the CEE countries than it is in Eurasia. Finally, *Table 32* shows one aspect of the tax wedge or burden, payroll taxes as a percent of labor costs (albeit for an earlier year). These data include OECD countries for comparison and show that the tax burden is generally higher in the transition region than in (other) OECD countries.

TABLE 1. EMPLOYMENT TO POPULATION RAT	IO IN TH	IE WORL	.D		_
	4000	400-			% Change 1993-
-	1993	1995	2003	2005	2005
WORLD	63.3	62.8	62.5	61.4	-3.0
DEVELOPED ECONOMIES	55.4	55.8	56.1	56.4	1.8
TRANSITION ECONOMIES	58.8	55.5	53.5	52.1	-11.4
DEVELOPING ECONOMIES					
LATIN AMERICA & CARIBBEAN	59.3	59.2	59.3	60.9	2.7
EAST ASIA	78.1	75.2	76.6	71.7	-8.2
SOUTH-EAST ASIA	68.0	67.2	67.1	65.8	-3.2
SOUTH ASIA	57.0	58.9	57.0	57.2	0.4
MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA	45.4	44.2	46.4	46.4	2.2
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	65.6	69.0	66.0	66.7	1.7

ILO, *Global Employment Trends* (January 2006). Transition economies include Southern Tier CEE and Eurasia; Northern Tier CEE countries are part of the Developed Economies.

TABLE 2. SECTORAL SHARES IN EMPLOYMENT												
		AGRICULTURE					USTRY		SERVICE			
		Female				Female						
	1995	2005	%Change	% Total	1995	2005	%Change	% Total	1995	2005	%Change	% Total
WORLD	44	40	-10	40	21	21	0	31	35	39	13	45
DEVELOPED ECONOMIES	5	4	-27	34	29	25	-14	23	66	71	8	53
TRANSITION ECONOMIES	28	23	-19	45	28	27	0	33	45	50	12	53
DEVELOPING ECONOMIES												
EAST ASIA	54	50	-9	47	26	26	1	40	20	24	24	44
SOUTH-EAST ASIA AND THE PACIFIC	55	43	-22	39	15	21	34	36	29	36	23	48
SOUTH ASIA	64	61	-5	33	13	14	5	26	23	25	9	24
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN	23	17	-27	19	20	20	0	25	56	63	11	50
MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA	31	26	-15	25	20	25	23	18	49	49	0	27
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	70	64	-9	44	8	9	9	26	22	28	27	46

ILO, Global Employment Trends(January 2006). Transition economies include Southern Tier CEE and Eurasia; Developed economies include Northern Tier CEE.

TABLE 3: WORKING POOR*	·			
				1995-05
	1995	2000	2005	Difference
WORLD	56	53	48	-8
_				
TRANSITION ECONOMIES	32	35	13	-19
DEVELOPING ECONOMIES				
EAST ASIA	64	57	47	-17
SOUTH-EAST ASIA AND THE PACIFIC	67	62	58	-9
SOUTH ASIA	91	89	87	-4
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN	36	34	32	-4
MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA	41	40	36	-5
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	87	88	87	0

ILO, Global Employment Trends (January 2006). Transition economies include Southern Tier CEE and Eurasia;

Developed economies include Northern Tier CEE.

^{*}Workers earning US\$2 a day or less as % of total employed.

TABLE 4. EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT												
	<u>E1</u>	MPLOYMENT RA	<u>TE</u>	UNE	MPLOYMENT	RATE	REGIONAL	SUMMARY				
-		RECOVERING			FALLING OR		DISPARITIES IN	ASSESSMENT*				
-		OR STABILIZ		_	STABILIZ		UNEMPLOYMENT					
	2003	(min)	Year	2005	(max)	Year	DECREASING					
NORTHERN TIER CEE			1000			400-						
SLOVENIA	69	yes	1992	6.3	yes	1995	unclear	yes				
CZECH REPUBLIC	71	yes	2000	7.9	no	1999	no	no				
SLOVAKIA	56	yes	1999	16.4	no	2001	unclear	no				
LATVIA	70	yes		9	yes	1995	unclear	yes				
LITHUANIA	67	yes	2001	8.3	yes	2001	unclear	yes				
ESTONIA	70	yes	1999	7.9	yes	2000	unclear	yes				
HUNGARY	61	yes	1996	7.2	yes	1995	unclear	yes				
POLAND	58	no	2003	17.7	yes	2002	unclear	no				
SOUTHERN TIER CEE												
MACEDONIA	42	yes	1997	37.3	no	2004	unclear	no				
BULGARIA	61	yes	2000	9.9	yes	2001	unclear	yes (but)				
ALBANIA	49	no	2003 02-	14.2				no				
ROMANIA	66	no	03	7.7	no	2000	unclear	yes				
CROATIA	56	yes	1999	12.7	yes	2000		no				
BOSNIA HERZEGOVINA				46.6				no				
SERBIA & MONT.	36	yes	2000	20.8	no	2003		no				
_												
EURASIA												
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	69	yes	1998	7.2	yes	1999	no	yes (but)				
MOLDOVA	57	no	2003	7.3	no	2005		no				
KAZAKHSTAN	74	yes	1998	8.1	yes	2001		yes				
AZERBAIJAN	71	no	2003	1.4				maybe				
UKRAINE	68	yes	1999	7.2	yes	1999	no	yes				
BELARUS	68	no	2003	1.5				yes				
GEORGIA	67	no	1993	12.6	yes	2001		yes				
UZBEKISTAN	64	yes	2001	6				yes				
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	61	no	2003	3.3				maybe				
ARMENIA	55	yes	2001	7.6	no	2004		no				
TAJIKISTAN	52	no	2003	2.1				no				
EU15	65%			7.9								
OECD	65%											
U.S.				5.1								

UNECE, Statistical Division Database (2006) and Trends in Europe and North America (2003).

[&]quot;Yes" - at OECD standards or 'getting there'; "No" - not getting there in any meaningful way.

TABLE 5. YOUTH AND LONG TERM UNEMPLOYMENT												
		YOUTH	UNEMPI	LOYMEN	NT RATE		LONG-TER	M UNEMI	PLOYMENT	SUMMARY		
		DECRE			DECRE				ASING?	ASSESSMENT*		
	FEMALI	E (MAX)					RATE	(MAX)	YEAR			
NORTHERN TIER CEE		, ,			, ,			, ,				
SLOVENIA	18.7	no	2003	15.8	yes	1995	47	yes	2000-01	yes		
CZECH REPUBLIC	30.3	no	2004	26.0	no	2004	53	no	2002-04	no		
SLOVAKIA	36.9	yes	2001	48.9	yes	2002	72	no	2002-04	no		
LATVIA	21.3	yes	1995	16.3	yes	1995	46	yes	1996-98	yes		
LITHUANIA	43.1	maybe	2003	34.2	yes	2001	53	yes	2000-01	yes		
		•			_			-		,		
ESTONIA	32.5	no	2003	24.9	no	2004	53	no	2002-04	no		
HUNGARY	22.1	no	1995	22.9	no	1995	45	yes	1996	yes		
POLAND	44.8	no	2002	39.3	no	2002	58	no	2002-04	no		
							<u> </u>					
SOUTHERN TIER CEE												
MACEDONIA	67.1			65.3			85	no		no		
BULGARIA	32.2	yes	1995	35.5	yes	2001	60	no		maybe		
ALBANIA							92	no	2000-01	no		
ROMANIA	22.0	yes	1995	22.0	no	2002	56	no	2002-04	maybe		
CROATIA	42.0	no	2003	37.5	no	2002	54	no		no		
SERBIA	43.0			35.0			72	yes	2000	no		
EURASIA												
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	23.1			21.0			39	no		yes		
MOLDOVA	13.9			18.3			45	yes				
KAZAKHSTAN	16.8			13.7			39	yes				
AZERBAIJAN												
UKRAINE	21.8			20.1			38	yes				
	7 ^			4.0			4-					
BELARUS	7.9			4.2			17	no		yes		
GEORGIA	30.1			17.8			67	yes				
UZBEKISTAN							07					
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	3.7			2.6			37	no		yes		
ARMENIA	53.8			64.2			78	no				
TA IIIZIOTANI							25	no				
TAJIKISTAN	15.5			14.8			25	no				
EU15 OECD	12.7		2002	13.5		2002	35 32	no				
				13.5								
U.S.							13	no				
MIDDLE EAGTONS AFTIC	0.4			00								
MIDDLE EAST&NO. AFRICA				20								
LATIN AMERICA & CARIB.	23			15								
SOUTH ASIA	12			10								

UNECE, Statistical Division Database (2006) and Trends in Europe and North America (2003) and ILO.

[&]quot;Yes" - at OECD standards or 'getting there'; "No" - not getting there in any meaningful way. Drawing from indicators from Tables 4&5.

TABLE 6. EMPLOYMENT RATE (NUMBER OF EMPLOYED AS % OF 15-59 POP.)													_		
_	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
TURKMENISTAN	78	74	74	73	73	72	72	72	73	73	79		82		
KAZAKHSTAN	83	81	80	78	71	68	69	69	70	67	67	68	73	72	74
AZERBAIJAN	69	87	87	86	85	82	80	80	80	79	78	76	75	73	71
CZECH REPUBLIC	87	86	77	75	76	76	76	75	74	73	71	71	71	71	71
ESTONIA	88	87	86	82	78	77	73	73	73	72	69	69	69	70	
									=			1			
LATVIA								64	67	67	67	65	67	69	70
SLOVENIA RUSSIAN	75	72	66	63	67	67	69	69	70	71	69]	69	71	71	69
FEDERATION	84	83	82	80	78	75	72	72	70	69	69	70	70	70	69
UKRAINE	83	82	80	78	76	73	77	77	77	75	66	67	67	68	68
BELARUS	84	84	82	80	79	76	72	71	71	72	72	71	70	69	68
GEORGIA	82	84	76	60	57	59	67	73	81	75	75	75	76	69	67
LITHUANIA	84	82	84	82	80	75	74	74	73	69	68	66	63	66	67
ROMANIA	77	77	77	75	72	78	79	78	78	77	76	76	75	66	66
UZBEKISTAN	72	74	75	74	72	71	70	69	69	68	67	65	64	64	64
HUNGARY	83	83	80	71	64	60	59	58	58	58	59	60	60	60	61
HONO/ART		00	00		0.	00	00	- 00] 00	00	00	00	00	00	0.
BULGARIA	82	78	68	63	63	63	64	64	62	62	60	58	59	60	61
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	74	73	72	75	67	65	64	63	64	64	65	63	63	62	61
POLAND	75	71	67	65	63	63	64	65	66	65	64	62	60	59	58
MOLDOVA	81	80	80	79	65	65	64	63	68	73	66	66	65	64	57
SLOVAKIA	80	77	67	67	65	64	64	63	60	59	56	57	57	57	56
												l - -			
CROATIA	70		 70	70	70			56	56	56	53	58	54	54 1 50	56
ARMENIA	76	77 70	78 70	72	70	67	66	63	60	57	55	53	52	56	55
TAJIKISTAN	73	72	72	69	67	66	65	60	61	59	56	54	55	53	52
ALBANIA	75	74	74	60	57	62	60	58	57	55	54	56	50	50	49
MACEDONIA								44	41	43	43	43	46	43	42
SERBIA & MONT.							44	44	42	42	35	36	36		
BOSNIA & HERZ.															
CEE & EURASIA* NORTHERN TIER	79	79	77	73	70	69	68	66	66	65	63	63	63	63	62
CEE SOUTHERN TIER	81	79	75	72	70	69	68	68	68	67	65	65	65	65	65
CEE								57	56	56	54	55	53	55	52
EURASIA*	78	80	79	76	72	70	70	69	70	69	67	66	66	65	64

UNICEF, TransMonee Database (December 2005).

Country minimum is highlighted with boxes.

EU-15 employment rate in 2003 was 65% (World Bank, World Development Indicators (2005).

^{*} Does not include Turkmenistan.

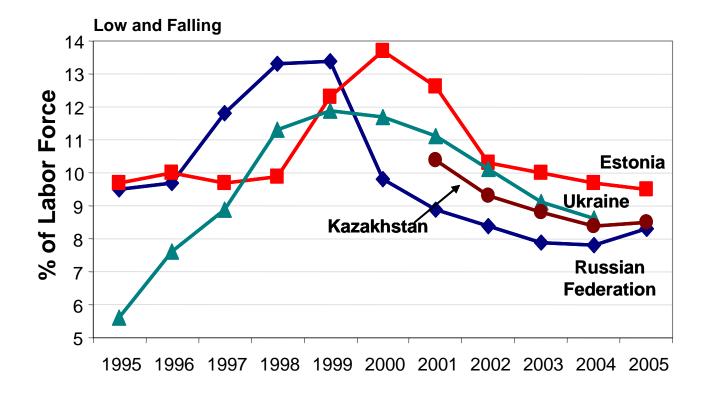
TABLE 7. LABOR FORCE S (UNEMPLOYED A												
_	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	Q1 2005
UZBEKISTAN								6.0				
SLOVENIA		7.4	7.3	7.1	7.7	7.4	7.2	5.9	5.9	6.7	6.3	6.9
HUNGARY		10.2	9.9	8.7	7.8	7.0	6.4	5.7	5.8	5.9	6.1	7.1
ROMANIA		8.0	6.7	6.0	6.3	6.8	7.1	6.6	8.4	7.0	8.0	
RUSSIAN FEDERATION		9.5	9.7	11.8	13.3	13.4	9.8	8.9		7.9	7.8	8.3
CZECH REPUBLIC		4.0	4.1	5.4	7.3	9.0	8.8	8.1	7.3	7.8	8.3	8.4
KAZAKHSTAN								10.4	9.3	8.8	8.4	8.5
UKRAINE		5.6	7.6	8.9	11.3	11.9	11.7	11.1	10.1	9.1	8.6	
ESTONIA		9.7	10.0	9.7	9.9	12.3	13.7	12.6	10.3	10.0	9.7	9.5
MOLDOVA						1.1	8.5	7.3	6.8	7.9	8.1	9.6
LATVIA		20.2	18.3	14.4	13.8	14.5	14.5	13.1	12.0	10.6	10.4	9.9
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC									12.5	9.9		
ALBANIA									10.3			
LITHUANIA		14.1	16.4	14.1	13.3	14.1	15.4	17.0	13.8	12.4	11.4	10.6
AZERBAIJAN										10.7		
BULGARIA	21.4	15.7	14.2	14.4	14.1	15.7	16.3	19.4	17.6	13.7	12.0	11.3
TAJIKISTAN						16.0			12.0			
GEORGIA							15.2	15.8	12.3	11.5	12.6	
CROATIA			10.0	9.9	11.4	13.5	16.1	15.8	14.8	14.3	13.6	
BOSNIA & HERZEGOVINA								16.1				
SLOVAKIA		13.1	11.3	11.8	12.5	16.2	18.6	19.2	18.5	17.4	18.1	17.5
POLAND	13.5	13.3	12.3	11.2	10.5	13.9	16.1	18.2	19.9	19.6	19.0	18.9
SERBIA & MONTENEGRO		13.4	13.2	13.8	13.7	13.7	12.6	12.8	13.8	20.8		
ARMENIA					27.3	24.4		31.0	29.0	31.2	31.6	
MACEDONIA			31.9	36.0	34.5	32.4	32.2	30.5	31.9	36.7	37.2	
CEE & EURASIA		11.1	12.2	12.2	13.4	13.5	13.5	14.3	13.4	13.3	13.2	10.5
NORTHERN TIER CEE		11.5	11.2	10.3	10.4	11.8	12.6	12.5	11.7	11.3	11.2	11.1
ADVANCED ECONOMIES	6.5	7.0	7.1	6.9	6.8	6.4	5.8	5.9	6.4	6.6	6.3	6.1
USA	5.6	5.6	5.4	4.9	4.5	4.2	4.0	4.8	5.8	6.0	5.5	5.3
EU-15	6.9	9.9	9.8	9.2	8.4	7.6	6.8	6.2	6.6	7.0	7.0	6.9

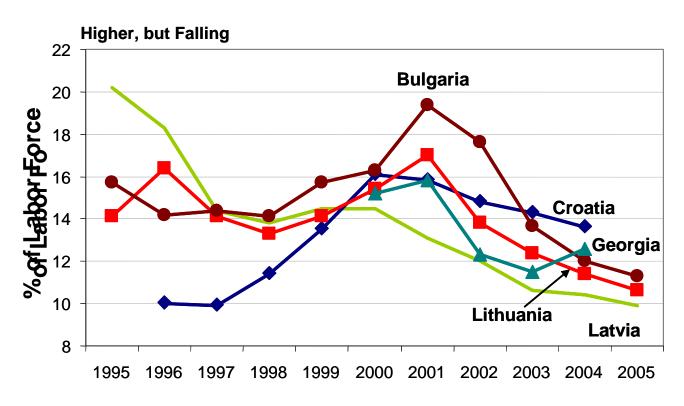
UNECE, Trends in Europe and North America 2003 and 2005 (2003 and 2005), ILO LABORSTA (2005), IMF World Economic Outlook (2005) World Bank, Albania Country Economic Memorandum, Sustaining Growth Beyond the Transition (2004), World Bank, Tajikistan Poverty Assessment Update (2005), World Bank, Bosnia and Herzegovina Labor Market in Postwar Bosnia and Herzegovina (2002), World Bank, Armenia, Poverty Reduction Support Credit (2005), World Bank, Armenia Poverty Update (2002), Uzbekistan Living Standard Assessment (2003), Poland Labor Force Survey (2004), Macedonia Labor Force Survey (2004), Slovakia Labor Force Survey (2004), Lithuania Labor Force Survey (2004).

Peak years are highlighted with boxes.



Labor Force Survey Falling Unemployment Rates

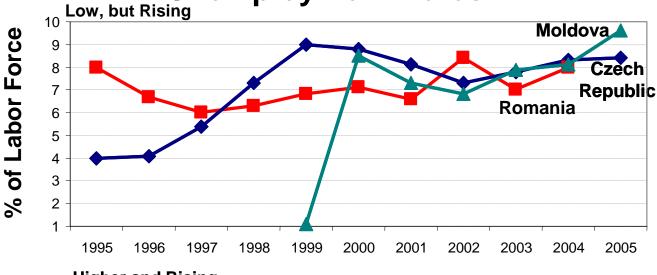


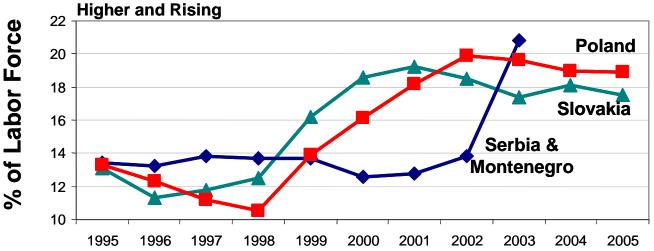


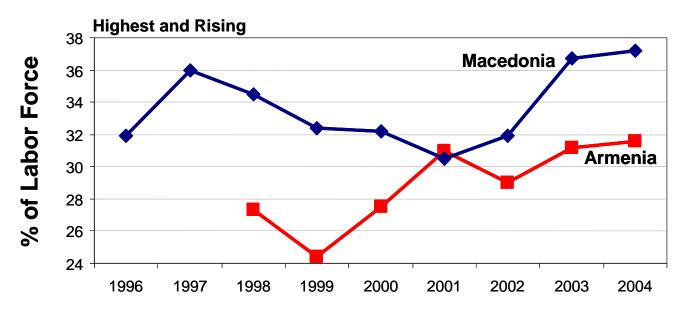


Figures 3-5

Labor Force Survey Rising Unemployment Rates







UNECE, Trends in Europe and North America (2003 and 2005); and National Surveys.

TABLE 8. REGIONAL DISPARITIES STANDARD DEVIATION	ES IN UNEM	PLOYMENT	RATES		-
	source	1991-98	2001	2003	2004
SLOVENIA	а	4.5	2		
LATVIA	а	7.7	7.3		
SLOVAKIA	а	5.5	5.3		
	b				6
ESTONIA	а	3.2	3.8		
POLAND	а	2.8	3.4		
	b				3.2
ROMANIA	а	1	1.8		
	b				3.4
BULGARIA	а	6.1	7.1		
	b				5.2
LITHUANIA	а	3.1	4.5		
CZECH REPUBLIC	а	1.4	3.3		
	b			3.3	
HUNGARY	а	2	4.8		
	b				1.9
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	а	1	3.8		
UKRAINE	С	1.4	1.7		5.3
FRANCE	а		2.5		
SPAIN	а		5.6		
USA	а		1.1		

a EBRD, Transition Report 2003

b Rutkowski 2006

c World Bank, Ukraine 2005.

