



Youth Development Report: Condition of Russian Youth



Youth Development Report: Condition of Russian Youth

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Contents

Foreword.....	3
Introduction	5
1. Youth education.....	8
1.1. Levels of education	8
1.2. Equal access to education	13
1.3. Quality of education.....	25
2. Health	34
2.1 Disease	34
2.2. Sexual and reproductive health of young people	44
2.3. Traumatism	47
3. Youth and labour-market	34
3.1. General characteristics.....	49
3.2. Level of employment	57
3.3. Work and study	65
3.4. Unemployment and job placement.....	72
4. Youth and society.....	87
4.1. Participation of young people in the political life and social initiatives	87
4.2. Criminality and asocial behaviour.....	101
5. Youth development index	113
Conclusion	120
Annex	123
List of abbreviations	123
Tables to sections	125

Foreword

Both Russian society and the Russian state authorities pay special attention to young people living in modern Russia.

The draft of the Program for Social and Economic Development of the Russian Federation makes a special mention of the fact that “it is necessary to put into the foreground all kinds of measures designed to bring up competent and responsible young people who enjoy moral and physical health, and to draw attention of the regulatory bodies on all levels of government to the importance of social development of children and youth, to the maintenance of their rights to quality education, creative development, and meaningful diversions in their free time. Various institutions existing in our society must play an important role in achieving these goals.”

Today’s situation in the realm of developing the new generation of young people is twofold. On the one hand, young people in modern Russia are more self-dependent, practical and mobile than ever before. They feel responsible for their own destiny and are thus very interested in getting high-quality education along with first-class vocational training, which does influence their subsequent job placement and their future careers. Young Russians aspire to further integrate into the international youth scene, and to participate in global economic, political and humanitarian developments.

On the other hand, however, young people have shown lower levels of interest and participation in political, economic and cultural developments. Also, death rate of unnatural causes is on the rise among young Russians. In the main risk group are those between 15 and 24 years of age: this group shows the largest increase of deaths due to unnatural causes, including those resulting from drug abuse and AIDS. On the average, the criminalization of young Russians is rising, too, plus various destructive subcultures and groups have been increasing their influence on Russian youth.

Social integration of young people with disabilities, of orphans and of disadvantaged teenagers living in troubled families is still a very acute issue.

The Government of the Russian Federation has recognized the importance of developing and effectively implementing policies aimed at improving the condition of the young people, and, as part of its administrative reform in 2004, assigned this task to the Russian Ministry of Science and Education vesting it with a higher authority in the matter and, consequently, fixing it with respective responsibilities.

The Ministry is currently developing a document under the title Strategy Of The Russian Federation For State Youth Development Policies In 2006-2010, which is, first of all, aimed at both supporting positive tendencies in youth development and strengthening countermeasures to negative tendencies.

Basic priorities of this Strategy for the next five years are defined by the existing situation in the realm of youth development in Russia and by the goals of the social and economic development of the country as a whole, but, first and foremost, by the stated task of “developing human potential as a matter of paramount priority for raising the competitiveness of Russia in modern post-industrial era.” This Strategy envisages developing and implementing a whole complex of measures aimed at solving objectives of better integrating the young people in social, economic, political, and cultural relations.

Objective assessment of conditions, problems and tendencies as they are today in the sphere of education, job placement, health, and other key areas of developing the potential of the young generation will play a special, significant role in this activity. In this respect, the Youth Development Report: Condition of Russian Youth initiated by the UNESCO makes its contribution to developing youth development policies, clarifying targets and directions of finding answers to these problems. It is worth noting that this report was issued very timely, just as work on completing Strategy Of The Russian Federation For State Youth Development Policies is in its final stages and thus the material used in this report as well as its conclusions could be used today for selecting the most effective venues of problem solution.

The report contains a thorough analysis of the condition of the Russian youth based on statistical data and on the results of sociological research. Of special importance is its orientation towards interregional differences and regional features as related to developing the potential of the young people.

The Ministry of Science and Education agrees, generally speaking, with conclusions and recommendations of the report and considers them well-founded so that they are of undeniable practical interest.

We would like to express our gratitude to UNESCO, to the German Society for Technical Cooperation (GTZ) and to the authors of this report who prepared this very informative and very up-to-date document on the condition of Russian youth.

Introduction

This report was prepared at the request of UNESCO with the assistance of the German Society for Technical Cooperation (GTZ) and it is dedicated to defining the conditions of the young people in modern Russia. This issue is of great concern to any society. What is it, that we call “modern youth”? How is it different from the previous generation? What are its pursuits, its aims, and its potential?

Modern Russian youth is, practically speaking, the first generation that was born and raised in the new, post-Soviet Russia. This generation was growing up in a very complex environment, in which previous behavior patterns were destroyed and the social and economic transformation featured quick changes that sometimes led to certain difficulties. This is why the questions regarding what is today’s Russian youth like and what is its potential are especially relevant for modern-day Russia.

Too often one can hear people say that today’s youth is quite bad, or ill-mannered, or non-patriotic, or that the young people do not like working, that they mind only their own interests or its own diversions, and so on and so forth. It is quite probable (and there exist many proofs to that) that parents were saying something of this sort to their young for the last several thousand years. This is why the authors of this report made a conscious effort in avoiding moral or ideological issues and, instead, have concentrated their attention on such aspects of youth development and such characteristics of its potential that could have been assessed quantitatively, so that such analysis would provide credible enough statistical information.

In this report interested readers will find the following issues are discussed: education, health, conditions of the young people at the labor market, participation in the public life, and their asocial behavior.

Education is the most important element of human potential, and as applied to youth, it may be regarded in two aspects. One is to what extent today’s youth is ready to take upon its shoulders a leading role in the near future—in establishing and developing a knowledge-based economics. Secondly, how could education help the young people successfully find its place in the society, turn its potential into a real achievement, become a part of today’s public, social life and modern economic realities. This is why this report looks into three basic groups of issues: the level of education of the young people, accessibility of education and its quality.

The second component of youth development, which is equally important, is *health*. What are special characteristics of the health of the young generation? To what degree is it prone to the threats of various diseases and, first of all, to AIDS, this “plague of the 20th century”? To what degree is Russian youth affected by other threats, which are the manifestations of illnesses not less dangerous than AIDS: drug use, alcoholism, and smoking? How high is the level of accidents—one of the most common reasons for youth mortality? And, finally, what is the condition of sexual health and reproductive capacity of the younger generation? These issues of youth health, being key issues in our opinion, are considered in this report.

Also, what is in for the young people at the labor market? Youth condition at the labor market, the scale of youth employment and the unemployment rate among the young as well as issues of job placement—all these issues are of immediate concern to and attract attention of various state authorities, business, public organizations, and, one could safely say, all citizens, because they affect most families in any society.

A report by the International Labor Organization, which was dedicated to levels of employment among the youth, noted, as follows: “Young women and young men are the best asset for the

world of today in terms of its present and its future. They are, however, one of the most vulnerable groups of the human population... The link between youth unemployment and social exclusion was clearly established. Inability to find work will only lead to feeling inadequate and vulnerable, useless and idle; it may also raise a tendency for being involved in illegal activities... Providing a chance for respectable employment at the start of their work life, we would allow them to avoid getting into a vicious circle of unemployment, poor working conditions, poverty, and frustration, a circle that generally threatens economic prospects of human societies.”¹

This report looks at the conditions of the labor market for the youth as a complex of issues, such as occupation levels, work and study, unemployment and job placement.

Each democratic society has an interest in an active social attitude of its members and, of course, of its youth. The task of creating a civil society in Russia will not be possible without active involvement of the young into *social* activities. Our Report, based on the results of sociological polls as well as other sources of information, is trying to answer the question how much is modern youth involved in social and political life. The other side of the coin for the relations of the young people and the society is asocial behavior. The rate of youth delinquency is in itself a very important issue for any society and more so due to the fact that young people commit a considerable number of crimes. The report shows the scope and the special characteristics of today's youth criminality as well as those potential threat that it presents for the society.

All above mentioned aspects of conditions of the young people and of developing their potential are presented in the report, if possible, by regions. This helped identify a whole series of important relations and trends, as well as to analyze existing differences of the conditions of Russian youth in various regions of Russia.

In the last section of the report an attempt is made to arrive at a complex quantitative assessment of the youth potential by calculating Youth Development Index (YDI). This index is close both in its essence and its methodology to calculating a widely used Human Potential Development Index. It is, however, differing by reflecting a condition of only a certain age group. The concept and the methodology for calculating this index was proposed by a branch of UNESCO dealing with Central and South America; it was subsequently calculated for Brazil. At this point, it would be incorrect to make any attempts at comparing different countries by calculating their individual YDI indexes due to the experimental nature of such calculations, inconsistencies of methodology used and certain variations of its use in different countries related to lack of some or other statistical data. But inside one country this new index may find its uses as a tool of analyzing trends, links and relations as well as regional variations.

In the process of preparing this report, its authors used Russian statistical data and results of sociological research, materials by international organizations that are involved in issues in education, employment and health in various countries around the world (WHO, World Bank, AIDS Foundation East-West, UNESCO, UN Development Program and others).

It should be noted, at the same time, that available information does not always allow finding a solution for conducting a full-scale comparative and, especially, inter-regional analysis: at present, a lot of data are not collected on the regional level, data that are related to conditions of youth and to the scale of its potential development. Characteristics related to involvement of the young people in social and political events are practically lacking, and data about youth earnings and income are fragmentary and too often can not be compared. This is the reason behind the fact that various sections of our report have different degree of specification.

¹ Global Employment Trends for Youth, 2004. International Labour Office, Geneva, 2004, p. i (www.ilo.org/trends).

It is necessary to note that statistical data for different sectors have differing age group boundaries. In particular, while Russian statistics for labor and education data use age groupings consistent with the international standards of labor statistics (ILO) and educational statistics (UNESCO, Eurostat), health statistics in Russia and especially delinquency statistics still use its own age group breakdowns that do not coincide in full with the international standards. This last will not allow for comparisons not only with existing international indicators, but also with national data related to education and labor market. This led, in particular, to our extending age groupings in some sections of this report up to 29 years, even though international standards of defining the young people make this an 15 – 24 age group. Comparison of particular youth characteristics will not be made truly possible due to the fact that some statistical data cannot be compared for the above reasons.

One more peculiarity worth noting is the fact that the analysis of the youth educational levels was conducted based on the results of 2002 census in Russia. This means that a sizeable part of the population was included in the age group under consideration (15 - 29 years) that actually belongs to the generation that had entered educational institutions and graduated from them in the mid-1990s, that is during the maximum decline in the volumes of vocational training. Today the level of education has gone up and is still rising due to a much stronger involvement of the young people in vocational and especially in higher education.

Life conditions, goods' prices etc vary considerably in different regions of the Russian Federation. This makes it necessary to use special methods of adjusting data taken in various areas of the Russian Federation so that comparison of indicators is possible at all. Appreciation rates for standard units of budget services were used for this purpose, which rates are annually calculated by the Russian Ministry of Finance with the aim of fair distribution of regional financial support; also the cost of the consumer goods basket in different regions of Russia was taken into account.

The appendix contains tables with the most relevant data used in preparing this report.

1. Youth Education

1.1. Levels of education

The level of education for Russian youth is high enough. As per the indicator of received education, the young population of Russia is in a condition as good as that of their peers from the OECD countries (Figure 1.1). The part of the population with completed high-school education is by 12 percentage points higher in Russia than in OECD countries (42% against 30%). This was achieved because high-school vocational training is more widespread in Russia: here there three times more young people in this category than on the average in the OECD countries. Russia has, however, 1.5 times less young people with higher education and beyond than OECD countries do.

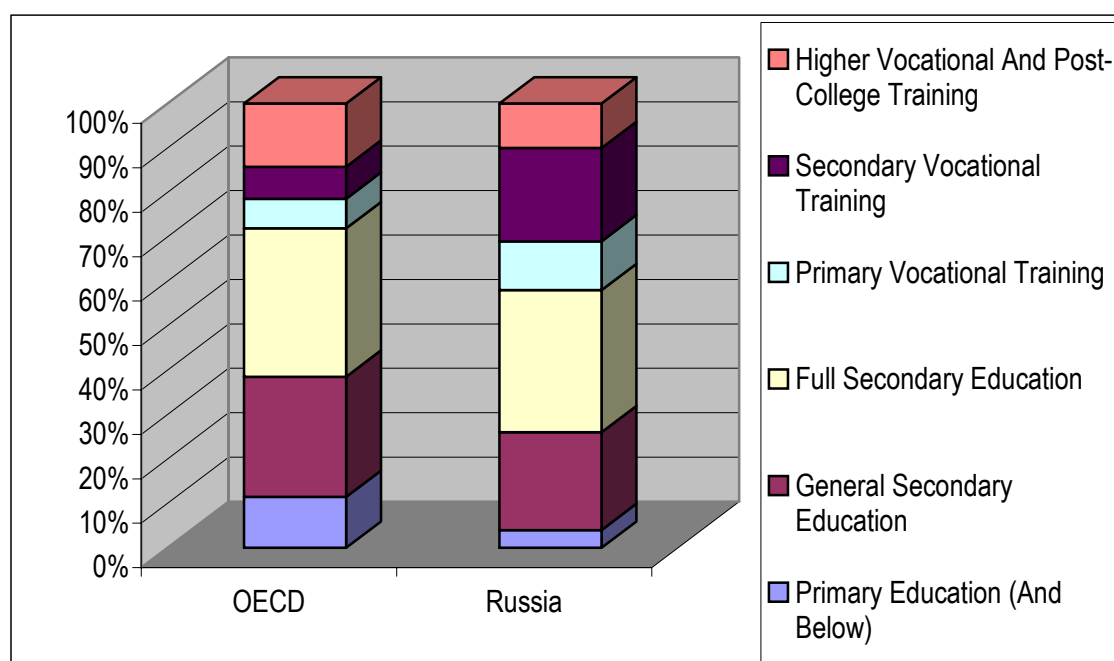


Figure 1.1. Levels of education for the age group between 15 and 29 years

Such differences will be even more apparent when comparing an older age group, i.e. young people between 25 and 29 years old—when the regular education normally comes to an end (Fig. 1.2). In this age group the share of Russian young people with an educational level higher than the complete high-school education rises to 68% while the OECD countries' average is 45%. The share of young people with higher education (college and post-graduate education) is almost equal in both Russia and OECD countries. The difference will be achieved by a higher share of the young people having the beginning and the secondary vocational education.

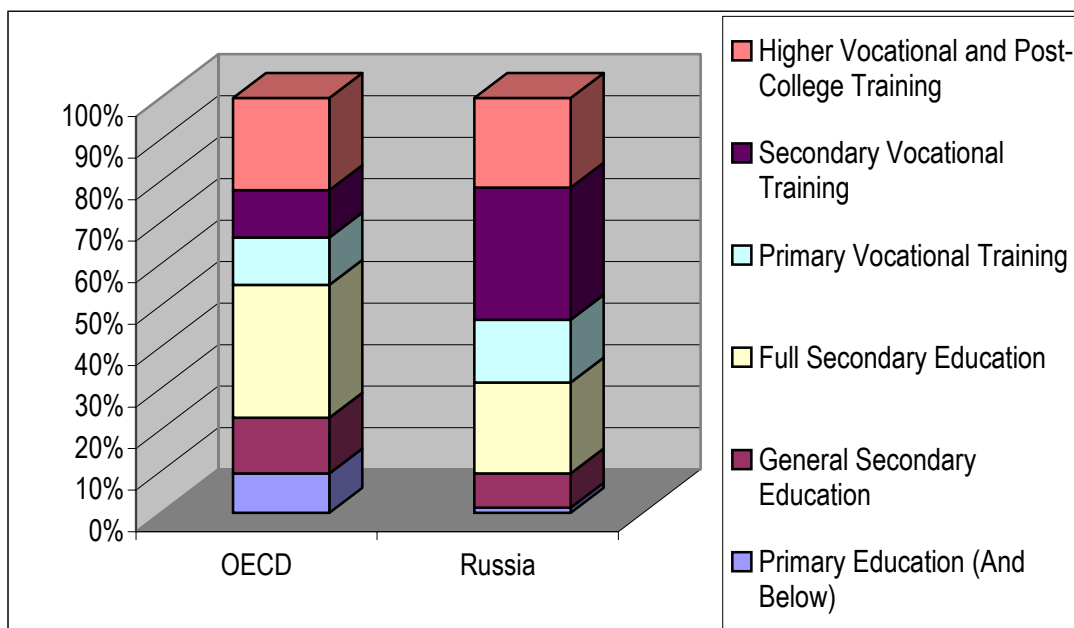


Figure 1.2. Levels of education for the age group between 25 and 29 years (comparing OECD countries and Russia)

One would find approximately the same relationships when comparing levels of education of the Russian youth and their peers in the industrially advanced, G-7 countries (the 'Big Seven').

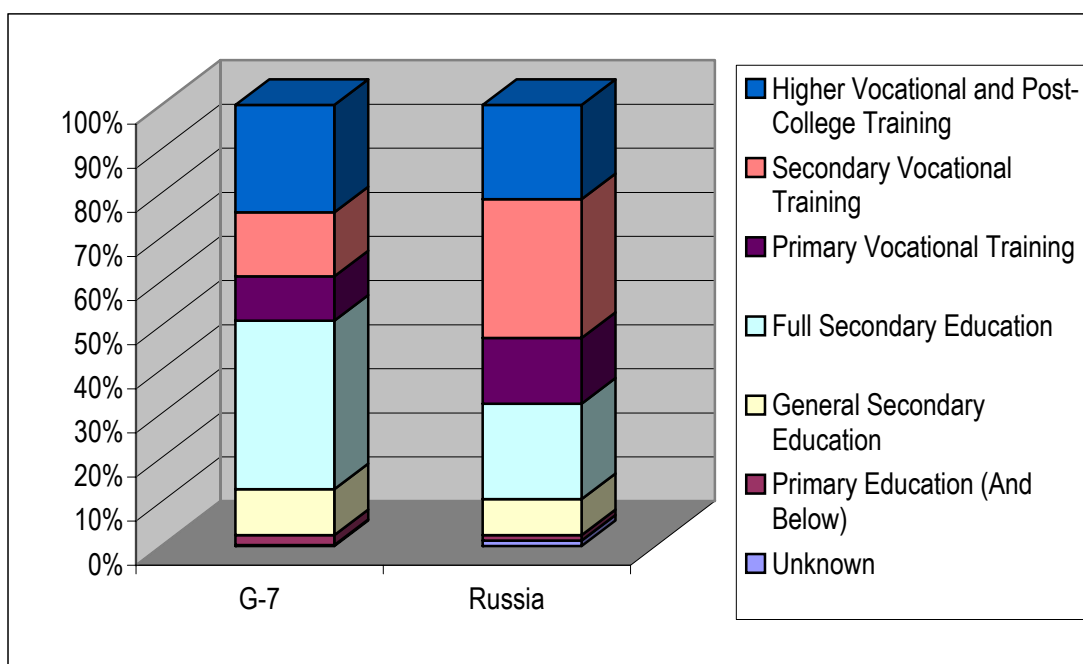


Figure 1.3. Levels of education for the age group between 25 and 29 years (comparing G-7 countries and Russia)

It is, thus, possible to claim that the Russian youth enjoy education levels which are as good as, and in some aspects even higher than those that their peers in other countries get (including the industrially advanced countries). It should be noted, however, that the higher level of education in Russia is provided through the availability of a well-developed and well-established system of primary and especially secondary vocational training. The share of the young Russians with the

higher professional training has been so far lower than that in both the Big Seven countries and OECD countries. How this affects the job placement of the young people will be discussed in more detail in Part 3 of this Report.

Let us consider in more detail the level of education that the Russian youth will be able to receive, depending on their gender and on the location of their residence (Table 1.1).

Young females in Russia have, generally speaking, a higher level of education than young males. For the 15-29 age group (Figure 1.4), there is a small difference in the share of those who have educational level above the completed high-school level: 41% of young men as compared to 43% of young women.

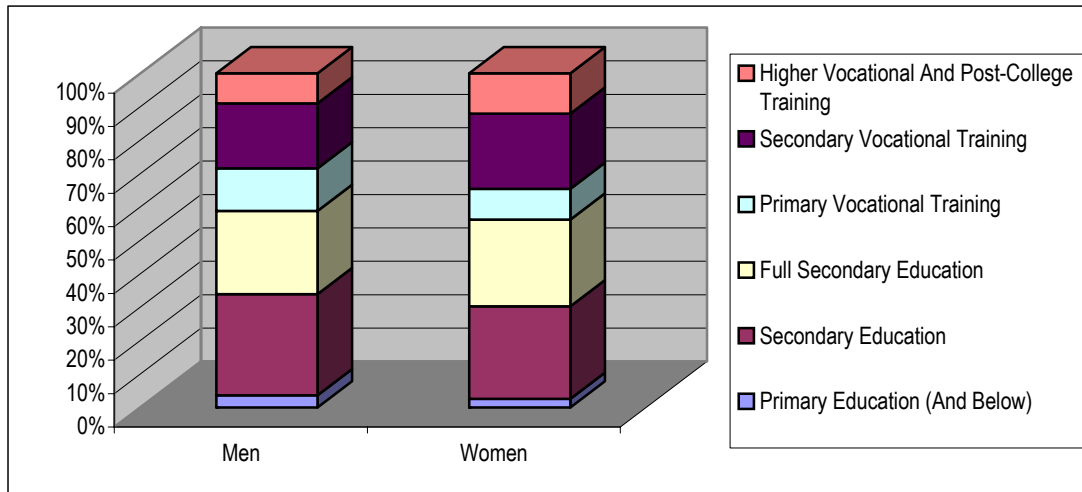


Figure 1.4. Educational levels of young men and women in the 15 - 29 age group

But after the secondary vocational training level, young women outstrip their male peers by far: higher and secondary vocational training have 34% of females and 28% of males. These differences in the levels of education among young people of different gender are even more pronounced in the 25-29 age group, that is at an age when most people will already have completed their normal education (Figure 1.5).

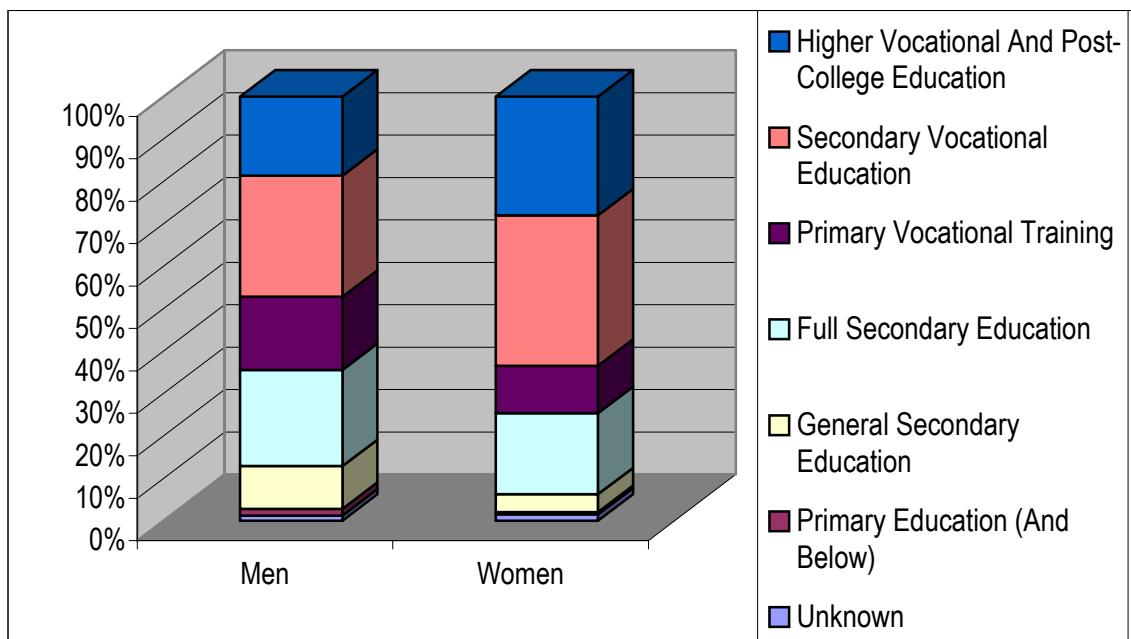


Figure 1.5. Education of young men and young women in the 25-29 age group

In this age group, the difference of the share of young men and women having an education level above the completed high-school level is 11 per cent points (correspondingly, 64% and 75%) while the difference between those gender groups having secondary and higher vocational training rises to 16 per cent points (65% of young women against 47% of young men).

It should be noted that the share of young men and women in this age group having completed post-college (graduate) education is approximately the same: 0.4 and 0.5 per cent, respectively.

The level of education is fairly different region-wise. From 26% for both young men and women in the 16-29 age group in Dagestan to, respectively, 51% and 53% in the Lipetsk Oblast (see Table 1.2 of the Appendix). And still, with little variance, education level of young ladies in all regions is somewhat higher than that of the young men.

When looking at Federal Regions as whole units, the difference in educational levels of the youth is 10 per cent: the Volga Region and the Central Region average 71% of young people in the 25-29 year age group having completed their professional education as compared to 61% in the Southern Federal Region (Figure 1.6.).

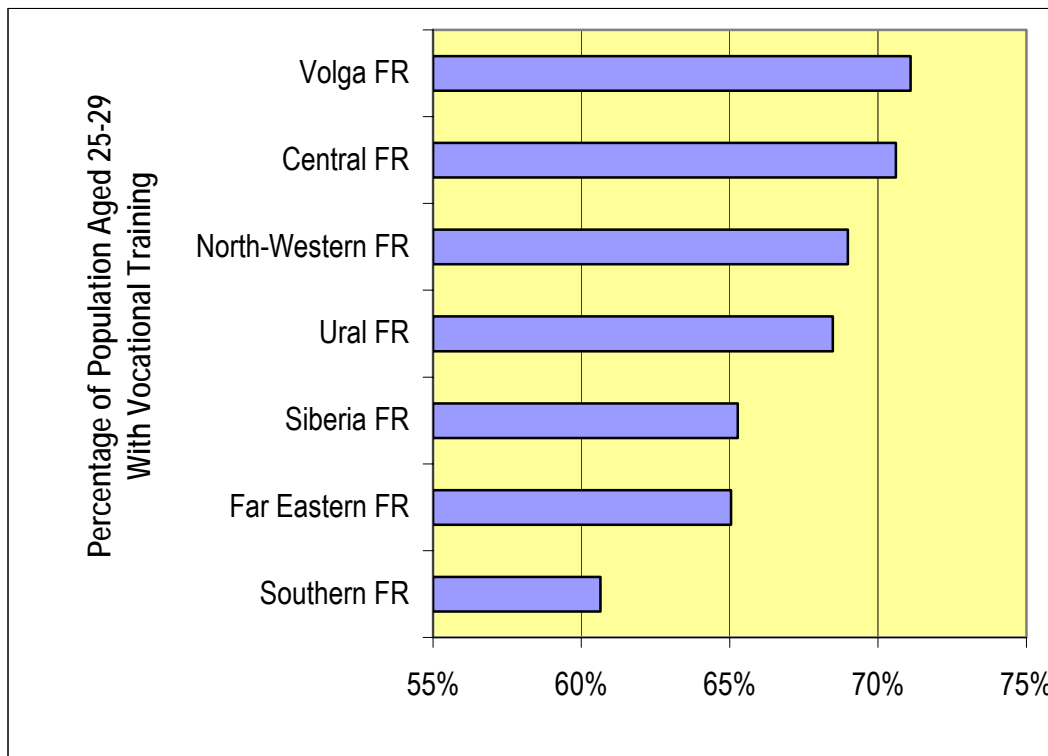


Figure 1.6. Level of education of the young people by Federal Regions

If we consider, however, differences in the education level of the youth by Federal administrative entities, this variance will rise considerably. Most of all, this differentiation is defined by the population structure of the region, that is, by the proportion of the urban versus rural population (Figure 1.7.).

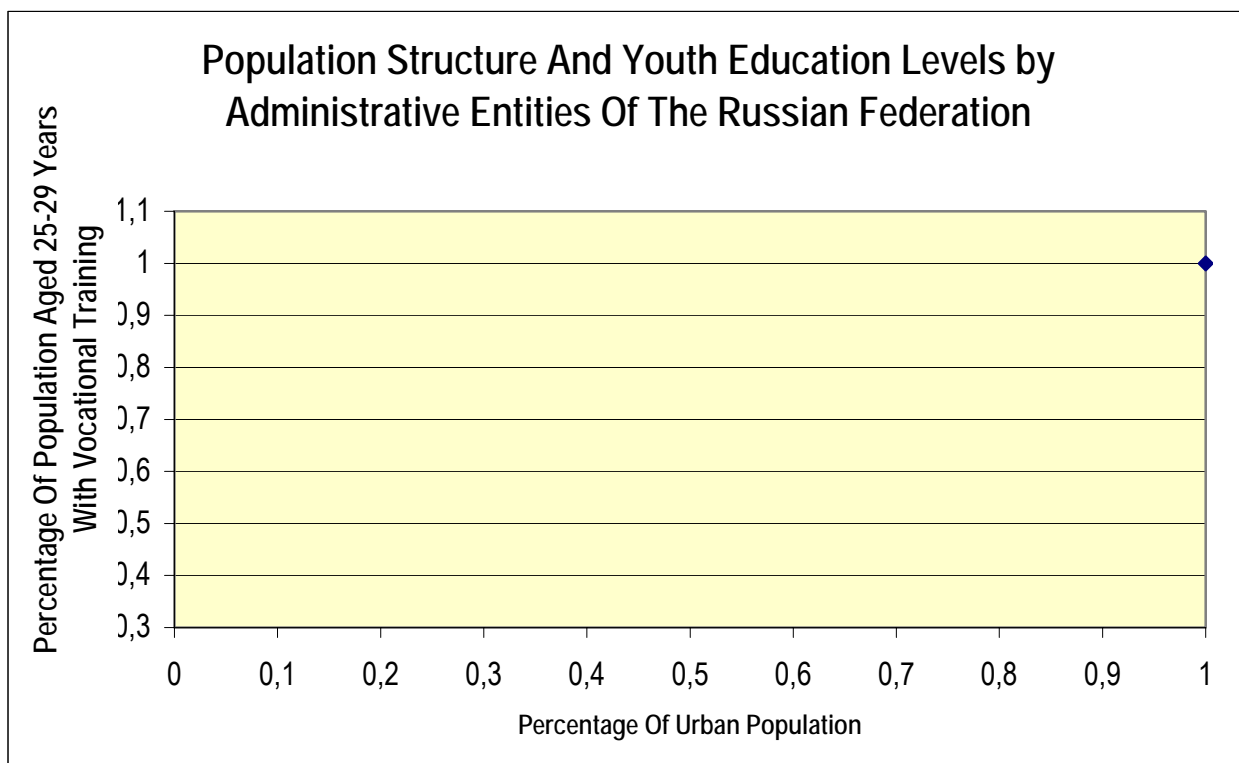


Figure 1.7. Population structure and level of education of the youth by the administrative entities of the Russian Federation

It should be also noted that there is not correlation between the educational level of the youth in a region and the level of prosperity of the region itself (i.e. the amount of the gross regional product per capita) or of its inhabitants (i.e. taking into account the per capita income).

1.2. Equal Access To Education

The issue of equal opportunity for getting an education can be treated in several aspects. First, as an opportunity of receiving a decent education—that is, to get an entry to an educational establishment of a certain level, depending on gender, social and economic standing, and area of residence. And secondly, as equality for having access to enjoying an education of a good quality. This last is especially relevant to levels of general and primary vocational education because the differentiation of higher stages of professional education (or tertiary education, according to an international classification) by its level and its quality is in a certain degree defined by the demands of the economy and by individual needs and abilities of the consumers of educational services. When lacking dependable data about the quality of education in specific regions, the level of access to education in specific territories can be assessed by the degree of differentiation in providing the resources and, first of all, by the degree of financing the existing system of general secondary and primary vocational training.

Considering the issue of access to education in the first aspect, that is, as to having an opportunity of studying at educational establishments of a certain level, we should highlight the following. In Russia access to education is not a gender-related issue in practical terms, both in the country as a whole and in its separate administrative entities: both young women and young men participate in education on equal terms; more so, young women even outstrip their male counterparts, both in terms of percentage of students and, as was shown in the preceding section, in the level of received education.

Equal opportunities to access education in various territories is a more complex issue.

When considering this problem, one must take into account:

- a. Accessibility of general secondary education in urban and rural areas,
- b. Possibilities of receiving additional educational services, such as higher-level of education, profile education for a specific territory, and
- c. Availability of professional education for students within their areas of residence.

The latter seems to be quite important an issue because expenses related to living separately from the students' families and transportation expenses when studying in cities away from students' home area are often considered as a factor that would limit access to vocational training for children from low-income families—a factor that together with an increasing base of paid vocational training would create a negative effect.

Availability of full-scale secondary education for the young people in urban and rural areas is characterized by an volume index, that is, by the ratio of the number of the young people of the 16-17 age group that study in Grades 10-11 (or 10-12) to the total number of population in this age group (Table 1.3). Figure 1.8 demonstrates considerable differences that exist in different regions of Russia with regard to percentage of young people receiving education in urban or rural areas.

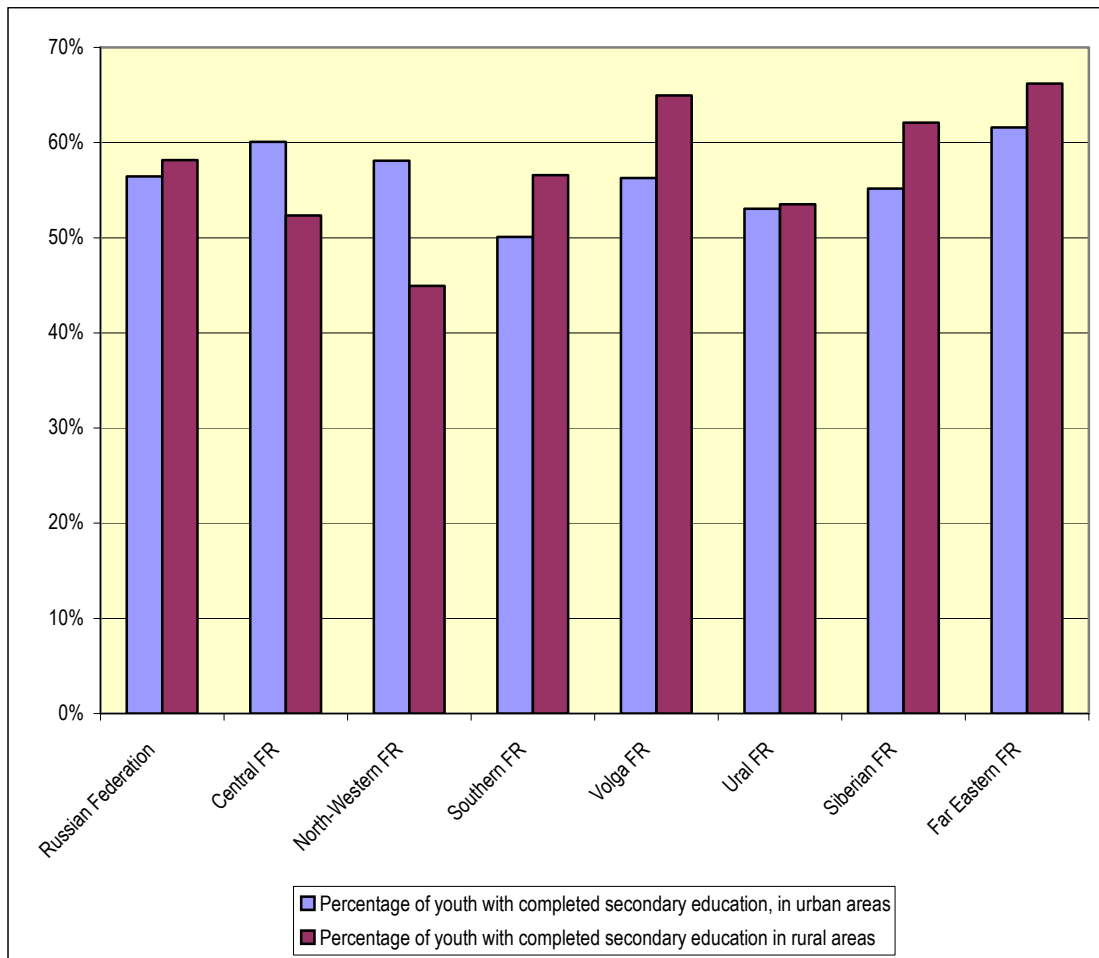


Figure 1.8. Percentage of young people in the 16-17 age group receiving full-scale high-school instruction, by federal regions and by urban vs. rural areas.

Considerable inter-regional difference in the percentage of young people receiving full-scale high-school instruction in various regions of Russia are complemented by sizeable variations in high-school education coverage in urban versus rural areas. The value of this index throughout the regions may vary by more that twofold both for rural and urban areas, and within the framework of the same region the difference in the percentage of rural and urban youth going to high-school can also reach 100%.

There is no relation, however, between intra-regional characteristics of the number of urban and rural youth enjoying high-school education (Figure 1.9): some regions show higher percentage for rural areas while other areas have more high-school students in urban areas. In approximately half of the regions, in which the percentage of urban high-school students is higher than the average value for Russia as a whole, the percentage of rural high-school students there is below Russian average indicator; in the other half of the regions, however, this relationship is reversed.

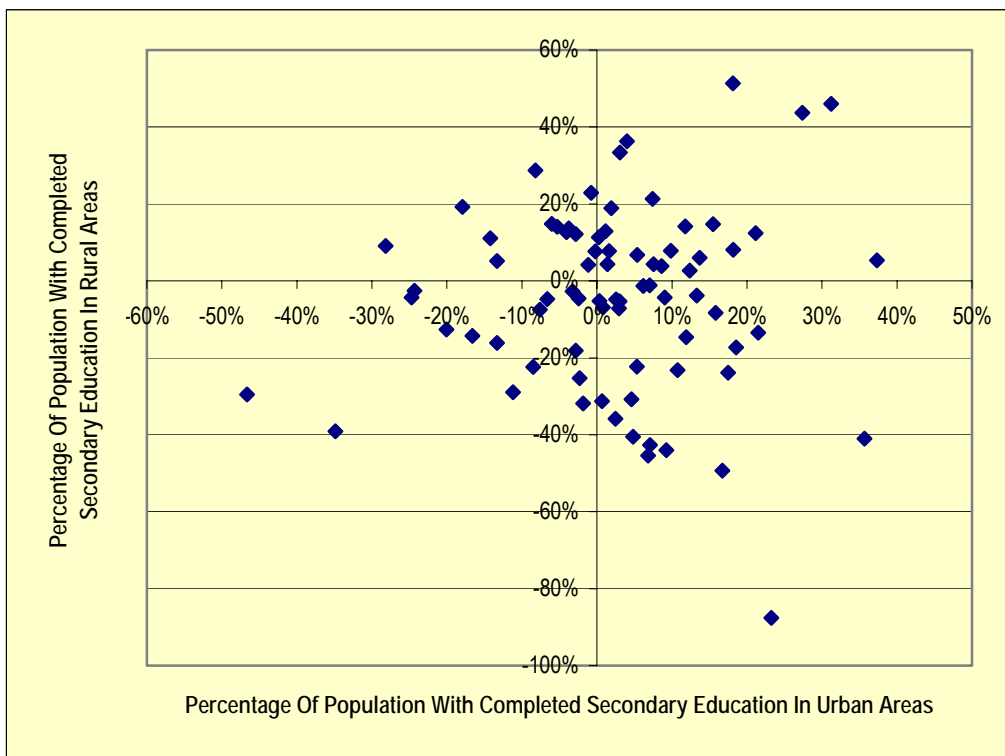


Figure 1.9. Percentage of young people receiving complete secondary education in urban vs. rural areas, by federal regions: deviation from the Russian average value is shown

If we try to assess regional differences in full secondary education coverage, some correlation can be discovered between social and economic development of the region and the percentage of youth receiving full secondary education within the relevant age group boundaries (16-17 years). Figure 1.10 shows quite clearly that the higher is the level of economic development of a region (as far as the *per capita* gross regional product is concerned), the higher will be the number of high-school students within a relevant age group.

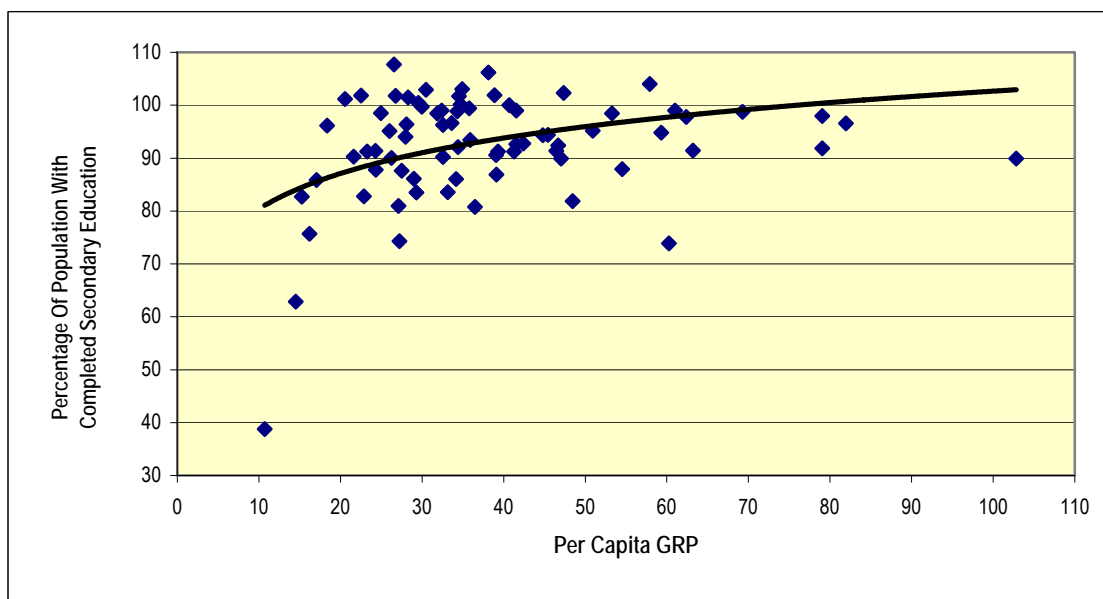


Figure 1.10. Level of regional economic development vs. percentage of population receiving full secondary education (all programs)

It should be noted that the coverage by general education programs is considerably less dependent of the regional economic development level than the coverage by professional (vocational) education programs that provide full-scale high-school level education as well (for example, studying in primary vocational education programs that provide a high-school certificate vs. studying at secondary vocational education facilities based on high-school education levels).

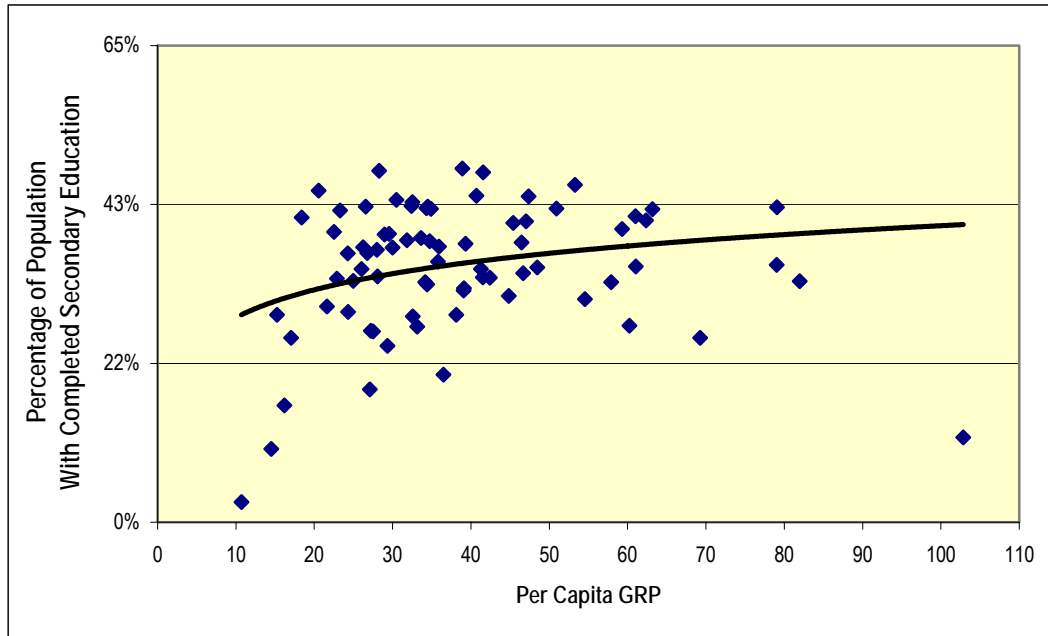


Figure 1.11. Level of regional economic development vs. percentage of the regional population receiving full secondary education using vocational programs

This makes it necessary to look closer into regional differences with regard to accessing primary and secondary vocational training (Table 1.4).

Figure 1.12 shows a large variation between percentage of population receiving primary and secondary vocational education, which provides a characteristic for assessing accessibility of such education to the population, by federal regions. Inter-regional differences with regard to this characteristic are even higher: professional (vocational) programs providing full-scale secondary education will cover young people in the 16-17 age group, by regions, with percentage values varying between 3 and 48% (while the Russian average value is 34%).

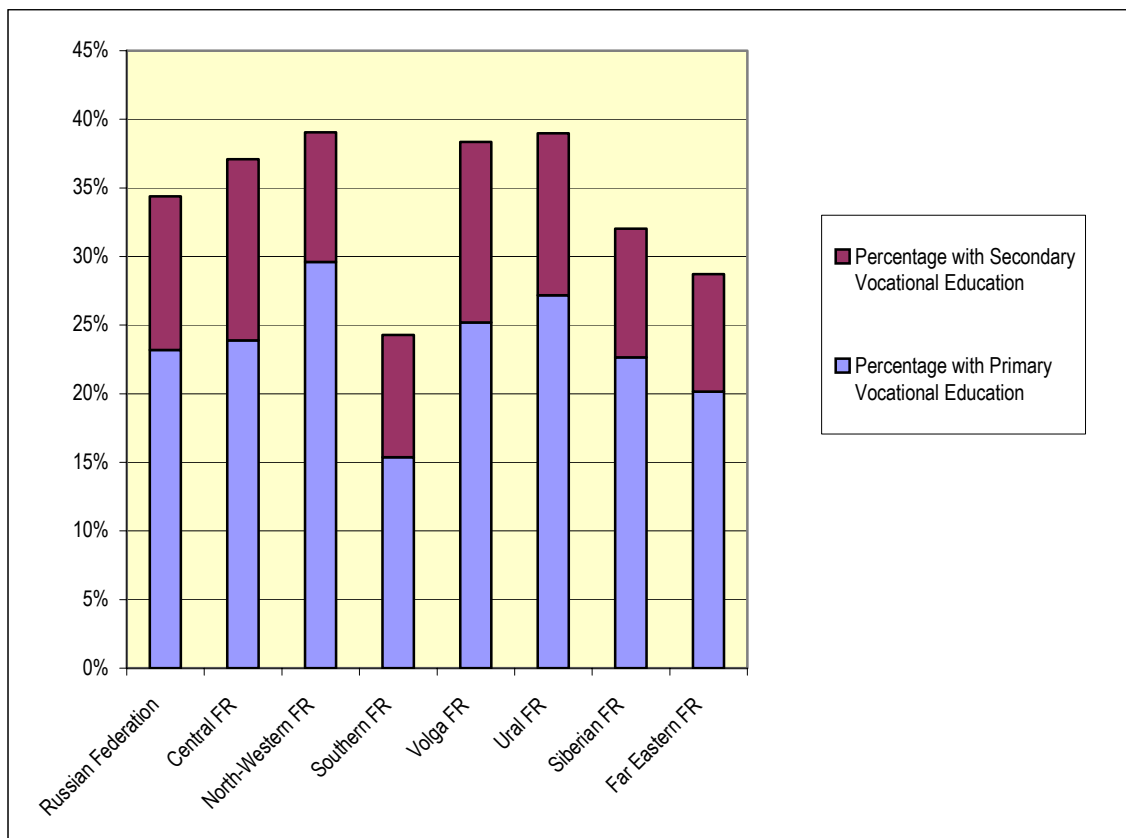


Figure 1.12. Percentage of the population in the 16-17 years age group that is provided with primary and secondary vocational training

As already noted, accessibility of education using general education programs (senior high school), where mostly those young people study that intend to continue their education in vocational schools of medium and high levels, are less dependent on the level of regional economic development. Besides, this indicator varies less by region than a corresponding indicator for vocational programs: it varies between 36% and 78%, while an all-Russian average is 57%.

The population is more and more conscious of the necessity of receiving education for the benefits in later life; many sociological polls have already proven that. Young people also experience more need in getting advanced education or additional education. Possibilities for receiving such education vary very much by region, and inside regions they also vary, by urban vs. rural areas and by the Oblast centers vs. smaller towns.

As will be seen in Figure 1.13, the share of students receiving their education in advanced level schools (such as a lyceum, a gymnasium, or a school with specialized advanced programs) varies quite a bit by region: from 2-3% to 44%. A certain regional polarization is obvious here as far as availability of advanced educational programs is concerned: this indicator is on rise in regions with a rather high level of coverage by advanced education and it has been decreasing in regions where it is anyway lower than the Russian average (Table 1.5).

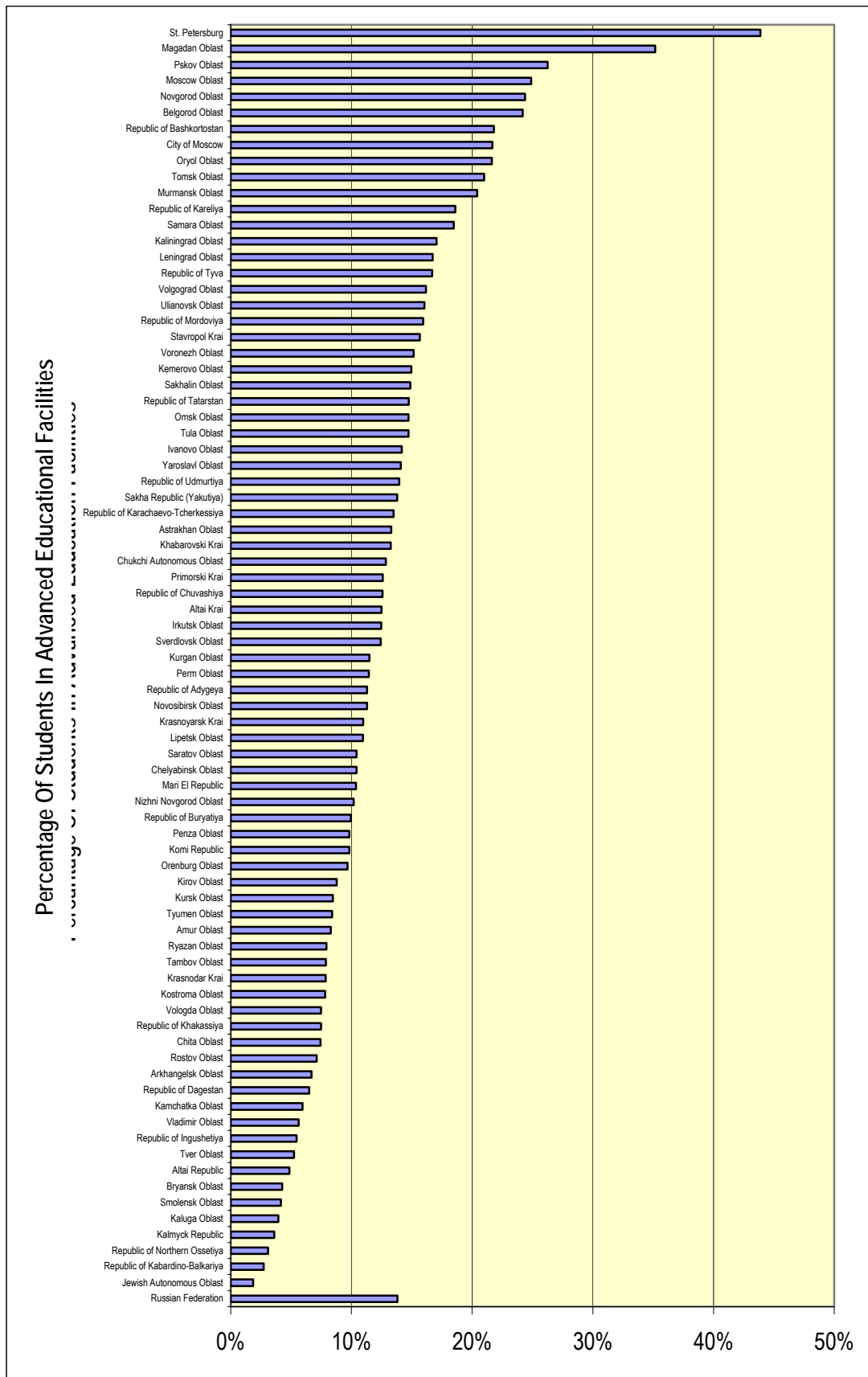


Figure 1.13. Accessibility of advanced high-school education by regions in the Russian Federation

It is necessary to note that a distinct relationship exists (with a correlation coefficient of 0.4) between the share of students attending advanced-level educational establishments and the level of regional economic development, which is characterized by the *per capita* gross regional product. This relationship, between the accessibility of advanced education and the level of regional social and economic development, can be quite clearly traced in Figure 1.14.

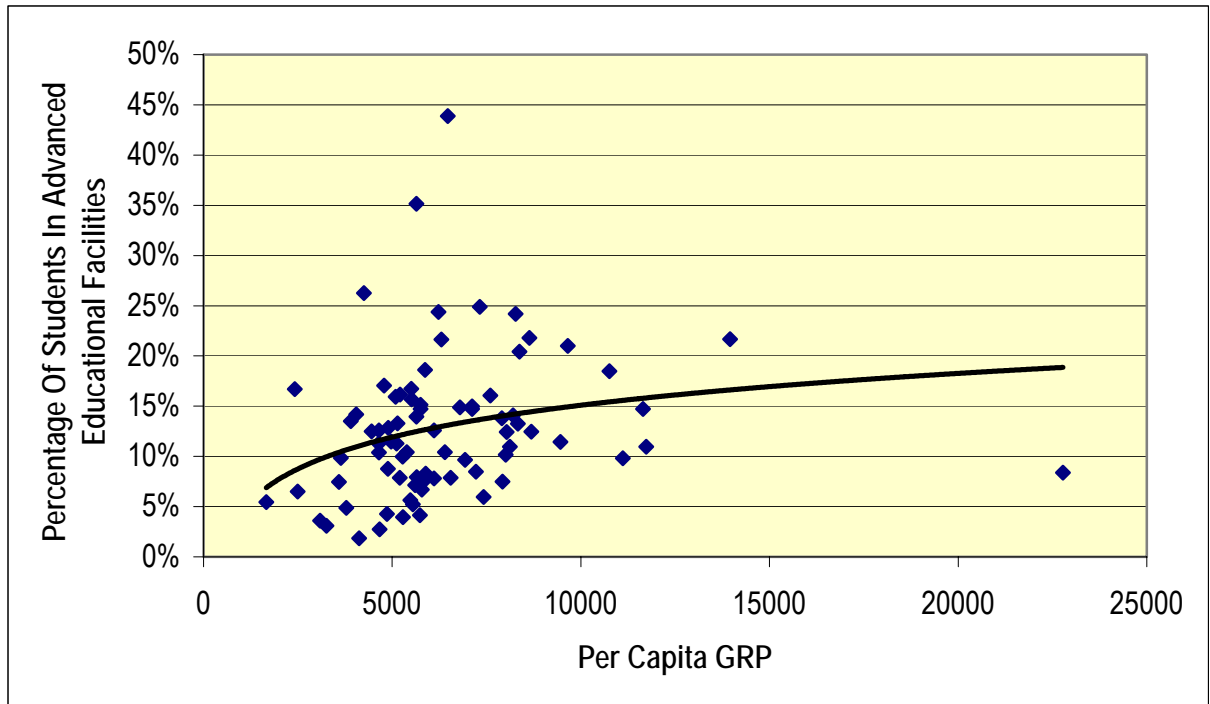


Figure 1.14. Accessibility of advanced education and the level of regional social and economic development

In Russia today, unprecedented accessibility levels for higher education exist today: in 2003 each high-school graduate could have on the average 1.2 college seats during the freshman year (Table 1.6); this has been secured by drastic expansion in the scale of higher-education establishments, on the one hand, and by the simultaneous drop in population of younger age groups due to a current demographic downward trend. Higher and specialized secondary education establishments accept almost 90% of Russian high-school graduates in the year of their graduation (64.9% enter colleges and 24.4% specialized secondary schools). Also, some high-school graduates (9.6%) go to primary vocational training schools.

