

Uzbekistan

COMMON COUNTRY ASSESSMENT • UNITED NATIONS • 2003

ABBREVIATIONS

CA	Central Asia
CAT	Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (p. 30) governance footnote
CCA	Common Country Assessment
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination of Women
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
CSO	Civil Society Organizations
GEF	Global Environment Facility
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CSA	Country Assistance Strategy
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DOTS	Directly Observed Treatment Shortcourse
EBRD	European development Bank for Reconstruction and Development
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
IDUs	Intravenous Drug Users
IMU	Islamic Movement of Uzbekistan
IMR	Infant Mortality Rate
FSU	Former Soviet Union
HDR	Human Development Report
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MDGR	Millennium Development Goals Report
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MoPE	Ministry of Public Education
MMR	Maternal Mortality Ratio
NEAP	National Environmental Action Plan
NEPR	Net Primary Enrolment Rate
NGO	Non-governmental organization
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OSCE	Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe
PHC	Primary Health Care
SMEs	Small and Medium Enterprises
STIs	Sexually Transmitted Infections
TB	Tuberculosis
UNDAF	UN Development Assistance Framework
UNICEF	UN Children's Fund
UNHCR	UN Refugee Agency
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States
USD	United States Dollar
USSR	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
UzPAK	National Data Network Company
HDI	Human Development Index
ILO	International Labor Organization
WB	World Bank
WHO	World Health Organization

INFO BOX

Independence	September 1, 1991
President	Mr. Islam Karimov (Head of State & Chairman of the Cabinet of Ministers)
Head of Government	Mr. Islam Karimov
Prime Minister	Mr. Utkir Sultanov
Cabinet	Cabinet of Ministers appointed by the President with approval of the Oliy Majlis (Parliament)
Capital	Tashkent
Total Area	447,400 sq. km (only 11% arable land)
Administrative Divisions	12 Vilayots (regions): Andijan, Ferghana, Bukhara, Djizzak, Khorezm, Namangan, Navoi, Kashkadarya, Samarkand, Sirdarya, Surkhandarya, Tashkent (also a separate administrative unit) and the autonomous Republic of Karakalpakstan
Population	25.5 million
Urban Population	37% (2001)
Young Population	56% under 25, 36% under 15, 11% under 5
Average and Projected Population Growth Rate	1.2% per annum (2000–2003)
Life Expectancy	71.3 years
Female Life Expectancy	74.4 years
Male Life Expectancy	70.5 years
Religion	Predominantly Islam
Neighbours	Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Tajikistan, Afghanistan and Turkmenistan (Uzbekistan is one of only two double landlocked countries in the world)
Natural Resources	Natural gas, petroleum, coal, gold, uranium, silver, copper, lead and zinc, tungsten, molybdenum
Industries	Metallurgy, natural gas, chemicals, machine building, textiles, food processing, automobile production
Agricultural Produce	Cotton, vegetables, fruits, grain, livestock
Exports	Cotton (third largest exporter of cotton in the world), gold, natural gas, mineral fertilizers, ferrous metals, textiles, food products
Imports	Machinery and equipment, chemicals, metals, foodstuffs
HDI Rank	101
GDP per Capita (PPP)	USD 2,460
GDP Growth Rate	4.2% (annual average for 1990–2003)
Government Spending	35.5% of GDP
Employment	65.3% of 15–59 years population was employed in 2000
Inflation	21.5% (inflation was 1,568% in 1994)
Literacy	men 99% and women 98.9%
Women's Representation	7% in Parliament ^A and 18% of senior management positions in the public sector

Note: Unless otherwise indicated the data refer to the year 2002

Sources: Human Development Report, 2003, UNDP and State Statistics Department of Uzbekistan

^A Human Development Report, 2003, UNDP; National statistics give the percentage at 10%

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Common Country Assessment (CCA) of Uzbekistan analyses the key development issues of the country in relation to the progress made in achieving the national priorities. It also analyses these issues from a global perspective, as to the progress made towards achieving the goals and targets of the Millennium Declaration and commitments of international conferences, summits and conventions ratified by the country. The CCA also assesses the impact of shocks experienced since independence in 1991 to today, and responses to the many challenges faced in the transition from a centrally planned economy to a market oriented one.

Firstly, the CCA takes stock of the contradictory aspects of the Soviet legacy and examines the country's financial/economic, ecological, and human resource base inherited at independence. Secondly, it examines the unique dilemma of maintaining the economic and social advances achieved in the Soviet period, while ensuring macroeconomic stability during the period of transition.

For this, the CCA focuses on the development strategy adopted to cope with the shocks experienced during the first ten years of transition and the difficulties of restructuring the distorted economy inherited from the Soviet Union, and aligning it with that of a global market economy.

In order to assess the country's achievements in meeting the development challenges, the CCA places the analysis in the context of transition and makes comparisons with other countries in Central Asia that also underwent the same path of transition.

Thirdly, the CCA examines the country's development situation from a human development and human security perspective. In this context, it looks at the mechanisms of people's participation and how they are linked with the efforts of the Government to manage the transition. It also looks at possible disjunctions between new institutional systems required to manage the transition, and inherited social values that are out of tune with the needs of a new society.

Fourthly, the CCA examines the overall impact of the development strategy adopted during the transition on people's lives by focusing on the economy, education, health, the environment, and governance. Within this context, the CCA identifies those groups (women, youth, the elderly, the disabled, children and low skilled labourers, who are especially at risk and whose well-being requires special attention in the country's development strategy.

Fifthly, the CCA seeks to mainstream human rights issues into the analysis of the country's development situation and underscores the importance of meeting the obligations under the international conventions signed as a key element of successfully achieving greater democratization and adopting a market economy.

Finally, the CCA assesses the key development issues and trends in relation to the Millennium Development Goals and other international commitments (see Table 1). In this context, it explores possibilities of interaction and cooperation among development actors under the leadership of the Government to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), notably through a focused poverty reduction strategy for Uzbekistan.

The CCA shows that the key development challenges facing Uzbekistan are inextricably linked with governance structures and institutional capacities. There is a growing gap between the need for new institutional systems that are required to manage the transition process and benefit from the opportunities, which a more



globally integrated world offers, and present structures and social values which are growing out of tune with the needs of a changing society. There is a need for targeted support to the government and society at large in identifying key policy options to make the model of transition more effective, transparent, and equitable,

particularly, with regard to participation and poverty reduction. There is also a need for a reformed system of governance and for strengthened capacity of existing and new institutions in order to ensure sustained implementation of reforms and international conventions.

The CCA analysis also shows that whilst the economic policies adopted after independence have guaranteed stable economic growth, the benefits of this growth have largely been uneven. The wealthier sectors of the population appear to have benefited disproportionately from the economic growth while others parts, notably the more vulnerable, have not benefited from growth and are burdened with most of the hardships resulting from the transition.

Based on the overall analysis, the CCA poses the question as to whether poverty may become a permanent feature of Uzbek society. Uzbekistan's poor tend to have relatively high levels of education and own assets such as land or the house in which they live. However, these assets, largely accumulated during the Soviet period, will eventually disappear if the low-income status of the poor persists, whilst past educational achievements may become progressively irrelevant to the needs of a new society. The danger for Uzbekistan

is that the temporary poor of today may become the permanent poor of tomorrow, making it more difficult to bring them out of poverty.¹

The national authorities, international development practitioners and the economists have so far paid little attention to the social implications of the transition and have instead prioritized economic and institutional development, thus exacerbating existing political, institutional, and economic problems.

The CCA argues that economic growth can reduce poverty only when accompanied by social development and governance reforms. Therefore policies which will be beneficial for Uzbekistan include those that promote labour intensive growth and employment, especially in the agricultural and private sectors, paying particular attention to regional, gender based and ethnic inequalities. Judicious investments in and protection of human capital can minimize the social costs of transition and increase access to quality health, education services and social protection, thereby making them more affordable.

However, most fundamentally, more active and meaningful involvement of citizens in governance is imperative for managing the transition successfully.

¹ UNDP and Centre for Economic Research (2003), "Linking Macroeconomic Policy to Poverty Reduction in Uzbekistan".

Section I INTRODUCTION

THE CCA PROCESS IN UZBEKISTAN

In 2003, the UN Country Team (UN CT) in Uzbekistan embarked on the process of updating the CCA, the preparation of the Millennium Development Goals Report (MDGR) and the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF), in order to pave the way for the alignment of UN programmes with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

The CCA for Uzbekistan was first prepared in 2000, but due to a lack of close involvement by our development partners, notably the Government of Uzbekistan, it only partially achieved its desired impact. In 2002, the UN CT decided to revise the CCA to incorporate the MDGs and to better reflect the changed development situation in the country after 11 September 2001.

To ensure wide participation, ownership, and linkages between the CCA, UNDAF and the MDGR, the Government agreed to chair a high level Steering Committee, co-chaired by the UN. The Steering Committee played an oversight function, supported by a Secretariat comprising UN staff, to manage the day-to-day activities in accordance with a mutually agreed work plan.

The data collection, verification and analysis were undertaken by five thematic working groups, which looked at the economy and poverty, education, health, the environment and governance and security. The reasons for choosing these thematic areas were the need to assess: a) the impact of transition and subsequent economic restructuring on the most vulnerable segments of the population; b) the implications of the continued double burden of diseases and of the emergence of negative trends which are eroding the gains in health and education made in the past; c) the long term impact on human and social capital of national goals and priorities in the field of health and education; d) the impact of major environmental problems on the human development of the rural population, together with the causal links between environmental degradation, poverty and security; and e) geo-political factors and regional disparities within the country, and the impact of governance on poverty and human development. Gender and human rights dimensions were regarded as crosscutting issues and in spite of the lack of adequate data, for example, lack of gender disaggregated data, they were incorporated into all of the above areas to the extent possible.

In addition to official data, the working groups based their analysis on data and findings in reports and studies prepared by academia, civil society and

international organizations. In cases of divergence of data and analytical approaches, different data sets and approaches are presented.

PARTNERS

The UN CT has used the CCA update as an opportunity to strengthen its dialogue with its partners, especially the government, the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank, on key development issues related to sustainable human development and the MDGs. As such, this CCA update has been a highly participatory and inclusive process that also involved civil society and the donor community.

The Government has shown strong commitment to the process through its active participation at all stages, including an initial two-day training workshop, designed as a capacity building element to enhance the CCA process. The 80 working group members also included representatives from the UN, civil society and donors. The training, with guidance from the UN Staff College, focused on causality and problem analysis based on log frames and participatory and team building techniques, for a high quality and focused analysis. In addition, the UN Country Team and the Secretariat provided continued feed-back and guidance to all the working groups throughout the process. Prior to publication of the document, the UN CT organized a National Round Table to extend dialogue to a wider range of civil society organizations, partners, donors, and academic institutions. The National Round Table served as a forum for promoting debate on the country's main development challenges and paved the way to the forthcoming MDG campaign.

KEY EXPECTATIONS AND PROPOSALS FOR FOLLOW UP

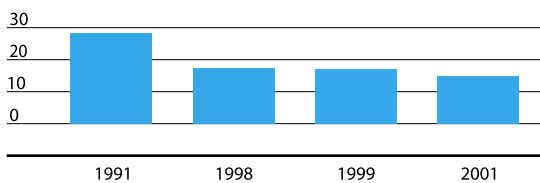
As part of its legacy, Uzbekistan has inherited a statistical system based on central planning methodologies. During the preparation of the first CCA in 2000, the lack of reliable time-series data was a constraint to a thorough analysis of the development challenges facing the country. Whilst an improved range and quality of data is currently available, there is a need for an enhanced technical capacity to collect, analyse and disseminate data to better support policy, planning and decision making. This is an area for follow up, facilitated by the establishment of a common development indicator framework (see Section IV) and the preparation of the MDG Report which is complementary to the CCA.

Section II THE ANALYSIS

THE KEY NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT ISSUE: THE TRANSITION

After the break-up of the Soviet Union in 1991, 15 newly independent states emerged. Strategically located in Central Asia at the crossroads of the ancient Silk Road between China, the Middle East and Europe, Central Asia, was for centuries one of the cradles of world civilization. Uzbekistan is the third largest in the CIS in terms of population and fourth largest in land area. Uzbekistan, the most populous republic in Central Asia with a population of 25.5 million has a crude birth rate of 20.4 per thousand. More than 56% of the population is under 25 years of age. This young population will have a major impact on the future population growth of the country, which is estimated will reach 40.5 million by 2050. Thus, although the birth rate is declining, the momentum created by the population growth in the past, still exerts pressure on the available resource base and is one of the factors exacerbating the issues discussed in this analysis.

Figure 1
Natural growth of population per 1,000
(difference between number of births and deaths)



Source: Ministry of Health and State Department of Statistics

Uzbekistan lies between the two main rivers of the region, the Amu-Darya and the Syr-Darya. Most of the country is arid, with the Kyzylkum desert taking up the majority of the country. There are, however, well-watered mountain ranges to the east. The heavy use of agro-chemicals, the diversion of huge amounts of water from the two rivers for irrigation and poor drainage systems have caused enormous health and environmental problems in the last two decades. These are exemplified by the Aral Sea disaster.

In examining the impact of the transition on human security, the CCA explores closely the areas of economy, education, health, environment, governance and security. The CCA follows a people-centred approach by addressing how key development challenges affect people, their immediate environment and their perceived human security.

In order to properly analyse the national development situation and identify key development issues of today's Uzbekistan, the CCA situates the transition process in a historical and social context. Thus, the transition is seen in this analysis as a defining feature in the development of Uzbekistan today. Issues related to economic growth, income disparities, health, education, environmental protection and, most of all, to governance have emerged in all their complexity, largely during the course of transition. However, the analysis shows that many of these issues have roots in the system of the Former Soviet Union (FSU) and in the complex history of Uzbekistan. A closer look at the Soviet legacy will enhance understanding and appreciation of the enormous political task inherited at independence of changing the country from a centrally planned economy to a market economy.

THE SOVIET LEGACY

Pre-transition Uzbekistan shared with other ex-Soviet republics the egalitarian ideology of Marxism. Uzbekistan's consumption based Gini coefficient (the standard measure of inequality) inherited at independence in 1991 was 0.26, considerably lower than the UK's (at 0.35) and the US's (at 0.43). The social system provided people with a high degree of basic human security. Economic and social entitlements such as full, lifetime employment were guaranteed, cash incomes were low but stable and secure; and labour participation among women was high². Furthermore, the state provided women with significant benefits such as maternity leave for up to three years, pension entitlements and early retirement for those who had five or more children (which was the case for 57% of families according to the 1989 census).³

Many basic consumption goods were regularly supplied and subsidized. People had food security, were adequately clothed and housed, and had free access to education and healthcare. During the period from 1939 to 1970, access to education for women greatly increased.⁴ People were assured pensions when they retired, and received regular benefits from many other

² The share of women in the labour force in 1989 was calculated 46.5% of the total workforce in: National Economy of the USSR, Moscow, 1989.

³ Pomfret, R. and Anderson, K. H. (1997), "Uzbekistan: Welfare Impact of Slow Transition", Centre for International Economic Studies, University of Adelaide.

⁴ See also: Kaser, M. and Mehrotra, S. (1996), "The Central Asia Economy After Independence", in Roy Allison (ed), Challenges for the Former Soviet South, Brookings Institutions, for the Royal Institute of International Affairs, London 1996.

forms of social protection. Families could rely on support provided to mothers who wanted to work or study, as there was a well-developed subsidized pre-school system.⁵ Between the 1960's and the 1980's the standard of living of Uzbek citizens steadily improved (see Table 2). Health, nutrition, and education indicators were at a high level across the Central Asian region and in 1988, fewer than 1 in 25 people lived in absolute poverty (as measured by an income of less than USD 2.25 a day).⁶



There were, however, negative aspects of the system which need scrutinizing in this analysis. The system of production was not adapted to a competitive environment, but to a command economy with an overriding concern for meeting centrally set production quotas. Within the FSU, Uzbekistan had a role of primary producer, particularly of cotton, and supplier of natural resources such as gold, that relied on a rigid form of central planning closely linked to the Soviet economy. This resulted on the one hand, in dependence on irrigated agriculture at the expense of the environment and, on the other hand a highly specialized, but underdeveloped cotton-based industrialization, at the expense of the diversification of the economy.

Production was carried out with blatant disregard for environmental concerns, which the Aral Sea disaster epitomizes. Water was an undervalued and underpriced commodity in an arid country, which led to a decrease in its quality and availability, particularly in rural areas. The direct and indirect socio-economic losses of the Aral Sea crisis in Uzbekistan have been recently estimated at USD 144 million per annum (which is approximately USD 5.7 per capita and 1.8% of GDP).⁷

Women played, and continue to play after independence a role of secondary earners, employed in less strategic and non-productive sectors⁸ (see Table 3). The percentage of 'non-employed' in the working popula-

tion was above the USSR average and the proportion of people below the official minimum consumption level was higher in Uzbekistan than in the other Soviet republics.⁹ At the bottom of the economic hierarchy were rural women who were concentrated in low skilled rural occupations. In 1992 it was estimated that in the final years of the Soviet Union, 14% of the potential working population in Uzbekistan was not employed (compared to 5.5% in other republics) and that approximately 90% of the non-employed were rural women.¹⁰

Manual cotton picking was (and still is today) a female job and in the cotton-growing areas of Central Asia, 50 to 75% of a family's income came from female labour.¹¹ Cotton picking also demanded the involvement of children, who were not only unpaid, but were prevented from attending school or enjoying leisure time, unless their families could afford to pay to avoid this form of child labour. The health of all cotton picking labourers was badly affected as they were exposed to chemical pesticides and fertilizers, often sprayed from the air.

At the time of the break up of the Soviet Union, the Central Asian republics were among the least developed and Uzbekistan had a substantial proportion of the population living in poverty (see Table 4). The quality of housing, health and education facilities in Uzbekistan, and in Central Asia generally, was lower than in other countries in the USSR. In 1991, health indicators showed that caloric intake levels in Uzbekistan were well below the USSR average with wide regional variations in the consumption rates of milk, dairy and meat products.¹²

Furthermore, there were stark regional inequalities, with the Karakalpakstan Autonomous Republic, for example, lagging markedly behind the rest of the country. Ethnic inequalities were also observable with widening gaps between average income and wealth of people from different ethnic groups.¹³ Slav households,

5 UNDP (1999), Human Development Report for Central and Eastern Europe and the CIS, UNDP.

6 UNDP (1999), Human Development Report For Central and Eastern Europe and the CIS, UNDP.

7 Dukhovny, V., Avakyan, I., Kurbanbaev, E., Roschenko, E. and Mountain Unlimited and Scientific Information: Weidel, H., Tischerdorf, W. and Swidshandl, A. (2003), "Assessment of the Social Economic Damage Under the Influence of the Aral Sea Level Lowering for the South Aral Sea Costs", Centre of Interstate Coordination Water Commission (SIC ICWC).

8 Alimjanova, D. (2002), "Women's Status in Uzbekistan" (draft), Country Briefing Paper, Gender Consultant for Uzbekistan Resident Mission of Asian Development Bank.

9 Pomfret, R. and Anderson, K. H. (1997), "Uzbekistan: Welfare Impact on Slow Transition", Centre for International Economic Studies, University of Adelaide.

10 Marnie, S. (1992), "The Soviet Labour Market in Transition", in Pomfret, R. (1999), "Uzbekistan, Income Distribution and Social Structure during the Transition".

11 Alimjanova, D. (2002), "Women's Status in Uzbekistan".

12 Average meat consumption per capita per year was 81 kg in Tashkent and 20–23 kg in the Ferghana Valley; milk consumption was 376 kg in Tashkent and 144 kg in Andijan and the poorest households received 60% of their caloric intake from bread alone. See P. Craumer, (1995), "Rural and Agricultural Development in Uzbekistan", Former Soviet South Project, Royal Institute of International Affairs.

13 Lubin, N. (1984), "Labour and Nationality in Soviet Central Asia: An Uneasy Compromise", Princeton University, Princeton NJ.

for example, tended to be located in cities and were generally better educated.

The previously indisputable universal educational gains of the 1960s and 1970s may also be questioned, as gender and ethnic data was either not available or was not disaggregated. Furthermore, concerns have also arisen from the fact that emancipation was perceived in part as being conducted forcefully and in disregard of local traditions and customs.¹⁴ The education system rarely encouraged or valued independent thinking and educational standards and curricula were unambiguously targeted at the top 5% of students.¹⁵ It has now become accepted that generally freedom, democracy and genuine political participation, were lacking in the FSU.

THE SHOCK OF THE TRANSITION AND ECONOMIC RESTRUCTURING

When the centrally planned economy of the Soviet Union collapsed in 1991, a world system dissolved and became irrelevant. The transition to a market economy has been characterized in all ex-Soviet countries by dramatic declines in income and employment, the reappearance of long-forgotten diseases, growing poverty and inequalities, as well as great uncertainties.¹⁶ The persistence and deepening of poverty since the collapse of the Soviet Union have contributed to a profound shift in perceptions about economic and social reality. The stability and security that people had enjoyed was gone, causing unprecedented levels of social and economic stress.¹⁷ The transition has been compared by many to the period that followed the two World Wars or the Great Depression of the 1930s¹⁸ (see Table 5).

In economic terms, at independence Uzbekistan inherited a number of positive factors, the most notable of which were: a) limited participation in the complex division of labour system of the Soviet Union, which caused manufacturing to collapse in other republics immediately following the dissolution; b) limited participation in industrial production; and c) the existence of large shares of easily marketable raw materials, such as cotton fibre and gold, in total exports.¹⁹ In addition to these factors, Uzbekistan has a rich natural resource endowment.

However, the transition brought with it a number of profound shocks, which had a significant impact upon Uzbekistan's financial stability. Firstly, there was a loss of considerable fiscal transfers and subsidies from the FSU budget that accounted for approximately 21% of the republic's GDP in 1991²⁰ (in 1992 the budget deficit was estimated between 10% and 18% of GDP).²¹ Secondly, the deteriorating terms of external trade and the increased oil price, as the country was heavily dependent on imports of essential food and energy products, which had previously been imported at a subsidized price from the Soviet Union (see Table 6). Thirdly, there was a heavy disruption in international and inter-republic trade and the exodus of a large number of non-ethnic Uzbek, professional cadre who had occupied technical and managerial positions.²²

THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY

The overall government development strategy after independence can be summarized as building a '*socially-oriented market economy*'. This strategy aims at: a) achieving economic independence by reducing imports through import substitution and ensuring energy and food self sufficiency; b) diversifying the economy from its raw material orientation to a more modern competitive industrialized structure; c) increasing export potential and foreign exchange reserves for a strong stable currency; and d) expanding employment opportunities and raising living standards.²³

In order to minimize the fall in standards of living and income differentiation and address the decline in production, the increase in unemployment and growing inflation, the focus of the first stage of the transition in Uzbekistan, (taking place from 1991 to 1993), was to achieve macroeconomic stability, prevent further decline in production, and create conditions for sustainable growth. Some privatization took place, and household plots and real estate were privatized.

The second stage, from 1994 to 1996, was characterized by the introduction of legislative reforms of small-scale privatization and the establishment of a mechanism for large-scale privatization through the Privatization Investment Funds. Trade was partially liberalized and state control over agricultural output was reduced (other than for cotton and grain). In addition, reform of the banking system began, and the fiscal deficit was cut substantially. However, after achieving macroeconomic stabilization, introducing a structural reform programme in late 1994 and achieving self-sufficiency in food and grain, a series of setbacks occurred. Most significantly, the cotton crisis of 1996 led to a 15%

14 Pomfret, R. (1999), "Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic and Tokhtakodjaeva, M. (1995), "Between the Slogans of Communism and the Laws of Islam", Shirkat Gah Women's Resource Centre, Lahore.

15 Reed, T. (2002), "Overcoming Text Book Misery in Uzbekistan" in Transition July–August–September 2002, The World Bank.

16 UNDP (1999), Human Development Report 1999.

17 World Bank (2002), "When Things Fall Apart: Quantitative Studies of Poverty in the Former Soviet Union", World Bank and Oxford Press.

18 World Bank (2002), "What Can Transition Economies Learn from the First 10 years: A new World Bank Report, Transition January–February", The World Bank.

19 United Nations (2001), The Common Country Assessment of Uzbekistan, United Nations Office in Uzbekistan.

20 Cornia, G. (2003), "Growth and Poverty Reduction in Uzbekistan: An Overall Strategy for pro-poor Growth", UNDP Uzbekistan.

21 U.S. Department of State (1994), "1993 Country Reports on Economic Practices and Trade Reports: Uzbekistan Economic Policy and Trade Practices".

22 Kaser, M. (1997), "The economies of Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan". An estimated 1.8 million people left in 1990 and another 1 million in 1991, the equivalent of 13% of the population. See: The Economics of Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan, Former Soviet South Papers", Royal Institute of International Affairs, London. In: Pomfret, R. (1997), "Uzbekistan". However, national statistics provide different figures i.e. 177,000 in 1990 and 96,000 in 1991 (Ministry of Economy of Uzbekistan, 2003).

23 Karimov, I. (1993), "Building the Future: Uzbekistan its Own Model for Transition to a Market Economy", Uzbekiston Publisher, Tashkent and Karimov, I. (1995), "Uzbekistan: Along the Road of Deepening Economic Reform", Uzbekiston Publisher.



drop in domestic production; then the poor cotton harvest continued in 1998–1999, with a 25% decline in cotton sale during the period of 1995–1999.

With the aim of promoting import-substituting industries and conserving foreign exchange reserves, the government's response to these setbacks was to introduce a protective system of multiple exchange rates and restrictions on current account transactions, which de facto stopped the liberalization of the foreign exchange and trade regime.

In 1997, a new phase of macroeconomic policy commenced, based upon the above response and characterized by a deterioration of the economic climate and low attraction of foreign direct investment. Economic growth slowed down and market oriented reforms were reversed with increasing differences between the official and black market exchange rate.²⁴ The policies pursued also contributed to slow down the growth of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), reducing employment in this sector from over one million in 1996 to almost half by 1997, also as a result of difficulties with registration and start-up capital. Employment rates in this sector have begun to increase again to about 800,000 in 2001.²⁵ More significantly, these response policies relied largely on agriculture to provide resources to the industrial sector.

