

# **DEMOCRATIC PROCESS AND MULTI- PARTY SYSTEM IN KYRGYZSTAN**

*Dissertation submitted to Jawaharlal Nehru University in  
partial fulfillment of the requirements  
For the award of the Degree of*

**MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY**

**VIJAY KUMAR BHATIA**



**Centre for Russian, Central Asian and East European Studies  
School of International Studies  
Jawaharlal Nehru University  
New Delhi-110 067**

**2003**

**India**



# JAWAHARLAL NEHRU UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF INTERNATIONAL STUDIES

NEW DELHI - 110067, INDIA

Tel. : 6107676, 6167557  
Extn. 2365  
Fax : (+91)-11-6165886  
(+91)-11-6198234  
Cable : JAYENU

Centre for Russian, Central Asian and East European Studies

Dated: 31<sup>st</sup> December 2003

## DECLARATION

This dissertation entitled, “Democratic Process and Multi-Party System in Kyrgyzstan” submitted for the degree of MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY of Jawaharlal Nehru University has not been submitted previously for any other degree of this or any other University and is my original work.

*VjBhatia*

VIJAY KUMAR BHATIA

We recommend that this dissertation may be placed before the examiner for evaluation.

*Anuradha M. Chenoy*

(Dr Anuradha.M.Chenoy)  
CHAIRPERSON

*Phool Badan*

(Dr Phool Badan)  
SUPERVISOR

***DEDICATED***

***TO MY ELDEST SISTER***

***M/S ARUNA VAIDYA SENIOR ENGINEER***

***AND***

***TO MY***

***WHOLE FAMILY***

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

Let me take this opportunity to pay my regards and thankfully acknowledge the support of my respected guide Dr. Phool Badan, who has been a constant source of inspiration to me for successfully completing this assignment. His helpful attitude, cooperation, vision and extending his matured and valuable advise through out has been very helpful in updating and giving a desirable shape to this document.

I am also extremely grateful to the Honorable Vice-chancellor Dr G.K Chadha for providing me this opportunity and facilities for completion of my M. Phil dissertation. . I am also thankful to the Chairperson ,Prof.Anuradha M. Chenoy, all faculty members ,staff and my colleagues of the center for providing their valuable support and cooperation for preparation of this manuscript.

I acknowledge with gratitude the moral support of my respected parents and other members of the family. I am also extremely thankful to my eldest sister Ms Aruna Vaidya, Senior Engineer for her untiring support, advice and guidance throughout my academic career.

I would also like to thank all the staff members of JNU library, IDSA library, Sapru House Library, United Nation library, Delhi University library, British library and Embassy of Kyrgyzstan for their cooperation in providing the necessary library facilities and the relevant material. I have no words to extend my heartiest thanks to all my friends and well-wishers for their never ending help and encouragement extended to me time to time.

*VjBhatia*

**Vijay Kumar Bhatia**

# CONTENTS

	<b>Page no.</b>
<b>Chapter One</b>	
Introduction	2
<b>Chapter Two</b>	
Historical Background	
2.1 Political System before October Revolution	18
2.2 Kyrgyzstan During Tsarist Period	22
2.3 Political system after October Revolution	25
<b>Chapter Three</b>	
Emergence of Political Structure and institution in Kyrgyzstan	
3.1 Political Parties	36
3.2 Pressure Groups	45
3.3 Judiciary	47
3.4 Elections	51
3.5 Media	57
<b>Chapter Four</b>	
Challenges of Democracy	
4.1 Economic Challenges	66
4.2 Terrorism and Islamic Revivalism	69

4.3 Ethnic Conflict	75
4.4 Problems of Women Empowerment	78
4.5 Human Rights Violation	83
<b>Chapter Five</b>	
Conclusions	91
<b>Bibliography</b>	99
<b>Appendix</b>	114



# CENTRAL ASIA





# KYRGYZSTAN

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **Chapter-I**

### **Introduction**

Several definitions of democracy have been formulated by different political scientists. Democracy literally means in its original Greek form 'rule of the people' (Demos- people' Kratia- rule). But better still, in the celebrated words of the great American President, Abraham Lincoln, democracy may be defined as a " government of the people, by the people, for the people". One approach to conceptualizing democracy is in terms of its opponents-- democrats are those who fight against the major anti-democratic forces in society.

There are many anti-democratic elements found to differing degrees in various societies, particularly i) militarism, ii) a privileged elite, iii) patriarchy, and iv) foreign powers seeking hegemony. In real political struggles in Central Asian society, democracy is often defined as opposition to patently anti-democratic political elements. Thus, in a nation governed by a military dictatorship, the democratic forces are widely defined as those struggling against the military regime. In a regime where few hold wealth,

privilege, and power, the democratic elements are often taken as those opposing the oligarchy. In a society in which high-ranking individuals, especially high ranking older males, expect unquestioning deference and obedience from those they regard as their social inferiors, those who campaign against patriarchy are seen as the democratic forces. In a nation under the domination of foreign powers the democratic struggle is generally seen as the anti-colonial struggle. In a nation dependent on a foreign power economically or reeling under the impact of foreign culture and ideology, the democratic forces are often defined as those opposing the hegemonic power

There are various models of democracy. Firstly, on the basis of relationship between legislative and executive Governments are classified as Parliamentary and Presidential. ~~Following are the main features of liberal~~ democracy. If the legislative and executive wings of government work in close cooperation and the ultimate authority rests with the legislature, the system of government is described as parliamentary. The typical example of parliamentary government in Great Britain. The Parliamentary Government is further divided into Monarchical or Republican one on the basis of nature of the head of the state. If the head of a country is elected directly or

indirectly by the people of a country, then the system is called Republican one. Similarly if the head of the state is based on hereditary grounds, like the Monarch of Britain, it is called Monarchy.

Secondly, if the legislative and the executive wings of governments operate independently of each other and none is subordinate to other, the system of government is described as presidential. The typical example of presidential system is United States.

*What about France*

There is another model of democracy i.e. the Chinese People Democracy. It is neither parliamentary, nor presidential, . In China there is a ceremonial head of the state called President of People's Republic of China. There was no such functionary in the Soviet Constitution. In the Chinese system there is a State Council, with the Prime Minister (or Premier) at its head, which is the real executive authority in China.

There are certain common features of liberal democracy. Firstly, a liberal democracy is a government by discussion. This means that every important issue or policy must be decided only after it has been thoroughly discussed and debated very well in perfect opportunity, liberty and freedom.

Discussion forms the general consensus of the people on any given and related issues.

Secondly, the principle of majority rule is another important characteristic of a liberal democracy. This principle follows from the fact that in a liberal democracy there are several parties, which contest the elections. It is obvious that, in a parliamentary system the ruling party is the majority party, which has a right to run the government. In case none of the party is able to secure absolute majority, a coalition of several parties is formed. In a presidential system only the candidate who secures majority support from the electorate has right to form the government irrespective of the fact as to which party commands majority in the legislature.

Thirdly, the characteristic of liberal democracy is that it is a Constitutional government or “government by law”. The supreme law of the land in a liberal democracy is the Constitution to which both the rulers as well as the ruled are subordinate. The Constitution embodies within its provisions the powers of government officials at different levels, covering the important issues e.g.. the relation between the executive , legislature and financial organs of the government, the procedure for passing, amending or repealing

the ordinary laws as well as the constitutional provisions , the procedure for dispensing justice ,etc. In a liberal democracy the laws and the Constitution constitute the 'rules of game' which every player has to follow most scrupulously.

Fourthly, the presence of liberal institution is the another feature of democracy.- For a free and fair working of democracy a set of democratic/political institutions are required such as free elections, secret ballot , devices for the legislative control of the executive branch and the judicial remedies against the arbitrary use of the governmental power. Informal institutions, such as political parties, voluntary associations, and the media make vital contributions by providing a meaningful, setting in which citizens can make responsible choices.

Elections and political parties constitute the basic political institutions of a liberal democracy. Elections enable the people to choose their representatives for a given period. Elections also enable the people to remove those of their representatives, whose performance has not been felt satisfactory. Elections should not only be free from any coercion but should

also provide opportunities to select suitable people of choice from among a number of candidates.

In a liberal democratic state the job of organizing elections is always entrusted to an independent statutory body like an Election Commission. In a liberal democratic country elections require more than one party so that the people can make a choice of their representatives. Since different parties present different programs through their election manifestoes, therefore, it would be a meaningless exercise if there is only one party.

Fifthly, a liberal democracy is marked by the presence of a set of civil and political rights, which are incorporated in the text of the Constitution. The Constitutions of liberal democratic countries invariably provides 8 civil liberties and political rights to the people of the country, viz as right to vote, right to contest for any public office, right to equality, right to freedom of speech and expression, right to assembly, right to free movement and residence, right to freedom of conscience, right to equality before law, right to protection against arrest, and equal protection of the law .By and large there are no restrictions on the exercise of these rights except those which are necessary to prevent their misuse .All these rights enjoy judicial



protection which means that any law or rules enacted in violation of these rights would be declared null and void by the courts and thus would be rendered unenforceable .

Lastly, a liberal democracy is often defined as a majority rule with minority rights. The majority has no doubt, the right to rule over the country but it cannot be permitted to ride roughshod over the rights of the minority. The principal aim is that the majority has to rule in the interest of all. In most liberal democracies the rights of minorities are guaranteed in the constitution itself.

So far as the success of democracy in a country is concerned it depends on the organized political parties. Political parties are almost indispensable part of the present day political system. In Modern form of representative democracy the political party in one form or another is omnipresent in the political process. Political parties are very essential in democracy, as parties are key link between individual and the government. Moreover, the political parties unite, simplify and stabilize the political process for bringing together sectional interests, overcome geographical distances and provide coherence

to divisive government structures. Thus, Political parties act as a soul of any democratic system.

According to MacIver “A political party is an association organized to support of some principle or policy which by constitutional means it endeavor to make the determinant of government” According to Gettel “ A political party consists of a group of citizens more or less organized who act as a political unit and who by the use of their voting power, aim to control the government and carry out their general policies”. It is important to understand the functions and role which political parties play in democracy and how the parties strengthen the democracy.

In a democracy political parties provide a link between the government and its people. Political parties educate, instruct and activate the electorate. In a liberal democracy the parties use mass media to provide political education to the people of a country.

The parties provide ideology and leadership to the people. In a democratic system the people are the real sovereigns, but they cannot play their assigned role without the help of political parties. Political parties provide a common

platform for focussing their attention on the national problem. The presence of political parties help the voters to understand the priority programmes of the candidates highlighted for the general uplift of the society. Political parties therefore provide the electorate a choice between different candidates.

In a democracy the political parties focus on the major and important public issues. They formulate various programs and policies. They chalk out its programmes and policies. These programs and policies cover all issues of national importance including the economic and social matters, defense and foreign policy. They draw the attention of the people to the numerous problems facing the country and explain them that how they propose to solve them in case they are voted to power. Their election manifestoes are brought to the notice of the people through the distribution of literature, party meetings, radio broadcast and television.

The parties formulate election strategy. Every political party devotes considerable time and energy for formulating and structuring election strategy, with a view to ensuring victory. Its first job in this connection is to field the candidates who are likely to secure maximum votes. Political

parties also defray the expenses incurred on election campaign in respect of all their candidates.

The formation of government is the most important role of the parties. As soon as the elections are over the victorious political party forms the government and appoints its key leaders to important positions. It tries to ensure that in the government all regional, ethnic, linguistic and various minority groups are adequately represented. After the formation of the government the ruling party brings legislation based on its election manifestoes

In a newly independent and developing states where democratic traditions are yet to be grown up political parties does the job of political modernization. They strive to give a particular shape to the government, provide the main link between different social and economic groups constitute the chief agency for political education and socialization, break down traditional barriers and act as the building force in communities divided by groups based on tribal affiliation, religious denominations or nation origin, etc.

As far as the democratic process in Kyrgyzstan is concerned it is well known that before the October Revolution of 1917 the Kyrgyz society was a traditional society. Therefore, the native did not have democratic history. However, the Soviet leadership tried to transform the Kyrgyz society by introducing assimilative policies. The new state system was established with the creation of Kyrgyzstan as an autonomous republic in 1926 and finally union republic in 1936. During the Soviet rule political rights were given to the citizens but these rights were on paper only. The Soviet Constitution of 1977 which is almost same as 1936 Constitution provided for universal adult suffrage, right to be elected to public office and to join political party but at the same time restricted the citizens to form or join any political party other than Communist party. The Soviet people were given the freedom to associate under the supervision of the Communist party. The policy of centralization and concentration of power in few hands curtailed the rights of the Kyrgyz community. The Soviet authorities did not allow to develop the essential institutions which are necessary for the over all development of the democracy. Hence, after independence, Kyrgyzstan lacked the necessary political structures and institutions like the political parties, free and fair media, electoral system and independent Judiciary, etc.

Keeping the forthcoming guidelines in view, as for as the Russian regime is concerned, since coming to power Gorbachev introduced radical economic and political reforms. The adoption of economic and political reforms of *Perestroika* and *Glasnost* influenced the political, cultural, social and economic life of the people of the entire Soviet Union.

In Kyrgyzstan the introduction of reforms policies led to the emergence of the new political parties and groups which resulted in weakening of the authority of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union. At the same time it was seen that the monopoly of the Communist party of the Soviet Union became quite weak and it lost its old glory and dominance.

Till 1990 Kyrgyzstan was governed by the Communist party, when the leadership was transferred in the hands of Asar Akaev after the bloody riots of Osh in Southern Kyrgyzstan. Very soon this new government started a new policy of economic and political reforms. The disintegration of the Soviet Union further gave a boost to the process of democratization in the Kyrgyz republic.

The collapse of the Soviet Union has provided an opportunity to the Kyrgyz society to reshape its political system according to the wishes of their own people and to introduce democratic norms in its political system. In October 1991, Akayev ran an election unopposed and was elected president of the Republic by direct ballot, receiving 95% of the votes cast. After independence efforts were made by the leaders and the president Akayev to develop democracy in the republic. This can be seen from the fact that the Constitution of the republic was adopted on 5th May 1993. The new Constitution of the republic professes sovereignty, democracy and secularism as their fundamental principles of democracy.

The proposed study seeks to conduct an in-depth analysis of the process of transformation of the political system of Kyrgyzstan from socialist system to liberal democratic system. The research will focus on the study of post Communist developments and the problems of democratization in the newly independent state of Kyrgyzstan.

In the second chapter, the present study has attempted to examine the historical background of the political system of the Kyrgyzstan. It takes into account the various political developments that had occurred in the region.

In this chapter an effort has been made to explore the various factors that have helped in the emergence of present political system in the Kyrgyzstan.

Chapter third examines the working of various political institutions and structures that have developed in the political system of Kyrgyz republic. It examines the role, which the political institutions play in the strengthening of democracy in the newly independent republic. The chapter is divided into five sections. Section one of the chapter deals with the Political Parties, section two deals with Pressure Groups, where as Section three devotes to Judiciary system in vogue, section four relates to Elections and section five focuses on changing role of Media in the country.

In Chapter four the various challenges to the democratic system have been highlighted, which the Kyrgyz republics are facing. It focuses on five major challenges to the democratic system e.g. (i) the challenge of Ethnicity and Ethnic conflicts, (ii ) the challenge of Terrorism and Islamic Radicalism, (iii) Economic challenges, ( iv) the Challenges of Women Rights, and (v) Challenge of implementation of human rights.



In Chapter five the working of democracy in Kyrgyzstan has been analyzed and the broad conclusions of the present study undertaken have been presented.

The next chapter has attempted to examine the historical background of the political system of the Kyrgyzstan. It takes into account the various political developments that had occurred in the region. In this chapter an effort has been made to explore the various factors that have helped in the emergence of present political system in the Kyrgyzstan.

# **CHAPTER TWO**

## Chapter-II

# HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

### 2.1 Political System Prior to the Tsarist Period

Before the subjugation of Kyrgyzstan by the Russian army and its inclusion into Russian Empire, the culture and political life of the region did not differ greatly from the other parts of the nomadic world particularly in Islamic world<sup>1</sup>. The earliest people of the region are believed to be a mixed community of Mongol, Turkic, and Kypchak descent. The society at the time of annexation was nomadic.<sup>2</sup> It was based on customs and traditions and was tribal in nature.<sup>3</sup> In this period the people lead a nomadic life, and food gathering and hunting were their main occupations<sup>4</sup>. Due to land locked country, it was largely cut off from outside influence.

---

<sup>1</sup> G.Wheeler, *The People of Soviet Central Asia* (London,1969),p.17.

<sup>2</sup> V.Ploshikh "Kyrgyz people history and culture" *Contemporary Central Asia* (New Delhi),vo.11,no.2,Sept. 1998,p.1.

<sup>3</sup> R Vaidanath, *The Formation of the Soviet Central Asian Republic:A study of Soviet Nationality policy 1917-36* (New Delhi,1967),p.16.

<sup>4</sup> David AChristian ,*History of Russia, Central Asia and Mongolia vol.1 Inner Eurasia from prehistory to Mongol Empire* (Malden,1998),p.48

In the thirteenth century the Kyrgyz migrated towards the south which was under the control of the Mongolian Empire. Different Kyrgyz tribes inhabited the area in fifteenth-sixteenth centuries stretched from western Mongolia to the eastern Turkestan. However, the regions of the Central Tien-Shan, the Chui valley and the southeastern part of Fergana region, i.e. the territory closely coinciding with the present borders of the Kyrgyz republic, formed the heart of Kyrgyz nation's territory. Thus, upto 1685 the Turkic people ruled this region<sup>5</sup>.

After the medieval age this region of Central Asia broke down into three native Khanates i.e., Khanates of Kokand, Khanates of Khiva and Emirate of Bukara.<sup>6</sup> The Khanates were ruled by a group of elite known as Khans and Emirs<sup>7</sup>. The Khanates were backward feudatories based on Islam and Islamic laws, their political and administrative system was also based on Islamic laws (*Shariat* and *Adat*). During this period most of the rulers were conservative and followed the old tradition of Islam and forced the people to do the same. Additionally there were no modern industries and people were lived in villages.

---

<sup>5</sup> Ram Rahu, *Modern Central Asia* (New Delhi, 1979), pp.2

<sup>6</sup> Phool Badan, "Emerging political system in Central Asia in the post Soviet period", *India Quarterly* (New Delhi, vol.vii,no.3,July-Sep2001,pp.98

<sup>7</sup> Shams-ud-din, *Secularisation in the USSR* (New Delhi, 1992), p.22

In practice the rulers were very cruel and they used to punish the native people if they did not follow and adhere to the principle of Islam. Moreover, they forced the poor people of the region to do unlimited work for them..

They were not allowed in a social gathering. During the Khanate period the worst victims were the women. The women were not allowed to come out of their homes and were forced to remain in Burka clad at all times. The restrictions were also placed on the extent of their social interactions.

The system of education in the Kyrgyz region was based on traditional Islamic law<sup>8</sup>. Education was based on the old religious scholastic pattern and imparted through institutions known as *Madrassahs* and *Maktabs*, which were directly attached to the mosques. The instructions in these institutions were religious preaches and the literacy rate was very low approximately 2.4 percent.<sup>9</sup>

---

<sup>8</sup> Shams-ud-din,n.7,p.23.

<sup>9</sup> Ibid.

Similarly the system of justice, with no exception was based on traditional Islamic laws *Shariat* and the customary laws also known as *Adat*.<sup>10</sup> The judicial system was headed by the community of religious elites, known as Kazi. Initially the Kazis were appointed for life but with the passage of time the Kaziship acquired a hereditary character<sup>11</sup>. The Kazis were the main arbiters of justice during this period<sup>12</sup>. They settled all disputes whether social, economic or religious. The Kazi enjoyed a high social status and economic privileges in the society. Like the rulers the Kazis were exploitive and biased in nature and their verdicts were usually in favour of the rich and powerful persons of the society. Another community of religious elite were the Mufti who used to be the exponent of Islamic laws (*Shariah*)<sup>13</sup>. The Mufti was the legal and the spiritual head of the Khanates.

TH - 11348



The political powers were concentrated in the hands of the provincial government known as *beks*.<sup>14</sup> The government was tyrannical and exploitive. The people had no say in the formulation of policies. The clergy misinterpreted the Islamic laws but still enjoyed high status and respect in a

<sup>10</sup>D.S.M Williams, "Native Courts in Tsarist Central Asia" Central Asian Review (London), vol..xiv,no.1,1966,pp.6.

<sup>11</sup> Shams-ud-din,n.7,p.37.

<sup>12</sup> D.S.M Williams,n.10,p.6.

<sup>13</sup> Shams-ud-din,n.9,p.36.

<sup>14</sup>Badan Phool *Dynamics of Political Development Central Asia* (New Delhi), 2000 ,pp.39.



society. The people had wide and varying superstitions due to low level of education.

The system of administration, taxation and land tenure was based on the Perso- Arab system of Transoxiana with heavy levies and punishment including the death penalty.<sup>15</sup>

## **2.2 Kyrgyzstan during Tsarist Period**

In the 19th century Khanates of the region lost most of their power and, the Russian forces captured this region<sup>16</sup>. In order to capture the area Russia Government followed a policy of forced resettlement of ethnic Russians and Cossacks to dilute the native population and turned the land over to them for large-scale cotton production<sup>17</sup>. A series of Islamic resistance movements opposing Russian encroachment broke out in the Fergana Valley region. The Russians treated this region more like their colony and less like the territory of Russian Empire

---

<sup>15</sup> Phool Badan,n.14,p.22.

<sup>16</sup> Silverstein Brain, Discipline, knowledge and Imperial power in Central Asia :notes for a genealogy of social forms, *Central Asian Survey* (New Delhi, vol.21, no.1, 2002),p.96.

<sup>17</sup> Karan Dawisha and Parrot Bruce (eds..) *Political Culture and Civil Society in Russia and the new states of Eurasia* (New York,1995),p.273.

The Russian administration was military in nature and was run by the Ministry of war. The Russian army officers ran the administration and exploited the local people in their own interest<sup>18</sup>. The people had no right to criticize the policies of the Tsarist administrators<sup>19</sup>. However, at the local level the administration was largely in the hands of native administrators with customary courts retaining jurisdiction over criminal and civil cases.