Educational establishments for specialized secondary education and, especially, higher vocational training are, however, spread unevenly around the territory of Russia. They are mostly located in larger cities (Moscow, St. Petersburg, Tomsk, Novosibirsk) and in the Oblast centers or capitals of the republics. This is why people from other regions or those living in smaller towns and rural townships must spend additional money for transportation and especially for lodging and food (which are, on top of everything, more expensive in larger cities). Figure 1.15 shows the relationship of the number of senior high-school graduates and first-year seats in the Russian establishments of higher learning, by administrative entities of the Federation.

It is quite clearly shown in Figure 1.15 that the high level of accessibility of higher education in Russia is provided by a smaller, one-sixth, part of all Russian regions, which, consequently, creates for the young people living in such regions some special advantages.

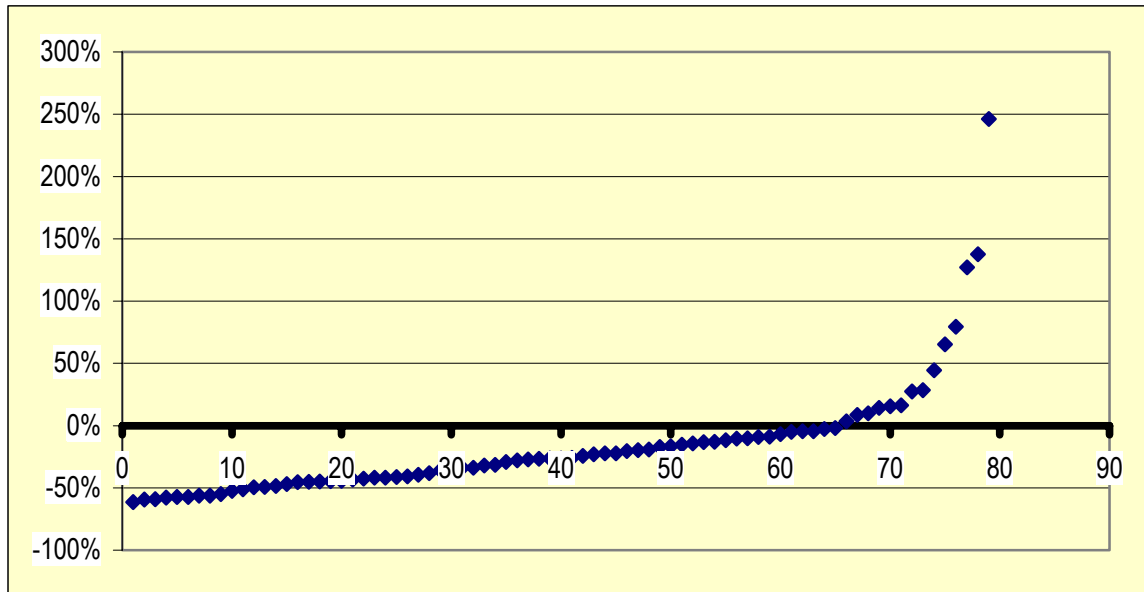


Figure 1.15. Relationship between the number of high-school graduates and available first-year seats in the Russian higher education establishments, by regions of the Russian Federation: deviation from the Russian average value

The ratio of the number of high-school graduates to the first-year registration in higher vocational education facilities varies quite a bit, if we consider the data spread by federal regions (Figure 1.16). It is very well defined in this chart that two federal regions – the Central FR, where Moscow is located, and North-Eastern FR, with St. Petersburg as part of its territory – show indicators exceeding the average value for Russia as a whole. For each high-school graduate in Moscow, there are 3.8 seats available in the first-year of daytime establishments of higher education, and in St. Petersburg 2.6 seats are available. It is also of special interest that almost a quarter (22.5%) of all students in daytime and evening education institutions of Russia study in Moscow and St. Petersburg.

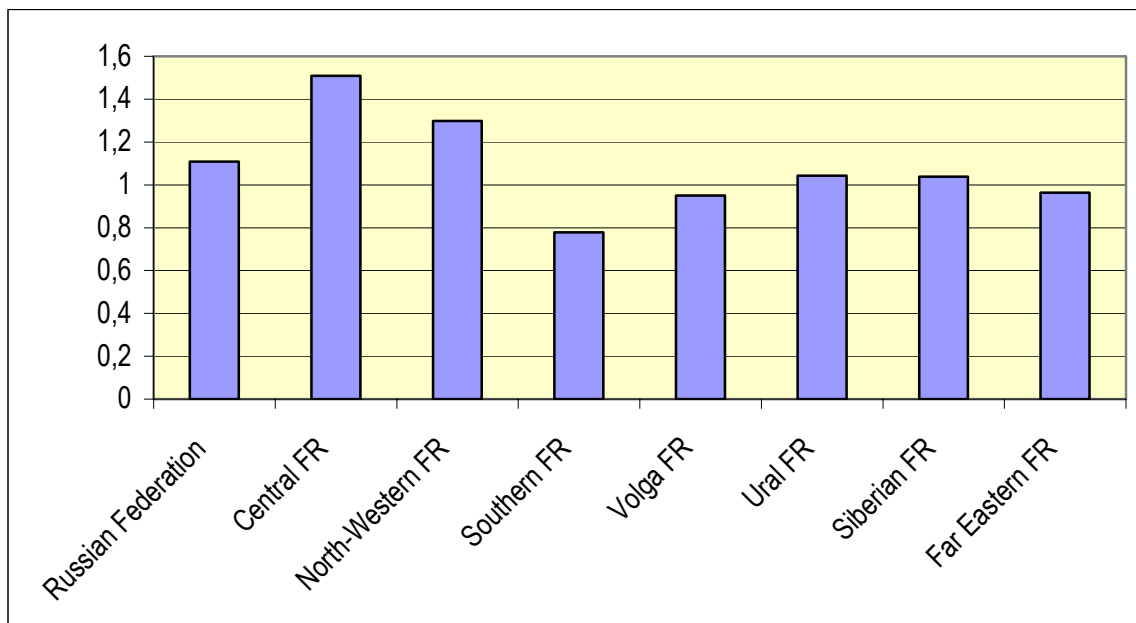


Figure 1.16. Registration in colleges, by federal regions, versus the number of high-school graduates

An important aspect of the issue of equal accessibility to education is the differentiation of the resources and, first and foremost, of financial backing of educational institutions. This approach, which is quite common in comparative studies of educational systems, assumes that equal resource availability for educational establishments will provide for the equal level (quality) of education, and differentiation of resource availability will characterize the degree of ability for having equal access to an education of a certain quality.

This approach if applicable in full to the general secondary education in the Russia as well as, for specific administrative entities of Russian Federation, to primary vocational education².

Financing of the general secondary education in the regions of the Russian Federation varies quite a lot: equivalent³ spending per student in 2001 varied from 2.7 to 7 thousand roubles, and the average for the Russian Federation was 5.8 thousand roubles (Table 1.7).

Population structure of a region will have a major influence on equivalent spending for education (expenses per one student): the more rural population in a region, the smaller are the schools and thus per student expenses are relatively higher. Comparing these results, however, shows (Figure 1.17) that there is no link between them. This means that in regions with a higher share of rural population relative spending for education is in practical terms lower than in more urbanized administrative entities of the Russian Federation, because the need in spending for education using schools of a smaller scale is, in per student terms, higher than in larger schools.

² Reliable estimate and comparison of expenses for education by regions is possible in full only with regard to secondary education, which is financed from the consolidated regional budget, and also for the primary vocational training system in 16 regions (they provide their own financing this type education by a special agreement with the federal center).

³ To provide equivalent data re budget allocations, appreciation rates for standard units of budget services were used.

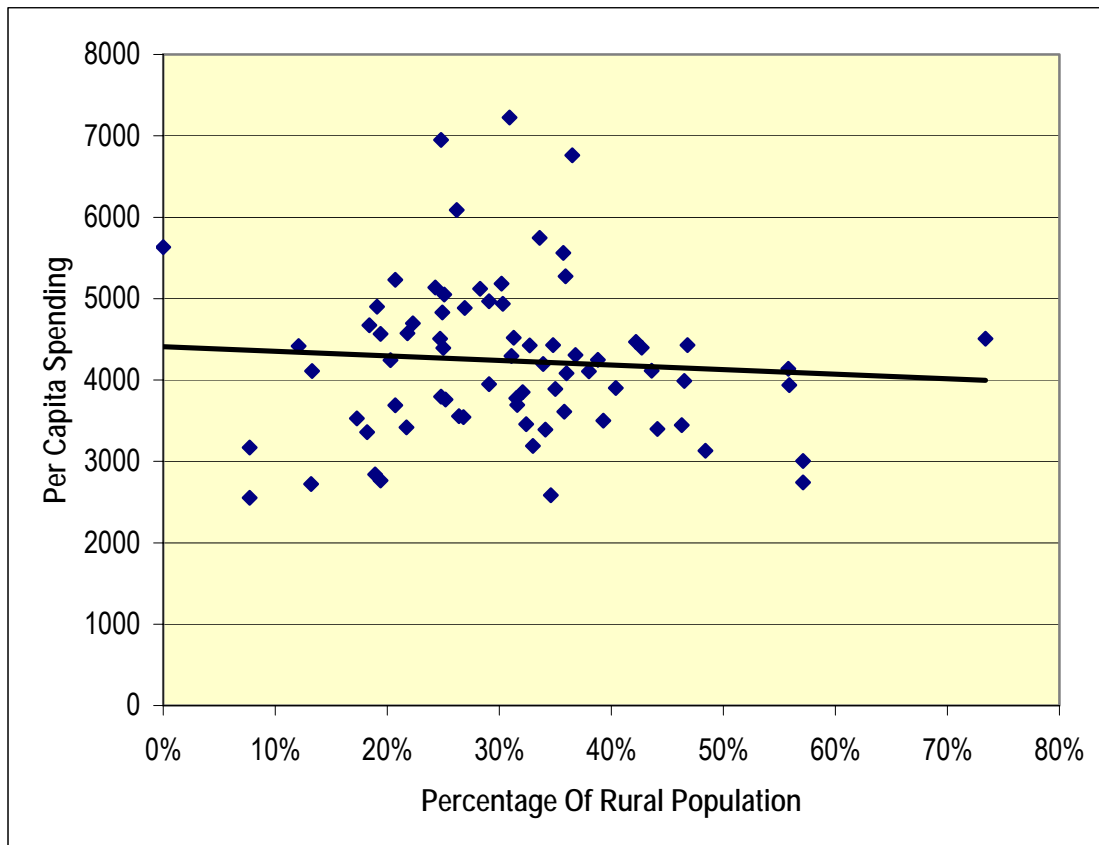


Figure 1.17 Population structure and spending in the general secondary education system (on the per student basis)

Analysis shows that the amount of spending for education (on per student basis) will depend much more on the level of economic development of a region (Figure 1.18). It is, thus, evident that the availability of resources for education (and, to a great extent, the quality of education) is differing quite a lot among the regions, and that effectively means that access to education of a certain level is not equal from one region to another, depending on the level of the economic development of a region.

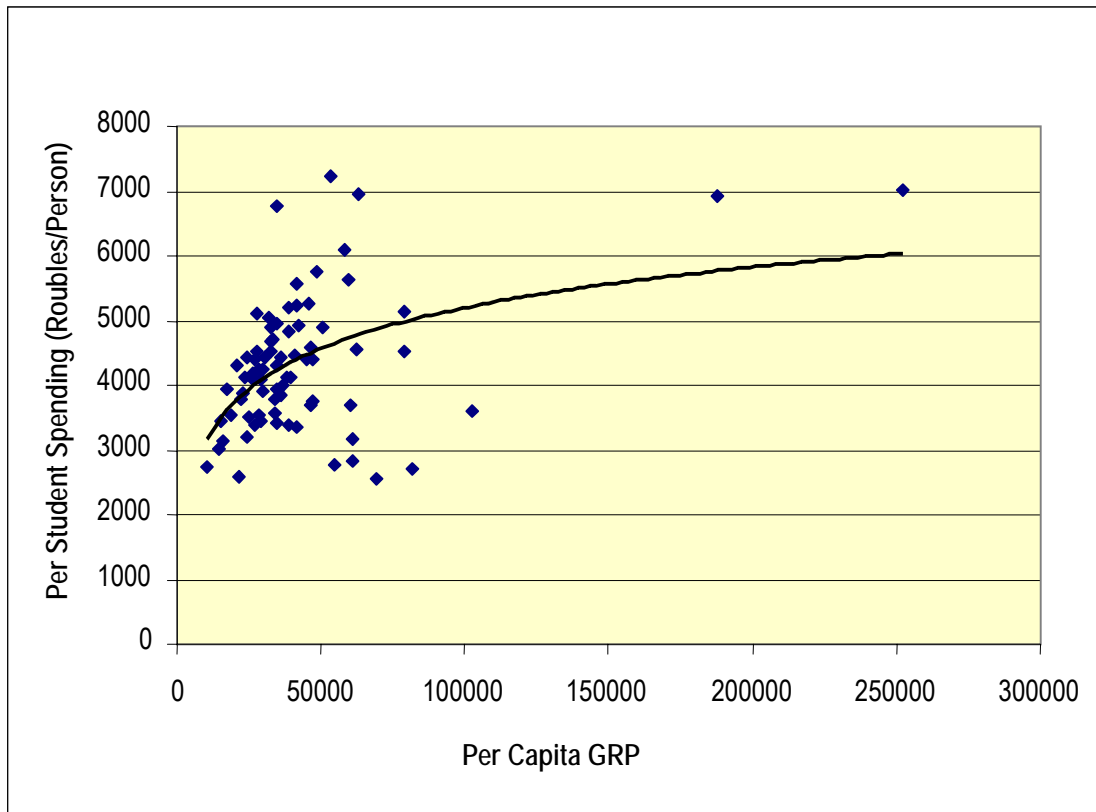


Figure 1.18. Per student spending versus the level of the region's economic development

This is easily confirmed by data on the availability of computer technology in the schools of different regions—see Figure 1.19.

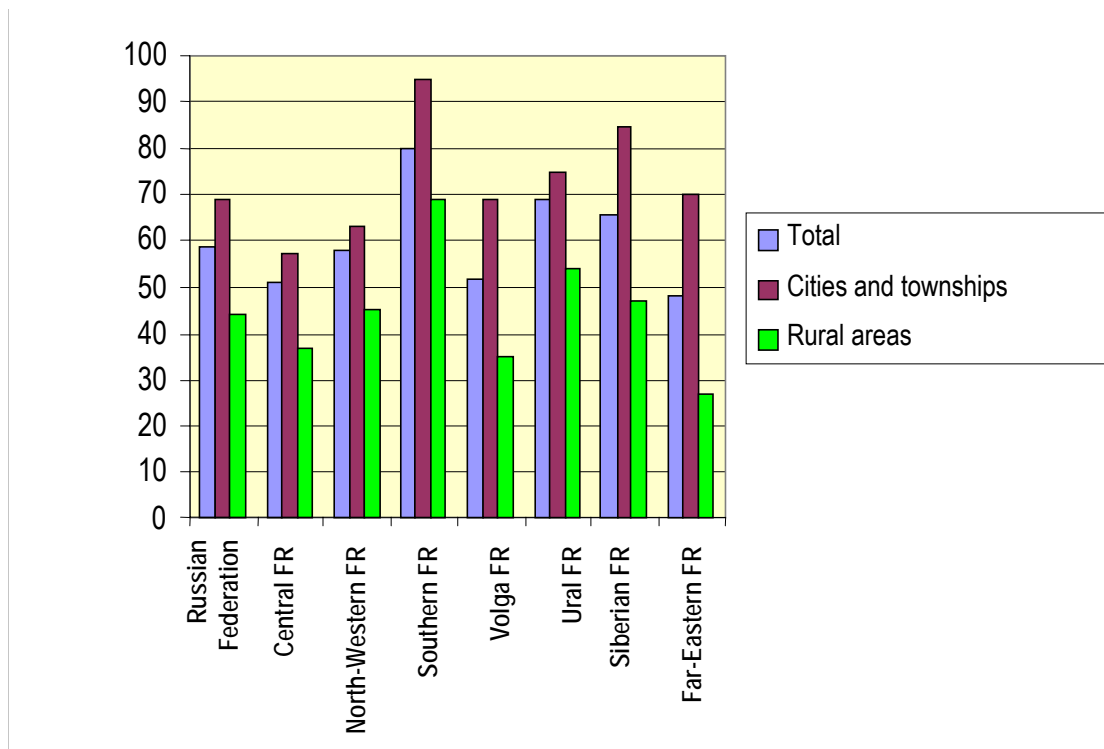


Figure 1.19. Number of students per 1 computer in general education establishments of various regions.

Figure 1.19 shows quite clearly that educational establishments have a very differing level of computerization. This practically means that the young people living in different territories of the same region are unequal in terms of their ability of having access to a key skill necessary in today's world: knowing how to use information technology. Inter-regional differences with regard to this indicator are even higher: between regions this difference may be as high as ten-fold (Table 1.8).

1.3. Quality of education

Russian participation in international studies (such as PISA and TIMS⁴) provides a certain understanding of the level of quality of education in Russia in comparison with other countries. Even though any rating is relative and even though comparing results between countries with different social and cultural traditions, education standards and models is a very complex matter, results of recent studies have raised a lot of concern among specialists and among managers of the Russian education system.

The main goal of the PISA study in 2003⁵ was getting an answer to the question: “Do 15-year-old students, after having had completed their secondary (compulsory) education, have sufficient knowledge and skills so that they would be able to function properly in a society of today?” The emphasis here is on the high-school graduates’ adequate, full-scale participation in the functioning of modern, post-industrial society: it will require of a graduate not simply to be exposed to a certain range of knowledge, topical, common-core competence and skills, but to be able to actually solve a whole range of problems (or to have had acquired a certain experience in solving such problems).

What were the results of these studies for Russian students?

Mathematical Literacy

In 2003 as many as some 70% of Russia’s students have shown skills that were allowing them using mathematics in accordance with the definition of mathematical literacy as defined in the study. In other words, almost 70% of Russia’s students were able to recognize the mathematical part of the situation offered for their attention, to analyze and to appreciate information from a single source, to use standard algorithms, formulas or methods, and to conduct direct reasoning. Only about 7% of these could achieve a higher level of mathematical literacy, i.e. they were capable of providing mathematical interpretation of a relatively complex and unfamiliar situation: for example, creating its mathematical model, conduct a fairly complex reasoning and offer a method for solving the problem.

In leading countries, the number of students showing a level of mathematical literacy on or above the second level comes up to 90%-95%. Of them, 22%-28% of students achieve higher levels of mathematical literacy.

It should be noted that just over 10% of Russian students do not reach the lower level of mathematical literacy. In leading countries, the number of such students does not exceed 2%.

In 2003, 15-year-old students from Russia made it to 29-31 place among 40 countries under study and in 2000 they took places 21-25 among 32 countries. Comparison of the results shown by Russian students in 2000 and 2003 indicates that there were no significant changes in the level of mathematical literacy over the last three years.

Scientific Literacy (Natural Sciences)

In 2003 results for the Russian students in terms of scientific literacy improved considerably as compared with the year 2000. It is worth noting that the improvement affected the gamut of Russian students, that is better results were shown both by the best prepared and by the least prepared students.

⁴ PISA – Programme for International Student Assessment, TIMS – Trends in International Mathematic and Science

⁵ Brief report First Results of PISA-2003 International Studies in Educational Achievement (Russian version is available at <http://www.centeroko.ru/public.htm>)

Russia scored 20-30 places among 40 countries in 2003, and in 2000 the result was 26-29 places among 32 countries.

In 2003, higher results in terms of scientific literacy showed about 14% of Russian students. They normally can explain various phenomena based on their models, analyze the results of previously conducted research, compare the data, and argue in favor of their position or for assessing various points of view. In leading countries, the number of such students is as high as 28%-33%. The number of Russian students that showed lowest results was 18%. Such students have difficulty in presenting simple knowledge (scientific terms, facts or rules); they are incapable of giving examples of certain phenomena, and use basic ideas to articulate conclusions. In leading countries, such results were shown by 6%-10% of students.

Competence In Problem Solving

Results obtained in 2003 in terms of problem solving ability show that 43% of Russian students have skills that “meet the requirements of the 21st century” to qualified work force. These students have an easier way with regard to becoming a active part of modern society. They can solve problems requiring an analysis of the proposed situation and making decisions with regard to clearly defined alternatives. 12% of these students have achieved the highest level of competence, i.e. they can approach the problem solving in a systematic way; take into account, at the same time, a large number of different conditions and limitations and find relations existing between them; structure and manage their thinking process at each of the solution stages; create their own solution and verify whether it meet all demands contained in initial conditions of the problem presented; clearly and intelligibly present their solution in an oral or other presentation.

The number of students “meeting the requirements of the 21st century” reaches 70%-73% in leading countries. Of those, 30%-36% reach the level of highest competence in problem solving.

It is necessary to note that almost a quarter (23%) of Russian students do not reach the set lower boundary of competence in problem solving. In leading countries, only 5%-10% of students are in this category.

Russian students got 25-30 places among 40 countries in terms of problem solving competence.

Reading Comprehension (Literacy)

Results with regard to Reading Comprehension cause a lot of concern: first, due to low quantitative indicators and, second, because of their negative dynamics.

As research data of PISA-2003 have shown, only 36% of 15-year-old students in Russia possess skills of comprehensive reading, which are necessary, according to developers of this method, for successful adaptation in the society.

A large part of this number of students, a quarter of Russian students, are capable of fulfilling tasks of medium complexity: they can, for example, generalize information available in various parts of the text; relate the text to their own experience; and understand information implicitly present in the text. High level of literacy (ability to comprehend a text), i.e. ability to understand complex texts, critically assess information presented, formulate hypotheses and conclusions, etc, demonstrated only 2% of Russian students. At the same time, 13% of students do not even reach the lower boundary of reading comprehension.

Results of Russian students in terms of comprehensive reading have gone considerably down as compared with the year 2000. The whole number of students that show the necessary levels of comprehensive reading has shrunk by 7% (from 43% to 36%). The number of students with a

high level of comprehensive reading went down from 3% to 2%, and the number of students that were not capable of acquiring basic skills went up from 9% to 13%.

Let us note, for comparison, that in the leader countries the general number of students showing comprehension reading skills at the basic level is as high as from 65% to 80%, and 12%-16% of those achieve the highest level. The number of students that were not capable of acquiring basic skills is between 1% and 8%.

In terms of Comprehensive Reading skills, Russian students were on the 32-34 place among 40 countries of the world in 2003, and in 2000 they got places 27-29 among 32 countries.

One of the goals of this study was getting access to information that would allow explaining differences in the results of its participants.

The study of 2003 makes it possible to compare results of testing by gender (Figure 1.20).

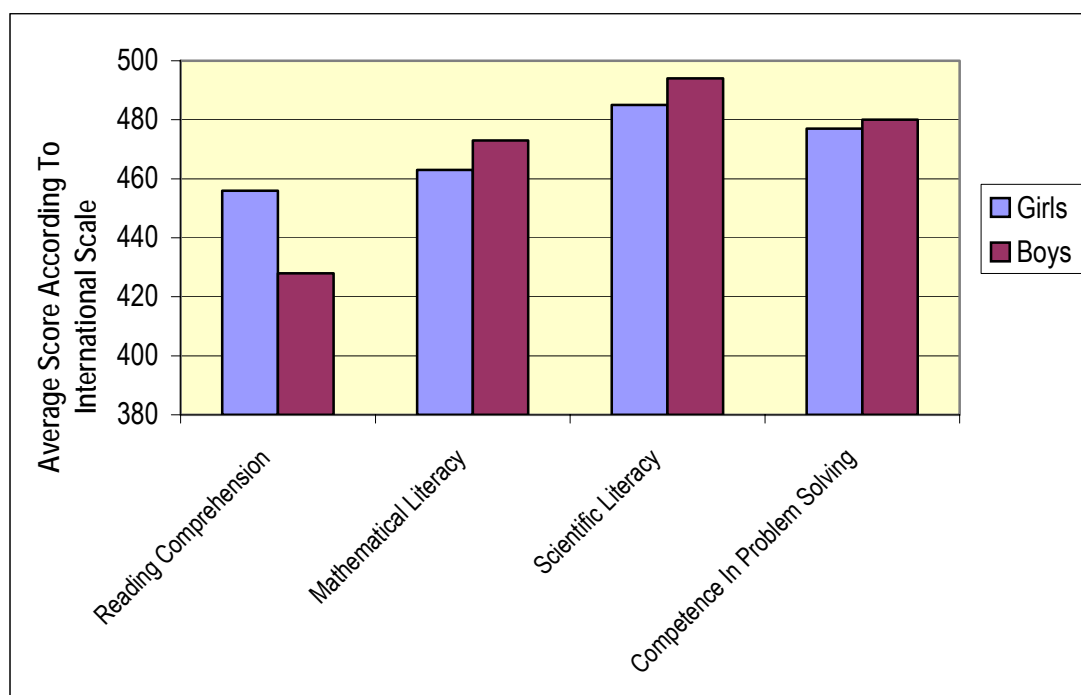


Figure 1.20. Results shown by Russian teenagers (young males and females) in the main areas of the PISA study.

In Russia, as in most countries, results for male teenagers in mathematical literacy are somewhat higher than those of female teenagers, even though such differences are not significant. This tendency in the results of Russian students first became apparent during international studies. As polling results have shown, teenage girls show, as a rule, less interest in mathematics than teenage boys. Boys also showed stronger average results in scientific literacy—which was not the case in 2000. In Russia, as in practically all other countries under study, teenage girls showed higher reading comprehension results than boys. In acquiring problem solving skills, however, there are no basic gender differences in Russia—just as in most other countries.

The level of functional literacy is defined in Russian educational establishments by three main factors: by the type of establishment, by its location and by the social and economic status of families where the school's students come from.

Higher results are shown in all direction of the study by the students of Grade 10 in general secondary schools, and lower results come from the students of rural schools and by primary vocational training facilities. High results in mathematics are characteristic for students of specialized schools (such as a gymnasium, a lyceum, etc) that are mostly located in megacities (Table 1.9).

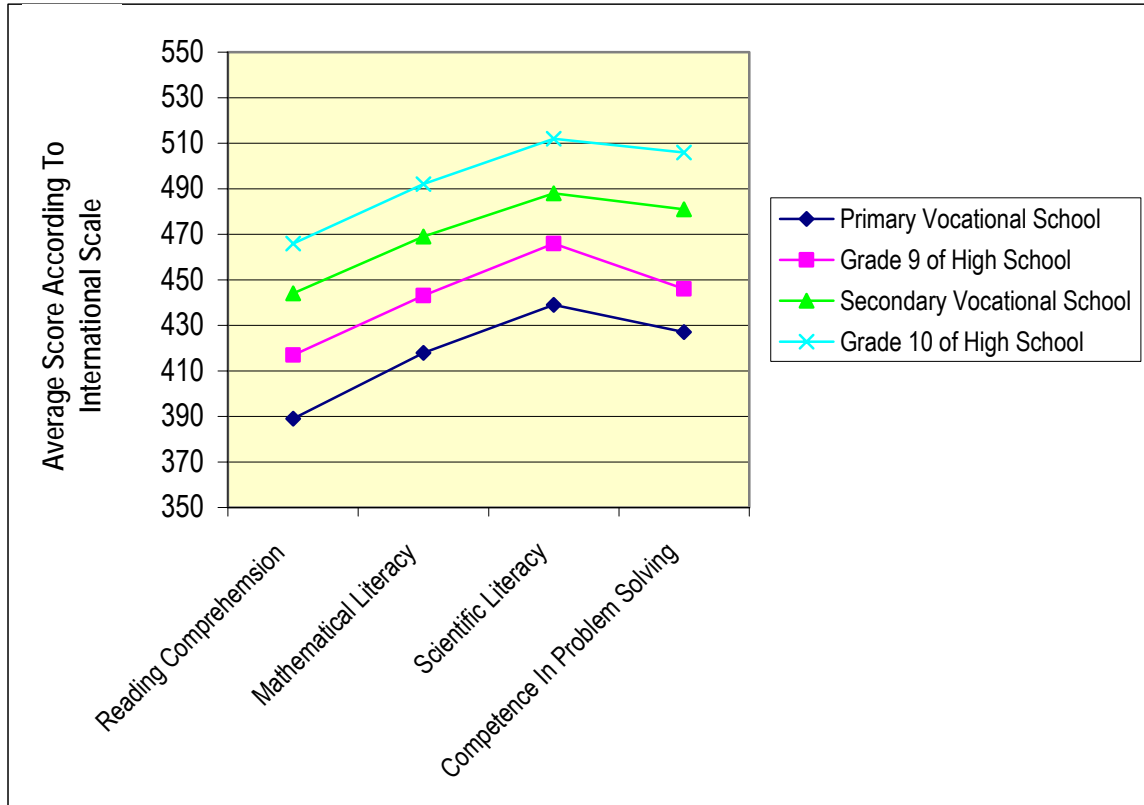


Figure 1.21. Results of Russian students, depending on the type of educational establishment

Demonstrated results also depend in a major way on the location of the students' residence (Table 1.10).

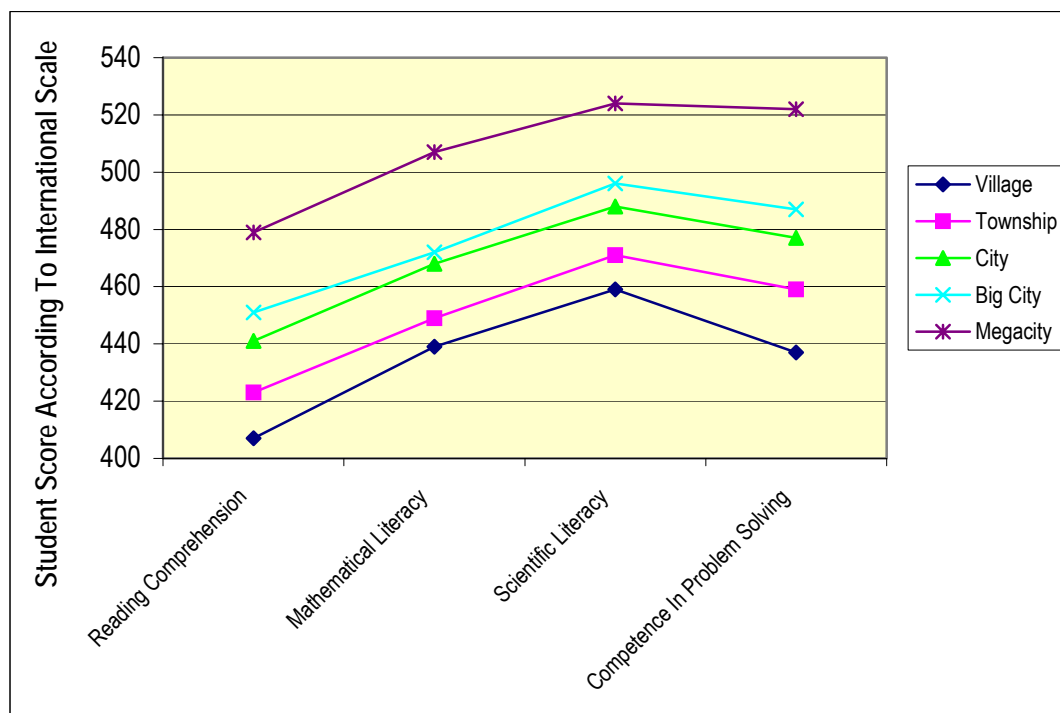


Figure 1.22. Results by Russian students depending on the location of educational establishments

The correlation of results shown by 15-year-old Russian students, depending on the type of educational establishments, on place of residence on, and social or economic status did not change when compared with 2000—this, first and foremost, tells of the a necessity to develop and implement an effective state-run system of supporting those students that do not effectively have access to quality education.

The data of the PISA study show that the results of 15-year-old Russian students are still, over a whole number of indicators, significantly lower than both the students' results in leading countries (Finland, Hong Kong, Republic of Korea, and Japan) and average results by students of the 30 OECD countries.

All this goes to prove that no concept has yet been developed and implemented in Russia allowing to keep intact traditions and advantages of the Russian educational system and to provide a smooth introduction of new priorities as part of the educational process—such priorities that would meet the requirements of the postindustrial information-age society. Russian schools offer a great volume of knowledge to its students (which is confirmed by the results of various studies), but they do not help create a skill of abandoning accustomed academic situations. Low results of this study show that most Russian high-school graduates are not ready to freely use in their everyday lives all that knowledge which was provided in school. At least not at the level of requirements that are inherent in existing international tests. In other words, Russian high-school students are much less prepared to exist successfully in real-life conditions than their peers from the industrially developed countries.

International studies of the quality of education do not allow for an assessment of differences in instruction results among the Russian regions. Since a national testing system is lacking in Russia, the only data that would help analyzing territorial differentiation of the quality of education are the results of the Russian Uniform State Exam (USE). It must be noted at this

point that the Uniform State Exam is in its experimental stage in Russia. This means that both its tools and its management and a whole range of other issues are not fully worked out. In this sense, the USE results should not be regarded as a means of ultimate quantitative assessment of the quality of education provided to the students, especially as applied to specific educational establishments. At the same time, the USE is an independent, sweeping and uniform way of assessing the students' level of education, and as such, it allows for a quite realistic estimate of general tendencies and trends.

USE results, in keeping with international studies of the quality of education, have shown that students in the urban areas and in rural communities have a sizeable difference in their level of acquired knowledge.

As far as the quality of provided educational services is concerned, it is significantly influenced by the level of economic development of a region and by the level of financing available for the general secondary education. It seems that direct comparison of regional education financing by looking at the per student expenses indicator would provide a skewed picture of reality. The financing needs will sufficiently differ depending on the conditions under which educational establishments operate: thus, expenses for educating one student in rural areas are 3-4 times higher than those in urban areas. This is, in our opinion, necessitates an adjustment of initial data about per student expenses. This would require taking into account appreciation rates for standard units of budget services⁶. In the same manner, the indicator of the degree of regional economic development (i.e. the per capita gross regional product) should be adjusted on a per region basis depending on the cost of the standard local consumer basket for goods and services.

When comparing federal regions by these indicators, it is obvious that a considerable differentiation with regard to the level of educational services.

Table 1.1. Average score across Federal Regions of the Russian Federation, as per Uniform State Exam (USE) results

Federal Regions (FRs)	USE Average Score (Russian Language and Mathematics)	Per student expenses (adjusted)	Percentage of rural population	Per capita GRP (adjusted)
Central FR	51,1	4,9	28%	45,0
North-Western FR	52,0	4,7	24%	43,8
Southern FR	46,0	3,7	41%	33,0
Volga FR	51,4	4,6	31%	40,7
Ural FR	49,1	4,7	30%	64,9
Siberian FR	45,1	4,0	35%	32,3
Far Eastern FR	46,6	2,9	47%	46,4

Analyzing indicators shown in this table and giving a sectional view of separate regions helps identify certain important patterns.

⁶ This factor reflects climate conditions, structure of population spread, transportation network and and factors, which affect higher expenditures for the social allocations—it is annually calculated by the Russian Ministry of Finance and used for decision-making purposes in distributing financial assistance to the regions.

First of all, that USE results – and, consequently, the level of training or schooling of high-school graduates – will directly depend on the level of education expenses (Figure 1.23).⁷ This relationship is statistically significant: the correlation factor between these two indicators is 45%.

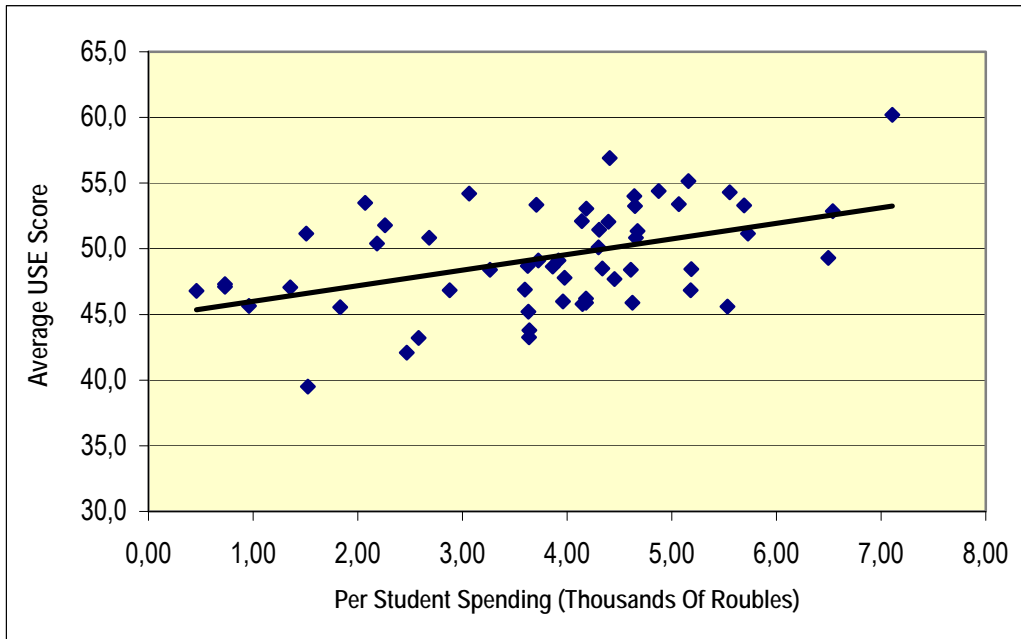
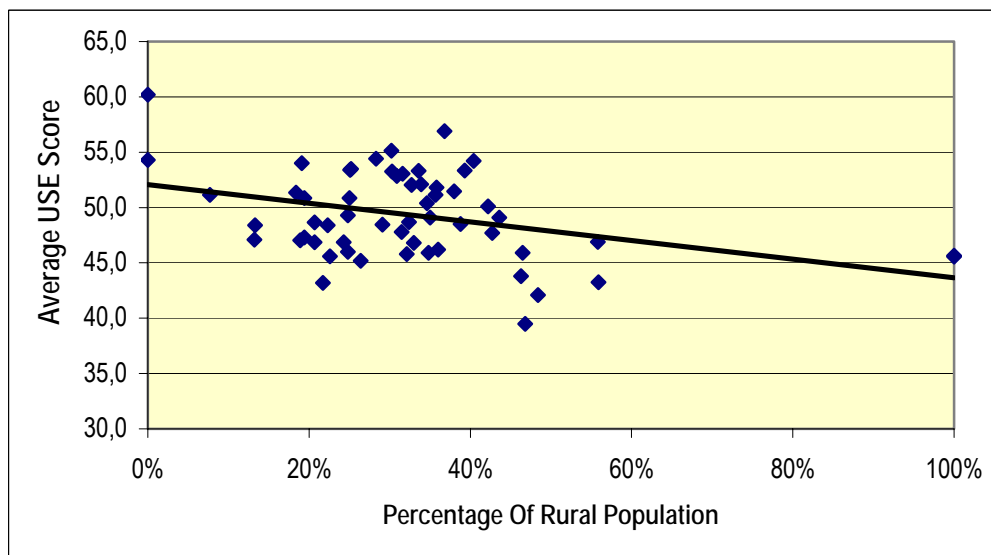


Figure 1.23. Quality of educational services and funding of education

The level of educational attainment is significantly influenced (even if to a lesser degree) by the students' place of residence (Figure 1.24): the correlation between the average grade in a region and the share of rural population makes up 35%. The same conclusions, as was mentioned above, were made following the results of international studies re quality of education.



1.24. Quality of educational services and population structure

Figure

⁷ It is necessary to point out at this juncture that international studies pointed out many times that the quality of education and the level of education spending are only loosely connected. It is perhaps true when comparing educational systems with different models, standards and levels of technology use. But within one uniform system of education this relation can be quite clearly noted for all levels.

There is a rather unexpected inference that no truly significant relation exists between the level of economic development and the quality of educational services being offered. This can be explained by the fact that, as we have seen, the level of educational financing playing a decisive role for the regional education quality is not dependent on the level of economic development of the region. In other words, it is not the needs of regions that define the regional policy of financing education, and not even their capacity, but priorities of the regional authorities.

Results of Uniform State Exam have partially confirmed conclusions made by international educational quality studies with regard to gender differences in levels of education (Table 1.11).

The quality of professional education can only be assessed indirectly: via indicators showing dynamics of social and economic development, rising income of the citizens, relationship of employment and education attained, international acceptance of local educational system and, in particular, showing attractiveness of a country's vocational system for citizens of other countries.

Issues of vocational education quality as seen through the perspective of personal success of the young people are discussed in Chapter 3 of this Report. In other words, we would like to find out how the level and the content of professional educational programs reflect the needs of modern economy and, correspondingly, how youth employment and adequate salary are provided. We will also discuss how attractive is Russian professional education for foreign citizens and how much this may constitute an independent, indirect assessment of the quality of vocational education.

Quantitative indicator for such an assessment is the percentage of foreign students in the general number of those studying in higher and secondary vocational education facilities. It is understandable that this indicator reflects not only the quality of education, but also many other factors, including geographic location. It will, however, provide a pretty clear picture (Figure 1.25).

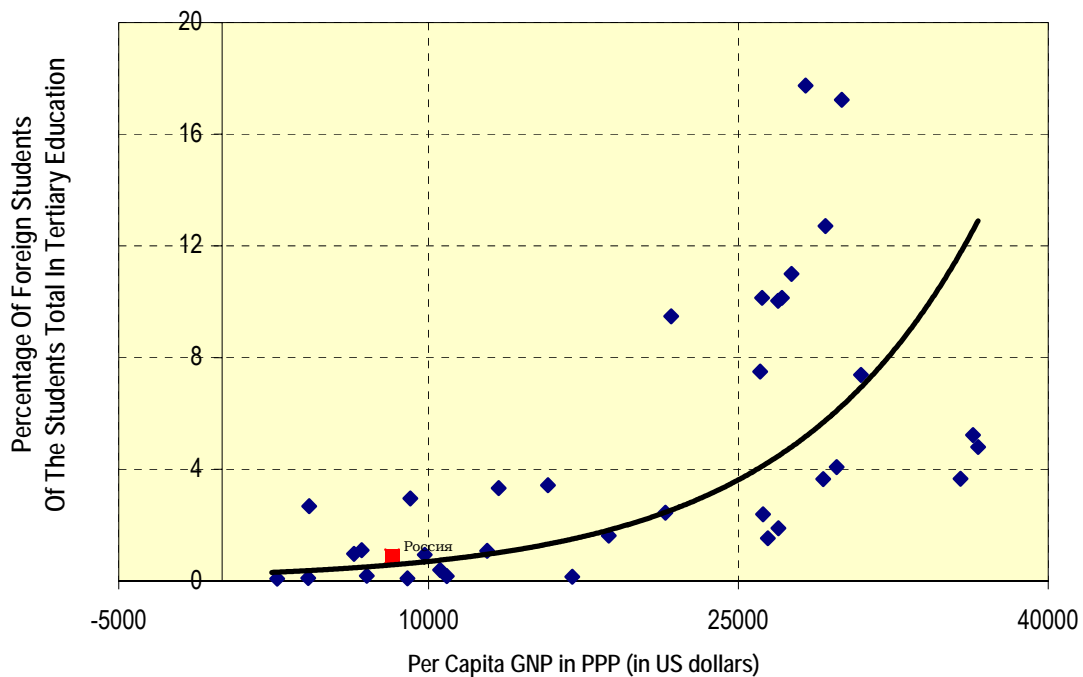


Figure 1.25. Percentage of foreign students in the general number of students participating in programs of tertiary education (Russia is shown by the red square).

For countries having a per capita gross income up to \$10,000.00 (as per purchasing power par), to which Russia also belongs, the median indicator of the percentage of foreign students equals 0.9% (Russia has the same value for this indicator). For richer countries (with a per capita gross income between 10 and 12 thousand US dollars), this indicator is 1.6% and finally for the economically most advanced countries it is 7.4%. Thus, we have to place on record that, unfortunately, the external assessment of Russian professional education is not very high and corresponds to the level of economic development of Russia. We also must be taken into account the fact that the percentage of foreign students in Russia is affected by some more factors and one of those is the level of security for foreigners residing in the country. We will look into this indirectly, as related to asocial behavior and to youth criminality.

2. Health

The young people's health is a national value. Health is a sine qua non condition for our personal development and happiness. The right to a pure and healthy habitat is not only a necessity, but also one of unconditional and fundamental human rights. For the most effective health preservation one also needs access to adequate information and education.

Teenage and youth are a period of overall transmutation - physical, mental and social. It is a time experimenting and new experiences, a time when young people choose the future life goals. Social and economic contribution to the youth health and development today may in the future make for decreasing poverty and promote national development.

So what is the true state of affairs today and what awaits our youth tomorrow?

Recent reviews of the young people's condition in our country have shown increasing number of injection drugs consumers (IDC) and other abusers (especially for alcohol and tobacco). The incidence of the sexually transmitted infections (STI) is in growth, and HIV/AIDS propagation has got a character of epidemic affecting mostly young people. In the Russian Federation 80 % among the HIV infected people are IDC.⁸ According to the different studies' estimations, among this category young people are from 70 to 95 %. Although the HIV is propagating mostly by the drugs injection, sexual contamination is wide spreading. That is why there is a huge need to solve these problems and promote healthy development of young people. It may be done through the open access to information and education, by teaching young people modern methods of health preservation and strengthening.

Youth and the HIV/AIDS prevention become a priority in the global goals for young people all over the world, including in Russia.⁹

Questions of the population's health care – of its various social-demographic groups and, especially, of the new generation – have got particular importance and acuteness in connection with the drastic social changes characteristic for 90th of XX century and still going on. Some studies results and statistics show that the state of health of the young generation in the Russian Federation is deteriorating.

The problem of the young people's physical and mental health deterioration has first of all a social character. The sharp decrease of the standard of living and poor quality of medical aid have led to deterioration of the population's health, to the growth of incidence of all groups of diseases in Russia.

On the average, in Russia, only 10 % of graduates of schools can be considered as absolutely healthy.¹⁰ The majority of artificial abortions are made in the age group of 15 to 24 years. Besides, in this category the number of commercial sex-workers is increasing that entails a growth of HIV/AIDS and others ICSW incidence.

2.1 Disease

⁸ According to the non-governmental organization East-West AIDS Fund, 2004

⁹ Entre Nous. European Magazine for Sexual and Reproductive Health. No. 58 - 2004

¹⁰ United Nations, Forum of the CIS «Youth of XXI century. Realities and prospects», April, 2003

The morbidity structure among young people in Russia in many respects is connected with the present social and economic situation in our country. In the infectious diseases causes' structure for the young Russians, the first place belongs to tuberculosis, HIV/AIDS and the sexually transmitted infections. Respiratory affections which incidence is steadily increasing are also a matter of great concern. Among the causes of the last ones, tobacco smoking comes in the first position.

Tuberculosis. Epidemiological situation in Russia.

According to the World Health Organization, Russia is among the 22 countries in which the situation with as to the tuberculosis incidence is considered to be the most serious. Tuberculosis incidence has increased in Russia since 1990 (fig. 2.1).

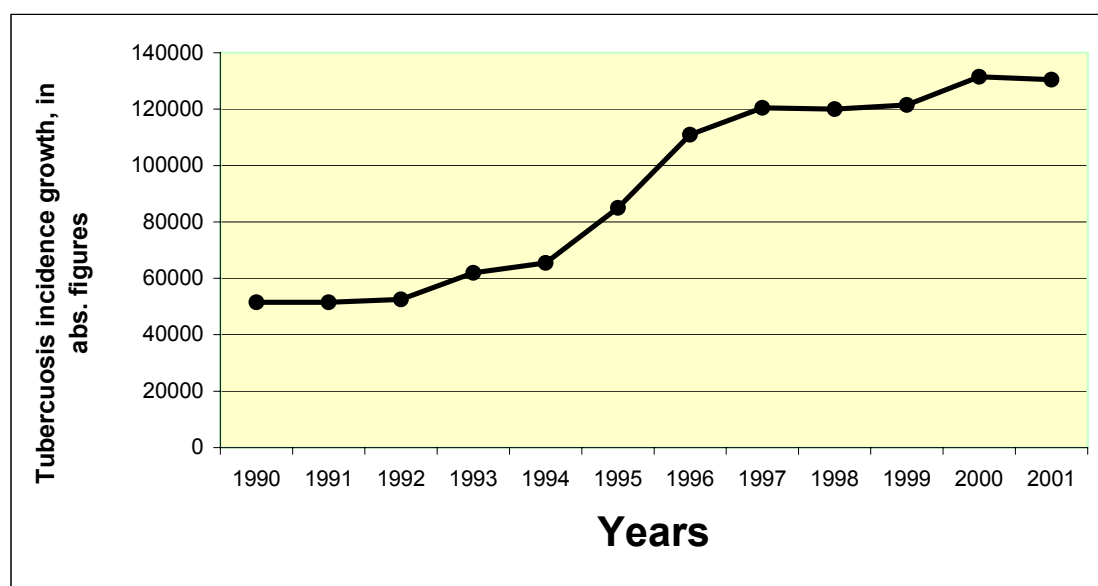


Fig. 2.1. Official data on tuberculosis incidence in the Russian Federation, 1990-2001 (According to the WHO and Ministry of Health of the Russian Federation)

During the last decade prior to 1990, there had been gradual decrease of the tuberculosis prevalence. And from 1990 to 2000 tuberculosis has more than doubled: from 34.2 (in 1990r.) to 90.7 (in 2000r.) per 100 thousand inhabitants: more than 130 thousand new cases in 2001. In absolute figures it looked as 52 thousand (in 1990) against 135.5 thousand (in 2000) (Fig. 2.1).

Now the Russian Federation has one of the highest tuberculosis death rates in Europe.¹¹ Tuberculosis takes the first place among the infectious diseases mortality causes in Russia, and this widely among children and young people from troublesome and needy families. The morbidity rate among children and teenagers has doubled within the last ten years: from 7.9 (in 1990r.) to 17.8 (in 2000r.) per 100 thousand inhabitants.

The increase of medication-resistant forms of tuberculosis is particularly worth noting – in 1999 10,5 % of the tubercular patients with elimination of bacilli had been diagnosed plural medicinal resistency – as well as HIV and tuberculosis combined infection.¹²

¹¹ Materials of the World Health Organization, 2004r.

¹² Kankov L.P. Tuberculosis in Russia in XXth century. Public health in the Russian Federation 2002; 3 : 20-24

HIV/AIDS Situation

Everybody on Earth is now concerned by the problem of HIV/AIDS. For the first time the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) has appeared in Russia in 1987 and today has enormously propagated as well among adults as among children and teenagers.

The problem «The HIV and the Youth » is being solved practically at all levels – from legal regulations development in the field of prevention and treatment of the HIV/AIDS, implementing of various international funds and organizations' programs and to the level of individual problems of every Russian citizen.

Much attention is given to the disease prevention among young people as this group is decisive in the HIV-infection's propagation. This is connected with the early beginning of sexual life, insufficient knowledge as to the contraceptives' use, methods and ways of the HIV contamination, as well as with the wide prevalence of the of narcotics use including injection drugs in this age group.

According to the Federal research and methodology center for the AIDS prevention and combating, on December, 1, 2004, there were 300332 HIV-infected persons; 341 AIDS-diagnosed in life, 5568 HIV-infected and 873 AIDS-diagnosed persons have died.

And the age group from 15 to 30 years old constitute 79 % of all HIV-infected men and 80 % of all HIV-infected women.¹³ (fig. 2.2. - 2.3.) Also, in Russia there is steady annual increase of women among the HIV-infected: 24 % in 2001, 33 % in 2002, 38 % in 2003, and 43 % in 2004. The most probable cause of this is growing number of cases of contamination by the heterosexual way.

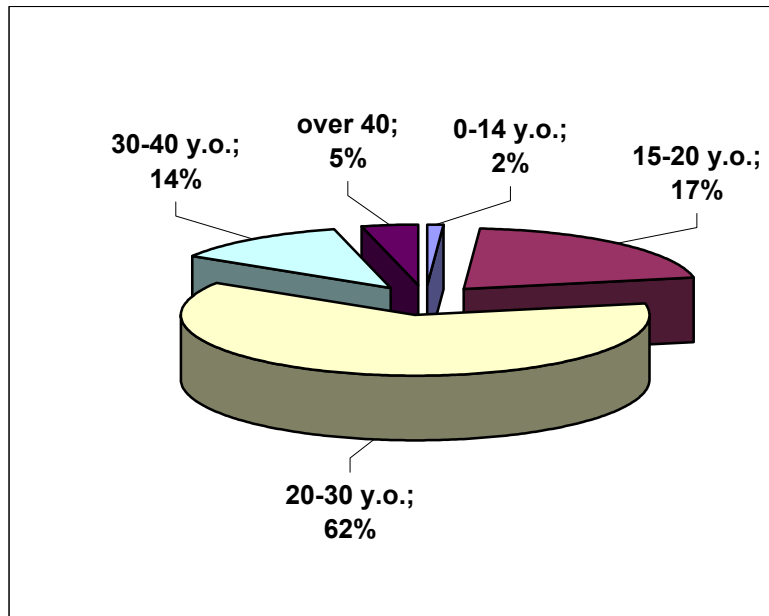


Fig. 2.2.. Age groups distribution among the HIV-infected men in Russia (12/1/2004)

¹³ Rul, Pokrovsky, Vinogradov V., Economic consequences of HIV-infection prevalence in Russia, World bank, May, 2002

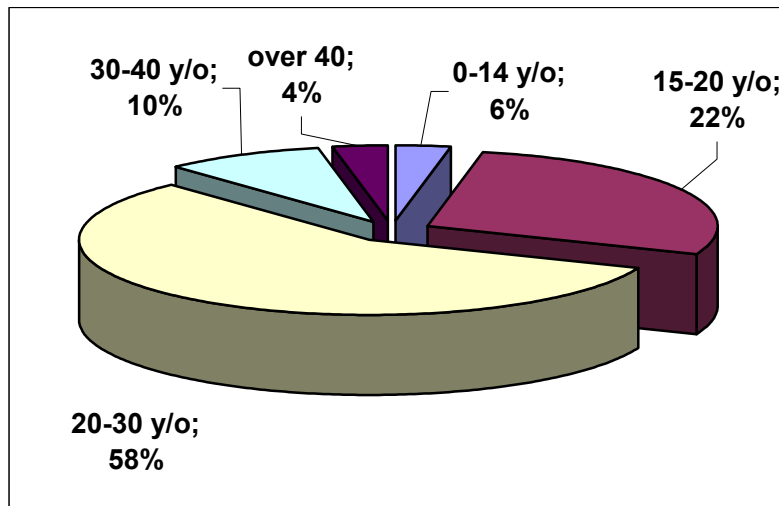


Fig. 2.3. Age groups distribution among the HIV-infected women in Russia (12/1/2004)

In Russia the number of officially registered people living with HIV/AIDS (fig. 2.4.) has increased from 24 in 1987 up to 300 332 by the end of 2004. Most of experts, including the WHO and other international organizations representatives, consider that the real number of the HIV infected is 3,5-5 times more than official data, and today in Russia there are over 1 million HIV infected - mostly among young people. In its recent bulletin, the Russian Federal center on AIDS prevention and combating forecasts that by the end of 2005 the number of the HIV infected may reach 1,5 million (5 million, according to the estimations published by the Open Institute of Population Health - http://www.ohi.ru/files/ngo_eng_globe.doc). In this connection it is very difficult to say why there is now a decrease of the number of new cases, since 2002: either it is due to the registration and account problems or to an objective tendency.