TABLE 9. REGIONAL DISPARITIES IN UNEMPLOYMENT RATES											
COEFFICIENT OF VARIATION											
	source	1991-98	1998	1999	2001	2003	2004				
SLOVENIA	а	26.6			34.7						
	d				27	29.8					
LATVIA	а	53.2			55.4						
	d			30	11	22.7					
SLOVAKIA	а	39.2			27.2						
	d			31	28	36					
	b						34.3				
ESTONIA	а	33.5			30.3						
	d			37	35	32					
POLAND	а	23.1			18.5						
	d	29	34								
	d			39	34	25					
	b						16.8				
ROMANIA	а	33.1			20.4						
	d	41	29								
	d			14	15	15					
	b						21.2				
BULGARIA	а	83.4			35.8						
	d	24	30								
	b						22.4				
LITHUANIA	а	24.8			27.3						
	d					20.4					
CZECH REPUBLIC	а	32.6			41.1						
	d	40	37								
	d			36	42	40					
	b						40				
HUNGARY	а	48.6			56.3						
	d	34	35								
	d			26	28	30					
	b						26.6				
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	а	20.8			30.5						
	d	32									
	d			42	45	56					
UKRAINE	С	14.5			12.1		37.4				
FRANCE	а					20.5					
SPAIN	а					26.5					
USA	а					19.5					

a EBRD, Transition Report 2003

b Rutkowski 2006

c World Bank, Ukraine 2005.

d Huber 2006

TABLE 10. REGIONAL DISPAR	RITIES IN UNEMPLO	YMENT RATES
SUMMARY TRENDS		
	TIME TREND	LEVEL (VS. WEST)
SLOVENIA	unclear	unclear
LATVIA	unclear	unclear
SLOVAKIA	unclear	higher
ESTONIA	unclear	unclear
POLAND	unclear	w/in range
ROMANIA	unclear	w/in range
BULGARIA	unclear	unclear
LITHUANIA	unclear	w/in range
CZECH REPUBLIC	increase	unclear
HUNGARY	unclear	unclear
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	increase	unclear
UKRAINE	increase	unclear

Drawing from indicators from Tables 8 & 9.

TABLE 11. YOUTH UNEN	//PLOYI	MENT F	RATES	(15-24 `	YRS).				_			
_		UNEMP	LOYED	YOUNG \	NOMEN			UNEN	/PLOYED	YOUNG	MEN	
	AS	% OF M	ALE YO	UTH LAB	OR FOR	CE	AS	8 % OF M	ALE YOU	JTH LAB	OR FOR	CE
	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC		3.7						2.6				
BELARUS ²		7.9						4.2				
HUNGARY	15.6	10.9	9.8	11.9	12.9	14.1	20.7	13	11.5	13.3	13.7	15.8
MOLDOVA		14.9	13.9					16.6	18.3			
CZECH REPUBLIC	8.7	17.4	17.3	17.2	18.8	19.1	7.2	16.7	16.0	16.6	18.3	22.0
					_	•		1				
SLOVENIA	19.7	19.0	17.5	18.6	19.8	18.7	18.1	14.8	15.1	15.1	15.6	13.0
ROMANIA	23.1	17.2		21.8	18.8	18.9	18.8	19.6		24.4	20.4	24.2
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	24.8	22.9	23.1				21.2	23.6	21.0			
LATVIA	31.1	24.3	21.5	24.1	20.0	21.3	31.8	21.8	22.6	18.4	16.7	16.3
LITHUANIA	21.9	26.3	23.6	23.1	28.0	23.4	27.4	30.7	34.9	23.1	22.9	22.0
						Ī						
ESTONIA	16.4	23.9	26.4		32.5		13.1	23.8	19.1	 1		24.9
GEORGIA		28.2	31.0					28.8	29.0			
BULGARIA	37.6	29.8	34.5	33.5	24.9	23.7	38.0	36.0	42.0	40.3	31.0	26.8
SLOVAKIA	23.1	33.8	35.7	35.5	31.7	31.1	26.0	36.4	38.4	39.5	34.8	35.0
SERBIA				35						43		
		25.4		20.0	20.0	Ī		00.4		04.7		
CROATIA		35.4	40.0	36.3	38.2	40.0		29.4	40.4	34.7	34.1	
POLAND ¹	33.8	37.2	42.0	43.3	43.1	42.3	29.0	33.3	40.1	41.9	40.9	38.3
ARMENIA	53.8		 - 4				64.2					
MACEDONIA		62.4	54.5					58.1	57.4			
NORTHERN TIER CEE	21.3	24.1	24.2	24.8	25.9			23.8	24.7	24.0	23.3	
UNITED STATES	11.6	8.9	9.7				12.5	9.7	11.4			
EUROPEAN UNION - 15	21.7	16.3	16.4	15.0	15.4		17.9	12.7	12.9	14.3	15.5	

UNECE, *Trends in Europe and North America* (2003) and EuroStat, *NewCronos Database* (2004). World Bank, Serbia & Montenegro (December 2004).

Peak years are highlighted with boxes.

- 1. Registered Unemployment
- 2. 16 to 24 years of age

TABLE 12. LONG-TERM UNEMP	LOYME	ENT (%	OF TO	TAL UN	EMPLO	OYED)				
										%
-	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	96-98	98-00	00-01	02-04	Change: 1995-04
ALBANIA		65		73				91	93	27
MACEDONIA	86	87	88	82	81			85	85	4
ARMENIA ¹				55				76		37
SERBIA & MONTENEGRO				75	78	78	84	70	72	-4
SLOVAKIA		33	43	54	56	50	46	55	65	20
BULGARIA		53	59	66	64	60	59	60	64	-4
CROATIA ²		58	59 լ 55					54		
	58 21		55 45	 47	 42	 47	61 44	54 51	58 50	10 24
ROMANIA POLAND	24	 36	45 38	42	38	38	38	48	58 55	31
SLOVENIA	46	55	57	53	53	55	41	61	53	1
SLOVENIA	40	55	37	55	55	55	41	01] 55	'
LITHUANIA				52			22	53	51	-3
CZECH REPUBLIC	14	19	22	31	33	31	49	50	50	61
ESTONIA				32			47	47	50	56
UKRAINE ³						62	68	50	45	-27
LATVIA				58		63	52	57	44	-25
HUNGARY	18	33	41	48	52	51	44	47	42	-12
RUSSIAN FEDERATION								40		
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC				9				29.4	37	312
BELARUS			[16				12	15	-2
NORTHERN TIER CEE				46			42	52	51	10
NORTHERN HER OLL				10				. JZ	_ 01	10
FRANCE	36	34	38	40	38	41	43	35	38	-6
GERMANY	33	36	38	40		48	52	50	51	28
SPAIN	47	50	56	57		56	47	39	33	-42
SWEDEN	8	11	17	16	17	30	30	23	19	19
UK	30	38	40	38	36	39	30	26	21	-44
us	11	12	12	10	9	9	6	6	11	10
JAPAN ¹	16	14	18	17	19	20	24	27		58

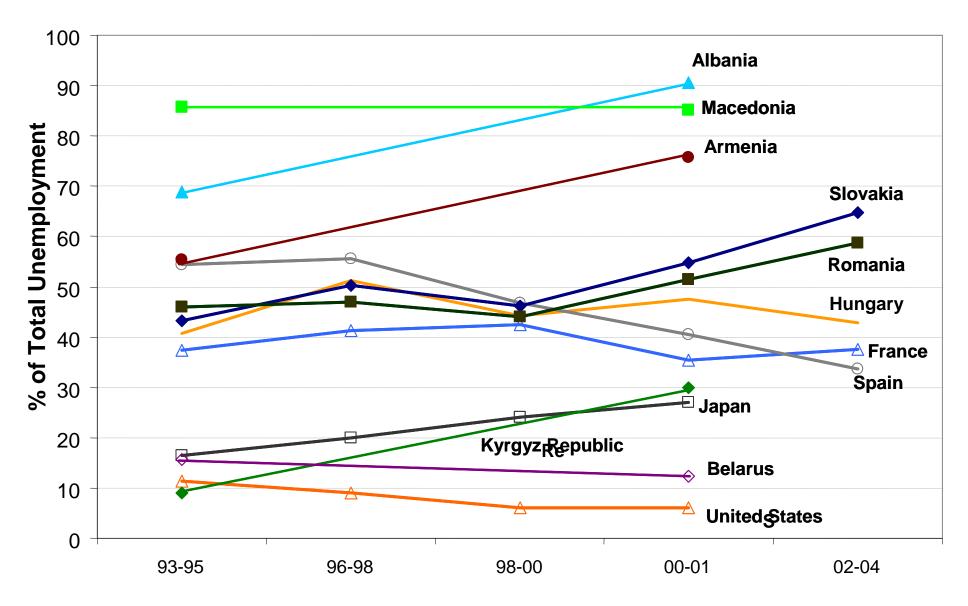
UNECE, Statistical Division Database (2006) and Trends in Europe and North America (2003); C. Allison and D. Ringold, Labor Markets in Transition in Central and Eastern Europe: 1989-1995.

The long-term unemployed are those who are unemployed for more than one year. Peak years are highlighted with boxes.

- 1. % change 1995-04 is change from 1995-01.
- 2. % change 1995-04 is change from 1994-01.
- 3. % change 1995-04 is change from 96-98 to 04.



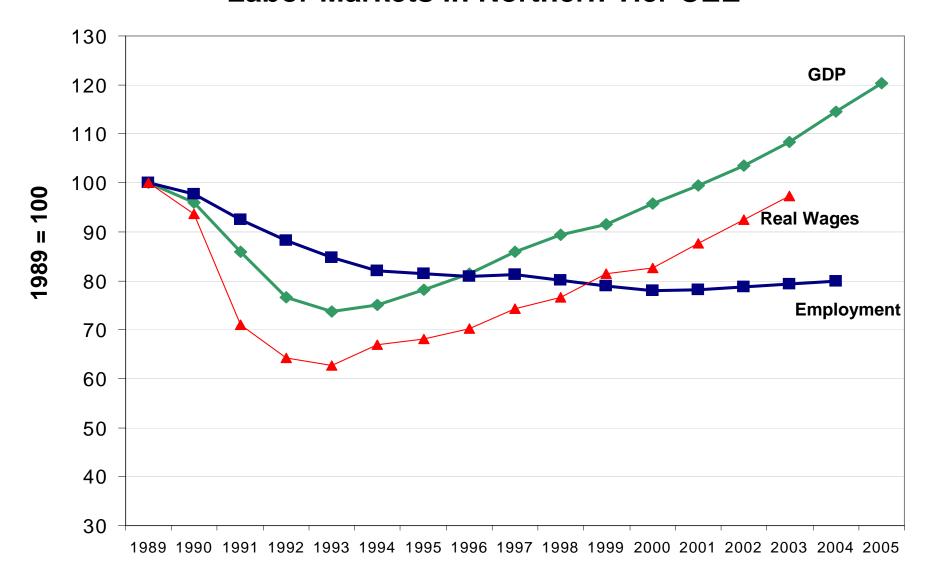
Long Term Unemployment



Western Europe includes France, Germany, Spain and Sweden. World Bank, World Development Indicators 2004 (2004); C. Allison and D. Ringold, Labor Markets in Transition in Central and Eastern Europe: 1989-1995; World Bank, Social Challenges of Transition Series (December 1996); Bureau of the Census, Populations at Risk in CEE: Labor Markets, No. 2, prepared for USAID/ENI/PCS (February 1995), UNECE, Trends in Europe and North America (2003) and EuroStat, NewCronos Database (2004).

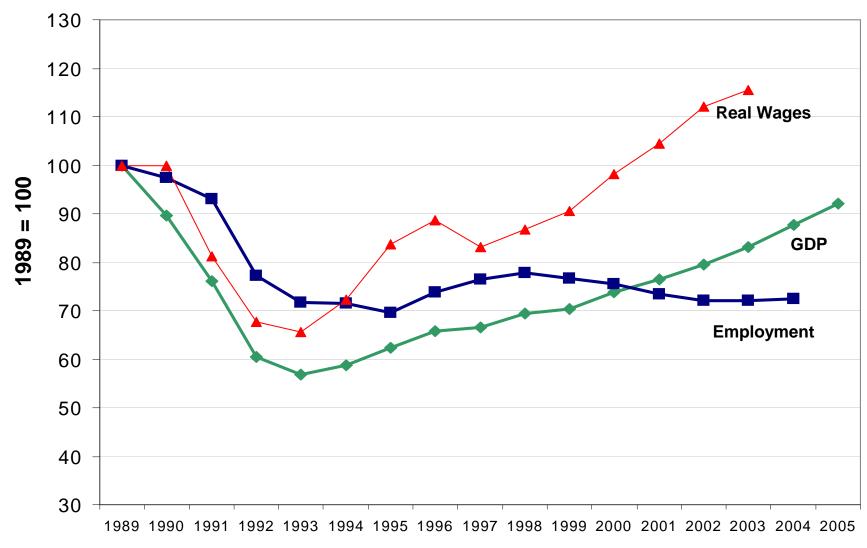


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Northern Tier CEE



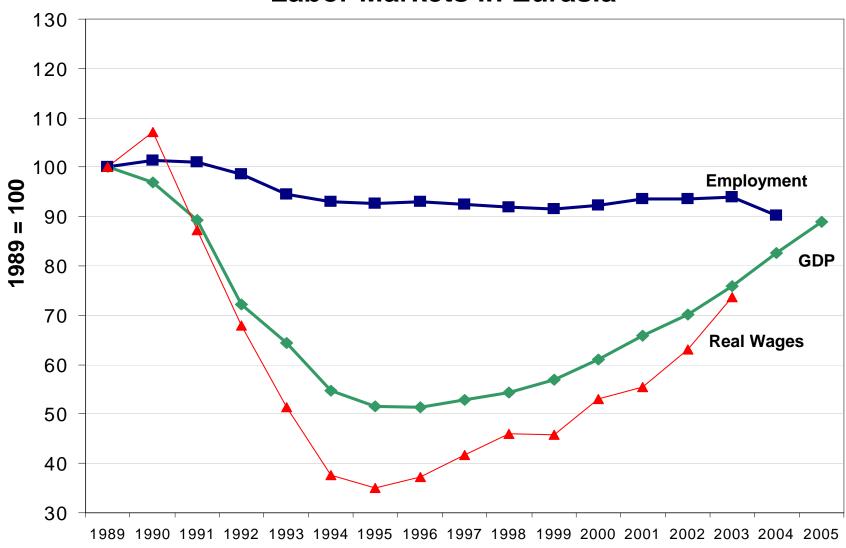


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Southern Tier CEE





Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Eurasia



EBRD, Transition Report 2005 (November 2005). UNICEF, TransMONEE Database (December 2005).

TABLE 13. REAL WAGE	S INDE	EX (198	39=100)											
	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
CZECH REPUBLIC	100	94	72	79	82	88	96	104	106	105	111	114	118	124	132
POLAND	100	76	75	73	71	72	74	78	83	85	110	111	114	115	119
GEORGIA	100	111	77	50	24	34	28	44	60	75	77	79	99	112	118
HUNGARY	100	94	88	86	83	89	82	79	82	84	86	89	96	109	117
AZERBAIJAN	100	101	80	95	62	25	20	24	36	43	52	61	71	84	100
SLOVENIA	100	74	62	60	69	73	77	80	82	83	86	87	90	92	93
MOLDOVA	100	114	105	62	62	50	51	54	56	60	52	53	65	78	90
ESTONIA	100	103	57	45	46	51	54	55	59	64	66	70	75	80	87
ROMANIA	100	108	92	81	69	70	79	88	69	67	69	72	77	78	86
SLOVAKIA	100	94	67	74	71	73	76	81	87	88	85	81	82	87	85
UKRAINE	100	109	114	124	63	56	62	59	58	56	48	49	59	71	83
LATVIA	100	105	72	49	51	58	57	54	60	64	66	68	71	76	82
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	100	109	102	69	69	63	45	51	54	47	36	44	53	61	68
LITHUANIA	100	109	77	51	33	37	39	41	47	54	57	55	55	57	62
MACEDONIA	100	79	68	42	57	51	49	49	49	51	53	53	52	54	56
BULGARIA	100	109	67	75	68	53	51	42	45	43	47	49	51	53	55
ARMENIA	100	104	37	21	7	18	22	32	29	35	39	44	46	51	54
TAJIKISTAN	100	106	90	39	14	7	24	15	13	17	17	17	19	23	28
UZBEKISTAN	100	109	96	95	18	10	9	13	13	15	19	23	26	29	
BOSNIA & HERZEGOVINA									100	118	135	143	151	165	
SERBIA & MONTENEGRO					[100	116	116	116	119	107	132	147		
CROATIA							100	109	118	126	133	134	133	138	142
ALBANIA								100	83	83	91	107	120	130	138
BELARUS					100	61	58	61	69	81	87	98			
TURKMENISTAN					100	53	25	20	24	30	30	50	65	64	111
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC		100	71	59	50	42	43	44	49	55	51	50	55	63	69
KAZAKHSTAN			100	65	49	33	33	34	36	39	44	47	52	58	62
CEE & EURASIA*	100	100	79	67	54	51	52	55	57	60	62	64	69	75	84
NORTHERN TIER CEE	100	94	71	65	63	68	69	72	76	78	83	85	88	92	97
EURASIA**	100	108	81	60	31	24	26	30	35	41	43	46	54	63	78

UNICEF, TransMonee Database 2005 (December 2005).

Country minimum is highlighted with boxes.

^{*}Excludes countries for which data do not start in 1989: Albania, Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, and Serbia-Montenegro.

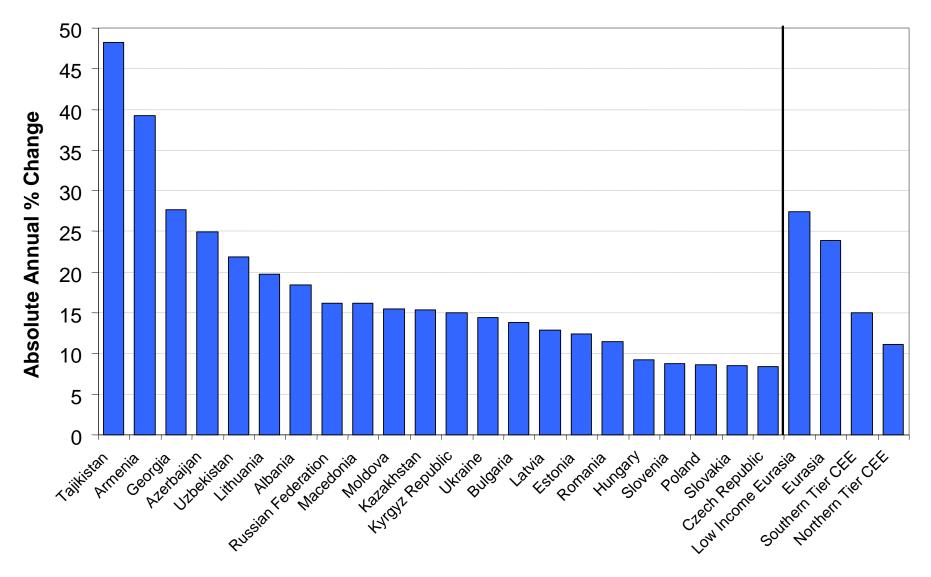
^{**}Excludes countries for which data do not start in 1989: Belarus, Turkmenistan, Kazakhstan and Kyrgyz Republic.

TABLE 14. LABOR MARK	ET ADJUSTMENTS				
	Overall Absolute Labor Market Change: Wages & Employment from		f Absolute Labor nges from 1990		ss to GDP Change ption of Growth
	1990	Wages	Employment	Wages	Employment
TAJIKISTAN	48	95	5	1.20	0.06
ARMENIA	39	92	8	0.74	-0.42
GEORGIA	28	90	10	5.60	0.03
AZERBAIJAN	25	97	3	1.09	0.08
UZBEKISTAN	22	92	8	4.95	0.40
LITHUANIA	20	76	24	1.92	-0.62
ALBANIA	18	77	23	0.88	-0.10
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	16	91	9	1.61	0.10
MACEDONIA	16	62	38	0.49	0.13
MOLDOVA	15	80	20	3.80	-1.03
KAZAKHSTAN	15	86	14	1.01	0.19
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	15	76	24	0.95	-0.04
UKRAINE	14	86	14	1.48	0.03
BULGARIA	14	77	23	-0.66	-0.05
LATVIA	13	75	25	0.66	-0.21
ESTONIA	12	78	22	1.01	-0.17
ROMANIA	12	78	22	0.72	-0.16
HUNGARY	9	70	30	1.41	0.29
SLOVENIA	9	74	26	0.60	0.11
POLAND	9	71	29	1.13	0.02
SLOVAKIA	9	73	27	0.29	-0.02
CZECH REPUBLIC	8	82	18	1.65	-0.09
NORTHERN TIER CEE	11	75	25	1.08	-0.09
SOUTHERN TIER CEE	15	73	27	0.36	-0.05
EURASIA LOW INCOME EURASIA,	24	88	12	2.24	-0.06
N=7	27	89	11	2.62	-0.13

EBRD, Transition Report 2005 (November 2005). UNICEF, TransMONEE Database (December 2005). Low income Eurasia include Tajikistan, Kyrgyz Republic, Uzbekistan, Moldova, Georgia, Azerbaijan and Armenia.



