

MONGOLIA HUMAN DEVELOPMENT REPORT 2016



50
YEARS

Building a Better Tomorrow:
Including Youth in the Development of Mongolia





The cover of Mongolia Human Development Report 2016, the sixth national Human Development Report of the country, reflects the core message of the report: including youth is essential to the future development of Mongolia. Behind the individuals on the cover, a ger, a traditional Mongolian tent dwelling, mirrors figure 7.1 in the report, which shows that human development–focused youth policy is built upon four thematic pillars. In the cover version, the foundation and walls of the ger are being supported by youth, who represent various groups in Mongolian society. A burst of 17 spectral prism colours shine out from the ger, reminding us of the 17 Sustainable Development Goals. The background orange is the colour associated with Sustainable Development Goal 9, which highlights the need to build resilient infrastructure, promote sustainable industrialization and foster innovation for the benefit of human development, which, in our case, refers to the human development of Mongolian youth.

MONGOLIA HUMAN DEVELOPMENT REPORT 2016

**Building a Better Tomorrow:
Including Youth in the Development of Mongolia**

Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia

2016

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FOREWORD



Countries throughout the world, but particularly countries in Asia define their development goal as development by the people, development for the people. Their objective is to facilitate the formation of an innovative, creative citizenry with appreciable physical and mental endowments, language skills and competitive capacities by understanding and encouraging the development of the intellectual and physical abilities of adolescents and youth.

Youth represent a significant potential for a nation's future and the major driving force of any country. Investment in youth development is rewarded not only by huge human development outcomes, but also supports social and economic advances that help in the effort to eradicate poverty and reduce unemployment.

Only a few countries in the world have a population in which seven in every ten people are 0–34 years of age. In a country in which youth account for 34.9 percent of the population, there is a need and a necessity to empower youth, invest in youth, increase the participation of youth at all levels of society, engage youth organizations in national initiatives, and improve the quality of the livelihoods and living standards of youth.

It is therefore our responsibility to ensure youth participation and empowerment to create a social order in which youth can make decisions and bear responsibility for their actions, to support a transformation in education quality to foster youth development and lead young people to use their knowledge and education effectively in creating wealth for themselves and the society around them.

This sixth National Human Development Report of Mongolia, “Building a Better Tomorrow: Including Youth in the Development of Mongolia”, is being published at an opportune moment. By focusing on youth, it focuses on the population group that can contribute the most to future national development. By focusing on the challenges faced by youth and identifying the present situation of youth based on wide-ranging research and analysis, it can help guide government interventions in favour of this key population group. This greatly enhances the value of the report.

The First World Youth Policy Forum, held in Baku, Azerbaijan, in 2014, welcomed policymakers and decision makers from all over the world, who, together, recommended that countries formulate comprehensive national youth development policies.

The Ministry has been working on the state policy on youth development since 2015 to fulfil the recommendation. The baseline research, conclusions and recommendations of the sixth National Human Development Report will reside at the core of the process of identifying the evidence-based goals of the state policy document.

The sixth National Human Development Report jointly developed by prominent national experts and researchers and experienced international consultants, with the support of the United Nations Development Programme in Mongolia and open consultation with a wide public once again confirmed the importance and the contribution of human development to Mongolia's progress. It has already become a fundamental document in implementing youth policy and evidence-based decision making on youth.

Let Mongolian youth forever be heavenly and glorious in building strong and prosperous Mongolia and in shaping the world's future.

Erdene Sodnomzundui

Minister of Population Development and
Social Protection

FOREWORD



The UNDP works with countries across the world to prepare human development reports. These are independent intellectual exercises that capture a wealth of empirical data to focus attention on current and emerging policy challenges as they relate to human development. All of them are based on the simple premise enunciated in the first Global Human Development Report that: *“People are the real wealth of a nation.”*

Since the release of Mongolia’s first National Human Development Report in 1997, five reports have been produced and I am delighted to launch the sixth Mongolia Human Development Report on the subject of ‘Building a Better Tomorrow: Including Youth in the Development of Mongolia’.

With young people aged 15–34 years accounting for 34.9 percent of the resident population in 2015 and representing the largest demographic group as well as a significant share of working age people, this is a topic of considerable relevance for Mongolia. Young Mongolians in this age group are the first generation to grow up under democracy, with new ideas and aspirations. They are more global in their outlook and better connected than ever before and are a powerful force for change. The key is to harness and channel that energy to create a sustainable, equitable and more prosperous future for all Mongolians.

The Report analyzes the opportunities and challenges young people face today. Mongolia at national level has made substantial progress on the human development index (HDI) having crossed the high human development threshold for the first time in 2015. However, many young people are being left behind. Youth belonging to vulnerable or marginalized groups face multiple forms of inequality and exclusion. Young people are generally

not sufficiently represented in politics and often excluded from decision-making. The report concludes that the needs and aspirations of young people need more attention and that they need to be involved in identifying and creating solutions to address their specific needs. It also calls on young Mongolians to become dedicated agents of change in Mongolia’s development process.

Involving young people in Mongolia’s development is critical. Young people are and will be key drivers behind the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals and 2030 Development Agenda to end poverty, protect the planet and ensure prosperity for all. Ensuring access to quality education, reducing unemployment, encouraging engagement in politics and governance, as well as fostering healthy lifestyles among young people everywhere is crucial to achieving that ambitious agenda.

This report is intended for a broad based audience including Mongolian policy makers at the national, regional and local levels, civil society and academia, international partners, multilateral financial institutions, and the general public and youth in particular. It is hoped that it will contribute to ongoing national efforts to address the challenges faced by young people in Mongolia today. It was prepared by a group of international and national experts, and benefited from extensive stakeholder consultations and technical inputs throughout its preparation. I would like to take this opportunity to express my appreciation to everyone who contributed to the preparation of the report.

I look forward to the report generating extensive discussions around youth and human development in Mongolia, as well as the role of different stakeholders in advancing human development for youth. I especially hope that young Mongolians will take ownership of this report, and realize their full potential to become drivers of development and play a major role in the country’s future.

Beate Trankmann

United Nations Resident Coordinator and
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This sixth Mongolia National Human Development Report (NHDR) is, more than ever, the fruit of the research contributions, expertise and support of dedicated individuals and organizations. The report preparation team wishes to express the deepest gratitude to all those who provided their intellectual inputs and feedback throughout numerous consultative meetings, extensive research and preparatory work between December 2013 and May 2016.

The NHDR Steering Committee provided strategic guidance and oversight in the preparation of the NHDR. The committee was chaired jointly by Otgonjargal Baasanjav, former State Secretary of the Ministry of Population Development and Social Protection (MPDSP), and Thomas Eriksson, former Deputy Resident Representative of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Other members included Erdenesuren Baatar, former Vice Chairman of the National Statistical Office of Mongolia (NSO), Shinebaatar Begzsuren, former State Secretary of the Ministry of Economic Development, and Munkhbat Ayush, President of the Mongolian Youth Federation.

The Advisory Board presided over the entire process to ensure that the Report becomes a dynamic advocacy tool, grounded in evidence-based, thoroughly analysed research, which will help develop lively debates around the policies and actions necessary to advance human development in Mongolia. The board consisted of Davaadorj Tsenddavaa, former Director of the School of Economic Studies, National University of Mongolia, Dolgormaa Jadamba, former Director of the Strategic Policy and Planning Department of MPDSP, Amarsaikhan Duger, Director of the Department of Population Development Policy Coordination, Amartugs Tsenddavaa, Head of the Labour Force Migration Division of the Ministry of Labour, Nasanbayar Baavgai, former Director of the Strategic Policy and Planning Department of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, Soyolgerel Gochoo, Child and Adolescent Health Department Specialist of the Ministry of Health, Orosoo Demberel, Governor of Bayanzurkh District of Ulaanbaatar City, Bolormaa Mashlai, Secretary of the National Committee on Gender Equality, Oyunchimeg Dandar, Director of the Population and Social Statistics Department of NSO, Baatarjav Dambadondog, President of the Association of Disabled Persons of Mongolia, Bayarjargal Damdingagva, Executive Director of the Mongolian Scout Association, Batsaikhan Khashbat, Presi-

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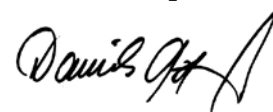
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Daniela Gasparikova



Deputy Resident Representative of the
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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ABS	Asian Barometer Survey	NCD	non-communicable disease
GDI	gender development index	NHDR	National Human Development Report
GDP	gross domestic product	NGO	non-governmental organization
GII	gender inequality index	NSO	National Statistical Office of Mongolia
GNI	gross national income	SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
HDI	human development index	SISS	Social Indicator Sample Survey
HIV	human immunodeficiency virus	STI	sexually transmitted infection
ICT	information and communication technology	TVET	technical and vocational education and training
IHDI	inequality-adjusted HDI	UN	United Nations
LGBT	lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender	UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys	WHO	World Health Organization
MPI	multidimensional poverty index		

Terms specific to Mongolia

aimag	first-level administrative division, equivalent to province; there are 21 aimags
soum	second-level administrative division, equivalent to district; as of 2015, there were 330 soums
ger	Mongolian yurt, or traditional tent dwelling
ger district	tent city, especially around Ulaanbaatar
khural	local representative body
State Great Khural	national parliament of Mongolia

Units

%	percent
₮	togrogs, the Mongolian currency

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

“People are the real wealth of a nation.”

—Human Development Report 1990, p. 9

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This National Human Development Report (NHDR) of Mongolia – the sixth in the series – focuses on youth. Through the medium of the human development approach, it analyses the opportunities, choices and challenges facing young people in Mongolia today. This approach places people at the centre of development. It concentrates on enlarging people’s opportunities and choices to live long, healthy and productive lives.

A key overriding message of this report is the contribution of youth to building a better tomorrow in Mongolia. This contribution depends largely on the capabilities and opportunities open to youth in making choices. Young people are the shapers and leaders of our global future.¹ Like young people elsewhere, Mongolia’s youth possess the potential to become the drivers of change and play a significant role in the nation’s future. They are the first generation in the country to have spent most of their lives under a democratic form of government. This has been crucial to their outlook and their experience.

At more than one million, youth aged 15–34 years represent the largest demographic group in Mongolia, accounting for 34.9 percent of the resident population in 2015 and a significant share of the people of working age. Even by 2040, when the country’s population is expected to reach 4 million, an estimated 29 percent will be in the 15–34 age-group.

The annual growth in gross domestic product (GDP) of Mongolia increased to 6.7 percent in 2005–2010 and then accelerated to 12.2 percent in 2010–2014. However, according to the World Bank, the growth in GDP is projected to have slowed to 2.3 percent in 2015 and to 0.8 percent in 2016 because of a sharp contraction in mining production and despite a gradual recovery in non-mining sectors.² Nearly one person in five is living below the poverty line, and the regional disparities within the country are visible. Nonetheless, Mongolia has made substantial progress in the human development index (HDI) at the national level and is placed in the high human development

category. Over the past two decades, Mongolia has evolved into “a vibrant multiparty democracy with a booming economy”, and it is now “at the threshold of a major transformation driven by the exploitation of its vast mineral resources”.³

To what extent are youth in Mongolia benefiting from the economic growth, the progress in social development and the other opportunities? What challenges are they facing in making the choice to “achieve outcomes that they value and have reason to value”?⁴ What policies are in place to address these challenges? What can be done by stakeholders to include youth in the country’s growth and development? These are some of the questions motivating this NHDR, which analyses the issues around four pillars of human development important to youth: developing capabilities, expanding employment opportunities, empowering youth, and enhancing human security.

Developing the capabilities of youth

Enhancing access to knowledge and education and fostering long and healthy lives among people are two important dimensions of the human development approach.

Youth education

Equipping youth with the ability to think creatively through all levels of education and fostering the proper alignment of education with labour market demands are important markers in preparing youth for productive, fulfilling lives.

Education not only enhances job opportunities, but also helps people realize the significance of other aspects of human development, such as better health, greater empowerment and more active participation in society. Mongolia has achieved appreciable advances in making education accessible to all citizens, especially youth.

The report emphasizes that growing enrolments at all levels of the education system, especially since 2000, have positively supported the progress accomplished in the HDI. According to an estimate of the global Human Development Report (HDR), a child starting school in 2014 can expect to receive 14.6 years of schooling, which is among the better outcomes relative to most countries in the high human development category.

The nine years of compulsory education are now nearly universally attained. As of the 2014/2015 school year, the net enrolment rate had reached 99.1 percent in primary education and 96.1 percent in secondary education. Nearly 80 percent of 15- to 19-year-olds are now attending school, and the urban-rural difference in access has narrowed, though rural areas still lag. The reverse gender gap – the unusual situation of fewer school enrolments among males – is narrowing, too, and the shares of girls and boys up to lower-secondary school are almost equal.

There has also been a sharp expansion in the demand for and access to higher education and technical and vocational education and training (TVET) since 2000. According to population census data, the share of young men and women with tertiary degrees increased by a factor of more than three in 2000–2010.

Despite the impressive expansion in enrolments at all levels of education, there are disparities in access. Access to education among youth with disabilities is still limited: only 66.2 percent of youth with disabilities in the compulsory education age-group are enrolled. Almost half the youth with congenital disabilities have no education or are illiterate. These youth face significant barriers because teachers do not have appropriate training, and institutions lack accessible infrastructure. These failures exacerbate the stigma of disability. There are also disparities in access to tertiary education across households of differing wealth status. Likewise, rural students are becoming more disadvantaged in gaining access to higher education because of the rapid rise in the cost of housing and the cost of living in Ulaanbaatar, the capital, where most higher-education institutions are located.

The report also examines the extent to which youth have access to good-quality education that enhances their skills and prepares them for productive and creative livelihoods. It identifies considerable challenges. The low quality of education at all levels is a major concern. It results in low learning achievement, limits the development of capabilities among youth and affects the future employment prospects of youth. Rural secondary-school students face particular difficulties, including lack of access to the Internet and other learning opportunities and shortages in well-qualified teachers and learning resources. As youth progress in the education system towards higher education and TVET, they continue to be confronted by low-quality instruction. Training curricula are outdated, and good textbooks are rare. Academic programmes have little relevance to the requirements of employers, and there is a dearth of practical employment or internship opportunities for graduates. Tertiary education does not equip youth with the skills required on the labour market. This is confirmed by the much higher unemployment rates among young people with TVET and higher educational attainment relative to young people with lower levels of educational attainment.

Recognizing the need to improve the quality of education, the Government has undertaken comprehensive education reform and new initiatives such as changing the structure and years of schooling, upgrading curricula, developing new education standards, strengthening the accreditation system, and enhancing teacher training. There has also been much progress in expanding learning opportunities among youth, including alternative learning opportunities. For example, unprecedented growth and access to information and communication technology (ICT) have provided young people with new means to access knowledge and connect with the rest of the world.

The Government spent 5.3 percent of GDP on education in 2014 and 4.3 percent in 2015. Because of the growth in GDP, real education expenditures were 59 percent greater in 2002–2012. However, it appears public funding is insufficient to finance the reform agenda successfully, particularly programme expansion in the professional development of teachers, the improvement

of laboratories in educational establishments, and the acquisition of new textbooks and other soft items.

The report concludes that, to foster the development of youth capabilities, the problems in equitable access to good-quality education, including the expansion of access among young people with disabilities and youth in low-income families, must be urgently addressed through immediate actions by the Government and other stakeholders.

Youth health

The adoption of healthy lifestyles is crucial to reducing health risks and avoiding preventable disease so that youth may live long and healthy lives.

Good health is critical to the development of young people's capabilities. Health and well-being are not only crucial to the immediate quality of life and productivity of young people, but they also shape the future welfare of the population and society. However, the exposure of youth in Mongolia to situations of risk can undermine future capabilities, limit the opportunities to avoid preventable disease and mortality and restrict the possibility of living healthy and productive lives.

A key concern is the slow growth in life expectancy among youth in the 15–34 age-group. While young women in this group have added two or three years to their lives since 1990, life expectancy among young men has declined across all youth age cohorts. For example, men are four times more susceptible to traffic accidents than women.

The report highlights that the root cause of the slow progress in life expectancy among youth and in adult mortality rates may lie in the high prevalence of situational risk factors such as alcohol and tobacco abuse, unbalanced diets, lack of physical activity, and obesity among adolescents and youth. The analysis indicates that youth in Mongolia consume far fewer fruits and vegetables and exhibit more than twice the salt consumption relative to the internationally recommended daily allowance. The share of youth who are overweight or obese is high. Close to one third of young people smoke. Alcohol use is also substantial.

Non-communicable diseases (NCDs) are now a major health risk in Mongolia and account for nearly 80 percent of all deaths. Deaths by accidents, injuries, poisoning, or other external causes are responsible for the largest share of the deaths across all youth age cohorts and have been trending upward as causes of death among these age cohorts since 2010. NCDs often become established during adolescence and young age, although most are preventable and treatable. Adolescents and youth have a great potential for practicing healthy lifestyles if there is an appropriate policy and support environment.

The report examines the role of structural factors in the exposure of youth to situations of risk and explores the opportunity to create a supportive environment for the adoption of healthy lifestyles among youth. In Mongolia, it is evident that structural factors such as the low price of tobacco and alcohol, the excessive marketing and advertisement of unhealthy food items, the high price of fruits, the limited access to sports and healthy leisure facilities, and the inadequate implementation of restrictions on alcohol and tobacco use are negatively affecting the adoption of healthy behaviours by young people. The report therefore argues that, despite a tobacco control law and the recent toughening of traffic regulations, the Government must take more forceful policy action to address the structural factors affecting unsafe and unhealthy behaviours among youth.

The analysis indicates that the increase in the adolescent birth rate is affecting the gender inequality index (GII) negatively. The birth rate among adolescents in Mongolia is higher than the average in the Asia and Pacific region. It rose from 19 births per 1,000 women aged 15–19 years in 2003 to 29 in 2013. The unmet need for family planning is highest among this age-group, at 36.4 percent. Sexually transmitted infections (STIs) continue to represent a major public health issue because of widespread, unsafe sexual behaviours. Young people aged 15 to 24 are not the major age-group for reported cases of HIV, comprising only about 20 percent of the cumulative cases. However, they do account for a majority of the reported cases of STIs (ranging between 40 percent and 50 percent annually), which suggests that risk scenarios exist rendering

youth susceptible to HIV. According to a 2015 report, among people living with HIV/AIDS, 41.2 percent are youth under age 30, of which 54 percent are women, and 43 percent are men (among 3 percent, the sex is unknown).⁵ This suggests there is a greater need for youth-friendly health services and good-quality sexual education.

Despite reasonable access to health care among young people, youth demand is low because of a lack of services that fit the needs of this segment of the population. Currently, 25 adolescent health centres deliver youth-friendly services across the country. However, more ought to be done to expand youth-friendly health services.

Health care expenditures rose by 8.8 percent in inflation-adjusted terms up to 2012, but the share of Government health care expenditure in GDP fell from 4.6 percent to 3.0 percent in 2002–2012. Moreover, health sector expenditures alone are insufficient to address the social, environmental and behavioural problems that are negatively affecting the pursuit of healthier lifestyles.

Public health financing should thus be considered more broadly than merely funding the health care sector. The adoption of healthy behaviours by adolescents and youth is socially and economically more effective than dealing with the resulting enduring problems in adulthood. Healthy lifestyles should therefore be fostered, and the risk of accidents and injuries among youth should be reduced through effective policies and health promotion programmes.

Expanding employment opportunities

The creation of new productive, remunerative and satisfying employment opportunities would enable young people to earn livelihoods, become economically secure and unleash their potential and their creativity.

Access to employment represents a critical means of expanding the substantive freedoms that people value. Obtaining work is an important marker of a successful transition from youth to adulthood because, through stable employment and by making economic decisions and being accountable for their lives, young people become finan-

cially independent and acquire the freedom to do what they wish to do.

While searching for their first stable jobs after completing their education, youth must undergo the school-to-work transition. In Mongolia, the majority of youth at ages 15–18 are in secondary school; more than half of all youth in the 25–34 age-group are still looking for stable work, and 40 percent have not undertaken the school-to-work transition.

Relative to young people in rural areas, urban youth begin the transition late (usually at over 21 years of age). This may be because they prefer to attain more education. However, that they must wait up to 2.9 years to obtain their first jobs may also be an indication of the challenges to labour market entry that arise because of a mismatch between the skills these youth possess and the skills desired and expected by employers or because of a shortage of suitable jobs in urban areas.

The share of youth entering the labour market rises among the 25–34 age-group. Among this age-group, more men than women are working even though more women than men graduate with tertiary degrees. This implies that either the demand for labour is greater in sectors that require less skill, or women delay entry into the labour market to pursue family obligations or other unpaid care activity.

The report explores how Mongolia's economic growth enhances the progress in human development, and, more importantly, how it enables young people to acquire sustainable and productive employment and become economically secure. The link between economic growth and the progress in the HDI is evident in Mongolia's recent past. Overall, economic growth has led to impressive gains in human development. Most of the improvement in the HDI since 1990 occurred in 2000–2014 when average annual economic growth was around 7.0 percent.

The recent economic growth has coincided with several positive labour market trends. Nonetheless, it has not translated into sufficient gains in decent and productive employment among the young population. Moreover, the decline in the mining sector

over the last two or three years has severely affected the employment opportunities among youth in the sector and in associated sectors.

The unemployment rate in 2013 was 10.8 percent among the 15–34 age-group. It was highest among the 20–24 age-group, at 17.0 percent, which was more than twice the national average rate. Youth unemployment in aimag (province) and soum (district) administrative centres, at 17.0–19.0 percent, was well above the national average, which means that opportunities for employment among youth in the aimag and soum centres were limited.

Among youth looking for suitable jobs, 63 percent have been looking for more than a year, and 40 percent have been looking for more than three years. This indicates that youth are more vulnerable to long-term unemployment and economic insecurity. In this environment, youth are in danger of experiencing an erosion in skills, a loss in lifetime earnings and greater vulnerability to health and other risks. They may also become discouraged from actively seeking jobs. Low wages, low labour demand, inadequate professional experience, lack of appropriate qualifications, and lack of information about available jobs are among the most common reasons why unemployed youth are unable to find employment.

The report emphasizes that more well educated youth face a higher risk of unemployment, which appears to be a perverse outcome of the higher returns to education. The rates of unemployment among young people with TVET and higher educational attainment are much greater than the rates among young people with lower levels of educational attainment.

The employment elasticity of growth has fallen continuously across many sectors since 2000. The growth of mining and the overall economy, fueled by the increase in commodity prices, has done little to raise employment. This is one of the many challenges in the effort to translate growth into productive employment among youth.

The employment status of youth varies considerably by location. In 2010, about 39.2 percent of urban youth were employed, compared with 22.2 percent among rural youth.

Since 2000, well over 40 percent of the rise in employment has occurred in the service sector, which employs a large share of youth. However, most of these jobs are part time or temporary and do not provide employment security and stability. Similarly, among youth aged 15–34 who are in primary employment, more than 30 percent are employed in the informal sector. Despite the boom in the construction industry in recent years, the share of young construction workers has risen only modestly, from 6 percent to 8 percent. Around 80 percent of persons with disabilities are economically inactive. (There are no specific data on employment among youth with disabilities.)

The report makes a strong case that young women face more difficulties in entering or re-entering the labour market. The unemployment rate is higher among young women than among young men, and it has been rising among young women. The occupational segregation of women is widespread, resulting in a concentration of women in a narrow range of occupations such as education (80.6 percent), health and welfare (79.4 percent), and the social sciences, business and law (64.3 percent). In engineering, manufacturing and construction, only 30.0 percent of graduates are women, indicating that there is a clear underrepresentation of women in science and technology-related fields. Young women earn 1.4 times less than young men. They dominate in unpaid work: in 2011, 17 percent of 25- to 29-year-old women reported they took care of the home, versus only 1 percent of the men in this age-group. The gender gap in the labour market among youth is evident, and this indicates a need for gender-sensitive labour market policies.

The Government has placed job creation at the centre of economic and labour policy and programmes by undertaking to link macroeconomic policymaking and labour market policies, to invest in initiatives to intensify industrial development and manufacturing, to enhance employment promotion programmes among young people, persons with disabilities, migrants and students, and to expand training and retraining among the unemployed. Nonetheless, more effort is required to support sustainable and productive youth employment through much larger and more intensive youth employment promotion programmes.

During the school-to-work transition, young people, particularly fresh graduates in the poorest households, receive no financial support from the Government and must depend only on their parents or siblings. The Government might therefore consider implementing targeted social assistance for one year after graduation to allow youth in poorer households the time to find appropriate jobs.

Work for Human Development, the global HDR launched in Ulaanbaatar on 15 December 2015, proposes broadly innovative policy options for enhancing human development through work. According to the report, “work, not just jobs, contributes to human progress and enhances human development”.⁶ In line with the recommendations of the global report, the NHDR of Mongolia urges the Government and other actors to undertake actions that enhance the employment opportunities available to the country’s youth.

Empowering youth

Policymakers and political leaders should view the trust deficit as a serious reminder that improvements in governance are required to engage with youth on policies that impact youth and to include young people in the development process.

Empowerment is the freedom of people to influence development and the decisions that affect their lives. Youth is a period in which individuals begin to form opinions and exercise choice more effectively, exhibit more dynamism, participate in political activities, support causes, establish groups, become members of social organizations, demand action and take control of their lives. Becoming involved in these endeavours contributes to a sense of empowerment among youth. Though empowerment does not occur automatically, it can be facilitated by political participation and civic engagement.

In Mongolia, there has been a declining trend in voter turnout among youth over the last decade. This implies that the country’s democratic institutions are not advocating sufficiently to respond to the concerns and interests of young people or encouraging their participation in society and that the

voices of youth are not being adequately heard through the political process.

According to the 2010–2012 Asian Barometer Survey (ABS), youth in Mongolia rank freedom and liberty as the most important attributes of democracy. However, a large share of youth – more than 42 percent – seem to favour a non-democratic alternative, such as rule by a strongman or single-party rule.

Although Government institutions enjoy a high level of trust among youth, recent years have seen an erosion in the trust in political institutions. Among the institutions trusted the most by youth are the army, television, the Presidency and the police. Youth who have relatively higher educational attainment or who reside in urban areas are more critical of the Government than their less well educated or rural counterparts. Youth in Mongolia are not disengaged from politics; more than a third regularly follow the political news, though interest in politics is low among teenagers.

An important element of the sense of empowerment is the degree to which youth feel their political participation has an impact on the Government. More than 60 percent of youth in Mongolia consider politics dirty and believe that injustice is driving good people away from politics. More than half of young survey respondents think Government leaders cannot be trusted to do what is right, and they are dissatisfied with the course of politics in the country. The lack of political commitment among youth is in sharp contrast to the situation in 1990, when Mongolia’s democratic revolution was driven largely by young people.

Civic and social engagement is a key component of positive youth development. It empowers young people and allows them to exercise citizenship, develop life skills, network, and enhance their employability and learning outcomes. In Mongolia, youth are also actively involved in social life across many areas through civil society organizations, youth programmes, youth-led initiatives and volunteering individually and collectively. Volunteerism is growing among youth; many young people view volunteerism as a way to bring about positive change in society.

New forms of technology have been instrumental in allowing young people to obtain information, support movements, network and make their voices heard. Use of the Internet has increased rapidly, especially because of wider Internet and mobile network coverage in rural areas, which has opened many opportunities for the young. There were over 2.4 million Internet subscribers in 2015, which represents about 81 percent coverage. Of these, nearly 80 percent were connected via Facebook. This embodies a new opportunity to channel youthful energy and ideas by relying on the new forms of communication and mobilization to reinforce the participation of youth in the political process.

Enhancing human security

Reduced vulnerability to violence and strong family and community support help create a secure social and economic environment so that youth can live long, safe, healthy and creative lives.

During the transition to adulthood, youth in Mongolia are exposed to risks to human security, such as violence, traffic and workplace accidents, alcohol abuse, uneven access to social services and air pollution. These risks undermine the dignity and livelihoods of young people and endanger the acquisition of the freedoms and capabilities that can help youth lead the fruitful lives they may choose. They infringe on the fundamental human right to physical integrity and freedom from fear and impair the ability of youth to participate as responsible citizens in the economic, political and social life of the country.

In Mongolia, the following are the most common serious types of violence to which youth are exposed.

Domestic violence: Domestic violence has a strong gender bias: police records show that 88.1 percent of the victims of domestic violence in 2015 were women, and 57.2 percent were youth aged 14–34 years. All stakeholders should therefore support strong action to combat violence against women and youth.

Bullying: According to the World Health Organization's (WHO) Global School-Based Student Health Survey, more than

30 percent of 13- to 25-year-olds and nearly 20 percent of 16- to 17-year-olds in Mongolia had experienced bullying during the month prior to the survey.⁷ Bullying is often associated with physical aggression among students, resulting in injury. There is a risk that early experiences of bullying either as victim or perpetrator may contribute to or lay the groundwork for later, more excessive involvement in violence.

Crime: Internationally, most crimes are committed by men between the ages of 15 and 30. In Mongolia, a review of the available data reveals that young people in the 18–34 age-group account for half the victims of crime and 75 percent of the individuals sentenced for crimes. Crime rates are higher in urban areas than in rural areas.

Trafficking of people for sexual exploitation: Trafficking for sexual exploitation is the most typical form of trafficking, although trafficking for forced labour, servile marriage, crime-related activities, or other purposes is also relatively frequent. The first human trafficking case in Mongolia was reported in 2000.⁸ Since then, Mongolia has emerged as a transit and a source country. Youth, poorer single women and less well educated young women are most at risk.

Suicide: In 2014, the mortality rate by suicide per 10,000 population was 0.52 among women and 2.67 among men. With an age-specific rate of 14.3 suicides per 100,000 population among 15- to 29-year-old men, Mongolia ranked 69th among 172 countries.

Discrimination against minorities: A National Human Rights Commission report in 2012 found that almost 80 percent of individuals who identified as lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender (LGBT) had experienced some form of human rights abuse or discrimination during the previous three years.⁹ The support of their families is often not forthcoming among LGBT youth.

Establishing the precise causality of the high vulnerability of young people to violence compared with other age-groups in Mongolia is difficult because many structural and individual factors contribute to the phenomenon. These include poverty and poor living conditions, significant unemployment, inequality of opportunity, weaknesses in the implementation of laws

to combat violence, dominant notions of masculinity, alcohol abuse, low awareness of human rights, and personality disorders.

The family and community play a crucial role in protecting the young from exposure to violence and in ensuring the personal as well as community security of youth. The state and civil society have undertaken significant efforts to combat violence. Nonetheless, much more needs to be done to promote a safe environment and mitigate the causal impact of socio-economic factors on violence.

Young people are agents of change and can improve their ability to enhance their own security through social engagement, awareness-building, advocacy for better access to social services and greater participation in policymaking and policy implementation.

Youth policy and beyond

An overriding conclusion of this report is that the gains in human development in Mongolia have benefited some, but not all the country's young population. There are still serious challenges in enhancing the capabilities, the range of choices and the opportunities of all young people.

Through the analyses in the report, eight policy priority areas have been identified, two under each of four pillars of human development, as follows:

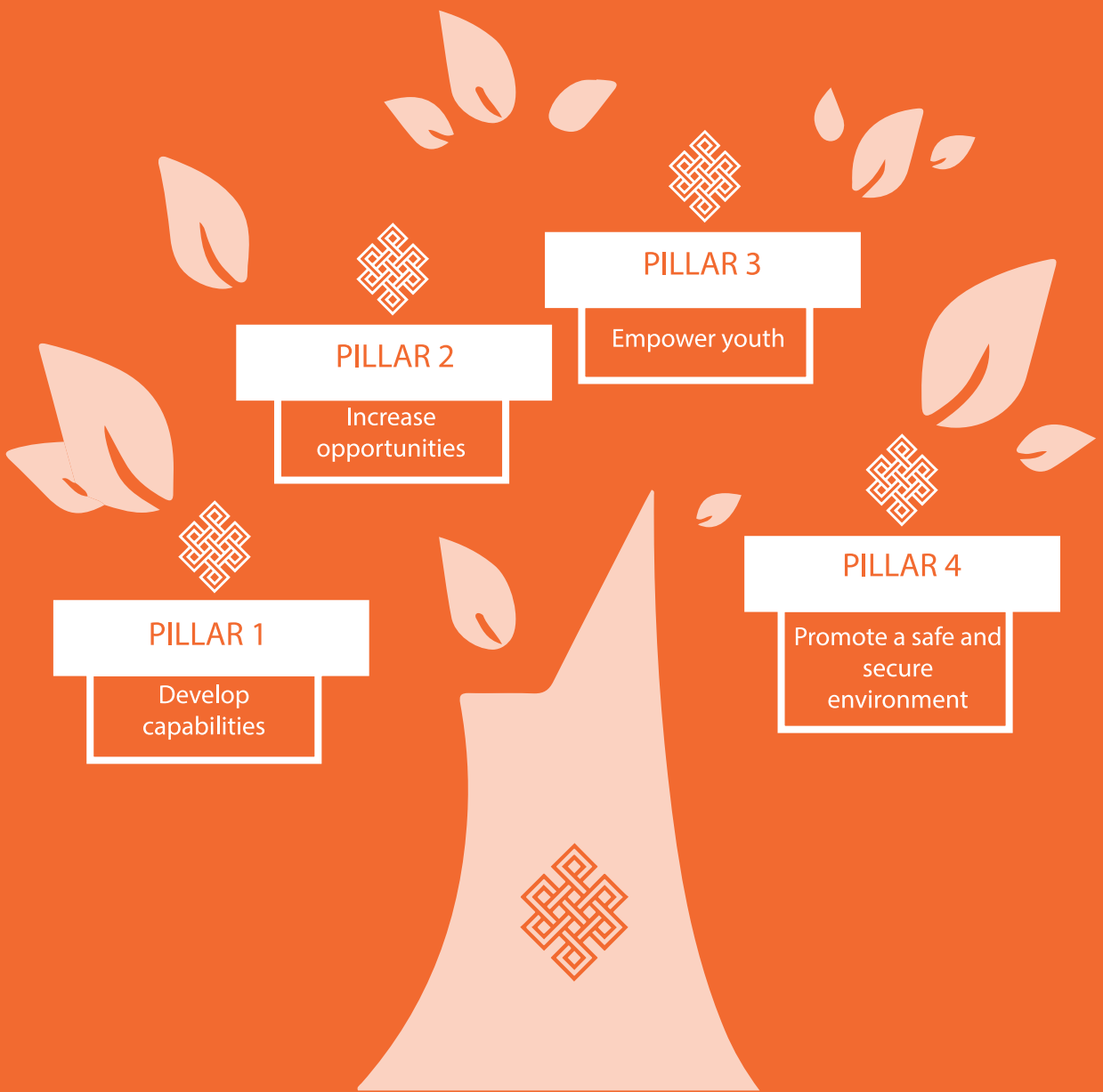
1. *Developing the capabilities of young people* by reducing inequalities in the access to high-quality education at all levels and by promoting healthy lifestyles
2. *Expanding the opportunities available to young people* by supporting them in acquiring the skills they will need and by creating employment among youth
3. *Empowering youth* by enhancing the political participation of youth and by encouraging the engagement of youth in social activities and civil society
4. *Promoting an environment that is safe and secure for young people* by reducing the vulnerability of youth to violence and by strengthening the ability of families to provide support

The country's policies and interventions in favour of youth have a long history, but youth issues are usually embedded in broader national and sectoral policies. Yet, there is a disconnect between youth-centred policies and programmes and the larger development goals of the country, leading to a gap in the inclusion of youth in the political, economic and social life of the country. Youth programmes have also suffered from a lack of funding and poor coordination across ministries. To improve the impact of youth policies and programmes, the Government therefore needs to focus on the following:

1. *More effective integration within the national planning framework:* to be successful, youth policy should be well integrated into national policy planning, budgeting and implementation mechanisms.
2. *The coordination of youth policy across line ministries:* for effective implementation, youth policy needs to be well coordinated across line ministries and administered jointly because of spillover effects and complementarities across various components.
3. *The need for reliable, comparable data and research on youth issues:* strengthening research, the collection, processing and storage of data disaggregated by age and sex, and undertaking analysis on issues of relevance will greatly advance evidence-based policymaking in favour of youth.
4. *The promotion of the participation and voice of youth:* young people seem to lack voice because they are underrepresented in political decision-making and in addressing the broader development issues important for the future direction of the country. Youth need to have a stronger voice and meaningful participation in establishing the development vision of Mongolia so as to build a better tomorrow.

Chapter 1

Introduction



PILLAR 1

Develop capabilities

PILLAR 2

Increase opportunities

PILLAR 3

Empower youth

PILLAR 4

Promote a safe and secure environment

1. Introduction

Like the Human Development Report, a global publication produced by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), National Human Development Reports (NHDRs) adopt a human development approach. This approach emphasizes that the true aim of development is not only to boost incomes, but also to maximize human choices by enhancing human rights, freedoms, capabilities and opportunities and by enabling people to lead long, healthy and creative lives.¹⁰ A human development approach places people at the centre of development. The key questions it attempts to answer include the following: Are people able to live long, healthy lives? Are they able to prevent mortality among their offspring during infancy and childhood? Can they avoid preventable disease? Are they literate? Do they experience hunger? Do they enjoy personal liberty?¹¹ The approach is rich in scope. Income and material welfare have a place, along with educational attainment and access to health care, livelihood opportunities and access to basic services, because these all contribute to the quality of life and the fulfilment of aspirations. Likewise, clean air, safety and a social environment that respects and promotes human dignity are key components. Achieving development that is sustainable would be an empty promise without the meaningful inclusion of all segments of society, including young men and women.

The NHDR: What is it? What can it do?

Since 1997, UNDP-Mongolia has supported the Government in producing five NHDRs on a variety of topics. These reports have been used as important tools to focus attention on current and emerging policy challenges in human development (annex I). This report, the country's sixth NHDR (annex II), relies on the human development approach to analyse the opportunities and challenges facing young people in Mongolia today.

The preparation of this NHDR has been supervised by a NHDR steering committee supported by an advisory board and a peer review group. The steering committee and the advisory board have enjoyed broad representation among various stakeholders, including members of the Government, civil society, agencies of the United Nations (UN), research institutions and youth representatives, who have provided guidance and inputs to the report writing team.

A peer review group composed of national experts reviewed the background papers and the initial drafts of the report and supplied valuable, detailed comments that have helped improve quality. Comments at various stages have also been received from the UNDP Human Development Report Office, the UNDP Regional Bureau for Asia and the Pacific, the UNDP Bangkok Regional Hub, and the International Centre for Human Development, in India. (A more detailed description of the preparation process and the related institutional structure is supplied in annex I.)

The 2016 NHDR is being published at an opportune moment. A comprehensive youth development policy is being prepared by the Government, and the analysis in the NHDR is expected to provide the foundation of supporting evidence necessary to promote the establishment of a youth perspective in overall policymaking. Safeguarding the rights of young people and investing in youth through better education, effective livelihood skills, greater employment opportunities, wider access to health care and other services, and more economic, social and political participation of youth are central to the effort to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (box 1.1).

Box 1.1

The 2016 NHDR and the Sustainable Development Goals

The SDGs reflect major concerns revolving around youth. This is evident in several of the goals and the related targets, as follows:

Goal 4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all

Among the relevant targets:

- By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults with technical and vocational skills for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship
- By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy

Goal 8. Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all

Among the relevant targets:

- By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education, or training
- By 2020, develop and operationalize a global strategy for youth employment

Goal 13. Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts

Among the relevant targets:

- Promote mechanisms for raising capacity for effective climate change-related planning and management, including focusing on women, youth and local and marginalized communities

Goal 16. Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels

Among the relevant targets:

- Significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere
- End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children

These four goals and the related targets are clearly linked with the four thematic pillars of the report described in the next section.

Source: UN, 2015.

Analytical framework and structure of the report

The 2016 NHDR embodies Amartya Sen's capability approach in the report's analysis of opportunities and issues among youth, in its identification of the constraints affecting youth and in its exploration of the possible paths to ensure that youth "achieve the outcomes that they value and have reason to value" (box 1.2).¹² The central premise of this report is that, despite their enormous potential and expanding opportunities, youth in Mongolia face numerous challenges. However, with the support of appropriate policies and interventions and through their own

efforts, youth can overcome these challenges, while enhancing their human development potential. The report examines how youth can be knowledgeable and well educated and live long, healthy, productive and creative lives. The age distribution of the population of Mongolia is characterized by a bulge representing youth cohorts. Not capitalizing on the potential of this significant youth population segment would mean forgoing substantial opportunities for enhancing development and productivity.

Box 1.2

The 2016 NHDR and the Capability Approach

The capability approach of Amartya Sen is a moral framework according to which social arrangements should be evaluated primarily by the freedom they allow so that individuals may promote or achieve the functionings the individuals value. All formulations in this evaluative approach towards capability have two parts: freedom and valuable beings and doings (functionings).

"The focus here is on the freedom that a person actually has to do this or be that, things that he or she may value doing or being."^a

For Sen, this freedom has two aspects: (1) the process aspect, that is, the ability to act on behalf of what matters (agency), which includes institutions, movements and democratic practice, and (2) the opportunity aspect, that is, the real opportunity to achieve valued functionings selected from among various good possibilities (capability). Agency is the ability of people to act on what they value and have reason to value. It is "what a person is free to do and achieve in pursuit of whatever goals or values he or she regards as important."^b

"The approach . . . is essentially a 'people-centred' approach, which

puts human agency (rather than organizations such as markets or governments) at the centre of the stage. The crucial role of social opportunities is to expand the realm of human agency and freedom, both as an end in itself and as a means of further expansion of freedom."^c

This approach fits in well with and, indeed, is a foundation of the concept of human development as exemplified in this 2016 NHDR.

"Human development is the expansion of people's freedoms to live long, healthy and creative lives; to advance other goals they have reason to value, and to engage actively in shaping development equitably and sustainably on a shared planet. People are both the beneficiaries and the drivers of human development, as individuals and in groups."

Source: Alkire, 2011.

a. Sen, 2009, pp. 231–232.

b. Sen, 1985, p. 203.

c. Dreze and Sen, 2002, p. 6.

d. UNDP, 2010, p. 2.n

The key areas analysed in the report are organized into four thematic pillars around human development:

- *Pillar 1:* develop capabilities among youth, that is, expand the access of young people to good-quality education and health care and create awareness of and encourage healthy lifestyles
- *Pillar 2:* increase opportunities among youth, which requires skill enhancement and greater access to employment opportunities
- *Pillar 3:* empower youth by enhancing political participation and social engagement
- *Pillar 4:* promote a safe and secure environment by improving the emotional and civil security of young people, expanding their access to social protection, and reducing their vulnerability to violence

The report consists of seven chapters. Chapter 1, this introduction, briefly describes the process of NHDR preparation, highlights the importance of youth development for

the country and lays out the context of youth in Mongolia. Chapter 2 reviews the progress in human development in Mongolia. Recent global estimates of the human development index (HDI) are used to assess Mongolia's progress at the national level, and the HDIs by regions and aimags (provinces) are calculated by the NHDR national team to assess the progress in human development within the country. Chapters 3–6 form the core of the report and are structured around the above four thematic pillars. Within each pillar, the analysis focuses on the opportunities and the challenges youth face and concludes with suggestions for developing the capabilities of youth, enhancing young people's employment prospects, political participation and social engagement, and improving the personal security of youth. Chapter 7 concludes with recommendations to promote development that is more inclusive of youth, to make Mongolia's development trajectory more youth-friendly and to take advantage of the opportunities offered by the bulge among youth cohorts in the country's population distribution for the overall development of Mongolia.

What the NHDR is not

The NHDR is neither original research nor an academic survey of the literature. It is a synthesis document that draws on mostly national data and research to illustrate crucial messages for policymaking. It touches on a range of topics and themes, but does not address all challenges facing youth in

Mongolia. Through rigorous analyses and the objective use of evidence, it reaches several conclusions, focuses attention on key issues, and raises critical questions that, hopefully, will be debated during the formulation and implementation of the Government's youth development policy.

The context of youth in Mongolia

Over the past 25 years, Mongolia has undergone rapid socio-economic and political changes that have transformed it from a socialist country to a multiparty democracy and a market economy. The economy has grown rapidly over the last 15 years. The average annual growth in gross domestic product (GDP) was 5.6 percent in 2000–2005, increased to 6.7 percent in 2005–2010 and accelerated to 12.2 percent

in 2010–2014.¹³ As a result, with a per capita gross national income (GNI) of US\$4,280 in 2014, Mongolia is classified as an upper-middle-income country by the World Bank.¹⁴ According to World Bank estimates, the GDP growth rate is projected to have dropped to 2.3 percent in 2015 and to 0.8 percent in 2016 because of a sharp contraction in mining production, despite a gradual recovery in non-mining sectors.¹⁵ The

country has achieved remarkable success in health and education outcomes as well.

However, Mongolia is facing numerous development challenges. Although the poverty rate fell from 38.7 percent in 2010 to 27.4 percent in 2012 and to 21.6 percent in 2014, it is high for an upper-middle-income country.¹⁶ The share of the bottom 20 percent of the population measured in terms of consumption distribution has not changed during the last 20 years, and wealth con-

centration, unemployment among youth, and widening urban-rural disparities may be having far-reaching impacts on development.

Despite the challenges, there are also substantial opportunities for youth. How these opportunities are maximized to favour youth development will depend on the effectiveness of policies and the extent of the inclusion of youth in development (box 1.3).

Box 1.3

Why Focus on Youth?

Young men and women can play a key role in the development process.^a Mongolia is a country of young people. Like young people elsewhere, Mongolia's youth are shaping the future of the nation, which critically depends on how well youth are integrated into the country's development and become responsible and productive citizens. They are the first generation in the country to have spent most of their lives under a democratic government. This has been crucial to their outlook and their experience.

At more than one million, youth aged 15–34 represent the largest demographic group in the country, constituting 34.9 percent of the population in 2015. Young people are a potential resource of the county's economic development, given that they accounted for a significant share of the working-age population in 2015.^b

Youth make up 45 percent of the voters in the country, and the youth vote is likely to become increasingly important and often even decisive in determining electoral outcomes.^c Establishing a democratic space and fostering the social engagement of youth are important for establishing a stable democracy, improving the quality of governance and creating an active and responsible citizenry. Without opportunities for the meaningful engagement of youth, the genuine needs and concerns of young people risk being ignored, thereby supporting economic and social instability.

Young people today are likely to be healthier and more well educated than their parents and can take advantage of modern communications technologies and media that enable them to engage more fully in society. They need to be prepared to live and work in the context of a quickly changing world, rapid globalization, a technological revolution and the challenges of employment and earning livelihoods.

Youth are the driving force towards the achievement of the SDGs by 2030 and of the Sustainable Development Vision–2030 of Mongolia, which was approved by the State Great Khural (the national parliament) in early February 2016.

Although youth have many more opportunities and advantages today than ever before, they face many more challenges that may undermine their capabilities when they become adults. Greater attention by all stakeholders is thus required to develop the capabilities, increase the economic opportunities, strengthen the empowerment, and enhance the human security of youth, the future of the country.

a. UNDP, 2014a.

b. NSO, 2015a.

c. UNDP, 2014b.

Mongolia's youth: key features

As a demographic group, youth refers to a period of transition from the dependence of childhood to the independence of adulthood.¹⁷ As an age category, youth defies easy classification. The lower-bound age often coincides with the minimum age for leaving school, usually around age 15. There is greater variation in the upper-bound age based on psychological maturity, social acceptance, economic independence and ability to participate in activities considered

adult such as forming opinions and taking responsibility.

For statistical consistency, the UN defines youth as the age-group between 15 and 24 years, though it recognizes that the meaning of the term varies across societies around the world.¹⁸ Governmental agencies and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in Mongolia use a variety of age ranges to define youth, typically starting around 15 and ending between 25 and 39.¹⁹ The Na-

tional Statistical Office of Mongolia (NSO) uses the UN age-classification (15–24 years) for statistical purposes. The range of 15–34 years is used in the 2006 Government Youth Development Programme and in the 2015 draft of the new youth policy.²⁰

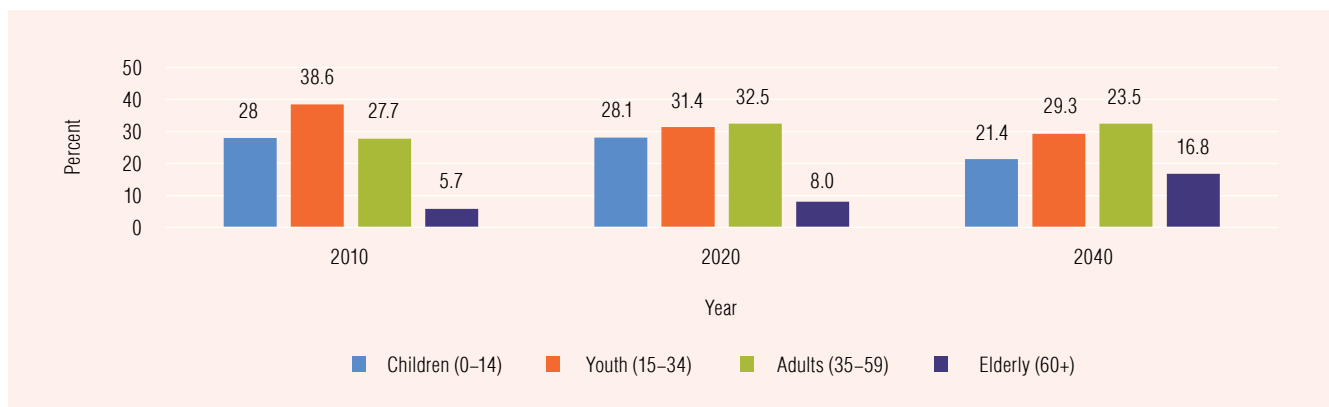
It is hoped an agreed official definition of the age range for youth can be established through a national dialogue. Meanwhile, to ensure data consistency and uniformity in analyses and to reflect the local reality, this report uses the widely accepted 15–34 age-classification to define youth.