Farm losses and accumulated farm debts limited the capacity of farms to pay cash wages to the workers and the ability of local communities to pay for services. This situation, on top of the growing rural-urban disparities has contributed to the further deterioration of living conditions and the quality of social services in rural areas.

Agriculture has always been the foundation of the Uzbek economy and continues to play an important role. It accounts for 40% of employment, 60% of exports with 30.2% of GDP being generated by irrigated agriculture (see Table 7). The quality of the environment and the livelihood and well-being of Uzbekistan's population are heavily dependent on irrigated agriculture with approximately 95% of the available arable land under irrigation (only 11% of the total land is arable) and approximately 60% of the population living in rural areas. The sector continues to be dominated by cotton, a strategic commodity for Uzbekistan, but one that is also labour intensive, and thus is the major source of rural employment and the primary source of income for farms.

It can be noted that the strategies undertaken by the government to manage the transition process have in principle met many of the challenges posed by the transition.²⁶ Unfortunately, they have done so mainly at the expense of the agricultural and SME sectors, the potential engines of growth in the Uzbek economy.

During the early months of 2003 however, some progress have been made, as reported by the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development: "in the economic sphere, the authorities made ... progress by devaluing the official exchange rate to bring it closer to the parallel market rate, abolished several restrictions for access to foreign exchange and began to reform the system of state procurement to achieve full convertibility by the end of the year"²⁷ The IMF also mentioned tangible achievements gained in Uzbekistan in the first six months of 2003 with regard to ensuring macroeconomic stability.²⁸ A plan for the introduction of full currency convertibility by the end of 2003 is presently being implemented.

Despite notable achievements in macroeconomic stability, the main economic problems facing Uzbekistan can be summarized as firstly, the low and non-diversified industrial growth;²⁹ secondly, export contraction (especially during the years 1998 to 1999, when high exchange rate distortions led to merchandise exports declining by 32%) and low export diversification away from raw materials; thirdly, the falling employment rates both in industry and agriculture and the lack of improvement in

²⁴ See for example: Asian Development Bank (2001), "Women in the Republic of Uzbekistan", Country Briefing Paper, Asian Development Bank.

²⁵ World Bank (2003), Country Economic Memorandum.

²⁶ Pomfret, R. (1999), "The Uzbek Model of Economic Development 1991–1999".

²⁷ Deadlines for currency convertibility, to be achieved under the IMF Staff Monitored Programme which was agreed in January 2002, but expired in August without being fully concluded, have been missed. See Uzbekistan Strategy Overview, EBRD (2003).

²⁸ BBC Monitoring July 1, 2003 on International Monetary Fund delegation and a news conference held by Erik de Vrijer, at the Ministry of Economics of Uzbekistan.

²⁹ Industry growth was 1.7% on average between 1996 and 2001 despite investments and implicit subsidies, by 2001 the share of industry had declined to 14% of GDP from 17% in 1995 and about 25% in 1991–1992. See World Bank (2003), Country Economic Memorandum.

incomes and living standards with growing inequalities and geographic disparities;³⁰ and finally the unnecessary involvement of the government in the development of SMEs along with inappropriate taxation levels.

In retrospect, after 10 years of transition it may be argued that the international community (including the international financial institutions) may have had unrealistic expectations about the speed with which the economic transition and recovery of growth and living standards could be achieved. While this is the case for most of the transition countries, the CCA argues that this is particularly the case for a double-landlocked country such as Uzbekistan.³¹

To summarize, since independence the Government of Uzbekistan has followed a path of gradual economic tran-

sition from a centrally planned economy to a market economy. Uzbekistan was successful in controlling the budget deficit (from 18% in 1992 to 3.4% in 1995) and in managing inflation³² (see Tables 8–9). Throughout the whole transition process, the government has maintained substantial expenditure on social welfare, health and education.

However the CCA analysis indicates that recent years have seen a decline in the human capital stock, an increase in the rates of unemployment, decreased access to health and education services, because they are unaffordable to many as well as a continued degradation of the environment and a weak system of governance. All these factors constitute a threat to the relatively high level of human development which were built during the Soviet period.

30 World Bank (2003), Country Economic Memorandum.

31 International Monetary Fund (2002), "Poverty Reduction, Growth and Debt Sustainability in Low Income CIS Countries", (Prepared jointly by the Europe and Central Asia Region of the World Bank and the European II Department of the IMF in consultation with staffs of the Asian Development Bank and the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development).

32 Cheestey, A. and David, J. (1996), "Fiscal Transition in Countries of the Former Soviet Union: An interim Assessment", IMF Working Papers 96/61, IMF, Washington DC in Pomfret, R. (1999), "Uzbekistan, Income Distribution and Social Structure during the Transition".

TRANSITION: IMPACT ON HUMAN SECURITY

ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITIES AND HOUSEHOLD SECURITY

I urge our world leaders to find the will and the money to ... really work to close the gap between rich and poor.

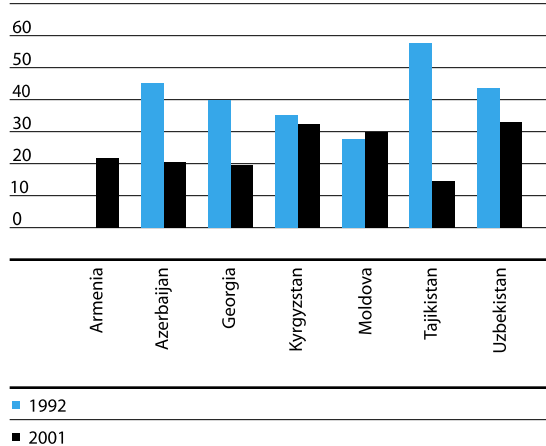
Kofi Annan

INTRODUCTION

The CCA examines the achievements of the government's development strategy in the light of the complex transition process, and looks at some of the economic trade-offs involved, especially in the area of people's living standards. In this context, it identifies the vulnerable groups or those who are more likely to become and stay poor. It also explores possibilities of cooperation within the development community, under the leadership of the government, with the aim of achieving the Millennium Development Goals through an appropriate poverty reduction strategy.

Figure 2

General government expenditures, as a percent of GDP



Source: Jane Falkingham, University of Southampton, 2003

Since gaining independence, Uzbekistan's transition from a centrally planned to market economy has followed a unique policy model different from that advised by the World Bank and the IMF. This home grown approach has enabled a moderate but sustained annual growth rate of GDP in the range of 3.5 to 4.0%, making Uzbekistan the only country in the FSU that in 2001 surpassed its pre-independence level of GDP.³³

The hallmark of the Uzbek model is a commitment to state intervention within a market-based economy. The state still remains the major economic actor and although the government's share in GDP has been steadily declining, it continues to control resource allocation, directly or indirectly, by setting the prices of some goods and of foreign exchange rates. Furthermore,

there are still mandatory state orders on some crops, excessive control by government on SMEs, and heavy limitations on imports. The central role played by the government is also reflected by government expenditure, which, though reduced from the early 1990s, is high at about 35% of budgetary and extra budgetary expenditure.

ACHIEVEMENTS

The main achievements of the government's development strategy can be summarized as: a) achieving the smallest output decline of any successor state and sustaining a continuous annual real GDP growth of 4% for the period 1996–2001;³⁴ b) controlling of the public deficit³⁵ whilst maintaining substantial expenditure on health, education and social security (see Table 10);³⁶ c) achieving self-sufficiency in energy³⁷ and in wheat³⁸ by significantly accelerating the production of oil, gas and grain; d) promoting new industries in consumer goods and intermediate inputs; e) modernizing infrastructure and accelerating gas and oil production; and f) implementing reforms in the infrastructure sector, for example railways and airlines.

These achievements are remarkable, particularly when compared to those of other transition countries where war and civil upheavals destroyed human lives and physical infrastructure and compromised the opportunity to reach political consensus necessary for economic reform and peaceful social transformation.³⁹ However, the country's macroeconomic achievements and growth are increasingly being jeopardized by rising

33 UNDP and Centre for Economic Research (2003), "Linking Macroeconomic Policy to Poverty Reduction in Uzbekistan".

34 Alternative figures by IMF estimate real GDP growth of around two thirds of the official rate and in US dollar terms, GDP in 2001 was lower than in 1996 regardless of the exchange rate used. See World Bank (2003), Country Economic Memorandum.

35 Which at 18% of GDP was above the Soviet successor state average in 1992, but at 3.4% of GDP in 1995 was well below the average. See Cheestey, A. and David, J. (1996), "Fiscal Transition in Countries of the Former Soviet Union: An Interim Assessment", IMF Working Papers 96/61, IMF Washington DC in Pomfret, R. (1999), "Uzbekistan, Income Distribution and Social Structure during the Transition".

36 Pomfret, R. and Anderson, K. H. (1997), "Uzbekistan: The Welfare Impact of Slow Transition", Centre for International Economic Studies.

37 This has resulted in a three-fold crude oil production increase between 1991 and 1995 with zero imports by 1996. See World Bank (2003).

38 Resulting in a record production between 1991 and 1998 with wheat imports reduced to negligible amounts in 2002. See World Bank (2003).

39 Pomfret, R. (2003), "A structural reform in the CIS", Paper presented for the Lucerne Conference of the CIS-7 Initiative.

income inequality, an increase in poverty, and under-employment. With the benefit of hindsight it appears that the macroeconomic policies pursued so far may have come at a price. In this section, it is argued that the poor may be paying most of this price and missing out on the benefits of economic growth.

TRADE-OFFS

The economic strategy since the second half of the 1990s has been based mainly on resource extraction from the agricultural sector to finance import substitution. This strategy has avoided a major contraction of the economy and led to a macroeconomic recovery in the second half of the 1990s, but has not generated sufficient private and foreign investment for sustainable broad based growth. Most notably, the trade-off policy of import substitution is negatively affecting employment, especially in the rural and small business sector thus widening income disparities with an inbuilt potential for inequality.⁴⁰ This is reflected by an inability to absorb into 'decent jobs', a rapidly increasing working age population and labour surpluses in agriculture and state owned enterprises. The adoption of a policy of import substitution with imposed trade barriers along with the closure of the shuttle trade in 2002 have resulted in higher domestic prices for consumers and a loss of the trading business and the income it provided to domestic entrepreneurs⁴¹.

INDUSTRIALIZATION

Despite steady overall economic growth, highly localized demographic growth and a changing age structure as the younger population grows rapidly, pose an additional challenge in the achievement of development objectives. The diversification and industrialization of the economy, despite its successes have not generated the capacity to absorb labour and have not contributed to broad based growth.⁴² On the contrary, despite the promotion of new industries in consumer goods, many of them still operate at low capacity, thus generating limited employment opportunities. In this context, the direct overall effect of industrialization may have been a negative one as far as living standards were concerned. This recognition is based on the fact that most of the infant industries were primarily financed through; a) low energy prices; b) preferential access to foreign exchange rates at an overvalued official exchange rate; c) publicly guaranteed borrowing at the cost of overall economic growth; and d) artificial import limitations. This protection policy also had a negative impact on competitiveness. More importantly, resource extraction from the agricultural sector triggered a reduction of employment and income in a sector that traditionally employs a large majority of the population, particularly the poor (see Table 11).

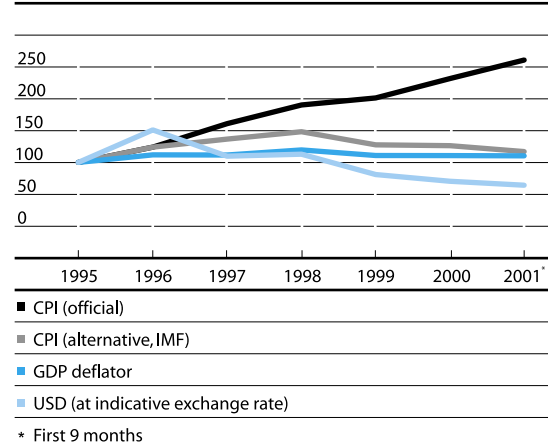
According to the World Bank, despite an overall growth in exports in the early years of independence, since 1997 exports have fallen by 32%. Cotton and gold

have constituted the bulk of exports with little diversification to date, a factor that makes the Uzbek economy vulnerable to price fluctuations in the world market.⁴³ When during the period from 1995 to 2001, the price of cotton fibers and gold declined, this had an adverse effect on exports. Despite industrial diversification, the export potential of Uzbekistan did not grow. Only 5.8% of Uzbek firms increased their exports sales during the period 1998–2001 and only 4.6% began exporting to a new country. Links with the global economy are one-third of the regional average and are the lowest in the region.⁴⁴

EMPLOYMENT

Unemployment is regarded as being higher than the officially recorded rate of 0.4 to 0.5%, but even when

Figure 3
Real wages, 1995–2001,
index of 1995 as 100%



Source: The World Bank, Living Standards Assessment, 2003

applying the International Labour Organization (ILO) definition, the unemployment rate is only 4%, which is

⁴⁰ While the increase in inequality during the destabilization phase from 1991 to 1995 was moderate, thus differentiating Uzbekistan from many countries in transition, the surge recorded since 1995 was mainly due to policy choices rather than exogenous shocks. The distributive distortion caused by over taxation of agriculture and the high wage and capital intensive import substitution policy have limited the effects of generous minimum pensions, child allowance and locally administered social assistance. See UNDP and Centre for Economic Research (2003), "Linking Macroeconomic Policy to Poverty Reduction in Uzbekistan".

⁴¹ Wholesale importers from August 2002 have to sell their products to licensed retailers with commercial storage facilities and cash registers. This is preventing shuttle traders (but also many domestic SMEs) from placing orders with wholesale trading companies. High capital requirements for licensed wholesalers have driven out many smaller trading businesses. In: EBRD (2003) Strategy for Uzbekistan.

⁴² World Bank (2003), Country Economic Memorandum.

⁴³ World Bank (2003), Country Economic Memorandum in "Business Environment and Enterprise Performance Survey" (BEEPS). See also: UNDP and Centre for Economic Research (2003), "Linking Macroeconomic Policy to Poverty Reduction in Uzbekistan".

⁴⁴ World Bank (2003), Country Economic Memorandum, in "Business Environment and Enterprise Performance Survey" (BEEPS).

still a low value by international standards. However, unemployment coexists with both underemployment and forms of hidden employment. This coexistence makes the calculation and definition of unemployment particularly difficult. Underemployment, low wages and wage arrears are thus the real problem and often in the past have gone unaccounted for.⁴⁵ Low-paid and insecure jobs are also common in the informal sector, as reflected in the *mardicor* (cities' markets) where workers from rural areas are hired for daily work, primarily in the construction sector.

Employment, both in industry and agriculture fell and most of the increase in the formal employment was in the budgetary sectors of health, education, social protection and administration.⁴⁶ Employment in agricultural collective farms mainly fell as a result of farm restructuring and 40% of the rural population now depends on subsistence plots with an average size of 0.2 hectares. Employment generated by SMEs also fell during the same period, from approximately one million in 1996 to almost half in 1997, gradually increasing again to 800,000 in 2001.⁴⁷ Individual entrepreneurs and subsistence farmers now represent 41% of total employment (13% in agriculture and 28% in other sectors). This relatively large and growing number of individual entrepreneurs points at "informalization" of the economy and a means of coping with unemployment. In the highly populated Fergana Valley, for example, despite the overall decrease of employment in the agricultural sector, subsistence agriculture is presently providing livelihoods for an increasing number of people.⁴⁸

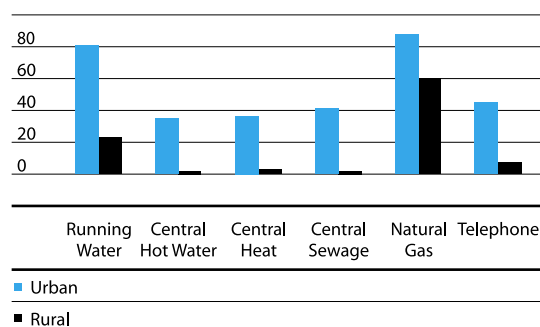
Women comprised 42% of the labour force in 1998 with more than half of them concentrated in the health, education and culture sectors, where wages are lower than average. (see Tables 12, 13). Education is the strongest determinant of women's participation in the labour force and the statistics suggest that gender gaps need to be closed, particularly in higher education. Women account for 63% of the registered unemployed, with 70% of the unemployed women in their 20s and 30s, unskilled and with restricted mobility because of children. A lack of skills and a family to look after make women less competitive and more at risk of unemployment or precarious forms of employment in the informal trade and services sectors. These factors ultimately increase vulnerability to poverty.

Anecdotal evidence suggests that the decline in gainful employment opportunities for women, especially in rural areas, is increasingly being accompanied by a rise of 'traditional' unregistered marriage and divorce and an increase in early marriage (under 17 years of age).⁴⁹ These factors make women vulnerable to abuse and restrict their opportunities. Youth unemployment is estimated at 13%⁵⁰, suggesting that the economy may be failing to generate sufficient jobs for a rapidly increasing labour force or a potential mis-match between the education attainments and the requirements of the labour market.⁵¹

LIVING STANDARDS

The development strategy pursued by the government has also had an impact on income and living standards with two significant trends emerging: minimal improvement in incomes since the early 1990's whether measured in GDP per capita US dollars or in soums; and an increase in income disparities, especially evident in the

Figure 4
Access to public services and utilities
by geographic location,
percent of population



Source: Uzbekistan HBS 2000–2001

last years of the decade (see Table 14). During the period from 1996 to 2001, agricultural wages which support almost 10% of the population declined to 23% of average industrial wages.⁵² Despite continued economic growth, Uzbekistan's economy needs to grow faster to accommodate its 1.5% population growth, in order to raise per capita income growth and expand employment

45 In order to monitor employment in formal and informal sectors, a new ILO methodology for determining employment and unemployment rates was adopted by the Government in 2002.

46 World Bank (2003), Country Economic Memorandum.

47 This recent increase is also the response of a number of policy measures adopted by the government in support of SMEs "On Stimulation of Small and Medium Business" (1997), "On the Chamber of Producers and Entrepreneurs" (1997), "On the State Control Over the Activity of Legal Entities" (1998), "On Measures of Reduction and Adjustment for Reporting for Enterprises of Small and Medium Business" (2000), "On Improving the Registration System for Subjects of Entrepreneurships" (2001).

48 During the period 1989–1994 employment in agriculture grew at an annual compound rate of 4.6%, while agricultural output declined by 3.8%. See D. Kandiyoti (2002), "Agrarian Reform Gender and Land Rights in Uzbekistan", United Nations Research Institute for Social Development.

49 Alimdjanova, D. (2002), "Women's Status in Uzbekistan" and Kandiyoti, D. (2002), "Agrarian Reforms, Gender and Land Rights in Uzbekistan". More recent (2003) official statistics point out at an overall decline in divorce since 2000, "Monitoring the Achievements of Goals on Children's Well-being in Uzbekistan", Social Complex of the Cabinet of Ministers of Uzbekistan.

50 World Bank (2003), Living Standards Assessment.

51 The National Programme of Staff Training acts as a countermeasure by the government to mitigate demographic pressure effects on the labour market. See "Technical Assistance 3781 Comprehensive Medium Term Strategy for Improving the Living Standards of the People of Uzbekistan, Progress Report #1", Asian Development Bank, 2002. See also: "Law on Employment of the Population" (1998) and "Labour Code" (1994), The Government of Uzbekistan.

52 World Bank (2003).

opportunities. Thus the increasing number of young people competing for jobs and the maintenance of the existing social security system (pensions and subsidies) pose a great challenge to the recovering economy.

Studies and surveys providing quantitative information on poverty in Uzbekistan do exist;⁵³ however, the publicly available data is of mixed quality and limited comparability to other transition countries.⁵⁴ Furthermore, as much of the available data is quantitative and focuses upon income poverty, the social dimension of poverty is often overlooked. Awareness of the real extent of poverty and its distribution is limited in the absence of reliable data, with a lack of disaggregation by gender, age and ethnicity creating difficulties in identifying and localizing vulnerable groups.

POVERTY PROFILE

According to the World Bank's Living Standards Assessment conducted in 2002, an estimated 27.5% of the population lives below the poverty line, in that they are unable to meet basic consumption needs.⁵⁵ Approximately one third of all poor households can be classified as extremely poor, exposing them to the risk of chronic malnutrition (including micronutrient deficiencies) and acute malnutrition.⁵⁶

There are significant regional differences in the nutritional and educational status among children and women from poor and rural households, correlating to dietary intakes, low incomes, maternal knowledge and awareness, and the education of the mother. These factors are compounded by a lack of access to services such as health and education, for example, and poor access to water and sanitation, affecting rural areas in particular.⁵⁷

There are correlations between poverty and unemployment, underemployment and part time employment: thus households with unemployed heads are more likely to be poor. However, as in many transition economies, employment does not guarantee protection from poverty, as wages are often unpaid or delayed or paid in kind.⁵⁸ Poorer households are larger and have both more children (four or more) and adults, suggesting a link between poverty and fertility. Poverty seems to be less common in households where the head is a woman pensioner, and generally speaking, where the household head is a woman, which suggests that there is no clear feminization of poverty, but does reconfirm the role of pensions as a safety net for those pensioners who do not live alone and have other sources of income. The poverty risks for households where the head works in industry are higher compared to those who work in agriculture suggesting that household plots of land provide a safety net.⁵⁹

Those who work in the largely unregulated informal sector are particularly vulnerable to poverty. They tend to have less stable employment, less access to benefits and lower paid jobs. Pregnant women and/or those with small children are especially unprotected and insecure,

as are the disabled and those communities living in remote rural areas with little or difficult access to markets.

Education of the head of the household is another determinant of poverty. The risk of poverty for the household increases when the head is illiterate or has primary education only. However, there are poor households from all categories of education and only households whose head has upper secondary or higher education experience low levels of poverty⁶⁰—thus education, even at higher level, is not in itself a guarantee against poverty. This suggests discrepancies between the requirements of the labour market and the skills offered by graduates of secondary schools and/or the importance of connections in securing jobs independently from merit or education alone (see Table 15).

The strongest indicator of vulnerability to poverty is the region of residence. Approximately 35% of people are more likely to be poor and 58% to be extremely poor in rural areas and this is where 63% of the total population of Uzbekistan lives. The poor are disproportionately found in the agricultural sec-

53 For a qualitative study of poverty in Uzbekistan, see Gomart, E. (2002), "Standing on Knife's Edge: Doing business in Uzbekistan" in World Bank (2002), "When Things Fall Apart, Qualitative Studies of Poverty in the Former Soviet Union".

54 The following surveys and studies are currently available in Uzbekistan: the Household Budget Survey (HBS) provides information of the distribution of income and poverty in the Soviet era. The World Bank designed Living Standards Measure Study project was intended to supplement it, but was suspended in 1997, and the government in 1999, carried out a readapted HBS based on minimum wage calculation, the Family Budget Survey. In 1995 the European University Institute and University of Essex conducted a survey of Uzbekistan, which covered 500 households in three regions (Tashkent, Ferghana and Karakalpakstan). In 2000 the World Bank Study conducted a study "Consultation with the Poor" (which provides a vulnerability analysis). The data of the Uzbekistan Family Budget Survey of 2000–2001 form the core of the Living Standard Assessment Report of 2002. In addition, for multivariate analysis of poverty, See UNICEF (2000), The Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (2000), and USAID (1996 and 2002) The Health Demographic Survey.

55 World Bank (2003), Living Standards Assessment. The measurement is a food consumption poverty line based on 2100 calories per person per day. Another study using a different methodology estimates that 16% of the population is poor. Compare the findings of the World Bank (2003), Living Standards Assessment and UNDP/CER (2002), "Linking Macroeconomic Policy to Poverty Reduction".

56 Chronic malnutrition is reported as high as 31% with acute malnutrition calculated at 5%. Almost 19% of children are classified as undernourished. Iron deficiency is found in 61% of children under the age of three and incidence of anaemia among women in the group age 15–49 is calculated at 60%. See Demographic Health Survey (1996).

57 In its concluding observations on the Report submitted by the Government of Uzbekistan, the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child noted among other things that: "a high number of children, especially children with disabilities are abandoned because of the direct or indirect result of poverty... another reason is the financial incapacity of the state to provide care and services, which ensure the fulfilment of children's right as per UN convention of the Right of the Child". See Mid Term Review 2002, the Government of Uzbekistan/UNICEF.

58 Individuals living in household with employed heads constitute 50% of the poor. See "Technical Assistance 3781–UZB: Comprehensive Medium Term Strategy for Improving the Living Standards of the People of Uzbekistan; Progress Report No. 1", Asian Development Bank, 2003.

59 World Bank (2003), Living Standards Assessment.

60 UNDP and Centre for Economic Research (2003), "Linking Macroeconomic Policy to Poverty Reduction in Uzbekistan".

tor, particularly landless women and cooperative farm workers who are due wage arrears.⁶¹ Collective farmers are disproportionately present among poor people and are also more vulnerable to seasonal variations in labour market incomes than the urban poor (see Table 16). Within rural areas, those at the end of a centrally commanded irrigation system are particularly vulnerable to poverty, as the irrigation water often does not reach them. Areas of localized poverty include the southern regions (accounting for 38% of the poor approximately) and in the North West the Republic of Karakalpakstan (32%) and in the east, Namangan province (40%) (see Table 17).

