

Chapter 1 : Book Review: Women's Health in Post-Soviet Russia | Anthropology of Socialism and Pos

"In Women's Health in Post-Soviet Russia, Michele Rivkin-Fish makes important contributions to the existing literatures on international health development, health care systems across cultures, gender and health, reproduction and nationalism, the anthropology of postsocialism, and fieldwork ethics".

It examines gender and health amid a period of post-socialism change, specifically highlighting the roles of each as vehicles for understanding the larger political, economic, and social changes of the state. The study is carried out through various phases of analysis of actors and the interactions between them, with key actors being: Petersburg, Russia—the first decade after the collapse of the Soviet Union. She began her research through a project sponsored by the World Health Organization which endorsed the equality of reproductive health among Russian women in Subsequently, each of these outlets of study brought interaction with Russian women, local specialists, and global experts; and, it is here where Rivkin-Fish most successfully expresses and explains the maternal health problems plaguing Russia. Additionally, in doing so, the audience more clearly comprehends the efforts in place to shape new policies of reform. It is these observations accompanied by anthropological commentary and skilled theoretical insight that became the six case studies that guide the book. Below the surface, her WHO assignment provided a unique perspective and gathering of data: Her research was guided by several significant questions of inquiry: What did Russian women patients and Russian doctors—most of whom were also women—think about the reforms WHO advocated? How did they implement them and improvise with them in the daily work of providing maternity care? What could Western democracy activists and feminists learn from observing this maternity care reform process and listening to Russian voices? In her later years of fieldwork, Rivkin-Fish widened her sphere of query to incorporate additional issues of social, political, and economic uncertainty: What kinds of social change did pregnant and birthing patients, and Russian health care providers seek as they struggled to improve reproductive health? How were their efforts shaped by political-economic constraints of both the socialist health care system and its democratic market transitions? Moreover, it is particularly this broadened scope that allowed Rivkin-Fish to discover and draw her alarming conclusions. Specifically, she contends that healthcare serves as a veil to the disparities in defining issues of and thus, positions on equity and well-being. She highlights three distinct ways or strategies for creating social change: These strategies can separately or concomitantly execute social change. However, she makes point that not all social changes are desirable, direct, or truthful. She concludes that the best interest of the first is frequently sacrificed for the advancement of the latter. Consequently, she promotes the improvement of healthcare as a unique platform for social reform and restructuring. She offers the contestation of the state as an initial platform for transition. Further, Michele Rivkin-Fish expressively voices this conclusion: Evaluation The book is organized into two main parts—projects Part I and practices Part II—with three chapters devoted to each halve totaling six chapters. These sections are bookended by an introduction which serves to conceptualize the politics of intervention and a conclusion which discusses the transforming of feminist strategies. The sequential focus and structure of the book takes the reader through the journey of state delegitimation by women doctors, patients, and professionals. These suggestions are trailed by the discussion of sex education its problems, projects, and continued research. From here, the author analyzes the birthing practices implemented to guarantee a healthy pregnancy although we quickly find that this is not always the case. Consequently, I believe her argument to be poignant, strong, and firmly rooted in thorough, methodical research. As stated, I believe her case; however, at the same time, I am given little reason not to because I possess no significant or extensive knowledge of this particular academic area of study. This understanding, I believe, is an awareness and perspective that ought to be carried elsewhere—carried over into other areas of my academic study. Specifically, I notice a similar social trend: Discussion The findings in this novel directly relate to the research and readings we have studied throughout the semester. Specifically, I recognize similar arenas for understanding and interpreting social change: Despite being different mediums, they parallel in both their purpose and message. Recommendation Furthermore, in recommending this piece of literature, I believe

future audiences must possess a keen understanding of the shift from socialism to post-socialism across Europe and particularly, the Soviet Union. Additionally, the reader would benefit from having some knowledge—both historical and contemporary—of the conditions, circumstances, and conflicts surrounding health care. The individual should also enjoy an interest in and preferably academic exposure to social and political change—and the accompanying affairs of a state. However, let it be noted that such an extensive background need not be required as I myself possessed only limited knowledge ; it is merely a guiding suggestion to get the most out of this academic text. This novel is scholastically challenging and intellectually stimulating for the individual who is willing to sift through dry facts, raw data, and often dull commentary. Nonetheless, if you choose to read this piece, I am convinced you will feel a sense of scholarly achievement upon the turning of the last page. References Rivkin-Fish, Michele R. *The Politics of Intervention*.

Chapter 2 : Download [PDF] Women S Health In Post Soviet Russia Free Online | New Books in Politics