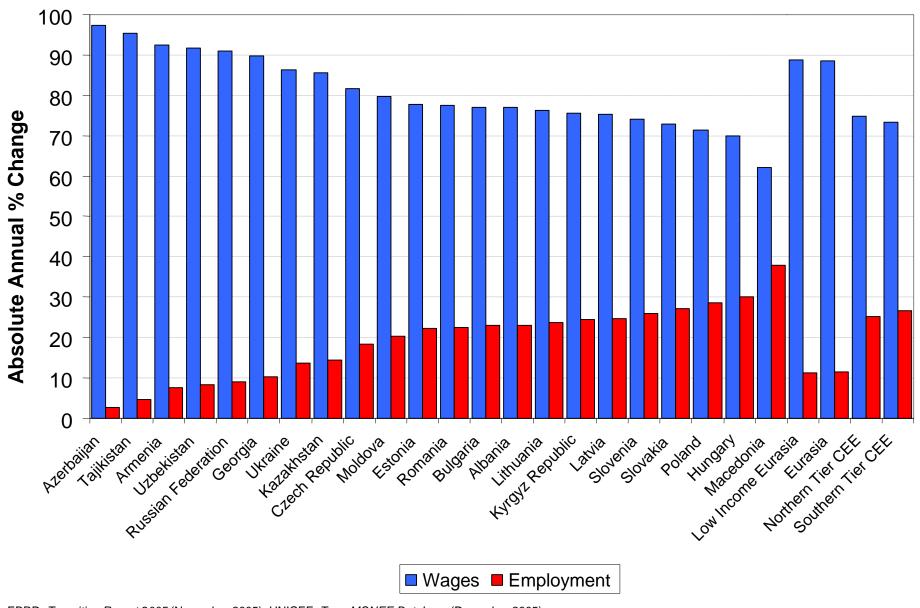
Absolute Labor Market Change over the Transition: Wages and Employment



EBRD, Transition Report 2005 (November 2005). UNICEF, TransMONEE Database (December 2005).



Distribution of Absolute Labor Market Changes from 1990



EBRD, Transition Report 2005 (November 2005). UNICEF, TransMONEE Database (December 2005).



Responsiveness to GDP Change from Resumption of Growth

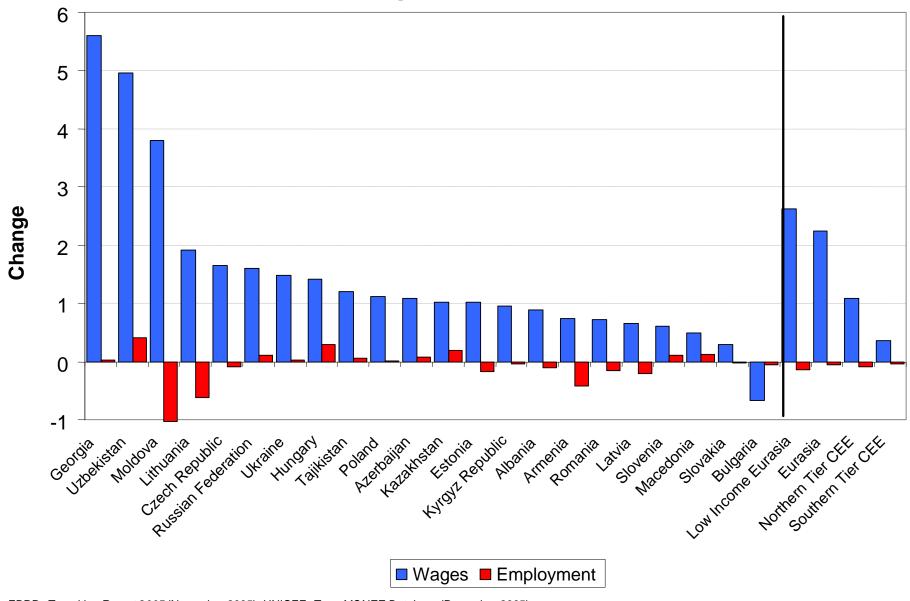


TABLE 15. PRIVATE SECTO	OR SH	ARF OF	FMPI	OYME	NT (%	١										
TABLE 13. TRIVATE SECTO	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	PRIVATE SECTOR SHARE OF GDP IN 2005
HUNGARY	32	34	36	59		71	77	83	81	82	84	85				80
ALBANIA		39	44	59	70	74	79	80	80	81	82	79	80	80	80	75
KYRGYZSTAN	23	31	40	52	42	69	73	74	76	78	78	79	80	80		75
LATVIA	19	23	41	51	58	60	63	66	68	70	72	73	75	76	76	70
ARMENIA	18	32	38	44	47	49	50	51	69	73	74	75	74	76		75
KAZAKHSTAN	22	24	29	35	48	54			73	77	79	75	75	75	75	65
ESTONIA	25	28	32	35	38	61	63	69	69	69	71	71	73	74	75	70
ROMANIA	9	34	41	44	49	51	52	58	62	72	75	75				55
SERBIA & MONTENEGRO			28	41	53	60	63	65	69	70	75	75				80
SLOVAKIA	20	26	28	41	53	60	63	65	69	70	75	75				80
LITHUANIA	22	30	41	54	62	64	67	67	68	69	69	67	70	72		25
POLAND		50	54	57	59	61	63	67	69	71	72	73	70	70	71	75
CZECH REPUBLIC	8	20	31	47	53	57	59	60	61	65	65	70	70	70	70	75
RUSSIA	18	25	31	46	55	57	57	59	61	70	70	70	70	70	70	60
AZERBAIJAN	25	35	37	37	40	42	49	54	58	64	66	67	68	69	68	45
BULGARIA	6	10	18	28	36	41	47	55	41	46	55	59	61	62	66	60
TAJIKISTAN			44	46	48	52	55	58	57	63	60	63	65	63	63	80
MOLDOVA		36	39	45	59	60	64	65	66					60	60	65
CROATIA	15	19	26	36	45	48	53	54	54	58	56	58	58	60		65
SLOVENIA		39	43	45	49	53	55	58	57							65
MACEDONIA			2	2	2	3				45	45	50	50	50	55	75
TURKMENISTAN		21	24	24	28	26	48	47	54							60
UZBEKISTAN	37	39	42	44	47		54	56	58	43						65
UKRAINE	19		43	44	47	51	54			21	26	31	36	38		45
GEORGIA	24	25	31	35	37	43	46	55	30	40	35	35	35	33	34	65
BELARUS	26	29	35	37	40	40	9	12	16	19						25
CEE & EURASIA	20	29	34	41	47	51	56	59	60	61	65	66	65	65	66	64
NORTHERN TIER CEE*	21	31	38	49	53	61	64	67	68	71	73	73				68
SOUTHERN TIER CEE**	10	25	27	35	42	46	59	62	61	62	65	66				68
EURASIA***	24	30	36	41	45	49	51	53	56	55						60

EBRD, Transition Report 2005 (2005), IMF, Uzbekistan Recent Economic Developments (2000); IMF, Turkmenistan Country Report.

^{*}Does not include Hungary in 1994, or Poland and Slovenia in 1990 and 1999-2001.

^{**}Does not include Serbia or Macedonia in 1991 or 1996-2001, or Bosnia-Herzegovina at any time.

^{**}Does no include Turkmenistan and Moldova in 1990, Tajikistan in 1990 and 1991, the Ukraine in 1991, 1497 and 1998, and in Moldova 1999.

TABLE 16: SECTORAL SHARE OF EMPLOYMENT IN AGRICULTURE (%)										
	ı	PERCEN	TAGE O	F TOTA	L				CHANGE	
	EMP	LOYME	NT IN AC	SRICUL1	TURE					
	1990	1995	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	1990-95	1995-03	1990 to 03-05
CZECH REPUBLIC	10	7	5	5	5	4	4	-3	-2	-6
SLOVAKIA	12	9	6	6	6	5	5	-3	-3	-6
HUNGARY	18	8	6	6	5	5	5	-9	-3	-13
ESTONIA	12	10	7	7	6	6	5	-2	-4	-6
BULGARIA	18	24	26	10	10	10	9	6	-14	-8
SLOVENIA	12	10	10	9	8	10	9	-2	-2	-4
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	13	12	12	12	11			-1	-2	-3
LATVIA	16	17	15	15	14	13	12	1	-3	-2
LITHUANIA	19	21	16	18	18	16	14	2	-3	-1
CROATIA		20	16	15	17	16	17		-3	
BELARUS*	19	21	16					2	-5	-3
POLAND	26	23	19	19	18	18	17	-3	-4	-8
UKRAINE	20	20	22	20	19			0	-1	-1
MACEDONIA		19	25	24	22				3	
ROMANIA	28	40	43	37	36	32	32	12	-5	8
KAZAKHSTAN	23	21	22	36	35			-2	14	12
UZBEKISTAN*	39	44	39					5	-5	0
AZERBAIJAN	31	31	40	40	40			0	9	9
MOLDOVA	33	44	22	50	43			11	-1	10
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	33	47	53	49	43			14	-4	10
ARMENIA*	17	37	44					20	7	27
TAJIKISTAN*	43	59	46					16	-13	3
TURKMENISTAN*	42	43	49					1	6	7
GEORGIA	25	31	62	54	55			6	24	30
SERBIA & MONTENEGRO*		6	6						0	
ALBANIA	49	68	72					19		
BOSNIA & HERZEGOVINA	11									
CEE & EURASIA	24	27	27	23	22			2.9	0.2	3.2
NORTHERN TIER CEE	16	13	11	11	10	10	9	-2.5	-2.6	-5.1
SOUTHERN TIER CEE	27	30	31					3.1	1.6	4.7
EURASIA	28	34	36					6.0	1.4	7.5
EU-15	8.9	6.8	5.3	5.2	4.4			-2.1	-2.4	-4.5
UNITED STATES*	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.5				0.0	-0.4	-0.4

World Bank, World Development Indicators (2006); UNECE, Statistical Division Database (2006) and Trends in Europe and North America (2003).

^{*}Change in years are calculated through 2001 instead of 2003.

TABLE 17. SECTORAL SH	IARE OF E	MPLOYME	NT IN SER	VICES						
		PERCE	NTAGE OF	TOTAL					CHANGE	<u> </u>
		_	MENT IN S	_						- 1990 to 03
	1990	1995	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	1990-95	1995-03	05
HUNGARY	51	59	59	60	61	62	63	7.6	2.5	7.7
LATVIA	45	56	58	59	59	60	62	10.5	3.6	29.0
ESTONIA	42	56	60	62	61	59	61	13.8	5.8	43.8
SERBIA & MONTENEGRO		57	59							
LITHUANIA	52	58	56	55	54	56	57	6.3	-4.5	3.5
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	36	45	50	59	58			9.5	12.9	40.8
BULGARIA	37	43	46	58	57	57	57	5.3	14.4	8.8
CZECH REPUBLIC	42	51	55	55	56	56	57	8.9	4.7	12.6
SLOVAKIA	54	52	56	55	56	56	56	-2.0	4.0	4.5
CROATIA		46	54	55	53	54	54			
SLOVENIA	44	46	51	52	53	53	54	2.5	7.0	6.9
POLAND	36	45	50	52	53	53	53	9.5	7.7	14.6
UKRAINE	49	54	50	49	51			4.9	-2.6	0.6
AZERBAIJAN	31	36	49	48	48			4.7	12.6	18.1
KAZAKHSTAN	41	50	48	48	48			9.0	-1.9	18.2
UZBEKISTAN*	46	43	48					-3.3	5.2	1.9
TAJIKISTAN*	18	22	47					3.7	25.2	28.9
MACEDONIA		43	49	43	44					48.5
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	39	36	37	39	42			-3.3	5.6	-2.7
ARMENIA*	38	36	42					-2.3	6.2	3.9
MOLDOVA	47	40	35	36	41			-6.5	0.9	-11.4
TURKMENISTAN*	48	47	38					-1.0	-8.5	-9.5
ROMANIA	27	29	32	34	34	37	37	1.3	5.3	4.1
GEORGIA			38	38	37					
ALBANIA		23	22							
BELARUS	36									
BOSNIA & HERZEGOVINA	41									
CEE & EURASIA	50	50	53	50	51			-0.1	2.8	2.7
NORTHERN TIER CEE	52	59	62	56	57	57	58	6.8	3.1	9.8
SOUTHERN TIER CEE	42	41	45					-0.4	3.2	2.9
EURASIA	51	49	51					-2.5	2.5	0.0
EU-15	60	64	67	68	68			3.6	4.4	8.0
UNITED STATES*	71	74	75	76				3.3	0.9	4.2

World Bank, World Development Indicators (2006); UNECE, Statistical Division Database (2006) and Trends in Europe and North America (2003).

^{*}Change in years are calculated through 2001 instead of 2003.

TABLE 18. STRUCTURAL CHANGES: SECTOR COMPOSITION OF LABOR								
_	AG	RICULTURE	S	ERVICES	OVERALL			
	SHARE	DECREASING?	SHARE	INCREASING?	_			
NORTHERN TIER CEE								
SLOVENIA	9	yes	54	yes	Yes			
CZECH R.	4	yes	57	yes	Yes			
SLOVAKIA	5	yes	56	yes	yes			
LATVIA	12	yes	62	yes	yes			
LITHUANIA	14	yes	57	yes	yes			
LITTIOANIA	14	yes	37	ye3	yes			
ESTONIA	5	yes	61	yes	yes			
HUNGARY	5	yes	63	yes	yes			
POLAND	17	yes	53	yes	yes			
		•			-			
SOUTHERN TIER CEE								
MACEDONIA	22	no	44	yes	no			
BULGARIA	9	yes	57	no	no			
ALBANIA	72	no	22	no	no			
ROMANIA	32	yes	37	yes	no			
CROATIA	17	yes	54	yes	yes			
SERBIA & MONTENEGRO	6	no	59	yes	yes			
EURASIA	4.4		50					
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	11	no	58	yes	yes			
MOLDOVA	43	yes	41	yes	yes			
KAZAKHSTAN	35	no	48	no	yes			
AZERBAIJAN	40	no	48	no	no			
UKRAINE	19	no	51	yes	maybe/yes			
BELARUS	16	yes	36	yes	yes			
GEORGIA	55	no	37	no	no			
UZBEKISTAN	39	yes	48	yes	no			
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	43	yes	42	yes	no			
ARMENIA	44	no	42	no	no			
/ UNIVIELALL	'-	110	12	110				
TAJIKISTAN	46	no	47	yes	no			
		-		,	_			
OECD			71.4					
EU15	4.4		68					
U.S.	2.5		76					
S-S AFRICA	64		27.5					

Drawing from indicators from Tables 16 & 17.

^{*}yes - there; or getting there or close; no - not close or not getting there

TABLE 19. INFORMAL SEC EMPLOYMENT	TOR EM	PLOYMEN	IT % OF T	OTAL	
-	source	1995- 1997	1998- 99	2000- 2001	2003- 04
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	(a)		34		
	(e)	71	59		
KAZAKHSTAN	(a)		54		
AZERBAIJAN	(a)		51		
	(e)	38			
ARMENIA	(a)		40		
	(e)	32	45		
GEORGIA	(a)		33		
	(e)		42		
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	(a)		41		
BELARUS	(a)		41		
UKRAINE	(a)		41		
	(b)				16
TAJIKISTAN	(e)		41		
BOSNIA & HERZEGOVINA	(c)				41
UZBEKISTAN	(a)		33		
_	(e)			40	
MACEDONIA	(a)		35		
MOLDOVA	(a)		35		
	(e)	31		26	
ESTONIA	(a)		33		
SERBIA	(d)			31	
BULGARIA	(a)		30		
LATVIA	(a)		29		
CROATIA	(a)		27		
ROMANIA	(a)		24		
SLOVENIA	(a)		22		
5014115	(5)		0.4		
POLAND	(a)		21		
HUNGARY	(a)		21		
LITHUANIA	(a)		20		
SLOVAKIA	(a)		16		
CZECH REPUBLIC	(a)		12		
NORTHERN TIER CEE					22
SOUTHERN TIER CEE					31
EURASIA					36-45
OECD					17

⁽a) WB drawing from Schneider

⁽b) WB Ukraine(2005)

⁽c) WB B-H (2005)

⁽d) WB Serbia (2004)

⁽e) Yoon et al (2003)

TABLE 20. INFORMAL SECTOR E	MPLOYMENT VS. INFORMAL SECTOR	R OUTPUT
	INFORMAL	INFORMAL
	EMPLOYMENT AS	OUTPUT AS
	% TOTAL EMPLOYMENT	% TOTAL GDP
NORTHERN TIER CEE	22	30
SOUTHERN TIER CEE	31	40
EURASIA	36-45	51
OECD	17	16
DEVELOPING		
AFRICA		43
LAC		43
ASIA		31

Drawing from Table 19 and Schneider, Size of Shadow Economies (Dec 2004).

TABLE 21. SELF EM	PLOYMENT	AS % OF	TOTAL EN	IPLOYMEN	T			
	source	1993	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
AZERBAIJAN	(a)				68			
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	(a)				61			
	(c)			22				
GEORGIA	(a)				57			
	(c)			22.5	24.4			
ARMENIA	(a)				50			
	(c)			16				
TAJIKISTAN	(a)				42			
MOLDOVA	(a)				41			
	(b)	18	16					
	(c)			31	32.3	33		
ROMANIA	(a)				40			
	(b)	22	25					
	(c)			24.1	22.5	21.5	18.6	19.8
LITHUANIA	(a)				30			
	(b)	10	11					
POLAND	(a)				28			
	(b)	31	23					
	(c)			19	18.9	18	17.2	16.5
UZBEKISTAN	(a)				25			
LATVIA	(a)				17			
	(b)	0.1						
	(c)			6.1	6.2	6	6.3	5.9
CZECH REPUBLIC	(a)				16			
	(b)	13	15					
	(c)			10.6	11.4	12.4	12.2	11.6
SLOVENIA	(a)				16			
	(b)	12	11					
	(c)			8.1	7.6	6.8	6.6	6.9
HUNGARY	(a)				14			
	(b)	15	15					
	(c)			7				
UKRAINE	(a)				12			
	(b)		9					
	(c)			8.3	8.8			
SLOVAKIA	(a)				9			
	(b)	7	8					
	(c)			5.6	6.1	6.9	8.5	9.3
ESTONIA	(a)				8			
	(b)	8	8					
	(c)			4.8	4.8	5.5		
RUSSIA	(a)				7			
	(b)	8	7					
	(c)			5				
BELARUS	(a)				5			
	(c)			1				
MACEDONIA	(b)	72						
	(c)			9				
CROATIA	(b)	21	19					
	(c)			14.3	14	15.6	15.6	17.8
BULGARIA	(b)	11	15					
	(c)			10	9.5	9.6	9.3	8.6
OECD	(-/				14			
EU					15			

⁽a) WB study drawing from Eurostat(b) UNECE 2002(c) UNECE, Statistical Division Database (2006).

TABLE 22. SELF-EMPLOYM								
	SELF-EMPLOYMENT 1993				LF-EMPLOY 2001-05	to fema	of male ale self- syment	
	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN	4002	2001- 05	
	IVIEIN	WOMEN	IUIAL	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL	1993	UĐ
MACEDONIA	74	69	72	12.2	4.8	9.2	1.1	2.5
ROMANIA	24.4	19.4	22.1	25.7	12.7	19.8	1.3	2.0
POLAND	32.2	29.9	31.2	19.2	13.3	16.5	1.1	1.4
CROATIA	25.1	15.4	20.7	18.1	17.4	17.8	1.6	1.0
MOLDOVA	21.5	14.6	18.3	34.9	31.1	33	1.5	1.1
BULGARIA	12.9	9.2	11.2	10.5	6.5	8.6	1.4	1.6
HUNGARY	17.4	11.3	14.6			6.5	1.5	
CZECH REPUBLIC	15.8	9.4	12.8	14.9	7.2	11.6	1.7	2.1
SLOVENIA	16.0	7.6	12.2	9.5	3.9	6.9	2.1	2.4
LITHUANIA	12.4	6.9	9.8	12.5	8.4	10.5	1.8	1.5
UKRAINE				8.8	9.6	9.2		0.9
ESTONIA	10.4	6.2	8.4	7.4	3.7	5.5	1.7	2.0
SLOVAKIA	9.0	3.5	6.6	12.8	5.0	9.3	2.6	2.6
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	10.1	5.6	8.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	1.8	1.0
LATVIA	0.1	0.2	0.1	6.5	5.2	5.9	0.5	1.3

UNECE, Statistical Division Database (2006) and Trends in Europe and North America (2003).