Calculations of the extent of vulnerability made by increasing or decreasing the poverty line by a percentage point, show that it is equally easy for those clustered closely around the poverty line to either fall into poverty or slip into extreme poverty as result of circumstances beyond their control. However, this calculation more importantly shows that it is still possible to escape poverty as a result of economic growth or effective policies.⁶²

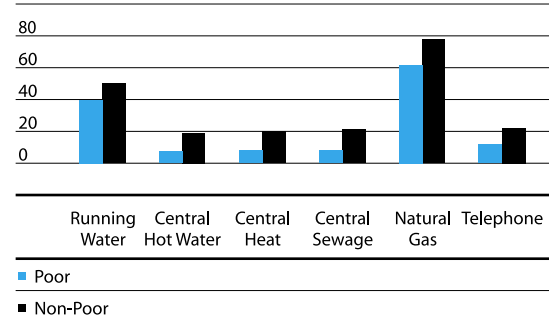
MEASURES OF POVERTY AND THE MILLENIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

In 1999 the Family Budget Survey and the then used official poverty line (1.5 times the official minimum wage), showed that about 14% of the population and 11% of households were considered poor. This represented a decline in poverty since the Soviet era when poverty was estimated at 44% of the working population (57% in rural collective farm households and 39% in urban worker households).⁶³ These figures and their comparison are misleading however, as people suffering from poverty in the FSU did not suffer from absolute poverty as they had jobs and sources of income, housing and free access to health care and education. Furthermore, the minimum wage indicator is inadequate, as the minimum wage did not cover the actual cost of living. This is demonstrated by the fact that the majority of those living on minimum wages only fall into the category of the poor.

The results of the 2002 Living Standard Assessment and other studies reveal that poverty is a complex and multidimensional concept. Income level is just one of many important sources of information that can be used to determine the extent, distribution and trends of poverty. Being poor in today's Uzbekistan is connected with poor health status, low education attainments, compromised access to basic services, water and utilities and environmental resources as well as vulnerability to external events such as a drop in world prices of exports. Material resource is just one dimension of poverty. Despite differences in defining welfare indicators and the adoption of various poverty lines, the conclusion from different studies is that the poverty profile remains the same, no matter what indicators are used.⁶⁴

The Living Standard Assessment uses a household survey methodology to determine the number of poor persons and the extent of their poverty. The measurement used is a poverty line based on the consumption of 2,100 calories per person per day to which an ad-

Figure 5
Access to utilities by poverty status, percent of population



Source: Uzbekistan HBS 2000–2001

equate sum in local currency is applied. This poverty line presents a number of positive features that underscore its suitability and wider applicability within the local Uzbek context as well as globally. Firstly, it measures a basic human requirement, that is, adequate nutrition for a healthy life. Secondly, it has the same meaning everywhere and at every point in time within and outside of the country, and thus may be consistently used for cross reference and comparison. Thirdly, it can be easily linked to consumption patterns and human capability in accessing those commodities containing the requirements for a healthy life.⁶⁵

This poverty line can be monitored through the existing government and non-government interventions and local or regional mechanisms aimed at improving child and women health at a multidimensional level.⁶⁶ Gender roles, their interplay in society and gender based capabilities, as well as age, can be better appreciated in the

61 At present the representation of landless or poor women's interests seem a remote possibility, when neither civil society organizations, such as NGOs nor professional association or political parties have any significant presence. In Kandiyoti, D. (2002), "Agrarian Reform, Gender and Land Rights in Uzbekistan", United Nations Research Institute for Social Development.

62 World Bank (2003), Living Standards Assessment.

63 Asian Development Bank (2001), Poverty Impact Assessment Supplementary Appendix of "The Report and Recommendation to the President on the Second Small and Medium Enterprise Project".

64 World Bank (2003), Living Standards Assessment, UNDP and Centre for Economic Research (2003), "Linking Macroeconomic Policy to Poverty Reduction in Uzbekistan" and ADB (2003), "Technical Assistance 3781–UZB: Comprehensive Medium Term Strategy for Improving the Living Standards of the People of Uzbekistan: Progress Report No. 1".

65 The analysis is based on Redy, S. G. and Pogge, T. W. (2003), "How NOT to Count the Poor," Department of Economics, Barnard College and Department of Philosophy, Columbia University.

66 Through multisectoral coverage: health status, nutrition and feeding, education and counselling, mass communication coverage etc.

determination of poverty through the use of this poverty line. Specific adjustments can be made for the different consumption needs of different household members based upon their age and energy requirements and not necessarily on assumptions of their sex alone.

The MDG indicator “number of underweight children and population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption” and the MDG goal to “promote gender equality” are consistent with this poverty measurement. Furthermore, within the Uzbek context of a socially-oriented market economy, the calorie-based poverty measurement is a preferable alternative to one based on monetized indicators (USD 1 a day) and helps to capture the multidimensional nature of poverty and its social implications more accurately.

CONCLUSION

The analysis and review of available data suggests that it is still unclear as to whether poverty is a transitory phenomenon or whether it may become a permanent feature of Uzbek society. A study revealed that the poor in Uzbekistan, in comparison with other countries, tend to be *‘human capital rich’* as they receive at least 9 years of education and *‘asset rich’*, with 98% of them owning the house in which they live, 86% owning land plots and 12% owning a car. However, these assets, largely accumulated during the Soviet period, will eventually deteriorate if the low-income status of the poor persists, whilst past educational achievements may become progressively irrelevant to the needs of a new society. The

danger for Uzbekistan is that the temporary poor may become the permanent poor, making it more difficult to raise them out of poverty.⁶⁷

The impacts of the transition on Uzbek society must be added to the already existing political, institutional and economic problems. The national authorities, international development practitioners and the economics profession have so far paid too little attention to the implications that the transition has had on society, and have instead prioritized the economic and institutional dimensions. In a recent speech the President of Uzbekistan sent a clear message that the emphasis may soon change by asking the government to pay more attention to people’s difficult living conditions and low and delayed wages.⁶⁸

The CCA argues that economic growth can reduce poverty only when accompanied by social development. Therefore policies which will be beneficial for Uzbekistan include those that: a) promote labour intensive growth and employment, especially in the agricultural sector with particular attention paid to regional, gender and ethnic inequalities; b) invest in and protect human capital to minimize the social costs of transition through affordable access to improved health and education services and social protection; c) strengthen “social capital” by involving citizens in governance, for example, by investing in existing social structures and community networks. These issues are further explored in this section under Education, Health, Environment and Governance and Security.

⁶⁷ UNDP and Centre for Economic Research (2003), “Linking Macroeconomic Policy to Poverty Reduction in Uzbekistan”.

⁶⁸ BBC Monitoring Service, July 22, 2003, President’s speech at the meeting of the Cabinet of Ministers of July 18, 2003.

TRANSITION: IMPACT ON HUMAN SECURITY

EDUCATION

There is no greater wealth from whence come knowledge and intelligence.

Uzbek proverb

INTRODUCTION

With young people under the age of twenty-five years constituting almost 56% of Uzbekistan's total population, government education policy is critical in the country's development. The jurisprudence of education rights is well enshrined in the international regime, for example, in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which states that everyone has the right to education and prescribes the standards for the content of education.⁷⁰ The onus of the state in striving to secure these rights is clearly enunciated in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR).⁷¹ In addition to the obligations towards the betterment of the system and the content of education and the adoption of measures



to secure the elimination of discrimination in the fields of teaching and education,⁷² there is also a provision supporting the establishment of private educational institutions, which can operate within minimum standards established by the State. The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) deals more elaborately with the specific case of children, recognizing the particular educational needs of children, but also setting out guidelines for ensuring that governments meet these needs.⁷³

The Government of Uzbekistan became a party to ICESCR and CRC in 1995 and in 1992 respectively, thereby committing itself to taking effective measures

to ensure that the rights stipulated in the Conventions are respected and protected, especially the right to education and the right to non-discrimination. The government, together with UNICEF has developed a National Action Plan to follow up the recommendations of the CRC Committee and the measures that have been so far taken by the government.⁷⁴ Although Uzbekistan has already achieved universal primary education, the goal stipulated in the Millennium Declaration, there is evidence that, as in other countries of the former Soviet Union, the access, content, processes, and organization of Uzbekistan's education system should be re-organized to better serve the needs of changing economic, social and political conditions. The potential erosion in human capital stock could undermine Uzbekistan's successful transition to a market economy while the emerging disparities in access to quality education will result in unequal opportunities to benefit from market reforms and exacerbate income inequality in the future.

KEY EDUCATIONAL ISSUES

Uzbekistan has made impressive gains in educational attainment, with illiteracy virtually eliminated and official data reporting almost 100% literacy. Almost 6 million children are studying at school and more than half a million children are attending kindergarten. However, as in other social sectors, education has been affected by the difficulties of the transition period.

While almost all children of school age enter primary education, some gaps remain between men and women at the vocational training and university levels. In addition, recent data of the Ministry of Public Education revealed increasing disparities in access to education between the rural and urban populations, and more importantly, between boys and girls. The gap in access to education between poor and non-poor is more evident in higher than in primary education.

The Soviet model of education, which emphasized a high number of compulsory subjects in general education and highly specialized programmes in technical and higher education, is no longer consistent with the need for greater flexibility required in a knowledge-based

70 The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article 26.

71 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights ICESCR, Articles 13(1)(2) and 14.

72 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights ICESCR, Articles 13(4).

73 The Convention on the Rights of the Child (see particularly Articles 28 & 29).

74 UNICEF (2002), Mid-Term Review 2002, UNICEF, Uzbekistan.

market economy. The old education system, which featured outdated and propaganda-based curricula with teacher-centered and traditional pedagogy, focused on repetition of factual knowledge imparted by the teacher as proof that students had mastered the concepts in question, is now perceived as being of low quality and irrelevant to modern educational approaches.

ACCESS TO EDUCATION

Pre-school Education. Since independence, pre-school enrolment for 3 to 6 year olds declined drastically from 1,349,400 in 1991/1992 to 681,200 in 1998, and although the government encourages various approaches to care, the majority of children in this age range are cared for at home. The 2000 Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS)⁷⁵ reported that the coverage for children aged from 3 to 5 years old was 20%, however, recent government efforts to establish and maintain both traditional and non-traditional mahalla⁷⁶ and private kindergarten types of pre-school education, resulted in increased coverage to 27.4% in 2002.⁷⁷

Basic and Secondary Education. The 1992 Constitution of Uzbekistan guarantees free, equal and obligatory access to primary and secondary education. Whilst official statistics often report almost universal basic education coverage with only small disparities between rural and urban areas or between genders, there are indications that access to education declined in the past decade (see Table 18).

Gender inequalities that existed before the Soviet period appear to have reemerged. For example, the falling enrolment rates among girls at secondary levels reflect both the increased inability to pay for education (as access to secondary school is influenced by the ability of the household to pay for books and uniforms whilst primary education is free) and the gender-based approach to education of Uzbek society, which grants greater opportunities for boys to study and become better educated, than girls⁷⁸ (see Table 19).

The government estimates that the net enrolment rates in both primary and secondary levels of education are almost 100%. However, independent data estimates that in the 2001–2002 school year, the gross enrolment ratio in primary education (grades 1 to 4) was 78% (79% for boys and 77% for girls) and at secondary level (grades 5 to 9), the rate was 94% (with larger disparities by gender: 100% for boys and 88% for girls).⁷⁹ Such a difference in gross enrolment rates between primary and secondary levels of education may primarily be due to the fact that not all children of 6 years of age actually entered school, waiting until they reached the age of seven before doing so.

To some extent, the decline in participation in education reflects the surge in school dropout that occurred in the years following independence. This was particularly true of rural areas, where dropout is attributable to both economic reasons, such as rising direct costs for meals and textbooks; or indirect costs such as clothing and transportation; and poor preparedness for primary

education due to a sharp fall in pre-school attendance.⁸⁰ Non-attendance also appears to be a problem and can take various forms. A small number of children, some in urban areas, but more typically in rural areas, may never start school at all, whilst others may start school but do not remain until the end of the compulsory cycle. In some rural areas, children who are enrolled in school are obliged to miss a part of the school year because of the need for them to help in the autumn harvest or spring planting.⁸¹

School Attendance. Official figures on enrolments may overstate actual coverage of the education system for several reasons. There is an incentive to over-register enrolments as a means of maintaining existing schools and teaching positions. More fundamentally, the data on official enrolments do not reflect the number of children actually benefiting from education, as there is significant non-attendance by children who are officially enrolled in school (see Table 20). Data from the MICS 2000 suggest that the proportion of the 7 to 11 age group, who actually attend school, is only 73% (74% for boys and 73% for girls). The Committee on the Rights of the Child, in its concluding observations on the initial report submitted by the Government of Uzbekistan,⁸² raised concerns that disaggregated data on persons under 18 years of age was not systematically collected and used effectively to assess progress and design policies to implement the Convention. This evidence translates into serious erosion of the country's human capital, starting at the base of the education pyramid.

The reasons behind falling participation and the disparities in attendance are complex and include a variety of factors affecting both the demand and supply for education. On the demand side, falling incomes, lower perceived benefits and higher costs associated with sending children to school are having an impact, whilst on the supply side, deterioration in quality or closure of facilities and a lack of financial resources to upgrade them are significant. The burden of out-of-pocket expenditures, combined with higher indirect or opportunity costs as-

75 UNICEF (2000), Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, The MICS was carried out for 5,313 households in 2000 and is intended to be representative at the national level. This survey looks in particular at school attendance in the first five grades, and therefore has information on a narrower age group.

76 The mahalla is a pre-Soviet traditional community organization that has been revived under the government's auspices in: Micklewright, J. and Ismail, S. (2001).

77 The Ministry of Public Education (2002).

78 UNDP (1999), National Human Development Report 1998, UNDP, Uzbekistan.

79 Asian Development Bank (2002).

80 Preschool services used to be provided by employers, i.e. mainly state enterprises and farms. The "corporatization" and privatization of public entities resulted in closures of preschools and a dramatic fall in enrolment levels.

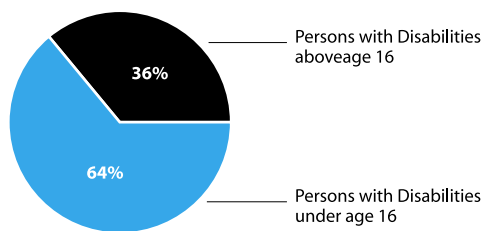
81 UNICEF (2000), Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, in "Understanding Children's work", an Interagency research cooperation project of Innocenti Research Centre, ILO, UNICEF: www.ucw-project.org.

82 Concluding observations of the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child: Uzbekistan; CRC/C/15/Add.167, Twenty-eighth session, November 7, 2002.

sociated with sending children to school, could be an important reason for the lower attendance rates of poor households, at all levels of education. In addition to the burden of direct and indirect costs, poor households often face significant opportunity costs associated with sending their children to school because children in poorer households are more likely to contribute to household income or to housework and childcare.

Children with Special Needs. There are 31 orphanages for 3,548 children without adequate family care. Although physical conditions and psychological support provided for children in institutions are reported to be satisfactory, graduates of these institutions often encounter difficulties in continuing their education. In addition, there are currently 85 institutions for 22,300 children with special needs.⁸³ The total number of disabled children aged from 0 to 16 years registered by the Ministry of Health is 132,269 (see Table 21). The official

Figure 6
Percentage of persons with disabilities by age group (persons with disabilities from birth who receive social benefits)



Source: Institute for Strategic and Regional Studies. Country Profile Study on Persons with Disabilities, 2001

data may not, however, reflect the full situation, as many children with special needs, particularly in rural areas, are not registered due to the stigma attached. Unregistered children often do not attend school and are kept at home. As neither school nor families have adequate financial resources or professional capacity for educating children with special needs, there are serious concerns regarding the quality of education and opportunities for social integration available to these children today.

The UN Committee on the Rights of the Child has also recommended that the Government of Uzbekistan should review the existing policies and practices in relation to children with disabilities and, among other things, undertake awareness campaigns which focus on prevention, inclusive education, family care and the promotion of the rights of children with disabilities; and give adequate support, supervision and training to persons working with these children.⁸⁴

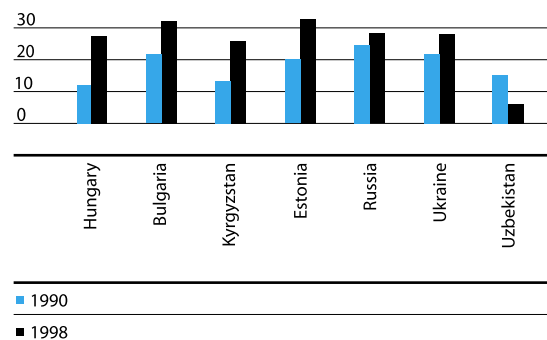
Minorities: Access to Education. The education of children from ethnic and linguistic minorities is an important policy issue. The Government has maintained its

political commitment to provide basic education in the seven national languages, including Uzbek. At present, over 17.7% of schools in Uzbekistan provide instruction in the languages of ethnic minorities (Russian, Kazakh, Tajik, Karakalpak, Turkmen, and Kyrgyz), accounting for about 15% of total enrolments in basic education.

However, schools for minority children are at a disadvantage in terms of availability of instructional materials and textbooks in appropriate languages, as well as qualified teachers. Opportunities for further education are also reduced for these children, who are not well equipped to enter the mainstream of Uzbekistan's vocational and university education, as Uzbek, Russian and Karakalpak remain the dominant languages.

Higher Education. Enrolment levels in higher education are falling, in stark contrast to the pattern in other transition countries where higher education enrolment has grown rapidly during the past decade. The decline

Figure 7
Higher education enrollments, as % of age group



Source: UNICEF TransMONEE Database

may have been accelerated by the introduction of fees and/or a fall in incomes of many during the transition. Furthermore, a resurgence of traditional attitudes toward women and a lower age for marriage within the Family Code⁸⁵ have begun to restrict young women's access to higher education. The overall trend of falling enrolment is a concern, as it implies that the country's competitiveness is declining relative to other countries in the region.

QUALITY OF EDUCATION AND EDUCATION REFORMS

Since independence, much of government attention and donor support to education has focused on quality issues. The contents, as well as the processes and organization of education have not effectively served the needs of the changing economic, social and politi-

⁸³ The Ministry of Public Education (2002) and UNICEF (2001).
⁸⁴ Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities: General Assembly, Resolution 48/96, §56.
⁸⁵ Mee, W. (2001), "Women in the Republic of Uzbekistan", Country Briefing Paper, Asian Development Bank.

cal environments in Uzbekistan and efforts aimed at improving educational quality have been hampered by a lack of national capacity and financial resources. The financing formula for education was driven by centrally mandated norms which provided little room and no incentive for school principals and local education administrators to improve efficiency in the use of public resources or to mobilize additional financing.

Despite the relative protection of the social sectors in comparison to other countries, public funding of education in Uzbekistan fell from 10.3% of GDP in 1992, to 6.7% of GDP by the end of the decade. In recent years, the government has succeeded in increasing its expenditure on education to 7.4% of GDP. Nevertheless, public spending per student at the pre-primary, vocational and higher levels, in relation to that on basic education (grades 1–9), is significantly above international averages.⁸⁶ This is driven largely by the low student/teacher ratios at these levels.

In 1997, the Government adopted a more pro-active approach to transition challenges in the education sector. It announced a new three-phased education reform programme covering the period from 1997 to 2009, designed to reorient the education system to the needs of a market economy. The new programme, called The National Programme for Personnel Training, extends the duration of compulsory education to 12 years and restructures education programmes at the secondary and tertiary levels.⁸⁷ A new three-year programme, focusing on 'Academic Lyceum' attached to universities, is to replace the current two-year programme for completion of secondary education. In parallel with this, the countrywide network of vocational secondary *teknikums* is to be transformed into a new network of 'Professional Colleges', which will have flexible curricula and are intended to respond more to local employment needs. These colleges are expected to accommodate approximately 90% of secondary enrolments. Higher education programmes are being regrouped into Bachelor and Masters Degree courses, with an expansion of courses in computer sciences, business administration and economics, social sciences and English language. To improve the quality and relevance of education at all levels, the programme includes a number of actions to improve key educational inputs, including the development of more modern curricula and more student-centered teaching practices; strengthening pre-service and in-service teacher training and improving the quality of textbooks and other educational materials and the process for generation, review, manufacturing and procurement of educational materials.

Since its adoption, the most significant developments of the National Programme include implementation of a new education structure (as described above), the streamlining of the types of institution and redefinition of their mandates, completion of the revision of educational content at all levels of education, and introduction of new textbooks.

THE HUMAN DIMENSION AND THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

Uzbekistan like many countries of the FSU has achieved impressive rates of literacy and made much effort to sustain universal access to education. However, the trend of falling enrolment in all sectors of education should cause concern for the government, as it has the potential to affect the future of the country, its prospects for growth and ultimately its competitiveness in a free market and global knowledge economy.

Research and analysis suggests that primary and secondary education alone do not offer protection from poverty in today's Uzbekistan and only households whose head reached upper secondary or higher education appear to experience low levels of poverty. The declining coverage rate, especially in pre-school and higher education (that is not available free-of-charge), is an indication that education is becoming less affordable for the poor. Furthermore, the appearance of gender disparities suggests that the MDG goal of promoting gender equality and empowering women, a goal which had almost been achieved, seems to have become more elusive.⁸⁸

Finally, disparities between regions and income groups, observable across the country, may be based on social status, thus creating the potential for future discrimination and inequity to arise in the future. In the government's attempt to achieve and sustain universal education, and through its promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women, its most formidable allies are the international treaties that have been ratified.

CONCLUSION

As indicated by recent assessments there are signs of stress in the education system: high coverage in the education system is falling at all levels, and there are disparities in attendance between regions and income groups⁸⁹. Gender disparities at higher levels of education are still significant factors, which could impact negatively on reductions in birth rate, child mortality and expansion in education for the next generation, with possible future consequences for economic growth in the future. While other FSU countries undergoing transition have experienced declines in enrolments in the 1990s, the sharp and apparently more prolonged decline in higher education enrolment that Uzbekistan has suffered is unusual. The potential erosion of Uzbekistan's high human capital stock could undermine its successful transition to a market economy

⁸⁶ Burnett, N. and Cnobloch, R. (2003), "Public Spending on Education in the CIS-7 Countries: The Hidden Crisis", World Bank, 2003.

⁸⁷ Under the new programme, students will be required to complete twelve years of schooling, starting with all students who have not yet completed grade nine in the current (2001/2002) school year.

⁸⁸ Affecting the implementation status of the Convention of Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women which has been ratified by the Government.

⁸⁹ World Bank (2003) Living Standards Assessment.

and integration into the global economy. Since higher education is strongly correlated with improved living standards, investments in human capital to eliminate existing disparities are a prerequisite for ensuring that segments of the population will not be left behind preventing inequality from growing in the future.

Inadequate allocations of resources for education, and the insufficient capacities of educational workers to manage the effects of transition, have contributed to the decline in quality of education. Declining incomes combined with the emergence of direct and indirect costs associated with sending children to school have made it more difficult for the poor to keep their children in school. Insufficient job opportunities for graduates

from the education system could also be an important contributor to declining enrolments, as the perceived benefits from the education system are reduced. Furthermore, the decentralization of financing has also contributed to inequities in quality of education between rich and poor communities and families.

The UN Committee on the Rights of the Child recommends that greater efforts are made to allocate the required human and financial resources to improve infrastructure; expand the provision of learning materials and supplies; and promote the participation of parents and communities in school governance, especially of ethnic minorities to improve enrolment rates and monitor the quality of education.

TRANSITION: IMPACT ON HUMAN SECURITY HEALTH

*...There are no incurable diseases—only the lack of desire
there are no non-healing herbs—only the lack of knowledge
Attributed to Ibn-Sina*

INTRODUCTION

Uzbekistan, like other countries in the region, suffered a collapse in incomes in the early years of the transition and a worsening of the overall health status of the population. Since 1995, however, along with the



improved performance of the economy, some improvements in the overall health status have occurred, but only to 1990 levels, whilst the levels and trends in many health indicators continue to be of concern.

Economic prosperity and health are interdependent which makes improving health a priority for the economic and social development of Uzbekistan. Furthermore, the right to health is an essential entitlement both in itself and as a means for the fulfilment of other human rights and, as such, its importance is recognised through its affirmation in many international human rights conventions.⁹⁰

KEY HEALTH ISSUES

The challenge that Uzbekistan faces is to reverse the deterioration in health status that followed the collapse of the Soviet Union and to catch up the lost years of health development. Whereas overall life expectancy has now just regained its 1990 level, the need for concerted and targeted interventions to tackle the burden of com-

municable and non-communicable diseases, historical and continuing gender and regional disparities, and an acceleration of the reform and transition process, is paramount. In addition, there are now new external threats such as HIV/AIDS and the drug epidemic, particularly affecting the youth.

The increase in overall life expectancy has not been uniform: women and child health indicators along with some indicators for communicable and non-communicable diseases, even when improving, continue to show high morbidity and mortality rates as compared to other FSU countries. Further efforts are needed to ensure that Uzbekistan will reach the Millennium Development Goals, particularly as the Under-five mortality rate remains high and the Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR) has shown a rising trend in the last few years. High rates of infectious and non-infectious diseases and poor nutrition, particularly among children and women, are partly due to the effects of the transition on the health and social institutions, income and access to water and sanitation facilities. Furthermore, official as well as independent data also confirm the existence of regional disparities.

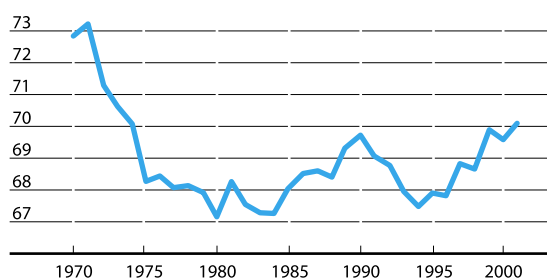
The health care system in Uzbekistan (as in all FSU countries) was well developed at independence, but its organization and structure required a level of investment that has not been possible since 1990. The reform of the health care system, therefore, is crucial and sufficient resources need to be devoted for rapid implementation in order to ensure that access to and quality of health care services improve throughout the country. Reforms must address the funding, efficiency and equity problems in an integrated fashion. However, whereas the recent attention to out-patient, primary health care, disease prevention, and health promotion is welcome, the in-patient services, especially at the secondary and tertiary level, continue to get a major share of resources. Furthermore, if people cannot afford to pay for services it is unlikely that they will access them until an emergency situation develops. In extreme cases this delay can lead to serious health consequences for individuals and their communities, together with an additional burden of expense for the health and emergency services.