Youth represent the largest demographic group and are mostly urban

According to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, the 15–34 age-group is the largest demographic group in the country, representing over 38 percent of the population (figure 1.1). The age-group is projected to make up 31 percent of the population in 2020. Even by 2040, when the total population is expected to reach 4 million, an estimated 29 percent will be in this age-group.

Figure 1.1

Youth Population, 2010–2040 % of total population



Note: The figure reflects population projection scenario B, which is based on data of the 2010 Population and Housing Census.
Source: NSO, 2011a.

The youth bulge in the age distribution of the population in Mongolia represents “a ‘boom’ generation – a generation that is larger than those immediately before and after – that is gradually working its way through the nation’s age structure”.²¹ As it passes through the working-age population, this bulge can produce a demographic dividend in economic growth.

One of the most dramatic changes in Mongolia’s population in recent decades has been the increase in rural-to-urban and external migration. Youth, in particular, are most likely to migrate in search of

better opportunities. Nearly 60 percent of the migrants to Ulaanbaatar, the capital, in 2000–2010 were in the 15–34 age-group, and the peak migration occurred among the 15–24 age-group (figure 1.2). According to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, over 107,000 Mongolians had been residing in foreign countries for more than six months, of which 63.0 percent were youth aged 15–34 years. There is a need for more sociological and anthropological research on this phenomenon and on the impact of migration on youth development.

Figure 1.2

Net Internal Migration, by Age-Group, 2000–2010



Source: NSO, 2011a.

Currently, 72 percent of the young live in cities, and two urban dwellers in five are in the 15–34 age-group. While young migrants are often separated from their parents and traditional support networks, they have a greater opportunity to mix with a diverse group of people, be exposed to new

and different ideas and ways of behaving, and acquire greater independence. However, they also face numerous challenges. This highlights the importance of paying attention to the mobility of young people in urban policy and planning.

Youth are a large, heterogeneous group

Young women and men in the 15–34 age-group are a large, heterogeneous group. The needs, aspirations and challenges of the younger age cohorts – the 15–19 and 20–24 age-groups – are substantially different from those of the older cohort, the 25–34 age-group. The 15–19 age-group – more than 244,000 individuals in 2014 – needs universal access to good-quality education, including life skills-based health education, sports and leisure facilities and adolescent-friendly health services for healthy physical, emotional and psychological development. Nearly one 15- to 19-year-old in five has migrated, often to pursue better education or employment (see figure 1.2).

The 20–24 age-group – nearly 278,000 individuals in 2014 – requires appropriate good-quality tertiary or vocational education and skills development that can prepare them for future employment. The unemployment rate is highest among this age-group, at 17 percent.

Most of the 25–34 age-group – more than 563,000 individuals in 2014 – are entering or becoming stable in the job market, marrying, forming families, or becoming parents. Among this group, building careers, earning good incomes, possessing independent accommodations, acquiring high-quality nutrition, caring for children, and gaining access to good family planning services are key concerns. Even if young people in this age-group have jobs, it is estimated that more than three fifths of young employees lack sufficient income to cover their daily needs; half require the support of others to survive, and 60 percent of those who are married are still living with their parents.²²

Overall and like young people elsewhere, Mongolia's youth are dynamic, creative and full of aspirations and enjoy the potential of becoming drivers of change and playing a significant role in the country's future. They are more well educated than their parents, more urbanized, and more well connected

with each other as well as with the rest of the world through the use of information and communication technology (ICT), social media and the Internet.

There are also young people who are living on the street, low-income young people, young people in the juvenile justice system, youth addicted to alcohol, victims of sexual, physical, and emotional abuse, and youth who receive little or no support from their families, schools, or communities. Youth

with mental or physical disabilities and lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender (LGBT) youth often face stigma and discrimination at work or school, in public places and even within the family.²³ This heterogeneity among the youth population demonstrates the importance of addressing the age-specific priorities and concerns of diverse youth groups in policymaking. Particularly the inclusion of marginalized and hard-to-reach young people is essential.

Youth issues are being addressed through national and sectoral policies

Governments worldwide have been gradually recognizing the importance of policy in addressing young people's concerns, hopes and needs. Of 198 countries, 122 currently have national youth policies, a 50 percent rise since 2013.²⁴ Mongolia had no specific youth policy until the Government recently drafted a youth development policy and submitted it to the State Great Khural (the national parliament).

The Government has been addressing youth issues through broader national and sectoral policies and programmes. The broader sectoral policies involving initiatives on education, health, employment and security among youth are discussed in subsequent chapters.

Since the country transitioned to a market economy and to democracy during the 1990s, a wide range of legal and policy reforms have been undertaken. Young people have benefited from general policies. Youth have also played a key role in the democratic change. For example, the leaders of the Mongolian democratic movement were young, in their 20s and 30s. Broader legal and policy reforms have opened many opportunities to young people as well as other groups.

The Constitution of Mongolia, which was adopted in 1992, offers legal guarantees to all citizens, including young people, through rights to personal liberty and to live in a healthy and safe environment and

several other political and economic rights directly tied to human development (Article 14). Overarching national policies such as the Comprehensive National Development Strategy (2008–2021), which is based on the Millennium Development Goals, also cover many crucial aspects of youth development in education, health care, employment, science and technology, and family affairs.²⁵ The Sustainable Development Vision–2030 of Mongolia that was recently approved by the State Great Khural includes broader, youth-specific strategies in these same areas.

Two trends are clear from this brief review of the policies and initiatives of the Government. First, while much has been achieved in favour of youth, youth issues have been embedded in larger sectoral policies, and, so, it is difficult to assess the impact on youth. Second, a lack of coordination and funding across sectors and ministries is a key weakness. One may hope that the comprehensive youth development policy currently being prepared and debated will address these limitations by placing more emphasis on the greater involvement of young people, adequate funding, and intersectoral and interministerial coordination. Considering these gaps and the lessons learned in the formulation and implementation of youth-inclusive and youth-specific policies and programmes is important. Numerous interventions focused on youth have already been undertaken (box 1.4).

Youth-Specific Initiatives in Mongolia

Mongolia's policies and interventions in favour of youth have a long history. The first youth organization, Boshgiig halah zaluuchuudiiin evlel, a predecessor of the Mongolian Revolutionary Youth Union, was established in 1921. It was active in all aimags and soums (districts) and served as the national youth organization until the 1990s.^a

During the socialist period, youth-specific policies and interventions were influenced by the political agenda of the time. They were developed and implemented by the state.^b The primary objective was to provide free education and health care services to all citizens, including youth, and promote youth employment and involvement in social life.

The 2006 National Programme to Promote Adolescent and Youth Development (2007–2015) was the first youth-specific programme in the country. It supported the development of youth capabilities and aimed to enhance youth participation through civil society organizations.^c The 2013 evaluation of the 2006 Youth Development Programme conducted by the Ministry of Population Development and Social Protection concluded that few objectives of the programme had been met, and many challenges had been encountered during implementation because of a lack of funding (only about ₮47 million were allocated during 2008–2009), poor coordination, weak programme management, and limited youth involvement.^a

The Government Action Plan for 2012–2016 emphasizes five key areas, all of which have a direct bearing on youth development: citizens with jobs and incomes, a healthy and strong citizen, an educated and knowledgeable citizen, a citizen living in a safe environment, and a free citizen.^d

In accordance with the action plan, the Government has implemented several initiatives specific to youth in recent years. The Youth Division established within the Ministry of Population Development and Social

Protection formed a national committee on youth development and initiated the development of youth policy and programmes and the establishment of youth development centres. Monthly consultation meetings with youth organizations have also been institutionalized. Other youth-specific interventions include the Youth Employment Promotion Programme, the Youth Labour Exchange, an extension of student scholarships for study abroad, the establishment of the 1000 Students Camp, and the housing programme for young couples. It is important to expand such youth-specific initiatives and invest more in efforts to address the specific needs of the various youth age cohorts through youth policies and programmes that encompass the greater involvement of young people.

Mongolia's young people were actively engaged in the national consultations organized by the UN Country Team in 2012–2014 on the post-2015 development agenda. The concerns raised by young people during the consultations were focused on high unemployment, the poor quality of education, the mismatch between education and job opportunities, and the poor quality of health services.^e Mongolia's young people also participated actively in the global UN survey, "The World We Want". The results show that Mongolian youth are especially concerned about health, education, employment and environmental issues.^f

a. MPDSP, 2013.

b. IPSL, 2014.

c. World Vision Mongolia, UNESCO, and NAC, 2013.

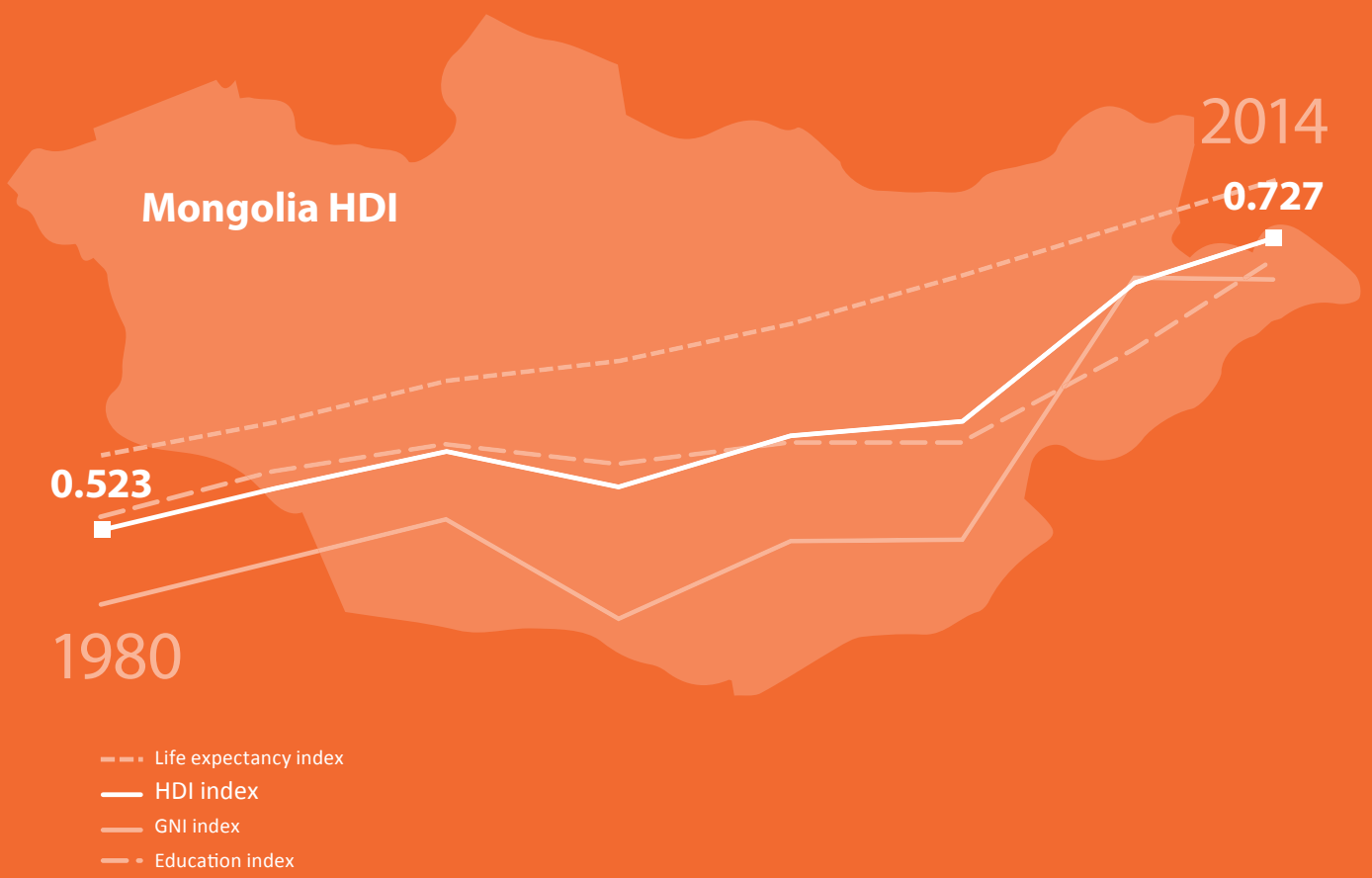
d. Government of Mongolia, 2012.

e. UN Country Team, 2014.

f. "Have Your Say" (database), My World 2015, United Nations, New York, <http://data.myworld2015.org/?country=Mongolia>.

Chapter 2

Human development in Mongolia



2. Human development in Mongolia

Box 2.1

Fast Facts

1. The improvement in the HDI in Mongolia has been remarkable. The HDI of 0.727 places the country within the high human development country category with a rank of 90th among 188 countries.^a Between 1980 and 2014, life expectancy at birth increased by 12.5 years; mean years of schooling rose by 3.5 years; the expected years of schooling expanded by 4.3 years, and the GNI per capita surged by a factor of 3.3.
2. The expansion in education coverage, a component of the HDI, is a significant achievement. A child starting school in 2014 can expect to receive 14.6 years of schooling, which is high relative to most of the countries in the high human development category.^a
3. Mongolia has comparatively low life expectancy at birth relative to its level of economic growth. The gap between female and male life expectancy has widened in the last decade, especially among young people. The slow progress in life expectancy and the gap between female and male life expectancy require urgent attention.
4. Mongolia loses less of its HDI value compared with selected countries in the region if inequalities across all the three dimensions of the HDI are factored in (see figure 2.6).
5. National estimates show HDIs vary across aimags. Aimags with higher HDIs are better at providing more equitable access to health care, education and employment opportunities. All urban centres have HDIs that are higher than or close to the national average HDI, indicating greater-than-average access to education, health care and job opportunities, which may be both a reason for and a consequence of substantial rural-to-urban migration.
6. Mongolia's gender inequality index (GII) is at the average among the group of high human development countries and is a bit better than the average among the countries in the Asia and Pacific region, with a value of 0.325, which ranks the country 63rd among 155 countries.^a The GII has been declining since 2011, suggesting that women and men generally enjoy equitable access to health care and education.

a. UNDP, 2015a.

Introduction: measuring human development

The focus of this chapter is the measurement of progress in human development in Mongolia. The centrepiece is the HDI, which is a summary aggregate of a country's achievement along three key dimensions of human development, as follows:

- Long and healthy life, measured by life expectancy at birth
- Access to knowledge, measured by the expected years of schooling among children of school-entry age and the mean years of schooling among the adult population²⁶
- A decent standard of living, measured by the GNI per capita as a proxy for the cost of a basket of the goods and services needed for the best use of human capabilities²⁷

However, the HDI alone is insufficient because “human deprivation and development have many facets; so any index of human progress should incorporate a range of indicators to capture this complexity.”²⁸ Thus, over the years, with improved understanding of human development, the UNDP Human Development Report Office and independent researchers have developed a family of human development indices to measure progress on human development (annex III).

Mongolia's progress in human development

Global estimates indicate that Mongolia's HDI rose from 0.524 in 1980 to 0.727 in 2014 (table 2.1). The value of the HDI in 2014 put the country in the high human development category, positioning Mongolia at 90th among 188 economies. The rank is shared with China and Fiji.²⁹

Table 2.1**Mongolia's Progress in the HDI, 1980–2014**

Year	Life expectancy at birth	Mean years of schooling	Expected years of schooling	GNI per capita	HDI value
1980	56.9	5.8	10.3	3,265	0.524
1985	58.4	6.7	10.3	4,047	0.552
1990	60.3	7.7	10.2	4,583	0.578
1995	61.2	7.8	7.7	4,191	0.553
2000	62.9	8.2	9.4	4,608	0.589
2005	65.1	8.6	12.7	5,944	0.649
2010	67.5	9.3	14.6	7,084	0.695
2011	68.1	9.3	14.6	8,184	0.706
2012	68.6	9.3	14.6	9,072	0.714
2013	69.0	9.3	14.6	10,223	0.722
2014	69.4	9.3	14.6	10,729	0.727

Note: The trends in the HDI are based on consistent time series data and new goal points. The GNI per capita is in 2011 international purchasing power parity US dollars. Source: UNDP, 2015a.

The impact of economic growth on progress in human development

To the extent that increased incomes expand the range of choices and capabilities among individuals, economic growth enhances human development. The impact of economic growth on the progress in human development is evident in Mongolia's recent past. After the collapse of the centrally planned economy in the early 1990s, Mongolia underwent a painful transition to a market economy and a pluralist democracy. Economic stagnation and significant inflation were accompanied by high unemployment and school dropouts. The HDI rose by only about 0.18 percent a year in 1990–2000 (table 2.2). In 2000–2010, when the economy was recovering, the HDI grew at an average of about 1.7 percent a year, more quickly relative to the previous decades. Overall, economic growth led to impressive gains in human development. Most of the improvement in the HDI since 1990 took place in 2000–2014 when average annual economic growth was around 7.0 percent.

Human development and economic growth are closely interrelated, and they affect each other. Economic growth enhances human development because it allows economic agents to discover and develop their comparative advantage, while enhanced capabilities among individuals improve economic performance by permitting the individuals to pursue the occupations in which they are most productive. Meanwhile, to sustain human development, efforts to improve educational attainment and health should nonetheless have the same priority as efforts to boost economic growth.

Table 2.2**HDI Growth, 1990–2014***percent*

Years	Average annual increase, %
1990–2000	0.18
2000–2010	1.68
2010–2014	1.11
1990–2014	0.96

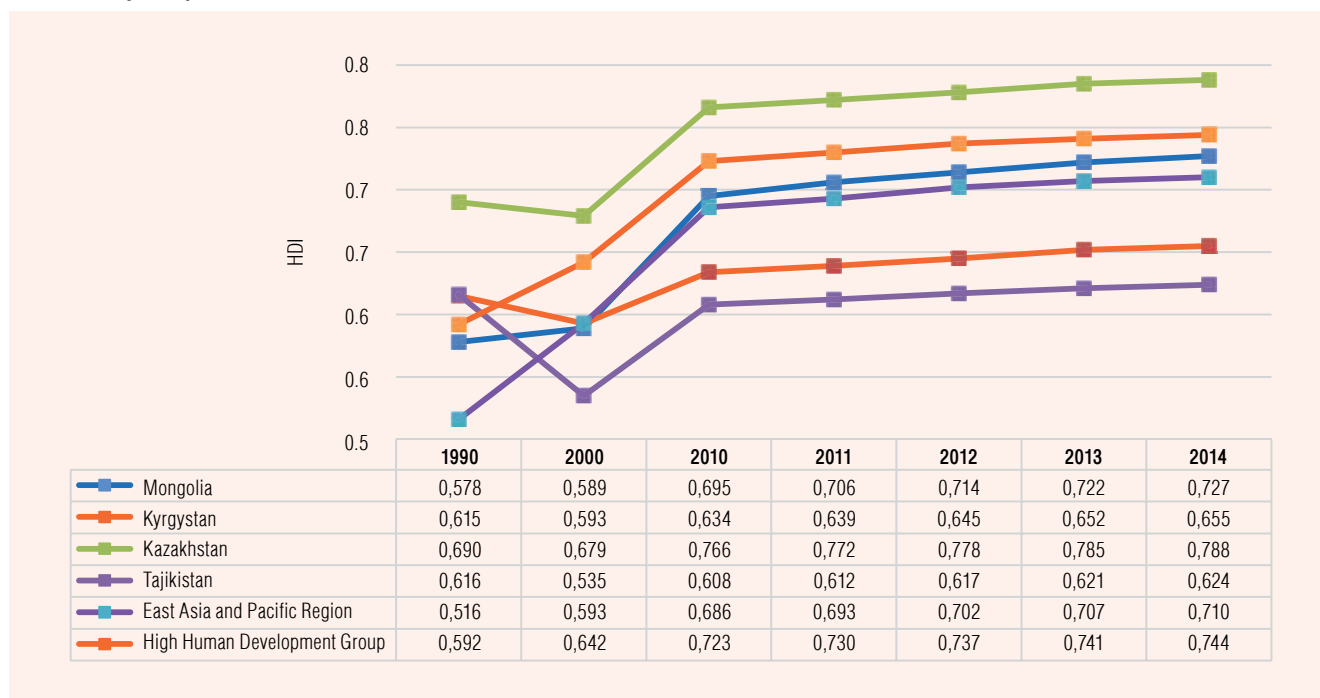
Source: UNDP, 2015a.

Comparing the HDIs in Mongolia and other countries

Although Mongolia's HDI is 2.3 percent lower than the average HDI among countries in the high human development category, it is about 2.2 percent above the world average.

Figure 2.1

HDI Country Comparison, 2014



Source: UNDP, 2015a.

A comparison of Mongolia with selected countries in the region that had a similar political and economic structure prior to 1990 and that have undergone a similar transition from a socialist system shows that only Kazakhstan has performed better on

the HDI than Mongolia. Kazakhstan, at 56th, has an HDI of 0.788. Furthermore, in 2014, despite the constraints posed by geography, Mongolia ranked 6th among the 32 landlocked developing countries in terms of human development.³⁰

Variations in aimag HDIs

The following analysis of trends in the HDI and its component indices within Mongolia is based on the HDI estimates developed by the NSO using national-level data. The 2014 national HDI estimates across aimags reveal large differences in the progress in human development. An important feature of the aimag HDIs is the clear rural-urban divide. Thus, locations with large urban centres, such as Orkhon Aimag and Ulaanbaatar, have HDIs that are higher than the national average, suggesting that these lo-

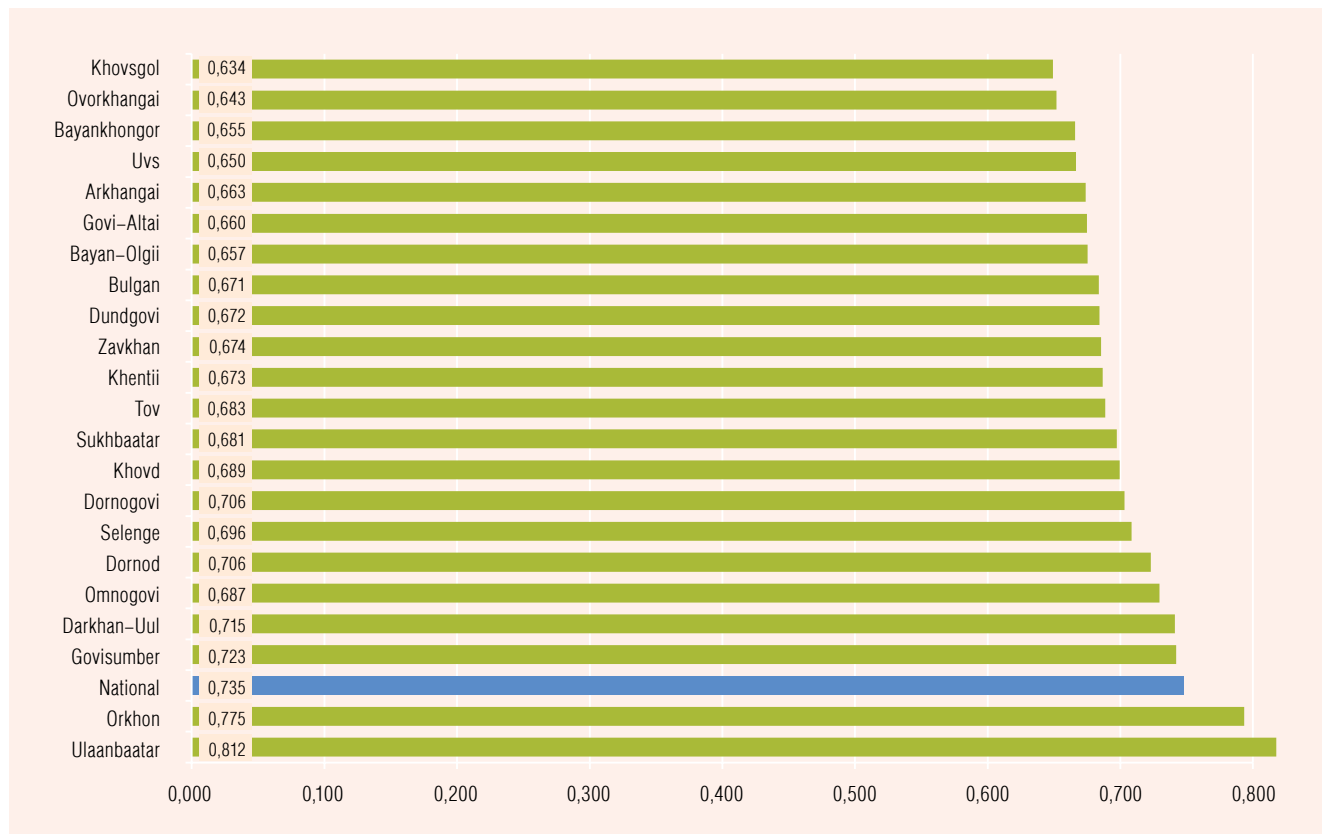
cations offer better access to education and health care services and that there is a greater likelihood that the local populations are more uniformly able to find employment (figure 2.2). Ulaanbaatar, with around 46.0 percent of the country's population, has the highest HDI, at 0.818, which is almost 9 percent higher than the national average.³¹ Together, Orkhon Aimag and Ulaanbaatar account for 48.6 percent of the country's population, and one may therefore assume that almost half the population lives in plac-

es with above-average human development indicators. Darkhan-Uul and Govisumber aimags have HDIs of 0.741 and 0.742, re-

spectively, which are slightly lower than the national average.

Figure 2.2

Human Development Index, by Aimag, 2014



Source: NSO, 2015a.

It is not difficult to identify the reason for the substantial population migration witnessed in recent years. Migrants to urban centres in Darkhan-Uul and Orkhon aimags and to Ulaanbaatar account for 80 percent of all internal migrants in Mongolia; Ulaanbaatar alone attracts 67 percent. Most of the migrants to Ulaanbaatar in 2005–2010 came from aimags in the Khangai region.³² Even though it is difficult to establish direct causality between HDI values and migration, the implication is clear: the differences in human development across aimags are an important factor that fuels migration from aimags with lower HDIs to aimags with higher HDIs, where the prospects for an improvement in the quality of life are better.

They also underline the uneven human development across aimags, a fact that might otherwise remain hidden.

However, the differences in HDIs across aimags should not be taken to imply there is universal access to education, health care, or employment in the aimags with higher HDIs. Indeed, access to opportunities is quite uneven within individual cities. A poverty mapping exercise based on 2010 census data shows that there are sharp disparities in poverty and shared prosperity across the districts of Ulaanbaatar; thus, Nalaikh District is particularly poor in access to services.³³

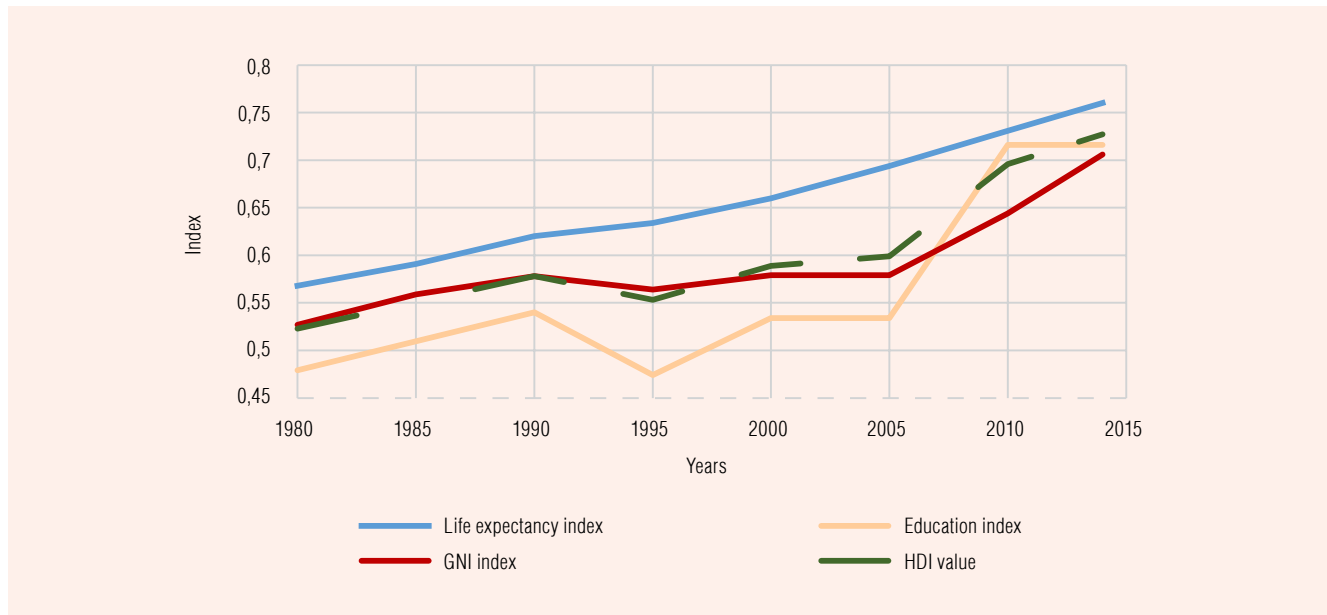
HDI component indices

The per capita GNI index grew at an average annual rate of 1.9 percent in 2010–2014, while the life expectancy index grew at 0.9 percent, and the education index at 0.7 percent (figure 2.3). Growth in the GNI index

contributed the most to the rise in the HDI during these years. The contributions of the education and health components to the HDI were more limited.

Figure 2.3

Changes in the Human Development Index and in Its Components, 1980–2014



Source: UNDP, 2014c, 2015a.

The education index and the relationship with access to knowledge

The slow growth of the education index in 2011–2014 was largely the result of only a slight advance in the component indicators, that is, the mean years of schooling and the expected years of schooling. Both indicators change slowly, but the reasons for the low value of the mean years of schooling are not difficult to recognize. People 25 years or older at the time of the 2010 census – the estimation of the mean years of schooling is based on 2010 census data – had completed their education under the older system when the school entrance age was 8 years, and a child completed secondary education in 10 years (chapter 3). The value of the mean years of schooling was therefore not likely to contribute much to the education index until the impact of the education reforms and the extended number of years of

schooling had shown up among the next cohort of people 25 years or older.

The expected years of schooling component rose steadily because of the emphasis in recent years on boosting school attendance. A child who entered the education system in 2014 can expect to receive 14.6 years of schooling, which is high relative to most countries in the high human development group. The turnaround in the extension of access to education to all children up to secondary school and the expansion of enrolments at all levels of education, especially since 2000, have thus been a remarkable success and have contributed to the development of the capabilities of young people. However, youth still face considerable challenges in gaining equal access to high-quality education (chapter 3).

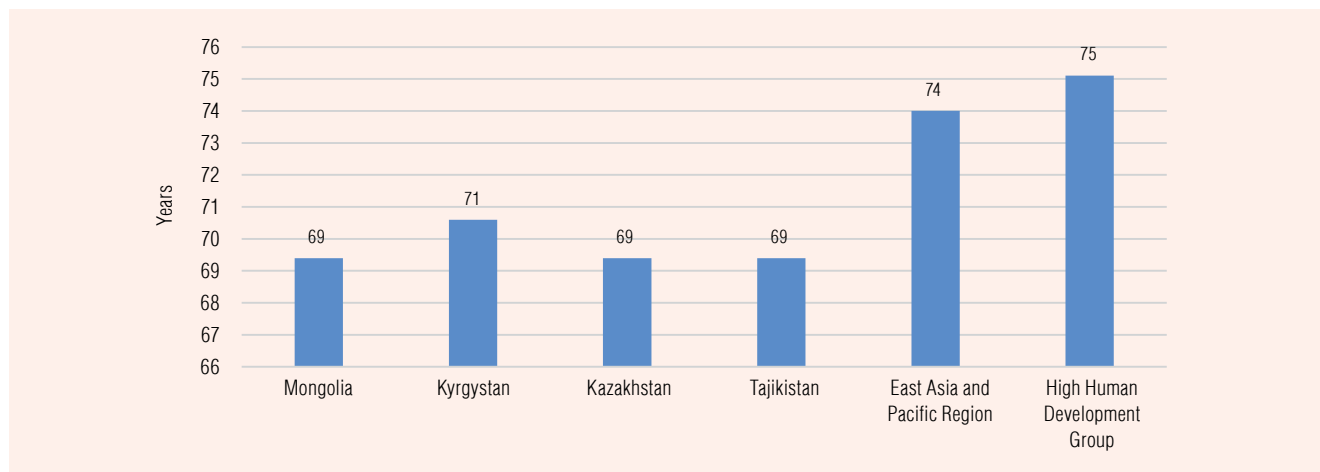
The life expectancy index and the relationship with health among youth

Mongolia has comparatively low life expectancy at birth (69.4 years) relative to its level of economic growth as well as to the aver-

age of the countries in the East Asia and Pacific region and the high human development group (figure 2.4).

Figure 2.4

Comparison: Life Expectancy at Birth, Selected Countries, 2014



Source: UNDP, 2015a.

Life expectancy at birth in Mongolia rose steadily, from 64.2 years in 2000 to 67.3 years in 2010 and to 69.4 years in 2014, mainly because of improvements in infant and child survival after 1990.³⁴ Both the infant mortality rate and the under-5 mortality rate declined sharply, by 76.9 percent and 81.3 percent, respectively, in 1990–2013.³⁵

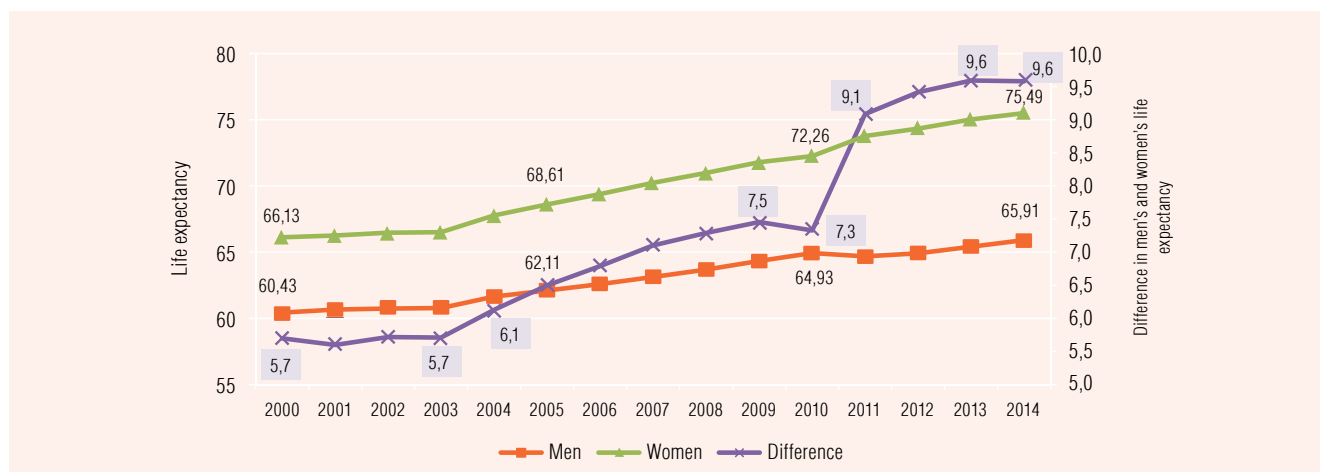
Life expectancy at birth. In 2014, the difference was nearly 10.0 years, 75.5 years among women and 65.9 years among men, which is more than twice the world average of 4.6 years.³⁶ In addition, female life expectancy is rising much more quickly than male life expectancy, and, so, the female-male gap is widening (figure 2.4).

An issue of concern, however, is the vast disparity between male and female life ex-

Figure 2.5

Life Expectancy at Birth, by Sex, Mongolia, 2000–2014

years



Source: NSO, 2011b, 2014a, 2015a.

The slow growth in overall male life expectancy may be associated with the life expectancy among young men. Data suggest that life expectancy among youth in the 15–34 age-group is rising only slowly; indeed, life expectancy among young men actually de-

clined across all age cohorts in 1990–2012 (chapter 3).

The slow progress in life expectancy and gap between female and male life expectancy therefore require urgent attention.

Adjusting human development measures to show inequality

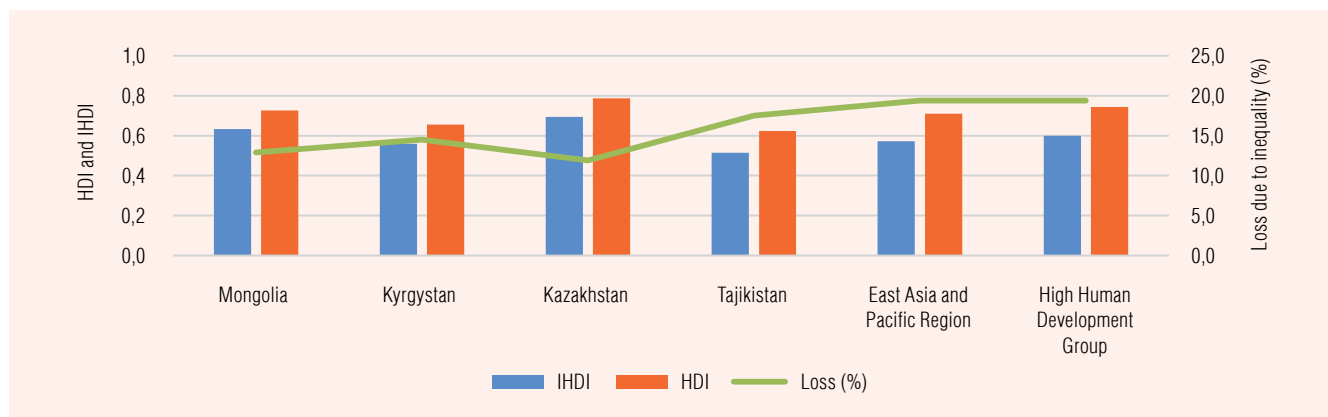
The HDI is an average measure of basic achievements in human development in a country. Like all averages, the HDI masks inequalities in the distribution of human development across a population. The inequality-adjusted HDI (IHDI) was introduced in Human Development Report 2010 to measure the loss in human development because of inequality.³⁷ The IHDI equals the HDI if there is no inequality across the measured population, but it falls below the HDI if inequality widens.³⁸ The loss in the

HDI because of inequality is thus the difference between the HDI and the IHDI expressed as a percentage.

This is illustrated in figure 2.6, which is based on global estimates and shows that the loss in the HDI (the difference with the IHDI) was 12.9 percent in 2014. The adjustment of the HDI according to the level of inequality indicates that Mongolia ranked 60th among the 151 countries on which IHDI have been calculated.

Figure 2.6

Comparison of HDI and IHDI: Losses Because of Inequality, 2014



Source: UNDP, 2015a.

According to global estimates, Mongolia loses less of its HDI value compared with selected countries in the region if inequalities across all three human development dimensions are factored in. This means Mongolia remains more equal than most countries in the Asia and Pacific region and is more or less comparable in terms of inequality with countries in Central Asia. Still, the share of the bottom 20 percent of the consumption distribution in the population has not changed over the last 20 years; so,

while the economy is growing, inequality is not narrowing.³⁹

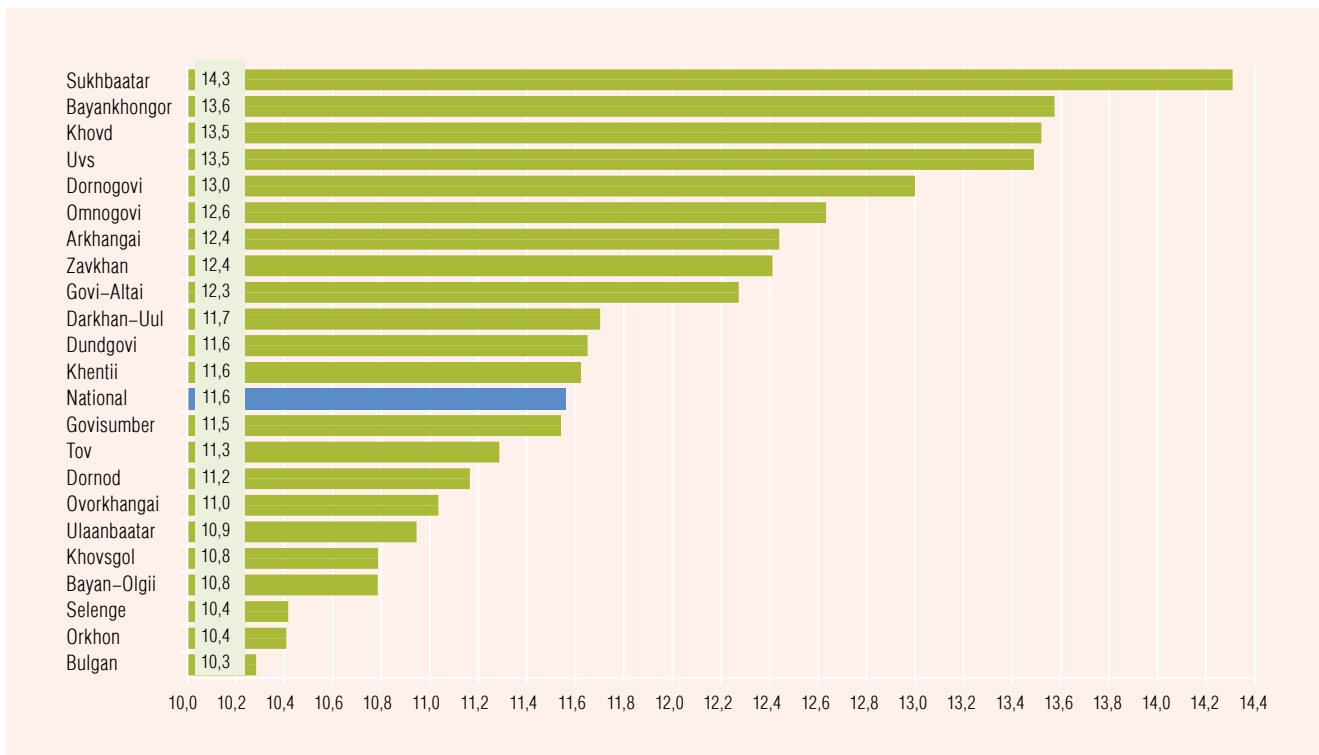
According to national estimates, the loss in the HDI because of inequality – the difference between potential human development (HDI) and actual human development (IHDI) – varied by aimag (figure 2.7). More than 28.6 percent of the population is located in aimags that have suffered higher-than-average losses in the HDI because of unequal access. Because of greater inequality, four of the five aimags in western

Mongolia exhibit greater losses than the average loss in the HDI across the country, which is not surprising given that the west has the lowest overall HDI. The losses in the HDI in Sukhbaatar, Bayankhongor,

Khovd, Uvs, Dornogovi and Omnogovi aimags were highest, that is, access to health care, education and income opportunities was unequally distributed across the population in these aimags.

Figure 2.7

Losses in the HDI Because of Inequality, by Aimag, 2014
percent



Source: Estimated by the NHDR team based on data in NSO, 2015a.

Measuring gender inequality in human development

Gender equality is an essential part of human development. It is also a core concern because, in most countries, women are discriminated against in health care, education and the labour market, and this restricts the freedom of women to “achieve the outcomes that they value and have reason to value” in their lives.⁴⁰

The gender development index

Human Development Report 2014 introduced a new measure, the gender development index (GDI), which is based on the sex-disaggregated HDI, defined as the ratio of the female HDI to the male HDI.⁴¹ The GDI thus measures gender inequalities in achievement in the three basic dimensions

of human development: health, education and command over economic resources.

GDI country rankings are based on the absolute deviation from gender parity in the HDIs, that is, they take into consideration inequality whether in favour of men or in favour of women. With a GDI of 1.028, Mongolia was ranked 32nd among 161 countries in 2014.

The gender inequality index

The gender inequality index (GII) captures gender inequality across three dimensions – reproductive health, empowerment, and access to the labour market – and is measured according to five indicators (box 2.2).

The GII is therefore a composite index that aggregates the progress across these indicators. It may be interpreted to represent the loss in human development because of

gender inequality in the three dimensions. It ranges between 0, if women and men fare equally, and 1, if one sex fares as poorly as possible in all measured dimensions.⁴²

Box 2.2

Measuring Gender Inequality in Mongolia

A breakdown of the components of the GII indicates the successes and the challenges in the effort to achieve gender equality.

Dimension 1: reproductive health

Indicator 1, maternal mortality ratio: the ratio registered a sharp decline, from 121.5 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births in 2001 to 30.0 in 2014. A decline in the ratio has a positive impact on the GII at the national level. However, an increase of the ratio in the aimags has a substantial impact in worsening the GII across the regions of the country.

Indicator 2, adolescent birth rate: from 21 births per 1,000 adolescent women (15–19 years of age) in 2002, the rate rose to 29 births in 2013. Mongolia's adolescent birth rate is higher than the average among the countries of the Asia and Pacific region. There is a need for a proper understanding of the causes of the recent increase before deciding on ways to reduce adolescent pregnancy. An increase in the adolescent birth rate affects the GII negatively.

Dimension 2: empowerment

Indicator 3, share of seats in the State Great Khural: the representation of women in the State Great Khural rose from a record low of 3.9 percent in 2008 to 14.5 percent in 2012, which is below the world and Asia–Pacific averages of 22.9 percent and 18.8 percent, respectively.^a The slow reduction in gender disparity in political representation contributes negatively to the GII.

Indicator 4, population with at least some secondary education: the indicator of the share of men and women with at least secondary educational attainment is estimated using 2000 and 2010 census results. There has been no change in secondary educational attainment among men (83.0 percent in both years). In contrast, secondary educational attainment among women rose from 77.8 percent in 2000 to 84.2 percent in 2010. Reducing the gender difference in secondary education has a positive impact on the GII.

Dimension 3: the labour market

Indicator 5, labour force participation rate: the methodology for estimating the labour force participation rate was changed in 2009, and, so, the latest data cannot be compared with the data before 2009. Since 2009, however, the average labour force participation rate was 66.8 percent among men and 61.8 percent among women. Though the rate is lower among women, more men than women are unemployed.^b This is because more boys and young men are seeking employment relative to girls and young women. A large share of women participate in unpaid family work, especially in rural areas. Although there is a disparity in the participation rates between women and men, the above statistics suggest that the rate was more stable among both women and men in 2002–2014, and the impact of the participation rates on changes in the GII may be negligible.

a. Parline Database on National Parliaments, Inter-Parliamentary Union, Geneva, <http://www.ipu.org/parline-e/parlinesearch.asp>.

b. NSO, 2015a.

The GII was 0.325 in 2014, putting Mongolia at 63rd among 155 countries. The GII is at the average among the group of high human development countries and is a bit better than the average among the countries in the Asia and Pacific region (0.328).

Unlike the HDI, a higher GII value indicates poor performance. The GII has been calculated for 2002–2014 using national-level data. Based on these estimates, the GII has been dropping steadily since 2011 and is now at the lowest level since 2002, that is, women and men fare more equally now than in previous years.

The GII focuses attention on non-income dimensions of inequality such as access to education, health services and employment across location, wealth and sex (chapters 3

and 4). Some aimags performed poorly on the GII because of deterioration in the reproductive health dimension. For instance, the GII in Khentii and Bayan-Ulgii aimags worsened in 2014 relative to 2009 mainly because of an increase in teenage pregnancies in both aimags and an increase in maternal mortality in Bayan-Ulgii.

A striking feature of the variations in the aimag GIIs is the influence of the indicator measuring the share of seats in the State Great Khural. The GII is sensitive to this indicator, and even a slight change in the share of women in political representation has a large effect. For comparisons within the country, an alternative indicator, such as one that measures the share of seats in the local khurals (councils), may be appropriate.