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Natalya Gorbanevskaya in Moscow, Archaeological evidence suggests that the present day territory of Russia was inhabited since prehistoric times: For most of the 20th century, the history of Russia is essentially that of the Soviet Union. Its fall in led, as in most of the former communist bloc countries of Eastern Europe, to an economic collapse and other social problems. Women in Russia are not a monolithic group, because the country itself is very diverse: Eighteenth-century Russia[edit] Young women offer berries to visitors to their izba home, Photograph by Sergey Prokudin-Gorsky. Women of eighteenth-century Russia were luckier than their European counterparts in some ways; in others, the life of a Russian woman was more difficult. The eighteenth-century was a time of social and legal changes that began to affect women in a way that they had never before experienced. Peter the Great ruled Russia from 1689 and in that time brought about many changes to Russian culture, altering the orthodox traditions that had been observed since the fall of the Byzantine Empire. The three major social classes present during these reforms experienced changes in varying degrees according to their proximity to the tsar and urban settings where reforms could be more strictly enforced. Large cities underwent the westernization process more rapidly and successfully than the outlying rural villages. Noblemen, merchant class women, and peasant serf women each witnessed Petrine reforms differently. The Petrine reforms of this century allowed for more female participation in society, when before they were merely an afterthought as wives and mothers. The law was supposed to help the tax revenue for Russia by banning the allowance of noble families to divide their land and wealth among multiple children. This law effectively ended the practice of excluding women from inheriting patrimonial estates. The law mandated that if a man was survived by unmarried daughters, the eldest girl would inherit his estate, while the remaining sisters would divide his movable property. His married daughters would receive nothing, however, since they would have received dowries at the time they married. After 1700, property rights were expanded to include inheritance in land property. It also gave women greater power over the estates in that had been willed to them, or received in their wedding dowry. Education for girls occurred mainly in the home because they were focused on learning about their duties as wife and mother rather than getting an education. Petersburg and then the Novodevichii Institute for the daughters of commoners. Daughters in well-to-do families were raised in the terem, which was usually a separate building connected to the house by an outside passageway. These girls were raised solely on the prospect of marrying to connect their own family to another aristocratic family. Many rural and urban lower classes houses had no space to separate young women so there was no designated terem to keep them isolated. Women of lower classes had to live and work with their brothers, fathers, and husbands as well as manage all household matters along with them. Women in the merchant class[edit] Merchant class women also enjoyed newly granted freedoms to own property and manage it; with this new right upper class women gained more independence from their patriarchal restrictions. They participated in work in the fields and in the making of handicrafts. During planting and harvest time, when help was needed in the fields, women worked with their husbands to plow, sow seeds, then collect and prepare the crops. In the harsh climate of the Russian steppe, and a life of labor from an early age, perhaps half of all children would live to adulthood. As she continued to bear sons, her status further improved. Having a son ensured that the family name would continue as well as any property they might own, though as Petrine reforms came into effect, it began to be equally profitable to have a girl. However, women of any class could turn infrequently to the ecclesiastical courts to resolve their marital conflicts. Feminist Reforms[edit] A lesson at Smolny Institute school for girls, Anna Filosofova By the mid-nineteenth century, European notions of equality were starting to take hold in Russia. Petersburg University allowed women to audit its courses, but the policy was revoked just four years later. In the 1840s a feminist movement began to coalesce in St. It was led by Anna Filosofova , Nadezhda Stasova , and Mariia Trubnikova , who together were known as the "triumvirate. By the early 1850s Russia boasted more female doctors, lawyers, and teachers than almost any

country in Europe—a fact noted with admiration by many foreign visitors. However, most of these educational benefits were being reaped by urban women from the middle and upper classes. While literacy rates were slowly spreading throughout the country, educational and other opportunities for peasant women were still relatively few. It was the first such reform enacted by a major political power. These expectations were in addition to the standards demanded of them in the domestic sphere. The legal equality of women and men was established during the Bolshevik revolution in 1917. Lenin saw women as a force of labor, that had previously been untapped and encouraged women to partake in the communist revolution. The number of women who entered the work force rose from 1.5 million in 1917 to 2.5 million in 1920. This code separated marriage from the church, allowed a couple to choose a surname, gave illegitimate children the same rights as legitimate children, gave rights to maternal entitlements, health and safety protections at work, and provided women with the right to a divorce on extended grounds. Labor laws also assisted women. Women were given equal rights in regards to insurance in case of illness, eight-week paid maternity-leave, and a minimum wage standard that was set for both men and women. Both sexes were also afforded paid holiday leave. While the reality was that not all women were granted these rights, they established a pivot from the traditional systems of the Russian imperialist. In 1926, with the number of divorces increasing, Zhenotdel created the second family plan, proposing a common law marriage for couples that were living together. However, a year later, the government created a marriage law as a reaction to the de facto marriages that were causing inequality for women. Men had no legal ties and as such, if a woman got pregnant, he would be able to leave, and not be legally responsible to assist the woman or child; this led to an increase in the number of homeless children. By 1929, the Zhenotdel was disbanded, as the government claimed that their work was completed. Women began to enter the Soviet workforce at a scale that had never before been seen. However, in the 1930s, there was a return to the more traditional and conservative values in many areas of social and family policy. Abortion was made illegal, homosexuality was declared a crime, legal differences between legitimate and illegitimate children were restored, and divorce was once again difficult to attain. Women held the social responsibility of motherhood that could not be ignored. From 1929 to 1953, the number of women that were gulag prisoners rose from 30,000 to 100,000. During WWII, women exemplified the motherland and patriotism. Many became widowed during the war, making them more likely to become impoverished. As men were called away to assist with the fighting, women stepped in and became in charge of state farms and large collective farms. In 1942, to meet harvest quotas, over half of the agricultural labor force was made up of women. They were not only assuming roles on collective farms, but 80,000 girls went into the Red army and Soviet navy to assist in the Great Patriotic War. Before her recruitment as cosmonaut, Tereshkova was a textile factory assembly worker and an amateur skydiver. In order to join the Cosmonaut Corps, Tereshkova was only honorarily inducted into the Soviet Air Force and thus she also became the first civilian to fly in space. Yet, the Constitution was somewhat contradictory: However, as in the Soviet era, Russian women in the 1990s predominated in economic sectors where pay is low, and they continued to receive less pay than men for comparable positions. In 1995, men in health care earned an average of 50 percent more than women in that field, and male engineers received an average of 40 percent more than their female colleagues. Despite that, on average, women were better educated than men, women remained in the minority in senior management positions. According to a report, 87 percent of employed urban Russians earning less than 100,000 rubles a month were women, and the percentage of women decreased consistently in the higher wage categories. According to reports, women generally are the first to be fired, and they face other forms of on-the-job discrimination as well. Struggling companies often fire women to avoid paying child care benefits or granting maternity leave, as the law still requires. Abuse[edit] Sociological surveys show that sexual harassment and violence against women increased at all levels of society in the 1990s. More than 13,000 rapes were reported in 1995, meaning that several times that number of that often-unreported crime probably were committed. In an estimated 14,000 women were murdered by their husbands or lovers, [42] about twenty times the figure in the United States and several times the figure in Russia five years earlier. One such group is the Center for Gender Studies, a private research institute. The center analyzes demographic and social problems of women and acts as a link between Russian and Western feminist groups. A traveling group called Feminist Alternative offers women assertiveness training. Many local groups have emerged to engage

in court actions on behalf of women, to set up rape and domestic violence awareness programs about a dozen of which were active in , and to aid women in establishing businesses. Despite the proliferation of such groups and programs, in the mid 1990s most Russians including many women remained contemptuous of their efforts, which many regard as a kind of Western subversion of traditional Soviet and even pre-Soviet social values.