The Tsarist rulers treated the Kyrgyz region as their colony. The main purpose of Russians which led to their conquest of this region was its economic exploitation to fulfill the primary needs of the industries in the metropolis of Russia. Since the population was nomadic, shifting cultivation was practiced on common land and the most important crop was cotton.<sup>20</sup>

The judicial system consisted of two types of courts (1) for the settled population, and (2) for the nomadic population. The Kazi was the main source of justice for the settled population. Initially the Kazi was appointed by the Tsarist governor but later the Kazis were elected by the people. The Kazi dealt with both civil and criminal cases<sup>21</sup>. In this period the powers of

---

<sup>18</sup> R.R Sharma, *A Marxist Model of Social Change :Soviet Central Asia 1917-40* (New Delhi,1979),p.5.  
<sup>19</sup> Ploshikh.V,n.2,p.21.

<sup>21</sup> William D.S.M,N.10,,P.7.



Kazi in judicial sphere was limited and the more serious cases were decided by the Governor General of the Turkestan.

The second types of courts were for nomadic people. The system was based on the customary laws passed on orally from generations to generations. Disputes were settled before a group of respected elders called *beiys*. There was no “criminal act”. All the disputes and offences including murder were settled by payment of the Kun (payment for release of criminal)<sup>22</sup>. If a dispute could not be settled or the decision was considered unsatisfactory the dispute could be turned to another group.

The Tsarist Government established a new type of education system based on Russian model. It was based on three types of school system. Firstly, there were schools for teaching Russian language to the local people. In the second types of schools the Russian administrators taught Russian culture to the local people, so that they could suppressed Islam and tightened their hold on local people and thirdly, there were schools for the native Russians who were serving in the region.

---

<sup>22</sup> William D.S.M,n.10,p.12.

During the Tsarist period the native people felt unsafe. In this period the educational institutions were biased in favour of Arabic, Turkish and Persian, theology and the laws of Shariat<sup>23</sup>. The Russian administrators started the modernization process i.e, judicial system, construction of roads and railways, etc. The Russian administration equalized the burden of taxation. The conditions of women had slightly improved, as the administration did not force the women to follow the Islamic rules. However, the native people did not appreciate these relaxations.

### **2.3 Political System after October Revolution**

After the October Revolution of 1917 the Soviet Union emerged on the map of the world. Its new Constitution described the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics as a socialist state and all powers belonged to the Soviets. Additionally small-scale enterprise was permissible in the initial Soviet Constitution and rights of inheritance was 'protected by law' .Moreover, the Soviet Union was a one party state. The Communist Party was the only political organization that was allowed in the country.All major decisions of the government were taken by the Communist party.

---

<sup>23</sup> R.R Sharma,n.18,p.20.

In 1924 after the demarcation of the Central Asian republics, Kyrgyzstan became Kara-Kyrgyz Autonomous Oblast, as a part of the Russian Federation. In 1926 it was reorganized as the Kyrgyz Autonomous Republic in the structure of the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republic. After the new Constitution of 1936 the oblast became the Kyrgyz Soviet Socialist Republic with the equal status to the status like other union republics of the Soviet Union.<sup>24</sup>

The Soviet Government changed the structure of Kyrgyz life dramatically. During the Soviet period Bolsheviks tried to wipe out Islam from Central Asia but they did not succeed. In 1917 the Soviet Government declared the equality of men and women, and in 1921 declared polygamy and the kalym (bride price) to be illegal<sup>25</sup>. During the Soviet period mosques and prayer houses were destroyed<sup>26</sup>. In the 1920s cultural, educational, and social life developed considerably in Kyrgyzstan. Literacy rate greatly improved, and a standard literary language was introduced in the region. Economic and social development also was notable. Many aspects of the Kyrgyz national culture were retained despite the suppression of nationalist activity under Stalin, and, therefore, tensions with the all-Union authorities were constant.

---

<sup>24</sup> V.Ploshikh,n.2, p.3

<sup>25</sup> *ibid.*pp.97

After discredit Islam indirectly the government began a direct assault. Authorities forbade *zakat* (giving of alms) and *hajj* (pilgrimage to Mecca) and began closing mosques. During the Stalin period the government ordered the execution of Muslims who possessed a copy of the Koran. In order to suppress Islam, the Soviet authorities made major improvements in the educational system in Muslim parts of the country. The Soviet leaders also were convinced that improved education would lead many Muslims to recognize the superiority of Marxism over Islam.<sup>27</sup>

Despite the suppression of Islam by the Soviet Government the native people did not move away from the fundamental observance of the Islam. Though it was not publicly done but they practiced clandestinely. *Salat* (daily prayers) could be performed once, instead of five times, a day. *Sawm* (fasting during the month of Ramadan) was reinterpreted as a means to gain awareness of deprivation and hunger, which could be achieved without actually fasting for an entire month. Similarly, the impossible *hajj* to Mecca was replaced by pilgrimages to the many local holy places within the Soviet Union.

---

<sup>26</sup> Yaacov Ro''(ed) *Muslim Eurasia Conflicting Legacies* (London,1999),p.9

<sup>27</sup> RR Sharma,n.1,7p.18

During the Soviet era, the primary change in popular Islam was that leaders of Sufism, an unofficial Muslim mystical movement, came to be regarded, in effect, as unofficial *mullahs*. In the absence of actual *mullahs*, especially in rural areas, people naturally turned elsewhere for spiritual counsel and guidance. The Sufis, considered to be the holiest of all people, were the obvious choice to fill the vacuum.

In this period citizens were given political rights but these rights were on paper only. The Communist concept of political freedom was totally different from the West. Therefore, in the Soviet Union freedom was allowed under the supervision of Communist Party. In the Constitution the citizens were given the right to speech, and freedom to street processions and demonstrations.<sup>28</sup> The Soviet Constitution of 1977 which is almost same as 1936 Soviet Constitution provided for universal suffrage, , right to be elected to the public offices and to join political party but at the same time restricted the citizens from forming or joining a political party other than Communist Party. Moreover, the Soviet Kyrgyz people were given the freedom to associate under the supervision of Communist Party.

---

<sup>28</sup> Morley Ayearst William Bennett Munro, *The Governments of Europe* (,New York,1959), pp.659

During the Soviet period there was a provision in the Soviet system that no person can be arbitrarily arrested and put in jail. Thus, no person shall be placed under arrest except by decision of courts or with the sanctions of a procurator.

Like the other citizens of the other parts of the Soviet Union the Kyrgyz people were given the right to vote. This right means that in addition to elect Soviets the people were not allowed to take part in nation wide discussion on important issues. Moreover, as citizens of the Soviet Union the Kyrgyz people could take part in referendum, which might be held on important national issues. During the Soviet period the Kyrgyz people were given the rights to criticize the policies of the government and various state organs. to the extent the Communist party approved and permitted it.

In the entire Soviet Union there was an improvement in the condition of women<sup>29</sup>. Unlike in the past now the women for the first time in the history of Central Asia had been given the opportunity to take active part in the political process of the state. According to Soviet census the number of

---

<sup>29</sup> Shams-Ud-Din,n.7,p.29

women in higher education as a percentage of the total has risen from 28 percent in 1927, to 43 percent in 1960, to 49 percent in 1970. There were improvements in pre-school care for children - in 1960 there were 500,000 places but by 1971 this had risen to over five million

Due to spread of education among the women they became more aware about their political rights. Additionally many women took part in the political discussions. The women were now taking active part in the voting and referendums. In some areas women participation during elections exceeded that of men.

In parallel the development of education, modern state institutions and a modern bureaucracy were established. Additionally the traditional art forms in music, literature, dance and painting were revived .In their place modern Soviet art such as theatre, opera and orchestral music were encouraged.<sup>30</sup>

Material advances also facilitated the full involvement of women in all spheres of social, economic and political life: the provision of free school meals, milk for all children, special food and clothes allowances for

---

<sup>30</sup> Aryn B Sajoo ed “*Civil Society in the Muslim World Comparative Perspectives*”(London2002) pp.154

children, pregnancy consultation centers, maternity homes, crèches and other facilities.

The Communist party monopolized the political system of the Soviet Union. Being a single party system there was only one political party the Communist Party of the Soviet Union and no other party was allowed to function in the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republic. Thus, the Communist Party had been officially recognized as the main political party. The party was organized and functioned on the basis of 'democratic centralism'. All the major decisions of the government were taken with the guidance and direction from the party.

In March 1985 Gorbachev became the General Secretary of the Communist party of the Soviet Union. After coming to power Gorbachev introduced radical economic and political reforms.<sup>31</sup> At the twenty seventh party congress in 1986 Gorbachev announced that economic reform was "the key to all our problems, Immediate and long term, economic and social, political and ideological, domestic and foreign".<sup>32</sup> The adoption of economic and

---

<sup>31</sup> Mitchell Judson R, *Getting to the top in the USSR cyclical pattern in the Leadership succession processes*(California, 1990) pp.175.

<sup>32</sup> Uri RA Anan (ed) *The Soviet Empire The challenges of National and Democratic Movements* (Lexington,1990),p.24.



political reforms of *Perestroika* and *Glasnost* influenced the political, cultural, social and economic life of the people of the entire Soviet Union.<sup>33</sup>

In Kyrgyzstan the introduction of reforms led to the emergence of new political parties, groups and the media and the end of the monopoly of the Communist party. At the same time it was seen that the Communist party became weak and lost its old glory and dominance.

The most important single event leading to independence grew from an outburst of ethnic friction<sup>34</sup>. From the perspective of the Kyrgyz, the most acute nationality problem long had been posed by the Uzbeks living in and around the city of Osh, in the republic's southwest. According to the 1989 census, about twelve percent of the Uzbek ethnic population is living in the Kyrgyzstan are concentrated in the southern part of the country particularly in Osh region situated in the Fargana Valley. Tensions had existed between the Kyrgyz and the Uzbeks throughout the Soviet period, but Moscow was able to preserve the image of Soviet ethnic harmony until the reforms of Gorbachev in the mid-1980s. In the general atmosphere of *glasnost* an Uzbek-rights group called *Adalat* began airing old grievances in 1989,

---

<sup>33</sup> Hill Ronald J (ed) *Regime and Society in Twentieth Century Russia*(London,1999) pp.188

<sup>34</sup> Phool Badann.14.,pp.109.

demanding local Uzbek autonomy in Osh region and considers its annexation with Uzbekistan.

The real issue behind *Adalat's* demand was land, which is in extremely short supply in Osh. To protect their claims, some of the people here had also formed an opposing ethnic association, called Osh-aimagy (Osh-land). In early June 1990, the Kyrgyz-dominated Osh City Council announced plans to build a cotton processing plant on a parcel of land under the control of an Uzbek-dominated collective farm in Osh Province.

The confrontation that erupted over control of that land resulted in several days of bloody riots between crowds led by the respective associations, killing at least 320 Kyrgyz and Uzbeks in Osh. The precise cause and sequence of events in early June 1990 is disputed between Uzbek and Kyrgyz. A lots of families were left homeless when their houses were burned out. The government finally stopped the rioting by imposing a military curfew.

In 1990 the leadership was transferred to Asker Akaev after the bloody riots of Osh in Southern Kyrgyzstan. Very soon this new government started a policy of economic and political reforms. The disintegration of the Soviet Union further gave a boost to the process of democratization in the Kyrgyz republic.

The next chapter examines the working of various political institutions and structures that have developed in the political system of Kyrgyz republic. It examines the role, which the political institutions play in the strengthening of democracy in the newly independent republic. The chapter is divided into five sections. Section one of the chapter deals with the Political Parties, section two deals with Pressure Groups, where as Section three devotes to Judiciary system in vogue, section four relates to Elections and section five focuses on changing role of Media in the country.

# **CHAPTER THREE**

## **Chapter-III**

# **Emergence of Political Structure and Institution in Kyrgyzstan**

The collapse of the Soviet Union has provided an opportunity to the Kyrgyz society to reshape their political system according to the wishes of their people and to introduce democratic norms in its political system. After independence efforts were made by the leaders and the president Akaev to develop democracy in the republic. The new Constitution of the republic professes sovereignty, democracy and secularism as their fundamental principles. Following are the main institutions, which are existed, in the political system of Kyrgyzstan.

### **3.1 Political Parties**

The success of democracy in a country depends on the organized Political parties. Political parties are almost indispensable part of the present day political system. In modern form of representative democracy the political party in one form or another is omnipresent in the political process. Political parties are very essential in democracy, as parties are key link between individual and the government. Moreover, political parties unite, simplify

and stabilises the political process. These political parties bring together sectional interests, overcome geographical distances and provide coherence to sometimes divisive government structures. Thus, political parties act as a soul of any democratic system.

During the entire Soviet period the Communist Party of the Soviet Union played an important role and had dominated the system. According to the 1977 Constitution, it was the leading and guiding force of Soviet society and the nucleus of its political system, of all state organs and public organizations.<sup>35</sup>

Since coming to power as General Secretary of the Communist Party of Soviet Union, Gorbachev initiated the radical economic and political reforms popularly known as, *perestroika* and *glasnost*. His policy of openness offered the people new opportunities to raise issues that were earlier suppressed by the Soviet Government. Since 1989-90 the Communist Party of the Soviet Union came under increasing pressure to permit political freedom to the people by reforming Article 6 of the 1977 Constitution, which identified the party as the leading and guiding force of Soviet

---

<sup>35</sup> Gustafson Thane and Bialer (eds), *Russia at the Crossroad , The 26<sup>th</sup> Congress of the CPSU* (Washington D.C 1981), pp.198.

society<sup>36</sup>. In February 1990, the Communist Party of Soviet Union Central Committee plenum agreed to the amendment of the Constitution and Article 6 and 7 were changed to refer to 'political parties', with no particular privileges for the Communist Party of Soviet Union.<sup>37</sup> Moreover, a new Law on public organizations was formed, which explains how political parties are formed and registered.

After the collapse of the former Soviet Union, the former constituents' republics of the Soviet Union became independent states, and the ruling elite in these newly independent states adopted liberal democracy as the best form of governance<sup>38</sup>. In Kyrgyzstan the multi party system has been established and declared the main goal of political transformation.<sup>39</sup>

The disintegration of the erstwhile Soviet Union is both an opportunity and challenge before the newly independent Kyrgyzs republic. Firstly, it is an opportunity to develop its political system according to the wishes of its native people, where people of the republic enjoy freedom and became

---

<sup>36</sup> Judson R Michel, *Getting to the top in the USSR cyclical pattern in the Leadership* (California, 1990),p.175.

<sup>37</sup> J Hill Ronald J (ed), *Regime and Society in Twentieth Century Russia* (London,1999) pp.187.

<sup>38</sup> Brudny A.A, "Kyrgyzstan Island of Democracy".

economically developed. Secondly, at the same time the Kyrgyz people did not have any experience of democracy as they have had no history of political parties, democratic institutions or free elections.<sup>40</sup>

In the new Constitution special reference has been given for the growth of political parties. According to the Kyrgyz Constitution political parties can participate in the state affairs in the following form:

- by nominating their candidates for elections to Jogorku Kenesh, government and local government posts;
- and formation of fractions in the representative institutions.

Further the following actions are prohibited in the Kyrgyz Republic

- merger of government and party institutes and subordination of government activities to party programs and decisions;
- formation and functioning of party organizations in government institutions and organizations, while government employees have right to engage in party activities outside of their service;

---

<sup>39</sup> Temerlan Ibraimov and GulnaraIskakova *Handbook on Political Parties in Kyrgyzstan* (Bishek,2000),p.2.

*Contemporary Central Asia(New Delhi)* vol.11,no.2 ,Sep1998,pp.6-8.

6. Phool Badan, *Dynamics of Political Development in Central Asia*, (New Delhi), pp 141.



- membership in parties of servicemen , employees of interior departments, national security justice, prosecutor's office and courts and any action in support of a political party from their side
- creation of political parties on religious grounds;
- and activities of parties from other states.<sup>41</sup>

The appearance of political parties in Kyrgyz republic started from the middle of 1988. But they got recognition and legitimized only after the emergence of independent Kyrgyz republic on the map of the world. The Kyrgyz Law on State Registration of Legal Entities of June 1996 requires from the political parties to be registered by the Kyrgyz Ministry of Justice. According to the data of the Ministry of Justice of the Kyrgyz Republic, the number of registered political parties at the beginning of 2000 stood at 27. Following are the details of the main political parties that existed in the political system of the Kyrgyzstan:-.

### **(a) Asaba**

It was established in 1991 under the leadership of Ch Bazarbaev. Asaba is a totally nationalist party, which wanted to bring “national renaissance” in

---

<sup>41</sup>Article 8, Constitution of Kyrgyzstan (Bishek, 5 May, 1993)

Kyrgyzstan<sup>42</sup>. For achieving its goals the party uses various techniques and methods like the renaissance of Islam, the creation of mixed economy, etc. The party secured four seats in the 1995 parliamentary elections. The basis of the party is mixed. The Asaba party enjoys support of the economically weak people particularly the young people. The party lacks essential resources and has its influence only in Bishkek.<sup>43</sup>

### **(b) Ata Maken**

Ata Maken party was established in 1993 after the group of members of 'Erk' seceded and formed an independent party. Its chairman is Kenenbaeva. The party believes in liberal democracy, and reformist principles.<sup>44</sup> Ata Maken party has its basis among business professionals, agriculturists and intellectuals. The party has its followers in parliament and enjoys moderate influence in the republic.

### **(c) Party of Communists of Kyrgyzstan**

The Communist Party of Kyrgyzstan (CPK), which was the only legal political party during the Soviet years, was abolished in 1991 in the

---

<sup>42</sup> Alexei Vassiliev, *Central Asia Political and Economic Challenges in the Post Soviet Era* (London, 2001), pp240.

<sup>43</sup> Ibid.

<sup>44</sup> Phool Badan, n.6, p143.

aftermath of the failed coup against the Gorbachev Government of the Soviet Union. A successor, the Party of Communists of Kyrgyzstan was allowed to register in September 1992. It is an opposition party<sup>45</sup>. Its chairman is Absamat Masaliev. The party believes in equal rights and constitutionalism. The PCK is the most influential political force and has the largest membership. The party claimed a membership of about 25000 in 1995 in mid 1999 the membership increased to 35000<sup>46</sup>. The party has a social base of workers, peasants, intellectuals, unemployed youth, pensioners etc. The party got four seats in 1995 parliamentary elections. The party enjoys significant support of bureaucracy in the state.

#### **(d) Social Democratic Party of Kyrgyzstan**

The Social Democratic Party (SDP) was established in July 1993.<sup>47</sup> The party believes in democratic norms, law governed civil society, freedom of individuals, diversity of ownership including state, collective and private ownership in the Republic<sup>48</sup>. The SDP is a regional party, which claim membership of 2000 people.

---

<sup>45</sup> Kyrgyzstan at Ten "Trouble in the Island of democracy", *ICG Asia Report N22. August 2001*, pp. 19.

<sup>46</sup> Alexei Vassiliev., n.8,p.240.

<sup>47</sup> Phool Badan,n.6,p.143.

### **(e) Democratic Movement of Kyrgyzstan**

The Democratic Movement of Kyrgyzstan consists of around 30 different groups. . It was founded in May 1990. Since 1990 it became the country's leading political force. Its chairman was Kazat Akmatov. The Movement with other groups (*Ashar*, *Ashaba* and *Erkin*) had been involved in the struggle for land distribution and in other economic and political reforms. According to the Ata Meken chairperson Kenenbaeva, the DMK played the role of a kind of hothouse where the seedling of most of the future parties and independent movements developed<sup>49</sup>”. The party believes in democracy, and principles of secularism and liberty<sup>50</sup>. The DMK played a crucial role in the Democratization of the Kyrgyzstan<sup>51</sup>. During the formative years it supported the multi-party system, civil and political rights along with economic freedom to develop a stable and democratic Kyrgyzstan .The party consider the middle class as its main basis of support.

### **(f) Republican Popular Party of Kyrgyzstan**

---

<sup>49</sup> Alexei Vassiliev, *Central Asia Political and Economic Challenges in the Post Soviet Era*, (London 2002, pp242.)

<sup>50</sup> Ibrahimov and Gulnara Temerlan Iskakova ,n.5,p.10.

<sup>51</sup> Kyrgyzstan” *Political Handbook of World 1998* (New York,1998),pp.519-520.

The Republican Popular Party of Kyrgyzstan was established in May 1993 by Zh. Regaliyev. It is a regional party. The party is dominated by scientists and academicians but at the same time it got some support from other groups of the society<sup>52</sup>. The RPP had contested the parliamentary elections of 1995 in which it had won three seats<sup>53</sup>.

### **(g) Unity Party of Kyrgyzstan**

The Unity Party of Kyrgyzstan was founded by A.Muraliev in June 1994. The party have very little popularity among the people of Kyrgyzstan. Despite this the party had contested in the parliamentary elections of 1995 and managed to secure four seats. The party believes in the creation of democratic society and legal state. The party is working against chauvinism. The social bases of the party are workers, teachers and intelligentsia<sup>54</sup>. The party has little influence in the parliament of the country.

### **(h) Erkin Kyrgyzstan Democratic Party (EK)**

The Erkin Kyrgyzstan Democratic Party (EK) came into its existence in October 1991, when the Kyrgyzstan Democratic Movement (KDM) brokes

---

<sup>52</sup> Alexei Vassiliev, n.8p. 243.

<sup>53</sup> Phool Badan,n.6,p.143

<sup>54</sup> Ibrahimov and Gulnara Temerlan Iskakova ,n.5,p.12.

up and the members of the splinter group united together to form a new party<sup>55</sup>. The EK became the first party in the Kyrgyzstan to be officially registered.<sup>56</sup> It is a very popular party and its membership is around 15000.

### **(i) Other Parties**

There are other political parties in the political system of Kyrgyzstan. These parties have very little influence in the political system of the country. Most of these parties are leader dominant. These parties act more like pressure groups rather than political parties. They pressurize the government and give political education to the common people of the country. Moreover, these parties also mobilizes the people at the time of elections. Some of these parties are: - Agrarian Party of the Kyrgyz Republic, Democratic Party of Women of Kyrgyzstan, Socio-Democratic Party of Kyrgyzstan, The Erkindik (Freedom) Party, Party of Economic Revival of the Kyrgyz Republic and Party of the Working People etc.