⁹⁰ The Government and UNICEF have developed a National Action Plan to follow up the recommendations of the Convention of the Rights of the Child and the measures that have been so far taken by the government in meeting the recommendations. See UNICEF (2002), Mid Tem Review 2002.

EMERGING DOUBLE BURDEN OF DISEASES

Since 1994, life expectancy at birth has increased by over 2 years⁹¹ and has reached the level it was when the Soviet Union collapsed (although it remains low compared to EU levels.⁹² The gender disparity, however, is dramatic: whereas male life expectancy in Uzbekistan is one of the highest of the FSU countries, female life expectancy is one of the lowest. Major improvements

Figure 8
Life expectancy at birth, in years



Source: Health for All Database, Uzbekistan, WHO

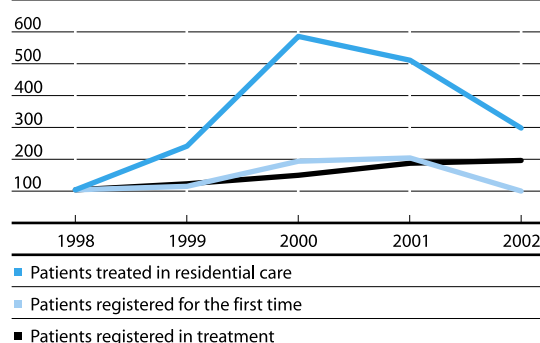
in the overall life expectancy and health status of the population can be realized from reducing this gender gap and also from tackling the double burden of infectious diseases, which are characteristic of poor countries, and non-infectious diseases, which are characteristic of developed countries. Prominently amongst the former are tuberculosis, viral hepatitis, diseases of the respiratory systems, infectious and parasitic diseases, and the emergence of new infections such as HIV/AIDS. Amongst the latter are cardio-vascular diseases, diabetes and diseases of the digestive system, especially chronic liver disease.

The increasing prevalence of chronic non-infectious diseases can be related to poor diet, malnutrition and behavior such as smoking, alcohol consumption and sedentary lifestyles. Moreover, the historical focus of the health system on treatment rather than prevention must be reversed, so that the efforts and skills of health workers address issues of health promotion.

Drug abuse is an important issue for Uzbekistan, particularly in view of its geographic proximity to Afghanistan. According to official statistics the number of registered drug users increased more than fourfold between 1992 and 2002 to 18,956 addicts, of whom almost 60% were heroin users, and of these, 70% injected the drug.⁹³ (see Table 22) At the time, the drug abuse incidence medium estimate was 315 per 100,000 people, or 0.32% of the population. While by global standards, this is a low level, experts agreed that the figure was almost certainly an underestimation, and this may be due to social stigma, low availability of treatment and addicts not wishing to address their problem openly. The number of minors abusing drugs increased three-

fold in 2001 alone and the average age of initiation to drugs is below 20 years.⁹⁴ An increasing number of injecting drug users (IDUs) has increased the spread of HIV/AIDS through the reuse and sharing of un-sterilized syringes; and through the practice of unprotected sexual intercourse. According to UN assessments, where the HIV/AIDS virus is introduced into the drug-using population, it is estimated that 40 to 60% of all IDUs will contract HIV within two to three years.

Figure 9
Drug abuse dynamics of treatment indicators, index of 1998 as 100%



Source: Ministry of Health, 2002

The number of female drug addicts and the number of drug addicts in rural areas is also increasing. Arguably the most serious trend in drug dependency has been the increasing prevalence since the late 1990s, of cheap and widely available intravenous heroin. In 2002 there was a sharp reduction in newly registered drug abusers, probably due to a reduced supply and an increased price, which in turn may have been responsible for the increase in alcoholism in some parts of the country, which at times were nearly double 2001 rates. Other factors fuelling the increase of drug addiction among young people are unemployment and a perceived 'fashionableness' of drugs.

At the end of 2002 there were 1,760 HIV-positive persons registered in Uzbekistan, although this may be an underestimation, and their number is increasing rapidly (3,213 cases in mid 2003) with more than half of those with HIV being below 30 years of age.⁹⁵ Before 1999, the primary mode of HIV transmission was through sexual contacts with foreigners. However, the situation changed

91 WHO "Health for All" Database, WHO Regional Office for Europe.
92 The EU average Life Expectancy at Birth is 81 years for females and 74.4 for males.

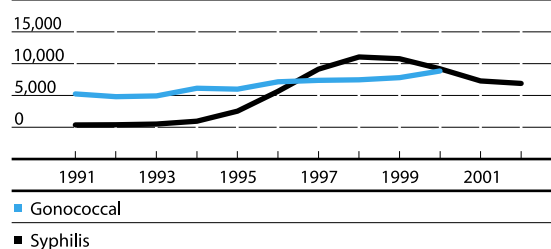
93 An estimate of the actual total number of problem drug users has only been made available once, in the course of the 2000 UNODC Rapid Situation Assessment on Drug Abuse in Central Asia (RSA), UN Office for Drug Control (2000).

94 UN Office for Drug Control (2000), "Rapid Situation Assessment on Drug Abuse in Central Asia" and Narcology Centre (2003), Tashkent.

95 National AIDS Prevention Centre (2003).

in 2000 when injecting drug users became the major group to be affected by HIV, accounting for 75% of all registered cases. HIV transmission through heterosexual contacts has risen from 8.6% in 2001 to 11.2% in 2002, posing a threat of HIV becoming a potential problem for the general population, rather than for highly vulnerable sectors of the population alone⁹⁶ (see Table 23).

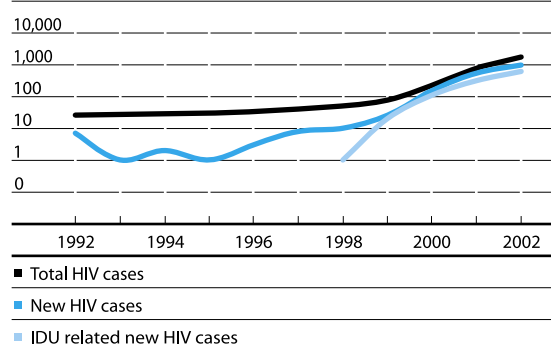
Figure 10
Number of new gonococcal and syphilis cases



Source: Ministry of Health, 2002

Although the current prevalence of HIV/AIDS is low in numerical terms, the number of new infections is rising rapidly in Uzbekistan registering an almost two fold increase in the number of HIV positive persons during the first eight months of 2003. High unemployment and lack of social and economic security have caused many people to join highly vulnerable

Figure 11
HIV-related indicators

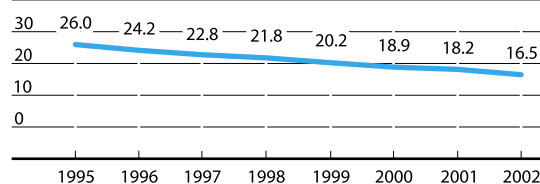


Source: Ministry of Health, 2002

population groups, such as injecting drug users and sex-workers.⁹⁷ A corresponding increase in Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs) over the last decade indicates a tendency towards casual, unprotected sex in the general population, which are major risk factors for the spread of HIV and STIs with, for example, a rise in the syphilis rate from 21.1/100,000 of the population in 1991 to 70.3/100,000 in 1999.⁹⁸ Despite the fact that HIV-testing is widely available for pregnant women, lack of treatment guidelines and supplies of anti-retroviral drugs hinders the opportunity to

adequately address the problem. Even with the increased level of awareness on HIV/AIDS, continued attention to the problems of young people is required, including the availability of counselling services and the provision of information on a wider scale, if the problems of drug addiction and unprotected sex are to be addressed.

Figure 12
Infant mortality rates, 1995–2002



Source: Ministry of Health, 2003

Communicable diseases in general remain a major problem, despite improving vaccination coverage against tuberculosis, pertussis, measles, diphtheria, tetanus and poliomyelitis. Over the last few years Uzbekistan has experienced several outbreaks of preventable infectious diseases which include tuberculosis, diphtheria, viral hepatitis, and recently, typhoid. However, joint efforts of the government and international donors achieved and sustained high immunization coverage rates, resulting in a very low incidence of diphtheria, measles and other vaccine-preventable diseases and WHO polio-free certification in 2002.

After 40 years of steady decline, the tuberculosis incidence rate has almost doubled since 1991, reaching 72.4/100,000 in 2001.⁹⁹ This increase is reported in all regions, but is especially marked in rural areas, such as Karakalpakstan, where the incidence rate of 149.9/100,000 is more than twice as high as nationally. Amongst the possible causes of the increase are poverty, migration, lack of funds for primary and preventive health care services, and multi-drug resistance of Mycobacterium, with an absence of new drugs against tuberculosis.¹⁰⁰

⁹⁶ National AIDS Prevention Centre (2003).

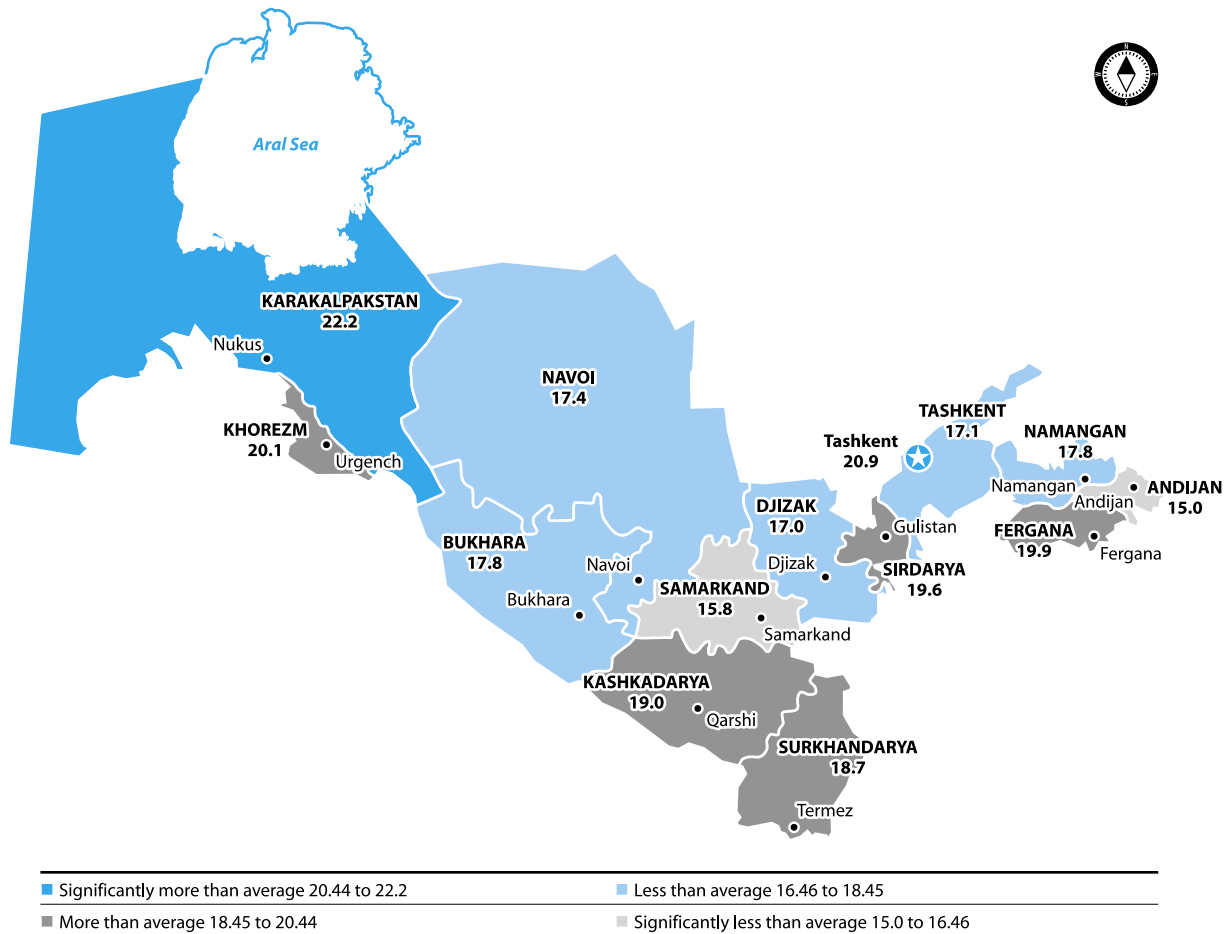
⁹⁷ A recent survey concludes that there is a higher level of awareness of HIV/AIDS among the general population in comparison with the past. See Uzbekistan Health Examination Survey 2002, Preliminary Report, Ministry of Health Uzbekistan, State Department of Statistics, Tashkent, Measure DHS+ORC Macro (2003) and UNESCO/UNFPA Survey Study, 2000–2001.

⁹⁸ Ministry of Health (2002).

⁹⁹ Ministry of Health (2002).

¹⁰⁰ Since 1998 Uzbekistan has been implementing the WHO-recommended Directly Observable Treatment Short Course (DOTS) in diagnosis procedures, disease classification and treatment in selected regions of the country. Due to the improvement in case-finding activities the TB notification rate has increased. Furthermore, improved knowledge and skills of health workers has resulted in better control of TB. Tackling TB in prisons is still a challenge. The application to the Global Fund will provide a unique opportunity to stop TB in Uzbekistan.

Figure 13
Infant mortality rates



Source: Secretariat for Complex of Social Protection of Family, Mothers and Children under the Cabinet of Ministers of Uzbekistan

CHILD, WOMEN’S AND ADOLESCENT HEALTH

According to official statistics, there has been a steady decline in the Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) in recent years, from 24.2 per 1,000 live births in 1995 to 16.5 in 2002 when it was the lowest amongst the Central Asian countries. Whilst the trend is encouraging, Uzbekistan’s rates are still high, particularly when compared to other FSU countries, and if internationally accepted definitions of live births were to be used, they would probably be even higher. For example, the MICS showed the rate to be 52 per 1,000 live births in 1997, and the Demographic and Health Survey put the figure at 43.5 per 1,000 in 1996. The government is taking steps to apply the WHO definition of live births, which will enable improved monitoring of trends and allow international comparisons of the IMR.¹⁰¹ In addition to problems of indicators, the quality of newborn care is an issue of concern.¹⁰²

In 1999 approximately 51% of infant mortality was related to respiratory diseases while diarrhoeal diseases accounted for 3.1% of deaths.¹⁰³ Nevertheless, Uzbekistan has made excellent progress in child

immunizations, with almost 90 percent coverage of children under 1 year of age. Child immunizations are obligatory and these services continue to be provided free. Immunization coverage however should be universal with boosters carried out at the appropriate time. Any slippage in the coverage or failure to follow up could raise the infant and child mortality rates from their current levels.

Infant and child health is under threat from chronic malnutrition reflecting mothers’ health status, micronu-

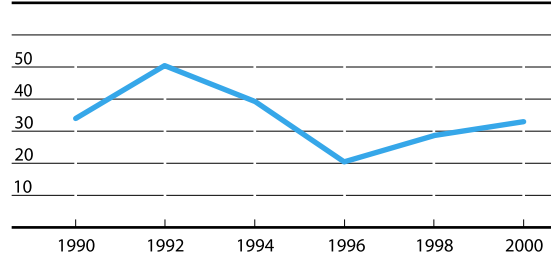
¹⁰¹ The Ministry of Health supported by UNICEF and WHO has agreed to pilot the international standards in three regions beginning in 2003.

¹⁰² A UNICEF-supported study on analysis of causal factors and reporting of infant mortality in three regions of the country revealed that more than half of officially registered stillbirths were, in fact, born alive and then died in early neonatal period. Asphyxia was responsible for 1/3 of the death of the newborn babies who died in early neonatal period and birth trauma accounted for almost 25% of deaths. More importantly, the results show that almost half of newborns who died in early neonatal period were those who were born with the weights of 2,500–3,500 gr. Similarly, more than 40% of children who died in late neonatal period had the weights between 2,500–3,500 gr. See Ministry of Health, 2001.

¹⁰³ Ministry of Health (2001).

trient intake and absorption and child feeding habits.¹⁰⁴ Child malnutrition is closely linked to family income and poverty, already at a critical level in some rural areas and amongst urban disadvantaged families. Iodine deficiency,

Figure 14
Maternal mortality ratio



Source: Ministry of Health, Health for All Database, WHO

a health disorder preventable by iodizing salt, is estimated at 61% among children under 3 years of age.¹⁰⁵ Iron deficiency anaemia, a health condition related to inadequate nutrition and poor water quality is found in 61% of children under 3 years of age. Differentials in anaemia status, which are most pronounced by the child's age, the region in which they live and the mother's education, remain issues of concern.

Women's health in general and reproductive health in particular is very closely related to infant and child health. Life expectancy at birth is higher for women than men—figures for 1998 show 74.4 years for women compared to 70.5 for men.¹⁰⁶ The Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR) decreased from 65.3 per 100,000 births to 20.7 during the period from 1991 to 1996 according to the official statistics, but then rose thereafter—reaching 34.1 per 100,000 births in 2001¹⁰⁷. This trend suggests possible links between the deteriorating conditions of women's health and the quality of antenatal services¹⁰⁸ given the fact that a large proportion of women attend prenatal care regularly and deliver in health facilities under the care of trained practitioners.¹⁰⁹

Maternal mortality, however, is only partly related to the quality of the health care system. While the clinical causes of maternal death are mainly complications during pregnancy, health problems caused by women's poor nutrition, unhealthy environment and frequent births play a major role in influencing the rates of maternal mortality (see Table 24). The 60% rate of anemia among women in childbearing age, especially those who are pregnant, is a key factor influencing women's health and safe delivery as well as the health of the new born. Furthermore, the number of anemic women is higher in certain regions, suggesting a correlation between geographic factors, socioeconomic conditions and health trends.¹¹⁰ (See Table 25) A recent World Bank study has shown that there are regional differences in access to and quality of health care as well as in environmental factors such as access to water and sanitation.¹¹¹ The fact that nearly a quarter of all maternal deaths are recorded

amongst women aged between 21 and 24 years also highlights the importance of delaying childbearing and having the options to do so.

Estimates show that women have an average of 0.7 induced abortion in their lifetime.¹¹² Unmet needs in family planning are still high. The Contraceptive Prevalance Rate (CPR) is 66.8%; however it is heavily biased towards IUD (intra uterine devices) which denotes limitation of choice. There is still a prevalent attitude amongst the general population as well as within the medical community that abortion can be used to terminate an unwanted pregnancy, a practice that doubtlessly contributes to maternal mortality.¹¹³ With regard to gynecological cancer, cervical cancer is most common. It has been estimated that 44 out of 100,000 women have cervical cancer. This means that currently there are approximately 5,400 women who live with cervical cancer in Uzbekistan.¹¹⁴ The current prevention programme is inadequate and it is estimated that a large number of women's lives could be saved by its improvement.

Recent analysis indicates that about 35% of unmarried youth are sexually active.¹¹⁵ This, together with the increase in drug use amongst this sector of the population, whose numbers are in excess of 5 million, calls for focused efforts in addressing their problems. The availability of modern contraceptive services; and reproductive health information and care for women, youth and adolescents, which includes information about sexuality, prevention of unwanted pregnancy, protection from sexually trans-

104 Malnutrition among children is an issue of concern with high rates of malnutrition with 31% under five children suffering from chronic malnutrition. Acute malnutrition and the proportion of underweight children are estimated at 12 and 19% respectively. However, recent surveys have shown that the nutritional status of children may be improving. See Uzbekistan Health Examination Survey 2002, Preliminary Report, Ministry of Health Uzbekistan, State Department of Statistics, Tashkent, Measure DHS+ORC Macro, 2003. See also USAID (1996), Demographic Health Survey and UNICEF (2000), Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys, Ministry of Health, 2002 and UNICEF (2003), the Status of the World Children.

105 UNICEF (2000), Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey and Institute of Endocrinology, Tashkent.

106 State Statistics Department, The Government of Uzbekistan, 1998.

107 Ministry of Health (2002).

108 85% of women who delivered during the three years prior to a 1996 survey received antenatal care largely from professional staff. See USAID (1996), Demographic and Health Survey.

109 The Ministry of Health reports that the coverage of pregnant women with antenatal care is 97%. This data is also supported by MICS 2000.

110 Anaemia rates in Karakalpakstan are estimated at 98.7%; 94% in Navoi and Khorezm 91% compared to 39% in Tashkent and 51% in Sirdarya. See "Monitoring the Achievements of Goals on Children's Well-being in Uzbekistan", Social Complex of the Cabinet of Ministers and UNICEF (2002).

111 World Bank (2003). Living Standard Assessment.

112 USAID (1996), Demographic and Health Survey.

113 In recognition of these problems, a number of government programmes have been developed, the last of which "On Measures of Realization of Priority Directions to Increase the Level of Family Medical Culture, to Strengthen Women's Health; Birth and Education of Healthy Generations", Cabinet of Ministers (2002).

114 Ministry of Health, 2003.

115 International Planned Parenthood Federation (2001) and UNFPA (2001).

mitted infections (STIs), including HIV/AIDS, and protection from drug and alcohol abuse, are vital in ensuring a healthy and safe environment for future generations.

HEALTH REFORMS

The health care system has been moving from central planning and government finance to a mixed public and out-of-pocket payments system. A 1996 Presidential decree started the move away from the central hospital-



based system towards primary healthcare. The reforms are aimed at reducing some of the several tiers of health facilities into a flatter two-level structure, particularly in rural areas. Subsequently, the government introduced new emergency hospitals in every region, and outlined a series of reforms related to a public-private mix in secondary services. The move to privatization has been in part to relieve government budgetary burdens, to codify current out-of-pocket payments, and to encourage more revenues flowing into the health sector. Overall, between 1990 and 2000, according to official figures, some impressive gains were made, including: a reduction in the number of hospital beds from 122.1 per 10,000 of the population to 53.3 per 10,000; a decrease in patient admission to hospital from 24.4 per 100 of the population to 13.2; and a reduction in the average length of stay for inpatient admissions from 14.8 days per person to 12.1 days.¹¹⁶

Evaluation and monitoring of sectoral performance need to be systematized by strengthening policy and planning capacities at the Ministry of Health and in the health information system. Furthermore, the lack of experience, expertise and new skills at the health care institutions seriously hamper the implementation of new policies. In addition, the detailed legislative basis to support broad health sector reforms remains un-

derdeveloped. Public information on health policy and reforms is limited, and enforcement and accountability mechanisms are weak.

Despite the relative protection of the social sectors in Uzbekistan compared to other countries, public funding of health care fell from approximately 6% of GDP in the 1980s to 3% in the late 1990s.¹¹⁷ This fall has been accompanied by an increase in the private financing of health care, partly as a result of transition from a 'free' to a 'pre-paid' system, but also partly reflecting the increased significance of informal payments with a consequential effect on the access of the poor to healthcare thereby raising equity concerns.¹¹⁸ The privatization of healthcare without adequate mechanisms for safeguarding availability will constitute a failure to protect the right to health and will also place many people at risk of falling into poverty due to the high costs of chronic or catastrophic illness. However, the government has also implemented measures aimed at improving the existing levels of social services for such vulnerable groups as mothers and children, young people and the elderly.¹¹⁹

THE HUMAN DIMENSION AND THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

In recent decades health has been increasingly recognized as an important dimension of human development, and health itself is viewed as not merely the absence of disease, but a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being. The importance of health as a key concern for the future is underscored by the fact that three out of eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are health-related and mutually reinforcing. Attainment of the health-related MDGs, particularly those relating to improving the MMR and HIV indicators¹²⁰ is a major challenge which will require a clear and effective strategy; investment in manpower and physical facilities; and changes in the understanding of, and attitude towards health and being healthy. In particular, emphasis needs to be concentrated on preventive, rather than curative health, within the context of the primary healthcare system. Health must be viewed as the collective responsibility of the person, the community and the whole nation and not merely that of health professionals. Such a health strategy can make a significant contribution to achieving the Millennium Goals, and at a relatively low cost. However, real invest-

116 World Bank (2003).

117 UNDP (2000) National Human Development Report 1999, UNDP, Uzbekistan. The level of public expenditure on health is the subject of some debate as there are figures showing that during the period 1991–2002 state expenditures on health care grew from 2.6% to 9.7%.

118 World Bank (2003), Living Standards Assessment.

119 National Programmes on "Mother and Child", "Healthy Generation", and "Strengthening the Role of Women in Family, State and Public Building".

120 A number of government and non government organizations such as Kamolot Fund and schools are working with young people to increase their level of awareness on HIV/AIDS and other diseases.

ments in medical facilities, medicines and personnel are also key commitments that the country has to make.

Given that Uzbekistan is currently undergoing an economic and health reform, it has to carefully balance the health needs of its people, especially those with low levels of education and status in society, who cannot afford the health services that are increasingly being monetized. Several geographic areas have been additionally effected by environmental practices and children, women in reproductive ages and particularly adolescents and youth living in environmentally-degraded geographic areas, should remain the focus of government and international organizations' attention if the MDGs are to be achieved by the target date.¹²¹

CONCLUSION

The human cost of the transition from centrally planned to market oriented economy has been high as two prior decades of health status development were compromised in the years between 1990 and 1994. Although

improvements since then have resulted in the overall health status reaching that of 1990, the current levels of both communicable and non-communicable diseases, including malnutrition and the significant rise in HIV/AIDS and tuberculosis, are major challenges for the country. This double burden of disease has been a further constraint to human development during Uzbekistan's transition period.

The limited availability of funds and opportunities for accelerating the pace of health reform implementation, for improving the knowledge and skills of health professionals at all levels and for the unbalanced distribution of budget expenditures on health care have all affected improvements. Furthermore, there are worrying signs that the combined impact of low social spending and low household income is beginning to take its toll. Those families, which are not able to contribute towards health care costs and balanced nutrition, face the risk of reduced access to and a lower quality of vital services.