TABLE 23. SMALL AND MEDIUM ENTERPRISES									
	SME SHARE OF EMPLOYMENT	SME SHARE OF EMPLOYMENT							
-	(%) 1990-94	(%) 2001							
CZECH REPUBLIC	25.0	56.2							
ESTONIA		55.5							
HUNGARY	35.0	49.5							
SLOVAKIA		57.7							
POLAND	19.0	65.4							
LITHUANIA	25.0	31.6							
BULGARIA		64.7							
ALBANIA ARMENIA		75 25.8							
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC		25.8 59							
KTRGTZ REPUBLIC		59							
LATVIA	40.0	69.9							
ROMANIA		20.8							
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	5.0	20							
SLOVENIA		64.4							
KAZAKHSTAN	12.0	12.9							
MACEDONIA		64.3							
GEORGIA		12							
UKRAINE	4.0	10.8							
CROATIA		67							
AZERBAIJAN		2.7							
MOLDOVA	<u></u>	8.2							
SERBIA & MONTENEGRO		32.4							
BOSNIA & HERZEGOVINA		53							
TAJIKISTAN		35.9							
UZBEKISTAN		49.7							
TURKMENISTAN		60							
BELARUS	2.0	4.6							
CEE & EURASIA	18.6	41.8							
NORTHERN TIER CEE	28.8	56.3							
SOUTHERN TIER CEE		53.9							
EURASIA	5.8	25.2							
ROM & BULG 2002		43.5							
NORTHERN TIER CEE									
AT GRADUATION		48.3							

SME data for 2001 are from UNECE, SME Databank (2003); 1990 -94 SME data are from World Bank, Transition: The First

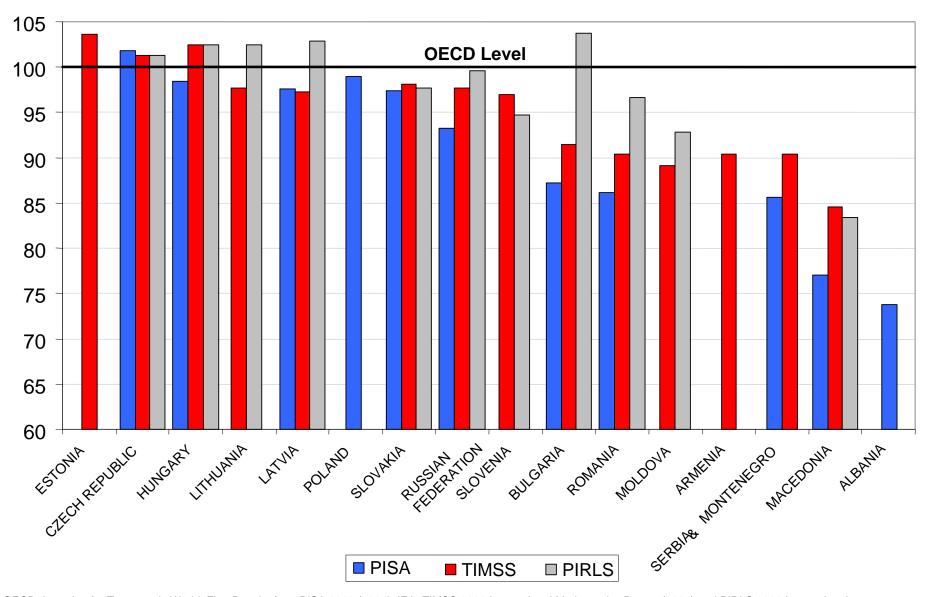
Ten Years (2002); and Ayyagari, Beck, and Demirguc-Kunt, Small and Medium Enterprises across the Globe: A New Database, World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 3127, (August 2003).

TABLE 24. MEASURES	OF WAGE IN	IEQU.	ALITY							
	WAGE INEQUALITY 9TH DECILE TO 1ST DEC.		EARNINGS INEQUALITY UNICEF GINI	EVIDENCE OF			MIN. WAGE		AVERAGE RANK OF 3 MEASURES OF	ANY EVIDENCE OF INEQUALITY
	2002	RANK	•	DECREASING?	MAX	RANK	AVE WAGE	RANK		DECREASING?
AZERBAIJAN	13.8	1	0.508	no	2002	2	8	1	1.3	no
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	11	2	0.491	maybe	2001	4	10	3	3.0	yes
ARMENIA	7	5	0.543	no		1	18	5	3.7	no
ESTONIA	6.1	6	0.388	unclear	1999	8	33	7	7.0	no
MOLDOVA			0.372	yes	1999	10	15	4	7.0	yes
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	9.5	3	0.478	yes	2001	11			7.0	yes
BULGARIA	5.8	9					32	6	7.5	no
BELARUS	5.8	9	0.34	yes	1995	13	9	2	8.0	yes
ROMANIA	5.9	7	0.358	yes	2000	12	33	7	8.7	yes
UKRAINE	5.9	7	0.408	yes	2000	6	44	15	9.3	yes
HUNGARY	4.9	12	0.386	no	2001	9	41	14	11.7	yes
LITHUANIA	5.4	11	0.393	no	2003	7	58	18	12.0	no
LATVIA	4.5	13	0.332	yes maybe	1996	14	35	10	12.3	yes maybe
POLAND	4	14	0.305	no		15	34	9	12.7	no
SLOVENIA	3.4	15	0.305	yes	2001	15	40	13	14.3	yes
CZECH REPUBLIC	3	16	0.273	no	2001	17	37	11	14.7	no
MACEDONIA			0.262	yes	2001	19	46	16	17.5	yes
SERBIA & MONTENEGRO	8.5	4							4.0	no
BOSNIA HERZEGOVINA							56	17	17.0	
SLOVAKIA							38	12	12.0	
KAZAKHSTAN			0.359			11			11.0	
OECD	3.3									

World Bank, World Development Indicators (2006), Growth, Poverty and Inequality (2005); and UNICEF, TransMONEE Database (December 2005).



Functional Literacy PISA vs. TIMSS vs. PIRLS



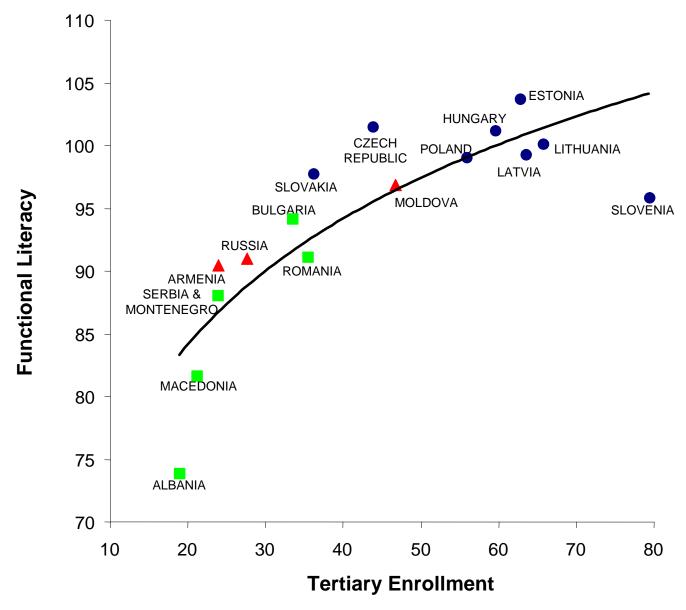
OECD, Learning for Tomorrow's World: First Results from PISA 2003 (2004); IEA, TIMSS 2003 International Mathematics Report (2004) and PIRLS 2001 International Report (2003).

TABLE 25: FUNCTIONAL LITERACY										
	PI	SA	TIM	ISS	PIR	LS	AVERAGE OF 3 SCORES (OR LESS)			
	SCORE	vs. OECD	SCORE	vs. OECD	SCORE	vs. OECD	SCORE	vs. OECD		
NORTHERN TIER CEE										
SLOVENIA			507	0.97	502	0.95	505	0.96		
CZECH REPUBLIC	509	1.02	530	1.01	537	1.01	525	1.01		
SLOVAKIA	487	0.97	513	0.98	518	0.98	506	0.98		
LATVIA	488	0.98	509	0.97	545	1.03	514	0.99		
LITHUANIA			511	0.98	543	1.02	527	1.00		
ESTONIA			542	1.04			542	1.04		
HUNGARY	492	0.98	536	1.02	543	1.02	524	1.01		
POLAND	495	0.99					495	0.99		
SOUTHERN TIER CEE										
MACEDONIA	385	0.77	442	0.85	442	0.83	423	0.82		
BULGARIA	436	0.87	478	0.91	550	1.04	488	0.94		
ALBANIA	369	0.74					369	0.74		
ROMANIA	431	0.86	473	0.90	512	0.97	472	0.91		
SERBIA & MONTENEGRO	428	0.86	473	0.90			451	0.88		
EURASIA										
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	466	0.93	511	0.98	528	1.00	502	0.97		
MOLDOVA			466	0.89	492	0.93	479	0.91		
ARMENIA			473	0.90			473	0.90		
OECD	500	1.00	523	1.00	530	1.00	518	1.00		
SINGAPORE			592	1.13	528	1.00	560	1.06		
HONG KONG	533	1.07	571	1.09	529	1.00	544	1.05		
GERMANY	499	1.00			539	1.02	519	1.01		
NEW ZEALAND	522	1.04	507	0.97	529	1.00	519	1.00		
U.S.	400	0.98	516	0.99	542	1.02	516	1.00		
IRAN	490	0.96	432	0.99	414	0.78	423	0.80		
_							_			
MOROCCO			392	0.75	350	0.66	371	0.70		

OECD, Learning for Tomorrow's World: First Results from PISA 2003 (2004); IEA, TIMSS 2003 International Mathematics Report (2004) and PIRLS 2001 International Report (2003).



Tertiary Education vs. Functional Literacy



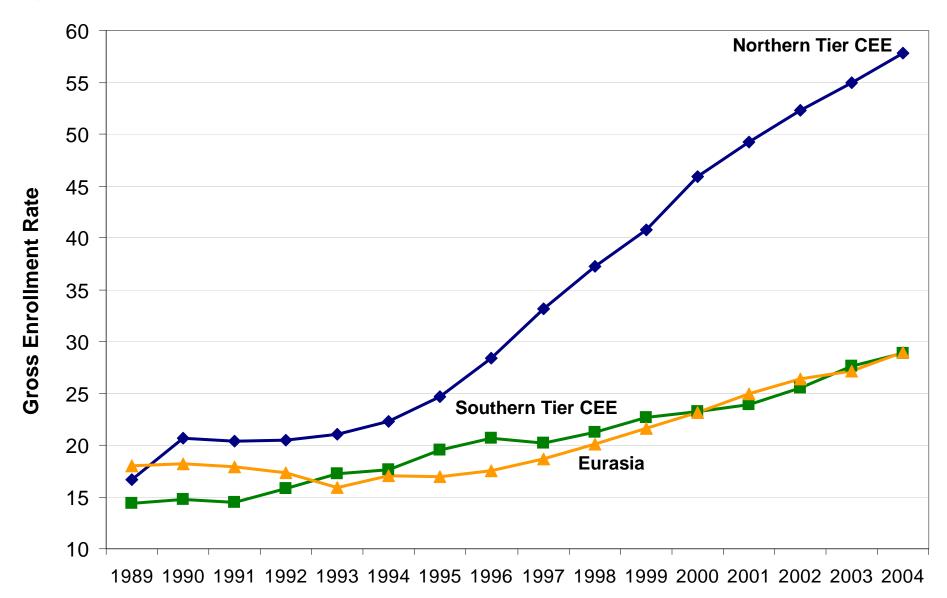
OECD, Learning for Tomorrow's World: First Results from PISA 2003 (2004); IEA, TIMSS 2003 International Mathematics Report (2004) and PIRLS 2001 International Report (2003) and UNICEF, *TransMONEE Database* (2006).

TABLE 26. HIGHER EDUCATION ENROLLMENTS									
(GROSS RATES, PER CENT OF POPULA	ATION A	AGED 1	9-24)						
	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004		
SLOVENIA	22.9	32.6	61.0	67.2	70.1	73.7	79.5		
ESTONIA	34.5	33.9	60.1	61.5	62.9				
LITHUANIA	26.3	25.2	49.3	53.5	58.4	62.3	65.9		
LATVIA	20.8	21.7	56.4	60.0	62.5	64.8	63.6		
HUNGARY	12.1	18.2	35.3	39.3	44.6	56.8	59.6		
HUNGART	12.1	10.2	33.3	39.3	44.0	50.0	59.0		
POLAND	17.0	27.2	47.4	50.6	52.4	53.9	55.9		
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	24.6	22.2	35.4	39.6	42.0	44.5	46.7		
BELARUS	34.0	31.4	39.1	40.7	42.0	43.2	45.4		
UKRAINE	21.7	20.8	32.6	36.7	38.7	41.4	44.8		
KAZAKHSTAN	18.7	16.6	29.0	33.4	37.6	40.7	44.7		
CZECH REPUBLIC	17.2	19.8	28.2	30.9	35.1	39.9	43.9		
GEORGIA	20.9	29.2	34.9	37.3	38.5	35.2	39.6		
SLOVAKIA	14.3	18.3	29.4	31.2	32.0	33.3	36.3		
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	12.9	12.9	34.5	37.4	35.0	34.7	36.2		
ROMANIA	9.2	17.5	26.8	29.5	32.5	34.0	35.5		
CROATIA	18.1	22.2	28.2	29.5	31.5	32.7	35.1		
BULGARIA	21.7	30.2	31.8	31.2	32.2	31.9	33.6		
SERBIA AND MONTENEGRO	20.6	20.2	25.3	23.9					
MOLDOVA	15.7	16.2	21.1	22.6	24.1	25.7	27.7		
ARMENIA	20.1	15.2	15.5	16.3	21.8	22.7	23.9		
BOSNIA HERZEGOVINA	8.5		17.9	18.6	19.8				
MACEDONIA	17.6	17.1	18.6	20.2	22.9	22.6	21.2		
ALBANIA	7.8	10.2	14.3	14.3	14.3	17.1	19.0		
TAJIKISTAN	11.8	12.1	11.4	11.9	13.0	13.8	14.4		
AZERBAIJAN	12.6	12.7	14.3	14.0	13.5	13.2	13.2		
UZBEKISTAN	15.2	7.6	6.6	7.3	7.9	8.3	8.3		
TURKMENISTAN	9.9	6.4	3.0	2.7	2.6	2.5	2.5		
NORTHERN TIER CEE	20.6	24.6	45.9	49.3	52.2	54.9	57.8		
SOUTHERN TIER CEE	14.8	19.6	23.3	23.9	25.5	27.6	28.9		
EURASIA	18.2	17.0	23.1	25.0	26.4	27.2	28.9		
FINLAND			82.8	84.3	84.8	86.9	89.5		
UNITED STATES			69.2	70.1	80.7	82.6	82.4		
			37.0	42.3	44.8	44.7	47.6		
LEBANON			34.2	37.9	39.1	40.1	41.0		
THAILAND			23.1	24.0	24.2	24.0	26.9		
COLOMBIA			7.6	9.8	12.6	15.4	19.1		
CHINA (P.R.C.)			7.0						
TANZANIA			•	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.2		

UNICEF, TransMONEE Database (2006) and World Bank, World Development Indicators 2006.

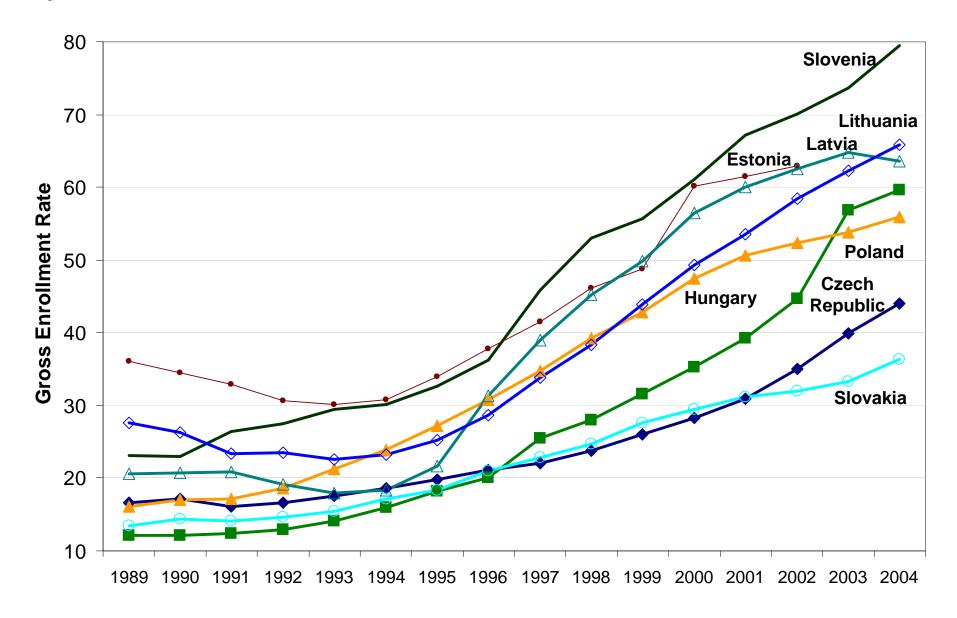


Higher Education Enrollment



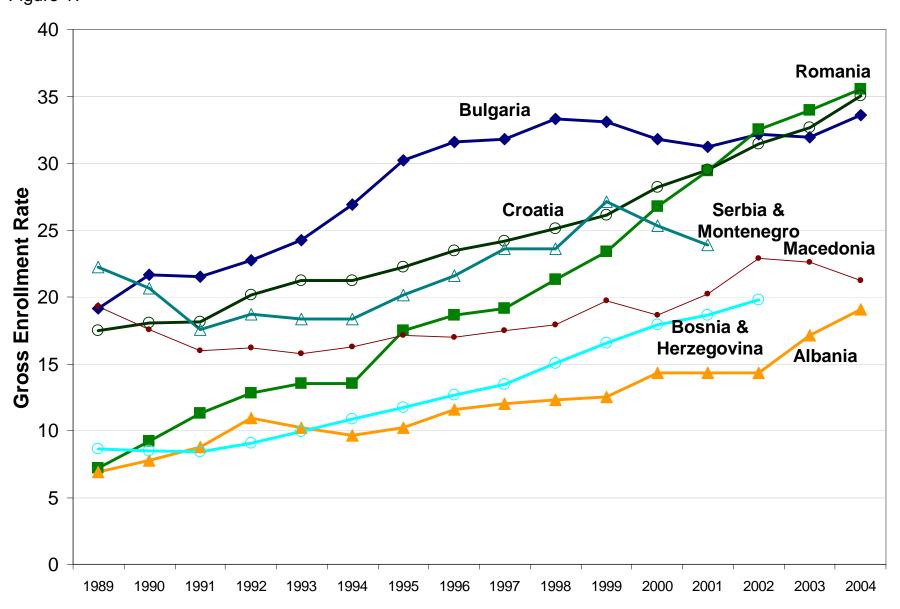


Higher Education Enrollment: Northern Tier CEE





Higher Education Enrollment: Southern Tier CEE





Higher Education Enrollment: Eurasia

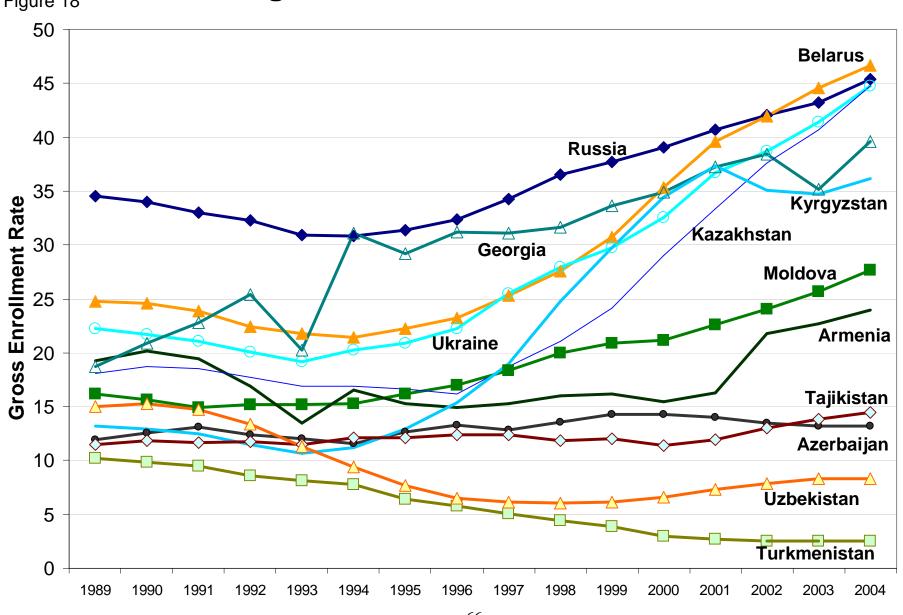


TABLE 27. R&D PERSONNEL PER MILLION INHABITANTS (PROXY FOR BRAIN DRAIN)									
_	1987-1997	1996-2004	% CHANGE						
HUNGARY	1099	1472	34						
CZECH REPUBLIC	1222	1594	30						
POLAND	1358	1581	16						
LITHUANIA	2028	2136	5						
SLOVAKIA	1866	1984	6						
DUOGIA	2507	2240	7						
RUSSIA	3587	3319	-7						
ESTONIA	2017	2523	25						
MOLDOVA	330	172	-48						
ARMENIA	1485	1537	4						
LATVIA	1049	1434	37						
SLOVENIA	2251	2543	13						
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	584	406	-30						
BELARUS	2248	1871	-17						
ROMANIA	1387	976	-30						
UKRAINE	2171	1774	-18						
BULGARIA	1747	1263	-28						
GEORGIA		2600	-20						
CROATIA	1916	1296	-32						
AZERBAIJAN	2791	1236	-56						
KAZAKHSTAN		629							
		0_0							
MACEDONIA	1335								
SERBIA & MONTENEGRO	1099	1031	-6						
TAJIKISTAN	666								
UZBEKISTAN	1763								
NORTHERN TIER CEE	1611	1908	21						
JAPAN	4933	5124	4						
FINLAND	2576	6052	135						
GREECE	1014	1294	28						
HONG KONG	93	1271	1263						
SOUTH AFRICA	491	308	-37						
PHILIPPINES	156	48	-69						
COLOMBIA	86	91	-09 6						
	7								
BURMA (MYANMAR)	1	9.03	25						

World Bank, World Development Indicators (2006 and earlier editions).

