

GENDER BAROMETER

How do Women and Men
Participate in Politics
and Decision-Making?

CHISINAU, 2018

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The survey was developed by the Center 'Partnership for Development' under 'Women in Politics' UN Program. The program is implemented by the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), in partnership with East Europe Foundation and Center 'Partnership for Development' with financial support from the Government of Sweden.

The survey is available in Romanian at:

www.progen.md

www.un.md

www.moldova.unwomen.org

www.egalitatedegen.md

Center 'Partnership for Development' (CPD), founded in 1998, is a non-profit institution that promotes an integrative approach to gender issues, promoting gender equity values as an integral part of an open society to consolidate an authentic gender partnership. CPD advocates the edification of a community with equal perspectives and opportunities for its members, where both men and women have equal rights, are able to solve problems together, can benefit equally by the new opportunities and can be fully involved in political, economic and social activities.

The survey was conducted by the Centre for Sociological Investigations and Marketing 'CBS-AXA'. CBS-AXA Company, founded in 2003, is focused on performing qualitative and quantitative surveys in various fields: market studies, social research, social and political polling.

During its activity, the company has carried out over 1,000 different studies.

Implementation team:

Alexei Buzu, CPD Executive Director

Vasile Cantarji, Expert-Consultant, Sociologist

Galina Precup, CPD Editor-Consultant

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Technical Editor:

Ana Tataru

Cover and Layout:

Simion Coada, Mihai Sava

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I. INTRODUCTION

Gender Barometer is the first complex survey in Moldova addressing the women's and men's participation in politics and decision-making. The survey aimed to clarify the gender specificities in politics (overall attitude about the men's and women's participation in politics, in the political parties' activity, the intention to run for a position, the specific challenges faced by male and female candidates during the electoral campaign, the activity performed as local elected men and women) and in the decision-making (awareness about the community development process, local development priorities, involvement at different stages of the decision-making).

Conclusions from the Gender Barometer are based on the achievement of three researches targeting voters, local female and male candidates and elected representatives. First, the Gender Barometer questioned the general population of the Republic of Moldova via a national representative survey. This allowed to measure the prospects of men and women for their involvement in politics and decision-making. Second, the Gender Barometer questioned the male and female candidates for local general elections, June 2015. This helped to clarify the specific challenges of the election campaign and of the party activity for women and men. Third, the survey targeted the specific activity of the locally elected women and men.

Gender Barometer offers the possibility to measure how the gender perceptions and stereotypes evolved during the last decade. The national opinion poll was carried out mainly on the basis of the questions from the first Gender Barometer of 2006, when the Law on Gender Equality was adopted. The comparative data help us analyse how much the Moldovan society developed or stagnated in terms of gender roles and stereotypes.

Gender Barometer intends to identify the following actions that gender equality promoters should take in politics and decision-making. Following the adoption by the Parliament of the Republic of Moldova of the minimum compulsory quota of 40% representation for each sex on the lists of candidates for parliamentary and local elections, it seems that the issue of women's under-representation is somehow solved. But the conclusions from this paper reveal many issues linked to the parties internal democracy, financing of the election campaigns, double burden of women, and maintenance of

strong patriarchal stereotypes among voters. Thus, the findings suggest that if political parties, national and local authorities, civil society, mass-media and the development partners want genuine equal representation of men and women, they should commit to a new agenda promoting different additional measures, besides the quota, that would help achieve this goal.

Research was conducted under 'Women in Politics' UN Programme. This Programme is implemented by the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in partnership with East Europe Foundation and 'Partnership for Development' Center with financial support from the Swedish Government. The Programme aims at supporting an increased and significant participation of women in politics and decision-making, by creating an enabling environment. The Programme also aims at developing the capacities of women leaders before, during and after the local and national elections.

II. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY – MAIN CONCLUSIONS

Perceptions of Traditional Gender Roles

About 20.5% of respondents indicate a lack of gender stereotypes. This estimation is based on answers related to the decision-making roles in the family and the perception that the man is obliged to earn money. Almost 58.3% of respondents share at least one of the gender stereotypes (they either agree that men are mainly responsible for earning money or that decisions should be taken prevalingly by a single gender), and 21.2% of respondents support both gender stereotypes.

During the last ten years, the perceptions of traditional gender roles have not improved significantly. The results of the opinion poll show that in 2016, 64% of respondents agreed that man is the one who must earn money and the woman must take care of family and run the home.

Perceptions of women's participation in politics and decision-making developed considerably. When asked who should lead in the public administration, in politics or at work, the man, the woman or no matter who of them, about 72% of respondents chose the last option in 2016, an increase by 11 percentage points compared to 2006.

Participation in Local Decision-Making

Even though most of the community development priorities are the same for women and men, relevant differences still exist. Among the top community development priorities, for which men advocate, are: (i) roads and bridges repair (64%), (ii) improved access to water and sewerage (50.1%) and (iii) street lighting (23.1%). Among the top community development priorities, for which women advocate, are: (i) roads and bridges repair (60.8%), (ii) improved access to water and sewerage

(44.9%) and (iii) investments in schools, kindergartens, extracurricular institutions (21%) and street lighting (21%). These differences, related to the community development priorities, stress once again the importance of a balanced representation of all groups in the society, as well as the importance of a transparent and inclusive local decision-making.

Even though most of the population is aware about the rights of free access to public interest information, very few people exercise this right, women – to a smaller extent than men. Only 12.6% men and 9.1% women of the general population consulted the local budget. The level of access to other documents relevant for LPA activity is even lower. Thus, 10.6% of men and 6% of women consulted the strategic plan and annual reports of the Mayor's Office and 6.9% of men and 5.5% of women reviewed the annual report on the decision-making transparency. Note that most of respondents, men and women (between 67% and 80%) are aware of their main rights on the access to public information, participation in the local council meetings, etc.

General participation rate of women and men in decision-making at local level has decreased during the last 4 years. The participation rate of men dropped at a higher rate, which means that the share of women involved in the local decision-making is higher. In 2012, according to a survey measuring the participation of women and men in the decision-making, the participation rate of men was higher than the one of women, but in 2016, this trend reversed. Thus, in 2016, more women participated in adopting the local budget, making decisions on attracting investments, developing the strategic plan, the community projects, etc. This situation can be explained by several factors, such as: (i) the general rate of women and men participation in decision-making at local level decreased in 2016 compared to 2012, with men's participation dropping at a higher rate than women's, (ii) we can assume that the rate of women participation did not decrease significantly, because during this period many programs of women mobilisation and empowerment were implemented at local level, though this hypothesis should be additionally documented.

When they want to participate, men choose political parties and women – NGOs and community groups. About 5.6% of male respondents say they are members or active participants in political parties, compared to 3.2% of female respondents. At the same time, 4.6% of female respondents participate in the NGOs activity compared to 2.4% of male respondents.

Citizens from the localities that have a woman leading the LPA are significantly more satisfied with her activity. In the communities with a female mayor, the level of confidence (of those who have a lot of confidence)

is of 34%, compared to 6% in communities with a male mayor. The same trend is attested while measuring the rate of citizens satisfied with the activity of their male/female mayor: 27% are absolutely satisfied with their female mayors and 6% are absolutely satisfied with their male mayor.

Citizens from the localities that have a woman leading the LPA are much more involved in the decision-making. The public participation rate in developing community projects in the localities led by men was of 4.6%, while the rate in communities led by women was of 9.6%. About 3.8% of citizens from localities led by men were involved in consulting the budget compared to 12.1% of citizens from the localities led by women. This is explained by two factors: (i) women lead smaller localities than men, thus, in a smaller locality is easier to mobilise a bigger number of citizens than in bigger or urban localities; (ii) women elected to lead LPA attract more often development projects than male mayors. This process is much more participatory, which makes the citizens from localities led by women to get involved in the decision-making to a higher extent.

Political Participation of Men and Women

The more important the political function, the higher the respondents' preference for a man is. Almost 10.8% of respondents prefer a man as the chair of parents' committee in school (31.6% would prefer a woman). 17.8% of respondents would prefer a man as the school principal, and 23.5% – a woman. Usually, the position of mayor is associated with a man (33.2% plead for a man and only 11.7% would accept a woman). The biggest difference was registered for the President of the country – 40.5% of respondents would prefer a man for this position and only 7.6% – a woman.

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Women account for at least 40% of the political parties' assets. This finding refutes the hypothesis according to which the small number of female candidates is linked to the small number of women in the political parties.

Aspirations of women to run for local elective functions are smaller than

the ones of men. The intention to run for mayor or district councilor is twice higher among men (5.1%) than among women (2.3%). The rate of women and men willing to participate in the community initiative groups is almost the same (6.9% of women and 6.5% of men, respectively).

Most respondents think the women's household duties are the most important impediment to their involvement in politics. When asked about the impediments to political participation, both men and women admit that household duties, the lack of family support and traditional gender roles are much more specific to women, which explains partially why women prefer to integrate more in civic structures (NGOs or community groups) rather than in political structures and positions.

Gender inequalities on the labour market lead to unequal opportunities for women in politics. Persons holding top positions in the professional hierarchy are usually nominated as candidates (84% of women candidates and 73.9% of men candidates). Representation of women and men in the main decision-making positions (public officials, managers and qualified professionals) is different – 19.5% for men and 12.7% for women. Given that women are disadvantaged in terms of top jobs on the labor market, and the 'human resources basis' for the political area is mainly constituted from persons holding top jobs, the inequality on the labor market is translated into inequality in politics. As fewer women are at the top of the occupational pyramid – fewer women are thus in the political area.

One of two women running for elections in 2015 came from the educational sector, one of ten from the health sector and 13% – from the trade sector. This focus on areas is less pronounced in the case of male candidates – 25% came from agricultural sector, 19% from trade sector and only 18% from the educational sector. Note that only 28% of women of the total number of employed women work in the educational, health and public administration sectors. The female potential from other activity sectors is thus unused. A significant category of women with a very low representation (only 3.1% of the female candidates) are the retired women (28.7% of the entire sample).

The survey did not identify major differences between the level of women and men participating in the party activity and election campaign. No significant differences were identified at candidates (men and women) level in the party activity (such as the participation in party meetings, organisation of electoral meetings, door-to-door information of voters). This comes once again to dismantle the myth about the meritocracy, used as an argument to explain why the number of female candidates is so small.

Political party is the main actor determining the decision to stand as a candidate. Most candidates (74%) for the 2015 local elections, both men and women, represented the parties to which they belong. About 10% of men and 7% of women stand as an independent candidate, the other persons were supported by the parties, although they were not members. Almost half of candidates, both men and women, took the decision to stand as candidates at the party instigation. The social circle is the second most important factor in this respect. We refer to co-workers, relatives (predominantly as regards women) and friends (predominantly as regards men). In addition, fewer women than men took independently the decision to stand as candidate (15.3% compared to 20.8%).

Decision to stand as candidate is generally more difficult for women. At that moment, women, to a lesser extent, thought they were ready enough to take up the position they ran for. Thus, almost one in five women (18.7%) and only 10.9% of men candidates stated that, at the time when the decision to stand as candidate was made, they were not ready for the position they were to apply as candidate.

During the election campaign, the candidates were given a specific support that they felt insufficient for the election campaign. Although the main issues in this respect are similar, men noted the insufficient financial support (31.7% compared to only 23.6% in case of women). Instead, women would enjoy more moral support (emotional and psychological) from the party members, family members and relatives.

The fact that women felt to a lesser extent the deficit of financial support implies that their election campaigns are cheaper. In terms of the campaign cost, most respondents (about 60%), both men and women, mentioned relatively modest costs ('little' or 'very little').

However, the election campaign cost varies, depending significantly on the candidate's gender. Thus, 15.8% of women candidates stated that no financial expenses had been made during their own 2015 election campaign, compared to 11.7% of men. Most candidates (62% of women and 68% of men) do not know how much money was spent. Given the answers of the other respondents, the expenses made for the election campaign by a woman candidate are much lower than the ones made by a man candidate. Per total, a woman candidate spent 2.5 times less money (MDL 2.3 thousand compared to MDL 5.4 thousand in case of a man). The cost of campaign for men varies insignificantly, depending on the position for which they competed. The women candidates for district councils registered the highest expenses (MDL 3.1 thousand) and the lowest expenses for local councils (MDL 1.4 thousand).

Prospects of Local Elected Representatives

Priorities of local elected representatives vary to a certain extent depending on their gender. Although, per total, the main issues are addressed similarly, women register different results due to the fact that they target aspects related to the educational institutions, care services for little children (54.8% compared to 39.8% in case of men), and environment to a higher extent than men. Men focused particularly on water supply infrastructure and cultural/community institutions.

Women in local leading positions draw more on community projects, while men – on the support of Government institutions. Women differ from men by the fact that, while they seek support (including financial) for community projects, they tend to rely more than men on the local capacities/resources (40.9% versus 34.6%). Another specific aspect for women is the fact that they seek support beyond the State budget. Compared to men, women apply more often for external funding, e.g. specific funding offers, funds of international bodies and civil society. Men maintain the 'traditional' approaches, preferring to seek support at district or national Government institutions or to make use of party membership.

Political factor is the most important element in granting support to the local elected representatives by the Government. Asked to qualify to what extent different categories of local elected representative benefit from support granted by the Government, the respondents indicated first of all the membership to the governing party, then, the local elected representatives with experience (worked previously). Gender is the factor with an average impact in this respect, although there is an intrinsic recognition of gender differentiation. The number of respondents who specified that men have higher chances to benefit from Government support is bigger than the one of those who stated the same about women.

III. METHODOLOGICAL ASPECTS

Component 1: Survey among the population

The survey was conducted on a sample of 1115 persons, 18+ years of age, nationally representative (except for the region on the left bank of the Nistru river). Interview method: computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI). Data were collected during 3 – 16 September 2016.

Sampling strategy:

The research is based on a stratified, probability, multi-stage sample. Basis of stratification: distribution of the Moldovan 18+ population by area of residence and in territorial profile, according to the National Bureau of Statistics as of 1 January 2016.

Criteria of stratification: 13 geographical regions (based on the former counties), residence area, size of localities (2 types of urban localities and 3 types of rural localities).

Localities and subjects were selected by probability methods.

Addresses were selected by random route method.

Number of localities included in the survey: 84, including Chisinau and Balti municipalities. Number of sampling points – 226. Maximum number of interviews conducted per sampling point – 5.

Of total respondents: 45.1% men and 54.9% women; 46.5% urban respondents and 53.5% – rural. The research data analysis is presented according to a number of social and demographic characteristics (Table 1).

Thus, **the age groups** used for data analysis are the following: 18-29 years, 30-44 years, 45-59, 60 years and elder

Table 1.

Breakdown of the sample by socio-demographic characteristics of respondents

C		Total		Gender (Col%)		
		Col %	Number	Men	Women	
Respondent's age:	18-29 years	26.3%	231	26.4%	26.2%	
	30-44 years	25.8%	240	27.7%	24.2%	
	45-59 years	26.9%	257	27.3%	26.5%	
	Over 60 years	21.0%	387	18.6%	23.0%	
Respondent's gender:	Male	45.1%	394	-	-	
	Female	54.9%	721	-	-	
Level of education:	Low	21.3%	266	18.3%	23.8%	
	Medium	45.6%	491	50.2%	41.8%	
	High	33.1%	358	31.5%	34.4%	
Presence of children:	No children	61.0%	739	64.7%	57.9%	
	Children under 18 years	39.0%	376	35.3%	42.1%	
	Children under 7 years	23.7%	227	20.3%	26.6%	
	Children under 4 years	17.1%	160	13.9%	19.7%	
Respondent's employment:	Unemployed	62.6%	767	51.8%	71.4%	
	Employed	Fully	37.4%	348	48.2%	28.6%
		Private	56.8%	194	59.1%	53.7%
		Public	43.2%	154	40.9%	46.3%
Socio-economic level:	Low	33.1%	427	31.5%	34.4%	
	Medium	31.5%	333	29.2%	33.5%	
	High	35.3%	355	39.3%	32.1%	
Area of residence:	Urban	46.5%	506	48.9%	44.5%	
	Rural	53.5%	609	51.1%	55.5%	

The respondents' **level of education** was analysed against three groups:

- Low level: No education, unfinished primary education (up to 4 grades), primary (4 grades), lower secondary education (9 grades),
- Medium level: General education (10-11 grades), high school (12 grades), trade school (1 year), vocational school (3 years),
- High level: College (2-5 years), incomplete higher education (bachelor, 3-4 years), complete higher education (master, 5-6 years), master degree,

Presence of children in the household includes, respectively, the groups: with no children, with children under 18 years of age, with children under 7 years of age, with children under 4 years of age.

The following groups were created on the basis of the Employment of the respondent: unemployed, fully employed, including in the private or public sector.

Regarding their wealth (socio-economic level), the respondents were divided into three groups - with low, medium, and high socio-economic level, respectively.

Component 2: Survey among candidates

The survey was conducted on a sample of 779 persons, candidates for local public administration during the local general elections in 2015, by gender quota, type of the position they ran for, political party (parliamentary, extra-parliamentary, independent candidates) and the result of elections (elected representatives and candidates who were not elected). Interview method: computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI). Data were collected during 5 August – 20 October 2016. The research is based on a stratified, quota sample.

Basis of stratification: the lists of candidates for local general elections of 2015 registered by the Central Electoral Commission.

Criteria of stratification:

- 13 geographical regions (based on the former counties);
- area of residence;
- type of position (mayor, councilors in local councils, councilors in district councils);
- type of party (parliamentary, extra-parliamentary, independent candidates);
- gender.

Stratification was performed separately for the sub-samples of elected officials and candidates who were not elected. When analysing the data for the indicators targeting the perceptions of gender issues, participation in politics and political parties, and features of the election campaign, data are analysed jointly. Indicators targeting the post-election activity are based on the results of the survey among officials.

Table 2.

Breakdown of the sample by sub-samples and gender

		Number	Col %
Total:		779	100.0%
Gender:	Male	394	50.6%
	Female	385	49.4%
Total local elected representatives:		419	100.0%
Gender of local elected representatives:	Male	211	50.4%
	Female	208	49.6%
Total candidates:		360	100.0%
Gender of candidates:	Male	183	50.8%
	Female	177	49.2%

Component 3: Survey among officials

The sample for Component 3 is a part of the sample for Component 2, including only persons elected after local general elections of 2015. This sample contains 419 persons, elected for local public administration during the local general elections of 2015, by gender quota, type of the position they ran for, political party (parliamentary, extra-parliamentary, independent candidates).

Interview method: computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI).

Period: data were collected during 5 August – 20 October 2016.

IV. GENERAL EVOLUTION OF PERCEPTIONS OF GENDER ROLES IN SOCIETY

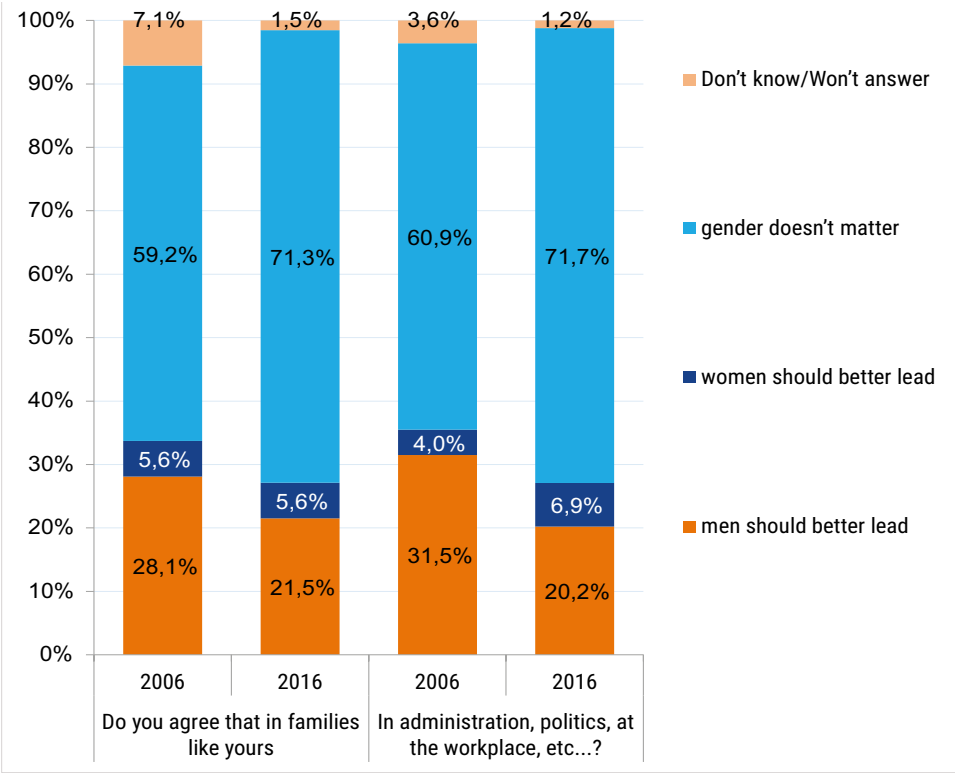
During the last ten years, the stereotypes on traditional gender roles have not changed significantly. In 2006, 68% of the respondents thought that men should be responsible for bringing home money, and women have to take care of the family and household. In 2016, the share of respondents who agreed with this statement decreased by only 3 percentage points (see Table 3).

Table 3.
Persistence of gender role stereotypes

Do you agree with the following statements:		Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know/ Won't answer	% agree
Men should be responsible for bringing home money, and women have to take care of the family and household	2006	37.4%	30.2%	17.5%	10.6%	3.9%	0.3%	68%
	2016	23.5%	41.1%	23.0%	10.7%	0.7%	1.0%	65%
It is not appropriate when a man stays at home and takes care of the children, while the woman works	2006	25.2%	30.6%	24.6%	15.7%	2.7%	1.2%	56%
	2016	25.1%	26.8%	20.7%	19.6%	6.7%	1.1%	52%

The decision-making power granted exclusively to men is another social norm resulting in gender inequalities. In this case, although most citizens support egalitarian approaches (gender doesn't matter) in private (family) and public decision-making (administration, politics, work), the share of opinions that decisions are a prerogative of men exceeds considerably the proportion of those who'd prefer to give the decision-making power to women (Figure 1).

Figure 1.
Perceptions of gender decision-making power



Gender political participation shows positive trends compared to 2006. In 2016, the share of respondents who preferred the 'gender doesn't matter' option increased by more than 10% in both family and public decisions. At the same time, most of 'egalitarian' options belong to those believing that men should have the decision-making power. Thus, the share of those who believe that men should decide decreased by

about 7% when talking about family, and by 11% – for the public sphere.

In 2016, the segmentation indicated the lack of gender stereotypes for 20.5% of respondents. By contrast, 21.2% of citizens were strongly associated with gender stereotypes. The comparison of gender specialization indicators in public/private terms, on the one side, and granting of decision-making power to one of the genders, on the other side, allows segmenting the population as regards the sharing of these wrongful social norms. The lack of stereotypes is defined by the consistent denial of specific gender roles. In this case we are talking about the respondents who equally assign the decision-making power in family to both genders and, at the same time, deny the exclusive responsibility of men to financially support their families. Thus, a strong stereotyping is found in case of respondents who assign the decision-making power in the family to one of the genders, and agree with the statement that 'It is rather the duty of men to bring home money '.

Table 4.

Segmentation of respondents as regards the stereotypes about gender-specific responsibilities

		It is rather the duty of men to bring home money	
		Agree	Disagree
Do you agree that in families like yours...	Assign the decision-making power to one of the genders	Stereotypes fully shared 21,2%	Stereotypes partially shared 5,2%
	Assign the decision-making power to both genders	Stereotypes partially shared 53,1%	Lack of stereotypes 20,5%

Perceptions based on gender stereotypes are specific for all citizens, regardless of socio-demographic particularities. However, the old men, with low education and socio-economic levels, who live in rural areas and work in the public sector demonstrate an increased acceptance of gender stereotypes.

Table 5.

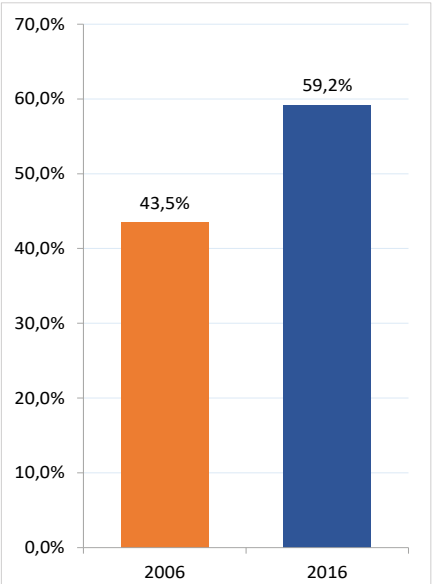
Segmentation of respondents as regards the stereotypes on gender-specific responsibilities by socio-demographic categories

		Strong associ- ation	Moderate association	Lack of stereo- types
Total		21.2%	58.3%	20.5%
Respondent's gender	Male	23.9%	58.9%	17.3%
	Female	19.0%	57.9%	23.1%
Respondent's age	18-29 years old	21.6%	57.5%	20.9%
	30-44 years old	22.0%	60.9%	17.1%
	45-59 years old	18.0%	57.9%	24.1%
	Over 60 years old	23.6%	56.8%	19.6%
Level of education	Low	27.4%	57.3%	15.2%
	Medium	20.9%	60.2%	18.8%
	High	17.5%	56.7%	25.8%
Activity sector	Private	20.9%	55.3%	23.9%
	Public	23.6%	60.3%	16.1%
Socio-economic level	Low	26.9%	53.4%	19.7%
	Medium	18.6%	63.5%	17.9%
	High	18.5%	58.1%	23.4%
Area of residence	Urban	18.8%	59.5%	21.7%
	Rural	23.4%	57.3%	19.3%

Around 59% of respondents claim that a real equality of rights between women and men exists in Moldova. At the same time, the indicator increased as compared to 2006, when according to the prevailing public opinion, that equality of rights was lacking, and only 43.5% stated the opposite. The equal rights are stronger supported by men (64.0% against 55.3% in case of women), young people aged 18-29 years and people aged 45-59 years (63.2% and 63.9%). It is very important to mention that employed people (63.6% against 56.5% in case of those unemployed) also claim that both women and men in Moldova have equal rights. At the same time, this perception is higher in all socio-demographic groups if compared with 2006. This increase, as well as the improvement in other indicators, reflects a higher awareness of the issue by the population, largely due to efforts to inform and promote human rights, in general, and gender issues, in particular.