Employment[edit] The rapidly expanding private sector has offered women new employment opportunities, but many of the Soviet stereotypes remain. Although the Fund for Protection from Sexual Harassment has blacklisted Moscow firms where sexual harassment is known to have taken place, demands for sex and even rape still are common on-the-job occurrences. The law lists occupations and 38 branches of industry that are forbidden to women, [43] as they are considered too dangerous to their health, especially reproductive health. Subsequently, the party became active in a number of issues, including the opposition to the military campaign in Chechnya that began in 1999. In the national parliamentary elections, the Women of Russia chose to maintain its platform unchanged, emphasizing social issues such as the protection of children and women rather than entering into a coalition with other liberal parties. As a result, the party failed to reach the 5 percent threshold of votes required for proportional representation in the new State Duma, gaining only three seats in the single-seat portion of the elections. The party considered running a candidate in the presidential election but remained outside the crowded field. Pamfilova has gained particular stature as an advocate on behalf of women and elderly people. The movement has gained national prominence through its opposition to the war in Chechnya. Numerous protests have been organized, and representatives have gone to the Chechen capital, Grozny , to demand the release of Russian prisoners and locate missing soldiers. The group, which claimed 10,000 members in 1999, also has lobbied against extending the term of mandatory military service. Prior to the elections, women held about 10 percent of the seats in parliament: The Soviet system of mandating legislative seats generally allocated about one-third of the seats in republic-level legislatures and one-half of the seats in local soviets to women, but those proportions shrank drastically with the first multiparty elections of 1995.

Contemporary situation[edit] Article 19 of the Constitution of Russia guarantees equal rights to women and men. In both cases, nominal legal protections for women either have failed to address the existing conditions or have failed to supply adequate support. In the 1990s, increasing economic pressures and shrinking government programs left women with little choice but to seek employment, although most available positions were as substandard as in the Soviet period, and generally jobs of any sort were more difficult to obtain. While there has been an increase in the share of women in politics in Russia, this has not led to increased gender equality in Russian society overall. This applies to first offenses which do not cause serious injury, decreasing from a maximum penalty of two years imprisonment to a maximum of fifteen days in police custody. For second offense and beyond, it is considered a criminal offense, prosecuted under the Criminal Code.

In Women's Health in Post-Soviet Russia, Michele Rivkin-Fish makes important contributions to the existing literatures on international health development, health care systems across cultures, gender and health, reproduction and nationalism, the anthropology of postsocialism, and fieldwork ethics.

Monica Ellena Although Georgian law specifies that women enjoy equal rights with men, in practice, sexism runs rife. In one survey for the United Nations Population Fund, While still working and caring for two children, she went back to university at the age of 31 and earned a degree in English. She then started giving private classes to children, often for free, in villages along the Enguri River, which marks the boundary line between Abkhazia and Georgian-controlled territory. She went on to found a community engagement group, Enguri, which works primarily to meet the needs of women who were displaced by the war in Abkhazia. Altyn is 32, she lives abroad, and she is terrified. For starters, the secret police could cause trouble for her family back home. Everything that seems so neutral, so routine It fits loosely over her hair, not like hijab. But only married women wear this. How is she going to find a husband when she is forced to dress like this? Anna Lelik The men who tried to bride-nap Guljan Turdubaeva clearly did not do their homework. The year-old may come from a traditional village in the conservative south, but she does not follow Kyrgyz convention. On paper, the Kyrgyz constitution provides women with all the same rights men have: But, in practice, the law does little to protect women from sexism and discrimination. She did not know the relative was trying to coax her to marry a man she had never met. When the aspiring groom and his relatives realised she would not agree, they offered to drive her home. Instead, they kidnapped her and held her overnight. How could they decide for me, I thought. But it is a crime that is rarely prosecuted, and rights activists estimate that almost 12, girls are kidnapped and forced " sometimes by acquaintances and sometimes by total strangers " into undesired marriages each year. She says she regrets nothing. Her anger over the role some of her relatives played in the incident has soured relations in the family. A girl has her own opinions, interests and plans. How is it possible to make her marry someone? She is passionate about her job and is working on the skills she will need to apply for FIFA accreditation. Yet Mariam Gevorgian managed to break out of an abusive marriage and seek justice against her attackers. Now she counsels other women to fight for their rights. She was subjected to constant abuse by her husband and mother-in-law for perceived shortcomings in housekeeping standards. Often, the options for women in this situation are few, and violence goes unreported. With unemployment rampant, they may not be financially independent. And many still consider divorce a disgrace. The consequences can be fatal: They lit a piece of paper and tucked it into my bra Gevorgian decided to leave her husband and return to Armenia. Once back in Armenia, Gevorgian made a criminal complaint to authorities. Like many other former Soviet states, there is no specific law against domestic violence in Armenia. Her spouse, David Ziroian, received a three-year prison sentence, but, under a general amnesty, served no time. Slowly, change is coming, she says. It is also gratifying to be among a cohort of women striving to bring gender parity to Ukrainian politics, she says. Events over the past year have moved so quickly that Shkrum is not quite sure whether she is leading or following. She was searching for a job in Kiev when theMaidan protests erupted in late November When the new, pro-European government assumed power last February, Shkrum got involved as a youth activist. For example, she wants to make the implementation of laws governing alimony payments more efficient and less corrupt. And she wants to make government offices more generally accessible.

Chapter 4 : Top shelves for Women's Health in Post-Soviet Russia

A study that documents the efforts of global and local experts, and ordinary Russian women in St Petersburg, to explain Russia's maternal health problems, and devise reforms to solve them.