TABLE 28. WORLD BANK INVE	STMENT CLIMA	TE SURVEYS:	MAJOR	CONSTRAIN	TS TO BUSINE	SS	
_							
	Policy	Labor Const			ations and Tax A		
	Uncertainty	Regulations	Skills	Tax Rates	Tax Admin.	Licensing	
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	
POLAND	42.7	17.9	15.3	57.7	41.0	13.5	
GEORGIA	45.2	7.6	14.1	35.7	47.1	9.9	
SERBIA & MONTENEGRO	61.2	13.4	10.7	29.5	29.3	7.8	
ROMANIA	33.9	16.4	14.2	34.1	33.2	23.2	
MOLDOVA	31.6	8.2	12.0	37.8	47.6	24.6	
	04.0	0.5	40.0	45.7	04.0	40.0	
UKRAINE	31.3	6.5	19.8	45.7	34.9	18.2	
ALBANIA	19.1	2.5	10.4	40.9	25.0	22.9	
CZECH REPUBLIC	22.0	15.6	12.5	59.1	19.8	10.2	
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	33.2	2.5	18.9	31.3	35.1	11.6	
MACEDONIA	27.9	9.2	6.1	20.7	15.1	17.4	
BOSNIA & HERZEGOVINA	35.1	3.2	3.6	15.6	26.0	11.9	
BULGARIA	27.6	7.8	10.4	20.4	13.0	15.1	
HUNGARY	26.3	10.3	12.9	50.6	13.7	3.3	
LITHUANIA	23.2	8.9	15.3	40.9	19.8	8.1	
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	26.2	3.1	13.1	21.8	31.8	14.6	
ROSSIANTEDERATION	20.2	3.1	10.1	21.0	31.0	14.0	
ARMENIA	12.2	2.9	2.3	38.4	37.7	9.0	
BELARUS	23.4	3.4	6.6	20.4	44.2	25.8	
LATVIA	22.3	3.5	17.8	29.4	27.6	9.2	
CROATIA	17.9	3.0	7.2	12.0	7.7	9.2	
UZBEKISTAN	11.5	3.0	4.6	18.3	22.7	7.7	
TA IIIZIOTANI	F.G.	4.5	4.6	22.2	24.0	14.2	
TAJIKISTAN	5.6	1.5	4.6	22.2	21.8		
SLOVAKIA	13.0	4.6	8.2	8.3	19.8	17.9	
KAZAKHSTAN	9.2	2.5	8.6	15.6	14.3	9.0	
AZERBAIJAN	2.9	1.5	1.8	22.9	17.5	10.1	
ESTONIA	5.3	18.8	7.1	3.0	4.5	11.2	
SLOVENIA	11.5	4.5	5.4	12.7	5.9	3.2	
CEE & EURASIA	23.9	7.0	10.1	28.7	25.2	13.0	
NORTHERN TIER CEE	20.8	10.5	11.8	32.7	19.0	9.6	
SOUTHERN TIER CEE	31.8	7.9	8.9	24.7	21.3	15.4	
EURASIA	21.1	3.9	9.7	28.2	32.2	14.1	
DD A 711	75.9	56.9	30 G	84.5	66.1	29.8	
BRAZIL CHINA	32.9	20.7	39.6	36.8	66.1 26.7	29.6	
—	32.9	5.2	30.7 41.0	30.8	26.7 16.2	21.3	
ERITREA							
KENYA	51.5	22.5	27.6	68.2	50.9	15.2	
UGANDA	27.6	10.8	30.8	48.3	36.1	10.1	
ZAMBIA	57.0	16.9	35.7	57.5	27.5	10.1	

World Bank, World Development Indicators (2006) and World Development Report 2004.

Percentage of businesses surveyed which find this aspect of doing business to be a major obstacle.

	TABLE 28 CONT. WORLD BANK INVESTMENT CLIMATE SURVEYS: MAJOR CONSTRAINTS TO BUSINESS									
	Infra	structure ar	nd Busines	ss Environ	ment	Average of				
	Electricity	Finance	Courts	Crime	Corruption	11 Indicators				
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)				
POLAND	4.1	39.6	21.0	15.0	18.2	26.0				
GEORGIA	33.5	25.4	13.5	24.5	20.1	25.1				
SERBIA & MONTENEGRO	4.7	43.9	30.0	13.5	25.5	24.5				
ROMANIA	8.1	22.6	19.7	15.3	30.1	22.8				
MOLDOVA	2.9	31.9	22.1	10.1	17.6	22.4				
UKRAINE	4.9	29.9	15.2	12.3	22.6	21.9				
ALBANIA	34.7	19.5	23.9	8.6	31.8	21.8				
CZECH REPUBLIC	15.5	17.4	25.2	15.8	20.5	21.2				
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	4.0	23.1	17.1	19.4	32.8	20.8				
MACEDONIA	12.0	31.6	31.0	12.8	34.7	19.9				
BOSNIA & HERZEGOVINA	8.2	25.8	21.5	19.9	24.7	17.8				
BULGARIA	6.4	22.0	17.2	11.5	19.0	15.5				
HUNGARY	2.1	27.9	7.4	5.6	9.4	15.4				
LITHUANIA	3.9	10.3	15.3	9.5	14.0	15.4				
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	5.1	15.7	9.5	9.3	16.5	15.2				
ARMENIA	3.2	20.8	12.4	2.3	20.1	14.7				
BELARUS	0.9	22.5	3.0	2.9	6.6	14.5				
LATVIA	4.5	6.5	5.8	3.1	9.6	12.7				
CROATIA	2.1	12.7	29.3	3.9	18.5	11.2				
UZBEKISTAN	7.2	12.5	6.6	8.9	8.9	10.2				
TAJIKISTAN	10.1	7.2	4.9	4.1	15.7	10.2				
SLOVAKIA	2.7	7.9	13.1	5.1	10.6	10.1				
KAZAKHSTAN	2.7	14.9	8.2	5.3	12.7	9.4				
AZERBAIJAN	4.9	7.0	4.4	2.4	21.3	8.8				
ESTONIA	3.3	6.1	2.0	1.9	4.3	6.1				
SLOVENIA	2.7	9.5	8.1	0.9	3.7	5.0				
CEE & EURASIA	7.5	19.8	14.9	9.4	18.1	16.1				
NORTHERN TIER CEE	4.9	15.7	12.2	7.1	11.3	14.0				
SOUTHERN TIER CEE	10.9	25.4	24.7	12.2	26.3	19.1				
EURASIA	7.2	19.2	10.6	9.2	17.7	15.7				
BRAZIL	20.3	71.7	32.8	52.2	67.2	45.8				
CHINA	29.7	22.3		20.0	27.3	22.0				
ERITREA	38.2	53.7		1.3	2.7	18.6				
KENYA	48.1	58.3		69.8	73.8	44.4				
UGANDA	44.5	52.8		26.8	38.2	29.3				
ZAMBIA	39.6	67.7	38.6	48.8	46.4	36.2				

World Bank, *World Development Indicators* (2006).

Percentage of businesses surveyed which find this aspect of doing business to be a major obstacle.

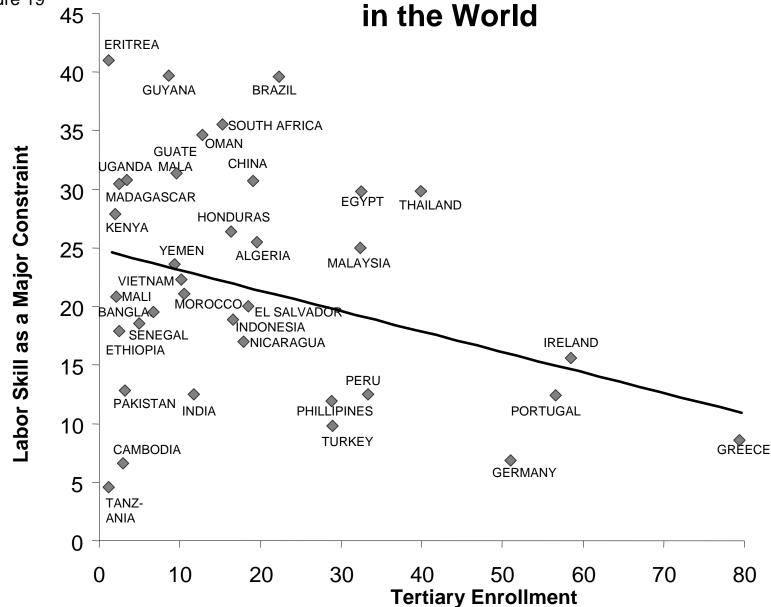
TABLE 29. WORLD BANK	INVESTMEN	T CLIMATE	E SURVEYS	: MAJOR C	CONSTRAINTS	S TO BUSINES	SRANKING	S			
	Policy	Regulat	ions and Ta	x Admin.	Labor Co	onstraints	Infras	tructure an	d Busines	s Enviro	nment
	Uncertainty				Regulations	Worker Skills	Electricity	Finance	Courts	Crime	Corruption
POLAND	2	1	3	10	7	8	11	4	5	9	6
GEORGIA	2	3	1	10	11	8	4	5	9	6	7
SERBIA & MONTENEGRO	1	4	5	10	8	9	11	2	3	7	6
ROMANIA	2	1	3	5	8	10	11	6	7	9	4
MOLDOVA	4	2	1	5	10	8	11	3	6	9	7
UKRAINE	3	1	2	7	10	6	11	4	8	9	5
ALBANIA	8	1	4	6	11	9	2	7	5	10	3
CZECH REPUBLIC	3	1	5	11	8	10	9	6	2	7	4
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	2	4	1	8	11	7	10	5	8	6	3
MACEDONIA	4	5	7	6	10	11	9	2	3	8	1
BOSNIA & HERZEGOVINA	1	7	2	8	11	10	9	3	5	6	4
BULGARIA	1	3	7	6	10	9	11	2	5	8	4
HUNGARY	3	1	4	10	6	5	11	2	8	9	7
LITHUANIA	2	1	3	10	9	4	11	7	4	8	6
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	2	3	1	6	11	7	10	5	8	9	4
ARMENIA	6	1	2	7	9	10	8	3	5	10	4
BELARUS	3	5	1	2	8	6	11	4	9	10	6
LATVIA	3	1	2	6	10	4	9	7	8	11	5
CROATIA	3	5	7	6	10	8	11	4	1	9	2
UZBEKISTAN	4	2	1	7	11	10	8	3	9	5	5
TAJIKISTAN	7	1	2	4	11	9	5	6	8	10	3
SLOVAKIA	4	6	1	2	10	7	11	8	3	9	5
KAZAKHSTAN	5	1	3	6	11	7	10	2	8	9	4
AZERBAIJAN	8	1	3	4	11	10	6	5	9	9	2
ESTONIA	5	9	6	2	1	3	8	4	10	11	7
SLOVENIA	2	1	5	9	7	6	10	3	4	11	8
CEE & EURASIA	3	1	2	7	11	8	10	4	6	9	5
NORTHERN TIER CEE	2	1	3	9	8	6	11	4	5	10	7
SOUTHERN TIER CEE	1	4	6	7	11	10	9	3	4	8	2
EURASIA	3	2	1	6	11	8	10	4	7	9	5
BRAZIL	2	1	5	10	6	8	11	3	9	7	4
CHINA	2	1	6	8	9	3	4	7		10	5
ERITREA	4	5	6	8	7	2	3	1		10	8
KENYA	5	3	6	10	9	8	7	4		2	1
UGANDA	7	2	5	10	9	6	3	1		8	4
ZAMBIA	3	2	9	11	10	8	6	1	7	4	5

World Bank, World Development Indicators (2006).

[&]quot;1" represents the largest perceived business obstacle in the country.

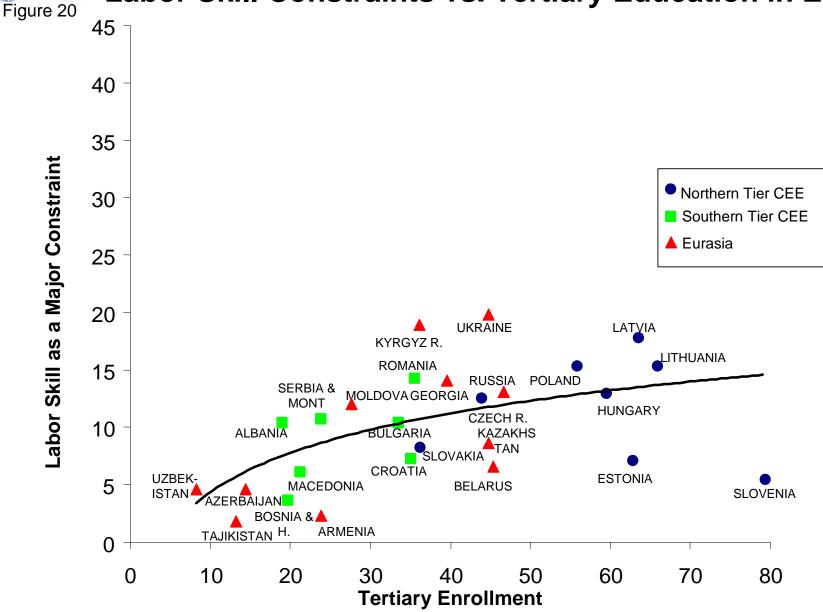


Labor Skill Constraints vs. Tertiary Education in the World



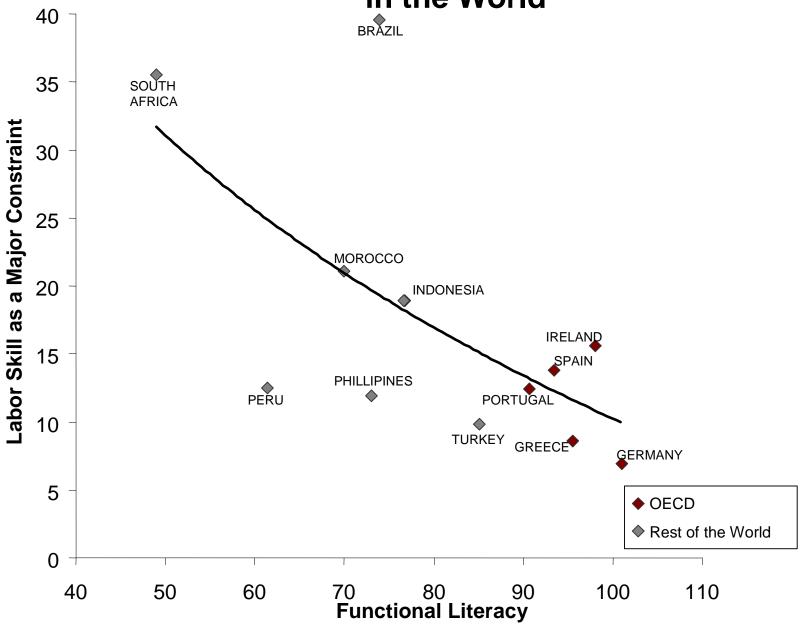
World Bank, World Development Indicators (2006) and UNICEF, TransMONEE Database (2006).







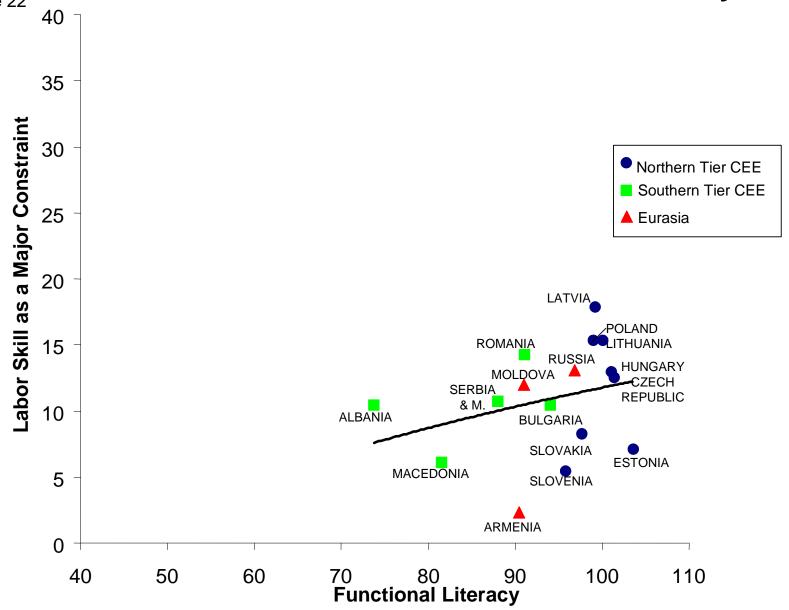
Labor Skill Constraints vs. Functional Literacy in the World



OECD, Learning for Tomorrow's World: First Results from PISA 2003 (2004); IEA, TIMSS 2003 International Mathematics Report (2004) & PIRLS 2001 International Report (2003); and World Bank, *World Development Indicators* (2006).



Labor Skill Constraints vs. Functional Literacy in E&E



OECD, Learning for Tomorrow's World: First Results from PISA 2003 (2004); IEA, TIMSS 2003 International Mathematics Report (2004) & PIRLS 2001 International Report (2003); and World Bank, World Development Indicators (2006).

TABLE 30. DOING BUSINESS: LABOR MARKET RIGIDITIES										
	DIFFICULTY OF HIRING RIGIDITY OF HOURS DIFFICULTY OF FIRING								OSTS AVERAGE OF	
									3 INDICES	
GEORGIA	2004	2005 0	2004 60	2005 20	2004 70	2005 0	2004 4	2005 4	2004 43	2005 7
KAZAKHSTAN	0	0	60	60	10	10	9	9	23	23
	0		40		40	40	22	22	27	23 27
BELARUS	33	0 33	20	40	30	30	22 22	22	28	28
CZECH REPUBLIC				20						
ARMENIA	0	33	40	40	30	20	17	13	23	31
TAJIKISTAN		33		20		40		22		31
POLAND	11	0	60	60	40	40	13	13	37	33
HUNGARY	11	11	80	80	10	10	35	35	34	34
UZBEKISTAN	33	33	40	40	30	30	30	30	34	34
MONTENEGRO		33		40		30		39		34
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	33	33	40	40	40	40	17	17	38	38
AZERBAIJAN	33	33	40	40	40	40	22	22	38	38
SERBIA	28	33	20	40	30	40	19	27	26	38
ALBANIA	44	44	40	40	30	30	64	64	38	38
SLOVAKIA	17	17	60	60	40	40	13	13	39	39
BOSNIA & HERZEGOVINA	56	56	40	40	30	30	33	33	42	42
RUSSIA	33	33	60	60	40	40	17	17	44	44
BULGARIA	61	50	80	80	10	10	9	9	50	47
LITHUANIA	33	33	80	80	30	30	30	30	48	48
CROATIA	61	61	40	40	50	50	39	39	50	50
		.								
ROMANIA	67	33	80	80	40	40	3	3	62	51
MACEDONIA	61	61	40	60	40	40	35	22	47	54
MOLDOVA	33	33	60	60	70	70	29	29	54	54
UKRAINE	44	44	40	40	80	80	13	13	55	55
SLOVENIA	61	61	60	60	50	50	40	40	57	57
ESTONIA	33	33	80	80	60	60	35	35	58	58
LATVIA	67	67	40	40	70	70	17	17	59	59
CEE & EURASIA	34	33	52	50	40	37	23	24	42	40
NORTHERN TIER CEE	33	32	60	60	41	41	26	26	45	44
SOUTHERN TIER CEE	54	46	49	53	33	34	29	30	45	44
EURASIA	21	25	48	42	45	37	18	18	38	35
EU-15	33	33	54	53	38	38	39	39	42	41
OECD	26	27	48	45	27	27	31	31	34	33
LATIN AMERICA & CARIB.	44	34	43	35	27 25	26	65	59	37	32
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	46	3 4 44	53	52	43	45	69	71	47	32 47
EAST ASIA & PACIFIC	24	24	25	25	20	20	42	42	23	23
MIDDLE EAST & N. AFRICA	28	30	45	45	33	33	42 57	57	35	36
SOUTH ASIA	39	42	25	25	38	38	70	72	34	35
SOUTH ASIA	39	42	25	20	30	30	70	12	34	33

World Bank, *Doing Business in 2007* (2006). Eurasia average excludes Turkmenistan.