Multidimensional poverty

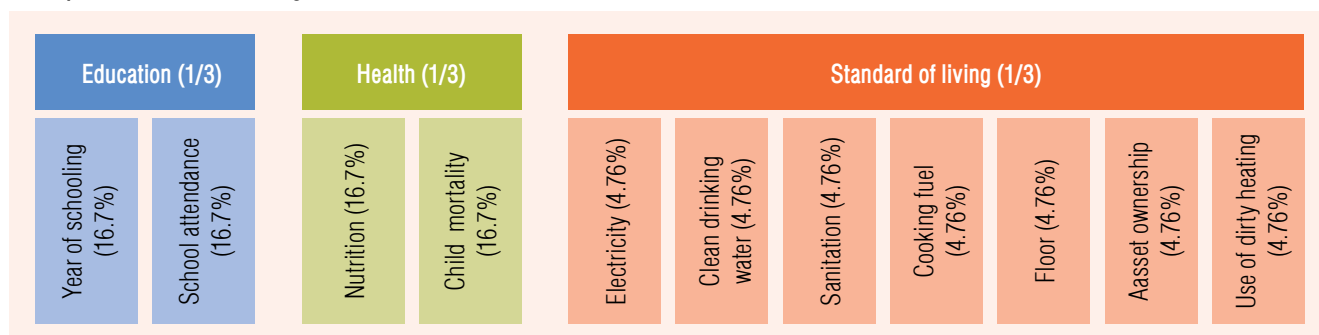
Poverty can become manifest across many dimensions. People may be poor because they lack adequate incomes, but they may also be poor because they are deprived in non-monetary dimensions such as health or nutrition, educational attainment or skills, livelihoods, housing conditions, or political participation. Together, deprivations in these dimensions provide a fuller picture of poverty.

The global multidimensional poverty index (MPI) was introduced in 2010 to identify multiple deprivations across the same three dimensions as the HDI, that is, education, health and living standards. (Methodological details are provided in annexes III and IV.) It shows the proportion of people who are multidimensionally poor – that is, suffering from a number of deprivations simultaneously – and the proportion of deprivations

with which poor households typically contend. The 2013 MPI for Mongolia has been computed based on an adjusted assets indicator and the Social Indicator Sample Survey (SISS) 2013.⁴³ The newly computed MPI for 2013 covers three dimensions and 11 indicators (figure 2.8).⁴⁴ Each dimension is equally weighted, and each indicator within the dimensions is also weighted equally.⁴⁵ The indicators include an additional Mongolia-specific indicator, heating, which is crucial in Mongolia because of the extreme climate conditions. For this indicator, households are considered deprived if they use dirty heating, that is, coal or other materials such as waste or old tyres. In addition, the indicator of the number of livestock has been included as one of the items considered for the index on asset ownership to reflect the reality among herder households in rural areas (annex V).

Figure 2.8

Composition of the MPI, Mongolia, 2013



Note: The percentage share of each indicator constitutes the weight of the indicator in the estimates.

The weighted indicators are used to create a deprivation score, and deprivation scores are computed for each household in the survey. A deprivation score of 33.3 percent – one third of the weighted indicators – is used to distinguish between poor and non-poor households. If the household deprivation score is 33.3 percent or greater, the household and everyone in it are classified as multidimensionally poor. Households with a deprivation score greater than or equal to 20.0 percent, but less than 33.3 percent are considered to be near multidimensional poverty. If the deprivation score is 50.0

percent or above, the household is considered to be living in severe multidimensional poverty. The weights for the standard of living indicators are different relative to those used by the Human Development Report Office in estimating the 2010 MPI because of the addition of the indicator on heating.

The MPI is an index obtained as the product of two components:

- The incidence of poverty (the poverty headcount ratio), which represents the proportion of people identified as multidimensionally poor, that is, those

whose deprivation score is equal to or greater than 33.3 percent

- The intensity of poverty, which represents the average deprivation score among the poor, that is, the average proportion of weighted deprivations among the poor

In this sense, the MPI does not only measure who is poor, but also how poor they are.

The findings show that the MPI was 0.021 in 2013, while the poverty headcount ratio was 5.4 percent (table 2.3). About 5.4 percent of the population – 162,000 individuals – were multidimensionally poor in 2013, while an additional 15.4 percent – 462,000 individuals – were near multidimensional poverty. The average of the deprivation scores experienced by people living in multidimensional poverty was 39.7 percent in 2013. The share of the population living in severe poverty was 0.4 percent in 2013.

Table 2.3

The Multidimensional Poverty Index, Mongolia, 2013

Survey	Year	Multidimensional poverty index	Headcount ratio, %	Average intensity, %	Population near multidimensional poverty, %	Population in severe multidimensional poverty, %
SISS	2013	0.021	5.4	39.7	15.4	0.4

Note: Multidimensional poverty index: percentage of the population that is multidimensionally poor, adjusted by the intensity of the deprivation. Multidimensional poverty headcount: percentage of the population with a weighted deprivation score of at least 33.3 percent. Intensity of deprivation of multidimensional poverty: the average percentage of deprivation experienced by people in multidimensional poverty.

Source: Estimated by the NHDR team using the 2013 SISS dataset of the NSO, the United Nations Children’s Fund and the United Nations Population Fund; see NSO, 2014b.

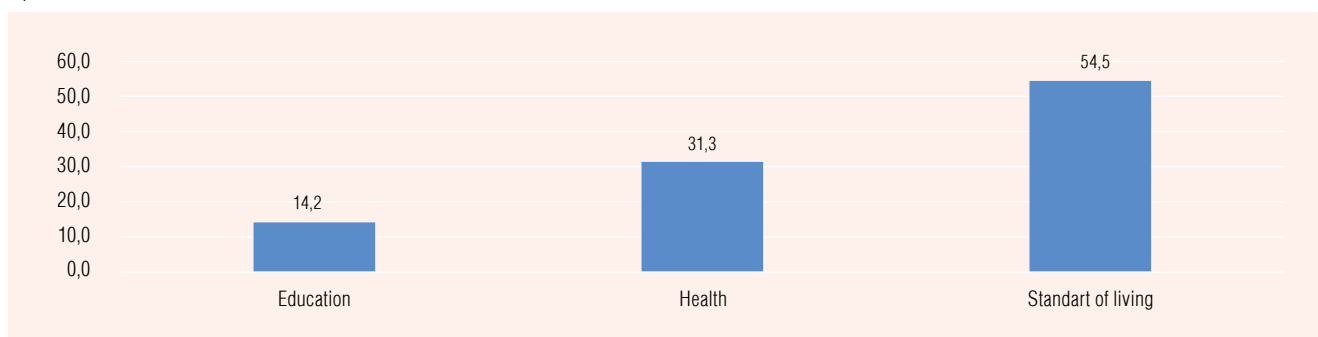
Findings show that education contributed less to the MPI in 2013, while the shares of the dimensions of health and the standard of living were larger (figure 2.9). This probably means more households were gaining access to education so that educational poverty was declining because of the expansion in school enrolments (see above and chap-

ter 3). Although the MPI was relatively low in 2013 because of improvements in the education and health dimensions, the proportion of people exhibiting consumption below the poverty line was 21.6 percent in 2014, which means more than one fifth of Mongolians were still living below the poverty line.

Figure 2.9

Contributions of the MPI Dimensions to the MPI, 2013

percent



Source: Estimated by a local expert using the 2013 SISS dataset of the NSO; see NSO, 2014b.

Conclusions

Mongolia has made remarkable progress in human development in recent years. The HDI has improved steadily, and the country advanced to the high human development category in 2014.

Mongolia loses less of its HDI value compared with selected countries in the region if inequalities across all three human development dimensions are factored in. This means that Mongolia remains more equal than most countries in the Asia and Pacific region and is more or less comparable in terms of inequality with countries in Europe and Central Asia.

Nonetheless, the share of the bottom 20 percent of the consumption distribution in the population has not changed over the last 20 years. So, while the economy is growing, inequality is not narrowing. The proportion of people who exhibit consumption below the poverty line is still high, and more than one fifth of Mongolians are living below the poverty line. This requires immediate attention.

Mongolia shows low life expectancy at birth relative to its level of economic development as well as to the average of the countries in East Asia and the Pacific and the high human development group. The gap between female and male life expectancy has widened in the last decade, especially among young people. The slow progress in life expectancy and the gap between female and male life expectancy therefore call for urgent action.

Women are more well off than men in the three HDI dimensions. The GII of Mongolia is at the average among the group of high

human development countries and is a bit better than the average among the countries in the Asia and Pacific region. The women and men of Mongolia generally enjoy equitable access to health care and education.

The national averages conceal variations within the country. There is a big urban-rural divide in HDIs. Only the HDIs in urban aimags are above or close to the national average. The losses in the HDI in Sukhbaatar, Bayankhongor, Khovd, Uvs, Dornogovi and Omnogovi aimags were greatest, that is, access to health care, education and income opportunities was unequally distributed across the population in these aimags.

Mongolia faces considerable challenges in providing equal opportunities to the geographically dispersed population, including young people. The issues of urbanization and migration must be addressed in the light of issues of human development and concerns about youth to devise suitable solutions that foster balanced and inclusive human development across the country and among all people. Confronting the persistent inequalities across urban and rural areas, sex, and wealth status in the access of youth to good-quality health care, education and employment opportunities is essential if there is to be sustainable, inclusive development.

While the HDI is not an age-specific measure of progress in human development, there are important potential links between the progress in overall human development and the positive development of youth.

Chapter 3

Developing capabilities



3.

Developing capabilities

Box 3.1

Fast Facts

Youth education

1. *Nine-year compulsory education is now nearly universal.* In the 2014/2015 school year, the net enrolment rate was 99.1 percent in primary education and 96.1 percent in secondary education.
2. *Gender parity up to lower-secondary school has been achieved, and the reverse gender gap is narrowing in the later stages of education.* However, the gap is still evident among 16– to 19-year-olds in rural areas.
3. *Access to education among youth with disabilities continues to lag the access among the general population.* Only 66.2 percent of youth with disabilities in the compulsory education age-group are enrolled. Almost half the youth with congenital disabilities have no education or are illiterate.
4. *Enrolments in technical and vocational education and training (TVET) grew by nearly 2.5 times in 2002–2011, though they have declined since then.*
5. *The number of students in tertiary education almost doubled.* It rose from 98,000 in 2002 to 178,200 in 2015.

6. *While education coverage has expanded considerably, the poor quality of education at all levels remains a major problem.* This limits the future employment prospects of young people, especially in rural areas.

Youth health

7. *Life expectancy among youth in the 15–34 age-group is increasing only slowly.* Among young men, it has declined since 1990.
8. *Accidents, injuries, poisoning and other external causes are the main sources of excess mortality among youth.*
9. *Young men are at two or three times greater risk of mortality than young women across all youth age cohorts.*
10. *The situations of risk that young people experience are most likely leading to ill health immediately or in later life.* These situations include unhealthy diet, physical inactivity, tobacco consumption, excessive alcohol use, and unprotected sex.

Introduction: developing youth capabilities

Expanding the opportunities available to young men and women and developing the ability and freedom of youth to make choices are central to the capabilities approach to human development. Improving the access to knowledge and education and fostering long and healthy lives are important dimensions of human development. Education and health care go hand-in-hand in the development of youth capabilities: education enhances job opportunities, but also helps people realize the significance of other aspects of welfare, such as better health and more active participation in society.

Health and well-being are crucial to the immediate quality of life and the productivity of young people, and they also shape the future welfare of the population and society.⁴⁶ Health is not merely a matter of personal

inheritance and behaviour. Health is affected by the social and physical environments in which youth live, learn and work. If these environments are positive and supportive, the opportunities, choices and capabilities of youth are enhanced and youth have a better chance of living healthy and productive lives.⁴⁷

The next section reviews variations in the access of young people to secondary and tertiary education and the challenges faced by youth in acquiring good-quality education. The following section analyses the health risks faced by youth. These sections also focus on Government policies relevant to youth education and health. The final section concludes and offers suggestions for promoting the development of the capabilities of youth in Mongolia.

The education of young people

Until 1989, Mongolia's achievements in education – gross enrolment ratios of 98 percent in primary schools, 85 percent in secondary schools, and 17 percent in higher education – compared favourably with the results in middle-income countries. However, during the transition to the market economy, Mongolia was experiencing economic and financial difficulties that were undermining the progress in the education sector, and gross enrolment ratios had declined to 84 percent in primary schools and 65 percent in secondary schools by 1995. Drop-out rates rose significantly at all levels of the education

system and in all parts of the country. Since 2000, enrolment ratios have returned to 90 percent.⁴⁸ This turnaround in the coverage of education among most children up to secondary school is a remarkable success.⁴⁹

Mongolia now emphasizes the education of all citizens, including youth, women and the poor. More than 92 percent of the population has some form of education. By 2010, half of the population aged 10 and above had completed secondary school, and approximately 18 percent had graduated from higher-education institutions (annex VI).

Secondary education

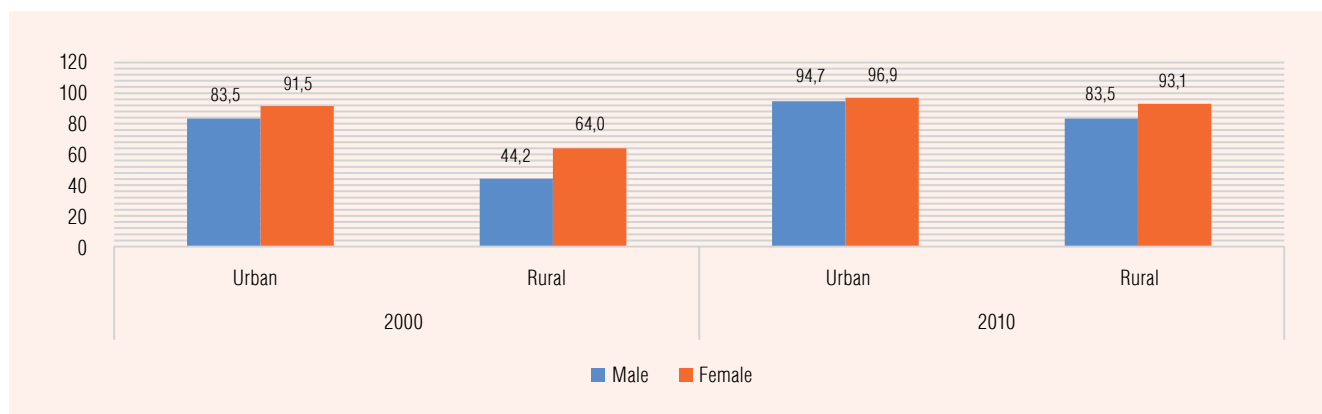
Access

More children are attending primary school and continuing on to secondary education. Since 2000, the share of 15-year-olds attending school has risen appreciably, par-

ticularly in rural areas and by sex (figure 3.1). However, the attendance rate among 15-year-old boys in 2010 was still lower by about 10 percent in rural areas relative to urban areas.

Figure 3.1

School Attendance Rates, 15-Year-Olds, 2000 and 2010



Source: NSO, 2001, 2011a, 2011c.

Nine-year compulsory education – five years of primary education and four years of lower-secondary education – is now nearly universal. The coverage of upper-second-

ary education is also relatively wide. In the 2014/2015 school year, the net enrolment rate was 99.1 percent in primary education and 96.1 percent in secondary education.⁵⁰

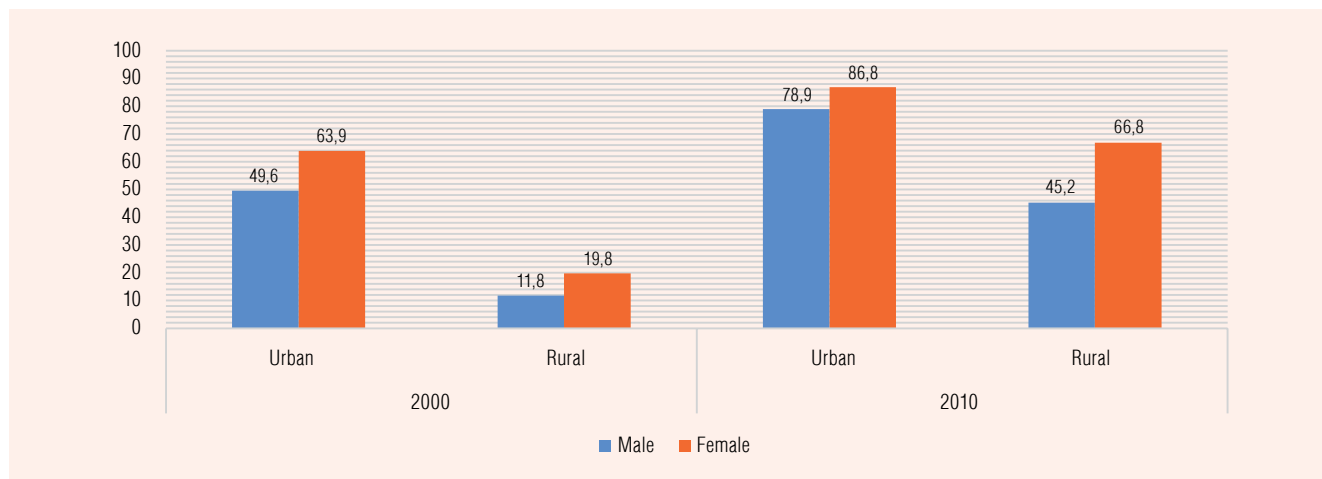
The urban–rural, wealth–poverty, and gender divides

The urban-rural divide is more pronounced among 16- to 19-year-olds (figure 3.2). School attendance among 16- to 19-year-old young men and women rose by more than

three times in rural areas and by nearly 30 percent among men and by more than 20 percent among women in urban areas between 2000 and 2010.

Figure 3.2

School Attendance Rates, 16– to 19-Year–Olds, 2000 and 2010



Source: NSO, 2001, 2011a, 2011c.

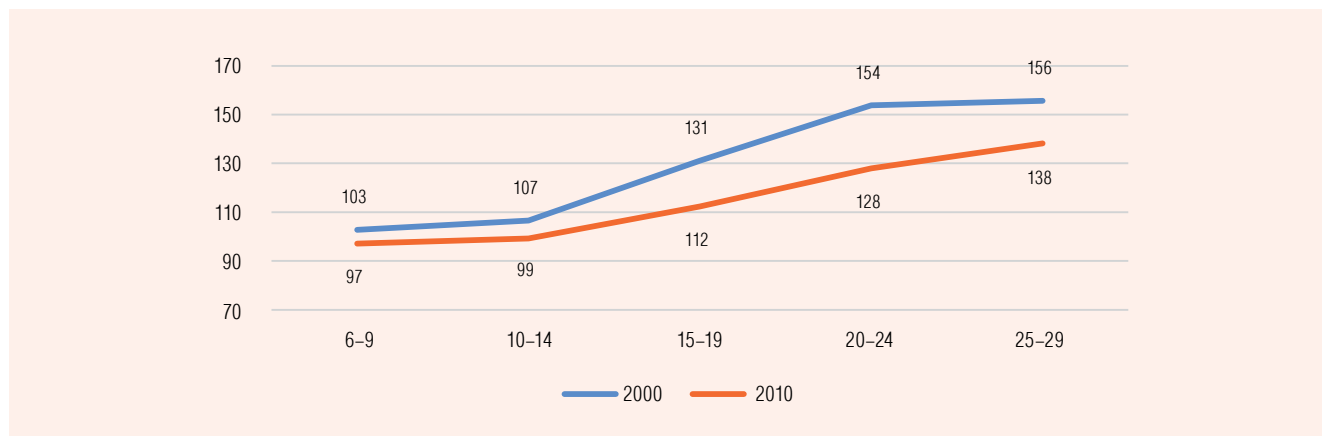
Access to secondary education was fairly even across the top four wealth quintiles: 19–22 percent of each quintile was attending school in 2011. The poorest quintile had a smaller proportion of secondary-school students.⁵¹

In primary and lower-secondary school, the girl-to-boy ratio was almost at parity (figure 3.3). In upper-secondary and higher educa-

tion, there was a shift towards gender parity because more boys were attending and completing school in 2010. Thus, the reverse gender gap – the unusual situation of fewer school enrolments among males – was narrowing in education, though it was still wider in rural areas, where, in 2010, fewer than half of 16- to 19-year-old young men were in school, while this was true of two young women in three in the age-group.

Figure 3.3

Sex Ratios in School Attendance, by Age–Group, 2000 and 2010



Note: Sex ratio = the number of women per 100 men. If there is gender parity, the sex ratio = 100.
Source: NSO, 2001, 2011a, 2011c.

Access among youth with disabilities

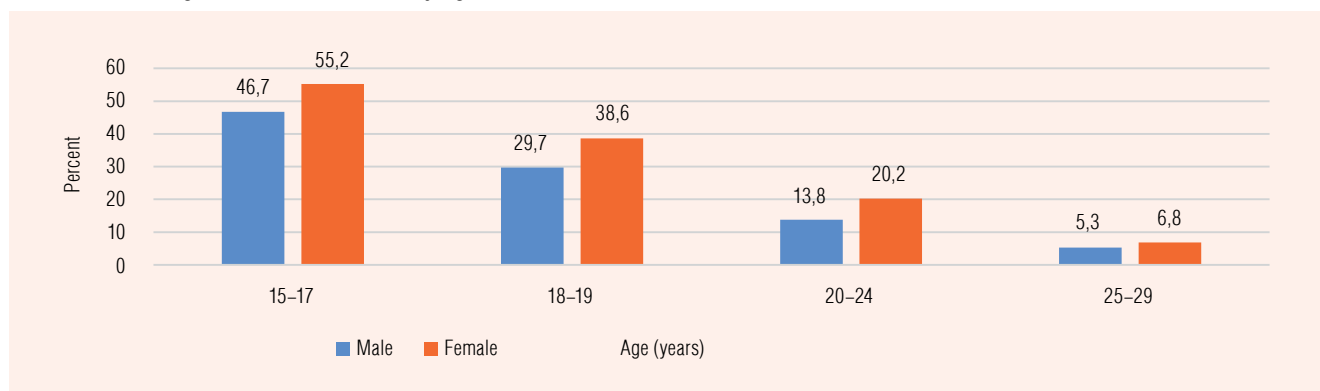
According to the 2010 census, there were 108,071 individuals with disabilities in Mongolia, representing 4.1 percent of the total population.⁵² This included about 30,000 young people in the 16–35 age-group.

Little progress has been made in ensuring access to education among youth with special needs. About 66.2 percent of the chil-

dren and youth with disabilities who were of compulsory school age were enrolled in education in 2010, and enrolments were significantly lower among 18- to 29-year-olds with disabilities. The gender gap in education among the disabled follows the general trend among the population. Thus, more disabled girls than boys were enrolled (figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4

Enrolments among Youth with Disabilities, by Age and Sex



Source: NSO, 2001, 2011a, 2011c.

According to the 2010 population census, people aged 10 and above with disabilities were three times more likely than the rest of the population to have no education (23.0 percent and 7.5 percent, respectively), and fewer than 8.0 percent of the people with disabilities had achieved higher education, whereas more than 18.0 percent of the rest of the population had higher-education degrees.⁵³ More people with disabilities were uneducated in rural areas than in urban areas. Almost half the people with congenital disabilities (47.0 percent), such as people with speech impairments (51.0 percent) and people with cognitive disabilities (48.0 percent), have no education or are illiterate.

A key issue affecting young people with disabilities is the absence of access ramps, books in Braille, teachers trained to assist the disabled and appropriate curricula and teaching materials. Youth with disabilities

also face limited job opportunities, which may stem from their poor access to education (chapter 4).

The impact on the HDI of problems in access

Especially since 2000, the considerable improvement in access among youth to all levels of education has provided more opportunities for the development of youth capabilities and has contributed to the steady rise in the HDI education index. Nonetheless, there are notable disparities in access among rural youth, youth in poor households and youth with disabilities. This may favour a greater loss in the HDI because of unequal access and have long-term adverse effects on the well-being of these young people. Urgent policy attention is required to address the disparities.

Despite significant improvements in school enrolments, young people generally face numerous challenges in gaining access to good-quality education. A key challenge arises from inadequate and deficient infrastructure to absorb the rapid expansion in education coverage and the lack of capacity and limited resources to meet the new demands of the frequent structural changes in education in recent years. During the 2005/2006 school year, the Government expanded grades 1–10 to grades 1–11, and, in 2008, launched a 12-year system.⁵⁴ The shift required some students to skip grade 6 and jump directly from grade 5 to grade 7 and also involved curriculum redesign, the development of new education standards linked to the curriculum, textbook revision and new demands on teacher skills and qualifications.

Shifting curricula and textbook content

One of the key problems affecting the quality of education is the tendency to change curricula and textbooks without adequate human and material resources. School curricula have undergone multiple changes in recent years. The new curricula envisage the integration of functional literacy, child-centred learning and more skills-oriented instruction in learning. Although these changes are positive, curriculum reform and implementation have been hampered by a shortage of professional curriculum developers and a lack of appropriate teaching materials, resources, budgets and trained teachers.⁵⁵ The content and supply of textbooks have been unstable: the policy on textbook acquisition was changed twice in 2000–2013. Moreover, textbooks must be upgraded to align with the changes in curricula and to improve design, printing and delivery. These problems in quality and content are being compounded by the issue of affordability, which means that many students still share textbooks though the Government provides textbooks free to all primary-school pupils and to 40 percent of secondary-school students.⁵⁶ In 2012, the

average pupil-to-textbook ratio was 5.5 in primary school and 6.6 in secondary school.

School overcrowding and shrinking student populations

Another key challenge that influences education quality is school overcrowding. In 2010–2012, the average pupil-teacher ratio in primary schools was 33 in Ulaanbaatar and 27 in rural areas.⁵⁷ In Ulaanbaatar, moreover, public schools in the city centre and private schools exhibit substantially lower pupil-teacher ratios, while public schools in ger districts (tent cities, especially around Ulaanbaatar) have much higher pupil-teacher ratios, as high as 40–50 students per class in some places. Of the 22 schools with triple shifts in the country, 21 are located in Ulaanbaatar.⁵⁸ Because of overcrowded classes, teachers are not able to pay adequate attention to students, while double or triple shifts result in fewer hours of instruction per student. At the same time, schools in small soums (districts) experiencing out-migration have low pupil-to-teacher ratios, but are being confronted by the flight of qualified teachers.

Rural disadvantages

Rural students face particular challenges such as lack of Internet access, of learning resources for professional development, of opportunities for unsupervised study, and of well-qualified and experienced teachers.

Many rural schools suffer because the inadequate living and working conditions and the lack of incentives and social welfare support attract few qualified teachers. Teachers are supposed to upgrade their professional qualifications and ranking regularly throughout their careers, but nearly 60 percent of soum school teachers do not have any professional teaching ranking at all.⁵⁹ Many rural schools are located in non-standard-design buildings that still rely on outside latrines, which is a serious sanitation concern.⁶⁰

Lack of career counselling

The lack of career counselling services has a negative effect on the informed choice and decision-making of youth on their future career options.⁶¹ Many participants in the youth online consultations conducted for this report raised this issue. Because of the lack of access to the Internet, social media and alternative information sources, rural secondary-school graduates end up relying on parental advice to choose their college majors or to identify possible future profes-

sions. The advice is often out of tune with current trends and requirements, and the stereotypical perceptions of parents sometimes mislead (box 3.2). According to a survey conducted by the Mongolian Youth Federation, more than a third of students (36.2 percent) said they had chosen their majors because of the preferences of their parents.⁶² Students in Ulaanbaatar may have an advantage because they have greater access to other sources of information. However, career counselling services are not widely available there either.

Box 3.2

Choosing a Career

During an interaction with ninth-grade students in a rural secondary school in Uvurkhangai Aimag, the students, whose average age was 15, were asked about their career goals. The majority of female students said they wanted to be doctors or teachers, while most of the male students said they wanted to be policemen or construction engineers. When asked why, a common reply was that parents perceive that a family should have one policeman and one doctor because these are the most useful people in the soum and are important for the survival of society.

“It would be good if an understanding of professions were given at secondary school. Unfortunately, we discuss this only when we take the final graduation exams in the 11th grade. Usually, no information can be found. There are advertising materials, but these are too

detailed and unclear. It would be easier if strengths and weaknesses were described or interesting things were noted by the people working there.”

—Student, Ministry of Population Development and Social Protection, 2013 Policy Review^a

“Our teacher advised us not to become a teacher by saying that it is a ‘futile profession’, which made us really depressed during the school-leaving ceremony. I thought we were supposed to follow her example. Indeed, I was disappointed.”

—Student, Ministry of Population Development and Social Protection, 2013 Policy Review^a

a. MPDSP, 2013.

Low learning achievement among students

The low quality of secondary education leads to lower student learning achievement. According to the National Assessment of Student Achievement, which, since 2000, has been conducted in mathematics and civics education in grade 8, at the end of basic education, and which is based on international tests, the average learning achievement of students in these subject areas was 50 percent and 47 percent, respectively, on a scale of 1–100, where 100 is the highest possible learning achievement.⁶³ The study has revealed large disparities between urban and rural areas. It also shows that adolescents in Mongolia perform significantly worse in

carrying out complex procedures and problem-solving tasks (35 percent) than in general knowledge and in carrying out routine procedures.⁶⁴

The poor quality of education in Mongolia is captured in the World Economic Forum’s Human Capital Report of 2013, which includes a global ranking of 122 countries.⁶⁵ An overall index assesses each country according to four pillars: education, health and wellness, workforce and employment, and the enabling environment. Mongolia ranks quite high on access dimensions, but poorly on quality dimensions. On the overall quality of its education system, Mongolia is ranked 115th among 122 countries (annex VI).

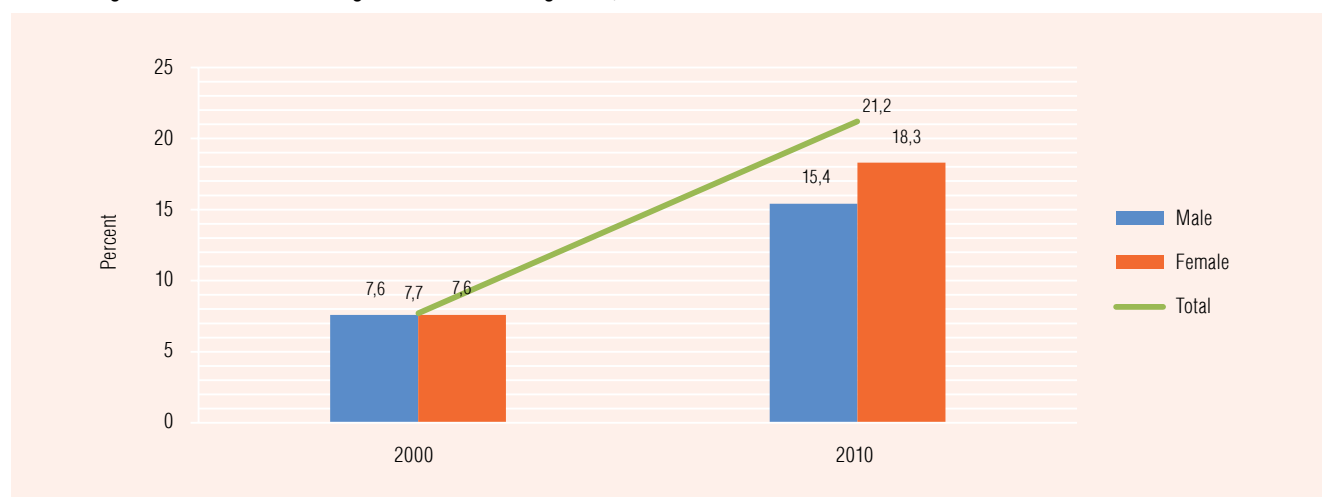
Demand and access

There has been a surge in the demand for higher education since 2000. This is not surprising because the returns to educational qualifications are constantly rising in Mongolia, and the number of years in education among the population is an important related factor. An individual with tertiary educational attainment – 14 or more years of schooling – is estimated to earn about 34 percent and 20 percent more than an individual with secondary or vocational education, respectively.⁶⁶ Higher educational attainment also reduces the likelihood of living in poverty by one third to one half, and this trend has increased over the years.⁶⁷

As expected, the large demand for higher education is driven by youth (the 15–34 age-group). According to census data, while the share of men with a higher-education degree doubled in 2000–2010 (from 7.6 percent to 15.4 percent), the demand for higher education among women has been even more remarkable in the last 20 years. In relative terms, fewer women than men had higher-education degrees in 1989 (figure 3.5). Women overtook men in 2000: about 7.6 percent of each group had tertiary degrees that year. By 2010, women exceeded men by 38.0 percent in the number of higher-education degrees, and the share of women with such degrees was larger, at 21.2 percent.

Figure 3.5

Increasing Demand for Access to Higher Education among Youth, 2000 and 2010



Source: NSO, 2001, 2011a.

The greater demand for higher education has led to a noteworthy expansion in enrolments in institutions of higher education. The number of students in these institutions almost doubled, from 98,000 in 2002 to 178,200 in 2014.⁶⁸ Among higher-education institutions, 78 percent are located in Ulaanbaatar, which is also true of most colleges. The lack of adequate learning opportunities in rural areas is a major reason youth are attracted to Ulaanbaatar and other cities. However, because housing costs and the cost of living have risen rapidly in Ulaanbaatar, rural students from poor fam-

ilies cannot afford to migrate and must remain increasingly disadvantaged in accessing higher education.

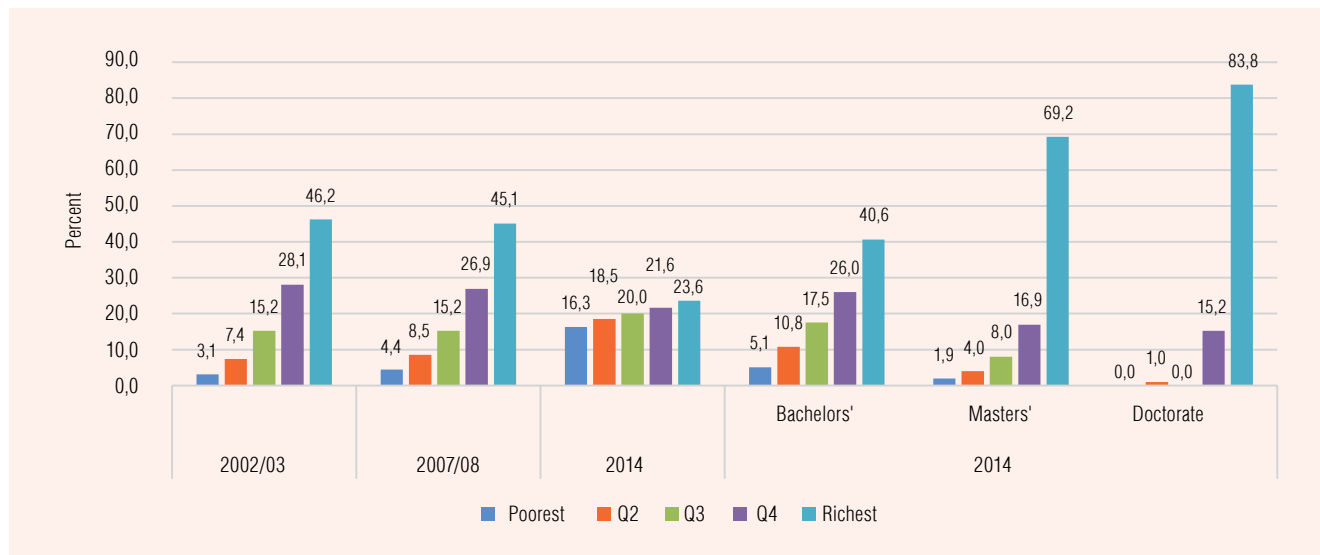
In line with the data on tertiary educational attainment by sex, there is a significant reverse gender gap in tertiary-education enrolments. Women students outnumber men students in both public (56 percent women) and private (63 percent women) institutions of higher education, particularly in master's degree programmes (63 percent among women, compared with 37 percent among men).⁶⁹

Disparities in tertiary education by wealth status are also evident, and there are few signs of any narrowing. Already wide in the 2007/2008 survey year, the gap between

the poor and the non-poor in the highest level of educational attainment was still wide in the 2014 survey year, especially in post-graduate degrees (figure 3.6).

Figure 3.6

Population with Higher Educational Attainment, by Quintile, 2002–2014



Sources: Estimates based on the Living Standards Measurement Study 2002/2003 and 2007/2008 and the 2014 Socio-Economic Survey. See NSO, 2004a, 2007, 2015b.

Young people with disabilities face substantial barriers to attendance at regular institutions of higher education. Most of these institutions do not have appropriately trained

teachers and do not have the infrastructure to provide such students with physical access.⁷⁰ These issues disadvantage youth with disabilities and exacerbate their stigma.

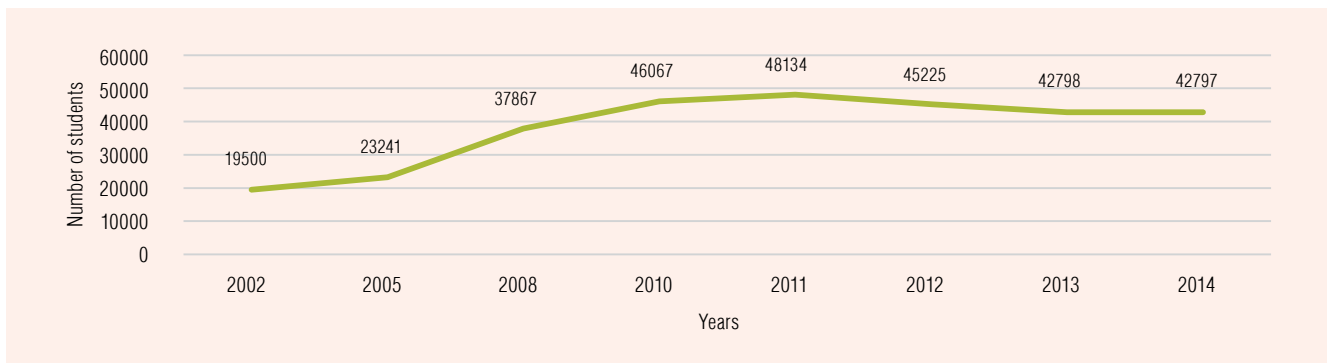
Technical and vocational education and training

Enrolments in technical and vocational education and training (TVET) in Mongolia have exhibited a mixed pattern in the last decade. The demand for and enrolments in TVET courses expanded by nearly 2.5 times in 2002–2011, most likely in response to the Government policy of promoting growth in this area. However, enrolments declined by 11 percent in 2011–2013 (fig-

ure 3.7). It is evident that some students use TVET as an intermediate solution to obtain school stipends, secondary-education diplomas and vocational-education certificates, while preparing for admission to proper tertiary degree courses.⁷¹ This is confirmed by the decline in the share of people with a vocational certificate as their highest degree in 2000–2010.

Figure 3.7

Enrolments in TVET Schools, 2002–2014



Source: NSO, 2003, 2006, 2009a, 2011b, 2012, 2015a.

Government policies directed at TVET reform and expansion since 2000 have been aimed at meeting the demand for skilled workers on the labour market. The number of public TVET schools rose from 31 to 76 in 2002–2014. Two thirds of TVET schools are public and have a more well balanced regional distribution; in 2013, 60 percent

of these schools were operating in aimags. The policies also allow private investment in TVET, and there are currently 32 private TVET schools. Despite these positive steps, more needs to be done to help TVET schools produce skilled, well-prepared young workers to enhance the opportunities for decent jobs.

Key challenges

After the legalization of private higher education in the early 1990s, the number of institutions of higher education grew from 14 in 1991 to 143 in 2002, but, then, by 2014, had decreased to 96, of which 80 were private establishments accredited by the independent Mongolian National Council for Education Accreditation.⁷² The reduction was driven by concerns about quality. Nonetheless, the 45 percent decline in the number of institutions in 2002–2013 was matched by an almost 70 percent increase in enrolments. This has had the adverse outcome of strengthening the competition for the limited number of seats, thereby often making admission to a good public university more difficult for students. Although fewer than 20 percent of institutions of higher education are public, nearly 60 percent of the students in tertiary education are enrolled in public institutions. Moreover, reducing the number of (private) higher-education institutions has not addressed the problems of low-quality education provision, which negatively affects the develop-

ment of youth capabilities and undermines the prospects of young people on the labour market.

The main reasons for the poor quality of higher education and TVET are grounded in the weak governance and financing system, the irrelevance of some academic programmes, the outdated curricula and technological base in other programmes, the lack of funding to upgrade faculty qualifications and renew laboratory equipment, the limited supply of textbooks, and the lack of proper industrial practice or internship opportunities for students. The divide between teaching and research has also weakened tertiary-education institutions.⁷³ The rise in TVET enrolments in 2002–2011 put additional strain on existing facilities and infrastructure. Most of the infrastructure of TVET schools requires rehabilitation and expansion.⁷⁴

The poor quality of TVET and higher education is a major concern among youth. According to a study by the Mongolian

Youth Federation, 73.5 percent of young people wish to study abroad because they believe the quality of education in Mongolia is poor.⁷⁵ Although the results may also reflect a desire among youth to travel and live abroad, they still highlight the awareness among youth of the deficiencies of higher education in Mongolia. The study also finds that three youth in five feel undervalued at the workplace because of the inadequate skills and expertise imparted by their university studies.

The negative views among youth are confirmed by the online forum conducted by

the 2016 NHDR report team on 20 April 2014 among 122 young people on the challenges they face in education. The participants cited the low quality of education, especially in rural areas; the weak capacity of teachers, which is associated with low salaries and poor working conditions; the inadequacies of the learning imparted by schools; the lack of internship opportunities; the shortage in institutions of higher education; the difficulties encountered in obtaining jobs after graduation because of the mismatch in skills, and the low motivation and initiative among youth.

Government policy on youth education

The Government has always placed education for all at the centre of national development policy. The Constitution of 1992 and the education law guarantee free compulsory education for all, which represented 12 years of schooling as of 2008. A brief review of the Government's policies aimed at improving access to good-quality education among youth highlights three main areas of focus, as follows:

- The creation of an enabling legal and policy framework for education reform in specific areas of education based on sectoral analyses of the state of education: the Primary and Secondary Education Law, the Higher Education Law, and policies and plans are among the initiatives undertaken since the 1990s. The 2012–2016 Government Action Plan renewed the commitment to upgrading the quality of education at all levels and to reaching all disadvantaged groups.
- The implementation of reforms such as the restructuring of the education system, raising the number of years of compulsory schooling, curriculum reform, the adoption of new standards, textbook revision, changes in the accreditation system, more teacher training and so on.

- The promotion of successful models for enhancing the quality of education and expanding learning opportunities among youth.

International accreditation of higher education institutions

Mongolian institutions of higher education need to become competitive not only locally, but also in the world market. Thus, in 2010, the Mongolian National Council for Education Accreditation began seeking a third-party assessment tool to measure and track student learning. In 2012/2013, two institutions, the School of Economics and Business of the National University of Mongolia and the Institute of Finance and Economics, received relevant international recognition. In 2013/2014, one more institution, the School of Computer Science and Management at the Mongolian University of Science and Technology, was similarly recognized.⁷⁶

Curriculum reform and teacher training

In 2012, three laboratory schools, Shine Erin, Shine Ehlel and Mongol Temuulel, were established to train teachers on the basis of the guideline standards of the University of Cambridge using Checkpoint and the International General Certificate of Secondary Education system. Teachers are now

being trained at 31 bilingual schools and national laboratory schools (10 in Ulaanbaatar and one in each aimag). As of 2015, a total of 36 primary- and secondary-school curricula had been revised based on the international general education standards of the University of Cambridge, and around 3,500 school managers, teachers and instructors had been trained in pilot implementation, new teaching methodologies and the monitoring of new curricula.⁷⁷

Students in all schools are being educated according to international professional standards, and graduates receive national and international certificates that are recognized by 6,000 educational institutions in 120 countries. Assignments and tests do not follow a uniform format: classes are tailored to the talents of the students. Relative to the standard approach in public schools, the method is expected to widen each student's capabilities and skills on an individualized basis.

Students studying abroad

There is considerable emphasis by the Government on expanding international learning programmes to improve the capabilities of youth. Since 1997, 1,600 young people have received grants for overseas study through the Government Student Loan Fund. Through programmes based on intergovernmental agreements, 8,500 Mongolian students were studying in foreign countries in 2000–2014.⁷⁸ According to a

presidential decree, students in bachelor's degree programmes can take an examination to qualify to attend any of the top 100 universities recognized by the Times Higher Education World University Rankings or the Academic Ranking of World Universities. If they succeed, the Government provides them with scholarships that cover tuition. For master's or doctorate degrees, students can also apply through the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science for a scholarship covering tuition and living expenses while studying at a top 100 university. The ministry likewise supplies scholarships through international cooperation programmes.

Public expenditures on education

Many of the human development benefits of economic growth flow through Government budgetary expenditures on education, health care, employment creation and so on. Education expenditure as a share of GDP declined from 6.7 percent in 2002 to 4.3 percent in 2015 (table 3.1). However, in real absolute terms, the expenditure has increased appreciably. Compared with 1995–2001, fiscal expenditures on education were 59 percent higher in 2002–2012 in real terms (adjusted for inflation). The state budget for the construction of new schools rose from ₮25.1 billion to ₮154.0 billion in 2009–2013.⁷⁹ However, this significant expansion in capital investment has not been sufficient to meet the rising demand.

Table 3.1

Public Expenditure on Education, 2002–2015

percent

Indicator of education expenditure	2002	2007	2013	2014	2015
Share of GDP	6.7	5.5	4.9	5.3	4.3
Share of total public expenditure on education	18.9	15.6	15.2	16.7	14.1

Source: NSO, 2004b, 2008, 2015d.

However, the distribution of the budget raises some concern. Teacher salaries account for 60–70 percent of the total budget, and heating costs represent 15–18 percent.⁸⁰

Public funding is insufficient to finance new programmes, teacher training, and other soft items.

Health among youth

This section examines the situational risk factors associated with ill health and mortality among youth and reviews the access of young people to health services. The role of human agency in mitigating the risk factors is also surveyed.

Life expectancy

Life expectancy at birth has increased over the years in Mongolia, but life expectancy

among youth in the 15–34 age-group is rising only slowly. Youth in the 15–24 age-group added only one year to their lives in 1990–2012, while there was no change in life expectancy among 25- to 34-year-olds (table 3.2). Disaggregating the data by sex, we see that, while young women have added two or three years to their lives since 1990, life expectancy among young men has declined across all age cohorts.

Table 3.2

Life Expectancy among Youth, by Age Cohort and Sex, 1990 and 2012
years

Age cohort	1990			2012		
	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes
15–19	52	56	54	51	59	55
20–24	47	51	49	46	54	50
25–29	43	46	45	41	49	45
30–34	38	42	40	37	44	40

Source: "Life Tables by Country, Mongolia", GHO (Global Health Observatory) (database), World Health Organization, Geneva, <http://apps.who.int/gho/data/view.main.61090?lang=en> (accessed 16 March 2015).

The data suggest that the reason for the slow progress in achieving greater life expectancy among young age cohorts, particularly young men, as well as in other health outcome indicators, may lie in the prevalence of situations of risk among youth. Some of these risk situations affect youth in a straightforward manner. For example, unprotected sex increases the likelihood of experiencing a sexually transmitted infection (STI) or an unplanned pregnancy. However, many of the adverse consequences show up later in life in non-communicable diseases (NCDs) such as lung cancer, diabetes and heart disease. This is confirmed by the fact that NCDs and injuries account for nearly 80 percent of all deaths in Mongolia.⁸¹

Ill health

In Mongolia, accidents, injuries, poisoning, or other external causes are the most important causes of death across all youth age cohorts and have tended to increase as

causes across each age cohort since 2010. Cardiovascular disease, digestive system diseases, and cancer are the other killers of youth (annex VII). While cancer is not a leading cause of mortality and morbidity among youth, there was a fourfold rise in cancer-related morbidity among the 15–34 age-group, from only 10 cases per 10,000 population in 2005 to over 40 cases in 2013. The highest number of cases of cancer-related morbidity occurred among the 30–34 age cohort.⁸²

Morbidity data disaggregated by location show that some types of disease predominate in certain regions, thereby hinting more precisely at the role of specific lifestyles or environmental factors. Thus, accidents, injuries, poisoning and other consequences of external actions are three times more prevalent in urban areas than in rural areas. Cases of diseases of the genito-urinary system are more prevalent in highland areas; diseases of the digestive system in eastern Mongolia,

and respiratory system diseases in the central and eastern regions.⁸³ A large share of this regional distribution is a result of environmental factors and unhealthy lifestyles such as air pollution, unhealthy diet, or poor access to water.

The risk factors associated with ill health and mortality among youth

NCDs are now a major health risk in Mongolia. NCDs often become established among adolescents and young people, and most are preventable and modifiable.⁸⁴ According to the World Bank, more than half the NCD burden could be avoided through health promotion and prevention initiatives.⁸⁵ Adopting healthy behaviours in adolescence and among the youth age cohorts is socially and economically more effective than dealing with the resulting enduring problems in adulthood.

The analysis in this subsection relies on data of various studies and surveys, including studies of the Ministry of Health, Mongolia; the Public Health Institute, Mongolia; and the World Health Organization (WHO) (annex VII).⁸⁶ Together, the results provide a fairly comprehensive picture of behavioural patterns among youth in Mongolia and the exposure of youth to the risks associated with NCDs and other leading causes of mortality such as unhealthy diet, physical inactivity, tobacco use, alcohol abuse, unsafe sexual behaviour, and so on.