Yeltsin, who represented a course of radical privatization, was opposed by the Supreme Soviet. Confronted with opposition to the presidential power of decree and threatened with impeachment, he "dissolved" the parliament on September 21, in contravention of the existing constitution, and ordered new elections and a referendum on a new constitution. The parliament then declared Yeltsin deposed and appointed Aleksandr Rutskoy acting president on September 21. Tensions built quickly, and matters came to a head after street riots on October 2–October 3. On October 4, Yeltsin ordered Special Forces and elite army units to storm the parliament building, the "White House" as it is called. With tanks thrown against the small-arms fire of the parliamentary defenders, the outcome was not in doubt. Rutskoy, Ruslan Khasbulatov, and the other parliamentary supporters surrendered and were immediately arrested and jailed. The official count was dead, wounded with several men killed and wounded on the presidential side. Burned facade of the White House after the storming. Thus the transitional period in post-Soviet Russian politics came to an end. A new constitution was approved by referendum in December 1993. Russia was given a strongly presidential system. Radical privatization went ahead. Although the old parliamentary leaders were released without trial on February 26, 1994, they would not play an open role in politics thereafter. Though its clashes with the executive would eventually resume, the remodeled Russian parliament had greatly circumscribed powers. For details on the constitution passed in see Constitution and government structure of Russia. First Chechen War[edit] See also: Second Chechen War A Russian Mil Mi-8 helicopter brought down by Chechen insurgents near Grozny in In , Yeltsin dispatched 40, troops to the southern region of Chechnya to prevent its secession from Russia. Russia was quickly submerged in a quagmire like that of the U. When the Russians attacked the Chechen capital of Grozny during the first weeks of January 1999, about 25, civilians died under week-long air raids and artillery fire in the sealed-off city. Massive use of artillery and air-strikes remained the dominating strategy throughout the Russian campaign. Even so, Chechen forces seized thousands of Russian hostages, while inflicting humiliating losses on the demoralized and ill-equipped Russian troops. The Russians finally managed to gain control of Grozny in February after heavy fighting. In August 1999, Yeltsin agreed to a ceasefire with Chechen leaders, and a peace treaty was formally signed in May 2000. However, the conflict resumed in 2009, thus rendering the peace accord meaningless. This time the rebellion was crushed by Vladimir Putin. Rise of the oligarchs[edit] Main articles: Some quietly liquidated the assets of their organization and secreted the proceeds in overseas accounts and investments. Great fortunes were made almost overnight. At the same time, a few young people, without much social status, saw opportunity in the economic and legal confusion of the transition. In turn, the emerging cash-based, highly opaque markets provided a breeding ground for a large number of racket gangs. By the mids, the best-connected former nomenklatura leaders accumulated considerable financial resources, while on the other hand, the most successful entrepreneurs became acquainted with government officials and public politicians. The privatization of state enterprises was a unique opportunity because it gave many of those who had gained wealth in the early s a chance to convert it into shares of privatized enterprises. The Yeltsin government hoped to use privatization to spread ownership of shares in former state enterprises as widely as possible to create political support for his government and his reforms. The government used a system of free vouchers as a way to give mass privatization a jump-start. But it also allowed people to purchase shares of stock in privatized enterprises with cash. Even though initially each citizen received a voucher of equal face value, within months most of the vouchers converged in the hands of intermediaries who were ready to buy them for cash right away. As the government ended the voucher privatization phase and launched cash privatization, it devised a program that it thought would simultaneously speed up privatization and yield the government a much-needed infusion of cash for its operating needs. Under the scheme, which quickly became known in the West as "loans for shares," the Yeltsin regime auctioned off substantial packages of stock shares in some of its most desirable enterprises,

such as energy , telecommunications , and metallurgical firms, as collateral for bank loans. In exchange for the loans, the state handed over assets worth many times as much. Under the terms of the deals, if the Yeltsin government did not repay the loans by September , the lender acquired title to the stock and could then resell it or take an equity position in the enterprise. The first auctions were held in the fall of 1995. The auctions themselves were usually held in such a way so to limit the number of banks bidding for shares and thus to keep the auction prices extremely low. These deals were effectively giveaways of valuable state assets to a few powerful, well-connected, and wealthy financial groups. The concentration of immense financial and industrial power, which loans for shares had assisted, extended to the mass media. One of the most prominent of the financial barons Boris Berezovsky , who controlled major stakes in several banks and companies, exerted an extensive influence over state television programming for a while. Berezovsky and other ultra-wealthy, well-connected tycoons who controlled these great empires of finance, industry, energy, telecommunications, and media became known as the " Russian oligarchs ". The Western world generally advocated a quick dismantling of the Soviet planned economy to make way for "free-market reforms," but later expressed disappointment over the newfound power and corruption of the "oligarchs. Instead, Yeltsin changed his campaign team, assigning a key role to his daughter, Tatyana Dyachenko , and appointing Anatoly Chubais campaign manager. The position of the enterprise directors to the program was essential to maintaining economic and social stability in the country. The managers represented one of the most powerful collective interests in the country; it was the enterprise managers who could ensure that labor did not erupt in a massive wave of strikes. The government, therefore, did not strenuously resist the tendency for voucher privatization to turn into "insider privatization," as it was termed, in which senior enterprise officials acquired the largest proportion of shares in privatized firms. Thus, Chubais allowed well-connected employees to acquire majority stakes in the enterprises. This proved to be the most widely used form of privatization in Russia. Three-quarters of privatized enterprises opted for this method, most often using vouchers. Real control thus wound up in the hands of the managers. The "loans for shares" giveaway took place in the run-up to the presidential electionâ€”at a point when it had appeared that Zyuganov might defeat Yeltsin. The oligarchs, in turn, reciprocated the favor. The media painted a picture of a fateful choice for Russia, between Yeltsin and a "return to totalitarianism. In the outlying regions of the country, the Yeltsin campaign relied on its ties to other alliesâ€”the patron-client ties of the local governors, most of whom had been appointed by the president. The Zyuganov campaign had a strong grass-roots organization, but it was simply no match for the financial resources and access to patronage that the Yeltsin campaign could marshal. Yeltsin campaigned energetically, dispelling concerns about his health, exploiting all the advantages of incumbency to maintain a high media profile. He appealed to a well-educated middle class that saw Yeltsin as an incompetent alcoholic and Zyuganov as a Soviet-era throwback. Elections[edit] Voter turnout in the first round of the polling on June 16 was 65%. With no candidate securing an absolute majority, Yeltsin and Zyuganov went into a second round of voting. In the meantime, Yeltsin co-opted a large segment of the electorate by appointing Lebed to the posts of national security adviser and secretary of the Security Council. In the run-off on July 3, with a turnout of 65%, Yeltsin won. The southern stretch of the country became known as the " red belt ", underscoring the resilience of the Communist Party in elections since the breakup of the Soviet Union. Many of his executive functions thus devolved upon a group of advisers most of whom had close links with the oligarchs. Given the ensuing decline in world commodity prices, countries heavily dependent on the export of raw materials such as oil were among those most severely hit. Massive tax evasion continued and accelerated due to financial instability and decreasing government capacity. This further decreased government revenues and soon, the central government found itself unable to service the massive loans it had accumulated and ultimately was even unable to pay its employees. The government stopped making timely payment of wages, pensions, and debts to suppliers; and when workers were paid, it was often with bartered goods rather than rubles. As time wore on, they added calls for the resignation of Yeltsin in addition to their demands for wages. A political crisis came to a head in March when Yeltsin suddenly dismissed Prime Minister Viktor Chernomyrdin and his entire cabinet on March 23. The Duma rejected his nomination twice. Only after a month-long standoff, during which Yeltsin threatened to dissolve the legislature, did the Duma confirm Kiriyenko on a third vote on April 16. A high exchange rate