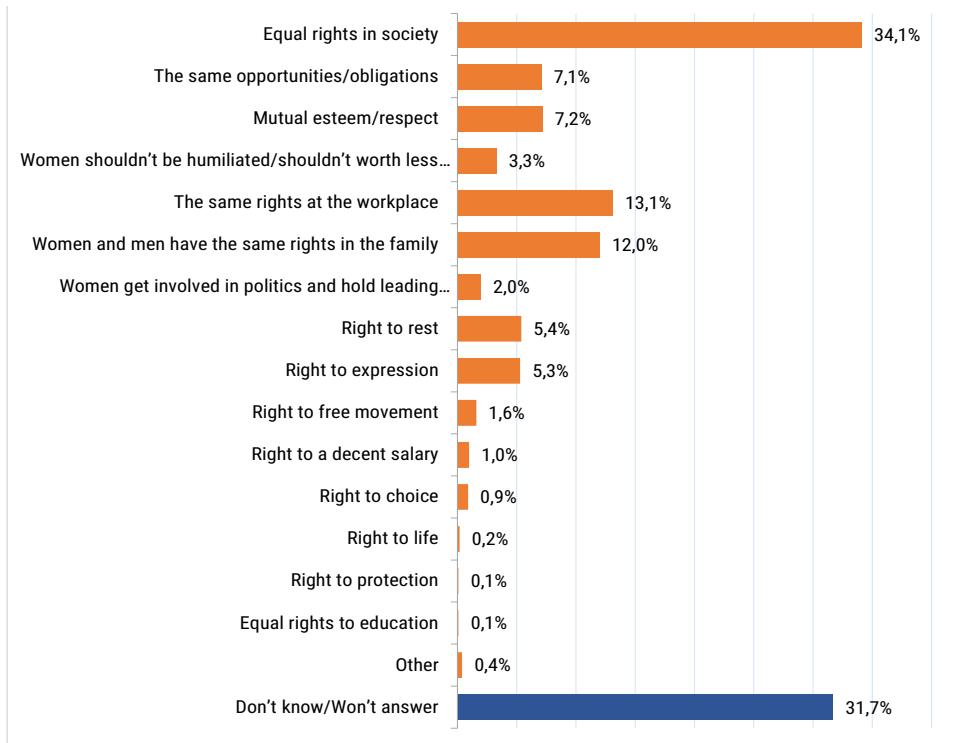
The notion of equal rights is perceived differently and sometimes incompletely. Most commonly, the equal rights are generally defined within the notion of 'equal rights in society'. A considerable number of people (7.1%) define the equal rights as equal opportunities and obligations. Approximately 10% understand the equality of rights as 'mutual esteem/respect' and that 'women shouldn't be humiliated/shouldn't worth less than men'. In addition, the equal rights are perceived depending on a specific area/right – equal rights at the workplace, in family, or specific rights, such as the right to rest, freedom of expression, etc. Note that only 2.0% of respondents expressly defined the equal rights as the involvement in politics and holding leadership

Figure 2.
Share of respondents believing that women and men in Moldova have equal rights



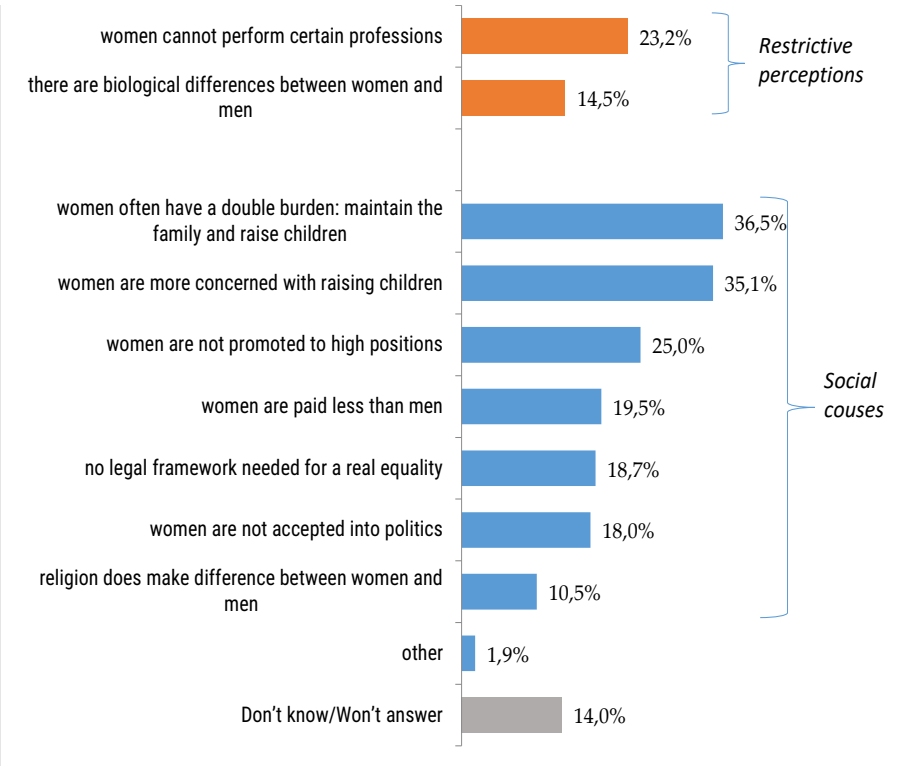
positions. Finally, 31.7% of the respondents could not answer. This situation, on the one hand, highlights population's low level of information and acquaintance with the concept, and, on the other hand, is determined by the type of question asked (open-ended question, where the interviewee had to formulate and provide the answer). Generally speaking, the causality of the full inequality in rights is perceived from the perspective of a complex set of factors, although restrictive perceptions also remain strongly pronounced, which seem to exclude the fact that full equality could be possible.

Figure 3.

Defining the equal rights

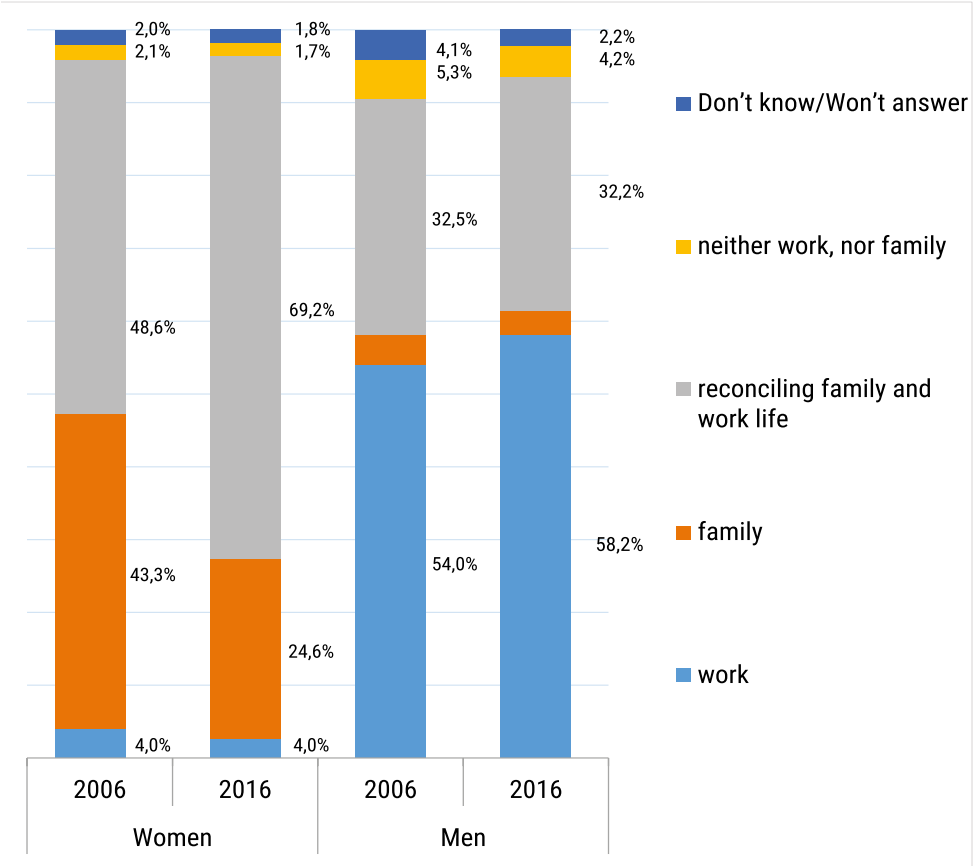
Every fourth respondent (23.2%) claims that the equal rights are lacking due to the fact that women cannot hold certain positions, while 14.5% insist that biological differences between females and males is one of inequality causes. At the same time, the inequality in rights is explained by several key factors which, according to the respondents, disadvantage the women – the double burden on the public/private level, hence women's duty to raise children, the inequalities on the labour market (women are not promoted to high positions, they are less paid), women's limited access to politics, the inappropriate legal framework or the religion.

Figure 4.
Causes of inequality in rights between women and men



From another perspective, the majority thinks that women in Moldova accept to combine family life with the work (69.2%), while men are exclusively concerned with the latter (58.2%). Awareness regarding this phenomenon increases, if compared to 2006. However, these trends have a specific nature. The share of respondents acknowledging women's burden ('combine family life with the work') increased by more than 20% compared to 2006, while the share of those claiming that men are only concerned about work increased by only about 4%. These trends prove the incomplete nature of the approaches promoting gender equality, when emphasis is put on presenting the problems of disadvantaging women, reflecting on the complex framework of gender inequalities less.

Figure 5.
Acknowledging women's double burden

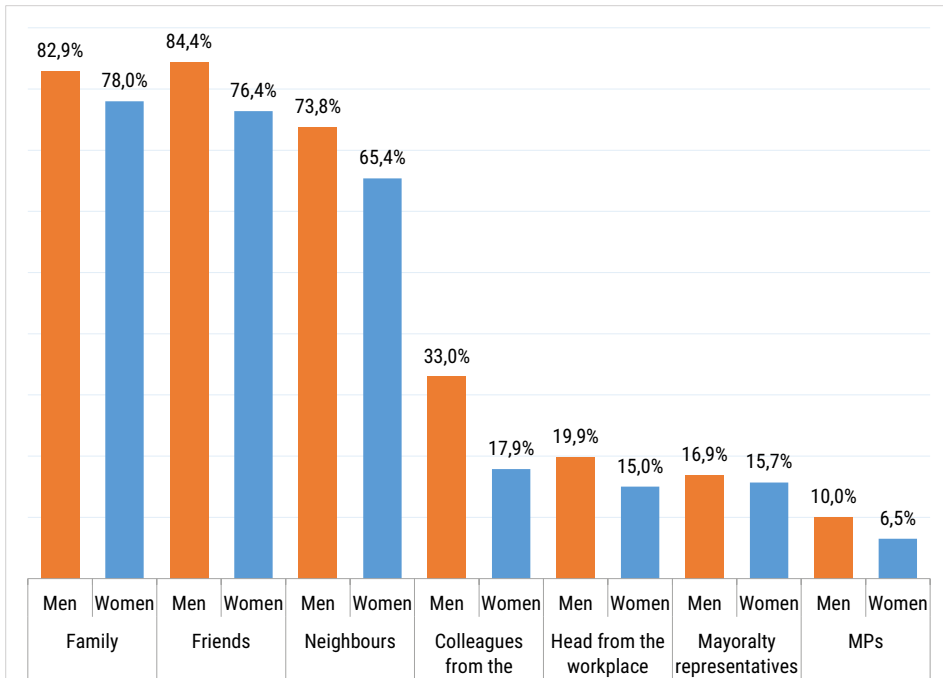


V. PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

There are no significant gender gaps in the concern about the public life in Moldova. If the level of interest is expressed through the frequency of discussions on country's or community's issues, then women discuss such topics almost as frequently as men, and the gaps are insignificant, given that they spend much more time on household activities. The narrow social circles, like family, friends, neighbors, where such discussions take place, are common to both men and women.

Figure 6.

Frequency of discussions on country's or community's issues with representatives of social circles

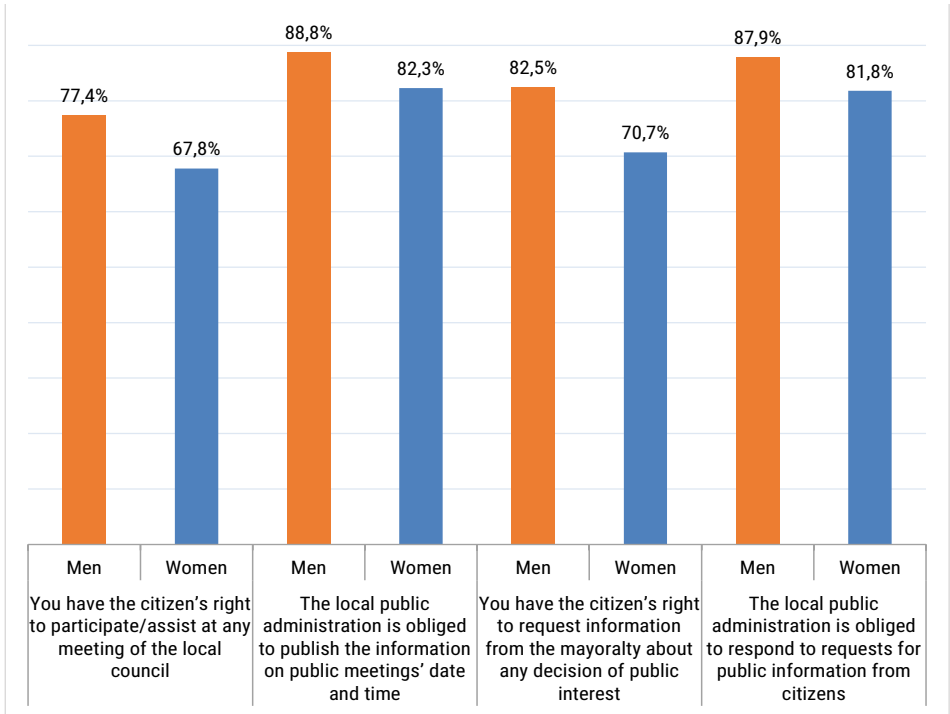


Total of 'often' and 'sometimes' answers.

5.1. Level of information

Women are constantly registering slightly lower values of the indicators of the level of information about their rights. The share of respondents who gave affirmative answers (agreeing that such right or obligation exists) for a number of statements that stipulated the existence of a citizen’s right (for instance citizen’s right to attend local council meetings) or an obligation of the LPA (for instance the duty to publish information on meetings date and time) varies between 70 and 90%. For women, the level of information is by 6-12% lower compared to men. These discrepancies are dictated by socio-demographic differences of female and male population. Among women, the percentage of older persons with a lower level of education, unemployed, with low and average socioeconomic levels, living in rural areas, is higher. Or, namely these categories of population also have lower levels of information on citizens’ rights.

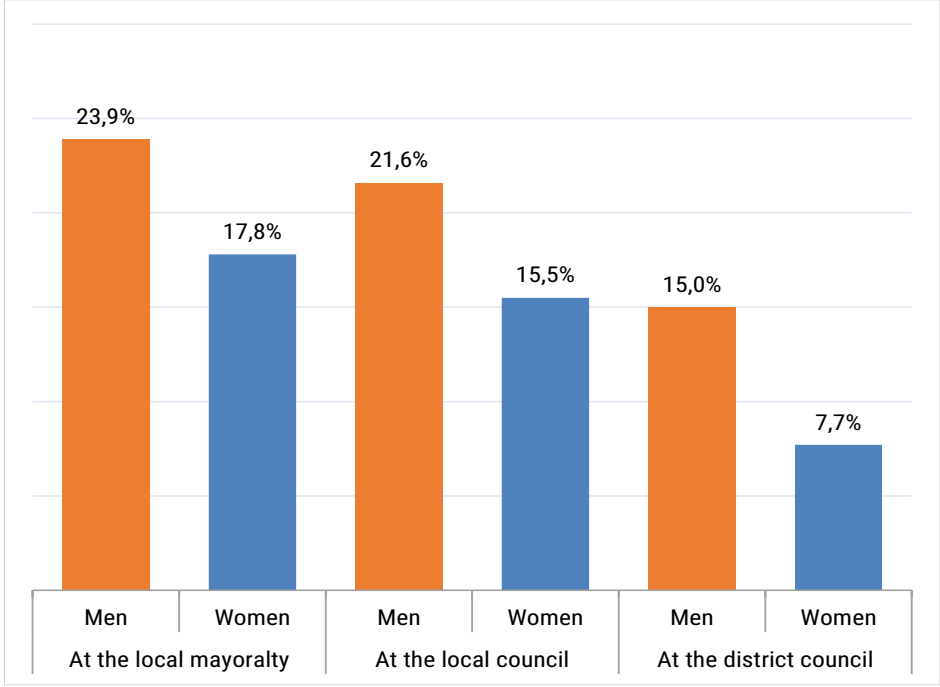
Figure 7.
Information about citizens’ rights



Total of 'sure' and 'probably yes' answers

Despite the high level of knowledge of their rights to information, only 23.9% men and 17.8% women really know how their local mayoralties make decisions. The level of information on decision-making in the local council, especially in the district council, is even lower.

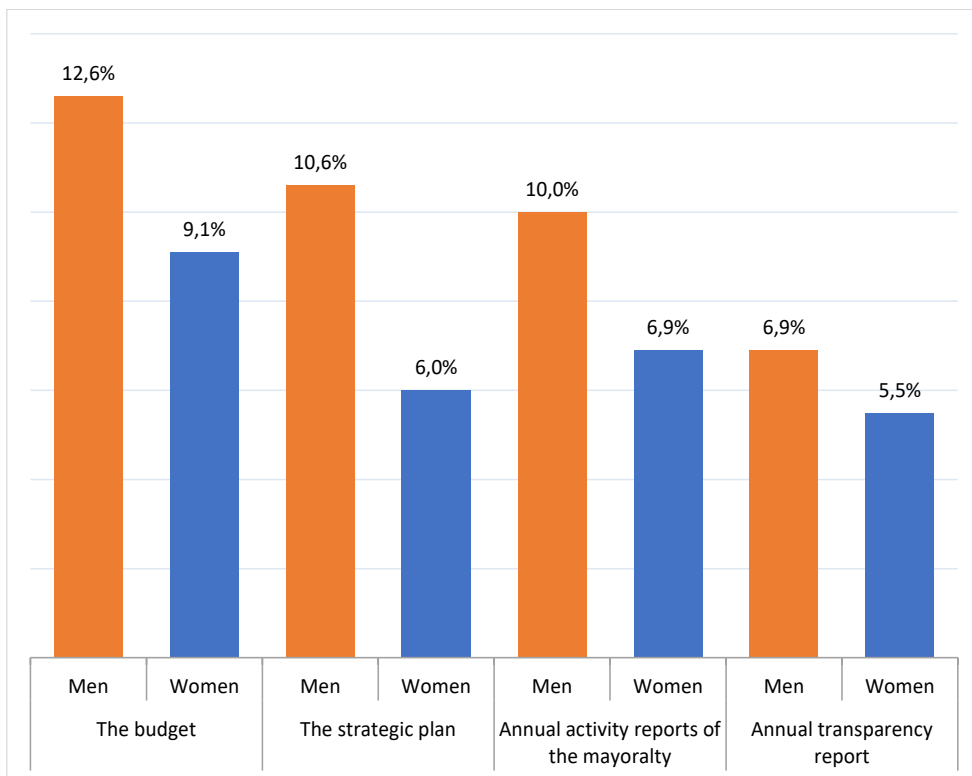
Figure 8.
Level of information on LPA decision-making



Total of 'highly informed' and 'rather informed' answers

The level of access to the main documents on LPA activity is even lower. Only 12.6% men and 9.1% women consulted or at least have ever seen a local budget. A minimum level of access is also registered for other strategic documents at community level, such as strategic plans, activity reports or transparency reports.

Figure 9.
Consultation of the main documents on LPA activity



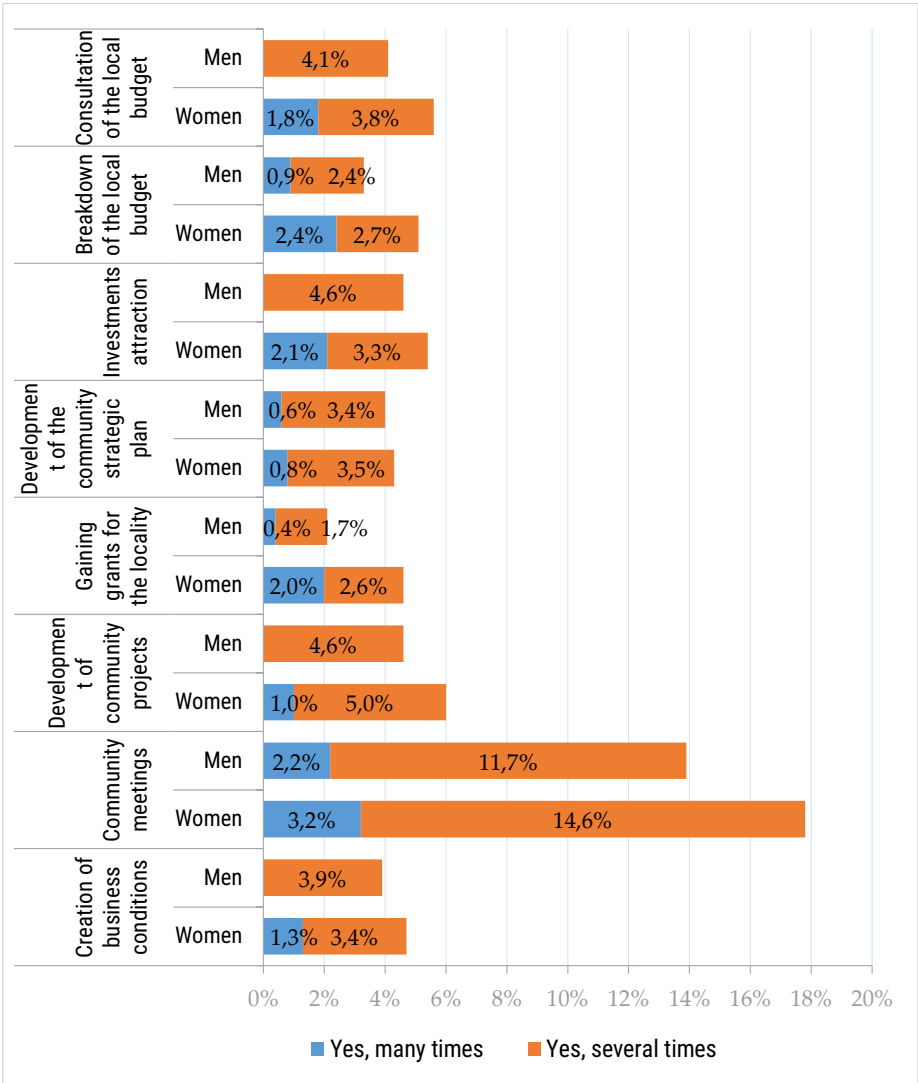
Total of 'Yes, I always consult them' and 'Yes, I have seen a few times' answers

5.2. Involvement in public/community life

The rate of participation of women in the local decision-making is higher than that of men. In 2012, according to a survey measuring the participation of women and men in the decision-making, the participation rate of men was higher than the one of women, but in 2016, this trend has reversed. In 2016, more women participated in adopting the local budget, making decisions on attracting investments, developing the strategic plan, developing community projects, etc. This situation can be explained by several factors, such as: (i) the general rate of participation decreased in 2016 compared to 2012, hence in 2012 we have fewer men involved in the local decision-making, and the number of women involved has fallen sharply, (ii) we can suppose that the rate of women participation did

not decrease significantly, because during this period many programs of mobilisation and empowerment of women at local level were implemented, though, this hypothesis should be additionally documented.

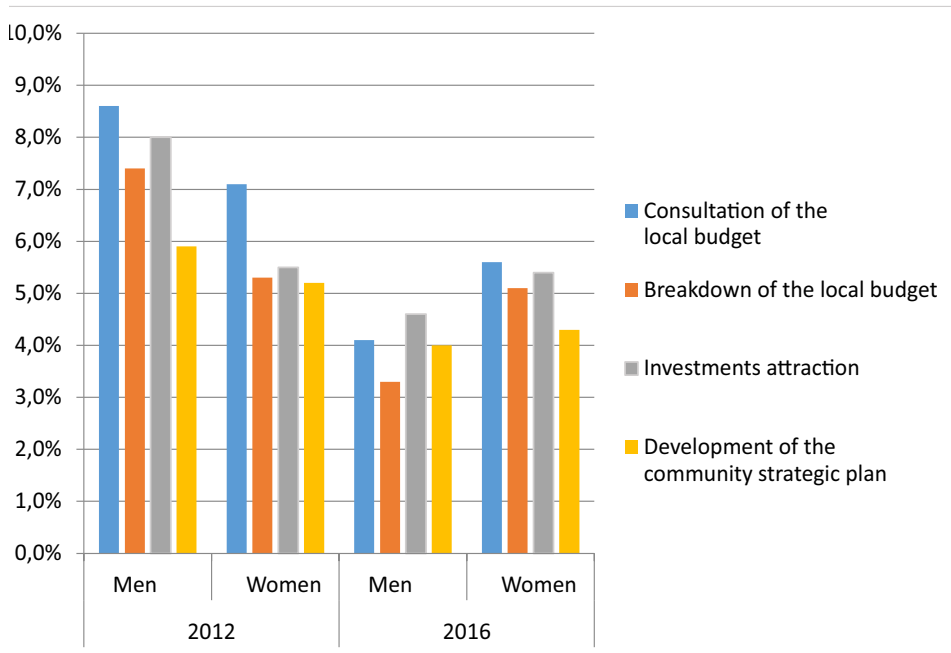
Figure 10.
Frequency of participation in different community actions



The level of involvement in community life seems to decrease. This trend should be additionally documented by other researches. Compared to 2012, the rate of participation in community actions is lower for all cooperation forms. A specific trend has also emerged on the background of this decrease. In 2012, the female participation rate was lower than that of men practically in all forms (except for community assemblies and grants), while the current study indicates a higher level of involvement of women in all types of actions. This situation can be explained by several factors, such as: (i) the general rate of women and men participation in decision-making at local level decreased in 2016 compared to 2012, the participation rate of men being lower than the one of women, (ii) we can suppose that the rate of women participation did not decrease significantly, because during this period many programs of mobilisation and empowerment of women at local level were implemented, though, this hypothesis should be additionally documented.

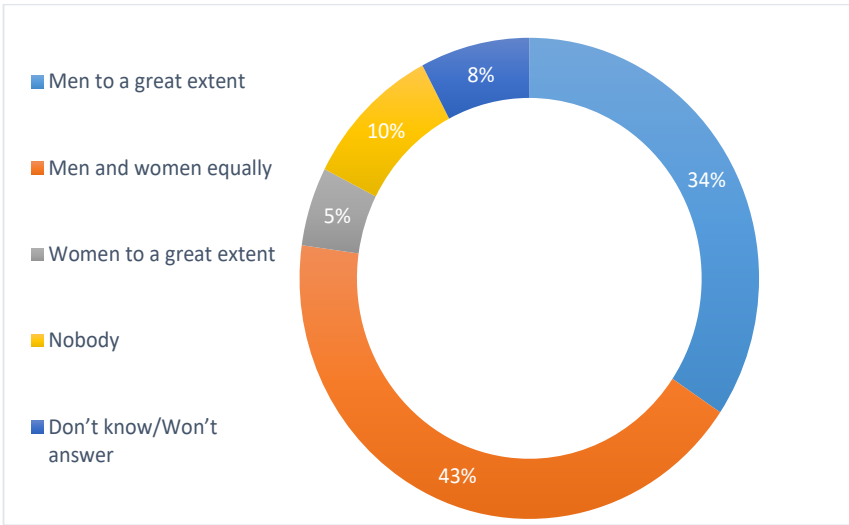
Figure 11.

Frequency of participation in different community actions, compared to 2012



The tendency to see the lower role of women in decision-making remains valid for the public tendency. Every third respondent claims that local decisions on community development are mostly the preserve of men. Only 42.8% of respondents insist on gender equality in community decision-making. In other words, although we have a greater involvement of women as regards their number, this does not imply a major influence on decisions that are apparently taken collectively. Decisions on community development are still taken by men.

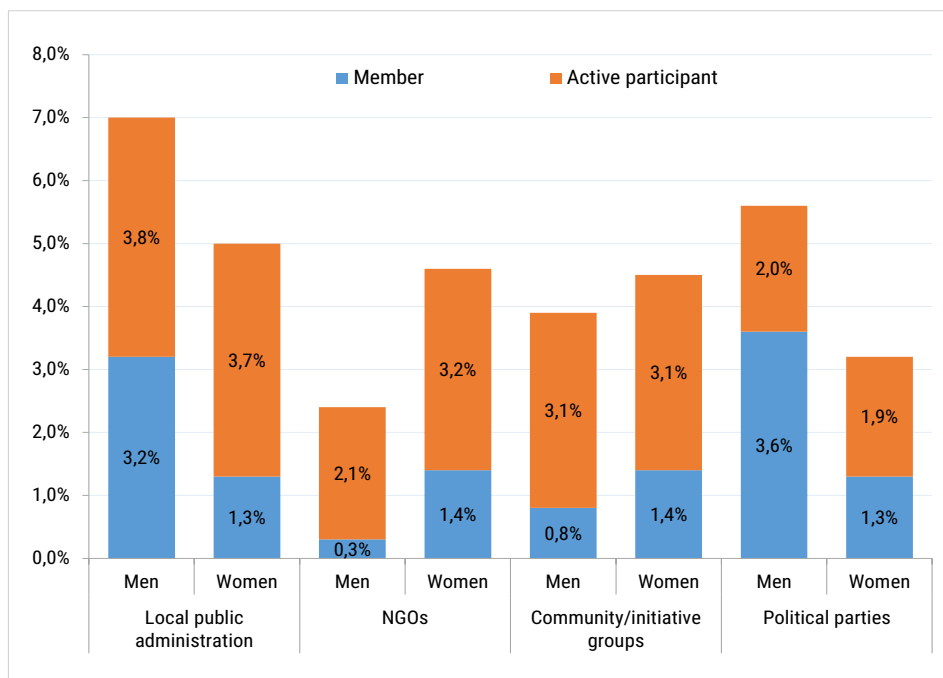
Figure 12.
Who takes the decisions on community development



There are gender preferences for involvement in the political and associative sectors. The rate of men's involvement in political structures, such as LPAs and political parties, is higher than that of women. Instead, the rate of women's involvement is higher for civic structures, such as non-governmental sector or informal groups of initiative.

Figure 13.