¹²¹ The commitment of the government to the MDGs of reducing child mortality and improving maternal health is described in the project "Monitoring on Ensuring Goals of Children's Wellbeing in Uzbekistan", Social Complex of the Cabinet of Ministers and UNICEF (2002), which uses a set of country tailored indicators to track down progress in terms of maternal and child wellbeing through the development of a monitoring system based on of geographic information system based maps. See UNICEF (2002), Mid Term Review 2002.

TRANSITION: IMPACT ON HUMAN SECURITY ENVIRONMENT

Forgive Us, Aral. (Anon. Muynak)

INTRODUCTION

Located in the middle of the Eurasia region, Uzbekistan consists of 80% desert or semi-desert, including the largest desert in Central Asia, the Kyzylkum. The remaining 20% of territory includes the extensive Tien Shan and Gissar-Alai mountain systems in the east and southeast,



which are characterized by high seismic activity. The main water arteries are the transboundary rivers, the Amu-Darya and the Syr-Darya, which deliver their waters into the Aral Sea, a large part of which is within the territory of the republic. Snowmelt from the mountains, mostly in neighbouring states, constitutes the bulk of river flow. These rivers are flanked by broad, flat valleys, which are intensely utilized for irrigated agriculture. The climate is subtropical, extremely continental with considerable seasonal and daily fluctuations of temperature.

The key climatic factor in the region is the intensive solar radiation, especially in summer periods. There are significant inter-year variations in precipitation and temperature. There are environmental problems in all areas of Uzbekistan, but the most severe occur in areas of highest human concentration (such as the Fergana valley) or in areas downstream of major irrigated agricultural activity (Khorezm and Karakalpakstan).

KEY ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES

These geographical and climatic features make Uzbekistan vulnerable to environmental problems, particularly in regard to damage to the fragile arid ecosystems and limited water resources. Arable land, all of which is irrigated, occupies only about 11% of the territory and there is only minor scope for increasing this, thus the country is also vulnerable to negative impacts on arable land resources. It is also highly dependant on neighbouring countries for water resources.

Based on the National Environmental Action Plan of 1998, the CCA analysis identified three priority areas of key environmental concern in the country: a) degradation of water resources and related salinization of water and arable land, factors leading to and scarcity of quality water; b) desertification; and c) loss of ecosystem services and increased vulnerability to natural and man-made disasters.

WATER

The problems related to water are by far the most pressing and complex. The Uzbek economy, as well as its environmental sustainability, depends on the availability and quality of water resources. Analysis has shown that there are three main problems related to water. Firstly, water scarcity, which is the most critical issue, not only from an environmental viewpoint, but also from an economic and social one;¹²² secondly, increased water and arable land salinization; and thirdly, the pollution of drinking water supply.

The underlying cause of all the water-related problems is the inefficient and irrational use of scarce water resources, mainly for irrigated agriculture which plays the largest role in the economy as it produces the major cash crop and supports the majority of the population. Of all the countries of the region Uzbekistan is also the most dependent on irrigated agriculture and has the highest proportion of land under irrigation in the region. It also has the largest rural population (over 14 million) and the overall highest population density.¹²³ As a consequence Uzbekistan also faces the most critical problems in terms of diminishing productivity of irrigated lands, and environmental and rural socio-

¹²² UNDP (2000), National Human Development Report 1999, UNDP, Uzbekistan.

¹²³ Average of 49.6 per sq. km with a maximum of 464 per sq. km in Andijan Oblast and the highest proportion of its GDP generated by irrigated agriculture (over 30%). See National Environmental Action Plan (1998).

Figure 15
Map of broad categories of environmental change in Uzbekistan



- High/strong—areas fully used in economy or strongly affected by economic activity
- Medium—Areas partly or temporally used in economy or affected by economic activity
- Weak—Areas with minor or no anthropogenic impacts

Source: Biodiversity Strategy Action Plan (Government Data of 1980's)

economic impacts. Addressing issues related to irrigated agriculture, water management and the environment is not merely a priority, but an essential requirement to ensure its future survival.

There are three root causes of the water related problems, the first one being, the massive and rapid expansion of irrigation and its inefficient centrally planned management during the FSU era. During this period, the expansion of the irrigation system exceeded the ability of natural systems and available technology to cope and this, combined with central planning which promoted inefficiency by under-valuing natural resources, resulted in land and water salinization on a massive scale and the drying of the Aral Sea. This has undercut the very basis of life in the region by reducing or destroying the productivity of the land and water resources. Unfortunately, aspects of the old management systems still remain, which favour short-term economic gains over sustainability and quantity over quality. Secondly, mechanisms to effectively regulate the management of regional water resources and to ensure equitable benefits, particularly for source countries such

as Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan, have still to be made to work in practice. Thus major tensions persist between states on the issue of water. Thirdly, the budgetary problems of the transition also adversely affected the maintenance and modernization of the enormous irrigation and water management infrastructure, reducing land productivity and exacerbating environmental decline.

Water Salinization and Land Degradation. The greatest single threat to the productivity of irrigated agriculture and the environment as a whole is the increasing salinization of land and water.¹²⁴ Local conditions have meant that salinity has always been a problem for Central Asia, but was addressed in the past via techniques appropriate to the scale of irrigation agriculture. However, the rapid expansion of irrigation systems in the last 70

¹²⁴ Examples: within the Aral Sea basin 31% of the 7.9 million ha. under irrigation have a water table less than 2 metres and 28% have medium to high levels of salt, with agricultural yields decreased by 20 to 30%; the production of salt per ha is on average 6 times greater than the yield of raw cotton and in total irrigated land discharges an estimated 137 million tons of salt per year. See Global Environment Facility/World Bank Water and Environmental Management Project (1998).

years, without major technological efforts to address salinity issues has left an unfortunate legacy. Salinity problems are faced everywhere but the scope of the problem varies for different regions, with downstream areas suffering more than upstream locations. Within Central Asia an estimated USD 2 billion (about 5% of Central Asia's GNP) is lost annually due to salinization and these losses are increasing every year.¹²⁵

Water Pollution and Drinking Water Supplies.

The main source of surface water pollution is irrigated farming which causes more than 78% of wastewater discharges containing high salinity and agro-chemicals. Municipal sewage constitutes the second largest surface water polluter (18%) and is the main cause of bacterial pollution. The amount of untreated industrial wastewater dropped in 2002 to 4% of total surface wastewater discharges due, to decreased production and tighter controls since independence. Access to sewage networks has been improving, but still only 54% of urban and 3% of rural populations have access to sewage networks, the remainder relying on on-site sanitation, which usually consists of unlined pit latrines.¹²⁶ This, in conjunction with high groundwater tables caused by poor irrigation drainage and poor hygiene practices, leads to high bacteriological contamination of water and food. The impact of this in terms of waterborne disease outbreaks is evident particularly in the regions of Khorezm, Karakalpakstan, Bukhara and Kashkadaria. As with other services, the poor generally have worse access to water supplies and sanitation.¹²⁷

One of the most urgent problems, particularly for the rural population, is the low access to safe drinking water. Although serious efforts are being made to improve this situation, nonetheless, overall, one third of the population uses drinking water, which does not meet quality standards¹²⁸. Tests show that 34.4% of samples taken from all surface sources in Khorezm in 2000 did not meet the state standards of microbiological safety and 15% tested positive for cholera-like vibrios.¹²⁹ As a result of anthropogenic activity, 40% of known fresh groundwater is unsuitable for drinking.¹³⁰ The drinking water supply problem is acute in the Bukhara, Navoi and Khorezm regions and in Karakalpakstan.

DESERTIFICATION

Livestock farming is the major type of land use in the country, with over half of the area utilized being arid or mountain pasture. Compared to irrigated agriculture, changes in the development of the livestock sector have been rapid since independence with numbers of private livestock rising significantly, though state owned livestock has declined. This increase in private livestock was due to the fact that the sector is inherently more flexible than others as there is less dependence on a centralized system and major infrastructure and because severe declines in rural incomes have led to a rapid increase of livestock numbers to meet short term economic objectives, a poverty coping strategy by rural populations. This

coping strategy is de facto becoming a major threat to sensitive arid ecosystems with clear indications of reduced pasture productivity, increased aridity, increased water and wind erosion and loss of biodiversity.¹³¹

ECOSYSTEM SERVICES AND VULNERABILITY TO NATURAL AND MAN-MADE DISASTER

The main threats to biodiversity in Uzbekistan are major habitat loss or alteration. Some level of damage has been inflicted on 80% of clay desert territory, 95% of riverine areas, 20% of sandy desert and 40% of mountain areas.¹³² Human activity can be held mainly responsible for this through irrigated agriculture development, unsustainable use of natural territories for pastures and mining and energy industries. Uzbekistan's economy and security is heavily dependant on water resources, both in terms of quality and availability, and natural ecosystems play important roles in numerous ways in protecting both quality and availability of water supplies. Healthy ecosystems provide numerous local and national benefits ranging from erosion control, prevention or reduction of natural disasters (such as floods and landslides), to climatic amelioration and the potential for sustainable economic utilization through tourism or trophy hunting, etc.

The most significant loss of ecosystem services in Uzbekistan, and the greatest man made disaster, is the loss of the Aral Sea and the Amu Darya delta. The Aral Sea and its environs are the most serious symptom of a much wider problem resulting from continuing water and agricultural practices in the country and region. The ecological impacts of the Aral Sea disaster have greatly increased the vulnerability of local populations to poverty, health problems and social stress. The monetary costs alone are high and long term but have never been clearly evaluated.

THE HUMAN DIMENSION AND THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

The Constitution of Uzbekistan guarantees the right of every citizen to a clean and healthy environment. There are also numerous rights in terms of access to environmental information and to compensation for impacts of environmental damage. However, these rights are often contravened in terms of the maintenance in quality of the environmental and access to information on such issues.

¹²⁵ In the upper basin of the Amu-Darya and Syr-Darya rivers, less than 10% of the land is highly salinated. In the lower basin of the Amu-Darya (Karakalpakstan) 95% of the land is considered salinated to a certain extent.

¹²⁶ UNDP (2002), Human Development Report 2002, UNDP.

¹²⁷ Household Budget Survey, 2000–2001.

¹²⁸ UNDP (2000), National Human Development Report 1999, UNDP, Uzbekistan

¹²⁹ UNICEF (2002), Mid Term Review 2002, UNICEF, Uzbekistan.

¹³⁰ UNDP (2002), Human Development Report 2002, UNDP, Uzbekistan.

¹³¹ Other factors contributing to widespread soil erosion in Uzbekistan, include strong winds, poor soil structure, cultivation on slopes, and the overgrazing of pastures. See National Environmental Action Plan (1998).

¹³² The National Biodiversity Conservation Strategy and Action Plan (1998).

Environmental deterioration directly undercuts the livelihood of rural individuals and communities. The loss of healthy natural ecosystems or the descent of populations into poverty can result in a vicious cycle of problems. In the case of Uzbekistan, environmental damage inflicted by outside forces has exposed sectors of the population to poverty whilst other sectors have been forced by poverty into over-utilization of resources such as vulnerable mountain or desert pastures, resulting in their degradation which in turn lead to further poverty.

Water scarcity is a constant source of tension both between and within states. Competition over access to water may have very serious inter-regional consequences, particularly as rapid growth of the Uzbek population puts increased demands on almost exhausted water resources.¹³³ The limit of sustainable development in the Fergana Valley, for example, may have already been reached.¹³⁴ Increasing rural population pressure could thus lead to the exhaustion of the country's natural and water resources and to further degradation of downstream ecosystems.

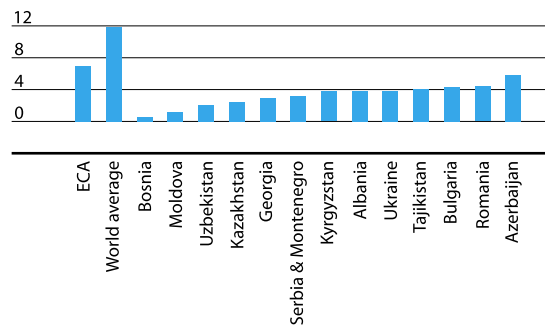
Direct impacts of damaged ecosystems on people include increased ill-health due to wind blown salt and dust, immune system deficiencies and mutations including cancers from past excessive use of agro-chemicals, kidney diseases as result of heavy salt concentration in drinking water, respiratory diseases and diseases related to poor diet, as well as significant contamination of drinking water resulting in communicable diseases and chemical pollution. Such problems are more frequently registered in areas with damaged ecosystems.¹³⁵ Children and the poor are most vulnerable: children due to their growing organisms, and the poor due to their inability to access quality health care and the subsequent perpetuation of a vicious circle of poverty-disease-poverty. Thus environmental sustainability in Uzbekistan is closely related to reducing mortality and combating diseases. Additional direct impacts include the reduced productivity of land (crops) and water (fisheries) and consequently a worsening food security situation; and increased vulnerability to natural disasters, such as floods, droughts and landslides.

Despite the steps taken towards reaching some of the MDGs in the past decade, for example, the decrease in CO₂ emissions since 1993 (as a result of industrial decline); and the increase in new and maintenance of existing protected areas, major problems remain in key areas, particularly clean water and sanitation. In 2002 for example, there were still marked disparities between urban and rural areas in the access to safe water and sanitation. Whilst 6% of the urban population does not have access to safe drinking water, in rural areas the figure of people not having access to an improved water source is 21%. Access to adequate sanitation follows the same trend.¹³⁶

Governance is a key issue within the context of environmental management to ensure sustainable development. As a consequence of its high dependence on irrigated agriculture and the risks and uncertainties

involved in undertaking major changes, Uzbekistan's approach to agricultural reform, particularly ownership and management aspects, has been one of the most cautious

Figure 16
Protected land area in 2002,
percent of land, Europe and Central Asia



Source: World Development Indicators, 2003, The World Bank

in the region. Although this approach has prevented the drastic socio-economic fallout felt in some other countries in transition, it has also meant that radical change has not occurred in the agricultural sector since independence.¹³⁷ At national and provincial level there are serious shortfalls both in terms of institutional and individual capacity to function effectively under new conditions and implement the significant new legislation, and policies developed. Environmental protection responsibilities are not concentrated adequately and responsible agencies lack sufficient real authority. Equally, there is a failure to decentralize control of natural resources to those with the most at stake in their sustainable use, namely the local authorities and rural communities. A lack of adequate land and other resource tenure reforms, both in terms of laws and institutional mechanisms, together with the often unfair redistribution of the real control of these resources and increasing rural poverty, is providing few incentives for sustainable management of resources.

¹³³ Centre for Preventative Action (1999), "Calming the Fergana Valley", Centre for Preventive Action, Washington.

¹³⁴ Micklin, P. (1991), "The Water Management Crisis in Soviet Central Asia, University of Pittsburgh, The Carl Beck Papers and East European Studies No. 905, in Gallagher, S. (1998), "The Syr Darya River Basin of Central Asia: Economic Development, Environmental Crisis, Regional Conflict and Reform".

¹³⁵ Elpiner, L. I. (1995), "Medical Ecological Problems of the Eastern Aral Land" in Geo-journal 35 (1) and "Poisoned Waters: The Aral Sea has all but Vanished but its Legacy is Destroying the Health of More than One Million People", New Scientist No. 2000.

¹³⁶ UNDP (2003), Human Development Report 2003.

¹³⁷ For example, there are still mandatory state orders for cotton and grains, almost all inputs (water, seed, agro-chemicals, etc.), and marketing is state controlled and private ownership of commercial farmland is, in practice, low. Also, maintenance and modernization of on-farm and inter-farm water delivery and drainage infrastructure has been neglected at the expense of the productivity of land, the environment, rural employment and livelihoods and the economy as a whole.

CONCLUSION

Uzbekistan has signed a number of international environmental conventions and has shown significant commitment by meeting most of the initial obligations of these conventions, including the preparation of country studies, strategies and action plans. However, very few of these policies and plans have been successfully implemented in practice and real reform within the agricultural sector, which remains the main cause of environmental problems, has not progressed sufficiently for any significant improvement to occur.

There is limited awareness generally of the causes of environmental damage and of the economic, health, social, and security consequences related to this. Key decisions fail to adequately balance environmental concerns with production imperatives, with the latter usually taking precedence. This is in part reflected by the dearth of freely available and accurate information on the concrete socio-economic and health costs of environmental damage.

There is an urgent need to reform the agricultural and industrial production sectors and to put in place effective incentives to achieve efficiency and sustainability in the use of natural resources. The key to improvement of the environmental situation in rural areas lies in agricultural reforms and introduction of improved water management.¹³⁸ The roots of the current situation lie in an economic system built over 40 years, of monolithic and flawed development, and that system still permeates and moulds the structures and approaches used to manage almost all natural resources today. To change the system inherited at independence, and move the economy onto a more diverse and sustainable level, is not only extremely difficult, but also full of economic and social risks. This fact may explain the slow progress of reforms. However, reform is necessary and must happen at a faster pace if the environmental burden is not to erode the nation's long-term chances of development and prosperity.

¹³⁸ EBRD (2003), "Strategy for Uzbekistan", European Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

INTRODUCTION

The Millennium Declaration represents the strongest, most explicit and unanimous statement to date of UN member states in support of democratic and participatory governance. It articulates that the MDGs must be achieved through good governance within each country and at the international level. Governance is the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for human development, and good governance is the exercise of power by various levels of government that is effective, honest, equitable, transparent and accountable.



Present development challenges facing Uzbekistan are inextricably linked with governance structures and institutional capacities. There is a growing gap between the need for new institutional systems that are required to manage the transition process and benefit from the opportunities which a more globally-integrated world offers, and present structures and social values which are progressively growing out of tune with the needs of a changing society.

The most distinctive feature of the Uzbek model of transition when it comes to governance is the role of the government as the main initiator and pursuer of political, economic and social reforms. During the first decade of independence the Government articulated its principal

goal as promoting social justice, achieving political stability and establishing secular rule in accordance with international standards. Excessive state involvement in economic and political life and poor development of democratic institutions led to an over-dominant executive branch and the rise of authoritarian tendencies.

Reforms to date have resulted in an integrated system of public governance, which is faced with problems related to inefficiency as well as the effectiveness of the execution of responsibilities by the various units of the system.¹³⁹ Based on the above the following key issues need to be addressed in order to move democratic governance reforms further: public administration and decentralization, rule of law and political process, as well as civil society, promotion and protection of human rights.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND DECENTRALIZATION

During the FSU period, the system of administration at all levels of public administration was based on central control with almost no decentralization of decision-making power. After independence changes were mainly driven by fiscal cuts and less by the institutional requirements of a market economy. Thus, many of the structures of state governance of the FSU were preserved, albeit with reduced staffing, and a few new ones were created such as the Office of the President of the Republic, which occupies a central position in public administration.

In general, reform of public administration has been slow and there is an increasing need for developing and strengthening institutions and processes that are more responsive to the needs of ordinary citizens, including the poor. In its Country Assistance Strategy for Uzbekistan, the World Bank notes that the key institutional weaknesses relate to gaps in public accountability. Public accountability is diluted by a political and economic system that is characterized by little or no oversight of public finances, lack of transparency in policy decision-making and implementation and a poorly developed civil society.¹⁴⁰

In January 1999 the Government initiated reform of the civil service including staff downsizing by 25%, to make the civil service more merit-based and its operations more effective and results-oriented, however, the World Bank noted that the public administration

¹³⁹ UNDP (2000), National Human Development Report 1999. UNDP, Uzbekistan.

¹⁴⁰ World Bank (2002), Country Assistance Strategy for Uzbekistan.

remains weak.¹⁴¹ There is no civil service law, the state's regulatory and economic functions often overlap, and transparency in the accounting, reporting and auditing of public resources needs to be improved. Furthermore, there is a need for civil servants to be retrained, in order to meet the requirements of a modern state.

Uzbekistan has a centralized political system of government with ultimate authority resting at the central level. The President has recently begun a programme of administrative reform with the establishment of a State Committee, which proposed measures to limit government's involvement in the economy and the optimization of state government's functions. The distribution of authority between central and local governments is defined by the Constitution according to which the heads of the hokimiyats (regions) are granted executive power directly by the President.¹⁴² The President appoints regional hokims (head of the hokimiyat or mayor), with city and district hokims being appointed by the regional Hokim. The centralized concentration of power means that the local governments implement national government policies focused primarily on national targets, concerning mainly budget and cotton targets.¹⁴³ The public finance system is unitary and local government is responsible for collection of all government revenue, although expenditure decisions are made at central level.¹⁴⁴

One of the most important administrative changes in recent years is the revitalization of the mahalla system. The mahallas, which are traditional mechanisms for local self-rule and are not considered part of government, have been given increasing responsibilities for the channeling of social assistance. The network of mahallas is central to the government's vision of decentralization of power and community development. It encourages participation by communities in addressing social issues at local levels, with a limited role played by government structures in terms of setting rules on which the mahallas have to base their decisions and guarantee accountability.¹⁴⁵ Even though the social transfers administered by the mahallas increased from 0.1% of GDP to 0.9% in 2003, they remain relatively small compared to other sources of household subsidies such as access to cheap gas, electricity and subsidized rent. There are concerns, however, that mahallas are operating in non-transparent and undemocratic ways, for example, in showing favoritism towards ethnic Uzbek households.¹⁴⁶ The World Bank emphasized that the increased funding of social assistance to the mahallas needs to be accompanied by higher transparency, accountability and tighter financial control to ensure that resources are not misused.¹⁴⁷

The level of women's participation in the mahalla system requires further analysis.¹⁴⁸ Few mahallas are headed by women with the highest number registered in Tashkent and the lowest in Karakalpakstan. Studies conducted so far suggest that women very rarely participate in local government bodies¹⁴⁹ (see Table 26).

The role played by regional and political alliances as well as by private interests has also had a slowing impact on the reform of the public administration. This is a factor which limits the coordination and dialogue between the central and local level, thus impacting on the government's ability to effectively address the regional, social and economic dimensions of insecurity, most notably those related to redistribution of land, agricultural prices and ultimately to equity.

RULE OF LAW

After the collapse of the Soviet Union, Uzbekistan established a national state by breaking with the Soviet period but maintaining the idea of secular government. The Constitution of Uzbekistan adopted in December 1992 is the foundation for the new legal system.

Historically, Uzbekistan's political elite has relied on strong relationships of patronage, clan and family and despite Soviet attempts to impose a new national identity, regional alliances (clan identity) remained and remain to this day a significant factor in social relations. Political control or access to economic resources is strongly dependent on regional alliances, which often prevail over all-Uzbek ethnic identity.¹⁵⁰ A network of regional and political interests intersects with industrial and commercial interests to reinforce the stability of the state. Preserving the balance among regional and political alliances is crucial to maintain political and social stability.

Recently, important steps were taken to transfer more executive powers from the President to the Parliament and the Cabinet of Ministers. From 2005 the President's power to nominate members of the government will be delegated to the Prime Minister and presidential decrees will be approved by Parliament. The new law on the establishment of a bicameral Parliament was passed in late 2002 and the draft law on the parliamentary election was approved by Parliament on 11th Session on April 24, 2003 and published in the local press for public's feedback. The new bicameral parliament (to be elected next year) will have 100 members in the Senate (upper house) and 120 members in the Legislative (lower house).

141 World Bank (2002), Country Assistance Strategy for Uzbekistan.

142 Law on Public Administration (1993), The Government of Uzbekistan.

143 "An Evaluation of Tacis Public Administration Reform Programmes in Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan, Final Report", 1998.

144 Articles 122–123 of the Constitution of Uzbekistan.

145 See "Provision of Mahallas on Self-Governing Bodies in the Cities, Towns and Kishalk of Uzbekistan", 1993 and Law on Community Self Government, April, 1999.

146 See Coudouel, A., Marnie, S. and Micklewright, J. (1999), "Targeting Social Assistance in a Transition Economy: The Mahallas in Uzbekistan", Centre for Economic Policy: Research Discussion paper 2064 where local government bodies are referred to as "mahalla committees".

147 World Bank (2003), Country Economic Memorandum.

148 See also Human Rights Watch (2001), "Sacrificing Women to Save the Family: Domestic Violence in Uzbekistan".

149 Coudouel, Marnie and Micklewright (1999). (Quoted in: R. Pomfret (1999), "Uzbekistan", Second draft, version 2.

150 Dukenbaev, A. and Tanyrykov, V. (2001), "Tribes, Clans, Hordes, Traditional Bonds Shape Political Cultures and Attitudes in Central Asia" in Transition Newsletter, World Bank.

The legal basis for a multi-party system is enshrined in the Constitution. Today Uzbekistan has four officially registered parties, although the existence of multiple parties has, however, not led to political competition. Some opposition groups are legally forbidden to function and most official parties are entirely pro-government in their views.¹⁵¹ According to a report by Freedom House, provisions related to the registration of political parties severely limit the development of new groups, and the electoral administration fails to guarantee true independence and impartiality.¹⁵²

Uzbekistan as a newly independent state is still grappling with the task of creating an executive, legislative and judicial framework that reflects both the local context and a democratic market society. The reformed judicial system consists of the Constitutional Court, the supreme courts, and regional, city, district civil and military courts. Despite the intensive legislative activity since independence, the judiciary still does not operate independently from the executive branch,¹⁵³ whilst international organizations note that the judiciary is weak and does not contribute to fighting pervasive corruption.¹⁵⁴ Supreme Court judges are nominated by the President and confirmed by the Oliy Majlis (Parliament). Judges have limited terms of office, receive low salaries and are usually overloaded, thus increasing the risk of lack of independence and corruption.

This present state of affairs influences the access of citizens to justice, diminishing their confidence in the institutions and limits the provision of effective legal aid to the poor. Taking the issue of domestic violence, for example, there is a general lack of responsiveness regarding crimes against women and although laws exist, they are rarely implemented or invoked by the citizens for their own benefit. The Government recognizes that the courts and police have so far implemented very few of the international norms and human rights conventions that the country is a signatory to and urges that these conventions be applied and that the training of personnel in the police and the judiciary be considered a priority.¹⁵⁵

The executive, legislative and judicial branches of government are still unbalanced with the executive branch dominating in all matters. There is gender imbalance in all state power authorities with an overwhelming majority of men's representation in the state administration and in all branches of power. The collapse of the Soviet system resulted in a severe decrease in the number of women represented in various influential and authoritative positions in society, and there was a decline in the representation of women in parliament from 36% in 1985 to 7% in 2003.¹⁵⁶ Although this decline represents the end of the Soviet quota system, in 2002 the representation of women in state power authorities was 13.7%, still an unequal gender distribution (see Table 27).