meant that they needed fewer rubles to buy imported goods, especially luxury items. But concerns about the financial crisis in Asia and the slump in world oil prices were already prompting investors to withdraw from Russia. By mid, it was clear Russia would need help from IMF to maintain its exchange rate. The Russian crisis caused alarm in the West. Pouring more money into the Russian economy would not be a long-term solution, but the U. Realizing that this situation was unsustainable, investors continued to flee Russia despite the IMF bailout. Weeks later the financial crisis resumed and the value of the ruble resumed its fall, and the government fell into a self-perpetuating trap. To pay off the interest on the loans it had taken, it needed to raise still more cash, which it did through foreign borrowing. As lenders became increasingly certain that the government could not make good on its obligations, they demanded ever-higher interest rates, deepening the trap. Ultimately the bubble burst. The ruble went into free fall as Russians sought frantically to buy dollars. Foreign investment rushed out of the country, and financial crisis triggered an unprecedented flight of capital from Russia. A week later, on August 23, Yeltsin fired Kiryenko and declared his intention of returning Chernomyrdin to office as the country slipped deeper into economic turmoil. Yeltsin, who began to lose his hold as his health deteriorated, wanted Chernomyrdin back, but the legislature refused to give its approval. Instead, he nominated Foreign Minister Yevgeny Primakov , who on September 11 was overwhelmingly approved by the Duma. There was popular enthusiasm for Primakov as well. Communists and trade unionists staged a nationwide strike on October 7, and called on President Yeltsin to resign. On October 9, Russia, which was also suffering from a bad harvest, appealed for international humanitarian aid, including food. Recovery[edit] Russia bounced back from the August financial crash with surprising speed. Another reason is that domestic industries such as food processing have benefited from the devaluation, which caused a steep increase in the prices of imported goods. Finally, the economy has been helped by an infusion of cash; as enterprises were able to pay off arrears in back wages and taxes, it, in turn, allowed consumer demand for the goods and services of Russian industry to rise. For the first time in many years, unemployment in fell as enterprises added workers. Nevertheless, the political and social equilibrium of the country remains tenuous to this day[when?

Chapter 5 : History of Russia (â€“present) - Wikipedia

Book Reviewâ€”Women's Health in Post-Soviet Russia. Summary. The book Women's Health in Post-Soviet Russia is an account of the politics surrounding the transformation and privatization (both officially and unofficially) of the Russian health care system.

Molly Wolanski Introduction In small type at top of this dual poster is the caption: Pre-Revolution Russia was a very backwards country that was far behind in industrialization and politics. Most other European countries were experimenting with constitutions and democracy yet Russia still had serfdom and a strong nobility. The industrial class rose up multiple times finally during World War I they won and Lenin took power and created Soviet communism, this liberated women and gave them opportunities to pursue careers as doctors and engineers along with many other professions. Along with new career opportunities came new laws. In legislature was created to try to weaken marriage and the family to create a unified society focused on the country not the family. The ability to perform marriages was taken away from the church and given solely to the state. With this set of laws also came the right for either the man or woman in a married couple to pursue divorce and win. To feminist Alexandra Kollontai this was great as she saw no future in family structure in Soviet Russia. Women were still expected to perform most domestic duties and have a job as men saw it as below them to do housework or go grocery shopping. The role of soviet women in society and in other areas was varied and depended on how conditions were in many aspects. Main Sources These sources in this section cover most aspects of the topic in general and the subtopics are too intermixed to be feasibly divisible. Most studies and books in this section are comprehensive views of life for women in Soviet Russia in general. Most sources are this way but focus on one topic in general and how the other areas relate to it. University of California Press, This book covers the change that women underwent in society, including equality, and family life. Concepts covered are social stratification that comes with gaining equality with men, the work environment, the role they play in family and domestic life. This piece is great for looking at the complete role of women in Soviet society. Youth in Revolutionary Russia. Indiana University Press, The role of young women in prewar Soviet Russia was new and different than that before when their mothers and grandmothers were growing up. From work to education to their role in politics via the Komsomols or young communist party groups. The social stratification between young men and women is very evident in this book. Cornell University Press, Women in Stalinist Russia were treated slightly differently than those under a different president. Women were given lower level jobs in some cases to encourage them to stay home and have more children. This is very clear in the chapter devoted to family values and how they affected the woman in the household. This book also shows the stratification that occurred within the workplace and the gender differences in how they were perceived socially. Cambridge University Press, The subjects of this study were former Soviet Union Citizens who left for some reason or another. The studies of part three focus on the role of women in the economy, workforce and home. These studies are very insightful into every period of life in the Soviet Union. Accessed August 4, The Library of Congress compiled a vast page for each country in the world, the page on the Soviet Union is very easy to navigate for the information you are looking for. The webpage contains 37 sub-sections on women in various roles of society, the workforce, economy, politics and the military. Role in the Workplace and Politics Soviet girls, collective farmers of a village somewhere in Russia, who joined Guerillas, are pictured on Sept. Women had equality in jobs given to them in principle but not in practice, employers still preferred men over women in some fields, yet in others they preferred females, for example females made better construction workers than men in the way they took fewer breaks. All around women tended to be paid less than men. Women in the Soviet Countryside. The first chapter of this book covers the role women played in the rural workforce and the roles they occupied in the workforce. The first section covers the effect huge migrations to urban areas affected the remaining rural workforce. The chapter then goes on to discuss the structure of the workforce and how many women were employed agriculturally and what jobs they performed within the workforce. Women pull their weight with the menfolk in rebuilding the war-ravaged cities. Women assist in house building in Moscow, Russia, near the Kremlin. Women in the