TABLE 31. TAX WEDGE ON LABOR				
	THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LABOR COST			
	TO THE EMPLOYER AND TAKE HOME PAY			
	AS % OF LABOR COST			
ARMENIA	23			
KAZAKHSTAN	24			
TAJIKISTAN	25			
SLOVENIA	32.5			
ALBANIA	33			
AZERBAIJAN	34.5			
RUSSIAN FEDERATION	36			
BELARUS	36.4			
KYRGYZ REPUBLIC	36.7			
UKRAINE	36.8			
UZBEKISTAN	39.5			
GEORGIA	40.5			
SERBIA	41			
MACEDONIA	42.5			
LATVIA	42.75			
CROATIA	42.9			
ESTONIA	43.5			
LITHUANIA	45			
POLAND	45.2			
TURKEY	45.5			
MONTENEGRO	48			
CZECH REPUBLIC	48.1			
ROMANIA	51.5			
HUNGARY	62			

World Bank, Enhancing Job Opportunities, Eastern Europe and the Former Soviet Union (2005).

TABLE 32. PAYROLL TAXES ON LABOR					
	% TAX BURDEN ON LABOR				
DENMARK	1				
AUSTRALIA	2.5				
IRELAND	7.5				
CANADA	13				
UNITED KINGDOM	13.5				
PORTUGAL	14.5				
JAPAN	16				
NORWAY	18				
UNITED STATES	21.5				
BELGIUM	22				
AUSTRIA	23				
GERMANY	24				
NETHERLANDS	28				
ESTONIA	33				
SPAIN	34				
FINLAND	36.5				
SWEDEN	37.5				
FRANCE	38.5				
ITALY	40.5				
RUSSIA	41				
UKRAINE	41				
HUNGARY	43				
BULGARIA	45				
SLOVENIA	47.5				
POLAND	48				
CZECH REPUBLIC	48.5				
SLOVAKIA	50				

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Labor Markets in Eastern Europe and Eurasia

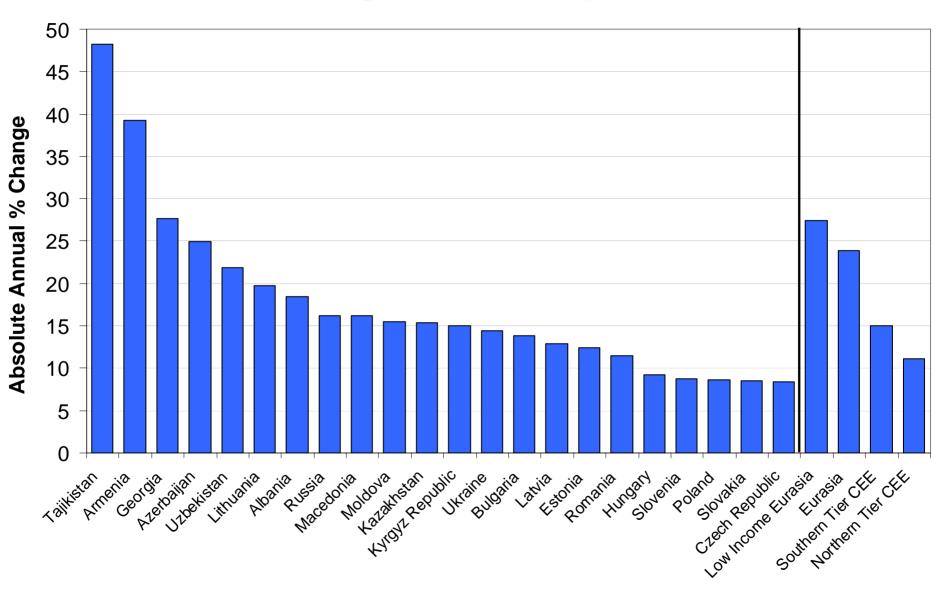
APPENDIX: Trends in Real Wage, Employment and GDP

USAID/E&E/PO
Program Office
Bureau for Europe & Eurasia
U.S. Agency for International Development