Unhealthy, improper diets

“Sufficient consumption of fruits and vegetables is good for health. But the Government should consider the safety issue of fruits and vegetables.”

—*Individual A*

“We try to consume vegetables as far as available. But it seems only a few people consume fruits.”

—*Individual T*

“Because of high prices exceeding my purchasing power, I cannot consume them daily.”

—*Individual E*

“It is very difficult to use fruits and vegetables. There is no quality control.”

—*Individual E*

Group discussion in Bayangol District, Ulaanbaatar

Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices Survey⁸⁷

Unhealthy diets raise the risk of exposure to chronic NCDs such as high blood pressure, heart disease, diabetes, obesity and cancer. According to the 2009 WHO STEPS Survey, a vast majority (80–86 percent) of 15- to 34-year-olds in Mongolia, with little difference across location and sex, have a fairly high level of awareness of the importance of consuming fruits and vegetables, but consumption is low.⁸⁸ The average daily consumption of fruits and vegetables was 1.8 servings (at 80 grams per serving), far less than the WHO recommended daily allowance of 5.0 servings. The average was 1.7 servings among young men and 2.0 servings among young women. As evident from some of the responses of young people, the reasons for not consuming sufficient fruits and vegetables range from high prices and distrust of imported foods to lack of availability.⁸⁹

Around 90–93 percent of youth add salt to food and tea. The cuisine in western Mongolia is richer in salt. The average daily salt consumption of the adult population there is more than twice that of the internationally recommended daily allowance; salt consumption is greater in rural areas than in urban areas.⁹⁰

The consumption of carbonated beverages has increased in both rural and urban areas. Overall, more than one third of youth consume one or more carbonated drinks each day.⁹¹

Unhealthy food and beverages are widely advertised at bus stops and in shops, especially around schools. The sale of unhealthy food items dominates at school grocery shops, which typically offer only a limited selection of healthy foods. It is estimated that unhealthy snacks and sweets are advertised an average of 32 times more often than healthy light snack items and that unhealthy soft drinks and other beverages are advertised an average of six times more often than healthy drinks.⁹² This negatively affects the awareness of young people and their attitudes towards healthy diets and healthy food choices.

Lack of exercise or physical activity

“Some schools [and] universities have gymnasiums after office hours, but it is costly. In general, poor students do not spend money for that kind of activity. They prefer to buy lunch. We need to have a discount system or free system to promote sports among youth. Moreover, the number of gymnasiums or other centres for sports activity is limited in Mongolia, and there is an issue of access.”

—*Sukhbat, teacher of physical education at a public university*

There is little effort to promote sports in schools, and some schools do not have sports facilities. Many fitness clubs and health centres have appeared in Ulaanbaatar, but the cost is prohibitive for young people with limited means.

Only about one third of students regularly undertake physical activity. There is little

difference between rural and urban areas or by sex.⁹³ Physical inactivity reduces productivity, leads to obesity and raises the risk of NCDs. The prevalence of young men who are overweight or obese rose by a factor of two or three in 2005–2013, and, among young women, by 6–7 percent. About one person in five in the 15–24 age-group (17.3 percent) and two persons in five in the 25–34 age-group (41.4 percent) are overweight or obese.

Tobacco use

According to WHO, tobacco use raises the risk of lung cancer by 90–95 percent, and about 20–25 percent of mortality caused by heart disease is associated with tobacco use.⁹⁴ Smoking is particularly dangerous for the health of pregnant women and for the foetus. Almost everyone knows about the harmful effects of smoking, but, among youth, there is a lack of sufficient awareness of the specific harms of tobacco.⁹⁵

While Mongolia ranked 42nd among countries in tobacco consumption in 1997, it is now among the countries with the highest prevalence of tobacco consumption in the world.⁹⁶ There has been little change in smoking habits among youth and adolescents over the years. Overall, close to one third of young people smoke. Tobacco consumption is almost 10 times more widespread among young men than among young women (table 3.3). One third to one half of young people are exposed to second-hand smoke at home.⁹⁷

Table 3.3

Tobacco Consumption among Youth, by Age and Sex, 2005–2013
percent

Sex	2005		2009		2013	
	15–24	25–34	15–24	25–34	15–24	25–34
Men	23.3	61.7	35.0	55.5	25.0	56.7
Women	2.1	4.7	4.0	9.1	2.3	6.7
Total	12.8	33.9	19.9	32.5	14.1	31.4

Sources: WHO, 2010a, 2013a; WHO and PHIM, 2007.

Peers, family members, school teachers and the media exercise considerable influence in

moulding the behaviour of teenagers. Many youth begin smoking after being asked to

buy cigarettes for parents and relatives, after seeing teachers smoke outside school, after observing smoking and drinking on television and in movies, and after seeing celebrities holding cigarettes in advertisements.⁹⁸ This demonstrates that the Government should tighten anti-tobacco policy to prevent the harmful effects of smoking on the health of the younger generation.

Alcohol abuse

Approximately 50 percent of men respondents and 24 percent of women respondents to WHO surveys in Mongolia reported they had consumed alcohol in the previous 30 days, that is, they are currently consumers of alcohol.⁹⁹ Disaggregated by age and sex, the highest alcohol consumption rates are

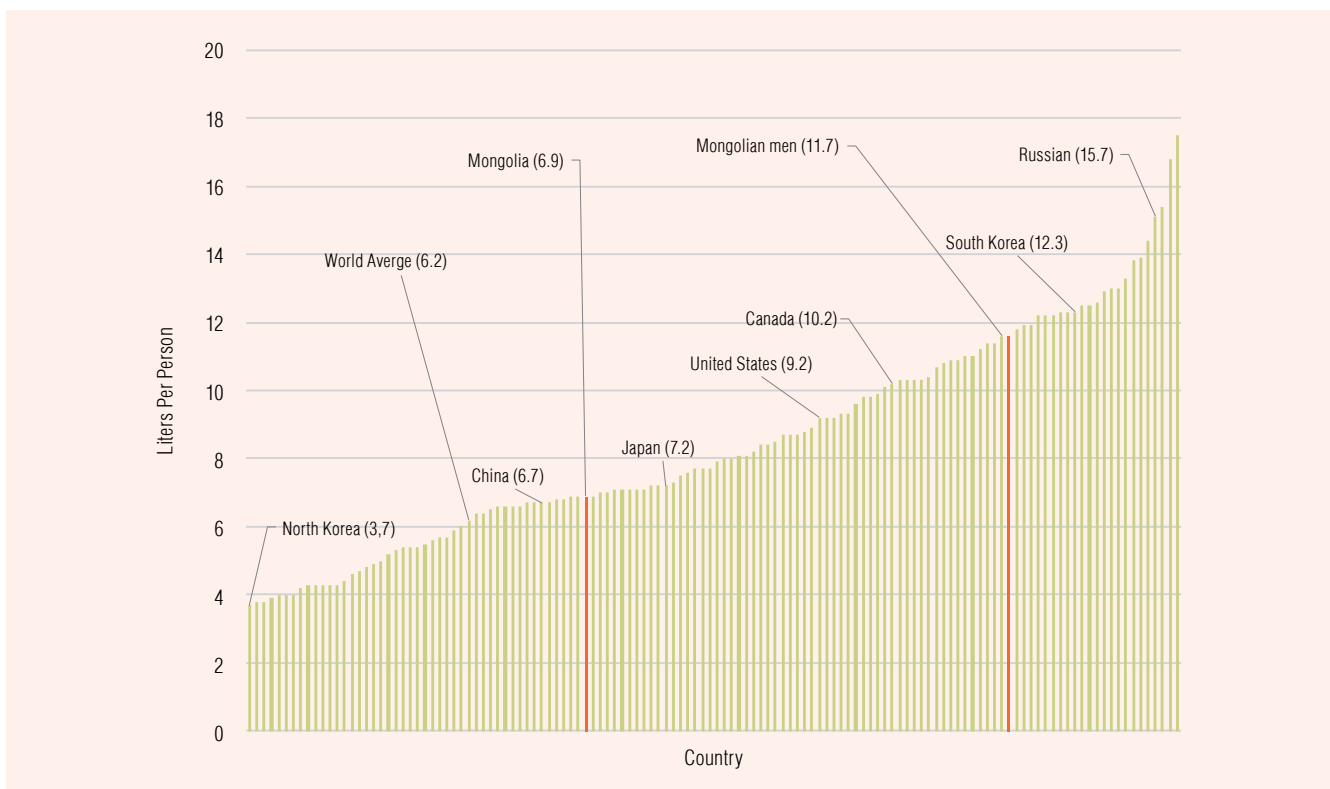
observed among 25- to 34-year-old men, at 57 percent; 6.3 percent of men and 3.6 percent of women in this age-group consume excessive amounts of alcohol.

The local production of alcohol has increased by a factor of 3, and alcohol imports have risen 1.3 times in volume in recent years. In the consumption of pure alcohol, Mongolia was in the middle relative to other countries, slightly above the global average consumption of 6.9 litres per person in 2014. But average alcohol consumption among men was two times greater than the national average (figure 3.8).¹⁰⁰ According to Ministry of Health data, the average consumption of alcohol per capita doubled from 4.7 litres a year in 1997 to 9.8 litres a year in 2014.¹⁰¹

Figure 3.8

World Alcohol Consumption population

ages 15+, litres per person of pure alcohol per year



Source: WHO, 2014a.

The excessive consumption of alcohol is a high-risk factor behind many social problems such as sexual and domestic violence, divorce, absenteeism and dismissal from work, traffic accidents, injury, and crime (chapter 6). In Mongolia, alcohol consump-

tion is a factor in 87 percent of family conflicts, 58 percent of divorces, and 82 percent of cases of children leaving their homes to begin lives on the streets, as well as of boys dropping out of school.¹⁰²

Alcohol consumption contributes to ill health and to NCD-related mortality. Among countries in the Asia and Pacific region, Mongolia has the highest mortality rate associated with liver cancer. Alcohol is one of the main risk factors associated with cirrhosis of the liver and cancer.¹⁰³ The link

between the high risk of a particular NCD and alcohol abuse is also captured by two indicators: the age-standardized death rate and the alcohol-attributable incidence estimate associated with cirrhosis of the liver in 2012 (table 3.4).

Table 3.4

Health Consequences of Alcohol Abuse, 2012

Indicator	Description	Men	Women
Age-standardized death rate	Deaths due to liver cirrhosis, per 100,000 population above age 15	78.8	47.6
Alcohol-attributable incidence	Extent to which alcohol contributes to cirrhosis of the liver, %	71.7	59.8

Source: WHO, 2014b.

A survey found that the problems associated with daily alcohol consumption are generally perceived to be significant; more than 90 percent of respondents regarded daily alcohol consumption as either harmful or very harmful to health.¹⁰⁴ There was no significant difference in the mean perceived risk by age, educational attainment, or sex. A substantial share of alcohol users, around 60–65 percent of youth, also reported the desire to reduce the amount of alcohol they drink.¹⁰⁵

The above analysis provides a good indication of the nature and extent of the problem of alcohol use among youth. Urgent action is required at various levels to strengthen legal restrictions to limit alcohol supply and reduce demand by promoting healthy lifestyles among youth.

Informal discussions indicate that substance abuse is on the rise in Mongolia, but incidence is still low. However, early prevention is important.

Injuries and accidents

Injuries and accidents are the main causes of youth mortality. Except among 25- to 29-year-olds, mortality rates among youth age cohorts because of traffic accidents rose by 2.5–3.5 times in 2010–2012.¹⁰⁶ Deaths caused by traffic accidents involving motorcycles among men aged 15–34 rose almost threefold over the three-year period. Men

are four times more susceptible to traffic accidents than women.

Because of rising living standards and growing purchasing capacity among the population, more cars are on the roads. The number of vehicles increased fourfold, and the number of drivers sevenfold in 2009–2011. Almost half of all drivers (47 percent) are in the 18–34 age-group and are thus especially exposed to the risk of traffic accident-related morbidity and mortality.

Lack of knowledge about traffic safety, lack of driving skills, avoidance of the use of seat belts (54 percent), and driving under the influence of alcohol (34 percent) are the main causes of traffic accidents.¹⁰⁷ The incidence of traffic accidents associated with driving under the influence of alcohol rose more than threefold in 2003–2011, from 389 to 1,236 cases. The Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices Survey found that 15 percent of current drinkers who drive reported they had driven while under the influence of alcohol; one man in five and around one woman in thirteen acknowledged this behaviour.¹⁰⁸ There was no difference according to location, educational attainment, employment, or age. This highlights the need to look at alcohol abuse and traffic accidents together to devise suitable restrictions and other policy measures to reduce the associated morbidity and mortality among the young.

Sexual and reproductive health

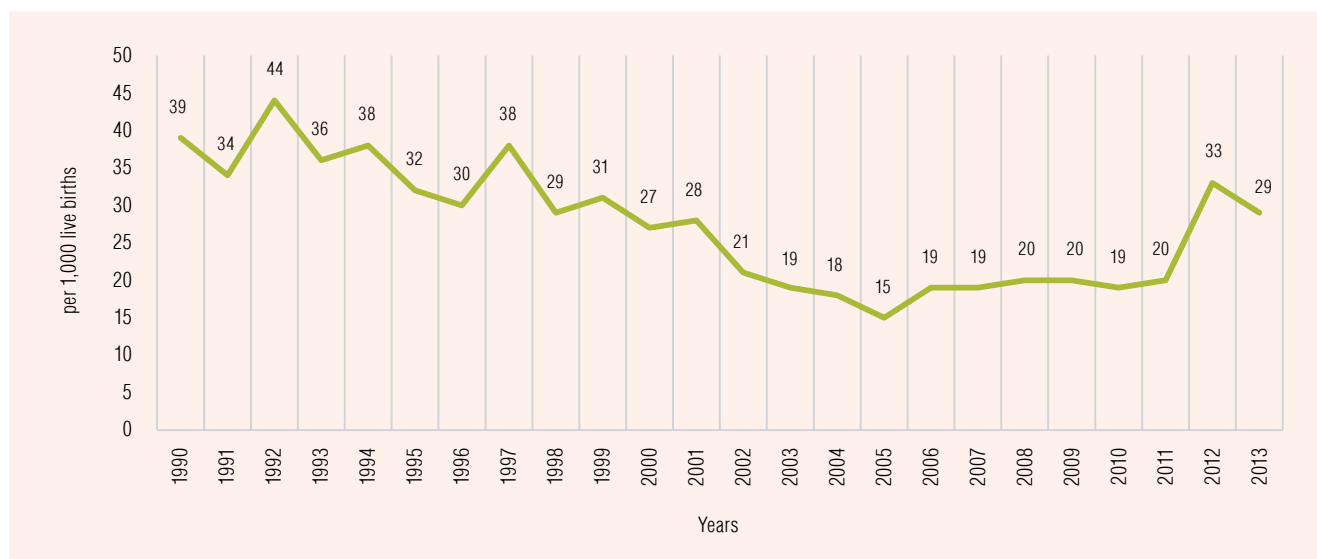
Pregnancy among adolescents

The adolescent birth rate – the number of live births per 1,000 women aged 15–19 years – is higher in Mongolia (29 in 2013) than the average among countries in the Asia and Pacific region or in other, more

well developed countries such as the Republic of Korea (2), Singapore (4) and Malaysia (15). It has also been rising in Mongolia in recent years (figure 3.9). This suggests the need for easier access to information, modern contraceptives and adolescent-friendly health services.¹⁰⁹

Figure 3.9

Adolescent Birth Rate, 1990–2013



Source: NSO, various years, Mongolian Statistical Yearbook.

Abortion

Abortion is legal in Mongolia. However, unsafe abortions still take place among young women because of a lack of access to information and other barriers in seeking safe abortion services. Young women tend to choose private hospitals that require minimal paper-work and offer quick, confi-

dential services. Age-specific abortion rates peak among the 25–29 age-group (38 per 1,000 women in this age-group) in urban areas. The abortion rate is two times higher in urban areas compared with rural areas across youth age cohorts (table 3.5). Repeated abortion has risen in recent years. This has negative health outcomes.

Table 3.5

Age-Specific Abortion Rates among Young Women, 2003–2013

Age-group	Urban			Rural		
	2003	2008	2013	2003	2008	2013
15–19	0.5	1.0	5.9	0.7	0.9	2.2
20–24	16.8	17.2	26.4	7.2	9.1	12.4
25–29	33.9	33.0	38.2	15.7	15.6	15.3
30–34	47.1	41.1	27.1	21.5	23.2	23.9

Source: NSO, 2004c, 2009b, 2014b.

Contraceptive awareness and use

General knowledge about contraceptives is quite extensive among adolescent girls and young women. However, the knowledge does not always translate into good practice. While 48.2 percent of 15- to 49-year-old married women use modern methods of contraception, only 29.1 percent of young women aged 15–19 who are married or in sexual unions do so. The unmet need for family planning was highest among adolescents and women aged 15–19 in 2013 (36.4 percent), and the share declined considerably with increasing age.¹¹⁰ Compared with

rural women, the family planning needs of urban women are less likely to be satisfied.

Sexual behaviour and STIs

The practice of safe sex is not widespread among youth. The share of young survey respondents who had had sex with multiple partners during the year prior to the survey rose among both young men and young women, but the share of 15- to 24-year-olds who had had sex with multiple partners and had used condoms declined by 5 percent among men and by nearly one third among women (table 3.6).

Table 3.6

Sexual Behaviour among 15- to 24-Year-Olds
percent

Indicator	Men		Women	
	2010	2013	2010	2013
First sexual intercourse under age 15	2.8	4.2	0.2	0.6
Sexual intercourse with more than one partner in the last 12 months	8.4	9.4	1.1	1.5
Used condom for sexual intercourse with more than one partner in last 12 months	48.4	43.5	43.3	30.3

Source: NSO, 2013a, 2014b.

The prevalence of STIs is one of the major health issues among youth in Mongolia. Young people aged 15 to 24 are not the major age-group among reported cases of HIV, comprising only about 20 percent of cumulative cases. However, they do account for the majority of reported cases of STIs (ranging between 40 percent and 50 percent annually), which suggests that the risk scenarios exist that render youth susceptible to HIV. However, the HIV prevalence rate is considerably higher, at 7.5 percent (weighted), among men who have sex with men. The reported new cases of HIV have shown a steady growth since 2005.¹¹¹ According to a 2015 report, among people living with HIV, 41.2 percent were youth under age 30, of which 54 percent were women, and 43 percent were men (3 percent did not state their sex). All reported cases were transmitted through unprotected sexual contact. A lack of awareness and knowledge of STIs, HIV and prevention methods result in the high prevalence of STIs among youth. Only 22.8 percent of young women and 20.7 per-

cent of young men aged 15–24 have accurate knowledge about HIV transmission.¹¹² This evidence suggests that the coverage, quality and continuity of STI and HIV prevention programmes should be expanded to foster greater awareness and promote safer and healthier sexual behaviour among youth.

Access to good-quality youth health care services

“In Mongolia, access to adolescent- and youth-friendly health services is limited and not always available because primary health care workers are not trained on youth-friendly service skills yet. Currently, adolescent health centres operate only in selected areas.

The Government is now committed to making health care more adolescent- and youth-friendly and is planning to scale up adolescent health centres and move from a project approach to a health system-wide approach.

Adolescent- and youth-friendly health services need to be in the right place (making access easy), at the right time (youth can get there), at the right price or free and should be equitable and confidential.”

—*Child and adolescent health policy official, Ministry of Health*

The health care system is well structured in Mongolia. It includes primary health care. Access to services can often be reasonable, but the demand among youth for services is low because of a lack of knowledge and proper health-seeking behaviour. However, the demand among youth is also severely restricted because of the poor quality of services. The primary concerns raised by youth survey respondents about health services are the associated financial costs (78.0 percent), the lack of health insurance (60.0 percent) and the lack of services that fit needs (20.3 percent).¹¹³

The Government recognizes the challenges and requirements of youth health care services. Mongolia was one of the first countries in WHO’s Western Pacific Region to adopt a model of adolescent-friendly health

care services with the support of WHO, the United Nations Population Fund and other partners. Currently, 25 adolescent health centres are delivering youth-friendly services across the country. Under the guidance of experts and experienced trainers, peer educators at these centres actively organize events in schools and student housing through various clubs to encourage volunteers, create demand for services, and undertake outreach among vulnerable youth groups. While highlighting their many advantages, an independent evaluation of the centres concludes that their reach is limited among most marginalized groups. More women than men visit the centres, and the overall satisfaction rate among youth is low.¹¹⁴

The above analysis demonstrates that, even though youth access general health care services as much as other population groups, there is a need to make health care easily accessible and equitable among all young people, including the most marginalized youth, and take into account the specific health needs of adolescents and young men and women.

Government policy on the health of youth

The Government’s health policies prioritize the principle of equal access to services and provides free access to primary health care and some medical and public health services to all people, including youth, according to the Constitution of Mongolia and the Law on Health. A brief review of public health policies aimed at reducing the risk of NCDs and improve access to quality health services among youth reveals three main axes of action, as follows:

- Establishing or strengthening the legal and policy framework: The Tobacco Control Law was amended in 2012. In 2015, as part of a tightening of traffic regulations, penalties for driving under the influence were stiffened. A draft of a revised law on alcohol prevention and control has been submitted to the State Great Khural. (A summary of some of

these laws is presented below.)

- Supporting healthy lifestyles through the implementation of national programmes and measures: The Government implemented the first National Programme on NCD Prevention and Control in 2006–2013 and adopted the National Programme on Injury and Violence Prevention in 2008. The second National Programme on Unhealthy Lifestyle-Related Disease Prevention and Control was launched in 2014. However, because of insufficient funding and a lack of intersectoral coordination, these programmes have not had a significant positive impact in addressing broad public health issues. A recent initiative funded by the US Millennium Challenge Corporation has contributed to promoting healthy behaviours.

- Expanding youth health services and making basic health care more youth-friendly: A youth health strategy was drafted in 2014.

The Tobacco Control Law

The Tobacco Control Law was enacted in 2007 and amended in 2012. The amendments prohibit smoking in public places and the sale of tobacco products within 500 metres of schools and student housing, in Internet cafes, or in bars, restaurants and other places of entertainment. They also increased the required size of labels warning about the ill-effects of tobacco, raised the age threshold for tobacco purchases from 18 to 21, and tightened the penalties for violating these restrictions. However, the enforcement of the law has been weak, and the effects in curbing tobacco use among youth have not been documented. Likewise, although the law includes the harmful effects of smoking as a key subject of instruction in the general health programme in education and although all health education teachers have been appropriately trained, the application of this provision has been limited.¹¹⁵ Similarly, schools are supposed to be smoke-free, health-promoting environments, but active smokers are common among secondary-school social workers (28.1 percent), school health teachers (8.4 percent), and education institution managers (3.1 percent).¹¹⁶

The Alcohol Prevention and Control Law

The State Great Khural adopted the Alcohol Prevention and Control Law in 1994 to reduce the negative health and social impacts of excessive alcohol consumption and regulate growing alcohol production and sales. Provisions include an increase in the value added tax, the publication of standards, the establishment of special licences and permits for the production, importation and sale of alcoholic beverages, and an age limit on the purchase of products containing alcohol. However, because of poor implementation and other factors, the law has not had much positive impact on alcohol supply, demand, or use. For example, the number of alcohol sales outlets rose from 3,530 in 2003 to 6,018 in 2012, and imports of alcoholic beverages have expanded each year.

Public health expenditure

As a share of GDP, total health expenditure has been fluctuating – 4.6 percent in 2000, 3.3 percent in 2005 and 3.1 percent in 2010 – because of changes in Government health spending as a share of GDP.¹¹⁷ Meanwhile, the share of Government health expenditure in GDP declined from 4.6 percent to 3.0 percent in 2000–2012 (table 3.7). Health expenditure rose significantly – by 8.8 percent in real, inflation-adjusted terms – until 2012. However, public health financing involves much more than merely health sector financing because public health problems are linked with social, behavioural and environmental factors. In addition, the allocation of the expenditure is heavily oriented towards hospital care. In 2012, 22.0 percent of the recurrent health budget went to primary care, but only 4.5 percent to prevention and early diagnostic interventions.¹¹⁸

Table 3.7**Health Sector Revenue and Expenditure, 2000–2012**

Indicator	2000	2006	2008	2010	2012
Source of income for the health sector, %					
Budget funding	73.8	73.0	79.1	73.1	76.2
Health Insurance Fund	20.4	23.3	18.0	23.6	21.1
Fees and other income	5.8	3.7	2.9	3.3	2.7
Health expenditure					
Total health expenditure, ₮, billions	46.9	103.1	211.5	250.3	455.6
Share of Government health expenditure in GDP, %	4.6	3.3	3.5	3.1	3.0
Share of public hospital budgets in total health expenditure, %	81.9	78.9	56.6	55.1	
Share of private hospital costs in total health expenditure, %	18.1	21.1	43.4	44.9	
Share of the costs paid by families and individuals, %	12.1	15.8	40.0	41.4	

Source: MOH, 2013.

The Government adopted strategic documents on health funding in 2010–2014 in which the protection of the population from health-related financial risks is secured by setting the goal of limiting the total direct payments of individuals for health services to 25 percent of total health expenditure.¹¹⁹ Analysis of the 2011 Household Socio-Economic Survey shows that 19 percent of the

population is living in poverty because of health problems.¹²⁰ Direct payments by individuals for medical care have increased every year since 2005. As of 2010, they represented 41.4 percent of total health expenditures.¹²¹ This suggests that health care is a substantial financial burden for youth, particularly youth in poor families with limited access to good-quality health services.

Conclusions

Education and health are interrelated and play a vital role in the ability of youth to enjoy long and productive lives. Youth in Mongolia today have numerous opportunities to access knowledge and make the right choices to lead healthy lives. These opportunities include growing enrolments at all levels of the education system especially since 2000 and many positive legal and policy initiatives to reduce NCD risk factors. Nonetheless, as the chapter also highlights, there are major gaps that need to be addressed urgently to foster the appropriate development of youth capabilities.

The chapter highlights youth with disabilities, rural youth and youth from poorer socio-economic backgrounds. Youth with disabilities face substantial barriers in accessing good-quality education and exhibit much lower levels of educational attainment. The reverse gender gap in education has narrowed, but persists in rural areas. The Government thus needs to prioritize the elimination of inequalities in education.

The low quality of education blocks many young people from benefiting from their learning experience. Educational reform must become more focused on the quality of education based on careful monitoring and research, enhanced and stable national standards and a substantial increase in investment to implement the reform agenda successfully and upgrade education infrastructure.

The analysis reveals that accidents, injuries, poisoning and other external causes are the most important causes of youth mortality. The Government should undertake forceful action to reduce traffic accidents, injuries and other external risks to prevent premature deaths among young people.

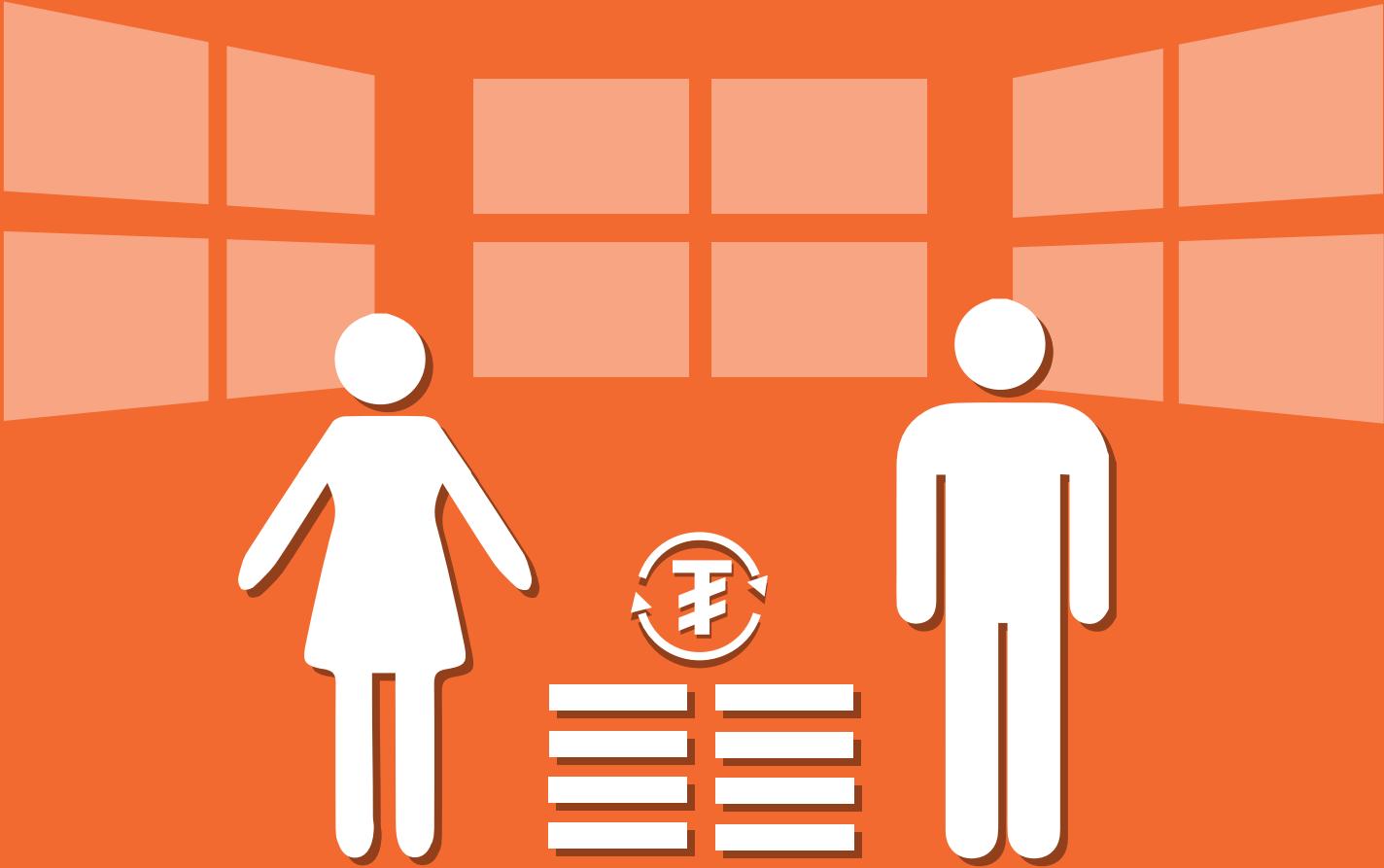
The chapter highlights the slow progress in improving life expectancy among youth, particularly young men. The roots of ill health, especially among young men, may lie in the prevalence of situations of risk such as alcohol and tobacco use, unbalanced diets, and a lack of physical activity among adolescents and youth, especially young men. Stronger legal and policy measures are therefore needed, for example, to raise the tax on tobacco and on alcohol. Health financing should no longer focus only on the provision of health care and services; it should more broadly address the environmental and structural factors affecting health.

There has been no major positive change in the incidence of unsafe sexual behaviours over the years. Higher adolescent birth rates, the unmet need for family planning and the prevalence of STIs are key sexual and reproductive health concerns among youth. To grapple with these concerns, health policies need to concentrate more on the sexual and reproductive health needs and rights of young people.

Education and health care go hand-in-hand. In becoming more knowledgeable, healthier and more productive and responsible citizens, youth are the most important stakeholders in developing their own capabilities. They have the potential to make informed choices in career development, advance their awareness and knowledge about healthy lifestyles, translate these into action and participate in health promotion programmes. The future prosperity of Mongolia's youth depends on the access of young people to good-quality education, the appropriate development of their skills and their pursuit of healthy lifestyles.

Chapter 4

Expanding employment opportunities



4. Expanding employment opportunities

Box 4.1

Fast Facts

1. *The duration of the school-to-work transition among young people varies by sex and location.* Rural youth are more likely to enter the labour market with fewer capabilities and often end up in the informal sector. Young women and urban youth begin the transition later. The longer time taken by urban youth is often a result of a skill mismatch or the limited availability of jobs.
2. *Strong economic growth has not translated into sufficient gains in decent and productive employment among youth.* Youth unemployment in aimag and soum centres is well above the national average.
3. *Youth comprise nearly 60 percent of all unemployed.* The unemployment rate in 2013 was 10.7 percent among the 15–34 age-group; the unemployment rate among 20- to 24-year-olds (17.3 percent) was twice the national unemployment rate (7.9 percent). Among youth looking for suitable jobs, 63 percent have been looking for more than a year, and 40 percent have been looking for more than three years. These youth are in danger of experiencing eroding skills and other risks.
4. *About 50 percent of young men and 38 percent of young women aged 15–34 are employed, and youth make up around one third of the people working in the informal economy.*
5. *The growing number of the educated unemployed points to the weak link between the education system and the labour market.*
6. *There are few opportunities for employment in the formal sector in rural areas, whereas three quarters of employed youth in Ulaanbaatar are active in the formal sector.*
7. *A significant gender gap in the labour market is evident.* Young women face more difficulty in labour market entry, and, when they do enter, they are not only more likely to receive lower wages than young men, but are also more likely to be active in a narrow range of occupations.
8. *Youth with disabilities have limited opportunities for employment, especially in rural areas, and most of them are self-employed.*
9. *The future prosperity of Mongolia's youth depends on them obtaining appropriate skills and on the expansion of employment opportunities so they may benefit from the growth in the economy.*

Introduction: preparing youth for employment

A key objective of higher education and technical training is to prepare young people by imparting the necessary knowledge and skills so they are able to enter the labour market with the motivation and self-confidence to benefit from employment opportunities.

Access to employment because of economic growth is a crucial means of expanding the substantive freedoms that people value. These freedoms are strongly associated with improvements in the quality of life, such as greater opportunities for people to become healthier and more well educated and to live longer. Stable employment also enables families to invest in developing their children's capabilities, which demonstrates the role of employment in enhancing human development.

Obtaining a job and becoming financially independent are important markers of the successful transition of young people to adulthood as they acquire the freedom to

do what they wish to do, make economic decisions, and become accountable for their lives. However, the capabilities of young people do not always match the requirements of the jobs that are available, and many young people have to wait for a long time for suitable jobs.

While searching for their first stable jobs after completing their education, youth pass through a transition phase, the school-to-work transition. The duration of this transition varies by location and sex. Employment statistics classify those looking for jobs, such as youth undergoing the school-to-work transition, alongside the unemployed. Obtaining a first stable job marks the culmination of the transition. It depends on a number of key factors such as the skills of young people and the availability of appropriate jobs.

This chapter examines the extent and nature of youth unemployment and highlights the characteristic features of the transition.

The kinds of jobs available for the young, the sectors in which these jobs are located, and the challenges youth face in taking advantage of employment opportunities are the focus of the analysis. The chapter also offers recommendations on what can

be done to raise the access of young people to employment opportunities, ease their transition to responsible, economically independent adulthood and enhance their human development.

The transition from school to work¹²²

A 2008 study by the International Labour Organization estimated that 56 percent of youth in the 15–29 age cohort in Mongolia were in transition from school to work, meaning they were still looking for stable jobs.¹²³ More than 40 percent had not yet started the transition, which may mean they were completing their education. Less than 1 percent had completed the transition.

A disaggregation shows that there are considerable differences across age-groups, reflecting the continuation in education

by the younger age cohorts. The average school-leaving age – that is, the starting point of the transition – among 15- to 29-year-olds, conditional on having attended school, is 19.8 years (table 4.1). Meanwhile, an average youth in rural areas enters the labour market at an earlier age and takes less time to find employment (1.1 years) relative to the average urban youth, who may take up to 2.9 years to obtain a first job after completing education.

Table 4.1

The School-to-Work Transition, 15- to 29-Year-Olds, by Sex and Location, 2009
years

Group	Youth who have ever attended school			Youth who have never attended school
	Beginning of transition, average age at dropping out	End of transition, average age at first entry into work	Transition duration, years	Average age of first entry into work
Total	19.8	22.3	2.5	13.1
SEX				
Men	19.4	21.7	2.3	14.0
Women	20.2	23.0	2.8	11.5
LOCATION				
Urban	21.1	24.0	2.9	15.9
Rural	18.2	19.3	1.1	13.0
SEX, LOCATION				
Men, urban	21.5	23.4	1.9	16.7
Women, urban	21.5	24.7	3.2	15.8
Men, rural	18.2	19.8	1.6	14.4
Women, rural	18.2	19.9	1.7	10.7

Source: UCW, 2009.

A number of conclusions follow. First, the shorter transition in rural areas is largely an outcome of youth there entering the labour force at an earlier age. Together with the lower returns to education and to job searches, this suggests that rural youth enter the labour force with fewer capabilities.

Second, urban youth begin the transition later (at an average of 21.1 years of age), which is a reflection of their preference for acquiring higher levels of education (chapter 3).

Third, urban youth take more time to secure employment (1.9 years among young

men and 3.0 years among young women). This suggests they face challenges in labour entry arising from a mismatch between their skills and the skills sought by employers, from a shortage of suitable jobs in urban areas, or from the fact that there is less labour demand for youth with higher educational attainment.

Other data confirm the strong preference of youth in the 15–19 age-group for completing secondary education before entering the labour market because the number of employed young men and women in this age-group declined in 2000–2010 (figure 4.1).

While employment among 20- to 24-year-old men rose slightly in 2000–2010, fewer women in this age-group were employed in 2010 relative to 2000. A larger share of women than men in this age-group were still in education, rather than employed or looking for a job, suggesting that women were delaying entry into the labour market, often to pursue higher education. In the 25–29 age-group, the relative share of youth still studying dropped sharply among both men and women, indicating that most youth in this age-group had begun the transition from school to work.

Figure 4.1

Trends in the Number of the Employed, 15- to 34-Year-Olds, by Sex, 2000–2010



Source: Compiled from data of NSO, 2011a.

The entry of youth in the labour market picks up among the 25–34 age cohort, though far more men than women are working, even though more women than men graduate with degrees in higher education. This suggests either that labour demand is in less-skilled sectors that attract more men or that women delay their entry into the la-

bour market because of family obligations, for example, to look after children. It may be recalled that the average age of women at first marriage is 24.2 years, which coincides, on average, with the period when the young complete their education and start the transition to their first jobs.¹²⁴

Youth unemployment

Youth have higher employment expectations, but many of them cannot find work. The data in the 2012–2014 labour force surveys show an unemployment rate of 11 percent among 15- to 34-year-olds.¹²⁵ These data refer to the formally unemployed, that is, those people who are registered at employment centres. The actual unemployment shares are likely to be higher. The un-

employment rate was highest among 20- to 24-year-olds, at 18 percent, which is more than two times greater than the national unemployment rate (table 4.2). Almost all unemployed 15- to 29-year-olds (83 percent) are looking for work for the first time, which highlights the particular difficulties youth face in gaining an initial foothold in the labour market.¹²⁶

Table 4.2

Youth Unemployment Rates, by Age Cohort, 2012–2014

percent of the economically active

Age cohorts	2012			2013			2014		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
National	8.2	8.4	8.1	7.9	7.6	8.3	7.9	8.5	7.3
15–19	8.0	6.9	9.3	13.6	11.1	17.6	17.4	16.2	19.6
20–24	17.0	16.1	18.3	17.3	15.6	19.4	17.4	17.0	18.0
25–29	9.6	10.0	9.1	9.3	8.2	10.5	9.7	10.5	8.8
30–34	6.8	6.7	6.8	7.0	6.5	7.7	7.3	6.7	8.0

Source: Data of the 2012–2014 Labour Force Surveys, Census and Survey Catalogue (database), National Statistical Office of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, <http://web.nso.mn/nada/index.php/catalog/LFS>.

While the unemployment rate among 20- to 34-year-old men fell in 2012–2013, unemployment among young women increased and was consistently higher than the rate among men, even though more women than men were in education. The school-to-work transition is also longer among young women, that is, young women face more difficulty than young men in finding suitable jobs (see table 4.1). This could be because the transition coincides with the time when many young women are starting families, and, so, opt out of the labour market. Young women may also prefer to wait for suitable jobs that provide more liberal maternity benefits.

The limited opportunities for employment in the aimag and soum administrative centres are a serious concern. The youth unemployment rate in these places is much higher than the national average, around 19 percent and 17 percent, respectively. Analysis suggests that the unemployment rate among urban youth is more than double the rate

among rural youth, underscoring the different nature of the urban and rural labour markets, particularly the role the livestock and agricultural sector plays in absorbing young rural workers.¹²⁷ Despite the higher employment rate among rural youth, job quality is a greater problem in rural areas given the predominance there of the informal economy (annex table VIII.1).

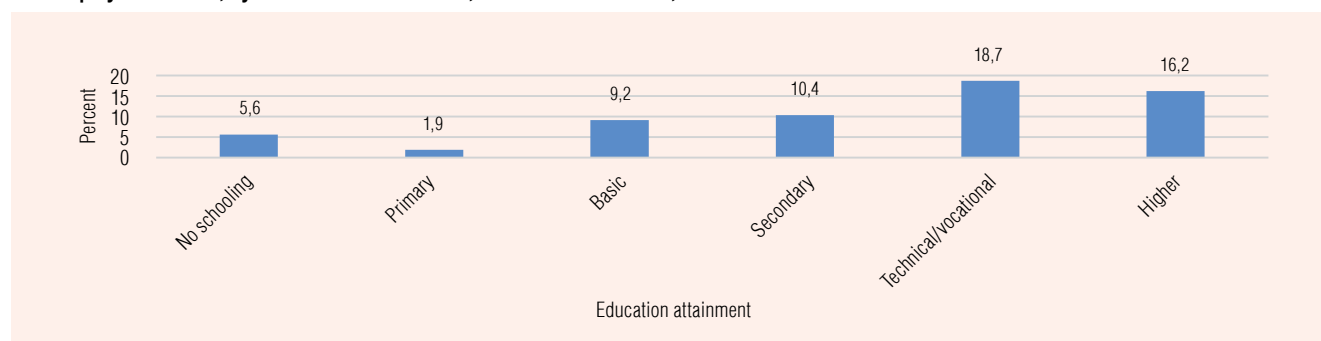
More well educated youth are confronted by a higher risk of unemployment, which appears to be a perverse outcome of the higher returns to education. The rates of unemployment among young people with TVET and higher educational attainment are much higher than the rates among young people with lower levels of educational attainment (figure 4.2). The unemployment rate among TVET graduates has increased over time (annex table VIII.2). Common to many developing and middle-income countries, this phenomenon is partially the product of the fact that less well educated young people begin the transition to work at an earlier age

and have therefore had greater exposure to the labour market and more time to secure beneficial employment. Nonetheless, much of the unemployment among more well educated youth is also long-duration unemployment; thus, 60 percent of youth with TVET certificates have been seeking work for more than a year.¹²⁸ Because an in-

sufficient number of jobs are being created for the growing well-educated workforce, some of the available jobs do not satisfy the expectations and aspirations of more well educated young people. The more well educated are also more likely to register as unemployed relative to the less well educated.

Figure 4.2

Unemployment Rates, by Educational Attainment, 15– to 24–Year–Olds, 2011



Sources: Pastore, 2008; data of the 2011 Labour Force Survey, Census and Survey Catalogue (database), National Statistical Office of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, <http://web.nso.mn/nada/index.php/catalog/LFS>.

Most young job-seekers spend more than a year looking for work

Long-term unemployment – unemployment lasting more than a year – is not limited to young people. Among the unemployed over 35 years of age, 72 percent are in long-term unemployment (table 4.3). However, the problem is more serious among young people, most of whom are first-time job-seekers. Among these people, 63 percent have been unemployed for a year or more, and

40 percent for more than three years. A disaggregation by sex shows that nearly 62 percent of 15- to 24-year-old men and 55 percent of women in the same age-group have to wait for more than a year for their first jobs and are vulnerable to categorization as long-term unemployed.¹²⁹ The proportion of young people waiting for suitable employment for more than a year increases with age with little variation by sex (figure 4.3).

Table 4.3

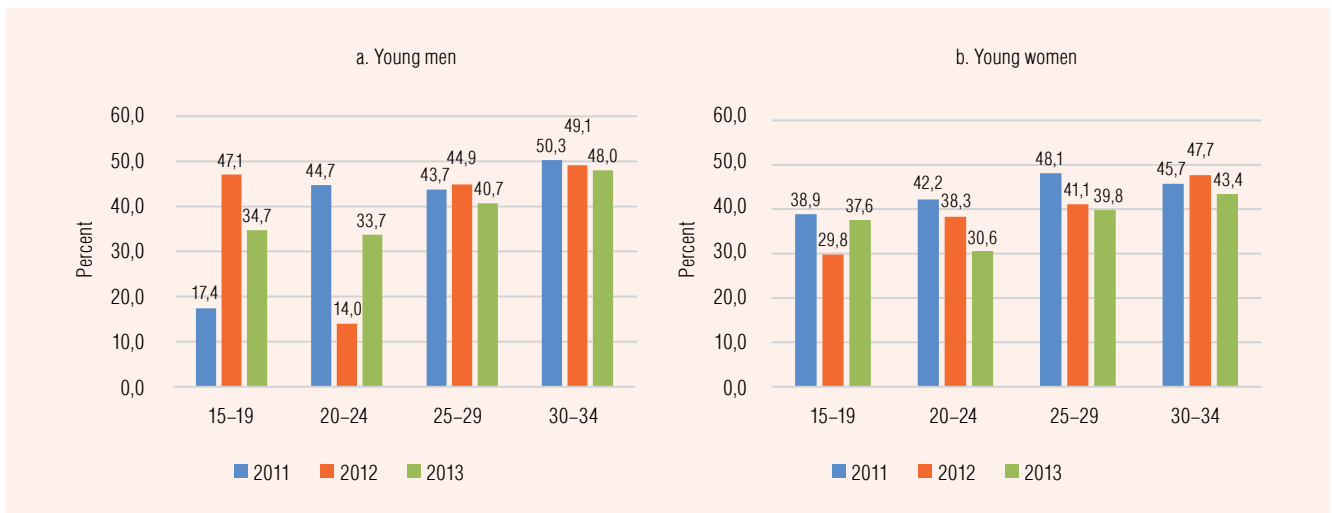
Total Unemployed, by Length of Unemployment, 2009–2013

Age-group	Less than 1 month	1–2 months	3–5 months	6–11 months	1–2 years	3 years or above	Total
15–34	3,065	3,834	7,187	5,215	12,252	21,410	52,963
Over 35	1,719	1,956	4,605	3,412	8,005	22,045	41,742
Total	4,784	5,790	11,792	8,627	20,257	43,455	94,705

Source: Calculated from data of the 2009–2013 Labour Force Surveys, Census and Survey Catalogue (database), National Statistical Office of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, <http://web.nso.mn/nada/index.php/catalog/LFS>.

Figure 4.3

Youth Unemployed for More Than a Year, by Sex, 2011–2013



Source: Data of the 2011–2013 Labour Force Surveys, Census and Survey Catalogue (database), National Statistical Office of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, <http://web.nso.mn/nada/index.php/catalog/LFS>.

Young people unemployed for long periods will not only suffer financially, but also start to lose their skills, reducing their future work potential. Youth unemployment can also reduce a country’s economic potential by underusing human capabilities.¹³⁰ Many youth in Mongolia, particularly young women, extend their time in school to seek to build knowledge or new skills, while they wait for better job opportunities. In some cases, youth simply accept low-paying, poor-quality jobs below their skill and educational levels. This can result in the erosion of skills, reduced lifetime earnings and greater vulnerability to health risks and other risks (chapters 3 and 6).

Families are crucial as youth enter the unknown world of work for the first time. They are a source of emotional and financial support during this period when many young people also have family responsibilities of their own. Moreover, most youth do not rely on public or private job services, but use informal methods such as contacts through family or friends.

Unemployment exacerbates inequalities among youth because, while youth in more well off households have access to financial support from their families, social networks and other connections to help them find

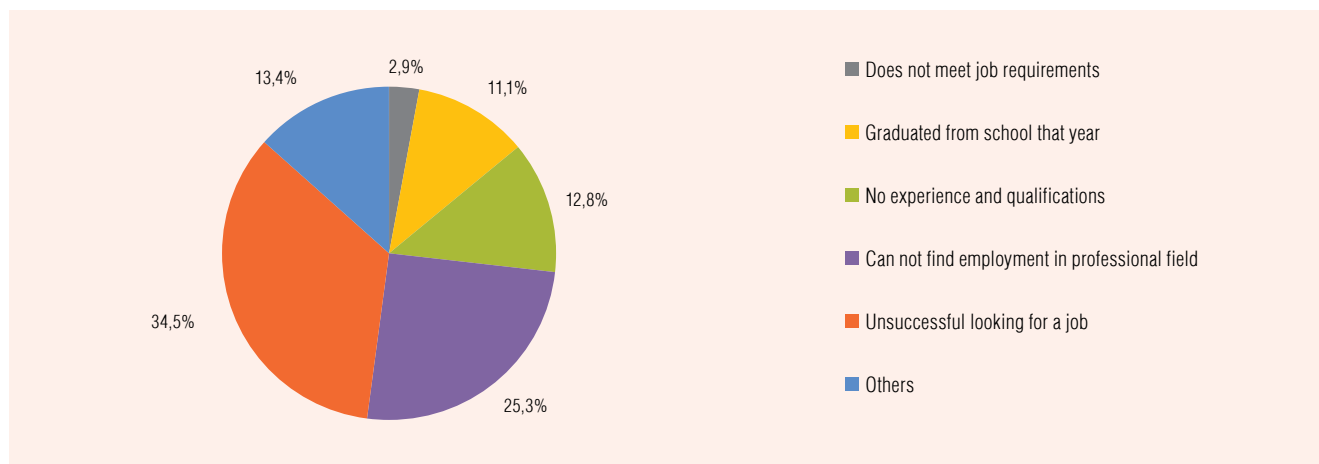
suitable jobs, young people in poorer households have limited access to financial and social support. The urgency to earn an income may push them to take the first available job. Many settle for dead-end or mismatched jobs. Measures aimed at creating employment incentives and fostering career training and job mediation among youth are thus key.