CIVIL SOCIETY AND HUMAN RIGHTS

After the collapse of the FSU, the main challenge of the transition in governance lies in re-defining the way in which the state interacts with and protects the interest of the citizen. There have been clear attempts at the national level to analyze the situation critically as summarized in a presidential speech "There is no need to repeat that we should pay key attention to protecting rights and freedom of people, guaranteeing them not in words but in real life. Guaranteeing people's freedom of speech and freedom of the press, which are closely, connected with these problems ... we must admit that if we are going to build an open, law-based and democratic state, we have to carry out great deal of work to sort out these problems."¹⁵⁷

Development of Non-governmental and Non-commercial Organizations. Since 2000, Uzbekistan has seen a 66% increase in the number of registered NGOs, including social organizations, social funds, consumer co-operatives, associations and self-governing bodies (mahallas).¹⁵⁸ However, there is still no universally accepted concept of what an NGO is,¹⁵⁹ and government-approved NGOs are often indistinguishable from government-organized NGOs.¹⁶⁰

Civil society lags behind the standards of countries at similar stages of economic development. During the period from independence until 1999, the potential of the NGO sector has been somewhat compromised by the perception among authorities that NGOs possess political rather than social goals. This attitude has been shaped by limited expertise and experience among NGOs in working as partners with rather than opponents to the government. Furthermore, the somewhat ineffective legal frameworks and financial weaknesses of NGOs, together with limited awareness within government of the role of NGOs, and civil society in general in a democracy and as a social partner, have contributed to the marginal role in economic and social life of NGOs to date.

Recently there has been an improvement in the scope of work of local NGOs and their relations with the government.¹⁶¹ The government passed the Law on Non-

151 International Crises Group Briefing (2003), "Uzbekistan's Reform Program: Illusion or Reality?"

152 Freedom House (2001), "Nations in Transit", Uzbekistan Country Report.

153 See "Legislative Evolution in Uzbekistan (1991-2003)" in Campbell, J. and Afia, J. (2003), "Law in Transition-Focus on Central Asia", Jones Day Gouldens London and Ilkhom Azizov, Azizov & Partners Tashkent, 2003, www.ebrd.org/pubs.

154 EBRD (2003), Strategy for Uzbekistan.

155 See Uzbekistan Daily Digest, April 18, 2001.

156 Alimjanova, D. (2000), "Women's Committee of Uzbekistan", Country Briefing Paper on Women's Status in Uzbekistan for ADB (for 1985) and UNDP (2003) Human Development Report 2003, UNDP.

157 Presidential speech, Parliamentary Session, April 4, 2002

158 Ministry of Justice (2003), Tashkent.

159 UN (2001), Country Common Assessment, 2001 Uzbekistan.

160 Freedom House (2001), "Nations in Transit", Uzbekistan Country Report.

161 Freedom House (2001), "Nations in Transit", Uzbekistan Country Report.

Governmental and Non-Profit Organizations in 1999 and in 2002 and the President has spoken in support of NGOs and indicated the need for new legislation.¹⁶²

Mass Media. The sudden break up of the Soviet Union left the media in a vulnerable position after having served the purposes and national interests of the state for decades. The Constitution of Uzbekistan protects freedom of speech and freedom of the press,¹⁶³ with laws having been adopted to protect journalistic activities and ensure free access to information. A Presidential Decree, for example, explicitly forbids "carrying out censorship, editing, bans and other forms of illegal interference in the work of the media"¹⁶⁴ Despite such measures, the government's control of all sectors of media continues to act as a restraint, with many practitioners exercising self-censorship in response to a perceived fear of the negative consequences resulting from any criticism of government and individuals.

Uzbekistan has a wide selection of print and broadcast media, largely dominated by the state:¹⁶⁵ only the state-run media has national coverage, with private media providing only local coverage. In a survey conducted in 2000, journalists expressed concern about the role of the media and the quality of the press in the country.¹⁶⁶ Many stereotypes prevail and there is a lack of knowledge of gender problems and women's rights, with violence and discrimination against women attracting little coverage and often suffering from self-censorship when coverage is given, despite the fact that women account for between 30 to 60% of those employed in radio, TV, newspapers and magazines.¹⁶⁷

Information and Communications Technology. The government recognizes the importance of information and communication technology (ICT) and the President declared its promotion one of the national development priorities in 2001.¹⁶⁸ In 2002 the government approved the National ICT Programme for 2002–2010 and took a number of steps to improve the regulatory framework for ICT development and to liberalize the Internet service industry. The number of individual Internet users has doubled since 2001, and now amounts to 275,000 people. ICT use in Uzbekistan is, however, still low in government offices, schools and colleges. Only 8% of government offices have Internet access, and less than 2% of the population uses the Internet, with the vast majority in Tashkent.¹⁶⁹ Affordable and equitable access to ICT is becoming an important issue.

Improving public access to information is a prerequisite for strengthening government accountability at all levels and reducing the scope for corruption. The government has taken some important steps in this area with the preparation of the programme for e-government development, elimination of the State Secrets Inspectorate and the State Press Committee and the dismantling of UzPAK's monopoly on international internet access.¹⁷⁰ There is an opportunity now to increase the momentum of reform in this area and, by doing so, to build a stronger foundation for a participatory democracy.

Human Rights. In view of the complex geo-political situation of Uzbekistan, the authorities place national security at the top of the agenda. This legitimate concern can often overshadow issues relating to human rights.

Over the last decade, the Government of Uzbekistan has ratified many international human rights conventions, including the six 'core' human rights conventions¹⁷¹ and developed several laws and institutional structures for the promotion and protection of human rights. These include the National Human Rights Centre, the Ombudsman and the Institute for Monitoring Current Legislation. Over the past year, it has abolished censorship, lifted restrictions on Internet access, registered several human rights organizations and given long prison sentences to several law enforcement officials found guilty of torturing prisoners. Although these initiatives are encouraging, human rights violations continue to take place.¹⁷² For example, the UN Committee against Torture, in its concluding observations on the report submitted by the Government in 2002,¹⁷³ expressed concerns about "the particularly numerous, ongoing and consistent allegations of particularly brutal acts of torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment committed by law enforcement personnel"¹⁷⁴ and deplored that judges very often refused to take into account evidence of torture and ill-treatment submitted by defendants, with neither investigations nor prosecutions. Although this demonstrates that the law enforcement and judicial officials are disregarding the

162 NGOs are currently involved in drafting four new laws relating to public foundations, guarantees and support to NGOs, charity and civil organizations

163 Uzbekistan has 477 newspapers, 136 journals, 4 information agencies, 25 television studios and 2 radio stations.

164 The Presidential decree "On improving management in the field of information and press," July 3, 2002.

165 561 state owned media outlets and 202 private media outlets as reported by the Uzbekistan Press and Information Agency, 2002.

166 Approximately 64% of journalists felt that they do not enjoy the prestige and authority of their profession; 70% of those polled admitted that for journalism to function effectively media laws need to be observed; 44% admitted that they had a poor knowledge of their rights under existing legislation. Uzbekistan's International Journalist Training Centre in Biznes-Vestnik Vostoka, Tashkent, February 3, 2000.

167 Centre for Economic Research (1999), "The Status of Women in Uzbekistan".

168 Statement of The President of Republic of Uzbekistan on the Parliament Session on May, 2001.

169 UNDP (2003), "Uzbekistan E-Readiness Report", UNDP Digital Development Programme.

170 World Bank (2003), Country Economic Memorandum.

171 International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT), Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).

172 The US Ambassador in Tashkent, while presenting the US State Department's Uzbekistan Country Report on Human Rights Practices for 2002, stated that these initiatives are encouraging, but were not enough and that the system has not changed yet. (Press statement in file).

173 Concluding observations of the UN Committee against Torture: Uzbekistan; CAT/C/CR/28/7, Twenty-eighth session, June 6, 2002.

174 Concluding observations of the UN Committee against Torture: Uzbekistan; CAT/C/CR/28/7, Twenty-eighth session, June 6, 2002 §5(a).

elementary principles of due process and the respect for legality, it must be underscored that there is a great need to enhance their awareness on the basic human rights standards and principles to remedy the situation.

At the government's initiative, the UN Special Rapporteur on Torture visited Uzbekistan in 2002 and reported that the use of torture was 'systematic' and that the discretionary powers of the investigators and procurators with respect to access to detainees by legal counsel and relatives, as well as the lack of independence of the judiciary and alleged corruption in the judiciary and law enforcement agencies, were believed to be conducive to the use of illegal methods of investigation.¹⁷⁵ In response to this report, the government issued a press statement, in March this year, indicating that torture was not "systematic" but acknowledged that there were "certain facts of serious violations of human rights in the detention places."¹⁷⁶ The statement further indicated that the government would develop an Action Plan to Combat Torture and welcomed joint collaboration with the international community. In response to this statement, the international community has held a series of discussions with government officials to offer their support to implement the recommendations of the Special Rapporteur.

In Uzbekistan, attention to human rights has been limited or focused largely to those rights enshrined in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. This narrow attention has meant that other rights, primarily those enshrined in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), have received inadequate attention by the government, as well as by human rights and development organizations. Therefore, every effort must be made to consider all 'rights', define strategic choices and overcome a series of policy and doctrinal issues to ensure that human rights are respected and protected by the Government of Uzbekistan¹⁷⁷.

Refugees and Displaced People. In view of the strategic geopolitical situation of Uzbekistan, such as the sharing of common borders with the civil war affected countries of Afghanistan and Tajikistan, the Uzbek authorities give national security issues high priority on the political agenda. Thus, the government considers refugee issues as part of broader issues of border control and illegal migration, and does not officially acknowledge that refugees have special protection needs.

The Republic of Uzbekistan is not a signatory to the 1951 UN Convention relating to the Status of Refugees or its 1967 Protocol, and although there are references to the institution of asylum contained in the Constitution and the 1994 Criminal Code, there is no domestic legal or administration framework available for the effective protection of refugees (see Table 28).

Following a verbal agreement with the government in August 1999 that refugees holding UNHCR mandate certificates will not be arrested, detained or expelled the

number of deportations has dropped in the subsequent years, although the practice has not ceased entirely. In order to build on this cooperation with the government and increase the levels of local protection for refugees, UNHCR has contributed its expertise to the Institute of Monitoring of Active Legislation in drafting a chapter on refugees, to be incorporated into the country's draft Migration Law.

There is no confirmed data on the number of refugees in Uzbekistan but UNHCR estimates that there are around 45,000, of whom 5,000 are Afghans who live in the urban cities of Tashkent and Termez, while the remainder are Tajik refugees who live predominantly in the rural areas bordering Tajikistan. The living conditions of refugees and persons seeking political asylum remain difficult and problematic. Lack of a legal right to stay in the country exposes refugees to constant threat of refoulement, and bars them from enjoying social rights and legal access to the labour market, as well as restricted freedom of movement (see Table 29).

The government has recently taken a positive step by providing free access to basic education for refugee children in the country, in accordance with the Convention on the Rights of the Child. UNHCR has also been cooperating with the government in supporting the logistics and humanitarian operation in North Afghanistan and has also started a voluntary repatriation programme for Afghan refugees and asylum seekers who wish to return back to their country of origin.

Uzbekistan has avoided civil wars and the widespread internal displacement which have affected its neighbour, Tajikistan, in the years since independence. Cases of internal displacement have resulted largely from measures taken in response to activities of the banned Islamic Movement of Uzbekistan. It is estimated that 3,000 persons were displaced as the result of the conflict between government forces and armed insurgents in the Uzbek-Tajik border areas in August 2000.¹⁷⁸ Observers noted that the relocation caused undue insecurity and hardship among those involved and concerns were also raised about possible abuses of human rights by the military forces.¹⁷⁹ The displaced communities have very few possibilities to sustain their livelihoods: for example, they cannot move freely within the country, as they are not able to afford a residence permit which severely limits their opportunities for seeking employment.¹⁸⁰

175 Report of the UN Special Rapporteur on Torture, E/CN.4/2003/68/Add. 2, February 3, 2003.

176 Press statement is in file (March 2003).

177 EBRD stated that progress in the areas of political sphere and more specifically in areas such as freedom of the media, open political process and improvement of human right's records (in addition to those in the economic sphere) will be used as a benchmark for enlarging the scope of new investments, both in the private and public sector. In: EBRD (2003) Strategy for Uzbekistan.

178 US Mission to the OSCE, February 22, 2001 and Human Rights Watch World Report (2000).

179 Year Report of the International Helsinki Federation for Human Rights (2001).

180 Choice of residence is restricted by the State through the obligation to have a residence permit, inherited from the Soviet Union.

The severe environmental problems affecting the Aral Sea region have resulted in a growing number of people being displaced. It is estimated that 19,000 people left Karakalpakstan and Khorezm in 2000,¹⁸¹ and that 50,000 people left Karakalpakstan during the 1990s.¹⁸² The migration has resulted in a loss of valuable human resources in the Aral Sea region, since a large proportion of migrants are those people that tend to be better educated and have greater skills and opportunities. It is observed that female-headed households are becoming increasingly common in rural areas as a result of high rates of male migration,¹⁸³ thus increasing their vulnerability to poverty and human insecurity. Internal migrants often face increased insecurity and poverty, and are often living and working illegally, since the choice of residence is restricted by the State and obtaining residence permits is linked with employment.

SECURITY ISSUES

The war in bordering Afghanistan and the ensuing financial and political support for the states of Central Asia as part of the war against terrorism, have added a new regional security dimension to the development challenges of Uzbekistan. This dimension has shaped the nature of partnerships at regional, international and global level. It has also increased international and donor expectations on the government to implement reforms, especially in the governance sector.

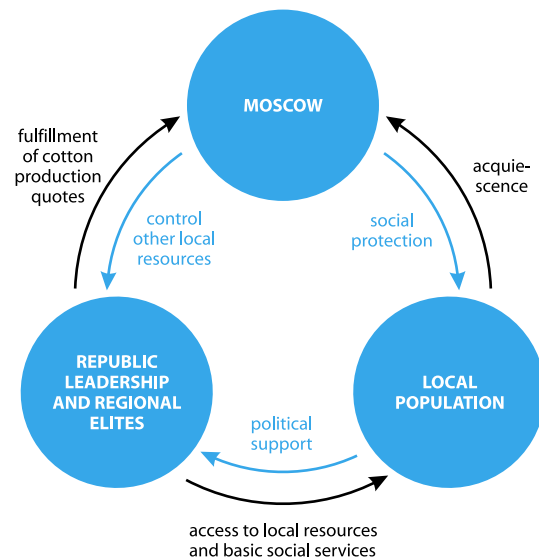
The problems identified under governance issues also impact on security. The government regards state security as a priority to be pursued through the protection of existing institutions for the common good, including if necessary, from its own population. This approach to security is complicated by an increasingly difficult economic situation. As analysed earlier, despite the country's economic achievements during the period from 1992 to 2001, the economy faced a number of challenges, including: a high rate of unemployment and underemployment; a high degree of inequality in the distribution of income, with significant sectors of the population experiencing little or no improvement in material conditions; and an underutilization of productive capacity.¹⁸⁴ These factors, which have a potentially destabilizing influence on society, may also aggravate security problems.

The challenges resulting from the geo-political situation, the recent independence of Uzbekistan, the legacy of the Soviet period and the overall regional security situation have been identified as the root causes of many of the security-related problems faced by the country. The government has made considerable headway since independence in shaping a national identity; nevertheless, there remains a risk that citizens will suffer a gradual loss of identification with the State. This is due to a number of factors, related to governance and in part to increasing inequality. Alienation is the main outcome of a perceived diminished individual security, which may develop into a serious problem for State security, and furthermore, is likely to be reinforced and

to affect security more deeply depending on the degree that citizens are able to express dissatisfaction.

Corruption. Modern Uzbekistan inherited a complex bureaucratic system from the Soviet Union that aimed to replace local networks of family and clan contacts. In Central Asia, the state was de facto a system of social networks based upon political status, around which the economy revolved and functioned and in which the formal and informal economies complemented each other. Corruption also served to 'regulate' the usage of central subsidies for local purposes rather than for central ones. The roots of corruption run deep in the social fabric of the region.

Figure 17
The role of cotton in forging reciprocal relations under Soviet rule



Source: Adapted from Weinthal, 2002

The government views corruption and organized crime as serious threats to national security as they hinder the economic and democratic transformation of the society. President Karimov made corruption the main topic of his annual address to Parliament in August 2002 and fighting corruption and organized crime is seen as pivotal to improving governance, developing of the fundamentals of civil society, and overcoming the alienation of citizens from the state.¹⁸⁵ This is an

181 Global Internally Displaced People Project on Internally Displaced People (Database of the Norwegian Refugee Council) available at www.idpproject.org, June 23, 2003.

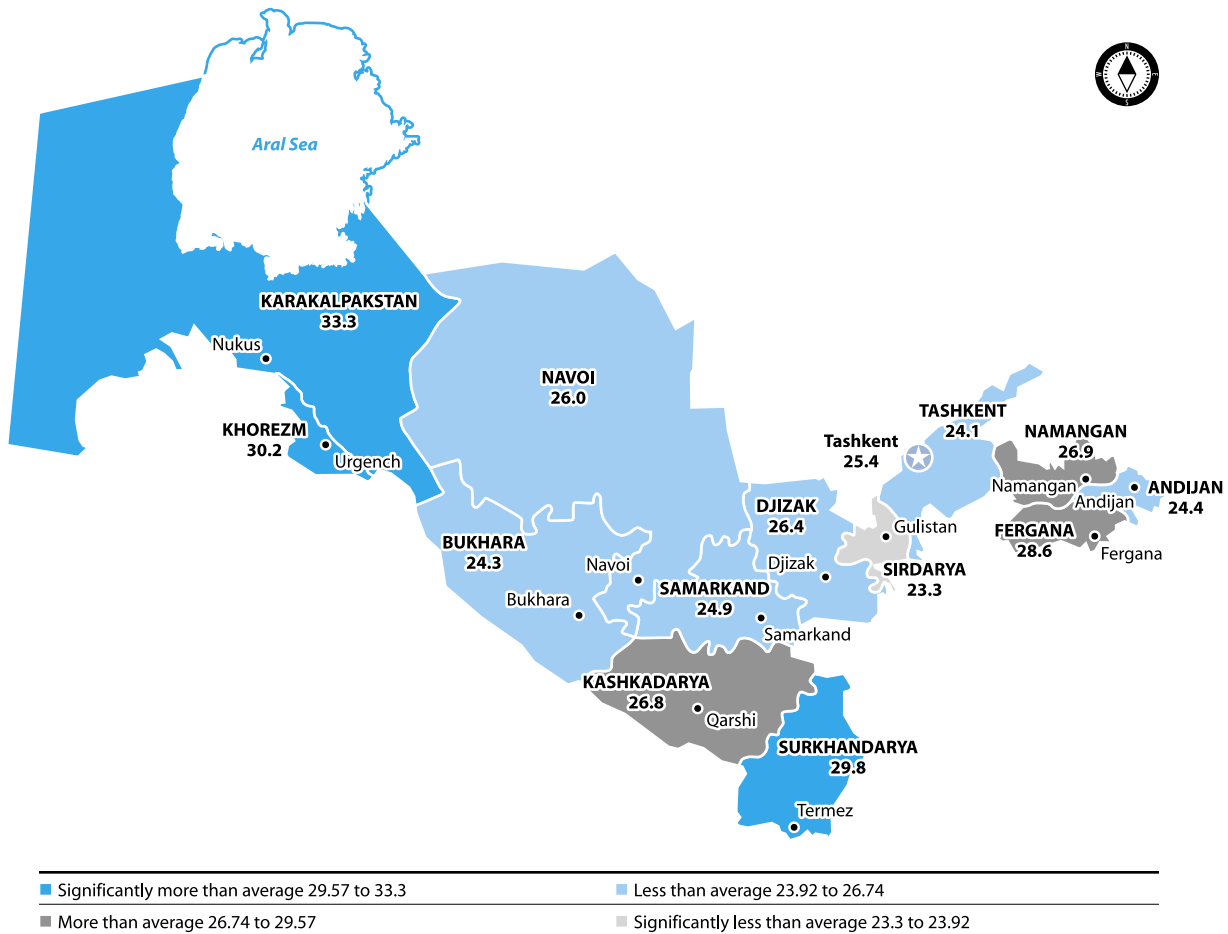
182 UNHCR (2000), "Population Migration in Uzbekistan, 1989–1998".

183 Estimates of women headed households in villages vary from 6 to 16%. Strengthening Economic Opportunities for Rural Women in Uzbekistan, Shodiev, T. (1998) Tashkent State University.

184 Kotz, D. (2003), "The Record of Economic Transition In Uzbekistan" in "Growth and Poverty Reduction in Uzbekistan" (draft), Report by the United Nations Development Programme, UNDP, Uzbekistan.

185 Draft Law On Fighting Corruption, Tashkent, 2003.

Figure 18
Under 5 mortality rates



Source: Secretariat for Complex of Social Protection of Family, Mothers and Children under the Cabinet of Ministers of Uzbekistan

important step, as in the past the existence of the problem has often been denied.

Even in the context of growing crime and extremist threats some practices employed by law enforcement bodies, are regarded as heavy-handed.¹⁸⁶ Perceptions of widespread corruption among public servants, especially the law enforcement organs, have contributed further to misgivings towards the state. At the lowest level, corruption is largely a livelihood strategy for underpaid officials. Widespread corruption is ultimately the consequence of excessive involvement and intervention by the state in the economic process and social life. Often connections or bribes are the only way to access economic resources and social services such as education and medical care.¹⁸⁷

Uneven Human Development. The transition process has had a negative impact on human capital, which the government has attempted to counteract. This is particularly the case for those areas of the country that inherited disparities and inequalities from the Soviet Union, with gender and regional disparities becoming more and more evident today. In 2002, to monitor the progress of the country towards implementation

of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, the Cabinet of Ministers set up a Geographic Information System. This system reviews 33 basic mother and child development indicators. This system underscores that there are growing regional disparities in human development within Uzbekistan as shown, for example by the geographical distribution of infant mortality and under 5 mortality rates.¹⁸⁸

The problems related to uneven development are more pronounced in health than in the education system, as national school attendance is still high, both for girls and boys. When social disparities become more pronounced, opportunities potentially exist for extremist groups to capitalize on the perception of growing inequality, as resentment about perceived social injustice blinds some to the shortcomings of alternatives.¹⁸⁹ For

186 International Crisis Group (2002), "Central Asia: the Politics of Police Reform", Central Asia Report No. 42, Osh/Brussels.

187 See also Abramson, D. (1999), "Civil Society and the Politics of Foreign Aid in Uzbekistan" in Central Asia Monitor Issue No. 6.

188 UNICEF (2002), Mid-Term Review 2002, UNICEF, Uzbekistan.

189 International Crisis Group (2002), "The IMU and the Hizb-ut-Tahrir: Implications of the Afghanistan Campaign", Central Asia Briefing, Osh/Brussels.

example, Namangan province is often cited for its high number of sympathizers for radical Islamic movements, but support in this region may be rather the result of disappointment over socio-economic disenfranchisement than true passion for radical Islam.¹⁹⁰ Thus, there is a potential threat posed by growing numbers of young unemployed men to stability and security, which if not counteracted may directly impinge upon human development.

Border Management, Growing ‘Securitization’ and Economic Well-being. Many problems relating to border control in Uzbekistan are part of the Soviet legacy. Original delimitation in the 1920s created borders hard to police and cut across traditional trade routes and ethnic links. The open national borders of Soviet times prevented these flaws from becoming fully visible and only upon independence were the state suddenly faced with controlling extensive new boundaries (see Table 30). Border problems have ensued, and in addition to problems of increased tensions and over-zealous border controls, traditional trade links have been cut off at difficult or closed border points, regulations have hindered family contacts and sovereignty disputes over water rights have occurred. Uzbekistan is by far the strongest regional military power, and faces security threats such as trafficking in drugs, human beings, and arms rather than conventional threats. While the need to protect the borders is widely understood, this has impacted on security of the person, and sometimes served to further alienate citizens from the State.

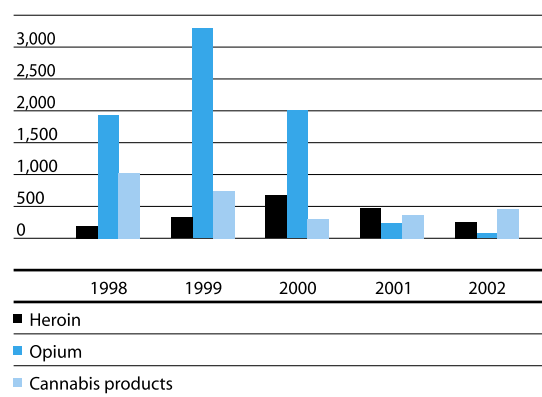
The scale of border disputes at independence was high and although many issues have since been resolved, some (including irredentist claims) are still ongoing. Mines were laid along the Uzbek borders with Tajikistan and Kyrgyzstan following the terrorist incursions of 1999 and 2000. Despite some progress in making minefield maps available to neighboring governments,¹⁹¹ people continue to be wounded or killed by mines.¹⁹² High securitization has also cut off and thus heavily affected the individual security of people living in the enclaves of the Fergana valley.

High border security has reportedly impeded trade, and therefore economic development and individual economic security. The Asian Development Bank speaks of “cumbersome customs procedures”¹⁹³ Furthermore, Uzbekistan has frequently closed its borders for security reasons in recent years, affecting traditionally close trade links and creating an impact in turn, upon the economic well-being of people in different regions. Residents of border regions, bereft of traditional sources of income, are more vulnerable to involvement in quick moneymaking opportunities from criminal activities, or in sympathizing with radical ideas. Trade has recently suffered from the closure of the borders with Kazakhstan,¹⁹⁴ when a combination of increased border security and the introduction of tariff policies by the government in 2002, reduced the

import of consumer goods. Although the measure was aimed at curbing smuggling and introducing transparent trading rules, there are concerns over the negative effects on the livelihood of communities.