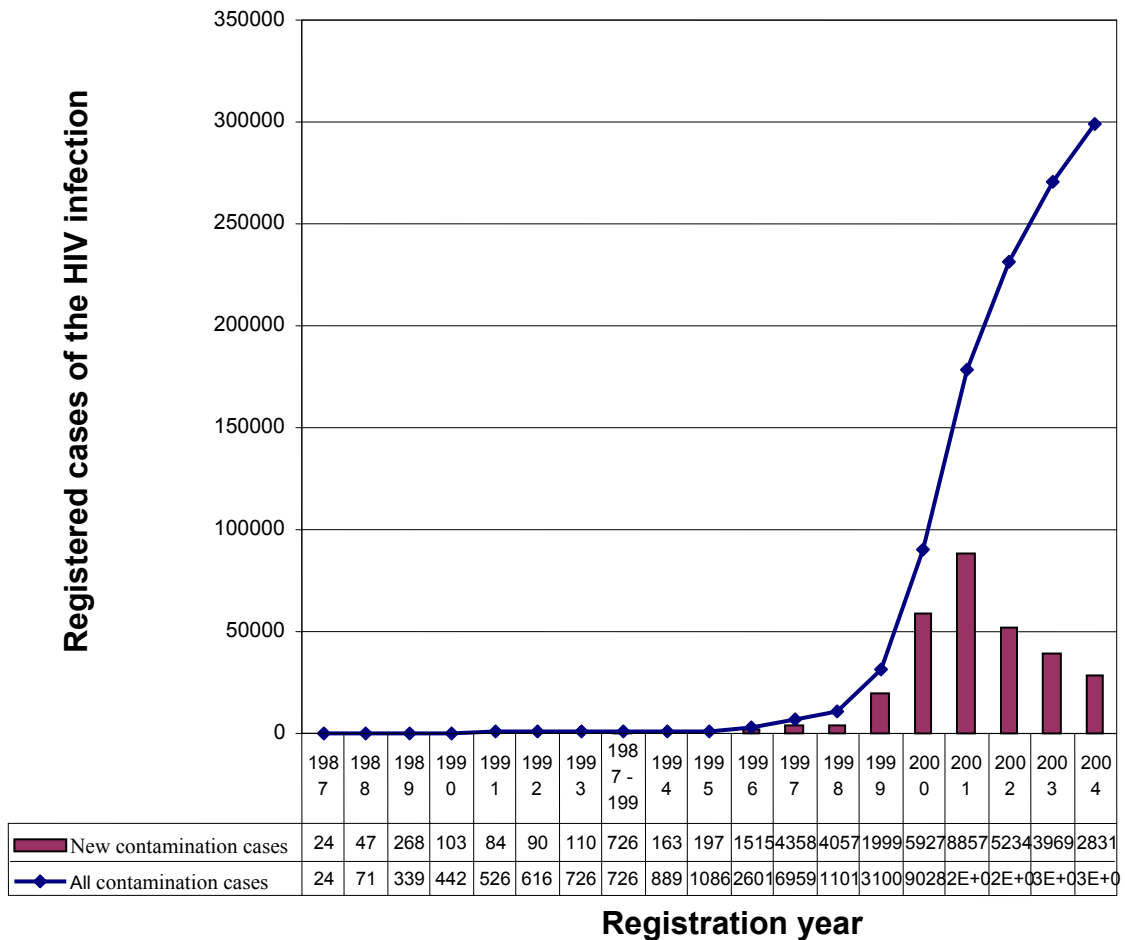


Fig. 2.4. Officially registered cases of HIV-infection in the Russian Federation, from January, 1st, 1987 - to November, 1st, 2004 (according to the Federal research and methodology centre for AIDS prevention and combating, RF Health Ministry)

According to the RF Health Ministry's Federal research and methodology centre for AIDS prevention and combating, there are considerable regional distinctions in the HIV infection prevalence:

On June, 1st, 2004 there were HIV-infected Russian citizens registered in 88 subjects of the Russian Federation. 12 subjects of the RF where live 24 % of all the Russian population have a very high incidence rate – 301-620 HIV+ per 100 thousand inhabitants. 11 subjects of the RE (19% of all population of Russia) are considered as territories with a high HIV incidence rate– 151-300 HIV + per 100 thousand. 23 subjects of Federation (28 % of the population of Russia) have an average incidence rate – 51-150 HIV+ per 100 thousand inhabitants of Russia. In 43 RF subjects (29 % of the population of Russia) are territories with a low HIV incidence rate – 1-50 HIV+ per 100 thousand.

These data indicate that in some regions the epidemic prevalence level is considerably lower than in the others. According to the official data, the average HIV incidence in the country is 204, 8 cases per 100 thousand persons.

The majority of the HIV-infection cases occur to young injection drugs consumers (IDC) through the sharing of injection equipment. In the same time the sexual way of HIV contamination becomes today more and more actual. The rate of epidemic propagation by heterosexual way,

as shown in the fig. 2.5., have increased up to 23 % in 2004 from 4,7 % in 2001. The number of cases due to the use of injection drugs has respectively decreased from 92,9 % in 2001 to 56 % in 2004. In 2004, they have registered the alarming fact: a significant growth of the disease incidence among children born from HIV positive mothers. This indicator has reached 21 % from all the new HIV-infections cases' number registered in 2004 (for comparison, in 2001 this was 2,2 %).⁸

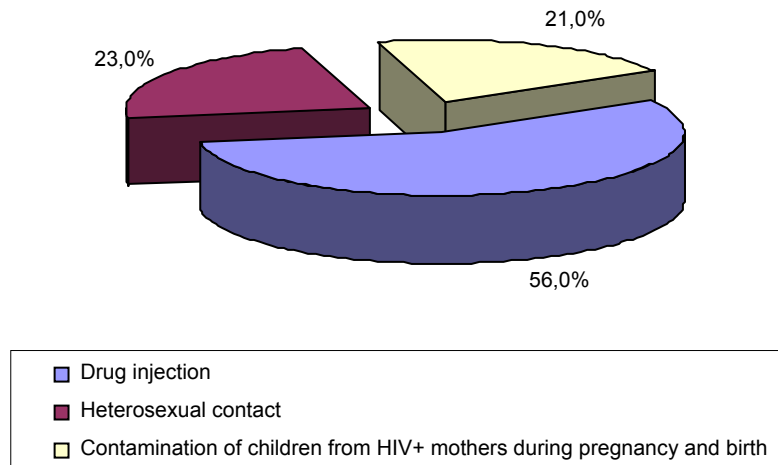


Fig. 2.5. Distribution of cases of HIV-infection among citizens of the Russian Federation on major factors of risk in %, 2004. (according to Russian federal AIDS of the center)

The current development of the HIV/AIDS epidemic in Russia among young generation (as a rule, defined by experts as the early stage of epidemic development) may have most catastrophic consequences not only for the all population's health, but also for social stability and economic growth of the country. Due to a comparatively late onset of the HIV/AIDS in the Soviet Union – in 1987 – combined with a somewhat isolated position of the country in the world arena, the level of knowledge of the public health services' staff, influential politicians and population as to the questions related to the HIV/AIDS proved to be very low.

In 2001 Russia has signed the Declaration on adherence to the HIV/AIDS combating, adopted by a special session of the United Nations General Assembly, which urges to develop and finance a complex national strategy of HIV/AIDS combating. In May, 2002 Russia has joined other CIS countries and signed the declaration on the importance of the HIV/AIDS combating.

In September, 2002 the RF Ministry of Health has signed the Order on strengthening the control of the HIV prevalence in the territory of the Russian Federation. This was the first official high level document emphasizing the necessity to pay attention to the injectionx drugs consumers (IDC), commercial sex-workers (CSW) and prisoners¹⁴. The document recognized programs aimed at reducing harm from the injection drugs use to be an effective HIV prevention strategy.

At the same time, till now questions of HIV/AIDS combating in the national policy and were not beyond the limited efforts undertaken by the various ministries.

¹⁴ See http://www.ohi.ru/files/ngo_eng_globe.doc

Efforts made by the Russian government to combat HIV/AIDS are insufficient for a number of reasons.

First, many still do not consider the HIV/AIDS situation as a serious problem: despite the increasing rate of the epidemic growth, the HIV/AIDS infection affects less than 1 % of the adult population that is low enough in comparison with the Central and Southern Africa, Asia and the Caribbean states.

Secondly, the epidemic grows essentially due to the contagion among the injection drugs consumers – a group rejected by all social strata and whose behavior implies high HIV contagion risks. In this context injection drugs consumers are quite often perceived as defective members of social subjects, therefore «so far as the society is directly concerned» the problem does not seem to really exist.

Thirdly, till now political activity aimed at the public interests' protection as concerns the HIV/AIDS has not been connected with the existing scientific proofs, and human rights promotion has given only limited results. Thus, until recently – from the political point of view – it was difficult to organize effective large-scale programs as, according to a widespread opinion, the problems which they are capable to solve concern only a small social group with a rather limited social influence and value.

Mass inspection of the population to detect HIV antibodies was considered and remains one of the main ways to combat the HIV/AIDS epidemic in the Russian Federation. Officially such a testing should be voluntary, except for blood-donors, foreigners, some groups of prisoners and representatives of some trades which are exposed to the risk of HIV infection due to their professional activity. At the same time, in many regions of Russia there are obligatory scheduled inspections on HIV antibodies – often with no pre- and post-test consultations – for people whose behavior implies high contagion risk: injection drugs consumers, commercial sex-workers, people subject to sexually transmitted diseases, and pregnant women.

From the economic point of view, secondary diseases, and subsequently AIDS as well, in due course lead to a reduction of participation in labour activity of the young generation which under other circumstances would participate in labour activity much longer and (or) would continue to contribute to the human capital and professional knowledge and skills' augmentation.

To support and provide care for people subject to HIV/AIDS and their families, a complex medical and social infrastructure is necessary. The existing system of public health quite often proves to be too bulky and has no due financing. It leads to a shortage of medical materials and medicines, inadequate schemes of treatment that, in turn, may have negative effect on professional possibilities and moral condition of public health workers.

For a long time HIV and other STI problems were considered independently from each other. In many people's mind these problems still have no crossing points. Actually, the HIV/AIDS epidemic and the STI are closely interconnected.

Sexually transmitted infections (STI)

During the last decade prevalence of the sexually transmitted infections (STI) has considerably increased in vast territories of Central and Eastern Europe. In particular, the syphilis has reached an extremely high rate in several CIS countries: in 1997 in the Russian Federation it was of 262 per 100 000 inhabitants, and in Kazakhstan – 245 (for comparison, in Western

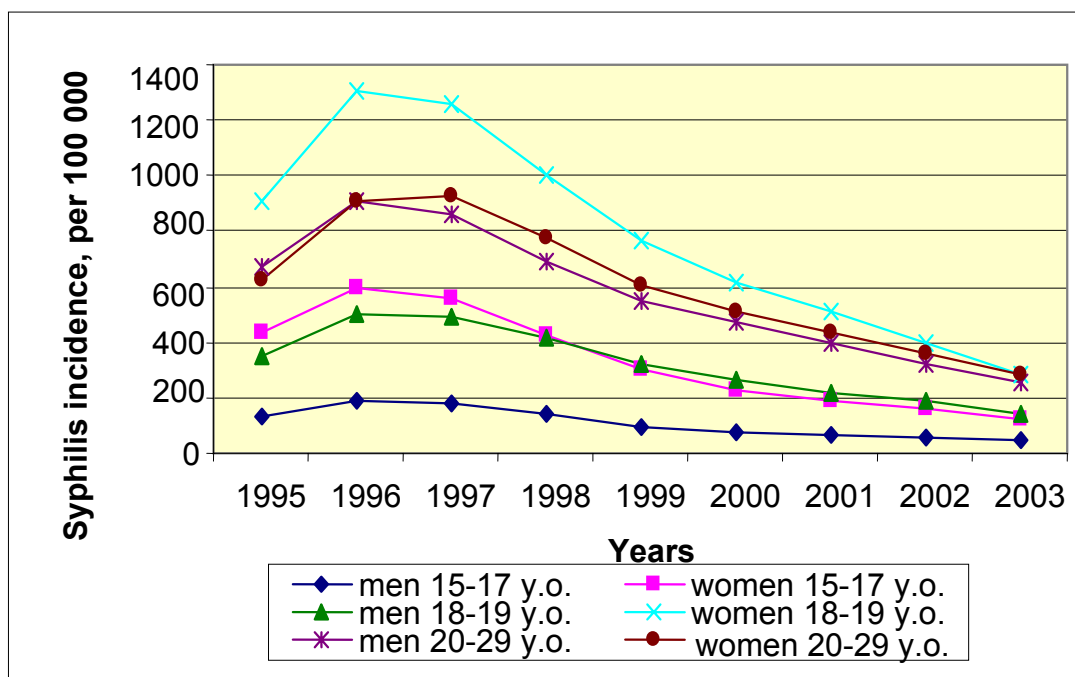
Europe it is of 0,7).¹⁵ The STI problem has got particular acuteness in the teenage group where the STI prevalence is even higher than among the population as a whole.¹⁶

According to the WHO, 340 million new cases of syphilis, gonorrhoea, chlamydia and trichomoniasis has been registered all over the world among men and women in the 15-49 y.o. age group.

Epidemiological reviews show that the STI are not spreading uniformly among different population groups. The distinctions are based on the variety of social, cultural, and economic factors and the difference of access to medical aid for different population groups. So, for example, STI prevalence is higher in cities and among unmarried young people. Most likely, this can be explained by the distinctions in the number of sexual contacts and sexual partners.

There are more than 20 diseases essentially transmitted by sexual way. Although they can be effectively treated, the STI still remain a serious problem for the public health system. First, it is very complex to estimate the real STI prevalence and rate because the data on the number of applications are often underreported. Secondly, both symptomatic and asymptomatic STI can bring about serious complications with heavy consequences for the person affected and a whole population as well. Besides, the STI increase the risk to contract HIV-infection by sexual way. Undiagnosed and untreated STI can increase the risk of HIV-infection contracting and transmitting up to 10 times.

The highest illness-rates are observed among men and women of 15-35 y.o. – the most sexually active age group. On the average, women's STI contamination age is lower in comparison to men.



¹⁵ Vannappagari, Vani, and Robin Ryder. "Monitoring Sexual Behavior in the Russian Federation: The Russia Longitudinal Monitoring Survey 2001."

¹⁶ Global prevalence and incidence of selected curable sexually transmitted infections/Overview and estimates. WHO, 2001

Fig. 2.6. Dynamics of the syphilis prevalence among 15 – 29 y.o. in Russia, per 100 thousand inhabitants

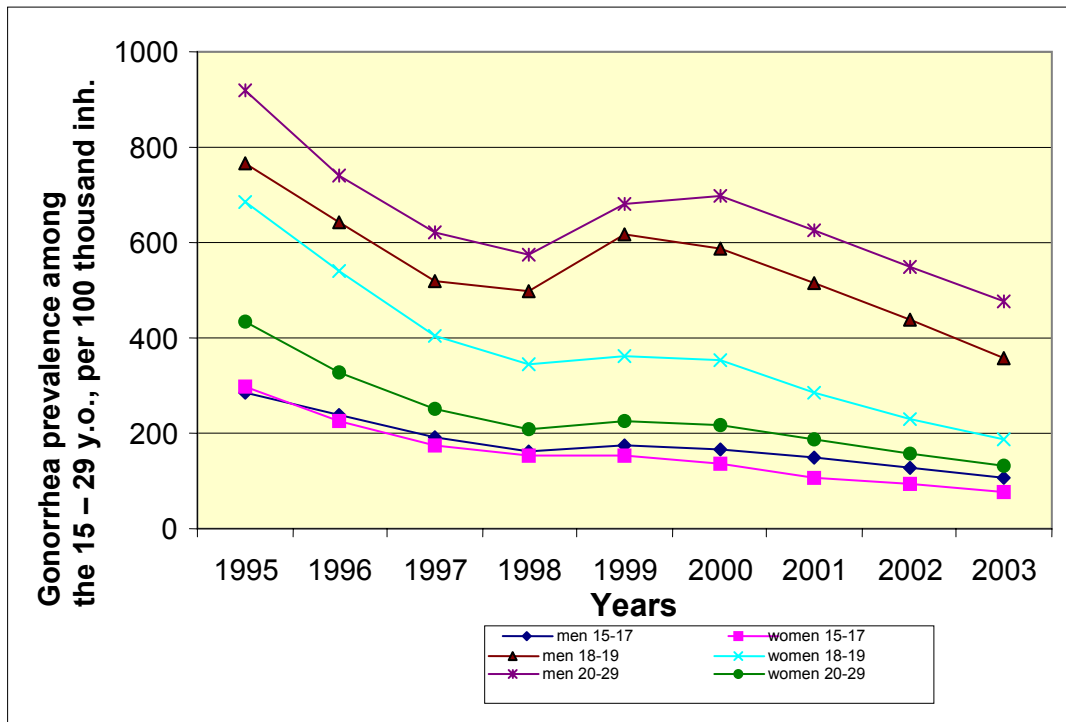


Fig.2.7. Dynamics of the gonorrhoea prevalence among the 15 – 29 y.o. in Russia, per 100 thousand inhabitants

Figures 2.6. and 2.7. show how the syphilis and gonorrhoea dynamics among 15-29 y.o. have changed in Russia since 1995. One may see the tendency for these infections is to decrease. However, it is interesting to note that women mostly catch syphilis (more often than men of the same age category), and men – gonorrhoea (almost 2 times more often than women of the same age category).

Chlamydia – a widespread disease with subsequent sterility risk. Its prevalence is higher among young women (24.1 %-27 %) which testifies the importance of screening of the sexually active female population to prevent sterility.

Gonorrhoea (fig. 2.7.) – most widespread disease with asymptomatic course practically at 80 % of women and 10 % of men.

Syphilis (fig. 2.6.) – a classical example of STI which can successfully be supervised by public health services. The syphilis is easily diagnosed and well cured. Nevertheless its prevalence in modern society is not a casuistic case. Though in Russia today syphilis average rate and prevalence decrease, they still remain high in comparison with the European countries.

Smoking. Tobacco dependence

Tobacco smoking is one of the main factors of the of young generation's health in any country of the world, and probably the most steerable one. By 2020 it is expected that 9 % of all world mortality will be caused by smoking¹⁷.

Tobacco smoking is the leading cause of avertable death all over the world¹⁸, that annually makes 500 000 deads only in Europe.¹⁹

Russia is the fourth greatest cigarette market in the world, and one of the most quickly growing.

Approximately two thirds of Russian men and almost one third of Russian women consume in total about 300 billion cigarettes a year. This profitable market has at once attracted foreign tobacco companies which produce 70 percent of the cigarettes consumed in Russia.

Tobacco is a unique consumer good which today could not be introduced on the market according to any known consumer norms if it has not been already so widespread. Tobacco is a unique legally distributed product which makes harm being consumed, even in moderate quantities, on its direct purpose. Despite the evident harm of smoking this absurd ritual is daily performed by many doctors, politicians, movie stars, teenagers, working, scientists, artists and so on.²⁰

Tobacco consumption is an alarming and growing public health problem in Russia. In Russia 63 % of men and 14 % of women are smokers. Among teenagers the smokers' rate – from 2000 to 2003 –has increased from 14,1 % to 18,1 %.²¹

According to the Global Review «Tobacco and Youth» carried out in 1999, 33.5 % of the Russian schoolboys and schoolgirls of 13-16 y.o. were regular smokers 22.4 % from which began smoking at the age below 11 y.o.

The developed countries' experience has shown that the majority of permanent smokers begin smoking before the age of 18. Besides, as for health reasons adults successfully give up tobacco smoking, the number of smokers begins to decrease. As a result, promotion and advertising of tobacco products for young people are necessary to maintain and expand tobacco sales. Replacement of the adults which stop smoking by teenagers only beginning to smoke raises chances that the young man experimenting today becomes a permanent smoker tomorrow.²²

In Russia the inactive way of life is widespread which leads to high rates of cardiovascular diseases and blood circulation troubles in the central nervous system, especially among the male population which average life expectancy is about 59 years. That is why it is important to raise the level of knowledge of our public health services managers as concerns the correct attitude and behavior of youth towards tobacco consumption.²³

Alcohol

The monitoring held in Russia since 1992 has shown that 70-80 % of men in the age group from 20 to 50 years old and 50-60 % of women of 20-50 y.o. regularly consume alcohol, and 5-10 % in each group consume the more than 100 g of pure alcohol daily.²⁴ According to the inquiry

17 Murray C.J, Lopez AD. Alternative projections of mortality and disability by cause 1990-2020: Global Burden of Disease Study. Lancet. 1997 May 24; 349 (9064):1498-504.

18 Yach D. The tobacco epidemic: a global overview. Global dialogue for health, Expo 2000, Hanover, Germany

19 Comission of the European Communities, 2001

20 Danishevskiy K. Smoking and medicine: if doctors have a right to "wash their hands" of it? // head physician, 2003, №1

21 Zohoori N., D. Blashette, and B. M. Popkin. « Monitoring health conditions in the Russian Federation: the Russian Longitudinal Monitoring Survey 1992-2003.» Report submitted to the U. S. Agency for International Development. Carolina Population Center, Univesity of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, North Carolina. April 2004. http://www.cpc.unc.edu/projects/rfms/papers/health_03.pdf

made in 1996, in Russia 9% of men and 35 % of women do not drink alcohol, 10 % of men and 2% of women – several times a week, 31% of men and 3% of women consume at least 25 g of vodka minimum once a month, and 1% of women 11 % of men consume 50 g of vodka at one go minimum once a month.²⁵

Alcohol drinking quite often begins at a young age. The world expansion of mass media and market relations has every day more strong impact on the young people's perception, choice and behavior. This is the most vulnerable group to marketing and sale methods which have become more aggressive among consumer goods and potentially harmful goods as alcohol. At the same time, free market's domination has destroyed the existing public health safety networks in many countries and weakened social structures for young people. The main tendencies in the use of alcohol by young people are experiencing with alcoholic drinks: drinking at "parties", alcohol intoxication among teenagers and young adults and mixing of alcohol with other psychodelic agents (for example, use of combined drugs).

Young people are more vulnerable to physical, emotional and social impact of alcohol. There are strong interconnections between frequent alcohol abuse, violence, sexual risk behavior, accidents and death. A study made in Izhevsk in 2004 have shown that among the young people who have died of cardiovascular diseases (CVD), more than 35 % were alcohol intoxicated at the moment of death.²⁶ The assumption has been made that their death was due not to the CVD but to alcoholic intoxication.

Social and economic expenses connected with elimination of the alcohol drinking impact on young people burden the society.

2.2. Sexual and reproductive health of young people

Young people and teenagers sexual and reproductive health is a serious question for Russia. So, for example, now the teenage pregnancy rate in the majority of the West-European countries is from 12 to 25 (per 1000 girls of 15 to 19 y.o.), in Great Britain it reaches 47 which present a serious social and medical problem. At the same time it is less than a half of the official figures for the Russian Federation (102 per 1000). There is a tendency to teenagers' sexual activity at an even earlier age, and this mostly in the absence of appropriate sexual education and sexual health protection services.

Within the limits of the health definition given by the WHO as the "state of full physical, intellectual and social well-being, and not simple absence of illness or an indisposition", reproductive health embodies reproductive processes, functions and systems at all stages of the human life. Reproductive health implies the possibility to conduct responsible, satisfying and safe sexual life, ability to procreate and possibility to decide independently to do it or not, when and how often. It means men and women have the right to get information and access to safe, effective, inexpensive and acceptable fertility regulation methods at their choice, and the right to an adequate medical care and sanitary service which ensure to women safety of pregnancy and

22 Materials of WHO. 1999.

23 12th World Conference on Tobacco or Health during a RITC-sponsored workshop on «Youth and Tobacco Use: A View from the South»

24 Zohoori N., Monitoring health conditions in the Russian Federation: the Russian Longitudinal Monitoring Survey 1992-5 (revised April 1996). University of North California at Chapel Hill, North California, 1996

25 Rose R., New Russia Barometer VI: After the presidential election. Studies in public policy number 272. University of Strathclyde, Glasgow. 1996

26 Shkolnikov VM., M. McKee., V Chervyakov., N Kyrianov. Is the link between alcohol and cardiovascular death among young Russian men attributable to misclassification to alcohol intoxication? Evidence from the city of Izevsk. J of epidemiology and community medicine. 2002; 56 : 171-174

delivery, and to married couples – the greatest probability to have a healthy child (the WHO, 1994).

Studies in Russia have shown that nowadays teenagers and young people begin sexual life at an earlier age than the previous generation: a number of young people get sexual experience before 20-years age. Today among young people antenuptial sexual connection has become a norm, a large part of Russian students are tolerant towards extramarital sexual relationship, casual sex or sexual contacts out of constant partnership, to homosexual relations. According to M.B. Denisenko and J.-P. Dal Zuann's study, the average age of sexual life beginning in Russia is 17,7 years for boys and 18,9 years for girls. Among 18 y.o. students of the Moscow University 62 % of boys and 45 % of girls had sexual experience. For Russian young people, sexual life beginning contains an element of fortuity and spontaneity: 42 % of girls and 68 % of boys among the students of the Moscow State University get sexual experience with an unfamiliar partner which they have met recently. From those who had sexual contacts one month prior to the interview, 80 % of girls and 60 % of boys said they loved their partner. About 67 % of students – both male and female – used contraception during their first sexual connection and 33% did not use it.²⁷

According to Kon I.S., Tcherviakov V. and Shapiro D.V., among young people of 16 y.o. 50,5 % of boys and 33,3 % of girls have already got their first sexual experience, among 18 y.o. - 69,8 % and 50,8%. Respectively. According to a poll made by the Federal Centre of Public Opinion Study in three Russian towns, 50 to 60 % of 18 y.o. young people had a sexual experience.⁸ A lower sexual debut age and autonomization of the teenagers and young people's sexuality from the "external" forms of social control from the parents, School, Church and State creates a lot of dangerous situations, first of all – undesirable pregnancy, abortions and sexually transmitted infections (STI), including HIV. Being convinced of interdictions' futility and inefficiency of family sexual education, at the end of XX century most of the western countries have created public systems of sexual education of children and teenagers. Though in the majority of these countries the corresponding services are at an initial stage of development and are badly coordinated with each other, they already yield positive results, especially as concerns the abortions' number reduction and STI and HIV-infection prevention. Those countries which were tardy with it (USA), have considerably worse demographic and epidemiological indices.

Abortions

In Central and Eastern Europe the abortion rate is the world highest. In Russia abortions are twice more frequent than child-birth: 2 million annually which is probably the world record rate. In Russia, up to 1/3 maternity mortality cases are connected with abortions, and up to 75 % of mortality causing abortions are made outside the licensed medical establishments.²⁸ Even such a high official statistics quite often underestimate the real situation as the degree of scope of the registration systems decreases in the whole. For example, in Armenia, data about the number of abortion received in the course of a recent national study, conducted by the European regional bureau of the WHO, were 5 times higher than the official figures given the Ministry of Health.

The fig. 2.8. presents the abortion dynamics in Russia from 1995 to 2003 in different age groups.

27 Denisenko M.B, Dala Zouanna J.-P. Young Russians Sexual Behaviour // Socis, 2001, №8, p.. 85-87

28 Frolov O., Iliecheva I.A. Maternal death rate in Russia. 1999

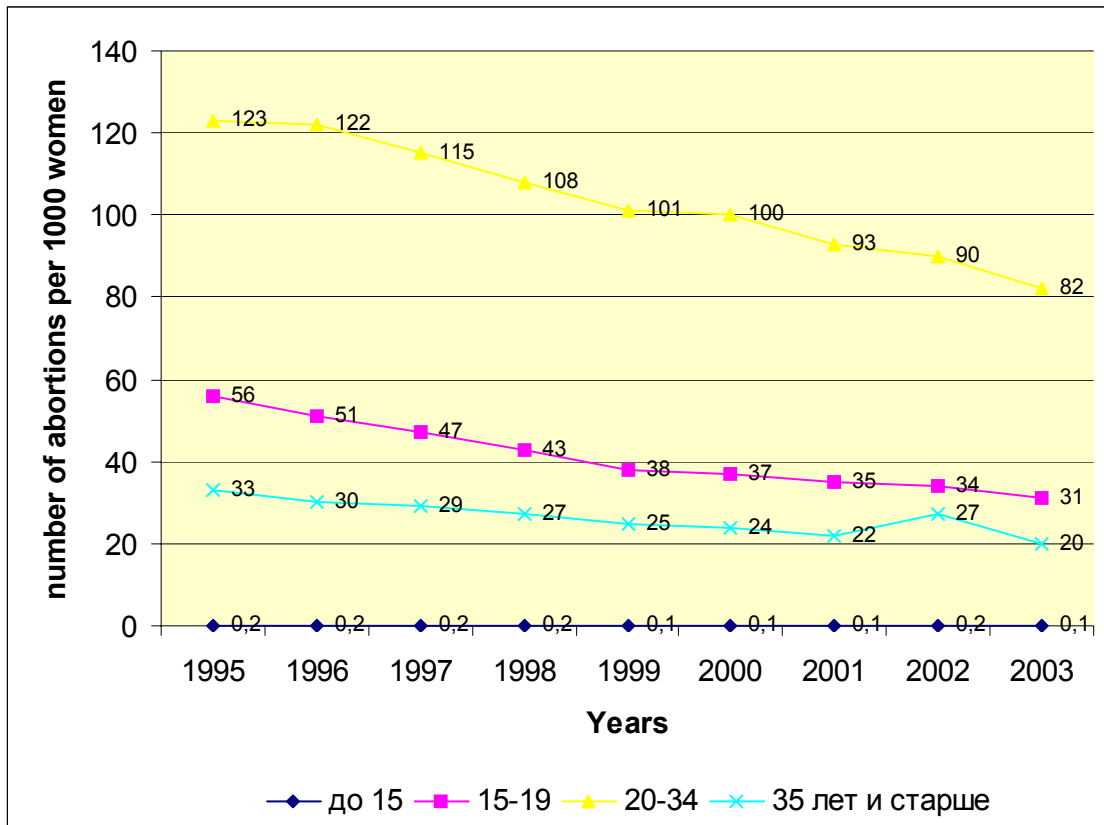


Fig.2.8. Dynamics of the number of abortions among different age groups, per 1000 women, 1995

As the diagram shows, although there is a light decrease in number of abortions in Russia, they still remain a widespread way of stopping undesirable pregnancy among young Russians.

The high abortion rate evidences a very low level of knowledge of modern contraception means, limited access to such means and poor quality of services.

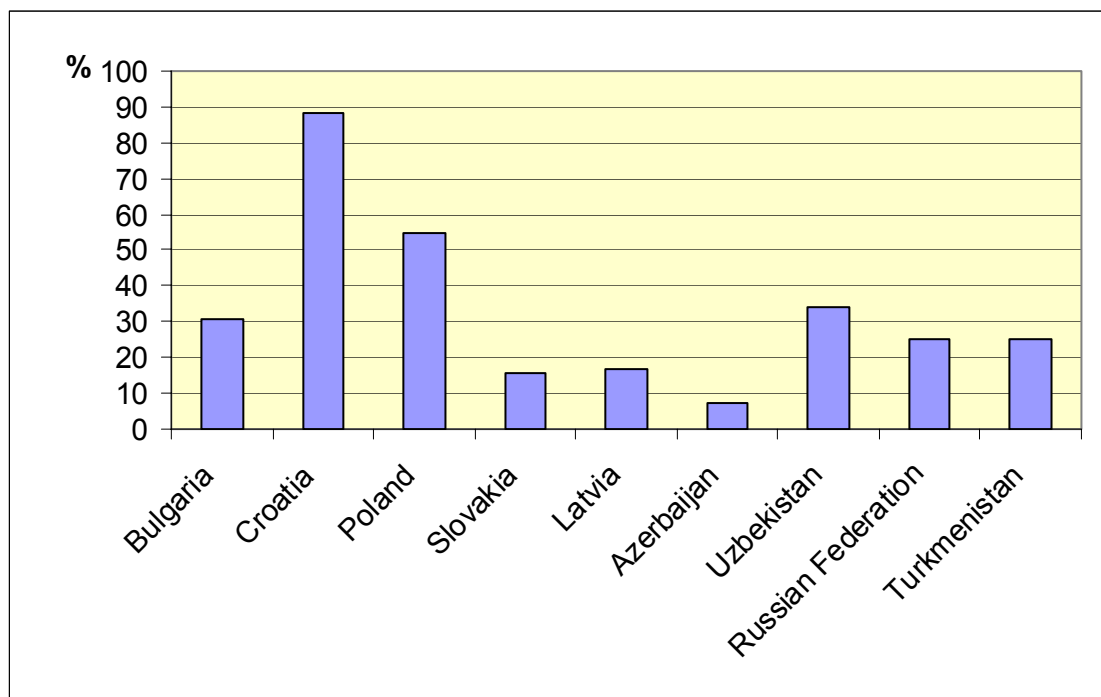


Fig. 2.9. Contraception means' use rate, %

Although in our country contraceptives are on free sale, their use is rather low – only 25% of women employ them. Possibly, it is connected either with a low level of knowledge as to the possibility and/or necessity of their use, or with a low purchasing capacity because of the high price of contraceptives of high security degree (hormonal preparations, intrauterine spiral).

2.3. Traumatism

As the WHO had recognized traumatism and traumatism mortality to be avertible states and as subsequently began active research and practical activities to study the nature of traumatism and of its determining factors, since the middle of the XXth century in the developed countries there are steady decrease and stabilization at a low level of mortality due to the external causes. However, the traumatism and traumatism mortality still remain one of the most important problems for the public health services of the most countries of the world. In the mortality structure of the economically developed and developing countries, traumatism (tab. 2.1) takes respectively the third and fourth places after cardiovascular diseases, malignant new growths, respiratory affections and infections.

In Russia mortality due to external factors remains one of the most frequent decease causes among the young able-bodied population of the country.

Traumatism – both intentional and unintentional – is a social problem greatly lacking for attention from public health systems all over the world, though it is the cause of the most of heavy disabilities leading to loss of years of active life

Dynamics of the traumatism rate in Russia differs from the traumatism mortality dynamics by a less expressed growth. There is some growth of traumas and poisonings among the young

population: teenagers and children (fig. 2.10). The traumatism rate among the group above 18 y.o. is relatively stable.

Tab. Traumatism rate dynamics in Russia, 1991-2002

Groups of population	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Adults	89,1	87,4	92,0	95,1	92,0	87,4	84,7	84,1	82,7	84,7	87,5	86
Youth	85,7	89,9	96,5	93,0	89,9	90,3	93,0	95,9	98,9	101,8	106,4	105,6
Children	68,0	67,4	67,0	69,3	73,7	77,1	79,8	84,6	86,8	90,8	92,6	96,5

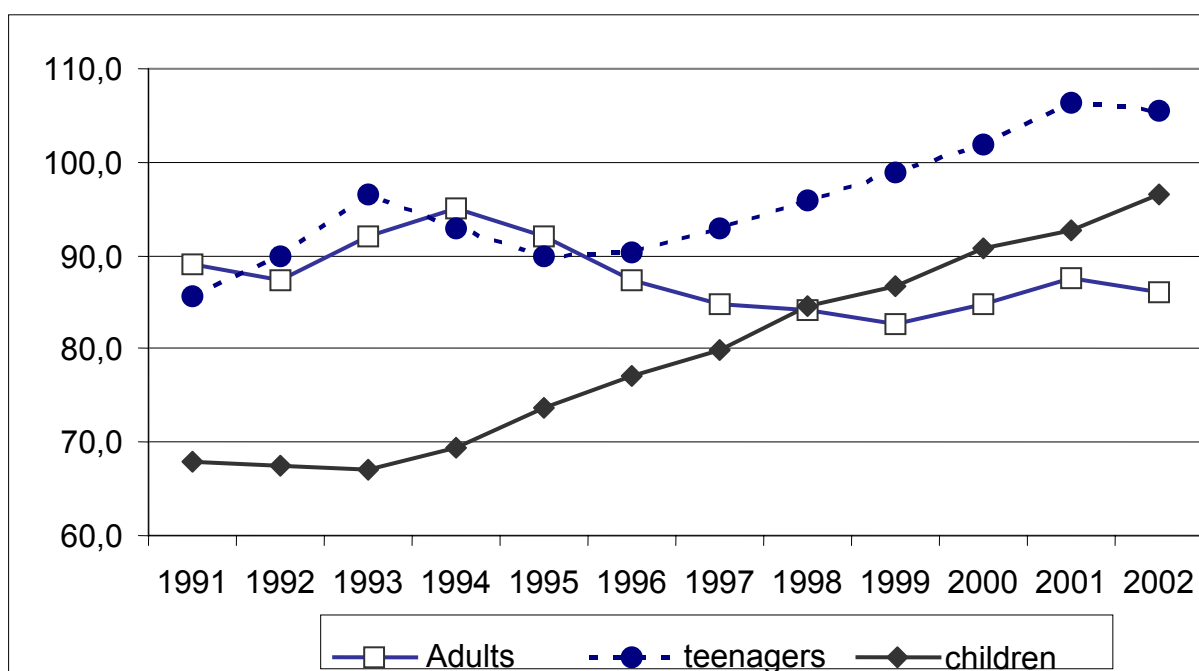


Fig. 2.10. Traumatism dynamics in Russia per 1997-2001 (per 1000 corresponding population).

In the general traumatism structure as concerns adults and children more than 90 % of traumas, poisonings and other of external factors' effects are the due to accidents not connected with industrial activity. It is characteristic that the most widespread kind of adults and children traumatism is the home and street one (80-86 % at adults and children), and transport traumas represent only 2,5 % and 1,5 %, respectively. At the same time, in the mortality structure due to external factors, 13 % of deceases are the consequence of road and transport accidents because of greater degree of gravity of the road and transport traumas.²⁹ Moreover, mortality connected with road accidents is in Russia 4 times higher than in the most developed countries, and approximately twice than in Europe on the average. With the recent cars number rush in Russia, the road accident mortality growth can get even more menacing tendencies.

29 Salahov E.R., Kakorina E.P. Accident, traumas and poisonings and corresponding mortality in Russia: comparison with other countries and features of the situation in Russia. 2003

30 Danishevskiy, Bobrik A. Forecast of the demographic situation and infectious/non-infectuous epidemiology diseases development in the Russian Federation for 2002-2010. Report of the Open Health Institute.

3. Youth And Labor Market

3.1. General Characteristics

All over the world, the condition of the youth on the labor market is, generally speaking, not satisfactory. According to the data collected by the International Labor Organization in 2003, young people in the age group between 15 and 24 years made up about 25% of the world's population in the 15-64 year-olds' age group, but the share of the young people among the unemployed was 47%³¹. It is not surprising, therefore, that issues of youth condition on the labor market are constantly in the focal point of international organizations. For example, since 2001 Youth Employment Network (YEN) created at the initiative of the Secretary General of the UN exists as a partner organization of the United Nations, the World Bank and the International labor Organization; the YEN is specifically involved in youth employment issues. The YEN was created in the context of the Millennium Declaration adopted by the United Nations, in which heads of states and heads of governments from around the world expressed their intention to "develop and implement strategies which would provide real chances to the young people anywhere in the world in finding adequate and productive employment." Combating youth unemployment is an inherent part of the Millennium Declaration and plays, simultaneously, an important role in achieving Millennium Targets, including those that are related to reducing poverty. This is why, among other reasons, in 2003 youth employment was a central theme of the International Youth Day celebrated annually on August 12 at the initiative of the United Nations.

Youth employment issues get a rather low-profile role in state politics. On the federal level, as part of the 2001-2005 Youth Of Russia program (adopted by the executive order of the Russian Government of January 4, 2000, No. 1-r), there exists a subprogram called Youth Business Enterprise Support (!) And Youth Employment Assistance. The Department of Youth Policies of the Ministry of Science and Educations provides some attention to this issue. It should be noted that special youth employment programs exist in many regions of Russia and that youth condition on the labor market draws attention of regional authorities.

The fact that Russian federal authorities dedicate not that much attention to youth employment issues may be partly explained if one considers relatively favorable indicators of the Russian youth employment market against the background of the global situation. In 2002, for example, data collected in Russia as part of the Population Employment Study showed that young people aged 15 to 24 years made up 23% of the total population (in the age group between 15 and 64 years), and youth unemployment was 26% of the total number of unemployed.³² Russian indicators for youth unemployment look good quite all right even when compared to indicators of the OECD countries³³ (Figure 3.1) and even better when juxtaposed with indicators for less developed countries.

31 Global Employment Trends for Youth, 2004. International Labour Office, Geneva, 2004, p. 1 (www.ilo.org/trends). As per methodology of International Labor Organization, labor market should be analyzed taking into account population aged 15-64, which is divided into three age groups: youth (15-24 years), middle age (25-54 years), and senior age (55-64 years).

32 Here and onwards (unless it is specified otherwise), we will be using average indicators across four weekly polls that were conducted quarterly, in any specific year (when using PES data).

33 30 countries are member states of the OECD, but labor market indicators for the 15-24 age group are available for only 24 countries (in six countries, these data are calculated for the age interval of 16 to 24 years and thus these data cannot be compared to the rest).

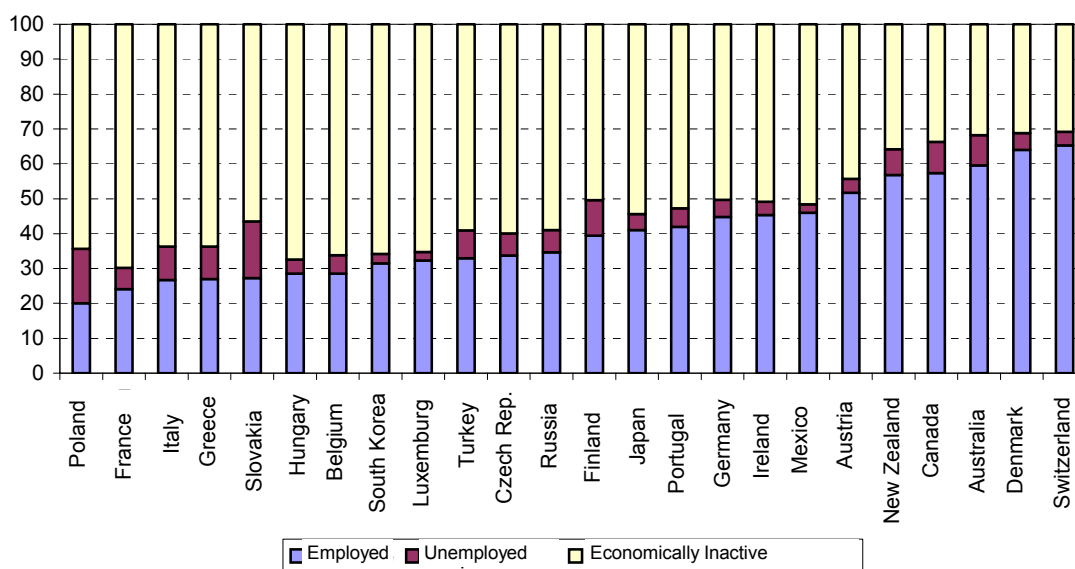


Figure 3.1. Population structure for those aged 15 to 24 years at the labor market in OECD countries and in Russia (in per cent)

Let us note that youth labor market indicators in OECD countries (for young people aged 15 to 24 years) are characterized by a considerable spread (see Table 3.1). Thus, the percentage of those employed varies from 71% to 27%, the percentage of economically inactive citizens fluctuates between 25% and 67%, and the number of unemployed may vary from 6% to 16%. The gender-related spread of indicators is also very large. Youth labor market parameters (such as level of economic activity, level of employment, unemployment rate, etc) will be defined by a whole number of country-specific factors. Aside from the general economic situation, the most important factors include educational levels among the young people, forms of managing the learning process, methods of structuring military service, etc.

Table 3.1.

Population structure (for the 15-24 age group) regarding labor market status in OECD countries and in Russia (for 2002, in per cent)

Indicators	Employed	Unemployed	Economically Inactive
Total Population			
OECD – max (min)	70,5	2,4	26,1
OECD – median	40,2	5,4	53,6
Russia	34,6	6,4	59,0
OECD – min (max)	26,7	16,3	67,4
Males			
OECD – max (min)	71,8	2,1	24,9
OECD – median	41,7	6,1	49,5
Russia	38,1	6,5	55,4

OECD – min (max)	25,6	18,5	71,6
Females			
OECD – max (min)	69,2	1,9	27,3
OECD – median	36,4	4,8	59,3
Russia	31,0	6,3	62,7
OECD – min (max)	21,2	13,9	71,0

Sources: OECD Employment Outlook 2004, table C; data provided by Rosstat (Russian State Statistics Bureau).

As for Russian indicators of youth labor market in general (for the age group of 15 to 24 years), they are quite close to median indicators for OECD countries (Table 3.1). The number of employed among the Russian youth is somewhat lower than the median indicator, and the percentage of unemployed and economically inactive are, correspondingly, somewhat higher than the median values. These deviations are, however, quite small as compared with the country-to-country spread among the OECD itself.

Starting our analysis of the situation in Russia, it should be noted that at least four sources of information exist in today's Russia with regard to conditions on the Russian youth labor market: data resulting from the Population Employment Studies (PES), data of the Russian 2002 Population Census (RPC), data collected by Rostrud, the Federal Labor and Employment Agency, and finally data collected by the Ministry of Science and Education. These four sources have widely differing methods of collecting information and of directions of data coverage.

PES data comprise all major labor market indicators, allow for examining processes in their dynamics, and in their methodology are the closest to that of the International Labor Organization; they are based, however, on the results of sampling polls. This PES data is representative in general, for assessing overall trends, but will be not quite representative in the case of a high level of detail needed (for example, when simultaneously broken down by regions, by age, and by education level). RPC data for 2002 (those that are available today) characterize only population employment levels (while certain types of employment were not reflected in the census); they are, by definition, data from one select year, but they provide the best picture in terms of regional distribution. The Rostrud data relate only to registered unemployment figures, which can provide exact overview for this segment of statistics. Data from the Ministry of Science and Education reflecting the employment success rate of the school graduates will only show a percentage of those who had graduated from vocational facilities (rather, these are graduates who had been educated at the daytime educational facilities run by the Russian state using state budget allocations). These four sources of information are, in part, supplementary to each other, and they all may be used, one way or the other, for analyzing the conditions of the young people on the labor market.

Levels of employment calculated using RPC data are, in general, somewhat lower than those attained through PES data (see Table 2). This results mostly from the fact that when the census was conducted, not everyone was included in the count that is usually involved in goods production inside private enterprises in households (primary those who work in their private gardens and do other kinds of menial agricultural work in and around their homes). For those aged 18 to 19 years, however, the RPC provided a higher employment figure than the PES. This is related to PES data not sufficiently reflecting the number of those called up for military

service as well as assessing internal migration processes. As for the unemployment figures, the Rostrud data on registered unemployment will be, naturally, much lower than the PES assessment, which were drawn from unverified responses by respondents and also based on the very mild unemployment criteria as accepted by the International Labor Organization.

Table 3.2.

Population structure (age group 15-24 years) broken down by age subgroups and their condition on the labor market in 2002 (in per cent).

Age Groups	Employed (RPC)	Employed (PES)	Economically Inactive (PES)	Unemployed (PES)	Registered Unemployed (Rostrud)
Total	34,1	34,6	59,0	6,4	1,2*
15–17 years	3,1	5,3	92,5	2,2	0,5**
18–19 years	27,3	25,1	68,1	6,8	
20–24 years	57,8	58,6	32,6	9,0	1,4***

* 16–24 years. ** 16–17 years. *** 18–24 years.

Sources: Rosstat and Rostrud data.

Prior to discussing the situation on the youth market *per se*, let us introduce general characteristics relating basic labor indicators to age—this will make a better picture of the niche that the young people have in the general structure of the market. Three basic indicators would be necessary for our purposes: percentage of those employed, percentage of the unemployed and percentage of economically inactive population within the total number in each age group under consideration.

Age and percentage of those employed within the total population count are connected through a standard \cap -form shape of the curve, that is the youngest and the oldest age groups show the minimal number of those employed, while the maximum is achieved in the middle age group (see Figure 3.2). Employment level among men is higher than that among women, for all age groups. For men, the maximum employment level is reached among those aged 30-34 years (some 86% of men in this age group are employed), and for women, it is true for those aged 40-44 (around 83% of the total number of women in this age group).

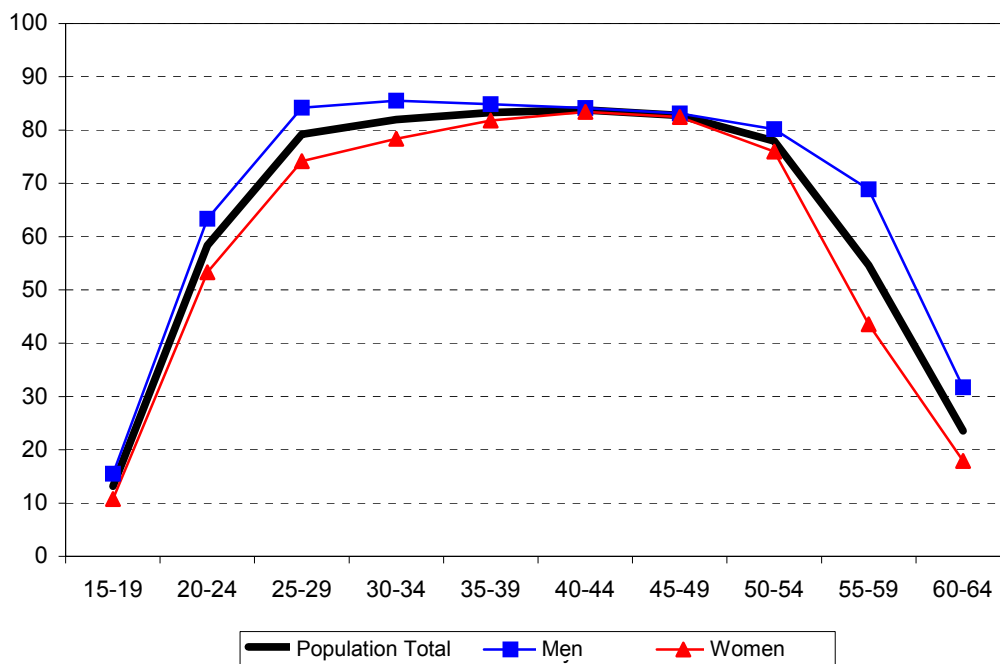


Figure 3.2. Percentage of employed among the total population of Russia, by age groups and by gender in 2002 (in per cent, as per PES data)

Depending on age, the distribution of the percentage of economically inactive population as part of the population total has, respectively, a U-shaped form, i.e. it has its maximums for the youngest and the oldest age groups, and a minimum for the middle age groups (see Figure 3.3). In all age groups, the share of economically inactive population for women supercedes the corresponding indicator for men. For the latter, the share of economically inactive population reaches a minimum for the those aged 30-34 years (only some 7% of the total of men in this age group), while for the women the minimum comes for those aged 40-44 years (some 11% of the women total in this age group).

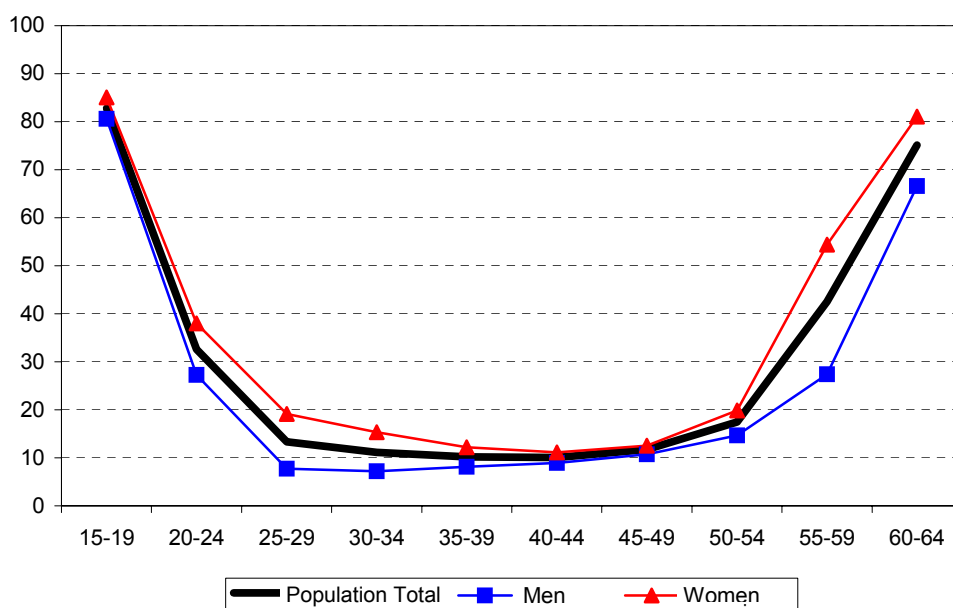


Figure 3.3. The percentage of economically inactive citizen compared to the total population count, by age and by gender, in 2002 (in per cent, as per PES data)

The percentage of unemployed in the general population total has a more complex relationship in the age breakdown (see Figure 3.4). For both men and women, this indicator has a maximum for those aged 20-24 years (some 9% of the age group total), after which it starts slowly going down. In other words, young people aged 20-24 years experience the most problems in finding jobs and in work placement, so this age group requires a special attention as far as the functioning of labor market is concerned. Thus, the level of unemployed among men is higher than among women by approximately 1 per cent among all age groups (except for those aged 15-19 years).

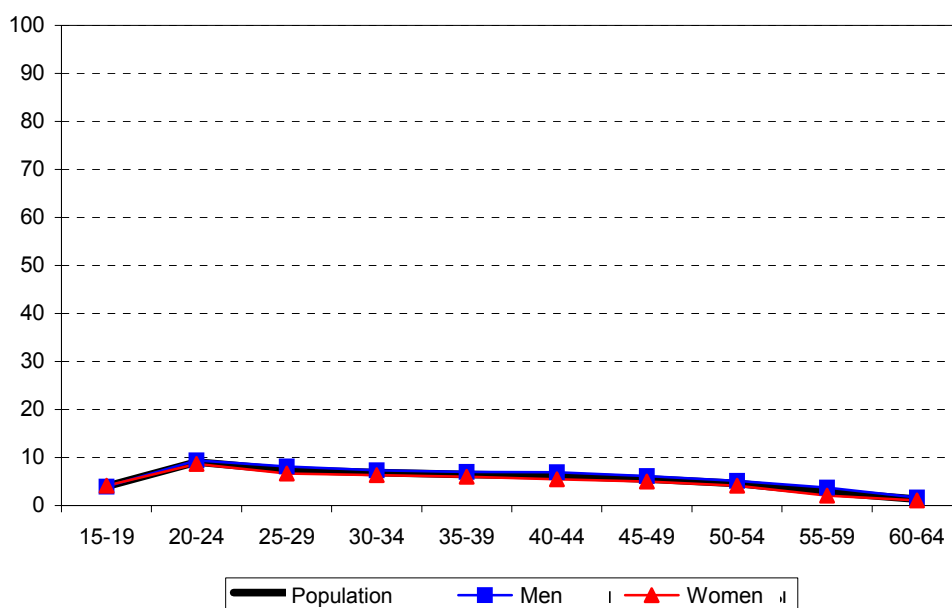


Figure 3.4. Percentage of unemployed as compared to population total, by age groups and by gender, in 2002 (in per cent, as per PES data)

Even though the number of unemployed is highest among those aged 20-24 years (as compared to any other age group), young people in general (including those in the above age group) have certain advantages on the job market—this is reflected in the indicators of average job search period by the unemployed. According to PES, this indicator happens to be much lower for the youth age groups (15-19 and 20-24 years) than for employable people from older age groups (see Figure 3.5).

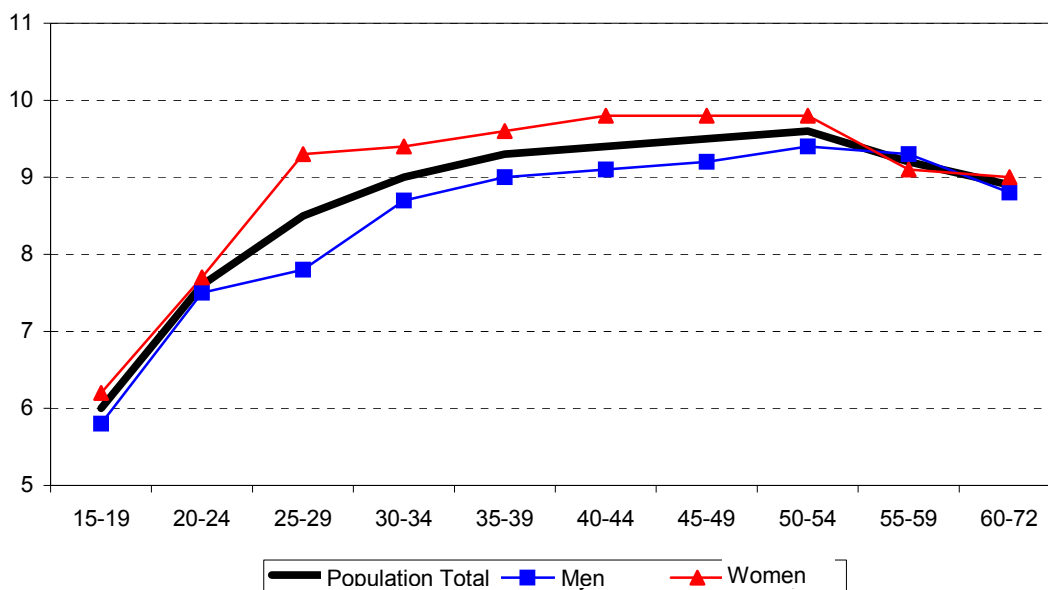


Figure 3.5. Average job search time that unemployed must spend, as a percentage of average values over the total number for the population aged 15 and 72 years, in a breakdown by age groups and by gender (PES data for 2003)

These data, obviously, represent only an indirect assessment of the actual average time span needed in order to find a new job, because they relate to the unemployed (that is to those who keep looking for a job) rather than to those who have already found work. The existence of firm correlation for the indicator under discussion to dynamics of different age groups gives enough evidence for a conclusion that on the average young people find work faster than people of older age groups.