The reasons for youth unemployment

About 60 percent of the unemployed survey respondents in the 15–34 age-group who said they could not find work in professional fields or had been unsuccessful in looking for jobs displayed a disturbing level of hopelessness (figure 4.4). Around 15 percent and 14 percent of the unemployed in this age-group said, respectively, that there were no jobs suitable to their professional interests or that they lacked the appropriate professional experience. Young respondents also cited low wages, lack of adequate qualifications, lack of information about the jobs and training available, lack of contacts to provide assistance, lack of job mediation services, and lack of other support mechanisms, including counselling (such as mock job interviews), unpaid and paid internships and volunteering opportunities aimed at youth, as well as apathy.

Figure 4.4

Reasons for Unemployment, 15– to 24– year-olds, 2014



Note: Other reasons include doing seasonal work, pregnant or caring for a child, exited military service in the last year, low wages, in education or training, returned from living abroad, and restructuring at previous place of employment.

Source: Data of the 2014 Labour Force Survey, Census and Survey Catalogue (database), National Statistical Office of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, <http://web.nso.mn/nada/index.php/catalog/LFS>.

One consequence of low labour force participation and high youth unemployment is limited contributions for retirement benefits or a late start to contributions. Another

is that rising youth unemployment, particularly long-term unemployment, if left unaddressed, could lead to a lost generation of workers.¹³¹

Youth employment

Mining is the key driver of economic growth in Mongolia. Internationally, mining tends not to be labour intensive, and it therefore typically creates few jobs, but income growth in the sector leads to greater domestic consumption, which, in turn, fuels demand and growth in related and other sectors. However, this does generate negative side effects.

In the case of Mongolia, because of a mining boom, mining sector employment doubled in 2002–2012, while the average wage rate in the sector rose by 121 percent in real terms.¹³² Mining also created jobs indirectly, in mining supplier companies, thereby raising incomes and consumption in these sectors. Thus, construction, trade and other mining-related services expanded. A construction boom was one result: more than a third of the new jobs in 2010–2013 were created in the construction sector, though these were usually low skilled and did not help provide employment to women or to graduates with higher-level degrees.

The rise in commodity prices and the advances in sectors associated with the mining boom have not had a sustainable impact on employment across the economy. The employment elasticity of growth has been falling steadily across many sectors since 2000, meaning that employment creation has not kept pace across the economy with the rate of economic growth generally or with the rate of growth of the mining and related sectors. It also means that a large number of the young graduates who are making the transition from school to work are not finding jobs.¹³³ This represents a substantial challenge in translating the rapid economic growth that has been occurring in Mongolia into productive employment among youth. Moreover, the decline in the mineral sector over the last two or three years has severely impacted sustainable employment opportunities among youth even in the mining and associated sectors. For example, many TVET programmes were started to meet the projected demand in the mining

sector. With a slowdown in the mining sector because of high commodity prices and Government policies limiting licensing and exploration, plus stalled mega projects, the demand for workers diminished, leading to less employment among TVET graduates.

Meanwhile, trade and the hospitality industry (restaurants and hotels) have become the most important sectors for employment generation. Since 2000, well over 40 percent of the expansion in employment has taken place in the service sector, which does employ large numbers of youth. However, most of these jobs are part time or temporary and do not supply young people with

the security of stable work.

The overall labour force participation rate has fluctuated in a narrow range of 61–64 percent since 2000. The corresponding rate among women is lower, in the 56–58 percent range, compared with the rate among men, in the 65–68 percent range.¹³⁴ Only about 50 percent of young men and 38 percent of young women in the 15–34 age-group are employed.¹³⁵ The employment status of youth varies considerably by location. About 39.2 percent of urban youth are employed, compared with 22.2 percent of youth in rural areas (figure 4.5).

Figure 4.5

Youth Employment Status, by Location, 2010



Source: NSO, 2011a.

Youth employment, by sector

Agriculture is quickly becoming less of an employment option among youth because of the sharp decline in agricultural employment, from 40 to 28 percent in 2009–2014 (table 4.4). Despite the booming construction sector in recent years, the share of the young employed in the sector has risen only modestly, from 6 to 9 percent. It appears young people with higher educational attainment have a limited preference for work in construction. Government service and administration and the related support services represent a greater magnet among youth seeking employment; many young

people, especially women, show a preference for the security of Government jobs. Similarly, youth predominate in certain professions. For instance, young people account for nearly two thirds of the employment in finance and insurance, three in five workers in ICT, almost half in mining, construction, and culture and entertainment, and about two workers in five in Government and administrative services and scientific and technical fields. Because of a tightening in the Government fiscal space and reductions in the state budget, the number of Government jobs has fallen. This will likely impact aspiring young civil servants the most.

Table 4.4**Youth Employment, by Sector, 2009–2014***percent*

Sector	2009	2010	2012	2013	2014
Agriculture	39.9	37.7	37.7	30.2	28.2
Industry	10.9	11.4	12.6	14.3	13.2
Construction	5.9	4.8	6.3	7.9	9.2
Wholesale and retail trade	12.4	11.9	11	12.4	12.5
Government services	5.7	6.6	7.1	7.4	6.3
Other services	25.2	27.6	25.3	27.8	30.6

Source: Data of the 2009–2014 Labour Force Surveys, Census and Survey Catalogue (database), National Statistical Office of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, <http://web.nso.mn/nada/index.php/catalog/LFS>.

That youth made up more than half (almost 56 percent) of the newly employed in 2014 is encouraging. That the number of young employers and entrepreneurs rose from 1,992 to 3,105 (an increase of nearly 56 percent) in

2011–2013 is another positive development. More than half of employed young people prefer to work as paid employees, and this share rose from 40 percent in 2009 to 56 percent in 2014 (table 4.5).

Table 4.5**Employment Categories among the 15–34 Age-Group, 2009–2014***percent*

Employment categories	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Waged employee	40.1	43.5	46.6	50.2	53.9	56.2
Employer	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.7	1.1
Self-employed	18.4	18.8	17.6	12.3	14.8	14.3
Livestock sector employee	24.9	24.0	26.7	30.8	28.2	26.3
Unpaid worker, contributing to family business	15.3	12.9	8.2	6.0	2.2	2.0
None of the above	0.5	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

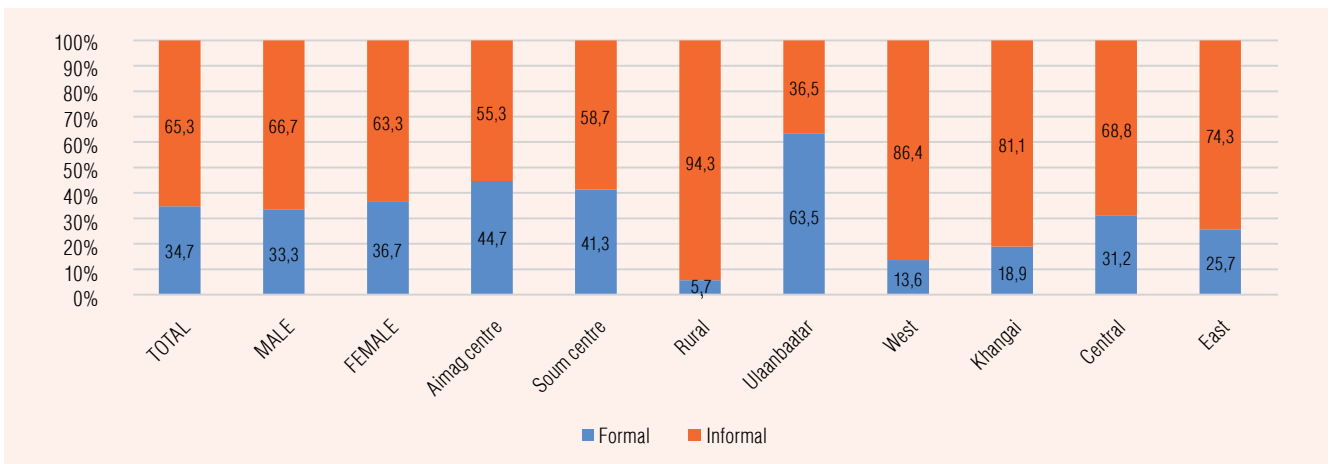
Source: Data of the 2009–2014 Labour Force Surveys, Census and Survey Catalogue (database), National Statistical Office of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, <http://web.nso.mn/nada/index.php/catalog/LFS>.

There was a sharp decline in the share of unpaid workers contributing to family work in this period. Informal employment is often the last resort among young people who have no professional training and who face difficulty finding jobs in the fields of their choice.¹³⁶ In recent years, informal employment has surged among youth. The number of young people aged 15–34 whose primary employment is in the informal sector shot up by nearly a quarter, from 49,500 in 2009 to 60,700 in 2013, and youth constituted

more than 30 percent of those employed in the informal sector. In rural areas, only 6 percent of working youth hold jobs in the formal economy (figure 4.6). Meanwhile, in 2011, economic growth was at an all-time high of 17.5 percent, and an increased contribution from the industrial sector is likely to have led to an expansion of businesses in the formal economy. In Ulaanbaatar, three quarters of employed youth enjoy wage jobs, and almost two thirds hold jobs in the formal economy.

Figure 4.6

Employment, 15–24 Age-Group, by Type of Economy, Sex, and Location, 2014



Source: ILO, 2014.

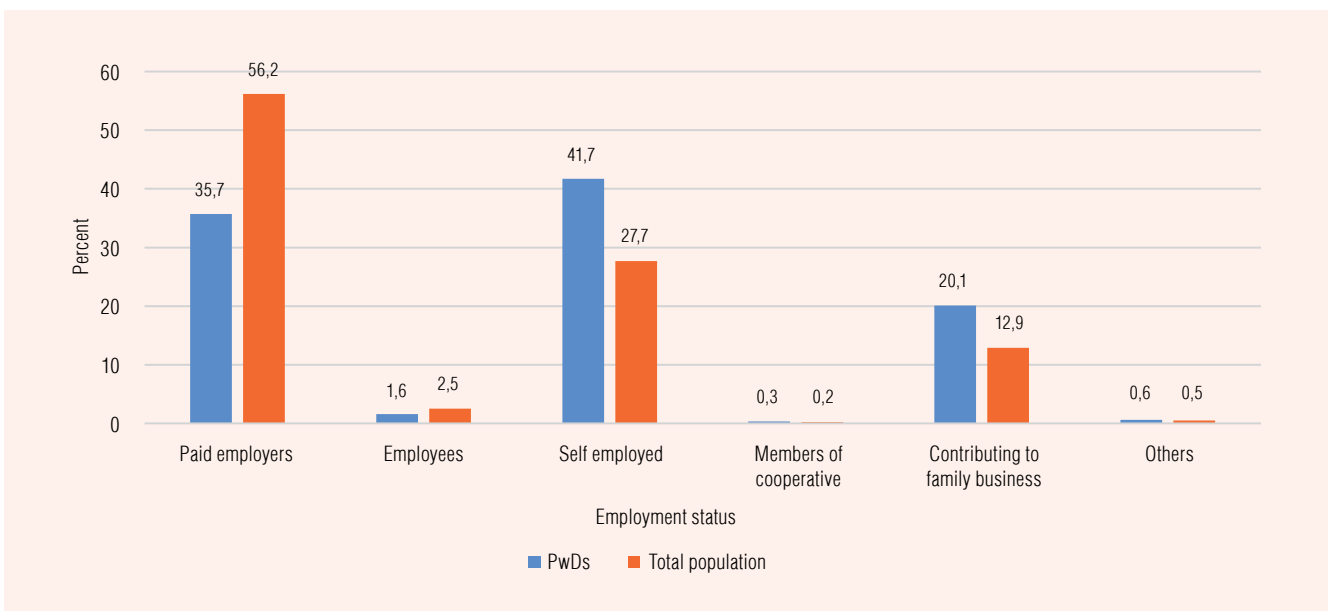
Most of the disabled are economically inactive

There is almost no difference across types of disability in the economic participation of the disabled. Most persons with disabilities face significant barriers to employment. Persons with disabilities are more likely

than the non-disabled to be self-employed in household enterprises or contributing to family businesses without payment and 1.5 times less likely to be paid employers (figure 4.7).¹³⁷ Around 80 percent are economically inactive. In rural areas, there are fewer opportunities for economic activity among the disabled.

Figure 4.7

Employment Status among the Disabled, 2010



Note: PwDs = persons with disabilities.
Source: NSO, 2011a.

Measures should be adopted to increase opportunities for employment and access to higher education among the disabled. Among persons with disabilities, employment is not only a source of stable income, but also a crucial contributor to self-esteem. Labour law already prohibits discrimination in employment and education against persons with disabilities. The Law on the Social Protection of the Disabled gives aimag governors the responsibility to take steps to protect the rights of persons with disabilities. NGOs have reported some improvement, including growing public awareness of the rights of the disabled. Nonetheless, there is a general lack of appropriate infrastructure for the disabled.

Employment opportunities among young women

While young women have greater access to education in Mongolia and perform well in education and the labour force, they still experience difficulties gaining a foothold in the labour market. For example, in urban areas, young women spend more time than young men in looking for jobs (3.0 years versus 1.9 years, respectively). When they do find work, young women are more likely

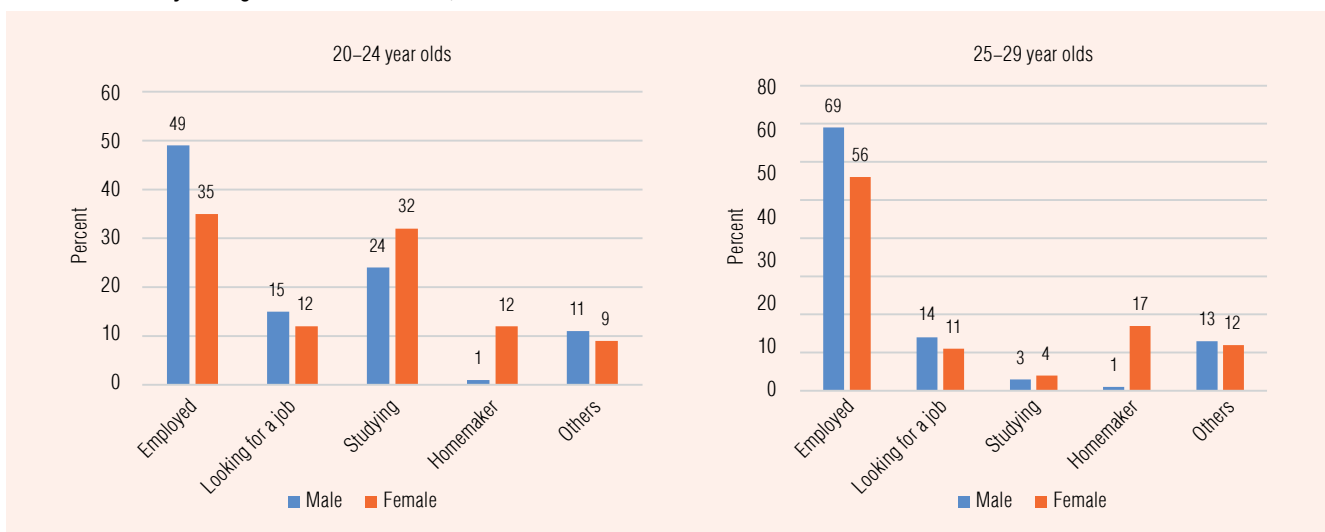
to be concentrated in a limited number of occupations (see below). Among younger workers, the wage gap between young men and young women is larger.

A larger share of women than men in the 20–24 age-group are still in education, rather than employed or looking for jobs. In the 25–29 age-group, the relative share of youth still studying drops sharply among both men and women.

Worldwide, women undertake more unpaid housework, such as preparing meals, cleaning, fetching firewood and collecting water, and unpaid care work, such as caring for children, the sick and the elderly in the home and the community. In Mongolia, according to 2010 census data, 17 percent of 25- to 29-year-old women are homemakers, versus only 1 percent of men in this age-group, confirming that a smaller share of women in this age-group are entering the labour market (figure 4.8). The entry of youth in the labour market picks up among the 25–34 age-group, but far fewer women than men in the age-group are working. A third of women end up as unpaid family workers.¹³⁸

Figure 4.8

Economic Activity among 20– to 29-Year-Olds, 2010



Note: Other includes those who are economically inactive.
Source: Compiled based on data of NSO, 2011a.

Generally, there are not enough public child-care centres. The cost of using private child-care centres is high. In addition, birth rates have increased noticeably in Mongolia in recent years. However, the increase in the number of pre-school-age children has not been accompanied by a corresponding expansion in the supply of public pre-school education services. A combination of higher birth rates and insufficient access to pre-school education has affected the labour force participation of women, particularly young women. Women with children under age 6 are less likely to be in the labour force relative to women without children.¹³⁹

Occupational segregation affecting women negatively is widespread. Women tend to be concentrated in a narrow range of occupations such as education (80.6 percent), health and welfare (79.4 percent), and the

social sciences, business and law (64.3 percent).¹⁴⁰ In engineering, manufacturing and construction, only 30 percent of graduates are women, indicating a clear underrepresentation in science and technology-related fields among women, which can limit the employment opportunities open to women in these areas. Among younger workers, the wage gap is larger; it appears that young men are paid more than young women by a factor of 1.4.¹⁴¹

The above analysis clearly illustrates the inequality of opportunity affecting young women and young men in the labour market in Mongolia and the lack of employment support for a flexible balance between work and life among young women and young men. Likewise, the gaps in the division of work between young women and young men must be addressed.¹⁴²

The skills of youth and the available employment opportunities

“I graduated from a private college majoring in business administration. But, after graduation, I could not find a good job even after waiting for months. Companies do not hire because I lack the skills and experiences they require. . . . I ask for money from my parents who are quite concerned about my position and lifestyle. My family members start neglecting or ignoring me; so, I think I am treated badly by them now because of my situation. Because of all this, I get frustrated a lot; I don’t know how to get out of this situation. I think I’ve chosen a wrong major or school, and I didn’t count on my potential and interest when I was in secondary school. No one helped me in choosing a major or defining my future career, and I blindly followed other students’ paths to enter higher education. Besides, my parents told me that everyone else’s children are getting higher education, and you have to follow the same path. Making choices or decisions for the future is important, and a wrong decision can ruin your whole life.”

—Jargalsaikhan, 24-year-old woman

Despite many efforts by the Government to reduce unemployment among youth over the years, youth, particularly women and new graduates, still face many challenges in entering the labour market and becoming economically independent. One of the most serious challenges is the limited labour demand. It is widely recognized that the number of young people exiting the education system far exceeds the workforce needs of the labour market, and many graduates cannot find suitable jobs. For example, according to a World Bank study, only 36 percent of the graduating class of 2010 reported they were employed.¹⁴³ This reflects only a slight improvement since 2002, when the share was 26 percent. According to a survey on the employment of new graduates, of the 18,049 TVET graduates in 2013, 56.6 percent were registered as unemployed after graduation.¹⁴⁴

Moreover, the skills of youth do not respond to the skills required by the labour market. Thus, the International Labour Organization’s 2008 School-to-Work Survey showed that employers are not satisfied with the level and types of skills among young peo-

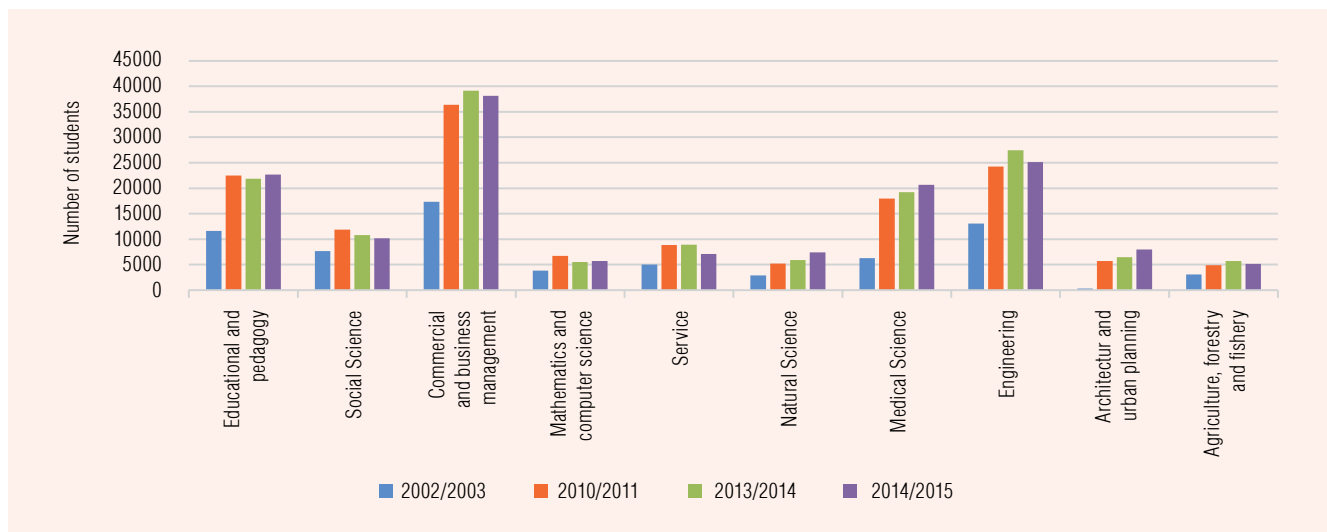
ple seeking jobs.¹⁴⁵ Because of poor-quality higher education and vocational education and a skill mismatch, many youth are unable to reap the full benefits of their investment in education. Their capabilities do not translate into decent and productive employment.

A large number of students major in commercial and business management (38,105), education (22,664), the social sciences

(10,149), law (8,502) and medical science (20,687) (figure 4.9). Between 2002/2003 and 2014/2015, the number of students majoring in business management rose by 44.2 percent, and, in education, by 53.0 percent. In 2012, a significant share of TVET students were studying to pursue occupations in construction (20.0 percent), as electricians (18.0 percent), and in catering and the bakery business (10.0 percent).

Figure 4.9

Students in Tertiary Education, by Major Field of Study, 2002/2003–2014/2015



Source: NSO, various years, Statistical Yearbook.

However, the sectors eliciting the greatest labour market demand were health care (37.7 percent), construction (32.5 percent), administration and food services (29.9 percent), manufacturing (28.6 percent) and agriculture (23.5 percent).

In the new knowledge economy, the search for applicants proficient in foreign languages, especially English, is widespread. Almost 65 percent of the employment offers on the BizNetwork professional business website and over two thirds of the employment offers in Udriin Sonin, a daily newspaper, call for the command of a foreign language, in addition to work experience (60 percent and 52 percent of the offers, respectively) and computer skills (46 percent and 44 percent, respectively), as a specific requirement.¹⁴⁶ Language schools focusing on English began to be established in the

late 1990s and early 2000s. These schools are popular, particularly among young people. Today, youth are prioritizing language learning more than ever. While many young people are able to benefit from these alternative learning programmes in cities, rural youth have only limited access to such opportunities.

Meanwhile, many courses in higher-education institutions are teacher driven and attract only limited demand on the labour market. Clearly, there is a mismatch between the qualifications of graduates and the needs of the labour market. The quality of education must be improved to ensure a closer link between labour supply and the demands of the labour market and help bring appropriate job-seekers and employers together.

The Government has placed job creation at the centre of national policy priorities. Government policies aimed at enhancing job opportunities and reducing unemployment focus on three main axes, as follows:

- *Linking macroeconomic policies with employment outcomes.* The Government undertook a series of positive steps recently to support investments in economic growth and intensify industrial development and manufacturing. This included macroeconomic and industrial policies and measures such as the adoption of the new Investment Law, the Government policy on public-private partnerships, the revised Law on Vocational Education and Training, the Law on the Legal Status of Industrial and Technology Parks, the Mongolian Industrialization Programme 2009–2016, and the Government policy on the high-technology industry.¹⁴⁷
- *Focusing on employment promotion and job creation policies and programmes.* The Government has undertaken several actions to provide comprehensive support to entities and initiatives that create employment among young people, among people over the age of 40 and among others experiencing difficulty finding work, including the disabled, migrants and students. The year 2011 was declared the Year of Employment Promotion. In 2011, the Employment Promotion Law, adopted in 2004, was revised.
- *Initiating training and retraining among the unemployed and supplying job mediation services.* The Government has introduced online labour intermediary networks to link job-seekers and potential employers directly. The Department for Vocational Education and Training Policy Implementation, established within the Ministry of Labour, is currently managing three types of training initiatives to fulfil its mandate to carry out employment training activities: on-

site training, vocational training and retraining, and distance education and apprenticeship training.

Despite the increasing policy recognition of the importance of generating employment, reducing youth unemployment is still one of the most important challenges facing the country. The severe imbalance between economic and employment growth persists.

The Mongolian with a Job and Income Programme

Within the framework of the Government Action Plan 2012–2016, the Government has pledged to generate 150,000 new jobs through the Mongolian with a Job and Income Programme.¹⁴⁸ The action plan also provides for efforts to align the skills of the workforce with labour demand through vocational training and the activities of other educational institutions.

The Young Mongolian with a Job and Income Programme

This programme was launched by the Youth Labour Exchange in January 2014. The aim of the programme is to facilitate the participation of students and young people in the labour market by offering them temporary work and imbuing them with an understanding of the world of work.

Special social benefits to link employers and the unemployed

In 2013, a programme was created to offer employers the opportunity to list job announcements with local labour units or with the Labour Exchange in Ulaanbaatar. The programme likewise provides unemployed individuals with the opportunity to undergo on-the-job training in fields of their choice. Individuals accepted for the programme receive a monthly benefit of ₮190,000 during training, while employers and training institutes receive ₮65,000 per trainee per month to cover training costs. Of 6,417 participants in the programme, 5,087 (79 percent) have found employment upon graduation.¹⁴⁹

Efforts to promote employment among the disabled

To address the employment challenges faced by persons with disabilities, the Ministry of Labour has implemented small-scale programmes in aimags and soums. According to an assessment of the projects in several aimags, around 38 percent of the people who have participated are in the 15–34 age-group.

The Government offers an incentive equal to 12 times the official minimum wage to employers and other entities that employ persons with disabilities for more than 12 months. However, though this monetary

assistance is also provided to business initiatives among the disabled, the amount is too small to produce tangible results.

There have also been ad hoc attempts to include youth with disabilities in Government-funded TVET programmes, usually through small projects. The vocational training unit at the National Rehabilitation Centre offers some professional training, including classes in sewing, carpentry, carpet weaving, cosmetology and hairdressing. At the National Federation of the Blind, courses are also available in computer science and massage therapy.

Conclusions

Mongolia's tremendous economic growth in recent years has coincided with several positive labour market trends, as well as some progress towards enhancing employment opportunities for all. However, the analysis in this chapter shows that economic growth has not translated into sufficient gains in decent and productive employment for the majority of the population, especially youth. Thus, greater efforts are needed to support youth employment and address unemployment through, for example, job search assistance, demand-driven skills training, and entrepreneurship.

The link between work and human development depends on the quality of work, the conditions of work, the societal value of work and so on.¹⁵⁰ Youth employment promotion policies should thus also explore the quality, conditions and safety of work among youth, youth wages, and issues related to underemployment and participation in the informal economy, as well as how young people's working situation interacts with other important events typical of the transition from school to work, such as marriage, childbirth, and childcare.

To smooth the transition from school to work among youth in poor households, the Government should consider the introduction of targeted social assistance available to graduates for the first year after the completion of education. The promotion of support mechanisms, including job mediation services, unpaid and paid internships and volunteering as a means of gaining relevant work experience is also important.

There are large gender disparities in the labour market. These are reflected in widening gender gaps in labour force participation rates, unemployment rates, wages, and the types of jobs available to women. Gender-sensitive approaches need to be mainstreamed into labour market policies to address labour market access and the quality of employment among women. Other measures, such as awareness-raising on gender stereotypes in the choices in education and employment and expanding the number of kindergartens in urban areas, would serve to support a flexible balance between work and life and enhance the employment opportunities among young women.

The growing number of well-educated, but unemployed youth underlines the weak link between the education system and the labour market. Higher education and vocational training both appear to have a strong supply-side bias, making graduates less competitive in the labour market. There is thus great scope for establishing stronger links between education and the private sector and preparing students adequately to meet the needs of the rapidly changing labour market and the emerging knowledge-based economy.

Likewise, timely and up-to-date labour market information and research, career counselling services, and training in the application of new technologies, the Internet, and social media are critical to guiding young people in making informed choices in identifying their fields of study and suitable jobs.

In close collaboration with NGOs involved with persons with disabilities, the Government and employers need to pay more attention to improving access to information and infrastructure and to enhancing specific skill training among youth with disabilities. The Government also needs to ensure that the disabled are provided the opportunity to attain higher education in terms of both physical accessibility and empowerment.

To enhance human development, it is important to consider a broad view of work, as Human Development Report 2015 emphasizes.¹⁵¹ The notion of work is broader and deeper than that of jobs or employment alone. It includes voluntary work, creative work, and unpaid care work as well as paid work and sustainable work. Human Development Report 2015 concludes that work can enhance human development if government policy expands the creation of productive, remunerative and satisfying work opportunities, enhances worker skills and potential and ensures the rights, safety and well-being of workers. To address the specific challenges faced by youth, the report recommends that governments create exciting opportunities to enable young people to unbridle their creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship in the new world of work and, so, contribute to the development of their countries.

Chapter 5

Empowering Youth



5. Empowering Youth

Box 5.1

Fast Facts

1. *Youth participate actively in elections.* Around 45.7 percent of youth have participated in some way in elections since 1990. Of survey respondents aged 18–34 years in Mongolia, 18.0 percent say they have voted in most elections, and 24.7 percent have voted in several elections. Only 11.1 percent have never voted. More generally, voter turnout has been declining over the last two decades, dropping from a near universal 96 percent to less than two thirds in 1992–2012.
2. *Youth rank freedom and liberty as the crucial attributes of democracy.* Yet, youth have little trust in political parties, though they trust the army, television, the Presidency, and the police.
3. *Youth tend to be dissatisfied with governance.* Young people who have higher educational attainment or who reside in urban areas are more critical about governance than their less well educated or rural counterparts.
4. *Youth are not disengaged from politics.* More than a third (35.5 percent) regularly follow political news, and nearly half (46.4 percent) follow issues of concern to them. Only 17.0 percent are not much interested in what goes on in the wider world.
5. *Close to half of survey respondents (48.9 percent) believe themselves capable of engaging with politics.* However, 52.7 percent feel that politics do not affect their lives, and 60.0 percent feel that injustice is driving good people away from politics.
6. *Youth actively participate in social activities* individually and collectively at various levels through NGOs, youth programmes, youth-led initiatives and volunteering.
7. *Youth are active on the Internet and on social media such as Twitter and Facebook.* While often used for recreational purposes, the new media are also a key source of information and allow youth to make their voices heard in ways that were not possible only a few years ago.

Introduction: youth empowerment

Youth is a period of life when people start to be heard and recognized outside their families. They establish their identities as independent individuals. They begin interacting with the broader community and the wider world. Youth is also a period of life when people begin to exhibit dynamism and exercise choice.

The state first recognizes the rights and obligations of people as citizens during this period of life. Most of these rights and obligations are established between the ages of 15 and 21 years, by which time the young are considered legally responsible for their actions (annex IX).

Young people can shape the future by demonstrating active citizenship, leading social change, improving their communities and advocating for social justice. They have the ability to participate meaningfully in decision-making, determining their own needs, holding governmental leaders and public servants accountable and making

reasoned choices. Together, these contribute to the empowerment of youth, which is defined loosely as the process by which young people take control of their lives. In its broadest sense, empowerment is the expansion of the freedom of choice and action. It signifies increasing authority over the resources and decisions that affect one's life.

The concept of human development, which is a process of enlarging the choices available to people, lies at the heart of empowerment. Both concepts – human development and empowerment – describe processes, but human development entails enlarging choices, while empowerment is the process of acquiring the ability to choose among these enlarged choices.¹⁵²

Youth who are healthy, well educated and employed are more well empowered to express their choices more effectively and demand action individually or collectively. However, empowerment is not automatic.

Empowerment can be facilitated by outsiders, but must be driven by youth themselves.

Youth are agents of change. Working through representative organizations, associations and networks, youth can mobilize resources, express their preferences and lift their voices to hold governments and others accountable for the quality of the services they receive in education, health care, and water and sanitation. Collective action through membership-based organizations can also improve young people's access to employment opportunities.

This chapter examines youth empowerment in Mongolia by analysing the political participation and engagement of youth in social and community affairs. The next section reviews the extent and nature of the participation of young people in elections, the understanding among youth of democracy and the factors influencing young people in their involvement in politics. The subsequent section examines the social engagement of young people. The focus is on youth agency, that is, the actions of youth themselves, the constraints they face and the steps they and others can take to enhance the participation and empowerment of young people. The final section concludes.

The political engagement of youth

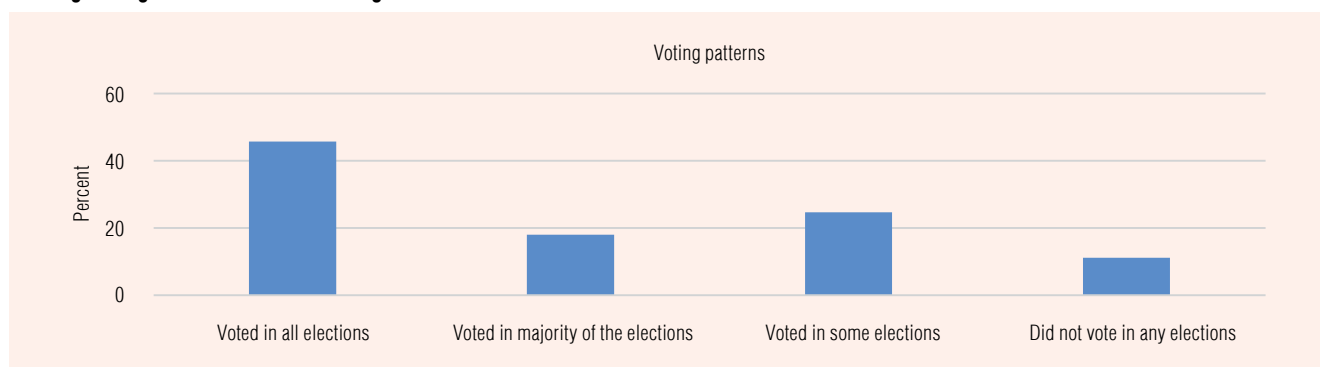
Participation in elections

One feature of the transition of young people into adulthood is voting and otherwise demonstrating active citizenship. In 2013, youth in the 18–34 age-group constituted 45.2 percent of the total voting-age population in Mongolia. This means their voting preferences can be important in elections and even decisive in determining electoral outcomes.

Overall, youth participate actively in elections. Nearly half (45.7 percent) have participated in some way in elections since 1990: 18.0 percent have voted in most elections, and 24.7 percent have voted in several elections. Only 11.1 percent have not voted in any election (figure 5.1).

Figure 5.1

Voting among Youth 18–34 Years of Age



Source: IPSL, 2014.

There has been a declining trend in overall voter turnout over the last decade. While not exclusively a youth problem, voter turnout dropped from a near universal 96 percent in 1992 to less than two thirds in 2012, the lowest turnout in the six elections in the democratic era. The survey data illustrat-

ed in table 5.1 indicate there is a decreasing trend in youth voting registration. The declining trend in voter turnout and the turnout among the voting-age population is a sign of the growing apathy among youth about voting.

Table 5.1

Voter Turnout in Elections for the State Great Khural, 1992–2012

Year	Voting-age population, number ^a	Registered voters, number ^b	Total vote, number	Voter turnout, % ^c
1992	1,204,690	1,085,120	1,037,392	95.60
1996	1,377,040	1,147,260	1,014,031	88.39
2000	1,448,576	1,247,033	1,027,859	82.42
2004	1,676,599	1,329,798	1,088,318	81.84
2008	1,885,077	1,534,074	1,139,984	74.31
2012	2,130,238	1,836,435	1,198,086	65.24

a. Voting-age population = estimated number of citizens of legal voting age, that is, the eligible voters.

b. Registered voters = people on the voting rolls. The registration rate is the number of registered voters, divided by the number of eligible voters.

c. Voter turnout = the total number of valid or invalid votes cast, divided by the number of registered voters.

Source: International IDEA (International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance), "Voter Turnout Data for Mongolia", Stockholm, <http://www.idea.int/vt/countryview.cfm?CountryCode=MN> (accessed 30 November 2015).

Declining youth participation in elections is an acknowledged problem worldwide. Data on youth voter turnout in many countries demonstrate that the trend among young voters is to participate less in elections relative to older citizens.¹⁵³ The younger generation has also been described as the most critical and suspicious of political parties and politicians. A pessimistic conclusion is that youth today are jeopardizing democracy tomorrow by turning their backs on democratic institutions.

A key factor is the extent to which democratic institutions are open to the concerns, interests and involvement of youth, whose participation largely depends on whether their voices are adequately reflected in the political process and its outcomes. Yet, democracy places a general requirement on all citizens, including young people, to comprehend, accept and promote democratic institutions through participation even if issues, processes and outcomes are not always to their liking or their immediate interest. Youth political participation thus demands the enduring accessibility of institutions, but also the sustained engagement of young people. It mirrors the quality of the democratic state and the maturity and vitality of political structures and young actors.¹⁵⁴

Understanding democracy

“Democracy is not easy to achieve. It is perhaps something that we never achieve completely. It is a goal towards which we must keep progressing over the years. Our young people, those young generations to come, must continue to try to reach it. It is in many ways an unachievable goal, and perhaps this is better because it will keep us trying harder and harder as we will have to do if our world is to progress in the future.”

—Aung San Suu Kyi
7th Ministerial Conference of the
Community of Democracies
Ulaanbaatar, 27–29 April 2013

A brief review of the democratic transformation of Mongolia is useful because perceptions of the effectiveness of democracy are shaped by a country’s historical, social, economic and cultural context (box 5.2).

The State of Democracy in Mongolia

The transition of Mongolia to democracy began in 1990. The new Constitution was adopted in 1992, and the country has undergone unprecedented political, economic, and social change since then. Mongolia has experienced peaceful and regular transfers of power during six successive elections for the State Great Khural and for president. Human rights are well respected; the media are free, and political competition is genuine. These successes are all the more remarkable given that constitutional democracy has developed without prerequisites, that is, without a previous history of democracy or social pluralism, which some believe to be necessary for democracy to flourish.^a

Today, Mongolia represents a model of peaceful democratic transition for the region and is viewed by international observers as a stable democracy. It is also one of the few countries in the region to be ranked as free on the freedom in the world 2014 index of Freedom House.^b A free country is characterized by openness to political competition, a climate of respect for civil liberties, significant and independent civic life, and independent media. By these measures, Mongolia has reached an acceptable international standard of democracy.

However, several other measures point to the weaknesses of democracy in Mongolia. The country is ranked 61st among 167 countries on the 2014 democracy index and was categorized as a flawed democracy.^c According to the index definition, flawed democracies are countries that have free and fair elections, and, even if there are problems (such as infringements on the freedom of the media), basic civil liberties are respected. There are also significant

weaknesses in governance, lack of a political culture conducive to the flourishing of democracy, and low levels of political participation.

Regressive trends in the values of liberal democracy have been noted by domestic commentators and are labelled as evidence of superficial democracy. Democracy becomes superficial if the political arena favours the superficial exchange of slogans, personal attacks and orchestrated events over the serious discussion of issues, problems and ideas.

Despite remarkable progress in the consolidation of democracy in Mongolia over the last 25 years, the country's democratic institutions have failed to curtail the rise in corruption, inequality, unemployment and poverty. A real test of Mongolia's democracy lies ahead: whether political institutions will be able to respond to the aspirations of citizens for prosperity and the betterment of their lives and address the emerging tensions over the new-found mineral wealth.

a. Fish, 1998.

b. Freedom House is an independent watchdog organization that supports democratic change, monitors the status of freedom around the world, and advocates for democracy and human rights. See "Freedom in the World 2014", Freedom House, Washington, DC, <https://freedomhouse.org/report/freedom-world/freedom-world-2014>.

c. The democracy index is compiled by the Economist Intelligence Unit. It measures the state of democracy in 167 countries. It is based on 60 indicators grouped in five categories: electoral process and pluralism, civil liberties, functioning of government, political participation, and political culture. Besides a numeric score and a ranking, it classifies each country by one of four regime types: full democracy, flawed democracy, hybrid regime, or authoritarian regime. The index was introduced in 2006 and was updated in 2008 and 2010–2014. See "Democracy Index 2014", Economist Intelligence Unit, London, https://www.eiu.com/public/topical_report.aspx?campaignid=Democracy0115.

Source: Drawn from various assessments.

The consolidation of democracy requires broad understanding and belief among a population that democracy is the most appropriate form of government and preferable to the alternatives. The future of democracy in any country depends largely on the extent to which the younger generation is robustly committed to the democratic form of government. This proposition is anchored on the assumption that citizens universally have the same cognitive understanding of democracy.

To examine how Mongolians, especially youth, view democracy, we rely on two

surveys, the Asian Barometer Survey (ABS) (wave 3), which was carried out in 2010–2012 in the East and South-East Asia region (box 5.3), and a survey conducted by the Institute of Philosophy, Sociology and Law at the Mongolian Academy of Sciences in 2013 that relied on the same questionnaire, but focused exclusively on youth in Mongolia.¹⁵⁵ The two surveys use different age-classifications for youth. The ABS survey classifies the 18–29 age-group as youth, while the survey of the Institute of Philosophy, Sociology and Law centres on the 18–34 age-group.

Box 5.3

The Asian Barometer Survey

In the ABS, four sets of questions – on social equity, norms and procedures, good governance, and freedom and liberty – are designed to elicit a gauge of young people’s understanding of democracy.

According to the social equity concept, democracy is a political system that guarantees protection for the disadvantaged and the government provision of a minimum standard of living for all.

The norms and procedures component refers to the view that democracy is an essential set of procedural arrangements that institutionalize equal rights, open political competition, accountability, and the separation of powers.

Good governance highlights the government’s ability effectively to manage public resources, provide equitable services, ensure the rule of law and be free of corruption.

According to the freedom and liberty component, the key element of democracy is the protection of political freedom and civil liberty, including freedom of expression, of association and of religion.

The ABS has encompassed two additional sets of questions to probe the substance and depth of commitment to democracy among Asian youth. The first, the direct measure, assesses (a) the expressed

support for democracy, which covers the desirability, suitability and preferability of democracy over any other sort of government; (b) whether democracy can solve society’s problems; and (c) whether democracy is a greater priority than economic development.

The second set of questions, the indirect measure, assesses people’s orientation towards liberal democratic values and fundamental principles, including political equality, accountability, political liberalism, political pluralism and the separation of powers. In the questions on this measure, the word democracy is deliberately avoided.

All responses in the survey have been processed and classified under four different types of democratic orientation among individuals: consistent democrats (high support for democracy, high liberal democratic values), critical democrats (low support for democracy, high liberal democratic values), non-democrats (low support for democracy, low liberal democratic values), and superficial democrats (high support for democracy, low liberal democratic values).

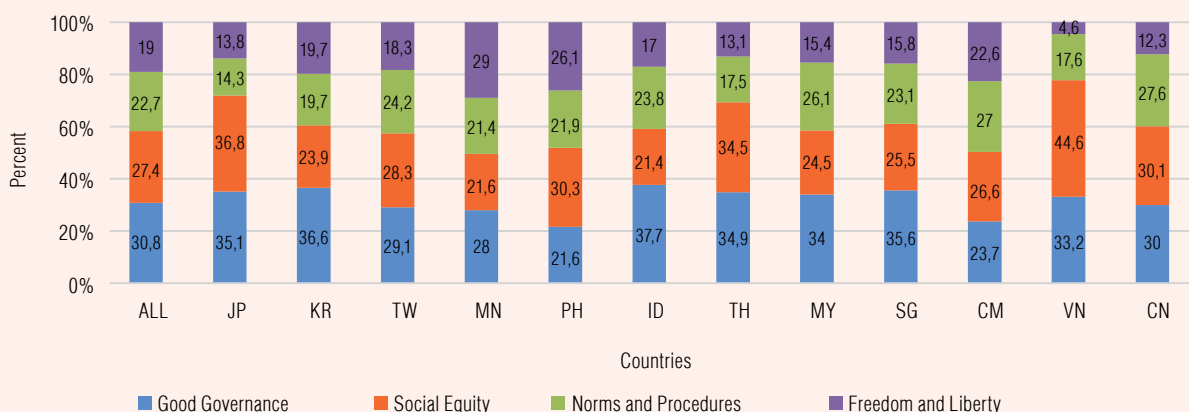
Source: Chu and Huang, 2009.

The results of the ABS show that Asian people generally consider the following elements, in descending order of importance, as essential to democracy: good governance, social equity, norms and procedures, and freedom and liberty (figure 5.2). Mon-

golians consistently expressed a high level of support for democracy. Over 80 percent of the respondents agreed that democracy is suitable for the country. This was the highest share in the region.

Figure 5.2

The Understanding of Democracy among Asian Youth



Note: CM = Cambodia, CN = China, ID = Indonesia, JP = Japan, KR = Republic of Korea, MN = Mongolia, MY = Malaysia, PH = the Philippines, SG = Singapore, TH = Thailand, TW = Taiwan, VN = Viet Nam.
Source: UNDP, 2014b.

Asian youth tend to think of democracy in a substantive rather than a procedural sense. Mongolian youth are an exception. They rank freedom and liberty as the most important component, followed by good governance (see box 5.3). Although Mongolian youth give more or less equal weight to all four components of democracy, the share of those conceiving of democracy as freedom and liberty is higher in Mongolia than in any other country in the region.

In a survey conducted among youth in 2009, Mongolia was among the countries with a much higher level of open support for democracy.¹⁵⁶ Indeed, it exhibited the largest share of support in the region, at 55.8 percent, followed by Cambodia (45.0 percent) and Thailand (42.7 percent). However, when a different set of questions was asked on the popular perception of non-democratic alternatives, such as strongman rule, single-party rule and military rule, more than two thirds of the respondents in every country except Mongolia (42.7 percent) rejected the idea of replacing democracy. The Mongolia result can be explained by the declining trust of citizens in the institutions of representative democracy, although the pattern may also indicate a low cultural foundation for democratic legitimacy. It may be that most people in Mongolia only pay lip-service to democracy, but embrace many anti-democratic or authoritarian value orientations. Their supportive attitude towards democracy may be superficial and an expression of social desirability or social conformity.

Trust in institutions

Trust – “the process by which government policies are carried out through the cooperation of citizens with public officials” – is fundamental to good governance and the legitimacy of the democratic process.¹⁵⁷ Even if particular leaders are unpopular, trust in political institutions provides a reservoir of political support. If major political institutions are deemed trustworthy, citizens are more likely to cooperate with any unpopular decisions necessary for the long-term benefit of society. If institutions are distrusted, citizens may refuse to cooperate or may ignore laws and regulations, and the effectiveness of government is thereby reduced. A low level of trust in critical political institutions may lead to a gradual withdrawal from democratic processes, further weakening the system. However, a high degree of trust may also indicate a lack of political choice and may be based on the absence of freedom of expression and of opportunities to criticize the government in the media or otherwise in the public sphere. By the same token, in societies with more options for democratic choice and freedom to criticize government, the general attitudes of citizens towards government performance may be relatively negative, and the trust in government institutions may be correspondingly low.

The trust level of Mongolian youth varies by political institution. Institutions that command a higher level of confidence include the army, television, the Presidency and the police (table 5.2). The trust in political parties is the lowest, followed by the General Election Commission, newspapers and the State Great Khural.