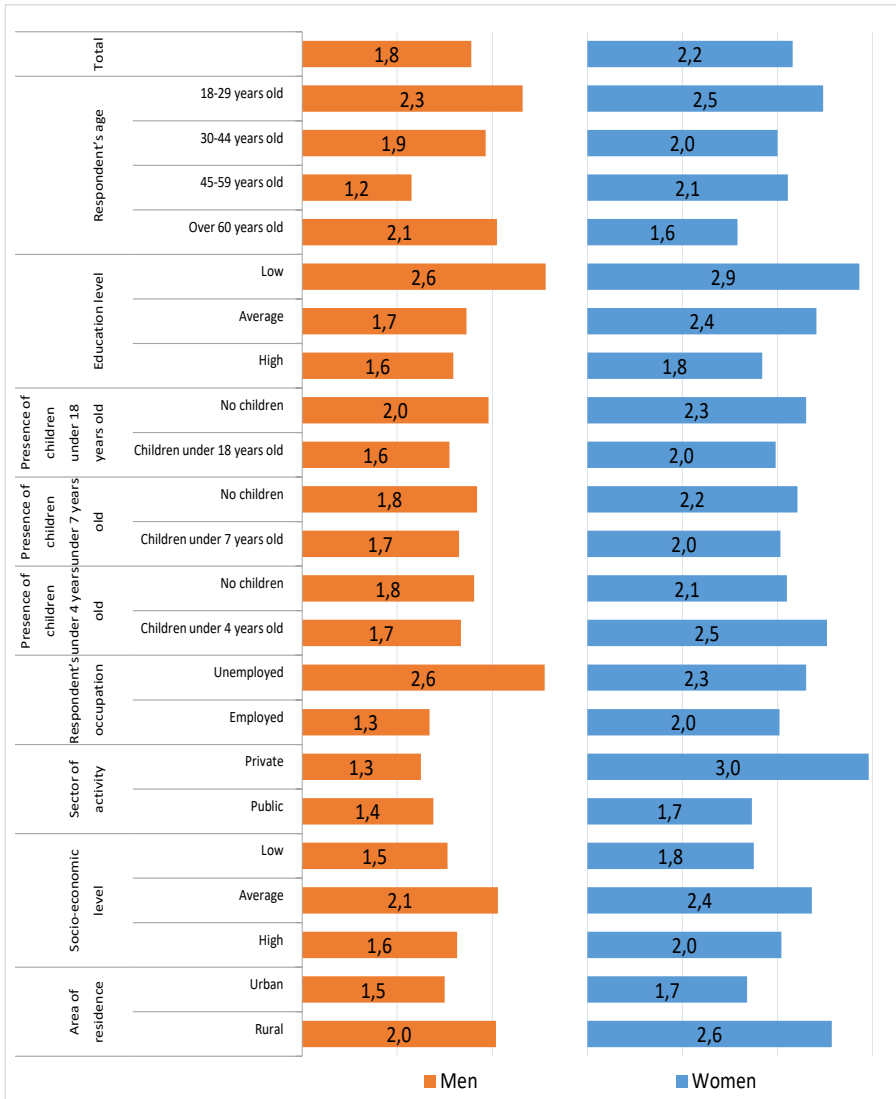
Level of representation and participation in the activity of LPAs, NGOs and political parties



The levels of participation in local structures of representatives of different socio-demographic groups show some curious variations. First, there is an inverse relationship between participation and age. Thus, the young people have the highest participation levels. At the same time, there is also a gender aspect in this respect. Although the trend for lower participation with ageing is characteristic for both men and women, there is a steep drop in men' participation, which is not the case for women. This can be explained by the fact that retirement is associated with the withdrawal from the active life for both women and the community/society in general.

The inverse relationship between local participation and level of education is another trend that is hard to explain. People with low level of education have the highest participation rates. There are specific variations depending on the occupational status too. If not employed, men tend to be more civically involved. This situation is not similar for women. In contrast, women in the private sector are almost twice more involved compared to those employed in the public sector. Note sways depending on the area of residence. Thus, both men and women from rural area have a higher level of participation.

Figure 14.
Local participation index by socio-demographic categories



Note the reverse impact of children's presence on male and female activism. Although children's presence in the household and the local participation index do not register a significant correlation, the direction of these relations is important. If in the case of men, the presence of children determines a higher civic participation, in case of women – the situation is opposite.

Figure 15.

Relation between children's presence in the household and the local participation index

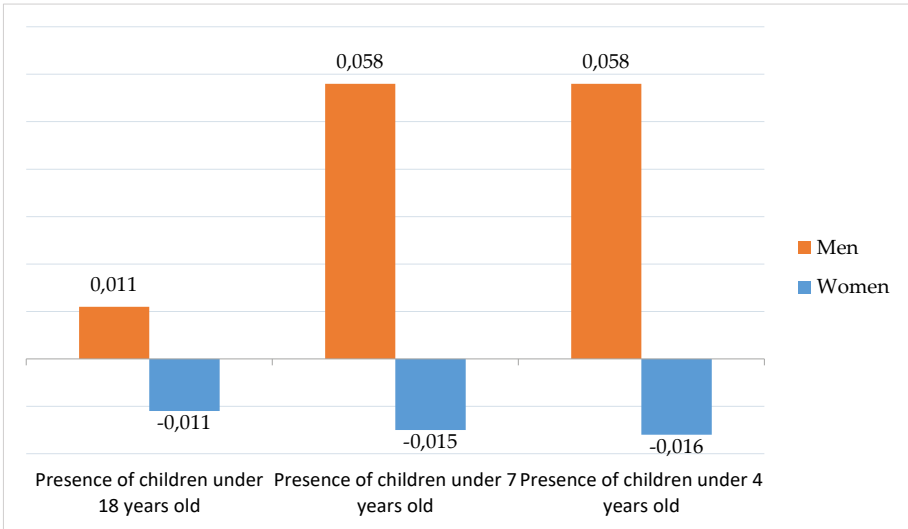
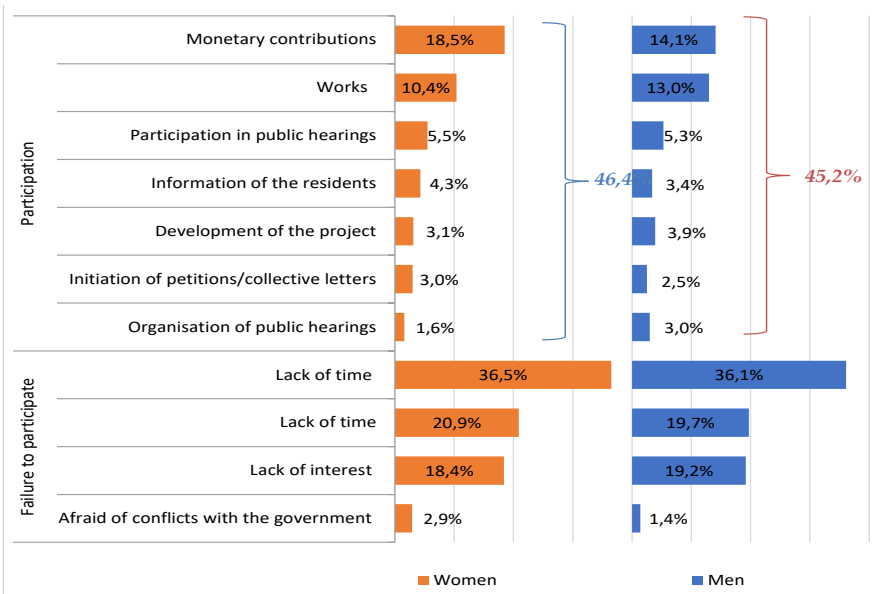


Figure 16.

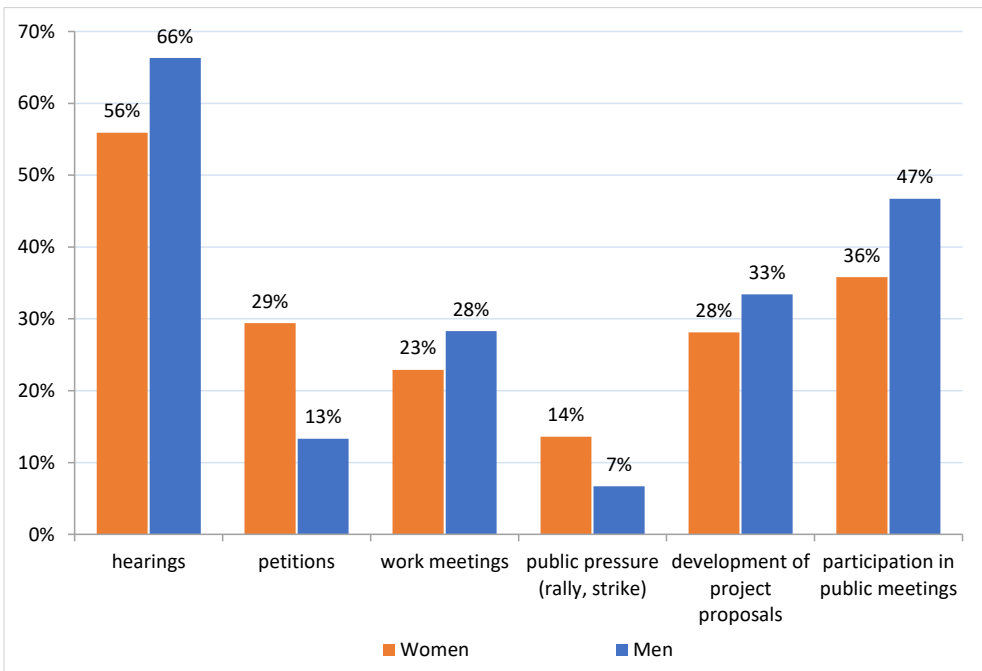
Level and forms of involvement in solving community issues



There is a slight difference in the form of participation. Hence, women are more often involved through monetary contributions (18.5% compared to 14.1% for men). Instead, men prefer more to be involved through work (13.0% compared to 10.4% for women).

The women most commonly use protesting forms to impose/defend their visions. Women twice as often as men use petitions or public pressures on LPAs. One explanation would be that the lower presence of women in LPA decision-making positions makes their voices less heard during the usual platforms of debates, such as working sessions, public meetings, etc.

Figure 17.
Forms of contacting the LPA to solve community issues



Women invoke specific barriers to influencing the decision-making. Hence, the following barriers are specific for women: (i) the belief that they are not trained enough to get involved in the decision-making, (ii) the need to look after children and household, (iii) the obstacles justifying the inadequacy

of social activism of older women are: age and health. For men, the most specific impediments relate to: (i) the fact that they believe their opinion is ignored and (ii) insufficient financial resources to engage in politics.

Table 6.

Barriers for the involvement in local decision-making and politics

	In making community-related decisions		In the community development process		In politics	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
I have no time to get involved	44.3%	46.3%	43.8%	45.3%	31.6%	33.8%
I am not informed enough	35.7%	34.5%	31.5%	34.6%	24.2%	27.2%
Nobody cares about my opinions	24.6%	20.1%	25.2%	19.4%	16.9%	15.1%
I am not interested, I have more important things to do	14.9%	15.1%	15.1%	12.5%	32.3%	27.4%
Decisions should be made by persons well-trained	13.4%	17.1%	12.8%	17.5%	11.5%	17.6%
I don't have enough money to get involved	8.6%	9.3%	11.2%	11.0%	12.3%	9.6%
I have to take care of children and house	5.0%	13.1%	4.1%	12.0%	4.8%	10.2%
It is enough that my husband/wife participates	2.9%	5.0%	2.4%	5.3%	2.5%	4.5%
Age and health do not allow me	1.7%	4.5%	1.9%	3.5%	2.8%	4.8%
Anything else	2.1%	3.3%	2.9%	3.1%	1.6%	2.9%
Nothing	2.9%	0.7%	2.8%	0.6%	2.0%	0.2%
Don't know/Won't answer	6.5%	5.8%	7.6%	6.7%	7.1%	8.6%

5.3. The impact of women involvement in public/ community life

General opinions that women's involvement in politics is a positive element have increased. Beliefs that women's participation in public life would change things for the better have become common enough. Almost every second respondent said that women's presence (participation) in politics or business had a positive impact and only around 8% saw negative effects in this respect. If compared to 2006, the perceptions of the impact of women's involvement in politics and business are going through positive developments.

Citizens from the communities that have a woman leading the LPA are significantly satisfied by mayor's activity. The share of population showing a high level of confidence and satisfaction with the activity of women mayors is double than that of communities headed by men mayors.

Figure 18.
The impact perceived by the respondents as regards women's participation in politics and business

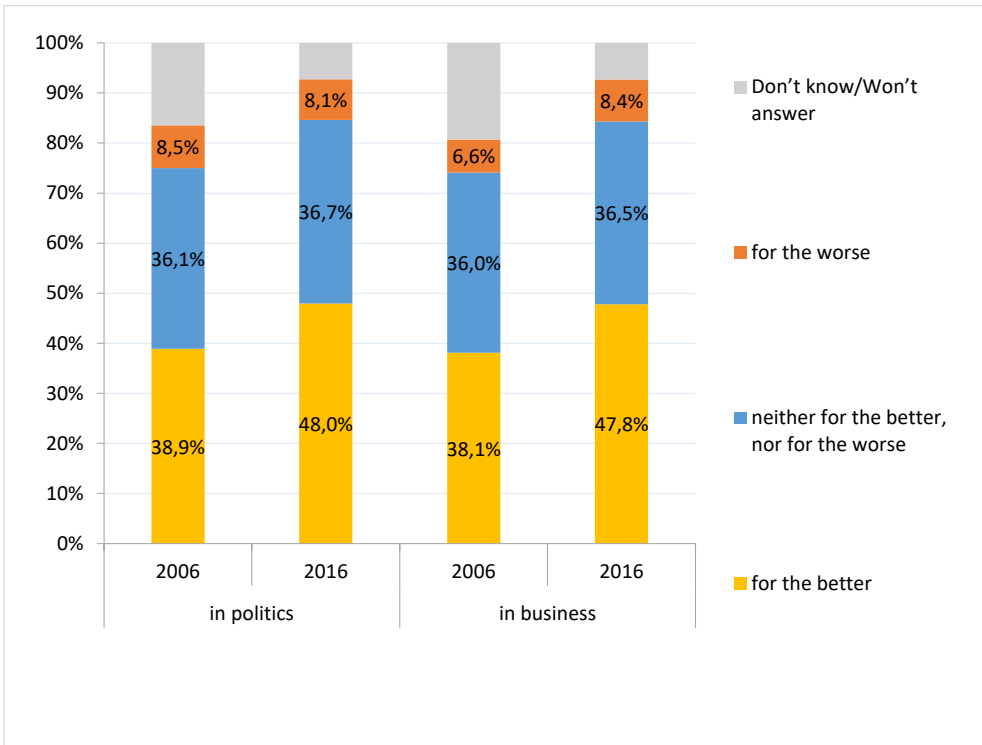
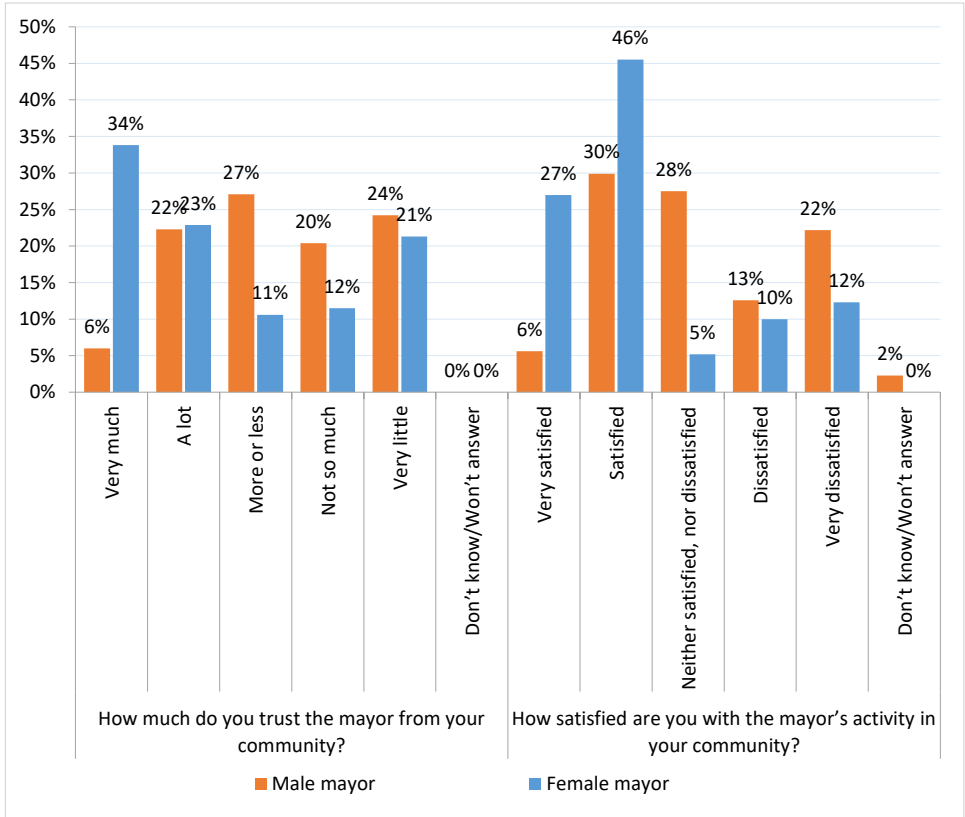


Figure 19.

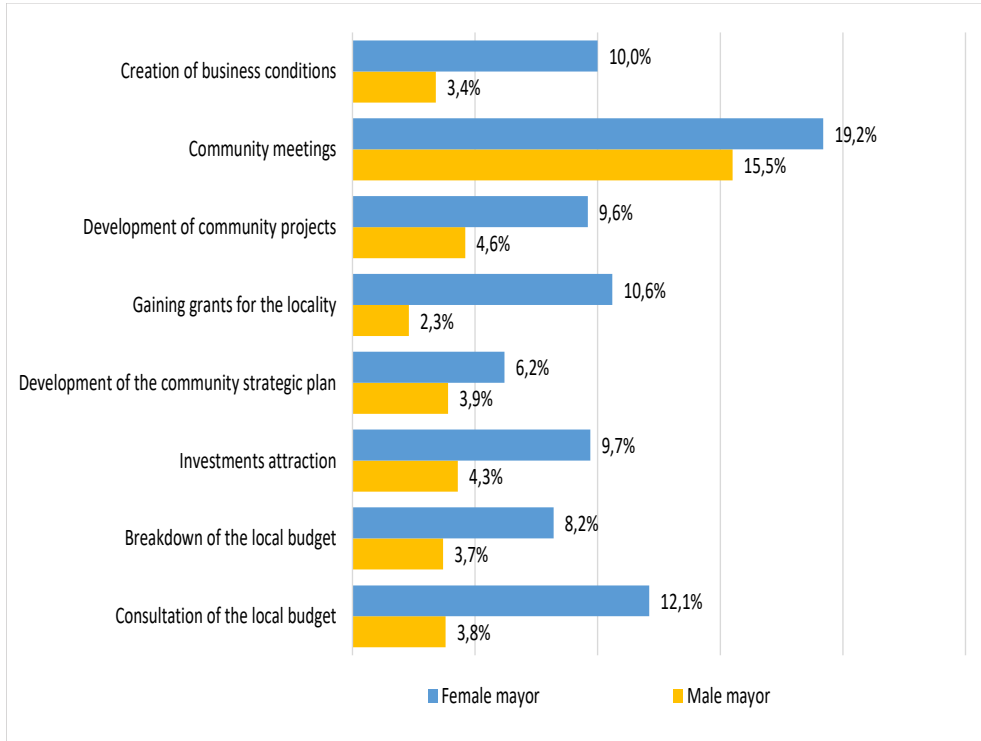
Level of confidence and satisfaction with mayors' activity depending on their gender



Citizens from the communities that have a woman leading the LPA are much more involved in the decision-making. The participation rate of men in developing community projects in the localities led by men was of 4.6%, while the rate in communities led by women was of 9.6%. About 3.8% of citizens from communities led by men were involved in consulting the budget compared to 12.1% of citizens from the localities led by women. This is explained by two factors: (i) women lead smaller communities than men, thus, in a smaller community is easier to mobilise a bigger number of citizens than in bigger or urban communities; (ii) women elected to lead LPA use more often to attract development projects than male mayors – this process involves a much more participatory process that determines that more people in the communities led by women are involved in the local decision-making.

Figure 20.

Level of citizen's participation in community actions depending on mayor's gender



The community priorities are similar for both genders. Traditionally, the road infrastructure is obviously in the top of local needs in the Republic of Moldova. Other priorities are the conditions that ensure the living standards, such as sewage systems, water supply systems, street lighting and waste collection and disposal services. However, there are concerns specific to women. The latter focus on educational institutions and playgrounds for children. Men, instead, mainly opt for road infrastructure and sewerage systems.

Table 7.

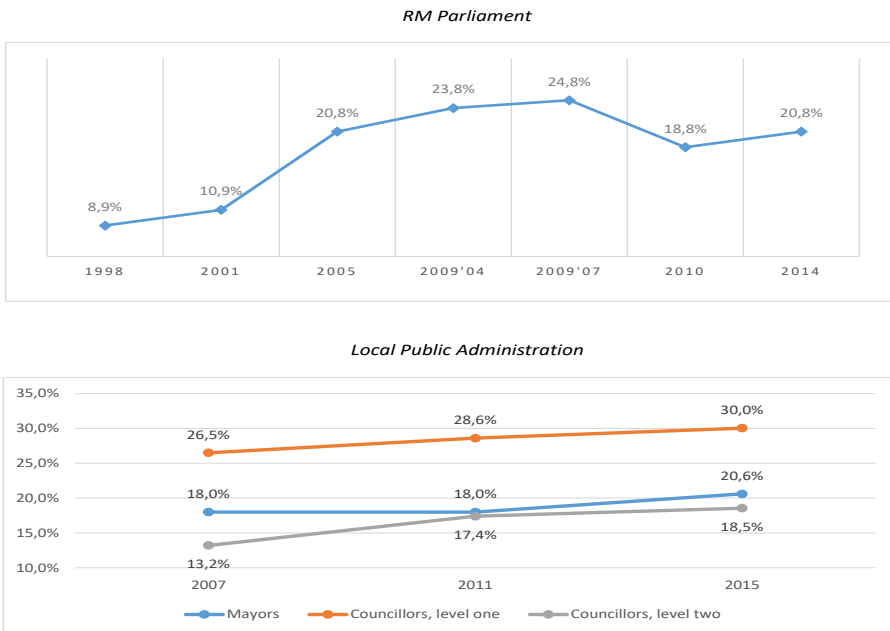
Top issues that require to be urgently resolved in the community

	Men	Women
Roads and bridges	64.2%	60.8%
Sewerage	27.4%	20.7%
Water systems	22.7%	24.2%
Street lighting	23.1%	21.0%
Systems of waste collection and disposal	21.1%	19.8%
Schools, kindergarten, non-academic institutions	14.9%	21.0%
Environment	18.2%	15.2%
Playgrounds for children/sports areas	13.2%	17.9%
Gas systems	11.6%	14.8%
Healthcare facilities	7.0%	7.0%
Community centers/houses of culture	5.0%	6.5%
Other	6.8%	6.4%
No problem	2.8%	4.0%
Don't know/Won't answer	3.0%	3.1%

VI. WOMEN'S AND MEN'S INVOLVEMENT IN POLITICS

The number of positions held by women slightly increased during the latest local elections. The proportion of women mayors exceeded only 20%. Women have less than 20% of seats in district councils, and 30% in the local ones. Currently, the Parliament of the Republic of Moldova counts only 20.8%, although the general trend has a relatively upward trajectory in a longer perspective.

Figure 21.
Proportion of women in elective positions in public administration

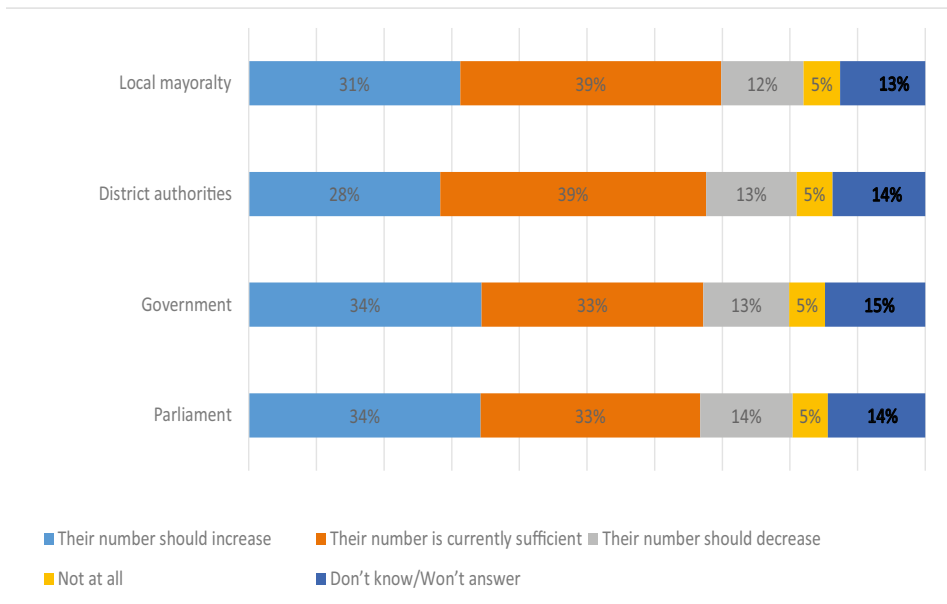


6.1. Perceptions of the presence of women and men in politics

Around 13% of respondents believe that the number of women in public administration bodies should be lower, and 5% think that women should generally not held leading positions. Such conceptions are common among the representatives of all socio-demographic groups, being more intensive among rural population with low education and socio-economic levels. It should also be noted that although the shares of those who oppose women's present in state institutions are more or less equal among men and women, there is a more balanced position of men in this regard. They opt for keeping women's presence at current levels, having doubts as to increasing their number.

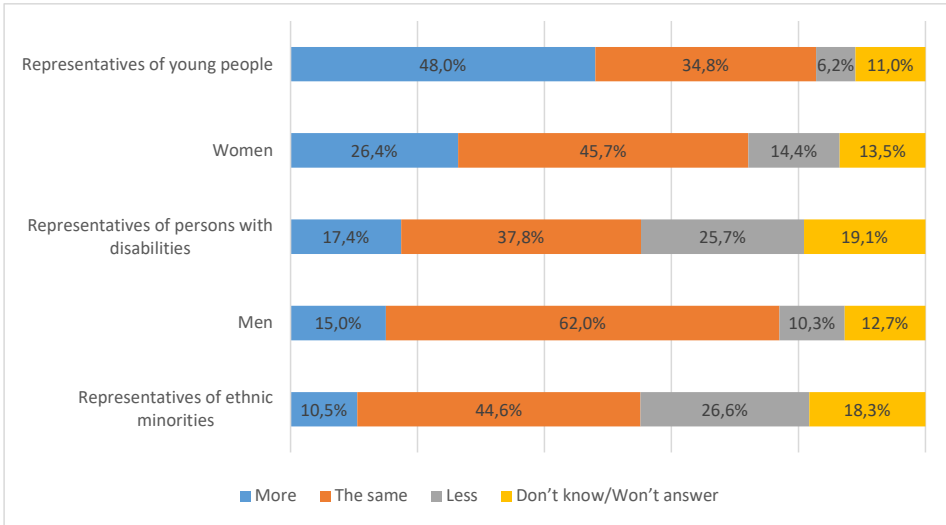
Figure 22.

Appreciation on the sufficiency of women's presence in state institutions



If compared with other social groups, women and young people are the groups whose presence is local and district councils is the strongest supported. At the same time, the options for reducing the presence of some social groups, such as people with disabilities and ethnic minorities, highly predominated.

Figure 23.
The local/district council needs more, the same number or less...:



The readiness to support a man or woman in different hierarchically superior positions differs. Although more than half of respondents said that they wouldn't take into account candidate's gender for leadership positions, regardless of the hierarchical level, the ratio of those who'd prefer a man to those who'd opt for a woman are almost the same for each rank. As regards low-rank levels of management, such as a school committee chair and school principal, more respondents said they would support a woman. However, when it comes to high-rank levels in local or central public administration, respondents (3-5 times more) would opt for a man.

During 2006-2016, the developments in gender equality and addressing gender issues have seen minor changes. The survey shows that the share of respondents who stated that the gender of the person didn't matter increased, although not very much. It is interesting to note that the options for personified positions, held by one person (president, director, mayor), registered more significant increases, while those for collective bodies (councils, parliament), where gender discrepancies are more difficult to perceive, increased by only 1% and 2%, respectively.

Figure 24.