### **3.2 Pressure Groups: -**

Pressure groups or interest groups are voluntary associations formed to promote and defend their particular interest in the political system. The

---

<sup>55</sup> "Kyrgyzstan" Political Handbook of World 1998 (New York,1998),p.519.

interest groups do not aim and wish in capturing political power, however, they only exert pressure to get a favorable policy decisions endorsed and approved in their favour.

There are number of interest groups in the republic. Since the independence of Kyrgyzstan, these groups have been allowed by the government to develop considerably<sup>57</sup>. This has resulted in the emergence of more than 3000 groups in various spheres till the end of year 2000. There are various types of interest groups in the republic. Some concentrate at state or local level, others devote their energies at the national level. Some of the prominent groups are Askar the student's union, *Aqiqat*, *Osh Aimagi*, *Uzbek Adalat* protecting the interests of Uzbek minority. In addition Slavic Association promotes Slavic culture, Foundation for Tolrence International work for improving relations in various ethnic groups. Similarly Spravedlivost represents a human right group. This clearly shows that the groups are organized not on regional but on professional or on economic considerations and basis.

---

<sup>56</sup>Alexei Vassiliev, pp. 141.

<sup>57</sup> Ibid.

Some of the "interest groups" have good financial resources, while other groups may have membership. Most of the groups have regular offices. These groups work in various spheres; the dominant one are the social sphere, the economic sphere, the cultural sphere, environment, women groups, etc. These groups address to major problems such as women issues, human rights, unemployment, poverty, environmental issues and so on.

These groups are well organized and, therefore, in a better position to communicate with the local people. This well organized system helps in the strengthening of democracy, as these groups provide necessary information of the political institutions and administration of the government which can otherwise be suppressed by the government and associated media system.

### **3.3 Judiciary**

For a successful democracy the existence of an independent and powerful judiciary is an essential component. In any healthy democratic state, the independence of the judiciary is sought to be maintained through certain norms along with a complicated procedure in appointing judges and also for removing them from their positions as and when required.



Provisions related to the judiciary in Kyrgyz republic are contained in Chapter Six of the republic's Constitution. The judicial system of the Kyrgyz republic consists of the Constitutional Court of Kyrgyz Republic, the Supreme Court of Kyrgyz Republic, the Higher Arbitration Court of Kyrgyz Republic and the courts at the local level. The Supreme Court of the republic is the highest organ of the judicial power in the sphere of civil, criminal and administrative issues. Similarly the Constitutional Court is the highest organ of the judicial power in protecting and interpreting the Constitution. Higher Arbitration Courts of Kyrgyz Republic resolve the property disputes and the disputes that emerge in the economic area. The courts at the local level deals mainly with local issues like family disputes, property disputes, etc.

According to the Constitution of the republic the Judges of the Constitutional Court shall be elected by the members of both the houses of the parliament and nominated by the President of Kyrgyz Republic for a term of fifteen years.<sup>58</sup> The judges of the Supreme Court and of the Higher Arbitration Court of the Kyrgyz Republic are elected by the Assembly of People Representatives upon nomination by the President of Kyrgyz Republic for a term of ten years.

---

<sup>58</sup> Article 80 of the Kyrgyz Constitution.

The judges of the Constitutional Court of the republic can be removed from office by the President of the Kyrgyz Republic on the basis of representation submitted by 2/3 majority of the total number of deputies of each house of the Jogorku Kenesh to the President.. Similarly the judges of the Supreme Court and Higher Arbitration Court can be removed by the President of the 2/3 majority of the members of the Assembly of People Representatives request the president.<sup>59</sup>

As a matter of fact in Kyrgyzstan the judiciary have not been fully encouraged to develop. There is a constant interference of the courts in the political life of the people.<sup>60</sup> The principles of judicial review and judicial activism are completely missing in the Kyrgyz society. In the Constitution a provision has been made that the courts in Kyrgyzstan have the power to pronounce upon the constitutional validity of the acts of both executive and legislature. But in practice the courts have been used to issue damaging verdicts against the opposition leaders and individuals.

---

<sup>59</sup> Article 81 of the Kyrgyz Constitution.

<sup>60</sup> Kyrgyzstan at Ten,n.11, pp.12.

In Kyrgyzstan the majority of judges and lawyers belong to Soviet period, which causes involvement of the Courts in the political sphere. The Courts have also been used to manipulate the elections. The judges use many damaging verdicts to suppress the opposition.<sup>61</sup>

In Kyrgyz judicial system judges are working under the pressure of government as all judges and the lawyers are appointed by the government. Moreover the corruption is very common in judiciary. The various constitutional amendments have created confusion about the laws in the newly developing judiciary.

According to the Constitution, judges are to be chosen by the president, subject to parliamentary confirmation. Potential judges must be citizens of Kyrgyzstan, between thirty-five and sixty-five years of age possessing legal training and at least ten years of legal experience.<sup>62</sup> The length of judges' tenure is unlimited, but judges are subject to dismissal by the parliament. In the mid-1990s, the judicial system remained incomplete both in the filling of prescribed positions and in the establishment of judicial procedures and precedents. A chief justice of Supreme Court was appointed, but its

---

<sup>61</sup> Kyrgyzstan at Ten.,n.11, pp.12.

<sup>62</sup> Article 80 of Kyrgyz Constitution.

functioning was delayed in 1995 on account of parliament's refusal to approve Akayev's nominee as chief justice. Although the parliament of 1991-94 also mandated a national Constitutional Court (over the objections of Akayev), that has never been established

In general, the rule of law is not well established in the republic. The one area of the law that has flourished in Kyrgyzstan is "libel law," which public figures have used widely to control the republic's press. By contrast, the observance of laws designed for the regulation of the economy is not uniform or consistent and it is neither strictly adopted by the government officials. Similarly the functioning of the State Arbitration Court, which has responsibility for financial and jurisdictional disputes within government agencies and between government agencies and private enterprises, has been extremely irregular and lacking in desired insight by the government institutions.

### **3.4 Elections**

Elections are the process of ascertaining periodically the sovereign "will" of the people on matters of public importance and major policies and on the choice of representatives to the parliament. Therefore, during the entire

exercise of elections, a democratic representative system provides an opportunity to voters for selecting an appropriate parties, groups or candidates.

The Constitution of Kyrgyzstan underline the importance and significance of electoral machinery to ensure free, fair and periodic elections<sup>63</sup>. Accordingly to achieve these objectives an Election Commission has been set up for the superintendence, direction, conductance and control of elections. This commission conducts elections for two houses to the parliament, and to the office of the President.

The *Joghorku Kenesh* (parliament) has two chambers. *The Jyiyny Myizam Chygaruu* (Legislative Assembly) has 60 members, elected for a five-year term, 45 in single seat constituencies and 15 by proportional representation.

<sup>64</sup>The *El Jyiyny* (People's Representatives Assembly) has 45 members, elected for a five year term in single-seat constituencies, all candidates running as partisans<sup>65</sup>

---

<sup>63</sup> Brubny AA,n.4,p7.

<sup>64</sup> Kyrgyzstan at Ten, pp.8.

<sup>65</sup> Yuriy Kulchik, Fadin Kulchik and Victor Sergev *Central Asia after the Empire* (London,1996),p.72.

In Kyrgyzstan the president is elected by the citizens of the republic by a majority of actual votes on the basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot for becoming a five years term. <sup>66</sup>As a general rule an individual may be elected for the office of president for not more than two consecutive terms.

The details of the president and parliament elections are presented below: -

#### **Elections of President, in October 2000**

<b>CANDIDATES</b>	<b>VOTE SHARE OF CANDIDATES</b>
Askar Akayev	74.4
Omurbek Tekebayev(Socialisticheskaya Partiya Ata Meken)	13.9
Almazbek Atambayev	6.0
Melis Eshimkanov	1.1
Tursanbay Bakir Uulu	1.0
Tursanbek Akunov	0.4

Source:O.S.C.E

According to the Central Election Committee of Kyrgyzstan both the parliamentary and presidential elections were held in the years 1995 and

<sup>66</sup> Abazov Rafiz "Democracy in Kyrgyzstan in the context of recent elections" *Contemporary Central Asia* (New Delhi), vol.4,no.2, April-Aug2000,,p.51.

2000 respectively<sup>67</sup>. Askar Akayev won with huge majority in both of the presidential elections. In the 2000 elections around seventy seven percent of voters voted in which President Akayev got around seventy four percentage of votes while his rival Omurbek Tekebayev could get only fourteen percent of the total votes<sup>68</sup>. The other four candidates got less than ten percent of votes.

**Elections results for Myizam Chygaruu Jyiny, 2000**

<b>POLITICAL PARTIES</b>	<b>% OF VOTE SHARE</b>	<b>NO. OF SEATS IN MYIZAM CHYGARUU JYIYNY</b>
Party of Communist of Kyrgyzstan	27.7	15
Union of democartic forces	18.6	4
Woman's Democratic Party of Kyrgyzstan	12.7	2
Socialist Party Ata Meken	6.5	1
Erkin	4.2	-
Agrarian Labour Party of Kyrgyzstan	2.5	-
Asaba	1.5	-

Source: Central Election Committee/IPU.

In the parliamentary elections of 1995 and 2000 the Party of Communist of Kyrgyzstan emerged as the largest party and got four seats in the 1995

<sup>67</sup> Natalia Ablova, "Towers Global Human Rights in Kyrgyzstan", published by International Centre for Human and Public Affairs, 2000, p.109.

<sup>68</sup> Abazov Rafis "Independent Kyrgyzstan :10 Difficult Years on the Silk Road" *Eurasian Studies*, Summer 2001, p.135.

elections and 15 seats in the 2000 elections .In 2000 the parliamentary elections were held in the month of February in which the turnout was around 58 percent. <sup>69</sup>In the parliamentary elections of 2000 the vote share of the Party of Communist of Kyrgyzstan was around 28 percent, however, a pro presidential group the Union of Democratic Forces could get around four seats in 2000 parliamentary elections

In Kyrgyzstan the government machinery used various tactics to limit the opposition impact in the political process of the country<sup>70</sup>. The court made various political charges against the opposition to restrict them during election .In the lead-up to the October 2000 presidential elections, government authorities ensured the exclusion from the ballot of President Akaev's most prominent rival, Feliks Kulov. The National Security Service (SNB) arrested Kulov, head of the Ar-Namys (Dignity) party on March 29, 2000 on trumped-up charges of abuse of office related to his time as head of the SNB. However, a military tribunal got him acquitted in August 2000.

---

<sup>69</sup> Abazov Rafis "Independent Kyrgyzstan :10 Difficult Years on the Silk Road"*Eurasian Studies*, Summer 2001,p.133.

<sup>70</sup> Abazov Rafis "Independent Kyrgyzstan :10 Difficult Years on the Silk Road"*Eurasian Studies*,Summer 2001,p.134.



Police arrested Azimbek Beknazarov, a popular Member of Parliament and chairman of the judiciary committee, on January 5, 2002 on charges of failure to investigate a murder dating from 1995, when Beknazarov worked as a procuracy investigator in the southern Jalalabad province. Beknazarov supporters and other opposition activists contend that his arrest was motivated by the Akaev government's interest in silencing his criticism of the decision to cede to China land that had been the subject of contention between the two states for years. The land decision was especially unpopular in southern Kyrgyzstan. Beknazarov had also actively voiced his view that President Akaev should face impeachment proceedings over the land issue. U.S. State Department Spokesman Richard Boucher said at a briefing on March 19, 2002, that the U.S. government was concerned that "Mr. Beknazarov's arrest appears to have been politically motivated."

Following a trial allegedly marred by gross procedural violations, Beknazarov was due to be sentenced on March 18, 2002. Mass demonstrations shook Jalalabad province on the eve of his sentencing stripped him of his seat in parliament. In June, an appeals court upheld the conviction but annulled the sentence, restoring his parliamentary mandate.

### 3.5 Media

The media is the most powerful agency and tools of expressing the public opinion. A free media has been a successful indicator of liberty and democracy. In the present scientific advancement the electronic media, Television and Radio and Information Technology have established a wider communication system among the society.

In the Constitution a special provision has been made for the development of free media and the citizens have been given the right to free media<sup>71</sup>. In Kyrgyzstan the mass media organizations like newspapers and the Ministry of Justice registers magazines<sup>72</sup>. However, due to shortage of funds in private sector the major newspapers and magazines are published by the Kyrgyz Government. Similarly the major electronic media like Television and Radio are also owned and run by the government<sup>73</sup>. In addition to this there are few private TV stations like “*Bishkek Pyramid*” which mainly concentrate on entertainment programs. Similarly few private Radio Stations like “*Almaz, Pyramid*” also exist in Kyrgyzstan which form the main source

---

<sup>71</sup> Article 36 of Kyrgyz Constitution.

<sup>72</sup> “New Media Law”, Kessing Record of World Events, vol.43, no.11, 1997, p.41912.

<sup>73</sup> Kyrgyzstan at ten, pp.22.

of information, they are involved in broadcasting news and day to day important events.<sup>74</sup>

The most important Russian-language newspapers are *Slovo Kyrgyzstana* , the official government paper (circulation about 15,000 in 1994); *Vechernii Bishkek* , a more domestic city paper (reaching 75,000 readers on Fridays); the tabloid scandal sheet *Delo No* (30,000 copies); *Asaba*, the organ of the party of the same name (20,000 copies); and *Respublika* , the most prominent surviving opposition paper (7,000 copies). The major Kyrgyz language newspapers are *Kyrgyz guusu* and *Kut Bilim* .<sup>75</sup> A bilingual newspaper, *Erkin Too/Svobodnye gory*, has appeared, but, unlike its earlier namesake, it is not an opposition paper. There is one English-language paper, *Kyrgyzstan Chronicle*, which mostly reproduces articles from foreign English-language sources.

A private newspaper with the largest circulation is the *Evening Bishek* which covers large number of advertisements. *Res Publica* and *Case Number* are other independent newspapers. The only information agency of the republic is “*Kabar*” which is the state national telegraph agency.

---

<sup>74</sup> <http://www.e4tv.com/tvguide.com>.

<sup>75</sup> <http://eng.media.kg/institutes/admpkr>.

In Kyrgyzstan many Russian language Television channels are popular among the people. They are the main source of entertainment. Among these *RTV* and *Russian TV* are very popular. These channels are not only the source of entertainment but also connect the people of the Kyrgyzstan with the entire people of the CIS region and particularly the Russian people.

In Kyrgyzstan the most popular Television channel is *Ort TV*. It is owned partially by government and partially by private owner. It is the main channel of the country. In addition to these there are some private channels operating in the Kyrgyzstan. Among these the most popular channel is *TV6*. Moreover, another famous private channel is *NTV* which is fully private channel.

In Kyrgyzstan the media is allowed in a very limited way to criticize the policies of the government. The journalists are not allowed to function freely and the media persons and the members of their family are many times threatened for jail. Since the mid of 1990's the government continued the harassment of the journalists. Government using various tactics like use of

false legal case on media persons by the judiciary, pressure from the income tax department, harassment by the police, threat to capture the press

In 1994 the Akayev Government stepped up pressure on the local press, closing three newspapers entirely, including the popular Russian-language *Svobodnye gory* , which is an official organ of the parliament. Government officials also began to bring suits against newspapers as private individuals, claiming defamation and slander.<sup>76</sup> One such case which resulted in a costly judgement against the editor of *Delo No* , a tabloid-style scandal sheet that is perhaps the most widely read newspaper in the country. In the spring of 1995, Akayev used the same tactics against the editor of *Respublika* , being most persistent and successful critics of the regime; .As a result the president succeeded in getting a judgement that had prohibited the editor of *Respublika* for working for eighteen months.

Beginning in 1994, the Kyrgyz people began to feel threatened by the government and other forces in the republic. The atmosphere has not been helped by a series of unexplained attacks on journalists, including one popular commentator, a persistent investigator of the gold scandals, who

---

<sup>76</sup> <http://eng.media.kg/institutions/html>.

died after being struck on the head. Although the newsman's grave also was desecrated shortly after his burial, however, no government investigations were conducted in this context.

In 2000 parliamentary deputy Turdakun Usubaliev lodged two honors and dignity suits against the opposition Kyrgyz-language newspaper Asaba.<sup>77</sup> A Bishkek district court ruled that Asaba must pay compensation to Usubaliev. The court also ordered seven Asaba journalists also to pay for articles related to criticism of Usubaliev.

The Government used its influence over printing and distribution of print media to impede the dissemination of information by the independent print media. The government-printing house Uchkun refused to print the independent newspaper Res Publica for 4 months<sup>78</sup>. In the year of 2000 the Government closed three newspapers by refusing to publish them; Kapitalism and Litsa stopped publishing entirely, and Res Publica was closed for 4 months. Res Publica also experienced distribution problems with the state postal system prior to the 2000 presidential elections, and the

---

<sup>77</sup> [www.bbcnews.com](http://www.bbcnews.com) B.BC Monitoring,31.

December,2000,[www.eurasia.org.ru/archive/2000/press/en/12\\_31\\_12\\_31\\_OSCEen/htm](http://www.eurasia.org.ru/archive/2000/press/en/12_31_12_31_OSCEen/htm).

<sup>78</sup> [www.irex.org/msi/202](http://www.irex.org/msi/202).

newspapers were confiscated from kiosks by authorities in Osh and Jalal-Abad.<sup>79</sup>

In May 2000 police arrested a journalist for state-owned television in Jalalabad who was working on a corruption report; the journalist was charged with extortion. In May police in Jalaabad arrested another journalist investigating corruption and charged him with extorting money from government officials; in November he was sentenced to 9 years imprisonment for extortion, forgery and possession of a weapon.

The economic conditions of journalism prevent any Kyrgyzstani newspaper from being totally free. None of the republic's papers has yet developed a sustaining readership. Since the economy is insufficiently developed to provide advertising revenue, therefore, all newspapers have to depend on sponsors. For many papers, including *Slovo Kyrgyzstana* , which has the largest circulation, the sponsoring agency is government. Others such as *Asaba* have political sponsors, and at least one is sponsored by Turkish investors. Even the most independent of the papers, *Respublika* , has been forced to turn to commercial sponsors, which, perhaps according to rumors,

---

<sup>79</sup> <http://www/worldnewspapers.com/kyrgyzstan/html>

include Seabeco-Kyrgyzstan, the scandal-tainted intermediary in the Kumtor gold deal.

Financial problems have caused Kyrgyzstan to cut back on the number of hours of Russian television that it relays from Moscow, although the Russian government has shown an inclination to work with Kyrgyzstan to keep Russian-language programs on the air in the republic.<sup>80</sup> In the south, most programming originates in Uzbek language a situation that tends to exacerbate the north south split within Kyrgyzstan.

In the next chapter the various challenges to the democratic system have been highlighted, which the Kyrgyz republics are facing. It focuses on five major challenges to the democratic system e.g. (i) the challenge of Ethnicity and Ethnic conflicts, (ii) the challenge of Terrorism and Islamic Radicalism, (iii) Economic challenges, (iv) the Challenges of Women Rights, and (v) Challenge of implementation of human rights.

---

<sup>80</sup> <http://eng.media.kg/institutes/admpkr>



# **CHAPTER FOUR**

## Chapter-IV

# CHALLENGES OF DEMOCRACY

Central Asia is an important region for which many countries of the world had great hopes of witnessing fully developed democratic process. However, when Soviet Union disintegrated in the early 1990s, the expected hopes were vanished for establishing a successful democratic system in this region. Similarly right from the beginning some challenges of democracy have existed in the political system of Kyrgyz republic. Prominent among these is, the economic challenges, due to which there is a social and ethnic tensions have taken place between the rich and poor. Additionally the uneven economic development has divided people of the republic on regional grounds. Secondly, there is a challenge of Islamic Radicalism, which is appearing in the entire Central Asian region. But it varies from republic to republic. Ethnic conflicts are the third major threat to democracy, which divided the people on ethnic lines. Fourthly, the challenges to women empowerment have also restricted the development of democracy. In Kyrgyzstan. women comprise half of the population of the republic. In a society where women rights are not granted and fully guarded, it is difficult

to establish democracy. Last but not least the fifth challenge is the implementation of Human Rights in the newly independent republic. A brief description of important challenging factors is presented below:-

#### **4.1 Economic challenges: -**

During the Soviet period Kyrgyzstan was treated as a colony. Like the other colonies Kyrgyzstan was the main source of primary goods. The Russian masters encouraged the primary sector and Kyrgyzstan became the source of the raw materials to the metropolis, such as tobacco, cotton, wheat, vegetables (potatoes, sugar beets, beans), fruits (apples, apricots, peaches, grapes), berries; sheep, goats, cattle; wool etc<sup>81</sup>.

During the Soviet period the manufacturing sector was not encouraged in Kyrgyzstan as a consequence the managerial and entrepreneur class did not fully develop. The overall economic development in the Central Asian republics in the period from 1980 to 1987 in terms of national income was lower than national average.<sup>82</sup>

---

<sup>81</sup> RR Sharma, *A Marxist Model of Change: Soviet Central Asia 1917-40* (New Delhi, 1979), p.152.

<sup>82</sup> K Wariko and DawaNorbu (ed), *Ethnicity and Politics in Central Asia* (New Delhi, 1992), p.135.

During the time of independence the economic condition of Kyrgyzstan was in bad shape<sup>83</sup>. Keeping these facts in view Kyrgyzstan Government started the radical economic reforms with the help of international bodies, such as Asian Development Bank, IMF, and World Bank<sup>84</sup>. In addition the western countries and other developed countries are also giving grants to Kyrgyzstan to develop its infrastructure, which are essential for the establishment and development of important industries.<sup>85</sup> As a result, certain industries like, small machinery (electric motors, transformers), light industry (cotton and wool processing, textiles, food processing), construction materials (cement, glass, slate), shoes, furniture, mining, energy had been successfully developed in the last one-decade.