January 2007 Working Paper No. 6

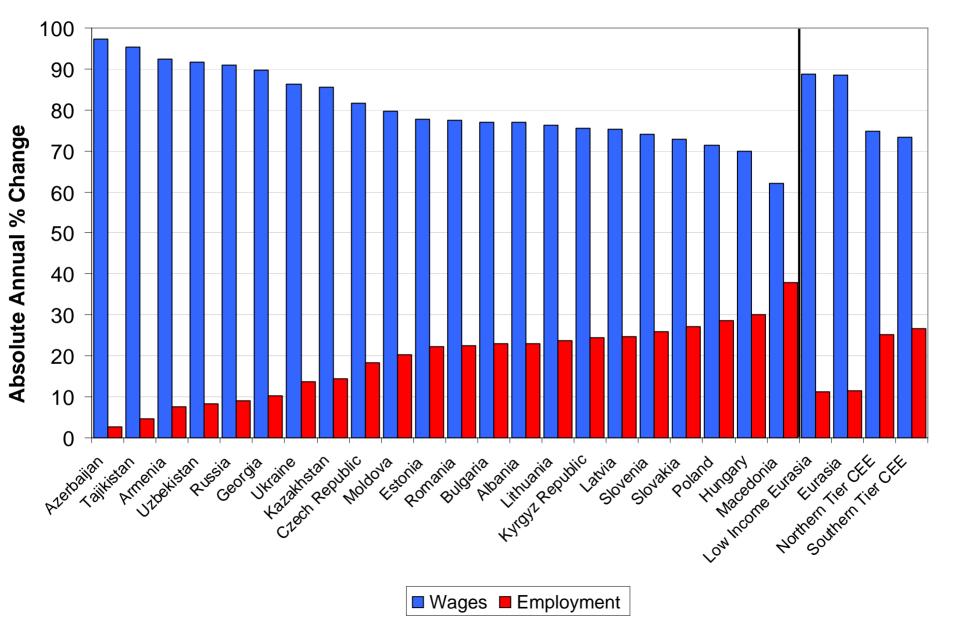


Absolute Labor Market Change over the Transition: **Wages and Employment**



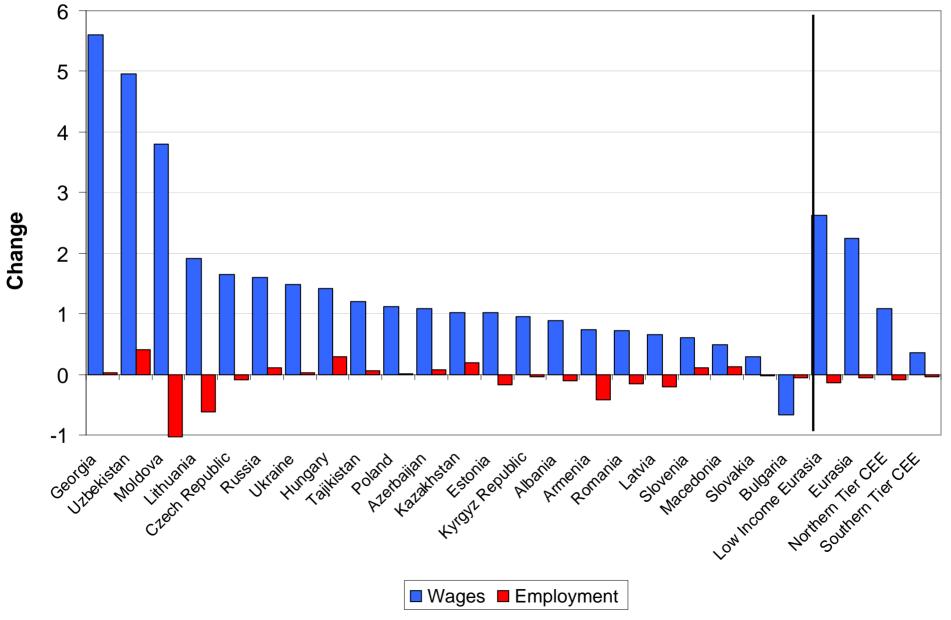


Distribution of Absolute Labor Market Changes from 1990



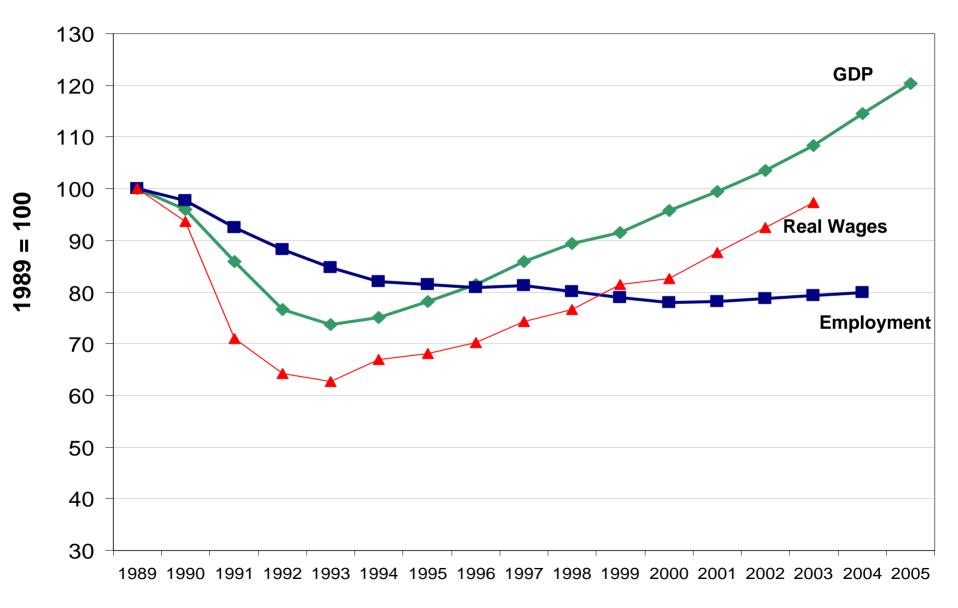


Responsiveness to GDP Change from Resumption of Growth



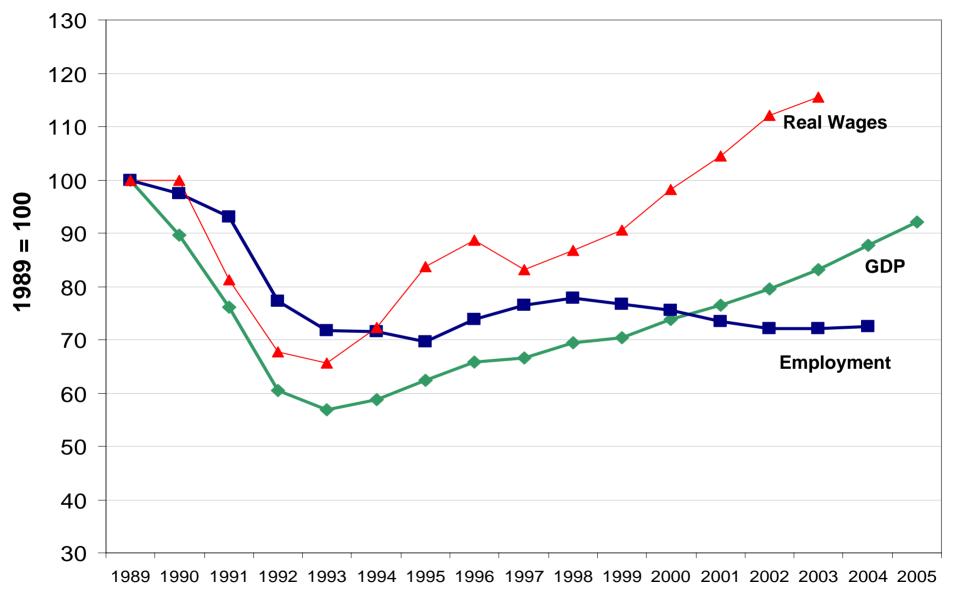


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Northern Tier CEE



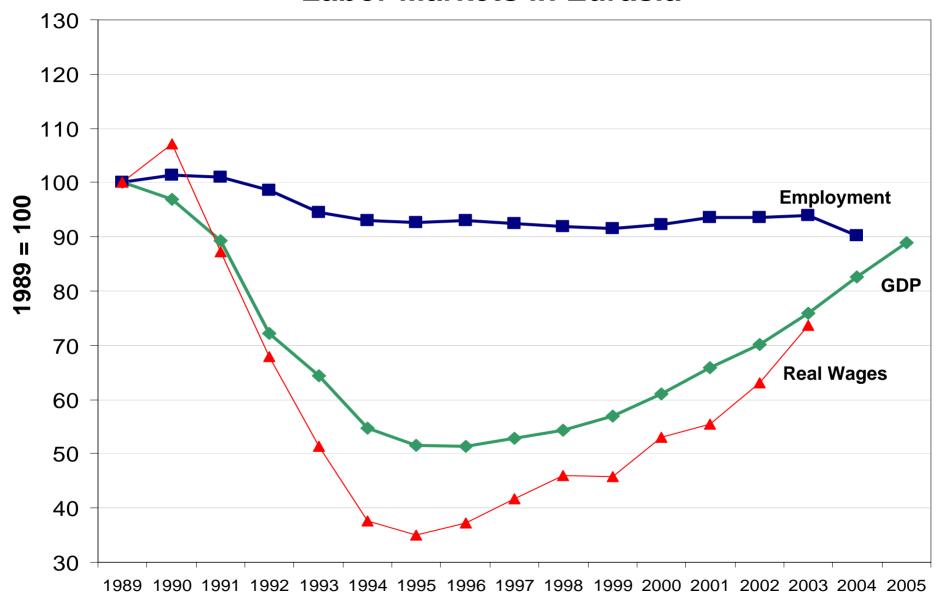


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Southern Tier CEE



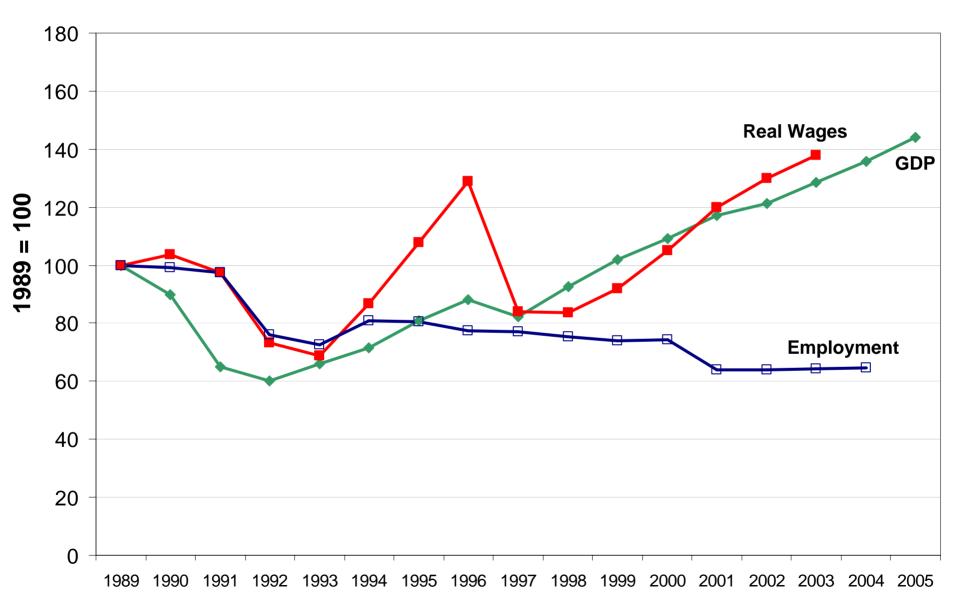


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Eurasia



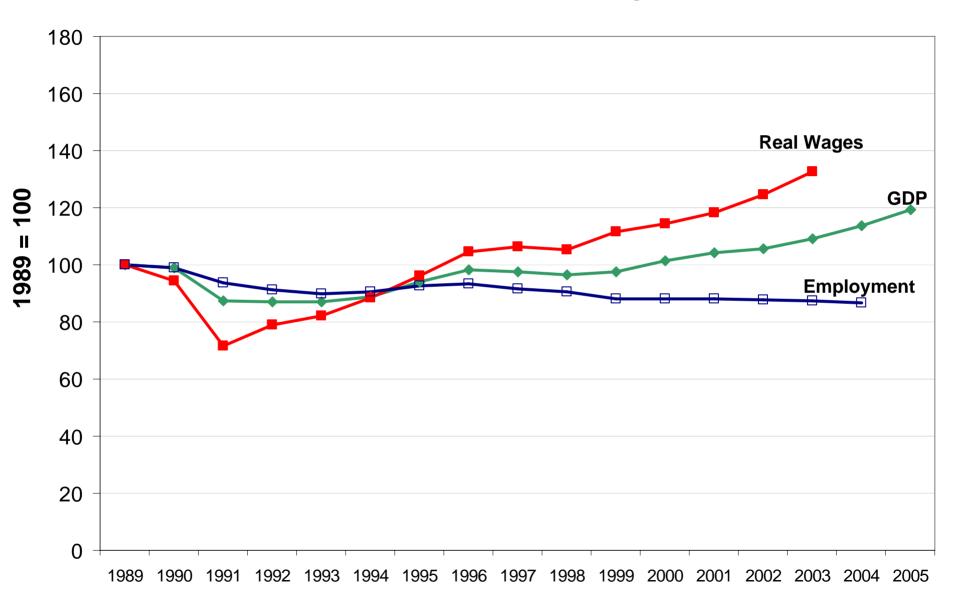


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Albania



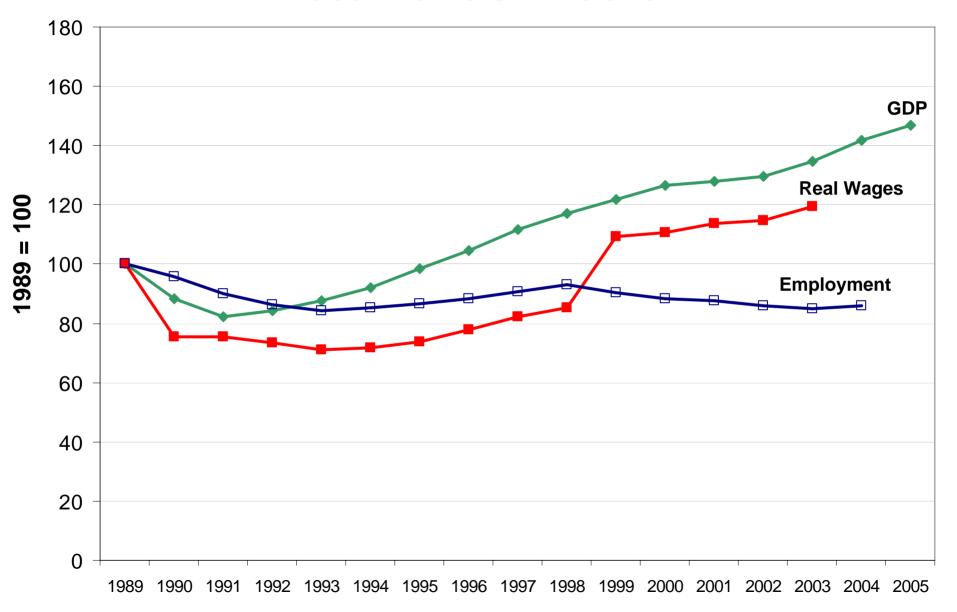


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Czech Republic



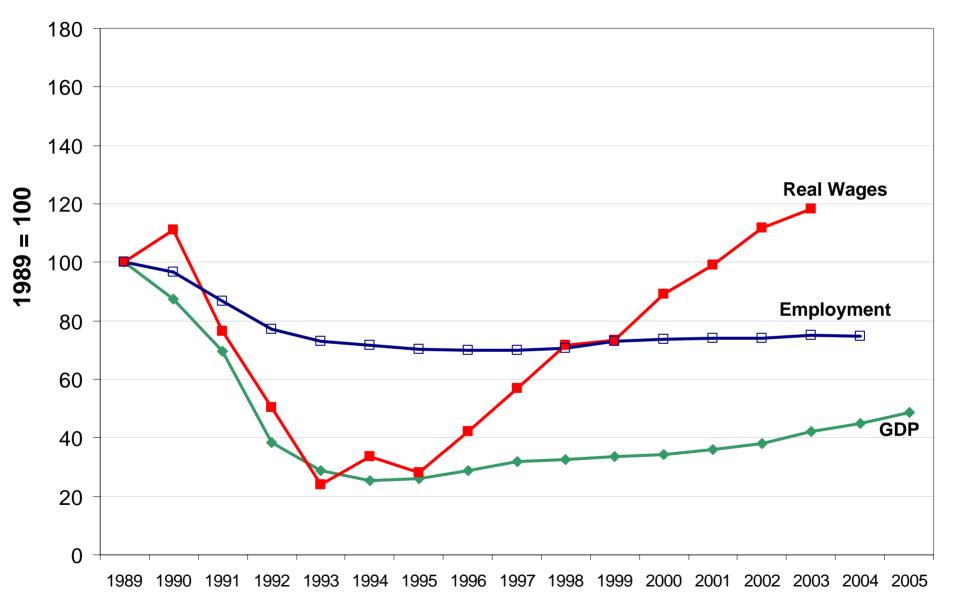


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Poland



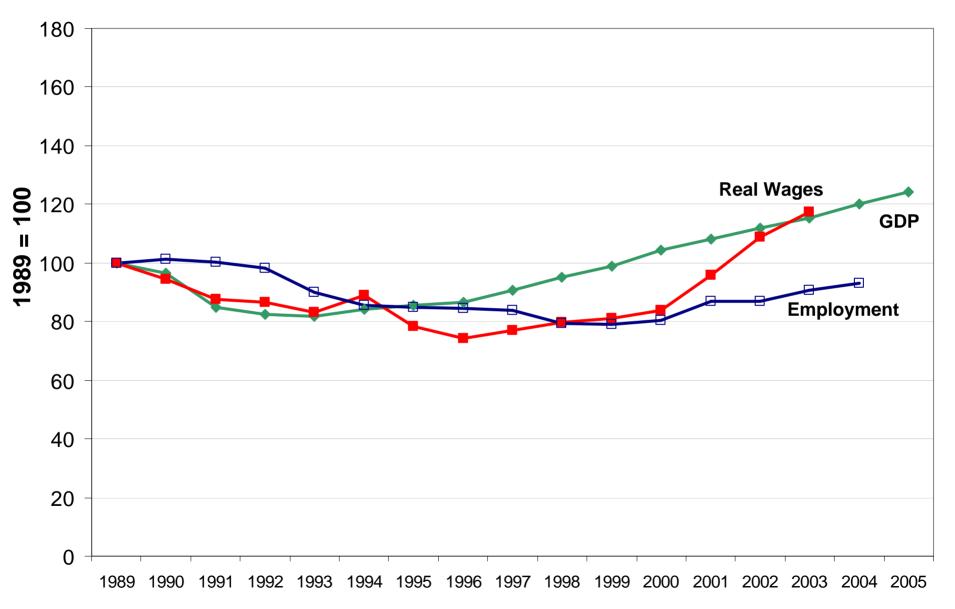


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Georgia



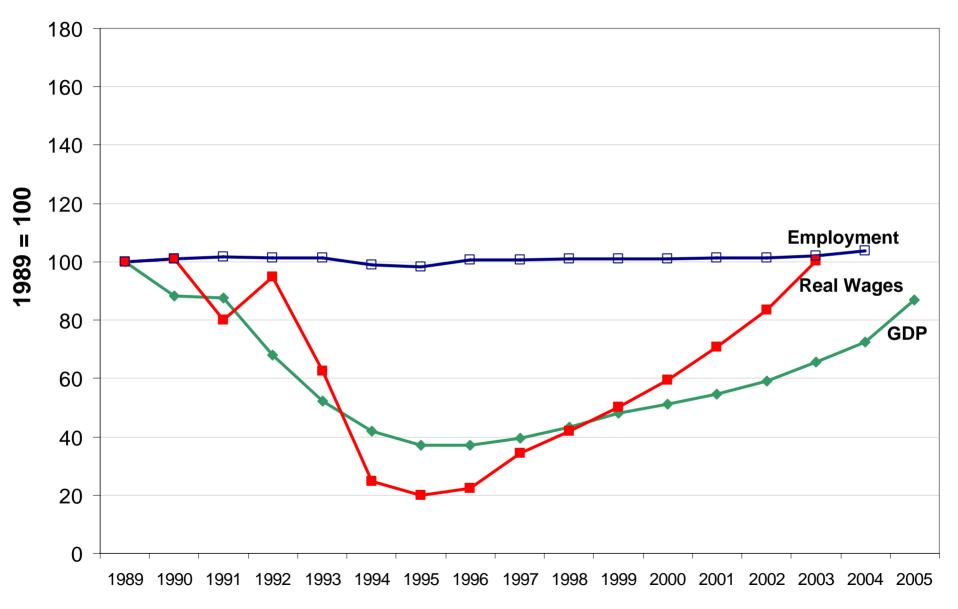


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Hungary



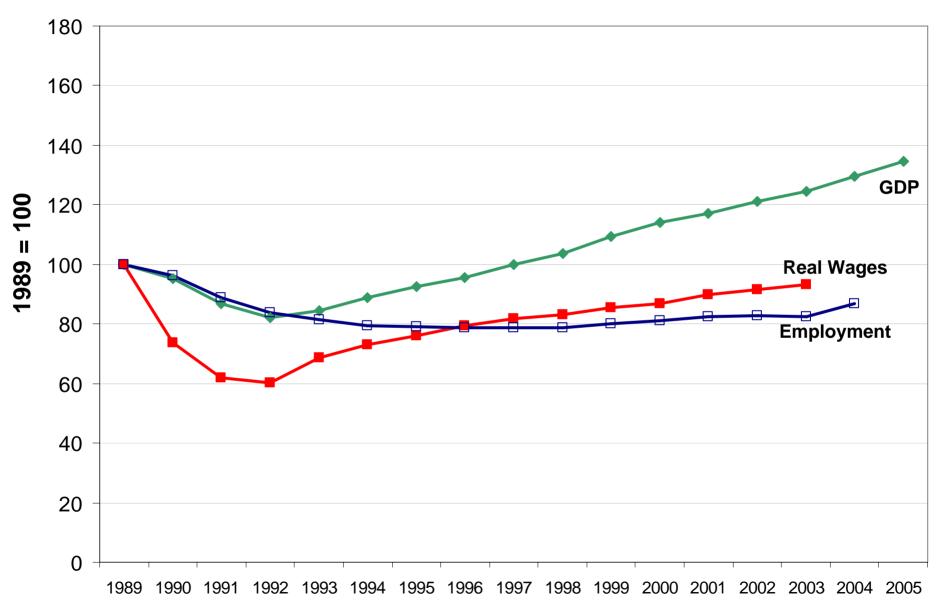


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Azerbaijan



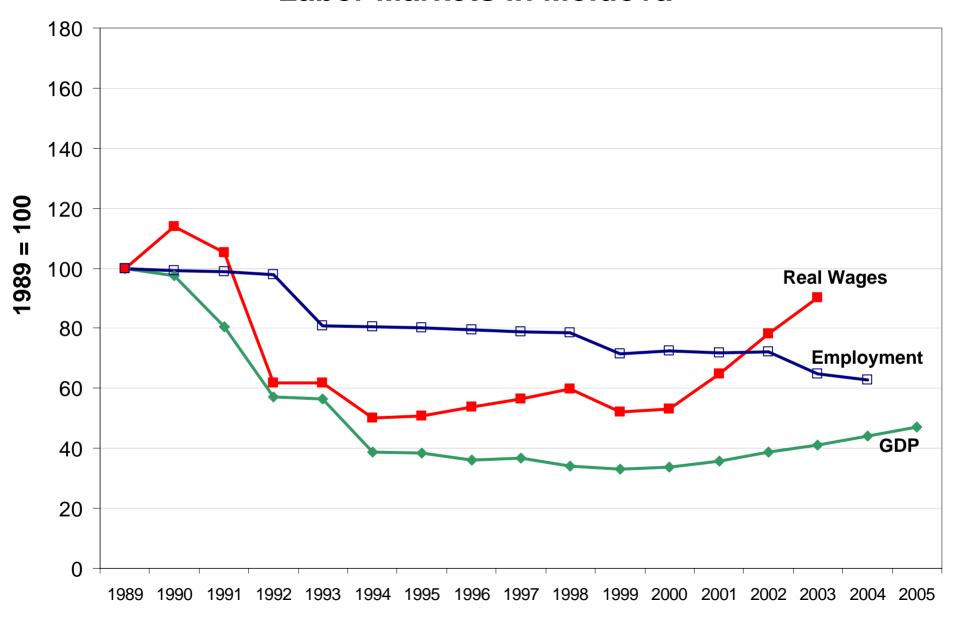


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Slovenia



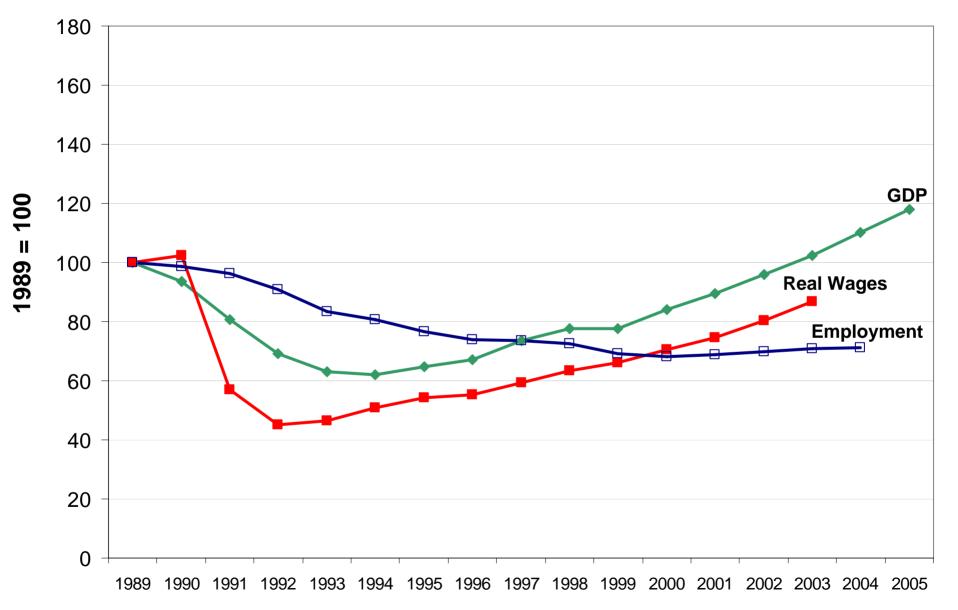


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Moldova



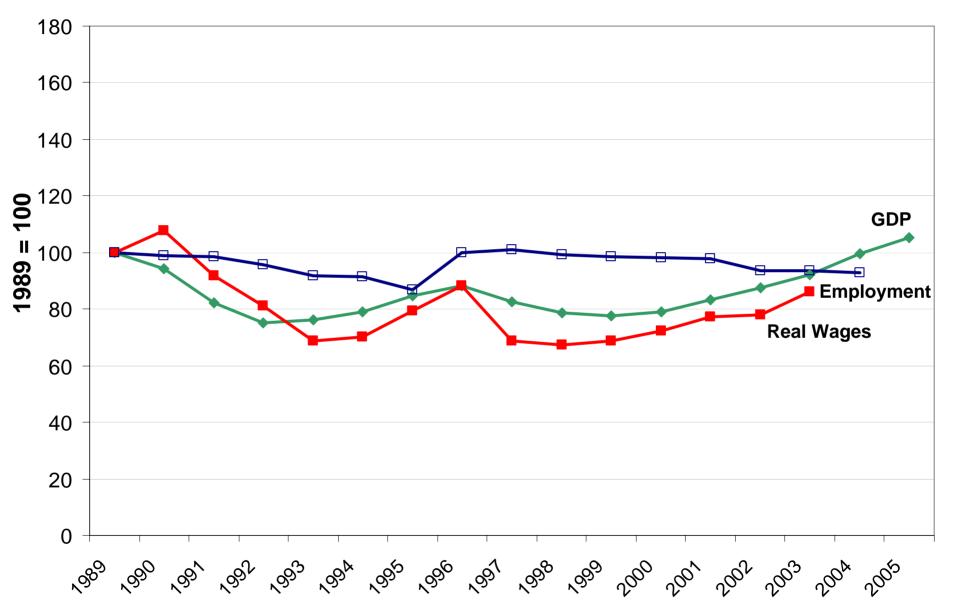


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Estonia



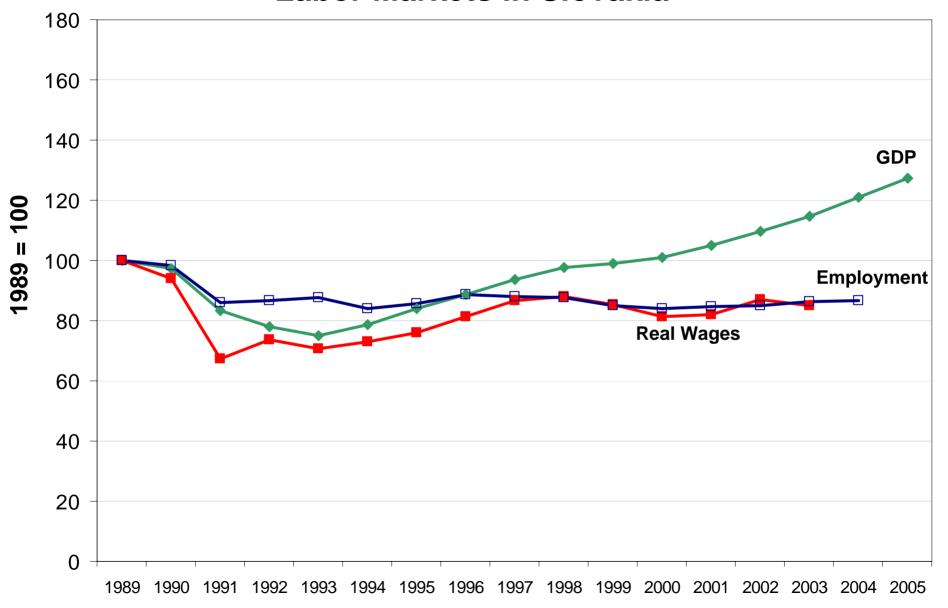


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Romania