Readiness to support a man or woman in different leadership positions

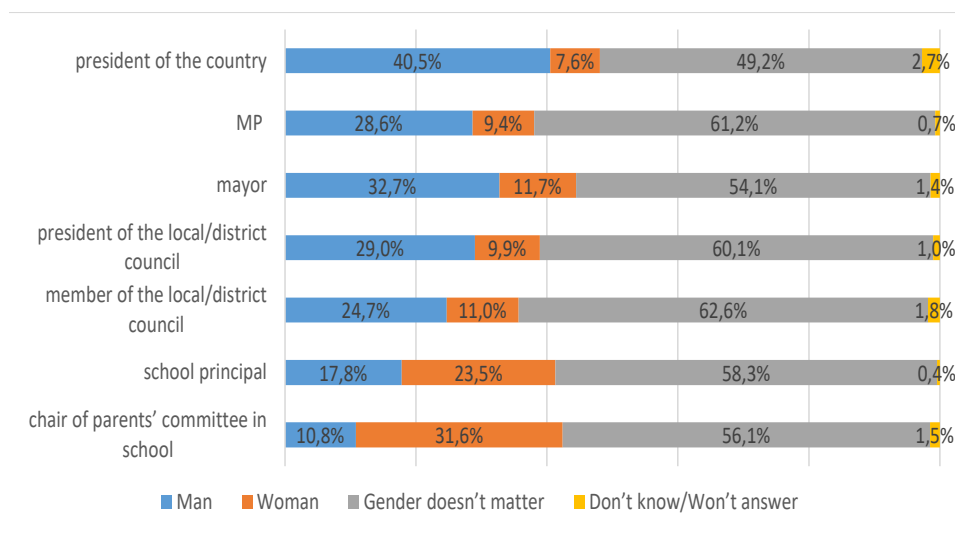


Figure 8.

Readiness to support a man or woman in different leadership positions (% of answers 'gender does not matter')

	2006	2016	Developments
Chair of parents' committee in school	51,3%	56,1%	+4,8%
School principal	52,5%	58,3%	+5,8%
Member of the local/district council	61,6%	62,6%	+1,0%
President of the local/district council	56,1%	60,1%	+4,0%
Mayor	48,9%	54,1%	+5,2%
MP	59,2%	61,2%	+2,0%
President of the country	41,9%	49,2%	+7,3%

The gender stereotypes of the respondents from the communities led by women are less pronounced than those of the respondents from the communities led by men. Analysing the data on respondents' openness to a balanced participation of women and men in different decision-making positions depending on mayor's gender, we found that there are more respondents in women-led communities for whom the gender doesn't

matter when they'd opt for a particular person to a leadership position. Hence, we can just assume that: (i) this openness partly contributed to the election of female mayors in these communities and/or (ii) the female mayors caused a part of the electorate to be more neutral in its preference for the persons who are best placed for certain decision-making positions.

Table 9.
Gender perceptions based on mayor's gender

		The mayoralty is lead by a man	The mayoralty is lead by a woman
Would you choose a man or a woman as the chair of parents' committee in school?	Man	11,6%	5,9%
	Woman	31,1%	34,3%
	Gender doesn't matter	55,6%	59,2%
	Don't know/ Won't answer	1,7%	0,7%
Would you choose a man or a woman as school principal?	Man	18,2%	15,1%
	Woman	23,9%	21,3%
	Gender doesn't matter	57,4%	63,7%
	Don't know/ Won't answer	0,5%	
Would you choose a man or a woman as member of the local/district council?	Man	25,4%	20,3%
	Woman	10,9%	11,6%
	Gender doesn't matter	61,8%	67,4%
	Don't know/ Won't answer	2,0%	0,7%
Would you choose a man or a woman as president of the local/district council?	Man	28,8%	29,8%
	Woman	9,6%	11,9%
	Gender doesn't matter	60,3%	58,3%
	Don't know/ Won't answer	1,2%	
Would you choose a man or a woman as mayor?	Man	34,6%	21,5%
	Woman	10,3%	20,3%
	Gender doesn't matter	53,6%	57,6%
	Don't know/ Won't answer	1,6%	0,7%

Would you choose a man or a woman as MP?	Man	28,9%	27,1%
	Woman	9,0%	11,9%
	Gender doesn't matter	61,3%	61,1%
	Don't know/ Won't answer	0,9%	
Would you choose a man or a woman as president of the country?	Man	40,6%	40,1%
	Woman	7,0%	11,4%
	Gender doesn't matter	50,1%	43,7%
	Don't know/ Won't answer	2,3%	4,8%

Every second respondent agrees that men would have an interest in women not to compete with them for leading positions. This perception would rather be a simplistic description of the reality, when key positions in political parties and governmental structures are held by men. The latter, due to their positions, are perceived as persons with a dominant decision-making power over the staff promotion.

A number of stereotypes documented by the survey relate to the perception of women's specifics, which wouldn't favour their promotion in politics.

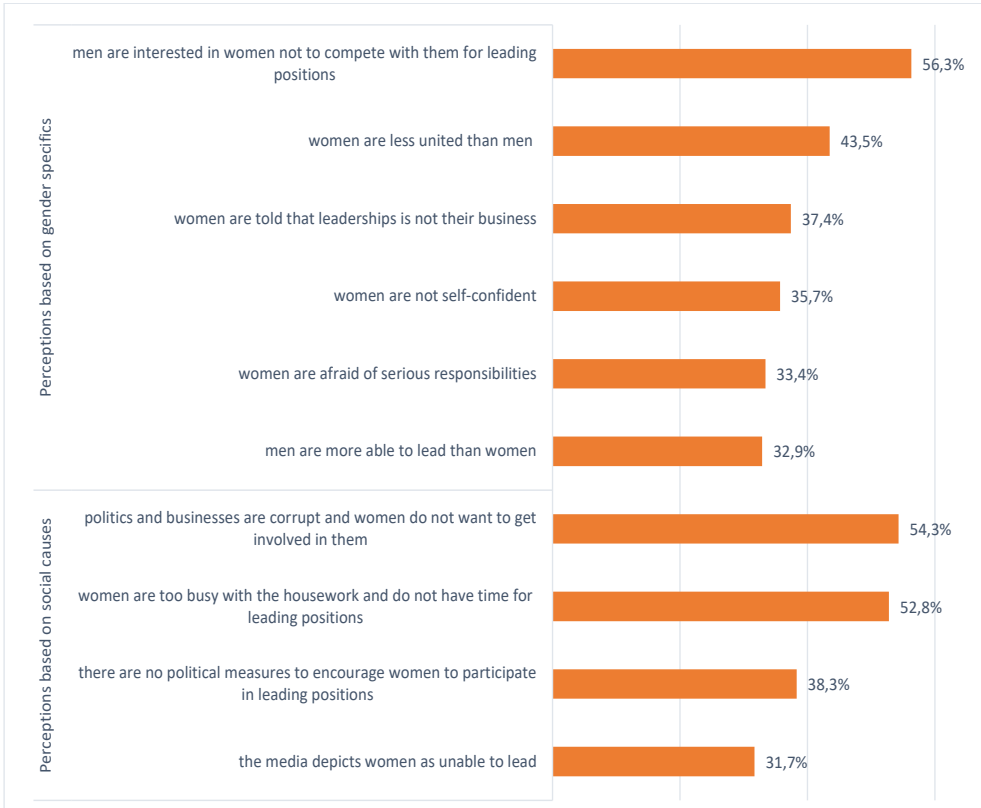
These specifics are the following: opinions on the lack of cohesion among women, their lack of self-confidence, insufficient skills to hold leading positions, etc. The respondents mentioned the following as obstacles for women's promotion in politics: the rough and abuse nature of politics that discourage women's involvement (54.3%), the double burden of women (housework) (52.8%), the lack of incentives to involve women in political processes (38.3%) or their inappropriate promotion by the media (31.7%).

Women and men, who participated in the survey, have almost similar visions and stereotypes.

At the same time, women strongly support the idea that men would be interested in women not to compete with them for leading positions (62.1% women and 49.1% men), while men, to a greater extent, agreed that women were afraid of serious responsibilities (38.3% and 29.4%, respectively).

Figure 25.

Perceptions and stereotypes on women's participation in politics



There is also a decrease in the gender stereotyped perceptions. Thus, compared with 2006, the share of respondents with stereotypes related to women's capacities (they are less capable, lack self-confidence, are afraid of responsibilities) has decreased. On the other hand, the share of those who think that women do not want to get involved because politics and businesses are corrupt, and that the media depicts them as unable lead, has considerably increased.

The majority of citizens support the adoption in April 2016 of the mandatory 40% gender quota among the candidates for any type of election, and the effects anticipated by the increase in women's presence are predominantly positive. Asked about the effects of a significant increase in the number of women in Parliament, almost half of the respondents said that this would improve the legislative work.

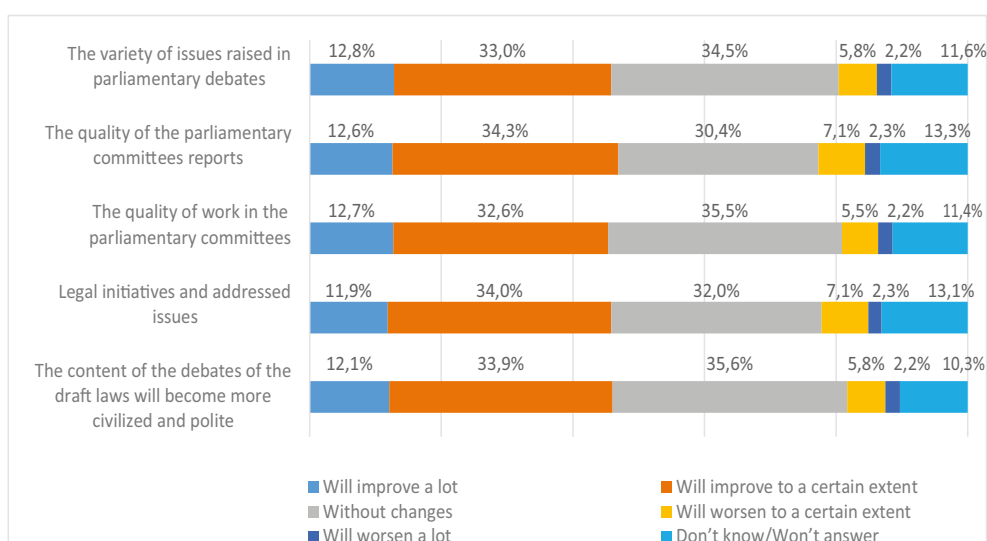
Table 10.

Perceptions and stereotypes on women's participation in politics: 2016 vs. 2006 (% of 'Yes' answers)

	2006	2016	Developments
<i>Perceptions based on gender specifics</i>			
men are interested in women not to compete with them for leading positions	52,6%	56,3%	3,7%
women are less united than men	45,5%	43,5%	-2,0%
women are told that leaderships is not their business	47,9%	37,4%	-10,5%
women are not self-confident	47,4%	35,7%	-11,7%
women are afraid of serious responsibilities	44,6%	33,4%	-11,2%
men are more able to lead than women	49,0%	32,9%	-16,1%
<i>Perceptions based on social causes</i>			
politics and businesses are corrupt and women do not want to get involved in them	42,1%	54,3%	12,2%
women are too busy with the housework and do not have time for leading positions	64,7%	52,8%	-11,9%
there are no political measures to encourage women to participate in leading positions	43,6%	38,3%	-5,3%
the media depicts women as unable to lead	26,6%	31,7%	5,1%

Figure 26.

The anticipated impact in case of the increase of women's presence in the RM Parliament

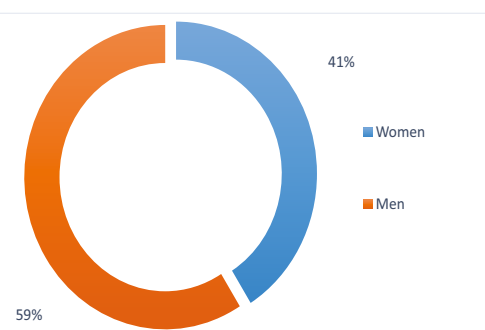


6.2. Political participation of women and men

The analysis of this aspect indicates a share of women in political parties of over 40%. The data previously discussed on the participation of women and men in public organisations (state administration, associative sector) suggests that there are also some trends in gender 'specialization'. The female participation rate in public institutions and political parties is lower than the male one, whereas in the associative sector, the situation is reversed. The question about women's presence in political parties is crucial to understand the gender inequality in acceding to elective positions.

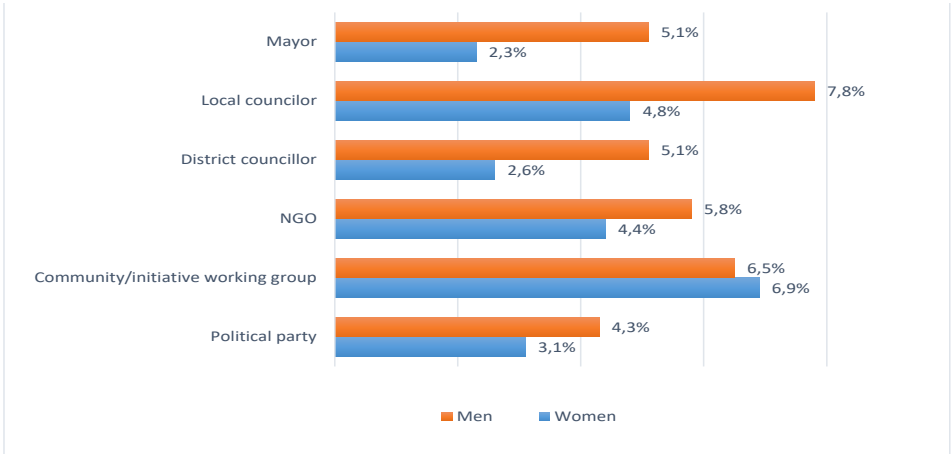
Figure 27.

Proportion of women in political parties



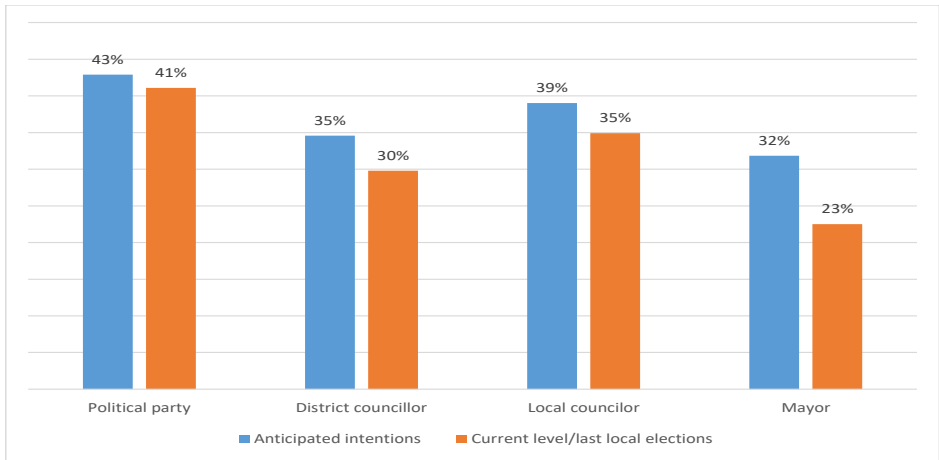
Thus, the political leaders justify the low presence of women among the candidates nominated by parties to different positions by women's under-representation among party members. The estimation of gender distribution among party members and activists, based on the involvement rate registered by this survey (5.6% men and 3.2% women), shows a rate of 40% of women among party members. This finding refutes the above assumption that the low number of female candidates would be justified by their low number among party members, justifying at the same time the 40% level set as a mandatory gender quota among election candidates nominated by political stakeholders. Intentions to involve in civic and political life maintain the current dynamic – lower rates of women's participation especially in elective positions and political parties. Women's plans to run for mayor in future (2.3%) are significantly lower than those of men (5.1%). The same is true as regards their plans to accede in local (4.8% vs. 7.8%), district (2.6% vs. 5.1%) councils, the gaps decreasing a bit as regards their intentions to join political parties (3.1% vs. 4.3%). This gap decreases in the associative sector. The intention to participate in community groups is slightly higher among women (6.9% vs. 6.5%). If compared with 2012, the level of women's intentions remains constant, and that of men has decreased, especially as regards the desire to run for councillor.

Figure 28.
Intentions to run for elective positions and civic association organizations in future



Even with such gaps, the survey data show the constant increase of women's presence among candidates and political parties. Women's intentions to involve, calculated on the basis of the answers provided by the candidates for positions in LPAs, and to party membership, will be above the current level of representation (in political parties) and the one recorded at the last local elections.

Figure 29.
Anticipation of the level of women's representation in political parties and among candidates



VII. PERSPECTIVE OF FEMALE AND MALE CANDIDATES FROM THE 2015 LOCAL ELECTIONS

The voters, despite the assumptions that they'd share a patriarchal mindset, cannot be accused of voting 'against women'. Candidate's gender is not among the reasons that would influence their voting decision. The monitoring of 2007-2015 local elections concludes that when the voter votes a concrete person (mayor), knowing his/her sex, gender losses are minimal. And, on the contrary, lower the personality level of the elected representatives (the voter doesn't personally know the candidates he/she votes for) – higher gender losses. Consequently, the causes of the modest presence of women in politics seem to be found within the parties and in the political struggle specifics.

This research, for the first time in the Republic of Moldova, gathered the perceptions and opinions of men and women with political background and participation in election campaigns. This survey involved the candidates in the 2015 local elections, both those who managed to win the positions they competed for, as well as those who lost. Besides the general perceptions on gender issues, the survey in this target group aims to highlight a number of elements that would reflect the facilities inside parties, as well as women's specific barriers due to gender roles in public and private life, in particular.

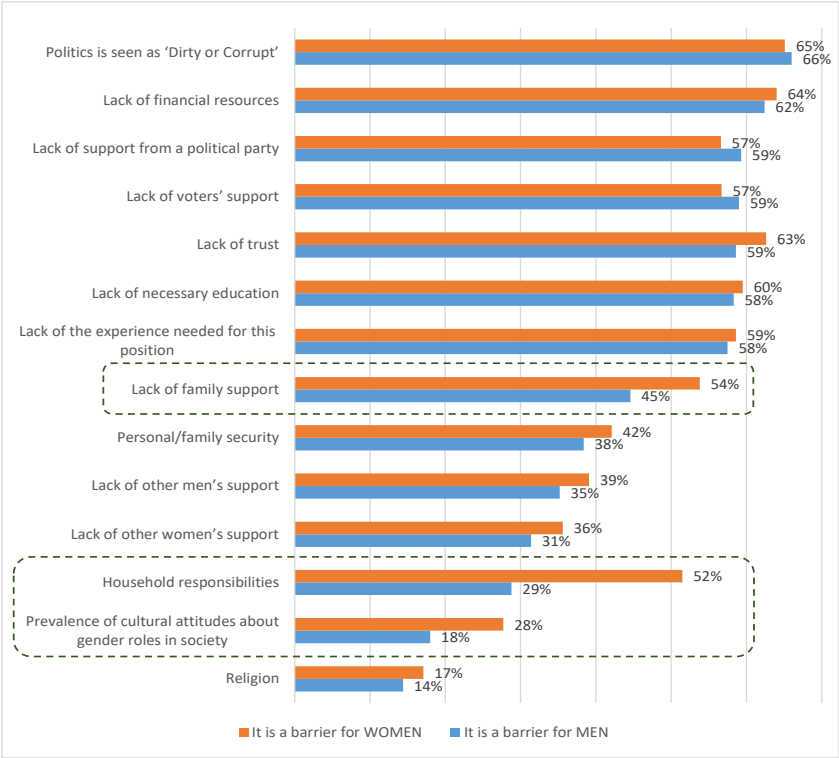
In most cases, the most important barriers are the same for both genders, namely the dirty and corrupt nature of politics, which discourages the involvement, lack of financial resources, of trust, of adequate studies, and of the experience needed for a position.

Factors such as religion, cultural attitudes about gender specific roles, are considered as secondary obstacles. The first finding is that these factors would not be perceived as deterring, especially for men.

The following factors are specific for women:

- household responsibilities are qualified as a deterrence, especially for women; every second respondent (52%) mentioned them as demoralizing for women and only 29% considered them a barrier to men's involvement;
- lack of family support (54% vs. 45%);
- prevalence of cultural attitudes about gender roles in society (28% vs. 18%).

Figure 30.
*Factors deterring political involvement of men and women**



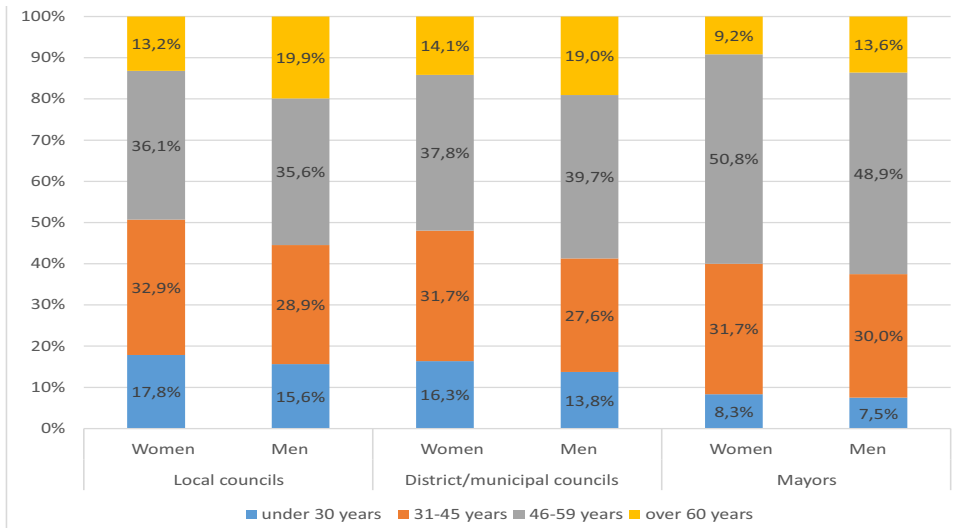
7.1. Specific elements of the involvement of men and women in elections

According to the monitoring of each election, the women nominated as election candidates usually are younger than men. Figure 31

shows that the breakdown by age of the female candidates, for all three types of positions at the last local elections, is slightly oriented towards young groups, in comparison with men. Thus, this survey also proves that the women involved in politics are slightly younger than men (49.6 years for males compared to 47.5 years for women).

Figure 31.

Candidates by age group (2015 election)



Candidates' success in the election campaign is also correlated with their age. However, this correlation is reversed for genders. As regards the 2015 elections, the men elected are on average one year younger than those who hadn't been elected. At the same time, women's younger age represented a disadvantage. The elected women are on average two years older than those who hadn't been elected.

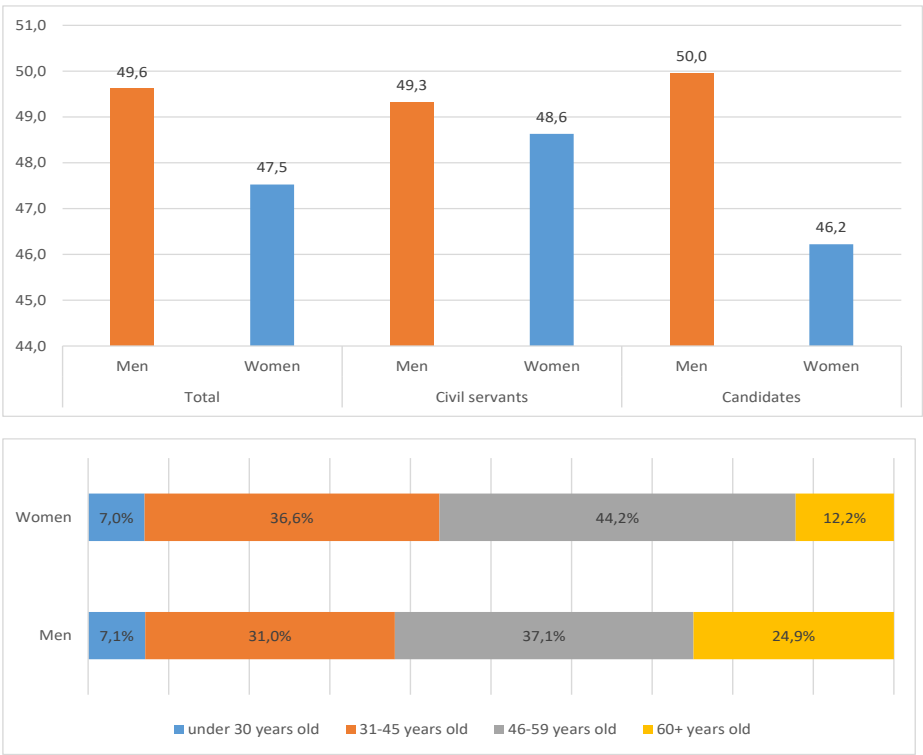
The percentage breakdown by age group reveals a very curious reality, which explains why women involved in politics are on average younger. The share of female election candidates above the retirement age is twice as low as that for men (12.2% vs. 24.9%). On the other hand, the share of young people (under 30 years) is the same for both groups (about 7%). Hence, the middle groups dictate the difference (in the average age). This means that for the women involved in politics, the share of persons aged 31-59 is significantly higher than that of men. These trends can be caused by two factors that can certainly overlap, but that cannot exclude each other.

- At an older age, women are much less involved in politics.
- There are realities that allow us to say that women, unlike men, abandon politics when they reach the retirement age.

Demographic arguments can be used as a rebuttal for the second factor.

The women in the Republic of Moldova have a higher life expectancy (75.5 years for women, 67.5 years for males, 2015). Hence, women’s health status at the same age is more favorable in terms of work capacity. Therefore, the share of women who give up any public activism, due to their health status, would be certainly lower than that of men. At the same time, it seems that the first factor is also not responsible for and does not explain why the women participating in elections are not on average younger.

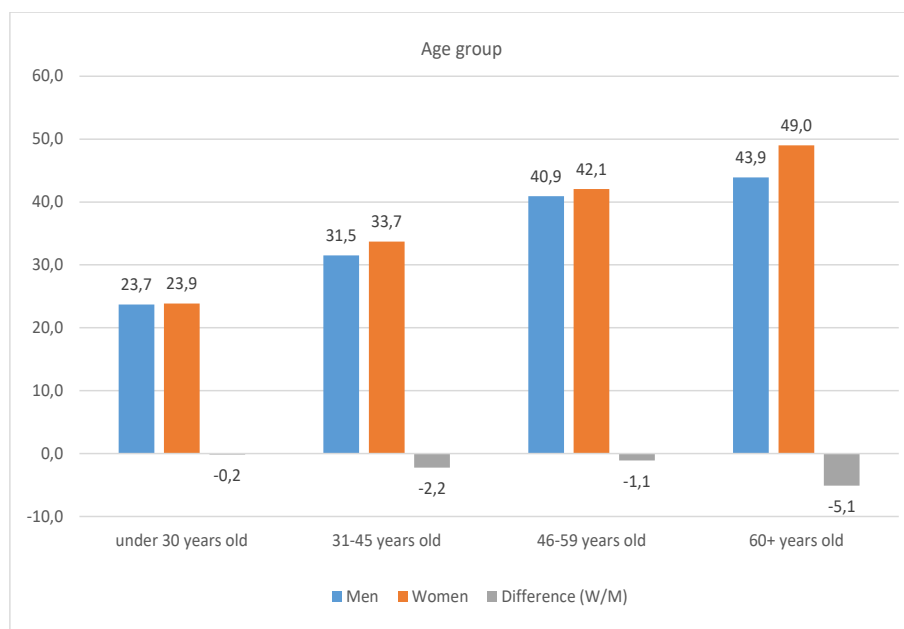
Figure 32.
Candidates and persons elected to positions in 2015, participants in the survey by age
Average age



The gap between the age when women and men involve in politics increases with age. The difference is minimal among young people (23.7 years vs. 23.9 years). However, at 60+ years, the difference is already 5 years. Thus, the gaps by the age of women and men are determined by the increased involvement of women in recent years, i.e. they are temporary and will disappear over time. At the same time, there is an unresolved exception – why women give up politics when they reach the retirement age. This aspects needs to be analysed in future studies.

Figure 33.

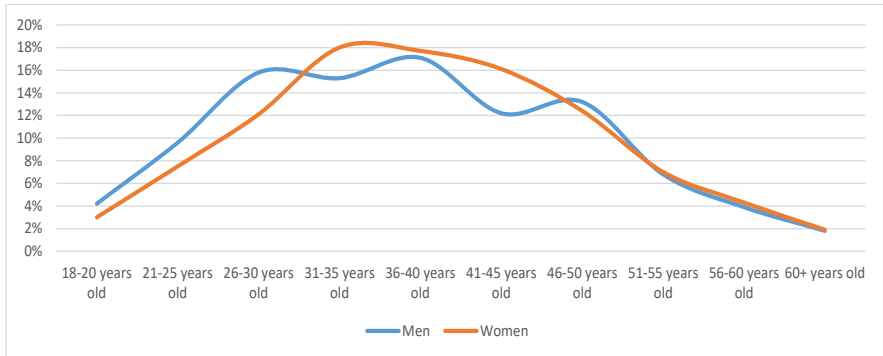
Average age of political launching, by age group and gender



It seems that data prove the impact the birth of children has on the moment of political launching. Figure 34 shows the curve of the age of political promotion of men and women, which indicates a considerable delay of the latter to have a career until the age of 30. Usually, this is the period when women give birth and upbringing at least the first child. According to Figure 34, the share of men who start their political career until the age of 30 is significantly higher, having the same intensity in the 26-50 age group. As far as women are concerned, there is a delay of at least 5 years, so that the maximum period of involvement is shorter (30-50 years) compared to men.