Table 5.2

Trust of Youth in Political Institutions, 2014

percent

Institutions	Institutions or individuals	Trust	Do not trust
Presidency	President	60.4	36.9
Legislature	State Great Khural	39.6	55.6
Government executive	Prime minister	50.1	46.6
	Central government administration	44.2	51.7
	Local government administrations	51.5	42.4
	Civil service	48.0	47.3
Judiciary	Courts	42.4	53.3
Security force	Army	68.8	26.6
	Police	58.0	38.5
Independent bodies	General Election Commission	34.8	59.2
	Independent Authority against Corruption	41.6	53.5
Political parties	Political parties	27.1	67.7
Media	Newspapers	39.3	55.7
	Television	65.7	30.8
Civil society	NGOs	45.2	44.9

Note: The rows do not necessarily sum to 100 percent because the other possible responses (don't know and don't want to respond) are not included in the table.

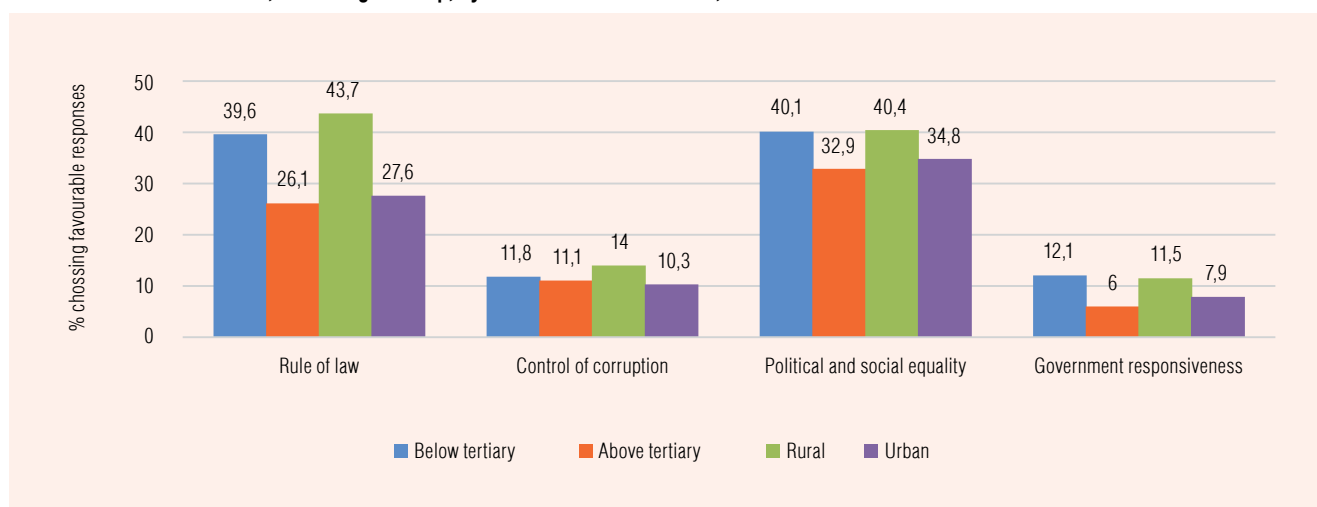
Source: IPSL, 2014.

Youth express considerable dissatisfaction with the performance of governance functions such as the rule of law, the control of corruption, political and social equality and governance responsiveness. Youth who

have relatively higher educational attainment or who reside in urban areas are more critical of governance than their less well educated or rural counterparts (figure 5.3).

Figure 5.3

Satisfaction in Governance, 15–29 Age-Group, by Education and Residence, 2014



Source: IPSL, 2014.

An essential component of the assessment of democratic governance is whether the government can deliver what its citizens expect. This is crucial because people place great importance on the performance of government and the results government achieves. Thus, young people whose expectations go unmet are more likely to express their dissatisfaction through demonstrations, street protests and other forms of political mobilization, including social media.

In Mongolia, only 10 percent of 15- to 29-year-olds agreed that the Government is responsive; this was the lowest share among all youth and all age-groups across the 12 countries surveyed in the East and South-East Asia region. The number of critical youth may be rising in the region. These youth may be questioning the integrity of elected politicians and be skeptical of the performance of social and political institutions, but retain their basic preference for democratic processes and methods. They

may be considered a reservoir for sustaining democracy and a force for the improvement of governance and political systems.

Youth and politics: interests and involvement

A prerequisite of democratic citizenship is a citizenry that is fundamentally interested and involved in political matters and evaluates the performance of the political system accordingly. The interest of some among the citizenry in politics provides the drive and incentive for the political engagement of other citizens.

Youth in Mongolia are not generally disengaged from politics; 35.5 percent regularly follow political news, and 46.4 percent follow the news on issues that concern them (table 5.3). Only 17.0 percent are not interested. Youth between 16 and 19 years of age are the least interested in political news. News consumption and interest in politics typically increase with age.

Table 5.3

Interest in Political News among Youth, by Age Cohort, 2014
percent of respondents

Age-group	Always follow with attention	Sometimes interested in issues of concern to me	Not interested	Do not know, refused to answer
16–19	27.8	42.6	28.5	1.1
20–24	34.9	47.4	17.0	0.7
25–29	37.1	48.4	12.8	2.7
30–34	42.3	46.8	9.9	1.0
All	35.5	46.4	17.0	1.1

Source: IPSL, 2014.

Close to half the survey respondents (48.9 percent) consider themselves capable of engaging with politics, and 55.5 percent do not agree that politics are an issue of concern only among older people. However, an equal share (52.7 percent) seem disengaged from politics and feel that politics do not affect their lives.

Opinion is divided equally across youth about whether their political participation

and engagement have any impact on the Government. This could be because more than 60 percent feel that politics are dirty and that injustice is driving good people away from politics. Half the respondents (50.4 percent) feel Government leaders cannot be trusted to take the proper course; the respondents thus show their dissatisfaction with the way politics function in the country (table 5.4).

Table 5.4

Youth Involvement in Political Life: Opportunities and Barriers, 2014

percent of respondents

Statement	Agree ^a	Do not agree ^b	Did not understand the question, could not answer, refused to answer
I believe that I am capable of participating in politics	48.9	38.5	12.6
Sometimes the Government and political activities seem to be too complicated for me to understand	53.2	36.7	10.1
People like me would not be able to have any effect on the Government	45.0	44.4	10.8
Leaders of the Government can be trusted to do the right thing	42.9	50.4	6.7
I do not feel that politics affect my life	52.7	38.9	8.3
Politics are dirty; injustice is driving youth away	61.3	28.8	9.8
Politics are an issue of concern to older people	33.4	55.5	11.1

a. This response includes those who replied they completely agree or agree in some ways.

b. This response includes those who replied they agree sometimes or agree in general.

Source: IPSL, 2014.

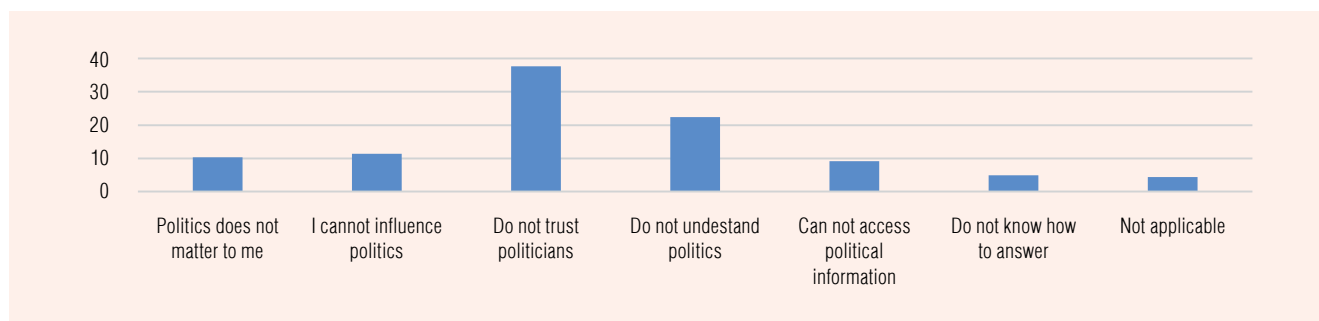
Over a third of the respondents attribute their lack of interest in politics to a lack of trust in politicians, and 22 percent attribute it to a lack of understanding of politics. The

nature of politics and of politicians discourages more than half from political participation (figure 5.4).

Figure 5.4

Reasons for Lack of Interest in Politics, 2014

percent



Source: IPSL, 2014.

The declining trend in youth involvement in politics today contrasts with the situation during the democratic revolution of 1990, which was driven largely by young people. As young people, many of the current political leaders were active youth leaders of the peaceful revolution.

Interviews and focus group discussions among student groups confirm some of the reasons elicited by the surveys for the low level of interest of youth in politics. First, youth believe that electoral promises are not delivered and that politics have little impact

on their lives because few political activities correspond with or protect their interests. In every election, political parties promise they will reduce unemployment and create jobs. However, there is no improvement in the lives of unemployed youth. This difference between words and actions causes youth to lose confidence in politics and their respect for politicians.

Second, students believe political parties lack political culture and maturity and that the parties compete only for power. Youth express their dislike of politicians who en-

gage in personal attacks on opponents and deny each other's achievements. This behaviour creates a negative image of politics. Youth believe that political parties politicize too much, thereby splitting society along party lines. Their disappointment cuts across their political affiliations.

Third, students lose faith in politics and politicians when they hear about the unethical behaviour and lack of consistency in the actions of politicians whom they once respected. Young people consider as role models those politicians who deliver on their promises, are well educated, show integrity and, most importantly, are truly concerned about the needs of the country and the people.

Fourth, a lack of understanding or limited information among youth about politics is an obstacle to political participation. Students are supposed to play an active role in society.

The youth wings of political parties¹⁵⁸

Almost all political parties, but especially the larger ones, including youth wings, encourage political participation among youth. They aim to support the policies and activities of the political parties, protect and express the interests of youth, and boost the participation of youth in development. Most of them have branches in all aimags, soums and districts. The youth wings also undertake capacity-building and political education among their members and cooperate with other youth organizations and NGOs to lobby to incorporate the interests of youth in political agendas.

The direct political engagement of youth

The electoral system and political process do not favour youth. Young people are underrepresented in the State Great Khural (table 5.5). There has been only one member under age 35 since 2008. This highlights that youth are a weak constituency in reform.

Table 5.5

Members of the State Great Khural, by Age-Group and Sex, 1992–2012
number

Year	All		25–35		36–45		46+	
	Total	Women	Total	Women	Total	Women	Total	Women
1992	76	4	8	0	46	3	22	1
1996	76	7	21	2	39	5	16	0
2000	76	9	3	0	26	8	47	1
2004	76	5	5	0	32	3	39	2
2008	76	3	1	0	17	0	58	3
2012	76	11	1	0	21	3	54	8

Sources: NSO, 2014a; information of the Secretariat of the State Great Khural, Ulaanbaatar.

Young people are passive in their engagement with their elected representatives in the State Great Khural and in local khurals.¹⁵⁹ Despite recent initiatives to raise citizen participation in budgeting and planning processes and in the use of local development funds, decision makers do not pay

much attention to youth participation in decision-making. Youth are underrepresented in local khurals. Only about 5 percent of survey respondents aged 15 to 30 have been involved in lobbying or activism, that is, contacting influential people to solve local problems (table 5.6).

Table 5.6**Engagement of Youth with Government, Community Leaders, or the Media, 2014***percent of respondents*

Person or entity	Once	More than once	No	Could not answer	Refused to answer
Members of the State Great Khural	2.6	1.9	90.9	1.3	3.3
Representatives of local khurals	3.4	2.2	88.9	2.1	3.4
High-level public officials	4.1	2.5	87.6	2.2	3.7
Influential local leaders	7.2	4.6	82.2	3.0	2.9
Influential non-governmental representatives	4.9	2.7	86.3	3.0	3.0
Media	3.0	1.6	88.6	3.2	3.5

Source: IPSL, 2014.

A recent study finds that there is a lack of proper feedback mechanisms about public services and that young people rarely take part in community activities because they believe their ideas and opinions are largely ignored.¹⁶⁰ Youth also feel they have limited understanding of their rights and of legal

processes, a lack of human rights education and limited access to information to make informed decisions. The problems encountered by youth in gaining access to information and to opportunities for capacity development and participation are more acute in rural areas.¹⁶¹

Social engagement among youth

Many civil society, private sector and Government leaders are quite young. Mongolia enjoys a 98 percent literacy rate and, in recent years, has achieved tremendous growth in access to and the use of the Internet and social media. These factors point to the ability or, at least, the potential of youth to participate and influence the country's development through social engagement.¹⁶²

Civic and social engagement is a key component of positive youth development. It empowers young people and allows them to exercise citizenship, develop life skills, network, and enhance their employability and learning outcomes. Despite the general sense of apathy and disenchantment with

the political system, youth are actively engaged in social life across many areas, including civil society, the media, sports, the arts, culture and the environment. Young people are more likely to be active in informal, cause-oriented political activity that is less institutionalized, such as participation in demonstrations, boycotts and direct action.¹⁶³ In the late 1980s, for example, the leaders of the Mongolian democratic movement were young people in their 20s and 30s. Similarly today, Mongolia's democratic system has opened up many opportunities for youth involvement in civil society and civic organizations.

One youth in two claims he or she participates in the activities of public organizations or political parties. Women, more well educated youth and urban youth are more likely to be involved in political activities, and more well educated youth, young men and rural youth are more likely to be involved in public organizations. Young men,

youth from urban backgrounds and more well educated youth are more likely to take part in charity work, while rural youth, young women and youth who have completed secondary education represent the majority among youth engaged in religious activities (table 5.7).

Table 5.7

Youth Social and Political Activism, by Sex, Education and Location, 2014

percent of total responses

Indicator	Political party	Public organization	Charity	Religious organization	Youth organization
SEX					
Men	47.2	55.0	63.6	16.7	44.4
Women	52.8	45.0	36.4	83.3	55.3
EDUCATION					
Tertiary	52.0	52.6	45.5	16.7	70.4
Specialized secondary	8.4	10.5	18.2	16.1	3.7
Complete secondary	27.9	21.1	18.2	50.0	11.1
Incomplete secondary	9.1	15.8	18.2	16.7	11.7
Elementary, uneducated	2.6	0	0	0	3.7
LOCATION					
Urban	57.3	36.9	63.6	33.4	40.7
Rural	42.7	63.2	36.4	66.7	59.3

Source: IPSL, 2014.

Youth involvement in social and community activities

Youth participate in social activities individually and collectively at various levels and through formal structures or informally. The social engagement of youth can be loosely described as follows:

- *NGOs and youth participation:* An estimated 12,000 NGOs have been registered in Mongolia since the passage of the 1997 Law on NGOs, though only about half appear to be active. Under the current law, there are two types of NGOs: mutual benefit NGOs, which serve the interests of their members, and public benefit NGOs, which promote the public interest in specific areas. Approximately 20 percent of all NGOs are mutual benefit organizations, such as professional associations and federations. The rest are public benefit organizations. Young people are active in both types of NGOs. A growing youth-led, youth-centred civil society sector has greatly expanded youth participation in many areas. Despite challenges in ownership and sustainability, youth NGOs have been lobbying for the rights of young people and helping youth to develop capabilities. Some have become partners in the implementation of Government policies aimed at enhancing the opportunities for employment, education, health care and access to information among youth.
- *Engagement in youth programmes and interventions:* Various youth organizations undertake activities to widen the opportunities available to young people to develop personal, social and leadership skills, effectively use leisure time and become engaged as productive adults. The activities focus on youth participation and democracy-building; the development of leadership abilities, critical thinking and other life skills; building capacities; creating awareness; generating and expanding networks among young people in Mongolia and young people in other countries; and other issues.

- *Initiatives launched by youth:* Youth also carry out numerous actions focused not only on youth issues, but also on issues that affect the wider society. There are many instances of young people joining together to find solutions to society-wide problems, undertake advocacy, or create awareness. In a clear case of youth agency, young people are launching community development initiatives and mobilizing resources, while indirectly enhancing their life skills, building their confidence and preparing for adulthood and responsible citizenship.

Volunteerism among youth

“Volunteering is a way for youth to become involved in a cause and also a way to spend their free time.”

—*Daagii, 21-year-old woman, Ulaanbaatar*

“One of the major contributions of youth volunteer programmes is that they encourage policymakers, communities and young people themselves to see youth as valuable, untapped resources rather than as a problematic and marginalized majority of the population.”

—*Sanchir, 25 year-old man, Ulaanbaatar*

Volunteerism by individuals or groups in a range of activities outside any formal organization on either a periodic or ongoing basis is an important and increasingly popular way for young people to bring about positive change in society and promote sustainable human development.¹⁶⁴ Many young people volunteer their time in support of various initiatives targeting vulnerable and other groups in difficult circumstances and contributing to a wide range of development work. Governmental and civil society organizations and youth programmes benefit significantly from partnership with international volunteer organizations such as United Nations Volunteers and international youth volunteer networks (table 5.8).

Table 5.8

Volunteerism among Youth

Characteristic	Interventions in favour of youth	Initiatives undertaken by youth
Main target group	Youth	Youth or the wider society
Structure	Formal	Formal or informal
YOUTH ENGAGEMENT		
Collective	NGOs, youth programmes of the Government, donors, and political parties: Scouts Association, Open Society, Zorig Foundation, Junior Chamber International, and so on	NGOs, youth clubs, and so on: Mongolian Youth Federation, Mongolian Students Federation, Rotaract Clubs, Zaluuchuudiin Tusgal, ^a Lantuun Dokhio, ^b Gegeen Undes, Shinechlelt Club, and so on
Individual	As volunteers	As volunteers

a. Targets no specific age-group, but the vulnerable and other people living in difficult circumstances.

b. Creates awareness on human trafficking, cyber trafficking of children and so on.

The Network of Mongolian Volunteer Organizations is an independent, non-profit membership organization established in 1997. Members include more than 30 volunteer organizations active in health care, education, the environment, human rights and other areas. The network aims to raise the recognition of volunteerism as a vehicle for development and change and to strengthen the capacities of local volunteer organizations. The vast majority of volunteers in the network are youth 15- to 34-years of age.

Despite the existence of the network, assessing the extent of informal volunteerism is difficult because volunteerism is not highly organized or highly visible. Moreover, many people informally volunteer for personal satisfaction and do not maintain links with any volunteer organization.

If the necessary elements of youth civic engagement are in place, a positive process can be initiated whereby adults recognize young people as assets in development and support the continued participation of youth in civic activities. Young people are also beginning to believe they are capable of producing positive change in society through social engagement.

However, Mongolia has not fully developed an infrastructure to help promote youth volunteerism through innovative initiatives. Volunteer organizations and other key stakeholders have been advocating for a framework law on volunteerism, including

relevant policies and programmes linked with major national development plans. Because of widespread research globally, many stakeholders recognize volunteerism as a strategic, people-centred tool for addressing poverty, social integration, youth empowerment, environmental protection, humanitarian action and so on. Well-supported and facilitated volunteer programmes that are integrated into national development strategies, laws and planning can open avenues for people and communities, especially youth, to take proactive action to meet challenges that they encounter in their daily lives. Likewise, youth volunteers can play a critical role in the implementation of the SDGs in the next 15 years, in disseminating information on the important issues, translating the agenda into local initiatives, and strengthening their ownership of their own development and the development of their countries.

The use of ICT for social engagement

“I was on Facebook looking at several groups and pages on volunteering. Then I came across a post on Gegeen Undes and wrote an email to their Gmail account. After they replied, I got involved in teaching at an orphanage in Amgалан during the summer.”

—Internet user

Relative to the 1990s, youth are more empowered now because of new forms of communication thanks to the Internet, social media and blogs that allow them to make their voices heard in ways that were not possible until recently. Many young people use social media such as Twitter and Facebook or blogs as their main source of information, as a means to support movements and social action and, increasingly, to express their discontent.

A 19-country social survey of European political involvement found, after allowing for factors such as age, sex and income, that regular Internet users were significantly more likely to be members of civic organizations, more likely to have taken part in product boycotts and signed petitions and more likely to have donated to political parties.¹⁶⁵ This suggests that greater use of ICTs among the young may be a force helping to counter any dwindling civic engagement among the age-group (table 5.9).

Table 5.9

Internet Use among Youth, by Age Cohort and Sex, 2014

percent

Age cohort	Total	Men	Women
16–19	84.6	84.6	84.6
20–24	80.7	80.7	80.7
25–29	75.0	73.1	77.0
30–34	63.9	62.6	65.2

Source: IPSL, 2014.

The Internet reached Mongolia in 1996. Internet use and mobile phone coverage have expanded rapidly since then, including in rural areas. The number of Internet users per 100 population rose steadily, from 0.0 in 1996 to 1.6 in 2008, 3.9 in 2009, 7.3 in 2010, and 24.5 in 2012.¹⁶⁶ By 2015, there were 2,430,000 Internet subscribers, which represents about 81 percent coverage. This has opened many opportunities for youth. Most Internet users are young and use the Internet to seek out and engage in social activities. Zaluusiin Tusgal Negdel, an NGO,

started as a Facebook group. It now recruits members through Facebook and connects through email and face-to-face meetings.

However, despite the rapid growth in the Internet and social media, only about one fourth of youth use the Internet and social media as a source of information. Television remains an important channel of information for youth (52.4 percent). The use of the Internet as a source of information is greater among younger age cohorts (table 5.10).

Table 5.10**Sources of Information, by Age Cohort, 2014***percent of respondents*

Age cohort	Television	Internet	Social media	Print media	Family and friends	FM radio	Talking to people	Work colleagues
16–19	46.2	29.9	6.8	9.0	2.5	3.4	1.4	0.9
20–24	49.3	26.2	5.9	10.2	3.2	2.5	2.3	0.5
25–29	54.1	21.1	4.5	10.7	3.9	1.8	2.5	1.4
30–34	60.8	16.2	3.1	12.3	3.1	1.7	1.7	1.0
Total	52.4	23.5	5.1	10.5	3.2	2.4	2.0	0.9

Source: IPSL, 2014.

Young people also often lack the capacity to analyse and filter information, identify true or false information and extract information useful for their purposes.¹⁶⁷ The emergence of new forms of expression and communication and the Internet are not necessarily directly correlated with greater political participation. Nor can they replace active political participation. The challenge is therefore to ensure that the new forms of communication and mobilization help reinforce youth social engagement and youth participation in the political process.¹⁶⁸

This brief review shows that Mongolian youth actively participate in social activities and are sensitive to complex issues. They are deeply concerned about social problems, have energy and fresh ideas and are using ICTs to form new associations that are structured around themes of current interest. They are concerned about larger social issues rather than only youth-related issues. This is clear evidence of youth agency. Youth also often contribute financially from their own meagre resources to promote the common social good.

Young people can shape the future by demonstrating active citizenship, leading in social change, improving their communities and advocating for social justice. Good citizens in a democracy exhibit social engagement, which means they are able to use their constitutionally protected political rights to advance the common good and contribute to their communities. Young people have much to offer society, including innovation, creativity and new ways of thinking. Their participation in democracy promotes active citizenship, strengthens social responsibility and can enhance democratic processes and institutions.

Despite their strong belief in democracy, Mongolian youth generally lack a deep understanding of democracy. This is evident in their responses to survey questions about fundamental democratic principles and values. The views of many Mongolian youth are inconsistent and superficial. Young people tend to understand democracy only in terms of freedom and liberty.

Youth are relatively knowledgeable and are attentive to news and media reporting about government and politics, though there is a need for greater coverage and access to information among all young people. Better civic education on human rights, democracy and legal systems can build confidence and the capacity to understand politics among youth and help young people form their own opinions and add their voices to policy discussions.

There is a general perception that political parties and political institutions, including the electoral process, fail to appeal to this critical segment of the population because of the lack of credible political programmes that effectively and specifically target young people. Youth, especially urban residents and the more well educated, appear to be the most critical of the performance and ef-

fectiveness of the Government. They have higher expectations of good governance and accountability, but youth everywhere desire a responsive government and concrete results based on honest commitments. Policymakers and political leaders should view these deficits of trust as testimony that improvements in governance and in the conduct of politicians are required to reconnect youth meaningfully to the political process, to reestablish their trust in governmental institutions and to include them as agents of development.

Despite disillusionment about politics and the Government, their significant, though declining participation in elections indicates that youth are not entirely indifferent or disinterested. Though they are generally less likely to participate in politics through traditional channels such as elections and membership in political parties, they do engage in activism through the Internet and informal social networks. Indeed, the Internet has rapidly emerged as a key medium to mobilize youth participation, build networks for social engagement and foster information sharing. The additional expansion of Internet access and connectivity especially in rural areas has the potential to transform this generation of youth into effective agents of social change.

Supporting and including young people in the development process are essential for several reasons. First, youth have a lot of energy, fresh ideas and idealism and can offer useful insights and perspectives. Second, youth represent a large share of the population and, as a result, their voices can be expressions of more general needs in society. Third, young people are the custodians of their environments and the leaders of tomorrow. Young people need democracy, and democracy needs young people.

- Young people also need support and guidance through youth-friendly education that emphasizes the importance of participation, life skills and livelihood skills development, and access to structured opportunities for social engagement that are appropriate for their individual interests, goals and skills. This may be achieved, in part, through the following:
 - Improve education on democracy among young people as part of civic education curriculum reform.
 - Implement voter education programmes aimed at first-time voters and youth who do not participate in elections.
 - Improve the volunteer infrastructure so that it can promote the safer, more active participation of youth, thereby contributing to empowering youth and sustainable, people-centred development.
- Create an educational incentive mechanism to encourage youth volunteering, with the aim of enhancing youth engagement, practical skill development and future employability.
- Undertake enhanced longitudinal studies on youth aspirations and value orientations to help society become responsive to youth.

In this way, youth will be enabled to engage more positively and effectively in the development of their communities. Supporting and including young people in the development process are empowering as well as critical for the future.

Chapter 6

Enhancing human security



6. Enhancing human security

“The new, globalized world is not necessarily a safer one for youth.”

—Luke Dowdney, *British anthropologist and founder, Fight for Peace Project, Rio de Janeiro*

Box 6.1

Fast Facts

1. Young people aged 18–34 make up about 49 percent of the crime victims and 67 percent of the individuals sentenced in the courts. Crime rates tend to be higher in urban areas than in rural areas, and the 18–29 age-group is the most vulnerable to crime. Various structural and individual factors contribute to the vulnerability of young people to violence, including poverty and unemployment, inequality of opportunity, poor living conditions, weaknesses in the legal system and personality disorders.
2. More than 30 percent of 13- to 15-year-old students and almost 20 percent of 16- to 17-year-old students experienced bullying on one or more days during the 30 days previous to a survey.^a Cyber bullying has emerged as a new source of sexual harassment of girls.
3. Police records show that 88.1 percent of the victims of domestic violence in 2015 were women, and 57.2 percent were youth aged 14–34 years. The new Criminal Code was enacted in 2015, and it provides for the inclusion of domestic violence as a category of crime in Mongolia.
4. Almost 80 percent of LGBT persons have experienced some form of human rights abuse or discrimination.
5. The emotional and financial support of families is critical in helping the young during the transition to adulthood and in reducing the vulnerability of the young to violence. There is a strong case for targeted social assistance to support youth in low-income households for the first year after they leave school.

a. WHO and NCPH, 2013.

Introduction: enhancing security for the sake of human development

Human security was broadly defined in Human Development Report 1994.¹⁶⁹ It consists of two components: freedom from fear and freedom from want. These components are mirrored in the seven main categories of human security: economic security, food security, health security, environmental security, personal security, community security and political security. Protecting human security involves the capacity to identify threats, to avoid them whenever possible and to mitigate the effects if human security is violated.¹⁷⁰

The previous chapters examine the challenges youth face in gaining access to good-quality education, skills and jobs and the situations of risk created among young people by tobacco use, alcohol abuse, unprotected sex, and traffic accidents, which render youth vulnerable to ill health, alcoholism, STIs, teenage pregnancy and injuries. These risk situations are common among youth in all countries. There are

also other risks such as workplace accidents and air pollution. All these situations make young people more vulnerable.

During the transition from childhood to adulthood, many young people are exposed to various kinds of violence as victims or perpetrators. This exposure can undermine the security, dignity and livelihoods of young people and endanger the process of acquiring the freedoms and the capabilities they need to lead the lives they wish to lead.¹⁷¹

This chapter analyses the extent and nature of the exposure of young people to violence and explores the main contributory factors that increase the vulnerability of youth to violence. Various sources of social protection available to youth are examined, including the changing role of the family. The concluding section offers suggestions on what may be done to reduce the vulnerability of young people to violence.

Youth vulnerability to violence

Violence is a major barrier to the goal of equitable and sustainable human development. It infringes the fundamental human right to physical integrity and freedom from fear, jeopardizes the basic human capabilities of young people and undermines the capacity of youth to participate as responsible citizens in the economic, political and social life of the country.

That young people are vulnerable to violence does not mean all youth are susceptible to situations of substantial risk or become victims or perpetrate acts of violence. Chapter 5 provides numerous examples of youth agency, youth social engagement and volunteering. Young people's resilience in the face of their vulnerabilities should be scrutinized to understand and help guide future interventions and ensure that the needs of young people are addressed. A variety of interventions may be required to guarantee the availability of opportunities for positive growth and development and a safe future.

Reliable, representative and recent data are difficult to obtain because of the sensitive nature of the risks of violence (see below). The analysis here relies on sources of data and case studies that, together, provide a broad outline of the extent and nature of the exposure of young people to violence. It clearly points to the urgent need for more

extensive and careful sociological research and interpretation on these issues.

The typology of violence presented in the WHO World Report on Violence and Health divides violence into three broad categories according to the characteristics of those committing the violent acts, as follows:¹⁷²

- *Interpersonal violence* includes violence by family members or intimate partners, which is commonly referred to as domestic violence, and community violence or violence by unrelated individuals such as random acts of violence, rape, or sexual assault by strangers and violence in institutional settings such as bullying in schools.
- *Self-directed violence* includes suicidal thoughts, attempted or completed suicides, and self-abuse.
- *Collective violence* includes violence committed to advance a particular social agenda such as crimes of hate committed by organized groups, terrorist acts, and mob violence.

The next subsections analyse the extent and nature of and the risks associated with the vulnerability of young people to the six types of violence across the above three categories, as displayed in table 6.1.

Table 6.1

Vulnerability of Young People to Six Types of Violence

Interpersonal violence	Self-directed violence	Collective violence
Domestic violence		
Bullying and harassment		
Homicide, other crimes	Suicide	Hate crimes, stigma and discrimination
Trafficking of people for sexual exploitation		

Source: Krug et al., 2002.

Youth face the risk of these types of violence as victims or as perpetrators. For example, bullying is typically perpetrated by 13- to 17-year-olds on other individuals in

the same age cohort. Likewise, unprotected sex is most often imposed by young men on young women. Similarly, in cases of trafficking, young girls are usually the victims,

while the perpetrators are most often adult men, sometimes in collaboration with other young women.

Domestic violence

Nature, extent and trends

The home is supposed to be a safe space for young people, but, despite the generally supportive role of the family and typically harmonious relationships within the household, domestic violence has emerged as a serious problem in the home. Measuring the precise extent of domestic violence is difficult. Acts of domestic violence often go unreported because of the intimate personal context in which they occur. Although there are increasing reports of the severity and spread of this form of violence, no recent national survey has been conducted to establish the prevalence of domestic violence. Often directed against women, domestic violence usually occurs between spouses or life partners. According to a survey of 1,600 young people, 16.0 percent had experienced psychological violence; 4.4 percent had experienced physical violence, and 0.4 percent had experienced sexual violence in the 12 months previous to the survey.¹⁷³ Police records show that 88.1 percent of the victims of domestic violence in 2015 were women, and 57.2 percent were youth aged 14–34 years. Among cases of domestic violence, 56.6 percent occurred in Ulaanbaatar.¹⁷⁴

What is being done?

The Law to Combat Domestic Violence was enacted in 2004, and the National Programme on Combating Domestic Violence (2005–2014) was developed and adopted by the Government in 2007. Although the adoption of the law was a welcome step, implementation has been hindered by a lack of direction regarding the responsibility for carrying out specific provisions, a lack of harmonization between the law and other related legislation, scarce financial resour-

es, and a general lack of awareness about the law. These challenges have become evident in the small number of restraining orders that have been issued since the law was enacted. According to the National Centre against Violence, only a few restraining orders have been issued since the law took effect in 2005. Most of the orders have been issued in Ulaanbaatar.¹⁷⁵

At the initiative of the president of Mongolia, a revised draft Law to Combat Domestic Violence was submitted to the State Great Khural in 2015 to enhance the responsibilities of governmental agencies as well as various stakeholders in addressing domestic violence. Through the efforts of the president, women parliamentarians and human rights and civil society organizations, the revised Law to Combat Domestic Violence was approved by the State Great Khural on 19 May 2016 and will go into force on 1 September 2016. The amended provisions include a clear definition of domestic violence as a criminal offence, the types and categories of domestic violence, and clearly described duties and responsibilities of the various stakeholders such as the police, the courts, social and health workers, and so on to prevent or respond in a timely manner to domestic violence, monitor restraining orders and encourage youth and women to discuss domestic violence more openly. The new Criminal Code was enacted in 2015. It provides for the inclusion of domestic violence as a category of crime in Mongolia for the first time.

The initiatives undertaken by the National Centre against Violence, in partnership with other actors, have made a substantial contribution to combating domestic violence, particularly by advocating policy reform, raising public awareness, building national capacity within the Government and civil society and providing protection to victims.

Bullying

Nature, extent and trends

After the family, the school is the most important socializing agent in a child or youth's life. However, there are many instances of young people experiencing an insecure environment at community locations such as schools.

Violence that takes place in community settings such as secondary schools, colleges, and universities or in prisons and army camps is often referred to as bullying. Bullying can be conceptualized as an ongoing, repetitive social relationship involving dominance and subordination. It is not usually a one-time incident, but typically occurs in an expected, locally established pattern. Bullying may also be accompanied by teasing, mocking, jeering, turning the victim into a habitual butt of jokes, and other verbal manifestations of animosity. In many cases, students report they have also been teased, taunted, or made to feel ashamed at school. This is a more common experience among

young men than young women and is far more widespread in urban schools than in rural schools.

The 2013 WHO Global School-Based Student Health Survey found that an average of more than 30 percent of 13- to 15-year-old students and almost 20 percent of 16- to 17-year-old students had experienced bullying on one or more days during the 30 days previous to the survey (table 6.2). Bullying sometimes leads to physical fights among students that result in serious injury. During the 12 months prior to the survey, 43.8 percent of 13- to 15-year-old students and 37.0 percent of 16- to 17-year-old students were involved in physical fights one or more times, and around 36.0 percent of students in both age cohorts were seriously injured. The differences across sex are much more evident: 60–65 percent of men students reported some form of assault, compared with only 18–23 percent of women students. This gap may derive from the socialization of boys in the notion of masculinity.

Table 6.2

The Extent of Violence in Schools, by Age Cohort and Sex, 2013
percent

Students	13- to 15-year-olds			16- to 17-year-olds		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
In a physical fight one or more times, past 12 months	64.6	23.0	43.8	59.7	17.7	37.0
Seriously injured one or more times, past 12 months	40.2	31.9	36.0	44.5	28.7	36.2
Bullied on one or more days, past 30 days	35.9	25.0	30.5	24.8	15.4	19.6

Source: WHO and NCPH, 2013.

There is a risk that early experiences of bullying as victim or perpetrator may contribute to or otherwise lay the groundwork for later and more excessive involvement in violence.

What is being done?

Bullying should be considered a multidimensional phenomenon that partly overlaps

with assault. While there is no legal provision making bullying an offence in Mongolia, school administrators and parents are aware of the problem and are working to reduce young people's vulnerability to bullying practices. For example, parents monitor school premises; police provide support to the parents, and school administrations cooperate with parents to help reduce cases of violence and crimes around schools.

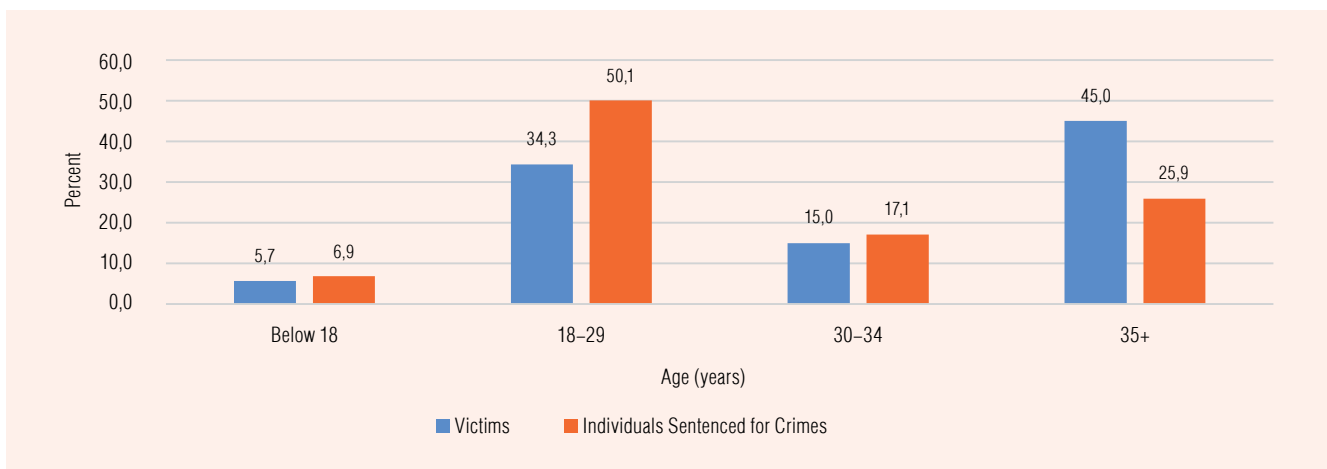
Crime: youth vulnerability and involvement

Internationally, most crimes are committed by men between the ages of 15 and 30.¹⁷⁶ This group is also thought to constitute most of the victims. A review of crime data reveals that young people aged 18–34 represent about 48.4 percent of the victims and 63.9 percent of the individuals sentenced by

the courts in Mongolia.¹⁷⁷ However, there is a sharp difference across the various youth age cohorts. On average, 18- to 29-year-olds represented a third of the victims and about half the individuals sentenced in 2007–2014, while 15 percent of the victims and 18 percent of the individuals sentenced were in the 30–34 age-group (figure 6.1). There was little change in the shares of age cohorts over these years.

Figure 6.1

Victims and Individuals Sentenced for Crimes, by Age Cohort, 2007–2015



Source: NSO, 2010, 2013 and 2015d.

Young people in the 18–29 age-group are clearly the most vulnerable to crime as victims or perpetrators. This is in line with international evidence that an overwhelming majority of the individuals who participate in violence against young people are about the same age and sex as their victims; often, the victims know their assailants.¹⁷⁸

Age-disaggregated data on woman victims are not available, but, overall, the share of woman victims rose from 37 percent in 2011 to 40 percent in 2015; this may include victims of domestic violence. In comparison,

the share of woman perpetrators during this period was constant at 8–9 percent.¹⁷⁹

Crime rates tend to be higher in urban areas than in rural areas. The urban share of total reported offences increased from 61 percent in 2011 to 69 percent in 2015; the share of Ulaanbaatar climbed from 56 percent to 65 percent during this period.¹⁸⁰

Recent years have witnessed the use of the Internet, which is widely accessed by youth, for the online sexual harassment of young girls (box 6.2).

The Changing Face of Sexual Harassment in Mongolia

Sexual harassment, including requests for nude photographs or videos, unwelcome sexual advances, or blackmail, is frequent on social media sites, such as Facebook, which have gained phenomenal popularity in Mongolia.^a

In 2014, of 2,430,000 Internet users, nearly 80 percent were active users of Facebook; many were teenagers. One risk of such a large number of active Facebook users is the creation of fake accounts. According to police, offenders create intimate conversations with victims through online chat rooms and private messages, after which they request explicit photographs and videos. Later, these intimate photographs and videos are used to try to acquire sexual favours or large sums of money or for sexual harassment.

An article in the UB Post reported that police officials had investigated 59 Internet-related crimes involving 39 victims.^b Two of the perpetrators were Mongolians; the others were in foreign countries. Suspect B, a 16-year-old in an eastern aimag, opened a fake account and allegedly used it to chat with girls for long periods to gain their confidence and then collect nude photographs. More than 1,000 photographs were found on B's cell phone and computer, which B had used to harass his victims for sexual favours and money.

Through his fake Facebook account, suspect S, an 18-year-old in a rural aimag, targeted attractive young girls who had posted public communications on the social networking service. He used a similar method of creating intimate conversations after luring the girls with fake online shopping advertisements. He later used the information he had acquired from the girls for sexual harassment.

According to the police experience, people who spend most of their time on Facebook posting about their daily lives publicly are more likely to become victims. Parents should speak with their children about the risks of expressing intimate details about themselves publicly and should exercise some control over their children's social media accounts. According to the General Police Department: "Everyone should freely report sexual harassment to the police if it happens to them. Teenagers should be very careful when becoming friends with strangers, and, if it's not important, don't post your information and pictures to the public."

a. In Mongolian law, sexual harassment is defined as unwelcome sexual advances, orally, physically, or in any other form; blackmail for sexual purposes; the creation of an unacceptable situation of sexual intercourse that is inevitably accompanied by negative workplace, social position, or material and psychological impacts; and exerting pressure and threatening behaviour.

b. A news item in the UB Post, 11 December 2014.

Trafficking for sexual exploitation and the vulnerability of young women

Globally, human trafficking is one of the most rapidly growing types of organized crime, victimizing millions of people and reaping billions in profits. It is estimated that about 800,000 women, children and men are trafficked for sexual or other forms of exploitation each year.¹⁸¹

Nature, extent and trends

"Mongolia is a source and, to lesser extent, a destination country for men, women and children subjected to forced labour and sex trafficking."

— *US Department of State, 2015, p. 249*

The first human trafficking case in Mongolia was reported in 2000.¹⁸² Since then, Mongolia has emerged as a transit and a source country. In 2006–2007, documented cases of trafficking jumped nearly tenfold, from 13 to 115.¹⁸³

Trafficking for sexual exploitation is the most typical form of trafficking, although trafficking for forced labour, servile marriage, crime-related activities, or other purposes is also relatively frequent. Among the victims assisted by the Mongolian Centre for Gender Equality between 2003 and 2009, 30 percent had been trafficked for forced labour, and 45 percent for sexual exploitation.¹⁸⁴ A study by the Asia Foundation finds that a combination of factors, including absence of a regular income, unemployment and poverty, was the most important driver of the vulnerability of respondents to trafficking, but that no single factor had a direct causal relationship to trafficking.¹⁸⁵ The recent rise in trafficking has also been linked to the increase in urban migration.¹⁸⁶

Youth, mostly young women, are usually the victims of trafficking. Youth in the 15–19 and 20–24 age cohorts are considered the most vulnerable. A study of data on 2004–2007 finds that 50 percent of the victims

were in the 18–26 age-group.¹⁸⁷ Less well educated and poorer single women between the ages of 18 and 28 are most at risk.¹⁸⁸

Mongolia is a source primarily of women trafficked to various Asian and European countries, especially Belgium, China, Japan, Macao, Malaysia, the Republic of Korea, and countries in Eastern Europe.¹⁸⁹ Young women with moderate education and low income who are living in border areas and urban centres have been found to be vulnerable to solicitation for overseas employment. There is also a strong link between the trafficking of women, prostitution and the sex trade. Whether trafficked or not, sex workers are at high risk of physical and sexual violence by clients, pimps and the police, particularly where sex work is illegal.¹⁹⁰ The mediation of marriages, especially with foreign men for a fee, has increased. A survey has revealed that the majority of people who use the services of mediators, whether companies or individuals, are subject to violence, intimidation and slavery.¹⁹¹

What is being done?

The Government recognizes human trafficking as a serious issue. Mongolia prohibits all forms of human trafficking through Article 13.1 of the Criminal Code.¹⁹² The National Plan of Action on Trafficking and Protection of Children and Women from Commercial Sexual Exploitation was approved in 2005. It targets key shortcomings in the approach to combating human trafficking such as the lack of public awareness, prevention initiatives, and victim services, including protection and rehabilitation, and reforms in the legal and criminal justice system.¹⁹³ As part of the action plan, civil society organizations are working to combat trafficking and provide victims with shelter, legal advice, psychological assistance, and training and rehabilitation services.

The Law on Combating Human Trafficking in Persons was adopted in January 2012. The comprehensive law provides for coordination among agencies on human trafficking and prohibits all forms of trafficking in persons. It is a milestone in the country's

anti-trafficking efforts and the culmination of more than three years of intense advocacy by civil society organizations. After the enactment of the law, the mandate of the police and intelligence agencies was broadened to deal with such crimes. The National Subcouncil on Combating Trafficking in Persons was recently established under the leadership of the Ministry of Justice to coordinate efforts to prevent and combat trafficking.

The 2015 Trafficking in Persons Report of the US Department of State classifies Mongolia as a tier 2 country, which indicates countries that do not fully comply with the minimum standards of the US Trafficking Victims Protection Act of 2000, but that are making significant efforts to bring themselves into compliance.¹⁹⁴ All the required regulations on the protection of victims and witnesses therefore need to be enacted or strengthened to implement fully the 2012 anti-trafficking law, and more services are required to secure the protection of victims.

Suicide and attempted suicide

Nature, extent and trends

Despite the seriousness of the issue, the overall analysis of the emotional security of youth, including depression and suicide among young people, is constrained by a lack of data, which are often not disaggregated by age. The last epidemiological study on suicide in the country was conducted in 2006.

According to data of the Centre for Health Development of the Ministry of Health, the mortality rate by suicide per 10,000 population in 2014 was 0.52 among women and 2.68 among men.¹⁹⁵ Judged by international standards, a rate of 10–25 suicides per 100,000 population is considered in the medium range. A WHO survey finds that the suicide rate in Mongolia across all ages and for both sexes was 9.4 per 100,000 population in 2012.¹⁹⁶ However, among men, it had risen from 15.4 to 16.3 in 2000–2012, while, among women, it had dropped from 5.6 to 3.7, which highlights the vulnerability of

men to suicide. Moreover, at an age-specific rate of 14.3 suicides per 100,000 population among 15- to 29-year-old men, Mongolia ranked 69th among 172 countries in 2014.¹⁹⁷ Although it shared the top rank among high human development countries, it had the 6th highest suicide rate among 15- to 29-year-old men. This suggests that, while the HDI provides a holistic view of development, it is crucial not to become complacent because of progress on the HDI alone.

Attempted suicides

The intentional self-infliction of non-fatal injury – attempted suicide – is an important indicator of the various risk factors to which

people are exposed in society. Among 13- to 15-year-olds in Mongolia, 21 percent responded to a survey that they had seriously considered suicide in the previous 12 months (table 6.3). The share was 26 percent among 16- to 17-year-olds. Around 10 percent of each of these age cohorts had attempted suicide. More than a quarter of young 13- to 15-year-old women and nearly a third of 16- to 17-year-old women had seriously considered suicide, which was higher than the rates among young men in these age cohorts. Similarly, more young women than young men of these ages had attempted suicide.

Table 6.3

Attempted Suicides among 13- to 17-Year-Olds, 2013
average, %³

Students	13- to 15-year-olds			16- to 17-year-olds		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Seriously considered attempting suicide, past 12 months	16.6	26.1	21.3	19.1	32.1	26.1
Attempted suicide one or more times, past 12 months	7.7	10.4	9.1	9.2	11.6	10.7
Have no close friends	4.8	6.6	5.7	4.5	4.9	4.8

Note: Data are limited to 13- to 17-year-olds who are in school because of the parameters of the survey.
Source: WHO and NCPH, 2013.

Adolescence is the period during which young people form friendships and experiment with ideas and new experiences. They undergo major changes and form their identities. It is not uncommon for adolescents to be prone to extreme mood swings. The data on attempted suicides among this age-group are therefore not entirely reliable as indicators of the true exposure of youth to the phenomenon. Still, they do highlight that 13–17 years of age is the period when adolescents are quite vulnerable and require emotional support from their families, a stable environment at home and professional counselling, if necessary, to help them deal with the mood swings.

There is little research on emotional security and suicides among youth in Mongolia, and the data are scanty. Yet, identifying the risk factors in suicide and understanding their role are key to prevention and to re-

ducing young people’s vulnerability. The issue of suicides and attempted suicides thus requires urgent and careful research to clarify the contributory factors. There should also be wider access to counselling and good-quality mental health services among young people.

Discrimination against minorities¹⁹⁸

“I was beaten up; they flung stones at me and sprayed urine from a Pepsi bottle when I wore women’s clothing. One time, a security man at a hotel in which I was to pass a night brought two other men and beat me up. I went to the police, but the policeman told me off, saying, ‘It’s your fault: you wore women’s clothes.’ He did not consider me a victim, but discriminated against me as a transgender.”

—26-year-old transgender woman

Nature, extent and trends

Discrimination adds to the vulnerability of young people and instils fear in the targeted community. In Mongolia, this is so especially among people with an LGBT orientation. A National Human Rights Commission report in 2012 found that almost 80 percent of people who identified as LGBT had experienced some form of human rights abuse or discrimination during the previous three years.¹⁹⁹ Almost three quarters of the LGBT individuals surveyed for the report admitted they had considered suicide one or more times because of society's intolerance.