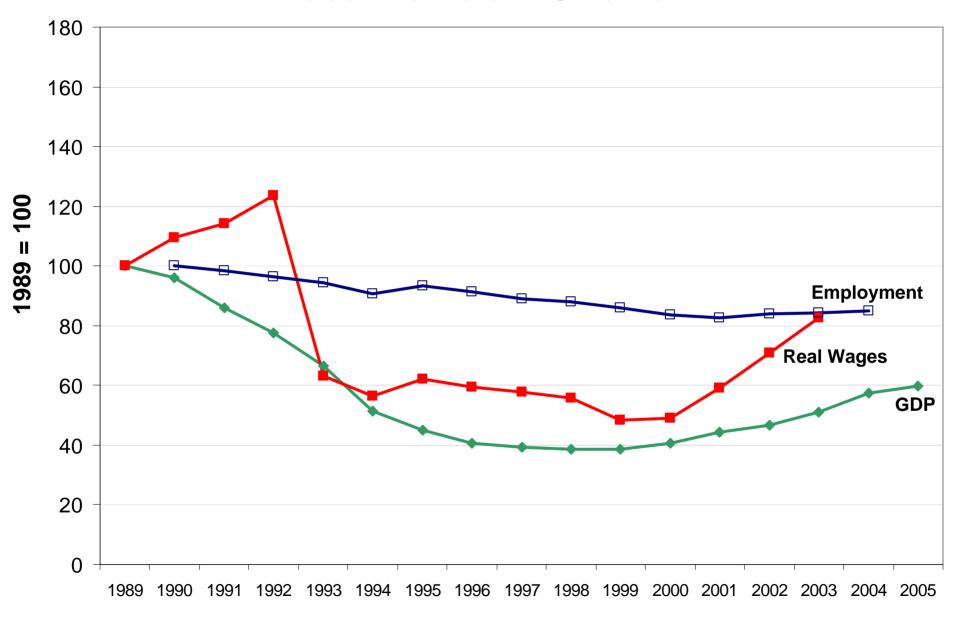


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Slovakia



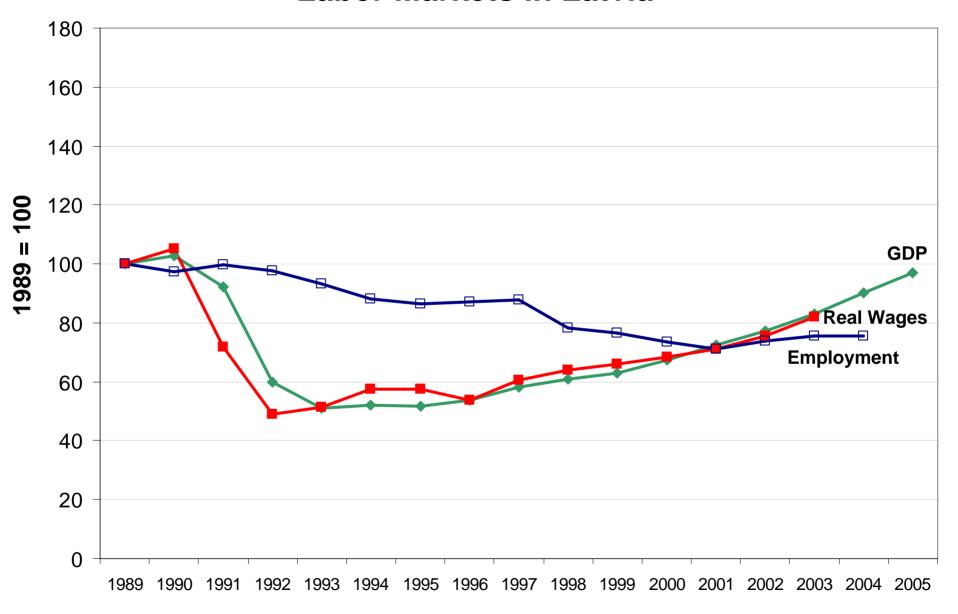


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Ukraine



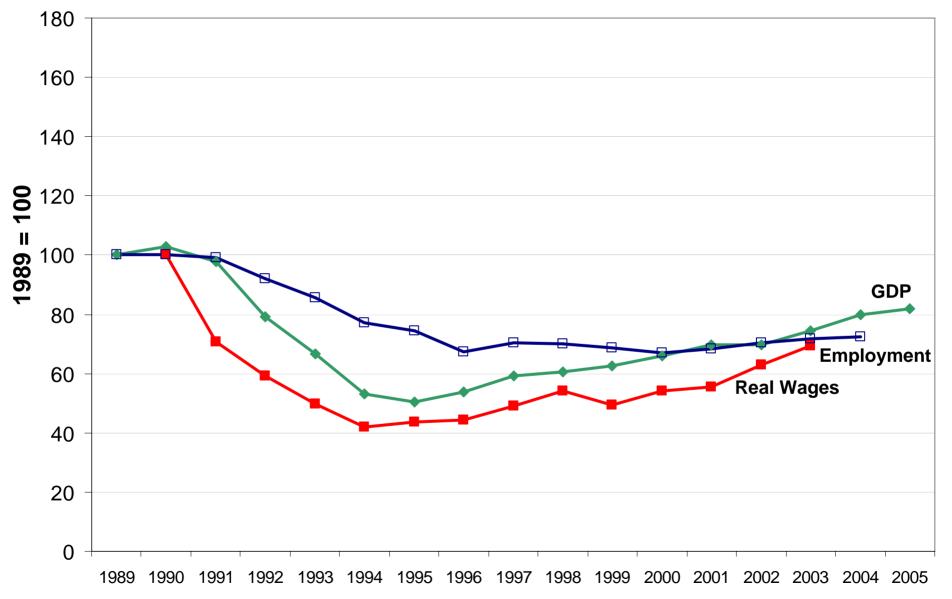


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Latvia



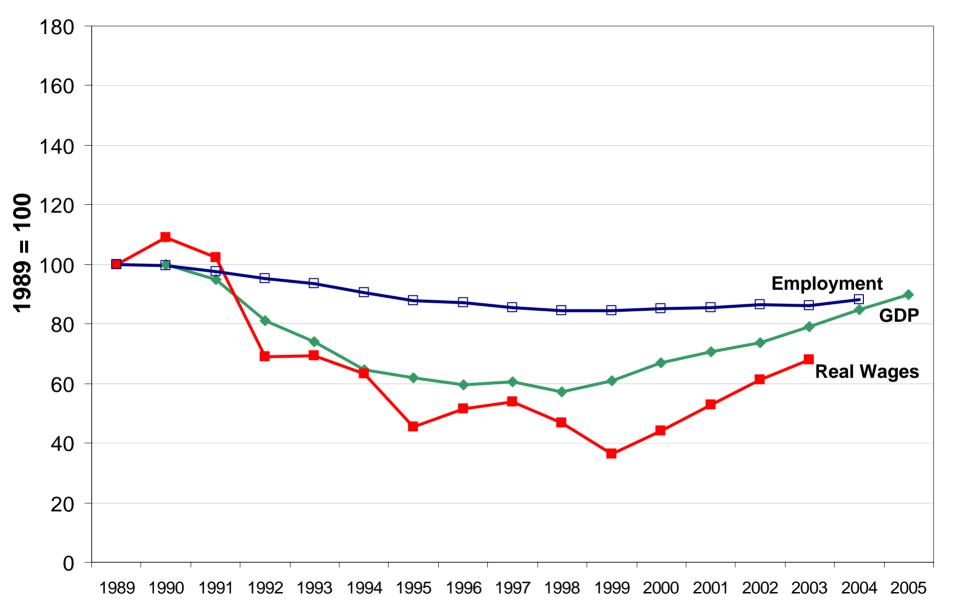


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Kyrgyz Republic



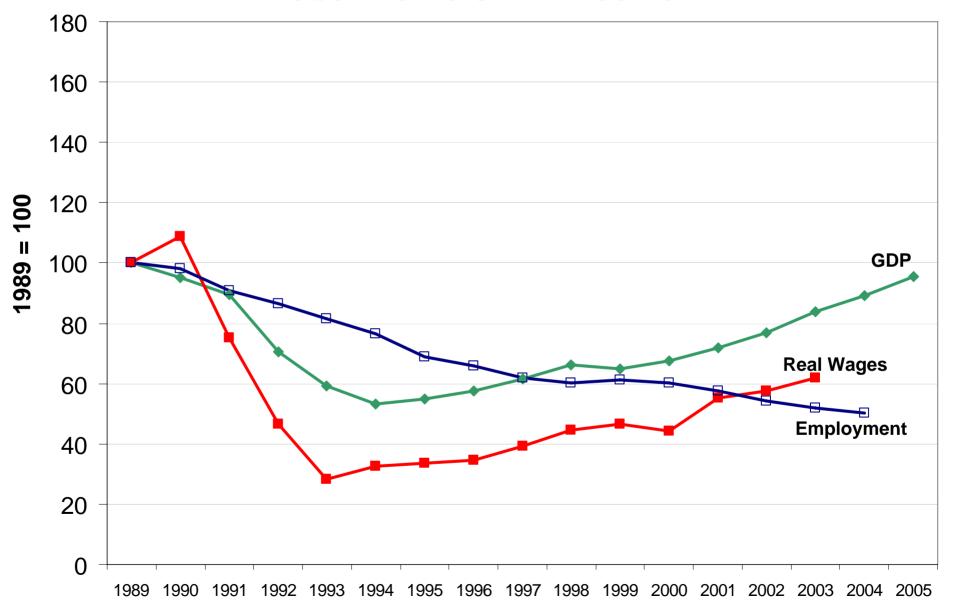


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Russia



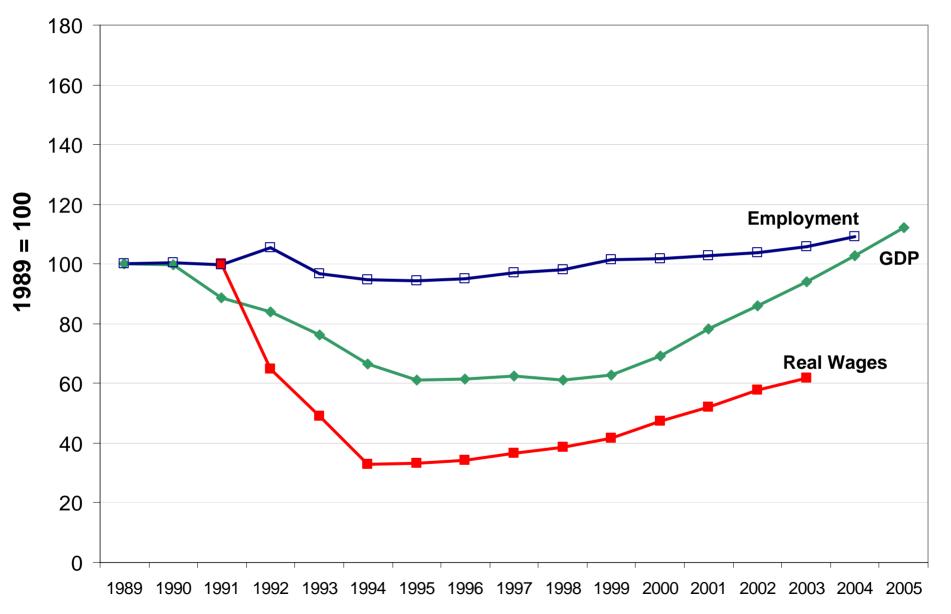


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Lithuania



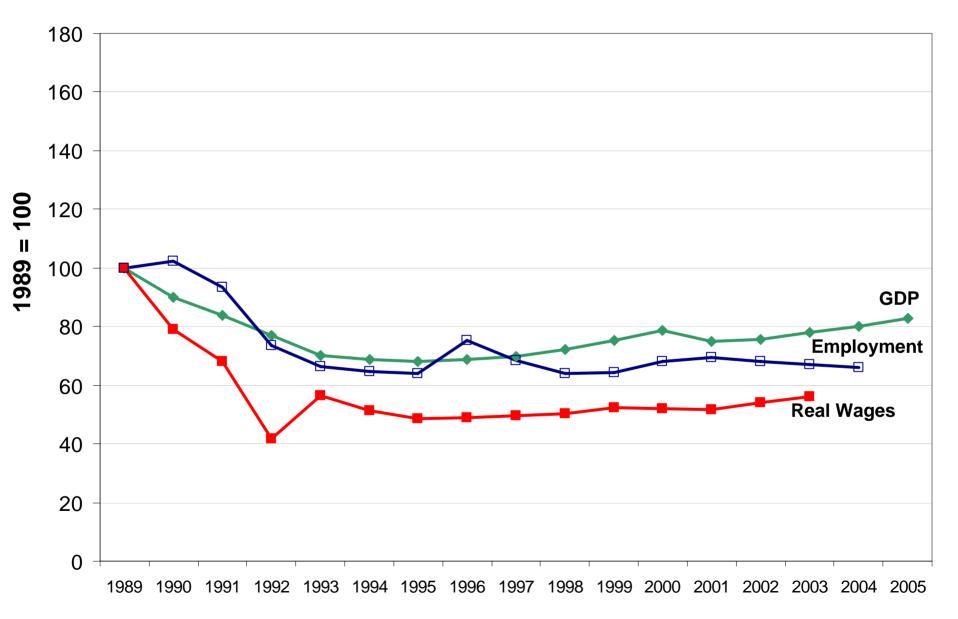


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Kazakhstan



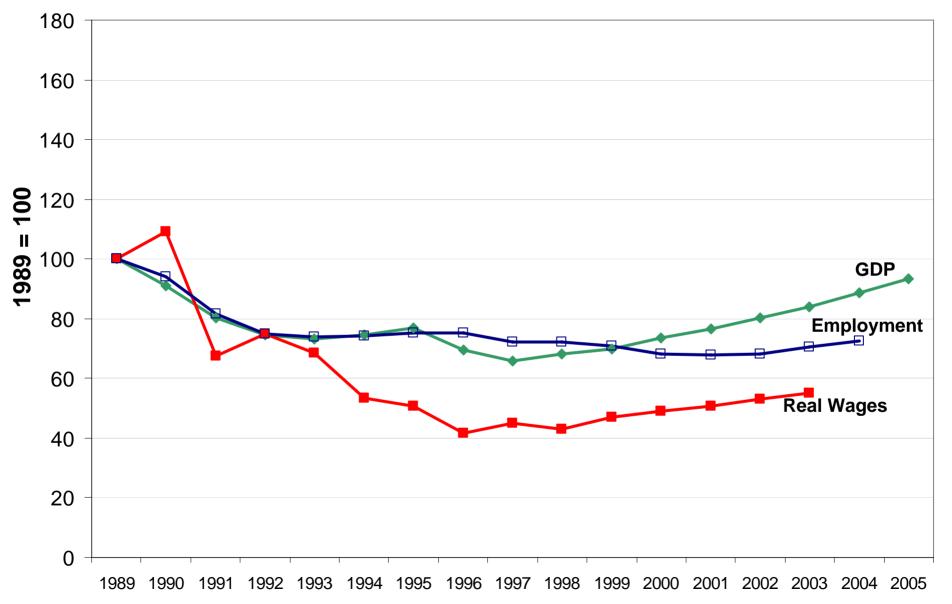


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Macedonia



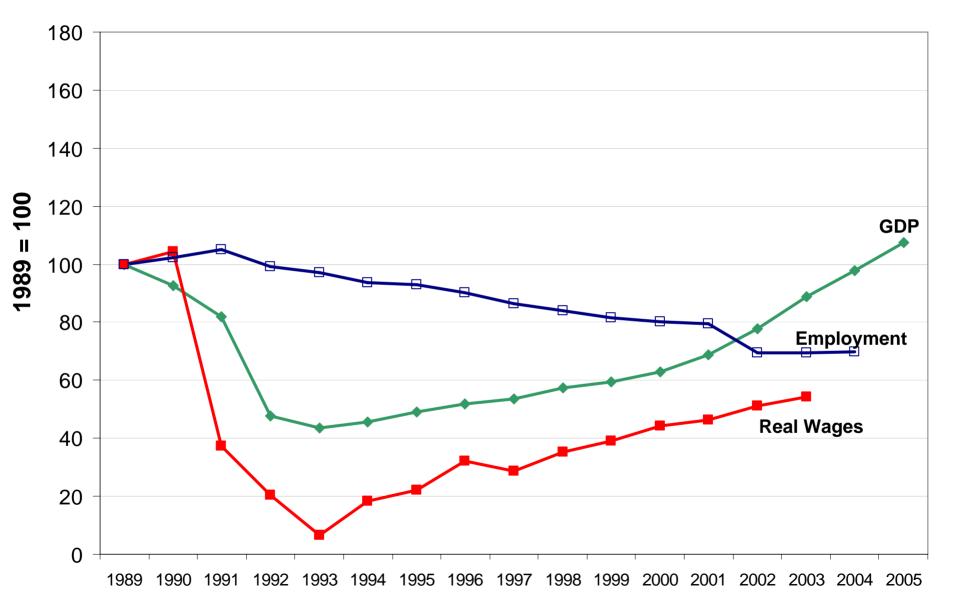


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Bulgaria



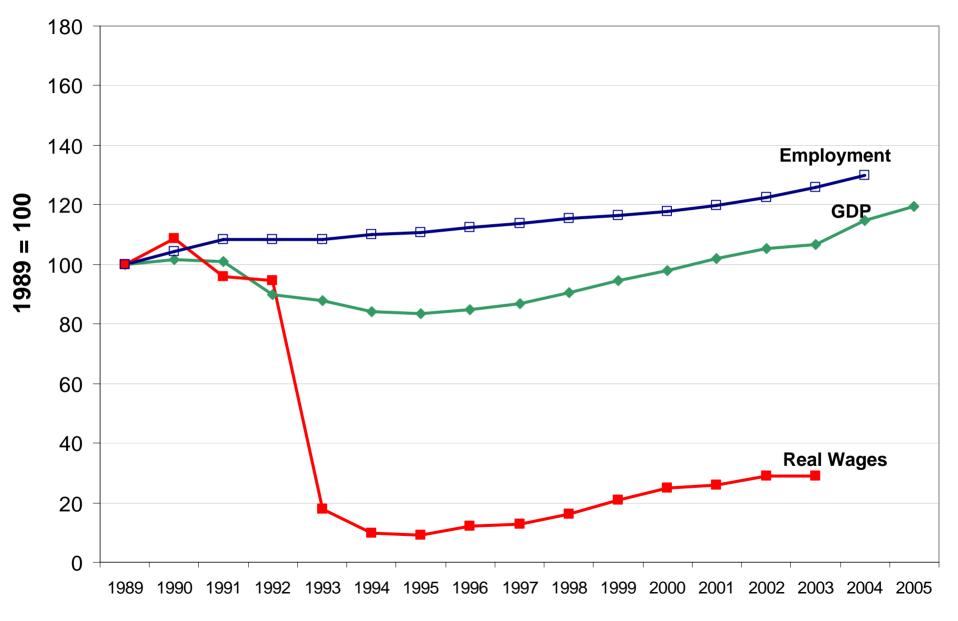


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Armenia



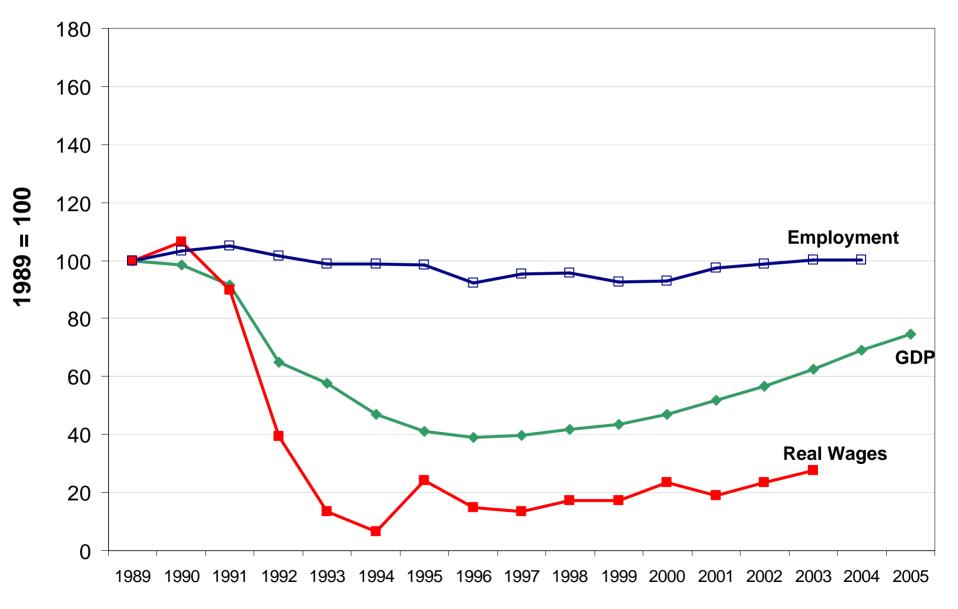


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Uzbekistan



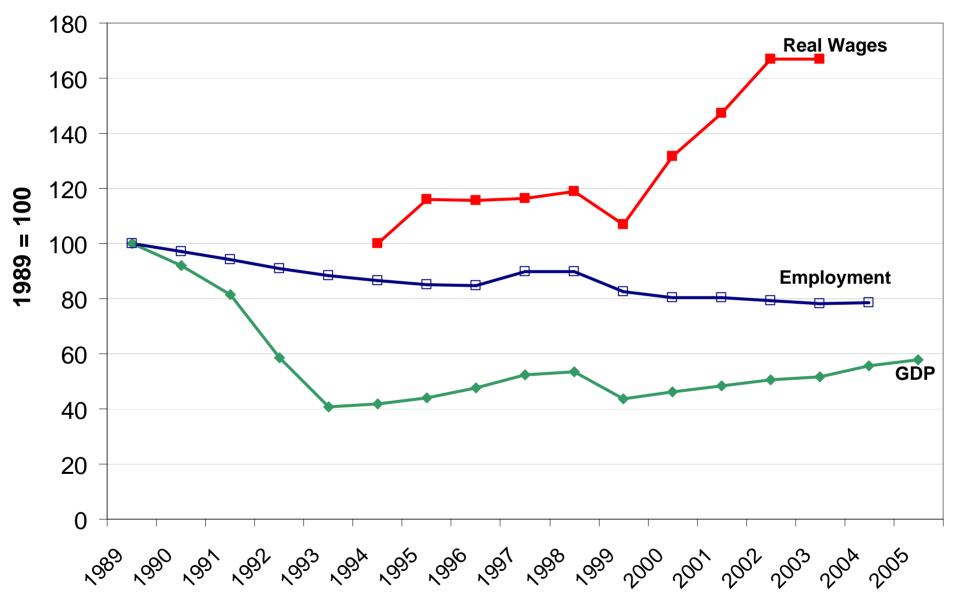


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Tajikistan



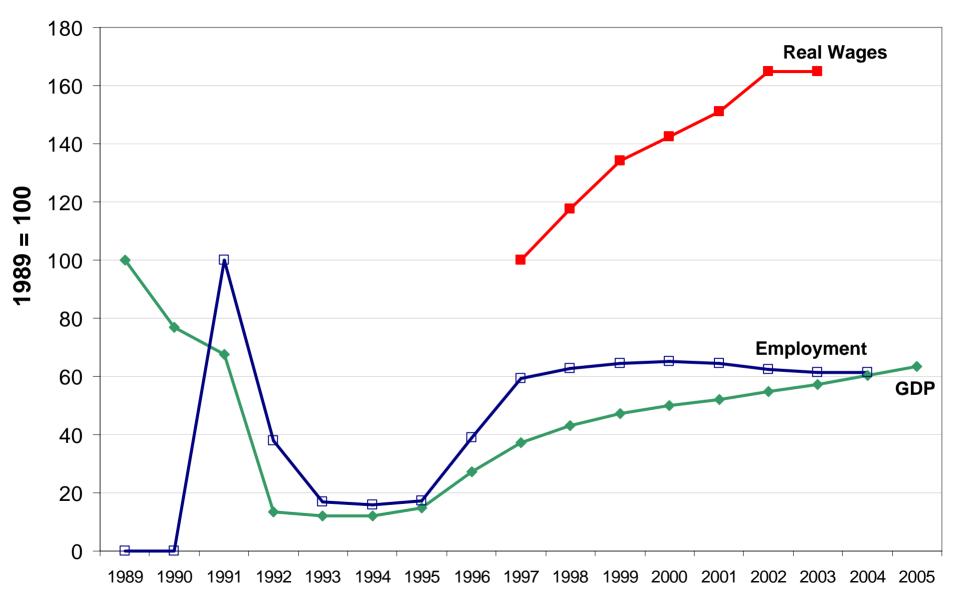


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Serbia & Montenegro



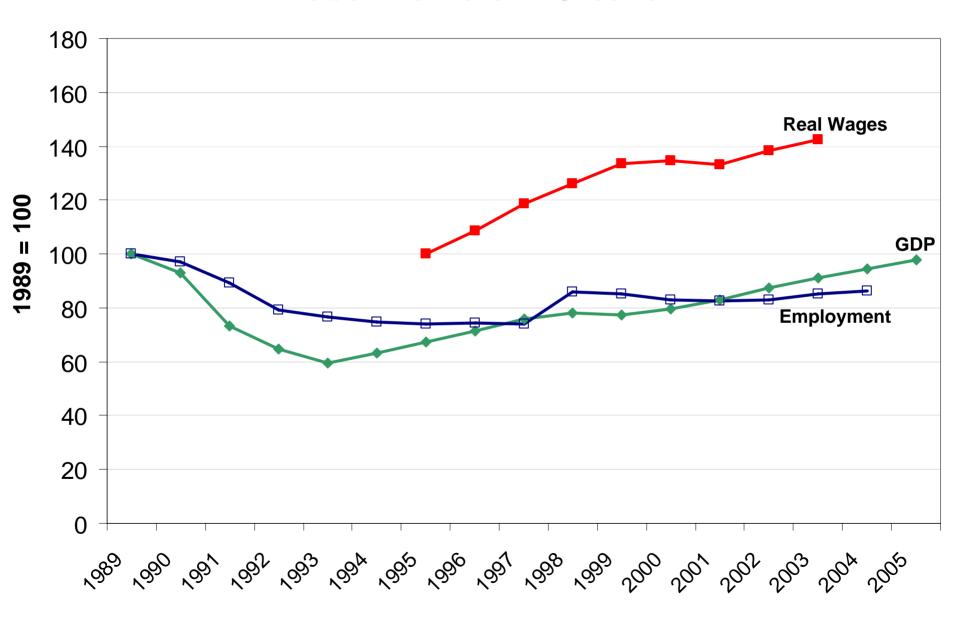


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Bosnia & Herzegovina



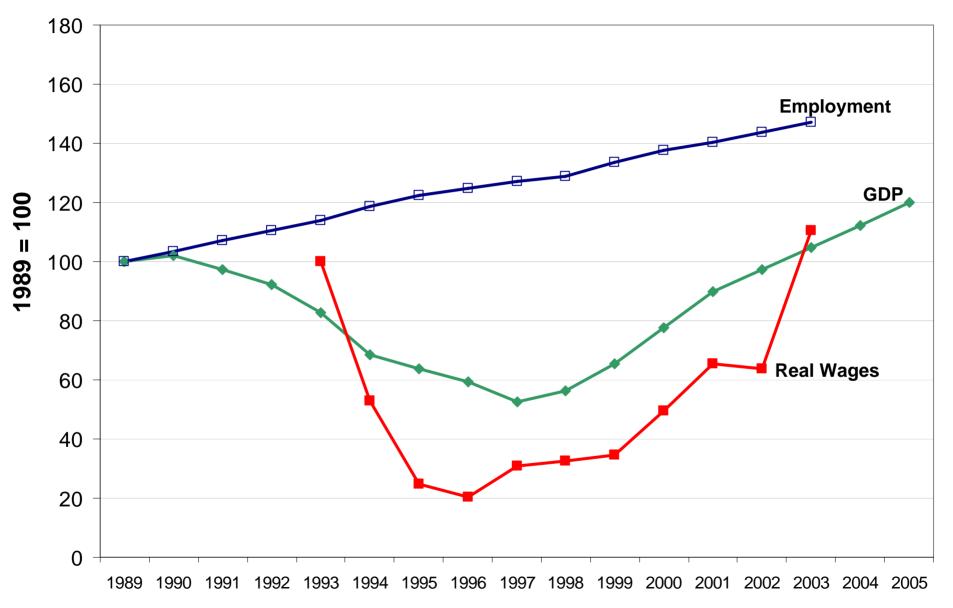


Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Croatia





Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Turkmenistan





Price, Quantity & Output Adjustments in Labor Markets in Belarus