Challenges from the Outside: Trafficking and Incursions. Seizures of opiates grew throughout the 1990s, peaking in 2000, when 875.8 kg of heroin was seized. Most countries seize approximately 10 to 15% of the drugs passing through their territory, so the true scale of the trade can begin to be understood. Seizures have declined in the past two years, but ongoing, large-scale opium production in Afghanistan forecasts that the situation may change (see Table 31).

Figure 19
Drug seizures in Uzbekistan, kg



Source: The National and Analytical Information Centre on Drug Control under the Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Uzbekistan

Trafficking ‘hot-spots’ were identified in Surkhandarya and Andijan regions, as indicated by the comparatively low heroin wholesale prices in these regions. During the closure of the only Afghan-Uzbek border crossing from 1998 to 2002, most trafficking took place through Tajikistan and Kyrgyzstan as well as across the Turkmen border. After the reopening of the border at Termez-Hayraton, there are concerns that direct trafficking may restart in large volumes. It is symptomatic of increased levels of hardship that petty traffickers are often found among the economically vulnerable population. In addition, the involvement of women in trafficking is increasing.

190 International Crisis Group (2001), “Incubators of Conflict: Central Asia’s Localized Poverty and Social Unrest”, Central Asia Report No. 16, Osh/Brussels, 2001.

191 Reported by the Kyrgyz news Agency KABAR, 12/03/03

192 RFE/RL 01/08/02—The US State Department asserted that in 2001, at least twenty civilians were killed at the Uzbek border, and that in 2002, there had been at least five explosions (which usually involve more than one victim). (Landmine Monitor Report 2002; US Department of State, Country Reports on Human Rights Practice 2002—Uzbekistan).

193 Asian Development Bank (2003), “Uzbekistan: Trade and Trade Facilitation Review”.

194 Eurasianet, “Uzbek border row introduces new element of tension in Central Asia”, January 27, 2003.

SECURITY OF THE PERSON

Since independence, the State has not always succeeded in reducing impacts on individual security. Security of the person is compromised by a host of economic and governance-related factors. In general, a serious burden of disease, social problems and restricted availability of public health services have led to deteriorating human security.

HIV/AIDS, Drug Dependency and Marginalization.

The HIV/AIDS epidemic is not simply a health issue, as it attacks the social fabric, thus endangering human security, especially among women and girls. Estimates say that 75% of HIV cases in Uzbekistan are due to injecting drug use.¹⁹⁵ Drug dependency starts at an increasingly young age,¹⁹⁶ with drug-related crime rising along with social marginalization. Whilst HIV/AIDS remains largely confined to the drug-using community, emerging migratory and population movement patterns may contribute to the spreading of HIV/AIDS and become a security issue in the future.

Religious Extremism and Religious Groups. The Constitution guarantees freedom of religion. However, since 1997, there has been a well-documented series of arrests, some of which appear to be targeted rather loosely. The Government of Uzbekistan regards militant Islamic fundamentalism as the main threat to state security and consequently, three particular groups have been singled out: the Islamic Movement of Uzbekistan, independent Muslims, who meet outside the state-controlled system of Mosques, and the Hizb-ut-Tahrir.¹⁹⁷ It has already been noted that sympathy for radical Islamic movements in Uzbekistan is often fuelled by discontent with the disappointments of the post-Soviet era rather than by deeply felt attachment to radical Islamic ideology. Sympathy for militants seems to be linked to the lack of possibilities to express discontent within the current institutional framework.¹⁹⁸ The heavy-handed response of the Government has "also served to radicalize some young men and women who otherwise might practice their religion in a politically neutral manner"¹⁹⁹

Gender-related Violence. Security of the person is also being infringed by the prevalence of gender based violence. As with most transitional states building a new sense of nationalism, women in Uzbekistan have been co-opted as a symbol of cultural identity,²⁰⁰ consequently, tensions have increased between the modern, liberal ideal of women's empowerment, and the more traditional, patriarchal model. The most worrying trends include domestic violence, harassment and assault in the streets.²⁰¹ Women and children are among the primary victims of economic inequality, their lack of marketable skills and legal literacy preventing them from escaping abusive situations. The predominance of men in politics and their comparatively freer access to employment and higher education means that men play a predominant role in the development of a market economy. It is men, however, who are the primary victims of political and civil forms of violence.

CONCLUSION

The current system of state governance in Uzbekistan presents features of such complexity, that analysis of the main governance challenges and their cause-effect relationship during the transition, is a difficult task. The task is made more difficult by the limited data and analysis available on governance structures and efficiency of governance reform.

Present governance structures need to be reformed and civil society strengthened. Only by working together they can be successful in the pursuit of democratisation. Lack of cooperation between the government and the civil society will otherwise become an obstacle to the implementation of economic reforms and impact negatively on human security. In order to achieve progress towards the MDGs, economic reforms must be accompanied by democratic governance reform. The most pressing challenge is to establish a balance between the various government levels, notably the central and regional levels, as well as between the executive, judiciary and legislative bodies. Moreover, it is necessary to continue reform of public administration, including enhanced public accountability, the decentralization of power to local authorities, increased participation by civil society, undertaking of judicial reform and the establishment of effective mechanisms for protection of human rights.

Uzbekistan's increased geo-political importance to security and regional stability in Central Asia following the recent terrorist attacks, has also strengthened the role of the state and will continue to shape the magnitude and depth of state intervention in society in the future. However, as the UN Secretary-General has stressed, the need to protect national security and the fight against terror cannot justify human rights violations. Disillusionment with the reform process, rising inequalities, citizens' alienation from the state and human rights violations can give rise to an unstable social, economic and political environment and create a threat to security.

In Uzbekistan the state remains strong and cohesive. By maintaining health and education expenditure at a socially reasonable level,²⁰² providing social safety nets and guaranteeing macroeconomic stability and peace in the country, the government has demonstrated a certain propensity for good governance in the economic and social spheres and for wise spending, under the given

195 See World Bank HIV/AIDS: AIDS in Europe and Central Asia www.worldbank.org

196 About 20% of drug dependants are between 15-20 years of age. See UNICEF (2002), Mid-Term Review 2002, UNICEF, Uzbekistan.

197 The Hizb-ut-Tahrir's claims to pursue the radical goal of an Islamic society in Central Asia through peaceful means.

198 International Crisis Group, The IMU and the Hizb-ut-Tahrir.

199 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices (2002).

200 Asian Development Bank (2001), "Women in the Republic of Uzbekistan", Country Briefing Paper, Asian Development Bank.

201 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices (2002).

202 Spechler, M. C., Bektemirov, K.K., Chepel, S.W. and Shuvankulov, F. S. (2000), "The Uzbek Paradox: Progress Without Neo-liberal Reforms".

circumstances.²⁰³ The government has reiterated over the years its priority of investing in the human resources of the country, which is seen by the government as a long-term strategy for the management of the transition process.²⁰⁴ The Uzbek model of transition has brought two major governance challenges. The first relates to the ability to operate as an autonomous economic and political unit in a new global economic system. The second relates to the government's ability to set the right pace for transforming society into a democratic market economy in which the government and civil society closely interact. These challenges call for a renewed ability to adapt to the demands of a society in transition while at the same time continuing to guarantee social stability. A new model of democracy

is required that is appropriate to the Uzbek context at all levels of society, so that people and institutions can communicate and work together for the creation of a new society. Ultimately, the Uzbek model of governance will be measured against its ability to push the country towards a consolidated democratic rule in which both the state and its people can identify.

This approach calls for targeted support to the government and society at large to identify key policy options to for making the model more effective, transparent, and equitable, in particularly with regard to participation and poverty reduction. Furthermore, the capacity of existing and new institutions requires strengthening in order to ensure sustained implementation of reforms and international conventions.

203 See also Pomfret, R. (1999), "The Uzbek Model of Economic Development 1991–1999".

204 The National Programme for the Training of Personnel (1997).

SECTION III

PROPOSED AREAS OF COOPERATION

During the UN Secretary-General's visit to Uzbekistan in October 2002, President Karimov stated that the UN system must undergo a reform process to better address national priorities and the newly emerged concerns in the context of current geo-political situation in the world. The CCA, as the common instrument of the United Nations system to analyse the national development situation and identify key development issues, is the first response to this statement. In this context, the CCA and its preparation bear testimony to the increased consultation and dialogue between the government, the UN system, and the development partners on sustainable human development, peace and stability.

Within the context of the historical legacy of the FSU and the path to reform taken by the Government of Uzbekistan over the past decade, the CCA has identified various opportunities for cooperation in response to the challenges identified.

These challenges are based on and anchored in the development priorities set out in the development strategy of the country.²⁰⁵ It is recognized that the major development challenges identified in the CCA are long-term and structural. Despite the achievements in macroeconomic stability, high opportunity costs have been paid for the achievement of economic independence and self sufficiency. These costs may imperil long term sustainable development and economic growth. Moreover, these costs are increasingly taking their toll on the poorest sectors of the population, providing little improvement in incomes and living standards. Geographic disparities in terms of incomes, access to basic services and environmental conditions are becoming more pronounced.

The potential areas for cooperation identified in the CCA are: firstly, to promote institutional capacity among government and civil society partners for the provision of improved services, including support in reduction of disparities; secondly, to support the development of better interfaces between the government and civil society in order to strengthen the participation of citizens in economic, social and democratic governance, including the participation of young people; and thirdly to support the implementation of international conventions and the Millennium Declaration.

The main criteria for proposing these three areas of cooperation are: priority needs; potential for long term impact on national goals and priorities, as well as lessons learned, and good practices and opportunities to strengthen national capacities and international cooperation.

PROMOTE CAPACITY BUILDING

Capacity building is widely acknowledged by all stakeholders in the CCA process as vital in addressing the development of technical abilities, for example, in the field of cross sectoral data collection and analysis. Moreover, it can improve human and managerial capacity to meet community needs and human development comprehensively and sustainably, focusing on disparity reduction. The opportunity for multiple impacts was a decisive factor in the identification of this area of cooperation, in that most development partners and the government have ongoing activities in this area. There is an opportunity to demonstrate and evaluate alternative and innovative practices into current models both at national and regional levels.

GOVERNMENT AND CIVIL SOCIETY INTERFACES

All parties involved in the CCA have acknowledged that there is a need for change to the largely government-run national development strategy in order to enable civil society and partners at decentralized level to become more involved and to be held more accountable for development. There is a necessity to consolidate the past gains and continue the progress made by the government in protecting the vulnerable through local decentralized mechanisms that have demonstrated a comparative level of efficiency and effectiveness. In addition, support must be given to the work of a weak, but increasingly engaged civil society, especially at community level and in partnership with the government. Dialogue and partnerships can be facilitated by the UN system.

IMPLEMENTATION OF INTERNATIONAL CONVENTIONS

Support for implementation of international conventions is closely linked to the two previous areas and may act as a concrete 'modality' for dialogue and cooperation. There is a need for continued support to the implementation of the government development strategy against universally accepted criteria, including the Millennium Declaration, the MDGs, and the international conventions to which Uzbekistan is a party. This approach calls for targeted support to the government and society at large in identifying alternative, complementary policy options that build on lessons learned and good practices to make the government

205 Karimov, I. (1993), "Building the Future: Uzbekistan, It's Own Model for Transition to a Market Economy".

development strategy more effective and equitable, in particular with regard to participation and poverty reduction. It also calls for the establishment of a road map for the achievement of national goals and priorities and the introduction of long-term data collection and monitoring systems to measure the achievements.

In light of the findings of the CCA, there was agreement that cooperation should be increasingly based on a combination of sectoral and regional approaches to benefit the most disadvantaged parts of the country and the most vulnerable constituencies. In this regard it would be particularly useful to map social-economic conditions and encourage an increased use of geographic information-based technologies.

The proposed areas of cooperation represent the first building blocks for a UN common strategy exploiting

its comparative advantages such as: impartiality and neutrality, access to international best practices and extensive presence in the field and in the region, all which complement the government's and civil society's efforts in achieving the national goals.

This strategy emphasizes a high level of participation from the government in all stages of the conceptualization, preparation and implementation of UN system interventions. The goals include: a) providing a cohesive framework for the planning and implementation of activities undertaken under the Millennium Declaration and international conventions and declarations; b) supporting harmonization of development activities conducted at the national level with the MDG goals; and c) providing opportunities for closer collaboration.

Section IV INDICATOR FRAMEWORK

Economy and Poverty 1991–2000

Indicator	Rate
Economy	
• GDP Growth	4.0
• Industry	1.6
• Agriculture	2.9
• Services	4.2
• GDP per capita annual growth rate (1975–2001)	-1.9
• GDP per capita annual growth rate (1990–2001)	-1.6
• GDP per capita highest value during 1975–2001 (PPP in USD)	2,950.0
• FDI per capita (USD)	4.7
• FDI/GDP	1.2
• Employment/population ratio change	-0.2
• Employment growth	1.3
• Growth rate of GNP per capita	
Poverty and social	
• Population living below USD 1 a day (1990–2001)	19.1
• Poverty gap ratio (1990–2001)	8.1
• Share of poorest 20% in national income consumption (1990–2001)	9.2
• Children under weight for age under age 5 (1995–2001)	19.0
• Undernourished people (1998–2000)	19.0
• Population growth	1.5
• Public expenditures health, as % of GDP (2000)	3.4
• Public expenditures education as % of GDP (2000)	7.7

Source: Human Development Report 2003, UNDP

Education

	1990	1992	1994	1996	1998	2000	2002
1. Net Primary Enrolment Rate (NEPR) and attendance rates							
urban	90.1	89.8	86.4	88.4	87.8		
rural	85.6	87.0	86.7	84.2	84.9		
2. Percentage of pupils starting 1 st grade who reach 5 th grade	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0		
and ratio of girls to boys	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0		
3. Literacy rate for age group 15–24	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0	99.0		
and ratio of girls to boys	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0		
4. Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0		
and tertiary education	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0		
5. Ratio of literate females to males for the age group 15–24	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0		

Source: Ministry of Macroeconomics and Statistics of Uzbekistan, 2000

Health

Indicator	1990	1992	1994	1996	1998	2000	2002
1. Under-Five Mortality Rate	47.5	51.7	47.8	40.1	38.0	28.5	23.1
2. Infant Mortality Rate				24.2	21.8	18.9	16.3
Infant Mortality Rate					52.0		
3. Proportion of 1 years old immunized against measles	85.2	84.0	71.0	87.0	95.4	98.5	96.8
4. Maternal mortality ratio	34.1	50.6	39.3	20.6	28.6	33.1	
5. Contraceptive prevalence rate, %		13.0		51.6		59.0	66.8
6. Percentage of births attended by skilled health personnel				95.0		95.6	
7. HIV data for specific age-range (15–30 years old, % of all newly registered cases)	100.0			66.0	60.0	57.0	56.0
8. Level of awareness of youth on HIV/AIDS threat (% of women aged 15–49 who know at least one way of preventing HIV)						49.1	
9. Death rates associated with tuberculosis (per 100,000 population)		12.6	14.6	17.9	19.5	21.2	
10. Proportion of TB cases detected and cured under Directly Observed Treatment Short Course (DOTS)							

Sources:	1 TransMONEE Report, UNICEF, rates for 2000 and 2002 and Ministry of Health
	2 Ministry of Health, second rate for 1998—MICS
	3 Health for All Database, WHO
	4 Ministry of Health, Health for All Database, WHO
	5 Ministry of Health, rate for 1996—DHS
	6 DHS 1996 and MICS 2000, UNICEF
	7 National AIDS Prevention Centre
	8 MICS 2000, UNICEF
	9 Health for All Database, WHO
	10 WHO and UNICEF

Environment

Indicator	1990	1992	1994	1996	1998	2000	2002
1. Percent of population who has access to safe water and adequate sanitation							
urban	81.00	82.00	84.00	89.60	89.20	89.20	89.10
rural	52.00	55.70	58.90	64.00	64.50	69.20	76.20
2. Proportion of land area covered by forest	3.20	3.10	3.10	2.90	2.90	3.00	3.10
3. Land area protected to maintain biodiversity	4.60	4.60	4.60	4.60	4.60	4.60	4.60
4. Carbon dioxide emission per capita, tonnes per person	5.54	5.06	4.61	4.56	4.37	4.25	4.20
5. Arable land per capita, hectares per person	0.21	0.20	0.20	0.19	0.19	0.20	0.21
6. Percent of salinized, as % of total	50.50	50.50				46.00	

Sources:	1 State Statistics Committee, State Committee for Nature Protection
	2 State Statistics Committee, Department of Forestry
	3 Biodiversity Strategy Action Plan, 1998 and State Committee for Nature Protection
	4 Hydromet
	5 Ministry of Economics, Ministry of Agriculture and Water Management

Governance and Security

Indicator 1: Proportion of ODA for basic social services (basic education, primary health care, drinking water and sanitation) in thousands USD for period 1994–1998 and in percentage for 2000 and 2002

1994—520; 1995—607; 1996—4,439; 1997—2,365; 1998—6,043; 2000—66%; 2002—23%

Indicator 2: Seizures of illicit drugs

1996—7,822; 1998—3,151; 1999—4,361.2; 2000—2,987; 2002—839.6

Indicator 3: Prevalence of drug abuse^A

1996—8,288; 1997—9,468; 1998—13,993; 1999—17,642; 2000—26,266; 2002—25,012

Indicator 4: Periodicity of free and fair elections

Parliamentary elections in 1994 and 1999. The new bicameral parliament to be elected in 2004 will have 100 members in the upper house and 120 in the lower house

Indicator 5: Number of independent NGOs/CSOs operating in the country^B

As of the first half of 2003, the number of NGOs/CSOs reached 3295

Indicator 6: Existence of independent broadcasting and printing media

There are 561 state owned and 202 private media outlets. There is no exact data on independent media

Indicator 7: Access to Information and Communications Technology (ICTs)

As of the first half of 2003, 68% of offices have websites on the Internet, while 2% of the population have private access to Internet

Indicator 8: Proportion of seats held by women in parliament^C

Fifteen women were elected to Oliy Majlis in 1994 elections, twenty women were elected in 1999 elections

Indicator 9: Status of ratification of reservation to and reporting obligations under international human rights

First ratification (CRC) in 1994 and 5 ratifications (ICCPR, ICESCR, ICERD, CAT, CEDAW) in 1995. Optional Protocol 1 to ICCPR was also ratified in 1995

Indicator 10: Status of follow up to concluding observations of UN human rights treaty body

1997—ICESCR: 1 overdue

1999—CAT: 2 reports (3rd report due in 2004); ICCPR: 1 (2nd report due in 2004); CRC: 1 report (2nd report was due in 2001);

ICERD: 1 report (1 report overdue)

2000—CEDAW: 1 report (1 report overdue in 2000; 1 due in 2004)

2002—ICESCR: 1overdue; ICERD—1 overdue.

Indicator 11: No asylum seeker and mandate refugee detained for illegal stay and /or deported to home country

Refoulement: 1994—12; 1998—3; 1999—n.a.; 2002—2

Detention: 1994—329; 1998—24; 2000—8; 2002—38

Deportation: 1998—2; 2000—1

Indicator 12: Refugee population reduced by 10–15% through voluntary repatriation and resettlement supported by Government

Number of persons: 1998—26; 2000—120; 2002—372

Reduction in population: 1998—3%; 2000—8%; 2002—14%

Indicator 13: Official mechanism/framework for discussion on access to 1951 Convention of Refugees by Government established and/or adoption of national legislation on refugees and asylum seekers^D

See footnote

- Notes:
- ^A Statistics include patients registered in the treatment, patients registered for the first time and patients treated in residential care
 - ^B Number of NGOs include social organizations, social funds, consumer-cooperatives, associations and self-governing bodies.
 - ^C Parliamentary elections are held once in five years with a total of 250 deputies in Oliy Majlis.
 - ^D A chapter on refugees has been drafted by IMAL (Institute of Monitoring for Active Legislation of the Parliament of the Republic of Uzbekistan) in co-operation with UNHCR in early 2003. This chapter will be part of the draft Migration Law of Uzbekistan being prepared by the same institution

- Sources:
- 1 Development Cooperation Report, The Government of Uzbekistan and UNDP
 - 2 National Information Center on Drug Control
 - 3 Ministry of Health
 - 5 Ministry of Justice and NHDR
 - 8 Oliy Majlis of the Republic of Uzbekistan
 - 9 UNHCHR
 - 11, 12, 13 UNHCR

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ANNEXES

Table 1.
Progress Toward the Millennium Development Goals
and Targets for the Republic of Uzbekistan

1. Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger	
Target 1:	Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than USD 1/day
Status:	The Government of Uzbekistan uses two definitions of welfare indicators (i.e. monthly per capita consumption expenditure on food and per capita income) and two poverty lines: a poverty line based on the cost of a minimum consumption basket containing only food products and a poverty line based on the cost of a food basket plus a small share for non food items. The conclusions with regard to the groups most at risk are identical. Estimates of poverty incidence data oscillate between 27.5% and 16% ^A . The Government de facto poverty reduction strategy is being developed by the government under ADB's TA No. 3781-UZB: Comprehensive Medium Term Strategy for Improving the Living Standards of the People of Uzbekistan, which is being implemented in coordination with the world Banks Uzbekistan Living Standards Assessment.
Target 2:	Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger
Status:	There is no reported hunger in the country. Specific targets for reducing nutrition-based poverty are yet to be defined. The indicator for malnutrition of the general population is the prevalence of malnutrition in children of age 6–59 months according to anthropometrical indicators.
2. Achieve Universal Primary Education	
Target 3:	Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling
Status:	In 2001 the primary school (aged 7–10) gross enrolment rate was 99.6%. The literacy rate is high (99.2% in 1999).
3. Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women	
Target 4:	Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015
Status:	Despite official figures show that there is no gender disparity in enrolment at any level in general and both women and men have equal access to education, recent trends reveal some gender disparities at secondary and tertiary level.
4. Reduce Child Mortality	
Target 5:	Reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-5 mortality rate
Status:	Officially reported infant mortality rate per 1,000 live births declined from 24.2 per 1,000 live births in 1995 to 16.5 in 2002 ^B . Data on rural and urban mortality rates are currently not available.
5. Improve Maternal Health	
Target 6:	Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio
Status:	Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births) decreased from 65.3 to 20.7 per 100,000 births during the period 1991–1996 statistics, but rose thereafter reaching 34.1 in 2001.
6. Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria, and Other Diseases	
Target 7:	Have halted by 2015, and begun to reverse, the spread of HIV/AIDS
Status:	Total number of HIV/AIDS cases officially registered is 1,760 as of end 2002 higher than 779 ^C cases in 2000.
Target 8:	Have halted by 2015, and begun to reverse, the incidence of malaria and other major diseases
Status:	126 imported cases in 2000, 85 cases of malaria (mainly from Tajikistan) were recorded in 2000 compared with 85 in 1999 ^D . Tuberculosis incidence rate has almost doubled since 1991 reaching 72.4 per 100,000 in 2001 (52% higher than in 1994); In Karakalpakstan, the incidence rate is twice as high (149.9 per 100,000 i.e. by 25.8% higher than in 1994).

7. Ensure Environmental Sustainability	
Target 9:	Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources
Status:	The principles were integrated in the 1999–2005 State Programme of Environmental Protection and Rational Use of Natural Resources up to the year 2005 as well as in the National Environmental Action Plan, National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan, National Climate Change Report, and National Desertification Action Plan.
Target 10:	Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water
Status:	Currently approximately 33% (a third) of the population do not have sustainable access to safe drinking water but the percentage has declined over past decade.
Target 11:	By 2020, achieve a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers
Status:	No information is available.