Finally, it is for the young people aged 15-24 years maximum migration activity is characteristic. Unfortunately, data concerning internal migration in Russia, as provided by the Ministry of the Interior branches based on the registration of the newcomers to Russia, are very spotty and can be regarded as very conservative. Please note that there are also no exhaustive data available on the external migration and especially on the external migration of the youth. As per these data, only under 4% of young people aged 15-24 years participate in internal migration processes (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3.

Internal migration indicators as per age groups, types of residence and gender (in per cent of the total number of corresponding population groups, in 2001)

Indicators	Total	Urban Population		Rural Population	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
Arrival to the country					
Population Total	1,5	1,4	1,4	1,7	1,7
14-15 years	0,9	0,9	1,0	0,8	0,8
16-17 years	3,0	2,8	4,1	1,7	2,1
18-19 years	3,3	2,2	3,8	3,1	6,1
20-24 years	3,5	2,9	3,2	4,4	5,6
25-29 years	2,1	1,9	1,9	2,9	2,8
Leaving the country					
Population Total	1,5	1,3	1,3	1,9	2,0
14-15 years	0,9	0,8	0,8	1,1	1,4
16-17 years	3,0	2,0	2,6	3,9	6,7
18-19 years	3,3	2,0	3,4	3,7	7,6
20-24 years	3,5	2,8	3,3	4,6	5,3
25-29 years	2,1	1,8	1,8	3,1	3,1
Net Change (arrival – departure)					
Population Total	0,0	0,1	0,1	-0,2	-0,3
14-15 years	0,0	0,1	0,3	-0,3	-0,6
16-17 years	0,0	0,8	1,5	-2,1	-4,6
18-19 years	0,0	0,2	0,4	-0,7	-1,6
20-24 years	0,0	0,1	-0,1	-0,2	0,3
25-29 years	0,0	0,1	0,1	-0,2	-0,4

Source: Demographic Yearbook 2002, Tables 7.7 and 7.8 (according to data from the Ministry of the Interior).

RPC data (see Figure 3.6) can give a better understanding re the scope of migration processes, at least as far as migration between rural and urban areas is concerned—for young people, however, intra-urban migration also exists.

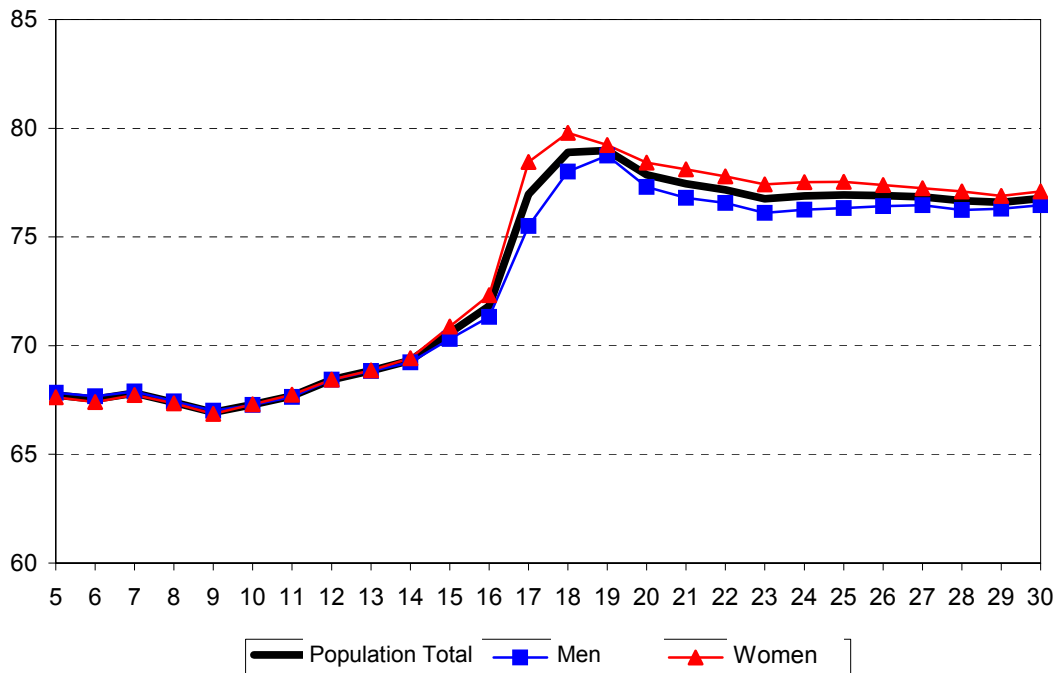


Figure 3.6. Percentage of urban population in the total number of the population, in a breakdown by age and by gender, in 2002 (in per cent, as per RPC data)

Migration of young people from rural areas to the cities starts even in the 10-14 age group, and after 15 years, the intensity of this process grows very fast, reaching a maximum for people of 17-18 years of age; it is interesting to note that women migrate to the city more often. Judging by the data shown in Figure 3.6, at least 12-13% of the young people aged 15-19 years participate in the migration from rural to urban areas. After 19 years of age a small back flow, from the urban to the rural areas, can be noticed: after completion of secondary vocational schools, after military service, or due to unsuccessful search for work in cities.

Young people on the Russian labor market appear to be, generally speaking, the most mobile part of the population characterized by a faster speed of adapting to the needs of the market. One could tentatively conclude that Russian work providers give a certain preference to people of younger age when considering their new potential hires. More so, under open hire conditions (when using advertisement for existing vacancies or relying on placement agencies), many work providers in Russia specify that they accept applications only from people under a certain age (as a rule, those under 30). As a result, young people in Russia today have much better perspectives for finding work than those of middle or older age—disregarding the fact that young people do not have work experience.

3.2. Level of Employment

As noted above, the youth employment level is defined by a whole number of specific factors that are characteristic, mostly, for the young people aged 15-24 years. Among those factors are, first, participation in various forms of education and training because the age group of 25-29 years sees a drastic drop in educational activities as compared to younger ages. Second, indicators of youth job market are influenced by gender-related factors: for men, it is military service when they are called up; for women, it is having children—the birthrate indicator has a

maximum for women in the age group 20-24 years. And, lastly, for young people aged 15-24 years there is a maximum for the migration activity indicator, which will considerably influence *regional features* of the job markets in the regions (this is especially important for this report).

Youth migration, unfortunately, is poorly represented in the PES framework, especially for the 18-19 years age group (including related to the call-up for military service). The RPC data should provide, perhaps, a clearer picture for the regions. At the same time, as noted above, RPC data do not reflect all types of work activities. As a result, the assessment of youth employment between PES data and RPC data will give quite differing results, especially on the regional level.

The correlation factor between regional indicators of employment levels defined on the basis of PES and RPC data will be, in general, 0.74 for the young people aged 15-24 years. For the 15-17 years age group it is equal to -0.02 —that is, there is no relation whatsoever between the two sets of data! For the 18-19 year-olds, the correlation factor equals 0.45 and only for 20-24 year-olds the corresponding correlation factor is equal to 0.84.

In the group of those aged 15-17 years, with the median employment level of 5.0% according to PES data and 2.8% according to RPC data, the difference between regional employment indicators (defined with the PES and RPC data) will vary from +10.8 percentage points in the Republic of Dagestan to -3.4 percentage points in Moscow. In the 18-19 years age group, with the median employment level of 24.3% (using PES data) and 26.1% (using RPC data) the difference between regional employment indicators (defined with the PES and RPC data) will vary from +20.4 percentage points in the Kalmyck Republic to -26.5 percentage points in Khabarovsk Krai. In the 20-24 years age group, with the median employment level of 58.6% (using PES data) and 59.1% (using RPC data) the difference between regional employment indicators (defined with the PES and RPC data) will vary from +17.3 percentage points in the Republic of Dagestan to -12.4 percentage points in the Murmansk Oblast.

As a result, in most cases not only the assessment of employment levels in regions (as defined using two different sources) would be relatively far apart, but even the ranks of the regions in terms of employment level indicators. For example, sets of regions with the highest and the lowest indicators of youth employment would not overlap (see Table 4.6).

In the age group with 15-17 year-olds (in Table 4), there is only one case of agreement, Vladimir Oblast, for both data sources in a list of regions with the highest level of employment and two – Republic of Tyva and Republic of Ingushetiya – in the list of regions with the least level of employment. At the same time, there are two regions, Republic of Dagestan and Tambov Oblast, which, according to PES data, enjoy the highest level of employment while, if we consult the RPC data, they are in the list of regions with the lowest level of employment. And to top it, the city of Moscow that, according to PES data, belongs to regions with the least level of employment is considered, at the same time, to be one of the regions with the highest level of employment, if we take into account RPC data.

Table 3.4.

Youth employment level, for young people aged 15-17 years, across regions of Russia, in 2002, according to data of PES and RPC (in per cent)

PES	%	RPC	%
Russia	5,3	Russia	3,1
Regional Median	5,0	Regional Median	2,8
<i>Maximum Level</i>		<i>Maximum Level</i>	
Chita Oblast	12,4	Chukchi Autonomous Region	6,3
Republic of Dagestan	11,8	Vladimir Oblast	5,0
Voronezh Oblast	10,7	Yaroslavl Oblast	4,7
Kursk Oblast	10,3	Moscow Oblast	4,7
Vladimir Oblast	10,2	Vologda Oblast	4,5
Tambov Oblast	9,8	Kaluga Oblast	4,4
Chuvash Republic	9,3	Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	4,2
Belgorod Oblast	9,0	Ivanovo Oblast	4,2
Udmurt Republic	8,9	Tver Oblast	4,2
Republic of Khakassiya	8,9	Moscow	4,1
<i>Minimum Level</i>		<i>Minimum Level</i>	
Khabarovsk Krai	2,7	Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	1,9
Tver Oblast	2,6	Lipetsk Oblast	1,8
Amur Oblast	2,5	Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	1,6
Kemerovo Oblast	2,3	Tambov Oblast	1,6
Republic of Buryatia	1,9	Kalmyck Republic	1,5
Stavropol Krai	1,0	Republic of Mordovia	1,4
Bryansk Oblast	0,9	Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya	1,2
Moscow	0,7	Republic of Tyva	1,1
Republic of Tyva	0,6	Republic of Dagestan	1,0
Republic of Ingushetia	0,0	Chechen Republic	0,4
Chechen Republic	No Data	Republic of Ingushetia	0,3

Source: Rosstat data.

In this age group, the main bulk of differences between PES and RPC data is related to the fact that RPC did not provide a full count of those who work in their own household (mostly, tending their own gardens and/or doing other types of small-scale, private agricultural work)—while in this age group, it has become an important factor in providing work for young people at home

(especially in rural areas). This is why, as per PES data for this age group, the list of regions with high employment levels is comprised, mostly, of regions with sizeable rural population.

For the 18-19 year-olds age group (Table 3.5), lists of high-employment regions have three overlaps (Chukchi Autonomous Region, Vladimir Oblast, and Chita Oblast) while in the list of the least employment level four overlaps exist (Tambov Oblast, Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya, Republic of Mordovia, and Republic of Ingushetia). At the same time, the Altai Republic belongs to the list of regions with the highest employment, as per PES data, but is regarded as a region of a lowest employment level, as per RPC data. Finally, the Khabarovsk Krai is considered, by PES data, to be a region with the least level of employment, but, by RPC data, a region with the highest level of employment.

Table 3.5.

Youth employment level for young people aged 18-19 years in a breakdown by regions using PES and RPC data for 2002 (in per cent)

PES	%	RPC	%
Russian Federation	25,1	Russian Federation	27,3
Regional Median	24,3	Regional Median	26,1
Maximum Level		Maximum Level	
Chukchi Autonomous Region	45,8	Chukchi Autonomous Region	56,1
Kirov Oblast	44,5	Murmansk Oblast	51,1
Republic of Karelia	40,1	Kamchatka Oblast	44,3
Vladimir Oblast	39,5	Vladimir Oblast	41,1
Pskov Oblast	38,4	Khabarovsk Krai	40,7
Udmurt Republic	38,2	Leningrad Oblast	40,6
Vologda Oblast	37,8	Moscow Oblast	40,6
Altai Republic	37,3	Jewish Autonomous Oblast	39,7
Tver Oblast	36,8	Primorsky Krai	38,2
Chita Oblast	35,7	Chita Oblast	38,0
Minimum Level		Minimum Level	
Magadan Oblast	17,4	Lipetsk Oblast	18,6
Stavropol Krai	17,3	Altai Republic	17,1
Voronezh Oblast	17,3	Tomsk Oblast	16,6
St. Petersburg	15,8	Tambov Oblast	16,0
Tambov Oblast	14,9	Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	15,8
Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya	14,2	Republic of Mordovia	15,7
Khabarovsk Krai	14,1	Kalmyck Republic	12,9
Moscow	14,0	Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya	12,8
Republic of Mordovia	12,5	Republic of Tyva	12,6
Republic of Ingushetia	0,0	Republic of Dagestan	10,0
Chechen Republic	No Data	Republic of Ingushetia	5,8

Source: Rosstat data.

In this age group, differences between the two sources of data are related to the method of accounting draftees, or young people called up for military service. In the PES they were counted as being in the regions from which they were inducted, and the RPC was taking their

count in the regions where they were serving in the military. Special statistical shifts should be noted for regions with access to the seas (such as, for example, Murmansk Oblast and Khabarovsk Krai), because young people in the navy were counted as having an occupation in these regions, since they were 'employed' by the navy for the time of their military service.

The assessment of the level of employment in regions start coming closer, in the case of these two types of sources (PES and RPC), only for the age group of 20-24 years (Table 6). In these lists, there are six overlaps among the ten regions considered to have the highest employment level; and seven overlaps among the ten regions with the lowest employment levels.

Table 3.6.

Youth employment level for young people aged 20-24 years in a breakdown by regions using PES and RPC data for 2002 (in per cent)

PES	%	RPC	%
Russia	58,4	Russia	57,8
Regional Median	58,6	Regional Median	59,1
Maximum Level		Maximum Level	
Vladimir Oblast	75,6	Chukchi Autonomous Oblast	73,0
Chukchi Autonomous Oblast	75,4	Udmurt Republic	68,7
Tver Oblast	74,7	Murmansk Oblast	68,1
Kirov Oblast	73,7	Kirov Oblast	68,1
Udmurt Republic	72,0	Vladimir Oblast	67,6
Novgorod Oblast	71,9	Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	67,6
Vologda Oblast	70,2	Vologda Oblast	67,6
Arkhangelsk Oblast	70,0	Arkhangelsk Oblast	67,5
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	67,4	Republic of Karelia	66,8
Samara Oblast	67,2	Leningrad Oblast	66,7
Minimum Level		Minimum Level	
Voronezh Oblast	48,4	Tomsk Oblast	48,8
Stavropol Krai	48,0	Altai Republic	47,9
Republic of Khakassiya	47,4	Republic of Adygeya	44,9
Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya	46,6	Kalmyck Republic	41,7
Kalmyck Republic	44,0	Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	39,3
Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	43,3	Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	37,4
Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	43,1	Republic of Tyva	33,7
Republic of Tyva	42,9	Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya	31,7
Republic of Dagestan	40,8	Republic of Dagestan	23,5
Republic of Ingushetia	20,1	Chechen Republic	20,8
Chechen Republic	No Data	Republic of Ingushetia	9,6

Source: Rosstat data.

When considering the above assessment, the following areas in the Southern Federal Region of Russia require special attention in terms of youth employment policies in the age group for

young people aged 20-24 years: Republic of Adygeya, Republic of Dagestan, Republic of Ingushetia, Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya, the Kalmyck Republic, Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya, Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya), and the Chechen Republic.

In any case, existing data speak of existing significant differences in the levels of youth employment around Russia. Median indicators in regions with the highest employment levels will be several times higher than median indicators in regions with the lowest employment levels (see Table 3.7), and the gap between employment levels in the higher and lower groups of regions can go up as high as 30 percentage points.

Table 3.7.

Median levels of employment levels for young people, in groups of 10 regions (in per cent)

Groups of Regions	15-17 years		18-19 years		20-24 years	
	PES	RPC	PES	RPC	PES	RPC
All regions	5,0	2,8	24,3	26,1	58,6	59,1
1st 10 regions	10,0	4,5	38,3	40,6	72,0	67,6
2nd 10 regions	8,3	3,7	31,2	34,6	64,7	65,6
3rd 10 regions	6,5	3,2	29,0	30,9	62,4	61,9
4th 10 regions	5,5	2,9	26,1	27,3	59,3	59,7
5th 10 regions	4,7	2,7	23,5	25,5	56,3	57,6
6 th 10 regions	3,7	2,4	21,1	22,5	54,4	55,4
7 th 10 regions	3,2	2,0	18,4	20,2	51,3	52,7
8 th 10 regions	1,0	1,3	14,2	14,3	43,3	35,5
Quotient of 1st group to 8th group (times)	10,3	3,4	2,7	2,8	1,7	1,9
Difference between 1st group and 8th group (percentage points)	9,1	3,2	24,1	26,3	28,6	32,1

Calculated using Rosstat data.

The high level of differentiation across regions in the age groups that we have just discussed is partially related to objective regional economic conditions: i.e., general economic situation, condition of the labor market, existing sectoral structure of regional economy, etc. Besides, regional indicators are very much influenced by the location of both educational facilities (especially colleges) and military units (which is especially sensitive for the age group of 18-19 years that includes young men of the basic draft age).

3.3. Work And Study

Theoretically, the level of employment among the young people is inversely related to the scope of participation of the young people in education. To a certain degree education and work can be regarded as alternative types of activities (especially when we consider daytime learning). In real life, however, this relation will not be seen very easily.

As data from OECD countries show, the relation of work and study activities may vary quite a lot in different countries (see Table 3.8). The correlation factor between the percentage of employed and percentage of students in OECD countries equals -0.35 for the 15-19 years age group and -0.18 for the 20-24 years age group. Lack of significant negative relation between the percentage of employed and percentage of students is, in particular, defined by the degree of work activities of the students, which varies quite a bit in different OECD countries. The students' level of employment varies very widely: from practically 0 in Italy to 50% (in the Netherlands and Denmark) for the 15-19 years age group and to 60% (in the Netherlands, Iceland, and Australia) in the 20-24 years age group.

Table 3.8.

Population structure for age groups of 15-19 and 20-24 years in OECD countries and in Russia, depending on the type of their occupation, in 2002 (in per cent)

Indicators	Employed*		Students	Not employed and not studying	Reference: Percentage of students who work
		Employed students			
15-19 years					
OECD – max	54,5	43,9	95,9	32,8	49,5
OECD – median	22,3	11,0	81,9	6,3	14,0
Russia	13,2	No Data	78,6**	No Data	No Data
OECD – min	4,0	0,4	43,0	2,4	0,5
20-24 years					
OECD – max	78,7	32,1	56,1	45,6	62,0
OECD – median	58,4	7,9	38,1	15,1	19,8
Russia	57,7	No Data	29,4**	No Data	No Data
OECD – min	30,6	0,7	14,5	6,2	2,7

* Including those who study in evening schools and in the evening facilities of primary vocational learning.

Sources: Education at a Glance 2004, Table C4.2; Rosstat data.

Russian indicators for the percentage of employed among the young, as already noted above, are only slightly lower than median indicators for OECD countries. At the same time, Russia is noticeably lagging behind OECD countries' median indicators in terms of the number of students. (Unfortunately, we do not have data re the number of students that work and study, nor re number of people who neither work nor study.)

Among the regions of Russia there is an incredibly large variation in the percentage of employed as well as in the percentage of students. For the 18-19 years age group, the percentage of

employed varies from 51% (in the Chukchi Autonomous Region) to 3% (in the Republic of Ingushetiya), and the percentage of students varies between 17% (in the Republic of Ingushetiya) and 92% (in the City of Moscow). For the 20-24 years age group, the percentage of employed varies from 74% (in the Chukchi Autonomous Region) to 15% (in the Republic of Ingushetiya), and the percentage of students varies between 11% (in the Chukchi Autonomous Region) and 62% (in the City of Moscow).

On the whole, however, the relation between the percentage of employed and of students in the youth age groups cannot practically be defined on the regional level. The correlation factor between the percentage of employed and the percentage of students in the 15-17 years age group equals -0.12 ; in the 18-19 years age group it equals -0.31 , and in the 20-24 years age group it equals zero. Data shown in Tables 9 and 10 are characteristic in this regard: they contain a list of regions with the maximum and the minimum percentage of employment in the 18-19 years and 20-24 years age groups as well as, correspondingly, regions with minimum and maximum percentage of students.

In the 18-19 years age group (Table 3.9) , among the regions with the largest percentage of employed, there are three regions that, at the same time, happen to be in the group of the least students (Chukchi Autonomous Region, Murmansk Oblast, and Chita Oblast). Of the regions with the least number of employed only one region (Voronezh Oblast) has the largest number of students. And three regions with the least percentage of employed are also present, at the same time, in a group of regions with the least number of students (Republic of Dagestan, Chechen Republic, and Republic of Ingushetiya).

Table 3.9.

Regions with maximum and minimum number of employed and that of students in the 18-19 years age group (in per cent)

Maximum percentage of employed		Minimum percentage of students	
Chukchi Autonomous Region	50,9	Republic of Ingushetia	16,7
Vladimir Oblast	40,3	Chechen Republic	20,5
Murmansk Oblast	38,6	Chukchi Autonomous Region	31,3
Pskov Oblast	37,7	Jewish Autonomous Oblast	36,5
Kirov Oblast	37,7	Republic of Dagestan	38,3
Chita Oblast	36,9	Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya	39,4
Republic of Karelia	36,6	Murmansk Oblast	42,0
Kamchatka Oblast	36,3	Krasnodar Krai	42,7
Arkhangelsk Oblast	35,7	Sakhalin Oblast	44,4
Udmurt Republic	35,3	Chita Oblast	44,5
Minimum percentage of employed		Maximum percentage of students	
Voronezh Oblast	19,7	Omsk Oblast	64,9
Stavropol Krai	19,6	St. Petersburg and Leningrad Oblast	65,2
Lipetsk Oblast	18,8	Republic of Tatarstan	65,7
Republic of Dagestan	18,0	Moscow and Moscow Oblast	66,3
Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	16,9	Oryol Oblast	69,3
Republic of Tyva	15,6	Chuvash Republic	69,7
Tambov Oblast	15,4	Kursk Oblast	71,4
Republic of Mordovia	14,1	Voronezh Oblast	71,6
Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya	13,5	Republic of Khakassiya	72,5
Republic of Ingushetia	2,9	Republic of Mordovia	78,9

Source: Rosstat data and data by the Ministry of Science and Education

The reverse relation, between the number of employed and the number of students in the 20-24 years' age group (Table 3.10), is even less pronounced. In this case, only one region being a part of the group with the largest number of employed is at the same time in the list of the regions with the least number of students (Chukchi Autonomous Region). At the same time, one region with the largest level of employment is also a part of the list for regions with the largest number of students (Republic of Udmurtiya). And among the regions with the least level of employment, there are five that simultaneously have a place in the list of the regions with the smallest number of students (Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya, Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya, Republic of Tyva, Chechen Republic, and Republic of Ingushetia).

Table 3.10.

Regions with maximum and minimum percentage of employed and of students among those aged 20 to 24 years (in per cent)

Maximum Percentage of Employed		Minimum Percentage of Students	
Chukchi Autonomous Region	74,2	Chukchi Autonomous Region	10,7
Vladimir Oblast	71,6	Republic of Ingushetia	11,4
Kirov Oblast	70,9	Chechen Republic	14,5
Tver Oblast	70,6	Chita Oblast	16,9
Udmurt Republic	70,4	Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	16,9
Vologda Oblast	68,9	Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya	18,0
Arkhangelsk Oblast	68,8	Tyumen Oblast	18,2
Novgorod Oblast	67,8	Kaliningrad Oblast	19,2
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	67,5	Sakhalin Oblast	19,6
Republic of Karelia	66,9	Republic of Tyva	19,6
Minimum Percentage of Employed		Maximum Percentage of Students	
Tomsk Oblast	48,9	Udmurt Republic	32,5
Republic of Adygeya	47,5	Republic of Mordovia	33,1
Kalmyck Republic	42,9	Ivanovo Oblast	33,2
Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	41,3	Voronezh Oblast	34,1
Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	40,3	Khabarovsk Krai	36,5
Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya	39,1	Kamchatka Oblast	37,0
Republic of Tyva	38,3	Novosibirsk Oblast	38,9
Republic of Dagestan	32,2	Tomsk Oblast	39,4
Chechen Republic	20,8	St. Petersburg and Leningrad Oblast	41,5
Republic of Ingushetia	14,8	Moscow and Moscow Oblast	43,9

Sources: Rosstat data and data by the Ministry of Science and Education.

Thus, in reality the number of employed and the number of students within age groups of the young people are connected not by a reverse, but by a direct relation. In other words, in regions with low levels of employment a low percentage of the young people go study. In this regard, the assessment of the relative quantity of 'problem youth' in a region becomes an important issue, i.e. those young people who do not work anywhere and do not study.

Unfortunately, data regarding the number of employed Russian students (those who both work and study) are unavailable. Thus we cannot make a precise estimate of the percentage of people who neither work nor study. An only possibility in this respect is to assess a number of people will not work and study in any case. This minimum estimate (equal to 100%, if we take

into account the percentage of employed and the number of students) will be 8.2% for the 15-19 years age group across Russia and 12.9% for the 20-24 years age group.

Well, it is quite understandable that this group of people who do not work and do not study is very non-uniform. First of all, this group includes women who must stay at home with small children. A certain portion of this group constitute disabled people with a pension. The rest of this group can be divided into those who would like to work and who try to find it (the unemployed) and others, who are at all not active in the economy. Excluding women with small children, those who do not work and do not study should become the center of most attention for youth policies on the labor market. (This is also important due to wider opportunities necessary for the employment of disabled.) It is also quite clear that a certain part of exactly this group (of those who neither work nor study) is mostly a potential source of youth criminality.

PES data (Table 3.11) provide a certain idea re status of study and status of employment of the young people aged 15-24 years. Only daytime students were counted within the framework of PES, and this introduces a certain distortion into general estimates, if we think of a high number of students who go to non-daytime classes in secondary vocational schools and distant learning facilities of the college level. As a result, for the age group of 20-24 years of age, the minimum estimate of the percentage of those who do not work and do not study was calculated, as per the above, at 12.9%, but the maximum number, arrived at on the basis of PES data, is 20.5%.

Table 11.

Population structure for the 15-24 age groups, with regard to study and employment status, by age groups, in 2002 (in per cent)

Indicators	15-17 years	18-19 years	20-24 years
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0
Students of daytime schools	91,6	61,6	21,8
Employed	2,5	1,5	0,6
Looking for work	0,7	1,3	0,6
Not looking for work	88,4	58,8	20,6
Occupied*	2,8	23,6	57,8
Not working and not studying	5,6	14,8	20,5
Pensioners (on disability)	0,5	0,8	1,1
Home-makers, those caring for young children or having an income from some property	0,4	2,0	6,1
Others	4,7	12,0	13,2
Unemployed**	1,5	5,3	8,0
Economically inactive	3,2	6,7	5,3

* Not taking into account students who work.

** Not taking into account students looking for work.

Source: PES data

This group of young people who do not study and do not work is an important issue in terms of youth policies and youth development. Let us make an estimate of how big such a group, can be on regional level. We will use the minimum estimate for that: subtracting from 100% the percentage of employed and the percentage of students. For the purposes of this estimate let us take the mean of the PES and RPC data. If the number of students in the region is over 100% (due to double count and to errors in determining the students' age), this number can be arbitrarily taken to equal 99%. Having this arbitrary estimate as a basis, the percentage of those who are not employed and do not study will be over 10% in at least ten regions (for the age group of 15-17 years). In the 18-19 and 20-24 age groups, this percentage will be over the 25% level in approximately 25 regions of Russia.

Table 3.12 shows the list of the regions in which, according to such indirect estimates, the largest number of youth aged 15-24 does not work and does not study.

Table 3.12.

Regions with the maximum percentage of those in the population who do not work and do not study (for the age group of 15-24 year—this is minimal estimate, in per cent)

Regions	15-24 age group	Including those aged		
		15-17	18-19	20-24
Republic of Ingushetiya	70,5	59,9	80,4	73,8
Chechen Republic	54,9	38,9	56,6	64,7
Republic of Dagestan	40,7	30,3	43,7	47,8
Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya	35,3	15,6	47,1	42,9
Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	35,1	20,5	36,3	42,9
Republic of Tyva	27,0	4,4	36,8	42,1
Altai Republic	21,7	16,6	14,7	28,3
Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	21,4	6,9	24,2	29,3
Stavropol Krai	21,0	10,3	29,3	24,6
Krasnodar Krai	20,0	6,4	32,6	23,5
Republic of Adygeya	19,7	8,4	27,4	25,2
Buryat Republic	19,1	4,8	24,1	26,4
Tyumen Oblast	18,4	5,9	28,0	23,4
Kalmyck Republic	18,0	2,6	14,7	31,1
Sakhalin Oblast	17,1	0,5	28,0	22,7
Chita Oblast	17,0	0,5	18,6	27,1
Amur Oblast	15,6	4,9	15,4	22,7
Jewish Autonomous Oblast	14,9	5,6	31,8	12,6
Altai Krai	14,6	-0,3	20,3	22,1
Volgograd Oblast	14,2	4,7	17,8	19,3

Calculated using data provided by the Rosstat and the Ministry of Science and Education.

Of the 20 regions with the largest percentage of young people who do not work and do not study, eleven belong to the Southern Federal Region (Republic of Ingushetiya, Chechen Republic, Republic of Dagestan, Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya, Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya, Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya), Stavropol Krai, Krasnodar Krai, Republic of Adygeya, Kalmyck Republic, and Volgograd Oblast), 5 regions belong to Siberian Federal Region (Republic of Tyva, Altai Republic, Chita Oblast, and Altai Krai), 3 regions are part of the Far Eastern Federal Region (Sakhalin Oblast, Amur Oblast, and Jewish Autonomous Oblast) and 1 region to the Ural Federal Region (Tyumen Oblast).

'Problem regions', i.e. those that present the most problems in terms of youth policies, are thus grouped in certain relatively uniform and close areas (if such a word can be at all applied to

Russia)—these are such geographic regions as North Caucasus, Southern Siberia, and the Far East. Consequently, the goals of raising the number of employed youth and youth that study in these areas must be taken up not only by the relevant local administrative entities, but also on the level of interregional cooperation (including that of the Federal Regions).

3.4. Unemployment And Job Placement

Estimates of the number of unemployed made by using PES data should be regarded with a certain caution. These estimates are developed on unverifiable respondents' replies, with very fuzzy criteria of International Labor Organization as their base. ILO's definition is that those should be regarded as unemployed if they, at the same time, a) did not have a job (a gainful activity); b) were looking for work within the four weeks prior to the week of the poll and were using any methods to try finding a job; c) state that they are ready to start working right away. It is certain that, when using such criteria, some people can be considered as unemployed if within the last four weeks they asked a friend once whether he knew places that were hiring—and that assuming that the responses are true.

The third criterion, i.e. readiness to start working right away, also produces certain major doubts. As a rule, respondents will provide a positive answer to such a question while assuming that they are ready to start not any work there is, but a *suitable job*, something that they like. In the case of the young people, it will be, as a rule, part-time employment, a job located closer to home or a place of study, or types of activities that correspond to tastes and preferences of the young people. This is why the scale of unemployment as shown by using PES data must be rather taken as a maximum estimate than precise data.

As noted above, the percentage of unemployed in the general number of population first starts going up, by age, up to the age group of those aged 20-24 years and then start going down (see Figure 3.7). In 2002 the overall number of unemployed among the population in the age group of 15-17 years was 2.2%, between 18 and 19 years – 6.8 %, in the 20-24 age group it had its peak of 9.0% and for 25-29 year-olds it was 7.4%, etc.

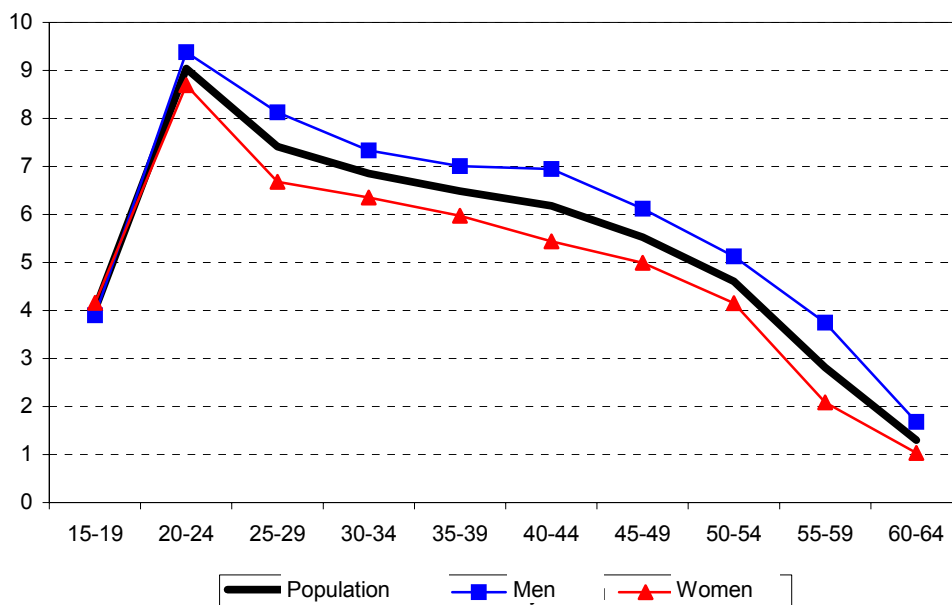


Figure 3.7. Percentage of unemployed as part the population total, by age groups, in 2002, re PES data (in per cent)

Just as with employment figures, unemployment indicators will vary quite a lot by region. A reminder is necessary here that such estimates must be taken with a certain caution, because PES data on the regional level, by the age groups, could be not too representative.

Youth unemployment is first of all dependent of the general situation on the labor market in a region, that is, it is closely connected to general unemployment indicators for the whole population. The correlation factor between the number of unemployed in the 15-19 age group and the number of unemployed among the population under study (between 15 and 72 years) is equal to 0.57, and for the age group 20-24 years the correlation factor equals 0.86. This relation can be easily seen in a graphic representation (Figure 3.8 and 3.9).

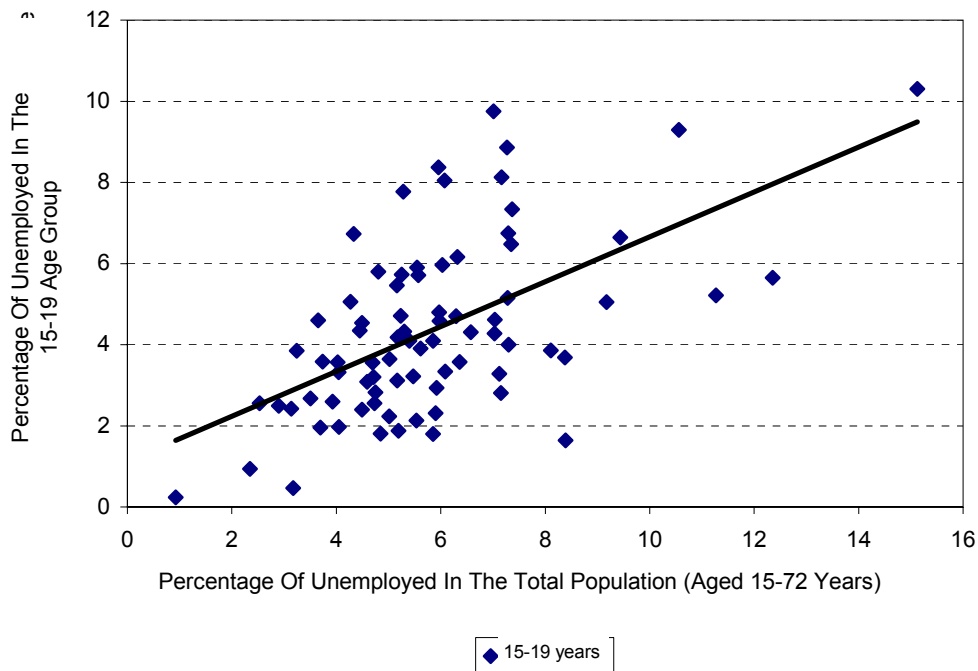


Figure 3.8. Percentage of unemployed in the total population (aged 15-72 years) and in the 15-19 age group, by the regions of the Russian Federation, in 2002 (in per cent—PES data were used)

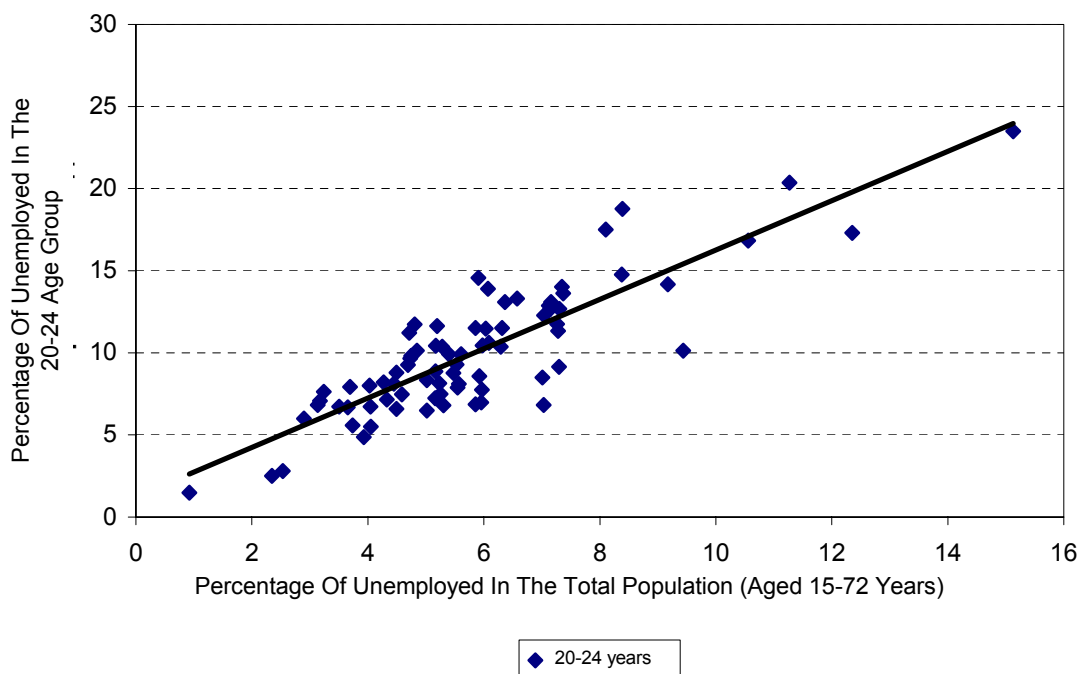


Figure 3.9. Percentage of unemployed in the total population (aged 15-72 years) and in the 20-24 age group, by the regions of the Russian Federation, in 2002 (in per cent—PES data were used)

Let us note that the set of regions with the highest number of unemployed in the total population group under study (aged 15-72 years) will have only two of the ten regions with the highest unemployment rate in the age group 15-19 years (Republic of Dagestan and Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya), and nine out of ten regions with the highest unemployment rate in the age group 20-24 (Table 3.13). In other words, the scope of real regional unemployment for the 15-19 age group will heavily depend on a number of factors that are specific for this age group (they were mentioned above), but the number of unemployed in the 20-24 age group will depend, first and foremost, on the general condition of the regional labor market and on the general level of unemployment in the region.

Table 3.13.

Regions with maximum unemployment rates, in a breakdown by age groups, for the year 2002 (in per cent)

15-72 years		15-19 years		20-24 years	
Russian Federation	5,2	Russian Federation	4,0	Russian Federation	9,0
Republic of Ingushetia	24,3	Republic of Dagestan	10,3	Republic of Ingushetia	23,5
Republic of Dagestan	15,1	Vladimir Oblast	9,8	Republic of Dagestan	23,5
Republic of Tyva	12,4	Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	9,3	Kalmyck Republic	20,4
Kalmyck Republic	11,3	Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya	8,9	Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	18,8
Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	10,6	Magadan Oblast	8,4	Republic of Adygeya	17,5
Republic of Buryatia	9,4	Irkutsk Oblast	8,1	Republic of Tyva	17,3
Republic of Mari El	9,2	Komi Republic	8,0	Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	16,8
Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	8,4	Ryazan Oblast	7,8	Kamchatka Oblast	14,8
Kamchatka Oblast	8,4	Murmansk Oblast	7,3	Tambov Oblast	14,6
Republic of Adygeya	8,1	Tomsk Oblast	6,7	Republic of Mari El	14,2

Source: Rosstat data.

The connection of the youth unemployment and the general labor market condition in regions is quite obvious. This is why of special interest is the estimate of structural youth unemployment, specific for younger age groups. To find regions in which structural youth unemployment exists we will use structural (age-related) unemployment index, which will be estimated in two stages. First the percentage of the unemployed in a given age group is calculated as a relation to the total number of unemployed among the population under study. An analogous average indicator for Russia should divide the resulting value for each region.

Table 3.14 shows lists of regions with the highest values of structural (age-related) unemployment index (SUI) for population groups of 15-19 and 20-24 years. In this case the influence of the general unemployment level in the region will be eliminated, and we can find such regions in which youth unemployment is higher than a 'norm' for the given region. The list

of regions in this case will be sufficiently different from what can be selected by direct estimate of the number of unemployed in the youth age groups.

Table 3.14.

Regions with the maximum level of structural (age-related) unemployment in population groups 15-19 years and 20-24 years, in 2002

15-19 years		20-24 years	
Regions	SUI	Regions	SUI
Ivanovo Oblast	2,0	Tambov Oblast	1,4
Ryazan Oblast	1,9	Kirov Oblast	1,4
Magadan Oblast	1,8	Kursk Oblast	1,4
Vladimir Oblast	1,8	Kostroma Oblast	1,3
Komi Republic	1,7	Komi Republic	1,3
Chukchi Autonomous Region	1,6	Belgorod Oblast	1,3
Republic of Karachaevo-Cherkessiya	1,6	Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	1,3
Kirov Oblast	1,5	Lipetsk Oblast	1,3
Kostroma Oblast	1,5	Tver Oblast	1,2
Kaluga Oblast	1,5	Republic of Adygeya	1,2
Irkutsk Oblast	1,5	Samara Oblast	1,2
Altai Krai	1,4	Pskov Oblast	1,2
Sverdlovk Oblast	1,4	Moscow Oblast	1,2
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	1,4	Saratov Oblast	1,2
Arkhangelsk Oblast	1,3	Chuvash Republic	1,2
Leningrad Oblast	1,3	Krasnodar Krai	1,2
Yaroslavl Oblast	1,3	Kurgan Oblast	1,2
Murmansk Oblast	1,3	Krasnoyarsk Krai	1,2
Perm Oblast	1,3		
Khabarovsk Krai	1,3		
Orenburg Oblast	1,3		

Calculated based on: Rosstat data.

As our calculations have shown, structural, i.e. youth-specific, unemployment is especially high in the 15-19 age group in Ivanovo Oblast, Ryazan Oblast, Magadan Oblast, and Vladimir Oblast, as well as in the Komi Republic. For the 20-24 age group, a clearly defined structural (i.e. youth-related) character of the unemployment can be shown in Tambov Oblast, Kirov Oblast, Kursk Oblast, and Kostroma Oblast, as well as in the Komi Republic. This means that youth employment programs must be more actively introduced in these regions.

As was noted above, the highest unemployment rate among the age groups exists in the population group 20-24 years of age: this one must attract, then, more attention than any other group. Let us have more detail on this age group and let us see how the level of education will influence the indicators of the youth employment market.

In the 20-24 age group, as differing from younger age groups, abound persons with secondary and higher vocational education (Figure 3.10)³⁴. But the distribution of the population in this age group will be, of course, shifted towards lower levels of education—if we compare it to older age groups (in the 20-24 age group, not all students or those aspiring to study will have completed their education).

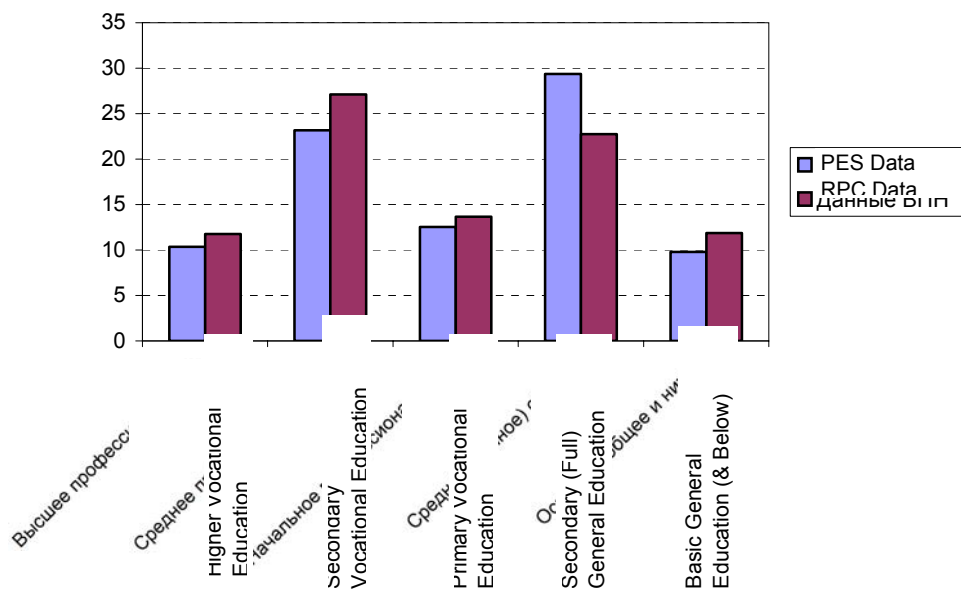


Figure 3.10. Population structure for the 20-24 age group, by level of education, in 2002 (in per cent)

As in older age groups, characteristics that specify the condition on the labor market for the 20-24 age group get better as the level of education gets higher. When the level of education goes up, so is the level of employment, and the percentage of unemployed in the count for each specific group will decrease (Figure 3.11).

³⁴ We are not introducing here data regarding persons with “incomplete higher education” available in Russian statistics, but take into account only those levels of education that are completed by issuing a certain qualification document (a certificate, a diploma, etc.).

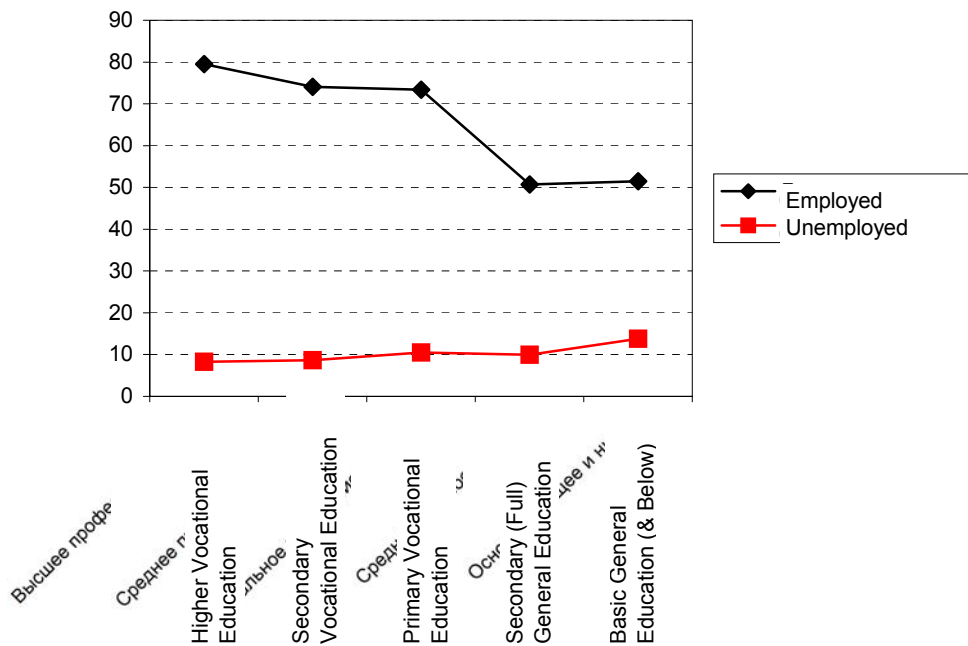


Figure 3.11. The number of employed and unemployed in the 20-24 age group of the population, by education level, as per PES data in 2002 (in per cent)

Regarding regional characteristics of unemployment indicators relative to the education level, in the 20-24 age group, it must be stressed that such estimates (within the PES framework) are even less representative, because sub-selections are used in this case, and they were defined by using four parameters: working status (3 gradations), regions (79 to 88 gradations), age groups (10 to 12 gradations), and level of education (5 to 7 gradations). Which only means that estimates for each separate indicator were based only on an insignificant part of the general selection.

Regional indicators of the number of unemployed among citizens with various kinds of vocational training in the age group 20-24 years are, in principle, quite closely connected to the general indicators of unemployed percentage in a given age group. The correlation factor between the number of unemployed among people with higher education and the general number of unemployed in the age group under consideration equals 0.53; for the indicator of the number of unemployed among the people with secondary vocational training, it goes up to 0.71, and for those with primary vocational training it is 0.55. These relations are represented graphically in Figures 3.12 – 3.14.

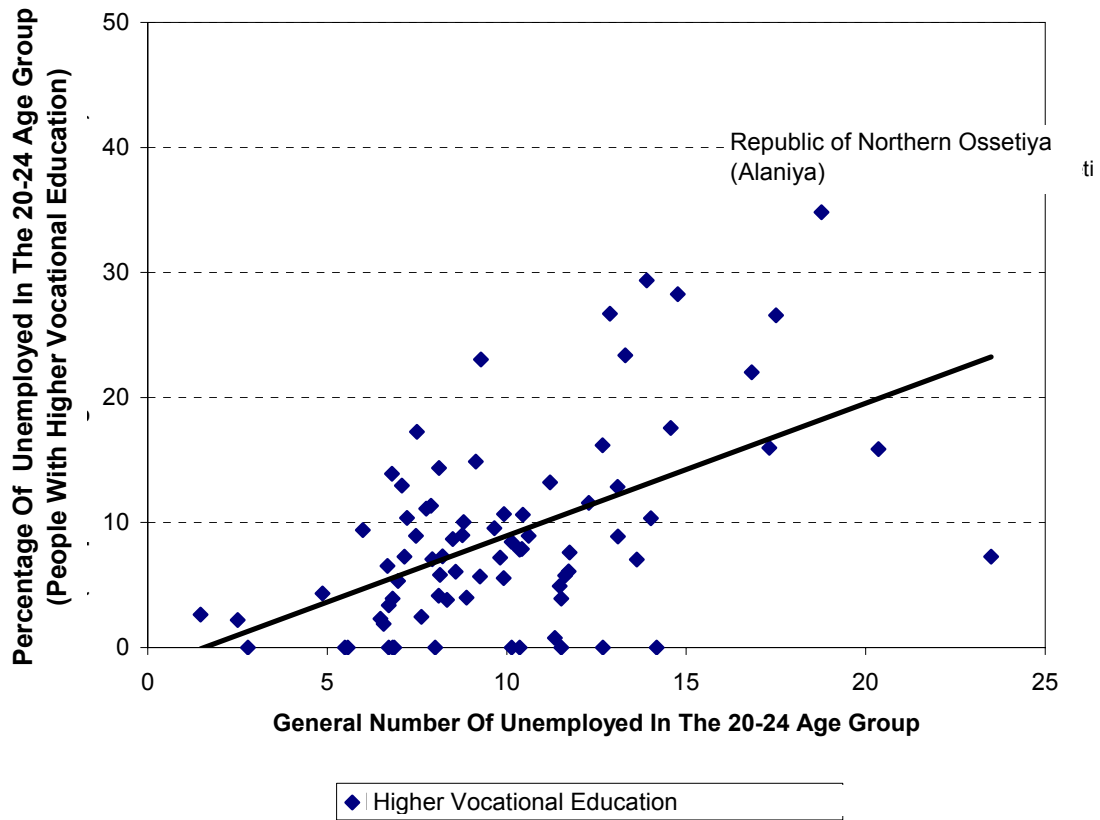


Figure 3.12. General number of unemployed in the age group 20-24 years and the number of unemployed among people with higher vocational training in the age group 20-24 years, by regions, in 2002, as per PES data (in per cent)

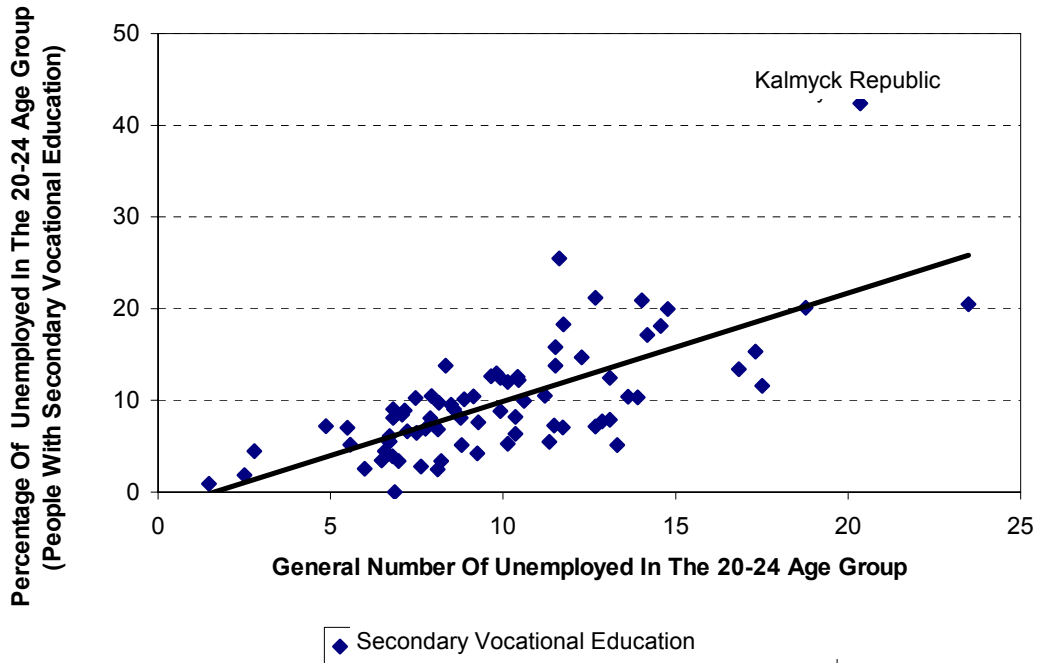


Figure 3.13. General number of unemployed in the age group 20-24 years and the number of unemployed among people with secondary vocational training in the age group 20-24 years, by regions, in 2002, as per PES data (in per cent)

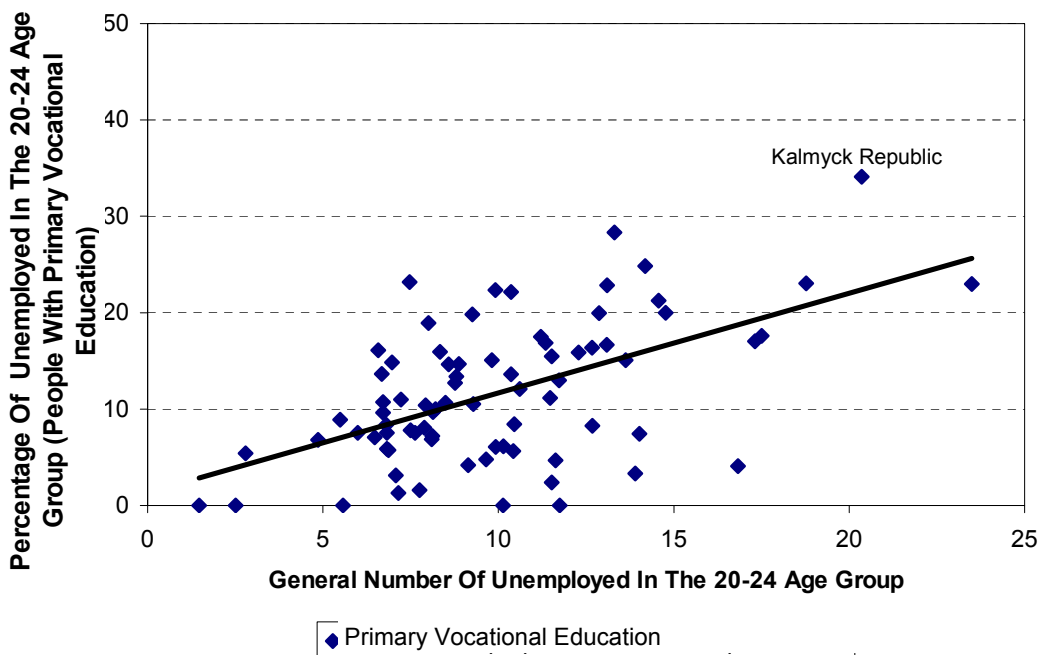


Figure 3.14. General number of unemployed in the age group 20-24 years and the number of unemployed among people with primary vocational training in the age group 20-24 years, by regions, in 2002, as per PES data (in per cent)

Beside general condition of the age group under consideration, various structural factors influence unemployment indicators for people with different levels of education. Suffice it to say

that the 'correct' (negative) relation between the percentage of unemployment indicator and the level of education is not necessarily present in too many regions. For example, in 32 regions the percentage of unemployed among people with higher education is higher than among people with secondary vocational training, and in 10 regions the difference is higher than by 10 percentage points. In 23 regions the percentage of unemployed among people with secondary education is higher than among people with primary vocational training, and in 6 regions the difference is higher than by 10 percentage points. More so, in 26 regions the percentage of unemployed among people with higher education is higher than among people with primary vocational training, and in 5 regions the difference is higher than by 10 percentage points.