Soviet Economy. Johns Hopkins Press, This study focuses on the role women played in the Soviet economy and the effects their age, education, and population size had on the economy. Along with the role women played in science and technology. The study focuses on the effect women in the workforce affected the economy and where the effects were the greatest. Stalinism on the Frontier of Empire. The Far East is often forgotten in Russian history as it is the frontier of Russia. This study focuses on the women who live and work in the far east of Russia. Along with the hardships that come from being resettled in the harsh but bountiful environment of the far East. This study gives insight into how female migrant workers lived during the prewar period. Women and State Socialism. As explained in this study, women started to merge into the workforce and gain equality to men in political and societal aspects. Heitlinger discusses the problems with the term equality and how women gained the rights they received after the revolution. Young Soviet girl tractor-drivers of Kirghizia, efficiently replacing their friends, brothers and fathers who went to the front. A girl tractor driver of the sowing sugar beet, on Aug. AP Photo Farnsworth, Beatrice. This article discusses the role of rural female workers right after Lenin took control of Russia. Gender, Class, and Industrialization in a Socialist Society. The wives of successful engineers and factory managers created volunteer groups to try to improve working conditions in the factories where their husbands worked. How they helped solve the reproductive crisis that resulted from rapid industrialization along with the extreme social stratification showed through this. AP Photo The roles in domestic life are very similar to those in the west at the time the only difference is Soviet women have to do domestic work after going to work as well causing life to be hard and long for women urban or rural. Domestic roles were important to a strong family and household, but most of this work instead of being divided amongst the family was piled onto the female in the family. This put a great amount of stress onto the females of the household trying to balance work and chores at home. Klass How the Russians Really Lived. Willis talks to many urban women about their work and home life, one woman Tanya is the sole worker in her house and her family does nothing to help her with the domestic work and the burden of everything falls on to her. This book gives great insight into how urban women lived in postwar Soviet Russia. This Chapter covers the development of families and the role women played within the rural family. As the chapter continues it goes on to discuss how a woman chose a husband and the role romance played in the choice. Other topics include the labor division within a family unit, inequality within the family structure, conflict in how the family works, and how education, religion, and politics play into the role of the woman in a rural family unit. Farnsworth, Beatrice, and Lynne Viola. Oxford University Press, Peasants are very important in the social structure of the Soviet Union as they are the farmers but women had very few rights and most of the domestic work fell onto them as men were doing other chores. Women were expected to take care of the home and still work in the fields. Role in Society Societal roles cover everything from equality to the perception of women and how that changed since Tsarists rule before World War One. Society can cover many topics but this concept is important in how we understand the role of women. Soviet women shoppers, having waited more than two hours, reached the counter to buy the American brands of candy bars in downtown Moscow, Friday, Jan. More than people queued during the morning snow. Bergin and Garvey, This book is a series of interviews conducted by the author of women who left the Soviet Union and the life they left behind in the soviet union. She interviews 17 women from all over the Soviet Union, these interviews discuss the life of the woman and how that changed with the Glasnost or why the woman left the Soviet Union. Creating the New Soviet Woman. This study uses the concept of magazines to explain the changes in how a woman dressed, acts, and is perceived socially, in the prewar and wartime periods of Soviet Russia. It then goes on to discuss the changes that occurred while Stalin was in power and how the concepts had changed along with the increased concept of being a mother being pushed on the women. This concept of being a mother and the Stalinist views of being a woman in the second part of the book. A Revolution of Their Own. This anthology shows the hardship felt by Soviet women over the course of the twentieth century in Russia. The oral histories given by Russian women show how the shift to communism changed the political, societal, and economic landscape for all of Russia, rural and urban alike. Women in the Soviet Union. Teachers College Press, This book is the summary of a Symposium on the topic that discussed the aspects of soviet women and their roles in the vast society of Soviet Russia. The topics of the symposium are very vast

yet narrow in the aspect of the topic. Along with the liberation of women in Soviet Russia came a new image in the media and literature formed from those changes in the role of women, which is explained in this summary. Stanford University Press, *The rise of equality of the sexes had a great influence on Soviet Russia in the early twentieth century*. The sexes were never completely equal as tendencies to pick men over women were prevalent through the history of the Soviet Union, this idea is explained in great detail within this anthology.