Figure 34.

The curve of age when people involved in politics

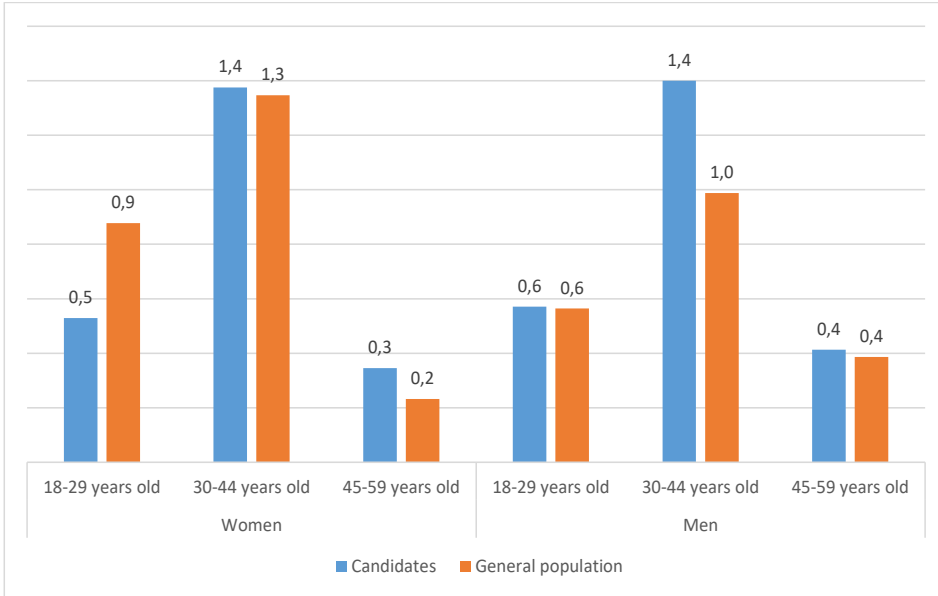


How long have you been involved in politics (i.e. you are a party member or you have been in LPA or CPA leadership positions)?

The data on the average number of children in the household is another confirmation. It is needed to make a comparison with the general population to see if the involvement in politics is somehow influenced by the presence (birth) of children and if the impact of this factor is different for men and women. Firstly, note that the average number of children in the general female population does not differ from the average number of children for the women involved in election (0.67 children per woman vs. 0.68) . Thus, it seems that the presence or absence of children does not influence the rate of women's involvement in politics, and vice versa, the involvement in politics does not 'dictate' the reduction in the number of children. The involvement in politics is, however, associated with postponing the birth of children. The average number of children among young female candidates (18-29 years) and the general population is almost twice the number of children among female candidates (0.5 children per woman) than in the general population (0.9 children on average per woman). Hence, there is a considerable gap which, however, is not similar for the men of the same age. Eventually, in the 30-44 age group, the average number of children per person is the same for the female candidates and women in the general population. Hence, despite the fact that the women who involve in politics are on average younger than men, their political launch is somehow delayed in comparison with men, this being one of the factors that determines a more moderate success in women's career.

Figure 35.

Average number of children (0-17 years) in the household, by age group, gender and compared with general population and candidates

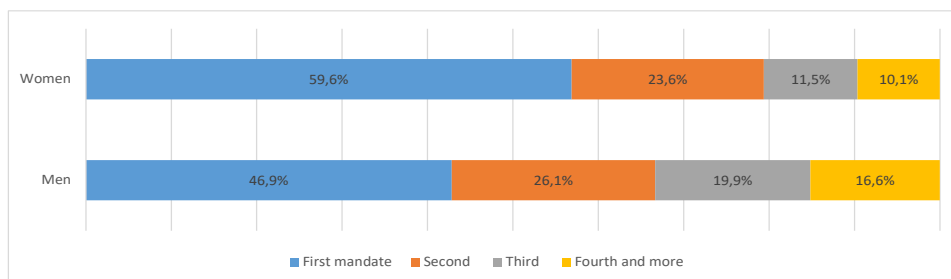


Women, as a rule, in larger proportions are recently in politics, having experience in other areas. The breakdown of the respondents elected to positions following the 2015 elections confirms this. **Almost half (49.6%) of the interviewed women were elected for the first time as mayors or councillor (local or/and district), compared to only 46.9% men.** This fact obviously influences the specific approaches in the work as local elected official, to which we will refer further, as well as the problems encountered during the electoral campaign.

The occupational profile of men and women who involve in politics is another aspect that needs to be analysed. Besides the specifics on men and women employment in RM, the survey results found different cardinal profiles in the professional ascension of the candidates until their involvement in elections.

Figure 36.

Number of mandates served to date



Inequalities on the labour market lead to unequal opportunities for women in politics.

Persons holding top positions in the professional hierarchy are usually nominated as candidates. Over 70% of male candidates and over 80% of female candidates, before getting involved in the 2015 election campaign, filled up the highest three professional positions (civil servants, managers and skilled professionals). In addition, we know that women are at a disadvantage, with lower shares in these positions. These three highest positions account for 19.5% in case of men and only 12.7% in case of women among the general population. Therefore, this is another factor determining the under-representation of women in politics. Given that women are disadvantaged in terms of top jobs on the labor market, and the 'human resources basis' for the political area is mainly constituted from persons holding top jobs, the inequality on the labor market takes place in politics. Once fewer women are at the top of the professional hierarchy – fewer women are, thus, in the political area.

Table 11.

Breakdown by occupations in general population and candidates in 2015 elections

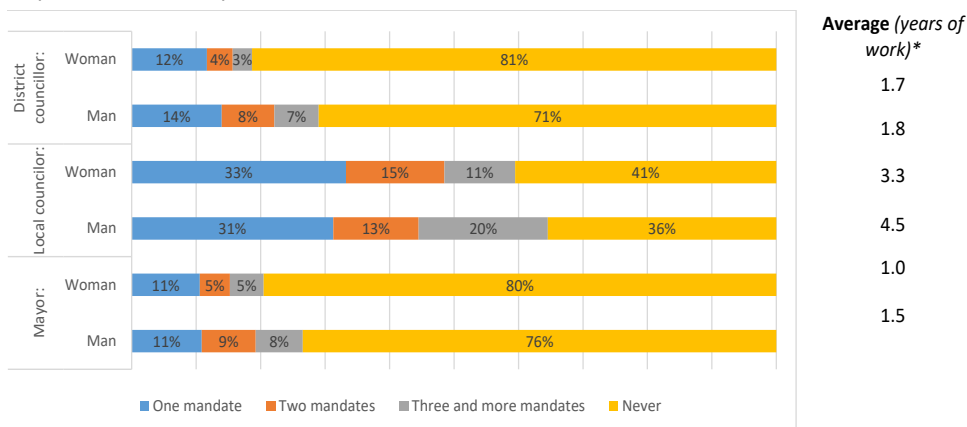
	General population		Total candidates*		Elected representatives	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Civil servant	3,2%	1,7%	37,8%	29,9%	50,7%	43,8%
Head/manager	3,4%	1,7%	14,5%	15,1%	14,7%	14,4%
Skilled specialist	12,9%	9,3%	21,6%	39,0%	17,5%	30,3%
<i>Sub-total top 3 positions</i>	<i>19,5%</i>	<i>12,7%</i>	<i>73,9%</i>	<i>84,0%</i>	<i>82,9%</i>	<i>88,5%</i>
Unskilled specialist	5,5%	6,6%	2,8%	2,9%	2,8%	2,4%

	General population		Total candidates*		Elected representatives	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Technical and support staff	16,8%	6,4%	3,8%	1,3%	1,9%	1,0%
Farmer	4,7%	2,4%	4,3%	1,0%	3,3%	1,4%
Self-employed (own business)	1,7%	0,5%	3,8%	2,1%	3,8%	1,9%
Unemployed	19,0%	17,9%	3,1%	1,0%	1,4%	0,5%
Pupil/student	7,0%	6,6%	0,8%	1,0%	0,5%	0,5%
Pensioner/disabled	19,0%	28,7%	5,6%	3,1%	2,8%	2,4%
Maternity leave	0,0%	14,2%	0,0%	2,3%	0,0%	1,0%
Abroad	6,9%	3,9%	2,0%	1,3%	0,5%	0,5%

*Before 2015 elections

At the same time, on the basis of data presented in Figure 37, we also note the impact of the 'delayed' evolution of women in politics. Thus, most of male candidates (37.8%), before 2015, have worked as civil servants, compared with 29.9% women. They are mostly people who have had elected positions (mayors) at local level before the 2015 elections, and they had run for a new term in these elections. Data related to the work as elected officials confirm this. Until the 2015 elections, 28% of male candidates and 21% of female candidates have worked as mayors. A man has worked as mayor on average 1.5 years, while a woman – 1.0 years. Gender discrepancies persist in councillor positions as well. Survey data show another curious trend related to the labour market. On the labour market there are both discrepancies between men and women by occupations and by sectors. For candidates, these discrepancies are even more pronounced.

Figure 37.

Experience in elective positions at local or district level

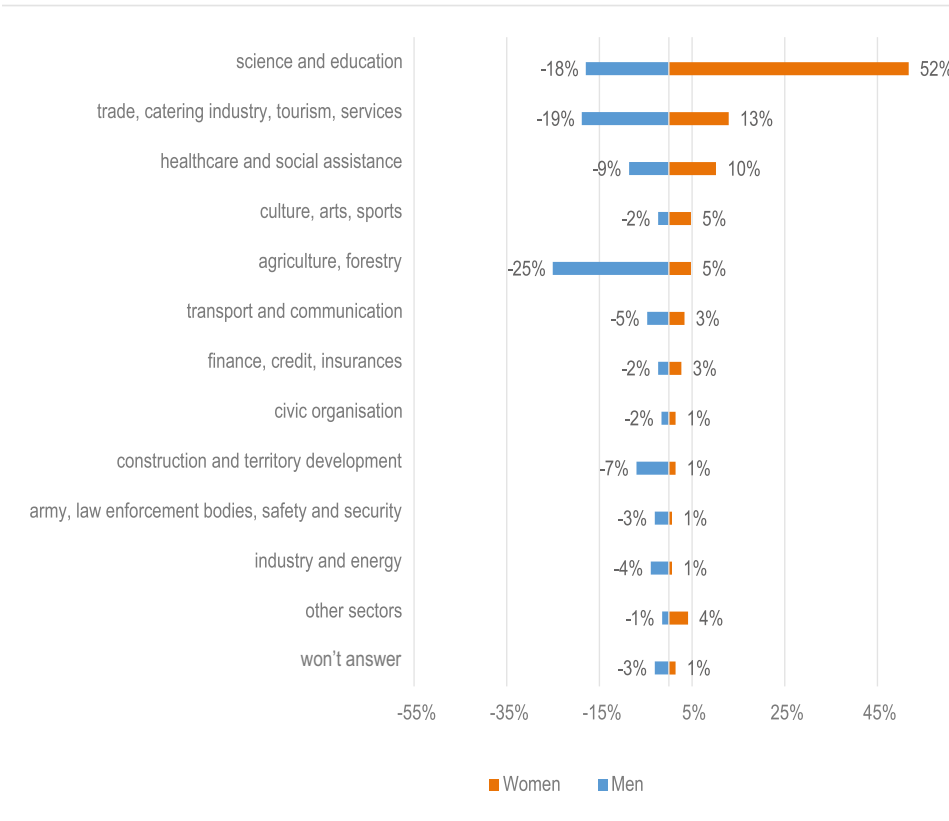
The average is calculated across the sample, including candidates with no work experience in elective positions

One of two women running for elections in 2015 came from the educational sector (!), one of ten from the health sector and 13% – from the trade sector. Note that 75% of female candidates represented particularly these three sectors. The women's concentration is very strong even compared to the labor market, where a total of only 28% work in the education, health and public administration sectors. In case of men, there no such concentration, particularly when it comes to education sector. Most male candidates come from agriculture (25%), trade (19%) and only then education (18%). Thus, the share of education, trade and healthcare areas is only of 36% for men, in comparison with 75% in case of women.

Women candidates in 2015 local elections have, on average, more years of work experience in sectors other than LPAs (18 years, compared to 14 years for men). For the LPAs, the differences are not significant. Hence, women's involvement in politics has another specific characteristic. If compared with men, women tend to work longer in other professional fields until they decide to get involved or promoted in politics. This indicator, overlapped with the specifics of the employment by sectors and hierarchical levels, develops the pattern, more or less typical, of women launching in elections:

- a female candidate most likely comes from the budgetary sector (education or health),
- has worked for many years (18 years on average),
- in most cases, she didn't hold a top managerial position (39% of female candidates, before getting involved in elections, have worked as chief specialist and only 15.1% as manager).

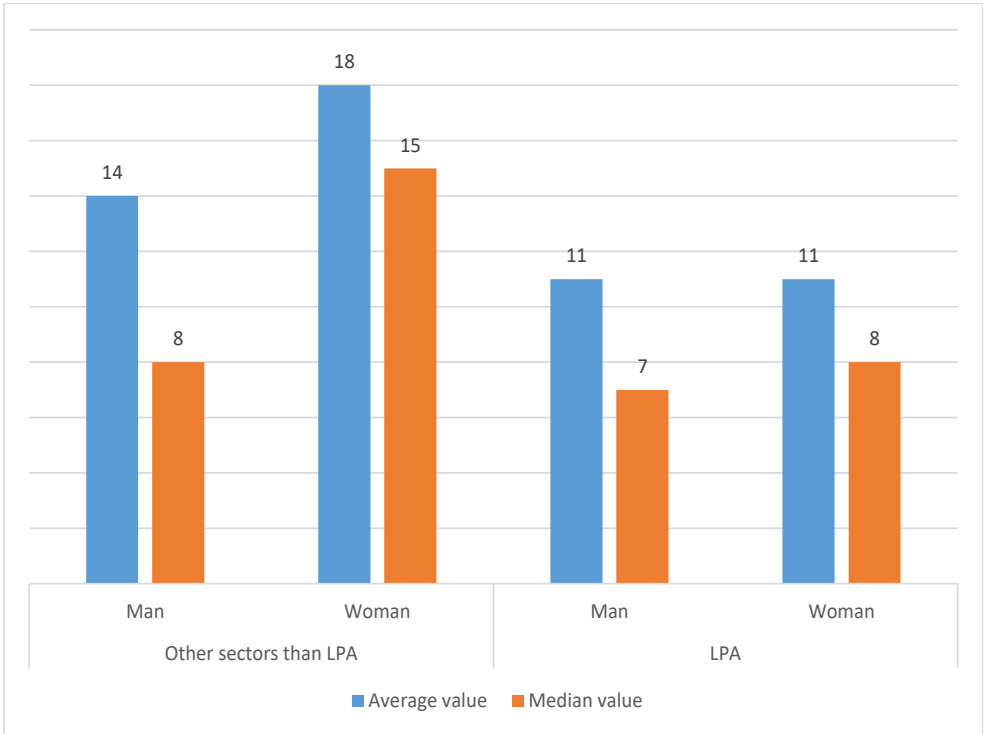
Figure 38.
Activity sectors of candidates*



* The shares of candidates who took on the offices for what they participated in elections and are currently working in the LPA sector (42% – men and 28% – women) were removed from the breakdown

For men, there are no pronounced typical profiles. However, unlike women, greater proportions of men who involve in elections have usually worked as civil servants, many of them already have work experience in elective positions, and for those who have worked in other domains, the duration of work until launch is shorter.

Figure 39.
Average number of years of work in the economic sector



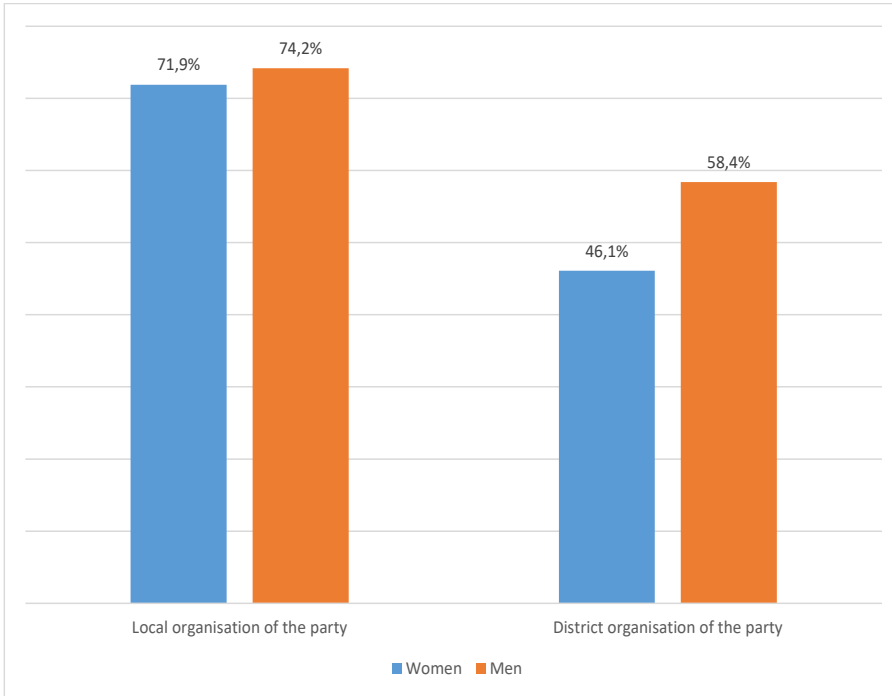
7.2. Specificity of the activity in political parties

The share of respondents, party members, surveyed in the general population indicates that at least 40% of party members are women. As regards the surveyed persons who stood in the elections, 90% were party members, 81% were part of a political party at the time of the survey. Gender discrepancies are minimal.

The share of women and men party members, who are part of the territorial organizations, is a first sign of disparities in the party hierarchy. The same rate of presence is characteristic for level-one (local) organizations: women (72%) and men (74%) party members of the total number. Notable differences are already noticeable at the next hierarchical and organizational level. Of the total of female party members, 46% are part of the party's district organization, 12% less than men (58%).

Figure 40.

Presence of women and men in party's territorial structures



As regards member's breakdown by positions in the party hierarchy, the gap is even more pronounced. The share of men in leadership positions (president and vice-president of territorial organizations) is significantly higher, while the share of women is higher only in positions of secretary. Per total, 41% men and 34% women hold certain positions in party territorial organizations.

As regards the level of general involvement and the number of years worked within a party, the differences between women and men are not significant. For women, the average number of years as member of the current party is 6.1, being only about a year lower compared to men. As far as the total number of years involved in politics is concerned, the difference is higher (3.2 years) – 9 years for women and 12.2 for men. However, judging by the gaps in the period of time spent in parties, there is a first indicator in favor of the possible conclusion that the lower level of nomination of women as candidates from the parties would be justified by their lower involvement in organizations' work. At least, having analysed the level of general involvement and the number of years of activity in the party, the gaps between women and men are not able to justify the low level of women's presence on the lists of candidates submitted by the parties, as well as the disparities in favor of women in nominating them in hierarchical positions within the parties.

Figure 41.
Breakdown by positions within party territorial structures

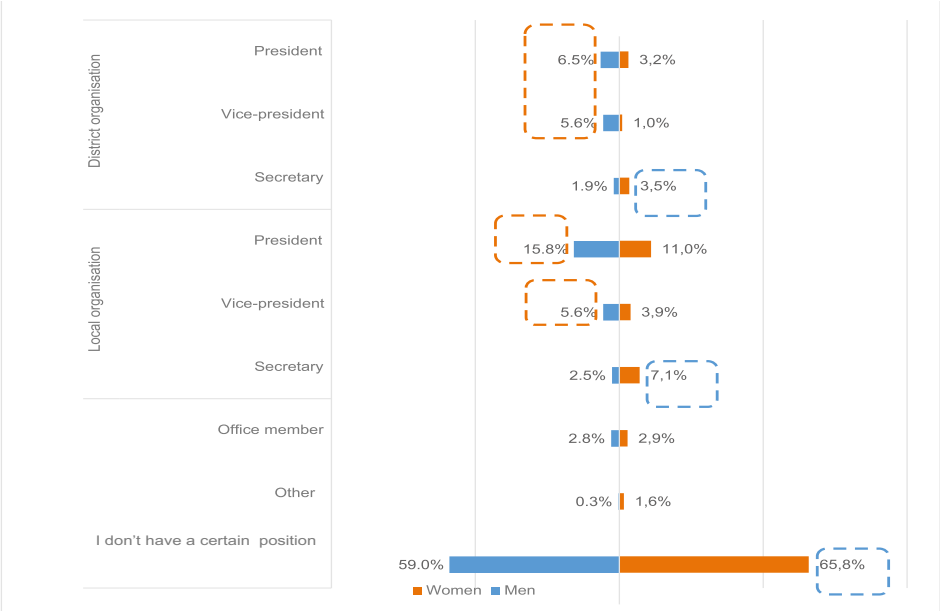
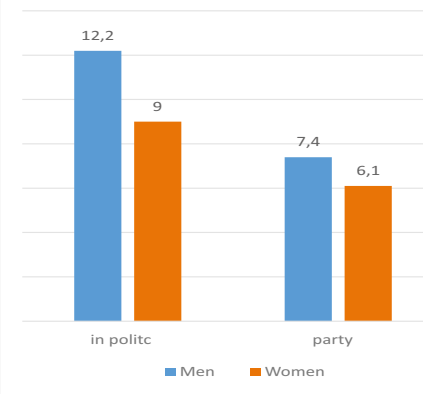


Figure 42.
Average number of years in politics and as member of the current party



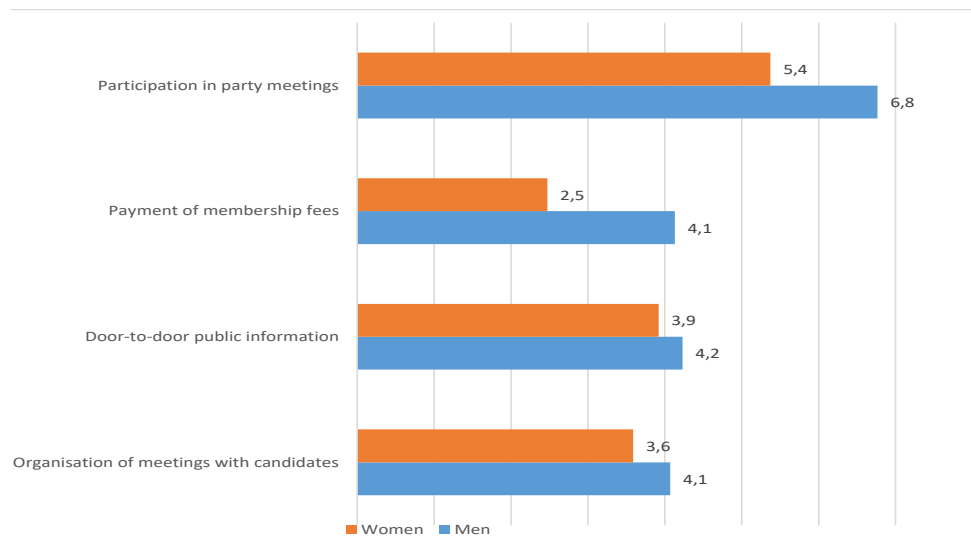
Note that there are no major differences between the rate of women and men participating in the party activity, in general, and election campaign, in particular. The women, more or less equally as men, have been involved during the electoral campaign in all types of activities: organizing meetings with candidates, door-to-door campaigns, observers appointed by parties, etc. **The level of participation in the party activity does not register major discrepancies too.** The average number of times a man

participated in different activities is not much higher than that of a woman, especially if we take into account the fact that men, in significant proportions, hold positions in the party hierarchy. The results of the research show that a woman participated in the last 12 months on average 3.6 times in organizing meetings with candidates, compared to 4.1 for men. As regards

the door-to-door campaigns, we have 3.9 time vs. 4.2 times; party meetings – 5.4 vs. 6.8. The biggest discrepancies relate to the payment of party membership fees. However, these discrepancies are determined by the financial capacities of the candidates, of which we will speak later.

Figure 43.

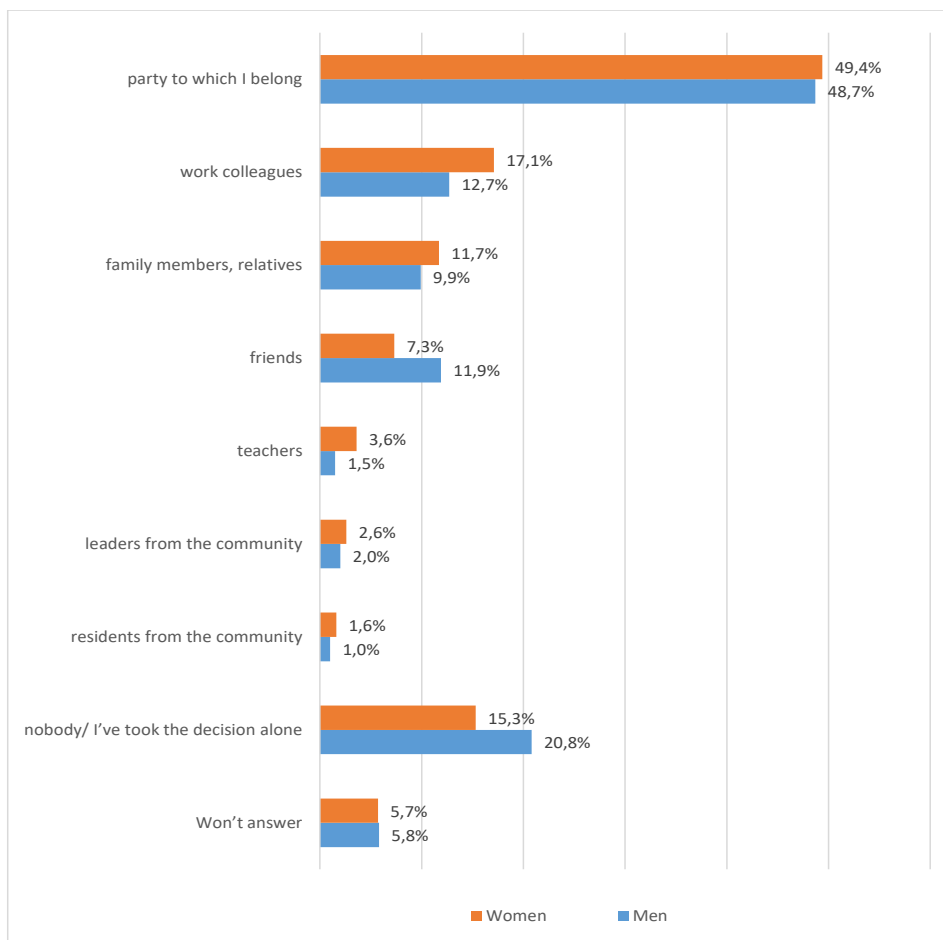
Party activities in which they were involved in the last 12 months at the time of the questionnaire (average number of participations)



7.3. Making the decision to stand as a candidate

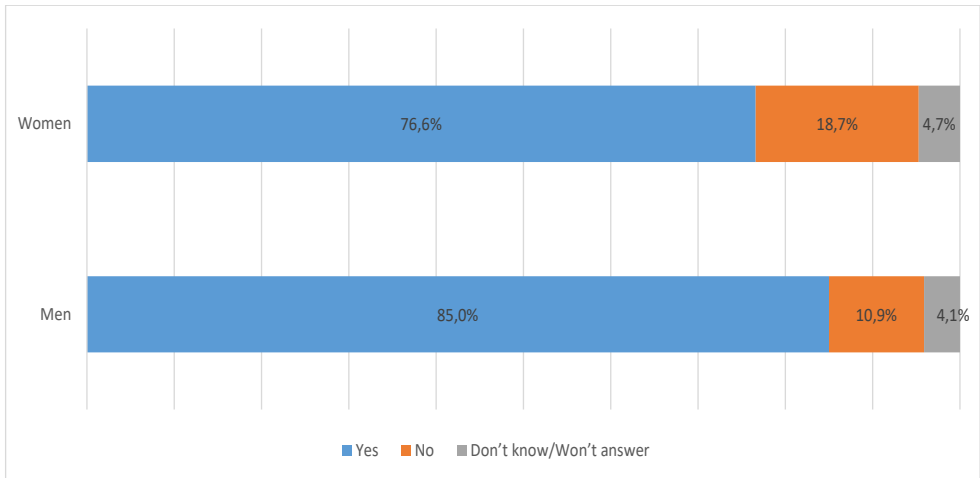
The party is the main actor determining the decision to stand as a candidate. Most candidates (74%) for the 2015 local elections, both men and women, represented the parties to which they belong. About 10% of men and 7% of women stand as an independent candidate, the other persons were supported by the parties, although they were not members. Almost half of candidates, both men and women, took the decision to stand as candidates at the party instigation. The social circle is the second most important factor in this respect. We refer to co-workers, relatives (predominantly as regards women) and friends (predominantly as regards men). In addition, less women than men took independently the decision to stand as candidate (15.3% compared to 20.8%).