One of possible factors defining the level of unemployment could, in theory, be the general unit number of people with a specific type of education. If we put it in simpler terms, this means that unemployment may exist due to a relative surplus ('glut') of specialists in a type of professional education, on a regional level. This hypothesis, however, does not find a validation for the age group under consideration: the number of unemployed in it is not at all related to the number of people with a specific type of education in the general population count (within this age group)—corresponding correlation factors are 0.12 for people with higher education, 0.0 for those with secondary and 0.09 for primary education.

To estimate the structural (education-related) unemployment, we will once again use the structural unemployment index. In this case, the number of unemployed within a specific education bracket is calculated to the general number of unemployed within the 20-24 years age group. The value estimated for each regions should be divided by the analogous all-Russian index.

In Table 3.15, lists of regions are shown that have the highest values of structural (education-related) unemployment index (SUI) for population groups of 20-24 years having higher, secondary and primary vocational training. In this case, influence of the general unemployment level in the region is yet again eliminated, and thus we can identify those regions in which unemployment for people with different types of professional education is higher than what is 'normal' for this specific region.

Table 3.15.

Regions with a maximum level of structural (education-related) unemployment in population groups for ages 15-19 years and 20-24 years, in 2002.

Higher Vocational Training		Secondary Vocational Training		Primary Vocational Training	
Regions	SUI	Regions	SUI	Regions	SUI
Voronezh Oblast	2,7	Belgorod Oblast	2,6	Penza Oblast	2,5
Republic of Karelia	2,4	Kalmyck Republic	2,2	Ulianovsk Oblast	2,1
Komi Republic	2,3	Republic of Khakassiya	1,8	Sakhalin Oblast	2,0
Amur Oblast	2,3	Altai Republic	1,7	Stavropol Krai	2,0
Altai Krai	2,2	Smolensk Oblast	1,6	Oryol Oblast	2,0
Moscow	2,1	Yaroslavl Oblast	1,6	Kurgan Oblast	1,9
Khabarovsk Krai	2,1	Republic of Mordovia	1,6	Kaliningrad Oblast	1,8
Lipetsk Oblast	2,0	Republic of Karachaevo- Cherkessiya	1,5	Chukchi Autonomous Oblast	1,8
Kamchatka Oblast	2,0			Republic of Khakassiya	1,7
Kurgan Oblast	2,0			Magadan Oblast	1,7
Moscow Oblast	1,7			Yaroslavl Oblast	1,6
Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	1,7			Republic of Mari El	1,5
Sverdlovsk Oblast	1,7			Chuvash Republic	1,5
Republic of Adygeya	1,7				
Omsk Oblast	1,6				
Tomsk Oblast	1,6				
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	1,5				

Calculated using Rosstat data.

The highest level of structural unemployment among people with higher vocational training in the 20-24 age group was present in Voronezh Oblast, Republic of Karelia, Komi republic, Amur Oblast, and Altai Krai. For those with secondary vocational training, a high level of structural unemployment in the age group under consideration was discovered in Belgorod Oblast, Kalmyck Republic, Republic of Khakassiya, and Altai Republic. Finally, a high level of structural unemployment among people with primary vocational training in the 20-24 age group existed in Penza Oblast, Ulianovsk Oblast, Sakhalin Oblast, Oryol Oblast, and Stavropol Krai.

Of special importance for the proper functioning of the youth labor market are job placement indicators for those graduating from vocational training facilities. Such indicators point to the

reciprocal relations existing between the educational system and the market of education services, and the labor market; thus they provide a direct reflection of 'labor' effectiveness of existing Russian system of vocational training.

Two sources of data can be used to characterize conditions in the area of job placement for graduates of vocational training facilities. These are, first, Rostrud data regarding the number of graduates of vocational training facilities that have officially registered as unemployed. Second, there are data by the Ministry of Science and Education regarding the number of graduates from vocational training schools that have gotten job placements at graduation as opposed to those who have not.

In the statistics of registered unemployed, as per Rostrud data, such citizen are called 'graduates' that came to a job placement agency for the first time and that did not work in the period of time between the graduation from their *alma mater* and the registration at the agency (disregarding the year of graduation). Using these data, two indicators can be used to monitor general job placement scene: one is the percentage of 'graduates' of vocational training schools in the general number of registered unemployed and the other one is the ratio of the number of year-end registered 'unemployed' graduates (in a breakdown by types of vocational training levels) to the general number of graduates in educational facilities of this specific type in a specific year (Table 3.16).

Table 3.16.

Relative number of 'graduates' of vocational training facilities who officially registered as unemployed by the end of 2002.

Indicators	Higher vocational training	Secondary vocational training	Primary vocational training
Including the Chechen Republic			
Number of 'graduates' in the general count of registered unemployed	1,1	2,4	2,0
Without the Chechen Republic			
Number of 'graduates' in the general count of registered unemployed	0,8	1,9	1,4
Ratio of 'graduates' to the general number of graduates in this year	2,0	5,6	4,6

Calculated using data by Rostrud and by the Ministry of Science and Education.

Among regions, indicators of relative level of registered unemployment for 'graduates' of various types of vocational training institutions correlate very closely to general indicators of registered unemployment by region. Thus, the correlation factor between the ratio of registered unemployed 'graduates' to the total number of graduates in a specific year and the percentage of registered unemployed in the general population count (for working, able-bodied population), by region, equals 0.7 for all types of vocational education (0.69 for higher vocational education, 0.71 for secondary vocational education, and 0.69 for primary vocational education).

The correlation between the levels of registered unemployment by types of vocational training is even closer. The correlation factor of the ratio of registered unemployed 'graduates' to the general number of graduates in a specific year is equal 0.99 for higher and secondary vocational training facilities; 0.98 for higher and primary vocational training facilities; and 0.98 for secondary and primary vocational training facilities. This means that regional differences in such indicators as we have been looking at, do not show, in fact, the actual situation in the regions regarding job placement of specifically graduates of different types of vocational training facilities.

Additional information about the conditions existing around job placement of graduates from vocational training facilities can be tapped from the data of the Ministry of Science and Education. As noted above, these data reflect only a limited percentage of those graduating from vocational training facilities, i.e. those who graduate from state learning facilities and who were educated in daytime programs paid for by the state budget. In 2002, 84% of primary vocational training graduates, 49% of secondary vocational training graduates, and only 41% of higher vocational training graduates belonged to this category (see Table 3.17).

Table 3.17.

Students graduating in 2002 from vocational training facilities, by type of job placement (in per cent)

<i>Indicators</i>	Percentage of all graduates			Percentage of graduates who took daytime programs and were studying through state budget allocations		
	Primary vocational training	Secondary vocational training	Higher vocational training	Primary vocational training	Secondary vocational training	Higher vocational training
<i>Total graduates</i>	100.0	100.0	100.0			

Non-state educational facilities	0.0	3.5	10.4			
State educational facilities	100.0	96.5	89.6			
Non-daytime education	15.9	25.5	39.2			
Daytime education	84.1	71.0	50.4			
Privately funded education	0.0	22.5	9.4			
Budget funded education	84.1	48.6	41.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Got a job placement at graduation	46.3	15.7	19.2	55.0	32.4	46.8
Via contracts with enterprises	No Data	6.6	7.3	No Data	13.6	17.7
Via requests from enterprises	No Data	9.1	11.9	No Data	18.8	29.1
Did not get any job placement	37.8	32.8	21.8	45.0	67.6	53.2
Due to no requests from enterprises	6.1	3.9	1.9	7.3	8.0	4.6
Wanted to find work on their own	9.1	13.1	11.1	10.8	27.1	27.0
Continuing education in the next level using daytime option	9.4	9.1	6.0	11.1	18.8	14.6
Called up for military service	12.8	4.5	1.2	15.2	9.3	2.9
Other	0.5	2.2	1.7	0.6	4.5	4.1

Calculated using data of the Ministry of Science and Education.

Considering these data, we can see that direct job placement problems experience 6-7% of primary vocational training school graduates (i.e. they do not get any job placement after their graduation due to lack of requests from the enterprises); the same is true for 4-8% of secondary vocational training school graduates, and for 2-5% of higher vocational training school graduates.

These data correspond, generally speaking, to indicators showing the ratio of the number of unemployed 'graduates' that have registered in the job placement agencies to the number of this year's graduates (see above): 5% for primary vocational training school graduates, 6% for secondary vocational training school graduates, and 2% for higher vocational training school graduates.

Both the Rostrud data and the Ministry of Science and Education data will not provide precise information on job placement of vocational training school graduates. Nevertheless, combined with the data by Rosstat (see above data on the percentage of unemployed by groups of citizens with differing types of vocational training), they will provide a certain general

understanding of what is the relative number of people that have problems with getting job after they graduate vocational training schools.

Looking at the above data, one can state that for Russia in general today, there is no big problem in finding a job for graduates of vocational training schools. Graduates of higher vocational training schools have least problems with finding a job (although, unfortunately, they will by far not always find a job in their vocation or even a job commensurate to their level of training). Some more problems exist for job placement of graduates of secondary and primary vocational training schools, but even in this case problems, on the average in Russia, do not reach a critical level. As far as the regional level is concerned, characteristics of job placement in this case will be influenced by the general condition of the labor market in regions and by the level of regional economic development.

4. Youth and Society

4.1. Participation of young people in the political life and social initiatives

Political and public activity is an important characteristic of the young people's condition. It is especially actual considering the objective of construction of civil society in Russia – realized as a necessity and named by President Putin among the top priorities.

How active or passive the young Russians are in political and public life? There are several possible criteria to estimate political activity of young people: from theoretical interest and a hypothetical possibility of young people participation in public actions, up to the estimation of their involvement into concrete political events, in particular, in elections.

One should note that the majority of data about a political and public life of young people have rather a presuming than ascertaining character as they are drawn from sociological interrogations results. There are practically no official statistics in this sphere and corresponding statistical data about participation in elections either do not exist at all, or are inaccessible for confidentiality reasons. Some attempts to gather and analyze this sort of information are extremely interesting, but the results of such analysis, for clear reasons, cannot be considered as representative³⁵. In this section, they use the results of single and periodic investigations of the "Public opinion" Fund (ФОМ)³⁶, Yury Levada's Analytical center (Levada-Center)³⁷, All-Russia Center of public opinion studying (ВЦИОМ)³⁸ and the results of separate studies of Russian and foreign researchers.

According to the ФОМ³⁹ interrogation, of 37 % of young people are interested in politics, and almost two thirds of our young citizens (62 %) do not show interest to this sphere. The most apolitical group are the young people at the age from 18 to 29 y.o. (fig. 4.1. – % from the total number of the interrogated persons):

³⁵ Andrey Buzin .O Age structure of voters. To find the reference

³⁶ http://bd.fom.ru/cat/humdrum/home_family/molodezh

³⁷ <http://www.levada.ru>

³⁸ <http://www.wciom.ru/>

³⁹ Fund " Public opinion ". The poll (January, 17th, 2004) concerns only 18-35 y.o. respondents. The All-Russia poll of city and rural population in 100 settlements of 44 regions, territories and republics of all economical and geographical zones. Interrogation method: home interview. Statistical error does not exceed 3,6 %.

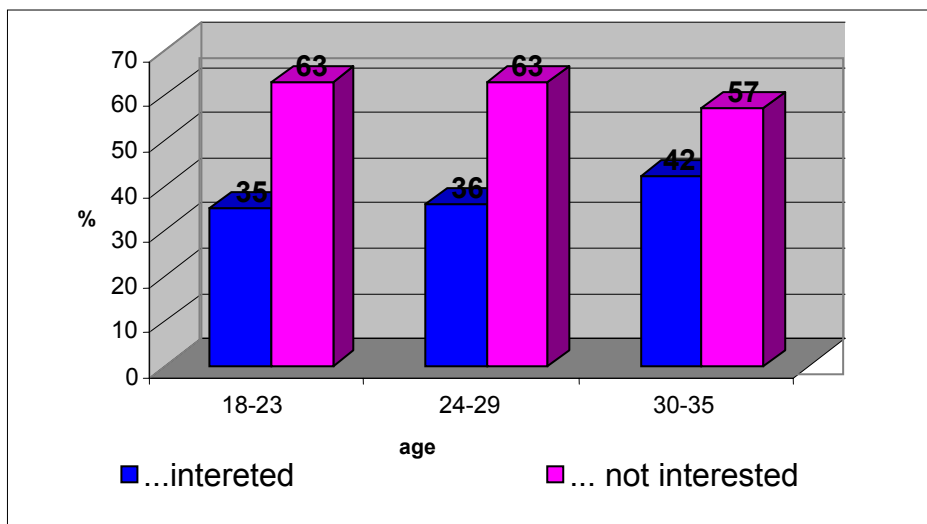


Fig. 4.1. «Are you interested or not interested in politics?»

Men more often than women are interested in politics (43 % and 32 % respectively). Greater interest is shown also by young people with higher education, relatively well-off. Between working and studying young people no significant differences were found out, but both are more involved into politics information space than those who does not work and or study. There were no distinctions established as to the type of settlements. One may say that interest of young people for politics is connected with their social capital: more educated, solvent, socially successful young people begin to be interested in politics more often than those who simply struggles for survival, is busy with studying or family.

40 % of the interrogated young people do not have friends and connections who would be interested in politics. Studies of identification preferences of Russians show that young people more often than seniors form their nearest environment not on the basis of "the compelled neighborhood" ("near whom I live and with whom I work"), but on the basis of common interests. There is direct dependence: those who is interested in politics, more often have friends and acquaintances which (in their opinion) share their interest and vice versa.

However, despite the lack of interest for politics, the majority of young generation are sure that their life does depend upon it: 51% consider this dependence as strong, 23% – as weak, and only 15% believe that there is no dependence at all. It is not surprising that this category is also more often not interested in politics. Another thing is rather astonishing: among those who consider their life strongly depends on politics, only are 47 % are interested in.

One of the indirect political activity indicators, more likely demonstrating some interest for politics as such, is the attention to political themes in mass-media. Most often young people learn political news from the central (federal) TV broadcasting (88 %)⁴⁰, local TV and the central newspapers (23 % each), central radio (19 %), local press (17 %), stories of friends and relatives (15 %). Other sources political news (local radio, the Internet, leaflets) constitute less than 10 %. Young people get the political events information in the background mode – alongside with other news. Besides, the register of information sources testifies virtual character of politics presence in the life of young people: *nobody among the interrogated mentioned direct*

⁴⁰ According to the "Public opinion" Fund data for 2004.

contacts with representatives some political forces (participation in assemblies, meetings, personal contacts with politicians). At the same time, one should take into account that young people trust the Russian mass-media a little bit more than on the average. So, according to the poll data⁴¹, 12% of young people up to 30 y.o. consider that the mass-media are reliable, and only 6 % of are absolutely not inclined to trust mass-media.

One more indicator of special interest for politics, but already more focused and shaped, is discussing of political news with one's people. 46 % of Russians of 18-35 y.o. tell that they discuss political events with their coeval friends and, in general, among their acquaintances, and 51 % – tell that they do not discuss this. Those who are interested in politics (we remind that these are young people with a rather big social capital), more often discuss political events with their contemporaries. That means that high resource young people's groups not only perceive political information more often than the low resource ones, but transmit and interpret it in their circle.

One of the important indices of the young people's political activity is readiness to personally participate in political practice. In the course of a ФОМ's poll, young people were asked: *"Do you admit or exclude the possibility of becoming an active member of any party?"* . 12 % of respondents answered "yes", 81 % - "no", 7 % were at a loss to answer. Certainly, the number of those who "admit the possibility" to become some party active member does not reflect at all the real potential of "personnel reserve" for Russian political parties. The decision on whether to spend or no time for a party business, will depend on a whole set of situational circumstances. Nevertheless that fact that an overwhelming majority of young people absolutely exclude for themselves his eventuality testifies a significant political passivity of young people. The reasons of this should be the object of a special analysis because the problem is multidimensional. On the one hand, the young people has no skills of self-organizing, articulating and upholding of their proper interests⁴². On the other hand, political parties are not engaged in aggregation and protection of interests of some particular part of the population (of young people as well). Party building, attracting new members is an unresolved problem for parties which have not inherited ramified structures (as the Communist Party of the Russian Federation) or does not have institutional and administrative resources (such as the "United Russia"). That makes that young people interested in politics are sometimes involved in marginal (and even extremist) political structures. This is indirectly confirmed by the fact that among the young people who, in 2003, have voted for the LDPR, there are more of those admitting for themselves the possibility to become the party activist (22 %), than on the average (12 %), and in the big cities this rate is 19%.

It is well-known that any doings should be preceded by inquiry activities, a search of data – so, to become a party activist one should get some information on it. It is indicative that about 39 % of young Russians are at a loss to answer if there are any parties' branches where they live.

Interest to this or that field of activity or public life is greatly connected (especially for young people) with the authority of some personality in this sphere. In the course of its regular polls, Yury Levada's Analytical Center⁴³ periodically rises the question on the credence the population gives to politicians and parties. Without going into the analysis of the

41 Interrogation of the Levada-Center « Monitoring of public opinion »

42 According to Andrey Yurov, head human rights movement from Voronezh, students not only do not wish to struggle for the student's rights (80 %), but even do not want to know them (70 %). Materials of the round table « Civil activity of young Russians », July, 9th 2004, Moscow, Social Information Agency.

43 " Monitoring Social And Economic Changes ", 2003.

reasons and meaning of the fact that the most authoritative politicians for young people (after Putin) are Zhirinovskiy and Shoigu, head of the Ministry for Emergency Situations, we'd like to emphasize that for 33 % of respondents up to 30 y.o. (second result after Putin) no politician at all has credit, and over 17 % were at a loss to answer, which testifies total lack of interest to political life or absence on the political arena of a personage capable to attract sympathies of almost 1/5 of young people. (fig. 4.2)

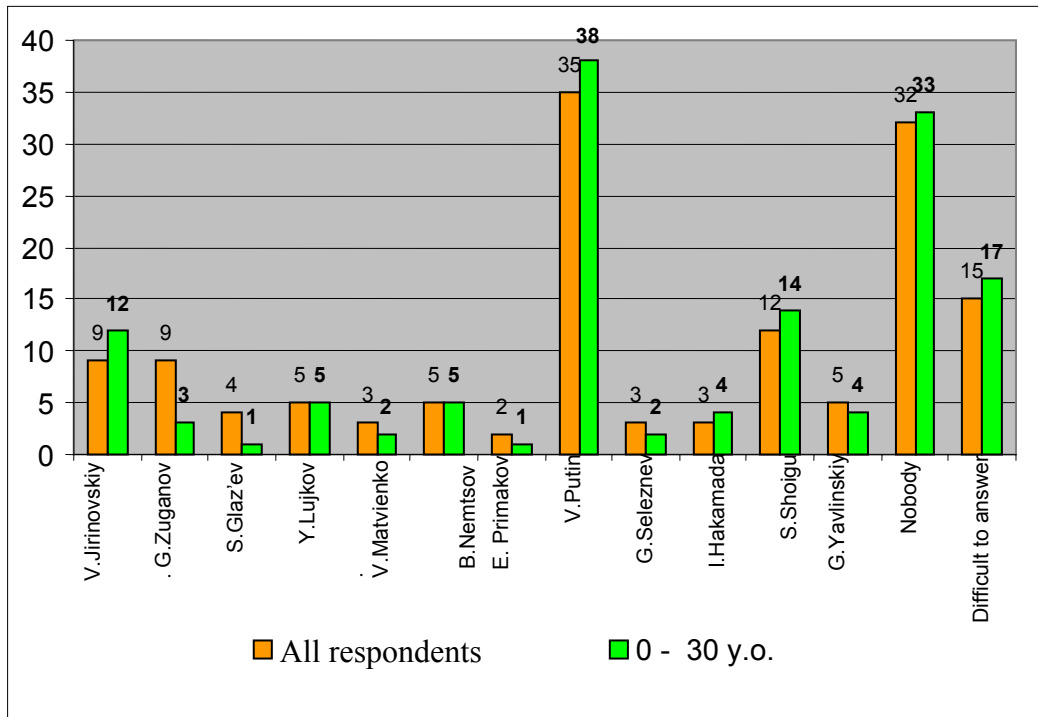


Fig. 4.2 «Give the names of the 5-6 most trust-worthy Russian politicians».

According to the Fund "Public opinion's data"⁴⁴, 79 % of young people of 18-35 y.o. were at a loss to name some political leader authoritative for them. It is indicative of unattractiveness of the political sphere for young people (so far as they search their idols outside politics), and also of a bad orientation of young people in the political space.

If it is still possible to explain the absence of interest for politics, political parties and figures by "remoteness" of the last from the daily life of the average young man, dispassionateness and non-interference in the events occurring in the immediate proximity can hardly be classified otherwise than social passivity. Low participation in mass protest actions can serve as evident illustration of the political passivity of young people. According to the Levada Analytical Center, young people more often than other population groups admit the eventuality of meetings and protest actions in their city or rural area. But only 19 % would participate in them themselves (fig. 4.3.). The figure shows that the «tension degree» – that is the percentage of those ready to

⁴⁴ Poll of January, 2004, 3000 respondents.

participate in meetings and protest actions – as well as of those not admitting such a possibility remains stable during the last 5 years.

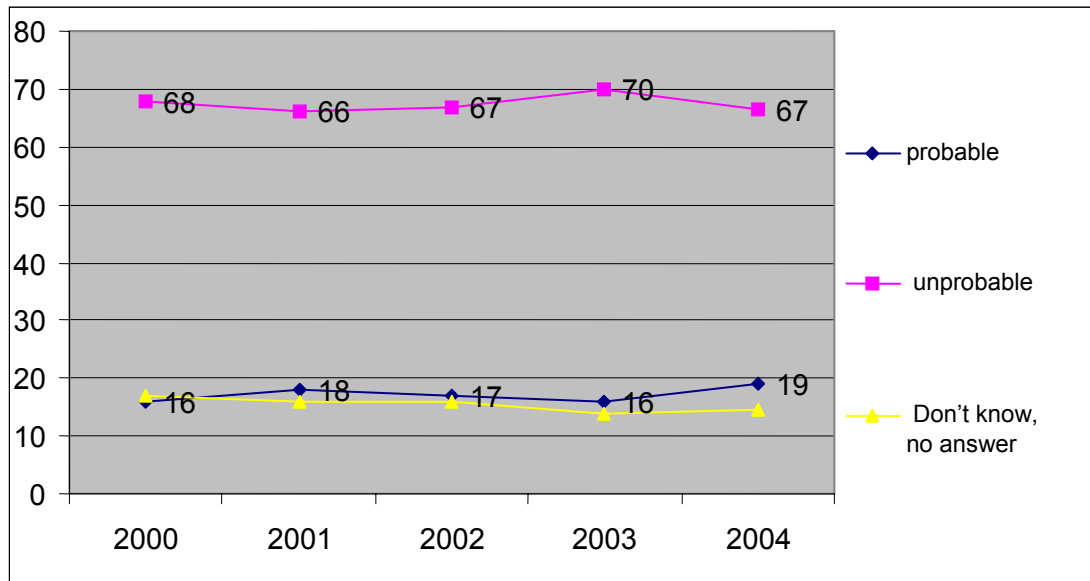
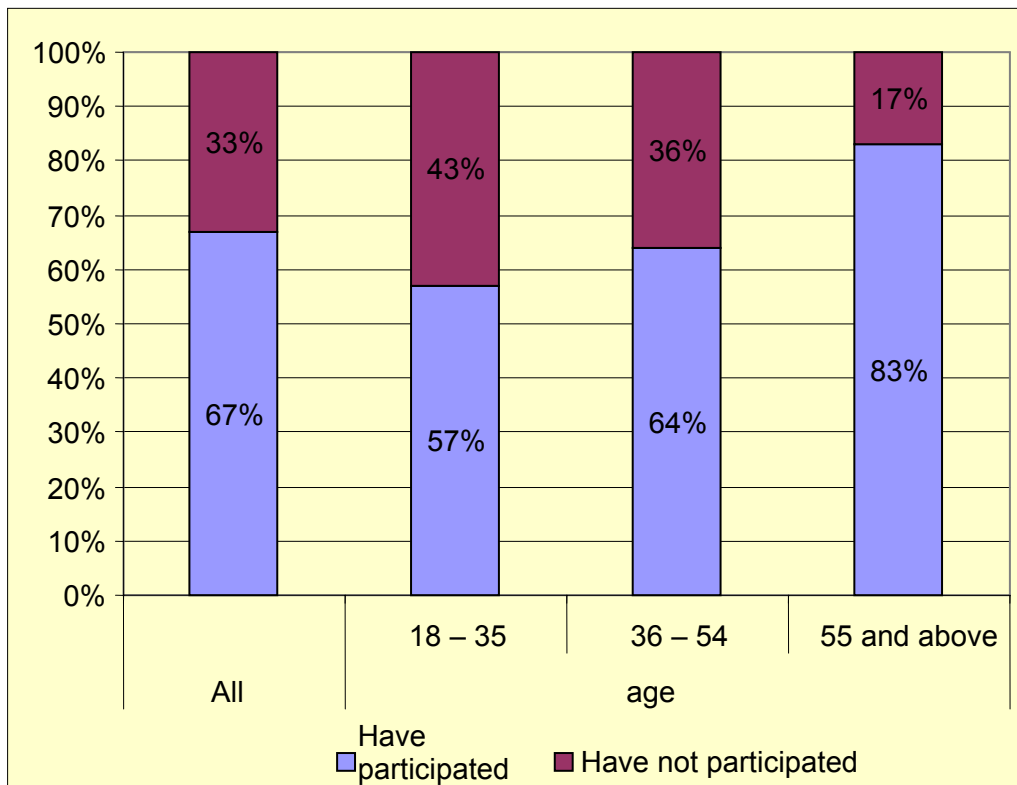


Fig.4.3. «If meetings or manifestations of protest take place in your city, will you participate in them?»

The most precise and showing indicator of political population (in) activity is its participation in elections. According to the "Public opinion" Fund⁴⁵, 57 % of young people of 18-35 y.o. have taken part in the presidential elections on March, 14th, 2004. (fig. 4.5.)

⁴⁵ 67 % of respondents declared they had taken part in elections. Divergences with official data (64,3 %) are within the limits of the statistical error though, probably, some respondents here decided to give a "socially prized" answer.

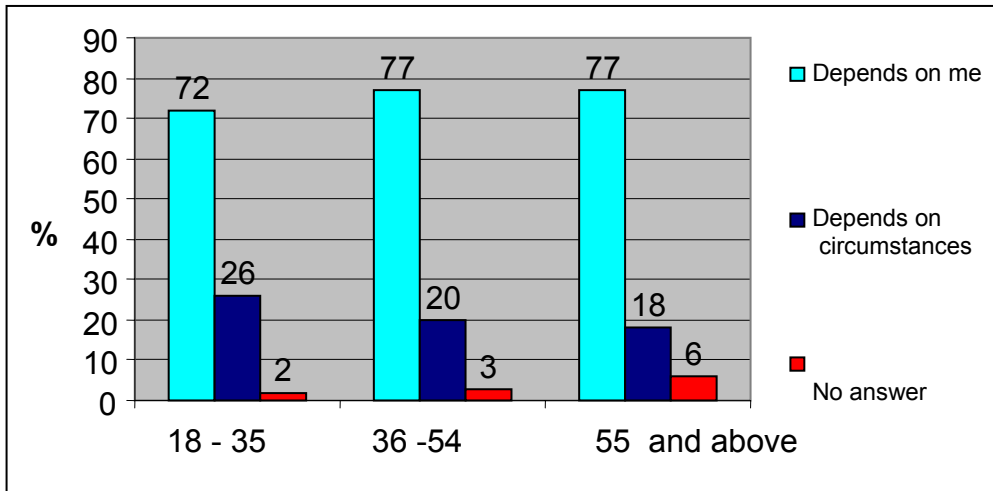


Whether a Fig. 4.4. «Have you taken part in presidential elections in Russia on March, 14th, 2004?»

The diagram clearly shows the young people are the least active part of the electorate, with the lowest participation rate. And one should take into account that the cited data concern the traditionally most "visited" presidential elections, and that only 42 % of the population of 18-35 y.o. participated in parliamentary elections of 2003.

The analysis of the different polls' data lets know how ponderate, thought-over and independent is the political choice of young people, whether participation in voting is the result of a mature political decision or a spontaneous action, provoked by external factors.

The results of sociological studies ascertain: 70 % of young people are assured that they are not influenced by some other people's opinion in their decision to participate or no in elections. At the same time, young people more often depend on external circumstances and less often than more senior voters take responsibility for participation/nonparticipation in voting (fig. 4.6).



The Fig. 4.5. Does the probability of your participation in elections depend first of all on you personally or on external circumstances?

Among young people the rate of those who, one week before voting, has adopted some definitive position (62 %) is the lowest, and the highest – of those who are not sure whether they will take part in the elections (26 %).

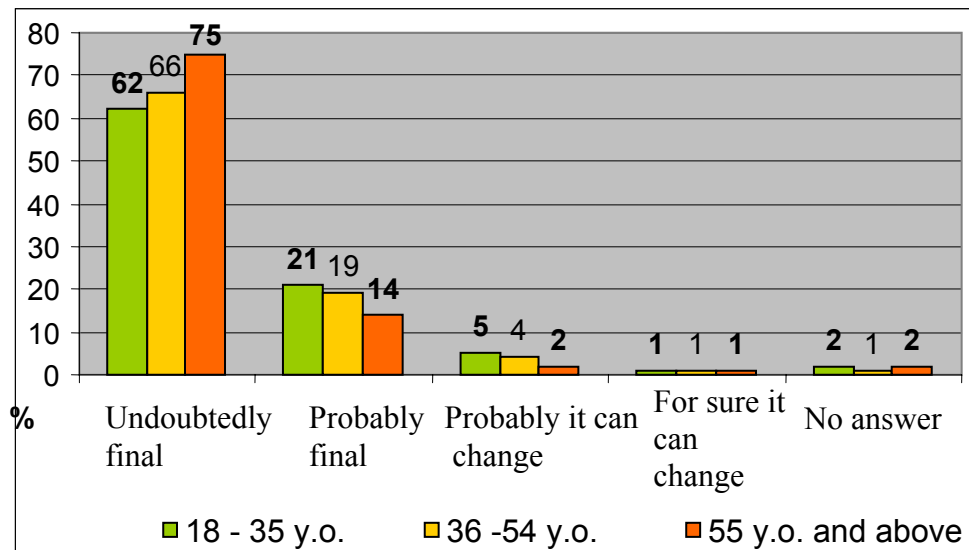


Fig. 4.6. How definitive is your decision to take or not to take part in elections?⁴⁶

Deciding to go or to not go voting, young people are less subject to the standard norms and traditions' influence, they take more often personal responsibility for this decision making and their attitude is more often individualist.

⁴⁶ Poll held one week prior to the presidential election on March, 14th, 2004

The young Russians consider as significant the following reasons of participating in elections (see tab.4.1 Annexe): «I must participate in elections as Russian citizen» (43 % against 48% on the average), «I take part in elections because I hope for changes for the better» (35 % against 34 % on the average), «if I do not participate in elections, they can use my vote for garbling» (26 %). Significant divergences are observed in the opinions of young people and other age groups when the choice is based on the tradition: «I always participate in elections» (8% against 19% on the average) and «I participate in elections because I'm brought up this way» (7 % against 13 % on the average), or when young people lean on their personal sympathies and take responsibility for them «participating in elections, I can help the candidate which I like to become President » (18 % against 14 and 15 % in other age groups).

For young people elections are neither severe necessity, nor a holiday or protest manifestation – voting for young people has no that emotional tint which is characteristic for more aged generations. Among the least serious reasons of participation/nonparticipation in elections for young people there are essentially three following statements: «if I do not participate, I may have troubles» (27 % against 25 % on the average), «for me, participating in elections is a sort of holiday » (20 % against 16и 13 % in other groups), «voting, I can voice my protest» (14 % against 13 % on the average).

Among valid, serious reasons of nonparticipation in elections the first three places are taken by illness (72 %), working on the election day (38 %) and physical absence (36 %). And if, for young people, the first reason has a slightly less importance than for other age groups, the difference in estimation of the second and third reasons is substantial (fig. 4.8.).

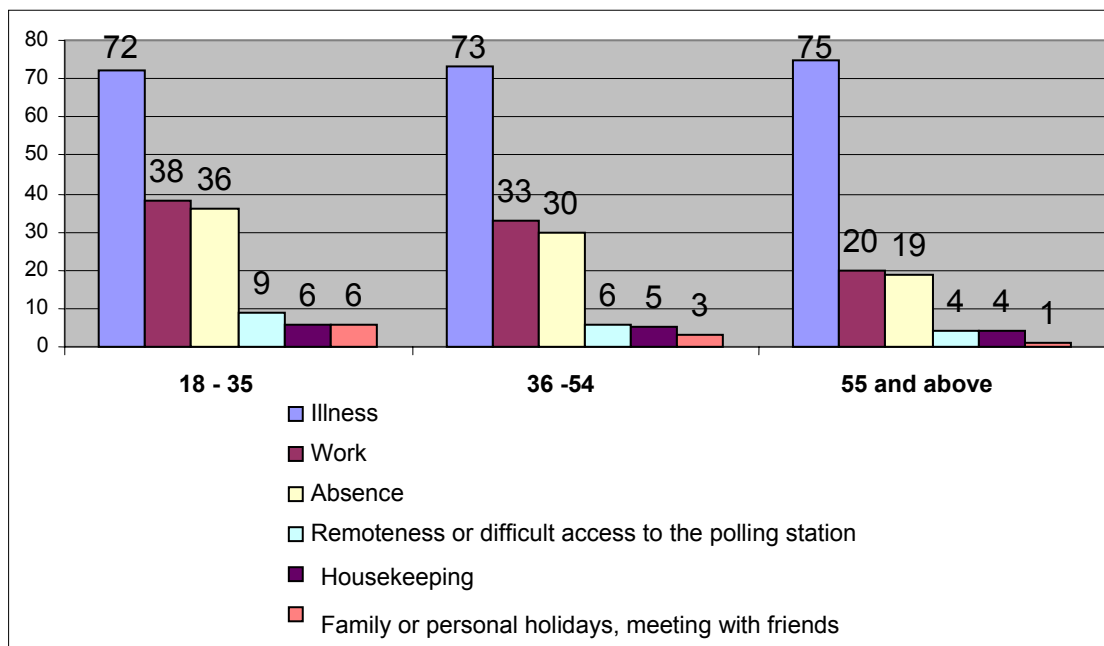


Fig. 4.7. «What reasons of non-participation in elections do you consider as significant, valid?»

It is important to note that when they asks the respondents to specify what reasons can prevent them personally from coming to the vote, the reasons' significance sharply went down. So, illness could personally prevent young Russians to participate in voting in 43 % of cases, work – in 21 %, departure – in 23 %.

As it appears from the diagram (fig. 4.9.), young people are more often inclined to put the personal momentary plans above such public event as elections. So, if participation in elections breaks their personal plans, 38 % will give up plans (average - 52 %), 25% will not participate in elections (average - 14 %). At the same time, young people are inclined to doubt more often – in 21 % of cases.

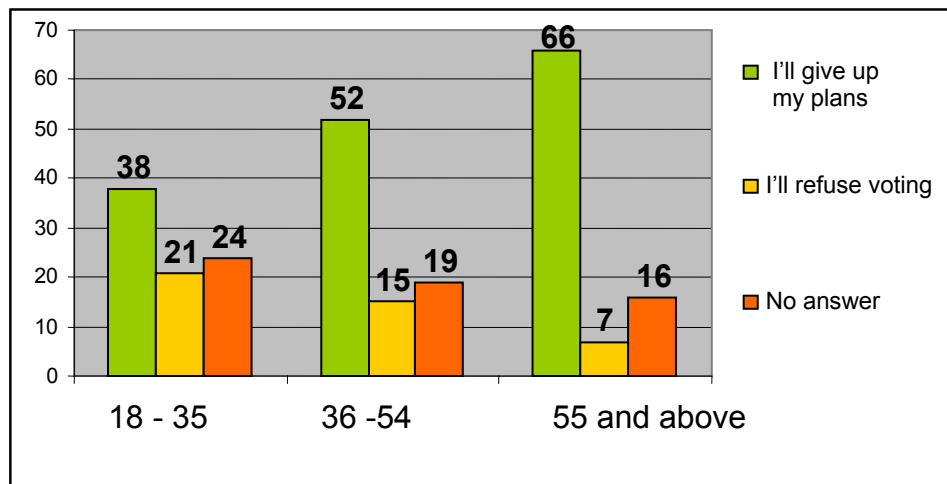


Fig. 4.8. « If your participation in some election breaks your plans, what will you prefer – give up the plans or the elections?»

In their political behavior young people are rather consecutive. So their participation rate in presidential election – the most responsible one – is always below 50%: from 48% down to 33% (fig. 4.10.). And approximately the same part of young people are optimistic concerning changes after elections – for example, 40 % of young people of 18-35 y.o. believed in considerable changes after the presidential election of March, 14th, 2004.

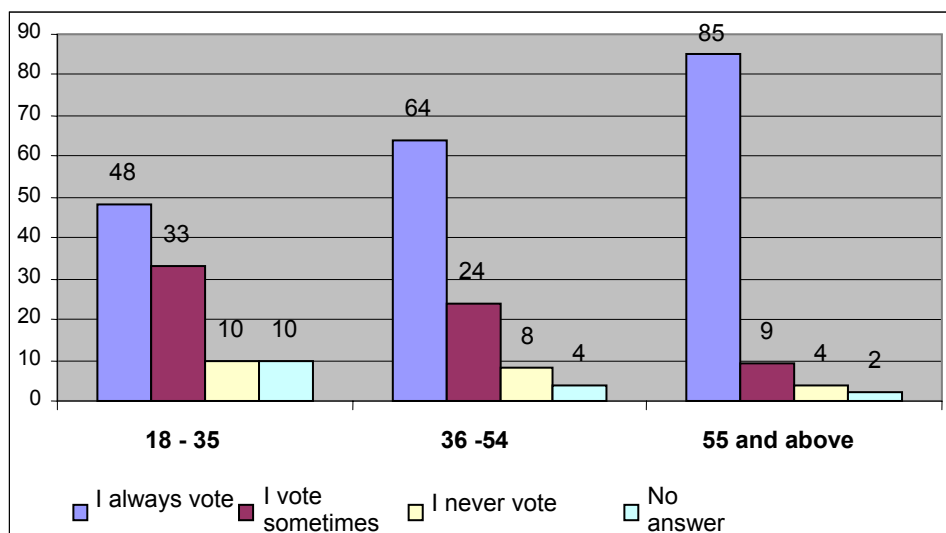


Fig.4.9. «There are people who always go to presidential elections, there are people who never go, there are people who sometimes go and sometimes not. In what group do you rank yourselves?»

Social activity is not defined only by political activity. In the life, between political elections young people have a huge open space for realizing their public and personal ambitions. One of the ways of social self-realization for young people is participation in the youth organizations which can be registered association or a be temporary semi-formal groups⁴⁷.

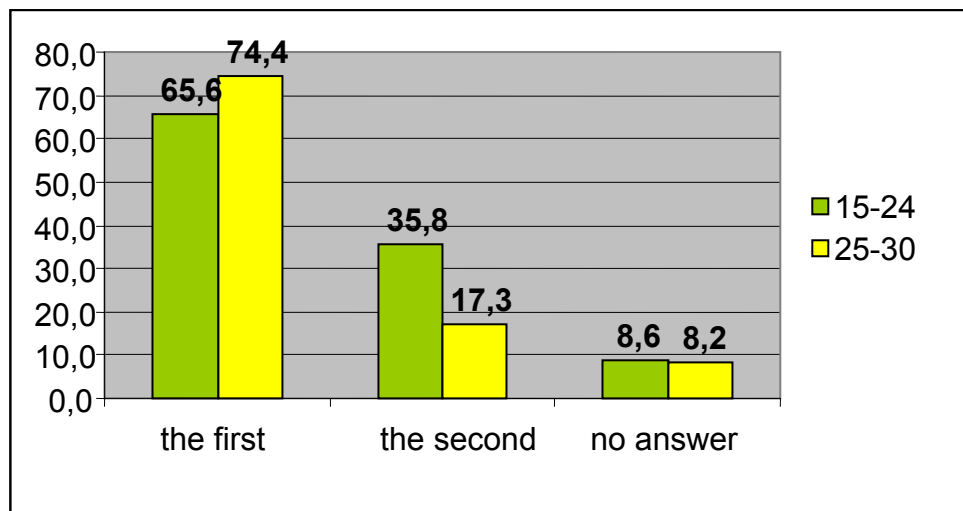
In 2003 the Federal Register of the State-supported Youth and Children Associations included 61 associations (44 youth and 17 children ones) , 29 had all-Russia, 30 inter-regional and 2 international status. The biggest youth associations are:

- ✓ all-Russia Association “National Council of youth and children associations of Russia”;
- ✓ all-Russia Association - National system of development of scientific, creative and innovative activity of young people of Russia "Integration";
- ✓ all-Russia Association “Russian Youth Union”;
- ✓ all-Russia Association “Children and young people’s social initiatives ” (ДИМСИ);
- ✓ all-Russia Association “the Union of the MZHK of Russia”;
- ✓ all-Russia Association “Union of young lawyers of the Russian Federation ”;
- ✓ all-Russia Association “National youth league ”;
- ✓ all-Russia Association “Youth Unity”.

One of the important tendencies of social movement development is the increase in number of children and youth associations which are not officially registered. According to expert estimations, in 2003 less than 20 % of youth associations have been legally registered, and their part decreases every year.

⁴⁷ In this section it is a question of the youth organizations which activity does not conflict with the law, though, according to the Ministry of Internal Affairs, in Russia there are from 15 to 20 thousand neo-fascist movements activists, about 5 thousand of them live in Moscow and Moscow region. (Lenta.ru 01/02/05).

Young people have no unambiguous idea as to the question whether the State must stimulate and help them to realize their public activity. (fig. 4.11.) Maturing, young people still more often consider the State's help as necessary. On the one hand it is explicable by real practical experience acquiring and understanding of the complexity of financial and legal procedures; on the other hand, young people above 25 y.o still remember the scale of the State trusteeship of such youth organizations as Pioneers and Komsomol (Young Communist League).



The Fig. 4.10. «Some consider that the State must assist the youth organizations, others believe that the State should watch that these organizations operate strictly within the law limits. What opinion – the first or the second – do you agree upon?»⁴⁸

The present activity of young people can be estimated as very low, practically equal to zero. According to the all-Russian young people interrogation realized by the "Public opinion" Fund in July, 2002, only 2,7 % of young people of 15-30 y.o. take part in the youth organizations' activities. (fig. 4.12.), in the age group of 15 to 24 y.o.'s the activity rate is slightly higher (of less than one percent).

⁴⁸ The all-Russian interrogation of youth, representing the 14 to 30 y.o. population, was held on July, 18-23th, 2002, in 100 settlements of 44 regions, territories and republics of all economical and geographical zones of Russia

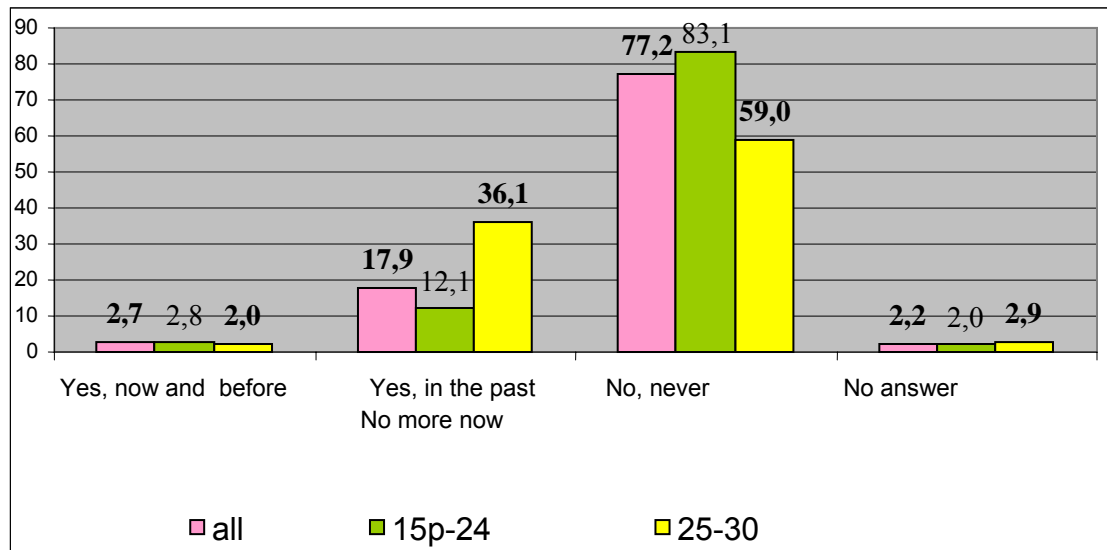


Fig 4.11. « Have you ever taken part in any youth organization? »

36,1% in the senior age group (25 to 30 y.o.) and 12,1 % in the younger one (15-24 years) took part in the youth organizations before, but no more now. The significant divergence between the two groups is due to the fact that young people above 24 y.o. may yet have taken part in the Pioneer and Komsomol organization. (fig. 4.13.-4.15)

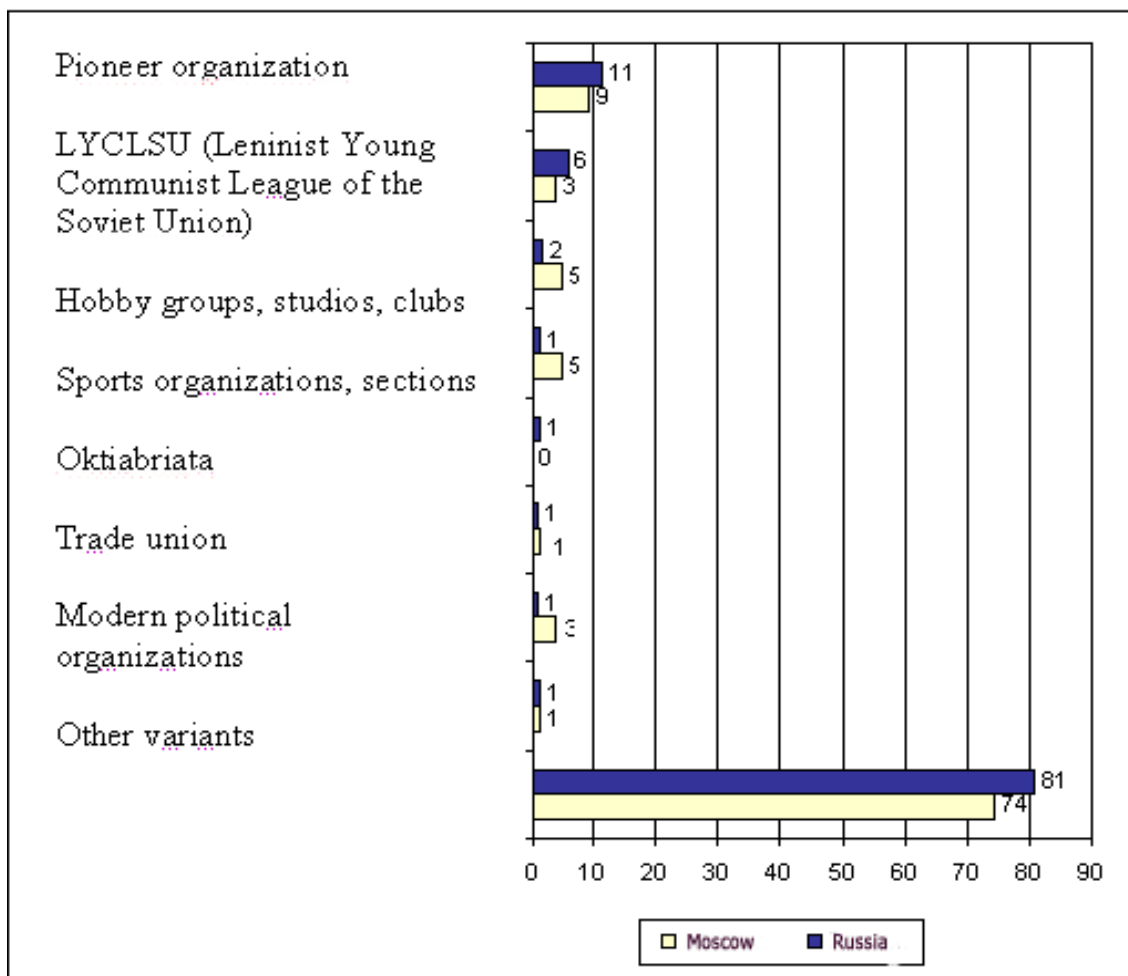
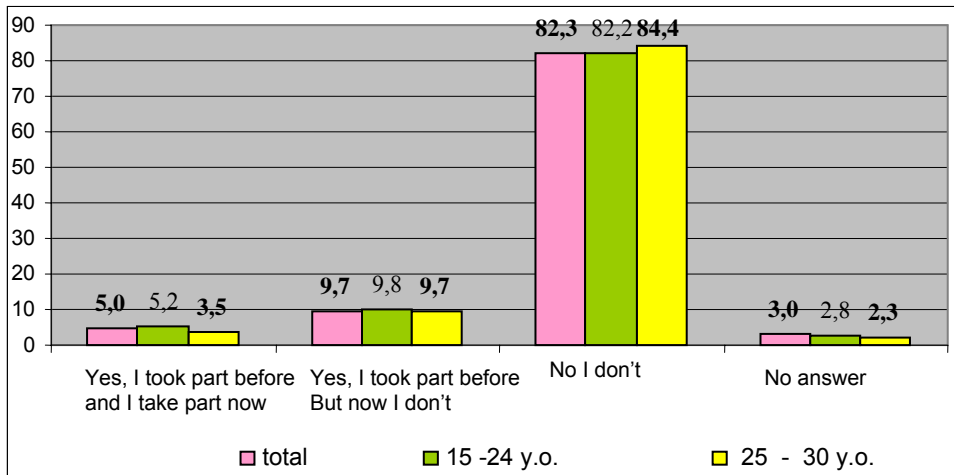


Fig. 4.12. «In what youth organizations you have ever taken part or take part now?»



The Fig. 4.13. «Besides youth organizations, there are more or less stable groups, communities, associations of young people on the basis of the common interests, affairs or hobbies. Have you taken part in such community or association?»

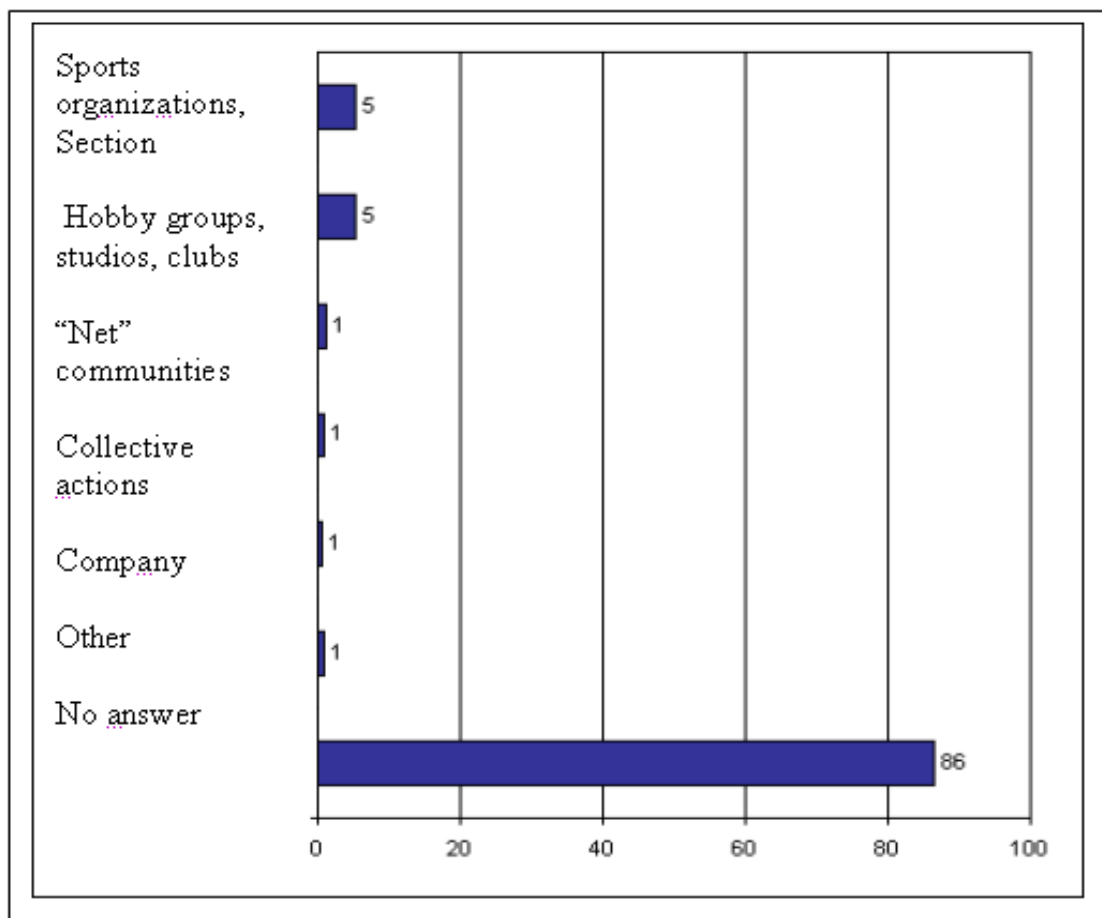


Fig. 4.14. «In what youth organization you have ever taken part?».

4.2. Criminality and asocial behavior

Youth criminality always provokes great interest and alarm. It is quite grounded as the young generation is a natural reserve of social development, and youth crime denotes substantial shortcomings in the conditions which ensure successful socialization of young people, their integration into the public and economic life of the country. Youth criminality is a specific, but rather exact indicator of the condition and tendencies of development of the behavior motivation and value structures of significant social groups, the one of their reaction to social and economic transformations. Delinquency rate in this age group, the qualitative characteristics of the young people's offences with the some correction can be regarded as prognostic for all criminality in the whole.

From the point of view of criminology, sociology and psychology, juvenile and youth crime covers the age group of 14-29 y.o. This category's independence is rather relative as it includes extremely heterogeneous groups of offenders. In this connection, in the scientific literature there are various youth delinquency classifications based on the age criterion.

The most used in a criminal practice is the division of young people criminality into two greater age groups:

- «Teenage (juvenile, minor's) delinquency» – within the 14-18 y.o. age group. The term "teenagers" in this case is instrumentally used, not for the strictly defined age interval of 14-17 y.o., based on the fact that the bottom age threshold of criminal liability in Russia is 14 y.o., and the majority age is 18 y.o.
- «Youth (young majors') criminality is comprised in the limits of 18 - 29 y.o. age group which is in turn subdivided in two subgroups: 18-24 years and 25-29 years. The "young people" concept is conventional enough, but its description as age group of 18-29 y.o. basically corresponds to both sociological representations and age parameters of the crime statistics.