At the same time the problem of unemployment and inflation has increased in the Kyrgyz society<sup>86</sup>. Moreover, due to concentration of wealth in few hands the corruption have increased manifold.<sup>87</sup> The problem of unemployment and underemployment have been more serious among youth

---

<sup>83</sup> Yuriy Kulchik, Andrey Fadin and Victor Sergeev, *Central Asia after the Empire* (London, 1996), p.73.

<sup>84</sup> "World Development Indicators" (Washington D.C, 2003), p.4.

<sup>85</sup> "World Development Report: Knowledge for Development" (Washington D.C, 1999), p.230.

<sup>86</sup> Yuriy Kulchik, Andrey Fadin and Victor Sergeev, n.3, p.73.

<sup>87</sup> Matveeva Anna, "Democratization, Legitimacy and Political change in Central Asia", *Iranian Journal of International Affairs* (Tehran), vol.7, no.4, winter 1996, p. 839.

and is generating many other problems like ethnic violence, regional conflicts and boost to Islamic radicalism.<sup>88</sup>

The market economy was started by the President Askar Akayev has also threatened the livelihood of common people. The privatization of economy has many advantages for the development of economy but the growing competition have increased the level of unemployment in the newly independent republic. Additionally the advancement of competition has increased the gap between the rich and the poor.<sup>89</sup>

In Kyrgyzstan the real income of the citizens decreased by 83.6 percent between 1992 and 1996<sup>90</sup>. According to Jangoroz Kanimetov chairman of the parliamentary committee on social affairs, 41 percent of city dwellers, and 75 percent of rural people are under “poor category group” receiving less than \$26 per month.

Structural reform of Kyrgyzstan's economy has had various implications for the status of Kyrgyz people. The labor market that has developed in the

---

<sup>88</sup> Phool Badan, *Dynamics of Political Development in Central Asia*, (New Delhi, 2001 p.108.)

<sup>89</sup> “World Development Indicators” (Washington D.C, 2003), p.47.

<sup>90</sup> “World Development Indicators” (Washington D.C, 1996), p.43.

republic is characterized by unequal opportunities for various categories of people. <sup>91</sup>For example, rural people have higher risks of unemployment and are less successful in finding suitable jobs. The need to find work compelled many people to migrate from villages to urban areas and to more industrially developed locations. <sup>92</sup>Inter-regional migration amongst rural people in 1998 was 8% higher than the previous years. <sup>93</sup>

#### **4.2 Terrorism and Islamic Revivalism**

The Kyrgyz people are predominantly Muslims, the majority of them are Sunni belong to the Hanafi school of thought. The Hanafi School was founded by the Abu Hanifah al Numan in Kufa was established in Bukhara in early ninth century. The Hanafi School is known for its liberal religious orientations, which allowed the Pro-Islamic traditions of the native people to be incorporated into Islam.

During the Soviet period Bolsheviks tried to wipe out Islam from the Central Asia but they did not succeed. The Soviet Government declared most

---

<sup>91</sup> *United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific*, 2002, p. 1.

<sup>92</sup> Alexei Vassilev, *Central Asia Political and Economic Challenges in the Post Soviet Era* (London,2001, pp.256)

<sup>93</sup> *International Finance Statistics* (Washington,D.C,2003), p.526

Islamic folk culture illegal. In 1917 the Soviet Government declared the equality of men and women, and in 1921 declared polygamy and the kalym (bride price) as illegal practice.

Authorities forbade *zakat* (giving of alms) and *hajj* (pilgrimage to Mecca) and began closing mosques. During the Stalin period the government ordered the execution of Muslims, who possessed a copy of the Koran. In order to suppress Islam, the Soviet authorities made major improvements in the educational system in Muslim parts of the country. The Soviet leaders were also convinced that improved education would lead many Muslims to recognize the superiority of Marxism over Islam.

After the modifications in Islamic culture by the Soviet Government the Muslim authorities moved away from the basic observance of the Islamic pillars. *Salat* (daily prayers) could be performed once, instead of five times, a day. *Sawm* (fasting during the month of Ramazan) was reinterpreted as a means to gain awareness of deprivation and hunger, which could be achieved without actually fasting for an entire month. Similarly, the impossible *hajj* to Mecca was replaced by pilgrimages to the many local holy places within the Soviet Union. During the seven decades of

Communist regime, the Soviet Government tried to suppress Islam in the region which did not succeed. Consequently as a result of long isolation from main centers and cultural processes of Muslim world, a shortage of religious literature and restricted religious practice, the level of religious education declined drastically<sup>13</sup>.

After the introduction of reform policies of openness (*Glasnost*) by Gorbachev the Islam once again started reviving in the region<sup>94</sup>. Thus, Islam started to reemerge during the last decade of the Soviet rule and has played significant role in the political and social spheres of the Kyrgyzstan. Simultaneously, the Muslim leaders in the region declared a holy war against the central authorities of the Soviet Union. They demanded more cultural autonomy which was not allowed in the entire history of the Soviet rule. During this period the Muslim people reestablished their identity. Thus, the Gorbachev's policy of openness (*glasnost*) had dramatically revived the Islam in Central Asia. After the introduction of reform policies many religious groups were formed and older were revived.

---

<sup>94</sup> Phool Badan, *Dynamics of Political Development in Central Asia*, (New Delhi, 2001, p.184.)



After independence the Islam was revived in a big way<sup>95</sup>. In 1990's there was considerable increase in the number of mosques and Madrasas<sup>96</sup>. The observance of Islamic practices such as daily five times prayer, payment of *Sadaqa* (voluntary religious contribution) and fasting during *Ramzan* are now independently fully practiced. Another development of the revivalism of Islam in the region is the observation of Muslims festivals like Idul-fiter, Idul-adha. Moreover, the practice of polygamy and the *kalym* (bride price) have been reintroduced and re-established in the Kyrgyz society.

Most scholars agree that Islam has become one of the major characteristics of Kyrgyzstan. At the same time there is no consensus among the scholars about the nature of Islam. The scholars are divided on the option, that whether Islam will take radical or moderate form in this region. They explain the definition of radical Muslims as one who observe three D's in Islam viz, *dunya* (way of life), *din* (religion) and *dawla* (as Islamic state). Some scholars believe that due to seventy years of the Soviet rule in Central Asia and the legacy of the Soviet regime in the region the people have become secular and even though, if they consider themselves Muslims, they do not want Islam to be involved in politics. On the contrary the other

---

<sup>95</sup> Beatrice.F.Manz(ed), *Central Asia in Historical Perspective* (Oxford, 1994), p. 77.

scholars believe that Islamic radicalism is inevitable in the region due to the combination of political, ethnic, and economic factors.

Studies have indicated that a large number of factors could be attributed to the growth of Islamic radicalism in Kyrgyzstan. The prominent among these are the economic and financial instability in the country.<sup>97</sup> Additionally the absence of middle class in the newly independent republic have further given a boost to the Islamic radicalism. Corruption in government and unequal economic growth also encouraged the people to follow Islamic radicalism. Parallel to these the roots for the growth of terrorism in region are as follows: the extremism of Islamic fundamentalism, the growth and spread of national separatism, the severity of the economic and social problems, and the errors in the religious policies of the country. The external roots for the emergence and development of terrorism are: the penetration of Pan Islamism and Pan Turkism, the impact of terrorism from Chechnya, the influence and support from the Taliban regime in Afghanistan, support by Bin Laden's international terrorism, and the interference of the United States and other Western countries in the antiterrorist struggle in Central Asia.

---

<sup>96</sup> Ibid.

Among the external factors the Taliban factor and the expansion of the Jihad by the Taliban after the American attack in Afghanistan also became a crucial factor and caused enhanced radicalism Islamic radicalism in the entire Central Asia. It has been observed that a certain fraction of people in Kyrgyzstan and particularly in southern Kyrgyzstan were sympathetic towards Taliban and their policies of Islamic radicalism . This impact was more prominent during the America's war on Taliban regime in Afghanistan threatened by the civil war in Tajikistan and Afghanistan. As a result the Kyrgyz Government increased its campaign against fundamentalism. It is observable that the Islamic radicalism is more common among youths, unemployed, and students, People of rural areas and lower sections of the clergy.

The Islamic radicalism eroded the status of women in a big way. The clergy and the people have now started discriminating the women on the basis of Islam. The followers of Wahabism are not allowing women to wear colourful dresses. Additionally women are not encouraged to get education and many young girls are restricted to go to educational institutions. The young girls are not allowed to join public gathering.' The Islamic radicalism

---

<sup>97</sup> Matveeva Anna, n.7, p. 841.

also encourages the *kalym* (bride price). The women are forced to wear *hijab* and are forced to cover their whole body.

### 4.3 Ethnic Conflicts:

Kyrgyzstan is a country surrounded by China, Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan and Tajikistan , therefore, it is natural that it would comprise of many ethnic groups. At the time of independence the Kyrgyz constituted only 52% of the total population. <sup>98</sup>Further, in the Kyrgyz republic due to seventy years of Soviet rule there existed a substantial share of Slave population. <sup>99</sup>Russians constituted around 22% of the total population followed by Ukrainians which constituted 12% of the population<sup>100</sup>.In addition to these groups there are other ethnic groups like Poles, Uighurs, Volga Germans, Chechens and there are many Central Asian minority groups. The most prominent are the Uzbeks which roughly comprise 12% of the country's population. In addition to this some 2,00,000 Kyrgyz reside outside their homeland and majority of them reside in other Central Asian nations.

---

<sup>98</sup> Ahmed Samina, "The Political Implications of Ethnicity in Central Asia"*Regional Studies* (Islamabad), vol. xiii, n.2, *Spring*, 1995, p.16.

<sup>99</sup> K Wariko and Dawa Norbu, n. 2, p.108.

<sup>100</sup> Ahmed Samina, "The Political Implications of Ethnicity in Central Asia"*Regional Studies* (Islamabad), vol. xiii, n. 2, *Spring* 1995, p. 16.

It was believed by many scholars and historians that before the 1924, Kyrgyz had no state of their own and lacked a particular identity. Before the October Revolution of 1917 the Kyrgyz people were ruled by the Emir of Khanates and Tsarist empire. The Kyrgyz people got a separate identity only during the Soviet period

After the October revolution the new government declared Kyrgyzstan as an integral part of Turkestan ASSR. In 1924 after the demarcation of the Central Asian republics Kara-Kyrgyz Autonomous Oblast, being a part of the Russian Federation, was administratively formed.

Since the coming of the Russians to the region the Kyrgyz people were ruled by the Russians till the independence. Moreover, the Kyrgyz people lacked the required leadership. Thus, their identity issue remains more or less insignificant during the Russian colonial and the Soviet period.

With the introduction of *glasnost* in the Soviet Union there was a reassertion of Kyrgyz ethnicity<sup>101</sup>. These political transformations are closely related to economic reforms. From the perspective of the Kyrgyz, the most acute

national problem had been posed by the Uzbeks living in and around the Osh region in the Southwest part of the republic. Although Kyrgyzstan has only about 12 percent Uzbek ethnic population, concentrated in the Osh Province situated in the Ferghana valley. Therefore, tension existed between the Kyrgyz and the Uzbeks throughout the Soviet period. But, Moscow Government was any how successful to preserve the image of Soviet ethnic harmony until the reforms of Gorbachev in the mid-1980s. In the general atmosphere of *glasnost*, an Uzbek-rights group called *Adalat* began airing old grievances in 1989, demanding that Moscow must grant local Uzbek autonomy in Osh and consider its annexation with Uzbekistan.

The real issue behind *Adalat's* demand was land, which is extremely scanty in the southwest province of Osh<sup>102</sup>. Therefore, to protect their claims, some Osh Kyrgyz formed an opposing ethnic association, called Osh-aimagy (Osh-land).

In early June 1990, the Kyrgyz-dominated Osh City Council. They also announced plans to build a cotton processing plant on a parcel of land under

---

<sup>101</sup> Ahmed Samina, "The Political Implications of Ethnicity in Central Asia" Regional Studies (Islamabad), Spring 1995, p. 18.

<sup>102</sup> K Wariko and Dawa Norbu, n.2, pp.113-116.

the control of an Uzbek-dominated collective farm in Osh Province. The confrontation that erupted over control of that land brought several days of bloody riots between crowds led by the respective associations. This resulted in killing of at least 320 Kyrgyz and Uzbeks in Osh. On account of this large number of families were left homeless, as their houses were burned out.<sup>103</sup> The government finally stopped these riots by imposing a military curfew.

During the elections the role of ethnicity becomes very important<sup>104</sup>. The election of a candidate from a particular constituency is done keeping in view the ethnic considerations. The contesting candidate should belong to a dominated ethnic group or should be able to get support from particular ethnic group. People also generally tend to support the candidate of their ethnic group. As a result, ethnicity plays a major role during the elections. The political parties are also ethnicity ridden.

#### **4.4 Problem of women empowerment: -**

In the entire Soviet Union the condition of women had much improved. In 1917 the Soviet Government declared the equality of men and women, and

---

<sup>103</sup> Ahmed Samina, "The Political Implications of Ethnicity in Central Asia" *Regional Studies* (Islamabad), vol. xiii, n. 2, Spring 1995, p. 17.

in 1921 declared polygamy and the *kalym* (bride price) as an illegal practice. In the history of Central Asia, unlike in the past, now the women for the first time have been given the opportunity to take active part in the political process of the state. Further due to spread of education among the women they had become more aware about their political rights and many women take active part in the political discussions, voting and referendums. In some areas the percentage of women participation during elections had overtaken the men's share.

After the independence of Kyrgyzstan the status of women have deteriorated tremendously. In the new social conditions the women are suppressed and discriminated .In Kyrgyzstan women are not allowed to wear colourful dresses. Additionally women are not encouraged to get education and many young girls are restricted to go to educational institutions. The young girls are not allowed to join public gathering. Moreover, after independence the Kyrgyz society encourages the *kalym* (bride price). The women are forced to wear *hijab* and are forced to cover their whole body.<sup>105</sup>

---

<sup>104</sup> Ahmed Samina, n. 18, p. 19.

<sup>105</sup> Phool Badan, n. 14, p. 189



Women in the Kyrgyz Republic have been hard hit by post-Soviet economic and social upheavals. The inability of the Kyrgyz Government to alleviate the economic burdens affected the uplift of the women group in the country. Further the threat of decreased international aid to the region minimized the prospects for women's empowerment and economic prosperity. Their energetic and dynamic approaches to coping with current instabilities have made great contributions toward overcoming the challenges of economic transition. Additionally there are certain challenges before the women in Kyrgyzstan, which are as follows: -

The sexual violence among women is very common in the entire Central Asian society<sup>106</sup>. In Kyrgyzstan the women are the victims of domestic violence, sexual harassment, and rape, etc. There is a growing recognition of sexual harassment, especially at the workplace.

There is a trend of decline particularly in the non-agricultural sector of the economy and the majority of the female workforce is concentrated in the unorganized sector. Women jobs are those that men do not care for viz- unskilled and low-grade jobs. The law of equal pay for equal work to

---

<sup>106</sup> World Development Indicators, (Washington D.C, 2003), p.251.

women also does not exist. Thus, women are discriminated and exploited and are not enjoying their basic rights like equality.

According to many scholars the liberalization, the economic policies adopted by Akayev in early 1990's has resulted in the increasing impoverishment of large sections of working people. The reformist policies led to women losing their jobs and being forced toward the low paid and insecure informal sectors.

The trafficking of women is another serious challenge in the Kyrgyz republic. According to the International Office of Migration (IOM), approximately 4,000 women were trafficked abroad in 1999. The country was primarily a country of origin and transit for trafficked persons, although there have been a few reports of the country being a destination for women trafficked as prostitutes. Although the exact number of those in transit is unknown. This country was well known as a country of origin for trafficked women and girls, largely to Turkey, Germany, and the United Arab Emirates for the purpose of prostitution. It is reported that a flourishing sex trade used to draw girls as young as 10 years age group from the destitute mountain villages. The extent of this problem is related to unknown traffickers groups,

whose target include young under- or unemployed women who are unable to earn a living, particularly ethnic Slavic women under the age of 25.

The worsening economic situation, high unemployment levels, particularly in the South, and gender inequality, have made young women more vulnerable to traffickers, who exploit them by offering lucrative jobs abroad<sup>107</sup>. Often women were trafficked through deception, and were lured abroad, at times by means of newspaper advertisements and under the pretext of offering them legitimate employment opportunities. Internet marriage agencies also reportedly recruited young women with false offers of marriage to foreigners. The IOM reports that traffickers are often persons who previously operated local prostitution networks. They use networks of returnees, family members, and friends, to recruit victims<sup>108</sup>. The IOM also indicated that tour agents, restaurants, and nightclubs supplement their legal activities by providing young women to foreign prostitution rings.

The transition to market relations is resulting in deterioration of the economic situation. The collapse of the social safety net and the decline in

---

<sup>107</sup> Commission on Human Rights Report on Fifty Seven Session Part 1 (New York,2001), p. 212.

<sup>108</sup> *World Development Indicators* (Washington D.C,2003), p. 224.

public health services has led to a sharp deterioration of women's health and to growth of maternal and child mortality.

Democratization meant the elimination of quotas for women in elective organs, meaning that women lost even formal representation in the power structures. The transfer to a contract system of employment and the loss of state control over the personnel policy of employers has undermined the security of women in the labor and employment market. Elimination of restrictions in the mass media has resulted in exploitation of women as sex objects in advertisements, newspapers, magazines, and on television, as well as in an exaggerated reflection of negative phenomena: female criminality, drug addiction and other such sources. The huge level of violence against women is now coming to light. They are in practice unprotected and not safe from violence in the family, at work, and at public institutions. The tradition of kidnapping brides, a practice degrading and humiliating to women, has been revived and is becoming more widespread.

#### **4.5 Human Rights Violation**

For the past twelve years in Kyrgyzstan the suppression of the rights of the people and liberties has become a day-to-day activity. Immorality and

corruption have led to the overall demoralization in all spheres of social life. After the adoption of new amendments to the Constitution, the situation with human rights and expansion of democratic reforms has become worse.

These are obvious irregularities in the work of the three branches of the government. The Jogorku Kenesh, practically being bicameral, is functioning as a unicameral parliament, which might one day serve as a reason for parliament dissolution. In addition contrary to the decision of the Constitutional Council, political parties are banned from participation in elections. In the judicial sphere hundreds of cases are not being heard and decided. The number of people who have a right to appeal to the Constitutional Court has been limited, and now citizens of Kyrgyzstan cannot appeal to the court of law. The institution of Ombudsman turned out to have no financial support, which clearly indicates that the state does not need it.

The International Convention on Civil and Political Rights ratified by the Kyrgyz parliament is not observed. Article 9 states that “anyone shall be entitled to trial within a reasonable time or to release”, as well as “the court may decide without delay on the lawfulness of his detention”. In short the

citizens of the republic of Kyrgyzstan have no rights to actual freedom of speech, movement or freedom of peaceful assembly.

There are reports of discrimination in the treatment of citizens who are not ethnic Kyrgyz<sup>109</sup>. Members of the minorities alleged discrimination in hiring, promotion, and housing, and alleged that government officials at all levels favored ethnic Kyrgyz. The latest statistical data, from the 1999 census, reflected the following ethnic breakdown of the population:

- 64.9 percent were Kyrgyz; 12.5 percent were Russians; 13.8 percent were Uzbeks; 1.1 percent were Dungans (ethnic Chinese Muslims); 1 percent were Uighurs; 0.9 percent were Tatars and 0.4 percent were Germans.
- The representation of ethnic Kyrgyz at senior and intermediate levels of government is disproportionately high, giving credence to perceptions that career opportunities in government are limited for those who are not ethnic Kyrgyz. There also are allegations of discrimination against non-Kyrgyz in the judicial system<sup>110</sup>

---

<sup>109</sup> *U.N Human Rights Committee Report Of Kyrgyzstan 7*(New York, July 2000), pp. 13.

<sup>110</sup> *U.N Human Rights Committee Report Of Kyrgyzstan 7*(New York, July 2000), pp. 13.

Human rights groups operated in a hostile environment and are faced with continuous government pressure to curtail their activities. Despite the pressure, most of the domestic independent human rights organizations, including the KCHR and the Coalition for Democracy and Civil Society, were able to continue investigating and publishing their findings on human rights cases as well as on government interference with normal elections.

In March, 2000 the Bishkek city prosecutor sent the Coalition a warning that the Coalition, together with the KCHR, the Public Union for Social Defense of the Population, Union of Kyrgyz Children and Women, and several political parties had violated a law that prohibits the destabilization of society. This happened since they prepared and distributed flyers that appealed for public support of Ar-Namys candidate Feliks Kulov in the 2000 election.<sup>111</sup> On 30 March 2000, the Bishkek city prosecutor summoned KCHR chairman Ramazan Dyryldayev and Republican Party chairman Giyaz Tokombayev and delivered the same warning. On 27 June, 2000, the authorities detained KCHR member Noomanjan Arkebaev for allegedly distributing antigovernment leaflets. Employees of a political NGO reported incidents of surveillance and intimidation.

In the political sphere the government continued to impede the functioning of opposition political groupings and the expression of opposition views in the media. Police tortured several members of opposition parties. Several newspapers and journalists faced with libel suits from government officials. NGK's were warned not to show public support for opposition candidates.

The Constitution provides for parliamentary elections every 5 years. In February and March 2000, the first and second rounds of parliamentary elections were held. For the first time, 15 out of 60 Legislative Assembly's seats were distributed proportionally based on party lists. Prior to the parliamentary elections, the Government took numerous actions that disadvantaged opposition political parties.<sup>112</sup>

In the above context four political parties, including one of the most popular opposition parties, the People's Party, were prohibited and debarred from the for contesting the elections, therefore, they could compete in the elections for state bodies. In a legal challenge, the courts upheld this restriction in the

---

<sup>111</sup> Abazov Rafis, "Democracy in Kyrgyzstan : In the context of Recent Elections", *Contemporary Central Asia* (New Delhi), vii.4, n. 2, April-Aug 2000, p.53.

<sup>112</sup> Abazov Rafis, n. 27, p. 52.



election law. Eight parties were debarred from competing because they were registered less than 1 year prior to the announcement of elections. The OSCE noted that executive and judicial branch interference in the electoral process continued.. In decisions that appear to have been politically motivated, a number of prominent opposition candidates were disqualified or reregistered, despite having led the voting after the first round. A number of opposition candidates were harassed<sup>113</sup>. Although there were improvements in overall election administration on the day of the voting, there were allegations of ballot tampering, government intimidation of voters, and harassment of campaign officials in the elections of a large number of opposition leaders.