Figure 44.

Who persuaded the candidate to stand for elections

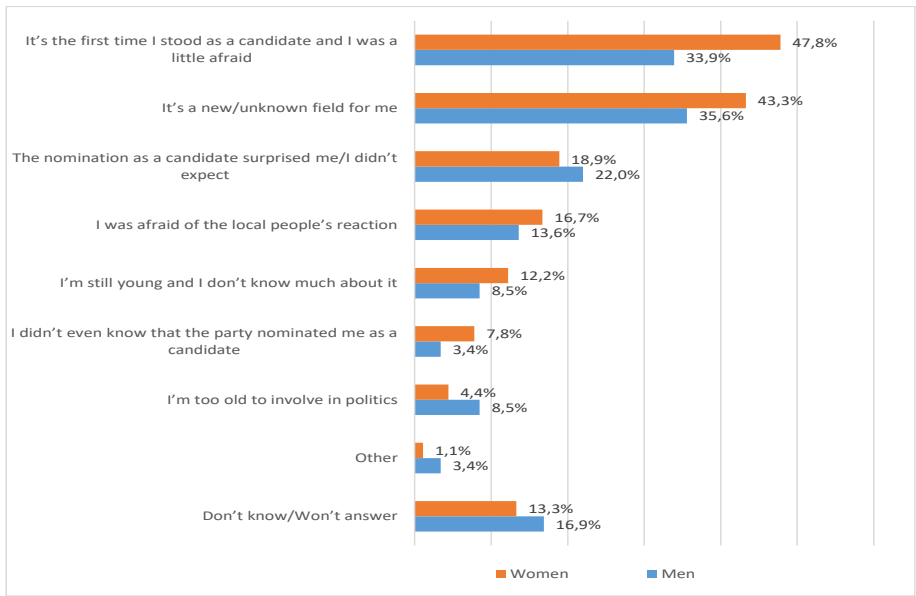
Female candidates believe they are less prepared to cope with the position they candidate for. At that moment, women, to a lesser extent, thought they are ready enough to take up the position they run for. Thus, almost one women of five (18.7%) and only 10.9% of men candidates stated that, at the time when the decision to stand as candidate for a public position was made, they were not ready for it. This finding once again highlights the importance of training programs that have a great practical usefulness, and that contribute substantially to strengthening the self-confidence of the female candidates. Note that about one third of men and women candidates think that the candidate's gender is, nonetheless, important in determining the success in an election campaign.

Figure 45.
Do you think you have been prepared for the position you had applied for?



Women and men have almost the same doubts about the readiness for a position. However, women are more worried because it is the first time they stood as a candidate, and the field is new for them. These two reasons were among the biggest differences among the options mentioned by women and men.

Figure 46.
Reasons for the doubts about the readiness for the position



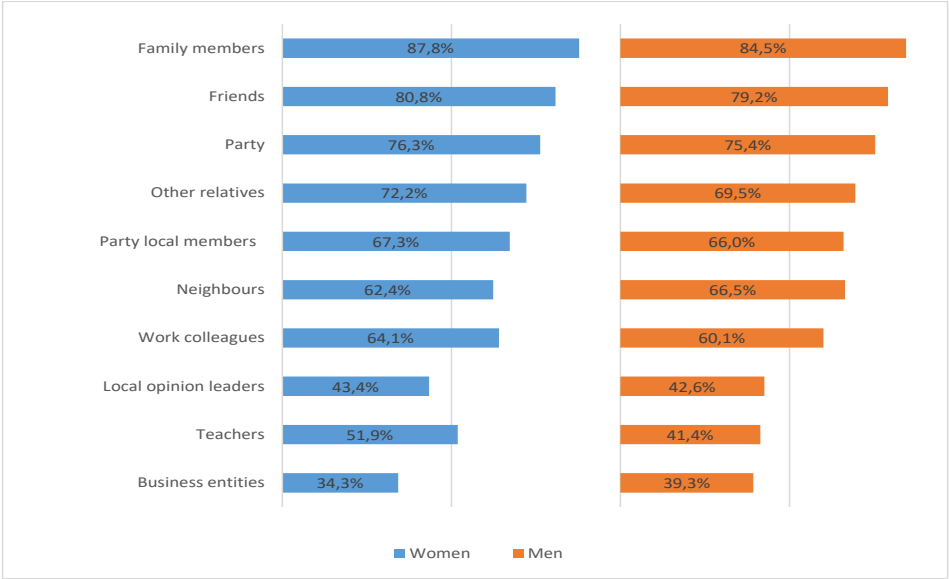
The grounds of the decision to stand as a candidate, is, again, more or less similar. Both men and women decided to run in order to increase the living standards of inhabitants, to solve the infrastructure challenges, to improve the relationship between the population and LPA. In addition, 13.5% men and 11.9% women stated they had no personal reasons, the decision being taken by the party.

In fact, the results of the survey did not reveal any major specifics in making the decision to run by men and women. Motivations and doubts are, practically, similar. The only noticeable difference is that during the last local elections many more women run for the first time. This is why they have a more pronounced fear of the unknown.

7.4. Electoral campaign

Difference between women and men are minimal in terms of support they benefited of during the election campaign. The figure below presents the support level provided to candidates during the election campaign. Note only the noticeable discrepancies related to the fact that women received a greater support from their co-workers (particularly the teaching staff), while men were mostly helped by business entities.

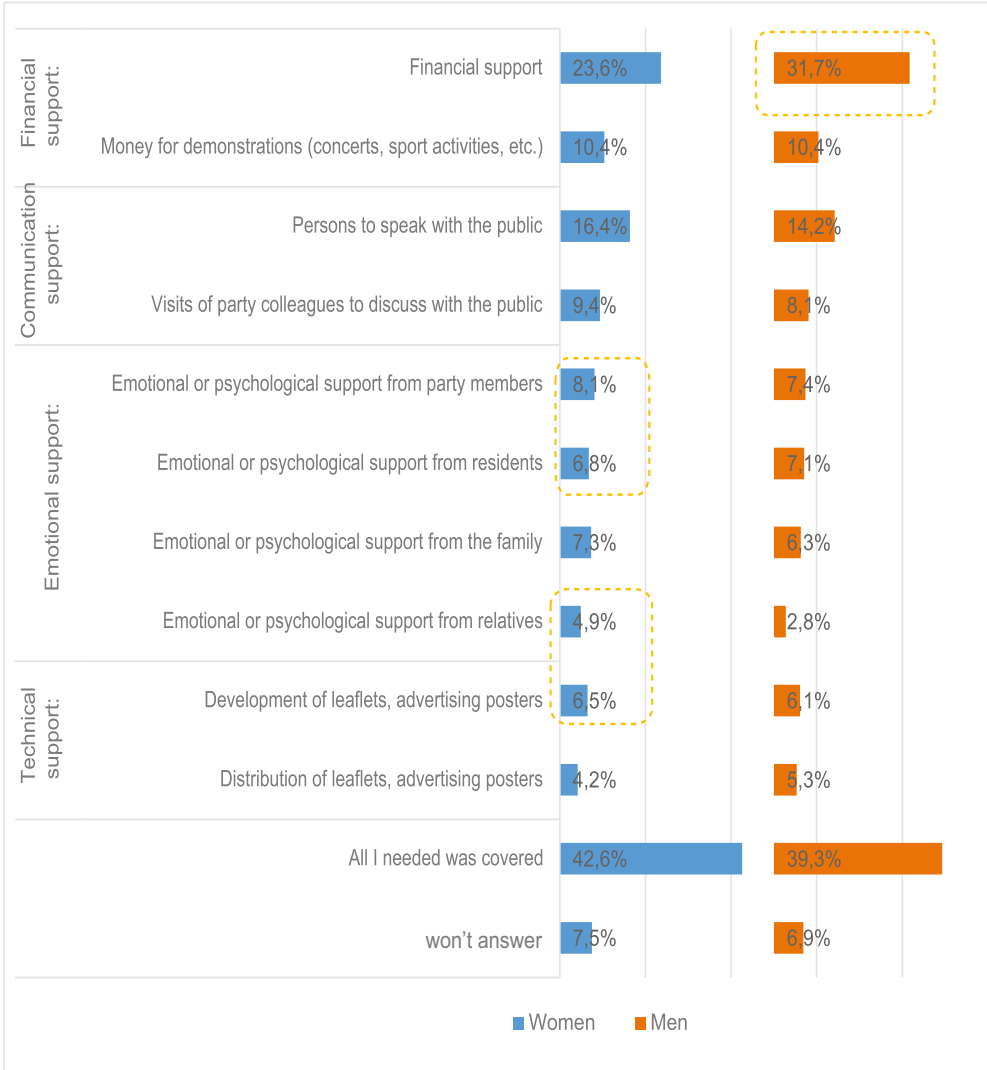
Figure 47.
Level of support provided by different local groups during the election campaign*



* Amount of shares of answers 'Very helpful' + 'Helpful'

In addition, the candidates were given a specific support that they felt insufficient for the election campaign. Although the main issues in this respect are similar, men noted the insufficient financial support (31.7% compared to only 23.6% in case of women). Instead, women would enjoy more moral (emotional and psychological) support from the party members, family members and relatives.

Figure 48.
Support shortage during the election campaign



Male and female candidates seem to encounter different challenges during the election campaign. One in three candidates pointed out the lack/insufficiency of financial means among the challenges encountered during the election campaign. However, the list of challenges is not limited to the lack of financial means. Different problems related more to women seem to occur, such as the lack of time for electoral activities, job-related problems, mistrust of the population in the candidate's forces, blame that they are not fit to this position just because they are women, limited support from the family. Only one problem, which is more specific to men, is related to the relationship between the election candidates – disgrace, black PR, etc.

Table 12.

Problems encountered during the election campaign

	Men	Women
Lack/insufficiency of financial means	36,5%	34,8%
Problems with other election candidates (disgrace, black PR against me)	37,8%	30,9%
Limited support from the party	13,7%	11,7%
Limited support from the family	5,1%	8,8%
Mistrust of the population in my forces	12,7%	14,3%
Threats to me or my family members using physical violence by the supporters of other election candidates	8,9%	10,1%
I was offered a bribe in order to withdraw my candidacy	4,3%	3,9%
They created problems at my work	6,3%	8,8%
I was fired	2,0%	1,3%
Blame that I am not fit for this position because I am a man/woman	4,6%	12,2%
Lack of time for electoral activities	15,5%	21,3%
Lack of persons to make up my candidate team	9,9%	11,7%

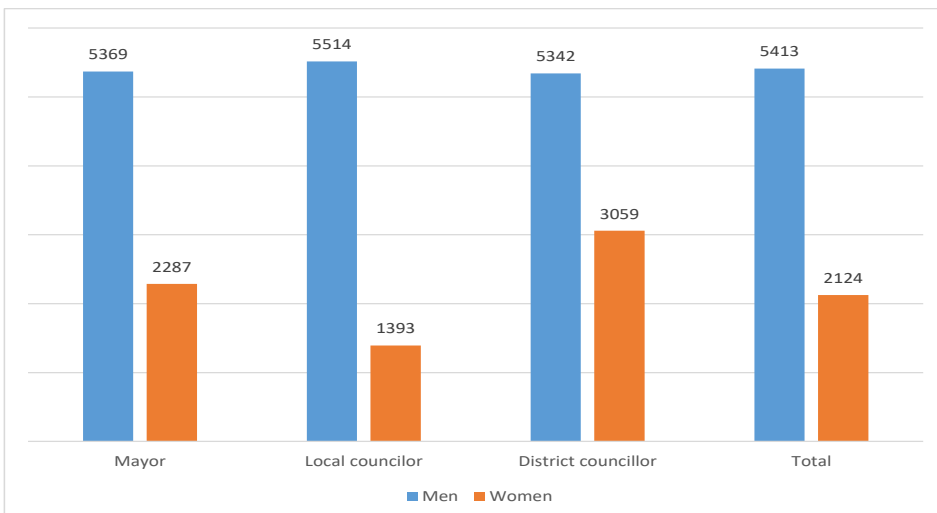
The fact that women felt to a lesser extent the deficit of financial support supposes that their election campaigns are cheaper.

In terms of the campaign cost, most of respondents (about 60%), both men and women, mentioned relatively modest costs ('little' or 'very little').

The election campaign cost varies, particularly, depending on the sex of candidate. Thus, 15.8% of women candidates stated that no financial

expenses were made during their own 2015 election campaign, compared to 11.7% of men. Most candidates (62% of women and 68% of men) do not know how much money was spent. Given the answers of the other respondents, the expenses made for the election campaign by a women candidate are much lower than the ones made by a man candidate. Per total, a women candidate spent 2.5 times less money (MDL 2.3 thousand compared to MDL 5.4 thousand in case of a man) during the election campaign. The cost of campaign for men varies insignificantly, depending on the position for which they competed. The women candidates for district councils registered the highest expenses (MDL 3.1 thousand) and the lowest expenses for local councils (MDL 1.4 thousand).

Figure 49.
Cost of the election campaign by sex and position (average value per candidate)

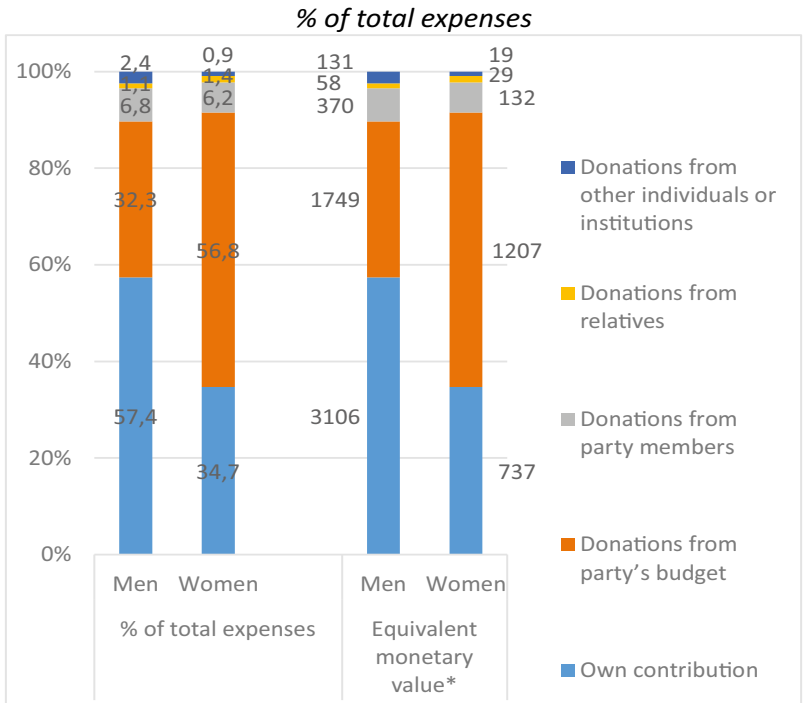


The most expensive campaign (maximum value) among men costed MDL 700 thousand, and among women – MDL 200 thousand. Thus, the election campaign of a woman candidate costed undoubtedly much less. However, more women than men thought that expenses were sufficient. At least, fewer women than men stated they needed a greater financial support.

The structure of expenses made during the election campaign differs depending on the sources. Most of the money spent by men candidates during the election campaign come from their own financial means (57.4% of the total of expenses compared to 34.7% in case of women).

Women, in their turn, relied to a greater extent on the financial support provided by the political parties advancing them (56.8% compared to 32.3% in case of men). Nonetheless, the average expenses made from the party's resources for the election campaign of a woman candidate are considerably lower (MDL 1207) than the expenses made for the election campaign in case of a man candidate (MDL 1749).

Figure 50.
Election campaign funding sources

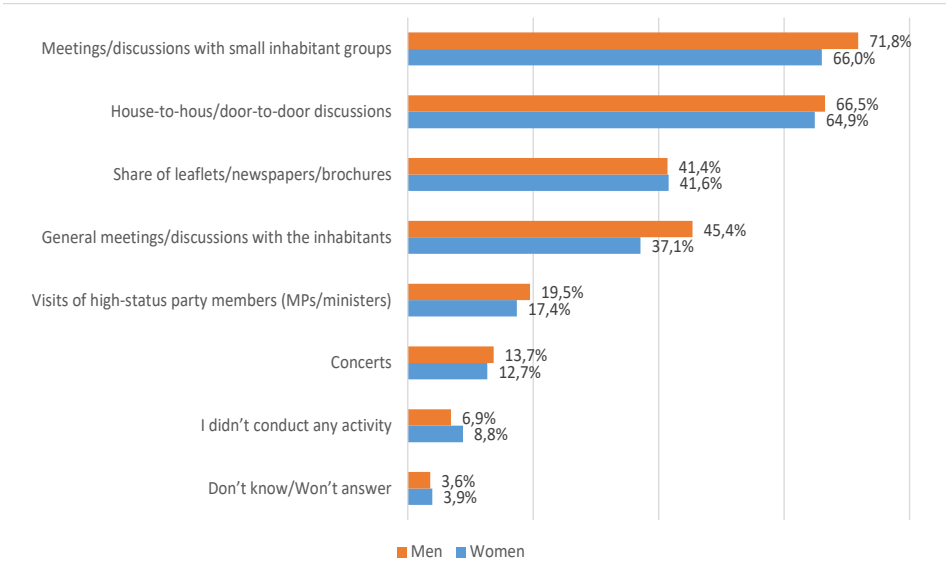


* value in MDL, calculated on the basis of the reported average expenses, and the structure by sources

The promotion methods used in the election campaigns are practically the same, and the minor differences between women and men are not able to substantiate the discrepancies noted in the costs of advertising campaigns. Almost all men and women used as promotion methods meetings with the population, either with small groups, or general meetings. The candidates conducted door-to-door information campaigns and shared informative materials in almost equal proportions.

Figure 51.

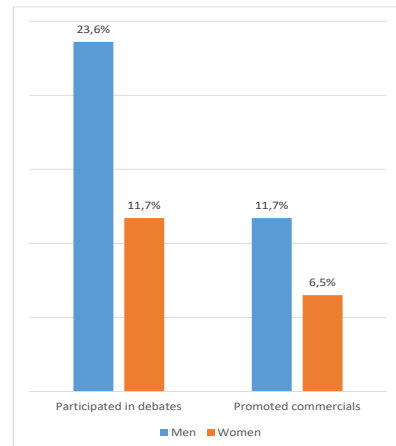
Activities conducted for self-promotion



On the other hand, media production monitoring notified that, during the election campaigns , mass-media promotes women incommensurable less than men. Almost one in four men participated in TV debates, and 11.7% benefited from commercials during the election campaign. Both indicators show that the results reported by women are twice lower, 11.7% of them participated in debates and 6.5% promoted commercials. **The decline analysis shows a strong impact of three promotion methods on the cost of the election campaign, the highest costs being related to the promotion of commercials, followed by the printed materials and debates in mass-media .**

Figure 52.

Level of promotion of men and women candidates in mass-media



Note that about one third of men and women candidates think that the candidate's gender is, nonetheless, important in determining the success in an election campaign.

VIII.LOCAL ELECTED REPRESENTATIVES PROSPECT

We will further work only with the results of the survey among candidates who were elected to positions at the 2015 elections.

The finding on the results partly confirms the assumption regarding the difference between the focus put by local elected officials, men and women. Although, per total, the main issues are addressed similarly, women register different results due to the fact that they target aspects related to the educational institutions and to the care of young children (54.8% compared to 39.8% in case of men), to the environment to a higher extent than men. Men targeted particularly the water supply infrastructure and cultural/community institutions.

Table 13.

Activity priorities as local elected official following the election

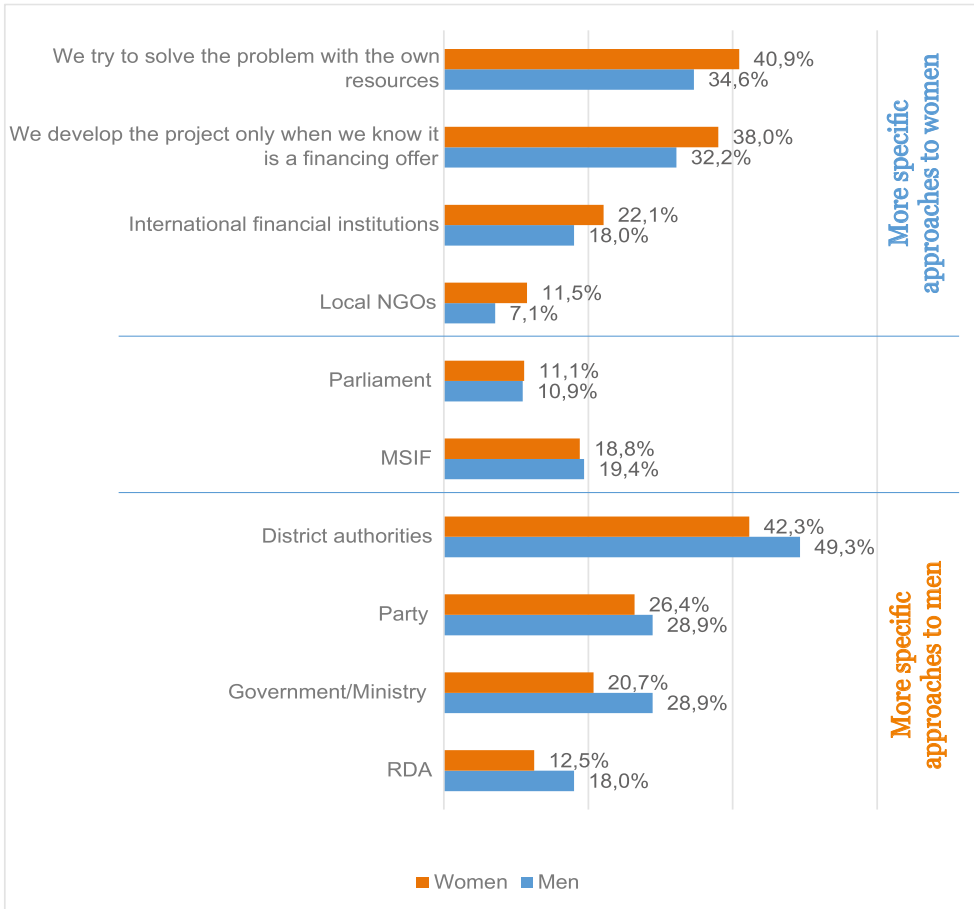
	Men	Women
schools, kindergarten, non-academic institutions	39,8%	54,8%
roads and bridges	38,4%	37,5%
water systems	32,7%	25,0%
street lighting	21,8%	18,8%
waste collection and disposal systems	15,2%	16,3%
play/sport grounds, sport equipment	12,3%	13,5%
environment	7,6%	11,5%
community centers/houses of culture	14,2%	10,6%
gas systems	9,0%	9,6%
sewerage	8,5%	8,2%
healthcare facilities	7,1%	6,3%
others	5,3%	5,4%
none	6,6%	4,8%

There is also a certain specific aspect in addressing community issues.

Women differ from men by the fact that, while they seek support (including financial) for community projects, they tend to rely more than men on the local capacities/resources (40.9% versus 34.6%). Another specific aspect for women is the fact that they seek support beyond the State Budget. Compared to men, women apply more often for external funding, e.g. specific funding offers, funds of international bodies and civil society. Men maintain the 'traditional' approaches, preferring to seek support at district or national (governmental) institutions or making use of party membership.

Figure 53.

Approach used in seeking funding for local projects



In addition, women enjoy a greater success in obtaining support, when sought. Thus, we distinguish several groups of institutions. Women resorted to a greater extent or to the same extent as men to institutions like national NGOs, international institutions, Moldova Social Initiative Fund, and they enjoyed a greater success.

Women resort to the main state institutions (Government, Parliament, district) rarely, and their requests are provided less support than those which come from men.

Table 14.

Addressability and the share of solving requests submitted by women and men, local elected officials

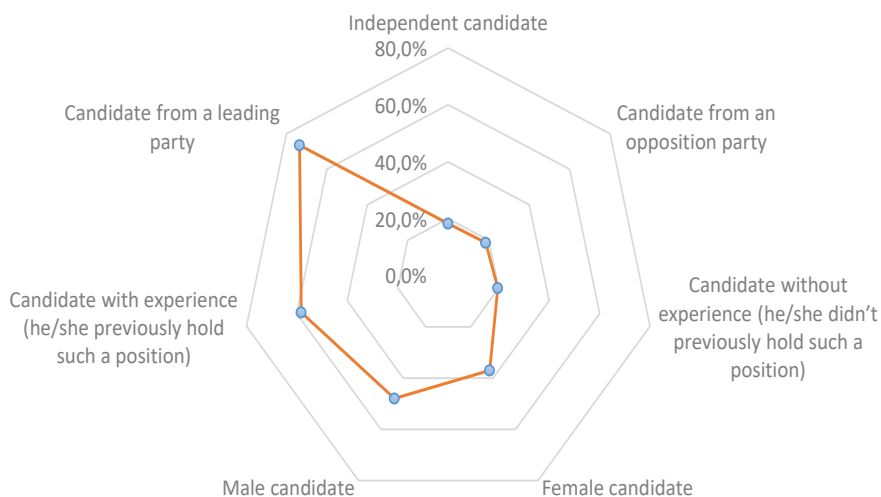
	The share of requests to solve community issues		The share of positive solution of issues invoked in the requests	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
District management	29,6%	25,1%	37,1%	34,1%
Party leadership	21,2%	19,8%	34,9%	37,8%
Other party members	12,9%	15,8%	23,3%	35,0%
Government/certain ministers	16,7%	12,6%	30,1%	18,7%
Parliament/certain MPs	9,3%	5,5%	37,1%	17,7%
National NGOs	8,4%	9,8%	27,6%	39,5%
International financial institutions	16,2%	16,0%	32,6%	36,3%
RDA	11,5%	10,0%	28,9%	27,8%
MSIF	9,5%	11,5%	31,8%	42,0%

Political factor is the most important element in granting support to the local elected officials by the government. Asked to appraise to what extent different categories of local elected officials benefit from support granted by the government, the respondents indicated first of all the membership to the governing party, then, the local elected officials with experience (worked previously). The gender is the factor with an average impact in this respect, although there is an intrinsic recognition of gender differentiation. The number of respondents who specified that men have increased chances to benefit from support from the government is bigger than the one of those who stated the same about women.

Local elected officials who run independently, those who belong to the opposition parties, as well as those who served the elective positions for the first time (increased share of women!) are the categories which would benefit from the central authorities' support to the least extent.

Figure 54.

The extent to which different local elected officials benefit from support given by the government

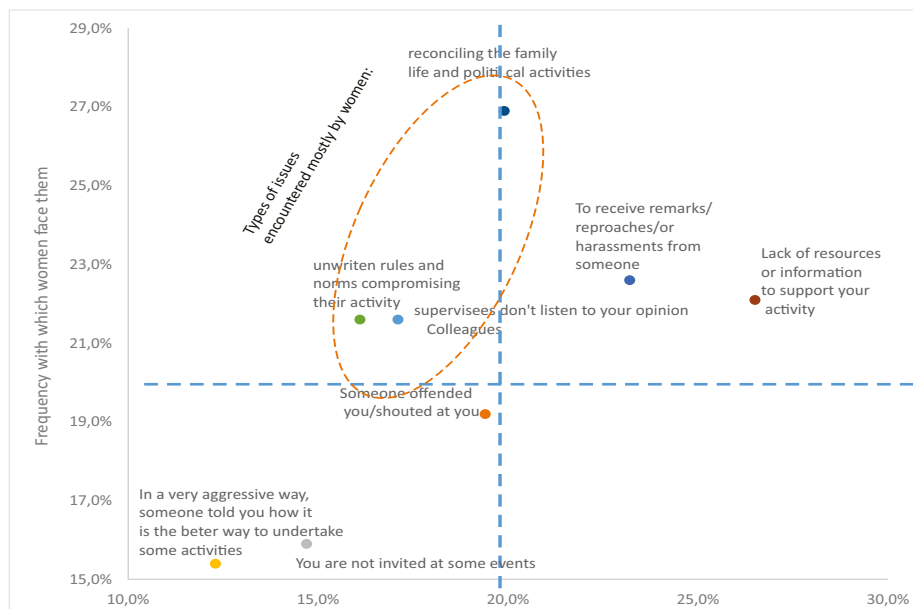


After overcoming the issues specific for political launching, and once getting in office, women again face challenges which affect men far less.