Delinquency of the minors below the age of the criminal liability (14 years) is considered separately. However, they are often incorporated into the juvenile crime category.

Passing to the analysis of teenage and youth delinquency, it should be noted that, being subject to the general laws, it has also a number of specific features most of which are caused by age ones. Among such features experts the most often gives: high latency, group character, recidivism, spontaneity and greater "sensitivity" to repression and prevention measures, to the level of control from the part of family, education establishments, social services and the public – compared to other age groups.

General rate and dynamics of youth criminality.

All over the world, and Russia is no exception, criminals are basically young people. The average offender in Russia has 27-29 years old⁴⁹. The peak of crime age ranges from 17 to 25 years old: the share of offenders of 14-29 y.o (54,7 %) is more than twice higher than the share of the given age group in the population. For comparison: the share of offenders in the age of 30-49 y.o. (36,8 %) exceeds the one of this age group in the population structure of only 20%.

As one can see at the fig. 4.16-4.17, in the last decade the tendency is to steady growth of absolute number of the youth crime (by young people of 14-29 y.o.), as well as of

49 Andrienko Y.V. In Search of Explanation of Criminality Growth in Russia in the Transition Period: Criminometrical Approach. // HES Economic magazine. T. 5. N 2. p. 194-220 (2001)

their share in total crime number. However there is some difference in the dynamics of teenage and youth criminality. So the teenage delinquency rate (14-17 years) has insignificant fluctuations with the general tendency to gradual reduction and reached in 2000 the lowest mark of 10,2 % from the total crime number, but then again began raising. The youth crime (18-29 years) grows every year, from 1995 to 2003 its share has increased by 8 %.

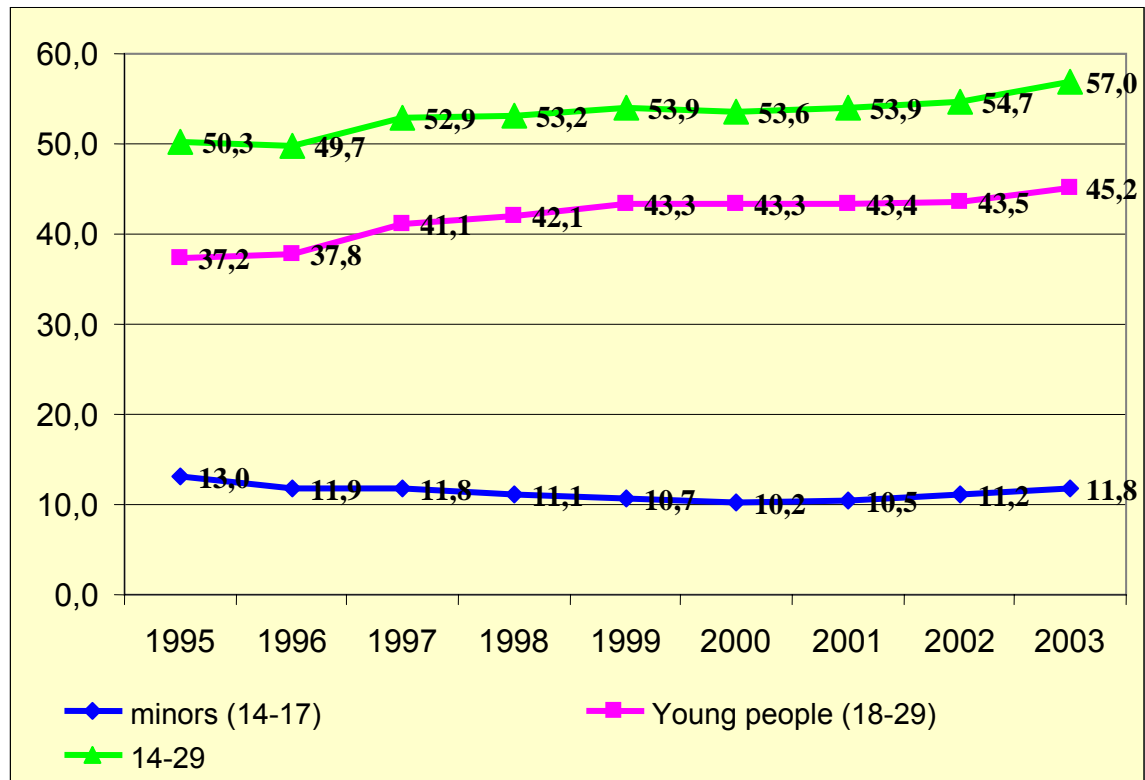


Fig. 4.15. Youth crime age structure (%)

If we consider separate age subgroups (see tables.4.8 – 4.9.. Annexe) it should be noted that young people of 18-24 y.o. became relatively more active to join the illegal activity sphere. Their share among offenders has grown from 21 % in 1990гoдy up to 29 % in 2003.

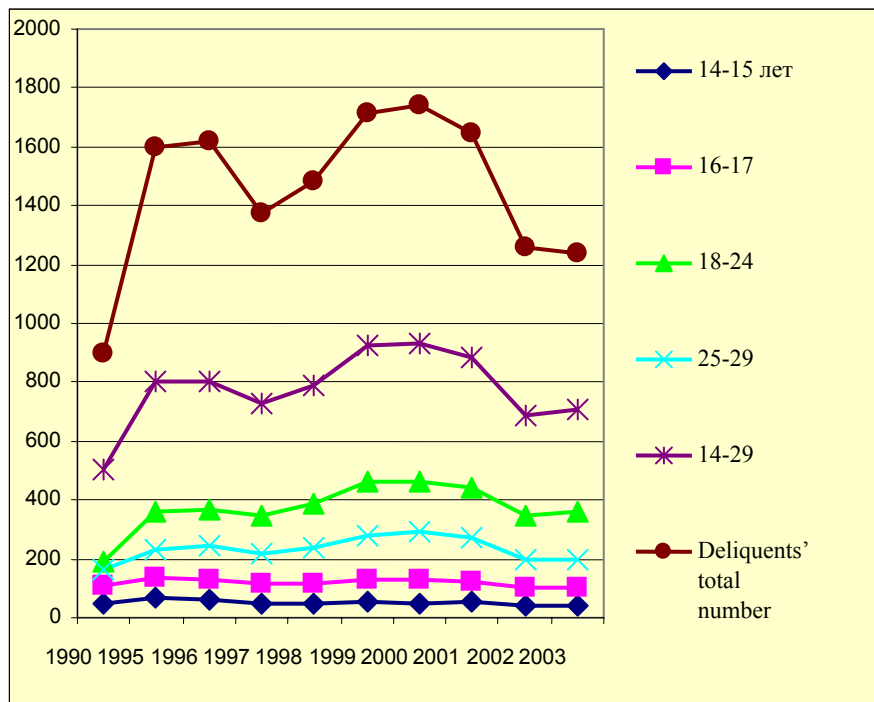


Fig. 4.16. Youth crime age structure (thousand pers.)

In the opinion of different Russian and western experts, the population educational level significantly influences the crime rate. According to some estimations, each additional year of the population education reduces crime rate by 8-10 %⁵⁰.

As the below figure shows the majority of criminals have a complete secondary or basic general education: in 2002 their share in the aggregate number of criminals was 66,6 % (fig. 4.18).

⁵⁰ Andrienko Y.V. In Search of Explanation of Criminality Growth in Russia in the Transition Period: Criminometrical Approach. // HES Economic magazine. T. 5. N 2. p. 194-220 (2001)

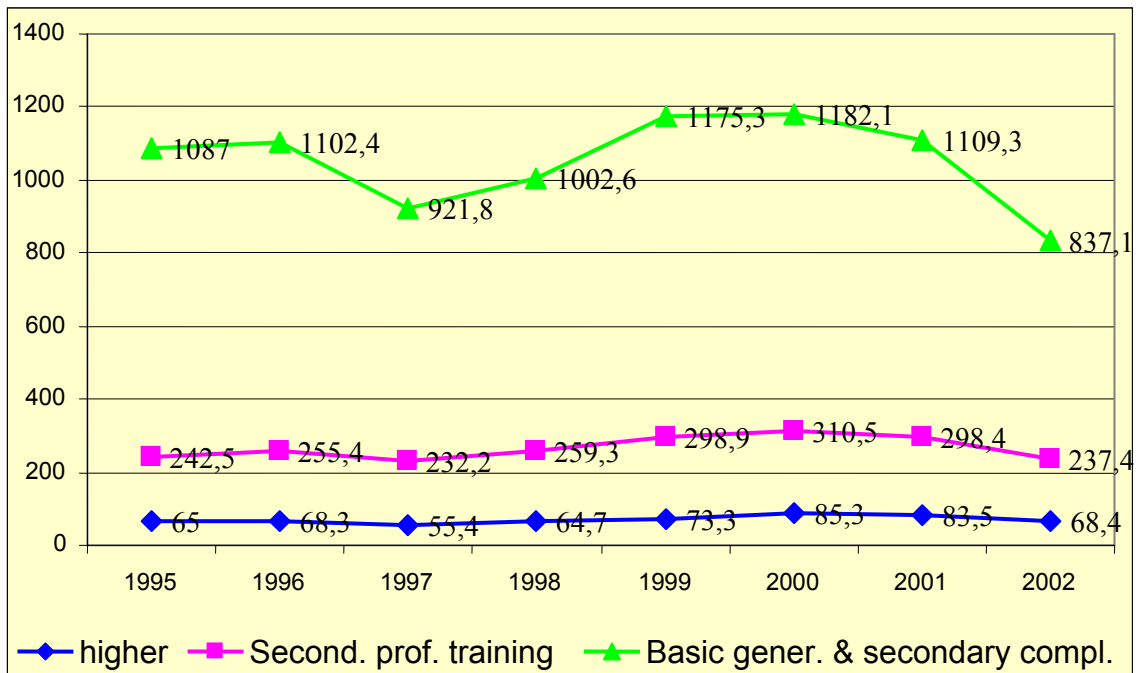


Fig. 4.17. Education level crime structure. (thd. pers.)

The percentage of the offenders with secondary vocational training in the total criminals' number progressively increases: 15,2 % in 1995 against 18,9 % in 2002. And only 5% of offenders have higher education. Educational structure of the «criminal community» substantially differs from the population as a whole (rice 4.19).

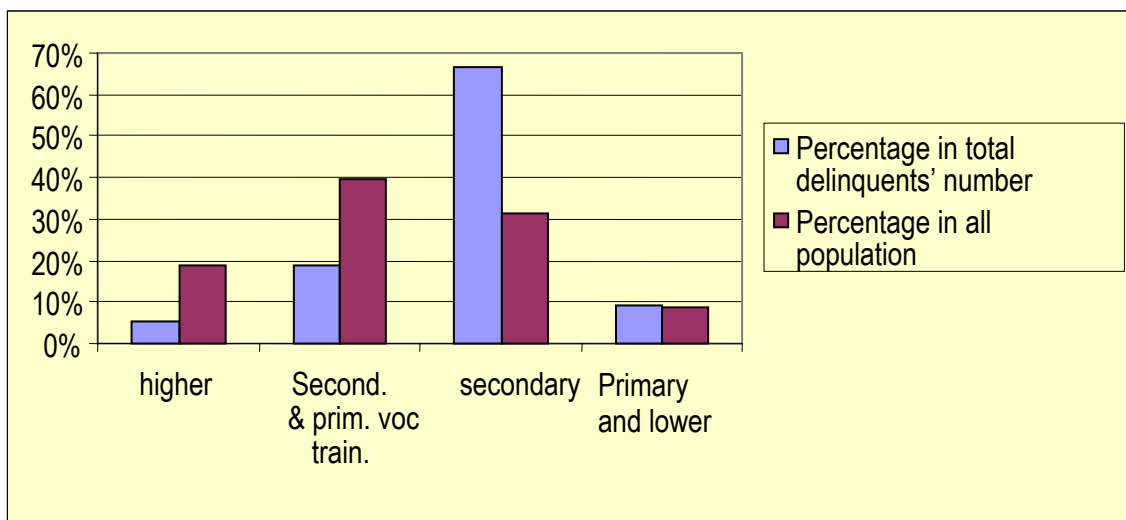


Fig. 4.18. Comparison of the offenders' and all population's education level (2002)

Experts explain it by several factors. So people with higher education have more chances and opportunities to achieve their goals by lawful way. They in have a greater self-control and think over consequences of their acts while the results of various sociological studies prove that, at

offence committing or directly before, almost 50% of offenders do not think of its consequences. By the way, such spontaneity is more often inherent just to younger offenders. Some experts consider that people with higher education can better plan their crime and so have greater chances to avoid responsibility. Experts note that, in the last years, there is a tendency to increase in number of offenders having only an elementary education, as well as of illiterate offenders.⁵¹

In the total criminals' number, in 2003 the "students" category comprised 84 thousand persons (6,6 %). As we see at fig. 4.20, their percentage in all the crime structure for last decade has increased only by 1%. Considering higher rates of the students' number growth, this can be interpreted as a feeble involvement of schoolchildren and students into criminal activity.

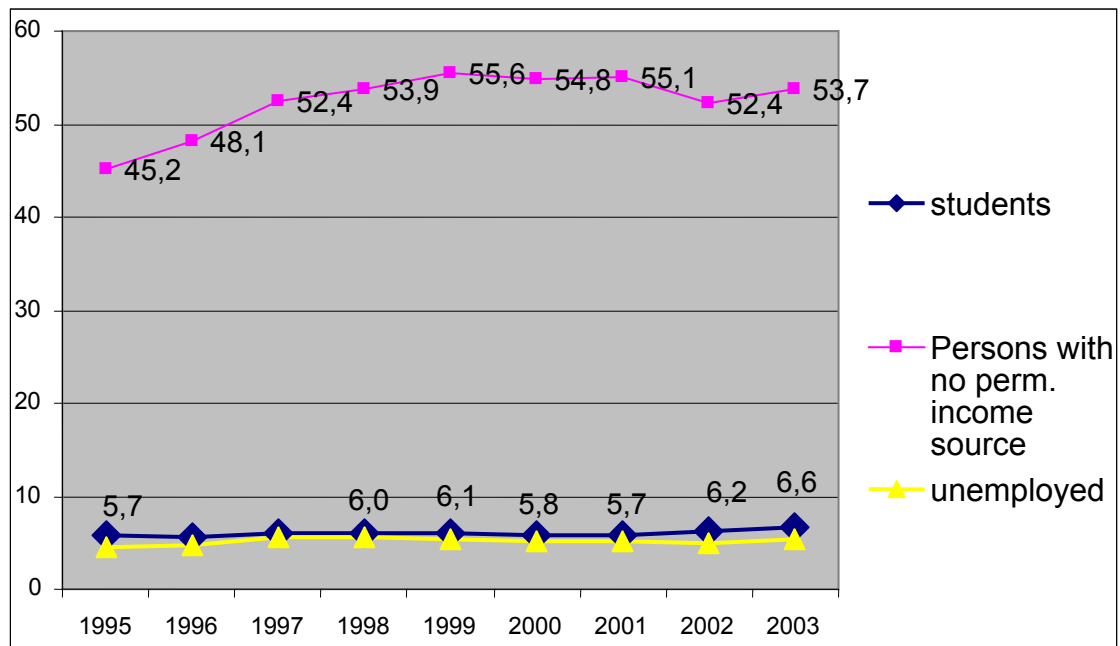


Fig. 4.19. Crime occupational structure (%)

Recidivism is an important characteristic of youth criminality. In this regard⁵² the present situation in Russia may be estimate as adverse. The relapse rate fluctuates within 34,2 – 36,2 %. But the recidivism factor per 10 thousand inhabitants has increased from 60,9 relapse crimes in of 14-25 y.o. in 1996 to 93,1 in 2000r. The percentage of the repeater's grave and particularly grave crimes is minimum the 80% from the total crimes' number⁵³. Among the offences perpetrated by young people, in 57 % cases it was repeated relapse⁵⁴. Analysing the factors influencing crime relapse, researchers noticed the following tendency: the more young is the offender, and the higher is the recidivation probability. And it increases even more, if the young offender is sentenced to deprivation of liberty. In 2002, for 8,1 % of those who were serving time in educational colonies (14-20 y.o.), already had served

51 Muraviev V.V. Criminal law and criminological aspects of recurrent youth criminality. – Nizhni Novgorod, 2001

52 Youth crime recidivism means here « a complex social and legal phenomenon consisting in new offence committing by a person of 12-24 years old, earlier condemned or released from the criminal liability on exonerative bases, irrespective of the previous conviction character if any».

53 Muraviev V.V. Criminal law and criminological aspects of recurrent youth criminality. – Nizhni Novgorod, 2001

54 Muraviev V.V. Criminal law and criminological aspects of recurrent youth criminality. – Nizhni Novgorod, 2001

sentences in such establishments. Among the corrective (adults') colonies' population, 50,67 % of the convicts serve their second third, three and more times.

Table Number of the minor offenders by gender, age, education.

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Total number of minor delinquents – thousand persons.	208,1	192,2	162	164,8	183,4	177,9	172,8	140,4
percentage in the total offenders' number, %	13	11,9	11,8	12,9	10,7	10,2	10,5	11,2
On the total minor offenders number:								
gender								
female	17,9	17,4	13	12,9	15,1	15,2	14,1	11,1
male	190,2	174,8	149	151,9	168,4	162,7	158,7	129,3
age								
14-15 years old	69,2	62,6	45,9	46,8	51,2	49,3	51,9	40,1
16-17 years old	138,9	129,6	116,1	118	132,3	128,6	120,9	100,3
education								
secondary professional	6,9	6	5,3	5	5,1	4,9	4,6	3,5
secondary general and secondary basic	121,6	112,6	94,9	100	114,7	112,8	108,5	89,1
social status								
students	83,3	81,8	71	75,7	88,3	83,8	79,5	64,5
Without constant income source	56,2	53,2	47,7	50,6	57,3	57,5	57,6	47
repeaters	26,8	25,5	30,5	29,2	30,8	29,5	29,9	25,5
Offences committed								
in group	128,9	117	103,7	106	120,8	114,1	109,8	85,5
in intoxication state:								
alcoholic	57,8	50,4	37,2	32,3	30,9	30,1	31,1	30,1
narcotic and toxic	0,9	1,1	1,3	1,3	1	0,9	0,6	0,4

Crime structure

Now, let us pass directly to the youth crime characteristics consideration

Considering the youth crime structure (fig. 4.20, see also tables 4.10. and 4.11. of the Annexe), it is necessary to note that due to the specificity of the young people's social status, they commit rather a limited circle of crimes: many offences are out of their range – most of crimes in the economical sphere, against interests of the service, against the State and government, etc.

On the whole, the youth criminality is defined by lucrative endeavors. So, in the youth crime structure, prevail: encroachments upon property (58,3 % in 2003 – 8,5 % thefts), hooliganism (in

2003 – 12 %), illegal actions and infringement of rules of the narcotic substances and psychotropic means use (in 2003 – 12 %)

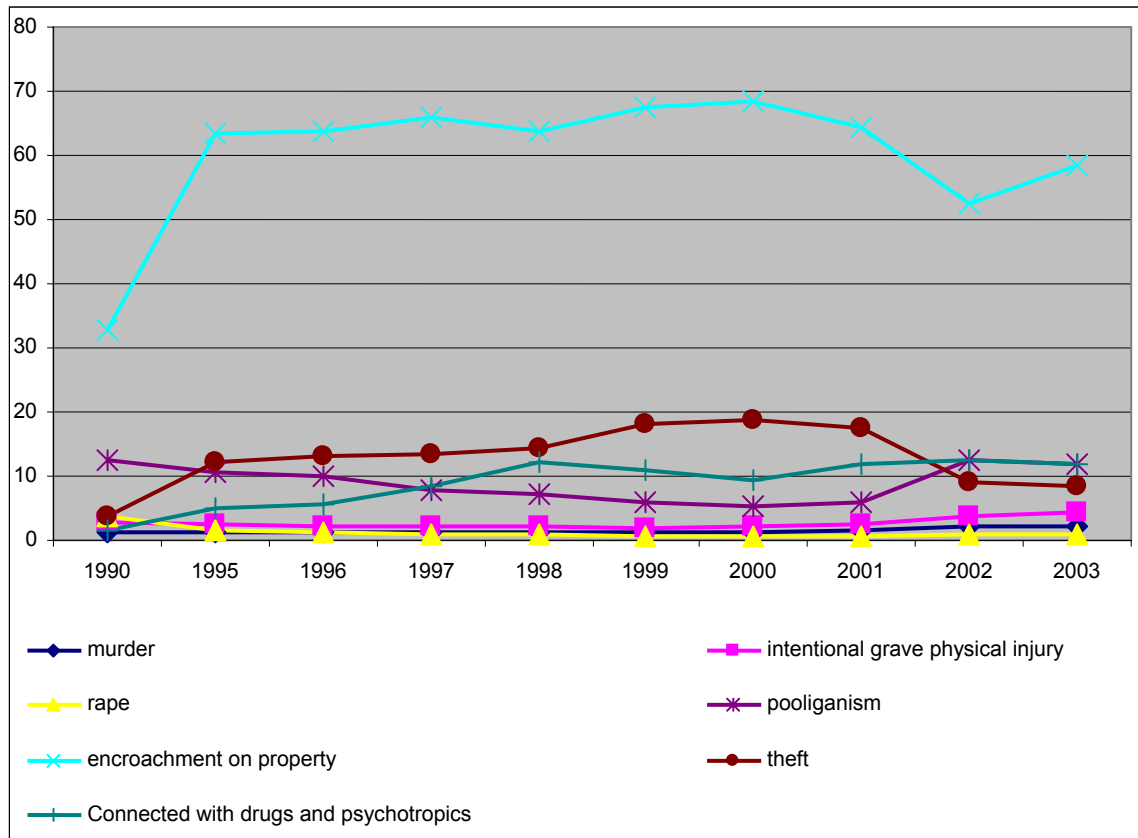
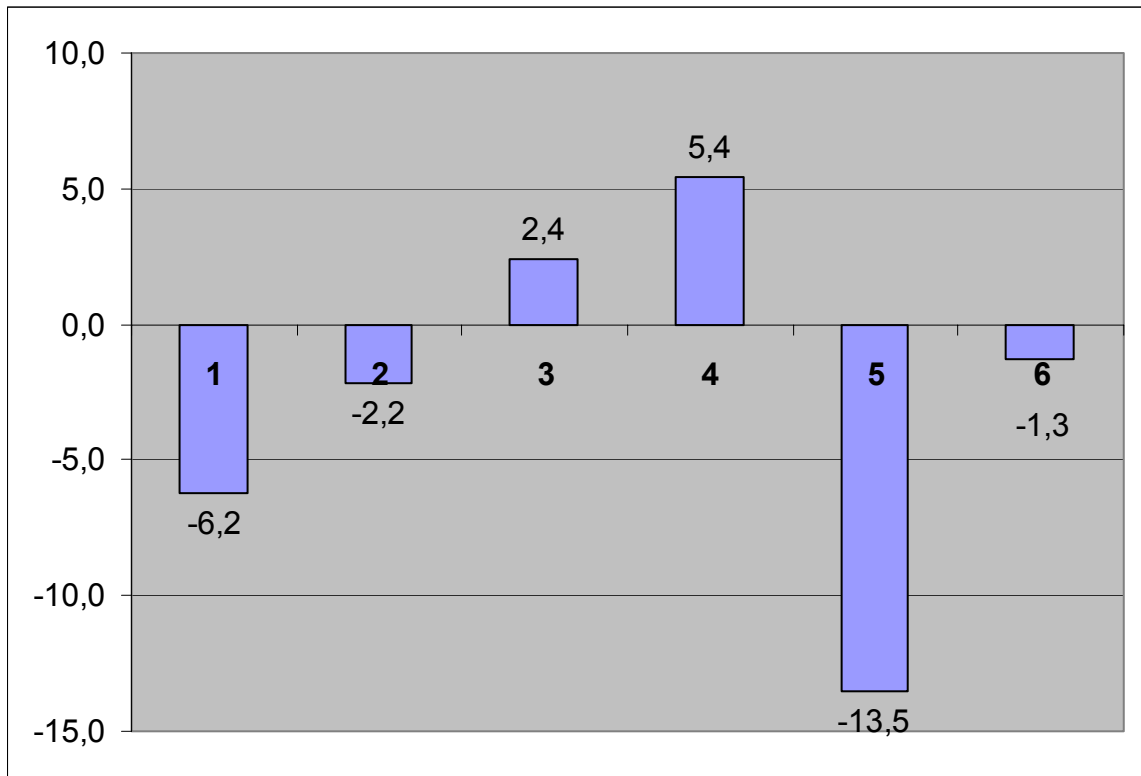


Fig.4.20. Crime structure in the age group up to 30 years old, (%)

However, that fact that in spite of some general decrease of the youth crime rate, the grave crimes' share is growing, is alarming.

Considering only minors in the overall number of convicts up to 30 y.o. for 2002 (Fig.4.22), one can constate that those of 14-17 y.o. – more often than on average in the up to 30 age group – are condemned for rape and rape attempt and for deliberate causing of grave physical injury, but less often for other offences, especially for illegal actions connected with drugs.



1 – robbery, 2 – murder, 3 – deliberate causing of physical injury, 4 – rape, 5 – illegal actions, infringement of rules of narcotic and psychotropic means's use, 6 – hooliganism

Fig.4.21. Deviation of the minors' share in the total number of convicts up to 30 y.o. from the average value, 2002.

In the last years criminologists remark aggression and cruelty increment of crimes committed, especially by young people. Indirectly, it's corroborated by the fact that in Russia the average term of imprisonment has increased from 3 years in 1995 to 4,4 years in 2002. It's also confirmed by the official statistics about the imprisonment terms for minor offenders pronounced by courts. (fig. 4.23., see also the Annexe – tab. 4.12). So the diagram shows that the share of the minors condemned for long terms of deprivation of freedom, from 1995 to 2002, has increased more than by 2,5 times⁵⁵

⁵⁵ A number of laws adopted since 2000 entitle to condemn minors for greater terms of imprisonment, but according to interrogations, the majority of judges don't want to use this opportunity.

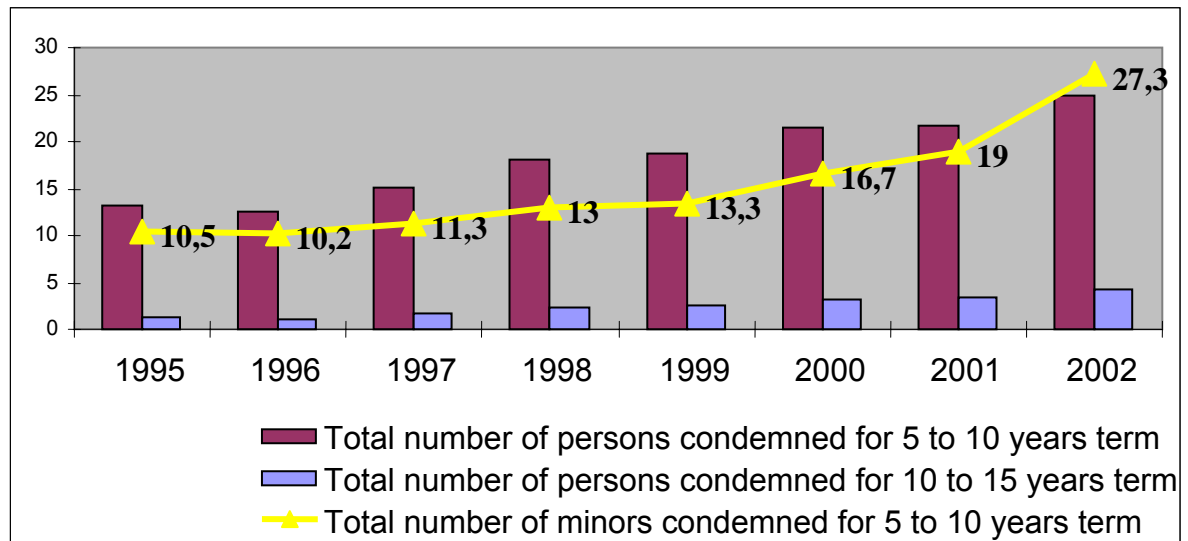


Fig.4.22. Convicts population structure by term of imprisonment. (%)

For a number of reasons the above data are very important for the youth crime analysis. First, before their time expiry the minors condemned to over 5 years imprisonment reach the age of 18 years and become full age and therefore formally pass into the youth age category. Secondly, the high rate of young offenders' recidivism raises the question of possible relapse into crime. And it is not due only and not so much to some subjective features of the of young offenders' personality (though many experts remark special features in their psychology), but rather to objective circumstances returning young people in the criminal way. If young people receive some education in detention it is not of the best quality, and when released it is difficult for them to find a job and continue studying, sometimes they simply do not have means of subsistence. At the same time, having no social capital, young people cannot establish normal social connections, join in normal life and take use even of the little help society gives to former prisoners. Gradually this becomes a vicious circle when such young people have nothing to do but return in the criminal milieu and commit a new offence.

Another feature of the youth and especially teenage crime is its group character. (fig. 4.24) Young people commit group offences 2-2,5 times more often than adults which is connected with group behavior typical for this age. Therefore they commit offences most typically along with their contemporaries and free time companions. Even groups having all attributes of the organized criminal group, are usually former spare time groupings.

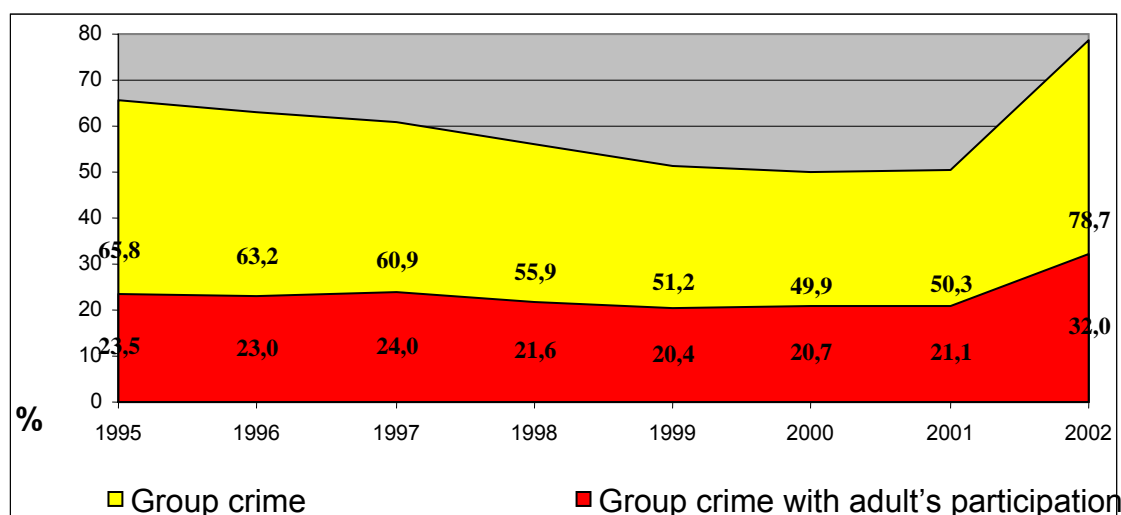


Fig.4.23. Share of the minor group offenders (%)

Various authors note such important characteristic of youth criminality as connection with the organized crime. This concerns especially minors since their use in the organized criminal activity requires smaller material inputs, due to their insufficient judgment independence minors are easier to manipulate and their delinquency acts are more often difficult to be noticed.⁵⁶

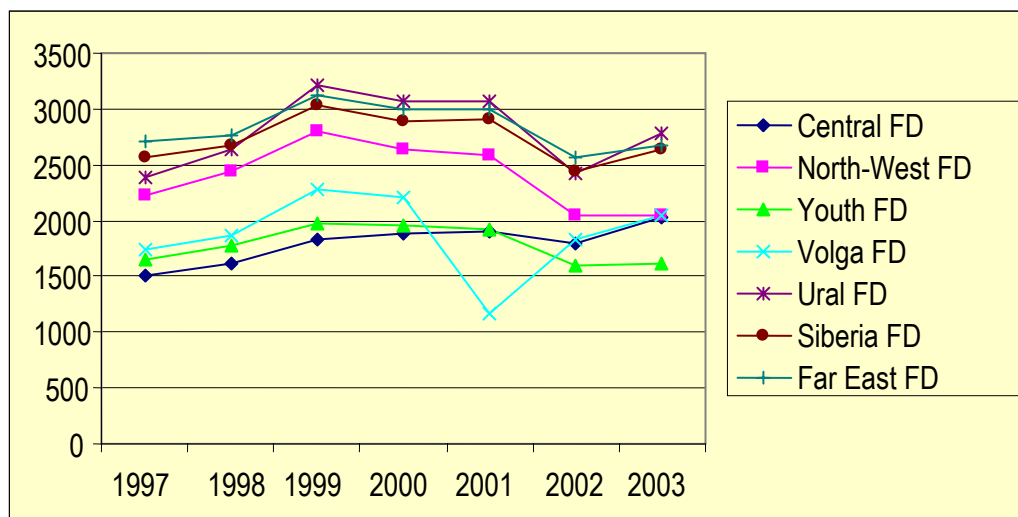
At last, another important feature of youth criminality – crimes connected with use of information technologies. The character of the processes in this sphere is still poorly studied, but the dynamics points out there is urgent necessity to pay attention to the offences connected with information technologies - only for 2000-2003 period, the number of crimes in this sphere has increased almost tenfold – from 800 to 7450⁵⁷. And among this category offenders more than 60% are young people below 25 years old.

Regional distinctions and peculiarities

The crime rate substantially varies by regions (fig. 4.25). It quite reflects their social and economic development rating – in the three most economically developed okrugs (the Central, Northwest and Volga ones) the crime rate is lower than in three less successful ones (Ural, Siberian and Far East okrugs). Unexpectedly enough, the Southern federal okrug is an exception, especially considering the situation in the Northern Caucasia.

56 O.V.Lobanova. Characteristic features of youth criminality. // [Sorokin's readings "Actual problems of sociology and social practice". December, 17-18th, 2002](#)

57 Criminality in Russia at the beginning of the XXI century, and reaction to it. Under the editorship of A.I.Dolgova.– M., 2004



Rice 4.24. Crimality rates (registered crimes number per 100 thousand persons) in the Federal okrugs of Russian Federation

Looking at the graphics of the murder rate by regions, one should note strong disparities. The rate grows from the west on the east and from the south to the north, and the distinctions between regions are stable enough in time⁵⁸. There is a net dependence between the alcoholism prevalence and criminality in the region⁵⁹. The alcoholism rate has net regional disparities. The zone with «tense alcoholic situation» includes the Siberian and Far East federal okrugs. As concerns alcoholism, according to official statistics, the Southern federal okrug looks rather safely. In 2003, 11,4 % of all crimes were committed under alcoholic intoxication – 51,3 % of murders and murderous assaults and 43,8 % of grave physical injuries. In among the regions with the highest rate of crimes committed, in 2003, in the ebrietas state are: the Altai Republic, the Koryak autonomous district, the Republic of Tuva, the Buryat Ust-Ordynsk autonomous district, the Perm region, the Magadan region, the Evenk district, the Nenets autonomous district and the Kurgan region.

Youth criminality factors

As principal causes of youth criminality, the experts give the following:

- ✓ economic factors (low incomes, unemployment, etc.), however this factor determines not so much the crime rate, but rather its character – with the real incomes' growth, decrease of income inequalities and of the unemployment rate there is replacement of violent crime by lucrative⁶⁰
- ✓ unfavorable direct environment – more than 43 % minor delinquents were brought up in one parent families, and 7 % outside family (in Russia as a whole about 5 % of children of corresponding age group are brought up outside families).
- ✓ growth of the drug abuse and alcoholism. It should be emphasized that, according to expert estimations, in Russia there are 4 million habitual drug

58 Andrienko Y.V. In Search of Explanation of Criminality Growth in Russia in the Transition Period: Criminometrical Approach. // HES Economic magazine. T. 5. N 2. p. 194-220 (2001)

59 Zabriansky I. Punishment of minors and its regional features: statistical criminology study. M.: Rudomino, 2000.

60 On the basis of materials of selective households budgets inspections. Quoted according to the collection "Criminality and Legality in Russia. Statistical aspect. 2003: collect.art. / Goskomstat of Russia.–, 2003 p.12

abusers. According to the State Committee for Drug Control's data, more than 8% of Russians of 11-20 y.o. use drugs daily, 14 % – at least two times a month, 23 % – incidentally. And for last decade, the average age of the first drug use has lowered down to 11 years. There are frequent cases of addiction among children of younger school and even preschool age. In total, about 38 % of Russian schoolchildren that is almost 8 million children have an experience of use of psycho-active substances, psychotropic medicaments, toxic preparations.⁶¹

61 Fedorova L. 50% of Russian schoolboys will not live to 30 y.o. <http://www.seprava.ru/>

5. Youth development index

Youth development index (YDI) is a complex parameter evaluating the level of development of the young generation human potential (16-24 y.o.) by three basic criteria: life expectancy and health, education and standard of living. The methodology of the YDI calculation is based on the of one the similar parameter, developed by the UNESCO department for Latin America and used in preparing the analogous report on Brazil⁶², as well as the index construction method considering fixed maximal and minimal parameters values, used in calculating human potential development index. Thus, the youth development index was calculated on the basis of 3 groups of parameters (fig. 5.1.):

- health index,
- education index
- income index.

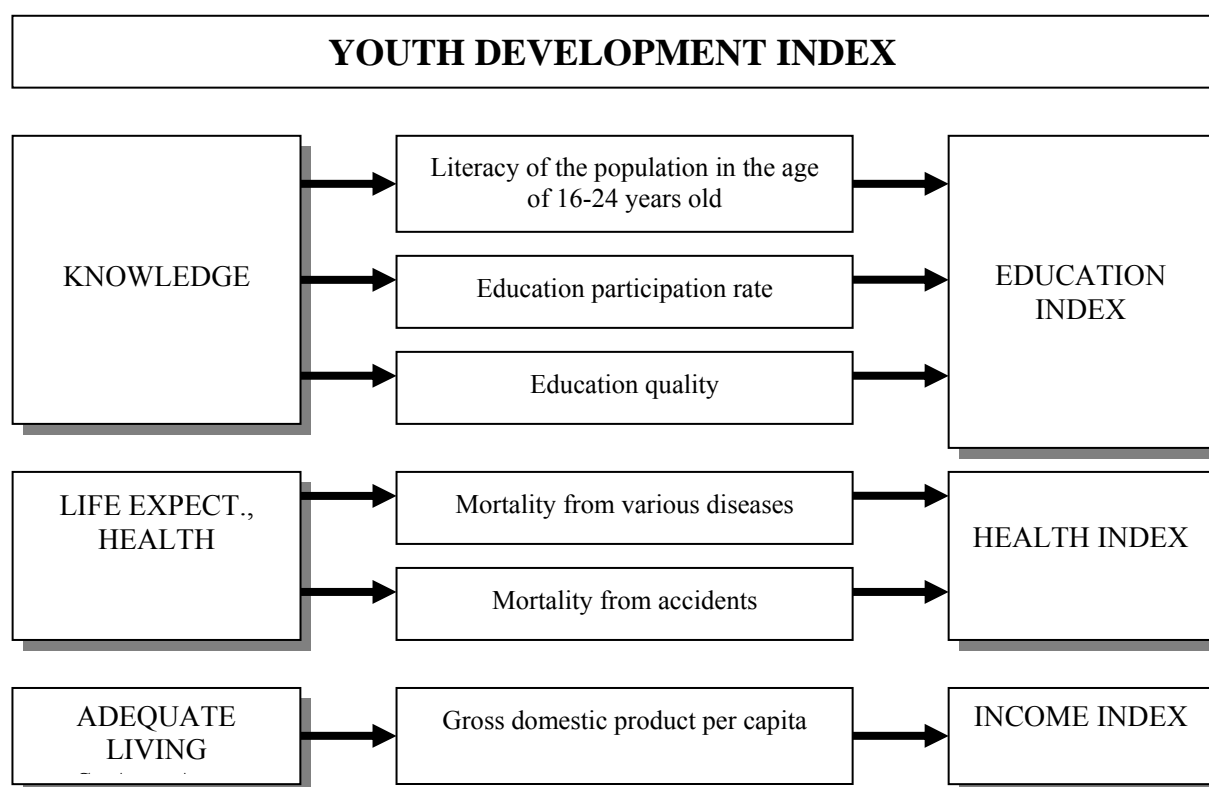


Fig. 5.1. Methodology of YDI calculation

Calculating the health index we used data on the number of the young people dead in the age of 16-24 years from various factors, and grouped them in two categories:

- ✓ diseases;

- ✓ accidents (suicides have also been included in this category, as well as murders, the hostilities injury, poisoning and lethal traumas including those connected with the use of drugs and alcohol).

To calculate the education index, we analyzed data about on the percentage of literates among young people, on the 16-24 y.o population's different level studies rate and on the quality of the education received. The education quality estimation was made on the basis of data about the results of General State examination on Russian and mathematics, which is the unique mass independent quality evaluation of knowledge of the high schools graduates and its results can be used to compare the education quality in the majority of subjects of the Russian Federation.

The last component of the youth development index is the income index comprised in the generalizing human potential development index, calculated in 2001 for the RF subjects⁶³.

The generalizing youth development index has been calculated as average value of all parameters of its components. The index was calculated for 57 regions of the Russian Federation where General State examination was held. One of the education index components is the 16-24 y.o. population's participation in different educational programs, including higher vocational training. Considering that about 20 % of all Russian high schools (by the number of students) are concentrated in Moscow and St.-Petersburg, it is clear that a considerable part of students there come from other regions and first of all from the nearest ones. To partially compensate the inevitable distortions due to this situation and to avoid unfairly high values of the education index in these megapolises, in all the calculations this cities data were merged with the corresponding regions – the Moscow and Leningrad ones.

Considering separate components of the youth development index (table 5.1. Annexe), one can see that the highest values of the youth health index traditionally are those of southern regions of the Russian Federation, namely, the Kabardino-Balkarian Republic (0,715), Republic of Northern Ossetia (0,704) and Karachaevo-Circassian Republic (0,695). In "lagging behind" by this parameter were: the Republic of Tuva (0,428), the Altai Republic (0,484) and the Chita region (0,548). The same regions occupy the last three places by the value of the final youth development index. (Tab. 5.1)

The three leaders for the youth education rate are the Republic of Mordovia (0,71), Moscow and the Moscow region (0,71) and the city of St.-Petersburg and its (Leningrad) region (0,69). (Tab. 5.2) And these regions are also leading for the values of the parameters-components of the education index: the literacy, population's studies and education quality indices – except for the literacy index value in the Republic of Mordovia. However, the share of literates in the 16-24 y.o population differs by regions only by some tenth of percent, so the literacy index calculated on its basis does not cause somewhat strong variations of the final the index' values. The lowest ones of the education index are those of the Republic of Tuva (0,58), Karachaevo-Circassian Republic (0,60), Tumen (0,60) and Chita regions (0,60).

The highest income index has been registered in the Tumen region (8,65), in the city of Moscow with the Moscow region (0,70) and in the Krasnoyarsk region (0,70), and the lowest – in the Republic of Tuva (0,47), Republic of Adygea (0,51) and the Jewish autonomous region (0,51). These regions which have the lowest income parameters take the last places in the final rating of the youth development index (respectively – the 1-st, 7 and 4th places from the end).

63 Report on human potential development in the Russian Federation for 2002 / 2003 / Under the general editorship. of S.N.Bobylev. – M.: Весь Мир, 2003.

Tab. 5.1. 10 regions with the lowest health, education and income indexes' value

health index		education index		income index	
Republic of Tuva	0,428	Republic of Tuva	0,589	Republic of Tuva	0,470
Altai Republic	0,484	Karachaevo-Circassian Republic	0,601	Republic of Adygea	0,506
Chita region	0,548	Tumen region	0,605	Jewish autonomous region	0,513
Republic of Khakassia	0,569	Chita region	0,606	Karachaevo-Circassian Republic	0,517
Sakha Republic (Yakutia)	0,594	Sakhalin region	0,609	Kurgan region	0,536
Novgorod region	0,599	Krasnodar territory	0,610	Chita region	0,539
Jewish autonomous region	0,613	Jewish autonomous region	0,611	Mary El Republic	0,541
Krasnoyarsk region	0,614	Republic of Adygea	0,611	Penza region	0,546
Kaliningrad region	0,622	Kabardino-Balkarian Republic	0,612	Bryansk region	0,556
Kurgan region	0,626	Altai Republic	0,612	Republic of Northern Ossetia-Alania	0,560

Tab. 5.2. 10 regions with the highest health, education and income indexes' value

the health index		the education index		the income index	
Kabardino-Balkarian Republic	0,715	Republic Mordovia	0,717	Tumen region	0,865
Republic of Northern Ossetia-Alania	0,704	Moscow city with region	0,713	Moscow city with region	0,708
Karachaevo-Circassian Republic	0,695	St.-Petersburgwith Leningrad region	0,694	Krasnoyarsk region	0,700
Rostov region	0,693	Chuvash Republic	0,688	Sakha Republic (Yakutia)	0,680
Republic of Adygea	0,690	Novosibirsk region	0,684	Perm region	0,676
Belgorod region	0,689	Voronezh region	0,677	Samara region	0,672
Krasnodar territory	0,686	Udmurt Republic	0,675	Tomsk region	0,666
Moscow city with region	0,685	Mary El Republic	0,672	Vologda region	0,657

Murmansk region	0,682	Tomsk region	0,668	Yaroslavl region	0,657
Kursk region	0,681	Chelyabinsk region	0,668	Lipetsk region	0,655

Having analyzed separate components of the final youth development index, one can see that only of the education index values – not too strongly – vary by regions (the difference between the maximal and minimal value was 22 %). The biggest divergence from the average was fixed in the Republic of Mordovia and the cities of Moscow and St.-Petersburg, taken together with their regions (education index values above average) and in such regions as the Republic of Tuva, Karachaevo-Circassian Republic, Chita and Tumen regions (education index values below average).

As to the other parameters, the spread is big enough. So the divergence between the minimal and maximal value of the health index is 67 %, and of the income one – 84 % (!). The maximal divergence from the average health index value reaches 33,8 % (Republic of Tuva), and from average income index value – 44,3 % (Tumen region). Besides, in 19 subjects of the Russian Federation denote divergences of more than 5 % from the average health index, and at 31 regions from the income one.

In a number of subjects of the Russian Federation there are significant disproportions in the indexes' components values. So, for example, for the income index the Tumen region has the leading position, but the divergence between its maximum and minimum value is 84 %, and the divergence of the index of the Tumen region from the all regions' average is 43,3 % (i.e. the greatest of all). As to the other parameters the Tumen region has rather much worse indices. So, for the youth health rate it comes only at the 39th place among 57 regions, and for education development rate at the 3d place from the end. From all the aforesaid, one may conclude that the high final index value in the Tumen region is assured only by its high income level (not only due to the biggest population income level, but also due to the value which is an order above the indices of the other analyzed regions).

And, for example, in the Republic of Mordovia, the Chuvash Republic and the Voronezh region the situation is absolutely different. By the income level these subjects of the Russian Federation are only at 44, 45 and 46th places respectively, but for the youth education level – respectively at the 1st, 4 and 6th places, and for the health index – at the 16, 23 and 20th places.

If analyzing all the regions, we can actually note there is interrelation between such components of the final youth development index, as health and education (correlation factor – 0,32). But there is practically no dependence between the young people's income of their education and health levels (factors of correlation 0,20 and 0,16 respectively).

Regions' distribution by the final youth development index value looks as follows (fig. 5.2.).

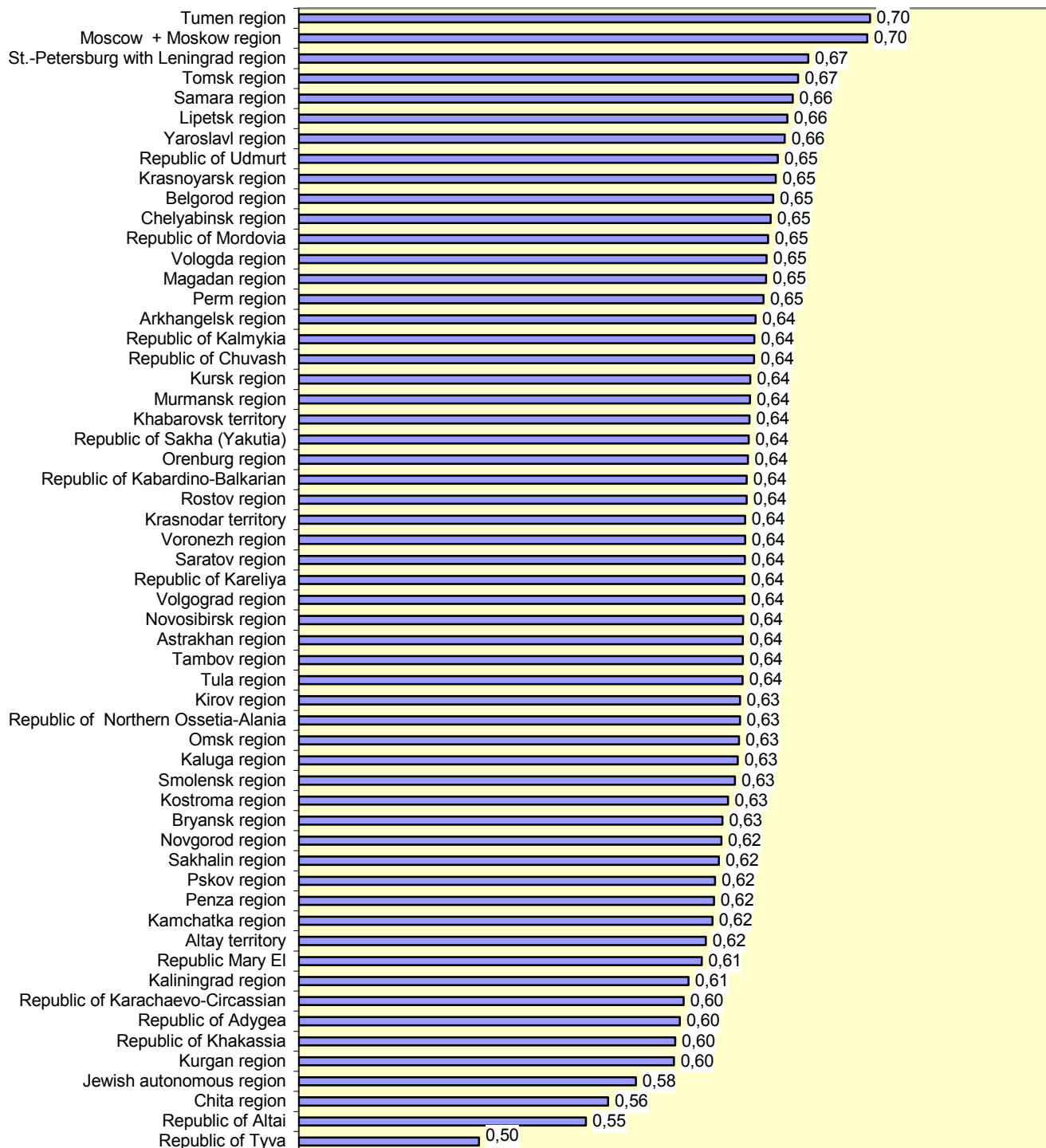


Fig. 5.2 Youth development index by the Russian Federation's regions

The difference between the minimal and maximal value of the youth development index is 42 %. The greatest divergences from the average index value of all the analyzed subjects of the Russian Federation are observed in the Republic of Tuva (-21,55 %), Altai Republic (-12,57 %), Tumen region (11,32 %), city of Moscow with the Moscow region (11,08 %), the Chita region (-0,70%) and the Jewish autonomous region (-8,36 %). Thus, 4 from 6 regions with the greatest

divergence from the average value are those with the smallest values of the youth development index (the last 4 places in the rating). Besides, only in 19 RF regions this index is below the average value (for comparison – 38 regions have the index value above the average). Hence, the conclusion to draw is that the greater differentiation of youth development between the RF subjects in many respects is due not so much to the advance of some "developed" regions on the average national parameters, but just to a significant backlog of the least developed. This essential difference of the youth development index from the human potential development index which value is defined first of all by high parameters of several most socially and economically developed regions.

Considering that the youth development index was calculated using a methodology in many respects similar with the one of the human potential development index (HPDY) and in view of both parameters meaning, it was logical to assume that their interdependence is close enough. In fact, their correlation factor is 0,92 and the rating of subjects of the Russian Federation for the human potential development index in many respects repeats the one of the youth development index by regions. (table 5.2. Annexe). It concerns such regions, as the Republic of Tuva, Chita and Kurgan regions and the Jewish autonomous region (they denote the lowest values of both the youth development and human potential development indexes); the Saratov and Rostov regions (they range in the middle of the list of regions for both the indexes); city of Moscow with the Moscow region, Tumen, Tomsk, Samara, Lipetsk regions, Krasnoyarsk region (they are characterized by the high enough values of the both indexes). But there are also some exceptions which can be divided in two groups (tab. 5.3.):

- ✓ regions which human potential development index is considerably higher than the youth development index.
- ✓ regions which youth development index is considerably higher than the human potential development index

Tab. 5.3. Comparison of the regions' YDI and HPDI rating.

Regions in which the HPDI considerably exceeds the YDI

	<i>Ratings:</i>	
	HPDI	YDI
Pskov region	53	44
Kursk region	29	19
Chuvash Republic	31	18
Republic of Mordovia	28	12
Arkhangelsk region	33	16
Magadan region	32	14

Regions in which the YDI considerably exceeds the HPDI

	<i>Ratings:</i>	
	HPDI	YDI
Republic of Northern Ossetia-Alania	13	36
Sakha Republic (Yakutia)	6	22
Omsk region	23	37
Altay territory	36	47
Novosibirsk region	21	31
Krasnodar territory	16	26

The first group includes first of all the Republic of Northern Ossetia – 23 points divergence (maximal value among all regions), Sakha Republic (Yakutia) – 16 points, Omsk and

Novosibirsk regions, Altay territory and Krasnoyarsk region. Thus, it is possible to draw the conclusion that in these regions along with rather a high level of development of the population as a whole, the young people development remains at a rather low level and the conditions for young people on the whole are worse than for all population on the average.

The second group includes such regions as the Magadan, Arkhangelsk, Kursk and Pskov regions, the Chuvash Republic and the Republic of Mordovia. In these subjects of the Russian Federation the youth development level substantially exceeds the one of average whole population development level of the given regions by the HPDI parameter.

The YDI-HPDI correlation by region is shown in the fig. 5.3.

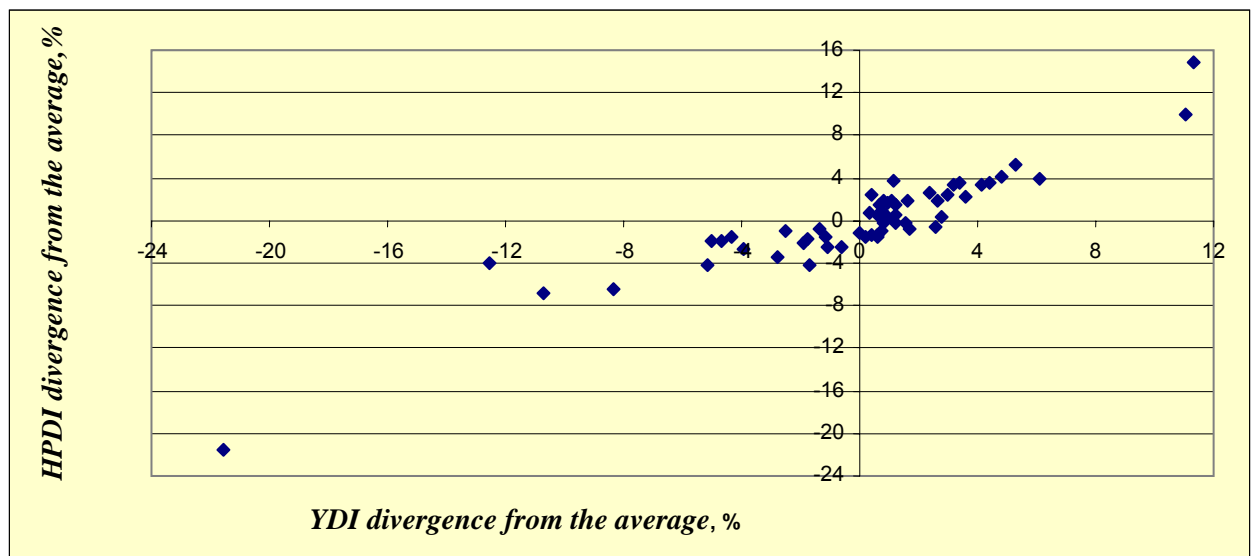


Fig. 5.3. YDI-HPDI correlation by regions

Conclusion

Consideration of the complex of questions concerning the condition and tendencies of youth potential development in Russia has allowed to draw a number of conclusions and make some recommendations to increase the national youth policy efficiency.