The OSCE determined that in the second round of elections, in 44 districts there was clear evidence of systematic fraud committed by both state and election authorities. In the second round, more than 10 candidates were declared winners automatically as a result of cancellation of the opponents' registration.

---

<sup>113</sup> Kyrgyzstan at Ten: Trouble in the Island of Democracy, *ICG Asia Report* (28 Aug, 2001), No. 22, 28 August 2001, p. 20.

Thus, as may be seen from the above details, it is quite obvious that the desired level of prosperity has yet to be achieved in Kyrgyzstan. This needs serious attention and strong will of the political and social groups for attaining future democratic stability and prosperity of the human community of this region.

In the next chapter the working of democracy in Kyrgyzstan has been analyzed and the broad conclusions of the present study undertaken have been presented.

# **CHAPTER FIVE**

## Chapter-V

# CONCLUSIONS

In the present study an effort has been made to collect, review and critically analyze the available literature and information related to structure and system of democratic status in Kyrgyzstan. In this context, it has been reported that in Central Asian Region Kyrgyzstan was described as an "island of democracy" till 1990. However, after the country's first decade of independence following the breakup of the Soviet Union the expected hopes were slowly extinguished for establishing a successful democratic system in this region .when its government, under President Askar Akaev, appeared to tighten its grip on power at the expense of democracy.

Radical economic and political reforms. were introduced during the regime of President Gorbachev. The adoption of economic and political reforms of *Perestroika* and *Glasnost* influenced the political, cultural, social and economic life of the people of the entire Soviet Union. In Kyrgyzstan the introduction of reforms policies led to the emergence of the new political

parties, groups and media. However, it has been reported that the Communist party became weak and lost its old glory and dominance.

Till 1990 Kyrgyzstan was governed by the Communist party when the leadership was transferred in the hands of Askar Akaev after the bloody riots of Osh in Southern Kyrgyzstan. After independence the new government started a new policy of economic and political reforms.

A decade later, the differences were striking. The president of Kyrgyzstan extended his terms of office in a series of referendums., and the role of parliament got declined as all the powers were concentrated in the hands of president. Not only this political parties which are well known as the pillars of democracy were not allowed to function freely. and the leaders of the opposition parties and the members of their family were either jailed or exiled.. Moreover Media and Judiciary were not working independently. Many journalists were beaten and tortured by the police and judges were pressurized to favour the government.

In the Soviet Union there was only one party i.e. the Communist Party of the Soviet Union. After the independence the Kyrgyz republic adopted multi-party system in their republic. In the new constitution special reference has

given for the growth of political parties. In the Constitution of the republic a special provision has been made for the independent working of the political parties. In the nineties various political parties emerged in the republic. Some of the parties which emerged in 90's are : *Asaba, Ata Maken, Party of Communists of Kyrgyzstan, Social Democratic Party of Kyrgyzstan* ,and *Democratic Movement of Kyrgyzstan* ,etc.

In the real sense the political parties were not allowed to function freely. Various political parties were banned and the government used various tactics to restrict the opposition parties. In the republic government machinery tried to crush the opposition by arresting the leaders of parties by making a false cases against them., banning the rallies, unnecessary income tax raids in the houses and offices of party members ,ceiling their properties of party members and so on.

Further the Government continued to impede the functioning of opposition political groupings and the expression of opposition views in the media. Opposition newspapers and journalists faced with libel suits from government officials. The Government took steps to disqualify even the

otherwise qualified candidates by charging and convicting them on questionable criminal charges. Restrictions on the registration of candidates, intervention by local officials, and harassment of opposition candidates were imposed to tighten the grip of President. Representatives of different parties were not permitted at many polling stations for counting of votes. The percentage of women and most ethnic minorities in government and politics did not correspond to their percentage of the population. Women held only 7 of 105 seats in the legislature. The Minister of Justice and the Chief Justice of the Constitutional Court are women. The Democratic Party of Women participated in the parliamentary elections and won two party seats, earning 13 percent of the party-list votes.

In Kyrgyzstan most of the political parties are leader dominant and have a very limited role in the politics of Kyrgyzstan. The contribution of political parties in parliament is just thirty percent, while the seventy percent of seats are held by individuals candidates. As a matter of fact the parties in Kyrgyzstan are based on ethnic groups and regional lines. The parties had very limited fund. Thus, the parties are not working independently.

There are various interference's and pressures of government and President in the functioning of judiciary. The government person's are pressuring the courts to alter the judgements in favour of government and President. This can be supported from the judgement of court which supported the third term of president Askar Akayev on the ground that first term was started before the implementation of Constitution. (In Kyrgyzstan a person can continue as president only for two terms).

The courts are biased in Kyrgyzstan. They many times gave false judgements and restricted the free working of media and parties. The courts many times ordered to arrest the journalists and media persons when they criticised the government. On the other hand the president and his colleagues enjoyed various legal protections and immunities.

Similarly even today in Kyrgyzstan the media is not functioning independently. Most of the electronic media Radio and T.V are owned by the Kyrgyz government. State television, radio, and government newspapers continued to receive government subsidies, which permitted the Government to influence media coverage and to apply financial pressure on independent



media by fostering unfair competition for increasingly scarce advertising revenue. Some news outlets are owned and controlled partly or fully by individuals with close ties to the Government. During the election period the pro government parties dominated the campaign in media and other parties are given very little chance to express their views before the people. There are few private channels also but they are the source of entertainment and are generally not broadcasting news. The limited economic resources are also responsible for the restriction of private sector in mass media.

In the republic the government also dominates the print media. During the last few years few private newspapers, magazines, have developed, but its market is limited. The private journalists have many restrictions and are not allowed to criticize the government. In the republic the journalists are arrested and printing press are sealed if they criticize the government.

The only structure that has some influence is pressure groups. Since independence a number of pressure groups and NGO'S have emerged in the republic. There are various types of pressure groups . They are the main source of link between common people and the government. They keep the grievances of the people before the government. In the Kyrgyz republic

there are many interest groups which are working for the welfare of children and women. Along with these in the education and health sphere there are many NGO's, which are implementing various programs with the help of government and world bodies such as WHO, UNESCO, etc. Similarly there are various groups for traders, industrial workers, teachers, students, etc. Pressure groups use various tactics and mould the government to formulate policies in the interest of people.

In Kyrgyzstan Constitution provides for parliamentary elections every 5 years. In 1995 and 2000, the parliamentary elections were held. In the parliamentary elections of 1995 and 2000 the Government took numerous actions that disadvantaged opposition political parties. In the 2000 elections four political parties, including one of the most popular opposition parties, the People's Party, were debarred from the elections because their charters did not state specifically they could compete in elections for state bodies. Eight parties were debarred from competing because they were registered less than one year prior to the announcement of elections.

In view of the above system in vogue, it can be very well inferred that in Kyrgyzstan the democratic process needs to be geared up with more

vigorous efforts for safe guarding the desired social welfare and prosperity of the community. The focus of all important activities and programs should be over all development in all-important spheres of life. The election process, judiciary and media system, etc may require to have proper approach and adaptable system for its successful functioning . The mission of all efforts should be to provide better opportunities to all irrespect of sex and power being enjoyed by a particular community .Thus, safeguarding the over all development of each and every individual of the country must sole objective of real democratic system.

# **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

## **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

### **Primary Sources**

Andrew G. Sennitt *World Radio TV Handbook 1996*. ed. (Amsterdam, Billboard, 1996).

*Basic Facts about the United Nations* (New York; United Nations, 2000 ).

B. Szajkowski, *Encyclopaedia of Conflicts, Disputes and Flash points: East European, Russian and Successor State* (Longman; Current Affairs, 1993 ).

Gurgen Emine , Harry S ock, Jan Craig, Jimmy McHugh and Ran Van Rooden (eds.), *Economic Reforms in Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan*, IMF Ocassional Paper NO.183 (Washington D.C., International Monetary Fund 1999 ).

Havrylyshyn, Oleh, Thomas Wolf, Julian Berengant, Morta de Castello Branco, Ron van Rooden, and Valerie Mercer- Blackman. *Growth Experiences in Transition Ciuntries: 1990-98*, IMF Occasional Paper No.184 ( Washington , International Monetary Funf, 2000 ).

*Human Development Report 2003* (New Delhi; Oxford University Press, 2003 ).

*I.M.F Study on Kyrgyzstan* (Washington, D.C, 1993).

Ivan Szelenyi *The Rise of Managerialism: The “New Class” After the fall of Communism* (Collegium Budapest; Institute for Advanced Study , Discussion Paper No 16, November 1995 ).

*Kyrygyz Republic -Country Assistance Evaluation*, vol.1, 2001, Operation Evaluation.

Kyrgyzstan at Ten, *ICG Asia Report N 2,2 August 2001, pp.1-28*

“Kyrgyzstan : Republic Constitution” *FBIS Report: Central Eurasia*, nos .99-105, 9 August 1993, pp 88-101.

*Kyrgyzstan Human Development Report 1995.*

Lenin , V.I , *Slected Works*, vol. 2 ( Moscow, Foreign Languages Publication House, 1950 ).

*Statistical Year Book for Asia and the Pacific-2001* (New York, United Nations,2000 )

*World Economic Outlook*, (Washington D.C; International Monetary Fund January to October 2000).

World Bank. *Kyrgyzstan: Social Protection in a Reforming Economy* (Washington: 1993).

World Bank. *Kyrgyzstan: The Transition to a Market Economy* (Washington, 1993).

World Bank. *Kyrgyz Republic: Agricultural Sector Review* (Washington,1995).

World Bank. *Kyrgyz Republic: Economic Réport* (Washington,1994).

World Bank. *Kyrgyz Republic: Energy Sector Review* (Washington,1995).

Zvorykin A.A, *Cultural Policy in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics* (Paris, UNESCO, 1970 ).

## **Secondary Sources**

### **Books**

Ahrari, M.E, *The New Great Game of Muslim Central Asia* (Washington D.C; Institute for National Strategic Studies, 1996).

.Akiner, Shirin. (ed), *Political and Economic Trends in Central Asia* (London; British Academic Press, 1994 ).

Anderson, John.. *Kyrgyzstan: Central Asia's Island of Democracy?* (London; Harwood Academic Press.,2000).

Andrey, Fadir. Victor, Serjeev and Yurity, Kulchik (eds ), *Central Asia After The Empire* ( New York; CSA Publications, 1998).

Ayearst, Morley and Munro William Bennett, *The Governments of Europe* ( New York; Macmillin , 1959 ).

Badan, Phool, *Dynamics of Political Development in Central Asia* (New Delhi ; Lancer's Books, 2001).

Bakina, M.A.(ed), *New Political Parties and Movement in Soviet Union* (Commack,New York; Nova Science Publishers, Inc, 1991 )

Batalden, Stephen K., and Sandra L. Batalden. *The Newly Independent States of Eurasia: Handbook of Former Soviet Republics.* (Phoenix: Oryx, 1993.).

Bourdeaux, Michael (ed.), *The Politics of Religion in Russia and the New States of Eurasia.* (Armonk, New York, M.E. Sharpe, 1995).

Bruce, Parrott and Dawisha Karen (eds ) ,*Political Culture and Civil Society in Russia and the New States of Eurasia* (New York and London; M.E Sharpe Press, 1995).

Chinn, Jeff. Kaiser and Robert, *Russians as the New Minority: Ethnicity and Nationalism in the Soviet Successor States* (Westview Press, 1996).

Cumming, Sally N (ed), *Power and Change in Central Asia* (London and New York; Routledge Publishers, 2000).

Dani, Ahmad Hussan, *New Light on Central Asia* (Delhi; Renaissance Publishing House, 1993 ).

David, Menashri (ed), *Central Asia Meets the Middle East* (London; Frank Cass, 1998 ).

Dawies, R.W, Mark Harrison and S.G.Wheat Crof (ed), *The Economic Transformation of the Soviet Union 1913-1945* ( New York, Cambridge University Press ,1994 ) .

D.D, Henry Lansdell, *Russian Central Asia* (New York; Arna Press and The New York Times, 1970).

Dewisha , Karen and Parrott , Bruce (eds), *Conflict, Cleavage and Change in Central Asia and th/e Caucasus* ( Cambridge; Cambridge University Press, 1997 ).

Duverger, M, *Political Parties* (London; Methuen, 1964 ).

Ferdinand, Peter. *The New States of Central Asia and Their Neighbors.* (New York; Council on Foreign Relations Press, 1994).

Ghuneps-Ayata, Aypse and Feride Acar, (eds), *Gender and Identity Construction: Women of Central Asia, the Caucasus and the Turkey* (Leiden; Brill Academic Publishers, 2000).



Gidadhubli R.G (ed.), *Socio Economic Tranformation Of Soviet Central Asia* (New Delhi; Patriot Publications, 1987 )

Glenn, John, *The Soviet Legacy in Central Asia* (Basingstoke; Macmillian, 1999).

Haghayeghi, Mehrdad, *Islam and Politics in Central Asia* (London; Macmillllan Press, 1995).

Hayek, Friedrich, *The Consitution of Liberties* (Chicago University Press, 1960 ) .

Hiro, Dilip, *From Marx to Mohammed: The Changing Face of Central Asia* (London; Harper and Collins , 1994).

Humphery, Caroline, *The End of Nomadism?: Society, State, and the Environment in Inner Asia*. (Durham;;Duke University Press; 1999)

Hunter, Shireen T, *Central Asia Since Independence* (New York and Washington D.C; CSIC/Praeger, 1996 ) .

Huttenbach, Henry R. (ed.), *Soviet Nationality Policies: Ruling Groups in the USSR*. (London;Mansell Publishers,1999).

Islamov, Bakhtior, *The Central Asian States Ten Years After: How to, Ovcome Traps of Development, Transformation and Globalisation ?* (Tokyo Maruzen Co. Ltd, 2001 ) .

Kaushik, Davendra, *Central Asia in Modern Times* ( Moscow; Progress Publication, 1970 )

Khazanov,A.M, *After the USSR: Ethnicity, Nationalism and Politics in the Commonwealth of Independent States* (Madison,1995)

Kohli Atul, Migdal Joel S and Shue Vivienn (eds), *Dominance and Transformation in the Third World* ( New York;Cambridge University Press,1994 ).

*Krgyzstan: Political Handbook of the World* (New York; CSA Publication, 1998).

Goldblatt David ,Potter, David, Kiloh Margaret and Lewis, Paul (eds.), *Democratization* (Cambridge; Polity Press, 1997 ).

Maclver R.M; *The Modern State* (London; Oxford University Press,1966 ).

Macpherson , CB, *Democratic Theory: Essays in Retrieval* (London ; Oxford Univ. Press, 1976 ).

Mandelbaum, Michael, (ed),. *Central Asia and the World: Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Tajikistan, Kyrgyzstan, and Turkmenistan*. New York: Council on Foreign Relations Press, 1994.

Manz, Beatrice F , *Central Asia in Historical Perspective* (Washington D.C; Westview Press, 1994 ).

Mesbahi, Mohiaddin ( ed ), *Central Asia and the Caucasus after the Soviet Union: Domestic and International Dynamics* (Gainsville, Florida; University Press of Florida, 1994 ).

Naumkin,. Vitaly V , *Central Asia and Transcaucasia: Ethnicity and Conflict* (Greenwood Press, 1994 ).

Norbu Dawa and Warikook, *Ethnicity and Politics in Central Asia* (New Delhi; South Asian Publishers).

Paksov, H.B, *Central Asia Reader* (London; M.E Sharpe, 1994)

Patnaik, Ajay, *Central Asia Between Modernity and Tradition* ( Delhi; Konark Publishers, 1996 ) .

Pauline Jones Luong, *Institutional Change and Political Continuity in Post-Soviet Central Asia: Power, Perceptions, and Pacts* (Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 2002.).

Pierce, Richard D, *Russian Central Asia, 1867-1917* (Berkeley and Los Angeles; University of California Press, 1960)

Pierre, Bourdieu (eds), *Social Theory for a Changing Society* ( Boulder; West view Press, 1991 )

Rashid, Ahmed. *The Resurgence of Central Asia: Islam or Nationalism?* (Karachi: Oxford University Press, 1994).

Rubin, Burnett R, and Jack Snyder (eds), *Post Soviet Political Order: Conflict and State Building* (London, and New York; Routledge, 1998 ).

Rumer, Boris, *Central Asia in Transition: Dilemmas of Political and Economic Development* (New York; M.E Sharp, 1994 ).

Rumer Boris and Zhukov Stanislav (eds), *Central Asia: The Challenges of Independence* (New York; M.E Sharpe, 1998).

Schumpeter , J.A *Capitalism , Socialism and Democracy* (London; George Allen and Unwin , 1969 ).

Shams-ud-din, *Secularisation in the USSR* (Delhi; Vikas publishing House, 1982).

Sills, David L (ed), *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, vol.12* (New York;The Macmillian Co, and the Free Press, 1968 ).

*The Constitutional System of the Soviet Union*, edited by Research Board (Delhi; Research Publication,1972 ).

*The Europa World Year Book 1994*, 2. London: Europa, 1994.

*The Europa World Year Book 1995*, 2. London: Europa, 1995.

*The Europa World Year Book 1996*, 2. London: Europa, 1996.

*The Europa World Year Book 1997*, 2. London: Europa, 1997

*The Europa World Year Book 1998*, 2. London: Europa, 1998

*The Europa World Year Book 1999*, 2. London: Europa, 1999

*The Europa World Year Book 2000*, 2. London: Europa, 2000

Vassillev,Alexei,Central Asia: Political and Economic Challenges in the Post Soviet Era (London; Saqi Books,2001)

Wheeler, Geoffrey, *Modern Histroy of Soviet Central Asia* (London; Weidenfeld and Nicolson,1964 ).

Wheeler Geoffrey, *The Peoples of Soviet Central Asia* (London;,Bodley Head, 1966) .

*World Resources Institute , World Resources 1994-1995* ( London and New York, Oxford University Press, 1994 ) .

### **Articles**

Abazov, Rafiz, “ Policy of Economic Transition in Kyrgyzstan”, *Central Asian Survey*, (Oxford) vol. 2, n. 18, 1999, pp 197-223.

Abazov, Rafiz "Democracy in Kyrgyzstan in the context of recent elections" *Contemporary Central Asia* (New Delhi), vol.4, no.2, April-Aug 2000, pp.51-58 .

Abazov, Rafiz, "Policy of Economic Transition in Kyrgyzstan" *Central Asian Survey* (Oxford), vo.12, no..18, 1999, pp 197-223.

Aidaraliev AA, "Problems and ways of providing human activities in the mountains of Central Asia", *Himalayan and Central Asian studies* (New Delhi), vol.2, nos.(3-4),July- Dec 1998, pp. 147-55.

Akbarzadeh, Shahram,"Political shape of Central Asia", *Central Asian Survey* (Oxford)), vol .16, no.4, Dec 1997, pp. 517-542.

Anderson, John, "Constitutional development in Central Asia", *Central Asian Survey* (Oxford), vol.16, no.3, Sept.1997, pp 1378- 83.

Andreyev, Nikolai. "What Future for Uzbekistan, Kirgizia, Turkmenia?" *Current Digest of the Post-Soviet Press*, vol.44, July 22, 1992, pp.8-11.

Badan Phool , "Emerging political system in Central Asia in the post soviet period", *India Quarterly* , (New Delhi), vol.vii,no.3, July-Sept 2001), pp.97-118.

Badan Phool,"Modernization in Central Asia in the Post Soviet Period, *Journal of Central Asian Studies* (Srinagar), vol.x, no.1,1999, pp. 9-32

Basilov, Vladimir Nikolayevich. "Popular Islam in Central Asia and Kazakhstan," *Journal of the Institute of Muslim Minority Affairs* (Jeddah),vol. 8, no 1, 1987, pp.7-17.

Bichel, Anthony. 1997. "Political Parties in Central Asian Republics." *BITIG: Journal of Turkic World*. Haarlem, Netherlands, 1997)

Brudny ,AA, "Kyrgyzstan ,Island of Democracy" *Contemporary Central Asia* (New Delhi), vol.11, no.2 Sept 1998, pp.6-8.

Chenoy, Anuradha M, "Political and Economic processes in the Central Asian Republics", *International Studies* (New Delhi), vol.34, no.3, July-Sept. 1997, pp. 301-12.

Coppieters, Bruno and others, "Central Asian Region in a new International Environment", *NATO Review* (London), vol. 44, no.51, Sept. 1996: pp. 26-31

Dzhunnushallev D, "1916 uprising in Kyrgyzstan", *Contemporary Central Asia* (New Delhi), vol.11, no.2,, Sept.1998, pp. 34-39.

EL Yanov A, "Central Asia-Transformation towards globalization", *Contemporary Central Asia* (New Delhi), vol .11, no.1, March. 1998, pp .21-32.

Hyman Anthony, "Central Asian Republics, Independence and after", *Round table* (Oxon), vol .341, Jan.1997, pp.67-79.

James Mahoney and Richard Snyder, "Rethinking Agency and Structure in the Study of Regime Change," *Studies in Comparative International Development*, vol. 34, no. 2, Summer 1999.

Kathleen Collins, "Clans, Pacts, and Politics in Central Asia," *Journal of Democracy*, Vol. 13, No. 3, July 2002.

“ Kyrgyzs Radio and TV see threat to Independence” *Kyrgyzs Television*, 9 June 1995 , *Summery of World Broadcast* ( Part 1), 9 June 1995, PSU/2328G/1

“ Kyrgyzia: Government Resigns “, *Sevodnya* , 7 September 1994, P,1; *CDPSP* vol 46 , 36, 5 October 1994, p,21.

“Kyrgyzstan” , *The Europa Year Book* (London ) ,vol. 2, 1997, pp. 1959-1970.

Luong ,Nick, “After the breakup: Institutional design in transional States”, *Contemporary Political Studies* (London), vol. 33, no.5, June 2000,pp. 563-92

MacDonald, Peter K.. "The Muslims of Soviet Central Asia: Present Reality and Future Possibilities." *World Outlook*;1989,pp.75-88.