Respondents were asked to note the issues they encounter often in their activity as local elected official. Both men and women, to an equal extent, invoked the following problems: observations, reproach, harassment, lack of funding, limited access to information, etc. Women, though, noted some additional problems that affect them much more frequently or mention only these ones: reconciling the family life and political activities, unwritten rules and norms compromising their activity, as well as ignorant behaviour by co-workers.

Figure 55.

Frequency of encountering different problems during the performance of the mandate



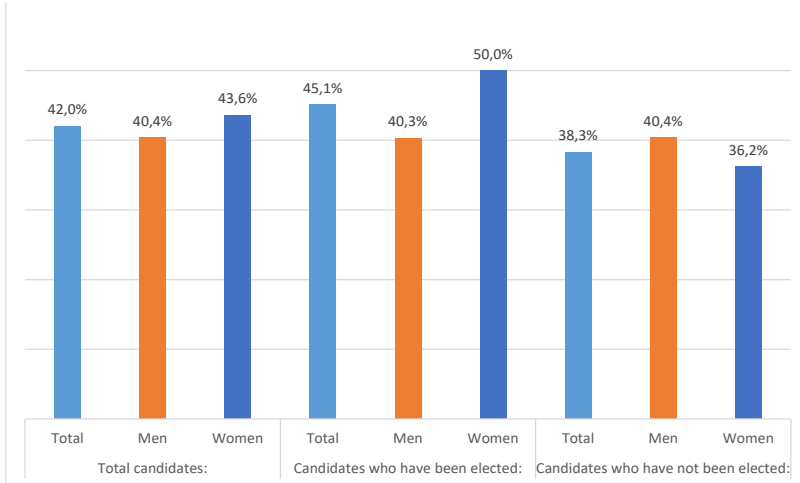
8.1. Training needs felt during and after elections

The survey shows that four in ten candidates for 2015 local election participated in certain trainings during the election period. No major discrepancies exist between men and women in this respect. Talking about all candidates, the differences vary around 3% in favor of women. A greater difference is noted between candidates that were elected for the positions they run for (45.1% participated in trainings) and those who run but without success (38.3%). We can thus suppose that training programs for male and female candidates have a relatively positive impact. A notable difference exists between women and men who were elected – 50.0% of women and only 40.3% of men participated in trainings.

The majority of candidates were trained by the political parties. Over one third of the trained candidates participated in trainings organised by the Central Electoral Commission, and the major discrepancy in term of the participants' gender is registered at the Center for Continuous Electoral Training (CCET). This institution conducted trainings from which benefited 12.5% of female candidates (of the total of women who participated in some of these trainings) and 23.9% of men (a double proportion).

Figure 56.

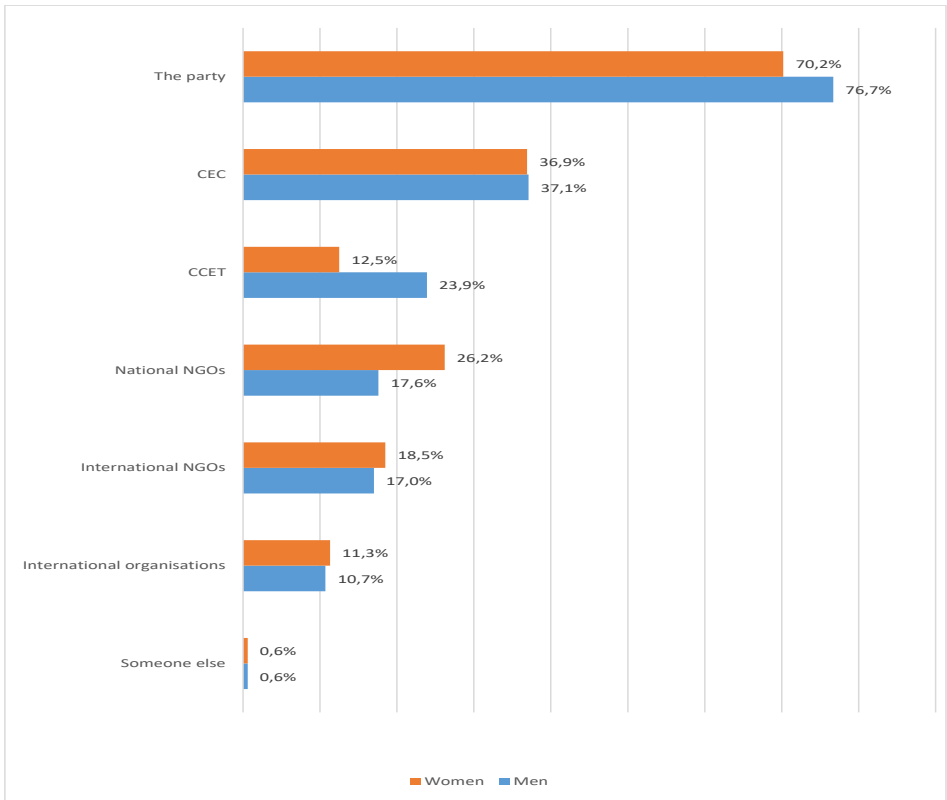
Share of candidates who participated in trainings during the election period



However, it is reasonable to suppose a certain degree of confusion between the trainings organised by CEC and CCET. We note another discrepancy in the share of male and female candidates trained by NGOs, where the number of women is larger.

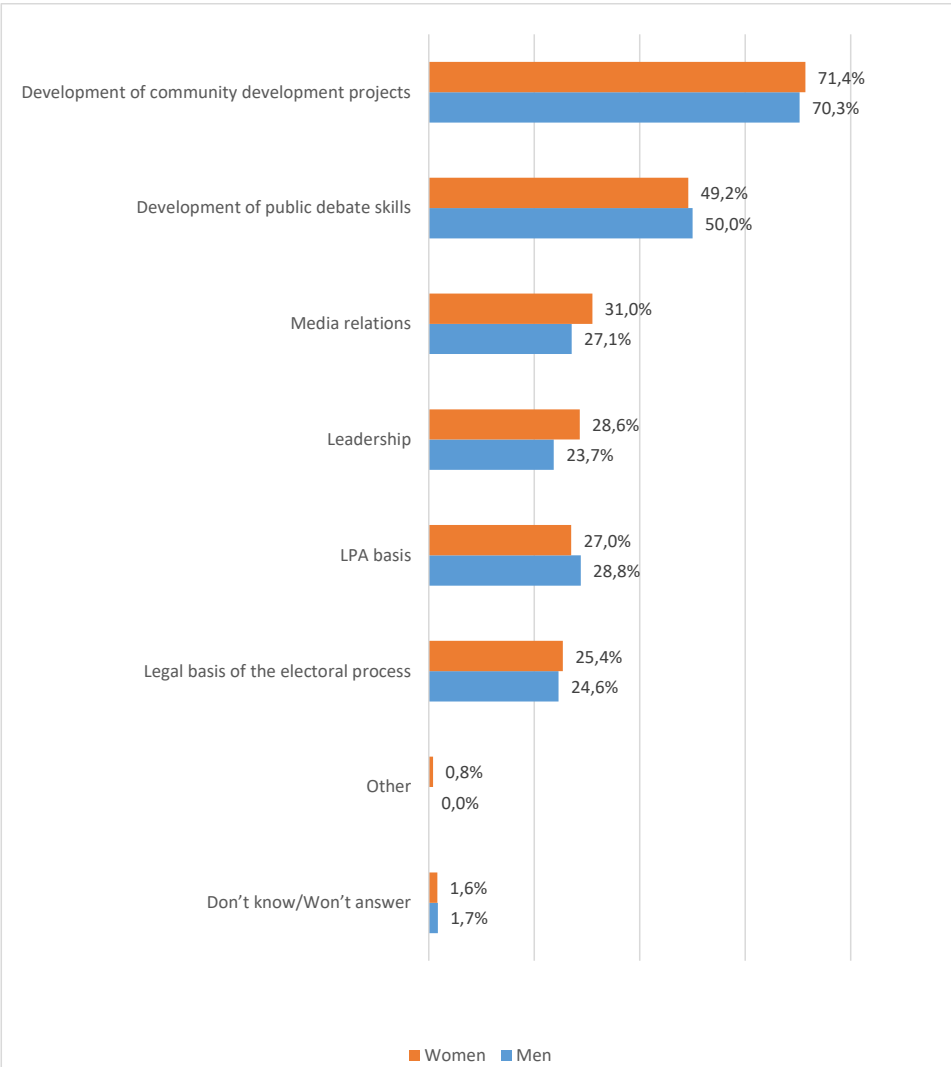
Inequalities on the labour market lead to unequal opportunities for women in politics. Persons holding top positions in the professional hierarchy are usually nominated as candidates. Over 70% of male candidates and over 80% of female candidates, before getting involved in the 2015 election campaign, filled up the highest three professional positions (civil servants, managers and qualified professionals). In addition, we know that women are at a disadvantage, with lower shares in these positions. These three highest positions account for 19.5% in case of men and only 12.7% in case of women among the general population. Therefore, this is another factor determining the under-representation of women in politics. Given that women are disadvantaged in terms of top positions on the labor market, and the 'human resources basis' for the political area is mainly constituted from persons holding top positions, the inequality on the labor market takes place in politics due to the fact that the number of women is lower than the one of men on top of the professional hierarchy pyramid.

Figure 57.
Training providers



These trainings targeted the most the organisation, the electoral legislation and the electoral process. In addition, about one third of respondents admitted they need electoral trainings even after the election process. But what respondents indicated they need the most are the trainings for developing community development projects (71,3% of women and 70,3% of men). One in two candidates mentioned the needs of development of public debate skills, 31.0% of women and 27.1% of men call for media trainings. Women (28.6%) invoked the development of leader skills often than men (23.7%).

Figure 58.
Thematic of the necessary trainings

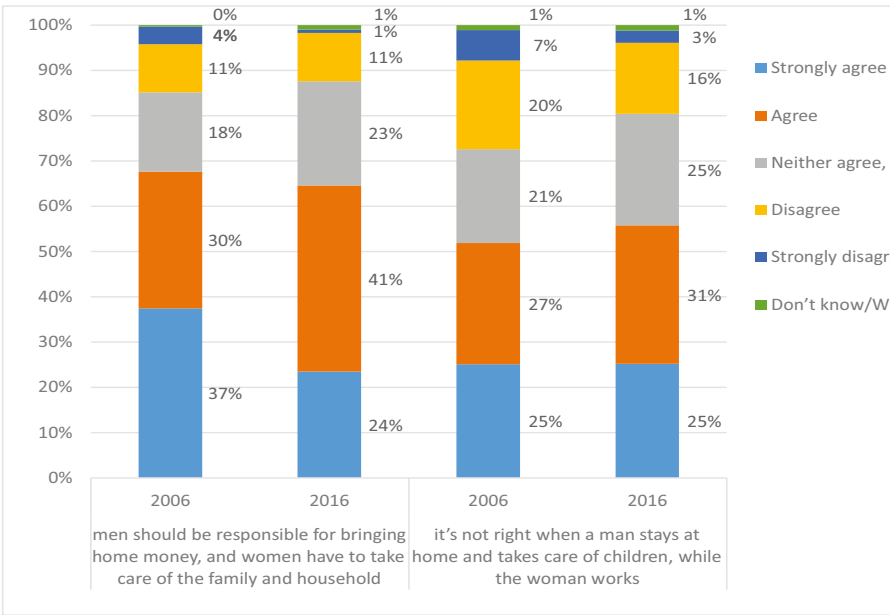


IX. WOMEN AND MEN IN OTHER AREAS

9.1. Gender image in social consciousness

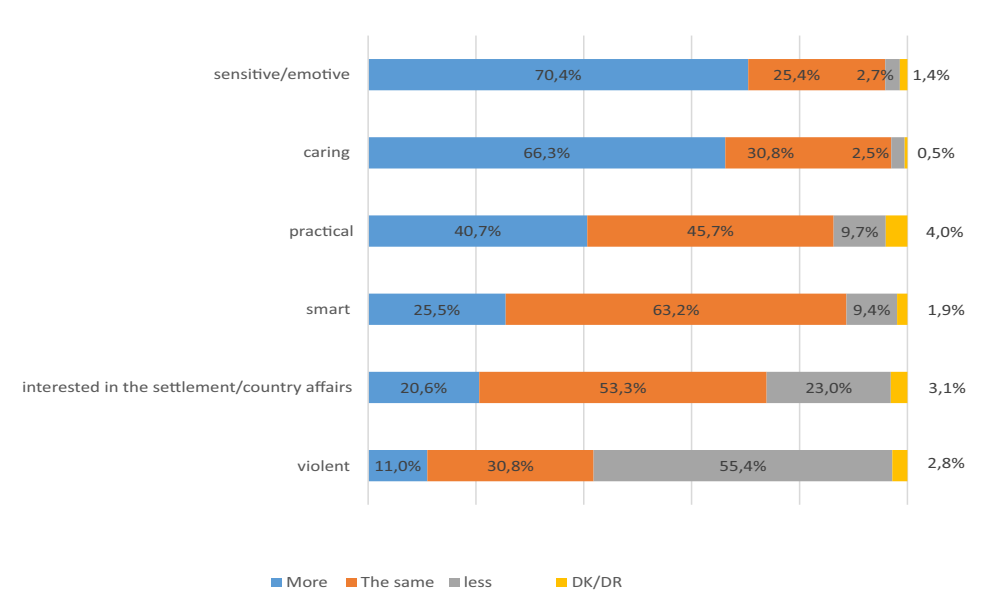
Traditional paternalistic stereotypes continue to persist in the Moldovan society. About 2/3 of the survey respondents agree that men should be responsible for bringing home money, and women have to look after the family and household, over half of them accept the saying that it's bad if the husband stays at home and looks after his children, and the wife works. Such visions are more characteristic to respondents with a low education and socio-economic level, older persons, particularly in rural area. Respondent's gender has an insignificant impact on visions of the traditional gender roles. Note that such things do not change over time, and the differences, compared to 2006, accounted for several percent, one of the indicators even worsened.

Figure 59.
Opinions about the distribution of responsibilities in the family



Significant shares of respondents admit misconceptions that attribute gender-specific psychosocial traits. Over 2/3 of respondents (70.4%) think that women are more sensitive/emotive than men, only 25.4% consider that there are no differences. Women are also considered more caring (66.3%), and less violent (55.4%). These three traits are attributed to women by the exponents of both genders. Instead, when it comes to the fact that women are 'practical', 'smart', 'interested in the settlement/country affairs', the opinions differ according to the respondent's gender. Women attribute themselves these qualities in greater proportions than men see these in them.

Figure 60.
Opinions about women's qualities compared to those of men

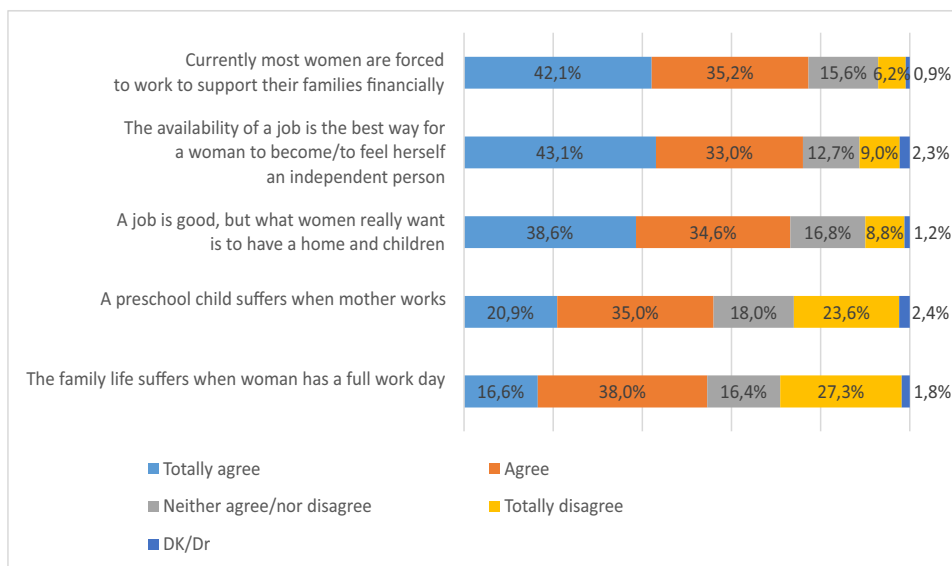


In spite of supporting specific gender roles, the complex and sometimes contradictory nature of public opinion about the involvement of women in public life, or rather, extra-familial, is noted. For a broader understanding of respondents' views on the image of women in their family relationships, they were offered a series of statements to express their agreement or disagreement on a scale from 1 to 5. The results of the study show that, on the one hand, the 'gender specific' is supported, on the other hand, the need to integrate women in the labor market ('women are forced to work to support their families financially') is admitted, where employment would be a necessity despite the will of women ('what women really

want is a home and children). All these are substantiated by the fact that if the woman is employed, her children and the family life are affected.

Figure 61.

Opinions about the woman's image with regard to family relationships

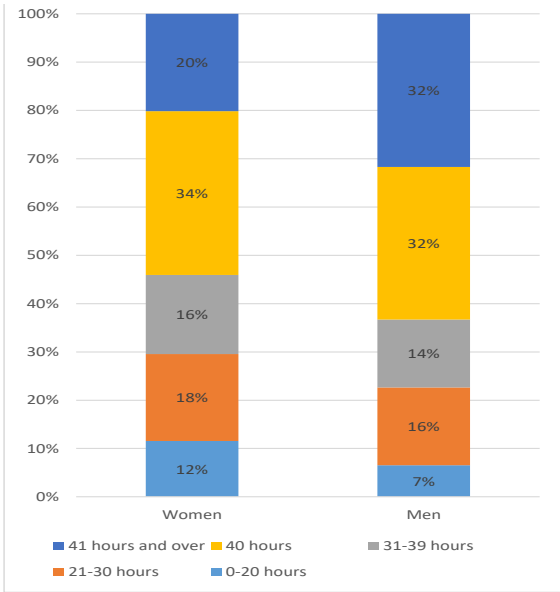


9.2. Labor market

Population survey results confirm that, on average, a woman spends less time at work per day. At the level of the entire population, the average length of time a woman is at work is 2.4 hours and a man – 3.9 hours. At the same time, it would be more accurate to compare women and men who are employed (excluding unemployed people).

The difference is here reduced to almost zero (6.5 hours versus 6.8 hours). Another important thing, most likely, finds its roots in combining the private life with the work activity. The working week of busy women is obviously shorter than the one of men - 20% of women and 32% of men work more than 40 hours a week. However, considering only the employed respondents, the difference is then reduced to almost zero (6.5 hours versus 6.8 hours). This situation may be explained, most likely, by the double burden of a woman (combining the private life with the work activity).

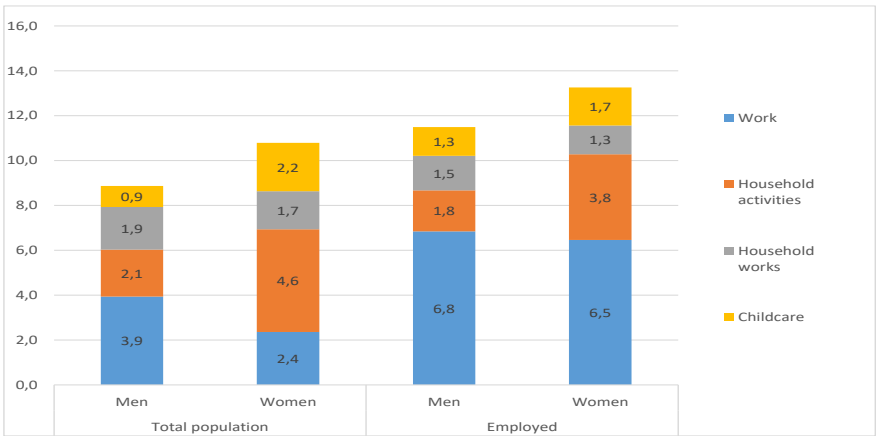
Figure 62.
Duration of a working week of employed women and men



Instead, women are significantly more time busy with household chores and childcare. As a result, a woman's 'activity day' lasts about two hours longer (9 hours for men and 11 hours for women). Thus, one of the basic activities, the domestic one, occupies most of a woman's day - 4.6 hours in the general female population and 3.8 hours in the case of employed women. Most of a man's daily activity is dedicated to his job (3.9 hours in the total of men).

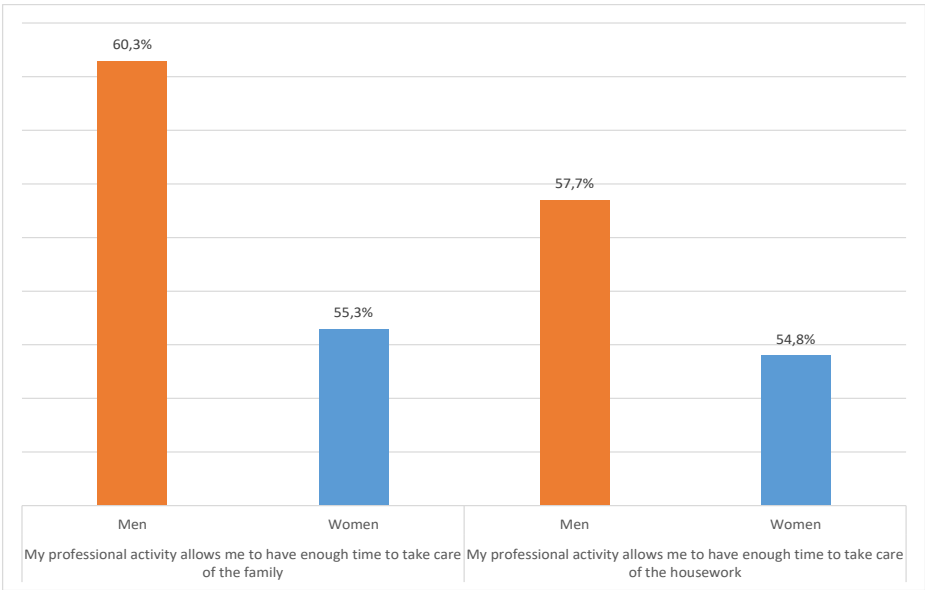
If we do the same calculation for the employed population only, the length of time dedicated to work is almost the same for both genders, while the discrepancies in time for housework and childcare are maintained. Thus, the duration of the day for basic activities remains higher for women by about two hours compared to men.

Figure 63.
Average number of hours per day dedicated by women and men to core activities.



At the level of perceptions, the problems of combining professional with domestic work and childcare seem to be unaware. Most women and men claim that their professional activity provides them enough time to look after their family and home. Despite the fact that women (irrespective of the occupational status) devote more time to basic activities every day, most respondents (both women and men) say that their professional activity does not prevent them from giving enough time to family and household chores.

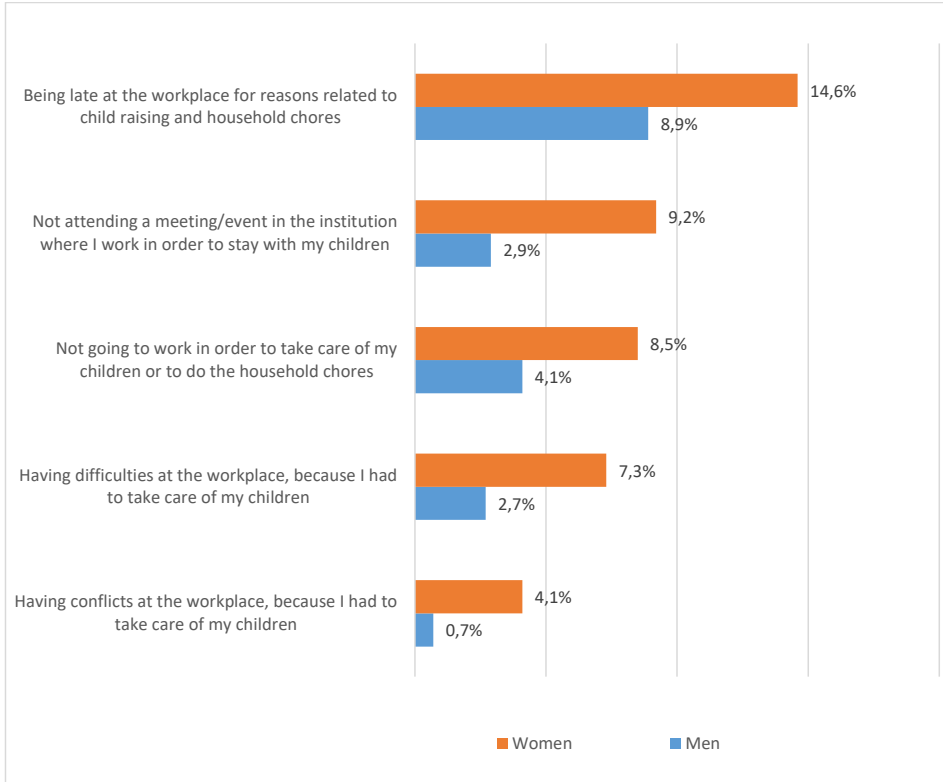
Figure 64.
Combining work with household chores



If we refer to the incidence of workplace problems due to household chores and childcare, we have evidence that women are more often affected. In the last four weeks before the survey, 14.6% of women and 8.9% of men employed faced situations when they were late at work due to child raising and household chores. 8.5% of women and 4.1% of men were forced to miss the work for the same reasons. These differences are likely to cause the registered gap, previously reported on the average time at work. Women are three times more likely to report cases when they gave up attending a meeting/event at the workplace, had some difficulties or even conflicts at work for the same reason – they had to look after their children.

Figure 65.

Incidence of work problems caused by involvement in private activities in the last 4 weeks



As a result, in a nearly double proportion, women said that gender roles are not treated equally at their workplace (12.8% vs 7.3% of men). A slight tendency to confirm that women are more often than men disadvantaged at work, is noted in answers to questions about concrete forms of inconvenience. Even though around 80% of respondents claim that the treatment is fair, the figure below shows that for all forms of disadvantage, the percentage of people who think that women are disadvantaged prevail. The most prominent forms of women's disadvantage took place when they took office, when assessed performances, as well as when they got involved in the decision-making process and offered access to professional development opportunities.

Figure 66.
Who is disadvantaged at the workplace

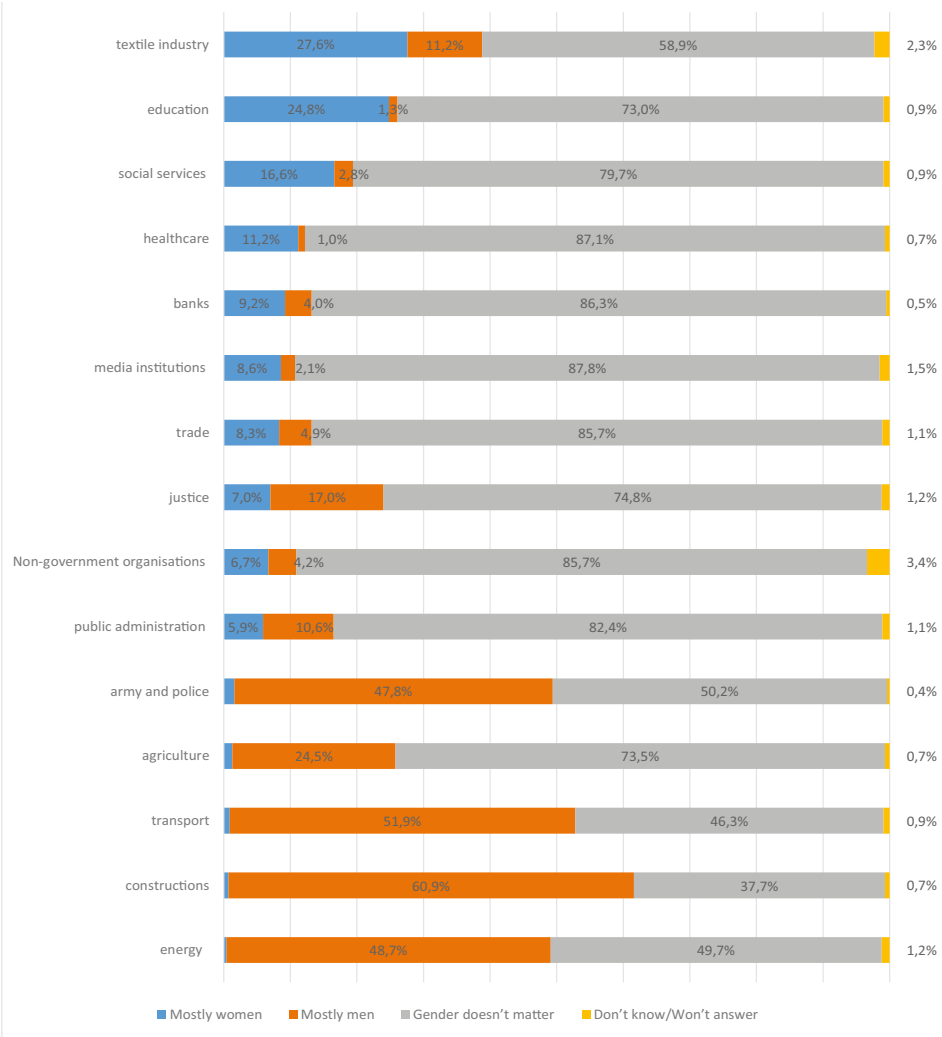


Discrepancies in gender employment on the labor market are strongly related to perceptions of how this involvement should be. An example may serve respondents' opinions about who, women or men, should work in different sectors. Although the majority of respondents tend not to differentiate. However, the share of those who work in some areas, such as the textile industry, education, social service, predominantly women, exceeds essentially the share of people who say these are jobs for men. These areas are in fact 'feminised', most of the workforce being represented by women. The areas where large proportions of respondents claim that men should work are energy, construction, transport, agriculture and armed forces.