1. Two of the three basic parameters characterizing the young Russians's condition – education and employment – are at a high enough level and, by relative value, are quite comparable to those concerning young people in the developed countries. However, in both spheres – education and employment – there are high inter-regional differentiation reflecting inequality of the of social and economic development level of the RF subjects which results in inequality of access to quality education and, finally, decrease of the human capital level and competitiveness of the region. The last, in turn, conducts to even greater inter-regional diparity as to the of social and economic development level.
The same is also true as to the other young generation's characteristics – sickness, traumatism and criminality rates.
2. In sphere of education significant inter-regional differentiation is observed in the basic parameters of accessibility (participation, graduation, etc.), including accessibility of the high level general education, higher vocational training because of the non-uniform distribution of the higher schools by the territory of the Russian Federation, accessibility of quality education to rural and city young people.
3. The analysis of the quality of education and employment of young people has shown discrepancy between the schools' graduation structure by educational degrees and the content of both as general education and vocational training to the requirements of the labor market and of the of young generation socialization. As a result, many young Russians work out their professional field; young graduates take jobs requiring not so high educational level or refuse working as a result of too high expectations and self-estimation. But at the same time, on the Russian labor market, young people on the whole proved to be the most mobile part of the population, characterized rather by faster adaptation to the market requirements. Therefore in Russia they have now more employment opportunities than those of average and advanced age groups, even despite their lack of work experience.
4. Theoretically, there is inverse relation between the youth employment level and the youth's participation in education. However, in practice there is practically no relation observed between the number of workers and students among young people at the regional level. In many cases this relation is not inverse but direct, i.e. in the regions with a low youth occupation level there is also a low students' rate. In this connection, special attention should be paid to the most "problematic" part of the young generation, namely, those who does not both work and study. This group should be the central object of the youth labor policy (including the necessity to enlarge employment opportunities for the handicapped persons). It is also clear that some part of the non-occupied and non studying group is first of all a potential source of youth crime.
5. The youth morbidity structure in Russia is widely connected with the present social and economic situation in our country. Among the infectious diseases' causes, for young Russians, the first places are taken by tuberculosis, HIV/AIDS and the sexually

transmitted infections. The steadily increasing respiratory affections rate is also a matter of greater concern. Among the causes of this, the main is tobacco smoking.

6. Death due to external factors still remains one of the most frequent mortality causes among young able-bodied population. Traumatism – both intentional and unintentional – is a problem of the society with greatest deficiency of attention from the public health systems all over the world, though the traumatism is the origin of the greatest part of the aggregated morbidity rate expressed in the loss of active life years. Last years in Russia there is some growth of traumas and poisonings among the young population: teenagers and children.
7. The state of health of young people and especially the tuberculosis, smoking and alcoholism prevalence, external factors traumatism and mortality have a net regional binding also directly connected with the level of social and economic development of the regions.
8. Available data demonstrate there are substantial territorial divergences in the youth employment rate's distribution. The high level of such differentiation by regions is partially connected with objective regional economic conditions – the general economic situation, labor market state, branch structure of the economy, etc. But, besides, regional youth employment indices are greatly impacted by the territorial distribution of educational facilities (especially high schools).
9. Youth unemployment depends first of all on the general situation on the labor market in the given region, i.e. is closely connected with the general parameters of the general unemployment rate. Thus, as in the more advanced age groups, characteristics of the young people's position on the labor market improve with education level raising. The higher is their educational level and the higher is the occupation level and the lower the unemployment rate in the corresponding group. Graduates of higher educational institutions have less employment problems (though, unfortunately, not always they work in their profession). Graduates of secondary and primary vocational training schools have more employment difficulties though there again the problems – in Russia on the average – have no critical character.
10. The most "problematic" regions from the point of view of young people employment policy are grouped in several relatively compact (to the extent this definition is applicable to Russia) geographical zones (Northern Caucasia, Southern Siberia and Far East). Hence, the problems connected with more wide young people's employment and education in these regions should be solved not only at the level of the Federation's subjects, but also at the inter-regional level (in particular, at the federal okrugs' one).
11. The problem of youth criminality also has a regional aspect and requires an individualization of work with young people from risk groups at the local level. At the same time, some new dangerous tendencies in youth criminality require immediate reaction. Among them: the grave crimes' percentage growth in the structure of youth crime and their increasing cruelty, group crimes' share and recidivism growth. The last is connected with many factors, but an active policy in order to help offenders to return to normal life can and must become an important youth policy component.
12. In the Report, by way of experiment, we have calculated a complex parameter – the youth development index (YDI), close – by its meaning and methodology – to the widely used human potential development index (HPDI). The YDI calculation methodology has been developed by UNESCO experts and used in the report on young people's condition in Brazil. The YDI calculation methodology requires further testing and,

probably, some adjustment. However, even in its present state, the so calculated parameter allows to estimate inter-regional differentiation in the young people's condition, to display the main directions of application of forces in the youth policy realization at the regional level. A comparison of the YDI and HPDI values by regions also allows to judge about the degree of efficiency of the youth policy in the subjects of the Russian Federation.

13. In the course of the report preparation, the authors faced the problem of absence of many data necessary for the analysis of the young people's condition and its development tendencies. In this connection, to evaluate the efficiency of programs and measures for the youth policy realization, we consider it is necessary to create a system of the key indicators monitoring in sphere of education, health and employment of young people, their involvement into political life, and youth criminality. Such a monitoring should be carried out at the regional level with the YDI calculation as generalizing parameter.

Annex

Abbreviations

STD – sexually transmitted diseases
HIV - Human immunodeficiency virus
Naval Forces – intruterine spiral
WHO - World Health Organization
ВЦИОМ –All-Russia Public Opinion Study Center
EU - European Union
STI - sexually transmitted infections
CSW – commercial sex-workers
PLWHA– the persons living with HIV/AIDS
MH – Ministry of Health
HKK – National Co-Ordinating Committee
HHГ - new independent States
IDC –injectionx drugs consumers
FP – family planning
AIDS – Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
SRH – sexual and reproductive health
CVD – cardiovascular diseases
UNESCO - United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
YDI –Youth Development Index
OECD – Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
FO – federal okrug (district)
GRP – gross regional product
PVT – primary vocational training
SSVT – average special vocational training
HPE – higher professional education
PISA - Programme for International Student Assessment
TIMS - Third International Mathematics and Science Study
PCP - purchasing capacity parity
YEN – Youth Employment Network
Youth Employment Network – YEN – partner organization of the United Nations, World bank and International Labour Organization
PES - population employment study
NPC – national (all-Russia) population census
IPTF - individual part-time farm
SUE - structural (age) unemployment index
HPDI – Human Potential Development Index

Tables to sections

Tables to section 1

Table 1.1. Population Breakdown (Age Group: 15 - 29 Years) Depending On Level Of Education And Gender (2002 Census Data)

	Total	Education Levels								Those Without Primary General Education	Of Them Number Of Illiterate	Those Who Did Not Indicate Their Level Of Education
		Vocational					General					
		After Gollege	Higher Education	Incomplete Higher Education	Secondary Education	Primary Education	Secondary Education (Completed)	Basic Education	Primary Education			
All Population Of This Age Group	34880008	65410	3551579	2327304	7246248	3780116	8778779	7692056	931151	131481	90430	375884
Male	17601474	32865	1527411	1043415	3395782	2211802	4334016	4235815	553037	74953	52374	192378
Female	17278534	32545	2024168	1283889	3850466	1568314	4444763	3456241	378114	56528	38056	183506
Urban Population Of This Age Group	26664315	61010	3163322	2106432	5852041	2634766	6766693	5147746	503954	66991	42137	361360
Male	13352826	30696	1351204	948164	2802617	1544023	3316764	2844354	293324	37063	23610	184617
Female	13311489	30314	1812118	1158268	3049424	1090743	3449929	2303392	210630	29928	18527	176743
Rural Population	8215693	4400	388257	220872	1394207	1145350	2012086	2544310	427197	64490	48293	14524
Male	4248648	2169	176207	95251	593165	667779	1017252	1391461	259713	37890	28764	7761
Female	3967045	2231	212050	125621	801042	477571	994834	1152849	167484	26600	19529	6763

Table 1.2. Population Breakdown (Age Group: 15 - 29 Years) Depending On The Level Of Education And Gender (2002 Census Data), In Comparison With Total Population Of The Same Age Group

	Total	Education Levels								Those Without Primary General Education	Of Them Number Of Illiterate	Those Who Did Not Indicate Their Level Of Education
		Vocational					General					
		After College	Higher Education	Incompleted Higher Education	Secondary Education	Primary Education	Secondary Education (Completed)	Basic Education	Primary Education			
All Population Of This Age Group	100,0	0,2	10,2	6,7	20,8	10,8	25,2	22,1	2,7	0,4	0,3	1,1
Male	100,0	0,2	8,7	5,9	19,3	12,6	24,6	24,1	3,1	0,4	0,3	1,1
Female	100,0	0,2	11,7	7,4	22,3	9,1	25,7	20,0	2,2	0,3	0,2	1,1
Urban Population Of This Age Group	100,0	0,2	11,9	7,9	21,9	9,9	25,4	19,3	1,9	0,3	0,2	1,4
Male	100,0	0,2	10,1	7,1	21,0	11,6	24,8	21,3	2,2	0,3	0,2	1,4
Female	100,0	0,2	13,6	8,7	22,9	8,2	25,9	17,3	1,6	0,2	0,1	1,3
Rural Population	100,0	0,1	4,7	2,7	17,0	13,9	24,5	31,0	5,2	0,8	0,6	0,2
Male	100,0	0,1	4,1	2,2	14,0	15,7	23,9	32,8	6,1	0,9	0,7	0,2
Female	100,0	0,1	5,3	3,2	20,2	12,0	25,1	29,1	4,2	0,7	0,5	0,2

Table 1.3. Number of Students in Higher Grades (Years 10 to 12) of State And Municipal Daytime General Education Facilities, As Well As Percentage Of The Population With Completed High-School Education (At The Start Of 2002-2003 School Year)

	Number Of Students In Higher Grades (Years 10 to 12)		Percentage Of Completed High-School Education	
	Municipal Areas	Rural Areas	Municipal Areas	Rural Areas
Russian Federation	2086698	793 083	56%	58%
Central FR *	560967	121 235	65%	52%
Belgorod Oblast	24159	10 413	63%	66%
Bryansk Oblast	21352	7 994	63%	60%
Vladimir Oblast	22752	3 682	58%	37%
Voronezh Oblast	31286	16 402	61%	61%
Ivanovo Oblast	17831	2 282	59%	35%
Kaluga Oblast	16095	4 428	62%	56%
Kostroma Oblast	10016	4 385	60%	57%
Kursk Oblast	17009	7 437	64%	56%
Lipetsk Oblast	17512	9 025	65%	67%
Moscow Oblast	255665	21 764	69%	50%
Oryol Oblast	11992	4 452	63%	50%
Ryazan Oblast	18353	4 425	66%	44%
Smolensk Oblast	17258	4 487	67%	48%
Tambov Oblast	14908	9 313	67%	63%
Tver Oblast	20161	4 466	57%	40%
Tula Oblast	24638	3 126	62%	33%
Yaroslavl Oblast	19980	3 154	55%	40%
North-Western FR	227489	37 117	61%	45%
Karelia Republic	12621	3 712	64%	62%
Komi Republic	16148	5 552	55%	55%
Arkhangelsk Oblast	20727	6 830	57%	61%
Vologda Oblast	17489	6 744	52%	54%
Kaliningrad Oblast	16326	2 361	66%	29%
Leningrad Oblast	102709	5 894	60%	32%
Murmansk Oblast	21357	1 186	77%	61%
Novgorod Oblast	9540	2 502	59%	40%
Pskov Oblast	10572	2 336	60%	33%
Southern FR	244779	210 258	50%	57%
Republic of Adygeya	4318	4 524	49%	61%
Republic of Dagestan	22455	41 311	41%	63%
Ingush Republic	3278	4 233	37%	35%
Kabardino-Balkar Republic	10789	11 140	57%	69%
Kalmyk Republic	3927	4 972	72%	84%
Karachaevo-Cherkes Republic	4069	6 057	54%	66%
Republic of Northern Ossetiya	9524	5 440	61%	60%
Chechen Republic	4969	12 541	30%	41%
Krasnodar Krai	55196	51 576	59%	62%
Stavropol Krai	28455	23 037	47%	50%
Astrakhan Oblast	13710	6 857	57%	54%
Volgograd Oblast	36545	13 223	53%	55%
Rostov Oblast	47544	25 347	45%	51%
Volga FR	454922	198 566	56%	65%
Republic Bashkortostan	51431	33 527	48%	65%
Mari El Republic	11397	4 586	62%	45%
Republic of Mordovia	11429	7 949	58%	78%
Tatarstan Republic	71521	26 585	67%	88%
Udmurt Republic	23765	10 864	57%	66%
Chuvash Republic	19108	13 342	59%	79%

Kirov Oblast	22915	7 438	58%	54%
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	49530	11 214	55%	48%
Orenburg Oblast	22204	22 641	46%	69%
Penza Oblast	22326	1 082	70%	7%
Perm Oblast	38144	12 828	49%	49%
Samara Oblast	49490	13 210	56%	61%
Saratov Oblast	38723	15 246	56%	63%
Ulianovsk Oblast	22939	8 316	61%	71%
Ural FR	193703	48 571	53%	54%
Kurgan Oblast	10661	7 114	52%	45%
Sverdlovsk Oblst	69890	8 257	50%	41%
Tyumen Oblast	68439	18 795	68%	65%
Cheliabinsk Oblast	44713	14 405	42%	56%
Siberian FR	294322	137 842	55%	62%
Altai Republic	1537	3 500	55%	65%
Buryat Republic	13219	11 896	56%	71%
Tyva Republic	3864	4 693	53%	67%
Khakassiya Republic	8334	3 574	57%	55%
Altai Krai	28006	27 978	53%	66%
Krasnoyarsk Krai	45589	17 265	54%	65%
Irkutsk Oblast	43149	13 664	57%	63%
Kemerovo Oblast	48392	6 516	55%	43%
Novosibirsk Oblast	39454	13 984	55%	57%
Omsk Oblast	33983	16 511	62%	63%
Tomsk Oblast	12951	7 958	43%	57%
Chita Oblast	15844	10 303	57%	65%
Far Eastern FR	110516	39 494	62%	66%
Sakha Republic (Yakutiya)	16916	12 904	74%	85%
Primorski Krai	33310	9 001	60%	57%
Khabarovsk Krai	24018	5 481	58%	55%
Amur Oblast	11687	7 784	52%	75%
Kamchatka Oblast	5569	1 340	58%	55%
Magadan Oblast	4456	146	77%	34%
Sakhalin Oblast	10468	1 224	65%	53%
Jewish Autonomous Oblast	2970	1 099	59%	45%

* FR = Federal Region

Table 1.4. Percentage Of Population (16 - 17 Year Old Age Group) With Completed High-School Education As Well As With Primary And Secondary Vocational Training (As Compared To Total Population Of Same Age Group), 2002.

	Percentage Of The Population (16 - 17 Year Old Age Group) With Different Levels Of Education		
	Completed High-School Education	Primary Vocational Training	Secondary Vocational Training
Russian Federation	56,9	23,2	11,2
Belgorod Oblast	64,0	24,6	10,8
Bryansk Oblast	62,4	29,0	10,5
Vladimir Oblast	53,7	32,2	15,5
Voronezh Oblast	60,7	17,8	16,6
Ivanovo Oblast	54,7	31,8	9,6
Kaluga Oblast	60,1	25,7	12,7
Kostroma Oblast	59,1	33,2	10,6
Kursk Oblast	61,3	28,3	10,9
Lipetsk Oblast	65,7	23,0	10,3
Moscow Oblast	56,8	21,4	13,0
Oryol Oblast	58,8	28,8	14,1
Ryazan Oblast	60,5	31,6	11,0
Smolensk Oblast	61,9	25,7	12,5
Tambov Oblast	65,1	23,6	13,0
Tver Oblast	52,8	28,8	14,7
Tula Oblast	56,0	26,4	16,6
Yaroslavl Oblast	52,5	30,5	12,1
Karelia Republic	63,6	23,9	6,8
Komi Republic	55,2	34,6	8,2
Arkhangelsk Oblast	58,0	35,7	8,6
Vologda Oblast	52,6	35,6	10,3
Kaliningrad Oblast	57,0	18,9	7,6
Leningrad Oblast	47,2	30,7	3,9
Murmansk Oblast	76,4	27,7	7,1
Novgorod Oblast	53,8	34,4	13,7
Pskov Oblast	52,7	28,9	8,5
St. Petersburg	54,9	27,2	12,7
Republic of Adygeya	54,5	15,0	13,2
Republic of Dagestan	52,9	6,6	3,4
Ingush Republic	36,0	1,4	1,3
Kabardino-Balkar Republic	62,9	12,2	5,9
Kalmyk Republic	78,0	17,1	11,1
Karachaevo-Cherkes Republic	60,8	15,8	9,3
Republic of Northern Ossetiya	61,0	17,5	11,8
Krasnodar Krai	60,7	12,4	7,7
Stavropol Krai	48,3	18,7	7,4
Astrakhan Oblast	55,9	21,0	16,4
Volgograd Oblast	53,4	19,2	13,4
Rostov Oblast	46,9	24,9	14,2
Republic Bashkortostan	53,7	25,6	15,1
Mari El Republic	56,1	33,6	11,5
Republic of Mordovia	64,8	28,5	14,4
Tatarstan Republic	71,3	24,3	8,4
Udmurt Republic	59,5	20,7	12,6

Chuvash Republic	65,7	20,4	12,4
Kirov Oblast	57,0	27,2	9,8
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	53,3	22,9	15,1
Orenburg Oblast	55,6	28,2	16,1
Penza Oblast	49,6	21,7	11,5
Perm Oblast	48,9	30,0	12,5
Samara Oblast	56,7	25,9	15,1
Saratov Oblast	58,0	25,8	12,8
Ulianovsk Oblast	63,0	18,3	15,1
Kurgan Oblast	48,8	29,4	13,0
Sverdlovsk Oblst	49,0	27,5	13,4
Cheliabinsk Oblast	45,1	33,3	14,3
Altai Republic	61,7	13,1	12,8
Buryat Republic	62,4	29,3	8,1
Tyva Republic	59,8	11,1	4,8
Khakassiya Republic	56,1	30,1	12,6
Altai Krai	59,2	21,9	6,7
Krasnoyarsk Krai	56,9	23,3	11,7
Irkutsk Oblast	58,5	25,6	8,3
Kemerovo Oblast	53,4	25,2	12,6
Novosibirsk Oblast	55,1	19,6	12,2
Omsk Oblast	62,2	19,9	8,1
Tomsk Oblast	47,1	21,2	5,5
Chita Oblast	59,5	19,3	4,7
Sakha Republic (Yakutiya)	78,4	8,0	3,5
Primorski Krai	59,8	23,4	8,9
Khabarovsk Krai	57,5	19,4	11,0
Amur Oblast	59,1	23,1	8,4
Kamchatka Oblast	57,4	26,4	15,2
Magadan Oblast	73,7	17,9	7,2
Sakhalin Oblast	63,8	25,6	7,2
Jewish Autonomous Oblast	54,8	27,2	9,4

Table 1.5. Number Of Students In Humanities-Oriented High-Schools (Gymnasia, Lyceums) And In Advanced Schools And Classes (By Russian Federation Regions, At The Beginning of 2002/2003 School Year.

	Total Number Of Students At State And Non-State General Schools	Of Those: Number Of Students At State And Non-State Advanced Schools	Per Cent Of Number Of Advanced Schools Students (State And Non-State) As Part Of Total Number Of Students
Russian Federation	18688877	2582556	13,8
Central FR	4233907	666840	15,7
Belgorod Oblast	203277	49177	24,2
Bryansk Oblast	185453	7916	4,3
Vladimir Oblast	179043	10090	5,6
Voronezh Oblast	286004	43328	15,1
Ivanovo Oblast	133776	18961	14,2
Kaluga Oblast	125000	4923	3,9
Kostroma Oblast	93595	7313	7,8
Kursk Oblast	158097	13377	8,5
Lipetsk Oblast	150841	16522	11,0
Moscow Oblast	724504	180311	24,9
Oryol Oblast	105753	22868	21,6
Ryazan Oblast	145332	11511	7,9
Smolensk Oblast	131525	5462	4,2
Tambov Oblast	147495	11629	7,9
Tver Oblast	177732	9301	5,2
Tula Oblast	185852	27365	14,7
Yaroslavl Oblast	156575	22064	14,1
Moscow	944053	204722	21,7
North-Western FR	18308257	2371326	13,0
Karelia Republic	98476	18324	18,6
Komi Republic	156011	15333	9,8
Arkhangelsk Oblast	176816	11818	6,7
Vologda Oblast	164904	12330	7,5
Kaliningrad Oblast	118433	20188	17,0
Leningrad Oblast	184187	30811	16,7
Murmansk Oblast	124253	25373	20,4
Novgorod Oblast	81088	19765	24,4
Pskov Oblast	87219	22910	26,3
St. Petersburg	470111	206295	43,9
Southern FR	15797377	1932748	12,2
Republic of Adygeya	59410	6709	11,3
Republic of Dagestan	461803	30037	6,5
Ingush Republic	64509	3522	5,5
Kabardino-Balkar Republic	139525	3807	2,7
Republic			0,0
Kalmyk Republic	54571	1967	3,6
Karachaevo-Cherkes Republic	69564	9389	13,5 0,0

Republic of Northern Ossetiya - Alaniya	103165	3193	3,1
Chechen Republic			0,0
Krasnodar Krai	664411	52234	7,9
Stavropol Krai	360993	56575	15,7
Astrakhan Oblast	140156	18636	13,3
Volgograd Oblast	335230	54199	16,2
Rostov Oblast	533866	38053	7,1
Volga FR	12075783	1506506	12,5
Republic Bashkortostan	627217	136790	21,8
Mari El Republic	107174	11131	10,4
Republic of Mordovia	120894	19269	15,9
Tatarstan Republic	547979	80764	14,7
Udmurt Republic	226991	31670	14,0
Chuvash Republic	199462	25080	12,6
Kirov Oblast	191368	16801	8,8
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	407377	41467	10,2
Orenburg Oblast	322638	31196	9,7
Penza Oblast	190949	18775	9,8
Perm Oblast	375643	42960	11,4
Samara Oblast	400264	73963	18,5
Saratov Oblast	347712	36273	10,4
Ulianovsk Oblast	188905	30311	16,0
Ural FR	6643467	785767	11,8
Kurgan Oblast	138821	15945	11,5
Sverdlovsk Oblst	525331	65240	12,4
Tyumen Oblast	513591	43104	8,4
Cheliabinsk Oblast	423533	44166	10,4
Siberian FR	3943506	494487	12,5
Altai Republic	36817	1790	4,9
Buryat Republic	165821	16517	10,0
Tyva Republic	66375	11083	16,7
Khakassiya Republic	80304	6000	7,5
Altai Krai	344949	43072	12,5
Krasnoyarsk Krai	404419	44363	11,0
Irkutsk Oblast	412810	51455	12,5
Kemerovo Oblast	375885	56242	15,0
Novosibirsk Oblast	344267	38869	11,3
Omsk Oblast	300842	44297	14,7
Tomsk Oblast	121813	25576	21,0
Chita Oblast	165370	12313	7,4
Far Eastern FR	946233	118424	12,5
Sakha Republic (Yakutiya)	177601	24486	13,8
Primorski Krai	272346	34313	12,6
Khabarovsk Krai	185921	24656	13,3
Amur Oblast	125755	10437	8,3
Kamchatka Oblast	46854	2788	6,0
Magadan Oblast	25372	8922	35,2
Sakhalin Oblast	74605	11102	14,9
Jewish Autonomous Oblast	28489	527	1,8

Table 1.6. Number Of High-School Graduates (Leaving Their Schools At Grade 11) Per 1000 College Seats (Both State And Non-State Educational Facilities).

	Number Of Graduates Per 1000 College Seats			Number Of College Seats Per 1 Graduate
	2001	2002	2003	
Russian Federation	903	883	832	1,2
Central FR	663	713	599	1,7
Belgorod Oblast	945	1161	1148	0,9
Bryansk Oblast	1596	1379	1398	0,7
Vladimir Oblast	1327	1121	1114	0,9
Voronezh Oblast	920	751	826	1,2
Ivanovo Oblast	776	732	780	1,3
Kaluga Oblast	1654	1218	1171	0,9
Kostroma Oblast	1535	1562	1495	0,7
Kursk Oblast	1067	878	836	1,2
Lipetsk Oblast	2132	1809	1757	0,6
Moscow Oblast	1225	1793	1878	0,5
Oryol Oblast	709	752	807	1,2
Ryazan Oblast	1254	1056	1138	0,9
Smolensk Oblast	2066	1251	1267	0,8
Tambov Oblast	1787	1446	1371	0,7
Tver Oblast	1459	1233	1297	0,8
Tula Oblast	2213	1370	1418	0,7
Yaroslavl Oblast	1218	1038	959	1,0
Moscow	261	316	230	4,3
North-Western FR	771	785	765	1,3
Karelia Republic	1571	1145	1189	0,8
Komi Republic	1640	1342	1185	0,8
Arkhangelsk Oblast	1053	1191	1179	0,8
including Nenets Autonomous Region	--	7906	4059	0,2
Vologda Oblast	1133	1059	1058	0,9
Kaliningrad Oblast	1493	1092	1065	0,9
Leningrad Oblast	1623	1942	3068	0,3
Murmansk Oblast	1842	1376	1284	0,8
Novgorod Oblast	1173	956	1021	1,0
Pskov Oblast	1631	1178	1145	0,9
St. Petersburg	380	437	415	2,4
Southern FR	1286	1087	1037	1,0
Republic of Adygeya	949	963	945	1,1
Republic of Dagestan	1554	1275	1204	0,8
Ingush Republic	2331	1075	1417	0,7
Kabardino-Balkar Republic	2004	1857	1636	0,6
Kalmyk Republic	2210	2063	1904	0,5
Karachaevo-Cherkes Republic	1894	1760	1470	0,7
Republic of Northern Ossetiya	1089	1311	1002	1,0
Chechen Republic	2695	1895	1709	0,6
Krasnodar Krai	1777	1412	1293	0,8
Stavropol Krai	1003	756	745	1,3
Astrakhan Oblast	1237	1084	1093	0,9
Volgograd Oblast	1227	984	936	1,1
Rostov Oblast	831	756	761	1,3
Volga FR	1052	982	978	1,0
Republic Bashkortostan	1366	1147	1174	0,9
Mari El Republic	1161	1201	1269	0,8
Republic of Mordovia	1192	1041	953	1,0

Tatarstan Republic	968	996	984	1,0
Udmurt Republic	927	1020	949	1,1
Chuvash Republic	1274	1091	1045	1,0
Kirov Oblast	1125	965	975	1,0
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	872	678	672	1,5
Orenburg Oblast	1229	1198	1199	0,8
Penza Oblast	1525	1405	1393	0,7
Perm Oblast	1082	1065	1143	0,9
including Komi-Perm Autonomous Region	--	6207	5475	0,2
Samara Oblast	703	745	763	1,3
Saratov Oblast	1007	969	928	1,1
Ulianovsk Oblast	1365	1175	1180	0,8
Ural FR	960	918	956	1,0
Kurgan Oblast	1408	1288	1252	0,8
Sverdlovsk Oblst	789	824	861	1,2
Tyumen Oblast	503	1487	2059	0,5
including Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Region	--	2188	1372	0,7
Yamal-Nenets Autonomous Region	--	10998	1793	0,6
Cheliabinsk Oblast	821	776	857	1,2
Siberian FR	963	952	962	1,0
Altai Republic	1642	1498	2032	0,5
Buryat Republic	2059	1849	1800	0,6
Tyva Republic	2111	1960	1941	0,5
Khakassiya Republic	1163	903	882	1,1
Altai Krai	1554	1290	1295	0,8
Krasnoyarsk Krai	1040	1048	1204	0,8
including Taimyr (Dolgano-Nenets) Autonomous Region	--	13970	15750	0,1
Evenk Autonomous Region	--	--	--	-
Irkutsk Oblast	992	949	860	1,2
including Ust-Ordynsk Buryat Autonomous Region	--	--	--	-
Kemerovo Oblast	1021	993	1035	1,0
Novosibirsk Oblast	546	589	602	1,7
Omsk Oblast	1116	1020	1078	0,9
Tomsk Oblast	398	515	503	2,0
Chita Oblast	1700	1626	1169	0,9
including Aginsk Buryat Autonomous Region	--	4000	3406	0,3
Far Eastern FR	1037	903	910	1,1
Sakha Republic (Yakutiya)	1754	1308	1192	0,8
Primorski Krai	945	863	851	1,2
Khabarovsk Krai	625	583	599	1,7
Amur Oblast	1316	1230	1243	0,8
Kamchatka Oblast	782	691	656	1,5
including Koryak Autonomous Region	--	--	--	-
Magadan Oblast	1374	1042	1000	1,0
Sakhalin Oblast	2110	1256	1716	0,6
Jewish Autonomous Oblast	991	1100	1250	0,8
Chukchi Autonomous Area	--	--	--	-

Table 1.7. Expenses In The Consolidated Budget Of The Russian Federation Per 1 Student in 2001
(Taking Into Account Appreciation Rates For Standard Units Of Budget Services)

	General Education	Beginning Vocational Training	Secondary Vocational Training	Higher Education
Russian Federation	5843	10714	8865	11958
Belgorod Oblast	4429	7853	7505	10774
Bryansk Oblast	3777	7387	7390	7169
Vladimir Oblast	4245	7180	6623	9212
Voronezh Oblast	4107	8363	5448	8717
Ivanovo Oblast	3527	8044	6778	9863
Kaluga Oblast	5048	8970	7380	11060
Kostroma Oblast	4425	9769	7054	7972
Kursk Oblast	4249	8668	7922	8310
Lipetsk Oblast	5562	8009	6704	7859
Moscow Oblast	5231	16415	8689	12652
Oryol Oblast	6761	8762	6080	9062
Ryazan Oblast	4297	8759	8415	7921
Smolensk Oblast	4967	8128	6046	10831
Tambov Oblast	4396	9322	6263	8518
Tver Oblast	4883	8775	6763	9231
Tula Oblast	4673	8670	6597	9993
Yaroslavl Oblast	4902	8603	7696	9523
Moscow	6924	12961	10155	14374
Karelia Republic	4395	7945	6753	11354
Komi Republic	4508	9140	8162	7313
Arkhangelsk Oblast	3759	7481	6824	8474
Nenets Autonomous Region	6416	3660	10103	...
Vologda Oblast	7226	7456	9140	8905
Kaliningrad Oblast	4697	10360	9762	9551
Leningrad Oblast	5748	10799	13874	10146
Murmansk Oblast	3169	10529	8316	7901
Novgorod Oblast	5185	7670	13046	11000
Pskov Oblast	4198	11044	6602	7452
St. Petersburg	5630	9081	9777	13833
Republic of Adygeya	3447	10568	2156	8953
Republic of Dagestan	3005	5305	4929	4450
Ingush Republic	2742	6299	5258	4526
Kabardino-Balkar Republic	...	4518	1849	6922
Kalmyk Republic	4137	8499	6424	7263
Karachaevo-Cherkes Republic	3939	6084	4154	7711
Republic of Northern Ossetiya - Alaniya	2585	10980	6655	6520
Chechen Republic	1526
Krasnodar Krai	3989	8137	6047	9080
Stavropol Krai	3400	7669	7515	7236
Astrakhan Oblast	3849	8254	8317	8795
Volgograd Oblast	3795	6396	7812	8353
Rostov Oblast	3456	7352	6890	7714

Republic Bashkortostan	5273	9675	9936	14917
Mari El Republic	4307	7940	6772	8364
Republic of Mordovia	...	8263
Tatarstan Republic	6087	11167	7536	9091
Udmurt Republic	4936	10844	8016	9577
Chuvash Republic	3500	7324	6259	8858
Kirov Oblast	5122	11534	7238	10192
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	4575	7362	7226	8958
Orenburg Oblast	4468	8215	6105	7971
Penza Oblast	3889	8723	5659	6727
Perm Oblast	6950	10559	8895	9481
Komy-Perm Autonomous Region	5428	9587	6630	-
Samara Oblast	4568	6870	6461	9622
Saratov Oblast	3555	8174	5365	8578
Ulianovsk Oblast	3546	5327	7040	10471
Kurgan Oblast	4114	10236	8130	7317
Sverdlovsk Oblst	4415	9236	7958	10009
Tyumen Oblast	7019	8349	8813	8085
Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Region	11529	17474	29317	34150
Yamal-Nenets Autonomous Region	4608	11476	9966	-
Cheliabinsk Oblast	3361	5800	6729	9548
Altai Republic	4509	8536	4145	5574
Buryat Republic	3901	8201	5268	6669
Tyva Republic	3132	8450	4735	7166
Khakassiya Republic	3951	7755	2508	11789
Altai Krai	4430	8092	6530	7750
Krasnoyarsk Krai	5137	8775	7496	7323
Taimyr (Dolgano-Nenets) Autonomous Region	8469	-	-	-
Evenk Autonomous Region	3175	4838	10390	-
Irkutsk Oblast	3690	7562	7382	7767
Ust-Ordynsk Buryat Autonomous Region	4817	9565	-	-
Kemerovo Oblast	4111	7412	6602	8634
Novosibirsk Oblast	4830	9650	6975	10894
Omsk Oblast	4518	9240	8415	8264
Tomsk Oblast	3694	691	4397	11968
Chita Oblast	4084	9215	7481	7678
Aginsk Buryat Autonomous Region	5997	-	-	10433
Sakha Republic (Yakutiya)	3612	5644	4505	8568
Primorski Krai	3416	6336	6159	8497
Khabarovsk Krai	2764	6090	4166	5822
Amur Oblast	3390	7962	4811	5940
Kamchatka Oblast	2838	6622	6742	5608
Koryak Autonomous Region	2095	7874	4249	-
Magadan Oblast	2551	3625	2850	3632
Sakhalin Oblast	2723	9013	7258	4583
Jewish Autonomous Oblast	3189	12826	5028	7550
Chukchi Autonomous Area	3138	5115	6294	-

Table 1.8. Level Of Computerization In State and Municipal Daytime Educational Establishments At The Start of 2001/2002

Regions	Total			Cities And Townships			Rural Areas		
	Number of Schools Having Information Science & Computer Class	Per cent In The Total Number Of Schools	Number of Students Per One Computer	Number of Schools Having Information Science & Computer Class	Per cent In The Total Number Of Schools	Number of Students Per One Computer	Number of Schools Having Information Science & Computer Class	Per cent In The Total Number Of Schools	Number of Students Per One Computer
Russian Federation	29863	46,9	59	13367	68,9	69	16496	37,3	44
Central FR	7190	49,8	51	3825	73,4	57	3365	36,4	37
Belgorod Oblast	425	53,7	45	153	81	65	272	45,1	28
Bryansk Oblast	421	52,7	49	145	75,9	70	276	45,4	29
Vladimir Oblast	284	50,6	58	157	68,3	66	127	38,4	38
Voronezh Oblast	488	43,6	66	158	66,1	79	330	37,5	53
Ivanovo Oblast	162	34	78	113	57,4	91	49	17,6	42
Kaluga Oblast	310	59	57	97	64,2	78	213	57	32
Kostroma Oblast	183	35,5	53	63	60	66	120	29,2	38
Kursk Oblast	283	32,5	57	84	62,2	85	199	27	36
Lipetsk Oblast	240	37,2	62	86	63,7	91	154	30,2	40
Moscow Oblast	995	64,4	57	650	74,4	64	345	51,3	41
Oryol Oblast	418	68	38	74	71,2	63	344	67,3	22
Ryazan Oblast	352	45,9	50	135	79,4	63	217	36,3	33
Smolensk Oblast	296	45,8	54	108	77,7	72	188	37,1	32
Tambov Oblast	253	30,2	49	99	66,9	56	154	22,3	42
Tver Oblast	336	34,2	61	154	68,1	69	182	24,1	46
Tula Oblast	273	37,2	71	171	54,6	75	102	24,2	53
Yaroslavl Oblast	236	43,1	51	143	72,6	58	93	26,6	33
Moscow	1235	84,2	40	1235	84,2	40	-	-	-
North-Western FR	2296	49,4	58	1486	72,7	63	810	31,1	45
Karelia Republic	188	62	52	89	80,2	58	99	51,6	41
Komi Republic	298	55,5	59	118	61,1	78	180	52,3	36
Arkhangelsk Oblast	231	34,2	75	140	66	83	91	19,7	61

including:									
Nenets Autonomous Region	21	51,2	32	8	88,9	35	13	40,6	29
Vologda Oblast	247	33,4	58	113	68,5	78	134	23,3	38
Kaliningrad Oblast	154	53,3	60	97	77	69	57	35	38
Leningrad Oblast	249	54,8	61	142	72,1	65	107	41,6	53
Murmansk Oblast	174	77	55	145	82,4	57	29	58	34
Novgorod Oblast	132	42,7	76	70	72,9	86	62	29,1	55
Pskov Oblast	112	25,2	72	61	64,2	81	51	14,6	55
St. Petersburg	511	76	51	511	76	51	-	-	-
Southern FR	3836	44,4	80	1341	59,2	95	2495	39,1	69
Republic of Adygeya	72	42,1	75	20	42,6	103	52	41,9	60
Republic of Dagestan	326	19,6	114	81	45	153	245	16,5	100
Ingush Republic	56	52,3	89	25	75,8	71	31	41,9	106
Chechen Republic	8	1,8	1424	2	2	2042	6	1,7	1095
Kabardino-Balkar Republic	236	83,1	21	79	76	21	157	87,2	22
Kalmyk Republic	124	55,1	56	15	46,9	146	109	56,5	38
Karachaevo-Cherkes Republic	67	35,6	119	16	38,1	215	51	34,9	66
Republic of Northern Ossetiya	116	56	132	54	59,3	67	62	53,4	213
Krasnodar Krai	854	62,8	86	282	63,8	94	572	62,4	79
Stavropol Krai	442	62,6	71	166	67,2	94	276	60,1	56
Astrakhan Oblast	176	48,4	70	80	67,2	74	96	39,2	63
Volgograd Oblast	539	41,7	65	211	61,7	86	328	34,5	41
Rostov Oblast	820	50,4	70	310	63,5	94	510	44,7	49
Volga FR	8430	48,1	52	3003	74,6	69	5427	40,2	35
Republic Bashkortostan	1500	46,8	51	399	80,1	69	1101	40,7	37
Mari El Republic	191	47,6	63	66	72,5	81	125	40,3	46
Republic of Mordovia	365	48,3	38	88	73,9	62	277	43,6	24
Tatarstan Republic	1534	62,4	41	492	92,5	60	1042	54,1	23
Udmurt Republic	370	44,5	62	143	77,3	75	227	35,1	47
Chuvash Republic	404	60,4	41	112	80,6	72	292	55,1	26
Kirov Oblast	351	36,9	71	130	57,3	93	221	30,6	45

Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	595	42,1	55	326	72,6	65	269	27,9	35
Orenburg Oblast	542	34	69	133	58,1	88	409	29,9	56
Penza Oblast	497	54,8	49	148	80	62	349	48,3	36
Perm Oblast	748	56,5	50	314	76	62	434	47,7	33
including:									
Komi-Perm Autonomous Region	108	62,8	59	8	72,7	82	100	62,1	54
Samara Oblast	567	62,7	49	326	77,6	54	241	49,8	39
Saratov Oblast	503	35,1	68	211	57,8	93	292	27,3	43
Ulianovsk Oblast	263	38,9	61	115	65,7	91	148	29,5	34
Ural FR	2002	41,1	69	1157	63	75	845	27,8	54
Kurgan Oblast	214	25,1	89	59	50,9	96	155	21,1	83
Sverdlovsk Oblst	623	47,3	80	447	59,7	87	176	31	52
Tyumen Oblast	683	46,7	54	374	76,3	57	309	31,8	46
including:									
Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Region	290	74,2	44	205	80,1	49	85	63	25
Yamal-Nenets Autonomous Region	122	83,6	46	81	89	51	41	74,5	34
Cheliabinsk Oblast	482	38,8	77	277	57,5	88	205	27	56
Siberian FR	4350	40,7	66	1772	62,6	85	2578	32,9	47
Altai Republic	69	34	62	10	71,4	76	59	31,2	59
Buryat Republic	284	49,8	60	93	67,9	85	191	44,1	44
Tyva Republic	41	24,8	183	15	45,5	230	26	19,7	155
Khakassiya Republic	131	47,8	76	45	54,2	101	86	45	52
Altai Krai	726	47,5	55	144	59,8	86	582	45,3	42
Krasnoyarsk Krai	644	41	52	312	70,6	62	332	29,4	36
including:									
Taimyr (Dolgano-Nenets) Autonomous Region	12	41,4	64	8	100	52	4	19	105
Evenk Autonomous Region
Irkutsk Oblast	494	37	71	280	64,2	86	214	23,8	47
including:									
Ust-Ordynsk Buryat Autonomous Region
Kemerovo Oblast	352	33,3	95	234	43,4	104	118	22,7	62

Novosibirsk Oblast	780	53,3	64	321	91,7	71	459	41,2	52
Omsk Oblast	392	27,5	71	152	56,9	107	240	20,7	46
Tomsk Oblast	210	49	53	72	75	72	138	41,4	40
Chita Oblast	227	34,6	79	94	49	111	133	28,7	55
including:									
Aginsk Buryat Autonomous Region
Far Eastern FR	1759	62,1	48	783	65,9	70	976	59,4	27
Sakha Republic (Yakutiya)	525	77,2	35	165	83,3	56	360	74,7	24
Primorski Krai	494	72,4	41	236	72,6	59	258	72,3	22
Khabarovsk Krai	222	48,9	97	92	41,1	168	130	56,5	37
Amur Oblast	183	40	54	71	52,6	81	112	34,8	36
Kamchatka Oblast	82	64,1	60	45	64,3	75	37	63,8	36
including:									
Koryak Autonomous Region	17	60,7	40	2	100	109	15	57,7	33
Magadan Oblast	49	59	38	39	68,4	42	10	38,5	17
Sakhalin Oblast	125	63,5	55	90	69,8	64	35	51,5	28
Jewish Autonomous Oblast	48	50,5	60	28	84,8	62	20	32,3	58
Chukchi Autonomous Area	31	56,4	25	17	100	22	14	36,8	30

Table 1.9. Results Of Russian Students (Average Grade, In Accordance With International Scale)--Depending On The Type Of Educational Facilities

	All General Education Facilities	Beginning Vocational Training Facilities	High School, 9-th Grade	Secondary Vocational Training Facilities	High School, 10-th Grade
Reading Comprehension (Literacy)	442	389	417	444	466
Mathematical Literacy	468	418	443	469	492
Scientific Literacy (Natural Sciences)	489	439	466	488	512
Competence In Problem Solving	479	427	446	481	506

Table 1.10. Results Of Russian Students (Average Grade, In Accordance With International Scale)--Depending Of Their Place Of Residence

	Per Cent Of Students		Reading Ability (Literacy)	Mathematical Literacy	Scientific Literacy	Competence In Problem Solving
Village, Farms, Rural Areas (Population: Under 3000 People)	14	31	407	439	459	437
Township (Population: Between 3000 And 15000 People)	17		423	449	471	459
Town, City (Population: Between 15 And 100 Thousand People)	24		441	468	488	477
Big City (Population: Between 100 Thousand And 1 Million People)	29		451	472	496	487
Megacities (Cities With Population Over 1 Million People)	16		479	507	524	522

Table 1.11 Results Of The Uniform State Exam, Depending On The Gender
And On The Place Of Residence

	Russian Language		Mathematics	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Rural	51,1	44,7	48,7	45,5
Township	50,5	43,9	50,2	47,7
Town, Population Under 50 Thousand People	51,4	45,2	50,9	49,5
Town, 50 - 100 Thousand People	52,4	46,6	50,9	49,8
City, 100 - 450 Thousand People	52,8	46,8	51	50,3
Big City, 450-680 Thousand People	53,3	47,3	51,6	51,9
Big City, Over 680 Thousand People	53,4	47	51	50,3
Megacity	57	52,8	62,8	66

Tables to section 3

Table 3.1. Percentage of employed in the 15-24 age group, in 2002, as per PES data (in per cent)

	Total	15-17 years	Including 18-19 years	20-24 years
Russian Federation	34,6	5,3	25,1	58,4
Central Federal Region	34,2	4,8	22,4	58,6
Belgorod Oblast	37,1	9,0	26,1	61,5
Bryansk Oblast	33,4	0,9	17,5	63,1
Vladimir Oblast	47,3	10,2	39,5	75,6
Voronezh Oblast	29,8	10,7	17,3	48,4
Ivanovo Oblast	40,8	6,2	31,0	66,1
Kaluga Oblast	33,2	3,2	21,7	58,4
Kostroma Oblast	34,7	3,1	17,9	63,9
Kursk Oblast	38,5	10,3	27,8	63,1
Lipetsk Oblast	32,7	5,0	19,0	56,0
Moscow Oblast	34,6	5,3	27,0	56,4
Oryol Oblast	37,0	8,8	21,6	61,8
Ryazan Oblast	38,1	3,5	24,0	67,1
Smolensk Oblast	36,5	2,8	30,6	62,8
Tambov Oblast	31,8	9,8	14,9	53,7
Tver Oblast	43,5	2,6	36,8	74,7
Tula Oblast	34,5	3,3	20,3	61,4
Yaroslavl Oblast	36,5	6,0	20,3	63,9
City of Moscow	27,8	0,7	14,0	50,9
North-Western Federal Region	37,2	4,6	26,2	63,1
Republic of Kareliya	41,4	4,8	40,1	66,9
Komi Republic	33,7	6,6	19,6	59,3
Arkhangelsk Oblast	43,2	6,4	35,5	70,0
Nenets Autonomous Region	39,2	2,0	34,5	67,8
Vologda Oblast	43,0	4,7	37,8	70,2
Kaliningrad Oblast	35,7	6,2	27,5	58,6
Leningrad Oblast	34,8	3,7	24,0	59,8
Murmansk Oblast	34,3	7,5	26,0	55,7
Novgorod Oblast	41,9	3,6	30,0	71,9
Pskov Oblast	34,1	4,0	38,4	54,1
St. Petersburg	35,0	2,9	15,8	63,1
Southern Federal Region	31,2	5,9	23,9	51,3
Republic of Adygeya	30,2	4,5	21,6	50,0
Republic of Dagestan	28,9	11,8	26,0	40,8
Republic of Ingushetiya	9,7	0,0	0,0	20,1
Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	26,1	7,3	18,1	43,1
Kalmyck Republic	26,7	4,6	33,3	44,0
Republic of Karachaevo-Tcherkessiya	25,4	5,0	14,2	46,6
Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	27,9	8,4	20,9	43,3
Chechen Republic
Krasnodar Krai	34,0	8,6	22,1	56,1
Stavropol Krai	26,5	1,0	17,3	48,0
Astrakhan Oblast	33,2	3,5	22,3	59,2

Volgograd Oblast	36,7	6,8	32,0	57,7
Rostov Oblast	33,5	3,4	28,3	55,8
Volga Federal Region	37,5	6,0	28,8	63,1
Republic of Bashkortostan	34,0	5,7	23,4	60,2
Republic of Mari El	34,7	3,3	28,6	60,8
Republic of Mordoviya	30,0	3,8	12,5	55,8
Republic of Tatarstan	38,8	4,0	34,1	65,8
Republic of Udmurtiya	44,7	8,9	38,2	72,0
Republic of Chuvashiya	37,4	9,3	31,0	60,7
Kirov Oblast	46,9	7,6	44,5	73,7
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	41,2	5,9	31,1	67,4
Orenburg Oblast	34,5	4,0	26,2	59,3
Penza Oblast	32,0	8,6	21,4	52,2
Perm Oblast	38,9	5,2	31,2	64,7
Komi-Perm Autonomous Region	35,3	11,5	37,7	52,4
Samara Oblast	39,7	5,2	26,4	67,2
Saratov Oblast	30,9	8,2	18,1	51,9
Ulianovsk Oblast	37,8	6,6	30,3	63,6
Ural Federal Region	34,3	4,9	24,9	58,5
Kurgan Oblast	35,9	7,4	29,3	59,0
Sverdlovsk Oblast	38,5	4,7	28,3	64,7
Tyumen Oblast	33,0	5,8	24,2	56,1
Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Region	35,0	3,0	34,5	58,0
Yamal-Nenets Autonomous Region	35,4	2,9	20,2	63,0
Tchelyabinsk Oblast	29,9	3,5	19,6	52,9
Siberia Federal Region	33,2	5,4	25,3	55,6
Republic of Altai	31,7	3,9	37,3	51,4
Buryat Republic	31,1	1,9	29,8	54,0
Republic of Tyva	23,0	0,6	18,7	42,9
Republic of Khakassiya	29,2	8,9	19,4	47,4
Altai Krai	34,0	8,3	23,5	55,3
Krasnoyarsk Krai	35,3	5,1	21,8	62,6
Taimyr (Dolgano-Nenets) Autonomous Region	38,9	5,3	39,6	64,0
Evenki Autonomous Region	48,7	10,4	56,8	83,6
Irkutsk Oblast	31,9	6,2	21,4	54,1
Ust-Ordynsk Buryat Autonomous Region	34,2	12,5	40,1	51,9
Kemerovo Oblast	34,9	2,3	25,7	59,5
Novosibirsk Oblast	33,3	4,4	30,7	52,5
Omsk Oblast	31,9	4,9	24,3	55,2
Tomsk Oblast	30,0	3,5	23,5	49,0
Chita Oblast	37,6	12,4	35,7	57,4
Aginsk Buryat Autonomous Region	18,6	1,5	24,2	31,0
Far Eastern Federal Region	32,8	4,6	22,0	55,7
Republic of Sakha (Yakutiya)	37,1	7,7	30,2	62,1
Primorski Krai	32,7	4,8	24,4	54,7
Khabarovsk Krai	29,0	2,7	14,1	51,2
Amur Oblast	30,7	2,5	19,4	53,4
Kamchatka Oblast	35,1	3,6	28,4	57,8
Koryak Autonomous Region	39,7	0,9	41,7	74,0
Magadan Oblast	33,3	4,3	17,4	58,6
Sakhalin Oblast	33,4	6,4	20,9	55,7
Jewish Autonomous Oblast	36,7	5,7	23,5	63,3
Chukchi Autonomous Region	46,0	7,6	45,8	75,4

Table 3. 2. Percentage of employed in the 15-24 age group, in 2002, as per RPC data (in per cent)

	Total	Including		
		15-17 years	18-19 years	20-24 years
Russian Federation	34,1	3,1	27,3	57,8
Central Federal Region	36,6	3,6	28,8	60,4
Belgorod Oblast	30,3	2,2	19,1	56,7
Bryansk Oblast	32,2	2,1	22,2	58,8
Vladimir Oblast	42,1	5,0	41,1	67,6
Voronezh Oblast	30,3	2,4	22,1	54,2
Ivanovo Oblast	38,2	4,2	30,9	63,8
Kaluga Oblast	38,6	4,4	31,4	65,5
Kostroma Oblast	38,2	3,6	30,7	66,1
Kursk Oblast	30,8	2,0	19,9	56,7
Lipetsk Oblast	31,2	1,8	18,6	58,8
Moscow Oblast	42,3	4,7	40,6	65,6
Oryol Oblast	31,4	2,8	20,5	56,0
Ryazan Oblast	34,7	2,9	25,9	60,5
Smolensk Oblast	34,6	3,2	26,8	60,2
Tambov Oblast	26,7	1,6	16,0	50,1
Tver Oblast	38,8	4,2	32,4	66,5
Tula Oblast	36,7	3,0	28,3	62,5
Yaroslavl Oblast	39,5	4,7	30,7	66,3
City of Moscow	37,0	4,1	25,6	57,2
North-Western Federal Region	37,2	3,3	31,5	61,5
Republic of Kareliya	38,8	2,6	33,2	66,8
Komi Republic	36,1	2,4	25,6	64,6
Arkhangelsk Oblast	40,4	2,9	36,0	67,5
Nenets Autonomous Region	42,0	4,7	41,1	68,9
Vologda Oblast	39,1	4,5	31,3	67,6
Kaliningrad Oblast	38,4	3,7	36,6	61,1
Leningrad Oblast	41,7	3,9	40,6	66,7
Murmansk Oblast	45,9	2,0	51,1	68,1
Novgorod Oblast	36,3	3,4	27,4	63,7
Pskov Oblast	38,6	3,4	37,0	64,5
St. Petersburg	32,0	3,4	22,2	53,0
Southern Federal Region	26,5	2,4	21,9	45,0
Republic of Adygeya	26,1	2,8	20,8	44,9
Republic of Dagestan	13,1	1,0	10,0	23,5
Republic of Ingushetiya	5,8	0,3	5,8	9,6
Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	22,0	1,9	15,8	37,4
Kalmyck Republic	21,6	1,5	12,9	41,7
Republic of Karachaevo-Tcherkessiya	17,8	1,2	12,8	31,7
Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	26,6	1,6	32,3	39,3
Chechen Republic	15,0	0,4	22,8	20,8
Krasnodar Krai	33,2	3,8	27,4	55,6
Stavropol Krai	28,8	2,8	21,9	50,4
Astrakhan Oblast	32,5	2,7	27,4	55,1
Volgograd Oblast	32,8	2,7	26,2	55,7
Rostov Oblast	30,7	2,9	23,4	52,4
Volga Federal Region	35,1	3,0	27,4	62,0
Republic of Bashkortostan	31,7	2,4	23,3	59,5

Republic of Mari El	31,8	2,1	23,0	59,4
Republic of Mordoviya	28,8	1,4	15,7	54,8
Republic of Tatarstan	34,8	3,2	25,7	63,1
Republic of Udmurtiya	39,8	3,7	32,3	68,7
Republic of Chuvashiya	31,6	2,5	22,0	58,6
Kirov Oblast	38,9	3,6	30,9	68,1
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	41,0	4,2	36,4	67,6
Orenburg Oblast	34,8	2,7	28,4	60,4
Penza Oblast	29,7	2,0	19,1	54,2
Perm Oblast	36,9	3,3	29,8	64,6
Komi-Perm Autonomous Region	26,7	2,6	23,9	53,5
Samara Oblast	38,6	3,7	31,8	64,4
Saratov Oblast	31,1	2,6	22,8	54,4
Ulianovsk Oblast	33,5	2,6	26,1	60,6
Ural Federal Region	36,5	3,3	28,5	62,7
Kurgan Oblast	29,4	2,4	18,9	54,8
Sverdlovsk Oblast	40,1	4,0	34,5	66,3
Tyumen Oblast	33,9	3,0	22,7	60,5
Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Region	36,6	2,7	24,7	63,9
Yamal-Nenets Autonomous Region	37,5	3,1	26,9	66,0
Tchelyabinsk Oblast	36,2	3,1	28,1	62,4
Siberia Federal Region	32,8	2,9	24,5	56,4
Republic of Altai	25,8	1,9	17,1	47,9
Buryat Republic	29,8	2,0	26,9	51,0
Republic of Tyva	17,7	1,1	12,6	33,7
Republic of Khakassiya	30,5	2,0	20,5	54,8
Altai Krai	32,3	2,8	22,7	56,2
Krasnoyarsk Krai	35,3	3,2	26,2	60,4
Taimyr (Dolgano-Nenets) Autonomous Region	38,3	3,7	34,8	65,3
Evenki Autonomous Region	38,8	3,9	36,2	67,2
Irkutsk Oblast	32,7	3,0	23,3	56,9
Ust-Ordynsk Buryat Autonomous Region	24,9	3,7	22,0	47,0
Kemerovo Oblast	34,5	3,0	24,5	59,4
Novosibirsk Oblast	35,7	3,7	27,2	59,6
Omsk Oblast	31,1	2,7	21,4	55,2
Tomsk Oblast	27,8	2,7	16,6	48,8
Chita Oblast	35,1	2,4	38,0	54,8
Aginsk Buryat Autonomous Region	21,6	1,2	20,0	40,5
Far Eastern Federal Region	37,2	2,8	36,1	59,2
Republic of Sakha (Yakutiya)	30,6	3,0	20,6	56,2
Primorski Krai	37,9	2,6	38,2	58,8
Khabarovsk Krai	40,3	3,0	40,7	61,5
Amur Oblast	36,0	2,6	34,6	57,9
Kamchatka Oblast	40,1	2,3	44,3	59,3
Koryak Autonomous Region	32,4	3,8	31,3	57,4
Magadan Oblast	35,5	3,3	25,5	60,0
Sakhalin Oblast	37,0	2,3	34,3	59,7
Jewish Autonomous Oblast	36,7	2,9	39,7	57,2
Chukchi Autonomous Region	46,7	6,3	56,1	73,0