Discrimination in the workplace was identified by LGBT Mongolians as one of the most serious and frequent human rights violations. One fourth reported experiencing social stigma and discrimination, and 7 percent reported physical assault because of their LGBT status. Negative attitudes and discrimination in health care institutions are pervasive, which limits access to health care by LGBT people. Of those LGBT people surveyed, 87 percent hide their sexual orientation or gender identity from their families and close relatives.²⁰⁰ Transgender people also have more problems, such as psychological and health issues, than other categories of LGBT.

What is being done?

“Hate-motivated acts need to be included as a crime category. That's why we proposed to include provisions . . . [for] these acts where perpetrators pressure, threaten and interfere with the daily lives of people out of hatred.”

—*Head, Complaints and Inquiry Division, National Human Rights Commission*

Mongolia is committed to outlawing and combating all forms of discrimination, especially by enforcing revised Article 14.1 of the new Criminal Code, which includes discrimination because of sexual or gender orientation. However, though much more needs to be done to enhance the security of sexual, gender and other minority groups, the situation today is much better relative to 2009 thanks to social media and the NGOs working on the protection of human rights.

Possible factors contributing to the vulnerability of youth to violence

The mere existence of a risk does not mean that all youth are insecure or vulnerable to violence, whether as victims or perpetrators. There is never a single reason for vulnerability, which is equivalent to exposure to risk. Rather, vulnerability arises because of a combination of structural or individual factors that may tend to place young people in situations in which they may become victimized by violence or that create conditions conducive to violence among young people. These factors include poverty; unemployment; inequality of opportunity, which limits access to good-quality education or health services and employment prospects (chapters 3 and 4); and poor living conditions, which fuel frustration and grievances among youth and may foster an urge to strike outward or inward (table 6.4). Dominant notions of masculinity and gender identity often influence the formation of a negative understanding of gender and sexual orientation among youth and may make violence against women or sexual or gender minorities appear acceptable. Individual factors can also predispose certain individuals to violence. These include alcohol abuse, low awareness and personality disorders.

Table 6.4

Possible Factors Contributing to the Vulnerability of Youth to Violence

Structural	Individual
Poverty and unemployment	Low awareness
Inequality of opportunity (low educational attainment and skills)	Alcohol abuse
Poor living conditions	Personality disorders
Attitudes: violence is normal	
Weaknesses in the legal framework	

Source: Analysis of the NHDR report team.

Poverty and unemployment

There is plentiful international evidence of the existence of links among poverty, unemployment, vulnerability to insecurity, and human developmental risks. From a capability perspective, poverty is the deprivation of certain basic capabilities.²⁰¹ It is a state in which individuals are incapable of utilizing the resources around them to improve themselves economically, socially, politically, or otherwise. It may derive from a lack of opportunities for human development. Psychologically, the poor and unemployed may experience trauma, anger, frustration, low self-esteem, negative life satisfaction, unhappiness, and mental disorder, including depression and acute stress.

While poverty has declined in Mongolia in recent years, more than one person in five is still living below the national poverty line, and 5.4 percent of the population was multidimensionally poor in 2013 (chapter 2). Youth unemployment, especially among 20- to 24-year-olds, is almost twice the national unemployment rate (chapter 4). Young people can take up to a year and sometimes even more to obtain their first job after graduation. Poverty and long-term unemployment can fuel youth discontent and undermine social cohesion, with the potential for increases in crime, violence and social unrest that affect entire communities. If combined with unequal opportunities, this may create an environment in which youth

vulnerability to violence rises, and the violence may sometimes become directed towards the self. This can pose a threat to the economic and personal security of young people. According to research cited in the United Nations Population Fund’s “Review of State Policies on Youth”, 60 percent of respondents to a survey had experienced feelings of stress in the previous six months primarily because of a lack of income (49.9 percent) and the escalating cost of living.²⁰²

Another outcome of unemployment is the flight of youth and able-bodied men to other countries in search of better opportunities. Likewise, poverty creates enormous pressures on women to find and maintain jobs, which render them vulnerable to sexual coercion from those who can promise these advantages. It may force many women and girls into occupations that carry a relatively high risk of sexual violence, particularly sex work. Poorer women are also more at risk of domestic violence.

There is a need to exercise extreme caution in drawing any correlations between socio-economic conditions and violence. All young people who are poor are not involved in violence, nor are all young people who are involved in violence poor. Much more careful research is necessary to establish what factors can lead to violence among young people. This will help identify suitable policies to reduce vulnerability and enhance human security.

Inequality of opportunity

International evidence points to the existence of links between economic growth and a reduction in violence and between income inequality and violence.²⁰³ A rise in per capita GDP is associated significantly with a drop in the homicide rate, but this is often offset by growing income inequality.

In Mongolia, inequality is evident from the differences in income, poverty, employment, and access to infrastructure and services. For instance, while the overall urban poverty rate declined nationwide from 32.2 percent to 23.2 percent between 2004 and 2010, intra-urban differentials in income, employment, poverty and access to services were quite apparent in ger districts. In 2010, the access to adequate basic infrastructure ranged from 21.3 percent in the Ulaanbaatar district of Nalaikh to 74.2 percent in the district of Bayangol.²⁰⁴

Despite significant recent progress, there are now considerable differences in the access to good-quality education, health care services and job opportunities among young people by location and income (chapters 3 and 4). Young people also do not enjoy uniform access to health and social services; many lack insurance or face financial constraints. Basic health care and social welfare services are not delivered adequately in peri-urban ger districts, where rural migrants and youth represent a majority. Most of the people who migrate are in the 15–34 age-group (chapter 1).

This unequal access to health care, education and jobs is a manifestation of inequality of opportunity. If their efforts to overcome the gap in opportunity are perceived as insufficient, individuals, particularly young people, may experience feelings of frustration and hopelessness and resort to alcohol abuse and, eventually, violence, thus posing a threat to the security of other youth.

Poor living conditions

Over 60 percent of Ulaanbaatar's population is estimated to be living in peri-urban ger districts where mostly rural immigrants

settle. Many migrant youth who move to Ulaanbaatar for education and who have limited support from their families often subsist on meagre allowances and also live in the ger districts, frequently in shared accommodations and generally in difficult circumstances.

Peri-urban ger districts typically have poor access to urban infrastructure and services.²⁰⁵ There is generally a strong association between poverty and the lack or absence of piped water, sanitation and central heating, and this is evident in the ger districts, where good-quality basic services are limited. Of the households in these districts, only 22 percent have access to water through the water utility network; 56 percent have access to drinking water kiosks within 200 metres, and 35 percent have access to non-shared toilets located outside the home. Ger districts lack street-lighting, and this facilitates crime. Nearly 85 percent of ger residents use wood- or coal-burning stoves for heating, in contrast to residents of apartment buildings, which are connected to the centralized heat utility system.²⁰⁶

There are numerous risks arising from the poor living conditions. The lack of access to drinking water, hot water and sanitation facilities and the environmental degradation, including the pollution of air and soil, pose health risks, including a rise in the incidence of respiratory diseases and hepatitis.²⁰⁷ Ulaanbaatar is among the 10 most polluted cities in the world. Air pollution in the ger districts has reached dangerous levels. The health impacts of air pollution are significant.²⁰⁸ The poor and unsafe living conditions may foster a heightened sense of relative deprivation among youth, which may cause frustration, conflict and greater vulnerability to violence.

Attitudes: violence is normal

The view that violence is normal can become a structural issue. Thus, violence is sometimes embedded in the social fabric of society in circumstances in which people clearly regard it as a legitimate or acceptable means of dealing with problems.²⁰⁹ A rou-

tine example is the use of physical disciplinary measures in schools or in the home.

Violence as a standard of behaviour is often an expression of the dynamics of power, especially in patriarchal societies, where such standards are often shaped predominantly by men. However, a discourse of silence or an attitude of non-intervention – “it’s normal behaviour” – has particular consequences. In the case of school bullying, for instance, the normalization of violence tends to put young boys at risk, and, in cases of domestic violence, young women are more vulnerable to violence than young men. Indeed, if violence is viewed as an acceptable way to exercise control and settle disputes between partners, many women may also consider violence in the home as acceptable. This may be one of the reasons domestic violence goes unreported, and data are difficult to obtain.

Weaknesses in the legal framework

The absence or weak implementation of relevant laws addressing the risks increases the vulnerability of young people to violence. Anti-discrimination provisions have therefore been included in the recently adopted Criminal Code to protect minorities against bigotry, discrimination and hate-motivated acts. To enforce the law, it is important to create an enabling legal and policy environment and promote public awareness about the provisions of the newly adopted revision of the Law to Combat Domestic Violence.

Low awareness (mostly among women)

Human trafficking rings have duped young women through attractive advertisements for scholarships for study abroad or lured them with promises of lucrative jobs. Women are also often unaware of the provisions of the Law to Combat Domestic Violence and are thus exposed to greater risk.

Alcohol abuse (mostly among men)

Alcohol abuse and drunkenness are important situational risk factors in the phenomenon of violence, including self-directed

violence (suicides and attempted suicides). Police statistics indicate that alcohol is a contributing factor in 72 percent of violent crimes, including murder and robbery with violence or the threat of violence, and most cases of domestic violence are driven by alcohol abuse.²¹⁰

Globally, various studies have provided evidence that about three quarters of violent offenders and around half the victims of violence were intoxicated at the time of the incidents and that many boys engage in fighting after drinking.²¹¹ Extensive international research clearly points to alcohol abuse as a key contributory factor in domestic violence. For instance, women who live with heavy drinkers are five times more likely to be assaulted by their partners than women who live with non-drinkers, and men who have been drinking inflict more serious violence at the time of an assault.²¹²

Personality disorders

A number of studies have attempted to identify whether certain personality factors or disorders are consistently related to partner violence. Studies in Canada and the United States show that men who assault their wives are more likely to be emotionally dependent, insecure and low in self-esteem and are more likely to have difficulty controlling their impulses.²¹³ They are also more likely than their non-violent peers to exhibit anger and hostility, to be depressed and to score above average on scales of personality disorder, including antisocial, aggressive and borderline personality disorders, though not all physically abusive men exhibit such psychological disorders. Research on family violence shows that abusers who are physically aggressive are more likely than the general population to have personality disorders and alcohol-related problems.²¹⁴ However, the proportion of partner assaults linked to psychopathology is likely to be relatively lower in social environments in which partner violence is common or considered excusable.²¹⁵

Protecting vulnerable youth

Family support and its role in enhancing personal security among youth

“The family is one of the most, if not the most powerful socializing environments for children, an effect that continues throughout adolescence.”

—Ward 2007, p. 19

As in much of Asia, the family is a powerful institution in Mongolia and a major source of support and guidance for most young people, especially during the period between leaving school and finding suitable work. Their families help young people make a successful transition from protected childhood to independent adulthood. The family is usually the primary source of financial support among young people who are navigating towards adulthood.

Some students take up part-time jobs while studying to lessen the financial burden on their families, but, more typically, parents pay tuition, rent and upkeep for their children until the children find stable employment. Financial dependence may not end with the attainment of college education or obtaining a job. Parents do not usually regard as a burden their support for their young adult children who continue to live in the parental home until the children reach their late 20s and sometimes even later. The financial and emotional dependency of young adults on their parents exists alongside a growing desire among youth for independence and a space of their own.

Parental support is not limited to monetary assistance for children transitioning to adulthood. Thus, there is often a deep emotional link between young adults and their parents. The family also plays a crucial role in protecting youth against violence and health risks. How well youth do later in life depends not only on how well equipped

they are with a good education, health care, skills and employment opportunities, but also on the kind of support they receive from their families.

The failure of family support

“I hate even talking to my family, who don’t understand that I was naturally born with this orientation, but, due to my financial dependence on them and my own inability to live independently, I have no choice but to be among people who hate me and are cold towards me when I come home every day. Sometimes, I even wonder whether they would cry over my death if I were to commit suicide. . . . There were a number of times I felt so terrible like committing suicide.”

—Focus group interview participant,
2012 Implementation of the Rights of
Sexual Minorities Survey (NHRCM,
2013)

Family support is not necessarily unconditional. For example, it is often not provided to youth with an LGBT orientation. In a survey carried out among the LGBT community, 86.7 percent of respondents indicated they had not told their families of their sexual orientation or gender identity, frequently because they were afraid to do so.²¹⁶ In a study conducted in Ulaanbaatar in 2012 among men who have sex with men, a mere 16.5 percent had disclosed their sexual preferences to their families.²¹⁷ Many who have come out have been accused of ruining the reputations of their families. Many openly LGBT individuals have become estranged from their families or are excluded from family gatherings.²¹⁸ The lack of social and familial understanding and support has a negative impact on well-being and mental health outcomes. In the survey among the LGBT community mentioned above, nearly three fourths of the respondents said they had considered suicide because of society’s intolerance and failure to understand them.²¹⁹

Because of the importance of parental supervision, emotional support, family structure and economic status in influencing the vulnerability of youth to violence, an increase in violence among young people can be expected where families, as in Mongolia, are undergoing rapid social change. At the same time, further research is needed on this issue and on changes in family structure and the role of the family in supporting young people during the transition to adulthood.

The impact of migration and work away from home on family support

International migration has greatly expanded since the transition to a market economy. This is opening up opportunities for Mongolians to learn new skills and study abroad. Almost equal shares of people migrate to study or to work, which includes contractual and regular employment. Most international migrants are young. Of the 107,140 Mongolians residing abroad in 2010, 63 percent were in the 15–34 age-group.²²⁰

Youth also dominate in internal migration flows, moving in search of work or to study. There are many instances of parents leaving their younger children with grandparents in rural areas and moving to cities, most often Ulaanbaatar. Many men live much of the year away from their wives and children. Rural herder families, particularly those with young children, separate to provide opportunities for the children to attend school. Mothers live with the children in soum administrative centres, where the children attend school, and fathers remain in the countryside herding livestock. Despite the positive impact of lowering the age of compulsory free education from 8 to 6,

the change also implies an increase in rural family separations. Another reason for the rise in family separations is employment in mining. In 2010, woman-headed households accounted for 21.5 percent of all households in Mongolia, a rise of 5.2 percentage points relative to 2000.²²¹

One result of these changes is the split of the nuclear family into more than one household, and this inevitably affects the functioning of the family and intergenerational relations. Internal and international migration and the temporary separation of families are influencing family structure and may also be having an effect on traditional gender roles. Young people may have to take on the responsibilities of heads of household. The lack of parental authority and the absence of adult role models may expose young people to greater vulnerability and insecurity. Alcoholism, violence among men and against women, and deteriorations in physical and mental health have been reported as critical problems experienced by international migrants.²²²

Social protection

The Government provides support to young people through various social security benefits (table 6.5). Up to the age of 18 years, the young receive the Child Money Programme benefit of ₮20,000 a month, which has undergone numerous changes over the past few years. If registered in college after age 18, young people may receive a monthly student allowance of ₮70,200 until graduation. To be eligible, a young person must be registered full time at an accredited university and obtain a minimum 3.0 grade point average. The benefit ends upon graduation.

Table 6.5

Social Security Benefits Available to Youth

Source and purpose	Amount and frequency	Condition
From the Social Welfare Fund		
Child money	₮20,000 per month	0–18 years of age
Allowance for youth 18–24 years old	₮1,200,000 one time	Individuals who were orphaned before age 18
Social welfare benefit for youth with disabilities, 19–24 years of age	₮126,500 per month	Student
	₮150,000 per year	For treatment at local clinics
	₮150,000 per year	To hire a care-taker
	₮140,000 per year	For housing and heating fuel
	₮500,000 per year	Prostheses, orthopedic devices
Additional social welfare benefit for youth with disabilities, 19–24 years of age, in constant need of care	₮60,000 per quarter	Medicine, injections, and so on
	₮58,000 per month	To hire a care-taker
From other funds		
Student allowance	₮70,200 per month	Any full-time student with a 3.0 grade point average
Allowance, scholarship for students from the Government and universities	President's annual award: ₮1,000,000	Open to the public; around 30 students are selected
	Prime Minister's annual award: ₮800,000	Open to the public; around 50 students are selected

Source: Compiled on the basis of information of the Ministry of Population Development and Social Protection.

There is a sharp drop in social security benefits among young people who have recently completed their formal education. Fresh graduates may require up to a year, sometimes even more, to find a stable first employment (chapter 4). During this time, young people have no financial support from the Government and have to depend only on parents, siblings, or others. In the

absence of governmental support during their transition from education to employment, young people in poorer households may face a more difficult financial situation, but also lack protection and may become more vulnerable to violence and crime. Higher welfare expenditures have been found to be associated with lower rates of youth crime, especially homicide rates.

Conclusions

It is difficult to obtain comparable and reliable data on gender-based violence, including domestic violence, human trafficking and suicide. Violence in schools is often not regarded as violence.

Many young people are exposed to violence as victims or as perpetrators, which can undermine their security, dignity and livelihoods and endanger their development. However, all youth are not equally at risk of becoming victims or perpetrators of violence. Individual factors alone are rarely associated with violence. Usually, structural factors and individual contributory factors combine to increase the likelihood of violence.

Much of this chapter focuses on clarifying the extent of the contributory factors and how they may increase youth vulnerability. This may help in the design of interventions to address general development issues and the vulnerability of young people to violence, as well as specific factors that may raise vulnerability among youth because of particular circumstances such as bullying, sexual orientation, or depression leading to attempted suicide.

The Government cannot be held responsible for all initiatives alone. All stakeholders must be involved. The Government, communities, civil society organizations and families each have a role in reducing the vulnerability of young people to violence as victims or as perpetrators and in enhancing the security of youth.

More research is needed to identify the links between migration, access to education, employment opportunities, living conditions, and other contributory factors and the impact of crime on the vulnerability of young people, especially youth in the 18–29 age-group.

The role of the Government

The Government can provide support by undertaking six initiatives.

Introduce a targeted social benefit for poorer youth as they search for suitable jobs

Young people often require more than a year to find suitable jobs after graduation. This is a vulnerable period also because these youth must usually rely on family for financial support. Youth in poorer households often do not have such family support or access to useful connections.

The Government should introduce a means-tested youth benefit to support youth in poorer households for one year after they have completed formal education so they are able to search effectively for their first stable and suitable employment. The benefit could be administered as tax rebates to be claimed by families that are living below an income threshold and that are supporting their children during the transition process, or it could be administered as a direct transfer to youth to assist them in their job search.

Strengthen the legal framework and the implementation of laws

The legal framework must be strengthened especially to combat domestic violence, bullying, human trafficking and hate crimes. The Government should take the lead in establishing and enforcing a code of conduct in schools to prevent violence against students. The futility of restraining orders and the lack of an effective criminal justice response jeopardize the safety of victims of domestic violence. Judges do not consistently screen for domestic violence, nor do they always discover it when they do screen.²²³

Ensure universal access to services

More research is needed to establish the direct causality between social protection and reductions in youth violence. However, sufficient pointers suggest that investing in social protection as a strategy can pay huge dividends among youth by reducing the impact of some of the factors contributing to vulnerability, including poverty, unemployment and poor social infrastructure, while strengthening the resilience of young people and promoting human development. Unemployment and poverty are important drivers of youth violence. Thus, social welfare systems and training to help youth acquire productive skills need more attention. For the sake of victims, the Government should make resources available so local police departments are able to deal more effectively with violence and integrate psychological counselling. It should also integrate trauma counselling into public health services. Universal access to good-quality education, social protection, and health care, particularly mental health care, should be ensured.

Establish youth development centres

The Government plans to set up youth development centres in all aimags. These can become hubs of youth activity and can be used to increase social engagement and the productive use of leisure among youth, spread awareness and involve young people in beneficial social activities.

Create incentives to curb the excessive consumption of alcohol

While legislation to curb excessive alcohol consumption exists, alcohol, especially vodka, is readily available, and this makes enforcement difficult.

Support the collection of reliable data for analysis and policymaking

There is a paucity of reliable age-disaggregated data to inform youth policies and programmes in all sectors.

The role of communities and civil society

Civil society organizations and local communities can contribute by undertaking three initiatives.

Providing opportunities for youth social engagement

The marginalization of young people in society can increase their vulnerability and heighten their exposure to or involvement in violence. Greater social engagement can help discourage criminal and violent behaviour among youth. Programmes should seek effectively to target the young people most at risk or youth living in areas of high risk. These programmes could range from early childhood interventions to educational programmes, youth leadership initiatives, mediation efforts, job and skills training, and rehabilitation and reintegration programmes. Local communities should adopt strategies that combine effective policing with prevention, intervention and other such options. There is a strong reinforcing link and reciprocal connection between low crime rates and social inclusion. Internationally, there is a growing trend towards the adoption of practices that promote community safety and crime reduction in urban settings.

Raising awareness and bringing about a change in attitudes

Initiate a public awareness campaign to educate the public that sexual abuse and domestic violence include knowing about sexual abuse and domestic violence, but not reporting cases. The campaign should be reflected in all documents defining sexual abuse.

Training

Civil society organizations should be involved more closely in providing awareness-building training on youth issues, especially to police and law enforcement agencies.

The role of families

Though many changes have taken place in the composition and structure of families as a result of migration and globalization, the family remains the primary institution of socialization among young people and can still play an important role in the prevention of youth crime. The most effective prevention efforts will need to focus on the family unit.

Early victimization and the experience of violence in the home, substance abuse and other, similar experiences may make some young people particularly vulnerable to future victimization or perpetration of violence. All actors should focus on the importance of family life in addressing the related issues.

The role of youth

The young are dynamic and full of new ideas, and they are agents of change. They are aware, connected with each other and globally through social media, and can participate more intensively to build awareness, for example, through Facebook groups. They can be socially engaged and increase their participation in sports and other activities to develop their capabilities and enhance their security.

Chapter 7

Youth policy and beyond



7. Youth policy and beyond

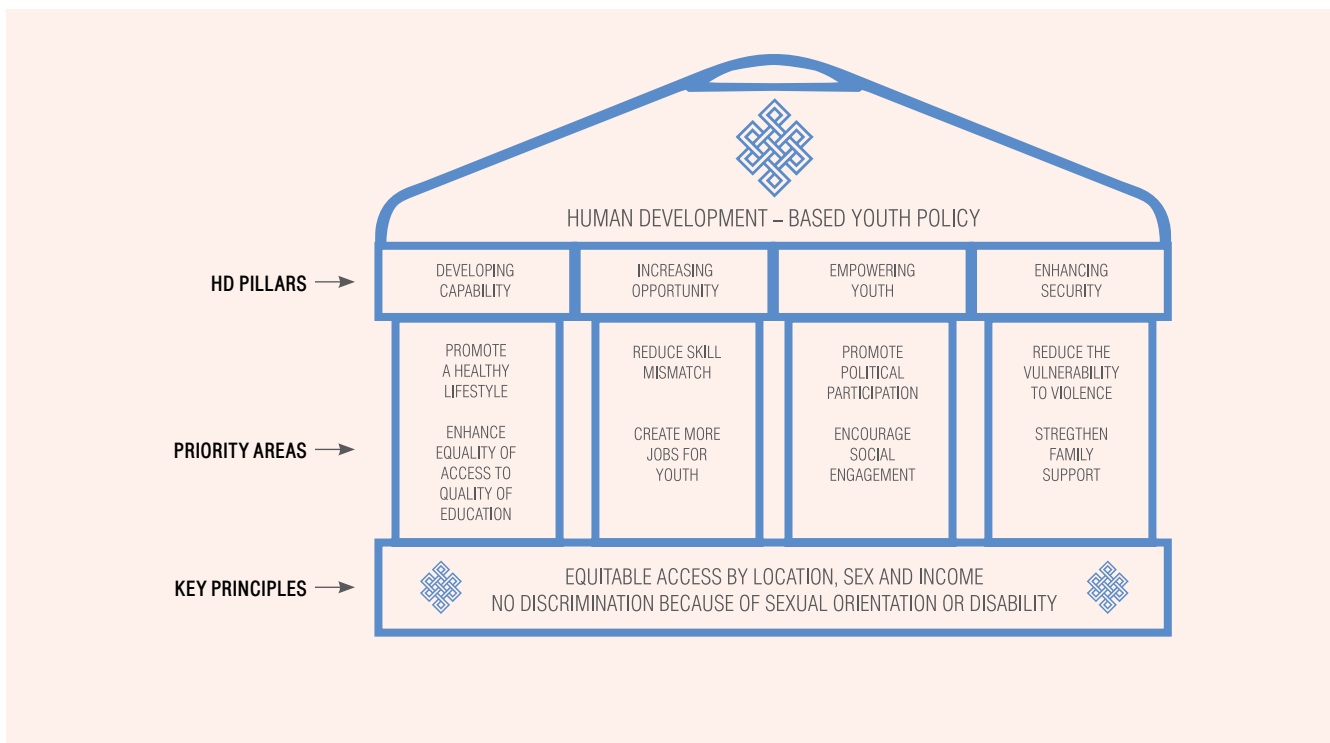
This report reflects a recognition that youth are integral to a country’s development. The chapters all analyse the opportunities and challenges facing young people in Mongolia today to become healthier, well-educated, employed, empowered and responsible citizens. The report relies on the capability approach to human development (chapter 1). According to this approach, how well youth contribute to a country’s development depends largely on their capabilities, the freedom with which they are able to live long, healthy and creative lives, and the opportunities open to them in making choices. Access to knowledge and quality education and the ability to lead a healthy life are key elements of human capability.

An overriding conclusion of this report is that gains in human development have benefited some, but not all of Mongolia’s young population. Many issues examined in this report revolve around the limitations in the inclusion of youth in economic and social development and the challenges in improving capabilities and enhancing the choices and opportunities available to young people.

Drawing upon the analyses in the report, this chapter identifies several priorities in the effort to generate a wider policy debate and address the challenges young people face today. These priorities are grouped according to the four thematic pillars of the analytical framework outlined in chapter 1 and depicted in figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1

Mongolia’s Human Development–Based Youth Policy



Priority area 1: improve the quality of education

Mongolia's success in achieving high levels of enrolment in primary and secondary education after the sharp decline during the 1990s is remarkable. The country is close to achieving near universal access to primary and secondary education. A child who entered school in 2014 can expect to receive 14.6 years of schooling. This is among the best results achieved in high human development countries.

Despite the greater coverage, there are still disparities in access by sex, location of residence and income status. Young rural men exhibit low enrolment rates in secondary education relative to other groups. Among youth with disabilities, only 60 percent in the compulsory education age-group are enrolled in school. The progress in education quality has not matched the progress in expanding coverage. Good-quality education is available mostly in urban areas and is often received by youth in higher-income households.

Secondary-school graduates lack professional guidance in determining their future career options, while the tertiary education system does not equip students with the skills they need for the available labour market. Overall, the poor education outcomes seriously affect the future employment prospects of youth. Today's world is increasingly based on knowledge, with emphasis on skill formation, technological development and innovation. Ensuring inclusive and equitable access to knowledge and good-quality education among youth regardless of location, sex, or income status is therefore crucial for Mongolia's future.

Action points

To develop the capabilities of youth and prepare young people for the future, the Government should undertake the following:

- Ensure that secondary education equips youth with the ability to think critically and creatively.
 - See that curricula, teaching methodologies and textbooks meet international standards; ensure the implementation of stable national education standards.
 - Provide upgraded infrastructure.
 - Encourage young people to take advantage of the rapid expansion in access to ICTs; promote universal access to better language and information technology skills through education to enable youth to rely on social media and the Internet as learning resources.
 - Guarantee the availability of career counselling to the graduating class in each secondary school.
- Foster the proper alignment of tertiary education with the broader development context.
 - Ensure an adequate number of high-quality tertiary institutions with significant teaching capacity and an enhanced learning environment.
 - Foster academic education that instils suitable skills to enable young people to accumulate work experience and meet the changing demands of the labour market.
 - Facilitate access to higher education among disabled youth.

Priority area 2: promote healthy lifestyles

Life expectancy at birth has risen over the years. However, since 1990, youth in the 15–24 age-group have added only one year to their lives, and there has been no change in life expectancy among the 25–34 age-group. Life expectancy among young 15- to 34-year-old men declined in 1990–2010.

Mortality rates among youth have been trending upward across all age-groups and all disease categories since 2010. A disaggregation by sex shows that young men are at two or three times greater risk of mortality than young women across all age-groups. Accidents, injuries, poisoning and other external causes are the largest cause of mortality among youth.

Widespread situations of risk such as unhealthy diet, lack of physical activity, tobacco consumption, alcohol use, unprotected sex, and traffic accidents can undermine the ability of youth to avoid preventable disease and can contribute to the high incidence of NCDs in the later stages of their lives, as well as to more immediate harmful outcomes such as STIs, unwanted pregnancies, abortions and accidental deaths.

Action points

All stakeholders can promote healthy lifestyles among youth. The Government and other actors should undertake the following:

Policy related

- Ensure stricter enforcement of tobacco and alcohol laws and regulations.
- Adapt and implement a national strategy for adolescent and youth health and development to mainstream youth-friendly and rights-based service provision that maintains confidentiality.
- Guarantee that health policies reflect a special attention to sexual and reproductive health and the rights of young people, particularly by improving access to high-quality family planning and STI prevention services.

- Develop suitable policies and national standards to promote healthy foods and better nutritional habits, including reducing the consumption of salt, carbonated beverages and trans-unsaturated fatty acids.

Tax related

- Increase the taxes on tobacco and alcohol and use the generated revenue to fund investment in youth development and health promotion.
- Offer tax incentives to entrepreneurs to establish sporting clubs, fitness centres and other leisure facilities for young people.

Service provision

- Scale up adolescent- and youth-friendly services, including sexual and reproductive health services, to increase their uptake and widespread use. Adolescent health centres should be adapted and reorganized to fit the needs of young people.

Awareness campaigns, sporting events

- Partner with the private sector, civil society organizations and youth organizations to launch national awareness campaigns to highlight the negative health effects of tobacco and alcohol use and to promote healthy lifestyles.
- Expand and improve life skills-based education in schools and make physical education compulsory up to secondary school.
- Mobilize private sector sponsorship to promote competitive sports.
- Create an enabling environment for civil society organizations to provide services.

Schools, communities and civil society organizations can do the following:

- Utilize innovative social marketing methods and effective behaviour change communication programmes relying on social media to reach most-at-risk and hard-to-reach adolescents

and youth, particularly young men, to create awareness about healthy lifestyles.

- Through education institutions at all levels, introduce good-quality life skills–based health education curricula and promote healthy lifestyles among students.

Families should do the following:

- Promote healthy eating habits at home with emphasis on fruits and vegetables.
- Make the home a smoke-free environment and avoid smoking at home because of the harmful effects of passive smoking.
- Parents and older siblings should aim to become role models for younger children and adopt healthy habits.

- Eliminate or at least reduce alcohol consumption during celebrations such as on birthdays, during Lunar New Year, at weddings, and so on.
- Create opportunities and an open atmosphere at home for discussions about lifestyle issues, including sex education.

Acknowledging their agency, young people can do the following:

- Cut tobacco use and excessive alcohol consumption.
- Adopt diversified dietary habits.
- Participate in life skills training courses.
- Increase participation in physical activities, such as sports, cycling, or walking to school or work and joining fitness clubs.

Pillar 2: increasing opportunity

Skill enhancement and greater access to employment are central goals of efforts to increase the opportunities available to young people to lead the lives they wish to lead.

Priority area 3: reduce the skill mismatch

Priority area 4: create more jobs for youth

The main barriers faced by young people in obtaining decent, productive employment are the mismatch between supply and demand on the labour market, the skill mismatch between education and the labour market, the inadequate quality of labour, the lack of employment opportunities, especially in rural areas, and the lack of career development services.

Despite strong economic growth performance in recent years, Mongolia has been confronted by the serious challenge of translating growth into employment, particularly among the large youth population. The unemployment rate among the 20–24 age-group is, at 17 percent, twice the national unemployment rate. Among young men

and women seeking work, the majority have been looking for a year or more.

Youth in poorer households are at a greater disadvantage during the school-to-work transition. Because of the urgency to start earning income quickly, many young people in the lower wealth quintiles are pushed to take the first available employment and end up in dead-end or mismatched jobs.

Women outnumber men at all levels of higher-education degree programmes; yet, their educational achievements do not translate into greater workforce participation or better employment opportunities. Many young women who start families before finding work stay out of the labour market or remain unemployed for a long time because re-entry into the labour market is often difficult.

About 80 percent of persons with disabilities, including youth, are economically inactive. Those who are active are more likely to be self-employed, suggesting that barriers exist to the economic activity of people with disabilities.

Action points

Investment in skills to boost the employability of youth is critical for the transformation of Mongolia from a natural resource-based economy to a knowledge-based economy. To enhance the employment opportunities among youth and promote human development through sustainable work, the Government should adopt the following measures:

Policy related

- Establish a national youth employment strategy to address the changing world of work, respond more effectively to specific challenges facing young people in Mongolia today and promote broader options for the expansion of productive, remunerative and exciting work opportunities for youth that can enhance human development.
- Mainstream youth employment issues into a supportive macroeconomic framework to create more jobs for young people, including well-educated youth, and to promote youth employment in the mining and associated sectors to benefit from sustainable, high-wage employment.
- Encourage social entrepreneurship to create more jobs, while advancing social development.
- Benefit from the experience of other countries that have mainstreamed youth employment policies into national development strategies with the support of international development partners.
- Review the impact of the TVET promotion policy to determine the reasons for the lower enrolments in recent years despite the increase in the associated student benefit even as the demand for skilled workers remains unmet; adjust policies if necessary.

Training and skill upgrading

- Scale up existing employment promotion and training programmes for

young people to develop work-related skills, particularly in rural areas.

- Introduce and promote programmes targeted on youth such as career counselling, assistance with job-seeking and opportunities to gain work experience, including unpaid and paid internships and volunteering.

Economic diversification

- Modernize traditional animal husbandry and agriculture with the help of modern technology, invest in veterinary services, and encourage the establishment of greenhouses and agroprocessing industries to promote youth involvement in the agricultural sector.
- Invest directly in knowledge-based and future technology sectors such as nanotechnology and biotechnology to overcome the constraints of Mongolia's status as a landlocked country and utilize young people's potential and intellectual capability productively.

Youth entrepreneurship

- Support the nurturing of entrepreneurial skills through training programmes carried out in partnership with the private sector and expand the access of young entrepreneurs to sustainable financial services.

Links between industry and tertiary education

- Establish closer links among industries, employers and higher-education and TVET institutions to address the skill mismatch and to respond effectively to labour market demand.
- Promote the funding by industry of scholarships for bright students, especially in underrepresented fields such as mining engineering.
- Locate business incubators and tertiary-education facilities in industrial hubs and industrial parks supported by advanced ICT infrastructure.

Improve the access of youth with disabilities and young women to the labour market

- Develop suitable policies and provide tax benefits to private sector firms that remove the barriers to the re-entry of women in the labour market by expanding child-care centres.
- Provide suitable incentives to encourage private sector firms to hire young people with disabilities and to make infrastructure accessible (such as ramps); enhance the capabilities of youth with disabilities and boost their access to higher education and appropriate technologies.
- Address imbalances in unpaid and paid work benefits. Action is needed along four policy axes: (a) reducing and sharing the load of unpaid care work; (b) expanding the opportunities for young women in paid work by changing relevant norms and improving outcomes through suitable policies and interventions, including the expansion of child-care centres and enhancing access to good-quality public services in ger districts; (c) implement policies to promote a better balance between work and life, including mandatory paid parental leave; and (d) foster a shift in attitudes about gender roles and responsibilities.
- Ensure better access to good-quality higher education among women in those fields where women are underrepresented and encourage the engagement of men in traditionally woman-dominated professions.

Pillar 3: empowering youth

Participation in political activities and engagement in social and community affairs foster youth empowerment.

Priority area 5: promote political participation

Priority area 6: encourage social engagement

The conduct of politicians and political parties in recent years has eroded the trust of young people in political institutions. More than one third of the young people surveyed attributed their lack of interest in politics to their lack of trust in politicians. Urban youth and youth living in poorer households tend to have less confidence in political institutions. Youth have a poor perception of the quality of governance, and they are passive in engaging directly with their elected representatives because they feel such contacts are ineffective and only symbolic. Only 15 percent of young people are involved in lobbying or political activism to solve local problems.

Nonetheless, although youth may seem disillusioned, they are not politically indifferent or disinterested. Mongolians are gen-

erally proud of their fledgling democracy. Youth make up more than 45 percent of the voting population and participate actively; around 45 percent have participated in elections. They desire a responsive government and concrete results based on legitimate expectations and commitments.

Moreover, youth are actively engaged in social activities, including through civil society organizations and volunteerism. The Internet has rapidly emerged as a key medium for mobilizing participation, sharing information and building social networks among youth. The engagement of young people in social activities demonstrates that they have a lot of energy and idealism. Often, the young are looking for opportunities, support and guidance to engage positively and effectively in the development of their communities.

Action points

Policymakers and political leaders should view the trust deficit as a serious reminder that improvements in governance are required to engage with youth on policies that impact youth and to include young people in the development process. To ensure the

wider inclusion and political participation of youth, accomplishing the following is vital:

- Improve the education on democracy among young people as part of the curriculum reform in civics education.
- Implement a voter education programme aimed at first-time voters and eligible voters who do not participate in elections.
- Improve national and local volunteer infrastructure so that it can be instru-

mental in promoting civic and social engagement among youth through relevant policies and programmes.

- Create formal and non-formal education mechanisms to encourage youth participation in activities that can enhance their life skills, leadership and citizenship.
- Increase the number of longitudinal studies on the aspirations and value orientations of young people.

Pillar 4: enhancing human security

Reduced vulnerability to violence and strong family support help create a secure environment so that young people are able to live long, safe, healthy and creative lives.

Priority area 7: reduce the vulnerability to violence

Priority area 8: strengthen family and community support

Young people are exposed to various situations of risk such as domestic violence, bullying, crime, attempted suicide, human trafficking, and hate crimes. These situations of risk threaten the security of young people in school, at work, in public places, and at home. The vulnerability of youth to violence adversely affects the potential for enhancing human development.

The family plays a crucial role in protecting the young against exposure to violence whether as victims or as perpetrators. It is also the main source of financial support among youth during the transition to adulthood and the period between the completion of formal education and the first stable employment. During this time, young people receive no financial support from the Government and must depend only on parents, older siblings, or others.

However, families do not always furnish support to their children among the youth age cohorts. Moreover, the structure of the family is undergoing rapid changes because

of internal and external migration. The rise in the incidence of single-parent households and in divorce rates may affect the ability of families to provide a secure environment for young people.

Action points

All stakeholders can promote a secure environment among youth. The Government and other actors can adopt the following measures to reduce youth vulnerability to violence:

- Strengthen the legal framework and the implementation of appropriate laws and regulations.
- Ensure universal access to infrastructure services.
- Set up youth development centres and youth clubs in aimag and soum administrative centres to expand the social engagement and productive use of leisure by young people.
- Create incentives to curb the excessive consumption of alcohol.
- Undertake research and the collection of reliable data to foster effective analysis of the issues and better policymaking.
- Introduce a targeted social assistance benefit to support youth from poorer households during the school-to-work transition. The benefit could be available for one year after the completion of formal education and administered as a

direct transfer to the young people or as a tax rebate for families below a certain income threshold.

Communities and civil society should do the following:

- Provide opportunities for increased social engagement by youth.
- Foster greater awareness and promote changes in attitudes.
- Undertake training to build awareness of youth issues, especially among law enforcement agencies.

Families should do the following:

- Provide strong support and an enabling environment for youth by seeking a better understanding of youth issues and aspirations.

Youth can do the following:

- Build awareness through, for example, Facebook groups, become socially engaged, and participate in sports and other activities to develop their capabilities and enhance their security.

The challenges in developing and implementing a national youth policy

Governments are recognizing the importance of dealing with young people's concerns and needs by passing targeted youth legislation and adopting relevant policies. Among 198 countries, 122 have national youth policies, a 50 percent rise since 2013. Mongolia is keen to develop a comprehensive youth development policy. Hopefully, this NHDR will encourage rigorous research and analysis, raise awareness of the issues, focus attention on the challenges facing youth, and foster policy discussions, thereby contributing to the design of the national youth policy. The following are some of the priorities in the drafting and implementation of a national youth policy.

Integration with the national development agenda and planning framework

A youth policy is more likely to be successful if it is well integrated into national policy, planning, budgeting and implementation mechanisms. In Mongolia, youth issues are being addressed through general and sectoral policies. However, youth development issues are not adequately reflected in the national policy and planning framework. Integration with the budget process is also weak.

Youth issues should become more well integrated into Mongolia's SDGs. Work is currently under way to identify the country-specific targets. All SDGs are linked with youth issues, but especially the following SDG goals have the most direct impli-

cations for developing youth capabilities, increasing opportunities, empowering youth and enhancing their security: 3 (ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all ages), 4 (ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all), 5 (achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls), 8 (promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all), and 16 (promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels).

The Government has designed the Sustainable Development Vision–2030 of Mongolia, which was adopted by the State Great Khural in early 2016. Discussions on youth issues during the preparation of the NHDR, along with issues and solutions identified by young people through the global United Nations survey, “The World We Want”, have provided a unique opportunity so the Sustainable Development Vision–2030 of Mongolia reflects the priorities of youth.²²⁴

Coordination on youth policy across line ministries

A youth policy must be well coordinated across line ministries. Youth issues cut across sectors, and most policies that influence the resolution of the issues are implemented by separate line ministries. Thus, the

success of a national youth policy depends upon effective coordination across sectors and line ministries. For this reason and because of the spillover effects and complementarities across various components, the implementation of the youth policy may be more effective if it is administered jointly by the ministries.²²⁵

Spillover effects occur if interventions in one area have an impact in another. For instance, cutting alcohol abuse by young people not only improves the health status of the individuals, but also reduces crime and traffic accidents.

Complementarities come into play, for example, if a reduction in health risks becomes associated with skills training so that young people are able to obtain and retain jobs or if young people who are not vulnerable to domestic violence and come from a supportive family environment are shown to enjoy a greater likelihood of acquiring the skills necessary to find suitable jobs.

At the same time, no single youth policy can cover all aspects of the issues and concerns of such a large group. The Government might therefore consider devising several strategies or secondary policies to address the various subgroups within the large youth classification more effectively.

The need for research and reliable and comparable data on youth issues

The dearth of reliable and comparable data on youth in Mongolia is emphasized throughout this report. An important challenge in acquiring reliable data arises because of the lack of unanimity in the country on the age-classification of youth. It is hoped that this issue will be settled through a national dialogue.

There are also huge gaps in the research on various issues related to youth, especially sociological research. While quantitative data on many issues are available from the NSO, in-depth analytical research is lacking or weak.

Some current topics that may benefit from such research are the changes in family

structure and family relationships as a result of migration; the impact of the growth of social media on the formation of new alliances and communities among youth; youth poverty; the impact on youth of the living conditions in the ger districts, and so on.

Strengthening research and analysis on issues of relevance will greatly advance evidence-based policymaking in favour of youth in Mongolia.

The inclusion of youth

Young people in Mongolia seem to lack voice. They are typically underrepresented in political decision-making. Since 2008, there has been only a single member in the State Great Khural under the age of 35. Indeed, youth are more poorly represented than women: there are 11 woman members among the current State Great Khural total of 76.²²⁶

This means that youth are a weak constituency for reform. Some of the poor representation may have to do with young people's lack of trust in political institutions and their feelings of futility and frustration in political participation. However, the lack of political participation seems to be offset by the active social engagement of youth. While encouraging and welcome, social engagement cannot replace political participation, and young people's disengagement from the political process is a cause for concern.

Young people need to be encouraged to participate more fully in public life. Governmental organizations and other agents need to learn to communicate with youth more effectively, make programmes attractive to them and tap their immense talents as partners in service delivery. By doing this, these actors will be able to harness the ideas, enthusiasm and creativity of youth, while supporting youth in developing their potential freely and thereby make the development process more inclusive.

Policymakers need to include youth in the development process not only on youth policy issues, but also on broader issues influ-

encing the direction of the country. Young people need to be given a stronger voice in setting the development vision and building a better tomorrow together.

This report is about Mongolia's youth. It documents and analyses their challenges, their struggles and their frustrations, but also their hopes, their aspirations and their achievements as they carve out a better future for themselves and shape the future of Mongolia in a rapidly changing world.

Through rigorous analyses and objective use of evidence, this NHDR draws particular conclusions, focuses attention on certain issues and raises pertinent questions. If the issues raised in this report are debated and

addressed by policymakers and others, including, most importantly, young people, this would be the biggest contribution of the report to the development of youth in Mongolia.

The time to focus on youth is now. Tomorrow's youth have already been born. Inclusive and sustainable economic growth, equitable and good-quality education, healthy lifestyles and well-being, sustainable, productive and decent work opportunities, empowerment, and safer and secure conditions for young people are critical to building a better tomorrow.

ANNEXES

NHDRs are prepared through an autonomous, country-led, country-owned process of consultation, research and writing by a team of national experts. The team combines their specialist knowledge on a selected research topic that reflects national development priorities from the perspective of people. In a procedure that strengthens capacities, they analyse the related issues to bring forth new ideas and contribute to more relevant, richer and more well rounded national policies. They engage national partners in identifying inequities and gaps in sharing the advantages of development. The intended audience of NHDRs includes policymakers, civil society, academia, international partners, multilateral and international financial institutions, and the general public, including young people.

The preparation of this NHDR has been supervised by a NHDR steering committee supported by an advisory board and a peer review group. The steering committee and the advisory board have enjoyed broad representation among various stakeholders, including members of the Government, civil society, agencies of the United Nations (UN), research institutions and youth representatives, who have provided guidance and inputs to the report writing team. (A more detailed description of the preparation process and the related institutional structure is supplied below.)

Informal consultations among stakeholders took place throughout the drafting process. Two formal consultations were also organized: an inception workshop at the start, in September 2013, and a consultation in October–November 2014 to discuss the first draft of the report. During the preparation of background papers and with the support of the UN Youth Advisory Panel, a series of online consultations were conducted in April–July 2014. Moderated e-discussions enabled a broad cross-section of stakeholders to exchange opinions. Because of the familiarity of young people with social media and e-forums, virtual consultations

helped build a platform for advocacy and the continued engagement of youth in the NHDR. A peer review group composed of national experts reviewed the background papers and the initial drafts of the report and supplied valuable, detailed comments that helped improve quality.

The institutional structure

The key principles of an NHDR are national leadership of the process, extensive participation and consultation among key stakeholders, and national ownership of the product.

In light of the recent Human Development Report Office guidelines and the experience of UNDP-Mongolia in the preparation of five NHDRs, the following structures have been established to prepare the NHDR in a time-bound manner, while ensuring the smooth functioning of the process.

The NHDR steering committee: A five-member NHDR steering committee supplied strategic guidance and oversight during NHDR preparation, including handling sensitive issues. The steering committee was chaired jointly by the state secretary of the Ministry of Population Development and Social Protection and the deputy resident representative of UNDP. Other members included the vice chairman of the National Statistical Office of Mongolia (NSO), the state secretary of the Ministry of Economic Development and the president of the Mongolian Youth Federation.

The NHDR advisory board: An advisory board, composed of prominent national experts, was responsible for assessing the quality of the analysis, data reliability and accuracy, and the soundness of the report recommendations. All key stakeholder groups were represented on the board.

Peer review group: The NHDR advisory board set up a smaller peer review group, with five members, whose main responsibility was regularly to review the background papers, background notes and the draft ver-

sions of the NHDR, offer substantive comments and technical guidance to the report writing team, and, once satisfied with the overall content of the NHDR, make recommendations to the steering committee on the publication and launch. Likewise, international experts from the UNDP Human Development Report Office, the UNDP Regional Bureau for Asia and the Pacific, the UNDP Bangkok Regional Hub, and the International Centre for Human Development, in India, provided comments from their perspective of special knowledge of youth-related issues and human development.

Report writing team: The NHDR was prepared by a report writing team, consisting of the report authors and the authors of the background papers. The team was assisted by an expert in statistics who was responsible for organizing the data and preparing

the human development indices in collaboration with the NSO. A number of other background papers and shorter background notes on specific topics and themes were prepared by local experts to support the report writing team.