Public perceptions go perfectly hand-in-hand with another form of disadvantage in the labor market, linked to salary discrepancies. The salary of a woman in 2015 accounted for only 87% of the average salary of a man. Respondents were asked what would be the salary for which they would accept to change the current workplace. The average value indicated is estimated as MDL 7 588. The same, the discrepancy between

the salary indicated by women and men exceeds even the real labor market discrepancy. Thus, a woman opted for an average salary of MDL 6 659, which represents 76% of the average salary for which men opted (MDL 8 751).

Figure 67.
Gender of persons who should work in the following areas...

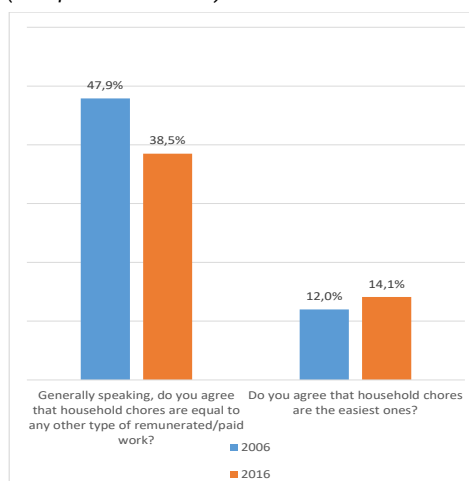


9.3. Private life

Only 38.5% of respondents share the opinion that household chores are equal to any other type of remunerated/paid work. Note that the share of respondents who agree with the statement that household chores are equal to any other types of work decreased compared to 2006. In addition, the majority of respondents disagree with the statement that household chores are the easiest work. A small percentage of respondents consider that household chores are the easiest work, and the opinions are mainly dependent on the level of study of the respondents.

Figure 68.

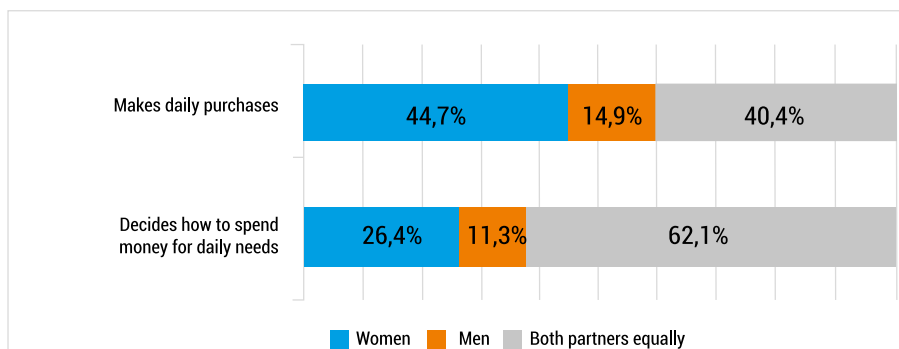
Opinions about the nature of household chores
(% of positive answers)



Another characteristic of gender traditional roles relates to decisions in private life. Women, who are given the leading role in looking after their homes, are also given the decision-making power over spending. They are more often than men responsible for daily shopping, as well as for family spending decisions.

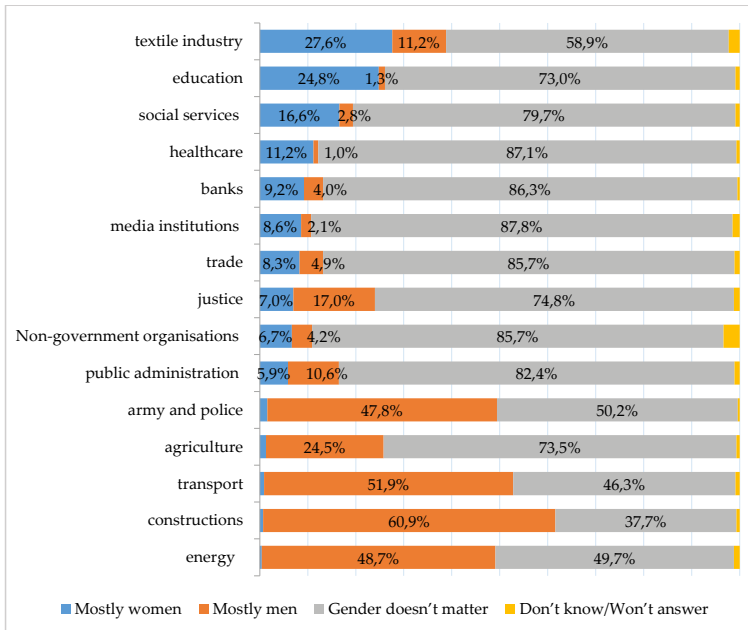
Figure 69.

Opinions about decisions on money spending in household



Women, usually, bear the burden of home activities and childcare. The household chores are the responsibility of both women and men. And only one type of activity - repairing the facilities - is, to a large extent, regarded as men's appanage.

Figure 70.
Opinions about activities usually performed by women vs men in respondents' households



Although childcare is largely ensured by women, the majority opinion on children's education is the responsibility of both parents. Respondents' opinion is that the emphasis should be on different traits in the education of boys and girls. Discipline, obedience, diligence, and order is the set of basic features most often mentioned for both boys and girls. However, the difference in percentages reveals specific features for the education of boys: discipline and courage, and for girls' education – diligence and order. Thus, the 'specialization' of gender occurs early by educating some qualities considered to be specific to boys or girls.

Table 15.

Opinions about the most important features we have to educate in boys and girls

	For boys	For girls	Difference
discipline	65.8%	47.2%	18.6%
obedience/docility	28.0%	33.0%	-5.0%
diligence	25.4%	39.9%	-14.5%
courage	16.8%	3.3%	13.5%
order	10.5%	20.5%	-10.0%
patience	8.4%	8.3%	0.1%
independence	7.3%	6.4%	0.9%
audacity	7.1%	5.7%	1.4%
freedom of choice	5.2%	3.8%	1.4%
sedulity	3.1%	8.1%	-5.0%
education/politeness	2.2%	1.4%	0.8%
all	1.9%	1.8%	0.1%
creativity	1.9%	4.6%	-2.7%
competitiveness	1.5%	1.4%	0.1%
accountability	0.2%	0.3%	-0.1%
wisdom		0.6%	-0.6%

9.4. Violence and discrimination/Aberrant behaviour

During the survey, the respondents were asked for an opinion on the existence of gender discrimination in Moldova. About 40% of respondents consider that this form of discrimination does exist in the Republic of Moldova. Women, urban residents, 18-29 year olds, respondents with high education and socio-economic levels recognize the phenomenon in a higher proportion.

A significant share of respondents have experience of confronting this phenomenon, either personally or with someone in their close social circle. Thus, 12.5% of respondents reported they experienced discrimination in the street, 8.8% – at home, and 8.2% – at work. Both women and men

more frequently cases of discrimination in the street, 13% of women and 11.9% of men. Women, however, in a higher proportion, reported cases of discrimination at home (12.3%) and at work (10.3%). Among men, these proportions are smaller, accounting for around 5% of affirmative responses.

Figure 71.
Presence of gender discrimination in the Republic of Moldova

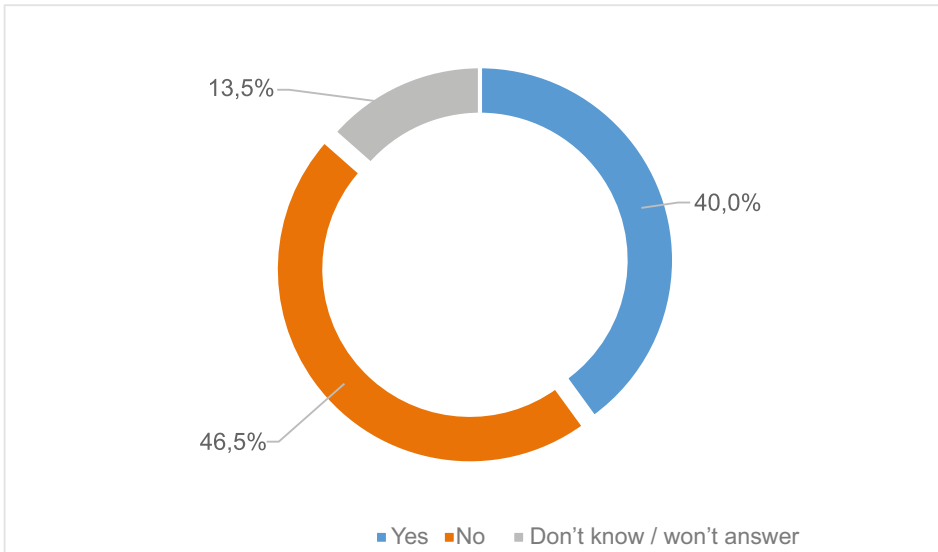
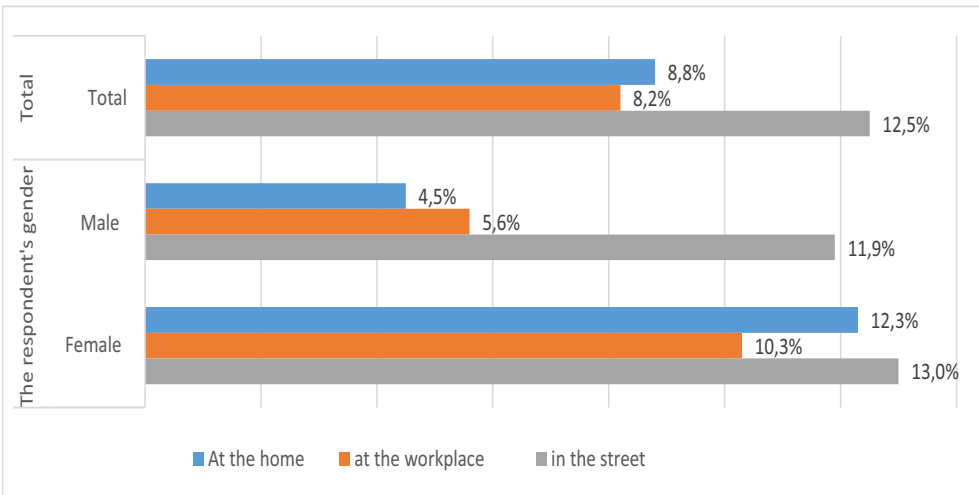
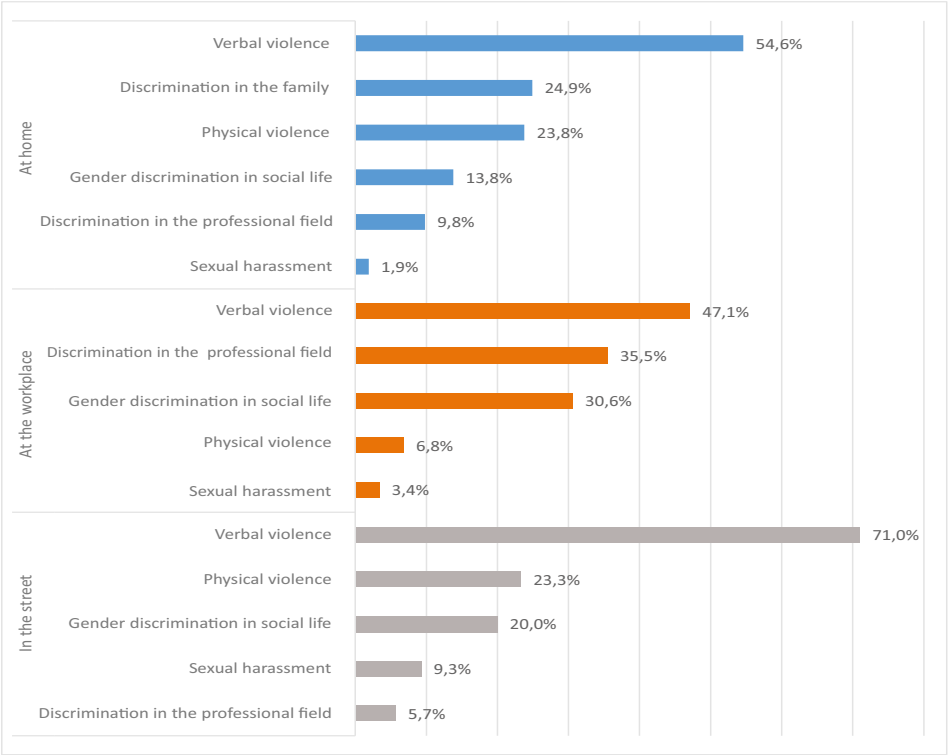


Figure 72.
Place where the relative/friend/acquaintance experienced such a discriminatory situation



Verbal violence is the most frequent type of abuse, produced at home, at the workplace, in the street. Thus, 71.0% of persons who reported cases of violence were subjected to this scourge in the streets, where physical violence and gender discrimination persist (20.0%). Verbal violence is also maintained at high levels in the family (54.6%), followed by discrimination in the family (24.9%) and physical violence (23.8%). The workplace is also an arena where verbal violence has an increased presence (47.1%), so does the discrimination in the professional field (35.5%) and gender discrimination (30.6%).

Figure 73.
Discrimination cases experienced by the person/relative/friend/acquaintance

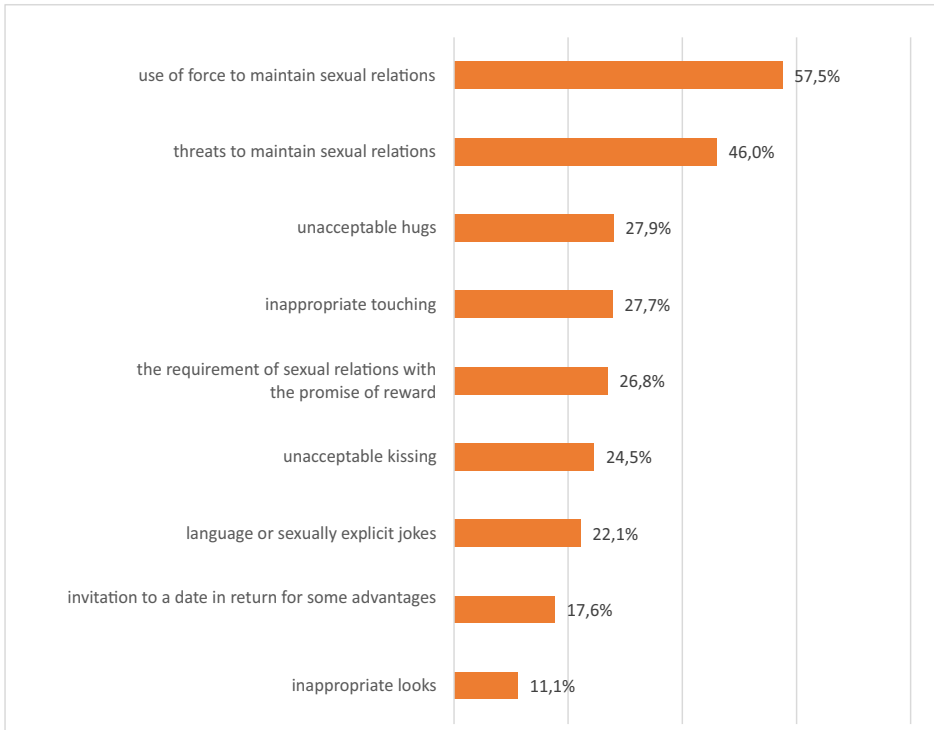


Sexual harassment, though not found among the most common forms of discrimination, is reported by a considerable number of respondents, and 9.3% of them confronted with this phenomenon in the street. Respondents were asked to define the situations perceived as sexual harassment. Thus, 57.5% respondents opted for the use of force to maintain sexual relations,

46% – for threats to maintain sexual relations, about 27% mentioned such situations as unacceptable hugs, inappropriate touching, the requirement of sexual relations with the promise of reward. Note that one in ten respondents classifies inappropriate looks as sexual harassment.

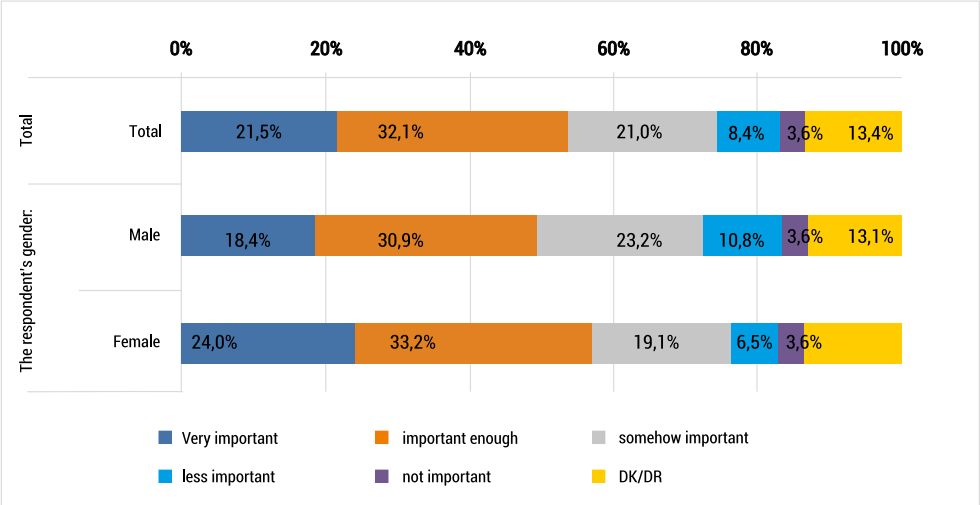
Figure 74.

Situations considered cases of sexual harassment



Sexual harassment seems to be a current on-the-job problem. Over 3/4 of respondents think the sexual harassment phenomenon at the workplace/faculty is a serious problem for the society. This problem is being recognized by higher rates of women, as well as by highly educated and urban respondents, respondents who have children under 4, but also young people aged 18-29.

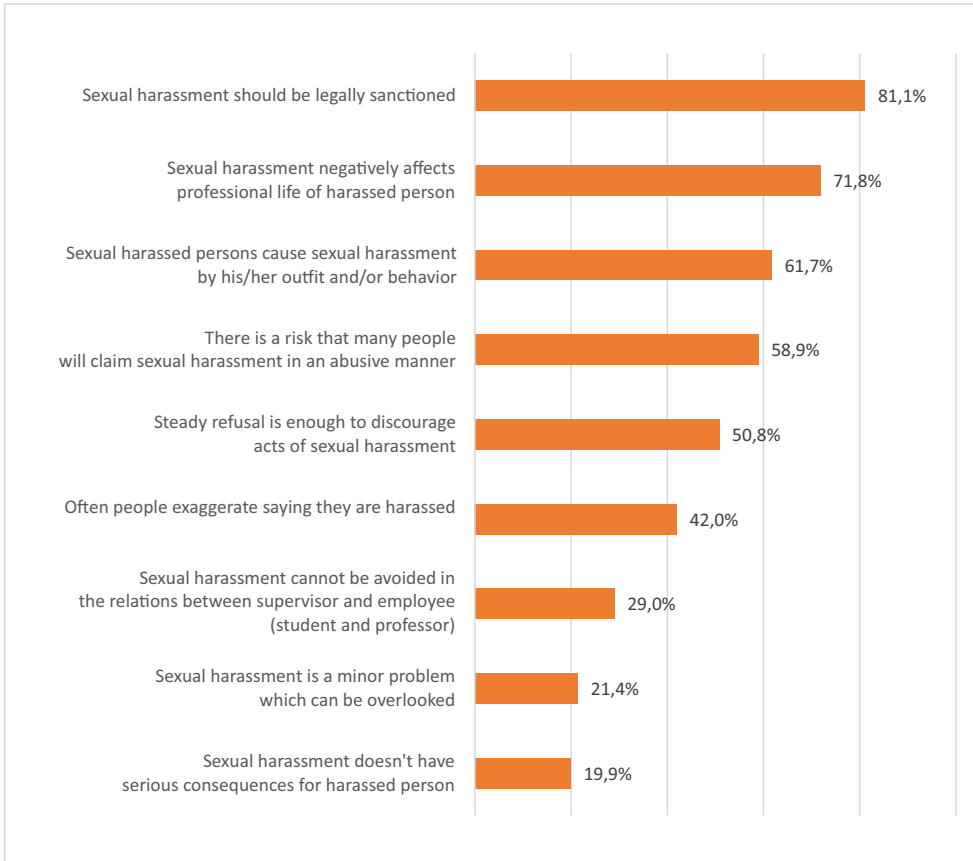
Figure 75.
Opinions about whether sexual harassment phenomenon at the workplace/faculty is a serious problem for the society



Even if the majority of respondents believe that sexual harassment must be legally punished and that this phenomenon has negative effects on professional life, there are also inappropriate perceptions about the phenomenon. Thus, 61.7% of respondents tend to place the cause of the phenomenon on the victim’s responsibility (which would cause harassment by his or her outfit) or that the victims of harassment exaggerate (42.0%). Note that women, in higher proportions than men, think that harassed persons themselves provoke these situations by their outfit or behavior, that sexual harassment cannot be avoided in the relations between the boss and the employee (student and teacher), while men in greater proportion say that people who say they are harassed often exaggerate.

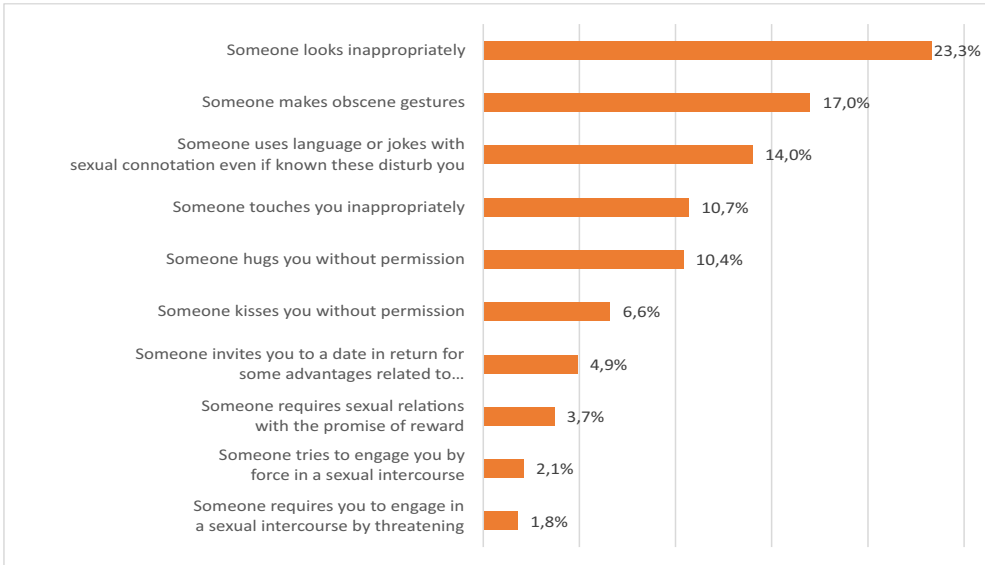
Figure 76.

Attitude of respondents regarding the sexual harassment



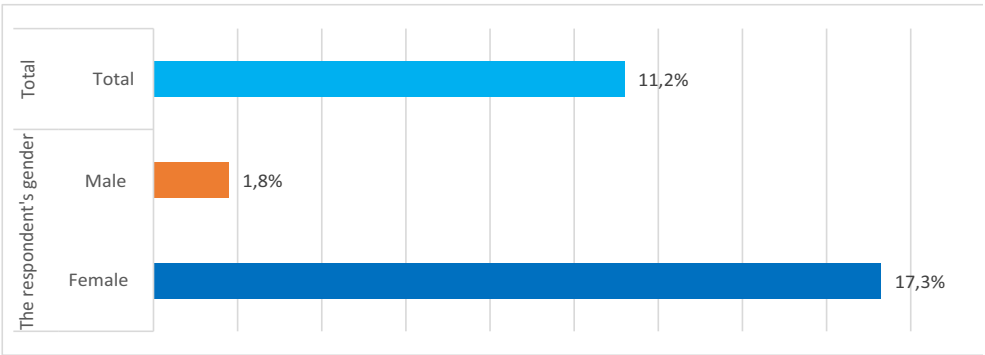
Considerable proportions of respondents report confrontation with the sexual harassment phenomenon. Approximately 23.3% of respondents reported cases when someone looked at them inappropriately, 17% – faced obscene gestures, 14% – sexual jokes, and 10% had situations when they were touched and / or hugged without permission. Women, in a higher proportion than men reported inappropriate looks and / or indecent jokes when they were asked to have sex by means of threats. Men, more frequently than women, recalled situations when they were kissed or hugged without permission.

Figure 77.
Cases when a man / woman showed an attitude with a connotation of sexual harassment to the respondent



Strangers showed an attitude of sexual harassment more frequently. But there are also cases that refer to acquaintances, friends, co-workers, neighbors. One in ten respondents who experienced sexual harassment sought help in order to prevent or stop it. Note that in the majority of cases these are women (share of women is of 17.3% in comparison with only 1.8% among men). Also, young people aged 18 to 29 requested help more often.

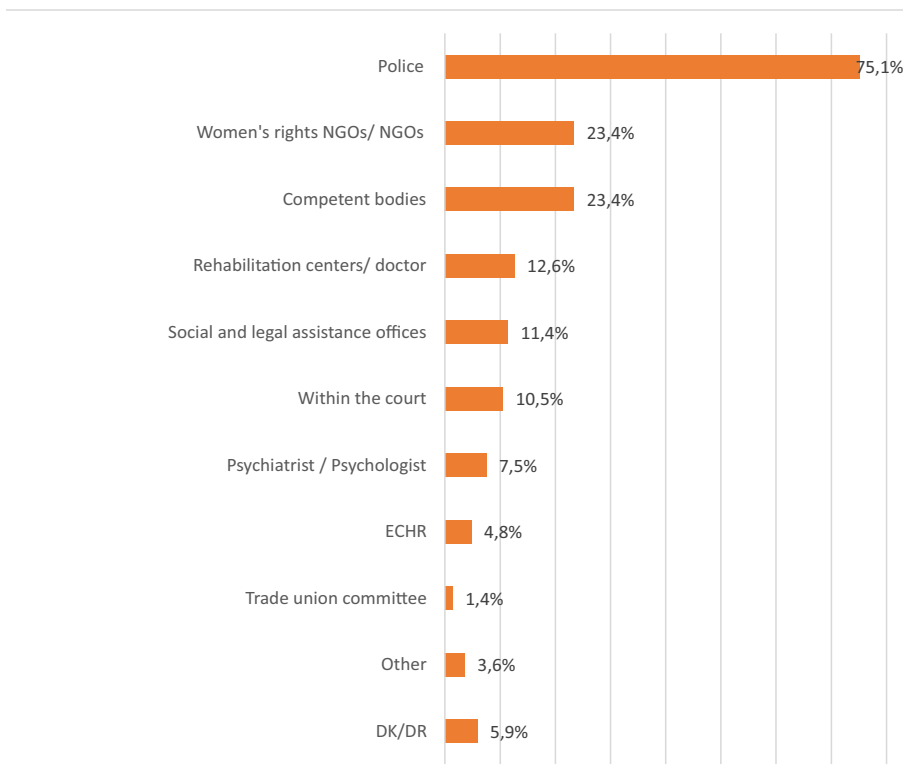
Figure 78.
Cases when did the respondents seek help in order to prevent or stop sexual harassment actions



In order to combat this phenomenon, people resort to the close social circle more often than to state authorities. Respondents requested help from their spouse (22.3%), some of their friends (22.8%), a family member (13.5%), and only 18.6% called the police. Women requested help more often from their husbands (23.9%) and friends (24.3%). Just over half of those who said they were victims of sexual discrimination or sexual harassment said they know their rights in this respect. In order to assist a person subjected to gender discrimination or sexual harassment, $\frac{3}{4}$ of respondents consider the police to be the main institution that can help them; 23.4 percent would resort to women's rights protection organizations: NGOs, competent authorities; 12.6% to Rehabilitation Centers/Doctor. Women more often sought the support of NGOs, while men – of courts.

Figure 79.

Where did the respondents seek help in order to prevent or stop sexual harassment?



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