Table 3.3. Percentage of economically inactive persons in the 15-24 age group, in 2002, by PES data (in per cent)

	Total	Including		20-24 years
		15-17 years	18-19 years	
Russian Federation	67,2	92,5	68,1	32,6
Central Federal Region	69,5	93,6	72,8	34,8
Belgorod Oblast	65,5	90,4	69,8	26,9
Bryansk Oblast	70,9	97,6	76,5	28,0
Vladimir Oblast	52,2	82,0	47,6	15,9
Voronezh Oblast	71,6	88,2	78,9	42,3
Ivanovo Oblast	60,5	90,3	58,0	26,7
Kaluga Oblast	68,6	92,6	71,8	33,4
Kostroma Oblast	69,1	94,5	76,1	28,5
Kursk Oblast	63,4	88,2	66,0	25,7
Lipetsk Oblast	71,9	95,0	80,1	36,9
Moscow Oblast	68,7	93,1	69,3	37,6
Oryol Oblast	67,1	90,0	74,2	31,6
Ryazan Oblast	62,5	93,8	59,9	22,6
Smolensk Oblast	62,9	93,2	58,5	23,2
Tambov Oblast	68,9	90,2	79,8	31,7
Tver Oblast	62,4	95,8	59,4	18,5
Tula Oblast	69,9	95,2	72,2	33,0
Yaroslavl Oblast	69,5	92,6	75,0	33,3
City of Moscow	79,0	99,3	85,4	47,7
North-Western Federal Region	66,2	93,4	67,6	29,6
Republic of Kareliya	61,5	94,0	50,4	26,3
Komi Republic	64,3	89,4	65,1	26,8
Arkhangelsk Oblast	58,6	90,8	55,2	21,9
Nenets Autonomous Region	65,4	97,2	60,5	24,3
Vologda Oblast	61,0	95,3	54,5	23,1
Kaliningrad Oblast	66,1	91,1	67,5	32,2
Leningrad Oblast	67,1	91,4	72,0	31,4
Murmansk Oblast	63,1	88,0	62,1	30,7
Novgorod Oblast	64,4	96,4	65,4	22,6
Pskov Oblast	67,7	95,6	57,4	35,8
St. Petersburg	72,6	96,9	82,2	34,4
Southern Federal Region	67,8	91,6	68,3	35,8
Republic of Adygeya	67,9	94,7	70,7	32,5
Republic of Dagestan	60,4	82,9	57,7	35,7
Republic of Ingushetiya	85,3	100,0	96,5	56,4
Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	67,4	84,3	71,4	40,1
Kalmyck Republic	68,7	92,6	55,7	35,6
Republic of Karachaevo-Tcherkessiya	70,9	89,5	72,1	41,7
Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	69,9	90,1	77,3	37,9
Chechen Republic
Krasnodar Krai	68,1	90,1	73,6	34,2
Stavropol Krai	74,4	97,2	75,7	42,1
Astrakhan Oblast	69,8	93,7	70,5	34,0
Volgograd Oblast	64,9	90,8	63,6	33,5
Rostov Oblast	66,5	94,8	62,9	31,9
Volga Federal Region	64,6	91,6	64,4	27,7
Republic of Bashkortostan	67,9	92,8	66,5	31,7

Republic of Mari El	65,3	93,0	64,0	25,1
Republic of Mordoviya	73,1	96,2	82,8	32,6
Republic of Tatarstan	65,5	95,3	60,0	27,5
Republic of Udmurtiya	57,9	90,3	52,2	18,0
Republic of Chuvashiya	63,3	88,9	62,0	26,2
Kirov Oblast	53,5	87,7	48,3	14,6
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	61,0	90,8	60,5	25,4
Orenburg Oblast	65,3	90,8	66,0	29,2
Penza Oblast	69,9	87,9	76,4	40,3
Perm Oblast	61,4	90,6	60,2	23,8
Komi-Perm Autonomous Region	62,0	88,5	53,9	29,3
Samara Oblast	65,3	93,0	71,4	24,8
Saratov Oblast	70,7	89,7	77,6	38,2
Ulianovsk Oblast	65,0	92,0	62,7	28,4
Ural Federal Region	67,8	93,0	67,8	33,2
Kurgan Oblast	64,1	89,6	64,3	27,7
Sverdlovsk Oblast	63,3	91,8	62,3	27,4
Tyumen Oblast	68,4	92,5	70,0	33,3
Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Region	66,3	94,7	60,2	31,1
Yamal-Nenets Autonomous Region	65,3	96,7	66,1	26,3
Tchelyabinsk Oblast	73,9	95,9	74,3	42,2
Siberia Federal Region	66,8	91,8	65,7	33,9
Republic of Altai	68,4	95,1	56,3	35,9
Buryat Republic	68,0	96,3	54,8	35,9
Republic of Tyva	73,8	97,0	68,6	39,7
Republic of Khakassiya	72,3	89,8	76,9	44,3
Altai Krai	66,3	88,0	68,1	37,2
Krasnoyarsk Krai	66,9	92,4	71,2	26,9
Taimyr (Dolgano-Nenets) Autonomous Region	60,6	90,7	49,9	23,4
Evenki Autonomous Region	58,6	89,6	40,1	14,1
Irkutsk Oblast	65,3	90,1	63,2	32,9
Ust-Ordynsk Buryat Autonomous Region	63,3	86,0	52,5	30,6
Kemerovo Oblast	66,3	94,2	68,4	30,1
Novosibirsk Oblast	66,0	93,9	62,3	34,9
Omsk Oblast	69,4	91,8	68,4	37,0
Tomsk Oblast	68,5	94,4	64,2	41,9
Chita Oblast	61,4	84,8	54,3	31,3
Aginsk Buryat Autonomous Region	72,6	97,7	55,8	43,8
Far Eastern Federal Region	69,0	93,0	72,1	35,2
Republic of Sakha (Yakutiya)	65,7	88,8	65,9	31,4
Primorski Krai	69,6	93,5	70,7	36,8
Khabarovsk Krai	72,6	94,3	79,9	40,7
Amur Oblast	70,1	94,6	76,9	33,7
Kamchatka Oblast	64,9	95,7	63,6	27,5
Koryak Autonomous Region	63,7	97,4	47,1	15,1
Magadan Oblast	66,9	93,1	64,5	34,4
Sakhalin Oblast	67,4	92,4	68,4	33,9
Jewish Autonomous Oblast	66,7	93,1	67,8	29,8
Chukchi Autonomous Region	58,1	91,8	39,7	17,9

Table 3.4. Percentage of unemployed in the 15-24 age group, in 2002, by PES data (in per cent)

	Total	Including		
		15-17 years	18-19 years	20-24 years
Russian Federation	5,6	2,2	6,8	9,0
Central Federal Region	4,0	1,6	4,8	6,6
Belgorod Oblast	4,9	0,5	4,1	11,6
Bryansk Oblast	4,9	1,5	6,0	8,9
Vladimir Oblast	9,4	7,8	12,9	8,5
Voronezh Oblast	4,3	1,1	3,8	9,3
Ivanovo Oblast	6,9	3,6	11,0	7,2
Kaluga Oblast	6,0	4,2	6,4	8,2
Kostroma Oblast	5,0	2,3	6,0	7,6
Kursk Oblast	5,7	1,5	6,2	11,2
Lipetsk Oblast	2,5	0,0	0,9	7,1
Moscow Oblast	3,6	1,6	3,8	6,0
Oryol Oblast	3,7	1,2	4,2	6,6
Ryazan Oblast	8,6	2,7	16,1	10,4
Smolensk Oblast	8,8	4,0	10,9	14,0
Tambov Oblast	6,1	0,0	5,3	14,6
Tver Oblast	3,8	1,6	3,7	6,8
Tula Oblast	4,2	1,5	7,5	5,6
Yaroslavl Oblast	2,6	1,4	4,7	2,8
City of Moscow	0,6	0,0	0,6	1,5
North-Western Federal Region	4,8	1,9	6,2	7,2
Republic of Kareliya	5,1	1,2	9,5	6,8
Komi Republic	9,8	4,0	15,3	13,9
Arkhangelsk Oblast	6,5	2,8	9,4	8,1
Nenets Autonomous Region	4,1	0,8	5,0	7,9
Vologda Oblast	4,4	0,0	7,7	6,7
Kaliningrad Oblast	5,4	2,6	5,0	9,3
Leningrad Oblast	5,9	5,0	3,9	8,8
Murmansk Oblast	9,3	4,5	11,8	13,6
Novgorod Oblast	3,1	0,0	4,6	5,5
Pskov Oblast	4,4	0,4	4,2	10,1
St. Petersburg	1,4	0,2	2,0	2,5
Southern Federal Region	7,2	2,5	7,8	12,9
Republic of Adygeya	8,1	0,8	7,7	17,5
Republic of Dagestan	14,4	5,3	16,3	23,5
Republic of Ingushetiya	8,3	0,0	3,5	23,5
Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	11,5	8,5	10,5	16,8
Kalmyck Republic	9,5	2,8	11,1	20,4
Republic of Karachaevo-Tcherkessiya	9,7	5,6	13,7	11,7
Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	7,1	1,5	1,8	18,8
Chechen Republic
Krasnodar Krai	4,7	1,3	4,3	9,7
Stavropol Krai	5,7	1,9	7,0	9,9
Astrakhan Oblast	5,1	2,8	7,2	6,8
Volgograd Oblast	5,0	2,3	4,4	8,8
Rostov Oblast	7,0	1,8	8,8	12,3
Volga Federal Region	5,7	2,4	6,9	9,3
Republic of Bashkortostan	5,7	1,4	10,1	8,1
Republic of Mari El	7,8	3,7	7,3	14,2

Republic of Mordoviya	4,8	0,0	4,7	11,5
Republic of Tatarstan	3,9	0,7	5,9	6,7
Republic of Udmurtiya	5,9	0,8	9,5	9,9
Republic of Chuvashiya	6,5	1,8	7,0	13,1
Kirov Oblast	7,6	4,7	7,2	11,7
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	6,0	3,2	8,3	7,2
Orenburg Oblast	7,8	5,1	7,8	11,5
Penza Oblast	4,5	3,6	2,3	7,5
Perm Oblast	7,7	4,2	8,6	11,5
Komi-Perm Autonomous Region	7,6	0,0	8,4	18,4
Samara Oblast	3,9	1,8	2,2	7,9
Saratov Oblast	5,0	2,1	4,3	9,8
Ulianovsk Oblast	4,9	1,4	7,0	8,0
Ural Federal Region	5,4	2,1	7,3	8,2
Kurgan Oblast	7,1	3,0	6,4	13,3
Sverdlovsk Oblast	6,5	3,5	9,4	7,9
Tyumen Oblast	5,5	1,7	5,8	10,6
Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Region	5,7	2,3	5,2	10,9
Yamal-Nenets Autonomous Region	7,7	0,4	13,8	10,7
Tchelyabinsk Oblast	3,3	0,6	6,2	4,9
Siberia Federal Region	6,9	2,8	9,0	10,5
Republic of Altai	5,7	1,0	6,4	12,7
Buryat Republic	7,7	1,8	15,4	10,1
Republic of Tyva	9,1	2,5	12,7	17,3
Republic of Khakassiya	4,1	1,3	3,8	8,3
Altai Krai	6,3	3,7	8,3	7,5
Krasnoyarsk Krai	6,1	2,5	7,0	10,4
Taimyr (Dolgano-Nenets) Autonomous Region	8,1	4,0	10,4	12,6
Evenki Autonomous Region	1,3	0,0	3,0	2,3
Irkutsk Oblast	9,7	3,7	15,5	13,1
Ust-Ordynsk Buryat Autonomous Region	7,2	1,6	7,4	17,5
Kemerovo Oblast	6,4	3,4	6,0	10,5
Novosibirsk Oblast	6,7	1,7	7,0	12,7
Omsk Oblast	5,7	3,3	7,3	7,8
Tomsk Oblast	7,5	2,1	12,3	9,1
Chita Oblast	7,0	2,8	9,9	11,3
Aginsk Buryat Autonomous Region	12,2	0,9	20,0	25,1
Far Eastern Federal Region	5,5	2,3	6,0	9,2
Republic of Sakha (Yakutiya)	4,5	3,5	3,9	6,5
Primorski Krai	4,7	1,8	4,8	8,6
Khabarovsk Krai	5,6	3,0	6,0	8,1
Amur Oblast	6,2	2,9	3,7	12,9
Kamchatka Oblast	7,2	0,7	8,0	14,8
Koryak Autonomous Region	6,2	1,6	11,3	10,8
Magadan Oblast	7,9	2,6	18,1	7,0
Sakhalin Oblast	6,5	1,2	10,7	10,4
Jewish Autonomous Oblast	5,0	1,2	8,7	6,9
Chukchi Autonomous Region	5,3	0,6	14,6	6,7

Table 3.5. Percentage of students in the 15-24 age group, in 2002 (in per cent)

	Total	Including		
		15-17 years	18-19 years	20-24 years
Russian Federation	55,4	92,8	57,7	29,4
Central Federal Region	58,7	94,3	62,8	35,0
Belgorod Oblast	55,6	91,8	56,4	28,0
Bryansk Oblast	55,1	94,2	59,5	24,3
Vladimir Oblast	53,2	96,0	50,2	25,6
Voronezh Oblast	63,2	98,1	71,6	34,1
Ivanovo Oblast	58,7	96,9	59,4	33,2
Kaluga Oblast	51,9	92,1	57,3	21,8
Kostroma Oblast	53,6	97,3	58,8	20,5
Kursk Oblast	62,5	99,0	71,4	29,5
Lipetsk Oblast	55,8	98,2	56,6	23,7
Moscow Oblast	36,9	79,7	31,1	14,0
Oryol Oblast	61,4	99,0	69,3	31,6
Ryazan Oblast	55,4	95,9	58,8	26,2
Smolensk Oblast	56,4	98,9	62,3	23,6
Tambov Oblast	56,9	96,0	63,7	24,8
Tver Oblast	53,6	97,6	56,4	21,0
Tula Oblast	51,9	92,9	49,6	26,1
Yaroslavl Oblast	56,0	99,0	60,1	25,4
City of Moscow	77,5	99,0	91,5	61,7
North-Western Federal Region	57,4	96,8	59,7	31,1
Republic of Kareliya	57,6	99,0	60,1	25,1
Komi Republic	55,6	99,0	61,8	19,9
Arkhangelsk Oblast	53,6	95,1	57,0	24,1
Nenets Autonomous Region
Vologda Oblast	54,9	95,5	59,0	23,7
Kaliningrad Oblast	48,9	94,5	51,0	19,2
Leningrad Oblast	37,4	76,9	33,0	13,9
Murmansk Oblast	47,7	99,0	42,0	19,7
Novgorod Oblast	57,1	95,9	64,3	26,3
Pskov Oblast	54,1	97,9	55,1	22,1
St. Petersburg	71,2	99,0	76,4	50,9
Southern Federal Region	46,9	82,7	46,6	22,8
Republic of Adygeya	52,1	87,9	51,4	27,3
Republic of Dagestan	38,3	63,2	38,3	20,0
Republic of Ingushetiya	21,8	39,9	16,7	11,4
Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	40,9	74,9	46,7	16,9
Kalmyck Republic	57,8	94,4	62,2	26,1
Republic of Karachaevo-Tcherkessiya	43,1	81,4	39,4	18,0
Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	51,3	88,1	49,2	29,4
Chechen Republic	30,1	60,7	20,5	14,5
Krasnodar Krai	46,4	87,4	42,7	20,6
Stavropol Krai	51,3	87,8	51,1	26,2
Astrakhan Oblast	54,4	99,0	52,9	22,9
Volgograd Oblast	51,0	90,5	53,1	24,1
Rostov Oblast	54,4	91,6	58,7	27,9
Volga Federal Region	58,4	96,7	61,5	29,0
Republic of Bashkortostan	61,4	99,0	63,5	29,3
Republic of Mari El	58,4	99,0	64,2	23,2

Republic of Mordoviya	64,5	98,5	78,9	33,1
Republic of Tatarstan	60,3	95,3	65,7	31,0
Republic of Udmurtiya	59,0	97,2	57,1	32,5
Republic of Chuvashiya	64,1	99,0	69,7	32,4
Kirov Oblast	57,8	97,0	60,9	28,1
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	56,2	92,4	57,7	31,4
Orenburg Oblast	56,1	95,9	59,4	26,5
Penza Oblast	57,8	99,0	63,2	25,2
Perm Oblast	54,5	96,4	52,5	25,0
Komi-Perm Autonomous Region
Samara Oblast	58,2	96,1	63,5	31,3
Saratov Oblast	57,3	95,4	61,2	29,4
Ulianovsk Oblast	54,0	97,2	55,6	20,0
Ural Federal Region	54,2	90,7	56,9	28,1
Kurgan Oblast	56,7	99,0	58,1	23,5
Sverdlovsk Oblast	52,0	83,5	54,1	30,6
Tyumen Oblast	48,1	89,7	48,6	18,2
Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Region
Yamal-Nenets Autonomous Region
Tchelyabinsk Oblast	58,4	98,4	60,4	30,4
Siberia Federal Region	55,2	94,1	58,8	27,8
Republic of Altai	49,6	80,5	58,1	22,1
Buryat Republic	50,4	93,2	47,5	21,1
Republic of Tyva	52,6	94,8	47,6	19,6
Republic of Khakassiya	62,0	99,0	72,5	29,6
Altai Krai	52,2	94,8	56,6	22,1
Krasnoyarsk Krai	54,7	91,0	58,8	28,8
Taimyr (Dolgano-Nenets) Autonomous Region
Evenki Autonomous Region
Irkutsk Oblast	54,8	94,1	59,1	26,3
Ust-Ordynsk Buryat Autonomous Region
Kemerovo Oblast	53,0	94,6	58,7	23,4
Novosibirsk Oblast	62,3	97,9	64,8	38,9
Omsk Oblast	58,6	94,9	64,9	30,6
Tomsk Oblast	59,0	88,6	62,4	39,4
Chita Oblast	46,6	94,7	44,5	16,9
Aginsk Buryat Autonomous Region
Far Eastern Federal Region	54,1	96,0	52,3	28,9
Republic of Sakha (Yakutiya)	53,6	89,3	47,2	28,8
Primorski Krai	53,5	97,7	52,5	27,8
Khabarovsk Krai	58,3	99,0	54,6	36,5
Amur Oblast	51,0	92,5	57,6	21,6
Kamchatka Oblast	59,1	99,0	55,4	37,0
Koryak Autonomous Region
Magadan Oblast	60,3	99,0	64,5	26,7
Sakhalin Oblast	47,7	95,2	44,4	19,6
Jewish Autonomous Oblast	48,4	90,1	36,5	27,2
Chukchi Autonomous Region	39,6	82,8	31,3	10,7

Table 3.6. Minimum estimate of the number of those who do not work and do not study, in the 15-24 age group, in 2002 (in per cent)

	Total	15-17 years	Including 18-19 years	20-24 years
Russian Federation	10,3	3,0	16,1	12,2
Central Federal Region	5,9	1,5	11,6	5,9
Belgorod Oblast	10,7	2,6	21,0	12,2
Bryansk Oblast	12,1	4,3	20,6	14,1
Vladimir Oblast	2,1	0,0	9,5	2,1
Voronezh Oblast	6,8	0,0	8,7	14,1
Ivanovo Oblast	1,8	0,0	9,6	1,8
Kaluga Oblast	12,2	4,1	16,2	16,2
Kostroma Oblast	9,9	0,0	16,8	14,1
Kursk Oblast	2,9	0,0	4,7	10,7
Lipetsk Oblast	12,2	0,0	24,6	18,1
Moscow Oblast	24,7	15,3	35,2	25,1
Oryol Oblast	4,4	0,0	9,7	9,7
Ryazan Oblast	8,2	0,9	16,3	10,7
Smolensk Oblast	8,1	0,0	9,0	14,1
Tambov Oblast	13,9	0,0	20,9	23,1
Tver Oblast	5,2	0,0	8,9	8,9
Tula Oblast	12,5	3,9	26,1	12,5
Yaroslavl Oblast	6,0	0,0	14,4	9,7
City of Moscow	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
North-Western Federal Region	5,4	0,0	11,4	6,0
Republic of Kareliya	2,3	0,0	3,2	8,0
Komi Republic	9,6	0,0	15,6	18,1
Arkhangelsk Oblast	4,6	0,2	7,3	7,0
Nenets Autonomous Region
Vologda Oblast	4,1	0,0	6,5	7,0
Kaliningrad Oblast	14,0	0,5	17,0	20,1
Leningrad Oblast	24,3	19,3	34,6	22,1
Murmansk Oblast	12,2	0,0	19,4	18,1
Novgorod Oblast	3,8	0,6	7,0	5,0
Pskov Oblast	9,6	0,0	7,2	18,1
St. Petersburg	0,0	0,0	4,6	0,0
Southern Federal Region	24,3	13,1	30,5	29,1
Republic of Adygeya	19,7	8,4	27,4	25,1
Republic of Dagestan	40,7	30,3	43,7	47,1
Republic of Ingushetiya	70,5	59,9	80,4	73,1
Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	35,1	20,5	36,3	42,1
Kalmyck Republic	18,0	2,6	14,7	31,1
Republic of Karachaevo-Tcherkessiya	35,3	15,6	47,1	42,1
Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	21,4	6,9	24,2	29,1
Chechen Republic	54,9	38,9	56,6	64,1
Krasnodar Krai	20,0	6,4	32,6	23,1
Stavropol Krai	21,0	10,3	29,3	24,1
Astrakhan Oblast	12,8	0,0	22,3	20,1
Volgograd Oblast	14,2	4,7	17,8	19,1
Rostov Oblast	13,5	5,2	15,5	18,1

Volga Federal Region	5,3	0,0	10,4	8
Republic of Bashkortostan	5,8	0,0	13,2	10
Republic of Mari El	8,3	0,0	9,9	16
Republic of Mordoviya	6,1	0,0	7,0	11
Republic of Tatarstan	2,9	1,1	4,4	4
Republic of Udmurtiya	0,0	0,0	7,6	0
Republic of Chuvashiya	1,4	0,0	3,8	8
Kirov Oblast	0,0	0,0	1,4	1
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	2,7	2,6	8,5	1
Orenburg Oblast	9,2	0,8	13,3	13
Penza Oblast	11,4	0,0	16,6	21
Perm Oblast	7,6	0,0	17,0	10
Komi-Perm Autonomous Region
Samara Oblast	2,6	0,0	7,4	2
Saratov Oblast	11,7	0,0	18,4	17
Ulianovsk Oblast	10,4	0,0	16,2	17
Ural Federal Region	10,4	5,2	16,4	11
Kurgan Oblast	10,6	0,0	17,8	19
Sverdlovsk Oblast	8,7	12,1	14,5	4
Tyumen Oblast	18,4	5,9	28,0	23
Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Region
Yamal-Nenets Autonomous Region
Tchelyabinsk Oblast	8,5	0,0	15,8	12
Siberia Federal Region	11,7	1,7	16,3	16
Republic of Altai	21,7	16,6	14,7	28
Buryat Republic	19,1	4,8	24,1	26
Republic of Tyva	27,0	4,4	36,8	42
Republic of Khakassiya	8,2	0,0	7,5	19
Altai Krai	14,6	0,0	20,3	22
Krasnoyarsk Krai	10,0	4,8	17,2	9
Taimyr (Dolgano-Nenets) Autonomous Region
Evenki Autonomous Region
Irkutsk Oblast	12,9	1,4	18,6	18
Ust-Ordynsk Buryat Autonomous Region
Kemerovo Oblast	12,3	2,8	16,3	17
Novosibirsk Oblast	3,2	0,0	6,3	5
Omsk Oblast	9,9	1,4	12,2	14
Tomsk Oblast	12,1	8,4	17,5	11
Chita Oblast	17,0	0,0	18,6	27
Aginsk Buryat Autonomous Region
Far Eastern Federal Region	10,9	0,3	18,7	13
Republic of Sakha (Yakutiya)	12,6	5,3	27,4	12
Primorski Krai	11,2	0,0	16,2	19
Khabarovsk Krai	7,1	0,0	18,0	7
Amur Oblast	15,6	4,9	15,4	22
Kamchatka Oblast	3,3	0,0	8,2	4
Koryak Autonomous Region
Magadan Oblast	5,3	0,0	14,0	14
Sakhalin Oblast	17,1	0,5	28,0	22
Jewish Autonomous Oblast	14,9	5,6	31,8	12
Chukchi Autonomous Region	14,1	10,3	17,8	15

Table 3.7. Percentage of unemployed in the 15-224 age group in 2002, by levels of education, as per PES data (in per cent)

	Total	Higher vocational	Secondary vocational	Including Primary vocational	Secondary (full) general	Basic general and lower
Russian Federation	9,0	8,3	8,7	10,5	9,9	13,8
Central Federal Region	6,6	7,2	6,7	7,8	6,7	9,7
Belgorod Oblast	11,6	5,8	25,5	4,7	8,5	7,6
Bryansk Oblast	8,9	4,0	10,1	14,7	10,4	16,8
Vladimir Oblast	8,5	8,7	9,5	10,6	4,6	13,0
Voronezh Oblast	9,3	23,0	7,6	10,5	8,6	6,6
Ivanovo Oblast	7,2	7,3	8,9	1,3	7,2	14,3
Kaluga Oblast	8,2	7,3	3,4	10,0	4,1	23,4
Kostroma Oblast	7,6	2,5	2,8	7,6	6,9	11,6
Kursk Oblast	11,2	13,2	10,5	17,5	8,6	13,6
Lipetsk Oblast	7,1	12,9	8,4	3,1	8,2	0,0
Moscow Oblast	6,0	9,4	2,5	7,5	8,9	5,9
Oryol Oblast	6,6	1,9	4,5	16,1	6,9	6,8
Ryazan Oblast	10,4	7,8	6,3	13,6	12,4	28,0
Smolensk Oblast	14,0	10,4	20,9	7,4	9,1	22,7
Tambov Oblast	14,6	17,6	18,1	21,2	11,7	7,3
Tver Oblast	6,8	0,0	9,0	7,5	8,5	5,5
Tula Oblast	5,6	0,0	5,2	0,0	8,9	4,7
Yaroslavl Oblast	2,8	0,0	4,5	5,4	1,3	6,6
City of Moscow	1,5	2,6	0,9	0,0	1,6	3,7
North-Western Federal Region	7,2	5,3	4,6	8,2	9,9	12,6
Republic of Kareliya	6,8	13,9	3,9	8,4	0,0	17,1
Komi Republic	13,9	29,4	10,3	3,3	20,1	22,1
Arkhangelsk Oblast	8,1	4,2	2,5	6,9	10,3	22,5
Nenets Autonomous Region	7,9	0,0	10,7	4,8	10,2	10,3
Vologda Oblast	6,7	0,0	5,5	9,6	11,4	2,5
Kaliningrad Oblast	9,3	5,7	4,2	19,8	13,8	9,8
Leningrad Oblast	8,8	10,0	5,1	13,4	8,3	11,4
Murmansk Oblast	13,6	7,0	10,4	15,1	17,2	7,8

Novgorod Oblast	5,5	0,0	7,0	8,9	5,0	8,0
Pskov Oblast	10,1	0,0	5,3	6,2	18,7	6,4
St. Petersburg	2,5	2,2	1,9	0,0	4,1	10,9
Southern Federal Region	12,9	11,9	12,9	14,6	15,1	16,9
Republic of Adygeya	17,5	26,6	11,6	17,6	19,5	21,6
Republic of Dagestan	23,5	7,3	20,5	23,0	30,3	22,4
Republic of Ingushetiya	23,5	0,0	0,0	0,0	37,3	45,7
Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	16,8	22,0	13,4	4,1	35,8	3,6
Kalmyck Republic	20,4	15,9	42,4	34,1	6,8	5,9
Republic of Karachaevo-Tcherkessiya	11,7	7,6	18,3	0,0	16,8	15,7
Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	18,8	34,8	20,1	23,0	13,5	14,9
Chechen Republic
Krasnodar Krai	9,7	9,6	12,6	4,8	10,3	13,4
Stavropol Krai	9,9	5,6	8,8	22,4	7,6	17,0
Astrakhan Oblast	6,8	3,9	8,1	5,9	7,3	5,5
Volgograd Oblast	8,8	9,0	8,1	12,7	11,1	7,7
Rostov Oblast	12,3	11,6	14,7	15,9	10,2	17,4
Volga Federal Region	9,3	5,9	9,6	11,9	9,8	13,4
Republic of Bashkortostan	8,1	5,8	9,7	9,7	6,1	12,0
Republic of Mari El	14,2	0,0	17,1	24,8	12,7	34,7
Republic of Mordoviya	11,5	3,9	15,8	15,5	12,5	0,0
Republic of Tatarstan	6,7	3,4	6,1	10,7	8,5	5,4
Republic of Udmurtiya	9,9	10,7	12,5	6,1	10,7	7,8
Republic of Chuvashiya	13,1	8,9	7,9	22,8	12,2	28,2
Kirov Oblast	11,7	6,1	7,0	13,0	11,9	21,5
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	7,2	10,4	6,6	11,0	6,7	8,8
Orenburg Oblast	11,5	0,0	13,8	2,4	18,2	19,9
Penza Oblast	7,5	8,9	10,3	23,2	7,4	0,0
Perm Oblast	11,5	4,9	7,3	11,2	13,5	20,4
Komi-Perm Autonomous Region	18,4	0,0	5,6	19,0	20,9	31,2
Samara Oblast	7,9	7,1	10,5	10,4	9,1	5,2
Saratov Oblast	9,8	7,2	13,0	15,1	10,6	10,9
Ulianovsk Oblast	8,0	0,0	7,3	18,9	7,4	14,4
Ural Federal Region	8,2	9,1	8,1	10,0	8,1	11,4
Kurgan Oblast	13,3	23,4	5,1	28,3	13,1	15,7

Sverdlovsk Oblast	7,9	11,3	8,1	8,1	8,0	6,0
Tyumen Oblast	10,6	8,9	9,9	12,1	10,4	30,2
Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Region	10,9	10,3	9,2	12,3	11,5	48,8
Yamal-Nenets Autonomous Region	10,7	12,4	8,5	11,7	7,8	37,0
Tchelyabinsk Oblast	4,9	4,3	7,2	6,8	4,8	4,7
Siberia Federal Region	10,5	11,7	10,1	9,3	11,2	16,6
Republic of Altai	12,7	0,0	21,2	8,3	16,6	20,8
Buryat Republic	10,1	8,4	12,0	0,0	12,1	25,0
Republic of Tyva	17,3	16,0	15,3	17,0	13,0	37,0
Republic of Khakassiya	8,3	3,8	13,8	15,9	8,4	3,2
Altai Krai	7,5	17,3	6,5	7,8	8,8	9,6
Krasnoyarsk Krai	10,4	7,9	12,6	5,7	11,5	10,3
Taimyr (Dolgano-Nenets) Autonomous Region	12,6	30,3	6,6	12,4	5,5	24,8
Evenki Autonomous Region	2,3	13,6	0,0	4,4	0,0	10,2
Irkutsk Oblast	13,1	12,8	12,5	16,7	15,5	11,3
Ust-Ordynsk Buryat Autonomous Region	17,5	0,0	16,1	29,1	14,6	30,8
Kemerovo Oblast	10,5	10,6	12,2	8,4	10,6	18,0
Novosibirsk Oblast	12,7	16,2	7,1	16,4	11,8	36,6
Omsk Oblast	7,8	11,1	6,9	1,6	6,9	17,0
Tomsk Oblast	9,1	14,9	10,4	4,2	5,4	24,5
Chita Oblast	11,3	0,8	5,5	16,9	14,4	15,1
Aginsk Buryat Autonomous Region	25,1	11,4	21,6	35,5	27,8	28,7
Far Eastern Federal Region	9,2	8,8	7,9	13,7	8,6	14,0
Republic of Sakha (Yakutiya)	6,5	2,3	3,5	7,1	9,7	9,1
Primorski Krai	8,6	6,1	9,0	14,7	8,7	10,1
Khabarovsk Krai	8,1	14,4	6,8	7,2	5,2	15,3
Amur Oblast	12,9	26,7	7,7	20,0	10,7	29,5
Kamchatka Oblast	14,8	28,3	20,0	20,0	13,0	8,5
Koryak Autonomous Region	10,8	0,0	0,0	21,0	17,6	14,0
Magadan Oblast	7,0	5,3	3,4	14,8	7,5	20,7
Sakhalin Oblast	10,4	0,0	8,2	22,1	10,2	14,4
Jewish Autonomous Oblast	6,9	0,0	0,0	5,7	8,9	14,4
Chukchi Autonomous Region	6,7	6,5	5,6	13,6	7,3	5,0

Table 3.8. Registered unemployed graduates of vocational training schools, end of 2002, as per Rostrud data (in per cent)

	Percentage of the registered unemployed total			Ratio to general number of graduates in 2002 Соотношение с общей численностью выпускников 2002 г.		
	College level graduates	Secondary vocational training school graduates	Primary vocational school graduates	College level graduates	Secondary vocational training school graduates	Primary vocational school graduates
Russian Federation	1,1	2,4	2,0	2,0	5,6	4,6
Central Federal Region	1,1	2,5	1,3	1,0	3,7	2,1
Belgorod Oblast	1,9	3,9	1,3	2,3	4,9	1,5
Bryansk Oblast	1,1	3,5	3,1	2,6	6,3	6,4
Vladimir Oblast	0,5	2,0	1,1	1,8	5,0	3,0
Voronezh Oblast	1,7	3,4	0,9	2,0	4,8	2,3
Ivanovo Oblast	0,8	1,0	1,0	1,2	2,3	1,8
Kaluga Oblast	1,4	3,6	0,8	1,7	3,6	0,9
Kostroma Oblast	0,5	1,6	1,5	1,0	2,9	1,5
Kursk Oblast	1,7	3,6	2,4	2,5	6,6	4,6
Lipetsk Oblast	1,8	4,3	1,1	1,6	3,1	0,7
Moscow Oblast	1,1	2,5	1,4	2,4	4,7	3,1
Oryol Oblast	1,6	2,0	1,1	1,7	3,5	1,5
Ryazan Oblast	1,1	2,6	0,8	1,2	2,7	0,9
Smolensk Oblast	0,5	2,3	0,9	0,5	2,0	0,9
Tambov Oblast	1,6	3,5	1,5	4,8	9,7	5,5
Tver Oblast	1,2	4,0	1,2	1,4	3,4	1,0
Tula Oblast	0,6	3,6	1,1	0,8	4,0	1,5
Yaroslavl Oblast	0,5	1,7	1,2	0,8	2,8	2,3
City of Moscow	1,1	0,8	0,8	0,3	0,9	1,2
North-Western Federal Region	0,6	1,1	1,5	1,0	2,8	3,2
Republic of Kareliya	0,5	0,7	1,7	1,5	2,5	4,4
Komi Republic	0,5	1,1	2,0	2,1	4,2	4,8
Arkhangelsk Oblast	0,4	0,9	2,2	1,4	2,9	4,8
Nenets Autonomous Region	0,1	0,8	0,2	...	4,3	0,7
Vologda Oblast	0,4	1,1	1,2	1,2	3,1	2,7
Kaliningrad Oblast	0,6	1,7	1,8	1,6	4,7	3,8
Leningrad Oblast	0,3	0,5	0,8	1,0	2,8	1,4
Murmansk Oblast	0,8	1,3	1,7	5,6	7,8	10,0
Novgorod Oblast	0,8	1,7	1,6	1,0	2,8	2,4
Pskov Oblast	0,5	1,1	1,3	1,8	3,3	3,2
St. Petersburg	1,2	0,9	0,9	0,5	1,0	1,1
Southern Federal Region	2,0	3,7	3,5	6,7	15,6	15,3
Republic of Adygeya	1,7	1,7	1,1	3,2	5,1	3,9
Republic of Dagestan	0,6	0,9	0,5	2,5	8,1	3,4
Republic of Ingushetiya	2,9	5,1	7,6	58,9	134,3	159,5
Republic of Kabardino-Balkariya	0,8	1,3	0,7	2,5	4,2	1,2
Kalmyck Republic	1,2	2,4	2,2	4,1	5,8	5,6
Republic of Karachaevo-Tcherkessiya	2,4	2,6	1,8	3,5	5,8	1,3

Republic of Northern Ossetiya (Alaniya)	11,0	7,6	3,8	12,2	13,1	6,1
Chechen Republic	2,4	4,3	5,0
Krasnodar Krai	1,4	3,7	0,7	1,4	4,3	1,0
Stavropol Krai	2,3	3,7	1,8	1,7	4,2	2,0
Astrakhan Oblast	0,5	2,4	1,5	1,2	4,3	3,4
Volgograd Oblast	0,9	2,6	1,0	1,2	3,2	2,1
Rostov Oblast	2,2	5,8	2,1	1,9	6,0	2,6
Volga Federal Region	0,9	2,6	1,6	1,4	4,2	2,6
Republic of Bashkortostan	0,7	4,0	1,5	1,1	6,1	1,8
Republic of Mari El	0,6	1,1	0,7	1,7	3,6	1,1
Republic of Mordoviya	3,4	3,8	2,8	5,1	7,4	3,8
Republic of Tatarstan	0,9	1,7	1,5	0,9	2,6	1,9
Republic of Udmurtiya	0,3	1,7	1,5	0,6	3,1	3,1
Republic of Chuvashiya	1,2	3,1	2,0	1,8	6,1	3,5
Kirov Oblast	0,4	1,8	1,6	1,2	5,5	6,2
Nizhni Novgorod Oblast	0,8	2,0	0,7	0,6	1,6	0,9
Orenburg Oblast	1,5	5,1	2,1	1,1	3,0	1,4
Penza Oblast	1,5	3,2	2,1	4,7	8,6	6,6
Perm Oblast	0,4	2,2	3,0	0,6	2,8	3,0
Komi-Perm Autonomous Region	0,1	1,9	2,8	1,5	4,2	4,6
Samara Oblast	0,9	2,2	1,3	1,3	3,9	3,0
Saratov Oblast	1,3	2,7	1,5	1,8	4,6	2,5
Ulianovsk Oblast	0,5	2,7	1,1	1,4	5,4	3,8
Ural Federal Region	0,6	1,7	1,5	1,0	3,3	2,9
Kurgan Oblast	0,6	2,0	1,5	2,0	4,5	3,2
Sverdlovsk Oblast	0,5	1,5	1,6	0,7	2,4	2,9
Tyumen Oblast	0,7	1,4	1,1	2,1	4,5	3,2
Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Region	0,9	1,5	1,3	5,4	8,8	6,7
Yamal-Nenets Autonomous Region	0,6	1,0	0,7	8,5	9,3	6,6
Tchelyabinsk Oblast	0,5	2,3	1,7	0,8	3,4	2,5
Siberia Federal Region	0,8	1,9	1,8	1,9	5,4	4,6
Republic of Altai	1,2	1,8	1,1	2,8	4,0	2,2
Buryat Republic	0,9	1,3	1,6	1,8	2,4	1,6
Republic of Tyva	1,1	5,9	7,2	17,1	49,4	29,1
Republic of Khakassiya	0,5	1,3	1,5	1,7	3,8	3,1
Altai Krai	0,9	1,9	1,7	3,1	6,9	4,4
Krasnoyarsk Krai	0,6	1,7	1,5	1,8	4,9	5,0
Taimyr (Dolgano-Nenets) Autonomous Region	0,2	1,4	2,3	...	16,8	...
Evenki Autonomous Region	0,0	0,0	0,9	...	0,0	0,7
Irkutsk Oblast	1,0	1,7	1,7	2,0	4,2	3,7
Ust-Ordynsk Buryat Autonomous Region	0,2	2,9	3,1		43,1	4,4
Kemerovo Oblast	0,9	2,5	2,1	3,0	8,5	6,6
Novosibirsk Oblast	1,5	2,5	1,5	1,2	3,3	1,8
Omsk Oblast	0,6	2,1	1,3	1,0	3,6	3,6
Tomsk Oblast	0,7	0,9	1,6	1,1	3,6	5,2
Chita Oblast	0,2	0,5	0,5	0,9	2,5	2,5
Aginsk Buryat Autonomous Region	0,4	0,6	0,7	...	63,2	...
Far Eastern Federal Region	0,7	1,4	1,5	2,0	4,4	3,8

Republic of Sakha (Yakutiya)	0,2	0,6	0,6	0,3	0,9	1,1
Primorski Krai	0,8	1,6	1,6	3,3	7,2	5,8
Khabarovsk Krai	0,5	1,0	1,0	0,8	2,5	1,4
Amur Oblast	0,8	1,7	1,7	2,5	3,5	4,9
Kamchatka Oblast	1,1	1,7	2,0	5,3	10,1	11,9
Koryak Autonomous Region	0,0	0,2	0,3	...	11,8	6,9
Magadan Oblast	0,5	1,0	1,3	3,3	7,5	6,4
Sakhalin Oblast	0,5	1,4	2,6	2,0	5,6	6,3
Jewish Autonomous Oblast	0,8	0,9	1,3	1,7	1,7	0,8
Chukchi Autonomous Region	0,1	0,0	1,5	...	0,0	4,0

Tables to section 4

Table 4.1 «What reasons for participating in elections are for you the most significant» (%)

	18 - 35 y.o.	36 -54 y.o.	55 y.o. and above
As Russian citizen, I must participate in elections	43	46	54
I take part in elections because I hope for changes for better	35	37	30
If don't participate in elections, they can use my vote for juggling	26	28	25
I always participate in elections	8	18	31
Participating in elections, I can help the candidate I like to become President	18	15	14
I participate in elections because I'm so brought up	7	14	19
Voting, I can express my protest	11	15	10
People should participate in elections, if not there will be no democracy	11	13	10
Participating in elections, I can influence my country's life	13	9	9
As the result of the elections, the power will be renovated, new people will come	8	10	10
Participating in the elections, I help the President	9	9	8
If people don't participate in the elections, there wont be order in the country	8	9	8
Participating in the elections, I help the State	6	9	9
If people don't participate in elections, the people will never have got power	8	8	6
I take part in the elections because most of Russians do	7	8	7
Most of my people participate in elections	7	7	6
Participation in elections enables to control authorities	7	5	8
Only the one who participates in elections can require something from the State	6	5	5
Many well-known and respected people call to participate in elections	3	2	1
For me participating in elections is a kind of holiday	2	1	3
If I do not participate in elections, I may have troubles	0	1	0
None	5	5	2
I am at a loss to answer	11	7	12

Table 4. 2 «What reasons for participating in elections are for you the less significant» (%)

	<i>18 - 35 y.o.</i>	<i>36 -54 y.o.</i>	<i>55 y.o. and above</i>
If I don't participate in elections, I may have troubles	27	24	25
For me participating in elections is a kind of holiday	20	16	13
Voting, I can express my protest	14	14	11
Participation in elections enables to control authority	12	14	10
Only the one who participates in elections can require something from the State	7	14	13
I participate in elections because the majority of Russians do	12	13	9
Most of my people participate in elections	12	10	7
I participate in elections because I'm so brought up	13	11	5
It is necessary to participate in elections, if not there will be no democracy	9	11	9
Many well known and respected people call to participate in elections	9	6	9
If don't participate in elections, they can take advantage of my vote for juggling	8	8	6
If people do not participate in elections, the people will never have power	7	7	5
I always participate in elections	8	6	4
If people don't participate in elections there will be no order in the country	5	7	6
Participating in elections, I can influence my country's life	3	8	3
As Russian citizen, I must participate in elections	5	5	4
Participating in elections, I help the State	4	5	4
Participating in elections, I help the President	4	4	4
I participate in elections because I hope for changes for the better	4	3	4
Participating in elections, I can help the candidate I like to become President	3	3	3
As a result of elections the power will be renovated, new people will come	2	4	3
None	4	5	6
I am at a loss to answer	23	22	31

Table 4.3. Youth crime age structure. (thousand pers.)

	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Offences – total number	897,3	1595,5	1618,4	1372,2	1481,5	1716,7	1741,4	1644,2	1257,7	1236,7
14-15 y.o.	47,7	69,2	62,6	45,9	46,8	51,2	49,3	51,9	40,1	43,2
16-17 y.o.	105,5	138,9	129,6	116,1	118	132,3	128,6	120,9	100,3	102,3
18-24 y.o.	189,5	363,3	367,5	349,4	385,4	460,6	465,4	440,5	348	359,2
25-29 y.o.	162,6	231	244,3	214,9	238,1	282	289,3	272,8	199,3	199,7
14-29 y.o.	505,3	802,4	804	726,3	788,3	926,1	932,6	886,1	687,7	704,4

Table 4.4. Youth crime age structure. (%)

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
14-15 y.o.	4,3	3,9	3,3	3,2	3,0	2,8	3,2	3,2	3,5
16-17 y.o.	8,7	8,0	8,5	8,0	7,7	7,4	7,4	8,0	8,3
18-24 y.o.	22,8	22,7	25,5	26,0	26,8	26,7	26,8	27,7	29,0
25-29 y.o.	14,5	15,1	15,7	16,1	16,4	16,6	16,6	15,8	16,1
14-29 y.o.	50,3	49,7	52,9	53,2	53,9	53,6	53,9	54,7	57,0

Table 4.5 Total number of convicts below 30 y.o. - by type of offence (thousand pers.)

	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Number of convicts below 30 y.o. - TOTAL	311,5	527,1	560,6	553,5	607,9	704,6	711,5	729,9	504,2
property crimes	102,4	335,1	357,3	364,7	388,2	476,7	486,3	468,8	264,2
incl. thefts	72,7	245,1	261,7	270,5	284,7	364,1	375,1	349,7	178,4
murder	3,9	7,4	7,4	7,4	7,9	8,2	9	11,1	10,6
deliberate grave physical injury	8,3	12,5	12,2	12,7	12,7	13,3	15,6	18,1	19,2
Rape	11,9	7,8	6,8	5,9	5,5	5	4,8	4,8	4,5

illegal activities and violation of rules of handling narcotics and psychotropic agents	5	26	31,3	46,4	73,9	77,9	66,5	87,7	62,5
hooliganism	38,6	55,4	56,2	43,9	44,6	41,5	38	43,8	35,4

Table 4.6. Minor convicts percentage in the total number of convicts below 30 y.o. - by type of offence (%)

	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Convicts total number	22,1	21,6	21,8	21,7	20,8	20,9	19,6	17,5	22,1
stealing	97,0	30,4	28,9	30,1	34,1	27,4	23,5	11,3	97,0
murder	25,6	13,5	13,5	14,9	13,9	14,6	18,9	15,3	25,6
deliberate grave physical injury	20,5	13,6	14,8	13,4	15,0	18,0	19,9	19,9	20,5
Rape	17,6	21,8	20,6	22,0	18,2	20,0	22,9	22,9	17,6
illegal activities and violation of rules of handling narcotics and psychotropic agents	46,0	11,2	16,0	14,9	8,1	7,3	8,0	4,0	46,0
hooliganism	25,4	18,1	17,4	20,0	16,4	16,4	25,3	16,2	25,4

Table 4.7. Structure of minor delinquents sentenced to custody coercion, by term's length (%)

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Sentenced to custody - total number, thousand pers.	31,1	32,5	29,4	31,9	34,4	29,4	29,6	18,9
Percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Term length	6,3	6,2	5,3	4,0	4,3	3,9	5,0	4,9
up to 1 year incl.	23,3	22,2	18,1	15,5	15,8	14,0	16,8	14,9
above 1 up to 2 years incl.	30,2	31,7	32,7	31,4	31,1	27,9	25,8	21,2
above 2 up to 3 years incl.	29,7	29,7	32,6	36	35,5	37,5	33,4	31,7
above 3 up to 5 years incl.	8,6	8,3	9,0	10,0	10,1	12,9	14,2	20,3
above 5 up to 8 years incl.	1,9	1,9	2,3	3,0	3,2	3,8	4,8	7,0

Table 4.8. Age structure of youth crime (thousand pers.)

	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Offences – total number	897,3	1595,5	1618,4	1372,2	1481,5	1716,7	1741,4	1644,2	1257,7	1236,7
14-15 y.o.	47,7	69,2	62,6	45,9	46,8	51,2	49,3	51,9	40,1	43,2
16-17 y.o.	105,5	138,9	129,6	116,1	118	132,3	128,6	120,9	100,3	102,3
18-24 y.o.	189,5	363,3	367,5	349,4	385,4	460,6	465,4	440,5	348	359,2
25-29 y.o.	162,6	231	244,3	214,9	238,1	282	289,3	272,8	199,3	199,7
14-29 y.o.	505,3	802,4	804	726,3	788,3	926,1	932,6	886,1	687,7	704,4

Table 4.9. Age structure of youth crime (%)

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
14-15 y.o.	4,3	3,9	3,3	3,2	3	2,8	3,2	3,2	3,5
16-17 y.o.	8,7	8	8,5	8	7,7	7,4	7,4	8	8,3
18-24 y.o.	22,8	22,7	25,5	26	26,8	26,7	26,8	27,7	29
25-29 y.o.	14,5	15,1	15,7	16,1	16,4	16,6	16,6	15,8	16,1
14-29 y.o.	50,3	49,7	52,9	53,2	53,9	53,6	53,9	54,7	57

Table 4.10. Total number of convicts below 30 y.o. - by type of offence (thousand pers.)

	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Number of convicts below 30 y.o. - TOTAL	311,5	527,1	560,6	553,5	607,9	704,6	711,5	729,9	504,2
property crimes	102,4	335,1	357,3	364,7	388,2	476,7	486,3	468,8	264,2
incl. thefts	72,7	245,1	261,7	270,5	284,7	364,1	375,1	349,7	178,4
murder	3,9	7,4	7,4	7,4	7,9	8,2	9	11,1	10,6
deliberate grave physical injury	8,3	12,5	12,2	12,7	12,7	13,3	15,6	18,1	19,2
rape	11,9	7,8	6,8	5,9	5,5	5	4,8	4,8	4,5
illegal activities and violation of rules of handling narcotics and psychotropic agents	5	26	31,3	46,4	73,9	77,9	66,5	87,7	62,5
hooliganism	38,6	55,4	56,2	43,9	44,6	41,5	38	43,8	35,4

Table 4.11. Minor convicts percentage in the total number of convicts below 30 y.o. - by type of offence (%)

	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Convicts total number	22,1	21,6	21,8	21,7	20,8	20,9	19,6	17,5	22,1
stealing	97	30,4	28,9	30,1	34,1	27,4	23,5	11,3	97
murder	25,6	13,5	13,5	14,9	13,9	14,6	18,9	15,3	25,6
deliberate grave physical injury	20,5	13,6	14,8	13,4	15	18	19,9	19,9	20,5
rape	17,6	21,8	20,6	22	18,2	20	22,9	22,9	17,6
illegal activities and violation of rules of handling narcotics and psychotropic agents	46	11,2	16	14,9	8,1	7,3	8	4	46
hooliganism	25,4	18,1	17,4	20	16,4	16,4	25,3	16,2	25,4

Table 4.12. Structure of minor delinquents sentenced to custody coercion, by term's length (%)

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Sentenced to custody - total number - thousand pers.	31,1	32,5	29,4	31,9	34,4	29,4	29,6	18,9
Percent term length	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
up to 1 year incl.	6,3	6,2	5,3	4	4,3	3,9	5	4,9
above 1 up to 2 years incl.	23,3	22,2	18,1	15,5	15,8	14	16,8	14,9
above 2 up to 3 years incl.	30,2	31,7	32,7	31,4	31,1	27,9	25,8	21,2
above 3 up to 5 years incl.	29,7	29,7	32,6	36	35,5	37,5	33,4	31,7
above 5 up to 8 years incl.	8,6	8,3	9	10	10,1	12,9	14,2	20,3
above 8 up to 10 years incl.	1,9	1,9	2,3	3	3,2	3,8	4,8	7

Tables to section 5

Tab. 5.1. Youth Development Index by regions

	Index of formation	Index of health	Index of income
Republic of Tyva	0,59	0,43	0,47
Republic of Altai	0,61	0,48	0,56
Chita region	0,61	0,55	0,54
Jewish aut. region	0,61	0,61	0,51
Kurgan region	0,64	0,63	0,54
Republic of Khakassia	0,65	0,57	0,58
Republic of Adygea	0,61	0,69	0,51
Republic of Karachaevo-Circassian	0,60	0,70	0,52
Kaliningrad region	0,62	0,62	0,58
Republic of Mary El	0,67	0,63	0,54
Altay territory	0,63	0,65	0,57
Kamchatka region	0,65	0,64	0,57
Penza region	0,66	0,66	0,55
Pskov region	0,64	0,65	0,58
Sakhalin region	0,61	0,63	0,63
Novgorod region	0,66	0,60	0,62
Bryansk region	0,64	0,68	0,56
Kostroma region	0,65	0,65	0,59
Smolensk region	0,64	0,64	0,61
Kaluga region	0,65	0,67	0,59
Omsk region	0,65	0,66	0,59
Republic of Northern Ossetia - Alania	0,64	0,70	0,56
Kirov region	0,67	0,67	0,57
Tula region	0,64	0,65	0,62
Tambov region	0,65	0,67	0,58
Astrakhan region	0,63	0,67	0,61
Novosibirsk region	0,68	0,63	0,59
Volgograd region	0,63	0,68	0,60
Republic of Kareliya	0,65	0,64	0,62
Saratov region	0,64	0,68	0,59
Voronezh region	0,68	0,67	0,56
Krasnodar territory	0,61	0,69	0,62
Rostov region	0,64	0,69	0,58
Kabardino-Balkarian Republic	0,61	0,72	0,59
Orenburg region	0,65	0,63	0,63
Republic of Sakha (Yakutia)	0,64	0,59	0,68
Khabarovsk territory	0,65	0,63	0,64
Murmansk region	0,63	0,68	0,61
Kursk region	0,66	0,68	0,58
Republic of Chuvash	0,69	0,67	0,56
Republic of Kalmykia	0,65	0,65	0,63
Arkhangelsk region	0,65	0,66	0,61
Perm region	0,64	0,63	0,68
Magadan region	0,65	0,68	0,62
Vologda region	0,65	0,64	0,66
Republic of Mordovia	0,72	0,66	0,57
Chelyabinsk region	0,67	0,64	0,64
Belgorod region	0,64	0,69	0,62
Krasnoyarsk region	0,65	0,61	0,70
Republic of Udmurt	0,67	0,65	0,64

Yaroslavl region	0,66	0,66	0,66
Lipetsk region	0,65	0,67	0,65
Samara region	0,67	0,65	0,67
Tomsk region	0,67	0,66	0,67
St.-Petersburg with Leningrad region	0,69	0,68	0,64
Moscow with region	0,71	0,69	0,71
Tyumen region	0,60	0,64	0,86

Tab. 5.2. Regions' ratings by Human Potential Development Index and Youth Development Index

	HPDI rating	YDI rating
Altay territory	36	47
Arkhangelsk region	33	16
Astrakhan region	26	32
Belgorod region	10	10
Bryansk region	49	41
Volgograd region	22	30
Vologda region	15	13
Voronezh region	30	27
Moscow with region	2	2
St.-Petersburg with Leningrad region	5	3
Jewish autonomous region	55	54
Republic of Kabardino-Balkarian	19	24
Kaliningrad region	50	49
Kaluga region	42	38
Kamchatka region	48	46
Republic of Karachaevo-Circassian	43	50
Kirov region	39	35
Kostroma region	47	40
Krasnodar territory	16	26
Krasnoyarsk region	8	9
Kurgan region	54	53
Kursk region	29	19
Lipetsk region	7	6
Magadan region	32	14
Murmansk region	24	20
Novgorod region	40	42
Novosibirsk region	21	31
Omsk region	23	37
Orenburg region	17	23
Penza region	44	45
Perm region	11	15
Pskov region	53	44
Republic of Adygea	45	51
Republic of Altai	52	56
Republic of Kalmykia	18	17
Republic of Kareliya	35	29
Republic Mary El	51	48
Republic of Mordovia	28	12
Republic of Sakha (Yakutia)	6	22
Republic of Northern Ossetia-Alania	13	36
Republic of Tyva	57	57
Republic of Khakassia	46	52
Rostov region	25	25

Samara region	4	5
Saratov region	27	28
Sakhalin region	34	43
Smolensk region	37	39
Tambov region	41	33
Tomsk region	3	4
Tula region	38	34
Tyumen region	1	1
Republic of Udmurt	14	8
Khabarovsk territory	20	21
Chelyabinsk region	12	11
Chita region	56	55
Republic of Chuvash	31	18
Yaroslavl region	9	7