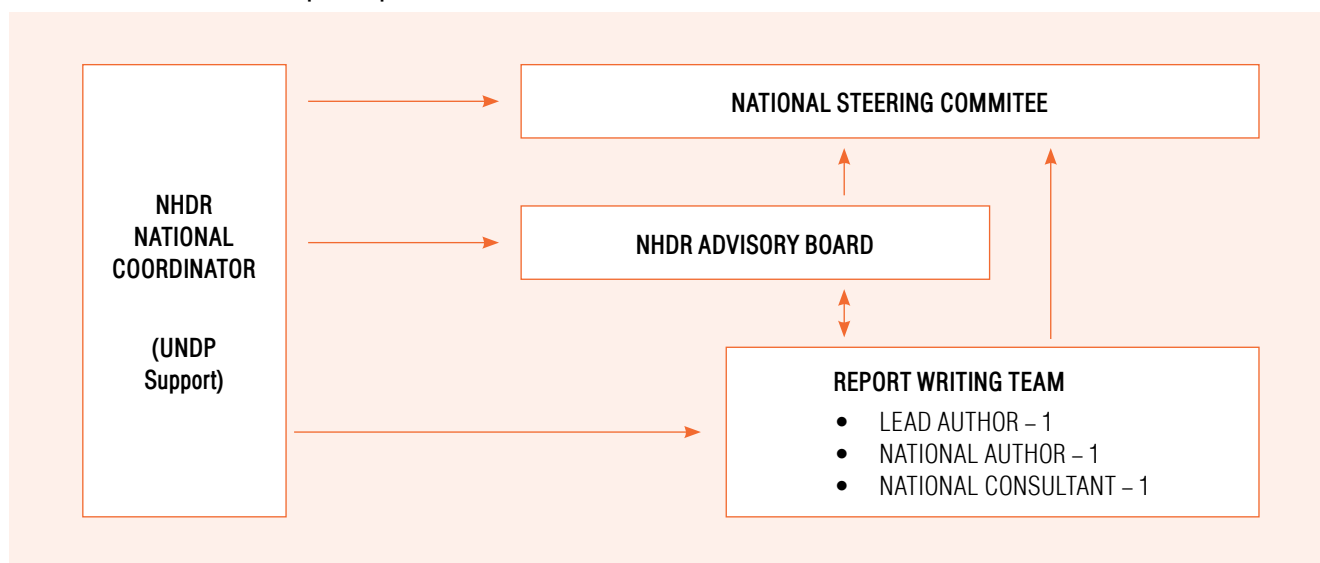
UNDP support: UNDP support in the preparation of the NHDR was channeled through the Strengthening the Government Capacity of National Development Policy and Planning Project.

A national coordinator, appointed separately, coordinated the preparation of the NHDR. She worked closely with UNDP's national programme officer and under the overall guidance of the national project director.

The institutional structure of the preparation process is depicted in figure I.1.

Figure I.1

Institutional Structure of the Report Preparation Process



The preparation process

The preparation of the sixth NHDR started in August 2013 with the first meeting of the NHDR steering committee. The steering committee established the advisory board at that time. The draft analytical framework was shared and endorsed at the first meeting of the advisory board, in October 2013.

UNDP facilitated the report preparation process with a small team of national and international experts. The NHDR coordinator joined in December 2013. Background research and the preparation of the background papers began in March 2014 with the recruitment of several high-level experts to write papers on selected themes of interest.

Consultations

Public debate and advocacy are central features of the preparation of an NHDR and also of awareness-building following publication. To exert an impact on national policy and overall discussions on issues relating to youth, the consultative process aimed to maximize stakeholder engagement and ensure inclusive preparation, promote advocacy of the NHDR and help build a strong constituency for human development.

Inception workshop

The national inception workshop was organized to discuss the draft structure of the report. Participants included policymakers, governmental officials, researchers, academicians, and representatives of civil society organizations, the media, the private sector, and UN agencies. The inception workshop had the following goals:

- Create broad awareness of the relevance of human development
- Draw attention to the challenges facing youth
- Promote broad awareness of the global Human Development Report and NHDRs, share Mongolia's experience in preparing NHDRs and discuss how an NHDR on youth could contribute to well-informed policymaking

- Share the draft report structure and the outline of the report, obtain stakeholder perspectives and experiences relating to the theme, define the subthemes to be covered and identify the broad contours and the scope of the analysis of specific issues
- Share the plans and time-lines associated with the preparation process
- Initiate discussion on the identification of key messages and promote buy-in and capacity-building among stakeholders

Virtual network consultations

A series of tightly moderated time-bound e-discussions were organized on the theme and subthemes of the NHDR. This enabled a broad cross-section of stakeholders to exchange knowledge, raise and debate issues on youth and human development in Mongolia and engage in a lively, diverse and rich debate of relevance to the report. Because of the familiarity of young people with social media and e-forums, the virtual consultations helped deepen advocacy for the NHDRs among youth.

National consultation on the first draft

Once ready, the first draft of the NHDR was translated and shared with a wide audience to elicit comments and feedback to help refine the content and sharpen the messages.

Mongolia's first NHDR (Human Development Report, Mongolia, 1997) introduced the concept of human development and included the calculation of the national human development index (HDI).

The second report (Human Development Report, Mongolia, 2000: Reorienting the State) focused on institutions and governance. Some of the challenges identified in the report are still being confronted. The report opened a broad debate on the importance of good governance during the transition to a market-oriented economy.

The third report (Urban-Rural Disparities in Mongolia, 2003) focused on disparities across population segments and the possibility of promoting human development across all communities. For the first time, the gross domestic product (GDP) and an HDI were calculated for each aimag (province). The ranking of aimags according to the HDIs significantly influenced the thinking and attitudes of aimag governors. The report initiated an extensive debate on inequality and regional development issues. As a follow-up to the recommendations of the report, a human development textbook was published, and human development programme curricula were introduced at the National University of Mongolia.

The fourth report (Employment and Poverty in Mongolia, 2007) helped introduce improvements in the data collection on employment and poverty and in the identification of relevant policies. The first poverty mapping and Millennium Development Goal mapping were undertaken by the NSO, thus making poverty data available on the lowest administrative levels. The methodology used in the collection of

labour statistics was reviewed and refined. An analysis of the time use survey was carried out. Partly as a result of the NHDR, the Law on Employment Promotion was amended in 2008. The amendment focused on creating an appropriate framework for employment promotion, additional services to target groups confronted by difficulties in finding jobs, structural changes in the decentralization of employment promotion services and the improvement of integrated information systems on labour registration and employment. The Law on Employment Promotion went into effect on 1 October 2011.

The fifth report (From Vulnerability to Sustainability: Environment and Human Development, 2011) focused on environmental challenges and human development. It contained several important innovations, including wide-ranging research contributions, the extensive participation of aimag governors and population groups in surveys on human development issues, the introduction of the multidimensional environmental vulnerability indicator and an attempt to estimate the carbon dioxide footprint of Ulaanbaatar. Various impacts of the report are being observed by the newly established Ministry of Environment and Green Development. Mongolia hosted an international meeting among environment ministers, and the multidimensional environmental vulnerability indicator is being used by officials in the sector nationwide. The indicator was calculated in the Provincial Competitiveness Report 2014 produced by the Research Centre for Economic Policy and Competitiveness (EPCRC, 2015).

The 2015 Report retains all the composite indices from the family of human development indices: the HDI, the IHDI, the GDI, the GII and the MPI. The methodology used to compute these indices is the same as the methodology used in Human Development Report 2015 (see UNDP, 2015a, 2015b).

Human development index (HDI)

The HDI is a summary measure for assessing long-term progress in three basic dimensions of human development: a long and healthy life, access to knowledge and a decent standard of living. A long and healthy life is measured by life expectancy. The knowledge level is measured by mean years of education among the adult population, which is the average number of years of education received in a life time by people aged 25 years and older, and by access to learning and knowledge by expected years of schooling among children of school-entry age, which is the total number of years of schooling a child of school-entry age can expect to receive if prevailing patterns of age-specific enrolment rates stay the same throughout the child's life. Standard of living is measured by the GNI per capita expressed in constant 2011 international purchasing power parity US dollars.

To ensure as much cross-country comparability as possible, the HDI is based primarily on international data from the United Nations Population Division (the life expectancy data), the Institute for Statistics of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (the mean years of schooling and expected years of schooling data) and the World Bank (the GNI per capita data). As stated in the introduction, the HDI values and ranks in this year's report are not comparable with those in past reports (including the 2014 HDR) because of a number of revisions to the component indicators. To allow for the assessment of the progress in the HDIs, Human Development Report 2015 (UNDP, 2015a) includes recalculated HDIs from 1990 to 2014 using consistent data series.

Inequality-adjusted human development index (IHDI)

The HDI is an average measure of basic human development achievements in a country. Like all averages, the HDI masks inequality in the distribution of human development across the population at the country level. Human Development Report 2010 (UNDP, 2010) introduced the IHDI, which takes into account inequality in all three dimensions of the HDI by discounting each dimension's average value according to the level of inequality. The IHDI is thus the HDI discounted for inequalities. The loss in human development because of inequality is the difference between the HDI and the IHDI and may be expressed as a percentage. As the inequality in a country increases, the loss in human development also increases. We also present the coefficient of human inequality – an unweighted average of inequalities in three dimensions – as a direct measure of inequality.

The IHDI is based on a distribution-sensitive class of composite indices proposed by Foster, López-Calva and Székely (2005), which draws on the Atkinson (1970) family of inequality measures.

Gender development index (GDI)

In Human Development Report 2014 (UNDP, 2014c), the UNDP Human Development Report Office introduced a new measure, the GDI. The GDI is based on the sex-disaggregated HDI, defined as the ratio of the HDI for women to the HDI for men. The GDI measures gender inequalities in achievement in three basic dimensions of human development: health (measured by female and male life expectancy at birth), educational attainment (measured by female and male expected years of schooling among children and mean years of schooling among adults aged 25 years and older), and command over economic resources (measured by the estimated per capita GNI among women and among men). Country groups are based on the absolute deviation from gender parity in the HDI. This means

that the grouping takes into consideration inequality in favour of men or inequality in favour of women equally.

Gender inequality index (GII)

The GII reflects gender-based disadvantage in three dimensions – reproductive health, empowerment and the labour market – for as many countries as data of reasonable quality allow. It shows the loss in potential human development because of inequality between the achievements of women and men in these dimensions. It ranges between 0, if women and men fare equally, and 1, if one gender fares as poorly as possible in all the dimensions measured.

The GII is computed using the association-sensitive inequality measure suggested by Seth (2009), which implies that the index is based on the general mean of general means of different orders. The first aggregation is by a geometric mean across dimensions; these means, calculated separately for women and men, are then aggregated using a harmonic mean across genders.

Multidimensional poverty index (MPI)

Human Development Report 2010 (UNDP, 2010) introduced the MPI, which identifies multiple deprivations in the same households in education, health and living standards. The education and health dimensions are each based on two indicators, while the standard of living dimension is based on six indicators. All the indicators needed to construct the MPI for a household are taken from the same household survey. The indicators are weighted to create a deprivation score, and the deprivation scores are computed for each household in the survey. A deprivation score of 33.3 percent (one third of the weighted indicators) is used to distinguish between the poor and the non-poor. If the household deprivation score is 33.3 percent or greater, the household (and all household members) is classified as multidimensionally poor. Households with a deprivation score greater than or equal to 20 percent, but less than 33.3 percent are near multidimensional poverty. Households with a deprivation score greater than or equal to 50 percent live in severe multidimensional poverty.

Annex IV Changes in the methodology for estimating the HDI

Poor performance in any dimension of human development is now directly reflected in the HDI, and there is no longer perfect substitutability across dimensions. A key change has been the shift to a geometric mean that measures the typical value of a set of numbers. Thus, since 2010, the HDI has been the geometric mean of the three dimensional indices. This method reveals whether a country's performance is well rounded across the three dimensions. As a basis for comparisons in achievement, this method is also more responsive to intrinsic differences in the dimensions relative to a simple average. It recognizes that health, education and income are all important, but also that it is difficult to compare these

various dimensions of well-being and that we should be attentive to changes in any of them.

Additionally, the maximum values in each dimension have been shifted to the observed maximum rather than a predefined cut-off beyond which achievements are ignored. However, there is no change in the practice of using the log of income. Incomes are instrumental in human development, but the contribution of incomes to human development declines as incomes increase.

Table IV.1 offers information about trends in the indices of human development in Mongolia.

Table IV.1

National Human Development Indices: Reference Period and Explanatory Notes

Index	Reference period	Note
Human development index (HDI), inequality-adjusted human development index (IHDI)	2010–2013	New methodologies developed to estimate HDIs were approved by the chairman's order of 2 July 2014. These methodologies were developed on the basis of "Technical Notes" in Human Development Report 2013 (UNDP, 2013a) and the methodology of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization for estimating mean years of schooling. The new methodologies developed by the National Statistics Office of Mongolia were applied to estimate the HDI and IHDI for aimags.
Gender inequality index (GII)	2002–2013	The methodology used to estimate the GII is in the package of methodologies approved by the national steering committee on 2 July 2014.
Multidimensional poverty index (MPI)	2010, 2013	The Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative estimated MPIs in 2005 using raw 2005 datasets of the Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS). The NHDR team estimated the MPI for 2013 was based on a raw dataset of the Social Indicator Sample Survey (SISS) 2013.

Source: UNDP, 2010.

Annex V Indicators used in the estimation of the MPI in Mongolia

Table V.1 shows the indicators that have been used to calculate the MPI in Mongolia.

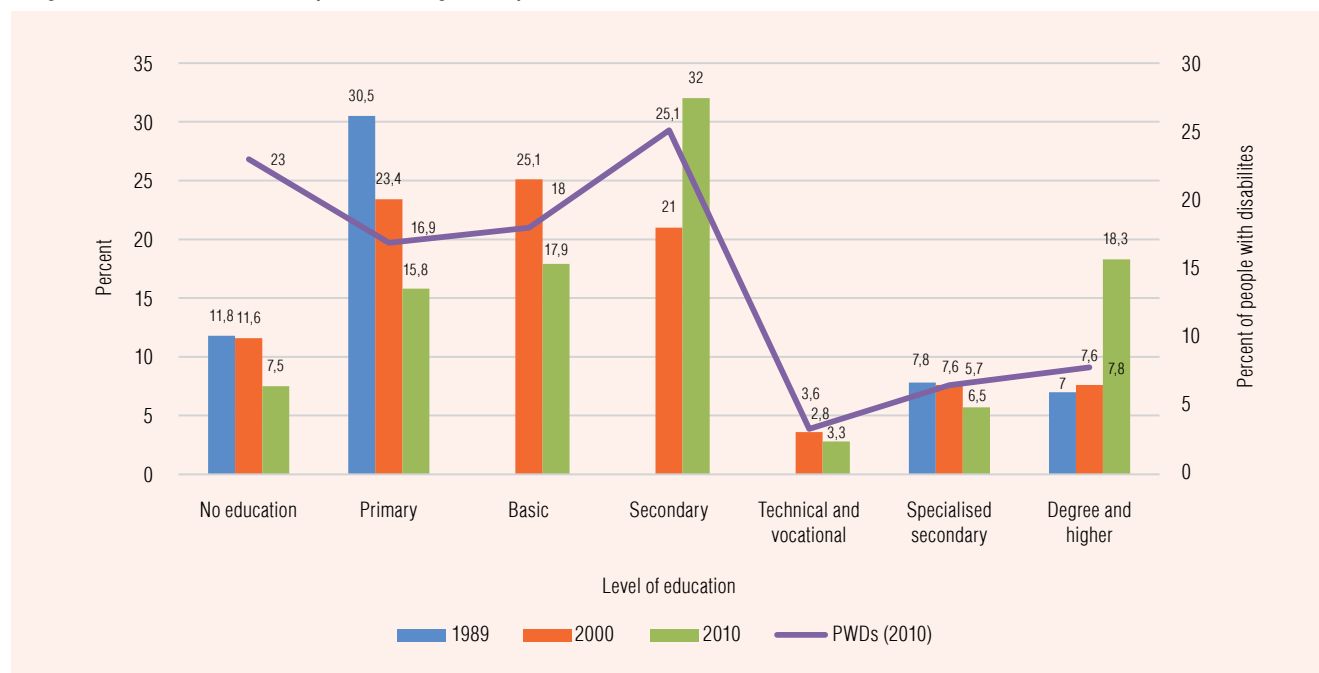
Table V.1

Indicators Used to Construct the MPI, Mongolia

Education	Health	Standard of living
1. Years of schooling	3. Nutrition	5. No electricity: the household is deprived if it does not have an electricity connection
2. School attendance	4. Under-5 mortality	6. No access to clean drinking water <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dug well either protected or unprotected • Spring either protected or unprotected • Rain-water, snow water • Cart with a small tank or drum • Surface water (river, stream, lake, or pond) • Other
		7. No access to adequate sanitation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A flush system to a pit latrine • A flush system to an unknown destination • Pit latrine: ventilated improved pit latrine, pit latrine with a slab, pit latrine without a slab, open pit • Mobile latrine • Open defecation • Other
		8. The household uses dirty cooking fuel <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coal (stone coal, lignite, wood coal) • Charcoal • Straw, shrubs, grass • Tyres, rubber • Other
		9. The household has a dirty floor <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Earth, sand, or soil floor: if the household resides in a ger (a Mongolian yurt, or traditional tent dwelling) • Dung floor: if the household resides in a ger • Other
		10. The household uses dirty heating fuel: if the household uses boiler, stove, or other types of heating and mainly uses the following fuel for heating <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coal (stone coal, lignite, wood coal) • Charcoal • Straw, shrubs, grass • Tyres, rubber • Other
		11. Assets: if the household does not have a television, radio, refrigerator, washing machine, mobile phone, motorcycle, car, truck, agricultural land, livestock, or farm animals, it is considered deprived

Figure VI.1

Highest Level of Education Completed, 10+ Age-Group



Note: PwDs = persons with disabilities.

Source: Compiled based on data in NSO, 2001, 2011a.

Table VI.1

Performance in Education, Global Human Capital Index, Mongolia

Pillar 1: education	Rank (among 122 countries)	Value	Sample values, minimum–maximum
ACCESS			
Primary enrolment rate, %	31	99	58–100
Secondary enrolment rate, %	58	76	16–100
Tertiary enrolment ratio, %	38	57	1–103
Education gender gap	45	0.994	0.645–1.000
QUALITY			
Internet access in schools	72	3.92	1.64–6.64
Education system	115	2.57	1.99–5.98
Primary schools	75	3.51	1.97–6.82
Mathematics and science education	60	4.13	1.88–6.29
Management schools	116	2.86	2.29–6.09
ATTAINMENT			
Primary educational attainment	n.a.	n.a.	5–100
Secondary educational attainment	n.a.	n.a.	2–100
Tertiary educational attainment	n.a.	n.a.	0–44
Overall rank in the education pillar	76	n.a.	n.a.

Note: Mongolia does not have any scores on international assessments such as the Programme for International Student Assessment. n.a. = not applicable.

Source: WEF, 2013.

Annex VII The performance in health

Table VII.1

Leading Causes of Mortality among Youth, by Age Cohort, 2010 and 2012

mortality rate per 10,000 individuals

Cause of death	15–19		20–24		25–29		30–34	
	2010	2012	2010	2012	2010	2012	2010	2012
Accident, injuries, poisoning	4.70	4.88	7.85	9.28	9.64	10.52	13.89	14.32
Cardiovascular diseases	0.36	0.65	1.12	0.82	1.77	1.36	3.95	4.05
Digestive system diseases	0.22	0.12	0.72	0.34	1.20	1.10	2.44	2.71
Cancer	0.51	0.85	0.85	1.22	0.73	0.81	1.72	2.13
Infectious diseases	0.47	0.16	1.08	0.78	1.58	1.10	1.67	1.29

Table VII.2

Risk Exposure: Survey Responses, 16– to 17–Year–Old Students, Mongolia

percent of responses

Topic	Total	Boys	Girls
Dietary behaviour			
Students who are overweight*	7.4	6.3	8.3
Students who are obese**	0.6	0.8	0.4
Students who usually drank carbonated soft drinks one or more times per day during the past 30 days	34.4	40.7	28.9
Physical activity			
Students who are physically active for a total of at least 60 minutes per day on five or more days during the past seven days	34.0	40.8	28.2
Students who spend three or more hours per day during a typical or usual day doing sitting activities	54.6	51.2	57.8
Tobacco use			
Among students who ever smoked cigarettes, percentage who first tried a cigarette before age 14 years	41.1	46.7	29.9
Students who smoked cigarettes on one or more days during the past 30 days	17.5	26.9	9.7
Students who reported people smoked in their presence on one or more days during the past seven days	64.2	68.3	60.8
Alcohol use			
Among students who ever had a drink of alcohol (other than a few sips), the percentage who had their first drink of alcohol before age 14 years	20.5	23.7	16.4
Students who drank at least one drink containing alcohol on one or more of the past 30 days	17.6	23.2	13.0
Students who drank so much alcohol that they were drunk one or more times during their lives	23.1	32.6	15.1
Mental health			
Students who ever seriously considered attempting suicide during the past 12 months	26.1	19.1	32.1
Students who attempted suicide one or more times during the past 12 months	10.7	9.2	11.6
Students who had no close friends	4.8	4.5	4.9
Sexual behaviour			
Students who ever had sexual intercourse	25.9	39.3	14.3
Among students who ever had sexual intercourse, the percentage who had sexual intercourse for the first time before age 14 years	14.5	14.9	—
Among students who ever had sexual intercourse, the percentage who used a condom the last time they had sexual intercourse	58.6	62.2	—

Note: — = few responses; hence, not recorded.

* >+1 standard deviation from the median body mass index by age and sex.

** >+2 standard deviations from the median body mass index by age and sex.

Source: WHO and NCPH, 2013.

Annex VIII Youth unemployment, by location, education and sex

Table VIII.1

Unemployed, by Residence, 2009–2013

number

Location	Age-group	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Nationwide	15–34	76,099	67,351	50,819	52,963	54,312
	35+	55,518	46,085	36,201	41,741	40,420
	Total	131,617	113,436	87,030	94,705	94,732
Ulaanbaatar	15–34	29,074	21,036	14,075	15,613	12,078
	35+	25,115	13,229	7,330	12,416	8,483
	Total	54,189	34,265	21,405	28,029	20,561
Rural areas	15–34	47,024	46,315	36,754	37,351	42,234
	35+	30,403	32,857	28,871	29,325	31,937
	Total	77,428	79,171	65,625	66,676	74,171

Source: Data of the 2009–2013 Labour Force Surveys, Census and Survey Catalogue (database), National Statistical Office of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, <http://web.nso.mn/nada/index.php/catalog/LFS>.

Table VIII.2

Unemployment Rates, 15–34 Age-Group, by Education and Sex, 2011–2013

percent

Sex	No education	Primary	Basic	Secondary	TVET	Higher	Total
2011							
Total	9.8	7.7	9.2	11.3	13.5	11.1	10.7
Men	7.4	7.9	9.0	10.6	12.1	8.7	9.7
Women	14.7	7.4	9.5	12.2	16.4	13.0	12.0
2012							
Total	10.1	6.3	8.5	13.3	17.7	9.3	10.3
Men	8.7	6.5	9.9	12.7	13.5	9.4	10.2
Women	12.6	6.0	6.6	14.1	24.8	9.2	10.4
2013							
Total	9.1	7.6	9.8	12.4	17.4	10.3	10.8
Men	10.4	7.9	10.6	12.6	19.9	8.7	11.0
Women	6.5	7.2	8.8	12.0	13.1	11.6	10.5

Source: Data of the 2009–2013 Labour Force Surveys, Census and Survey Catalogue (database), National Statistical Office of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, <http://web.nso.mn/nada/index.php/catalog/LFS>.

Annex IX Important milestones in a young person's life in Mongolia

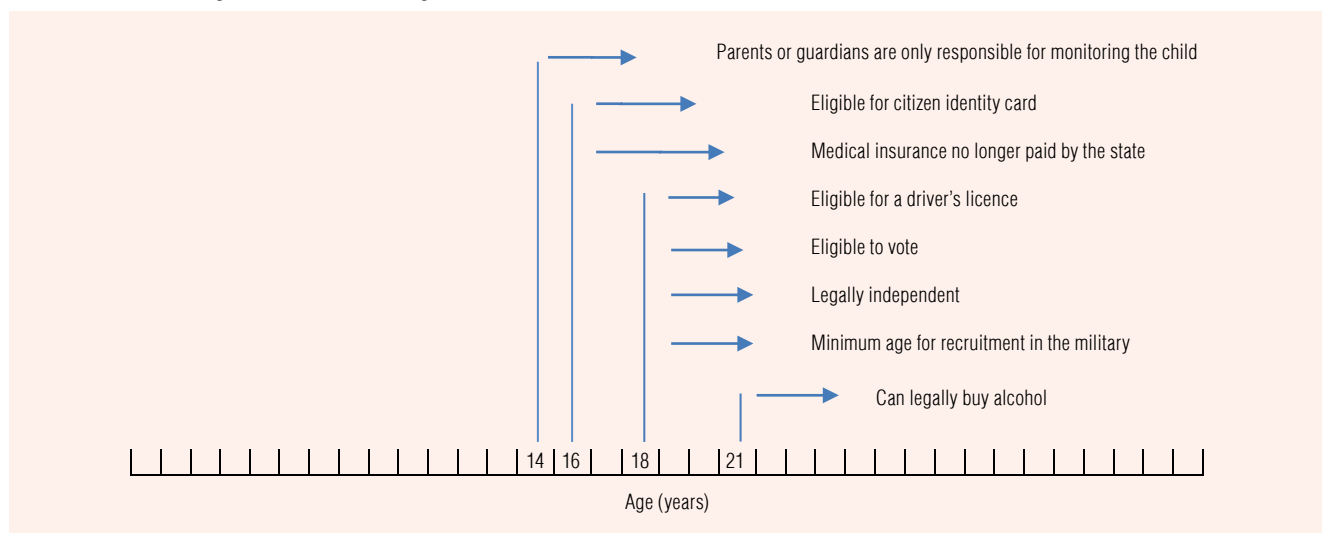
According to the Law on Families, once a child reaches the age of 14, the parents or guardians are only responsible for monitoring and supporting the child, whereas a child under the age of 14 has the right to receive care. The Law on the Registration of Citizens enables young people to obtain citizen identity cards at the age of 16. The Constitution allows young people to vote beginning at the age of 18, while the Citizenship Law provides that all people over

18 are legally independent and responsible for their actions. Youth 16–18 years of age can achieve a similar status upon their request and with the permission of their parents or guardians. According to the Medical Insurance Law, people over age 16 must pay for their own health insurance.

These milestones are depicted in figure IX.1.

Figure IX.1

Milestones in a Young Person's Life in Mongolia



Annex X Population profile of Mongolia

Table X.1

Population Profile, Mongolia, 2000–2015

Indicators	2000	2005	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Resident population as of the end of year (thous. persons)	2407.5	2562.4	2653.9	2704.5	2760.6	2823.1	2937.9	2990.2
Male population	1192.4	1271.2	1317.1	1314.8	1343.5	1375.9	1438.0	1474.9
Female population	1215.1	1291.2	1336.8	1389.7	1417.1	1447.2	1499.9	1515.3
Annual population growth rate (%)	1.4	1.2	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.1
Urban population (%)	57.2	60.2	68.0	66.2	65.9	66.9	66.4	68.0
Population under 15 years age (%)	33.8	32.6	28.0	27.2	27.7	28.0	33.7	30.1
Population 15–24 years age (%)	21.9	22.3	20.8	20.2	19.3	18.5	17.4	16.5
Population 25–34 years age (%)	17.0	17.2	17.8	18.2	18.2	18.3	18.8	18.4
Population 15–64 years age (%)	62.7	63.8	68.1	68.8	68.4	68.0	68.0	66.1
Population 65 years age and older (%)	3.5	3.5	3.8	4.0	4.0	3.9	4.0	3.8
Infant mortality rate (per 1000 live births)	32.8	20.7	20.2	16.5	15.5	14.6	15.1	15.0
Working age population 15–34 years age (%)	38.9	39.5	38.5	38.4	37.5	36.8	36.2	34.9
Economically active population (thous. persons)	847.6	1001.2	1147.1	1124.7	1151.1	1198.3	1206.6	1243.9
Employed population (thous. persons)	809.0	968.3	1033.7	1037.7	1056.4	1103.6	1110.7	1151.2
Unemployment rate (%)	–	–	9.9	7.7	8.2	7.9	7.9	7.5

Source: NSO, various years, Mongolian Statistical Yearbook and Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, Ulaanbaatar.

Annex XI Mapping youth and violence

Table XI.1

Mapping Youth Vulnerability to Violence and Stakeholder Responses to Violence

Type of violence	Situations of risk	Main contributory factors					Vulnerable youth ^a					
		Structural		Individual			Age	Sex				
		Inequality of opportunity	Poverty and unemployment	Poor living conditions	Weaknesses in the legal framework	Attitudes: violence is normal	Family influences	Low awareness	Alcohol abuse	Personality disorders		
Self-directed violence	Suicides, attempted suicides		√						√		16–17/ 25–29	M/F
	Domestic violence		√		√	√	√				15–34	F
Interpersonal violence	Bullying				√	√	√				13–17	M
	Homicides, other violent crimes	√	√	√							18–30	M/F
Collective violence	Human trafficking				√			√			18–26	F
	Hate crimes				√			√			15–34	LGBT
Who should do what?												
Stakeholders	Government	Access to good-quality education and health care	Employment opportunities	Improved infrastructure and universal access to services	Policy to combat school violence; strengthen legislation on domestic violence, human trafficking and hate crimes				Stricter implementation of laws; reduce incentives to purchase alcohol	Psycho-counselling; access to mental health care		
	Community, civil society					Attitude change			Increase awareness			
	Family					Attitude change	Strong family support			Family support		
	Individual							Use social media responsibly to increase awareness				

a. Information on vulnerable youth is based on the analysis in the main text.

Notes

Executive Summary

- 1 UNFPA, 2014a.
- 2 World Bank, 2015.
- 3 The quotation and other information in this paragraph are taken from “Overview”, World Bank, Washington, DC, <http://www.worldbank.org/en/country/mongolia/overview> (accessed 16 November 2015).
- 4 Sen, 1999, p. 291.
- 5 NCCD, 2015.
- 6 UNDP, 2015a, p. 3.
- 7 WHO and NCPH, 2013.
- 8 NHRCM and CHRD, 2002.
- 9 NHRCM, 2012.

Chapter 1

- 10 UNDP, 2015a.
- 11 Sezin Sinanoglu, United Nations (UN) resident coordinator and UNDP resident representative in Mongolia, speaking at the National University of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, 23 November 2011.
- 12 Sen, 1999, p. 291.
- 13 Khurelbaatar, 2015.
- 14 GNI per capita, Atlas method (current US dollars). See “Country and Lending Groups”, World Bank, Washington, DC, July 2015, <http://data.worldbank.org/about/country-and-lending-groups>.
- 15 World Bank, 2015, p. 2.
- 16 “Poverty Headcount Ratio at National Poverty Lines (% of population)”, World Bank, Washington, DC, <http://data.worldbank.org/country/mongolia> (accessed 10 March 2015).
- 17 UNDESA, n.d.
- 18 The definition of the age of youth was agreed by the General Assembly in 1981. In some analyses, youth are divided into teenagers or adolescents (15– to 19–year-olds) and young adults (20– to 24–year-olds). When the General Assembly, by a 1995 resolution, adopted the World Programme of Action for Youth to the Year 2000 and Beyond, it reiterated that the UN defined youth as the 15–24 age cohort. General Assembly resolutions issued in 2001 and 2008 and a 2007 resolution of the UN Commission for Social Development reinforced the use of the same age-group for youth. See UN, 1995.
- 19 A survey of the Institute of Philosophy, Sociology and Law, Mongolian Academy of Scienc-

- es, suggested that youth should be defined at between 15 and 34 years of age, broken down into adolescents (15–17), young adults (18–25) and older young adults (26–34); see IPSL, 2014.
- 20 UNFPA, 2014b.
- 21 Bloom, Canning, and Sevilla, 2003, p. xii.
- 22 MPDSP, 2013.
- 23 See Gardner, 2014; UNDP and USAID, 2014.
- 24 Youth Policy Press, 2014.
- 25 MPDSP, 2013.

Chapter 2

- 26 Access to knowledge was previously measured by the adult literacy indicator, but the focus had to be changed to distinguish among countries after almost all countries began reaching nearly universal literacy. The children of school-entry age indicator is measured by the total number of years of schooling a child of school-entry age can expect to receive if prevailing patterns of age-specific enrolment rates remain constant throughout the children's lives. Mean years of schooling among the adult population is measured according to the average number of years of education received in a lifetime by people aged 25 years or older.
- 27 Expressed in constant 2011 international purchasing power parity US dollars.
- 28 UNDP, 1990, p. 13.
- 29 UNDP, 2015a.
- 30 UNCTAD, 2014.
- 31 NSO, 2015a. Estimates based on the supply-use table, 2011–2013.
- 32 NSO, 2014a.
- 33 UNDP, 2012a.
- 34 UNDP, 2015a.
- 35 UNDP, 2013b.
- 36 CHD, 2014.
- 37 UNDP, 2010.
- 38 UNDP, 2013a.
- 39 Opening remarks by Beate Trankmann, UN resident coordinator and UNDP resident representative, at the launch of Human Development Report 2015 (UNDP, 2015a) in Mongolia on 15 December 2015.
- 40 Sen, 1999, p. 291.
- 41 UNDP, 2014c.
- 42 UNDP, 2014d.
- 43 The SISS, undertaken for the first time in 2013,

is a comprehensive survey that replaced the Reproductive Health Survey and the Demographic and Health Survey. See NSO, 2014b.

- 44 The education and health dimensions in the MPI are each based on two indicators, while the standard of living dimension is based on seven indicators. See annex V.
- 45 UNDP, 2013a.

Chapter 3

- 46 Eckersley, 2008.
- 47 Braun and Brown, 2014.
- 48 ADB, 2008a.
- 49 Engel and Prizzon, 2014.
- 50 MECS 2013, 2015.
- 51 NSO, 2011a.
- 52 NSO, 2011a.
- 53 NSO, 2011a.
- 54 Lower-secondary school ended at grade 7 until 1963; at grade 8 in 1964–2004, and, beginning in 2005, at grade 9.
- 55 World Data on Education (database), 7th edition, 2010/2011, International Bureau of Education, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, Geneva, <http://www.ibe.unesco.org/en/services/online-materials/world-data-on-education.html>, accessed 22 December 2015.
- 56 UNESCO and UNICEF, forthcoming.
- 57 UNESCO and UNICEF, forthcoming.
- 58 UNESCO and UNICEF, forthcoming.
- 59 UNICEF and MECS, 2012.
- 60 There are 103 non-standard buildings in aimag and soum schools, but only 38 in Ulaanbaatar. Non-standard buildings are those that need urgent repair and refurbishment. There are 4,897 outside latrines in rural schools, but only 101 in Ulaanbaatar. See MECS, 2014.
- 61 Interviews with students in Uvurkhangai Aimag.
- 62 MYF, 2012.
- 63 The study is a local adaptation of two international tests among students, the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study and the Civic Education Study.
- 64 World Data on Education (database), 7th edition, 2010/2011, International Bureau of Education, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, Geneva, <http://www.ibe.unesco.org/en/services/online-materials/world-data-on-education.html>, accessed 22 December 2015.

- 65 WEF, 2013.
- 66 NSO, 2014a.
- 67 Pastore, 2008.
- 68 NSO, 2015a.
- 69 NSO, 2014a.
- 70 NHRCM, 2013.
- 71 The Government provides a stipend of ₮70,200 a month to help students cover the cost of education in private higher-education establishments, but also in private TVET schools (see chapter 6, table 6.5).
- 72 Government resolution No. 15, 20 January 2010.
- 73 World Bank, 2010.
- 74 World Bank, 2010.
- 75 MYF, 2012.
- 76 Parrott and Jamiyansuren, 2014.
- 77 MECS 2011; UNICEF and MECS, 2012.
- 78 Data of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science.
- 79 Gankhuyag and Banzragch, 2014.
- 80 ADB, 2008b.
- 81 CHD, 2012.
- 82 Mortality Database, Centre for Health Development, Ministry of Health, Ulaanbaatar.
- 83 CHD, 2014.
- 84 Baldwin and Amato, 2012.
- 85 World Bank, 2011.
- 86 See WHO, 2010a, 2013a; WHO and NCPH, 2010, 2013.
- 87 See Demaio et al., 2011.
- 88 WHO, 2010a.
- 89 Demaio et al., 2011.
- 90 WHO, 2013a.
- 91 WHO and NCPH, 2013.
- 92 WHO and MOH, 2011.
- 93 WHO, 2013a.
- 94 WHO, 2013b.
- 95 Demaio et al., 2014.
- 96 Eriksen, Mackay, and Ross, 2012.
- 97 WHO, 2013a.
- 98 Information gathered through the online youth consultation on health organized by UNDP and the United Nations Youth Advisory Panel, Mongolia, in May 2014.
- 99 See WHO, 2010a, 2013a.
- 100 Pure alcohol consumption is the volume of alcohol consumed through low-alcohol-content beverages such as beer and high-alcohol-content beverages such as vodka.
- 101 CHD, 2012, 2014; WHO and MOH, 2011.
- 102 Information derived from the baseline survey associated with the Youth Development Project (2013–2016) of the Independent Research Institute of Mongolia and the United Nations Population Fund that was conducted in 2014.
- 103 Jazag, Puntsagdulam, and Chinburen, 2012.
- 104 Demaio et al., 2013.
- 105 Demaio et al., 2013.
- 106 Mortality Database, Centre for Health Development, Ministry of Health, Ulaanbaatar.
- 107 Mortality Database, Centre for Health Development, Ministry of Health, Ulaanbaatar.
- 108 Demaio et al., 2013.
- 109 UNFPA, 2014a.
- 110 An unmet need in family planning is defined as the share of married women or women in sexual unions who want to avoid or postpone pregnancy, but who do not use any form of contraception (see NSO, 2014b).
- 111 NCCD, 2014.
- 112 NSO, 2014b.
- 113 Project data from 2010 gathered through the Asian Development Bank project, Access to Health Services for Disadvantaged Groups in Ulaanbaatar, implemented by the Ministry of Health and MonConsult, a private Mongolian consulting firm.
- 114 UNFPA, 2011.
- 115 WHO and PHIM, 2007.
- 116 Demaio et al., 2014; WHO, 2010a.
- 117 Asia Pacific Observatory on Health Systems and Policies, 2013.
- 118 CHD, 2012.
- 119 MOH, 2013.
- 120 See “Mongolia, Household Socio-Economic Survey, 2011”, Census and Survey Catalogue (database), National Statistical Office of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, <http://web.nso.mn/nada/index.php/catalog/88/study-description>.
- 121 Asia Pacific Observatory on Health Systems and Policies, 2013.
- 122 This section is based on data of the 2009–2013 Labour Force Surveys, the 2000 and 2010 Population and Housing Census of Mongolia, and the International Labour Organization’s analysis of the transition from school to work in Mongolia and its review of youth employment policies in Mongolia in 2015. These are complemented by interviews and discussions with a large number of youth. See ILO, 2014, 2015; NSO, 2001, 2011a; Pastore, 2008; “Labour Force Survey”, Census and Survey Catalogue (database), National Statistical Office of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, <http://web.nso.mn/nada/index.php/catalog/LFS>.
- 123 Pastore, 2008.
- 124 NSO, 2011a.
- 125 2012–2014 Labour Force Surveys, Census and Survey Catalogue (database), National Statistical Office of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, <http://web.nso.mn/nada/index.php/catalog/LFS>.
- 126 ILO, 2014.
- 127 UCW, 2009.
- 128 NSO, 2011a.
- 129 NSO, 2011a; Pastore, 2008; data of the 2011 Labour Force Survey, Census and Survey Catalogue (database), National Statistical Office of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, <http://web.nso.mn/nada/index.php/catalog/LFS>.
- 130 UNDP, 2015a.
- 131 UNDP, 2015a.
- 132 Gankhuyag and Banzragch, 2014.
- 133 Sinha, 2013.
- 134 NSO, various years, Statistical Yearbook.
- 135 NSO, 2011a.
- 136 According to the State Policy on Informal Employment, Article 1.3, informal employment refers to employment that is not officially registered, that is not associated with social benefits or organizational structure, or that is not in a legally permitted, non-agricultural sector.
- 137 Because of an absence of data, the overall employment situation of persons with disabilities is used as a proxy for employment among youth with disabilities.
- 138 World Bank, 2013.
- 139 Batchuluun and Dalkhjav, 2014.
- 140 World Bank, 2013.
- 141 World Bank, 2013.
- 142 UNDP, 2015a.
- 143 World Bank, 2010.
- 144 Shatz et al., 2015.
- 145 Pastore, 2008.
- 146 See BizNetwork, Mongolian Professional Social Network, Ulaanbaatar, <http://biznetwork.mn/>; Udriin Sonin, Undesnii Shuudan, Ulaanbaatar, <http://en.journalism.mn/content/39016.shtml>.
- 147 ILO, 2014.
- 148 Government of Mongolia, 2012.
- 149 EPCRC, 2014.
- 150 UNDP, 2015a.
- 151 UNDP, 2015a.

Chapter 4

Chapter 5

- 152 Adapted from Kabeer, 2000.
- 153 UNDP, 2013d.
- 154 Forbig, 2005.
- 155 The Asian Barometer is an applied research programme on public opinion on political values, democracy and governance around the region. The regional network encompasses research teams in 13 East Asian political systems (Cambodia, China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, Mongolia, the Philippines, Republic of Korea, Singapore,

- Thailand, and Viet Nam) and 5 South Asian countries (Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka). The ABS (wave 4) is upcoming in mid-June 2016. The survey of the Institute of Philosophy, Sociology and Law, Mongolian Academy of Sciences, was conducted in 2013 and involved the collection of responses from over 1,200 young people aged 15–34 years in five aimags and in districts in Ulaanbaatar. The survey was supported by the UNDP Youth Empowerment through Civic Education Project.
- 156 Chu and Huang, 2009.
- 157 UNDESA, 2008, p. 114.
- 158 The information in this subsection is taken from the websites of the organizations mentioned.
- 159 As a measure of the political interest of youth, the survey of the Institute of Philosophy, Sociology and Law asked respondents whether, individually or collectively in the last three years, they had approached Government representatives to solve issues of concern to them and their communities; see IPSL, 2014.
- 160 World Vision Mongolia, UNESCO and NAC, 2013.
- 161 World Vision Mongolia, UNESCO and NAC, 2013.
- 162 Interview with Badruun Gardi, Zorig Foundation.
- 163 Henn and Foard, 2012.
- 164 UNV, 2013.
- 165 Norris, 2005.
- 166 ITPTA, 2012.
- 167 IPSL, 2014.
- 168 International IDEA, 2013.
- 173 Information derived from the baseline survey associated with the Youth Development Project (2013–2016) of the Independent Research Institute of Mongolia and the United Nations Population Fund that was conducted in 2014.
- 174 2016 data of the General Police Department, Ulaanbaatar.
- 175 UNFPA and NCAV, 2014.
- 176 Information of the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime.
- 177 NSO, 2015a.
- 178 UNDESA, 2005.
- 179 NSO, 2015a.
- 180 NSO, 2015a.
- 181 Malarek, 2003.
- 182 NHRCM and CHRDR, 2002.
- 183 Asia Foundation, 2008.
- 184 Asia Foundation, 2008.
- 185 Asia Foundation, 2008.
- 186 Asia Foundation, 2008.
- 187 SDC et al., 2009.
- 188 See Asia Foundation, 2006; NHRCM and CHRDR, 2002; UNICEF, 2007.
- 189 SDC, 2008.
- 190 Barnard, 1993.
- 191 SDC and HSPSC, 2008.
- 192 The revised Criminal Code was adopted by the State Great Khural in 2015.
- 193 UNICEF, 2006.
- 194 US Department of State, 2015.
- 195 CHD, 2014.
- 196 WHO, 2014c.
- 197 WHO, 2014c.
- 198 The discussion in this subsection relies on Gardner, 2014; UNDP and USAID, 2014.
- 199 NHRCM, 2012.
- 200 UNDP and USAID, 2014.
- 201 Hick, 2012.
- 202 UNFPA, 2014b.
- 203 Fajnzylber, Lederman, and Loayza, 1999; Messner, 1988; Unnithan and Whitt, 1992.
- 204 UNDP, 2014e.
- 205 UNDP, 2014e.
- 206 NSO, 2011a.
- 207 World Bank, 2011.
- 208 See “At a Glance: Mongolia, Air Pollution Is Endangering Children’s Health in Mongolia”, United Nations Children’s Fund, New York, http://www.unicef.org/health/mongolia_90290.html. Accessed 22 May 2016..
- 209 Graham, Bruce, and Perold, 2010.
- 210 Advocates for Human Rights and NCAV, 2013.
- 211 Kelleher and O’Conner, 1995; Short, 1998.
- 212 Johnson, 1996; Rodgers, 1994.
- 213 Kantor and Jasinski, 1998.
- 214 O’Leary, 1993.
- 215 Krug et al., 2002.
- 216 NHRCM, 2013.
- 217 NCAV, UNAIDS, and JHSPH, 2012.
- 218 Peitzmeier et al., 2015.
- 219 NHRCM, 2013.
- 220 NSO, 2011c.
- 221 Gankhuyag and Banzragch, 2014.
- 222 Many reports have cited excessive drinking and violence among migrant Mongolian men, especially migrants living in Germany, the Republic of Korea, and the United States. The media have reported several cases of homicide in which both the victim and the perpetrator were immigrant men. See also MOL, UNFPA and MPDA, 2005.
- 223 Advocates for Human Rights and NCAV, 2013.

Chapter 6

- 169 UNDP, 1994.
- 170 Wanasinghe–Pasqual, 2011.
- 171 UNDP, 1994.
- 172 Krug et al., 2002.

Chapter 7

- 224 See “Have Your Say” (database), My World 2015, United Nations, New York, <http://data.myworld2015.org/?country=Mongolia>.
- 225 Spillovers and complementarities are mentioned in World Bank (2007), but in a different context.
- 226 NSO, 2014a.

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- . **2008b.** “Mongolia: Education Sector Reform Project, Technical Assistance Consultant’s Report”. May, Manila.
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Mongolia: Main economic indicators

Activities	2000	2005	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
GDP (at 2010 prices, billion togrogs)	–	–	9 756.6	11 443.6	12 853.4	14 350.7	15 482.3	15 837.7*
GDP (at current prices, billion togrogs)	1 224.1	3 041.4	9 756.6	13 173.8	16 688.4	19 174.2	22 227.0	23 166.8*
GDP, by sector (%)	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Agriculture	27.4	19.8	11.7	10.3	11.2	13.4	13.3	13.6*
Industry	22.2	32.5	33.2	31.3	30.8	30.5	31.5	31.4*
Services	50.4	47.7	55.1	58.4	58	56.1	55.2	55.0*
GDP growth rate (%)	1.1	7.3	6.4	17.3	12.3	11.6	7.9	2.3*
Composition of GDP, by expenditure approach (%)	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Final consumption	85.7	67.3	67.9	63.7	66.5	69.3	69.6	70.8*
Gross investments	27.5	37.5	42.1	58.2	55.9	53.3	35.2	26.3*
Net export	-13.2	-4.8	-10	-21.9	-22.4	-22.6	-4.8	2.9*
Budget revenue (billion togrogs)	351.1	837.9	3 122.5	4 468.2	4 957.8	5 986.9	6 316.5	5 976.1*
Budget expenditure (billion togrogs)	429.7	764.6	3 080.7	4 997.0	5 993.8	6 164.7	7 144.6	7 136.9*
Overall budget deficit (billion togrogs)	-78.6	73.3	41.8	-528.8	-1 036.0	-177.8	-828.1	-1 160.8*
Government revenue as of % of GDP	28.7	27.5	32	33.9	29.1	31.2	28.4	25.8*
Government expenditure as of % of GDP	35.1	25.1	31.6	37.9	35.9	32.1	32.1	30.8*
Health	3.8	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.7	2.9	2.5*
Education	6.7	5.1	5.1	4.8	5.6	8.7	8.9	4.3*
Overall budget deficit, as of % of GDP	-6.4	2.4	0.4	-4	-6.8	-1.1	-3.7	-5.0*
Broad money (M2), billion togrogs, end of the year	258.4	1 140.1	4 680.0	6 412.2	7 613.7	9 454.9	10 635.8	10 050.2*
Total loan outstanding (million togrogs)	66 756.7	859 851.8	3 264 778.0	5 641 233.7	6 988 365.1	10 764 170.3	12 502 525.7	11 695 763.6*
Growth of total loan outstanding (%)	-13.9	41.7	23	72.8	23.9	54.0	16.1	-6.5*
Total loans issued outstanding from outside of Ulaanbaatar	–	177 959.1	675 044.9	1 223 622.3	1 540 899.5	2 301 719.2	2 765 674.7	2569925*
Share of non-Ulaanbatar loans in total		20.7	20.7	21.7	22.0	21.4	22.1	22.0*
Consumer price index (%), 2010. XII=100	39.9	55.6	100	108.9	124.2	139.7**	154.3	157.2
Exports (US\$, millions)	535.8	1 064.9	2 908.5	4 817.5	4 384.7	4 269.1	5 774.3	4 669.3*
Imports (US\$, millions)	614.5	1 184.3	3 200.1	6 598.4	6 738.4	6 357.8	5 236.7	3 797.5*
Trade balance (US\$, millions)	-78.7	-119.4	-291.6	-1 780.9	-2 353.7	-2 088.7	537.6	872.3*

*-Preliminary results

**- Updated by meat weight, sold in the market (for meat price index, the meat sales volume /weight/ by outlet were used)

Source: Mongolian Statistical Yearbook, Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, NRSO, Ulaanbaatar.

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