Chapter 6 : Project MUSE - Women's Health in Post-Soviet Russia

Women's Health in Post-Soviet Russia Michele Rivkin-Fish Published by Indiana University Press Rivkin-Fish, Michele. *Women's Health in Post-Soviet Russia: The Politics of Intervention.*

Instead, the debate is now over why? In Russia, vodka is a killer. Did post-Soviet Russians drink much more vodka? While there has been a strong correlation between alcohol consumption and the adult male mortality rate, there have been several periods when per capita alcohol consumption levels and death rates moved in opposing directions. Similarly, from 1980 to 1990, alcohol consumption increased from 4. How did much poorer Russians afford more vodka? Not surprisingly, claims of strong correlations between lower alcohol prices, higher alcohol consumption and adult male mortality focus on the price effect without considering the income effect. While increased alcohol intake has been attributed to the lower relative prices of spirits in the early 1990s, it ignores the fact that real incomes fell even more sharply. In fact, Russian vodka consumption has fallen sharply, by more than half, in recent decades, from over billion litres in the early 1980s and 1990s, to about billion litres in 2000. Meanwhile, the wine and beer shares of alcohol consumption have increased markedly. Some studies claim that at least 30 per cent of alcohol consumption in Russia is unrecorded, and official figures understate drinking low cost alcohol with high toxicity. But this claim has no empirical support, even if only indirect. Thus, the impact of increased alcohol intake on cardio-vascular diseases remains moot, with per capita alcohol consumption and death rates moving in opposite directions at times. How does vodka kill? Some Western observers attributed as much as a third of total deaths in Russia to alcohol related causes. These are the highest estimates available, but are doubted by most other experts. This very high share is much greater than official statistics which suggest that less than four per cent of deaths were due to alcohol consumption, i. Some independent researchers have an intermediate position, attributing about 12 per cent of all deaths to alcohol-related causes. Other observers argue that average alcohol consumption levels are not necessarily a good indicator of health risks. One such argument is that not all consumption of alcohol, but only of hard spirits, particularly vodka in the case of Russia, is responsible for the increased mortality. Why did Russian life expectancy fall after Gorbachev? Russia has long had extensive post-mortem causes of death data, having done autopsies for more than 60 per cent of all deaths, i. Some public health experts argue that while cardiovascular disease was the main cause of death, much of this was due to lethal levels of alcoholism. Deaths from alcohol poisoning are widely regarded as the better indicator of excessive alcohol consumption compared to official production figures as liquor may be produced illegally within a country or smuggled into it. Deaths from alcohol poisoning increased from 10 per 100,000 inhabitants in 1980 to nearly 40 in 1990, exceeding the number due to suicide and murder. By 2000, however, such alcohol related deaths had fallen to late Soviet levels, even though the overall mortality rate remained well above the rate from those times. Stress kills There is growing evidence that stress kills, using extensive data on earlier declines in life expectancy among men in all former Soviet republics and East European countries. In Georgia, Armenia and Eastern Europe, mortality increased, lowering life expectancy, without increased drinking. Only a few causes of male deaths during 1990-2000 were alcohol-related, e. The continuous decline in adult male mortality in Belarus and Russia cannot be fully explained by anti-alcohol policies, although such interventions probably contributed to the large mortality falls in both countries during 1990-2000, and in Belarus in 1990-2000. These mortality declines coincided with and probably accelerated to already declining alcohol-related mortality. Thus, simultaneous increases in the total death rate, the death rate due to external causes and to alcohol consumption were all probably due to another factor, namely stress.

Chapter 7 : Did post-Soviet Russians drink themselves to death? | Inter Press Service

*Women's Health in Post-Soviet Russia: The Politics of Intervention (New Anthropologies of Europe) by Michele Rivkin-Fish () on calendrierdelascience.com *FREE* shipping on qualifying offers.*

Women Empowerment in Political System Women Political Organizations and Parties Women Representation in Political Institutions Women Identity and Gender Inequalities in Society Women Civic Actions and Social Movements Working and Economic Conditions of Women Gender Discriminations in Workplaces Women Employment in Transition Period In the changing system, women play crucial role in social and political sphere despite of discrimination and restrictions against them and also they have place in economic sphere in spite of unequal working conditions. Like women in other countries which have transition period from autocracies to democracies or liberal market system, Russian women also deal with gender based problems in all sphere of daily life. It is difficult for women to give up gender roles which are given by state policies, society or culture. In Post-Soviet Russian women have also some Soviet traces in their political, economic or social life. Therefore, in the transition period, women are also trapped into Soviet legacy and newly established Russian system. However, they try to overcome discriminative and unconcerned implementation against themselves. Although they face with gender based discriminations, inequalities and restrictions, women become more visible in all sphere of the everyday life in Post-Soviet Russia. In this paper, I mainly focused on changing role of women in Russia with the transition period and also their position and response to these changes in political, social and economic sphere. Political empowerment and participation by representation of women is one of the challenges that women faces in political sphere. Although in transition period, there were many transformations in political system and institutions; women have not gained influential positions in decision making process. In soviet period, high level education and workforce participation was realized by taking motherhood in consideration. However, Soviet politics also did not help women to held political position in institutions. The nature of political system, the elections and discriminative traditional gender roles are some obstacles for the insufficiency of women participation in political decision making process. In Russia, women figure out that it does not matter whether the Communist ideology or Western democratic transformations, there is discriminative understanding in political sphere. However, at this point, women political organizations which are work independently from any political formation seems to influential to pressure political parties and institutions especially for their candidate list for elections Usha, , Women Empowerment in Political System Electoral system of a country is indicators of a basic symbol of a democracy in politics. Representation is crucial point for exclusion and inclusion in political arena to defend the rights of women and children. In fact, there were potential voters to give vote to women, especially unemployment and exposed 2 to violence, but whom organizes these votes is a discussion topic. In , the half of the Duma was elected based on the party-list system of proportional representation and this system is the most likely the women candidate friendly election system. Women Political Organizations and Parties After the Soviet regime was transformed into multiparty system, elections and voting in Russia become significant issue. In transition period, people in Russia make their decisions based on many diverse issues from democracy perceptions to economic and social preferences. Although Russian political system and parties are newly established to give an idea about voter choices, gender gap in elections is seen in elections. According to the scholars, the votes mostly came from women. From , women formed only 7. Nevertheless, this does not contribute the 3 increase in the number of women elected in Duma because parties tended to sort down them in electoral lists. Women regularly held one-third of the seats in the Supreme Soviets before Gorbachev period, mainly because they tended to represent workers and peasants as masses. Therefore, with the transformation of political institutions open place for women participation and representation in political institutions. Nevertheless, the success of WOR was temporary because in elections, WOR did not get enough votes for the 5 percent barrier for representation right in parliament. Women were supposed to give birth and raise children as a new generation of Soviet citizens. In this way, women help society for continuity of Soviet system and they act the roles that society expects. Women in transition period,