Sources: ^A World Bank estimates and UND/Centre for Economic Research estimates respectively

^B Recent UNICEF global estimations are 50 percent higher than the official statistics

^C Ministry of Health

^D Health For All Data Base, WHO

Government estimates; World Bank estimates, Human Development Report, UNDP 2003; National Human Development Report, 2000, Human Development Report, Health For all Data Base, WHO, 2002

Table 2.
Socio-economic Indicators for Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan

	Kazakhstan	Kyrgyzstan	Uzbekistan
Populations, millions in middle of 1994	16.8	4.5	22.4
Population growth, % per annum			
• 1981–1990	1.2	1.9	2.5
• 1991–1994	0.1	0.4	2.2
Urban population, % of total population in 1994	59.3	38.8	41.2
Sec. enroll, % of age group in 1993	90.0	n.a.	94.0
GNP per capita, USD in 1994	1,160.0	630.0	960.0
Life expectancy at birth			
• 1971–1980	66.6	65.5	67.3
• 1981–1990	68.2	65.8	68.1
• 1991–1993	69.0	67.9	69.3
• 1994	68.3	67.8	69.8
Infant mortality rate, per 1,000 live births			
• 1971–1980	32.7	46.1	47.0
• 1981–1990	29.2	38.5	42.7
• 1991–1993	27.3	31.0	35.0
• 1994	27.4	29.1	28.2

Source: World Development Report in 1996, The World Bank

Table 3.
Distribution of Women by Branches of Employment

	1991	1993	1995	1996	1997	1998
Share of women of employed population	44.7	43.5	42.7	43.7	41.0	44.0
• Industry	50.1	48.1	43.5	47.8	32.9	44.2
• Agriculture	38.9	35.9	34.3	35.7	35.1	39.7
• Transport and communication	12.6	12.6	11.6	12.0	12.7	16.0
• Trade	42.2	40.1	30.5	33.0	28.5	50.7
• Public health and social security	72.3	73.7	73.8	73.8	74.5	74.9
• Education	61.8	61.2	63.9	63.2	64.3	61.6
• Management and administration	33.4	33.6	28.6	31.7	28.7	24.3
• Construction	14.4	13.8	11.7	12.1	12.1	10.1
• Science	44.0	43.8	43.5	46.1	42.7	42.7

Sources: UNDP Bureau Gender and Development and Women's Committee of Uzbekistan and Ministry of Macroeconomics and Statistics of Uzbekistan, 1999

Table 4.
Income per Head, Income Distribution and Poverty Republics of the USSR 1989–1990

	Population, millions in middle of 1990	GNP per capita^A, in 1990	Gini coefficient, in 1989	Poverty^B, % of population in 1989
USSR	289.3	2,870	0.289	11.1
Asia				
• Kazakhstan	16.8	2,600	0.289	15.5
• Kyrgyzstan	4.4	1,570	0.287	32.9
• Tajikistan	5.3	1,130	0.308	51.2
• Turkmenistan	3.7	1,690	0.307	35.0
• Uzbekistan	20.5	1,340	0.304	43.6
Caucasus				
• Armenia	3.3	2,380	0.259	14.3
• Azerbaijan	7.2	1,640	0.328	33.6
• Georgia	5.5	2,120	0.292	14.3
Europe				
• Belarus	10.3	3,110	0.238	3.3
• Moldova	4.4	2,390	0.258	11.8
• Russia	148.3	3,430	0.278	5.0
• Ukraine	51.9	2,500	0.235	6.0
Baltics				
• Estonia	1.6	4,170	0.299	1.9
• Latvia	2.7	3,590	0.274	2.4
• Lithuania	3.7	3,110	0.278	2.3

Notes: ^A GNP per capita in USD computed by the World Bank's synthetic Atlas method

^B Poverty = individuals in households with gross per capita income less than 75 rubles

Sources: Columns 1–2, World Bank (1992, 3–4); columns 3–4, Atkinson and Mickelwright (1992, Table U13), based on Goskomstat data (HBS)

Table 5.
The Transition Recession and the Great Depression, Selected Countries

	Consecutive years of output decline	Cumulative output decline, %	Real GDP in 2002, rate of 1990 as 100
Central Southern Europe and the Baltics	4	23	107
• Albania	3	33	110
• Bulgaria	4	16	81
• Croatia	4	36	87
• Czech Republic	3	12	99
• Estonia	5	35	85
• Hungary	4	15	109
• Latvia	6	51	61
• Lithuania	5	44	67
• Poland	2	6	144
• Romania	3	21	82
• Slovakia	4	23	105
• Slovenia	3	14	120
CIS ^A	7	51	63
• Armenia	4	63	67
• Azerbaijan	6	60	55
• Belarus	6	35	88
• Georgia	5	78	29
• Kazakhstan	6	41	90
• Kyrgyzstan	6	50	66
• Moldova	7	63	35
• Russia	7	40	64
• Tajikistan	7	50	48
• Ukraine	10	59	43
• Uzbekistan	6	18	95
Great Depression, 1930–1933			
• France	3	11	n.a.
• Germany	3	16	n.a.
• United Kingdom	2	6	n.a.
• United States	4	27	n.a.

Note: ^A Simple average, except for the index of 1990 GDP, which shows population-weighted averages

Source: World Bank; Maddison, 1982

Table 6.
Performance and Initial Conditions Indicators Successor States to the USSR in 1989–1996

	Real GDP, in 1996,		
	rate in 1989 as 100	Inflation ^A in 1996	Terms of trade ^B
Asia			
• Kazakstan	45	29	19
• Kyrgyzstan	52	23	1
• Tajikistan	37	100	-7
• Turkmenistan	57	130	50
• Uzbekistan	84	100	-3
Caucasus			
• Armenia	39	9	-24
• Azerbaijan	38	12	-7
• Georgia	31	9	-21
Europe			
• Belarus	63	102	-20
• Moldova	35	11	-38
• Russia	51	17	79
• Ukraine	42	30	-18
Baltics			
• Estonia	69	12	-32
• Latvia	52	10	-24
• Lithuania	42	13	-31

Notes: ^A Annual increase in consumer price index, end of year

^B Impact on terms of trade of moving to world prices, calculated at 105-sector level of aggregation using 1990 weights

Sources: Columns I-2, EBRD, 1997, 7&9; column 3, Tarr, 1994

Table 7.
Share of Agriculture in GDP

Index	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
GAO/GDP	37.3	35.4	27.8	34.5	28.1	22.4	28.3	26.8	29.0	30.1	30.2
GDP, (%) ^A	-0.5	-11.1	-2.3	-5.2	-0.9	1.7	5.2	4.3	4.3	3.8	4.5
GAO, (%) ^B	-1.1	-6.2	1.3	-7.3	2.2	-5.6	5.8	4.1	5.6	3.2	4.5

Notes: ^A Annual growth of GDP

^B Annual Growth of Agricultural Output

Source: Department of Statistics, Ministry of Macroeconomics and Statistics of Uzbekistan

Table 8.
Inflation 1990–2001, in percent

	1991–1995	1996–2000	2001
	average	average	forecast
Armenia	1,685.4	8.3	3.4
Azerbaijan	705.2	3.2	2.5
Georgia	3,310.6	14.6	4.8
Kyrgyzstan	324.4	24.1	9.1
Moldova	432.0	22.7	12.8
Tajikistan	738.2	122.0	38.5
Uzbekistan	527.7	41.6	27.1
Average CIS7 (unweighted)	1,103.4	33.8	14.0
Russia	536.0	39.4	21.6
CIS (unweighted)	1,028.4	56.7	18.8

Source: World Economic Outlook, IMF

Table 9.
Real GDP Growth Rate and Inflation Rates

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Growth rate of real GDP	-11.0	-2.3	-4.2	-0.9	1.6	5.2	4.4	4.4
Inflation rate	645.0	534.0	746.0	315.0		28.0	30.0	32.0

Source: National Human Development Report 1999, UNDP, 2000

Table 10.
Public Expenditure on Health and Education as a Percentage of GDP in CIS-7, 1990–2000

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Public expenditure on health care as % GDP											
• Armenia	2.4	3.2	4.4	3.2	2.1	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6		
• Azerbaijan	2.3	3.0	2.2	5.1	2.3	1.2	2.3	1.9	2.2	1.9	
• Georgia	3.1	3.5	2.2	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.8	1.1	1.1	0.6	0.4
• Kyrgyzstan			3.4		3.3	3.8	3.1	3.2	2.6	2.1	
• Moldova		3.9	3.1	4.5	6.2	5.8	6.9	6.0	4.3	2.9	3.0
• Tajikistan				3.4	2.5	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.6
• Uzbekistan		5.9		4.8	4.6	3.4	3.1	3.0	3.3	2.9	3.0
Public expenditure on education as % GDP											
• Armenia		7.5	8.9	5.2	2.5	3.3	2.0	1.7	1.8	1.9	
• Azerbaijan		6.4	6.7	7.6	4.9	3.5	3.7	3.6	3.6	4.2	
• Georgia	6.1	6.4	4.0	0.6	0.5	0.9	1.2	1.3	2.2	1.9	
• Kyrgyzstan		6.0	5.0	4.2	6.1	6.6	5.2	4.9	4.9	4.1	3.5
• Moldova			7.8	6.0	7.4	7.7	9.4	8.9	6.3	5.4	
• Tajikistan						2.4	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.1	2.3
• Uzbekistan											

Notes: Public expenditures represent current and capital expenditures on health and education by local, regional and national governments, including municipalities. Household contributions are normally excluded

Source: UNICEF Transmonee Database 2002, (in Jane Falkingham, 2003)

Table 11.
Agricultural Employment in Uzbekistan in 1991–2000

(x1,000) and %	1991	1993	1995	1996	1999	2000
People employed	3,456.0	3,671.0	3,485.0	3,505.0	3,220.0	3,061.0
Share of total	41.9	44.3	41.1	40.1	36.1	33.4

Sources: Department of Statistics, Ministry of Macroeconomics and Statistics of Uzbekistan, 2002 (in Max Spoor, 2003)

Table 12.
Share of Women in Labour Force

	1989	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Share of women	46.5	46.5	43.3	43.4	42.7	43.7	44.0	44.1

Sources: National Human Development Report 1999, UNDP, 2000 and National Economy of the USSR, Moscow, 1989

Table 13.
Wages within Various Branches of the Economy^A

	1991 ^B	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Average wage	346.00	2,541.00	27.50	16.80	38.70	51.60	55.70	57.34
Predominance of women								
• Public health & social security	305.00	1,827.00	9.60	8.80	25.00	34.50	33.80	34.66
• Education	321.00	2,146.00	6.60	10.30	24.90	38.50	37.00	39.17

Notes: ^A Data concerning wages is not calculated by gender. All calculations are performed in USD according to the official average annual rate of the sum with regard to the USD. Data concerning hard currency rates are absent before 1995. Recalculation of wages at black market exchange rates will decrease in 1.5–1.8 ones

^B Data before 1992 is calculated in USSR rubles, for 1993 in sum-coupons, and from 1994 onwards in sum and presented in USD equivalent

Sources: 1 Calculations for 1997–1998 were based on Wages and Foreign Exchange Market, Country Economic Review 4, 1999
2 Annual Reports, Ministry of Macroeconomics and Statistics of Uzbekistan
3 Expert Social Research Center, weekly monitoring of currency rates

Adapted from: Women in the Republic of Uzbekistan, Country Briefing Paper, ADB, 2002

Table 14.
Real GDP per Capita by Regions

	PPP, in USD			As % of average		
	1997	1998	1999	1997	1998	1999
Republic of Uzbekistan	2,670	2,829	2,994	100.0	100.0	100.0
Northan Uzbekistan	2,162	2,316	2,549	81.0	81.9	85.1
• Karakalpakstan	1,596	1,784	2,023	59.8	63.1	67.6
• Khorezm	2,808	2,923	3,148	105.2	103.3	105.1
Central Uzbekistan	2,479	2,654	2,984	92.9	93.8	99.7
• Bukhara	2,739	3,206	3,863	102.6	113.3	129.0
• Djizzak	2,040	2,051	2,278	76.4	72.5	76.1
• Navoi	4,112	3,650	3,948	154.0	129.0	131.9
• Samarkand	1,867	2,274	2,464	69.9	80.4	82.3
• Syrdarya	3,062	2,679	3,100	114.7	94.7	103.5
Southern Uzbekistan	2,330	2,466	2,354	87.3	87.2	78.6
• Kashkadarya	2,784	2,668	2,458	104.3	94.3	82.1
• Surkhandarya	1,764	2,215	2,225	66.1	78.3	74.3
Eastern Uzbekistan	2,923	3,143	3,297	109.5	111.1	110.1
• Andijan	2,567	2,673	2,796	96.1	94.5	93.4
• Namangan	1,916	1,841	1,965	71.8	65.1	65.6
• Fergana	2,906	2,892	3,106	108.8	102.2	103.7
• Tashkent	2,931	3,105	3,165	109.8	109.7	105.7
• Tashkent city	4,580	5,287	5,543	171.5	186.9	185.2

Source: National Human Development Report, 2000, UNDP, 2001

Table 15.
Education and Labor Market Status of Household Head and Poverty

Education of Head	Incidence of Poverty	Share of Population	Share of Poor
None to four years	34.0	8.4	10.4
Five to nine years	32.4	13.3	15.7
Full secondary	31.3	47.4	53.9
Incomplete Technikum	24.6	2.8	2.5
Complete Tech/Some higher	17.6	13.4	8.6
Higher education	16.6	14.7	8.9
Labor Status			
Inactive	30.5	45.2	50.1
• of which: Pensioners	29.7	29.5	35.3
• Disabled	23.7	2.6	2.5
• Other	33.5	14.1	19.1
Employed	24.6	51.6	46.2
Unemployed	33.7	5.9	7.2
National	27.5	100.0	

Note: Numbers may not sum to 100 (where appropriate) due to rounding and/or omitted categories

Sources: Living Standards Assessment, The World Bank, 2002 and HBS 2000–2001

Table 16.
Location and Unemployment, percent of labour force who are unemployed

	Unemployment rate
Total	5.8
Area of Residence	
• Rural	6.2
• Urban	5.3
Oblasts	
• Karakalpakstan	6.6
• Andijan	4.0
• Bukhara	5.4
• Djizzak	8.4
• Kashkadarya	5.1
• Navoi	6.9
• Namangan	7.2
• Samarkand	9.4
• Surkhandarya	7.4
• Syrdarya	2.5
• Tashkent oblast	6.2
• Fergana	5.7
• Khorezm	4.6
• Tashkent city	3.8

Source: Living Standards Assessment, The World Bank, 2002

Table 17.
Geographic Distribution of Poverty

Characteristic	Incidence		Share		Share of extreme poor
	Incidence of poverty	of extreme poverty	of population	of poor	
Area					
• Urban	22.5	7.1	37.4	30.6	27.4
• Rural	30.5	11.2	62.6	69.4	72.3
Economic Regions					
• Tashkent	13.3	3.4	18.2	8.8	6.5
• Mirzachul	21.3	5.2	6.6	5.1	3.5
• Ferghana	28.6	8.0	27.6	28.7	22.8
• Northern	33.5	8.0	11.6	14.1	9.6
• Central	21.4	6.0	19.9	15.5	12.3
• Southern Region	47.4	27.4	16.1	27.8	45.5
Oblasts					
• Karakalpakstan	36.4	7.7	6.2	8.2	4.9
• Andijan	31.8	9.1	8.9	10.3	8.3
• Bukhara	13.4	1.9	5.8	2.8	1.1
• Djizzak	29.7	7.2	4.0	4.3	3.0
• Kashkadarya	62.6	41.6	8.9	20.3	38.2
• Navoi	18.7	5.6	3.2	2.2	1.8
• Namangan	39.7	12.2	7.8	11.3	9.8
• Samarkand	26.4	8.4	10.9	10.5	9.4
• Surkhandarya	28.4	9.7	7.2	7.4	7.2
• Syrdarya	8.4	2.0	2.6	0.8	0.5
• Tashkent	16.9	3.8	9.6	5.9	3.8
• Ferghana	18.1	4.0	10.9	7.2	4.5
• Khorezm	30.1	8.3	5.4	5.9	4.6
• Tashkent City	9.2	2.9	8.7	2.9	2.6
National	27.5	9.7	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note: The economic regions of the country are made up of the following oblasts: Tashkent Economic Region—Tashkent city and Tashkent oblast; Mirzachul Economic Region—Syrdarya and Djizzak oblasts; Fergana Economic Region—Fergana, Andijan, and Namangan oblasts; Northern Economic Region—Karakalpakstan and Khorezm oblasts; Central Economic Region—Bukhara, Samarkand and Navoi oblasts; Southern Economic Region—Kashkadarya and Surkhandarya oblasts

Sources: Living Standards Assessment, The World Bank, 2002; FBS, 2000-01, author's calculations

Table 18.
Education Enrolment

Level of Education	1990	2000
Pre-primary education enrolment (net rates, % of population aged 3–6)	37.1	18.2
Basic education enrolment (gross rates, % of relevant population)	91.5	97.0
Higher education enrolment (gross rates, population aged 19–24)	15.2	6.6

Source: TransMONEE Database, UNICEF, 2002

Table 19.
Gender Literacy Differences, percent of males

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Education span	88.0	93.2	92.4	91.7	90.9	90.2
Enrollment in basic education schools	96.1	92.4	91.2	87.2	78.7	9.6
Completed high school education	81.8	89.6	90.1	85.9	87.0	87.2
Enrollment in higher education schools	72.3	69.4	63.7	74.8	69.5	91.5
Completed higher education	78.5	69.6	63.7	65.0	61.0	61.6

Source: In: Gender Issues and Stereotypes Present in Traditional Textbooks of Public Schools of the Republic of Uzbekistan, Dinara Alim-djanova, Lyudmila Kim and Elvira Ganeyeva (unpublished)

Table 20.
Average Level of non-Attendance (days per year) in Compulsory Education^A

Oblast	Schoolchildren, in thousand			Total of missed classes, days per year			Average level of absences, per year		
	1-4 gr.	5-11 gr.	Total	1-4 gr.	5-11 gr.	Total	1-4 gr.	5-11 gr.	Total
Total	2,580.9	3,193.2	5,774.2	5,364.9	7,479.8	12,844.7	2.10	2.30	2.20
• Surkhandarya	205.6	239.3	444.8	305.7	444.0	749.6	1.50	1.90	1.70
• Kashkadarya	253.5	303.3	556.7	1,723.5	1,698.4	3,421.9	6.80	5.60	6.10
• Syrdarya	68.6	85.2	153.8	1,444.2	239.6	383.9	2.10	2.80	2.50
• Tashkent city	149.2	199.1	348.3	394.0	781.6	1,175.6	2.60	3.90	3.40
• Namangan	211.6	267.5	479.2	210.2	356.7	566.9	0.99	1.33	1.16
• Tashkent	227.1	276.1	593.2	138.9	254.4	393.3	0.60	0.90	0.80
• Karakalpakstan	158.9	222.6	381.5	260.6	593.3	853.9	1.60	2.70	2.20
• Fergana	285.4	333.0	618.4	311.3	517.7	829.1	1.10	1.60	1.30
• Samarkand	306.8	361.9	668.7	613.6	687.7	1,301.3	2.00	1.90	1.95
• Khorezm	141.5	188.5	330.0	199.8	298.3	498.1	1.40	1.60	1.50
• Djizzak	112.9	139.3	252.2	2.5	4.9	7.4	0.02	0.04	0.03
• Navoi	84.3	105.2	189.5	129.3	299.9	429.2	1.50	2.80	2.30
• Bukhara	139.3	196.4	335.7	315.0	341.7	656.7	2.26	1.73	1.95
• Andijan	236.2	275.8	512.0	616.2	961.7	1,577.9	2.60	3.50	3.10

Note: ^A Based on the results of the 1999–2000 school year

Source: The Ministry of Public Education, 2000

Table 21.
Disabled Children Age 0–16

	2002
Total number	132,269
• visiting kindergarten	19,533
• visiting schools and boarding schools	20,573
• learning at home	7,141
• in orphanage ^A	400
• special boarding schools under MoH	19,000

Note: ^A Information from Ministry of Primary Education, 2003

Source: Ministry of Health, 2003

Table 22.
Drug Abuse Treatment-Related Indicators

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Patients (with addiction diagnoses) registered in treatment	7,612	8,764	9,825	11,711	14,278	18,087	18,956
Patients registered for the first time	3,142	3,494	5,979	6,320	3,028
Patients treated in residential care	676	722	1,026	2,437	6,009	5,229	3,028

Source: Ministry of Health, 2002

Table 23.
HIV Related Indicators

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Total HIV cases	17	24	31	32	34	35	38	46	51	76	230	779	1,760
New HIV cases	5	7	7	1	2	1	3	8	10	25	154	549	981
IDU related new HIV cases									1	20	111	318	613

Source: Ministry of Health, 2002

Table 24.
Structure of Maternal Mortality Causes 1998-2001, percent

	1998	1999	2001
Hemorrhage	33.4	45.7	57.0
Late toxemia in pregnancy	17.4	15.7	17.4
Septic complications	16.0	8.6	6.2
Extra-genital diseases	13.9	14.3	11.4
Embolism	2.8	2.1	2.0
Others	16.7	13.5	6.0

Source: Ministry of Health, 2002

Table 25.
Maternal Mortality Indicators by Region

Regions	1991	1998	1999	2000	2001
Republic of Uzbekistan	65.3	28.6	31.2	33.1	34.1
• Republic of Karakalpakstan	108.7	60.1	48.1	38.8	41.9
• Andijan	44.1	17.7	21.2	20.2	20.5
• Bukhara	35.6	33.4	21.2	49.0	54.4
• Djizzak	99.9	30.2	33.5	29.4	42.5
• Kashkadarya	69.9	30.1	45.6	39.9	40.6
• Navoi		76.3	58.0	91.6	91.5
• Namangan	45.4	27.0	18.2	27.0	29.3
• Samarkand	43.4	19.4	16.6	26.4	17.9
• Surkhandarya	91.5	32.2	28.6	24.6	19.3
• Syrdarya	83.6	26.4	25.5	21.0	35.7
• Tashkent	43.2	20.9	31.5	27.5	44.2
• Fergana	62.8	19.6	25.0	22.5	25.3
• Khorezm	46.0	16.1	21.3	24.9	36.2
• Tashkent city	141.1	38.0	64.3	63.9	36.4

Source: Ministry of Health, 2002

Table 26.
The Number of Self-Governance Bodies by Regions

Regions	Total	Juridical entites	Headed by woman
Republic of Uzbekistan	10,133	7,437	493
• The Republic of Karakalpakstan	291	280	11
• Andijan	964	913	48
• Bukhara	242	242	37
• Djizzak	265	212	15
• Namangan	833	722	58
• Navoiy	307	301	19
• Samarkand	1,196	1,056	46
• Syrdarya	628	280	20
• Surkhandarya	732	732	44
• Tashtent	1,506	517	82
• Ferghana	960	960	56
• Kashkadarya	743	516	21
• Khorezm	1,020	260	14
• Tashkent city	446	446	22

Source: National Human Development Report 2000, UNDP

Table 27.
Gender Composition of the State Power Authorities as of January 2002

	% of total number		Sex distribution, %	
	women	men	women	men
Total number of people in state power authorities	100.0	100.0	13.7	86.3
Legislative and representative power authorities (deputies)	64.1	72.6	12.3	87.7
Oliy Majlis (Parliament of the Republic of Uzbekistan)	1.9	2.8	9.9	90.1
Zhokargy Kenes (Parliament of the Republic of Karakalpakstan)	0.6	1.1	8.0	92.0
Councils of People's Deputies of the regions and the city of Tashkent	4.7	8.0	8.5	91.5
Regional Councils of People's Deputies	46.7	51.0	12.7	87.3
City Councils of People's Deputies	10.2	9.7	14.3	85.7
In the executive power authorities (upper tier)	20.0	17.5	15.3	84.7
Cabinet of Ministers of Republic of Uzbekistan	0.2	0.1	16.7	83.3
Cabinet of Ministers of Republic of Karakalpakstan	0.1	0.1	12.5	87.5
Khokims (mayors) and deputy khokims of regions and Tashkent city	1.1	1.3	11.9	88.1
Khokims and deputy khokims of districts	16.0	13.9	15.4	84.6
Khokims and deputy khokims of cities	2.6	2.1	16.3	83.7
In the judicial bodies (judges)	15.9	9.9	20.3	79.7
Constitutional Court	0.1	0.1	20.0	80.0
Supreme Court of Republic of Uzbekistan	0.5	0.5	14.6	85.4
Supreme Court of Karakalpakstan, regional courts, Tashkent city court	4.7	2.9	20.4	79.6
District and city courts	8.1	5.0	20.4	79.6
Supreme Economic Court of Republic of Uzbekistan	0.2	0.2	15.8	84.2
Economic Courts of Republic of Karakalpakstan and regions	2.3	1.2	22.6	77.4

Source: The State Statistic Department of the Ministry of Macroeconomics and Statistics of the Republic of Uzbekistan, 2002

Table 28.**Legal Framework on the Protection of Refugees, Persons Seeking Political Asylum and Displaced Persons, 2002**

Instruments, Conventions & Laws	Current Situation
International commitments of Uzbekistan under the signed instruments on human rights such as the ICCPR, CAT and CRC	Uzbekistan signed the CRC in 1992, and CAT and ICCPR in 1995. However, no regulatory acts have been passed on their implementation, and up to 1998 there have been cases of abuse of the above instruments, for instance, Art. 3 of CAT, when refugees were sent back to Afghanistan. Since the UNHCR Office and the Government reached an oral agreement in 1999, the number of deportations has decreased, but such practices have not been fully ceased.
Accession to the 1951 Convention on the Status of Refugees and the 1967 Protocol	Uzbekistan remains the only country in Central Asia and CIS, which has not signed the Convention. Accession to the Convention is not expected in the nearest future as the government's official policy to refugees remains negative.
Recognition by law of the right to seek political asylum	Article 93, paragraph 19 of the Constitution gives the President the right to grant political asylum. However, a national legal framework or administrative procedure to register appeals for political asylum is lacking. By December 2002 the UNHCR Office had granted the refugee status to approximately 2,629 persons.
Admission by law of the ban on any abuse of fundamental human rights affecting people's security	The right of refugees in Uzbekistan not to be subject to detention, deportation or banishment is still based on the 1999 oral agreement between the UNHCR and the Government of Uzbekistan and international customary law principles.

Source: UN High Commissioner for Refugees, Tashkent Office, 2002

Table 29.**Number of Refugees Protected by the Mandate of the UNHCR Office in Uzbekistan, December 31, 2002**

Age Group	Women	Men	Total
Total number	1,224	1,405	2,629
• 0–4 years	63	72	135
• 5–17 years	506	570	1,076
• 18–59 years	632	734	1,366
• 60 years and over	23	29	52

Source: UN High Commissioner for Refugees, Tashkent Office, 2002

Table 30.**Status of Border Delimitation**

Border with...	Status
Afghanistan	Settled border inherited from USSR
Kazakhstan	Comprehensive border agreement finalized between the Heads of State in September 2002. (FE/RL Newline 10/09/02)
Kyrgyzstan	In March 2003 the joint demarcation commission had reportedly agreed on 690 km of 1,490 km of border. (BBC Monitoring 12/03/03)
Tajikistan	A border commission has been set to work between Tajikistan and Uzbekistan in 2000. In July 2002, 70% of the border had reportedly been delineated. (RFE/RL Newline 01/08/02)
Turkmenistan	The border between Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan was settled with a border agreement on 21 September 2000

Source: United Nations Office for Drug Control, 2003

Table 31.
Drug Seizures in Uzbekistan, kg

Description	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	Change ^A
Total	3,151.00	4,361.20	2,987.00	1,069.24	839.60	-21.50%
• Raw opium	1,935.30	3,292.30	2,008.20	241.68	76.00	-68.60%
• Heroin	194.70	324.80	675.00	466.60	256.30	-45.10%
• Other drugs	1,021.00	744.10	303.80	368.05	507.30	37.81%

Note: ^A Latest year compared to latest year-1

Source: The National Information and Analytical Center on Drug Control under the Cabinet of Ministers of the Republic of Uzbekistan

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