Matveeva, Anna, “Democratization, legitimacy and political change in Central Asia”, *Iranian Journal of International Affairs* (Tehran), vol.7, no.4, Winter 1996, pp. 834-53.

Megoran, Nick, “Theorizing gender, ethnicity and the nation state in Central Asia”, *Central Asian Survey* (Oxford), vol.18, no.1, March.1999, pp.121-24.

Michael Burawoy and Pavel Krotov , “The Soviet Transition from Socialism to Capitalism” *American Journal of Sociology* (Chicago),vol. 57 ,1992, pp. 16-38

M. Steven Fish, “The Dynamics of Democratic Erosion,” in Anderson et al, *Post-Communism and the Theory of Democracy* (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 2001

Mickiewicz, Tomsaz, "Structural Response. To Economic Transformation" *Communist Economic and Economic Transformation*. vol. 6 no. 2 , 1994, pp 231-246.

Migranyan, Andranik. "Russia and the Near Abroad," *Current Digest of the Post-Soviet Press*, 47, 9 March, 1994, pp.1-4 and 16 March, 1994, pp.6-11.

Olcott, Martha Brill "Taking Stock of Central Asia", *Journal of International Affairs* (New York), vol.56, no.2, Spring 2003, pp. 3-17.

Ovin, Rasto, "Why Institution Changes Should be Rapid : A Transaction Cost Perspective", *Communist Economies and Economic Transformation*, vol.10,no. 1 , 1998, pp 63-80.

Ovin, Rasto "The Nature of Institutional Change" *Post- Communist Economies* (London), vol 13, no 2, June 2001, pp133-146.

Patnaik Ajay & Peters, William, "Contemporary Conference ,Present and Future", *Asian Affairs* (London),vol. 33, no.1, Feb . 2002, pp.18-24.

Ploshikh, V, "Kyrgyz people: history and culture", *Contemporary Central Asia* (New Delhi),vol .11, no.2, Sept.1998, pp. 1-5.

Palat, Madhavan K, "Emergence of Central Asia", *Indian Historical Review* (New Delhi), vol .18, nos. 1-2, July1991 and Jan.1992, pp.76-92.

Roland, Gregord, " The Political Economy of Transition", *Journal of Economic Perspective*, vol.16, no. 1 Winter 2002, pp. 29-50.

Rotor, Igor. "Kyrgyzstan: Capitalist Experiment in Central Asia," *Current Digest of the Post-Soviet Press*, vol.44, 8 April, 1992,pp. 4-5.



Sengupta, Anita, "Minorities and nationalizing states in Central Asia" *International Studies* (New Delhi), vol. 34, no.3, July-Sept 1997, pp. 269-300.

Silverstein, Brian, "Discipline, Knowledge and imperial power in Central Asia: 19<sup>th</sup> century notes for a genealogy of social forms" *Central Asian Survey* (Oxford) vol 2, no.1, 2002, pp.91-105

Starr, S. Frederick, "Making Euresia Stable", *Foreign Affairs*(New York), vol. 75, no.1, Jan-Feb. 1996, pp. 80-92.

Walker, Edward W, Islam, Islamism and Political Order in Central Asia, *Journal of International Affairs* (New York), vol.56, no.2, Spring 2003, pp.21-42 .

William Fierman "Religion and nationalism in Soviet Central Asia" *Problems of Communism* (Washington, D.C), vol. 38, no.4, July- Aug 1989, pp123-127

William Tordoff, "Local Government in Kyrgyzstan" *Public Administration and Development*, vol 15, no.2, 1995, pp.495-505.

Zhang, B, "Institutional Aspects of Reform and the Democratization of the Communist Regimes", *Communist and Post- Communist Studies* (Washington, D.C), vol. 26, no..2, June 1993, pp. 165-181.

### **News Papers and Journals**

Central Asian News Letter (Oxford).

Central Asia and the Caucasus Chronicle (London).

Current Digest of Post Soviet Press (Columbus).

Deccan Herald (Bangalore).

Foreign Broadcast Information Service (London).

New Times (Moscow).

Soviet Nationality Survey (U.K).

Summary of World Broadcast (BBC London).

Times (London).

### **Websites**

<http://jja.sipa.columbia.edu>

[www.harrassowitz.de](http://www.harrassowitz.de)

<http://tandf.co.uk/online/html>

[www.economst.com](http://www.economst.com)

[www.flonnet.com](http://www.flonnet.com)

[www.wto.org](http://www.wto.org)

[www.google.com](http://www.google.com)

[www.worldbank.com](http://www.worldbank.com)

[www.eurasiannet.com](http://www.eurasiannet.com)

[www.esig.ucar.edu](http://www.esig.ucar.edu)

[www.ca-c.org](http://www.ca-c.org)

[www.vum.ac.nz](http://www.vum.ac.nz)

[www.anu.edu.au](http://www.anu.edu.au)

[www//eng.president.kg/institutes](http://www.eng.president.kg/institutes)

[http://worldnewspapers.com](http://www.worldnewspapers.com)

[http://eng.media.kg/institutes](http://www.eng.media.kg/institutes)

[www.bbcnews.com](http://www.bbcnews.com)

[www.foxnews.com](http://www.foxnews.com)

# **APPENDIX**

# KYRGYZSTAN - KIRGHIZISTAN

## I. POPULATION

### 1. Population change - Mouvement de la population

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Estimates of mid-year population - Population évaluée au milieu de l'année (millions)	4.50	4.55	4.54	4.54	4.56	4.66	4.72	4.77	4.84	4.89
Crude birth rate - Taux brut de natalité	29.1	28.6	28.1	24.6	25.6	23.6	21.6	21.7	21.4	19.7
Crude death rate - Taux brut de mortalité	6.9	7.2	7.7	8.3	8.2	7.6	7.4	7.2	6.8	6.9
Infant mortality rate - Taux de mortalité infantile	29.7	31.5	31.9	29.1	28.1	25.9	28.6	26.2	25.6	26.0
Annual growth rate - Taux d'accroissement annuel (%)	1.6	1.1	-0.1	-0.1	1.0	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.0

### 2. Population, area and density - Population, superficie et densité

(24 March 1999 Census - Recensement du 24 mars 1999)

	Population			Area - Superficie (km <sup>2</sup> )	Density (population per km <sup>2</sup> ) - Densité (au km <sup>2</sup> )
	Both sexes - Les deux sexes	Male - Sexe masculin	Female - Sexe féminin		
	Total	4822938	2380465		
Urban - Urbaine	1678623	802256	876367	...	...
Rural - Rurale	3144315	1578209	1566106	...	...

### 3. Population by age and sex (24 March 1999 Census) - Population par âge et par sexe (Recensement du 24 mars 1999)

	Age (in years - en années)									
	All ages - Under 1 - Tous Moins 1-4 5-9 10-14 15-19 20-24 25-29 30-34 35-39 âges de 1 an									
	Both sexes - Les deux sexes	4822938	1149176	1076062	818367	696938	...	...	...	...
Male - Sexe masculin	2380465	585396	543268	412908	347613	...	...	...	...	...
Female - Sexe féminin	2442473	563780	532794	405459	349325	...	...	...	...	...
	Age (in years - en années)									
Both sexes - Les deux sexes	473915	221769	226706	124449	35556	...	...	...	...	...
Male - Sexe masculin	230630	104537	100710	46496	8907	...	...	...	...	...
Female - Sexe féminin	243285	117232	125996	77953	26649	...	...	...	...	...

### 4. Expectation of life at birth - Espérance de vie à la naissance

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Male - Sexe masculin	64.6	64.2	62.9	61.6	61.4	62.3	62.6	63.1	63.2	...
Female - Sexe féminin	72.7	72.2	71.7	70.7	70.4	71.0	71.4	71.2	71.5	...

## II. MANPOWER - MAIN-D'ŒUVRE

### 5. Employed persons by industry and unemployment - Personnes ayant un emploi par branche d'activité économique et chômage

(thousands - milliers)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Employed persons by industry (ISIC Rev.3) - Personnes ayant un emploi par branche d'activité économique (CITI-Rév.3)	1754.1	1835.9	1680.6	1645.4	1641.7	1651.5	1689.3	1704.9	1764.3	...
Agriculture, hunting and forestry - Agriculture, chasse et sylviculture	622.7	700.6	655.4	690.8	774.7	778.6	815.6	835.4	923.8	...
Fishing - Pêche	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.5	...
Mining and quarrying - Activités extractives	15.4	15.8	14.9	13.5	10.2	10.0	8.9	8.2	9.5	...
Manufacturing - Activités de fabrication	286.1	262.8	233.1	205.4	175.1	153.8	143.7	143.3	127.0	...
Electricity, gas and water supply - Production et distribution d'électricité, de gaz et d'eau	17.2	21.0	21.6	22.3	23.5	19.0	19.0	20.3	22.1	...
Construction	147.0	114.2	89.4	77.0	65.7	57.9	57.0	50.7	45.2	...
Wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles and personal and household goods - Commerce de gros et de détail, réparation de véhicules automobiles, de motocycles et de biens personnels et domestiques	82.9	106.1	106.8	120.1	111.6	159.6	174.7	180.2	183.7	...
Hotels and restaurants - Hôtels et restaurants	27.6	16.2	13.4	13.1	12.0	12.4	12.1	13.9	11.5	...
Transport, storage and communication - Transports, entreposage et communications	93.4	94.0	88.3	85.0	78.4	81.2	79.3	75.2	65.8	...
Financial intermediation - Intermédiation financière	7.2	7.9	8.5	8.0	7.0	9.1	7.2	8.1	7.1	...
Real estate, renting and business activities - Immobilier, locations et activités de services aux entreprises	51.3	49.0	43.8	43.8	43.5	38.6	41.3	38.9	28.7	...
Public administration and defence, compulsory social security - Administration publique et défense, sécurité sociale obligatoire	36.6	54.2	56.0	58.0	61.6	62.2	60.4	63.0	65.7	...

## II. MANPOWER (continued) - MAIN-D'ŒUVRE (suite)

5. Employed persons by industry and unemployment (continued) - Personnes ayant un emploi par branche d'activité économique et chômage (suite)

(thousands - milliers)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Employed persons by industry (ISIC Rev.3)(continued) - Personnes ayant un emploi par branche d'activité économique (CITI Rév.3)(suite)										
Education	212.5	216.5	198.9	169.0	155.9	138.9	139.4	139.3	140.7	...
Health and social work - Santé et action sociale	100.8	132.2	111.8	95.8	85.1	88.4	88.6	84.5	85.2	...
Other community, social and personal service activities - Autres activités de services collectifs, sociaux et personnels	53.4	45.4	41.7	43.6	39.4	41.8	42.1	43.9	43.0	...
Private households with employed persons - Ménages privés employant du personnel domestique	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4.8	...
Unemployed persons <sup>1</sup> - Chômeurs <sup>1</sup>	...	1.80	2.94	12.61	50.41	77.20	54.56	55.91	54.75	...
Unemployment rate <sup>1</sup> (percentage) - Taux de chômage <sup>1</sup> (pourcentage)	...	0.10	0.20	0.70	2.90	4.30	...	...	...	...

<sup>1</sup> Data refer to registered unemployed.<sup>1</sup> Chômage enregistré.

## III. NATIONAL ACCOUNTS - COMPTABILITE NATIONALE

6. Gross domestic product in current market prices - Produit intérieur brut aux prix courants du marché

(million soms - millions de soms)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Gross domestic product - Produit intérieur brut	92.6	741.3	5354.7	12019.2	16145.1	23399.3	30685.7	34181.4	48744.0	62203.3
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing - Agriculture, chasse, sylviculture et pêche	32.6	276.3	2094.0	4611.1	6568.1	10838.3	12638.7	12324.2	17002.7	22807.1
Mining and quarrying - Industries extractives )										
Manufacturing - Industries manufacturières )	25.4	238.3	1344.5	2461.7	1931.3	2587.9	5077.4	5559.2	10573.5	13374.8
Electricity, gas and water - Electricité, gaz et eau )										
Construction - Bâtiment et travaux publics										
Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and hotels - Commerce de gros et de détail, restaurants et hôtel	5.9	29.1	289.6	408.9	992.5	1396.6	1384.8	1537.3	1484.7	1897.8
Transport, storage and communication - Transports, entrepôts et communications	3.9	26.1	349.9	1162.4	1774.4	2426.1	3206.8	4314.3	6269.6	7971.8
Finance, insurance, real estate and business services - Banques, assurances, affaires immobilières et services fournis aux entreprises	3.5	21.2	208.4	547.4	731.7	1071.5	1290.0	1535.0	2355.9	2912.5
Community, social and personal services - Services fournis à la collectivité, services sociaux et services personnels	1.2	12.5	253.9	576.9	581.9	150.1	313.9	384.3	126.3	54.9
Plus: indirect tax net of subsidies - Plus: impôts indirects nets des subvention	15.8	103.9	565.9	1510.9	2380.9	3316.0	4418.3	5520.1	7312.6	8889.8
	4.3	33.9	248.6	740.0	1184.3	1612.8	2355.8	3007.0	3618.7	4294.6

7. Expenditure on the gross domestic product in current prices - Dépense imputée au produit intérieur brut aux prix courants

(million soms - millions de soms)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Government final consumption expenditure - Dépenses de consommation finale des administrations publiques	20.2	158.4	1086.2	2272.1	3154.4	4333.1	5307.3	6102.9	9320.1	11627.6
Private final consumption expenditure - Dépenses de consommation finale privée	59.3	524.3	4053.1	9421.8	12110.6	19211.8	21150.9	30163.1	37848.2	45510.1
Increase in stocks - Accroissement des stocks	-1.9	39.6	-89.8	-409.4	-376.8	600.0	2781.2	779.5	99.2	-1059.8
Gross fixed capital formation - Formation brute de capital fixe	16.2	108.1	714.6	1492.7	3337.9	5296.0	3871.5	4499.5	7793.8	11028.8
Exports of goods and services - Exportations de biens et de services	32.7	263.8	1795.5	4057.9	4757.5	7192.5	11748.6	12470.5	20571.4	27053.2
Less: imports of goods and services - Moins: importations de biens et de services	33.9	352.9	2204.8	4815.9	6838.5	13234.1	14173.8	19834.1	27782.4	34319.9
Gross domestic product - Produit intérieur brut	92.6	741.8	5354.7	12019.2	16145.1	23399.3	30685.7	34181.4	48744.0	62203.3

**III. NATIONAL ACCOUNTS (continued) - COMPTABILITE NATIONALE (suite)**  
**8. Gross domestic product at constant prices of 1990 - Produit intérieur brut à prix constants de 1990**

*(million soms - millions de soms)*

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Gross domestic product - Produit intérieur brut	39.4	34.0	28.7	22.9	21.7	23.2	25.5	26.0	27.0	28.4
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing - Agriculture, chasse, sylviculture et pêche	12.9	12.5	11.3	10.3	10.1	11.7	13.1	13.4	14.5	15.1
Mining and quarrying - Industries extractives )										
Manufacturing - Industries manufacturières )	11.3	8.4	6.5	4.1	3.1	3.2	4.5	4.7	4.7	4.8
Electricity, gas and water - Electricité, gaz et eau )										
Construction - Bâtiment et travaux publics	2.2	1.6	1.3	0.7	1.2	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7
Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and hotels - Commerce de gros et de détail, restaurants et hôtel	1.5	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8
Transport, storage and communication - Transports, entrepôts et communications	2.4	1.8	1.3	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.1	...
Finance, insurance, real estate and business services - Banques, assurances, affaires immo- bilières et services fournis aux entreprises	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	...
Community, social and personal services - Services fournis à la collectivité, services sociaux et services personnels	7.9	7.8	6.6	5.2	4.7	4.5	4.5	4.6	4.3	...
Plus: indirect tax net of subsidies - Plus: impôts indirects nets des subvention	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	...

**9. Expenditure on the gross domestic product at constant prices of 1990 - Dépenses imputée au produit intérieur brut à prix constants de 1990**

*(million soms - millions de soms)*

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Government final consumption expenditure - Dépenses de consommation finale des administrations publiques	9.2	7.6	6.1	4.5	3.8	4.1	4.0	4.2	4.2	4.4
Private final consumption expenditure - Dépenses de consommation finale privée	25.2	22.4	20.3	16.8	13.9	14.8	13.5	15.9	16.7	16.8
Increase in stocks - Accroissements des stocks	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gross fixed capital formation - Formation brute de capital fixe	9.3	6.1	4.7	3.4	5.4	4.7	3.3	2.8	2.5	4.9
Exports of goods and services - Exportations de biens et de services	11.0	7.9	7.4	6.0	4.9	5.3	6.4	5.8	6.6	5.2
Less: imports of goods and services - Moins: importations de biens et de services	15.3	10.0	9.9	7.8	6.3	7.2	5.8	5.9	6.3	5.3
Gross domestic product - Produit intérieur brut	39.4	34.0	28.7	22.9	21.7	23.2	25.5	26.0	27.0	28.4

**10. Gross domestic product per capita - Produit intérieur brut par habitant**

*(soms)*

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
GDP per capita - PIB par habitant										
Current prices - Prix courants	20.7	164.1	1184.7	2659.1	3540.6	5053.8	6528.9	7165.9	10071.1	12515.7
Constant prices - Prix constants	8.8	7.5	6.3	5.1	4.8	5.0	5.4	5.4	5.6	5.7

**IV. AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY AND FISHING - AGRICULTURE, SYLVICULTURE ET PECHE**

**11. Land use - Utilisation des terres**

*(thousand hectares - milliers d'hectares)*

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Agricultural area - Superficie agricole										
Arable land and land under permanent crops - Terres arables et cultures permanentes	...	1320	1420	1420	1326	1425	1426	1428	1435	...
Irrigated land - Terres irriguées	...	1007	1050	1077	1077	1074	1072	1072	1072	...
Non arable and non permanent crops - Terres non arables et cultures non permanentes	...	17860	17760	17760	17854	17755	17754	17752	17745	...
Permanent meadows and pastures - Prairies et pâturages permanents	...	9000	8700	9000	9113	9216	9235	9262	9291	...

KYRGYZSTAN

IV. AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY AND FISHING (continued) - AGRICULTURE, SYLVICULTURE ET PÊCHE (suite)

12. Index numbers of agricultural production - Indices de la production agricole

(1989-1991 = 100)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
All commodities - Ensemble des produits	...	100.6	97.0	88.0	81.2	89.8	97.9	100.8	106.3	107.7
Food - Denrées alimentaires	...	102.0	97.7	91.8	87.9	99.8	109.0	111.5	117.2	117.4
Cereals - Céréales	...	102.9	106.3	88.4	87.3	95.4	121.7	111.7	111.5	106.3
Per capita food production - Production alimentaire par habitant	...	99.8	94.9	88.6	84.4	95.3	103.5	105.3	110.1	109.6
Per capita cereal production - Production céréalière par habitant	...	100.6	103.2	66.0	64.6	91.0	107.1	105.6	104.8	99.3

13. Area under principal crops - Cultures principales: superficie cultivée

(thousand hectares - milliers d'hectares)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Wheat - Blé	194	248	338	333	364	452	537	489	457	444
Maize - Maïs	62	55	41	37	35	46	37	46	58	59
Barley - Orge	290	263	236	207	151	99	81	74	91	70
Potatoes - Pommes de terre	23	27	27	34	44	49	56	59	64	65
Sugarbeets - Betteraves à sucre	...	6	12	10	14	14	16	21	26	24
Seed cotton - Coton à graines	26	22	20	27	33	32	25	32	35	34
Grapes - Raisins	9	6	6	7	7	6	7	7	8	7
Tobacco - Tabac	20	21	22	19	9	9	9	13	12	14

14. Production of principal crops - Cultures principales: production

(thousand metric tons - milliers de tonnes)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Wheat - Blé	434	679	885	608	701	1040	1274	1204	1109	1039
Maize - Maïs	365	281	184	129	150	182	171	228	308	338
Barley - Orge	556	621	510	310	173	166	152	162	180	150
Potatoes - Pommes de terre	326	362	308	311	432	562	678	773	957	1033
Sugarbeets - Betteraves à sucre	...	135	220	114	107	190	205	429	536	450
Seed cotton - Coton à graines	63	52	49	54	75	73	62	78	87	88
Grapes - Raisins	29	31	9	18	20	14	23	17	18	26
Tobacco - Tabac	42	43	49	36	18	18	26	28	30	35

15. Livestock and products - Elevage et produits de l'élevage

(end of period - fin de période)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Livestock (thousand head) - Elevage (milliers de têtes)										
Horses - Chevaux	321	313	322	299	308	314	320	325	328	346
Cattle - Bovins	1190	1122	1062	920	869	848	885	911	932	985
Pigs - Porcins	358	247	169	118	114	88	93	105	105	117
Sheep - Ovins	9225	8479	7103	4924	4074	3545	3220	3309	3264	4160
Goats - Caprins	300	262	219	152	200	171	185	227	234	236
Chickens - Poules	13071	10020	6500	2000	1900	2122	2330	2728	2980	3120
Livestock products (thousand metric tons) - Produits de l'élevage (milliers de tonnes)										
Milk - Lait	1131	961	946	872	864	885	894	959	1042	1090
Eggs - Oeufs	34	22	11	8	9	9	10	11	12	11
Wool, greasy - Laine saint	36	34	31	21	15	12	11	12	12	12

16. Farm machinery in use - Machines agricoles en service

(number - nombre)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Agricultural tractors - Tracteurs agricoles	...	25000	26000	27176	24802	19670	22000	25819	25930	...
Harvester-threshers - Moissonneuses-batteuses	...	3700	3700	3693	3529	2866	2800	2800	2800	...

17. Fertilizers - Engrais

(thousand metric tons - milliers de tonnes)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Consumption of fertilizers - Consommation d'engrais										
Nitrogenous fertilizers - Engrais azotés	...	25.3	22.0	22.0	22.0	25.0	25.0	27.2	28.3	...
Phosphate fertilizers - Engrais phosphatés	...	1.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.2	...
Potash fertilizers - Engrais potassiques	...	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	0.2	-	...