still expected to work as labor that is require for economy and also to balance the obligations in the family. Soviet and Russian policies in transition period inherently emerges as an expectation that women serve as mother and men as soldier for the state Caiazza, , Post-Soviet gender relation in social sphere is generally dominated the tendency of exclusion of women in public sphere. This tendency may root from Soviet legacy but in Soviet period equality means never ending work inside and outside of the household. As the primary role of women, family and children were under their responsibility and they experienced all indication of gender discrimination in social sphere as in economic and social sphere. Social transformation has not directly guarantee the position of women in the society. However, with the transition period after collapse of the Soviet Union, it is unavoidable the break of old social solidarity. In transition period and contemporary Russia, to balance between work and family is much more difficult to achieve. Therefore, working mother idea and Soviet type motherhood principle which was supported by state as a social policy start to break down. Women Identity and Gender Inequalities in Society Throughout the Soviet rule, women were not emancipated but rather mobilized by state as a labor force for the establishment and continuation of communist system. In this system, they have some extend of economic independence but their jobs were unskilled and low paid. However, with this transition period, women began to search their social identity and to become aware of her. In this context, the women dimension of social transformation is turning point for re-identification of women with social perception related to them. Feminine identity was still based on motherhood and paid work. Although motherhood was not glorified excessively in transition period, household responsibilities and domestic realm were shown as natural sphere of women Sargeant, , Socio-economic and political transformation in Russian society after collapse of Soviet regime did not affect equally men and women. In some fields of social life, women were influenced in a positive way while in other fields they were exposed to discrimination and oppression in patriarchal system. However, government budget to finance students is more gender asymmetric and not supporter of women students. Still, education is the field in which discrimination is less obvious than in other fields of social life. The end of free health care services with the collapse of Soviet Union and limited financial capabilities of women are the main limitations to access 6 full equipped medical care service. A high price of medicine is also another gender problem in the health issue. Especially after the age of 50, medicine spending of women decreases. Women Civic Actions and Social Movements The new arrangements came with glasnost and perestroika allowed women to form and develop new organizations far away from state control. Although women have not an influential in high level politics in Russia, they tend to play important role in non-governmental activism which is low paid and not provide a high career path. Women activism and social movement is essential part of consolidating democracy and promoting civil society engagement in decision making process. Although 7 creating change on these issues is difficult under the condition of strong state perception of Russian government, it is important to be voice of women and create small changes in local or regional society. Moreover, these women movements and civic action are like a challenge for government policies so, it has great importance for building democracy Sperling, , However, changing Russian political opportunity structure and discourse also have influence on the formation of women movements Sperling, , Although Russian Federation Constitution provides equality between parents as mother and father to raise children, in society, there have been attempts to promote women as a basic part in solidarity of the society. For example, law codes which are more related women like working conditions, rape and abortion revised in the Constitution. In Russia after Soviets, gender equality was provided as an ideal condition for women on paper but in everyday life women experienced different conditions in society. Article 19 in Russian Federation Constitution, says that everyone is equal before law and court regardless of any differences like sex, race, nationality or religion. To elect and to be elected is also a constitutional right and indicator of democratic structure of state. Moreover, in economic means, both women and men choose their jobs freely to earn their lives according to Constitution. Furthermore, everyone has right to health protection and medical care and also education as explained in the Constitution. These are the main indicators of ensuring the gender equality of rights in Russia but they are not enough to prevent inequality. Therefore, in spite of the efforts for changing the situation of women in society, implementations are still insufficient and discrimination against women still continues Sobyana, , Other important points in social status of Russian

women are sexual assault, domestic violence and women trafficking. In , US based Human Rights Watch released a study on sexual assault on Russian women to attract attention of Russian authorities to this issue. In addition, Russian government is also failure to engage in domestic violence against women Amnesty International has also a report on violence against women in Russia and they hope to reform in both legal system and implementation of law enforcement and also social services to support women who suffered from violence. The government has taken some steps to prevent trafficking but there has not been any federal program to avoid it so, raising public awareness for this problem remain women groups Johnson, , Firstly, transition to market economy, price liberalization and privatization made economy declining and living standards of both men and women 9 decreased, poverty increased. However, in these economic transition conditions, women were affected directly because of their double burden of family and work. Hence, in this period, many women had to leave their jobs and lose their stable income that Soviets provided. Secondly, the social perception of domestic responsibilities of women also made difficult to find job and also work in a business. Working hours and conditions constrained women in economic sphere. Thirdly, the state had not any policy to support women in economics for re- employment and rules and laws were not coercive enough to prevent gender discrimination of employees in working places Chen, , Working and Economic Conditions of Women In post-Soviet Russia, one of the factors that drive women to work was the low wage paid by the state. In the early years of transition, because living standards decreased and state implemented market economy policies, women found themselves in work. One working parent could not provide the needs of family and families lived on the edge of poverty. In addition, price liberalization and high inflation rates in post-Soviet Russia led to reduction in affordability of basic needs and also service and consumer goods. These conditions imposed women double burden which were to work outside household and also handle family spending in household. Access of women in to the workplaces has also different dimension from economic difficulties. Work outside the home is like economic emancipation of women and it is also related to economic equality. Especially in transition period, for women, work is became the social status indicator in the society. Moreover, work gave woman an economic satisfaction 10 and also economic independence from men. However, there were some problems in the working conditions of women. This situation creates inequalities between genders in working conditions. Moreover, some limitations and characteristics of women put them into disadvantages position like mobility of women forced them because employers prefer men employees. Because women have responsibilities for their husbands and children, their mobility is limited. Age is another problem for working women because women over the age of forty who are in pre-retirement period generally were not hired by employers.

Chapter 8 : The Role of Women in Soviet Russia | Guided History

*[one] way out of the crisis: only a democratic participatory approach could greatly affect the situation in the health sector.³ * Laboratorium * In Women's Health in Post-Soviet Russia, Michele Rivkin-Fish makes important contributions to the existing literatures on international health development, health care systems across cultures.*

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