18. Fish, crustaceans, molluscs etc.: nominal catch - Poissons, crustacés, mollusques, etc.: captures nominales

(metric tons - tonnes)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Inland waters - Eaux continentales	225	201	127	131	185	160	120	80	48	...

## V. INDUSTRY - INDUSTRIE

## 19. Index numbers of industrial production - Indices de la production industrielle

(1995 = 100)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
General - Général	...	...	...	...	100.0	108.8	163.6	178.0	170.5	185.7

## 20. Industrial production - Production industrielle

(thousand metric tons - milliers de tonnes)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
<b>Mining and quarrying - Industries extractives</b>										
Hard coal - Houille	3473	1040	736	746	463	137	522	432	417	420
Lignite - Lignite	...	1111	985	550	280	273	356	323	320	...
Crude petroleum - Pétrole brut	138	113	88	88	89	84	85	77	77	...
Natural gas (million cubic metres) - Gaz naturel (millions de mètres cubes)	83	72	42	39	36	26	24	18	25	...
<b>Manufacturing - Industries manufacturières</b>										
Meat, fresh (in terms of carcass weight) - Viande fraîche (poids carcasse)										
Beef and veal - Boeuf et veau	87	88	88	82	85	86	95	94	...	...
Mutton and lamb - Mouton et agneau	64	70	82	76	54	54	44	44	...	...
Pork - Porc	33	36	25	18	28	29	26	31	...	...
Butter - Beurre	10.1	8.6	7.0	3.9	2.0	1.1	1.5	1.5	...	...
Cheese - Fromage	...	12.7	10.8	7.0	3.8	2.1	2.1	2.0	...	...
Wheat flour - Farine de blé	475	321	426	320	267	252	292	298	...	...
Sugar, refined - Sucre raffiné	371	114	116	82	70	167	90	88	70	...
Beer (thousand hectolitres) - Bière (millions d'hectolitres)	45	31	21	12	12	14	14	13	12	...
Cigarettes (millions)	4015	3120	3428	1943	1332	975	716	862	2103	...
Cotton yarn - Filés de coton	24.9	25.0	13.8	8.5	2.7	4.2	3.1	2.4	2.1	...
Woven cotton fabrics (million square metres) - Tissus de coton (millions de mètres carrés)	119	119	65	49	21	25	20	13	12	...
Cement - Ciment	1320	1096	672	426	310	546	658	709	386	...
Television receivers (thousands) - Récepteurs de télévision (milliers)	8	2	2	43	7	-	-	4	1	...

## VI. ENERGY - ENERGIE

## 21. Production, trade and consumption of electricity - Production, commerce et consommation d'électricité

(billion kilowatt hours - milliards de kilowatt-heures)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
<b>Production</b>	14.17	11.98	11.27	12.93	12.35	13.76	12.64	11.62	13.12	14.89
Hydro - Hydraulique	10.07	9.29	9.08	11.72	11.11	12.25	10.93	9.94	12.40	...
Thermal - Thermique	4.10	2.69	2.19	1.21	1.23	1.50	1.70	1.68	10.20	...
Geothermal - Géothermique	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Imports - Importations	4.14	5.32	5.62	5.72	0.25	0.82	0.72	0.39	0.18	0.32
Exports - Exportations	8.43	7.41	6.64	8.23	1.62	2.88	2.42	1.00	2.01	3.15
Consumption - Consommation	8.81	8.62	8.47	8.19	10.98	11.68	10.85	10.89	11.26	12.05

## VII. TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS - TRANSPORTS ET COMMUNICATIONS

## 22. Communications

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Telephone service (thousands) - Téléphone (milliers)										
Number of telephones in use - Nombre d'appareils en service	332	339	367	339	357	342	351	355	...	...

## VIII. EXTERNAL TRADE - COMMERCE EXTERIEUR

## 23. Trade balance - Balance commerciale

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Value in million US dollars <sup>1</sup> - En millions de dollars EU <sup>1</sup>										
Imports <sup>2</sup> - Importations <sup>2</sup>	...	70	112	404	522	838	709	842	600	554
Exports - Exportations	...	78	112	340	409	505	604	514	454	505
Balance - Solde	...	8	0	-64	-113	-333	-105	-328	-146	-50

1 Beginning January 1994, including inter-trade among the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS).

2 Including shuttle trade. Shuttle import is the legal importation into the country of goods by local persons with the purpose of resale in home market.

1 A partir de janvier 1994, y compris le commerce avec les pays de Communauté des états indépendants (CEI).

2 Y compris le commerce de navette. L'importation de navette est celle pratiquée légalement par des gens du pays qui importent des marchandises pour les revendre sur le marché local.



## VIII. EXTERNAL TRADE (continued) - COMMERCE EXTERIEUR (suite)

## 24. Direction of trade - Courants d'échanges

(million US dollars - millions de dollars EU)

Imports from or exports to - Importations en provenance de ou exportations à destination de	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
	Imports - Importations									
All countries or areas - Tous pays ou zones	...	418	290	246	392	795	709	841	610	...
ESCAP region - Région de la CESAP	...	333	198	171	361	555	521	565	365	...
ESCAP developing - Secteur en développement de la CESAP	...	161	198	168	254	367	326	355	244	...
ASEAN	...	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	1	...
Indonesia - Indonésie	...	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	...
Singapore - Singapour	...	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	...
SAARC	...	-	1	1	1	7	10	21	8	...
Bangladesh	...	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	...
India - Inde	...	-	1	1	-	3	5	13	5	...
Pakistan	...	-	-	-	1	4	5	2	-	...
Sri Lanka	...	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	2	...
Central Asian republics - Républiques d'Asie centrale	...	141	167	134	150	295	229	218	139	...
Armenia - Arménie	...	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	...
Azerbaijan- Azerbaïdjan	...	2	2	1	2	1	2	7	3	...
Georgia - Géorgie	...	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	...
Kazakhstan	...	81	97	58	67	140	70	75	73	...
Tajikistan - Tadjikistan	...	2	2	1	8	6	10	6	4	...
Turkmenistan - Turkménistan	...	21	7	10	2	14	15	8	8	...
Uzbekistan - Ouzbékistan	...	32	58	64	70	132	129	122	51	...
Other Asia - Autres pays d'Asie	...	20	28	32	103	65	87	115	96	...
Afghanistan	...	-	-	-	68	-	-	-	-	...
China - Chine	...	16	19	11	27	8	32	44	37	...
DPR of Korea - Corée RPD de	...	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	...
Iran (Islamic Rep. of) - Iran (République Islamique d')	...	-	-	1	4	3	6	8	9	...
Rep. of Korea - République de Corée	...	1	-	4	-	5	5	26	27	...
Turkey - Turquie	...	3	9	15	4	48	44	37	23	...
ESCAP developed - Secteur développé de la CESAP	...	-	-	3	2	13	4	6	12	...
Australia - Australie	...	-	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	...
Japan - Japon	...	-	-	3	2	13	3	4	12	...
Russian Federation - Fédération de Russie	...	172	-	-	105	175	191	204	109	...
Asia n.e.s. - Asie n.d.a.	...	-	-	-	-	2	17	19	11	...
North and Central America - Amérique du Nord et centrale	...	26	55	48	9	101	45	67	83	...
United States - Etats-Unis	...	23	55	35	3	36	40	41	54	...
South America - Amérique du Nord	...	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	1	...
Africa - Afrique	...	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	1	...
Western Europe - Europe occidentale	...	14	18	22	6	109	97	138	112	...
Eastern Europe and Former USSR - Europe orientale et Ancienne URSS	...	43	21	9	14	32	30	36	24	...
Former USSR <sup>1</sup> - Ancienne URSS <sup>1</sup>	...	35	13	7	14	28	20	22	13	...
	Exports - Exportations									
All countries or areas - Tous pays ou zones	...	315	247	281	483	506	609	513	454	...
ESCAP region - Région de la CESAP	...	224	182	217	370	435	362	254	226	...
ESCAP developing - Secteur en développement de la CESAP	...	127	182	217	256	300	262	169	154	...
ASEAN	...	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	...
Thailand - Thaïlande	...	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	...
SAARC	...	1	1	1	-	1	1	2	6	...
India - Inde	...	1	1	1	-	1	-	1	6	...
Pakistan	...	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	...
Central Asian republics - Républiques d'Asie centrale	...	92	115	151	230	245	208	134	107	...
Armenia - Arménie	...	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	...
Azerbaijan- Azerbaïdjan	...	2	4	2	3	3	3	-	2	...
Georgia - Géorgie	...	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	...
Kazakhstan	...	54	72	95	113	112	87	86	45	...
Tajikistan - Tadjikistan	...	3	6	3	5	12	13	8	10	...
Turkmenistan - Turkménistan	...	6	9	7	19	3	3	1	3	...
Uzbekistan - Ouzbékistan	...	25	24	44	89	115	102	39	47	...

## VIII. EXTERNAL TRADE (continued) - COMMERCE EXTERIEUR (suite)

## 24. Direction of trade (continued) - Courants d'échanges (suite)

(million US dollars - millions de dollars EU)

Imports from or exports to - Importations en provenance de ou exportations à destination de	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Exports (continued) - Exportations (suite)										
ESCAP developing (continued) - Secteur en développement de la CESAP (suite)										
Other Asia - Autres pays d'Asie	...	33	66	65	26	54	52	33	41	...
Afghanistan	...	-	3	2	-	6	4	3	2	...
China - Chine	...	28	59	56	3	36	32	16	25	...
DPR of Korea - Corée RPD de	...	3	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	...
Iran (Islamic Rep. of) - Iran (République Islamique d')	...	-	-	-	4	6	6	5	8	...
Mongolia - Mongolie	...	-	-	1	-	1	2	2	1	...
Rep. of Korea - République de Corée	...	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	...
Turkey - Turquie	...	2	3	4	19	5	8	7	5	...
ESCAP developed - Secteur développé de la CESAP										
CESAP	...	3	-	-	-	1	1	1	1	...
Japan - Japon	...	3	-	-	-	1	1	1	1	...
Russian Federation - Fédération de Russie	...	94	-	-	114	134	99	84	71	...
Asia n.e.s. - Asie n.d.a.	...	-	1	3	-	2	1	2	2	...
North and Central America - Amérique du Nord et centrale										
United States - Etats-Unis	...	2	-	5	2	17	18	8	11	...
Africa - Afrique	...	-	-	1	2	17	18	8	11	...
Western Europe - Europe occidentale	...	36	41	41	57	20	190	214	190	...
Eastern Europe and Former USSR - Europe orientale et Ancienne URSS										
Former USSR <sup>1</sup> - Ancienne URSS <sup>1</sup>	...	51	23	17	55	28	37	39	25	...
	...	50	22	15	29	16	17	22	16	...

<sup>1</sup> Figures for 1992 onwards relate only to Eastern European countries which were part of the former USSR. Data for the Russian Federation and the Central Asian republics are shown separately above.

<sup>1</sup> Les chiffres à partir de 1992 portent exclusivement sur les pays de l'Europe de l'Est qui faisaient partie de l'ancienne URSS. Les données relatives à la Fédération de Russie et aux républiques d'Asie centrale figurent séparément ci-dessus.

25. Imports and exports of selected commodities<sup>1</sup> - Importations et exportations de quelques produits<sup>1</sup>(million soms - millions de soms)<sup>2</sup>

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Imports <sup>3</sup> - Importations <sup>3</sup>										
Animals and products - Animaux et produits animaux	44	531	12	18	22	54	56	105	32	...
Machine building - Construction de machines	88	212	64	376	620	2112	1664	3473	4035	...
Light industry products - Produits de l'industrie légère	275	670	60	70	78	76	635	1111	321	...
Food - Produits alimentaires	644	1200	171	294	675	1311	717	1759	958	...
Agricultural products (unprocessed) - Produits agricoles (non transformés)	242	477	109	295	146	180	377	132	165	...
Exports - Exportations										
Non-ferrous metals - Métaux non ferreux	8	3454	182	513	549	429	3597	4481	772	...
Light industry products - Produits de l'industrie légère	3	1414	33	527	587	476	657	570	55	...
Food - Produits alimentaires	-	146	12	35	53	129	131	192	113	...
Agricultural products (unprocessed) - Produits agricoles (non transformés)	3	33	26	73	51	204	202	205	102	...

<sup>1</sup> Excluding inter-trade among the Commonwealth of Independent State(CIS).

<sup>2</sup> Prior to 1993, billion roubles.

<sup>3</sup> Excluding shuttle trade.

<sup>1</sup> Non compris le commerce avec les pays de Communauté des états indépendants (CEI).

<sup>2</sup> Avant 1993, en milliards de roubles.

<sup>3</sup> Non compris le commerce de navette.

## IX. WAGES AND PRICES - SALAIRES ET PRIX

26. Wages<sup>1</sup> - Salaires<sup>1</sup>

(soms)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Manufacturing - Industries manufacturières	2.07	15.10	118.14	280.39	377.07	652.10	844.70	988.76	1280.81 <sup>1</sup>	...

<sup>1</sup> Monthly wages.

<sup>1</sup> Salaires mensuels.

## 27. Index numbers of consumer prices - Indices des prix à la consommation

(1992 = 100)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
All items - Tous articles	...	100.0	1186.3	3329.4	4776.2	6302.7	7779.9	8593.0	11678.4	...
Food - Alimentation	...	100.0	1066.0	2785.2	3898.2	5504.1	6873.9	7592.9	10704.8	...
Fuel and light <sup>1</sup> - Combustible et éclairage <sup>1</sup>	...	100.0	1099.6	2006.4	2246.1	2838.4	3482.6	4198.4	6057.5	...
Clothing - Habillement	...	100.0	1109.9	3019.2	3608.7	3857.8	4319.7	4409.3	4751.3	...
Rent - Loyer	...	100.0	2915.1	39915	228274	346761	438913	484572	927019	...

<sup>1</sup> Including water.

<sup>1</sup> Y compris l'eau.

## X. FINANCE - FINANCES

## 28. Central government revenue and expenditure - Recettes et dépenses de l'administration centrale

	(million soms - millions de soms) <sup>1</sup>									
	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
<b>Revenue - Recettes</b>										
Current revenue - Recettes courantes	3.5	25.5	829.2	1871.6	2690.7	3471.8	4707.6	6001.1	7725.3	9259.7
Taxes - Recettes fiscales	2.7	22.4	795.8	1763.9	2432.2	2947.0	3839.2	4865.0	5954.0	7675.8
Non-taxes - Recettes non fiscales	0.8	3.1	33.5	107.7	258.5	524.8	868.4	1136.1	1771.3	1584.0
Capital revenue <sup>2</sup> - Recettes en capital <sup>2</sup>	1.9	-	18.7	19.6	55.2	275.7	132.7	89.5	148.5	23.5
<b>Expenditure - Dépenses</b>										
Total	4.9	40.3	1255.7	2812.8	4610.5	5202.4	6695.7	7298.3	9042.1	11284.5
General public services and public order - Services publics généraux ordre et sécurité publics	0.2	2.1	80.8	310.6	647.7	579.5	850.4	1014.8	1267.1	1999.6
Defense - Défense	-	1.1	38.8	105.4	250.6	314.1	481.8	491.1	807.8	1131.9
Education - Enseignement	1.2	8.0	227.2	730.8	1064.9	1222.8	1514.0	1681.6	1892.3	2289.9
Health - Santé	0.6	4.3	137.4	418.3	627.4	732.9	977.1	962.1	1121.7	1295.7
Social security and welfare - Sécurité sociale et prestations sociales	1.0	5.1	118.3	370.0	915.4	884.9	1055.3	981.0	1198.0	1114.0
Housing and community amenities - Logement et services collectifs	0.2	2.0	68.9	131.1	221.1	297.8	279.6	373.7	468.7	666.5
Economic affairs and services - Affaires et services économiques	1.4	9.1	249.8	256.2	365.8	424.2	685.7	846.3	1097.5	1098.0
Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting - Agriculture, sylviculture, pêche et chasse	0.5	4.9	117.7	86.3	158.5	181.1	238.3	350.4	360.7	476.2
Mining and mineral resources manufacturing and construction - Industries extractives et ressources minérales, industries de transformation, bâtiment et travaux publics	-	0.2	7.2	32.3	66.4	44.0	67.4	68.3	98.1	85.3
Fuel and energy - Combustibles et énergie	-	0.5	25.7	28.9	6.0	0.1	7.7	146.2	76.6	23.0
Transport and communications - Transports et communications	0.1	0.9	31.3	65.6	98.0	98.8	169.8	228.0	523.6	465.0
Other economic affairs and services - Autres affaires et services économiques	0.8	2.6	67.9	43.1	36.9	100.3	202.5	53.4	38.5	48.4
Other expenditures - Autres dépenses	0.3	8.6	304.6	490.4	517.6	746.2	851.7	947.7	1189.1	1688.8

1 Prior to 1993, billion roubles.

1 Avant 1993, en milliards de roubles.

2 Including privatization proceeds, recurring grants and union grants.

2 Comprend les produits de la privatisation, les subventions renouvelables et les subventions de l'union.

## 29. Official development assistance - Aide publique au développement

	(million US dollars - millions de dollars EU)									
	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Bilateral - Bilatérale	...	3.4	69.4	87.0	96.8	99.7	52.0	88.9	132.0	103.2
Multilateral - Multilatérale	...	0.1	24.2	85.0	186.1	130.9	187.6	136.0	151.1	111.9
Total	...	3.5	93.6	172.0	282.9	230.6	239.6	224.9	283.1	215.1
Grants - Dons	...	2.0	70.8	82.5	80.7	87.6	71.3	90.7	91.9	81.1
Loans - Prêts	...	1.5	22.8	89.5	202.2	143.0	168.3	134.2	191.2	134.0
Per capita assistance (US dollars) - Aide par habitant (dollars EU)	...	0.8	20.6	37.9	62.0	49.5	50.7	47.1	58.5	44.0

## XI. SOCIAL STATISTICS - STATISTIQUES SOCIALES

## 30. Education - Enseignement

(year beginning September of year stated - l'année commence en septembre)

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
<b>Number of schools - Nombre d'établissements</b>										
Pre-school - Préscolaire	1604	1380	998	639	456	449	423	418	420	
1st level - Premier degré	1796	1825	1856	1864	1886	1915	1940	1967	1985	
<b>Teaching staff (thousands) - Personnel enseignant (milliers)</b>										
Pre-school - Préscolaire	13.0	10.5	7.3	4.2	3.0	2.9	2.7	2.6	2.5	
1st level - Premier degré	17.1	17.3	17.8	18.1	19.1	19.1	19.2	19.1	19.2	
2nd level - Second degré (total)	...	44.4	43.1	42.2	39.9	38.7	39.0	40.4	41.7	
General - Général	36.0	36.7	35.6	35.2	33.9	33.3	33.8	35.3	36.6	
Vocational - Technique	...	7.7	7.5	7.0	6.0	5.4	5.2	5.1	5.1	
3rd level - Supérieur	5.1	5.1	4.7	4.9	4.9	4.5	6.1	7.7	8.4	
<b>Students enrolled (thousands) - Elèves inscrits (milliers)</b>										
Pre-school - Préscolaire	...	143.2	92.2	58.9	46.1	47.3	46.1	46.6	45.0	
1st level - Premier degré	359.7	367.0	378.9	386.2	471.9	475.8	472.1	470.7	466.2	
2nd level - Second degré (total)	...	641.5	612.3	602.0	534.8	564.9	602.6	643.9	686.1	
General - Général	583.2	572.5	555.4	558.6	498.8	530.4	567.8	607.9	633.9	
Vocational - Technique	...	69.0	56.9	43.4	36.0	34.5	34.8	36.0	52.2	
3rd level - Supérieur	57.8	53.6	52.2	55.2	64.6	77.8	97.7	129.7	159.2	

## XI. SOCIAL STATISTICS (continued) - STATISTIQUES SOCIALES (suite)

31. Medical facilities - Santé publique										
	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Number of medical personnel (thousands) - Personnel sanitaire (milliers)										
Physicians - Médecins	16.4	15.6	14.9	14.7	15.0	15.7	15.1	15.1	14.7	14.3
Dentists - Dentistes	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	...
Pharmacists - Pharmaciens	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.1	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.3	0.3	...
Nurses - Infirmiers	47.3	44.1	42.9	41.9	42.4	41.4	39.2	38.6	38.8	...
Midwives - Sages-femmes	3.8	3.6	3.6	3.4	3.6	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.3	...
Population per physician - Nombre d'habitants par médecin										
	274	291	305	309	304	297	313	316	329	343
Number of hospitals and beds - Nombre d'hôpitaux et de lits d'hôpital										
Hospitals - Hôpitaux	331	341	347	353	349	349	363	365	359	...
Beds (thousands) - Lits (milliers)	54.1	54.2	49.2	44.1	40.6	40.4	40.7	39.8	38.5	...
Population per bed - Nombre d'habitants par lit										
	83	84	92	103	112	115	116	120	126	...

32. Deaths by major causes - Décès selon les causes principales  
(number - nombre)

Abbreviated List number, 1975 revision - Numéro dans la Liste abrégée, révision de 1975										
	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Total	30859	32163	34513	37109	36915	34562	...	...	...	...
AM 4 Tuberculosis - Tuberculose	343	376	425	546	555	576	...	...	...	...
AM 13 Malignant neoplasm of stomach - Tumeur maligne de l'estomac	607	701	582	618	597	586	...	...	...	...
AM 16 Malignant neoplasm of trachea, bronchus and lung - Tumeur maligne de la trachée, des bronches et du poumon	586	606	462	447	437	413	...	...	...	...
AM 17 Malignant neoplasm of female breast - Tumeur maligne du sein	170	202	163	204	190	179	...	...	...	...
AM 28 Hypertensive disease - Maladies hypertensives	328	313	300	364	315	263	...	...	...	...
AM 29 Acute myocardial infarction - Infarctus aigu du myocarde	954	1026	1066	1288	1159	1228	...	...	...	...
AM 30 Other ischaemic heart diseases - Autres myocardopathies ischémiques	4641	4582	5122	5772	5739	5804	...	...	...	...
AM 31 Cerebrovascular disease - Maladies cérébro-vasculaires	4947	5095	5586	5919	5930	5459	...	...	...	...
AM 34 Pneumonia - Pneumonie	1565	1883	2227	1924	1821	1485	...	...	...	...
AM 35 Influenza - Grippe	50	78	81	52	39	50	...	...	...	...
AM 36 Bronchitis, emphysema and asthma - Bronchite, emphysème et asthme	1177	1539	1768	2085	1954	1902	...	...	...	...
AM 40 Nephritis, nephrotic syndrome and nephrosis - Néphrite, syndrome néphrotique et néphrose	243	285	360	430	412	449	...	...	...	...
AM 45 Congenital anomalies - Anomalies congénitales	329	336	309	250	266	314	...	...	...	...
AM 50 Motor vehicle traffic accidents - Accident de véhicule à moteur sur la voie publique	1077	796	643	485	496	498	...	...	...	...
AM 53 Suicide and self-inflicted injury - Suicide	544	493	565	583	607	484	...	...	...	...
Others - Autres	13298	13852	14854	16142	16398	14872	...	...	...	...

## 33. Damages from accidents - Dommages causés par les accidents

Traffic accidents - Accidents de la circulation										
	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Road accidents - Circulation routière										
Number of cases - Nombre d'accidents	...	...	3468	3012	3045	3263	2993	2864	2666	...
Casualties (persons) - Victimes: nombre										
total	...	...	4731	4045	4227	4685	4415	4038	3889	...
Persons killed - Morts	...	...	850	622	627	663	685	585	585	...
Persons injured - Blessés	...	...	3881	3423	3600	4022	3730	3453	3304	...

## 34. Poverty Indicators - Pauvreté et indice du développement humain

National poverty line <sup>1</sup> - Seuil de pauvreté national <sup>1</sup>										
	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Population below the poverty line - Population en dessous du seuil de pauvreté national (%)										
Urban - Urbain	...	...	28.7	...	...	...	51.0	...	...	...
Rural - Rureau	...	...	48.1	...	...	...	64.5	...	...	...
Human development index <sup>2</sup> (HDI) - Indices du développement humain <sup>2</sup> (IDH)										
	...	...	0.663	0.635	...	0.663	...	0.706	0.707	...

<sup>1</sup> Based on World Bank's country poverty assessments.

<sup>2</sup> A composite index showing the average of three basic dimensions indexes of human development - life expectancy, education and per capita GDP. Performance in each dimension is expressed by a value between 0 and 1 by applying the following general formula:

$$\text{Dimension index} = \frac{[\text{Actual value} - \text{Minimum value}]}{[\text{Maximum value} - \text{Minimum value}]}$$

<sup>1</sup> À partir des évaluations de la pauvreté par pays faites par la Banque mondiale.

<sup>2</sup> Indice composite qui exprime la moyenne de trois indices des dimensions de base du développement humain: espérance de vie, niveau d'instruction et PIB par habitant. Le résultat pour chaque dimension est exprimé par une valeur située entre 0 et 1, obtenue par la formule générale suivante:

$$\text{Indice de dimension} = \frac{[\text{Valeur effective} - \text{Valeur minimum}]}{[\text{Valeur maximum} - \text{Valeur minimum}]}$$

**Gross Official Reserves (in Million US Dollars)**

Countries	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Kazakhstan	83	711	1216	1660	2244.0	2221.0	1965	2002.0	2096
Kyrgyzstan	24	63	98	124.2	123	194	188	254	262
Tajikistan	0	2	1	4.1	14	30.0	65.0	58	87
Turkmenistan	0	818	927	1170	1172	1285	1379	1513	-
Uzbekistan	530	1021	1330	1867	1901	1167	1168	1242	1100

**In Months of Imports**

Countries	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Kazakhstan	0.2	1.65	3.4	3.7	4.06	3.71	3.5	4.25	3.67
Kyrgyzstan	0.8	1.5	2.6	2.8	1.88	3.6	2.9	5.5	6.26
Tajikistan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.6	1.3	1.0	1.24
Turkmenistan	0.0	6.5	6.6	8.5	9.2	15.3	14.6	-	-
Uzbekistan	3.8	3.8	5.9	6.9	5.4	3.7	5.0	5.7	5.4

Source: Calculated from *Key Economic Indicators 2001*, Asian Development Bank.

**Total Employment Indices (1989=100)**

Countries	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Kazakhstan	101.3	100.1	98.3	89.9	85.4	85.0	84.6	84.0	79.5	79.2	79.9
Kyrgyzstan	100.5	99.6	105.6	96.6	94.6	94.4	95.0	97.1	98.0	101.5	101.6
Tajikistan	103.2	104.9	101.6	98.7	98.7	98.6	92.1	95.3	95.6	91.9	85.9
Turkmenistan	103.4	107	110.5	114	118.5	122.5	124.7	127.2	128.8	129.7	-
Uzbekistan	104.2	109.2	108.7	108.5	109.9	110.8	112.3	113.8	115.4	116.5	117.8

Source: *Economic Survey of Europe, 2001*, no.1, Appendix Table B, 5, pp.257.

**Employment in Industry Indices (1989 =100)**

Countries	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Kazakhstan	98.5	99.9	96.2	83.6	76.9	69.6	66.9	59.0	57.8	57.9	-
Kyrgyzstan	99.9	92.7	89.5	80.5	72.0	61.2	54.6	51.2	50.1	47.4	46.4
Tajikistan	102.5	100.8	98.2	86.1	81.9	71.9	71.1	62.5	60.1	51.4	47.2
Turkmenistan	104.2	100.8	101.0	110.7	110.5	115.4	119.9	132.9	150.2	152.9	-
Uzbekistan	101.5	102.5	101.5	103.2	90.1	92.3	93.5	93.7	94.1	94.9	-

Source: *Economic Survey of Europe 2001*, No.1, Table 3.6, pp.258.

**Foreign Direct Investment (US Million Dollars)**

Countries	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Kazakhstan	100	473	635	964	1.137	1.320	1.143	1468	1244
Kyrgyzstan	0	10	45	96	46	83	86	38	-6.9
Tajikistan	0	9	12	20	25	30	24	4	22
Turkmenistan	11	79	103	233	129	108	62*	-	-
Uzbekistan	9	48	73	100	84	167	226	1242	1100

(In % of GDP)

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Kazakhstan	3.5	10.1	6.0	5.8	5.5	5.9	5.1	8.7	6.8
Kyrgyzstan	0.0	0.8	4.1	6.4	2.5	4.7	5.2	3.0	-0.5
Tajikistan	0.0	1.3	1.4	3.3	2.4	2.8	1.8	1.9	2.2
Turkmenistan	0.6	1.6	6.4	8.8	6.1	4.7	2.4*	-	-
Uzbekistan	0.3	0.9	1.1	1.0	0.6	1.2	1.5	-	-

Source: *IMF Occasional Paper No. 184, 2000, p.55.*

N.B. Figures for 1998, 1999, 2000 are calculated by from *Key Economic Indicators – 2001, Asian Development Bank.*

\* denotes provisional figures.

### Total External Debt (Billion US Dollars)

Countries	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Kazakhstan	1.8	2.8	3.4	3.9	4.0	6.0	5.7
Kyrgyzstan	0.3	0.4	0.7	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.6
Tajikistan	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	.8
Turkmenistan	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.7	1.7	2.2	2.0
Uzbekistan	1.0	1.1	1.8	2.3	2.7	3.2	4.5

(In per cent of GDP)

Countries	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Kazakhstan	11.7	26.3	20.7	18.7	20.4	27.5	34.1
Kyrgyzstan	29.7	37.0	48.8	60.5	76.6	93.74	135.94
Tajikistan	75.3	91.7	133.6	83.9	95.6	80.7	81.9
Turkmenistan	4.4	9.0	29.7	31.7	68.0	77.94	52.23
Uzbekistan	18.9	19.5	17.8	17.1	18.0	21.7	26.9

Source: *IMF Occasional Paper No. 175*, 1998, Appendix Table 11, p.25.

N.B. Figures for 98,99,200 have been calculated from key Indications –2001 Asian Development Bank.



**Total External Debt (Billion US Dollars)**

Countries	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Kazakhstan	1.8	2.8	3.4	3.9	4.0	6.0	5.7
Kyrgyzstan	0.3	0.4	0.7	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.6
Tajikistan	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	.8
Turkmenistan	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.7	1.7	2.2	2.0
Uzbekistan	1.0	1.1	1.8	2.3	2.7	3.2	4.5

(In per cent of GDP)

Countries	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Kazakhstan	11.7	26.3	20.7	18.7	20.4	27.5	34.1
Kyrgyzstan	29.7	37.0	48.8	60.5	76.6	93.74	135.94
Tajikistan	75.3	91.7	133.6	83.9	95.6	80.7	81.9
Turkmenistan	4.4	9.0	29.7	31.7	68.0	77.94	52.23
Uzbekistan	18.9	19.5	17.8	17.1	18.0	21.7	26.9

Source: *IMF Occasional Paper No. 175, 1998, Appendix Table 11, p.25.*

N.B. Figures for 98,99,200 have been calculated from key Indications -2001 Asian Development Bank.

### Real GDP Growth Rate

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Kazakhstan	-11.0	-5.3	-9.2	-12.6	-8.2	0.5	1.7	-1.9	2.8	9.4
Kyrgyzstan	-7.8	-13.9	-15.5	-19.8	-5.8	7.1	10.0	2.1	3.7	5.0
Tajikistan	-7.1	-28.9	-11.1	-21.4	-12.5	-4.4	1.7	5.3	3.7	8.3
Turkmenistan	-4.7	-5.3	-10.0	-17.3	-7.2	-6.7	-11.3	5.0	16.0	17.6
Uzbekistan	0.5	-11.1	-2.3	-4.2	-0.9	1.6	2.5	4.3	4.3	4.0

Source: *World Economic Outlook*, Oct. 2001, Table 7.

**Table 3.16: Real gross industrial output (Indices 1989=100)**

Countries	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Kazakhstan	99.2	98.3	84.7	72.2	51.9	47.7	47.8	49.7	48.5	49.8	57.1
Kyrgyzstan	99.4	99.1	73.5	56.3	35.5	26.7	27.8	38.8	40.9	39.1	41.4
Tajikistan	101.2	97.6	73.9	68.1	50.8	43.9	33.4	32.7	35.4	37.4	41.2
Turkmenistan	103.2	108.2	92	95.7	72.1	67.5	79.5	53.8	54.0	62.0	79.8
Uzbekistan	101.8	103.3	96.4	99.9	101.5	101.6	104.2	108.5	112.4	119.2	126.9

Source: *Economic Survey of Europe, 2001*, no.1, Appendix Table 6.5, pp.256.

### Agriculture Output (Indices 1989-91=100)

Countries	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Kazakhstan	108.7	96.4	80.7	63.5	61.2	60.4	49.5	67.4	59.9
Kyrgyzstan	100.6	97	88	81.2	89.8	97.9	100.8	106.3	107.7
Tajikistan	75.8	71.5	69.3	60.4	51.8	50.2	48.4	47.4	54.3
Turkmenistan	88.9	99.4	105.8	103.9	68.1	78.2	85.1	99.4	94.2
Uzbekistan	97.9	100.2	100.2	101.2	91.7	95.2	98.6	97.8	96.3

Source: *Key Economic Indicator 2001*: Asian Development Bank.

# Comparing GDP Growth Forecasts for 1997, %

	EBRD Feb 1997	UN Jan 1997	EU Oct 1996	PlanEcon Dec 1996	Economist Jan 1997
<b>Eastern Europe and the Baltic States</b>					
Albania	-	6	-	7.7	6
Bulgaria	-4	0	-3.1	0.4	-1
Croatia	5.5	-	-	4.9	6
Czech Republic	4	5	5.3	4.8	4
Estonia	4	3	4.5	5.4	3.5
FYR Macedonia	5	-	-	4.5	5
Hungary	2.5	2	2.7	3.9	3
Latvia	4	1.7	2.2	5.2	3
Lithuania	4	1.5	2.7	5.8	3.7
Poland	5.5	5.2	5.1	5.5	5.3
Romania	-2.5	4	4.2	5.4	4
Slovak Republic	5	5	4.6	5.5	4.4
Slovenia	4	-	4.1	5.2	4
Average	3.1	3.3	3.2	4.9	3.9
<b>Commonwealth of Independent States</b>					
Armenia	7	-	-	4.7	4.5
Azerbaijan	5	-	-	7.4	4
Belarus	0	-	-	-0.5	3
Georgia	10	-	-	8.2	6
Kazakhstan	2.8	1.5	-	1.2	2.5
Kyrgyzstan	8	-	-	5.2	3
Moldova	5	-	-	6	5
Russia	1.5	-1	2.5	0.9	1
Tajikistan	-3	-	-	-5	-10
Turkmenistan	5	-	-	2.2	5
Ukraine	-2	-2.2	-2	-2.1	-3
Uzbekistan	1	-	-	4.5	1
Average	3.4	-0.6	0.3	2.8	1.8

# Rating of Economy Liberalization, 1997

Country	Political process	Civil society	Independent media	Rule of law	GPA <sup>1</sup>	Privatization	Economy	Private share of GDP (%)
Albania	4.25	4.25	4.75	4.75	4.75	3.75	4.25	75
Armenia	5.5	3.5	5.25	4.75	4.5	4	4	50
Azerbaijan	5.75	5	5.5	5.5	6.25	5.25	5	25
Belarus	6	5.25	6.25	6	6	6	6	15
Bulgaria	3.25	4	3.75	4.24	4.25	5	5.75	45
Croatia	4	3.5	4.75	4.75	4	4	3.75	50
Czech Rep.	1.25	1.5	1.25	1.5	2	2	1.75	75
Estonia	2	2.25	1.75	2.25	2.25	2.25	2	70
Georgia	5	4.5	4.5	5	4.5	4.25	4	50
Hungary	1.25	1.25	1.5	1.75	1.75	1.5	1.75	70
Kazakhstan	5.5	5.25	5.25	5	5.5	4.25	4.5	40
Kyrgyzstan	5	4.5	5	4.5	4.25	4	3.5	50
Latvia	2	2.25	1.75	2.25	2.5	2.5	2.5	60
Lithuania	2	2.25	1.75	2.25	2.5	2.25	2.75	65
Macedonia	3.5	3.75	4	4.25	4	4	5	50
<b>Moldova</b>	<b>3.25</b>	<b>3.75</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>4.25</b>	<b>4.25</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>40</b>
Poland	1.5	1.25	1.5	1.5	1.75	2.25	1.75	60
Romania	3.25	3.75	4.25	4.25	4.25	4.5	4.75	60
Russia	3.5	3.75	3.75	4	4	3	4	60
Slovakia	3.75	3.25	4.25	4	3.75	3.25	3.5	70
Slovenia	2	2	1.75	1.75	2.5	2.75	2	45
Tajikistan	6	5.5	6.25	6.25	7	6.25	6	20
Turkmenistan	7	7	7	6.75	6.75	6.75	6	20
Ukraine	3.25	4	4.5	3.75	4.5	4.25	4.25	40
Uzbekistan	6.25	6.5	6.5	6.5	6	6.25	6.25	40

<sup>1</sup> GPA=Government and Public Administration

# Investments: CIS Countries

	Foreign direct investment			Total flows of foreign investment			Ratio investments/GDP 1995*
	million USD			1989-1996 million USD	1989-1996 USD per capita	1996	
	1994	1995	1996 estim.*				
Armenia	3	10	34	47	13	9	0.7%
Azerbaijan	22	275	601	918	123	80	15.7%
Belarus	10	7	18	110	11	2	n.a.
Georgia	8	6	40	54	10	7	n.a.
Kazakhstan	635	723	930	2761	165	56	3.8%
Kyrgyzstan	45	61	16	132	29	4	3.8%
<b>Moldova</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>113</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>7.0%</b>
Rusia	1000	1900	1600	5100	34	11	0.5%
Tajikistan	12	13	13	55	10	2	n.a.
Turkmenistan	100	100	80	395	99	20	10.6%
Ucraina	91	266	440	1167	23	9	0.8%
Uzbekistan	85	120	55	342	15	2	1.5%
<b>Total</b>	<b>2029</b>	<b>3553</b>	<b>3873</b>	<b>11231</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>0.7%</b>

\* For Moldova official data for 1996

NOTE: data for Moldova do not include Transnistria

## Budget Data for CIS Countries, Having a Monetary Stability in 1996

		1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Russia	Income	40.3	40.6	–	34.5	31.4
	Expenditures	56.4	48.6	–	40.3	39.1
	<i>Deficit</i>	-16.1	-8.0		-5.8	-7.7
Armenia	Income	26.6	40.2	27.6	18.3	16.0
	Expenditures	64.2	68.6	43.7	27.0	24.0
	<i>Deficit</i>	-37.6	-48.2	-16.1	-8.7	-8.0
Azerbaijan	Income	49.2	45.0	31.7	23.0	
	Expenditures	46.4	58.0	46.5	30.0	
	<i>Deficit</i>	2.8	-13.0	-14.8	-7.0	
Georgia	Income	2.0	20.0	16.6	8.2	
	Expenditures	39.0	46.0	24.0	13.0	
	<i>Deficit</i>	-37.0	-26.0	-7.4	-4.8	
Kazakhstan	Income	24.7	23.5	17.2	16.5	16.0
	Expenditures	31.9	24.7	24.0	18.8	20.0
	<i>Deficit</i>	-7.3	-1.2	-6.8	-2.3	-4.0
Kyrgyzstan	Income	17.0	23.0	20.8	15.6	18.0
	Expenditures	33.9	36.6	28.6	28.1	23.5
	<i>Deficit</i>	-16.9	-13.6	-7.8	-12.5	-5.5
Moldova	Income	20.2	13.0	23.1	23.9	23.0
	Expenditures	43.6	19.8	32.1	29.4	27.0
	<i>Deficit</i>	-23.4	-6.8	-9.0	-5.5	-4.0

Data for 1990-1995 taken from EBRD and national sources

Data for 1996 preliminary, for Russia is for 6 months

Not included data for countries having not achieved money stabilization, where annual inflation rates in 1996 exceeded 50%

# Real GDP Growth in Countries of Eastern Europe, Baltic States, and CIS, %

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1995/1989	1996/1989
Azerbaijan	-11.7	-0.7	-22.6	-23.1	-21.2	-8.3	-3.5	38	34
Albania	-10.0	-27.7	-9.7	11.0	9.4	8.6	5.0	77	81
Armenia	-7.4	-10.8	-52.4	-14.8	5.4	6.9	6.5	38	40
Belarus	-3.0	-1.2	-9.6	-10.6	-12.2	-10.2	-5.0	61	58
Bulgaria	-9.1	-11.7	-7.3	-2.4	1.8	2.6	-4.0	76	73
Hungary	-3.5	-11.9	-3.1	-0.6	2.9	1.5	1.5	86	87
Georgia	-12.4	-13.8	-40.3	-9.0	-35.0	2.4	8.0	18	20
Kazakhstan	-0.4	-13.0	-13.0	-12.0	-25.0	-8.9	0.5	45	46
Kyrgyzstan	3.2	-5.0	-19.0	-16.0	-26.5	1.3	2.0	50	51
Latvia	2.9	-8.3	-5.0	-6.0	0.6	-1.6	1.0	51	52
Lithuania	-5.0	-13.4	-37.7	-24.2	1.0	3.1	1.5	40	41
Macedonia	-9.9	-12.1	-21.1	-8.4	-4.0	-1.5	3.0	54	56
Moldova	-2.4	-17.5	-29.0	-1.0	-31.0	-3.0	4.0	38	39
Poland	-11.6	-7.0	2.6	3.8	5.2	7.0	5.0	99	103
Russia	-4.0	-13.0	-14.5	-8.7	-12.6	-4.0	-3.0	55	53
Romania	-5.6	-12.9	-8.8	1.3	3.9	6.9	4.5	84	88
Slovakia	-2.5	-14.9	-6.5	-4.1	4.8	7.4	5.5	84	89
Slovenia	-4.7	-8.1	-5.4	1.3	5.3	3.5	3.0	91	94
Tajikistan	-1.6	-7.1	-29.0	-11.1	-21.5	-12.5	-7.0	40	37
Turkmenistan	2.0	-4.7	-5.3	-10.0	-20.0	-10.0	0.0	60	60
Uzbekistan	1.6	-0.5	-11.1	-2.3	-4.2	-1.2	-1.0	83	82
Ukraine	-3.4	-9.0	-10.0	-14.0	-23.0	-11.8	-7.0	46	43
Croatia	-8.6	-20.0	-10.0	-3.7	0.8	2.0	5.0	65	68
Czech Republic	-0.4	-14.2	-6.4	-0.9	2.6	4.8	5.1	85	90
Estonia	-8.1	-11.0	-14.2	-8.5	-2.7	3.2	3.0	64	66

Data for 1990-1995 taken from IMF, WB and national sources

Data for 1996 official estimations and EBRD forecast

# Inflation in Countries of Eastern Europe, Baltic States, and CIS, %

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Azerbaijan	126	1395	1294	1788	86	15
Albania	104	237	31	16	6	20
Armenia	25	1341	10996	1885	32	19
Belarus	93	1558	1994	1957	244	61
Bulgaria	339	79	64	122	33	165
Hungary	32	22	21	21	28	22
Georgia	131	1176	7488	7144	65	23
Kazakhstan	150	2567	2169	1160	60	26
Kyrgyzstan	170	1771	1366	87	32	27
Latvia	262	958	35	26	23	19
Lithuania	345	1161	189	45	36	26
Macedonia	115	1935	230	55	9	2
Moldova	151	2198	837	116	24	18
Poland	60	44	38	29	22	19
Russia	144	2318	841	203	131	25
Romania	223	199	296	62	28	60
Slovakia	58	9	25	12	7	6
Slovenia	247	93	23	18	9	10
Tajikistan	204	1364	7344	5	1500	200
Turkmenistan	155	644	9750	1330	1000	250
Uzbekistan	169	910	885	1281	117	35
Ukraine	161	2000	10155	401	182	55
Croatia	249	937	1150	-3	4	5
Czech Rep.	52	13	18	10	8	9
Estonia	304	954	36	42	29	24

Data for 1990-1995 taken from IMF, WB and national sources

Data for 1996 official estimations and EBRD forecast

